



IJRASET

International Journal For Research in
Applied Science and Engineering Technology



INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL FOR RESEARCH

IN APPLIED SCIENCE & ENGINEERING TECHNOLOGY

Volume: 11 Issue: IV Month of publication: April 2023

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.22214/ijraset.2023.50627>

www.ijraset.com

Call:  08813907089

E-mail ID: ijraset@gmail.com

Hydrogel

Arushi¹, Ruchi Bharti²

Department of Chemistry, UIS, Chandigarh University, Mohali- 140413, Punjab, India

Abstract: The hydrogel is a tri-polymer network that may soak up body fluids in a biological setting but is not soluble in water. Water can cause the hydrogel to structurally bulge and it can hold a lot of water. Such a polymer network is produced by operating a merging of physical and chemical crosslinking techniques, besides ionic crosslinking, temperature- and optical polymerization, pH-dependent processes, and enzymatic reactions.[1] Physical hydrogels are generally supported by modest secondary forces, whereas covalent forces drive chemical hydrogels. Hydrogel is usually built from an assortment of polymers, both natural and manufactured. The extremely crucial traits of hydrogels are mechanical properties, swelling, and biological characteristics, and every one of them can influence the shape and structure of the hydrogel. Moreover, the structures, classification, advantages, and disadvantages of hydrogel kinds are covered.

Keywords: Biological setting, Ionic Crosslinking, Polymerization, pH-dependent.

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the key areas of study in the field of biomaterials is hydrogels. Hydrogels consist of three-dimensional polymer systems which are water-soluble but have no other solvents because of the appearance of hydrophilic polymers in their composition. yet can immerse significant volumes are biological fluid or water in the body.[2] Between the hydrophilic functional groups in the hydrogels' primary polymer chain, address the hydroxyl groups (OH-), carboxyl (COOH-), amine (NH₂), and sulfate (SO₃H-). Crosslinking that is physical, chemical, or even a combination of all two can create polymeric hydrogels. Hydrogels are special materials because they are flexible, smart, and can store water[3]. These swelling biomaterials become xerogels or dried hydrogels if the water is extracted. Macroporous, microporous, or nonporous network structures are all possible. Large pores ranging in size from 0.1 to 1 μ m are seen in macroporous hydrogels. Hydrogels are microporous and typically have a pore size between 100 and 1000 angstroms. Nonporous hydrogels are mesh-like macromolecules with dimensions typically between 10 and 100 angstroms. Pathogens, immunological reflexes, and inadequate mechanical qualities are all problems with hydrogel built of natural polymers.[4] However, contain a disparity of beneficial qualities, moreover built-in Gelatin, bacteriostatic properties, biomedical applications, biodegradability, and tissue repair characteristics, for instance, collagen, and polymers like agarose and alginate. Synthetic hydrogels can be created utilizing chemical polymerization techniques and lack these inherent bioactive characteristics. Several techniques are premised on genetic engineering and biosynthetic processes may also be utilized to produce distinctive hydrogel materials[5].[6]

II. CLASSIFICATION OF HYDROGEL

Items made of the hydrogel can be classed using the many criteria listed below.

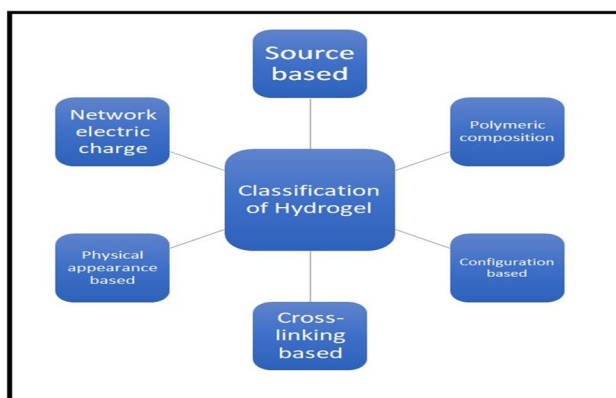


Fig:2.1 Classification of hydrogel

A. Source-based Classification

Hydrogels are divided into two groups based on whether they are organic or synthetic.

B. Based on Polymeric Composition Classification

Several vital hydrogel classes are evolving as a result of the preparation process. They include, for instance, the subsequent:

- a) Homopolymer hydrogels are polymer networks produced by a singular monomer species, and they are regarded as a fundamental structural element of every polymer network. According to the kind of monomer and the method used for polymerization, homopolymers can possess an interconnected skeletal system[7].
- b) The components of copolymeric hydrogels include at least dual distinct monomeric types which are placed suddenly, in blocks, or alternately throughout the network of polymers ring. Each monomer species must have at least one hydrophilic component.[8]

C. Configuration-based Classification

Hydrogels can be categorized as follows based on their chemical and physical composition:

- a) *Chemical Gel*: When hydrogen bonds take the place of stronger and more persistent covalent connections, they worry about being everlasting or chemical gels. They achieve a swelling equilibrium that is denoted through the polymer-water activity coefficient and the cross-link density[9].
- b) *Physical Gel*: When secondary forces keep the networks together like ionic, hydrogen bonding, or hydrophobic interactions, they are remit to be reversible or physical gels. Physical connections between the various polymers gels that are physically cross-linked resist dissolution[10]. Stress or environmental changes have the potential to disrupt every one of these interactions as all of them are reversible.

D. Based on Cross-linking Classification

Whether the cross-linking junctions were chemical or physical, hydrogels can be categorized into two groups[11]. Temporary junctions in the physical lattice can be caused by polymeric chain entanglements or physical interactions like ionic contacts, hydrogen bonds, and hydrophobic interactions, as opposed to networks with chemical cross-linking that have enduring intersections[12].

E. Classifying According to Appearance

What a hydrogel looks like a matrix, film, and microsphere resorts to the polymerization methods used during the creation[13].

F. Classification Based on an Electrical Charge Network

- 1) Nonionic.
- 2) Zwitter ionic (polybetaines) holding each structurally recurring unit comprises both cationic and anionic groups[14].
- 3) Ionic (inclusive anionic or cationic).
- 4) An amphipathic solution that contains simultaneously acidic and basic ions[13].

III. MECHANISM OF HYDROGEL FORMATION

Due to their availability, the presence of changeable functional groups, biocompatibility, and other qualities, polymers are carbohydrate materials that are frequently employed to create physical and chemical hydrogels. By choosing the kind of monomer or polymer and the kind of hydrogel formation processes, hydrogels can be created specifically for a given application. Two processes—chemical crosslinking and physical crosslinking are used to create hydrogels[15].

A. Cross-linking of Polymer

This process creates radical-induced chemically crosslinked gels, polymerizing subunits with a tiny molecular weight, branching homopolymers, or copolymers in the existence of a crosslinking agent. Mostly, this response is conducted in solutions for biological applications[16].

B. Crosslinking/Copolymerization Interactions

Several hydrogels, including polymer hydrogels, are generated using copolymerization procedures to make polymeric gels (hydroxyalkyl methyl acrylates).

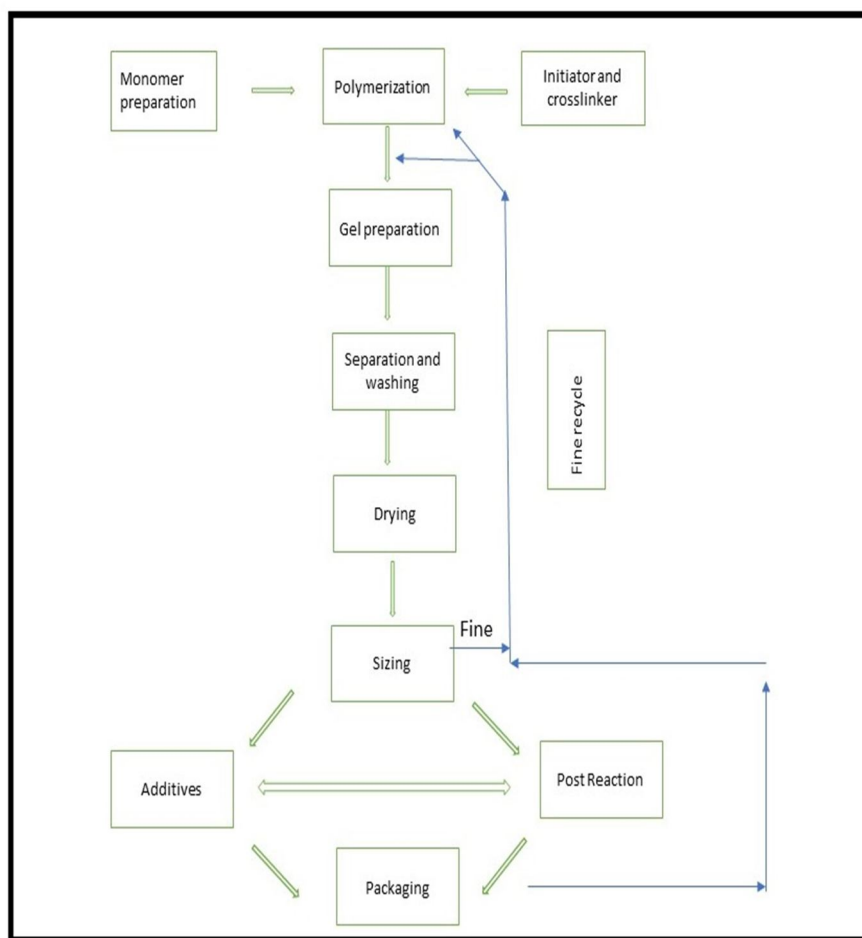


Fig 3.1: Hydrogel Preparation by polymerization

C. Highly Energetic Radiant Crosslinking

Unimpregnated chemicals can be polymerized using high-powered emission, like that from gamma and electron beams. By utilizing high-powered radiation, hydrogels can be created by converting water-soluble polymers that have been repeated this process with vinyl groups[17].

D. Complex Coacervation

A polyanion and a polycation can be combined to create complex coacervate gels. According to the concentration and pH of the corresponding solutions, polymers with opposing charges will stick together and create soluble or insoluble complexes. One such example is coacervating polyanionic xanthan with polycationic chitosan. Proteins below its isoelectric point are positively charged and likely to associate with anionic hydrocolloids and form polyion complex hydrogel (complex coacervate)[18].

IV. DRUG DELIVERY TECHNIQUES

A. Diffusion Management

The largest typical hydrogel drug release is regulated by diffusion. Models for diffusion-controlled release frequently using either constant or variable flow properties, Fick's law of diffusion. Drug diffusivities are typically calculated empirically or predicated on theories based on free volume, blockage, or hydrodynamics[19].

B. Chemical Control

The term "chemically-controlled release" refers to molecular loosening regulated via internal delivery matrix processes. The cleavage of polymer chains along hydrolytic or enzymatic degradation, as well as reversible or irreversible reactions among the polymer network and a discharge drug, are the events that occur most frequently in hydrogel delivery systems. Under specific accidents, hydrogels' surface or bulk erosion will regulate the pace of drug loosening[20]. The pace of medication delivery could also be resolved by the equilibria of drug-binding moieties are added to the hydrogels. The sort of chemical reaction that takes place at the time of medication discharge might further define the chemically-controlled release. In general, decrease in pendant chain quality, surface erosion, or bonds that make bulk deterioration can result in the discharge of medications that are contained or attached[21].

C. Swelling Controlled

When drug diffusion is quicker than hydrogel swelling, swelling-controlled release happens. When simulating this mechanism, changing boundaries Cond is frequently used to represent the contact between the rubbery and glassy phases of inflated hydrogels, where molecules are liberated[22].

V. APPLICATION OF HYDROGEL-

There are numerous uses for hydrogels. This is owing to their exclusive structures and their potential for diversified use examples. Because of their water content and flexibility, hydrogels are used in an assortment, ranging from commercial to natural, and their applications in the medical field have been promoted through the biocompatibility of the materials used in their production as well as the chemical behavior of the environments, which can be non-toxic[6].

A. Drug Delivery

Regular drug formulations have many limits, but controlled drug delivery systems (DDS) have been utilized to administer medications at specific rates for predetermined amounts of time. Hydrogels are a fantastic option for applications requiring medication delivery due to their exceptional characteristics. By managing two variables, high porosity hydrogel structures can be produced: the degree of matrix cross-linking and the hydrogel's affinity for the aqueous environment where swelling takes place. Drugs can be put into hydrogels and released under the right circumstances because of their porous architecture, making them highly permeable to many pharmaceuticals[23].

B. Ph-sensitive Hydrogels in DDS

One of the crucial environmental elements for DDS is pH because it changes in various particular or diseased body areas. The pH of the human body varies in various places, including some tissues (including tumoral regions), subcellular compartments, and the gastrointestinal system[24]. In pH-sensitive DDS, both acidic and basic polymers are used. The most widely utilized acidic polymers for drug delivery include PAA, PMAA, poly(L-glutamic acid), and polymers containing sulfonamide. Examples of common basic polyelectrolytes include biodegradable poly (-amino ester), poly(2-vinylpyridine), poly(2-(diethylamino) ethyl methacrylate), and poly(2-(diethylamino) ethyl methacrylate). Moreover, pH-sensitive hydrogels were utilized for various extraction and methodology objectives[25].

C. DDS uses Temperature-sensitive Hydrogels

Like pH-responsive systems, thermosensitive polymers provide a wide range of potential applications in biomedicine[26]. Poly(N-isopropylacrylamide) (PNIPAAm) and poly(N, N-diethylacrylamide) (PDEAAm) are two examples of the numerous applications for temperature-sensitive polymers[27].

D. Contact Lenses

Ophthalmology, particularly contact lenses, is a crucial field in the application of synthetic hydrogels for bio applications. A contact lens is a tiny optical device applied directly to the cornea to change the corneal power[28].

The popularly known "TRIS" siloxymethacrylate monomer allows for high oxygen permeability. The TRIS structure's methylene groups serve as the locations for hydrophilic alteration. To lessen the drying of the lenses when wearing them normally, it is feasible to add linear or branched hydrophilic polymer chains into the polymer's structure to create an interpenetrated network. This indicates that the "wetting chains" have no covalent linkages to the network of patterned hydrogels and are only held in place by physical connections[29].

E. Wound Healing

Hydrogels from modified polysaccharides in cartilage are employed to cure cartilage abnormalities[30]. For instance, blood coagulants are combined with gelatin and polyvinyl alcohol to generate hydrogel[31].

F. Cosmetology

When inserted into breasts and under the eyes, hydrogels highlight them for aesthetic reasons These implants are filled with gels made of hydroxypropyl cellulose polysaccharide and have a silicon elastomer outer shell[32].

G. Gene Delivery

Effective targeting and distribution of nucleic acids to specific cells for gene therapy are enabled by a change in hydrogel composition[33]. The use of hydrogels in the treatment of numerous hereditary or acquired disorders has more potential[34]

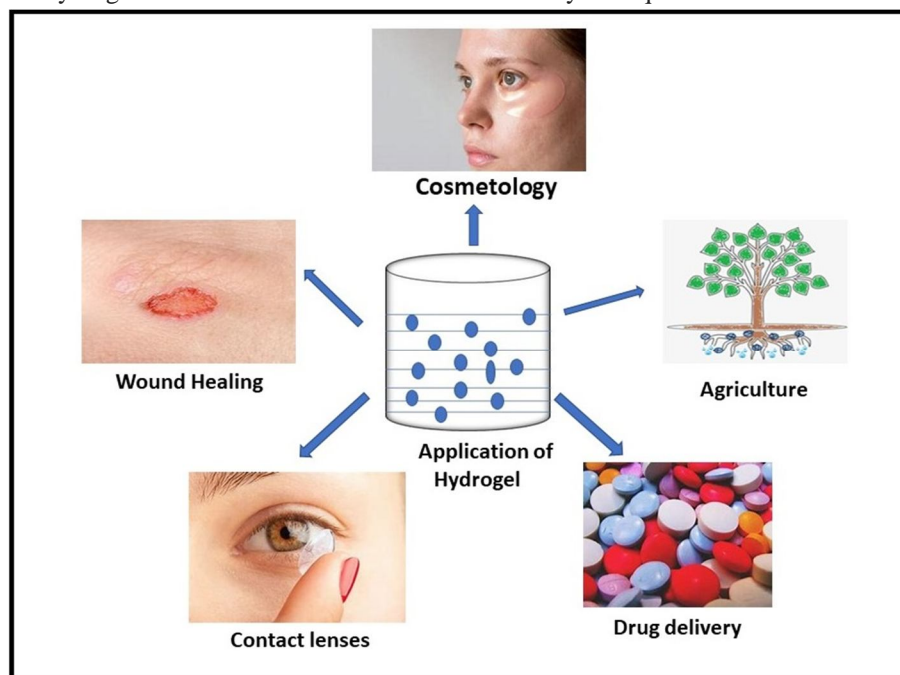


FIG 5.1: Application of hydrogel

VI. ADVANTAGES OF HYDROGEL

- A. Environmentally keen hydrogels-These hydrogels can identify changes in metabolite concentration, temperature, or pH and loosen their laden as an outcome[35].
- B. Stronger and more elastic is a hydrogel.
- C. Low toxicity is a boon for encasing microbial organisms like microbes in polyurethane hydrogel beads[36].
- D. For tissue engineering, natural hydrogel substances like agarose, hyaluronan, methylcellulose, and different naturally generated polymers are being researched[37].
- E. In contrast to conventional microvalves, hydrogel-based microvalves have several advantages, as well as relatively simple construction, no need for external power, substantial force generation, no integrated electronics, huge and displacement[38].

VII.DISADVANTAGES OF HYDROGEL

- 1) The exorbitant price and the unpleasant perceptions caused by the maggots' movement are vital drawbacks.
- 2) The danger of operation and thrombosis at anastomosis sites connected to Putting the gadget in place are some of its drawbacks.
- 3) Hydrogels never adhere, a secondary dressing can be necessary to keep them in place[39].
- 4) Red eye symptoms, hypoxic, fatigue, and lens erosion are drawbacks of applying hydrogel in contact lenses[40].

VIII. CONCLUSION

This review dispute hydrogel and its types, properties, and mechanism application. There are plenty of various techniques for crosslinking structures regarding hydrogel are covered. The structures of compounds and applications like pH-sensitive, temperature, and wound healing several are discussed. Other than that, advantages and disadvantages are mentioned. Hydrogels much more closely mimic genuine living tissue in contrast to some different classes of synthetic biomaterials because of their high-water contents and softness. They can be created to respond at a predetermined level to a particular stimulus, in particular pH, light, temperature, and so on, making them stimuli sensitive. In addition, supercapacitors, which promise the fastest advancements in electronics, are often designed and made using conducting hydrogels.

REFERENCES

- [1] A. Cretu, R. Gattin, L. Brachais, D. Barbier-Baudry, *Polym. Degrad. Stab.* 83 (2004) 399–404.
- [2] F. Ullah, M.B.H. Othman, F. Javed, Z. Ahmad, H.M. Akil, *Mater. Sci. Eng. C* 57 (2015) 414–433.
- [3] S.H. Kim, Y. Sun, J.A. Kaplan, M.W. Grinstaff, J.R. Parquette, *New J. Chem.* 39 (2015) 3225–3228.
- [4] (1960).
- [5] M. Verhulsel, M. Vignes, S. Descroix, L. Malaquin, D.M. Vignjevic, J.-L. Viovy, *Biomaterials* 35 (2014) 1816–1832.
- [6] M.J. Majcher, T. Hoare, *Applications of Hydrogels*, 2019.
- [7] M. Bahram, N. Mohseni, M. Moghtader, *Emerg. Concepts Anal. Appl. Hydrogels* (2016).
- [8] H. Chamkouri, *Am. J. Biomed. Sci. Res.* 11 (2021) 485–493.
- [9] H. El-Ramady, A. El-Henawy, M. Amer, A.E.-D. Omara, T. Elsakhawy, H. Elbasiouny, F. Elbehiry, D. Abou Elyazid, M. El-Mahrouk, *Egypt. J. Soil Sci.* 0 (2020) 0–0
- [10] D.L. Alge, M.A. Azagarsamy, D.F. Donohue, K.S. Anseth, *Biomacromolecules* 14 (2013) 949–953.
- [11] R.D. Kasai, D. Radhika, S. Archana, H. Shanavaz, R. Koutavarapu, D.-Y. Lee, J. Shim, *Int. J. Polym. Mater. Polym. Biomater.* (2022) 1–11.
- [12] B.S. Kaith, A. Singh, A.K. Sharma, D. Sud, *J. Polym. Environ.* 29 (2021) 3827–3841.
- [13] S. Garg, A. Garg, *Asian J. Biomater. Res.* 2 (2016) 163–170.
- [14] Y. Guo, J. Bae, Z. Fang, P. Li, F. Zhao, G. Yu, *Chem. Rev.* 120 (2020) 7642–7707.
- [15] L. Lu, S. Yuan, J. Wang, Y. Shen, S. Deng, L. Xie, Q. Yang, *Curr. Stem Cell Res. Ther.* 13 (2018) 490–496.
- [16] M.F. Akhtar, M. Hanif, N.M. Ranjha, *Saudi Pharm. J.* 24 (2016) 554–559.
- [17] J. Maitra, V. Shukla, *Am J Polym Sci* 4 (2014) 25–31.
- [18] Y.P. Timilsena, T.O. Akanbi, N. Khalid, B. Adhikari, C.J. Barrow, *Int. J. Biol. Macromol.* 121 (2019) 1276–1286.
- [19] K. Sun, Y. Hu, Y. Dong, L. Yao, R. Song, Y. Xu, *Friction* 11 (2023) 602–616.
- [20] G.D. Nicodemus, S.J. Bryant, *J. Biomech.* 41 (2008) 1528–1536.
- [21] T.R. Hoare, D.S. Kohane, *Polymer (Guildf)*. 49 (2008) 1993–2007.
- [22] M. Vigata, C. Meinert, D.W. Huttmacher, N. Bock, *Pharmaceutics* 12 (2020)
- [23] J. Li, D.J. Mooney, *Nat. Rev. Mater.* 1 (2016) 16071.
- [24] H. Cao, L. Duan, Y. Zhang, J. Cao, K. Zhang, *Signal Transduct. Target. Ther.* 6 (2021) 426.
- [25] M.R. Bayat, M. Baghani, *J. Intell. Mater. Syst. Struct.* 32 (2021) 2349–2365.
- [26] Q. Zhang, C. Weber, U.S. Schubert, R. Hoogenboom, *Mater. Horizons* 4 (2017) 109–116.
- [27] S.R. Djafari Petroudy, S. Arjmand Kahagh, E. Vatankhah, *Carbohydr. Polym.* 251 (2021) 117087.
- [28] E. Caló, V. V. Khutoryanskiy, *Eur. Polym. J.* 65 (2015) 252–267.
- [29] C.S.A. Musgrave, F. Fang, *Mater. (Basel, Switzerland)* 12 (2019).
- [30] G.D. Nicodemus, S.J. Bryant, *Tissue Eng. Part B. Rev.* 14 (2008) 149–165.
- [31] Y. Liang, J. He, B. Guo, *ACS Nano* 15 (2021) 12687–12722.
- [32] S. Mitura, A. Sionkowska, A. Jaiswal, *J. Mater. Sci. Mater. Med.* 31 (2020) 50.
- [33] F. Mo, K. Jiang, D. Zhao, Y. Wang, J. Song, W. Tan, *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 168 (2021) 79–98.
- [34] P. Chawla, A.R. Srivastava, P. Pandey, V. Chawla, *Mini Rev. Med. Chem.* 14 (2014) 154–167.
- [35] (n.d.).
- [36] K. Varaprasad, G.M. Raghavendra, T. Jayaramudu, M.M. Yallapu, R. Sadiku, *Mater. Sci. Eng. C* 79 (2017) 958–971.
- [37] F. Guilak, D.L. Butler, S.A. Goldstein, F.P.T. Baaijens, *J. Biomech.* 47 (2014) 1933–1940.
- [38] X. Yu, Y. Jiao, Q. Chai, *Nano Life* 06 (2016) 1642001
- [39] T. Luo, B. Tan, L. Zhu, Y. Wang, J. Liao, *Front. Bioeng. Biotechnol.* 10 (2022) 1–18.
- [40] S. Garg, A. Garg, *Asian J. Biomater. Res.* 2 (2016) 163–170.



10.22214/IJRASET



45.98



IMPACT FACTOR:
7.129



IMPACT FACTOR:
7.429



INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL FOR RESEARCH

IN APPLIED SCIENCE & ENGINEERING TECHNOLOGY

Call : 08813907089  (24*7 Support on Whatsapp)