## <u>HIGH PERFORMANCE LIQUID</u> <u>CHROM&TOGR&PHY</u>



Dr. J. P. Gokhale Asst. Professor JES's College of Pharmacy, Nandurbar

## CHROM&TOGR&PHY:

- Chromatography: method of separating a mixture of components into individual components.
- based on the differences in the rate at which the components of a mixture move through a porous medium(stationary phase) under the influence of some solvent or gas(mobile phase).

## WHY USE HPLC?

- Simultaneous analysis
- High resolution
- High sensitivity
- Good repeatability
- Easy to fractionate and purify
- Not destructive

#### HPLC

- HPLC- It was originally referred to as High Pressure Liquid
  Chromatography since high pressure is applied using a pumping system to the column.
- This pressure works by forcing the mobile phase through, at much higher rate increasing the resolution power.
- Due to its high efficiency and performance HPLC is referred to as High Performance Liquid Chromatography.

### TÝPES OF LIQUID CHROMATOGRAPHÝ

LC mode	Packing materials	Mobile phase	Interaction
Normal phase chromatography	Silica gel	n-Hexane/IPE	Adsorption
Reversed phase chromatography	Silica-C18(ODS)	MeOH/Water	Hydrophobic
Size exclusion chromatography	Porous polymer	THF	Gel permeation
Ion exchange chromatography	Ion exchange gel	Buffer sol.	lon exchange
Affinity chromatography	Packings with ligand	Buffer sol.	Affinity

#### 1.NORMAL PHASE CHROMATOGRAPHY:

- <u>Stationary Phase</u> Polar , Eg: SiO2,Al2O3
- <u>Mobile Phase</u> Non-Polar
  Eg:heptane,hexane,cyclohexane,CHCl3,CH3OH
- Mechanism:
- ✓ Polar compounds travels slower & eluted slowly due to higher affinity to stationary phase
- ✓ Non-polar compounds travels faster & eluted 1<sup>st</sup> due to lower affinity to stationary phase.
- This technique is not widely used in pharmaceutical separations.

#### 3. Separation mode

#### Normal Phase Chromatography

Mobile phase solvents

n-Hexane	(n-Hex)	Low
iso-Octane	(iso-Oct)	LOW
Chloroform	(CHCI <sub>3</sub> )	
Dichloromethane	(CH <sub>2</sub> Cl <sub>2</sub> )	
Ethylacetate	(AcOEt)	
Isopropylalchol	(IPA)	
Tetrahydrofran	(THF)	Polarity
Dioxane		. chanty
Acetonitrile	(CH <sub>3</sub> CN)	
Ethanol	(EtOH)	
Methanol	(MeOH)	
Amines		
Acids		High
Acetonitrile Ethanol Methanol Amines Acids	(CH <sub>3</sub> CN) (EtOH) (MeOH)	Hig

#### 2.REVERSE PHASE CHROMATOGRAPHY:

Stationary Phase – Non-Polar nature.

Eg: n-octadecyl, n-octyl, ethyl, phenyl diol, hydrophobic polymers.

<u>Mobile Phase</u> – Polar nature.

Eg: methanol or acetonitrile/water or buffer sometimes with additives of THF or dioxane.

#### Mechanism:

- ✓ Polar compounds travels faster & eluted 1st due to lesser affinity to st.phase
- ✓ Non-Polar compounds travels slower & eluted slowly due to higher affinity to st.phase

### TYPES OF HPLC DEPENDS ON:



- Molecular weight of solute
- Water solubility of solute
- Polarity of solute
- Ionic and non-ionic character

#### of solute

#### **PRINCIPLE:**

- The principle of separation is **adsorption** .
- based on the difference in the affinity of the compounds towards stationary phase as in the normal and reverse phase.
- The **lesser the affinity** of the sample particles towards the stationary phase the **faster the time of elution** of the sample.

#### **Separation Mechanism**

Due to different interaction between stationary phase and different sample, the molecules move at different rate, therefore separation can be done.

Stronger interaction Stationary Phase

**Mobile Phase** 

#### PARTITION CHROMATOGRAPHY:

- In this the stationary phase is a liquid which is coated on the solid support on the column.
- The mobile phase is also a liquid.

12

- When solute along with the mobile phase is passed over the stationary phase it gets dissolved to the surface of the liquid coated to the solid support.
- The compounds which have more partition co-efficient are eluted slowly when compared to the compounds with low partition co-efficient.

#### ADSORPTION CHROMATOGRAPHY:



#### PARTITION CHROMATOGRAPHY:



#### INSTRUMENT&TION OF HPLC

- Solvent storage bottle
- Gradient controller and mixing unit
- De-gassing of solvents
- Pump
- Pressure gauge
- Pre-column
- Sample introduction system
- Column
- Detector
- Recorder

#### FLOW DIAGRAM OF HPLC INSTRUMENT





### \*GRADIENT CONTROLLER

- Isocratic solvents- mobile phase is prepared by using pure solvent or mixture of solvents which has same eluting power or polarity.
- **Gradient solvents-** in this the polarity of the solvent is gradually increased & hence the solvent composition has to be changed.

## **Elution Modes**







#### DEGASSING OF SOLVENTS:

- Several gases are soluble in organic solvents, when high pressure is pumped, the formation of gas bubbles increases which interferes with the separation process, steady baseline & shape of the peak.
  <u>Vacuum filtration</u>: by applying a partial vacuum to the solvent container.
- <u>Helium Purging</u>: Done by passing Helium through the solvent. This is very effective but Helium is expensive.
- <u>Ultrasonication</u>: Done by using ultrasonication which converts ultra high frequency to mechanical vibrations.

#### �₽UMP:

- The solvents or mobile phase must be passed through a column at high pressures at up to 6000 psi(lb/in<sup>2</sup>) or 414 bar.
- As the particle size of stationary phase is smaller (5 to  $10\mu$ ) the resistance to the flow of solvent will be high.
- That is, smaller the particle size of the stationary phase the greater is the resistance to the flow of solvents.
- Hence high pressure is recommended.

#### ► REQUIREMENTS FOR PUMPS:

- Generation of pressure of about **5000 psi**.
- all materials in the pump should be **chemically resistant** to solvents.
- Flow rates ranging from **0.1 to 10 mL/min**
- Pumps should be capable of taking the solvent from a single reservoir or more than one reservoir containing different solvents simultaneously.



#### PUMP A

#### PUMP B



#### ≻DISPL&CEMENT PUMPS

- It consists of large, syringe like chambers equipped with a plunger activated by a screw driven mechanism powered by a stepping motor.
- <u>Advantages</u>:- It produces a flow that tends to be independent of viscosity & back pressure.
- <u>Disadvantages</u>:- It has a limited solvent capacity( $\sim 250$ ) & considerably inconvenient when solvents must be changed.



### ≻RECIPROCATING PUMPS:

• This pump transmits alternative pressure to the solvent via a flexible diaphragm ,which in turn is hydraulically pumped by a reciprocating pump.

#### DISADVANTAGES:-

Produces a pulsed flow which is damped because pulses appear as baseline noise on the chromatograph



- motor driven piston :Solvent is pumped back and forth
- Two check valves (open & close): controls the flow



#### Advantages:

- Have small internal volume of 35-400µL
- Higher output pressures up to **10,000** psi.
- Adaptability to gradient elution.
- Large solvent capacities & constant flow rates.
- Largely independent of column back pressure & solvent viscosity.

### ≻PNEUM&TIC PUMPS:

- the mobile phase is driven through the column with the use of pressure produced from a gas cylinder.
- It has limited capacity of solvent
- Due to solvent viscosity back pressure may develop.



### **COLUMN:**

- Types:
- Guard Column
- Derivatizing Column
- Capillary Column
- Fast column
- Analytical Column
- Preparatory Column



#### ≻GUARD COLUMN:

- Guard columns are placed anterior to the separating column.
- This protects and prolongs the life & usefulness of the separating column.
- They are dependable columns designed to filter or remove:-
- $\checkmark$  particles that clog the separating column,
- ✓ compounds and ions that causes decreased resolution, decreased sensitivity and create false peaks.

 Compounds that may cause precipitation upon contact with the stationary or mobile phase.

✓ Compounds that cause irrelevant peaks & interfere with the detection and quantification.

✓ These columns must be changed on a regular basis in order to optimize their protectiveness.

### >DERIVATIZING COLUMN

- Derivatization involves a chemical reaction between an analyte and a reagent to change the chemical and physical properties of an analyte.
- The four main uses of derivatization in HPLC are:
- ✓ Improve detectability,
- Change the molecular structure or polarity of analyte for better chromatography,
- ✓ Change the matrix for better separation,
- ✓ Stabilize a sensitive analyte.

- Pre or post primary column derivatization can be done.
- Derivatization techniques includes –acetylation, silylation, acid hydrolysis.
- **<u>DISADVANTAGES</u>**: It becomes a complex procedure and so it acts as a source of error to analysis and increases the total analysis time.
- <u>**ADVANTAGES</u>**: Although derivatization has drawbacks, it may still be required to solve a specific separation or detection problem.</u>

### >CAPILLARY COLUMNS:

- HPLC led to smaller analytical columns called as microcolumns, capillary columns which have diameter less than a millimeter.
- Sample used is in nanolitre volumes, decreased flow rate, decreased solvent volume usage which leads to cost effectiveness.
- <u>Disadvantage</u>:- since it is miniatured, flow rate is difficult to produce & gradient elution is not efficient.

- MICROBORE and SMALLBORE columns are also used for analytical and small volumes assay.
- Diameter of small-bore columns is **1-2**mm.
- The instrument must also be modified to accommodate these smaller capacity columns.

#### ≻ FAST COLUMNS:

- This column also have the same internal diameter but much shorter length than other columns & packed with particles of 3µm in diameter.
- Advantages: Increased sensitivity, decreased analysis time, decreased mobile phase usage & increased reproducibility.

#### ≻ ANALYTICAL COLUMN:

- Length- 5 to 25 cm ,Internal Diameter 3 to 5mm.
- Particle size of packing material is 3 to  $5\mu$ m.

### >PREPARATORY COLUMN:

- •Length -10 to 15 cm, Int. diameter -4.6mm
- •Packed with particles having 5µm as diameter.
- •Columns of this time generate 10,000 plates per column.
- •It consists of back pressure regulator and **fraction collector.**

### **\***SAMPLE INJECTOR SYSTEM:

- Several injector devices are available either for manual or auto injection of the sample.
  - (i) Septum Injector
  - (ii)Stop Flow Injector
  - (iii)Rheodyne Injector



**Rheodyne Manual injector** 

#### (i)Septum Injector:

• used for injecting the sample through a rubber septum. cannot be commonly used , since the septum has to withstand high pressures.

### (ii)Stop Flow(On Line):

 mobile phase is stopped for a while & the sample is injected through a valve.

#### (iii)Rheodyne injector:

41

- most popular injector and is widely used.
- This has a fixed volume of loop, for holding sample until its

injected into the column, like  $20\mu$ L,  $50\mu$ L or more.

- Through an injector the sample is introduced into the column.
- The injector is positioned just before the inlet of the column.

#### **SELECTION VALVE:**

By using the selection valve we can select whether the purpose is for analytical purpose or preparative purpose.

#### LOAD POSITION: In

this position the sample is loaded into the sample loop .

**INJECT POSITION:** In thisposition the loaded sample is injected into the column by

the forcful flow of the solvent into the sample loop by which the sample is introduced into the column.

42

## **HPLC** Auto Injectors





Inside of SIL-20AC

#### >COLUMN TEMPERATURE CONTROLLER:

- For obtaining better and reproducible chromatograms constant column temperature should be maintained.
- Some are equipped with heater/ water to give precise temperature control.

#### TYPES OF DETECTORS

<u>General</u> – respond to MP bulk properties which vary in the presence of solutes. (e.g. refractive index) <u>Specific</u> – respond to some specific property of the solute (not possessed by MP (e.g. UV absorption)

"<u>Hyphenated</u>" detector – LC-MS

### **DETECTORS:**



### **\***DETECTORS:

- Absorbance (UV/Vis)
- Refractive index (detects the change in turbidity)
- Fluorescence (if the analyte is fluorescent)
- Electrochemical (measures current flowing through a pair of electrodes, on which a potential difference is imposed, due to oxidation or reduction of solute)
- Conductivity (for ions)
- Light scattering
- Mass spectrometry (HPLC-MS)

### \*ABSORBANCE DETECTORS:

- The UV/Vis source usually comes from a monochromator so the wavelength can be selected, or scanned.
- Fixed wavelength-measures at single wavelength usually 254nm.
- Variable wavelength-measures at single wavelength at a time but can detect over a wide range of wavelengths simultaneously.

## **Refractive Index Detector**



### REFRACTIVE INDEX (RI) DETECTOR:

• Nearly universal but poor detection limit.



- Detection occurs when the light is bent due to samples eluting from the columns, and this is read as a disparity b/w the two channels.
- It is not much used for analytical applications because of low sensitivity & specificity.

#### >FLUORIMETRIC DETECTORS:

- It is based on the fluorescent radiation emitted by some compounds.
- The excitation source passes through the flow cell to a photodetector while a monochromator measures the emission wavelengths.
- More sensitive and specific.
- The disadvantge is that most compounds are not fluorescent in nature.

#### Fluorescence of Compounds

Fluorescence is a type of luminescence in which the light energy is released in the form of a photon in nanoseconds to microseconds



#### DIAGRAM OF FLUORESCENCE DETECTORS



## Fluorescence

## Detector

#### Advantage

- Sensitivity is higher than UV-Vis detector
- Selectivity is high because relatively few compounds fluorescence
- Compatible with gradient elution

#### Disadvantage

- Difficult to predict fluorescence
- Greatly affected by environment
  - Solvent
  - рН
  - Temperature
  - Viscosity
  - Ionic strength
  - Dissolved gas

### > AMPEROMETRIC DETECTOR:

- based on the reducing and oxidizing property of the sample when a potential is applied.
- The diffusion current recorded is directly proportional to the concentration of the compound recorded.
- DISADVANTAGE: This detector is applicable only when the functional groups present in the sample can be either oxidized or reduced.
- ADVANTAGE: Highly sensitive detector.

### AMPEROMETRIC DETECTOR:



**Figure 28-13** Amperometric thin-layer detector cell for HPLC.

### **Instrumentation of UV-Vis Detector**



### **Ultraviolet / Visible Detector**

#### Advantage:

- Sensitivity is high
- Relative robust to temperature and flow rate change
- Compatible with gradient elution

#### Disadvantage:

• Only compounds with UV or visible absorption could be detected.

#### **Additional Functions**

- Dual Wavelength mode
- Wavelength Time Program mode
- Wavelength Scan mode

### >PHOTODIODE ARRAY DETECTORS :

- This is a recent detector which is similar to UV detector which operates from 190-600nm.
- Radiations of all wavelength fall on the detector simultaneously.
- The resulting spectra is a three dimensional plot of Response Vs
  Time Vs Wavelength.
- ADVANTAGE: The wavelength need not be selected but detector detects the responses of all compounds.

### >PHOTODIODE & RR&Y DETECTORS:



61

### \*RECORDERS AND INTEGRATORS:

- Recorders are used to record responses obtained from the detectors after amplification, if necessary.
- They record the baseline & all the peaks obtained with respect tot ime.
- Retention time can be found out from this recordings, but area under curve cannot be determined.

#### **\*INTEGRATORS:**

- These are improved versions of recorders with some data processing capabilities.
- They can record the individual peaks with retention time, height, width of peaks, peak area, percentage area, etc.
- Integrators provides more information on peaks than recorders.
- In recent days computers and printers are used for recording and processing the obtained data & for controlling several operations.



- $t_R$  : Retention time
- A : Area
- h : Height



## Photodiode Array Detector (3-D Data)





### \*PARAMETERS:

- Retention time(Rt)
- Retention volume(Vr)
- Separation factor(S)
- Resolution
- Theoritical plates
- Column efficiency
- Assymetry factor

### **DREFERENCE**:

- Gurdeep R. Chatwal, Sham K. Anand, Instrumental Method Of Chemical Analysis, Himalaya Publishing House, 2003, p. 2.624 to 2.638
- P. D Sethi, Quantitative Analysis Of Pharmaceutical Preparations .
- Douglas A. Skoog, Instrumental Analysis, Brooks/Cole, 2007, p. 897 to 899
- Dr. S Ravi Shankar, Textbook Of Pharmaceutical Analysis, Rx Publications, 2005, p. 18-1 to 18-11
- Robert D. Braun, Introduction Instrumental Analysis, Pharma Book Syndicate, 2006, p. 860 to 863

> www.google.com

# THANK YOU