



ISSN: 2320-2831

International Journal of Pharmacy and Analytical Research (IJPAR)

IJPAR | Vol.14 | Issue 1 | Jan - Mar -2025

www.ijpar.com

DOI : <https://doi.org/10.61096/ijpar.v14.iss1.2025.112-119>

Review



A Review On Rp-Hplc

A. Rajareddy*, M. Bavitha sri, M. Joshi

CMR College of pharmacy Kandlakoya, Medchal, Hyderabad,501401, India

* Author for Correspondence: A. Rajareddy

Email: rajareddyaleti050@gmail.com

| | |
|--|---|
|  | Abstract |
| Published on: 04 Mar 2025 | <p>Chromatography is largely used in chemical analysis, where High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), a very flexible approach, is used to separate analytes by passing them through a column filled with micrometer-sized particles. Chromatography is essentially a separation technique. Now a days, the most popular separation method in HPLC is reversed-phase chromatography. This is due to the reversed phase method's ease of use, adaptability, and range, which allow it to handle compounds with a wide range of molecular masses and polarities. In the field of biological separation and purification, reversed phase chromatography has been used for both analytical and preparative purposes. Proteins, peptides, and nucleic acids are examples of molecules with some degree of hydrophobicity that can be separated using reversed phase chromatography with good recovery and resolution. In addition to providing a brief overview of the crucial chromatographic parameters that must be optimized for an effective method development, this paper discusses the significance of RP-HPLC in analytical method development and their techniques.</p> |
| Published by: DrSriram Publications | |
| 2024 All rights reserved.  Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. | |
| Keywords: HPLC, RP-HPLC, Analytical methods, Chromatographic parameters, quality control | |

INTRODUCTION

The most potent analytical method that modern chemists have at their disposal is most likely chromatography^[1]. Its Ability To quantitatively identify several different components present in a mixture using a single analytical process is what gives it its power^[2]. An analytical chemistry and biochemistry, high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) is a chromatographic method that can separate a mixture of substances and is used to identify, measure, and purify the mixture's constituent parts^[3]. The primary components of HPLC are a column that contains the stationary phase (packing material), a pump that circulates the mobile phase or phases through the column, and a detector that displays the molecular retention periods. The interactions between the stationary phase, the molecules under study, and the solvent or solvents employed all affect retention time^[4]. A tiny volume of the sample to be examined is added to the mobile phase stream, and it is delayed by

particular chemical or physical reactions with the stationary phase. The kind of analyte and the makeup of the stationary and mobile phases determine how much retardation occurs. The retention time is the moment at which a particular analyte elutes, or exits the end of the column. Any miscible mixtures of water or organic liquids methanol and acetonitrile being the most popular are utilized as solvents [5]. Gradient elution is the term for the separation process used to change the composition of the mobile phase during the analysis.

Types of HPLC

Types of HPLC generally depend on phase system used in the process. Following types of HPLC generally used in analysis.

Normal Phase Chromatography

This technique, also referred to as Normal Phase HPLC (NP-HPLC), separates analytes according to their polarity. A polar stationary phase and a non-polar mobile phase are used in NP-HPLC. The polar stationary phase reacted with the polar analyte and held it. The interaction between the polar analyte and the polar stationary phase lengthens the elution time, and adsorption intensities rise as analyte polarity rises.

Reversed Phase Chromatography

Also known as RP-HPLC or RPC, reversed phase HPLC consists of an aqueous, moderately polar mobile phase and a non-polar stationary phase. Hydrophobic interactions, which arise from repulsive forces between a polar eluent, the relatively non-polar analyte, and the non-polar stationary phase, are the basis for RPC's operation. The binding of the analyte to the stationary phase is proportional to the contact surface area around the non-polar segment of the analyte molecule upon association with the ligand in the aqueous eluent.[6]

Size Exclusion Chromatography (SEC)

Also referred to as gel permeation chromatography or gel filtration chromatography, SEC primarily uses size to separate particles. It is also helpful in figuring out the quaternary and tertiary structures of amino acids and proteins. This method is frequently employed to determine the molecular weight of polysaccharides. Exchange chromatography of ions: The attraction between solutions and charged sites attached to the stationary phase is the basis for retention in ion exchange chromatography. The same charge ions are not included. This type of chromatography is frequently employed in high-pH anion-exchange chromatography of carbohydrates and oligosaccharides, ligand exchange chromatography, ion-exchange chromatography of proteins, and water purification, among other applications. [7]

The bio affinity Chromatography

Separation based on specific reversible interaction of proteins with ligands. Ligands are covalently attached to solid support on a bio-affinity matrix, retains proteins with interaction to the column-bound ligands. Proteins bound to a bio affinity column can be eluted in two ways:

Bio specific elution: inclusion of free ligand in elution buffer which competes with column bound ligand.

A specific elution: change in pH, salt, etc. which weakens interaction protein with column-bound substrate. Because of specificity of the interaction, bio affinity chromatography can result in very high purification in a single step (10 - 1000-fold).

Theory of reverse phase chromatography

In the field of biological separation and purification, reversed phase chromatography has been used for both analytical and preparative purposes. Reversed phase chromatography may separate molecules with a certain amount of hydrophobicity with good recovery and resolution.[8]The hydrophobic binding interaction between the solute molecule in the mobile phase and the immobilized hydrophobic ligand, or stationary phase, is what drives the separation mechanism in reversed phase chromatography. There is much disagreement on the true nature of the hydrophobic binding interaction.[9]

However, the prevailing belief is that a beneficial entropy effect is the cause of the binding interaction. In reversed phase chromatography, the initial mobile phase binding conditions are mostly aqueous, indicating a high degree of ordered water structure around the immobilized ligand and the solute molecule. The amount of hydrophobic material accessible to the solvent is reduced as the solute attaches itself to the immobilized hydrophobic ligand. As a result, the degree of structured water structure decreases while system entropy favourably increases. In this way, it is advantageous from an energy point of view for the hydrophobic moieties, i.e. solute and ligand, to associate. [10] figure 1.

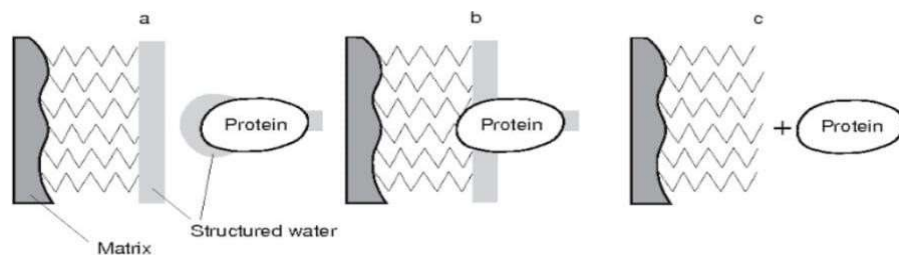


Fig 1: Interaction of a solute with a typical reversed phase medium

It is hypothesized that the water next to hydrophobic areas is more highly organized than the water in general. When the hydrophobic patches contact, some of this "structured" water is displaced, increasing the system's overall entropy. Reversible adsorption/desorption of solute molecules with different levels of hydrophobicity to a hydrophobic stationary phase is essential for reversed phase chromatography separations. The majority of reversed phase separation experiments are performed in several fundamental steps as illustrated in Figure2.

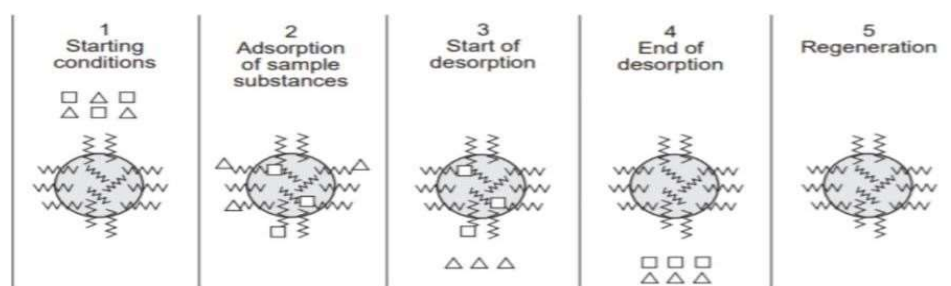


Figure2: Principle of reversed phase chromatography with gradient elution.

Choice of Separation Medium

The proper choice of reversed phase medium is critical for the success of a particular application. This choice should be based on the following criteria:

- 1) The unique requirements of the application, including scale and mobile phase conditions
- 2) The molecular weight, or size of the sample components.
- 3) The hydrophilicities of the sample components.
- 4) The class of sample components.

Analytical method development using RP-HPLC

The process of developing a method includes determining the chromatographic parameters, optimizing the separation conditions, and choosing appropriate stationary and mobile phases. The stationary and mobile phases are selected based on the physicochemical properties of the sample's constituent parts, including polarity, solubility, and acid-base properties. As part of the separation conditions optimization procedure, the temperature, solvent strength, and pH must be changed to get the desired separation^[11]. To achieve the desired separation, the fixed and mobile phases must be chosen carefully during the technique development process. The stationary phase, which is typically composed of a hydrophobic material such as C18, C8, or phenyl, interacts with the analytes based on their degree of hydrophobicity^[12].

In contrast, the mobile phase is usually a combination of an organic solvent, like methanol or acetonitrile, and an aqueous phase. The characteristics of the sample and the intended separation determine the composition of the mobile phase. In contrast, the mobile phase is usually a combination of an organic solvent, like methanol or acetonitrile, and an aqueous phase. The characteristics of the sample and the intended separation determine the composition of the mobile phase^[13]. Once the separation conditions have been improved, determining the chromatographic parameters is crucial to verifying the procedure's correctness and reliability. Retention time is the most often used chromatographic measure to identify the analytes in a sample. Selectivity, a measurement of the distance between two analytes, is calculated using the corresponding retention periods of the two analytes. Resolution, a measure of the separation between the two peaks, is calculated by measuring the peak width and distances between two adjoining peaks^[14]. The RP-HPLC method development process comprises determining chromatographic parameters, optimizing separation conditions, and selecting the appropriate stationary and mobile phases in order to achieve a reliable and accurate separation of the analytes. Determining the

chromatographic parameters and optimizing the separation conditions are crucial phases in pharmaceutical analysis that. Ensure the procedure's correctness and dependability [15].

Therefore, development of a new HPLC method involves selection of best mobile phase, best detector, best column, column length, stationary phase and best internal diameter for the column. [16] The analytical strategy for HPLC method development contains a number of steps, [17] as shown in figure 3.

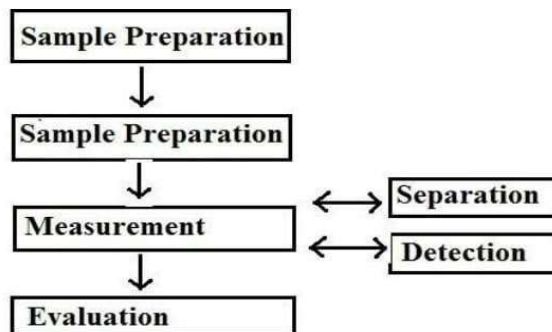


Figure 3: A Typical Strategy for HPLC Method Development.

Sample preparation and collection

Ideally, the sample should dissolve in the initial mobile phase. If stability or solubility issues prevent this, the sample can be made more soluble by adding salt, acetic acid, or formic acid. As long as the volume of the loaded sample is modest in relation to the volume of the column, these additions typically have little influence on the separation. The only effect when large sample volumes are applied may be an extra peak or two eluting in the void volume after sample injection.

In order to produce a consistent and repeatable solution that can be injected onto the column, sample preparation is a crucial step in HPLC analysis.

- Is relatively free of interferences,
- Will not damage the column, and
- Is compatible with the intended HPLC method that is, the sample solvent will dissolve in the mobile phase without affecting sample retention or resolution. [18]

Sample preparation includes all of the procedures listed in Table 1 and starts at the moment of collection and continues through sample injection into the HPLC column. Each of these procedures plays a crucial role in sample preparation and has a significant impact on the final method's accuracy, precision, and usability.

Measurement: The measurement of a given analyte can often be divided into a separation step and a Detection step.

Separation: It is preferable to separate the analytes in a mixture before detection. Simple LC consists of a column with a fritted bottom containing the stationary phase in equilibrium with a solvent. More solvent is added when the mixture to be separated is put onto the top of the column. Due to variations in their partitioning behavior between the stationary phase and mobile liquid phase, the various components in the column pass at varying rates. [19]

Sample pretreatment option:

- **Sample Collection:** Obtain representative sample using statistically valid processes.
- **Sample Storage and Preservation:** Use appropriate inert, tightly sealed containers; be especially careful with volatile, unstable, or reactive materials; biological samples may require freezing.
- **Preliminary Sample Processing:** Sample must be in a form for more efficient sample pretreatment (e.g., drying, sieving, grinding, etc.); finer dispersed samples are easier to dissolve or extract
- **Weighing or Volumetric Dilution:** Take necessary precautions for reactive, unstable, or biological materials; for dilution, use calibrated volumetric glassware.
- **Alternative Sample Processing Methods:** Solvent replacement, desalting, evaporation, freeze drying, etc.
- **Removal of Particulates:** Filtration, solid-phase extraction, centrifugation.
- **Sample Extraction:** Different methods used for liquid samples and solid samples.
- **Derivatization:** Used mainly to enhance analyte detection; sometimes used to improve separation.

Detection: High-purity reagents and solvents are necessary to guarantee the lowest detection limits for maximum sensitivity. The UV range is where all organic solvents and a variety of additives, including pairing agents, absorb, and the wavelength affects the detection limit.^[20] Over the past three decades, numerous LC detectors have been created using a range of distinct sensing techniques to identify the analytes following chromatographic separations. Only around twelve of them, nevertheless, are useful for LC analysis, and only four of those twelve are frequently employed. The UV detector (both fixed and variable wavelength), electrical conductivity detector, fluorescence detector, and refractive index detector are the four main detectors used in LC analysis. More than 95% of all LC analytical applications use these detectors. The sample and the analysis's goal determine which detector is best.^[21]

Parameters Involved During Analytical Method Development on RP-HPLC :

Nature of sample : It is necessary to know the sample properties before beginning the method development process. The ideal initial state selection for an HPLC separation might be aided by the test sample's chemical makeup.

Some Important information concerning sample composition and properties are follows:

The quantity of chemicals, their molecular weights, chemical structures (functionality), pK_a values, UV spectra, maximum wavelength of absorption, and sample solubility.^[22]

Optimization of mobile phase : The choice of the sample's characteristics and retention patterns determine the mobile phases. Lipophilic (non-polar) solvents should be used for normal-phase HPLC. Water in the mobile phase should be avoided since it will reduce the stationary phase's efficiency. Aqueous (polar) mobile phases, both with and without organic modifiers, are employed in reverse-phase HPLC.^[23]

For mobile phase optimization, these steps should be follows:

- Define the most excellent modifier type: tetrahydrofuran>acetonitrile>methanol.
- Define most favorable solvent strength so that retention for all components are in the range of 1-20.
- Perform firstly isocratic reading in 20% steps of development, preparatory at 100% organic.
- Perform gradient determination of %organic mobile phase. ^[24]

Selection of buffers : Obtaining acceptable peak shape for analytes requires the proper preference of a mobile phase and buffer. Buffers get better peak shape of basic compounds and able to adjust the band spacing (or selectivity) and retention of acidic or basic compounds. The strongly suggest 10-20 mM of an ammonium salt of for the selection as a preliminary buffer

i.e. acetate, carbonate, formate and phosphate salts designed for electrolyte solutes. Further considerations for the proper selection of a buffer system and the operation of buffers as a method development implement are given in the section method development for ionizable compounds.

pH selection: By changing the pH of mobile phase, better separation of peaks were observed. The pH of mobile phase was adjusted to 2.0, 3.0, 7.0 and 10.0. At low pH range 2-3.0, satisfactory separation of the drug with proper resolution and short run time was achieved.

They are ideal for the following:

- Ionizable compounds.
- Improving peak shape of acidic or basic compounds.
- Changing selectivity or retention of acidic or basic compounds.

Detector wavelength: wavelength selected should be a wavelength of active ingredient in the UV spectrum. At all times use a wavelength more than 10 nm from the mobile phase UV cut-off.

Flow rate programming: For the purpose of rapid analysis of the drug, mobile phase flow rate programming is necessary for good resolution. Best results were obtained with flow rate in the range of 0.5-2.0 ml/min of selected mobile phase. Select suitable flow rate according to the column diameter e.g. 1.0 ml/min for 4.6mm id, 0.5 ml/min for 3.2mm id.

Column: For the purpose of rapid analysis of the drug, mobile phase flow rate programming is necessary for good resolution. Best results were obtained with flow rate in the range of 0.5-2.0ml/min of selected mobile phase. Select suitable flowrate according to the column diameter

e.g. 1.0ml/min for 4.6mm id, 0.5ml/min for 3.2mmid.^[25]

Stationary phase : Silica gel is most frequently used. stationary phase for adsorption chromatography, while reports have also used carbon and hydroxyapatite, as well as other metal oxides as alumina and zirconium. As supports for bound phases, unmodified silica, alumina, porous graphite, and a variety of chemically customized supports made from polymers, silica, and resins with basic or acid groups are typically utilized. Because silica packing's in columns can withstand high pressures, they are widely used. Silica is inexpensive, widely available, and comes in a range of sizes, forms, and porosity levels.^[26]

Pore size : Smaller pore sizes result in larger surface areas since stationary phases are often porous to offer more surface area, and vice versa. The majority of chromatographic modes benefit from a narrow dispersion of pore sizes.

Column length: Column length has an impact on the separation's speed and efficiency. Analysis times are shortened by shorter columns, although column efficiency tends to decline with length. Generally speaking, complex samples are handled by large columns, while simple separations are handled by short columns. The length of an analytical column ranges from 30 to 300 mm.^[27]

Selection of column: The choice of the column in The method of separation is the foundation of HPLC. The separation mechanism in HPLC is based on inductive forces, dipole-dipole interaction, and hydrogen bond formation. Partition and adsorption modes are employed for separation.

Ion suppression: Because these specific solutes include ionizable groups, the pH of the mobile phase can alter the retention of peptides and proteins in reversed phase chromatography. The mobile phase's pH will determine the extent of ionization. The operational pH of the mobile phase must be lower than pH 7.5 in order for silica-based reversed phase medium to remain stable. Proteins and peptides have amino groups that are charged below pH7.5. However, when the pH drops, the carboxylic acid groups get neutralized. In reversed phase chromatography, the mobile phase is typically made with strong acids like ortho phosphoric acid or trifluoroacetic acid (TFA). These acids inhibit the ionization of the acidic groups in the solute molecules and preserve a low pH environment. The ionization of the solutes and, consequently, the irretention behavior can be altered by varying the quantity of strong acid components in the mobile phase.

The major benefit of ion suppression in reversed phase chromatography is the elimination of mixed mode retention effects due to ionizable silanol groups remaining on the silica gel surface. The effect of mixed mode retention is increased retention times with significant peak broadening (Figure 4)

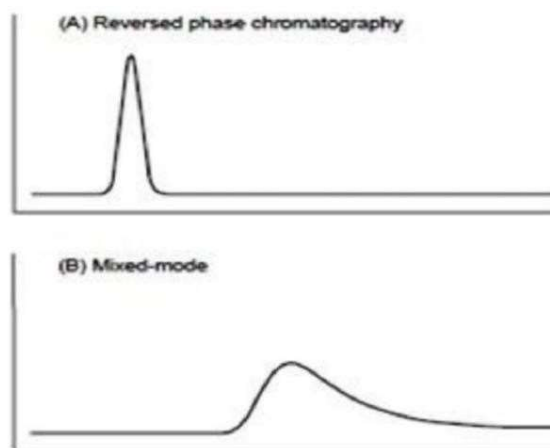


Figure 4: Typical effects of mixed-mode retention.

(Peaks are broader and skewed, and retention time increases)

Selectivity: Selectivity(α) is equivalent to the relative retention of the solute peak and, unlike efficiency, depends strongly on the chemical properties of the chromatography medium. The selectivity, α , for two peaks is given by: $\alpha = \frac{k_2' - V_0}{k_1' - V_0} = \frac{V_2 - V_0}{V_1 - V_0} = \frac{V_2}{V_1}$ Where V_1 and V_2

are the retention volumes, and k_2'/k_1' are the capacity factors, for peaks 1 and 2 respectively, and V_0 is the void volume of the column. Selectivity is affected by the surface chemistry of the reversed phase medium, the nature and composition of the mobile phase, and the gradient shape (Figure 5).

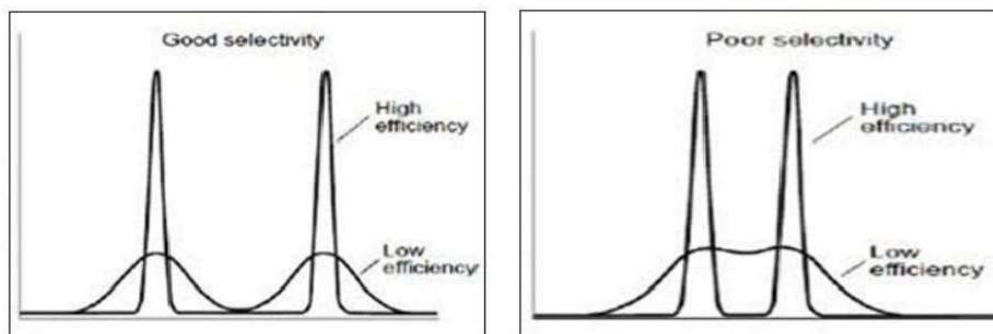


Figure 5: The effect of selectivity and efficiency on resolution.

For total resolution, both high column efficiency and strong selectivity are crucial. But in a chromatographic experiment, altering the selectivity is simpler than altering the efficiency. By altering readily modifiable variables, such as the gradient shape or the composition of the mobile phase, selectivity can be altered.

Viscosity: To cut down on separation time, select a solvent with the lowest viscosity possible. Another benefit of low viscosity is that, due to rapid mass transfer, high efficiency theoretical plate (HETP) values are typically lower than with solvents of higher viscosity. Viscosity should be less than 0.5 centipoise in order to minimize mass transfer between the stationary phase and solvent and the need for high pump pressures.

Temperature: Reversed phase chromatography can be significantly impacted by temperature, particularly for low molecular weight solutes such as oligonucleotides and short peptides. As the column temperature rises in reversed phase chromatography, the mobile phase's viscosity falls. Since the process of mass transport of a solute between the mobile and stationary phases is controlled by diffusion, a decrease in solvent viscosity typically results in more effective mass transfer and, thus, higher resolution. For low molecular weight solutes, raising the temperature of a reversed phase column works very well since they are appropriately stable at the higher temperatures.

Applications:

- Designing a biochemical purification. Purification of platelet-derived growth factor(PDGF) .
- Purification of cholecystokinin-58(CCK-58)from pig intestine.
- Purification of recombinant human epidermal growth factor.
- Process purification of inclusion bodies.

CONCLUSION

The development of analytical techniques is crucial to the discovery, creation, and production of medications. Because it can handle multi-component mixtures with ease, RP-HPLC is arguably the most sensitive and universal analytical technique. In order to achieve optimal separation while creating analytical procedures for pharmaceuticals using RP-HPLC, one must have a solid practical understanding of chromatographic separation and how it varies with the sample and with different experimental settings. The majority of the work should go into method development and optimization in order to create an HPLC method that works well because this will enhance the method's performance in the end.

REFERENCES

1. Scott RPW: Principles and practice of Chromatography. ChromEd Book Series,2003;1-2.
2. Chatwal GR, Anand SK: Instrumental Methods of Chemical Analysis.5th edition 2004.1.1- 1.3, 2.566-2.2.575.
3. Scott RPW: Principles and Practice of Chromatography. ChromEd Book Series,2003;1-2.

4. Martin M., Guiochon, G. Effects of high pressures in liquid chromatography. *J. Chromatogr. A*, 2005; (1-2): 16-38.
5. Liu Y., Lee M.L. Ultra high pressure liquid chromatography using elevated temperature. *Journal of Chromatography*. 2006; 1104 (1-2): 198–202.
6. Abidi, S.L. High-performance liquid chromatography of phosphatidic acids and related polar lipids. *J. Chromatogr.* 1991; 587: 193-203.
7. Hearn M.T.W. Ion-pair chromatography on normal and reversed-phase systems. *Adv. Chromatogram*. 1980; 18: 59–10.
8. Amesham Biosciences: Reversed Phase Chromatography. Principles and Methods; 6-8.
9. Dorsey JG, Cooper WT: Retention mechanisms of bonded-phase liquid chromatography. *Anal. Chem.* 66th edition, 1994; 857A-867A.
10. Tanford CW: Physical chemistry of macromolecules. 1961.
11. Krokshin, O.V. (2006). Sequence-specific retention calculator. Algorithm for peptide retention prediction in ion-pair RP-HPLC: application to 300- and 100-Å pore size C18 sorbents. *Analytical chemistry*, 78(20), 7785-7795.
12. Matsuda, Y., & Mendelsohn, B.A. (2021). Recent Advances in Drug–Antibody Ratio Determination of Antibody–Drug Conjugates. *Chemical and Pharmaceutical Bulletin*, 69(8), 680-694.
13. Edla, S., & Sundhar, B.S. (2014). Analytical method development and validation for the simultaneous estimation of Metformin and Glibenclamide in bulk and tablet dosage form using RP-HPLC. *Rasayan journal of chemistry*, 7(4), 389-394.
14. Welch, C. J., Brkovic, T., Schafer, W., & Gong, X. (2009). Performance to burn? Re-evaluating the choice of acetonitrile as the platform solvent for analytical HPLC. *Green Chemistry*, 11(11), 1704-1708.
15. Kavitha, D.R., Maruthapillai, A., Mahapatra, S., Jetti, R. K., & Sirisha, K. (2021). New stability indicating RP-HPLC method for the determination of Abiraterone acetate, its related substances and degradation products in bulk and dosage form. *Materials Today Proceedings*, 46, 6223-6231.
16. Snyder LR, Kirkland JJ, Glajch JL: Practical HPLC Method Development. 2nd ed. 2001.
17. Sethi PD: HPLC Quantitative Analysis of Pharmaceutical Formulations. CBS Publishers & Distributors, first edition, 2001.
18. How do I develop an HPLC Method. Available from: www.sge.com
19. Lindholm J: Development and Validation of HPLC Methods for Analytical and preparative Purposes. *Acta Universitatis Upsaliensis. Comprehensive Summaries of Uppsala Dissertations from the Faculty of Science and Technology*. 2004; 995.
20. Mc Cown SM, Southern D, Morrison, B.E. Solvent properties and their effects on gradient elution high performance liquid chromatography. Experimental findings for water and acetonitrile. *J. Chromatogram*. 1986; 352: 493-509.
21. Scott PWR: *Liquid Chromatography for the Analyst*. New York: Marcel Dekker Inc., 1994; 1-10.
22. Willant Merit, Dean anal Settle 2003. *HPLC Methods and Application in instrumental Methods of Analysis*; T of, CBS Publishers and distributor. New Delhi, pp: 614-625.
23. Martla hares, J.A. Bermeje, L. Bernal, 2. Del Novel Ma and GA. Garcia, 1990 Application of HPLC mobile phase optimization methods in the detection of impurities in bulk drug steroids, *Chromatographing* 297-5): 338-146.
24. Jeffery, 61, I. Boss, I. Mendhan and R.C. Deney, 1989, Vogel's Toobook of Quantitative Chemical Analysis, 5th ad English Language Society Longman Tearson Edutal Patpurganj New Delhi, pp: 9-1
25. Meyer, V.R., 2006. *Practical High-Performance Liquid Chromatography*, 4th Edition, Published by John Wiley and Sons, 52-57: 106-129.
27. Lingeman, H., H.A. Van Munster, J.H. Beyben, W.J.M. Underber and A. Hulshoff, 1986. High-performance liquid chromatography and capillary electrophoresis, *Journal of Chromatography*, 352: 261.
28. Koyama, J., J. Nomura, Y. Shiojima, Y. Ohtsu and I. Horii, 1992. Effect of column length and elution mechanism on the separation of proteins by reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography. *Journal of Chromatography*, 625: 217-222.