

## Unit - I

### Pharmaceutical Analysis

Greek word  
Pharmakon  
↓  
Drug

Pharma + Central  
↓                      ↓  
Drug                      Carrier

Analysis

↙                      ↘

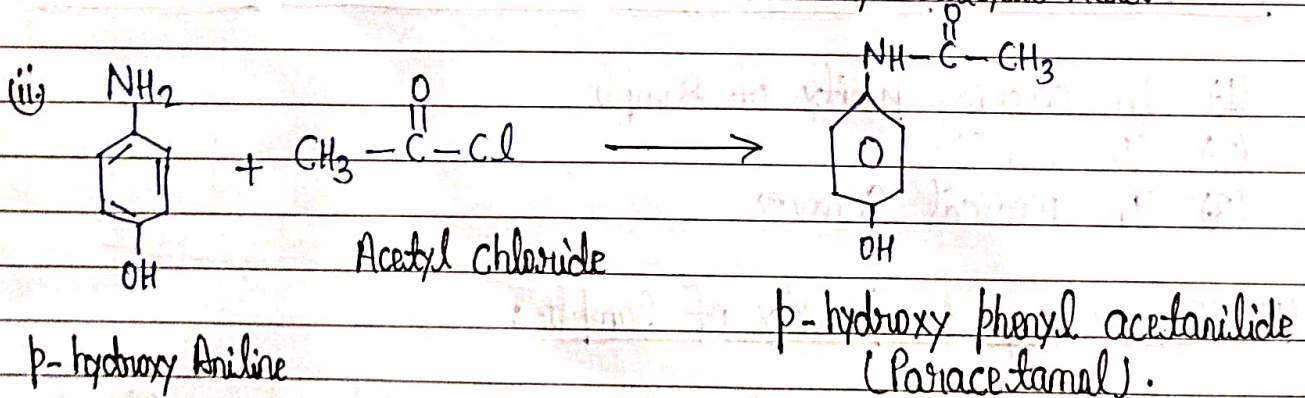
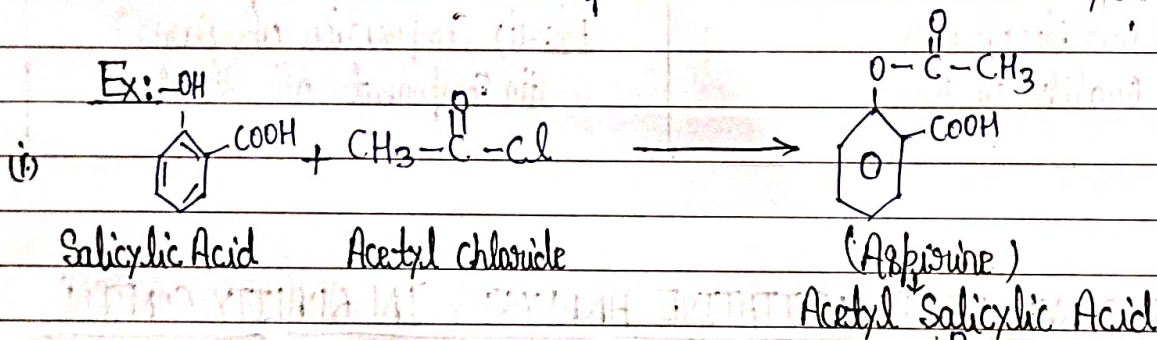
Qualitative                      Quantitative

↓                                      ↓

Quality of Drug                      Quantity of Drug

\* Pharmaceutical Analysis is the analysis of drug:

⇒ Pharmaceutical analysis is defined as the study of drug where complex substances of drug is dissociate into simpler form and analysis them.



### # Scope of Pharmaceutical Analysis

- Quality of Raw material.
- In process Control
- Quality of finished product.

The quality of product should be in accordance with INDIAN PHARMACOPOEIA.

The quality of product should follow the standards related with safety, potency & efficacy.

## # Types of Pharmaceutical Analysis

- (1) Qualitative Analysis
- (2) Quantitative Analysis

S.No	Qualitative Analysis	Quantitative Analysis
1.	Study of nature & quality of component present in sample. Ex:- (i) Quality of Air (ii) Quality of Blood	1. Study of numbers and their composition of component present in sample. Ex:- (i) Composition of Air (ii) Component of Blood

## # SIGNIFICANCE OF QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS IN QUALITY CONTROL

- (1) In checking purity of sample
- (2) In forming
- (3) In Medical Sciences

### (1) In checking the purity of sample :-

(i) This is to perform to check the quality of sample in form of raw material or finished product.

Ex:- (A) % of purity (90%)      (B) % of purity (40%)

(ii) In raw material there may be some impurity present in a sample which may cause side effect and that may be analysed during quantitative analysis.

## (2) Detection of Pollution :-

- (i) Quantitative analysis is helpful to check the quality of air and quality of water etc.
- (ii) If the concentration of  $O_2$  is more than the concentration of  $CO_2$  then the quality of air is good. and when the concentration of  $O_2$  is less than the concentration of  $CO_2$  then the quality of air is bad.

### Air Composition :-

$N_2$  - 78%  
 $O_2$  - 21%  
other gases &  $CO_2$  - 0.1%

- (iii) In case of water pollution wastage coming out from industrial effluent, sewage coming out from home, chemical fertilizers etc. are responsible for water pollution and the concentration of impurity are determined by quantitative analysis.

## (3) In Farming :-

- \* Analysis of soil is used to determine the composition of essential nutrient element like N, P, K, Zn, Co, Mg, Pb, Fe etc.
- \* Elements like N, P, K are required in larger quantity that's why they are known as MACRO NUTRIENT.
- \* Elements like Zn, Co, Mg, Pb, Fe are required in smaller quantity that's why they are known as MICRO NUTRIENT.
- \* Testing of soil to find the concentration of nutrient in soil is called soil profiling. The nutrient will be externally added on the suitability of soil.

(4) In Medical field :- \* Quantitative analysis have utility in biomedical sciences for diagnosis of illness and monitoring the condition of patient.

\* Some disease are identify after chemical examination of blood, urine, stool and sputum.

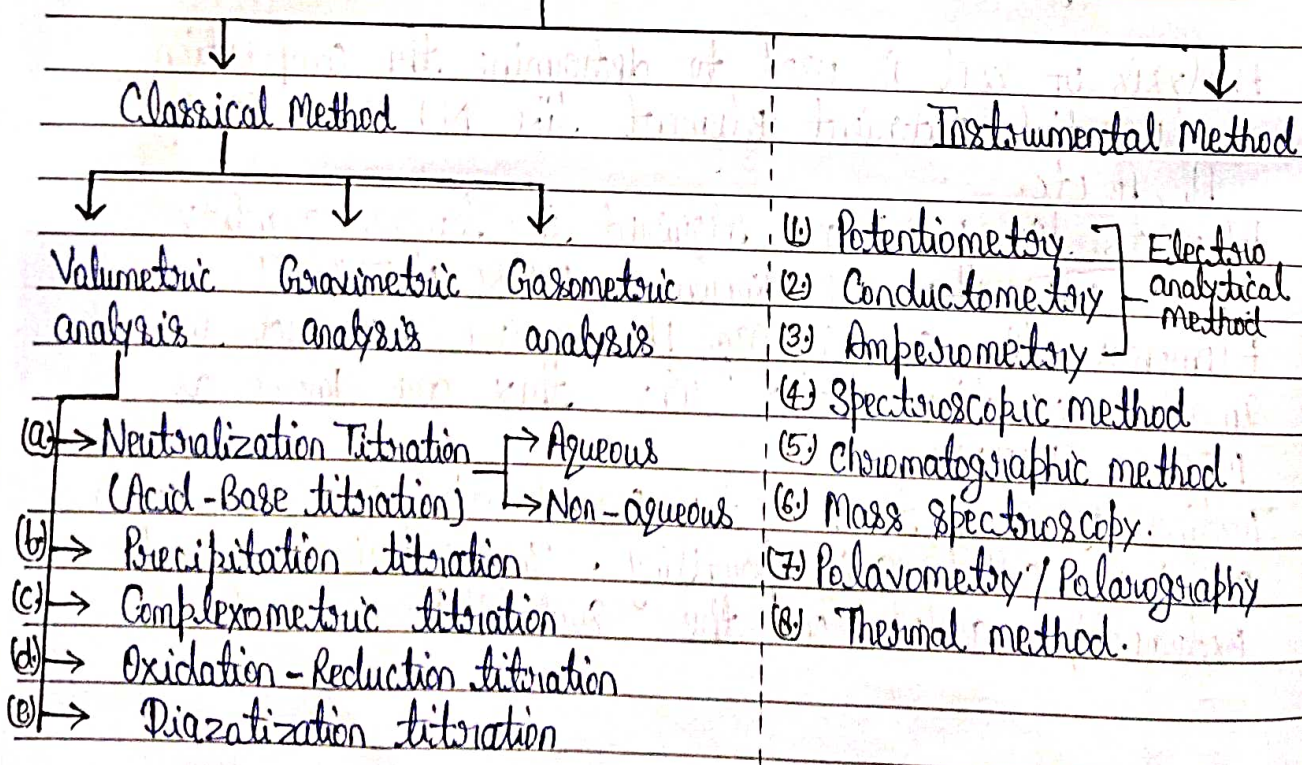
\* Pharmaceutical analysis represent the scale of Assay (Percentage purity) method in characteristics the quality of bulk drug.

\* Immunoassay are bio analytical methods in which quantitation on analyte depends on the reaction of an antigen and antibody.

Ex:- Diagnosis of disease, drug monitoring, clinical pharmacokinetic and bio equivalence in drug discovery and pharmaceutical industry.

### # Different techniques of Analysis :-

#### Techniques of Analysis



# Classical Method:- Mass and Volume are most common signal, and corresponding techniques are -

(1) Valometric technique:- Valometric technique are simple and accurate in comparison to gravimetric analysis these are further categorised in following methods.

(a) Neutralization Titration:- It involve reaction of substances (Acid or Base) to determined with the appropriate acidic or basic reagent, and volume of solution required to complete the reaction which is determined by indicator.

### Types of Acid-Base Titration

(i) Non-aqueous titration:- \* Take place in solvent other than water.

Ex:- (Glacial Acetic Acid (GAA), Polyethylene Glycol, Alcohol). This may be due to insolubility of drug in water.

(ii) Aqueous titration:- \* Take place in water.

\* Used for substances which dissociate completely & rapidly in water

\* Determination of the end point is easy with the change of pH of the solution.

(b) Precipitation Titration:-

\* It involves the titration between analyte and reagent resulting in the formation of precipitate.

\* The most useful of these precipitating reagent is silver nitrate used for estimation of halide salt, for

Ex:- estimation of sodium chloride with standard silver nitrate solution.

### (c) Complexometric Titration:-

- \* It involves the titration between cations and complex forming reagent EDTA (Ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid).
- \* The most useful of these complexing reagents are organic compounds with several electron donor groups that can form multiple covalent bonds with metal ions.

### (d) Oxidation-Reduction Titration:-

- \* It involves the oxidation-reduction reaction, hence known as redox titration.
  - \* An oxidation occurs when an atom or ion loses electrons.
  - \* A reduction occurs when an atom or ion gains electrons.
- Ex:- Titration of Iodide salt to determine Iodide salt quantitatively.

### (e) Diazotization Titration:-

- \* It involves the estimation of drug substances having primary amine groups. (Aromatic group)
  - \* Aromatic primary amine group:-
- Ex:- Sulpha drug is estimated by conversion into diazonium salt with standard sodium nitrite ( $\text{NaNO}_2$ ) solution.

### (2) Gravimetric Analysis:-

- \* In gravimetric analysis, a substance to be determined is converted into insoluble precipitate in the purest form which is then collected and weighed.

### (3) Gasometric Analysis :-

- \* Gasometric involves measurement of volume of gas evolve or absorbed in a chemical reaction. Some of the gas
- \* Some of the gases which are analysed are Carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ), Di-nitrogen oxide ( $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ), Cyclopropane, amyl nitrite Nitrogen and Helium.

### # Instrumental Method

#### 1. Electro analytical method:-

##### (i) Potentiometry :-

- \* In potentiometry the difference between the potential of two electrode is measured.
- \* The potential of one electrode (Indicator electrode) respond to the analyte's activity (Concentration) and other electrode (reference electrode) has fixed potential.

##### (ii) Conductometry :-

- \* The principle of Conductometry is based on one of the ion is replaced by other and invariably these two ions differ in ionic conductance with result that conductivity of the solution varies during the course of solution.

##### (iii) Amperometry :-

- \* In this method a sample there is detection of ion in a solution, based on electronic current or change in diffusion electronic current on addition of oxidising reagent.

## 2. Spectroscopic Method :-

\* Spectroscopic method of analysis depends on measurement of radiant energy of particular wavelength absorbed or emitted by the sample.

\* Method which include measurement of absorption of radiation or ultraviolet visible infrared atomic absorption, nuclear magnetic Resonance (NMR). These are called absorption Spectroscopic.

\* Emission Spectroscopic method involve heating of the sample show that the atom or raised to the excited state. The excited state is short lived and so return to the ground state with the emission of Energy.

Ex:- Flame photometry  
Fluorimetry

Atomic emission Spectroscopy

## 3. Chromatographic Method :-

Chromatography is a method of separation in which the components to be separated are distributed between two phases. One of which is stationary phase while the other is mobile phase.

## 4. Mass Spectrometry :-

Mass Spectrometry involves vaporization of sample using a high vacuum and the vapour is bombarded by high energy electron beam. Vapour molecules undergo fragmentation to produce ions of different size and mass.



## 5. Polarimetry / Polarography

Polarimetry is an instrumental method in which polarize light by optically active substance is measured to know its concentration in a solution.

## 6. Thermal Method

Thermal method involves the measurement of physical parameters of a system has function of temperature.

Ex:- Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA).

## # Method of Expressing Concentration:-

$$(1) \text{ Molarity (M)} \Rightarrow M = \frac{\text{No. of mole}}{\text{Volume of solution (L)}} \\ = \frac{\text{wt./molecular wt.}}{\text{Volume of solution (in litre)}}$$

$$(2) \text{ Normality (N)} \Rightarrow N = \frac{\text{No. of gram equivalent}}{\text{Volume of sol}^n \text{ (in Lt.)}} \\ = \frac{\text{wt./Equivalent wt.}}{\text{Volume (Lt.)}} \rightarrow \text{Eq. wt} = \frac{\text{Mol. wt}}{x \text{ factor}}$$

$$(3) \text{ Molality (m)} \Rightarrow m = \frac{\text{no. of mole}}{\text{mass of solvent (kg)}} = \frac{\text{wt./molecular wt.}}{\text{Mass of solvent (kg)}}$$

(4) Formality (F):- Formality is defined as number of formula weight of solute that are present in 1 litre of solution.

$$F = \frac{\text{No. of formula wt.}}{\text{Volume of sol}^n}$$

(5) Percentage by Weight :- It refers to the no. of gram of solute present in 100gram of solution.

(6) Percentage/Volume :- It refers to the no. of millilitres of solute present in 100ml of solution.

(7) Percentage weight/Volume :- It refers to no. of grams of solute present in 100ml of solution.

(8) Mole fraction :- Mole fraction is the number of moles of a particular solute divided by total no. of moles in solution.

$$\text{Mole fraction of solute A} = \frac{\text{No. of mole of solute A}}{\text{No. of mole of solute A} + \text{No. of mole of solute B}}$$

(9) Parts Per million :- (PPM) :- It is a unit of the measuring concentration in very dilute solution.

For E.g:

→ Pollutants present in water & air.

It is defined as unit of solute present in 1 million ( $10^6$ ) unit of solution.

(10) Relation b/w Normality and Volume of solution :-

$$N_1 V_1 = N_2 V_2$$

$$N \propto \frac{1}{V}$$

$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} = \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} = \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

$$N_1 V_1 = N_2 V_2$$

## Primary & Secondary Standard :-

Primary Standard :- Primary standard defined as substance of known purity (Analytical grade reagent) whose carefully weight quantity helps in the standardization of unknown <sup>solution</sup> sample. (N/M).

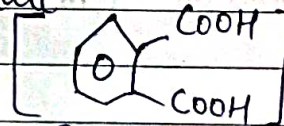
for e.g. :- To prepare & standardize Sodium hydroxide solution using 0.1N Oxalic Acid solution.

→ Here it is Oxalic Acid.

→ In Actual practice any solution whose concentration is unknown is standardized by titration against a substance of known purity (primary standard).

Eg. :- (1) Strong Acid Solution :- They are normally standardize against a variety of pure basic chemical compound. Such as -  
 $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$ , Borax ( $\text{Na}_2\text{B}_4\text{O}_7$ ) etc.

(2) Strong Basic Solution :- They are normally standardize against pure acidic chemical compound such as - Potassium phthalate



→ Primary standard must have five basic criteria to be fulfilled -

- (i) It must be 100% pure, although an impurities ranging 0.01 to 0.002 % is fairly tolerable.
- (ii) It must be thermostable at the drying temperature.
- (iii) It should not be too expensive to use in Analytical laboratory.
- (iv) It must have relatively high formula weight.
- (v) It is meant to be employed in a specific titration.

Secondary Standard:- Secondary standards refer to another standard solution of less purity than that of primary standard solution. It is also implied for standardization of an unknown solution.

→ Alternatively, secondary standard is not a sufficiently pure form and a solution is usually prepared to produce nearly the desired concentration (0.1N) and is standardized by titrating against a weighed quantity of primary standard.

Eg:-(1)- To prepared 0.1N NaOH solution never represent a standard solution by the virtue of the fact that NaOH is not pure sufficiently. Hence, the prepared NaOH solution is standardized by titrating a primary standard acid (eg:- Oxalic acid):

(2) Prepared 0.1N HCl solution never represent a standard solution. Hence, It is standardized by titrating with a primary standard base.  
E.g:-  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$  (Analytical Grade)

## ERRORS

Errors:- Errors are defined as the difference between observed value and true value.

Source of Errors:- Common source of errors are -

- (i) Instrumental Error
- (ii) Gross Error / Human Error
- (iii) Environmental Error
- (iv) Procedural Error

Types of Errors:-

- (i) Determinate Error (Systematic Error)
- (ii) Indeterminate Error (Random Error)

(i) Determinate Error:- Those errors which are determinable and can be corrected.

The determinate error arises due to -

- \* Instrumental Error
- \* Operative, Chemical Error
- \* Error in Methodology.
- \* Use of faulty Instrument / Equipment.
- \* Operative Error made by person in operating analysis.
- \* Chemical Error → Errors due to impurities in chemical solvent of reagent.
- \* Methodology Error → This is most serious error in analysis because this arises due to applying wrong method / procedure.

(ii) Indeterminate Error:-

Indeterminate Errors are called as Accidental or Random Error.

These errors are due to small differences observed in series of measurement made by same person under identical condition.

# Methods of Minimizing Errors:-

(i) Use of correct or precise instrument to measure.

(ii) Improve the experimental technique.

(iii) Take the average by the repeating the experiment several times.

(iv) Take the measurement carefully to avoid the Gross Error (Human Error).

(v) Adjust the zero of instrument properly.

(vi) Take the reading of experiment by the standing straight to the instrument and not from the side.

Accuracy and Precision:-

Accuracy:- Accuracy is closeness of measurement to a specific value called True value.

→ The term accuracy refers to agreement of experimental measured value with the true value and is expressed in terms of error.

Precision:- Precision is closeness of measurement to each other or one another.

→ Precision refers to the degree of agreement between various results of the same experiment and is expressed in the term of reproducibility of result.

$$\text{Relative Error} = \frac{\text{Mean Value} - \text{True Value}}{\text{True Value}}$$

# Significant figures :-

Significant figures can be defined as the number of digits necessary to express the results of measurement consistent with the measured precision.

Leading zero ⊗  
 Non-zero ⊙  
 In between zero ⊙  
 Trailing zero ⊙

always signified

Significant only when placed after decimal

0.003045000

Leading zero → (points to the first three zeros)

Non-zero → (points to 3, 0, 4, 5)

In between zero → (points to the zero between 4 and 5)

Trailing zero → (points to the last three zeros)

Q. How many significant figures are present in following digit.

(i) 0.0050400  
 S.f. → 5

(vi)  $15.8 + 5.00 + 0.3 = 103.80$   
 S.f. → 4.

(ii) 1500  
 S.f. → 2

(vii) 70000000  
 S.f. → 2.

(iii)  $6.04 \times 10^{-3}$   
 S.f. → 3

(viii)  $7.09 \times 10^{-8}$   
 S.f. → 3

(iv) 015.04320  
 S.f. → 7.

(ix) 0.00410  
 S.f. → 3

(v) 16070  
 S.f. → 4.

## Q. Questions on Methods of Expressing Concentration

Q. What is the molarity of a solution in which 211g  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  is dissolved in 10L solution.

Solve:-  $M = \frac{\text{no. of mole of solute}}{\text{Volume of solution in (L)}}$

$$= \frac{211/84}{10}$$

$$= \frac{211}{84 \times 10} = \frac{211}{840}$$

$$= 0.251 \text{ M Ans.}$$

Q. A solution is prepared by dissolving 10.2 gm of glucose in 405 gm of water. Find the conc. of solution in term of molality (m).

Solution:-  $m = \frac{\text{no. of mole of solute}}{\text{mass of solvent (in kg)}}$

Q. Calculate the normality of solution obtained by dissolving 0.321 gm of  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$  in 250 ml water.

Solve:-  $N = \frac{\text{wt. / Eq. wt}}{\text{Vol. (L.)}}$

$$= \frac{0.321/53}{0.25}$$

$$= \frac{0.321}{0.25 \times 53}$$

$$= \frac{0.321}{13.25} = \frac{0.321}{13.25}$$

$$= 0.024 \text{ N Ans.}$$



Q. What is the normality of 0.0521 M  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$ .

Solve:- 
$$N = \text{Molarity} \times \alpha \text{ factor}$$

$$= 0.0521 \times 3$$

$$= 0.1563 \text{ N. Ans.}$$

# Relation between Molarity & Normality:-

$$M = \frac{\text{wt. / mol. wt.}}{\text{Volume}} = \frac{\text{wt.}}{\text{mol. wt.} \times \text{Volume}}$$

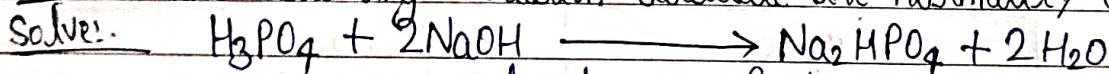
$$N = \frac{\text{wt. / Equ. wt.}}{\text{Volume}} = \frac{\text{wt.}}{\text{Equ. wt.} \times \text{Volume}}$$

$$\frac{M}{N} = \frac{1/\text{mol. wt.}}{1/\text{Equ. wt.}} = \frac{\text{Equ. wt.}}{\text{mol. wt.}}$$

$$\frac{N}{M} = \frac{\text{mol. wt.}}{\text{Equ. wt.}} = \alpha \text{ factor}$$

$$\boxed{N = \text{Molarity} \times \alpha \text{ factor}}$$

Q. In the following reaction calculate the normality of 1M  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$ .



$$N = \text{molarity} \times \alpha \text{ factor}$$

$$= 1 \times 2$$

$$= 2 \text{ N } \text{H}_3\text{PO}_4. \text{ Ans.}$$

Q. How many millilitres of 5M  $\text{CuSO}_4$  solution are needed to prepare 0.35 litre of 0.5M  $\text{CuSO}_4$ .

Solve:- 
$$5 \text{ M } \text{CuSO}_4 = 0.35 \text{ Lt. of } 0.5 \text{ M } \text{CuSO}_4$$

$$M_1 V_1 = M_2 V_2$$

$$5 \times V_1 = 0.5 \times 0.35$$

$$= \frac{0.5 \times 0.35}{5}$$

$$= 0.035 \text{ Lt.} = 35 \text{ ml. Ans.}$$