

A Nover View on Validation of UV visible Spectros Copy

Shanthinit.S*¹, Mr.Nishadv.M², Sheejarekha .A.G³, Dr. Prasobhg.R⁴

¹Bpharmstudent,Sree Krishna College of Pharmacy and Research Centre, Parassala, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India. 695502

²Associate professor, Department of pharmaceutical chemistry, Sree Krishna College of Pharmacy and Research Centre, Parassala, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India. 695502

³professor and Head, Department of pharmaceutical chemistry, Sree Krishna College of Pharmacy and Research Centre, Parassala, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India. 695502

⁴Principal, Sree Krishna College of Pharmacy and Research Centre, Parassala, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India. 695502

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ABSTRACT

UV-VIS Spectroscopy is the term used to test the various types of solvents and substances in an analysis. In particular, small-scale enterprises typically prefer spectroscopy, as the cost of equipment is lower and maintenance issues are limited. The analysis approach is based on the calculation of the absorption of monochromatic light in the near ultraviolet direction of a spectrum by colourless compounds (200-400 nm). The pharmaceutical analysis requires the necessary procedure for the determination of the "identity, intensity, consistency and purity of such compounds. Validation is the process of determining a method's performance features and limitations and defining the factors that which alter these characteristics and to what extent. This paper presents a systematic and detailed validation of organic compounds with the molar absorption coefficient in UV-visible region.

KEYWORDS-

Electromagnetic Spectrum, Ultraviolet, Visible, Electronic Transition, Validation

I. INTRODUCTION OF ULTRAVIOLET/VISIBLE SPECTROSCOPY

1.1. Spectroscopy

Spectroscopy is the study of the properties of matter through its interaction with various types of radiation (mainly electromagnetic radiation) of the electromagnetic spectrum.

1.2. Spectrophotometry

Ultraviolet (UV) and Visible (VIS) spectrophotometry has become the method of choice in most laboratories concerned with the identification and quantification of organic and inorganic compounds across a wide range of products and processes. Applied

across

research, quality, and manufacturing, with continuing focus on life science and pharmaceutical environments, they are equally as relevant in agriculture, animal husbandry and fishery, geological exploration, food safety, environmental monitoring, and many manufacturing industries to name a few.

Modern spectrophotometers are quick, accurate, and reliable. They require only small demands on the time and skills of the operator. However, the non-specialized end-user who wants to optimize the functions of their instrument, and be able to monitor its performance will benefit from an appreciation of the elementary physical laws governing spectrophotometry, as well as the basic elements of spectrophotometer design.

1.3. Ultraviolet-Visible Spectroscopy

Ultraviolet and visible (UV-Vis) absorption spectroscopy is the measurement of the attenuation of a beam of light after it passes through a sample or after reflection from a sample surface. The visible spectrum ranges from 400 nm to about 800 nm. The color we see depends on wavelength. The color of a substance is determined by which color(s) of light it absorbs and which color(s) it transmits or reflects (the complementary color(s)). Color is an important property of a substance. The color of matter is related to its absorptivity or reflectivity. The human eye sees the complementary color to that which is absorbed.

1.4. Origin Characteristics of UV-Visible Spectrum

UV-VIS spectrum results from the interaction of electromagnetic radiation in the UV-Visible region with molecules, ions or complexes. It forms the basis of analysis of different substances such as, inorganic, organic and bio

molecules. These determinations find applications in research, industry, clinical laboratories and in the chemical analysis of

environmental samples. It is therefore important to learn about the origin of the UV-VIS spectrum and its characteristics

1.5. Radiation and energy

Radiation is a form of transmitted energy. Electromagnetic radiation is so-named because it has electric and magnetic fields that simultaneously oscillate in planes mutually perpendicular to each other and to the direction of propagation through space. Electromagnetic radiation

has the dual nature: it exhibits wave properties and particle properties.

1.6. The nature of electromagnetic radiation and spectral regions

The electromagnetic spectrum is composed of a large range of wavelengths and frequencies (energies). It varies from the highly energetic gamma rays to the very low energy radio-waves. The entire range of radiation is commonly referred to as the electromagnetic spectrum^[1]

II. PRINCIPLE OF UV/VISIBLE SPECTROSCOPY

Ultraviolet spectroscopy is concerned with the study of absorption of UV radiation which range from 200nm to 400nm. Compounds which are coloured, absorb radiation from 400nm-800nm. But compounds which are colourless absorb radiation in UV region. In both UV as well as visible spectroscopy, only the valence electrons absorb the energy, thereby the molecule undergoes transition from Ground state to excited state.

2.1 Electronic transition

The electronic transition that results in absorption of ultraviolet or visible radiation are $\sigma\text{-}\sigma^*$, $n\text{-}\sigma^*$, $\pi\text{-}\pi^*$, and $n\text{-}\pi^*$.

1. $\sigma\text{-}\sigma^*$

- σ orbital is excited to corresponding anti-bonding orbital σ^* .
- The energy required is large for this transition.
- The organic compounds in which all the valence shell electrons are involved in the formation of σ bond do not show absorption in normal UV region (200-400nm). This transition is observed with saturated compounds.
- The usual spectroscopic technique cannot be used below 200nm.

2. $\pi\text{-}\pi^*$

- π electron in bonding orbital is excited to corresponding anti-bonding orbital π^* .
- Energy required is less when compared to $n\text{-}\sigma^*$.
- Compounds containing multiple bonds like alkenes, alkynes, nitriles, aromatic compounds undergo $\pi\text{-}\pi^*$ transition.
- Absorption usually occurs in the ordinary UV spectrophotometer.
- Absorption bands in conjugated alkenes (170-190nm)
- Absorption bands in carbonyls (180nm).

3. $n\text{-}\sigma^*$

- Saturated compounds containing one heteroatom with unshared pairs of electrons (n) like O, N, S and halogens are capable of $n\text{-}\sigma^*$ transition.
- These transitions require less energy than $\sigma\text{-}\sigma^*$ transition.
- In saturated alkyl halides, the energy required for transition decreases with increase in the size of halogen atom (or decrease in electronegativity).

4. $n\text{-}\pi^*$

- An electron from non-bonding orbital is promoted to anti-bonding π^* orbital.
- Compounds containing double bonds involving heteroatoms (C=O, N=O) undergo such type of transitions.
- This transition requires minimum energy out of all transitions and shows absorption band at longer wavelength around 300nm^[1]

2.2. CHROMOPHORE AND RELATED TERMS

1. Chromophore

Any organic functional group that exhibits characteristic absorption in the visible or ultraviolet region is called a chromophore. These are usually unsaturated groups containing n and π electrons that conveniently undergo n to $n\text{-}\pi^*$ and $\pi\text{-}\pi^*$ transitions. A compound that contains a chromophore is called chromogen.

Types of Chromophores

(a) Independent Chromophore

When a single chromophore is sufficient to impart colour to the chromogen, it is called an independent chromophore.

(b) Dependent Chromophores

When more than one chromophore is required to produce colour in the chromogen it is

called dependent chromophore. An important fact about chromophore is it may or may not impart colour to the compound, but absorption of radiation takes place irrespective of whether colour is produced or not. For example, carbonyl group does not produce any colour in the UV regions, still it is an important chromophore.

2.3. Auxochrome

It is a functional group that itself does not absorb in the UV region but when attached to the chromophore, it shifts the absorption maximum towards longer wavelength along with an increase in the intensity of absorption.

Types of Auxochrome (a) Bathochromic Groups

The groups that deepen the colour of a chromogen and eventually cause shifting of the absorption maximum towards longer wavelength are called bathochromic groups.

(b) Hypsochromic groups

The groups that lighten or diminish the colour of the chromogen resulting in the displacement of the absorption maximum towards shorter wavelength are called hypsochromic groups.

2.4. Effect of solvent polarity on the various types of bands K- band:

Due to conjugated enes & enones are affected differently by changing the polarity of the solvent. K bands due to conjugated dienes are not affected by changing the polarity of the solvent. While these bands due to enones show a red shift by increasing the polarity of solvent.

R band:

The absorption shifts to shorter wavelength (blue shift) with increasing polarity of solvent.

B band:

The position as well as the intensity of the band is not shifted by increasing the polarity of the solvent. But the heterocyclic aromatic compound, a marked hyperchromic shift is observed by increasing the polarity of the solvent^[2]

2.5. LAWS GOVERNING ABSORPTION OF RADIATION Lambert's Law:

When a monochromatic light passes through an absorbing medium at right angles to the plane of surface of medium or solution, the rate of decrease in intensity with thickness of medium (b) is proportional to the intensity of incident light.

Beer's Law :

Bernard and Beer independently stated that 'The intensity of incident light decreases exponentially as the concentration of absorber

in medium increases arithmetically. This is similar to Lambert's law.

III. INSTRUMENTATION OF UV VISIBLE SPECTROSCOPY UV VISIBLE SPECTROMETER

The spectrophotometers used in UV-visible spectroscopy measure the ratio of the intensity of light transmitted through a sample and the intensity of the incident light. The components of UV and visible spectrophotometer are identical except that they differ in their radiation sources. The radiation source used in visible region is tungsten lamp whereas in UV region deuterium lamp, hydrogen discharge lamp, mercury and xenon discharge lamp are commonly used.

3.1. Sources of Radiation

An ideal radiation source should have the following characteristics.

- Intensity of the incident light should be high
- It should emit continuous radiations
- Should be free from any fluctuations
- Should not show exhaustion on continuous usage

Hydrogen Discharge Lamp

It is the most widely used UV radiation source. It consists of two electrodes enclosed in a glass tube with a quartz. The glass tube is filled with hydrogen gas under relatively high pressure. When a voltage is applied across the electrodes, the hydrogen molecules are excited to higher energy level. While returning to the ground state the electrons emit UV radiations in the near UV region (180-350 nm). The high pressure inside the tube brings about collision

between hydrogen molecules. This results in pressure broadening and emission of a continuous (broadband) hydrogen spectrum instead of a simple line spectrum. Hydrogen discharge lamps are stable and robust.

Deuterium Discharge Lamp

This lamp consists of two electrodes enclosed within a silica envelope filled with deuterium (D) under low pressure. When a high voltage is applied across these electrodes, it causes

emission of deuterium lines. These lines under the influence of low pressure in the interior of the lamp broaden to give a continuous spectrum in the near UV region. The emission intensity of deuterium discharge lamp is about 3-5 times the intensity of hydrogen discharge lamp. It is highly expensive and used when high intensity is required.

Xenon Discharge Lamp

Xenon discharge lamp is an electric discharge lamp which utilizes ionized xenon gas to produce an extremely white light for short durations. It consists of a sealed tube made up of glass or fused quartz which is filled with xenon gas at a pressure of 10-30 atmospheres. The glass tube is either straight or helical, circular or U shape. Additionally, it contains a pair of tungsten metal electrodes which carry electrical current to the gas. The electrodes protrude through each end of the tube and are connected to a capacitor which is charged at a high voltage. The xenon lamp generates significant amount of UV radiation and shows spectral lines in the UV region. Its intensity is higher than the hydrogen discharge lamp. But, the UV radiations released by it cause ionization of the oxygen molecules, which is the major drawback of xenon lamp.

Tungsten Lamp

It is similar to an electric bulb. Tungsten is the most widely used and most suitable material for lamp filaments. It is used when polychromatic light (light with radiations of several wavelengths) is required. The lamp consists of a tungsten filament enclosed in a vacuum bulb, which is heated electrically at a high temperature to produce white light. It requires a potential of 3-220 volts. It emits continuous radiations over a wide wavelength region (350-2500 nm).

3.2. Wavelength Selectors Monochromators

A monochromator is a device which converts a polychromatic beam of light into a monochromatic beam. It consists of the following parts.

1. Entrance Slit: It defines the incoming beam of polychromatic light into a narrow beam to avoid

an overlapping monochromatic images.

2. Collimator 1: It collimates or makes parallel the radiations coming from the entrance slit.
3. Prism Grating: It disperses the radiations with respect to the component wavelengths.
4. Collimator 2: It reforms the images of the entrance slit
5. Exit Slit: It selects a narrow band of dispersed spectrum for observation by the detector.

The different types of monochromators have been discussed below.

Prism Monochromators

These are usually made up of glass, quartz or fused silica. They disperse the polychromatic light falling on it into its component rainbow colors according to their wavelengths. They are commonly used in prism monochromators given non-linear dispersions. Prism monochromators are of two types.

Refractive Type

Light from the radiation source passes through the entrance slit and falls on the collimator. The radiations are collimated and dispersed into component wavelengths by the prism. Collimator reforms the images entrance slit into any one of the seven colors. The required wavelength is selected by either rotating the Forby or keeping the prism stationary and moving the exit slit.

Reflective type (Littrow Prism)

Its working is similar to refractive prisms. It consists of a reflective surface on one side so that light does not enter the prism on the other side. The dispersed radiations are reflected and collected on the same side on which the radiations from the source fall^[4]

Grating Monochromators

Gratings are made up of glass, quartz or alkyl halides like KBr and NaBr. Back surface of the gratings are coated with aluminum to make them reflective. These are highly efficient prisms in converting a polychromatic light into monochromatic light. They consist of densely arranged parallel lines or grooves.

Grating monochromators are of two types

Diffraction Gratings

Diffraction grating is used when polychromatic light is to be separated with high resolution. It works on the mechanism of reinforcement (strengthening). The incident rays are reinforced with those reflected, resulting in a radiation whose wavelength is expressed by the equation,

Transmission Grating

By rotating the grating and fixing the entrance slit of monochromator or vice versa, the desired wavelength at angle θ and order n can be selected. In transmission grating, the incident and diffracted rays lie on opposite sides^[5]

3.3. Filters

A filter is a device which allows only the light of required wavelength to pass through and absorbs the unwanted radiations either partially or completely. Analysis of different species requires different filters which are interchanged according to the needs of filters

3.4. Sample Cells

Sample cells or cuvettes or sample holders are used to hold sample solutions. Their shape (rectangular or cylindrical) and material of construction varies depending on the instrument and the nature of the sample being analyzed. The path length (thickness or internal distance) of the cell is normally 1 cm, however cells with longer path lengths up to 10 cm shorter path lengths of 1-2 mm are also available. Before taking the measurements, sample cells should be thoroughly cleaned to avoid any contamination. The level of the sample solution must be up to the mark etched on its surface or above the light beam to avoid reflections from the upper surface of the liquid^[6].

3.5. Detectors

Detectors are the devices which convert light energy into electrical signals, that are displayed on the readout devices. After passing through the sample cell, a part of the radiation is absorbed by the sample and the remaining is transmitted. The radiation falls on the detector which determines the intensity of the radiation absorbed by the sample

Photovoltaic Cell

It consists of a photocathode which is a thin metallic layer coated with gold or silver. It also contains a metal base (usually iron) which acts as anode. Between these two electrodes is a semiconductor layer of selenium.

3.6. Single Beam UV-VIS Spectrophotometers

In a single beam UV-visible spectrophotometer, light from the radiation source after passing through a monochromator enters the sample

cell containing the sample solution. Apart from the incident light is absorbed by the sample while the remaining gets transmitted. The transmitted light strikes the detector and produces electrical signals. The signal produced by the detector is directly proportional to the intensity of the light beam striking its surface. The output is measured by a galvanometer and displayed on the readout device. The absorbance readings of both the standard and unknown solutions are recorded after adjusting the instrument to 100% transmittance with a blank solution each time the wavelength is changed^[7].

3.7. Double Beam UV-VIS Spectrophotometers

Double beam spectrophotometer allows direct measurement of the ratio of intensities of sample and reference beams respectively. The design of a double beam spectrophotometer is similar to single beam spectrophotometer except that it contains a beam splitter or chopper. In a double beam spectrophotometer, radiations from the radiation source are allowed to pass through the entrance slit into the monochromator which then selects the required wavelength of light which is then passed through the exit slit and received by a rapidly rotating beam splitter or chopper. Beam splitter is a circular disc one third of which is opaque, one third is transparent and the remaining is mirrored. The chopper splits the monochromatic beam of light into two beams of equal intensities. One beam is passed through the sample cell and the other through the reference cell. After passing through the sample and reference cells, the transmitted beams reach the detectors and produce a pulsating current which is proportional to the intensities of the incident light and the transmitted light. The detectors are connected to an amplifier and readout device which gives the final result in absorbance or transmittance by combining the output^[8]

IV. VALIDATION OF ULTRAVIOLET SPECTROSCOPY

It is defined as establishing documented evidence which provides a high degree of assurance that a specific process will consistently produce a product meeting its predetermined specification & quality characteristics

3.8. Validation parameters

- Linearity
- Accuracy
- Precision
- Sensitivity

- Range
- Selectivity
- Ruggedness

Linearity

Linearity is the ability of the method to produce test results that are proportional, either directly or by a well defined mathematical transformation, to the concentration of analyte in samples within a given range. For UV – visible Measurements, the usual linear relationship is Beer's law, which states that the absorbance of a solution is directly proportional to concentration. A linear calibration curve relating absorbance to concentration should have the form:

$$A = kc$$

Where,

A is absorbance
C is concentration

K is

the calibration factor (the slope of the calibration curve).

Thus testing for linearity in effects tests how well our theoretical model (Beer's law) fits the actual measurements. Theoretically, an absorbance of only one standard of known concentration is required in order to calibrate for quantification. The measured absorbance value divided by the concentration gives the slope. A number of instrumental and sample parameters can cause deviations from Beer's law, and significant quantitative errors can result if the calibration curve is not accurately characterized. However, because these deviations are wavelength dependent, their influence on results can be minimized by using a wavelength that gives the best linearity. To construct a calibration curve, the spectra of a set of at least three standard analyte solutions should be measured. The concentrations of the standard solutions should bracket the expected concentration range of the samples for analysis. Ideally, all measured standard values would lie on a straight line, but in practice the values always exhibit some scatter. A statistical method must be applied to find the best fit of the calibration curve to the data and, in a second step, to determine which type of calibration curve gives the best fit. The statistical method most often used is linear regression, which is also known as the least squares method. To compare two calibration curves, a measure of the goodness of the fit of the standards to line is required.

Several statistical values, including correlation coefficient, standard error of regression, and uncertainty can be

used to obtain this measurement. Of these, the correlation coefficient is the most popular. This value always lies between +1 and -1. A value of +1 indicates a perfect linear relationship between absorbance and concentration, with A increasing. A value of -1 indicates a perfect linear relationship between absorbance and concentration, with A decreasing (which can occur if derivative data is used). A value of 0 indicates that there is no correlation between absorbance and concentration.

To determine the best wavelength or combination of wavelengths the spectra of a set of pure standards with a wide range of concentrations are measured. A linear calibration curve is applied to each wavelength, and the chosen statistic for the assessment of linearity is calculated. For quickest evaluation, a graphical plot of the linearity statistic versus wavelength is useful.

The above figure depicts the spectra of four yellow dyes and standards and the corresponding correlation coefficient spectrum for a simple linear calibration curve. The best calibration in terms of linearity is achieved at the point at which the correlation coefficient approaches unity. In this example, the wavelength of maximum absorbance (414 nm) is not identical to the wavelength (402 nm) that gives the best linearity. Typically, correlation coefficient values of better than 0.999 can be expected^[9].

ACCURACY

Accuracy of a method is the degree of agreement between an individual test result generated by the method and the true value.

Definition of terms The terms accuracy and precision are used throughout this primer, but not interchangeably.

It is therefore important to clearly understand the difference between them. As an analogy, the below figure shows the performance of a marksman on a rifle range.

- In (a), the shots are neither accurate nor precise.

- In(b), the shots are precise but inaccurate; the marks are performing well, but a consistent bias is evident.
- In(c), the shots are accurate but imprecise: the average of the shots would lie in the center of the target, but the individual shots deviate significantly.
- In(d), the shots are both accurate and precise.

To determine which wavelength or wavelengths give the best accuracy, the spectra of a set of standards are measured and calibration curves constructed at all wavelengths, as described above. A sample of known concentration is then required. This sample is ideally one for which the concentration of the analyte has been determined using a different technique. However, if such a sample is not available, a synthetic sample containing a known weight of the sample is prepared. The spectrum of the sample is measured, and quantification is performed at all wavelengths over the measured wavelength range. The quantitative results at each wavelength are then compared with the known value. A graphical plot of the quantitative results versus wavelength enables quick evaluation. The analytical wavelength would have been set at 414 nm using traditional methods, the wavelength or wavelengths that give the best accuracy lie in the region of 400 nm. Because noise may bias the accuracy of any individual measurement, it is preferable to perform a series of measurements on the sample and then calculate the average. This method reduces the contribution of noise to errors in accuracy.

PRECISION

Precision of a method is the degree of agreement among individual test results when the procedure is applied repeatedly to multiple samplings. A statistical value is required in order to determine precision. Standard deviation, percent relative standard deviation (obtained by dividing the standard deviation by the average value and multiplying by 100), and confidence intervals are the most popular tools for assessing the precision or repeatability of a set of values. To determine the precision of a method, a set of typically 10-20 samples with the same concentration are prepared. These samples are then measured, and the amount of analyte is calculated. The standard deviation of the results is a measure of the precision. If the desired level of precision is not achieved, noise reduction techniques such as wavelength averaging, time

averaging, and internal referencing should be used to improve the value. The same techniques can be applied in multicomponent analyses^[10]

SENSITIVITY

Sensitivity refers to the response obtained for a given amount of analyte and is often denoted by two analytical factors: the limit of detection (LOD) and the limit of quantification (LOQ). The LOD is the lowest concentration of analyte that can be detected but not necessarily quantified in sample matrices. In general, the LOD is the point at which the signal from the analyte is equal to three times the noise in the measurement. Measurements from some spectrophotometer list standard deviations based on the noise in the measurement. The LOD is approximately three times the standard deviation. The LOQ is the lowest concentration of analyte that can be determined with acceptable precision and accuracy (which depend on the objectives for the analysis) must be defined. The tools described above then can be used to determine the acceptable limits. It is often assumed that the wavelength with maximum absorbance will give the best sensitivity. However, because instrumental noise can vary significantly with wavelength, this is not necessarily the case. A better way to determine the wavelength or wavelengths of optimum sensitivity is to measure the spectrum of a sample of low concentration several times. The average and percent relative standard deviation of the measured values at each wavelength are then calculated. The wavelength with the lowest percent relative standard deviation likely will yield the best sensitivity. The above figure illustrates this technique for a yellow dye sample. Although wavelengths between 400 and 450 nm give excellent sensitivity, the best sensitivity is obtained at 220 nm^[11]

RANGE

Range is the interval between (and including) the upper and lower levels of analyte that have been calculated with the required precision, accuracy, and linearity. The range is determined by first analyzing samples that contain varying concentrations of the analyte and then using the tools described above to calculate the linearity, precision, and accuracy of the results.

SELECTIVITY

Selectivity is the ability of a method to quantify accurately and specifically the analyte or analytes in the presence of other compounds. The presence of any other compound that absorbs at the wavelength used to

quantify the analyte will result in quantitative error. These other compounds may be synthesis precursors, known impurities, excipients, or degradation products in the sample matrix. If the type of interferent is known, the method developer can examine the spectra of the analyte and of the Interferent to select a wavelength does not suppress sufficiently the effect of the Interferent, an appropriate correction technique such as use of an isoabsorbance wavelength. When a known interfering component with a known spectrum is present, the error introduced by this component at the analytical wavelength for the target analyte can be eliminated by selecting a reference wavelength at which the interfering compound exhibits the same absorbance as it does at the analytical wavelength. The absorbance at this reference wavelength is subtracted from the absorbance at the analytical wavelength. The residual absorbance is the true absorbance of the analyte. This technique is less reliable when the spectra of the analyte of the interferent are highly similar. Moreover, it can correct for only one interferent. If the identity and/or spectra of possible interferents are unknown, an empirical approach almost identical to that described above may be used to determine which wavelength or wavelengths give the best accuracy.

RUGGEDNESS

Ruggedness is a degree of reproducibility of test results obtained by analyzing the same sample under a variety of normal test conditions. The method should not be affected by changes in time or place. The reproducibility of the method should be established under various conditions, for example with different elapsed assay times. The ruggedness of an analytical method is determined by analyzing subsamples of a homogeneous sample in different laboratories and on different instruments. These test sets should be performed by different analysts under operational and environmental conditions that may vary but that fall within the specified parameters for the method. The degree of reproducibility of the results is then calculated as a function of the assay variables. This value can be compared with the precision of the method under normal conditions to obtain a measure of its ruggedness^[12]

V. APPLICATION OF UV-VISIBLES SPECTROSCOPY

5.1 (I) Spectrophotometric Titration- Single Component and Multicomponent Analysis

Photometric or spectrophotometric titration signifies the equivalence point provided the condition that analyte, the reagent or the titration product absorbs radiant energy, the equivalence point of the titration is given out by the absorbing indicator which shows the change in absorbance. A graph is plotted by taking absorbance (λ) on Y-axis and volume of the titrant on X-axis. Most of the photometric titrations demonstrate two linear points having different slopes. One of the slopes occur early in the titration and the other one appears after the equivalence point. The linear portions of the curve are extrapolated and intersected to get the end point. At a fixed absorbance, the titration provides the end points. Moreover the endpoints are determined by conversion of the linear segment curve to a sigmoid-shaped curve with the help of derivative. The titration curves with linear portions are obtained provided the absorbing species obey Beer's law. Moreover correction is performed on absorbances for volume changes.

5.2. (II) Qualitative Analysis (a) Determination of Purity

Impurities present in the sample can be detected from the absorption spectrum by considering the following factors.

- (I) Presence of additional peaks in the spectrum
- (ii) Enhanced peak intensities

- (iii) By measuring the absorbance of the sample at specific wavelength.

A substance can be purified by continuing the purification process until the absorption band of the impurity disappears completely.

(b) Identification of the Compound

Compounds containing long pair of electrons or conjugated double bonds absorb UV radiations and give characteristic absorption spectrum. The unknown compound can be identified by comparing its absorption spectrum with that of the standard. Aromatic compounds and conjugated alkenes can be characterized using UV absorption spectroscopy^[13].

5.3. (III) Quantitative Analysis

Quantitative analysis by UV-visible spectroscopy helps to determine the concentration and amount of drug present in a given sample solution as well as its percentage purity. A number of metallic elements, ions and functional groups can be estimated by coupling them with a suitable chromogenic reagent, which absorbs visible light.

5.4. Cis-trans Isomerism

In this type of isomerism, the compounds have different spatial arrangement of atoms of groups with respect to the central atoms or double bond. UV spectroscopy differentiates Cis and trans isomers. Trans-isomer exhibits absorbance at a longer wavelength than cis-isomer. Cis and trans -isomers are interconvertible. The conversion causes change in λ_{max} and colour intensity. Conversion of cis-isomer to trans results in bathochromic shift and hyperchromic effect. Conversion of trans -isomer to cis form results in hypsochromic shift and hypochromic effect. For example, the cis-isomer of vitamin D₂ gives λ_{max} at 265 nm while its trans-isomer exhibits λ_{max} at 294 nm.

5.5. Conjugation

Conjugation can occur between two or more carbons containing double or triple bonds and also in carbon - oxygen double bond. Conjugation helps in determining the presence of an aromatic ring, the number and position of the substituents present on the carbon of conjugated system. Conjugation causes shifting of λ_{max} towards longer wavelength, as the number of double bonds increases.

5.6. Alkyl Substitution:

The number of alkyl substituents in an organic compound can be determined by UV - visible spectroscopy. Substitution of alkyl group in a compound causes bathochromic shift, i.e., λ_{max} shift towards longer wavelength^[14]

VI. CONCLUSION

UV-

Visible Spectroscopy is based on a firm theoretical basis, more selective, efficient, fast and reproducible analytical methods can be developed. In general terms, there are two major measurement techniques; how much analyte is in the sample (quantitative analysis) and which analyte is in the sample (qualitative analysis). An area under curve method is "the area under two points on the mixture spectra is directly proportional to the concentration of the compound of interest" particularly suitable for the compounds where there is no sharp peak or broad spectra are obtained. The pharmaceutical analysis by UV-Visible Spectroscopy comprises the procedures necessary to determine the "identity, strength, quality and purity" of compounds.

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