

## A Comprehensive Review on Gas chromatography

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Date of Submission: 01-05-2025

Date of Acceptance: 10-05-2025

**ABSTRACT** :- Gas chromatography is the general term for a range of analytical separation techniques used to analyze volatiles in the gas phase. Gas chromatography separates the analytes by separating the sample into two phases, the stationary phase and the mobile phase, by dissolving the sample components in a solvent and evaporating them. The mobile phase is chemically inert Gas, which transports the analyte molecules through the heated column. Gas Chromatography is one of the only chromatography's that interacts with analytes without the use of Mobile phases. The stationary phase is either a solid adsorbent, called Gas-Solid Chromatography (GSC), or a liquid on an inert support, called Gas-Liquid Chromatography (GLC). Gas chromatography is an instrumental technique used forensically in drug analysis, arson, and toxicology analysis of other organic compounds.

**Keywords** :- Gas chromatography, Instrumentation, Procedure, Advantages, Disadvantages, Applications, Limitations Of Gas Chromatography.

### I. INTRODUCTION :

Gas Chromatography is a widely used analytical technique used to separate & analyze the gaseous & volatile compounds. In 1952, Modern Gas Chromatography was invented by James & Martin. Since early 1950's this technique was first used for the separation of amino acids now GC has large number of applications as this technique is rapid & has a great sensitivity. Both qualitative & quantitative analysis can be done through GC. Even minute quantity sample can be analyzed through GC. In gas chromatography, the sample is dissolved in a solvent and vaporized in order to separate the analytes. The sample is distributed between two phases: a stationary phase and a mobile phase. The mobile phase is a chemically inert gas such as helium, nitrogen etc. Gas chromatography is one of the unique forms of chromatography that does not need the mobile phase for interacting with the analyte. The stationary phase is either a solid adsorbent, termed

gas-solid chromatography (GSC), or a liquid on an inert support, termed gas-liquid chromatography (GLC). The criteria for the compounds to be analyzed in GC is volatility & Thermostability.[1]

The technique of gas chromatography is distinctive and adaptable. Its examination of gases and vapors from extremely volatile components was used in its early stages of development [2]. An analytical tool called a gas chromatograph (GC) is used to determine the composition of distinct sample components[3-4]. In analytical science, gas chromatography (GC) is a popular type of chromatography that is used to separate and study compounds that may be vaporized without disintegrating. Regular uses of GC include determining a substance's cleanliness or identifying the separate components of a blend[5-8]. Gas-liquid chromatography (GLC) was made possible by the work of Martin and Synge, followed by James and Martin, whose contributions to the field revolutionized chemical separations and analyses.[9]

Our world is one of complex mixtures. Petroleum may well contain over 100,000 components. It is thought that there are of the order of 100,000 different proteins in the human body.

And natural products, such as essential oils, are also often highly complex. Separation methods are necessary to analyse these, while even the simpler, but still often difficult, mixtures encountered in, for example, the pharmaceutical industry most often require chromatography or a related technique.

Separations are achieved by GC by a series of partitions between a moving gas phase and a stationary liquid phase held in a small diameter tube (the column) after a mixture is injected as a narrow band. A detector then monitors the composition of the gas stream as it emerges from the column carrying separated components, and the resulting signals provide the input for data acquisition. GC can be applied to the analysis of mixtures, which contain compounds with boiling points from near zero to over 700K, or which can be heated sufficiently without decomposition to

give a vapour pressure of a few mmHg. Derivatization to increase volatility extends this range. The sample size can be as small as pg, but, in preparative, as opposed to analytical, applications, tens of grammes can be handled. GC is now a standard analytical method that underpins research, development, and quality control in many industries, especially petro-chemical manufacture, and in environmental, food contaminant, and drug residue and forensic analysis. [10]

A solid adsorbent serves as the stationary and separation phase in gas-solid chromatography. When using a stationary phase adsorption method in gas-liquid chromatography a solid is made up of a thin layer of immobile liquid that is supported and separated by division. The technique that is most frequently employed is gas-liquid chromatography. Before being combined with the gas mobile step, the separated sample is first vaporized. Faster particles move more slowly in the stationary phase, whereas less soluble components move more quickly. The components are as well. After being separated for distribution, the sample solution kept in the device enters the gas stream that travels via the "column," a separator pipe. (Carrier gases are nitrogen or helium.) Inside the column, different parts are kept apart. The quantity of components exiting the column is measured by the detector. A standard sample with a known concentration is injected into the device in order to measure a sample with an unknown concentration. To determine the concentration, the area and peak retention time (outer form) of the test sample and the standard sample are compared [11,12].

#### Principal:

After the specimen arrangement is combined with the instrument, it passes through a gas stream and into a division tube, also referred to as the "column." Helium or nitrogen are employed as carrier gases. The unique elements are isolated within the section. [13–22]

A standard specimen with a known concentration is added to the device in order to quantify a sample with an ambiguous focus. An instrument for separating chemicals in a complex sample combination is a gas chromatograph. A gas chromatograph performs analysis using a thin tube called a column; the column is distinguished by The sample's chemical components move through a gas stream at varying speeds depending on their unique physical and chemical characteristics as

well as how they interact with a specific column filling material, known as stationary phase.

The compounds are electronically detected and evaluated as they exit the end of the column. The stationary phase in the column has the ability to separate the various components, resulting in each component leaving the segment at a distinct moment (the retention time). The temperature, carrier gas flow rate, and column length are some of the variables that can be used to alter the retention time or order. [23–30]

A known volume of vaporous or fluid analyte is introduced into the column's "entrance" (head) during a gas chromatographic examination, usually with the aid of a microsyringe. [31–37]

The time at which each part reaches the outlet and the segment's measure can be determined by using an indicator to track the outlet stream from the segment. Substances are identified by the way they rise (elute) from the region and by the analyte's retention duration in the section. [38–42] Headspace sampling is the quickest technique for assessing volatile organic chemicals in complex materials, such as biological samples, natural product extracts, etc. [43–44]

The basic principle of gas chromatography is that greater the affinity of the compound for the stationary phase, more the compound will be retained by the column and longer time will be required for elution and detection. Thus, the heart of the gas chromatograph is the column in which the separation of the component takes place and to this must be added the source and control of the carrier gas flow through the column, a means of sample introduction and detection of the components as they elute from the end of the column. Since temperature will increase the volatility of the analytes, the column is placed in a thermostatically controlled oven. [44]

The material to be examined is separated between the mobile and stationary phases in gas chromatography.

The mobile gas phase vaporizes the sample during separation and transports it through the column. Based on their affinities for the stationary phase and vapour pressure, the various components are segregated. The distribution constant ( $K_c$ ), also referred to as the partition coefficient, is the word used to describe the affinity of components for the stationary phase.

$$K_c = [A]_s / [A]_m$$

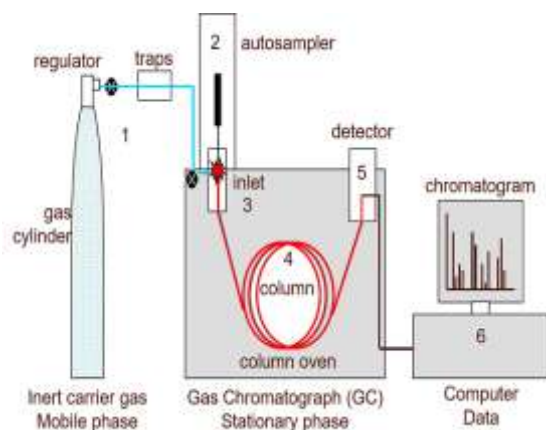
where  $[A]_s$  = Component A Concentration in the Stationary Phase

[A]<sub>m</sub> = Component A Concentration in the Mobile Phase

The distribution constant ( $K_c$ ) regulates the flow of various components through the column; as a result, chromatographic separation is based on variations in the distribution constant.

A schematic illustration of gas chromatography can be found in Figure 1. The stationary phase's chemical composition and temperature both affect the distribution constant. Therefore, the components for the separation of various components through the column or another stationary phase can be enhanced by temperature.

A gas chromatograph is a chemical analysis technique used to isolate chemicals in a complex sample mixture. A gas chromatograph uses a column, which is a small tube that allows different chemical components of a sample to flow through it at different rates in a gas stream based on their unique physical and chemical characteristics as well as how they interact with a particular column filling, sometimes referred to as the stationary phase. chemicals are electronically detected and tested as they exit the end of the column. The stationary stage in the column can isolate a large number of distinct components because each component leaves the segment at a different moment. The temperature, column length, and carrier gas flow rate are some of the variables that can be used to alter the order or duration of retention. [45–52]. During a gas chromatography study, a microsyringe is usually used to feed a precisely known volume of vaporous or fluid analyte into the column's "entry" (head). The analyte particles cannot be cleared by the carrier gas across columns [53-63] because of the analyte atoms' adsorption onto the segment or pushing components in the segment.



### Types of Gas Chromatography

The two major types of Gas Chromatography:

- 1) Gas-Solid Chromatography : In the type, the stationary phase in solid ( absorbance like alumina, silica, active carbon, etc. are used.) This method provides a key column life time; however catalytic changes are observed in this technique.
- 2) Gas- Liquid Chromatography: In the type, the stationary phase is an immobilized liquid coated on solid support. In this method the liquid gradually blees off, and this is the disadvantage of this method.

### Advantages Gas chromatography has the following advantages:

- 1) It is reliable technique and provide rapid analysis.
- 2) It is highly efficient and lead to high resolution.
- 3) It utilities sensitive detectors.
- 4) It required small sample (<1ml)
- 5) It is non-destructive as it enables the coupling of mass spectrometer, which measures the masses of individual molecules converted into ions, i.e. molecules that have been electrically charged.
- 6) It provide high quantitative accuracy.
- 7) It is a well established technique with extensive literature and applications.

Disadvantage Gas chromatography has the following disadvantage:

- 1) It is limited to volatile sample.
- 2) It is not suitable for thermolabile samples ( that degrade at elevated temperature).
- 3) It is suited to preparative chromatography.
- 4) It requires MS detector for structural elucidation of the analyte, since most of the Non- MS detectors are distructive.

### INSTRUMENTATION CHROMATOGRAPHY:

GAS

A good gas chromatography machine contains the following important components,

1. Pressure regulator
2. Sample injection port
3. column
4. Detector
5. Signal recorder

#### 1. Pressure Regulator:

This device lowers the cylinder pressure to a level appropriate for the Gas Chromatograph. It is connected directly to the gas cylinder valve. For

instance, single-stage and double-stage valves are the two varieties.

#### Single stage Regulator:

It is uncommon to utilize a single stage regulator to supply the gas chromatograph with constant pressure from the cylinder. It regulates the line pressure in gas lines. Nevertheless, the dual-stage regulator has better control over the delivery pressure. Installed in the gas line, these regulators need to have their pressure continuously monitored and adjusted.



#### Dual Stage regulators

A two-stage regulator is connected to the gas cylinder valve and consists of two independent regulators housed in a single housing. While the second stage lowers the final pressure, the first stage lowers the cylinder pressure. One benefit of a two-stage regulator is that, even when gas consumption causes the cylinder pressure to drop, the second stage maintains a steady pressure independent of the inlet pressure. When connecting to a gas chromatograph where the delivery pressure is constant, a two-stage regulator is advised even though it costs more than a single-stage regulator with drift tolerance, which is a gradual increase in delivery pressure when the tank is empty. It's essential.

#### CGA code

Since not all regulators can be used in all cylinders, the Compressed Gas Association (CGA) has implemented a watertight coding system to prevent unintentional cylinder and regulator mixing. A CGA number code is used to identify each cylinder and regulator, and cylinders that have

the same number can be used together. CGA codes for a few typical gases include:

#### Gas CGA code

| Gas                     | CGA code |
|-------------------------|----------|
| Nitrogen, Helium, Argon | 580      |
| Oxygen                  | 540      |
| Air                     | 590      |
| Hydrogen                | 350      |

#### Specific gas regulators:

##### 1. Flammable gases:

Reverse threaded brass fittings for flammable gases, like hydrogen, can be identified by a line engraved around the circumference. If using acetylene gas, make sure that no copper tubing or alloys containing copper or silver are used in the regulator's construction.

##### 2. Corrosive gases:

Restrictive gases must be made of stainless steel or monel. To stop corrosive gases from flowing back into the regulator and cylinder, install a suckback filter after the regulator.

##### 3. High purity gases:

The presence of moisture, oxygen, or other gaseous vapors can contaminate high-purity gases.[64]

##### 2. Sample injection port:-

For optimal column efficiency, the sample should not be too large and should be introduced onto the column as a "slug". Band widening and resolution loss occur when big samples are injected gradually. The most popular injection technique involves injecting the sample into the flasher port at the top of the column using a microsyringe through a rubber septum. Usually, the sample port temperature is around 50 °C higher than the sample's least volatile component's boiling point. Sample sizes for packed columns vary from tenths of a microliter to twenty microliters. In contrast, capillary columns require a significantly smaller sample size, usually 10-3 mL. For capillary GC, split/splitless injection is utilized. Check out this diagram for a split/splitless injector.



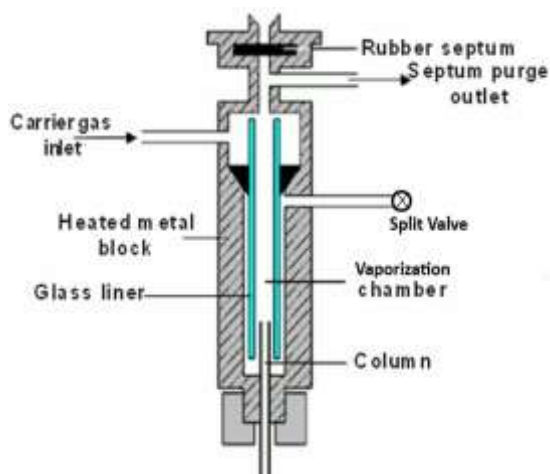


Fig. The split /splitless Injector

There are two modes of operation for the injector. split or not split. Within the injector is a heated glass-lined compartment that the sample is placed in administered via a septum. Carrier gas gets into the chamber and has three methods of exhaustion (if the It is split mode on the injector. The sample turns into vapor. create a blend of vaporized solvent, carrier gas, and the solute that evaporated. A portion of this blend enters the split outlet, but the majority of it exits the column. Septum bleed is avoided using the septum purge port. elements from getting into the column. [65]

The chromatograph's "heart" or "brain" are the columns or stationary phases, which are in charge of the separation procedure. The GC system involves vaporizing a sample and injecting it into the separation column's head, which is either covered in a liquid film or packed with a finely split solid. Due to variations in how they interact with the stationary phase, the components of a sample are separated as it passes through the column in the flow of an inert gas used as the mobile phase. The separated compounds pass across a detector after being eluted from the column, producing a signal that represents the compound's concentration. The delay in the sample's passage down the column can be used to qualitatively identify the species that are present.

### 3.2 Main GC Modes

GC is the only form of chromatography that does not utilize a mobile phase for interacting with the analyte. When the stationary phase is a solid adsorbent, the process is termed gas–solid chromatography (GSC), and when it is a liquid on an

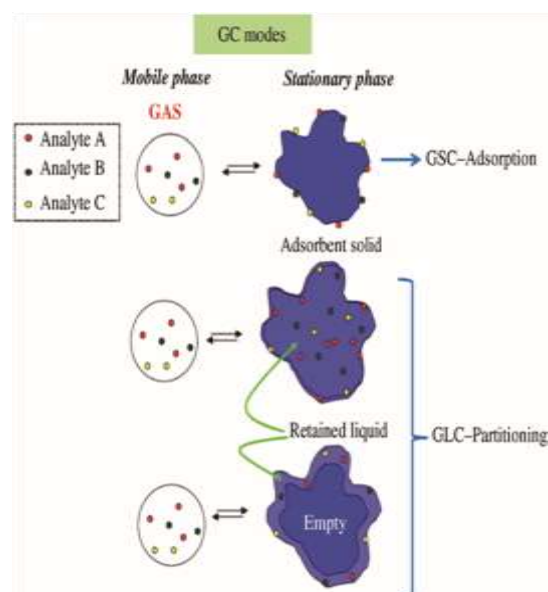


Figure GC modes showing interaction between the mobile phase and the stationary phases.

inert support, the process is termed gas–liquid chromatography (GLC). A schematic diagram explaining each GC mode is presented in figure

### 3.3 Main Columns of GC

The liquid stationary phase in GLC is either immobilized on the walls of the capillary tubing or adsorbed onto a solid inert packing. If the glass or metal column tube is packed with tiny, spherical inert supports, the column is said to be packed. A small coating of the liquid phase is adsorbed onto these beads' surface. The stationary phase or an adsorbent layer capable of supporting the liquid phase is applied to the tubing walls of a capillary column. However, because of its strong peak tailing and semipermanent retention of polar chemicals within the column, GSC is rarely utilized in laboratories and has a limited range of applications. Consequently, "gas chromatography" is the abbreviation for "gas–liquid chromatography."

#### Packed GC columns

Because the first commercial instruments accepted only packed columns, all initial studies of GC were performed on packed columns. Packed columns

Column types:

| Packed columns   | Capillary columns  |
|--|--|
| Stationary phase is coated directly in the column  | Stationary phase is coated with the inner wall of the column         |
| Applicable for both GSC and GLC  | Applicable only for GLC  |
| Liquid phase is adsorbed onto the surface of the beads in a thin layer or onto the solid inert packing | Liquid stationary phase is immobilized on the capillary tubing walls |

Packed columns are typically made of stainless steel and range in length from 0.61 to 3.05 meters, with an outer diameter of 0.64 or 0.32 cm. Other inert materials have also been employed, such as steel coated with Teflon or glass, nickel, glass, and fluorocarbon polymer (Teflon). An inert support impregnated with a stationary phase ranging from 5 to 20% makes up the packing. In order to keep the coated particles from breaking during loading and handling, the solid support that holds the liquid stationary phase needs to be big (0.5–5 m<sup>2</sup>/g), chemically inert, have low sorptive activity toward common analytes, and have good mechanical strength. Under the brand name Chromosorb, diatomaceous earth—which is made up of hydrous silica with impurities—has been utilized as a solid support [66,67].

Numerous active sites created by free hydroxyl groups on the surfaces of the diatomaceous earth support create undesired hydrogen bonds with polar solute molecules, which results in peak tailing. To increase its inertness, even the most inert substance (white chromosorb) needs to be silanized and acid-washed. Supelcoport, Chromosorb WHP, Gas Chrom Q II, and Anachrom Q are some examples of common deactivated white supports. Deactivation has the drawback of making these supports hydrophobic, which makes it challenging to cover them with a polar stationary liquid [68].

High-temperature-stable silicone-based oils make up the majority of GC liquid phases. Methyl silicone (OV-1, OV-101, SE-30, and DC-200), methyl phenyl silicone (OV-17 and SE-52), methyl trifluoropropyl silicone (OV-210 and QF-1), and methyl cyanoethyl silicone (OV-225 and AN-600) are among the various polarities of these

liquid phases. Although it necessitates a higher column temperature for elution, using a larger liquid phase load (about 10%) both reduces the adsorptive interactions between the solute and the solid support and increases the column capacity to prevent overloading from dirty samples [69,70].

#### Capillary GC Columns

Despite their 1959 introduction, capillary columns did not become widely used until 1980. Because capillary columns allow for quick and effective separation, it is estimated that over 80% of all applications are being conducted on them.

Instead of packing material, a thin layer of liquid phase covers the inner wall of capillary chromatographic columns. The tube is known as an open tubular column because of its extremely low flow resistance due to its open nature.

The following sections provide descriptions of the three categories of open tubular columns.

#### 1. Porous Layer Open Tubular Column:

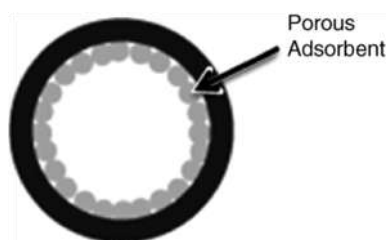
Originally proposed by Golay in the late 1950s, porous layer open tubular (PLOT) columns have been successfully developed and commercialized [71]. PLOT columns are ideal for the analysis of light, fixed gases, and other volatile compounds because they contain a porous layer of a solid adsorbent like alumina, molecular sieves, or Porapak. Figure 3.2 shows the typical structure of a porous layer open tubular column.

#### 2. Wall-Coated Open Tubular Column:

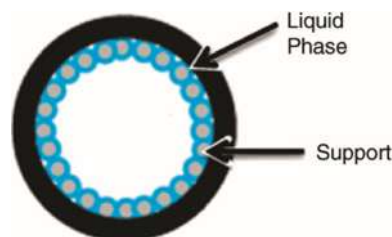
Golay proved in 1957 that wall-coated open tubular (WCOT) columns were superior to packed columns (an efficiency increase of 100 times or more); however, it took a quarter century for this efficiency to be realized in practice [72]. The stationary-phase layer is directly applied to the wall of WCOT columns, with a film thickness ranging from 0.05 to 3 μm. following Figure depicts a typical open tubular column covered by a wall.

#### 3. Support-Coated Open Tubular Column :

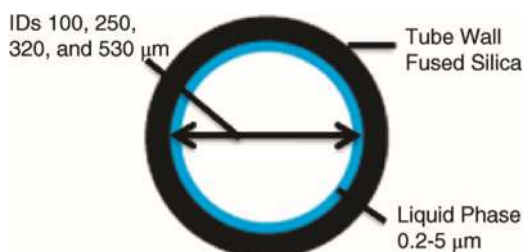
Halász and Horváth first proposed support-coated open tubular (SCOT) columns in 1963 [73]. These columns have a liquid phase-coated adsorbed layer on top of an extremely fine solid support (like Celite). The SCOT columns can



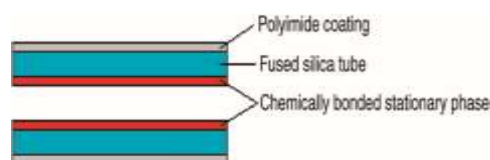
**Figure :** Porous layer open tubular column



**Figure :** Support-coated open tubular column



**Figure :** Wall-coated open tubular (WCOT) column



**Figure :** Cross-section of a fused silica open tubular column

Compared to the thin films of early wall-coated open tubular (WCOT) columns, they have a larger sample capacity and can contain more liquid phase. SCOT columns are no longer necessary because of the advent of cross-linking processes, which enable the use of stable, thick films in WCOT columns. Figure 3.4 depicts a typical support-coated open tubular column.

#### Fused Silica Open Tubular Column

Stainless steel was first used as a capillary GC material. However, the steel capillary has been out of use because of its high reactivity with substances like steroids, amines, and free acids, as well as its lack of efficiency. One disadvantage of glass columns is their fragility. Thus, fused silica was invented in 1979, and practically all capillary columns are composed of fused silica [74–78].

The polyimide covering strengthens the fused silica tubes, which have walls that are significantly thinner than those of glass capillary columns. Because of their flexibility, these columns can be twisted into coils. They have the benefits of low reactivity, suppleness, and physical strength.

Compared to packed columns, capillary columns have some advantages. A thin layer of homogenous liquid is applied to capillary columns. High efficiency—typically 3000–5000 theoretical plates per meter—can be attained because to fused silica's smooth, inert surface. On the other hand, densely packed columns have

thicker, frequently uneven films, and only produce 2000 plates each meter. As a result, long capillary columns can have anywhere between 180 000 and 300 000 plates available, while packed columns usually only produce 4000 plates and have a far poorer resolution. Long columns up to 60 meters can be employed with ease because of the minimal pressure drop that comes with open tube capillary columns. However, because packed columns have more pressure drops and are packed with substantial support, they cannot be used for much longer than 2 meters [66].

A lot of variables and their interactions need to be adjusted in order to maximize GC separation. The separation process is influenced by both parametric (temperature and flow velocity) and physical (internal diameter, length, and stationary phase) column variables.[79] The internal diameters (IDs) of many capillary columns range from 250 to 320  $\mu\text{m}$ . These IDs offer the optimal balance of speed, sample capacity, resolution, and user-friendliness [66]. Table 3.2 lists the various capillary column IDs along with their attributes.

The more theoretical plates and the better the separation, the longer the column. If the column length doubles, the resolution only increases by the square root of two, or 41%, as resolution is only proportional to the square root of the column length.

**Table 3.1** Classification of capillary columns with respect to column diameter.

| Types        | Column diameter range (mm) | Standard column diameters (mm) | commercial | Maximum flow rate (ml/min) <sup>a)</sup> |
|--------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|------------|--|
| Megabore     | 0.5                        | 0.53                           |            | 660                                      |
| Wide bore    | 0.3 to <0.5                | 0.32 and 0.45                  |            | 85 to <660                               |
| Narrow bore  | 0.2 to <0.3                | 0.20, 0.25, and 0.28           |            | 17 to <86                                |
| Microbore    | 0.1 to <0.2                | 0.10, 0.15, and 0.18           |            | 1 to <17                                 |
| Submicrobore | <0.1                       | Various                        |            | <1                                       |

a) Flow rate calculation: Helium carrier gas at 690 kPa, 200 °C oven, vacuum outlet conditions, and 10 m column length [80].

**Table 3.2** Effects of internal diameter [66].

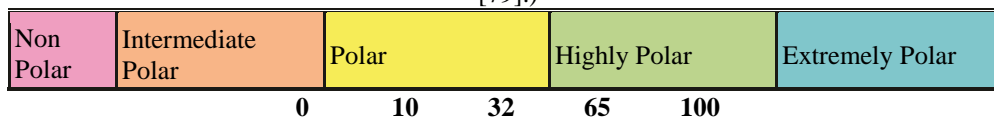
| Internal diameter (ID) | Resolution | Speed     | Capacity  | Outcome   |
|------------------------|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 0.1 mm                 | Excellent  | Excellent | Good      | Good      |
| 0.25 mm                | Better     | Better    | Better    | Better    |
| 0.32 mm                |            |           |           |           |
| 0.53 mm                | Good       | Better    | Excellent | Excellent |

**Table 3.3** Column length recommendation [1].

| Column length    | Resolution                                   | Speed |
|------------------|--|-------|
| Long (60–100 m)  | High   | Slow  |
| Medium (25–30 m) | Good compromise between resolution and speed |       |
| Short (5–10 m)   | Moderate                                     | Fast  |

Short columns of 10 m should be used for fast analysis of simple samples. Only moderate resolution is possible, but the speed of the analysis can be impressive [66].

**Figure 3.** Classification of GC stationary phases with regard to polarity. (Reproduced with permission from Ref. [79].)



**Figure 3.7** Polarity region based on ionic liquid.

The scale is divided into five regions. The first four regions (nonpolar, intermediate polar, polar, and highly polar) are generally accepted and used by several GC column manufacturers. The fifth region (extremely polar) was required with the introduction of the SLB-IL111 column in 2010,

prior to which there was no column classified in this region.

#### 4. Detector:

The Sensor measures the volume of the factors or constituents of sample. There are different types of sensors available. The working



medium of different sensors varies. They also differ in selectivity i.e., capability to quantify rested on patch's physical and chemical property. The most generally used sensors are Flame Ionization and Thermal conductivity sensor.

**A. Flame Ionization Detector:** This occurs when the sample is carried by a carrier gas via a column, which then enters sensors and travels through hydrogen air honey. It ionizes the material and corrupts it chemically.

The generated ions are gathered by the collector. The current increases as a result. The volume of the burned sample is exactly proportional to the current. Therefore, the quantity of ions generated during ionization indicates the sample's volume or attentiveness. The generated current is present in the affair device after being transformed into digital form. The flame ionization sensor is a workshop on ionization brought on by burning a sample in hydrogen honey.

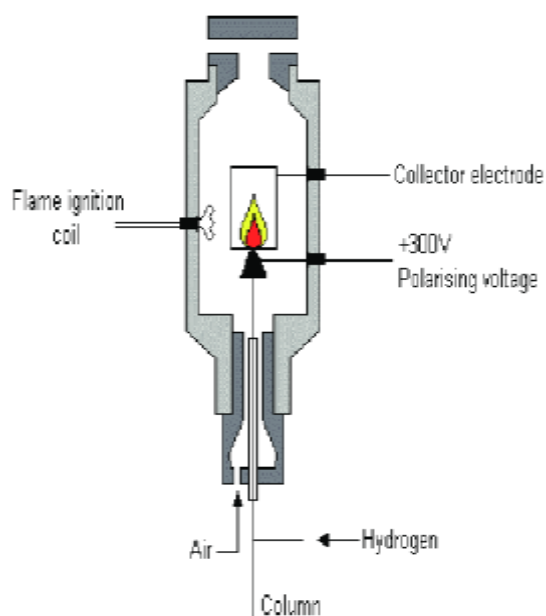
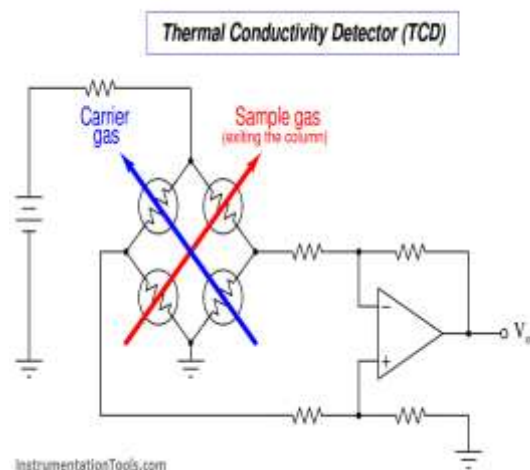


Fig. Flame Ionization detector

**B. The thermal conductivity detector:**

Measures the difference in thermal conductivity between the sample and carrier gas due to flux, as compared to the flux of solely the carrier gas. At the end of the column is the TCD as well. It is made up of two tube-like thermistors. The temperature changes as the carrier gas and sample pass through the tube. Wheatstone ground detects this temperature shift. The ground is balanced because there is no temperature differential between the tubes when pure carrier gas

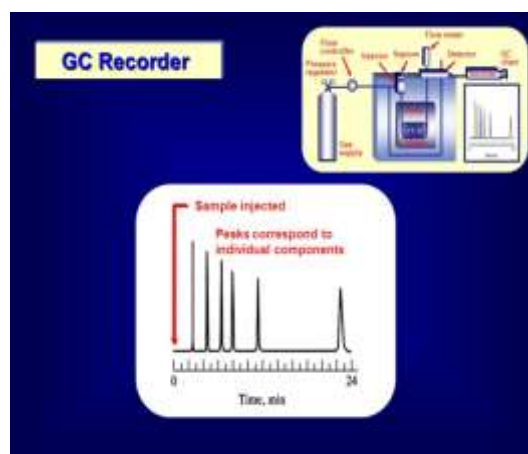
is pumped through both. The ground becomes unstable when one tube contains pure carrier gas and another contains carrier gas and sample. The reason for this is that the two tubes' temperatures differ. The degree of temperature variation is directly proportional to the sample's attentiveness. The temperature differential is monitored, noted, translated to a digital signal, and shown on an affair device. [81]



**5.Signal Recorder:**

After amplification, the response from the detector is recorded using a recorder.

In gas chromatography, potentiometric detectors are frequently employed. The feedback response in this kind of recorder continuously compensates for the input response. This technique records the signal by having pans move proportionately along the chart paper's width. The chart paper travels down its length at a steady speed at the same time. Before using the recorder, you must record that zero. [82]



The recorder should be generally 10 mv (full scale) fitted with a fast response pen (1 sec or less). The recorder should be connected with a series of good quality resistances connected across the input to attenuate the large signals. An integrator may be a good addition.

#### ADVANTAGES OF GAS CHROMATOGRAPHY

1. The main advantage of gas chromatography is its high perceptivity, resolution and separation capacity, which allow it to separate a wide range of unpredictable composites.
2. It can be upgraded to a mass spectrometer (MS), which is used to determine the mass- to- charge rate of ions.
3. It comes with a variety of sensors and injectors that can be used for colorful medicinal and other operations.
4. Gas chromatography can dissect a sample important faster than other chromatographic ways.
5. It's a robust separation system that provides superior signal- to- noise rate.
6. Only a veritably small quantum of sample needs to be fitted and its sensors are extremely sensitive, allowing it to descry extremely low attention.
7. Depending on the patch needs, different types of GC columns are available in numerous compasses and lengths.
8. Gas chromatography is simple, automated, and allows rapid-fire data analysis that offers fairly high delicacy, perfection, and reproducible results.
9. Operating parameters similar as inflow, temperature and pressure, etc. are easy to modify indeed during chromatographic tests.

#### DISADVANTAGES OF GAS CHROMATOGRAPHY

1. The main disadvantage of GC is that only unpredictable and thermally stable composites can be separated by gas chromatography.
2. The sensors used in the GC are destructive, except MS.
3. The selectivity in HPLC or TLC is also better, because a mobile phase can be fluently changed. In GC you can only change the temperature of the column and the roaster, but you cannot change the mobile phase because you have a constant inflow of carrier gas (helium, nitrogen).
4. Since hydrogen gas, which is used for the honey, is largely ignitable, care should be taken when using it.
5. It isn't possible to recover the individual factors of the sample. [83]

## II. APPLICATIONS :

GC operates in a variety of vibrant fields. It operates as a pharmaceutical and medical facility. It is employed in the examination of food, beverages, flavors, and fragrances. It is also useful for monitoring and analyzing the environment. It is employed to denounce drug doping. It is utilized in forensics for the detection of venoms, fungicides, fiber, blood alcohol, and snare remnants, as well as in wildfire cases and the discovery of bodily fluids. Additionally, it helps with security and the identification of chemical warfare agents.

#### Gas chromatography's use in environmental analysis:

GC plays a key role in the detection and measurement of terrain adulterants. Colorful classes of organic contaminants found in soils, sediments, water, air, and biota are analyzed by capillary GC.

GC is used to analyze organic contaminant groups such as polycyclic sweet hydrocarbons (PAHs), fungicides, brominated honey retardants, polybrominated biphenyls, and polybrominated diphenyl ethers, as well as halogenated composites like polychlorinated dibenzofurans and dibenzofurans, polychlorinated biphenyl, terphenyls, naphthalene and alkanes, and organochlorine fungicides. [84]

#### Use of gas chromatography in food analysis:

Food analysis makes extensive use of gas chromatography (GC). Food composition, natural products, food additives, flavor and aroma components, a range of transformation products, contaminants, including pesticides, fumigants, environmental pollutants, natural toxins, veterinary medications, and packaging materials are all analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively using GC. [85]

#### Utilizing GC for catalysis:

Chromatographic conditions are used to determine the physicochemical characteristics of solid catalysts and adsorbents, evaluate catalysts, and research catalytic reactions and their kinetics. GC is too important to be considered just an analytical tool for the rapid (and, if required, continuous) determination of product composition. Instead, it is a crucial component of a comprehensive program of kinetic analysis that also includes the determination of diffusional constants and reaction parameters. There are two ways that GC can be applied to catalysis research.

In the first, the catalyst being studied is contained within a chromatographic column, and the chromatographic parameters—such as retention time, retention volume, band width and shape, and chromatographic peak behavior—are used to estimate the qualities; In the second, however, a chromatographic system that serves to offer a quick analysis of the feed and products of the catalytic process is directly connected to a microreactor where a catalytic reaction or specific measurements on the catalyst are conducted. [86]

#### GC's use in both qualitative and quantitative Copolyamide analysis:

The earlier methods for copolyamide analysis are laborious and unsuitable for providing both qualitative and quantitative analysis. Both qualitative and quantitative results are obtained from the gas chromatographic separation of the diacids recovered from hydrolyzed copolyamides made from hexamethylenediamine. Only 0.2 gram samples are needed by the system. A calibration curve must be prepared for each diamine and for diacids in order to determine the percentage of nylon in copolyamide, which is based on the difference between the two. This approach uses the polymer hydrolyzate's gas chromatographic resolution. To determine the matching diacid, the supplied diacids in the hydrolyzate are esterified with boron trifluoride and methanol, and the diesters are recovered in diethyl ether, dried, gas chromatographed, and the retention time is calculated. To identify diamines, a different hydrolyzed substance is rendered acidulous and uprooted with n-butanol, which is also eliminated by atmospheric distillation. The residue is then gas chromatographed. [87]

#### GC analysis of xylene isomers:

Many compounds start as xylene isomers. Phthalic anhydride is a precursor of o-xylene, isophthalic acid is a precursor of m-xylene, and tetrathalic acid and dimethyl terephthalate are precursors of p-xylene. Numerous compounds have the cresol isomers as precursors. Using an SLB-IL60 ionic liquid column, the chromatogram of a blend of aromatic and methyl phenol molecules was produced. All three xylene and all three cresol isomers can be separated thanks to its interaction processes. [88]

Petroleum product GC analysis: GC is also used to analyze petroleum products like kerosene, diesel, and jet fuel. Column-supel-Q PLOT, oven-35 degrees Celsius, 16 degrees per

minute to 250 degrees Celsius, detector-TCD, carrier gas-He, and sample-jet fuel are all part of the test settings. Water and gasoline are also subjected to GC analysis. [88]

#### Additional typical applications :

- I. Hazardous chemical identification in waste dumps.
  - II. Drug and metabolite quantification in blood and urine for forensic and medicinal purposes.
  - III. Reaction product identification.
  - IV. Pollutant levels in drinking and wastewater are measured.
  - V. Quality control analysis of industrial items.
  - VI. Analysis of skin samples.
  - VII. Isolation of RNA.
  - VIII. Geochemical search and astrochemistry. [89,90]
- Quantification of pollutants in drinking and waste water using official U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) methods.
  - Quantification of drugs and their metabolites in blood and urine for both pharmacological and forensic applications.
  - Identification of unknown organic compounds in hazardous waste dumps.
  - Identification of reaction products.
  - Analysis of industrial products for quality control.
- ANALYSIS OF VOLATILE ORGANIC COMPOUNDS IN INDOOR AIR [91]

#### Limitations :

- I. Under GC operating conditions, the emulsion to be analyzed must be stable.
- II. Their vapor pressure need to be much lower than zero.
- III. Since it is delicate to decimate larger composites, the analyzed composites are typically less than 1,000 Da.
- IV. Additionally, the samples must be swab-free; ions must not be present.
- V. Although it is possible to measure incredibly small amounts of a material, it is sometimes necessary to compare the sample to a reference standard—a sample that contains the pure, suspected ingredient. [92]

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