

Guide to GC Column Selection and Optimizing Separations

- Learn how to choose the right column the first time.
- Optimize separations for the best balance of resolution and speed.
- Troubleshoot quickly and effectively based on chromatographic symptoms.

You can improve lab productivity by assuring that speed and resolution are optimized. One of the best ways to do this is to use the resolution equation (Figure 1) as the key to controlling your separations. This fundamental equation helps you choose the best column stationary phase; length; inner diameter (ID); and film thickness for your specific applications. Once you understand the basics of how resolution is related to column characteristics, optimizing your analysis for both separation and speed becomes easier. This GC column selection guide discusses the basics of separation and teaches you how to choose the right GC column!

Resolution is the goal of every chromatographer, but how much resolution is enough? Practically speaking, we need enough retention to get sharp symmetrical peaks that are baseline resolved from each other, but not so much retention that retention times are too long, and peaks start to broaden. To achieve this goal, we must consider the column and non-column factors that affect our “perfect separation.” Only then can we work towards selecting the right column and optimizing GC separations and analysis speed. Now, let’s consider the separation factor (α); retention factor (k); and efficiency (N) in turn and how they can help you select the right column and optimize your separation.

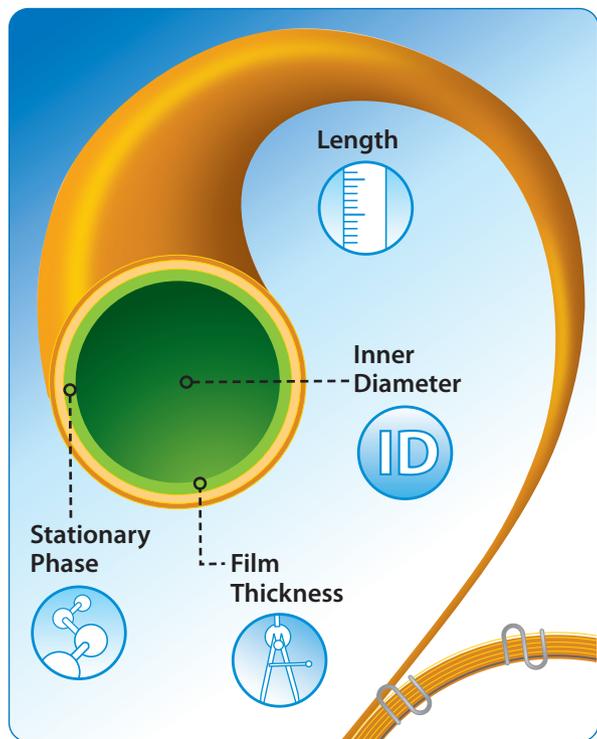


Figure 1: The resolution equation and factors that affect it.

$$R = \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{N} \left(\frac{k'}{[k'+1]} \right) (\alpha - 1)$$

A measure of Efficiency.
This term is affected by:

- Length
- Inner diameter
- Carrier gas type and linear velocity

A measure of Retention.
This term is affected by:

- Inner diameter
- Film thickness
- Temperature

A measure of Peak Separation.
This term is affected by:

- Stationary phase composition
- Temperature

$N = L/H$ = Effective theoretical plate number
 L = Column length
 H = HETP = Height equivalent to a theoretical plate

k = Retention factor
 α = Separation factor
 Baseline resolution ($R = 1.5$) is the goal.

Shortcut to Column Selection

1. Look for application-specific stationary phases first; these columns are optimized for specific analyses and will provide the best resolution in the shortest time (Table III).
2. If an application-specific column is not available, and you need to measure low concentrations or are using a mass spectrometer (MS), then choose an Rxi column. Rxi technology unites outstanding inertness, low bleed, and high reproducibility, resulting in high-performance GC columns that are ideal for trace analysis and MS work (Table II).
3. For other methods, choose a general-purpose Rtx column (Table II).

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$$R = \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{N} (k' / [k' + 1]) (\alpha - 1)$$

Use Separation Factor (α) to Choose the Best Stationary Phase

Choosing the right stationary phase is the first step toward optimizing your GC separation. It is the most important decision you will make because the separation factor (α) has the greatest impact on resolution, and it is strongly affected by stationary phase polarity and selectivity.

Stationary phase *polarity* is determined by the type and amount of functional groups in the stationary phase. When choosing a column, consider the polarity of both the stationary phase and your target analytes. If the stationary phase and analyte polarities are similar, then the attractive forces are strong, and more retention will result. Greater retention often results in increased resolution. Stationary phase polarity strongly influences column selectivity and the separation factor, making it a useful consideration when selecting a column.

Stationary phase *selectivity* is defined by the IUPAC as the extent to which other substances interfere with the determination of a given substance. Selectivity is directly related to stationary phase composition and how it interacts with target compounds through intermolecular forces (e.g., hydrogen bonding, dispersion, dipole-dipole interactions, and shape selectivity). As methyl groups in the stationary phase are replaced by different functionalities, such as phenyl or cyanopropyl pendant groups, compounds that are more soluble with those functional groups (e.g., aromatics or polar compounds, respectively) will interact more and be retained longer, often leading to better resolution and increased selectivity. In another example of the effect of stationary phase-analyte interactions, an Rtx-200 stationary phase is highly selective for analytes containing lone pair electrons, such as halogen, nitrogen, or carbonyl groups, due to interactions with the fluorine pendant group in this phase. Selectivity can be approximated using existing applications or retention indices (Table I), making these useful tools for comparing phases and deciding which is most appropriate for a specific analysis.

Due to their influence on the separation factor, polarity and selectivity are primary considerations when selecting a column. However, temperature limits must also be considered. In general, highly polar stationary phases have lower maximum operating temperatures, so choosing a column with the appropriate maximum operating temperature, as well as optimal polarity and selectivity for the type of compounds being analyzed, is crucial. Use Table II and Figure 2 to determine which general-purpose column is most appropriate based on the selectivity, polarity, and the temperature requirements of your analysis. See Table III for a list of specialty stationary phases designed for specific applications.



In many cases, different GC oven temperature programs can change the elution order of sample analytes on the same column. Reconfirm elution orders if changing GC oven temperature programs.

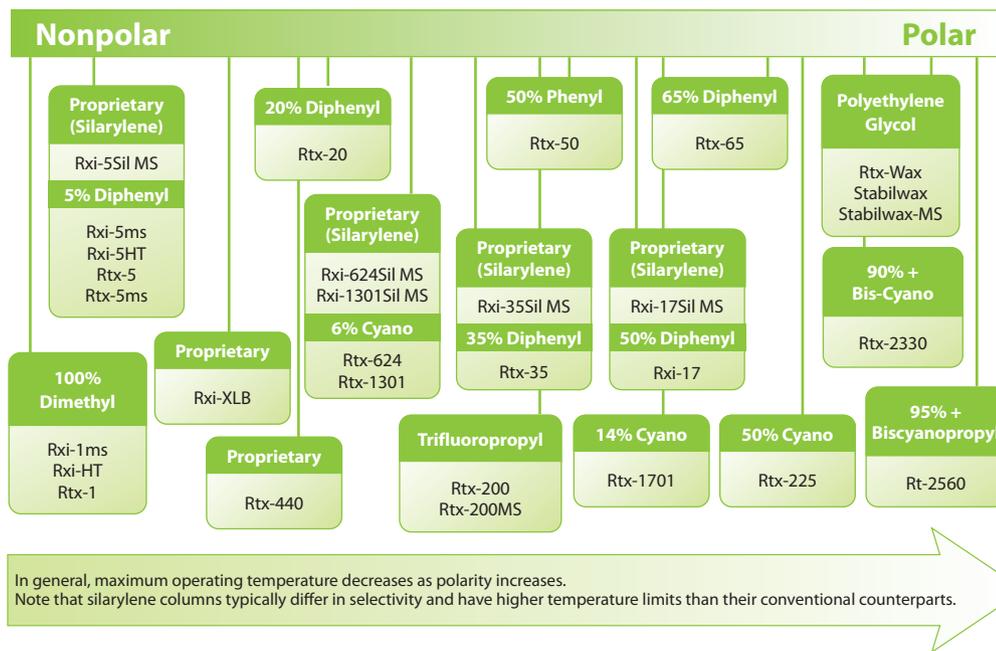
Table I: Kovat's retention indices for GC phases can be used to approximate selectivity.

Stationary Phase	Benzene	Butanol	Pentanone	Nitropropane
100% Dimethyl polysiloxane	651	651	667	705
5% Diphenyl/95% dimethyl polysiloxane	667	667	689	743
20% Diphenyl/80% dimethyl polysiloxane	711	704	740	820
6% Cyanopropylphenyl/94% dimethyl polysiloxane	689	729	739	816
35% Diphenyl/65% dimethyl polysiloxane	746	733	773	867
Trifluoropropylmethyl polysiloxane	738	758	884	980
Phenyl methyl polysiloxane	778	769	813	921
14% Cyanopropylphenyl/86% dimethyl polysiloxane	721	778	784	881
65% Diphenyl/35% dimethyl polysiloxane	794	779	825	938
50% Cyanopropylmethyl/50% phenylmethyl polysiloxane	847	937	958	958
Polyethylene glycol	963	1158	998	1230



STATIONARY PHASE

Figure 2: Polarity scale of common stationary phases.



Any homologous series of compounds, that is, analytes from the same chemical class (e.g., all alcohols, all ketones, or all aldehydes, etc.) will elute in boiling point order on any stationary phase. However, when different compound classes are mixed together in one sample, intermolecular forces between the analytes and the stationary phase are the dominant separation mechanism, not boiling point.

Table II: Relative polarity and thermal stability are important considerations when selecting a GC stationary phase.

Restek	Phase Composition (USP Nomenclature)	Restek's Max Temps*	Agilent	Phenomenex
Rxi-1HT Rxi-1ms, Rtx-1	100% Dimethyl polysiloxane (G1, G2, G38)	400 °C 350 °C	HP-1/HP-1ms, DB-1/DB-1ms, VF-1ms, CP Sil 5 CB, Ultra 1, DB-1ht, HP-1ms UI, DB-1ms UI	ZB-1, ZB-1MS, ZB-1HT Inferno
Rxi-5HT, Rtx-5ms, Rxi-5ms, Rtx-5	5% Diphenyl/95% dimethyl polysiloxane (G27, G36)	400 °C 350 °C	HP-5/HP-5ms, DB-5, Ultra 2, DB-5ht, VF-5ht, CP-Sil 8 CB	ZB-5, ZB-5HT Inferno, ZB-5ms
Rxi-5Sil MS	5% (1,4-bis(dimethylsiloxy) phenylene/95% dimethyl polysiloxane	350 °C	DB-5ms UI, DB-5ms, VF-5ms	ZB-5msi
Rxi-XLB	Proprietary Phase	360 °C	DB-XLB, VF-Xms	MR1, ZB-XLB
Rtx-20	20% Diphenyl/80% dimethyl polysiloxane (G28, G32)	320 °C	—	—
Rtx-35	35% Diphenyl/65% dimethyl polysiloxane (G42)	320 °C	HP-35, DB-35	ZB-35
Rxi-35Sil MS	Proprietary Phase	360 °C	DB-35ms, DB-35ms UI, VF-35ms	MR2
Rtx-50	Phenyl methyl polysiloxane (G3)	320 °C	—	—
Rxi-17	50% Diphenyl/50% dimethyl polysiloxane	320 °C	DB-17ms, VF-17ms, CP Sil 24 CB	ZB-50
Rxi-17Sil MS	Proprietary Phase	360 °C	DB-17ms, VF-17ms, CP Sil 24 CB	ZB-50
Rtx-65	65% Diphenyl/35% dimethyl polysiloxane (G17)	300 °C	—	—
Rxi-624Sil MS	Proprietary Phase	320 °C	DB-624 UI, VF-624ms, CP-Select 624 CB	ZB-624
Rtx-1301, Rtx-624	6% Cyanopropylphenyl/94% dimethyl polysiloxane (G43)	280 °C 240 °C	DB-1301, DB-624, CP-1301, VF-1301ms, VF-624ms	ZB-624
Rtx-1701	14% Cyanopropylphenyl/86% dimethyl polysiloxane (G46)	280 °C	DB-1701, VF-1701ms, CP Sil 19 CB, VF-1701 Pesticides, DB-1701R	ZB-1701, ZB-1701P
Rtx-200	Trifluoropropyl methyl polysiloxane (G6)	360 °C	DB-200, VF-200ms, DB-210	—
Rtx-200ms	Trifluoropropyl methyl polysiloxane (G6)	340 °C	DB-200, VF-200ms, DB-210	—
Rtx-225	50% Cyanopropyl methyl/50% phenylmethyl polysiloxane (G7, G19)	240 °C	DB-225ms, CP Sil 43 CB	—
Rtx-440	Proprietary Phase	340 °C	— — — — — RESTEK INNOVATION — — — — —	—
Rtx-2330	90% Biscyanopropyl/10% cyanopropylphenyl polysiloxane (G48)	275 °C	VF-23ms	—
Rt-2560	Biscyanopropyl polysiloxane	250 °C	HP-88, CP Sil 88	—
Rtx-Wax	Polyethylene glycol (G14, G15, G16, G20, G39)	250 °C	CP-Wax 52 CB, DB-Wax, DB-WAX UI	ZB-WAX
Stabilwax	Polyethylene glycol (G14, G15, G16, G20, G39)	260 °C	HP-INNOWax, VF-WaxMS	ZB-WAXPlus

* Maximum operating temperatures may vary with column film thickness.

Select Column Film Thickness and Column ID Based on Retention Factor

Once you have chosen the stationary phase, you need to determine which column film thickness and inner diameter combination will give the retention factor (k) needed for optimal resolution and speed. Retention factor is sometimes referred to as “capacity factor,” which should not be confused with sample loading capacity.

The retention factor (k) of a column is based on the time an analyte spends in the stationary phase relative to the time it spends in the carrier gas. As a general rule, the thicker the film and the smaller the inner diameter, the more an analyte will be retained. Note that as temperature increases k decreases, so at higher temperatures analytes stay in the carrier gas longer and are less retained.

In practice, if the value of k is too large, the peak will broaden, which can reduce resolution by causing peaks to overlap or coelute. Narrow, symmetrical peaks are important to maximizing resolution; therefore, the goal is to select a column with a sufficient retention factor for such resolution to occur and for peak shape not to suffer. Once the proper stationary phase is selected, column film thickness, column inner diameter, and elution temperature should be optimized to produce an acceptable retention factor.

Film Thickness

Film thickness (μm) has a direct effect on both the retention of each sample component and the maximum operating temperature of the column. When analyzing extremely volatile compounds, a thick film column should be used to increase retention; more separation is achieved because the compounds spend more time in the stationary phase. If analyzing high molecular weight compounds, a thinner film column should be used as this reduces the length of time that the analytes stay in the column and minimizes phase bleed at higher elution temperatures. Use Figure 3 to select the best film thickness for your application. Note that as a general rule, the thicker the film, the lower the maximum temperature; exceeding the maximum temperature can result in column bleed and should be avoided.

$$R = \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{N} \left(\frac{k}{k+1} \right) (\alpha - 1)$$



The sample loading capacity of the column must also be considered; if the mass of the target analyte exceeds the sample loading capacity of the column, loss of resolution, poor reproducibility, and fronting peaks will result. A larger ID column with thicker film is recommended for higher concentration samples, such as purity analysis, to minimize sample overload.



FILM THICKNESS

Figure 3: Characteristics and recommended applications based on film thickness.

Thin Film

0.10 μm –0.50 μm

Characteristics

- Shorter retention times
- Lower bleed
- Higher maximum temperatures
- Lower sample loading capacity
- High resolution for high molecular weight compounds

Applications

Medium and high molecular weight compounds

Thick Film

1.0 μm –10.0 μm

Characteristics

- Longer retention times
- Higher bleed
- Lower maximum temperatures
- Higher sample loading capacity
- Higher resolution for volatiles and low molecular weight compounds

Applications

- Volatile, low molecular weight compounds
- High concentration samples (e.g., purity testing)

As film thickness increases, retention, sample loading capacity, and column bleed increase whereas maximum temperature decreases.



Remember, when changing either film thickness and/or the temperature program, you must reconfirm peak identifications as elution order changes can occur.

Inner Diameter (ID)

Column ID does not have as great an effect on retention factor as film thickness does. However, when selecting column ID with retention factor (k) in mind, a general rule of thumb applies: smaller ID columns produce higher retention factors compared to larger ID columns. This is due to less available mobile phase (carrier gas) volume in the column. Because smaller ID columns produce higher k values, they are more suited towards complex sample analysis where a range of low to high molecular weight compounds may exist in the sample (Figure 4). Keep in mind that both ID and film thickness should be optimized together to produce the best resolution and peak shape.

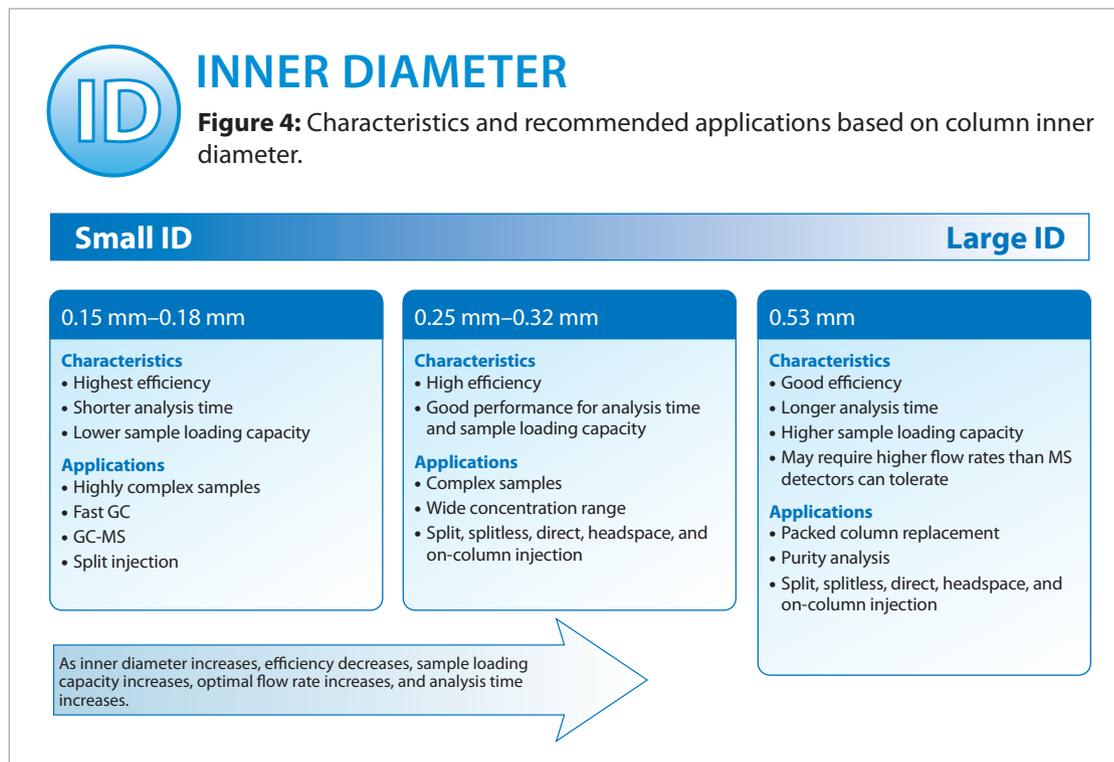


When choosing column ID, the injection technique is also important because the column ID may need to be selected based on whether a split, splitless, direct, cool on-column injection, or other sample transfer method is being used. For example, 0.53 mm ID columns are ideal for cool on-column injections since the syringe needle (26 gauge) will fit into the large column ID. In addition, the detector and its optimal flow rate must be considered. Some MS detectors can only operate under column flow rates of up to 1.5 mL/min; therefore, a 0.53 mm ID column, which requires higher flows for proper chromatography, is not an option for MS work.



INNER DIAMETER

Figure 4: Characteristics and recommended applications based on column inner diameter.



Phase Ratio (β)

The relationship between column inner diameter and stationary phase film thickness is expressed as phase ratio (β). If a good separation has been achieved on a larger diameter column, and a faster analysis is desired, this can often be accomplished by reducing the inner diameter of the column without sacrificing, and sometimes even improving, separation efficiency. To maintain a similar compound elution pattern when narrowing column inner diameter, film thickness must also be changed. By choosing a column with a similar phase ratio, it will be easier to translate your application to the new column. Phase ratios for common column dimensions are given in Table IV. As shown here, an analyst wanting to decrease analysis time could switch from a 0.32 mm x 0.50 μ m column ($\beta = 160$) to a 0.25 mm x 0.25 μ m column ($\beta = 250$) and obtain a very similar separation upon proper method translation. Importantly, column inner diameter and stationary phase film thickness show a combined effect when it comes to sample loading capacity, which is decreased as column inner diameter and film thickness are reduced. It may be necessary to inject a lower sample amount in this case.

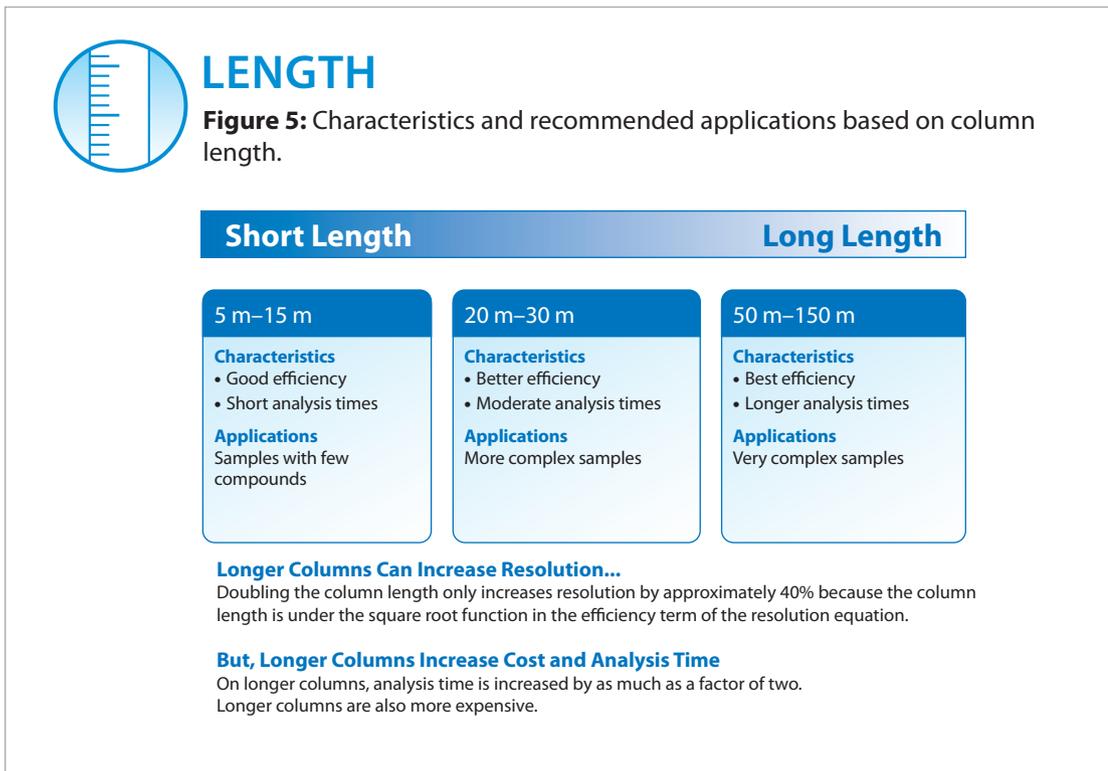
Table IV: Phase ratio (β)* values for common column dimensions. To maintain similar separations, choose columns with similar phase ratios when changing to a column with a different inner diameter or film thickness.

Column ID	Film Thickness (d_f)						
	0.10 μ m	0.25 μ m	0.50 μ m	1.0 μ m	1.5 μ m	3.0 μ m	5.0 μ m
0.18 mm	450	180	90	45	30	15	9
0.25 mm	625	250	125	63	42	21	13
0.32 mm	800	320	160	80	53	27	16
0.53 mm	1325	530	265	128	88	43	27

*Phase ratio (β) = radius/2 d_f (Note: Convert variables to the same units prior to calculation.)

Column Length

Capillary GC columns are made in various lengths, typically 10, 15, 30, 60, and 105 meters, depending on the inner diameter. Longer columns provide more resolving power than shorter columns of the same inner diameter, but they also increase analysis time and should be used only for applications demanding the utmost in separation power. Column length should only be considered once the stationary phase has been determined. This is because the separation factor has the greatest effect on resolution, and it is maximized through proper stationary phase choice for the compounds of interest. Doubling the column length (e.g., 30 m to 60 m) increases resolution by approximately 40%, while analysis time can be twice as long. In addition, longer columns cost more. Conversely, if a separation can be performed on a shorter column (e.g., 15 m versus 30 m), then both analysis time and column cost will be less. Figure 5 summarizes the characteristics and general application parameters for a range of typical column lengths.



Inner Diameter (ID)

Compared to larger ID columns, smaller ID columns generate more plates per meter and sharper peaks, leading to better separation efficiencies. When more complex samples need to be analyzed, smaller ID columns can produce better separation of closely eluting peaks than larger ID columns. However, sample loading capacities are lower for smaller ID columns. Smaller ID columns, especially those at 0.18 mm and less, demand highly efficient injection techniques so that the column efficiency is not lost at the point of sample introduction. Column characteristics based on ID are presented in Table V.

Generally speaking, a 0.25 mm column will produce the most efficient sample analysis while simultaneously considering analysis time and sample loading capacity. For these reasons, in combination with its relatively low outlet flow, it is also the best column choice for GC-MS work.

Table V: General column characteristics based on ID.

Characteristic	Column Inner Diameter (mm)					
	0.10	0.15	0.18	0.25	0.32	0.53
Nitrogen flow (mL/min)	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.9
Helium flow (mL/min)	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.4	1.8	3.0
Hydrogen flow (mL/min)	0.7	1.1	1.3	1.8	2.3	3.7
Sample loading capacity (ng)	2.5	10	20	50	125	500
Theoretical plates/meter	11,000	7000	6000	4000	3000	2000

Note: Flows listed are for maximum efficiency. Sample loading capacities are estimates only. Actual sample loading capacity varies with film thickness and analyte.



When changing carrier gas flow rates, you must reconfirm peak identifications as elution order changes can occur.

Carrier Gas Type and Linear Velocity

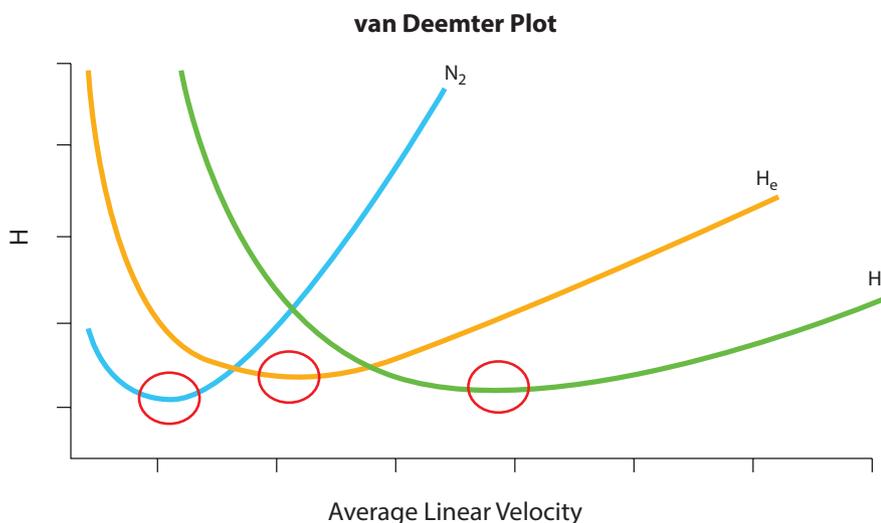
Carrier gas choice and linear velocity significantly affect column separation efficiency, which is best illustrated using van Deemter plots (Figure 6). The optimum linear velocity for each gas is at the lowest point on the curve, where plate height (H) is minimized, and efficiency is maximized. As seen in Figure 6, the optimum linear velocities differ among common carrier gases.

Nitrogen provides the best efficiency; however, the steepness of its van Deemter plot on each side of optimum means that small changes in linear velocity can result in large negative changes in efficiency. Compared to nitrogen, helium has a wider range for optimal linear velocity, but offers slightly less efficiency. In addition, because of its optimum velocity being faster, analysis times with helium are about half those when using nitrogen, and there is only a small sacrifice in efficiency when velocity changes slightly. Of the three common carrier gases, hydrogen has the flattest van Deemter curve, which results in the shortest analysis times and the widest range of average linear velocity over which high efficiency is obtained.

Regardless of the type of gas used, the carrier gas head pressure is constant during column temperature programming whereas the average linear velocity decreases during the run. For constant pressure work then, the optimal linear velocity should be set for the most critical separations. More common today, electronic pneumatic control (EPC) of carrier gas allows for constant flow or even constant linear velocity, which helps maintain high efficiency throughout a temperature-programmed run.

Another consideration for carrier gas type that is important, even if not directly related to column efficiency, is whether a mass spectrometer (MS) is used as a vacuum-outlet detector for GC. In almost all cases, helium is the carrier gas of choice, not only for its chromatographic efficiency but also because it is easier to pump than hydrogen. Hydrogen can be reactive in MS sources, leading to undesirable spectrum changes for some compounds. Nitrogen is typically not a carrier gas option for GC-MS as it severely reduces sensitivity.

Figure 6: Operating carrier gas at the optimum linear velocity will maximize efficiency at a given temperature. Red circles indicate optimum linear velocities for each carrier gas.



GC TROUBLESHOOTING TIPS

Basic Steps

Follow these basic troubleshooting steps to isolate problems related to the sample, injector, detector, and column. Check the obvious explanations first, and change only one thing at a time until you identify and resolve the problem.

Check the Obvious:

- Power supply
- Electrical connections
- Signal connections
- Gas purity
- Gas flows
- Temperature settings
- Syringe condition
- Sample preparation
- Analytical conditions

Identify the Cause:

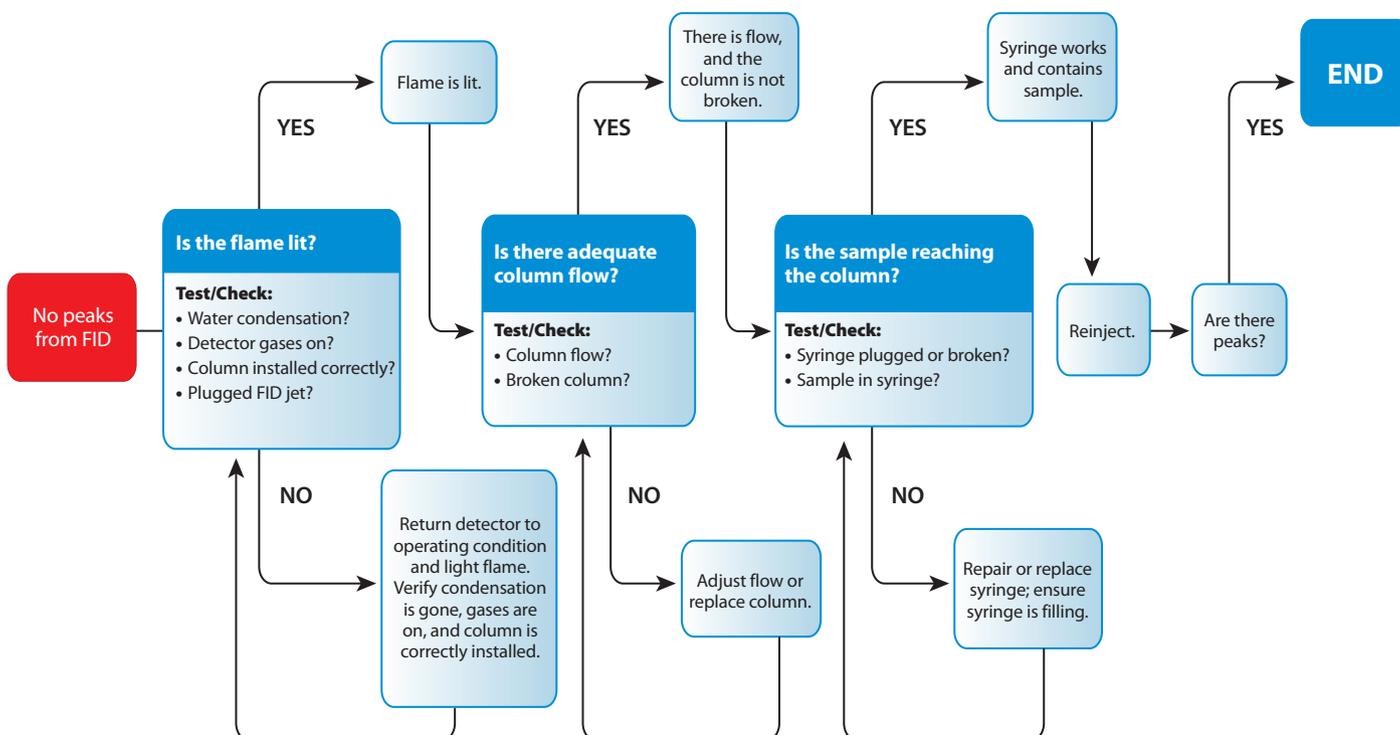
- Define the problem clearly; for example, “Over the last 4 days, only the phenols in my sample have been tailing.”
- Review sample and maintenance records to identify trends in the data or problem indicators, such as area counts decreasing over time or injector maintenance not being performed as scheduled.
- Use a logical sequence of steps to isolate possible causes.

Document Work and Verify System Performance:

- Document all troubleshooting steps and results; this may help you identify and solve the next problem faster.
- Always inject a test mix and compare it to previous data to ensure restored performance.

Example Troubleshooting Sequence

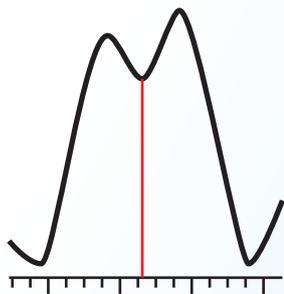
An analyst observed that no peaks appeared during a GC-FID analysis. The flowchart below shows a logical progression of steps that can be used to identify the cause and correct the problem.



Symptoms and Solutions

Good chromatography is critical to obtaining accurate, reproducible results. Coelutions, asymmetric peaks, baseline noise, and other issues are common challenges in the GC laboratory. These analytical problems and others can be overcome by troubleshooting your separations using the tips below.

Poor Resolution



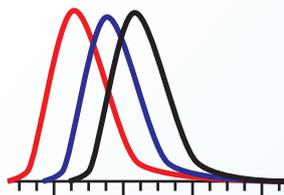
Causes

- Nonselective stationary phase
- Poor efficiency
- Sample overload
- Incorrect analytical conditions used

Solutions

- Choose appropriate stationary phase and column dimensions.
- Optimize carrier gas linear velocity and GC oven temperature program.
- Adjust sample concentration or amount on column.
- Verify temperature program, flow rates, and column parameters.

Poor Retention Time Reproducibility



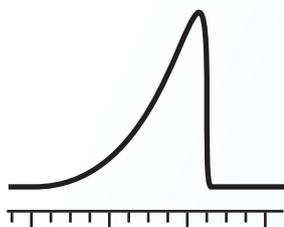
Causes

- Leaks
- Analyte adsorption
- Resolution/integration issues
- Incorrect column/oven temperature program
- Incorrect or variable carrier gas flow rate/linear velocity
- Poor control of oven temperature programming
- Incorrect oven equilibration time
- If manual injection, delay between pushing start and actual injection

Solutions

- Leak check injector and press-fit connections.
- Replace critical seals (i.e., septa, O-rings, inlet disc, etc.)
- Maintain inlet liner and GC column.
- Use properly deactivated liners, seals, and columns.
- Avoid sample overload.
- Verify column temperature and oven temperature program.
- Verify the carrier gas flow and linear velocity. Repair or replace parts if necessary.
- Confirm GC oven program falls within instrument manufacturer's recommendation.
- Extend GC oven equilibration time.
- Use autosampler or standardize manual injection procedure.

Fronting Peaks



Causes

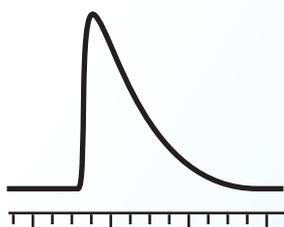
Incompatible stationary phase

Column overloading

Solutions

- Choose appropriate stationary phase.
- Reduce amount injected, dilute sample.
- Increase column inner diameter and/or film thickness.

Tailing Peaks



Causes

Adsorption due to surface activity or contamination

Adsorption due to chemical composition of compound

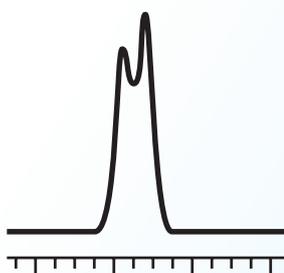
Leak in system

Installation issues

Solutions

- Use properly cleaned and deactivated liner, seal, and column.
- Trim inlet end of column.
- Replace column if damaged.
- Derivatize compound.
- Check for leaks at all connections, replace critical seals if needed.
- Minimize dead volume.
- Verify that the column is cut properly (square).
- Verify correct installation distances.

Split Peaks



Causes

Mismatched solvent/stationary phase polarity

Incomplete vaporization

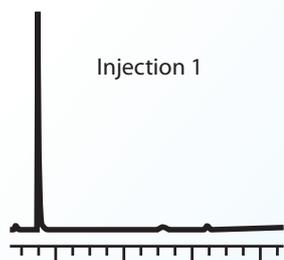
Sample loading capacity exceeded

Fast autosampler injection into open liner

Solutions

- Adjust solvent or stationary phase to allow wetting.
- Add surface area, such as wool, to the inlet liner to enhance vaporization.
- Use proper injector temperature.
- Inject less sample (dilute, use split injection, reduce injection volume).
- Use wool or slow injection speed.

Carryover/Ghost Peaks



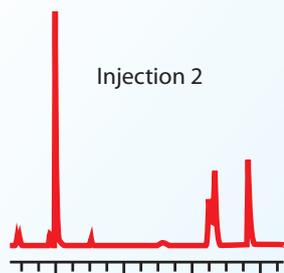
Causes

Contaminated syringe or rinse solvent

Backflash (sample volume exceeds liner volume)

Solutions

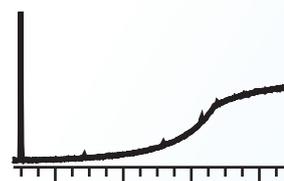
- Replace rinse solvent.
- Rinse or replace syringe.
- Inject a smaller amount.
- Use a liner with a large internal diameter.
- Increase head pressure (i.e., flowrate) to contain the vapor cloud.
- Use slower injection rate.
- Lower inlet temperature.
- Increase split flow.
- Use liner with packing.
- Use pressure-pulse injection.



Last analysis ended too soon

- Extend analysis time to allow all components and/or matrix interference to elute.

High Bleed



Causes

Improper column conditioning

Contamination

Leak in system and oxidation of stationary phase

Solutions

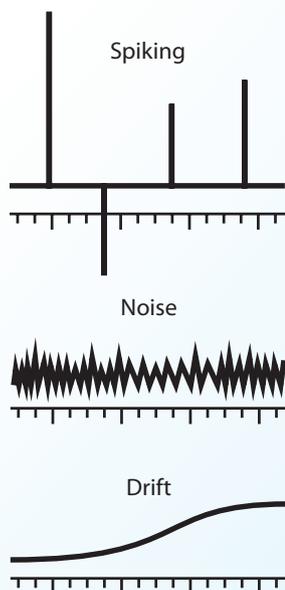
- Increase conditioning time and/or temperature.
- Trim column and/or heat to maximum temperature to remove contaminants.
- Replace carrier gas and/or detector gas filters.
- Clean injector and detector.
- Check for oxygen leaks across the entire system and replace seals and/or filters.
- Replace column.

 Chroma**BLOG**raphy

Check out the Restek blog for the most current topics in chromatography.

<https://blog.restek.com>

Unstable Baseline (Spiking, Noise, Drift)



Causes

Carrier gas leak or contamination

Injector or detector contamination

Column contamination or stationary phase bleed

Septum coring/bleed

Solutions

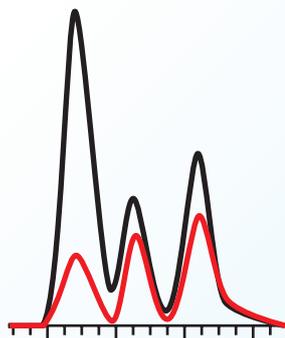
- Leak check connections and replace seals if needed.
- Replace carrier gas and/or detector gas filters.
- Clean system and perform regular maintenance.
- Condition, trim, and rinse column.
- Replace septum.
- Inspect inlet liner for septa particles and replace liner if needed.
- Clean and repair electrical connections.
- Verify flow rates are steady and reproducible; may need to replace or repair flow controller.
- Leak check system.
- Allow enough time for detector temperatures and flows to equilibrate.

Loose cable or circuit board connections

Variable carrier gas or detector gas flows

Detector not ready

Response Variation



Causes

Sample issues

Syringe problems

Electronics

Dirty or damaged detector

Flow/temperature settings wrong or variable

Adsorption/reactivity

Leaks

Change in sample introduction/injection method

Solutions

- Check sample concentration.
- Check sample preparation procedure.
- Check sample decomposition/shelf life.
- Replace syringe.
- Check autosampler operation.
- Verify signal settings and adjust if needed.
- Repair or replace cables or boards.
- Perform detector maintenance or replace parts.
- Verify steady flow rates and temperatures, then adjust settings and/or replace parts if needed.
- Remove contamination and use properly deactivated liner, seal, and column.
- Check for leaks at all connections and repair connections as needed.
- Verify injection technique and change back to original technique.
- Check that split ratio is correct.
- Verify that the splitless hold time is correct.

No Peaks



Causes

Injection problems

Broken column

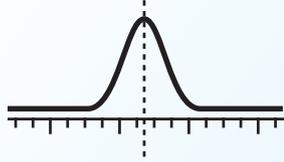
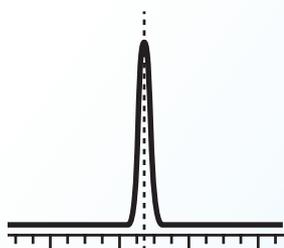
Column installed into wrong injector or detector

Detector problems

Solutions

- Plugged syringe; clean or replace syringe.
- Verify there is sample in the syringe.
- Injecting into wrong inlet; reset autosampler.
- Verify carrier gas is flowing.
- Replace column.
- Reinstall column.
- Signal not recorded; check detector cables and verify that detector is turned on.
- Detector gas turned off or wrong flow rates used; turn detector on and/or adjust flow rates.

Broad Peaks



Causes

High dead volume

Low flow rates

Slow GC oven program

Poor analyte/solvent focusing

Column film is too thick

Sample carryover

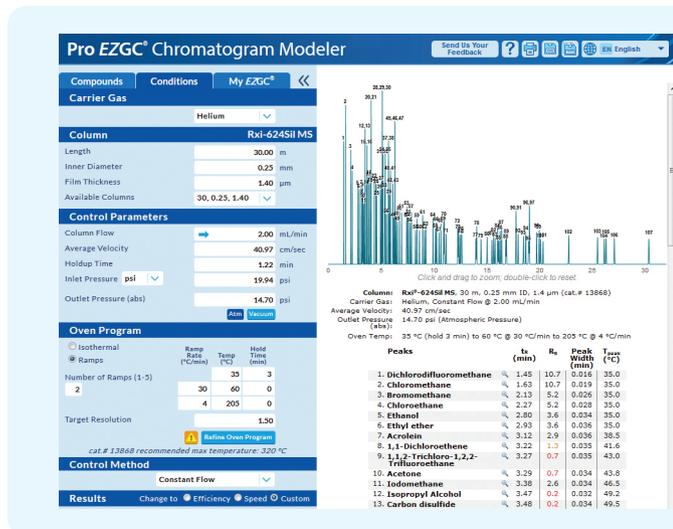
Solutions

- Minimize dead volume in the GC system; verify proper column installation, proper connectors, proper liners, etc.
- Verify injector and detector flow rates and adjust if needed.
- Verify make-up gas flow and adjust if needed.
- Increase GC oven programming rate.
- Lower GC oven start temperature.
- Reduce retention of compounds by decreasing film thickness and length.
- See Carryover/Ghost Peaks solutions.

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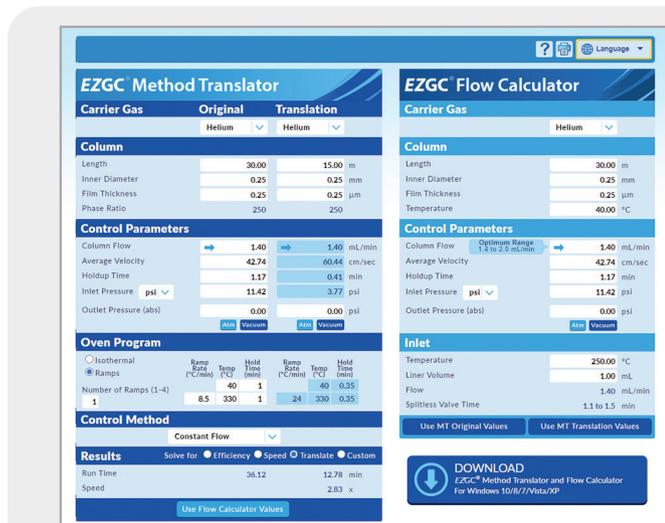


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EZGC Method Translator and Flow Calculator

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