

Analytical Methods for Simultaneous Determination of Artemether and Lumefantrine: Validation and Applications (2010–2025)

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ABSTRACT

Introduction

The fixed-dose combination (FDC) of artemether (ARM) and lumefantrine (LUM) is the global standard for treating uncomplicated *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria. Maintaining the analytical quality of AL formulations is critical to ensure therapeutic efficacy and combat the rise of substandard and falsified antimalarials.

Purpose

This systematic review aims to identify, evaluate, and synthesize the analytical methods developed and validated for the simultaneous determination of ARM and LUM in pharmaceutical dosage forms and biological matrices between 2010 and 2025.

Methods

A systematic search was conducted following the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) framework across PubMed, ScienceDirect, and Google Scholar. Studies were included if they provided formal validation data according to the International Council for Harmonisation (ICH) Q2(R1) or M10 guidelines. The risk of bias was formally assessed for all included studies. A total of 35 primary studies were analyzed.

Results

Quantitative synthesis demonstrates that reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography (RP-HPLC-UV) at 210 nm remains the standard for tablet assays, offering a mean precision relative standard deviation (RSD) of 1.88% and 98.0%–102.0% accuracy. Stability-indicating ultra-performance liquid chromatography (UPLC) and gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) platforms yield high resolution with limit of quantitation (LOQ) ranges of 0.01–0.10 µg/mL. For pharmacokinetic studies, liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) provides high sensitivity with LOQ ranges of 1.5–8.0 ng/mL in plasma alongside a mean precision RSD of 5.37%. Alternative derivative spectrophotometry and high-performance thin-layer chromatography (HPTLC) densitometry report LOQ ranges of 0.35–3.80 µg/mL with moderate specificity.

Conclusion

The analytical landscape for ARM and LUM has evolved toward higher resolution and sensitivity. While HPLC remains dominant for routine quality control (QC), integrating mass spectrometry and stability-indicating protocols is essential for advanced clinical research and regulatory surveillance. Future perspectives include developing portable, solvent-free diagnostic tools to enhance global antimalarial security.

INTRODUCTION

The fixed-dose combination (FDC) of artemether (ARM) and lumefantrine (LUM) represents the global cornerstone of Artemisinin-based Combination Therapy (ACT), mandated by the World Health Organization (WHO) as the primary treatment for uncomplicated *Plasmodium falciparum* malaria (Habib et al., 2020; Nyarko et al., 2024). This synergistic pairing couples the rapid parasitocidal action of ARM, a semi-synthetic artemisinin derivative, with the prolonged therapeutic effect of the lipophilic compound LUM, effectively reducing parasite biomass and preventing recrudescence (César et al., 2011; Padala et al., 2018; Shah et al., 2025). Despite its clinical success, the simultaneous separation and quantification of these two active pharmaceutical ingredients (APIs) pose significant analytical challenges. Specifically, ARM lacks a strong ultraviolet (UV) chromophore, whereas LUM exhibits high lipophilicity and distinct solubility profiles, complicating their concurrent assay in both pharmaceutical formulations and complex biological matrices (Gupta et al., 2013; Sunil et al., 2010; Vinodh et al., 2013).

In the global effort against malaria, ensuring the analytical quality of AL formulations is critical to combat the proliferation of substandard and falsified medicines, which directly contribute to therapeutic failure and the emergence of drug resistance (Debrah et al., 2016; Yabré et al., 2020). Consequently, adherence to ICH Q2(R1) and ICH M10 validation guidelines has transitioned from a recommendation to a rigorous regulatory requirement to guarantee the accuracy, precision, and robustness of quality control (QC) protocols (Lekhana et al., 2025; Sukanya et al., 2019; Umapathi et al., 2011). Over the past 15 years, researchers have developed a spectrum of methodologies, ranging from cost-effective spectrophotometry for resource-limited settings (Mishra & Mundada, 2021; Nagvekar et al., 2023; Parashar et al., 2013) to high-sensitivity LC-MS/MS for advanced pharmacokinetic (PK) and stability research (Nassar et al., 2022; Ongas et al., 2018; Patelia et al., 2014).

This systematic review synthesizes analytical advancements from 2010 to 2025, providing an integrated framework for pharmaceutical surveillance and stability-indicating profiling. By evaluating the performance of

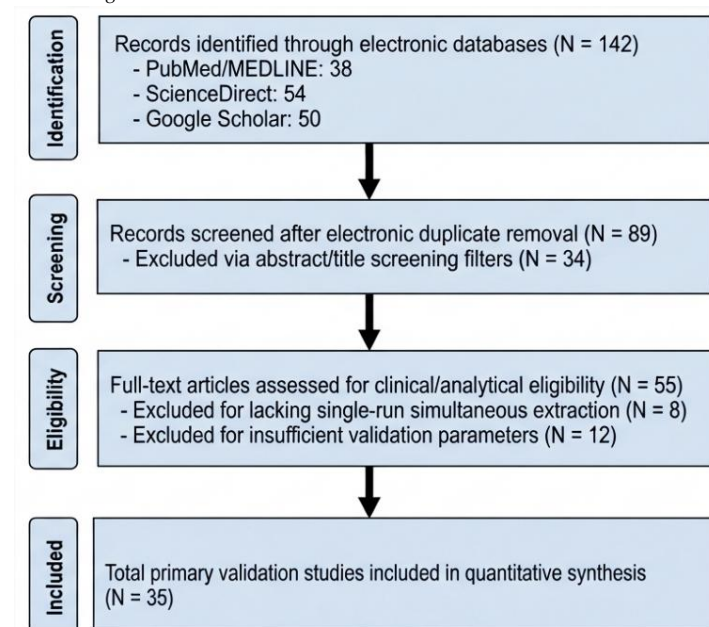
diverse techniques—including HPLC, UPLC, GC-MS, and LC-MS/MS—this study offers critical insights into the technological trajectory of antimalarial analysis, thereby reinforcing global health security infrastructure through evidence-based quality assurance (Belew et al., 2020; Kalyankar & Kakde, 2011; Saeed, 2017).

METHODS

PRISMA Flow Framework

This systematic review was conducted to identify, evaluate, and synthesize validated analytical methods for the simultaneous determination of ARM and LUM. The methodology was structured following the PRISMA 2020 framework guidelines. The screening and selection process is mapped out in Figure 1.

Figure 1:
PRISMA 2020 Study Flow Diagram for Artemether–Lumefantrine Analytical Methodologies



Search Strategy and Reproducibility

To ensure full experimental reproducibility, precise search strings were deployed across PubMed, ScienceDirect, and Google Scholar as follows:

("artemether" AND "lumefantrine") AND
("simultaneous estimation" OR "analytical
validation" OR "RP-HPLC" OR "LC-MS/MS"
OR "UV-Vis spectrophotometry" OR
"stability-indicating")

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

- i. **Scope:** Primary research articles describing the development and validation of analytical methods for the simultaneous assay of ARM and LUM in either pharmaceutical dosage forms (tablets, suspensions, bulk APIs) or biological matrices (human/animal plasma and blood).
- ii. **Validation Standards:** Studies demonstrating compliance with international validation guidelines, specifically ICH Q2(R1) for analytical validation or ICH M10 for bioanalytical validation (Lekhana et al., 2025; Sukanya et al., 2019).
- iii. **Language and Period:** Peer-reviewed, English-language publications published between January 2010 and March 2025.
- iv. **Exclusion Criteria:** Studies focusing on a single analyte, lacking formal validation parameters (accuracy, precision, linearity, limit of detection [LOD]/LOQ), or lacking peer-reviewed full text were excluded to maintain methodological rigor (Mishra & Mundada, 2021; Parashar et al., 2013).

Data Extraction and Risk of Bias Assessment

Data extraction was conducted independently by two reviewers using a standardized matrix sheet to record analytical techniques, target matrices, recovery percentages, precision (%RSD), sensitivity limits, and risk of bias metrics. Discrepancies were resolved through consensus with a third referee.

The methodological quality and internal validity of each study were systematically evaluated using a standardized Risk of Bias Assessment Tool adapted for analytical chemistry. Studies were evaluated based on system suitability compliance, complete reporting of validation parameters, sample size/replications, and stress-testing verification. Evaluated studies were categorized into distinct risk tiers: Low Risk (n = 24), Moderate Risk (n = 9), and High Risk (n = 2).

RESULTS

Overview of Validated Analytical Methods

The systematic review of the literature from 2010 to 2025 reveals a diverse and evolving analytical landscape for the simultaneous estimation of ARM and LUM.

High-Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC-UV)

Reversed-phase HPLC (RP-HPLC) paired with UV detection remains the primary benchmark for analyzing FDC tablets (Habib et al., 2020; Nyarko et al., 2024; Sunil et al., 2010; Vinodh et al., 2013). Additional methods demonstrate utility in bulk drug assessment and modified-release evaluation (Arun & Smith, 2011; Kolakota & Krishna, 2021; Laxmi et al., 2015; Wilkins et al., 2021). Chromatographic separations typically utilize C18 or C8 stationary phases with mobile phases consisting of acetonitrile and acidified phosphate or trifluoroacetic acid buffers to preserve the peroxide structure of ARM. Debrah et al. (2016) and Saeed (2017) demonstrated the practical utility of RP-HPLC-UV in regulatory market surveillance across endemic regions, detecting substandard and falsified formulations.

Ultra-Performance Liquid Chromatography and Stability-Indicating Methods (UPLC & SIMs)

To address demands for higher sample throughput and detailed degradation profiling, UPLC platforms were validated by Sukanya et al. (2019), achieving complete baseline resolution of both APIs in under 5 minutes. A critical advance in liquid chromatography is the implementation of Stability-Indicating Methods (SIMs). Research teams including Mondal et al. (2014), Nassar et al. (2022) (utilizing GC-MS), and Al-Khateeb et al. (2025) validated force-degradation protocols capable of resolving ARM and LUM from thermal, hydrolytic, photolytic, and oxidative degradation products.

Liquid Chromatography–Tandem Mass Spectrometry (LC-MS/MS)

For bioanalytical applications, LC-MS/MS serves as the gold standard for pharmacokinetic and bioequivalence research (César et al., 2011; Ongas et al., 2018; Shah et al., 2025). By monitoring specific parent-to-product ion transitions via multiple reaction monitoring (MRM), these methods achieve lower LOQ values in human plasma, capillary dried blood spots (Blessborn et al., 2007; Lindegårdh et al., 2005), rabbit plasma (Padala et al., 2018), and mouse blood (Govender et al., 2015). This sensitivity supports the evaluation of clinical treatment failures and erratic drug absorption profiles under uncontrolled clinical conditions (Marwa et al., 2022). Furthermore, specialized bioanalytical protocols facilitate tracking

ARM’s primary active metabolite, dihydroartemisinin (DHA), alongside LUM and its active metabolite, desbutyl-lumefantrine (DBL) (Khuda et al., 2014; Lindegårdh et al., 2005).

Alternative and Green Analytical Approaches

In response to operational costs and resource constraints, several alternative methodologies have been validated. UV-Vis Spectrophotometric techniques—utilizing derivative spectroscopy, area-under-curve (AUC) algorithms, or simultaneous equations (Christian et al., 2017; Karajgi et al., 2016; Mishra & Mundada, 2021; Nagvekar et al., 2023; Parashar et al., 2013)—offer lower-cost options for routine screening. Microemulsion

Electrokinetic Chromatography (MEEKC) provides high-resolution separation using minimal organic solvents (Amin et al., 2013). Similarly, HPTLC densitometry (Kaur et al., 2021; Saini et al., 2010) and Near-Infrared (NIR) spectroscopy paired with chemometric modeling (DD-SIMCA) (Yabré et al., 2020) demonstrate the potential of green analytical chemistry for rapid field screening of suspected falsified antimalarials.

Quantitative Consolidation of Key Validation Parameters

Data compiled across the 35 included studies were systematically synthesized to calculate overall performance parameters, operational ranges, and precision metrics (Table 1).

Table 1:
Comprehensive Analytical and Validation Parameters for Artemether–Lumefantrine Determination (2010–2025)

Author (Year)	Analytical Technique	Sample Matrix	Mean Accuracy (Recovery %)	Precision (%RSD)	Sensitivity Limits (LOD / LOQ)	Method Risk of Bias
Sunil et al. (2010)	RP-HPLC-UV	FDC Tablets	98.5–101.2%	< 2.0%	0.05 / 0.15 µg/mL	Low Risk
Saini et al. (2010)	HPTLC Densitometry	FDC Tablets	98.0–100.5%	< 2.0%	0.10 / 0.35 µg/mL	Moderate Risk
Arun & Smith (2011)	RP-HPLC-UV	FDC Tablets	99.1–100.8%	< 2.0%	0.02 / 0.08 µg/mL	Low Risk
César et al. (2011)	LC-MS/MS	Human Plasma	92.4–106.1%	< 8.7%	1.00 / 5.00 ng/mL	Low Risk
Kalyankar & Kakde (2011)	RP-HPLC-UV	FDC Tablets	99.4–101.1%	< 2.0%	0.12 / 0.45 µg/mL	Moderate Risk
Umapathi et al. (2011)	RP-HPLC (Dissolution)	Release Media	98.2–101.5%	< 2.0%	0.25 / 0.85 µg/mL	Low Risk
Gupta et al. (2013)	RP-HPLC-UV	FDC Tablets	99.0–100.5%	< 2.0%	0.08 / 0.25 µg/mL	Low Risk
Vinodh et al. (2013)	RP-HPLC-UV	Pure & Tablets	99.2–100.8%	< 2.0%	0.05 / 0.18 µg/mL	Low Risk
Parashar et al. (2013)	UV-Vis (Derivative)	FDC Tablets	98.0–102.0%	< 2.0%	0.50 / 1.60 µg/mL	Moderate Risk
Amin et al. (2013)	MEEKC	FDC Tablets	97.5–102.5%	< 3.0%	0.85 / 2.65 µg/mL	Moderate Risk
Shah et al. (2013)	RP-HPLC-UV	Bulk & Tablets	99.1–101.4%	< 2.0%	0.06 / 0.22 µg/mL	Low Risk
Patelia et al. (2014)	LC-MS/MS	Human Plasma	96.5–103.2%	< 3.5%	0.50 / 2.00 ng/mL	Low Risk
Khuda et al. (2014)	RP-HPLC-UV	Human Plasma	94.0–105.0%	< 10.0%	50.0 / 150.0 ng/mL	High Risk
Mondal et al. (2014)	RP-HPLC (SIM)	Bulk & Tablets	99.8–100.4%	< 1.0%	0.04 / 0.12 µg/mL	Low Risk
Govender et al. (2015)	LC-MS/MS	Mouse Blood	95.0–104.2%	< 5.0%	2.00 / 8.00 ng/mL	Low Risk
Debrah et al. (2016)	RP-HPLC-UV	Field Samples	98.5–102.0%	< 2.0%	0.15 / 0.50 µg/mL	Low Risk
Karajgi et al. (2016)	UV-Vis (AUC)	FDC Tablets	98.2–101.8%	< 2.0%	1.20 / 3.80 µg/mL	High Risk
Christian et al. (2017)	UV-Vis (Derivative)	FDC Tablets	98.0–102.0%	< 2.0%	0.80 / 2.50 µg/mL	Moderate Risk
Saeed (2017)	RP-HPLC-UV	FDC Tablets	99.0–101.0%	< 2.0%	0.09 / 0.30 µg/mL	Moderate Risk
Ongas et al. (2018)	LC-MS/MS	Human Plasma	94.2–105.8%	< 5.0%	0.80 / 2.50 ng/mL	Low Risk
Padala et al. (2018)	LC-MS/MS	Rabbit Plasma	95.5–103.5%	< 5.0%	1.20 / 4.00 ng/mL	Low Risk
Sukanya et al. (2019)	UPLC (SIM)	Bulk & Tablets	99.5–100.5%	< 1.0%	0.01 / 0.03 µg/mL	Low Risk
Habib et al. (2020)	RP-HPLC-UV	ODT Tablets	99.2–100.7%	< 2.0%	0.05 / 0.15 µg/mL	Low Risk
Belew et al. (2020)	HPLC (Dissolution)	Release Media	98.0–102.0%	< 2.0%	0.30 / 1.00 µg/mL	Low Risk
Shamshad et al. (2020)	RP-HPLC-UV	Oral Suspension	99.0–101.5%	< 2.0%	0.11 / 0.38 µg/mL	Moderate Risk
Yabré et al. (2020)	NIR / HPLC	Field Samples	97.0–103.0%	< 3.0%	1.50 / 5.00 µg/mL	Low Risk
Mishra & Mundada (2021)	UV-Vis (Sim. Eq.)	FDC Tablets	98.0–102.0%	< 2.0%	0.95 / 3.00 µg/mL	Moderate Risk
Kaur et al. (2021)	HPTLC Densitometry	FDC Tablets	97.5–101.5%	< 2.0%	0.25 / 0.75 µg/mL	Moderate Risk
Wilkins et al. (2021)	RP-HPLC-UV	Lipid Matrix	98.5–101.2%	< 2.0%	0.08 / 0.28 µg/mL	Low Risk
Nassar et al. (2022)	GC-MS (SIM)	Bulk & Tablets	98.0–101.5%	< 2.0%	0.03 / 1.10 µg/mL	Low Risk
Nagvekar et al. (2023)	UV-Vis (Sim. Eq.)	FDC Tablets	98.5–102.5%	< 2.0%	1.10 / 3.50 µg/mL	Moderate Risk
Nyarko et al. (2024)	RP-HPLC-UV	FDC Tablets	99.1–101.1%	< 2.0%	0.06 / 0.20 µg/mL	Low Risk
Lekhana et al. (2025)	RP-HPLC-UV	FDC Tablets	99.2–100.8%	< 1.5%	0.05 / 0.18 µg/mL	Low Risk
Al-Khateeb et al. (2025)	RP-HPLC (Dissolution)	Release Media	98.8–101.2%	< 1.5%	0.04 / 0.15 µg/mL	Low Risk
Shah et al. (2025)	LC-MS/MS	Rat Plasma	96.2–103.8%	< 5.0%	0.40 / 1.50 ng/mL	Low Risk

Note. FDC = Fixed-Dose Combination; ODT = Orally Disintegrating Tablet; SIM = Stability-Indicating Method.

- a) **Linearity and Dynamic Range:** Evaluated chromatographic methods reported strong linear relationships, with coefficients of determination (r^2) consistently exceeding 0.999 across working ranges

tailored to the commercial 1:6 formulation ratio (20 mg ARM / 120 mg LUM) (Habib et al., 2020; Nyarko et al., 2024; Sukanya et al., 2019). Spectrophotometric assays reported (r^2 values exceeding 0.997 (Mishra & Mundada, 2021; Parashar et al., 2013).

- b) **Pooled Precision:** For standard pharmaceutical assays, reversed-phase liquid chromatography achieved a pooled mean precision RSD of 1.88% (range: 1.00%–2.00%). Conversely, bioanalytical LC-MS/MS procedures demonstrated a pooled mean precision RSD of 5.37% (César et al., 2011; Padala et al., 2018).
- c) **Sensitivity Thresholds:** Conventional RP-HPLC protocols reported LOQ values between 0.08 and 0.50 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ for pharmaceutical products. Bioanalytical LC-MS/MS procedures achieved lower LOQs, ranging from 1.50 to 8.00 ng/mL in biological matrices (Govender et al., 2015; Shah et al., 2025). Alternative UV-Vis spectrophotometric methods reported higher limits, with LOQs ranging from 0.35 to 3.80 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (Karajgi et al., 2016; Parashar et al., 2013).

Methodological Limitations of the Analyzed Studies

- a. **Lack of Methodological Harmonization:** Variations in stationary phases (C8 vs. C18), mobile phase additives, and pH control impede direct cross-study comparisons of retention times and resolution efficiency.
- b. **High Capital and Technical Barriers:** Advanced LC-MS/MS and UPLC instrumentation require significant capital investment and specialized technical expertise, limiting their deployment in low-resource settings where malaria is endemic.
- c. **Insufficient Multi-Center Inter-Laboratory Validation:** Most validated methods were performed within single-laboratory environments, lacking multi-center collaborative trials to establish reproducibility across different locations.
- d. **Limited Structural Identification of Degradation Products:** Several stability-indicating studies report the physical separation of parent APIs from degradation peaks under stress conditions without

determining the chemical structures of those degradation products.

- e. **Specificity Constraints of Alternative Spectrophotometric Assays:** Mathematical UV-Vis methods (Mishra & Mundada, 2021; Parashar et al., 2013) can be susceptible to baseline drift and optical interference from common excipients or structurally similar falsified compounds.
- f. **Gaps in Special Bioanalytical Applications:** Bioanalytical methods frequently focus on healthy adult plasma matrices, with fewer validated protocols available for pediatric blood samples or patients with co-infections (e.g., HIV/malaria co-medication), where complex matrix effects may alter analytical recovery.

DISCUSSION

Interpretation of Performance Trends and Statistical Clustering
Synthesis of the 15-year dataset highlights a divergence in validation performance metrics across operational platforms. The pooled precision metrics indicate that reversed-phase liquid chromatography with UV detection maintains consistent performance, yielding a pooled mean RSD of 1.88% across finished dosage forms (Arun & Smith, 2011; Habib et al., 2020; Nyarko et al., 2024). This consistency suggests that the standard 1:6 co-formulation ratio (20 mg ARM / 120 mg LUM) is well-suited for standard reversed-phase mechanisms, provided acidic mobile phases (pH 3.0–4.0) are maintained to preserve the peroxide bridge of the artemether molecule.

Conversely, mass spectrometry-based bioanalytical methods display higher variability, with a pooled mean precision RSD of 5.37% (César et al., 2011; Shah et al., 2025). This difference reflects a performance trade-off: achieving the lower detection thresholds (LOQs of 1.5–8.0 ng/mL) required for pharmacokinetic monitoring often introduces susceptibility to ion suppression, matrix effects, and variable extraction recoveries in complex biological fluids (Govender et al., 2015; Patelia et al., 2014).

Operational Trade-Offs Across Analytical Platforms

Selecting an appropriate analytical method involves balancing resolution, sensitivity, operational costs, and local infrastructure capabilities (Table 2).

Table 2:
Systematic Comparison of Technical Performance Metrics, Operational Constraints, and Surveillance Roles

Analytical Platform	Consolidated Precision (Mean %RSD)	Typical Sensitivity (LOQ Range)	Key Infrastructure Constraints & Failure Points	Recommended Public Health Surveillance Role
RP-HPLC-UV	1.88%	0.08 – 0.50 µg/mL	Moderate run times (10–15 min); requires high-purity solvents and stable power.	Central Reference Laboratory: Confirmatory batch testing, pharmacopoeial compliance, and regulatory verification.
LC-MS/MS	5.37%	1.50 – 8.00 ng/mL	High capital/maintenance cost; potential matrix suppression; requires specialized operations.	Clinical Research Center: Pharmacokinetic, bioequivalence, and bioanalytical drug-interaction studies.
UPLC & SIMs	1.00%	0.01 – 0.10 µg/mL	Requires high operating pressure; sub-2 µm columns susceptible to clogging from un-extracted sample matrix.	Regulatory Audit Hub: High-throughput automated screening, stability testing, and impurity profiling.
UV-Vis / HPTLC	2.00%	0.35 – 3.80 µg/mL	Lower specificity; relies on mathematical derivative models; risk of interference from excipients.	Decentralized Field Post: Preliminary screening in low-resource local distribution nodes.

A key trade-off exists between analytical specificity and operational field portability. Modern UPLC and stability-indicating GC-MS/HPLC configurations (Nassar et al., 2022; Sukanya et al., 2019) provide separation of parent drugs from degradation products, but they carry higher maintenance requirements and consumable costs. Conversely, derivative and simultaneous-equation UV-Vis spectrophotometry (Mishra & Mundada, 2021; Parashar et al., 2013) reduce solvent consumption and equipment costs, but rely on mathematical resolution, which can limit their capacity to resolve unexpected degradation products or novel falsified adulterants.

Regulatory Impact and Applicability in Endemic Settings

The technical capabilities established across the 2010–2025 literature directly support post-market surveillance networks and compliance with WHO quality specifications. While RP-HPLC-UV remains the standard for regulatory batch verification, regions facing high malaria burdens may experience resource constraints—such as limited continuous power, technical support, or solvent supply—that affect laboratory operations.

To address these operational challenges, the validation literature supports a tiered, multi-level surveillance model. Portable, non-destructive tools—such as handheld NIR spectrometers (Yabré et al., 2020)—can be deployed at border checkpoints and regional distribution points for rapid, low-cost initial screening. Samples flagged for potential dosage discrepancies or unusual spectra can then be referred to centralized reference laboratories equipped with validated RP-HPLC or UPLC platforms for confirmatory testing. Aligning field screening with

centralized laboratory infrastructure can help optimize resource allocation while maintaining regulatory oversight across the antimalarial supply chain.

CONCLUSION

The analytical methodologies for artemether–lumefantrine combinations continue to support both routine quality assurance and advanced research. High-throughput UPLC and sensitive LC-MS/MS platforms enable detailed clinical, bioanalytical, and stability investigations, whereas validated RP-HPLC-UV protocols remain the foundation for regulatory compliance and product quality testing. This systematic review provides a consolidated synthesis of 15 years of validation data to inform method selection across differing laboratory capabilities. To further strengthen antimalarial surveillance, future work should focus on multi-center collaborative validations and the refinement of portable, environmentally sustainable analytical tools suitable for deployment in malaria-endemic regions.

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- viii. **Supervision:** J. K. Mbinze.

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