

Recent trends in chiral supercritical fluid chromatography

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1 Recent trends in chiral supercritical fluid chromatography

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Abstract

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- 12 This paper presents a review of the recent literature covering separations of enantiomers
- achieved with supercritical fluid chromatography (SFC) or subcritical fluid chromatography.
- 14 First of all, the recent progress in SFC technology are explained in relation to chiral
- separations. Mobile phases and operating conditions mostly encountered in current practice,
- instruments and stationary phases are discussed. Some elements related to fundamental
- studies are also given. While the pharmaceutical industry was long the principal user of chiral
- SFC for preparative purposes, it is now more and more in use for analytical purposes and
- especially pharmacokinetics. Other application fields are now emerging like the
- 20 determination of different degradation rates in chiral agrochemicals, forensics, natural
- 21 products and cosmetics. This review does not aim at being comprehensive but rather
- provides a global view of current practice of chiral resolution with SFC.

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- Keywords: applications; chiral resolution; chiral stationary phase; enantiomer separation;
- 25 supercritical fluid chromatography.

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Abbreviations

- 28 AcN Acetonitrile
- 29 APCI Atmospheric pressure chemical ionization
- 30 CSP Chiral stationary phase
- 31 DAD Diode-array detection
- 32 ELSD Evaporative light-scattering detection
- 33 ESI Electrospray ionization
- 34 EtOH Ethanol
- 35 HPLC High-performance liquid chromatography
- 36 iPrOH Isopropylalcohol
- 37 GC Gas chromatography
- 38 MeOH Methanol
- 39 MS Mass spectrometry
- 40 SFC Supercritical fluid chromatography
- 41 UHPLC Ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography
- 42 UHPSFC Ultra-high-performance supercritical fluid chromatography

Introduction

Chirality is an essential feature of the living as it is present in a large proportion of natural molecules, including proteins, carbohydrates and many lipid species. Most natural species bearing some chirality are actually homochiral, meaning that one of the stereoisomer(s) is largely prevailing over the other(s). Living organisms therefore display different biological responses to stereoisomers: bioactivity resulting from interaction to target receptors, ADME processes (absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion) and environmental fate may all differ between the isomers. As a result, the ability to identify, quantify and purify stereoisomeric species (enantioresolution) is necessary to many application fields. This is most easily achieved with chromatographic methods using enantioselective or chiral stationary phases (CSP). Among the possible chromatographic methods, supercritical fluid chromatography (SFC) is one of the most effective, both at the analytical and preparative scales [1]. In the following, recent developments in this technology will be exposed, in relation to enantioresolution. Major application fields and emerging trends will be presented.

Evolutions in the technology and practice of SFC in relation to enantioresolution

Operating conditions

In early developments of SFC in the years 1960s' to 1980s', the fluids employed as mobile phases were true supercritical fluids, obtained when the temperature and pressure are both set above the critical values. The advantages of such fluids to perform chromatographic separations are inherent to their intermediate state between gases and liquids: diffusion coefficients and viscosity are intermediate between those of gases and liquids, while density is close to that of liquids. These features result in fast high-efficiency separations, which may be reached at higher flow-rate and lower pressure drops than in liquid-phase chromatography. Note that this feature may be useful not only at the analytical scale but also at the preparative scale, where a recent paper from DaSilva and co-workers demonstrated that high flow-rates were beneficial to obtain higher productivity and lower energy consumption [2]. The low viscosity and high diffusivity also mean that system equilibrium is reached very rapidly, ensuring rapid method development and the possibility to employ ballistic gradients of mobile phase composition (<1 min).

Initially, the mobile phases employed were essentially pure fluids like fluorocarbons, ammonia or carbon dioxide. The latter is now the preferred fluid due to several advantages:

low values of critical temperature and pressure (31°C, 7.3 MPa), non-flammable, non-80 explosive, relative inertness, available in large quantities with a sufficient purity at a low price, 81 no generation of waste and low toxicity. The last two points are highly desirable features, in a 82 83 context where ecological impact of chromatographic methods is being increasingly 84 scrutinized. However, carbon dioxide has a low polarity. Increasing its elution strength through increase of density (that can be obtained with higher pressure and lower 85 86 temperature values), allows the elution of only moderately polar species. To elute polar species, it is necessary to introduce co-solvents, most often a short-chain alcohol like 87 methanol (MeOH), ethanol (EtOH) or isopropanol (iPrOH), or sometimes acetonitrile (AcN), 88 89 in proportions that may vary from 1 to 99%, although the most frequent operating range is 90 rather 5-50%. 2,2,2-Trifluoroethanol was sometimes advocated as an alternative co-solvent for unstable analytes that may react with alcohols [3,4]. On another hand, a small portion of a 91 stronger solvent like dichloromethane was shown to favour solubility at the preparative scale 92 93 to enhance productivity [5]. Solubility is indeed often the limiting factor in preparative SFC [6]. Because the portion of solvent is usually rather low (typically about 20%), the solvent 94 95 consumption at the preparative scale remains moderate compared to liquid-phase methods. Also, because CO₂ returns to the gaseous phase after the separation, collecting fractions in 96 97 preparative separations is yielding smaller volumes of solvent to evaporate and less waste to be processed than is usual in liquid phase. This is a definite ecological and economical 98 99 advantage. 100 This combination of a principal non-polar solvent (CO₂) and a polar co-solvent makes the mobile phase similar to those employed in normal-phase high-performance liquid 101 102 chromatography (HPLC), which was long the preferred chromatographic method employed 103 for enantioresolution. The transposition from normal-phase HPLC to SFC thus seems guite 104 natural, although it is not always successful. 105 Other components called "additives" are also frequently introduced in small concentrations in 106 the co-solvent; they are acids, bases, salts or small proportions of water used to favour the 107 elution of most polar and ionisable species. While the additive is usually significant in SFC to 108 achieve good peak shapes of ionisable species, its effect on chiral separations is also through changes in selectivity. The substitution of one additive by the other is sometimes 109 110 causing tremendous impact on altering enantioresolution. 111 Technically, direct enantioresolution is possible with a non-chiral stationary phase and chiral mobile phase additives (CMPA). While this method was sometimes employed in the past 112 (see for instance [7,8], the preferred method is now, by far, the use of enantioselective 113 stationary phases. Still, one recent attempt is worth mentioning for its originality. Thurbide 114 115 and co-workers have demonstrated that an empty tubing could be filled with water that would set on the walls of the tubing, thereby creating a stationary phase. Analytes could then 116

partition between the carbon dioxide mobile phase and the water stationary phase. This concept was applied in several papers, but most particularly to enantioresolution with a CMPA like β -cyclodextrin or vancomycin [9]. This is however a rather isolated experiment. In the following, only enantioresolution with chiral stationary phases will be related.

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When CO₂ is mixed to the co-solvent and additives in binary or ternary mixtures, the critical point is displaced towards higher values of temperature and pressure. In most experiments, the operating pressure is maintained above the critical pressure, while the operating temperature remains moderate. For enantioresolution, it is often desirable to reduce the temperature well below the critical temperature as low temperature tends to favour enantioselectivity in "enthalpy-driven separations". For example, a recent paper showed the improved resolution of ketamine enantiomers at low temperature (15°C) [10]. The fluid employed is thus not a supercritical fluid anymore but it may be called "subcritical fluid". Because the way to operate the instrument and develop methods is not any different, and because there is a continuum of properties when moving from gas to supercritical fluid and liquid, no distinction will be made in the following. The term "SFC" (supercritical fluid chromatography) is then applied to any separation method employing a mobile phase containing pressurized carbon dioxide, whatever the exact state of the fluid. Apart from this specific effect of temperature, the effects of operating conditions on enantioselectivity are often found to be rather modest [11]. The effect on enantioresolution may however be significant, through variations of retention (especially with mobile phase composition) and band width (all parameters).

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Instruments

The first SFC experiment was demonstrated in 1962 [14] but the first chiral separation in SFC was done more than twenty years later in 1985 [15]. Initial developments, particularly in the years 1980s', were mostly done with open-tubular columns and instruments based on gas chromatography (GC) systems. From the early 1990s', packed-column SFC with columns and instruments based on HPLC systems took the lead. Modern instruments are mostly based on HPLC and ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) systems, with a few additions to ensure adequate pumping of compressible fluids and back-pressure regulation. Following the UHPLC trend, ultra-high efficiency is obtained in ultra-high-performance SFC (UHPSFC) through reduced extra-column volumes, although further developments in this direction are still desirable [16,17]. The most recent developments clearly aim at improved robustness and sensitivity to satisfy the needs of regulated environments [18,19], and higher efficiencies to comply with the needs of high-throughput

The basic principles and fundamentals of SFC were largely detailed in recent papers [12,13].

and high-resolution methods [20]. For enantioresolution, sensitivity is especially important to be able to quantify low proportions of a minor enantiomer in a scalemic mixture. High-throughput is particularly useful when a large number of samples must be processed in a short time, which may be the case of high-throughput experimentation of organic chemistry reactions [21,22]. The trend to ultra-high efficiency often goes along with ultra-fast separations [17,20,23]. In this view, further developments of analytical instruments are highly desirable. Currently, the injection process is too slow, taking more time than would be required for very high-throughput separations. Miniaturization is also one way to reduce analysis time, especially in reducing column dimension as was first demonstrated by Regalado and Welch with 1 cm-columns to achieve separations in a few seconds [25]. With some modifications of the injection program, it is then possible to realize multiple injection in a single experimental run (MISER), as was demonstrated by Zawatzky and co-workers [24]. Employing short chiral columns to reduce analysis time to a few seconds, they achieved 96 chiral separations in about half an hour.

A recent paper demonstrated the first on-chip SFC separation. This is technically demanding, especially to deliver accurate flow-rate and maintain adequate temperature in each portion of the system but the authors succeeded in this task. Some of the examples were done with enantioselective stationary phases (polysaccharide-type on 3 µm silica particles), with enantioseparations achieved within 10 to 20 s. Further reducing the stationary phase particle size should yield even faster analyses. Future developments shall include the full miniaturization of all system components (pumping of fluids, back-pressure regulator), as the glass-chip proposed was limited to injection, on-column separation and detection.

 Recent instrument evolution in SFC also applies to detection. Indeed, the most popular detectors employed in modern SFC are also essentially the same as in HPLC. For two decades (1990s' and 2000s'), UV-visible or diode-array detection (DAD) and, to a lesser extent, evaporative light-scattering detection (ESLD) or charged-aerosol detection (CAD) were dominating all applications. Chiroptical detection (optical rotation or circular dichroism), which is often employed in chiral HPLC, is infrequently found in chiral SFC publications [26]. More recently, the use of mass spectrometry (MS) with electrospray ionization (ESI) or atmospheric pressure chemical ionization (APCI) sources has been rising fast, thanks to the facilitated hyphenation of modern instruments [27,28]. The selectivity and sensitivity of MS are clearly opening the way to new application fields like bioanalysis, where low concentrations of metabolites are looked for, or when synthetic intermediates might be

chemically susceptible to the aqueous conditions used in reversed-phase HPLC separations [29]. However, sample preparation must often be adapted, as the aqueous phases employed in the most usual reversed-phase HPLC-MS methods are not necessarily appropriate to injection in the carbon dioxide-based mobile phase, especially at preparative scale [30]. Rather than looking for appropriate dilution solvent, an interesting solution was proposed by Shimadzu with the on-line coupling of supercritical fluid extraction (SFE) to SFC. One of the first example demonstrating the interest of this device for bioanalysis was shown with the extraction of dried serum samples [31]. A broader view on the possibilities of this technology can be found in a recent review [32]. A recent example related to enantioresolution was shown with the SFE extraction of ketamine from dried urine and on-line chiral SFC separation on a polysaccharide stationary phase [33].

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The inclusion of SFC in two-dimensional systems was demonstrated by several academic and industry teams in the past decade, but was rarely applied to chiral separations. The interest in combining an enantioselective dimension to a non-enantioselective dimension is mostly found in compounds of pharmaceutical interest, as active pharmaceutical ingredients may contain both chiral and achiral impurities. An older paper from Zeng et al. had shown how heart-cut SFC-SFC could be useful in isolating a single stereoisomer, with a first dimension on achiral SFC and a second dimension on chiral SFC, for analytical or preparative purposes [34]. More recently, solely for analytical purposes, Iguiniz et al. demonstrated the interest of selective comprehensive achiral reversed-phase HPLC x chiral SFC to achieve a most complete impurity profiling of chiral drugs [35]. Indeed, this is usually achieved in two separate steps where the achiral impurities are determined with HPLC and chiral impurities with chiral HPLC or SFC. The proposed method was thus very attractive and looked promising. An example of this method applied to a real sample of active pharmaceutical ingredient containing impurities is presented in Figure 1. Also for in-vivo interconversion of stereoisomers, the first achiral HPLC dimension could be used as a desalting method for complex biological matrices prior to the chiral SFC method, as demonstrated in a paper from Goel et al. [36].

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Further details on analytical instruments can be found in other reviews. Improved semipreparative SFC instruments are now also under development, following the initiative of several companies (designated as the "Enabling Technologies Consortium" [37]) having joined their efforts to establish a common wish-list of desirable features. This unprecedented process should be most efficient in achieving the best compromise to satisfy most requirements. Prototype instruments are now under evaluation. 226 Stationary phases 227 228 In the past decades, a variety of enantioselective stationary phases have been made 229 available to HPLC and SFC chromatographers. Although a single chiral selector may be 230 capable to resolve all enantiomers of a complete synthetic route [38], a diversity of stationary phases is indeed necessary, as no universal stationary phase exists, which would be 231 232 capable to resolve all enantiomeric pairs. The usual method development process then starts 233 with an automated column screening, most often conducted with a variety of mobile phase 234 compositions, identified as "generic conditions", meaning to provide adequate elution and 235 resolution for a majority of cases [39]. High efficiencies are also achieved with the help of stationary phases containing small fully 236 porous particles (FPP) or superficially porous particles (SPP). Achiral stationary phases with 237 such features have been made available more than a decade ago, but enantioselective 238 239 stationary phases with such particles have only been very recently developed and made 240 commercially available. While most polysaccharide stationary phases were long available at no smaller than 3 µm 241 FPP (that were already quite an improvement over previously available 5 μm-FPP [40]), 242 coated polysaccharide phases were first introduced by Waters with 2.5 µm FPP (Trefoil 243 AMY1, CEL1 and CEL2) in 2014. Then immobilized polysaccharide stationary phases based 244 on 1.6 μm FPP were introduced by Daicel (Chiralpak IA-u, IB-u, IC-u, ID-u, IG-u and IH-u). 245 246 The kinetic evaluation of Chiralpak IA-u in SFC conditions has been evaluated by Berger [41]. An example chromatogram is shown in Figure 2, where baseline resolution of trans-247 stilbene oxide is obtained in 7.5 seconds on a 50 x 3.0 mm column. 248 A Pirkle-type stationary phase, Whelk-O1, is available from Regis Technologies on 1.8 µm 249 250 FPP [16,42,43]. Macrocyclic glycopeptide stationary phases based on sub-2 μm FPP were proposed some years ago [44], but finally the authors preferred to develop these phases 251 252 commercially as 2.7 µm SPP (VancoShell, TeicoShell, TagShell and NicoShell available from Azyp). The same manufacturer is also offering a cyclofructan-based SPP phase (LarihcShell-253 254 P). All are advocated for SFC use, appear to have interesting complementarity and good 255 overall performance. For instance, the applicability of the TeicoShell and NicoShell stationary phases to SFC enantioresolution of active pharmaceutical ingredients was demonstrated in a 256 257 recent paper [38]. In addition to high efficiency, SPP particles offer the advantage of low pressure drops, making it possible to increase flow rates or co-solvent percentage at higher 258 values than would be possible on FPP stationary phases of identical dimensions. This should 259 be most useful in two-dimensional systems where chiral SFC would be the second 260

dimension, and would thus need to be conducted at a very fast rate for comprehensive

analysis. Other chiral SPP phases have been presented in publications, like one quinine-based chiral selector [45], or immobilized polysaccharides [46], which are not yet available commercially. It is expected that they will be more broadly developed and applied in the near future.

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Another interesting possibility in SFC to achieve high efficiencies (but usually not at a high speed) is to couple columns in-line, taking advantage of the low viscosity of the fluid that ensures moderate pressure drops. Another advantage of this method is that different stationary phases may be combined to make full use of complementary selectivities. While this concept has been applied in several occasions is the past, some rationale in its development was recently proposed by two different teams. First, Hegade and Lynen extended the concept of stationary phase-optimized selectivity, previously employed in reversed-phase HPLC and achiral SFC, to enantioselective SFC [47]. To use this method, the enantioselectivity is first assessed on individual short columns. Then chromatographic retention is predicted to define the best selection of stationary phases, combining small sections of columns. The concept was demonstrated for mixtures of 4 or 5 racemates. Predictive errors were greatly reduced when corrected to take account of internal pressure and when mobile phase additives were employed, reaching as low as 1-5%. An example comparing predicted and experimental chromatograms is presented in Figure 2. In another publication, the group of Lipka applied this concept to achieve semi-preparative purification of all four stereoisomers of an active pharmaceutical ingredient containing two chiral centres and also demonstrated very good predictive ability of the separation factors [48]. Both approaches are particularly relevant in the present context of pharmaceutical development. where drug candidates issued from chemical synthesis tend to contain more and more chiral features [49], in an attempt to "escape from flatland", as planarity was often observed to be unfavourable to bioactivity.

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Fundamental studies

The search for ideal enantioresolution conditions is often a pretext for examining separation mechanisms, for instance through Van't Hoff plots [50] or molecular modelling [10], especially when several compounds with small structural variations are available. Unfortunately, the conclusions are generally only applicable to the series of compounds examined, as enantioseparation mechanisms are very complex. This is particularly the case on polysaccharide stationary phases that are the most employed in chiral SFC applications. Some comparison to chiral HPLC separations in the normal-phase, reversed-phase or polar organic modes are sometimes proposed (see for example [50–52]). Comparing identical

column dimensions, it is often observed that SFC provides higher resolution-to-analysis time ratio than HPLC (typically 2- to 5-times improvement). Indeed, even when resolution is not higher, it is often obtained in a shorter experimental time.

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Preparative SFC in general, and preparative chiral SFC in particular, would deserve some more attention to achieve more effective scale up. Usually transferring a method from analytical to preparative scale presents no particular difficulty, if one considers the internal pressure to maintain it identical between the two experiments [53], and taking into account the real conditions of operation, especially the fact that analytical systems are usually volume-controlled while preparative systems are mass-controlled [54]. However, peak deformation may occur, which may be due to the co-solvent adsorption [55] or to viscous fingering and adsorption of the dilution solvent. Modifier-stream injection (eluting the sample with co-solvent prior to mixing with carbon dioxide) [56] and extraction-injection (injecting the samples as solids from an extraction cell) could be the best solutions to avoid solubility issues.

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Applications

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Pharmaceuticals

The pharmaceutical industry and design of drug candidates in academic laboratories are both largely concerned by enantioresolution: firstly, to evaluate the enantiopurity of synthesis intermediates and active pharmaceutical ingredients at every stage of drug development and purify the desired stereoisomer when the observed purity is not considered sufficient; secondly to evaluate the fate of chiral drugs and notably isomer conversion during metabolism; thirdly, to obtain sufficient quantities of pure isomers to evaluate their bioactivity separately. Both analytical and preparative enantioresolution methods are required. For all these purposes, SFC is now most useful as it allows for fast method development, in accordance with the requirements of the industry [18]. Indeed, while HPLC has long been in the lead in pharmaceutical industries, the advantages of SFC have been recognized for many years, first at the preparative scale and more recently at the analytical scale [57]. This latter point is mostly due to the introduction of improved analytical SFC instruments and stationary phases, as detailed above. In particular, the progressive reduction in particle size of chiral stationary phases has permitted tremendous reduction in analysis time of the screening process, as previously discussed by Mattrey et al. [57] and evidenced in Table 1. Even when no chiral separation is required, a chiral stationary phase may be useful: basically, in any case when structurally similar analytes are encountered and especially

isomers (not only enantiomers), a chiral stationary phase may offer a better selectivity than 334 335 some achiral stationary phases. For instance, Regalado and Welch used this strategy for difficult pharmaceutical compounds at both analytical and preparative scale [58]. 336 In addition, the fast emergence of SFC applications in the field of bioanalysis [59], for 337 instance for pharmacokinetics, is largely due to recent improvements in the hyphenation to 338 339 mass spectrometry mentioned above. For instance, Camacho-Muñoz et al. measured the interconversion of the stereoisomers of an active pharmaceutical ingredient during 340 341 metabolization processes. Another significant example of the interest of SFC-MS to analyse pharmaceutical compounds and their metabolites is the enantioresolution of pharmaceuticals 342 as environmental pollutants in wastewater samples [60], a task that is also requiring most 343 sensitive detection. In another example, Regalado et al. successfully applied 344 345 enantioselective SFC to the separation and analysis of complex enantiomeric mixtures containing hydroxywarfarins obtained from incubation of warfarin with human liver 346 microsomes [61]. Many other examples of chiral SFC applied to bioanalysis can be found in 347 a recent review [62]. 348 349 A broader view of preparative chiral SFC can be found in a recent review [63]. 350 Open-access SFC systems are now implemented in academic and industry laboratories [64], for analytical or preparative purposes, revealing the interest of end-users and the facilitated 351 operation of the instruments that has been achieved in recent years. Simplified platforms with 352 353 well-selected complementary stationary phases [65] (preferably the least fragile ones like bonded-silica or polysaccharides immobilized on silica) offer the possibility to achieve 354 355 enantioresolution in a majority of cases, while a minority of cases still require the intervention 356 of a chromatography specialist. More details on chiral SFC of pharmaceuticals can be found in a recent review [66], while 357 358 other reviews relate the use of achiral and chiral SFC to pharmaceuticals [67,68].

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Natural products

Chiral fragrances are mostly resolved with gas chromatography, and supercritical fluid chromatography is rarely found competitive in this field. Only when some transfer to preparative scale is desired can SFC be found of some use. However, many natural products, which may be of interest in the context of traditional medicine or in the food industry, contain non-volatile chiral species that may be analysed with enantioselective SFC. The interest of sub-2 µm FPP stationary phases was demonstrated with the enantioresolution of phytocannabinoids on a Whelk-O1 stationary phase [69]. Most particularly, one specific feature of this brush-type stationary phase is that it is available in two enantiomeric configurations: (R,R) or (S,S), allowing for reversed elution orders when

one column is replaced by the other. In this paper, this was cleverly employed to determine the enantiomeric excess of tetrahydrocannabinol in medicinal cannabis. Another paper describes the enantioresolution of free amino acids in a traditional phytotherapeutic plant, Shepherd's purse [70]. Enantioseparation of 16 amino acids out of 19 was achieved with Chiralpak ZWIX stationary phases, which are brush-type CSP containing quinine or quinidine-based zwitterionic ligands and are well known for their capability to resolve amino acids in HPLC. In this experiment, to achieve the retention and elution of all proteinogenic amino acids, from the least polar to the most polar, it was necessary to employ a wide elution gradient ranging from nearly 100% CO₂ to 100% co-solvent. Also, adequate peak shapes could only be obtained with the introduction of water and ammonium acetate (respectively 5% and 50 mM in the methanol co-solvent), especially for the most basic species. An example of enantioseparation obtained for one particularly difficult racemate, the basic lysine, is shown in Figure 3. Previous works [71,72] showing the enantioresolution of free amino acids in SFC did not necessarily employ mobile phase additives but had not succeeded in such a wide polarity range. This way of operating the SFC system, moving from supercritical fluid to liquid in a single experiment, was inspired by a seminal paper from the group of Bamba [73], and could be termed "unified chromatography" (UC). In the field of natural products, sample complexity is high with many structurally similar compounds encountered. For instance, isomers are often numerous within one structural family encountered in one plant. Here again, as was mentioned for pharmaceutical compounds, to achieve a most complete separation, the use of a chiral SFC method is often found useful, even though no chiral samples is involved. For instance, such examples can be found in paper from Xin and co-workers [74,75] where a chiral preparative SFC method was used as a complementary purification to an achiral SFC method to simplify a complex plant extract or to resolve diastereomers. Epimieric pairs of triterpenoids, another example of diastereomeric pairs, were also resolved with SFC and a chiral stationary phase in the works of Qiao et al. [76]. With the fast rise of SFC use in the field of traditional Chinese medicine [59,77], it can be expected that other applications of chiral SFC to natural products will be seen in the near future.

Agrochemicals

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404 405 A large portion of agrochemicals (about 30% [78]) bear one or more chiral centres. Racemic mixtures are still employed in most cases even when the bioactivity of the stereoisomers is known to differ significantly. To assess the individual bioactivity, chiral preparative methods are needed, while analytical methods are useful to assess the different degradation rate of

the isomers to determine their fate in the environment. In the recent years, many studies have been devoted to chiral SFC for this purpose, applied to different categories of agrochemicals that were looked for in food products (fruits, vegetables, tea or cereals), tobacco and soil samples. For instance, see [78–82]. Other examples are listed in other reviews on food analysis [83,84].

Forensics

Other application fields also require enantioresolution where chromatographic separation is most useful. Chiral SFC has been recently implemented in the field of forensic toxicology, where the advent of designer drugs is requiring the development of complementary high-performance analytical methods including gas chromatography, HPLC and SFC [85]. Indeed, impurity profiling of drugs, and chiral drugs in particular is helpful in identifying the clandestine laboratories. For example, a recent paper showed the development of chiral SFC methods to analyse illicit samples of methamphetamine and its precursors [86]. Another paper identified enantiomeric excess of amphetamine in urine samples to differentiate between legal and illegal consumption [87]. Further examples of the application of (achiral and chiral) SFC-MS in the field of forensics can be found in another review [88].

Cosmetics

The chromatographic analysis of cosmetic ingredients or formulations is rising slowly but steadfastly. Only rare examples are yet found concerning chiral SFC. For instance, Khater and West [89] had demonstrated the interest of SFC-MS for the direct enantioresolution of panthenol enantiomers, an active ingredient often found in many creams and lotions to favour skin hydration. In previous methods, it was necessary to derivatize the small polar molecules to achieve adequate retention and enantioresolution in gas chromatography or reversed-phase HPLC.

Conclusion

Although supercritical fluid chromatography had been well developed for chiral separations since the 1990s', the recent technological evolution in the instruments have been beneficial to achieve high-efficiency, high-throughput enantioresolution in regulated environments where methods need to be thoroughly validated. Novel stationary phases with small and/or superficially porous particles are especially useful in this respect. Also the progresses in hyphenation to mass spectrometry have opened the way to new application fields where sensitivity is desired (like bioanalysis and environmental analysis) or where accurate mass

detection is necessary in complex samples (like natural products). In other words, while chiral SFC was long a favourite for its benefits at the preparative scale, its merits at the analytical scale are finally recognized as well.

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757 758 **Figures** 759 760 761 Figure 1. Achiral-chiral analysis of a pharmaceutical sample by sRPLCxSFC with gradient 762 elution in ²D-SFC: ¹D-RPLC chromatogram for chemical purity (top); zoom on chiral 763 compound peaks (middle) and ²D-SFC chromatograms of the different consecutive fractions 764 for enantiomeric purity (bottom). An impurity separated from active pharmaceutical ingredient 765 in SFC is circled in pink. Reproduced from Iquiniz et al. [28] with permission from Elsevier. 766 767 Figure 2. Performance of the 50 × 3 mm, 1.6 µm ChiralPak IA-U column, with 0.1 µL injections of trans-stilbene oxide. 4.65 mL/min of 30% MeOH in CO₂, 40 °C, 100 bar back-768 769 pressure. Pump pressure 592 bar. Reproduced from Berger [31], with permission from 770 Elsevier. 771 772 Figure 3. Predicted (A) compared to experimental (B) chromatograms obtained with a 773 combination of three chiral stationary phases for a mixture of 5 racemates. Conditions: 774 CO₂/ethanol/trifluoroacetic acid/isopropylamine (90/10/0.1/0.5% v/v) isocratic composition. 775 Reproduced from Hegade and Lynen [38] with permission from Elsevier. 776 777 Figure 4. Resolution of lysine enantiomers on Chiralpak Zwix(+) (150 x 4.6 mm, 5 μm), with 778 methanol co-solvent containing 50 mM ammonium formate and 5% of water. Gradient elution 779 from 10% to 100% co-solvent, 25 °C, 150 bar, 0.5 mL/min, ESI (+) detection (m/z = 147). 780 Adapted from Raimbault et al. [58], with permission from Springer. 781 782

Tables

Table 1. Continuously improving chiral SFC screening for analytical method development.

Adapted from Mattrey et al. [47], with permission from Elsevier

Conditions	1990	2005	2010	2017
Column size (mm)	250 x 4.6	250 x 4.6	150 x 4.6	50 x 3.0
Particle size (µm)	10	5	3	1.6
Flow rate (mL/min)	1.5	2	3	3
Approximate run time (min)	30	16	6	2

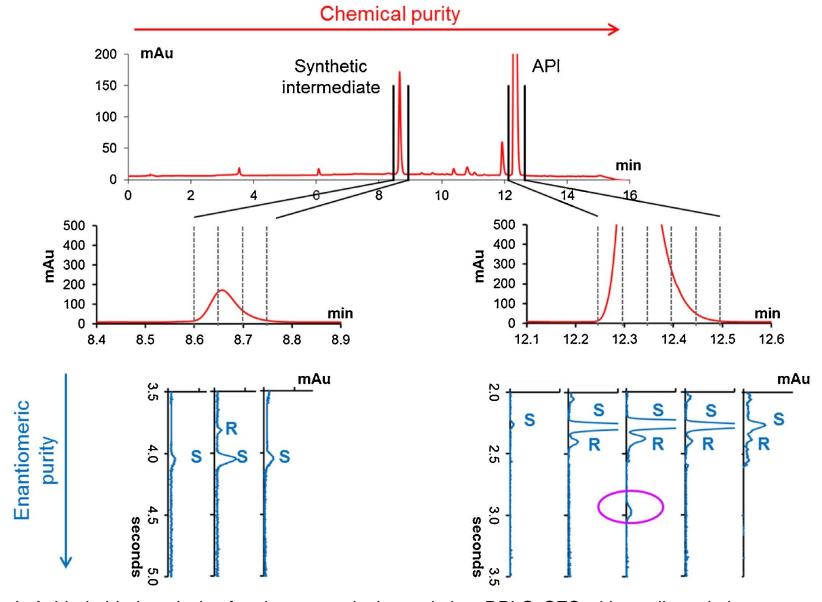


Figure 1. Achiral-chiral analysis of a pharmaceutical sample by sRPLCxSFC with gradient elution in ²D-SFC: ¹D-RPLC chromatogram for chemical purity (top); zoom on chiral compound peaks (middle) and ²D-SFC chromatograms of the different consecutive fractions for enantiomeric purity (bottom). An impurity separated from active pharmaceutical ingredient in SFC is circled in pink. Reproduced from Iguiniz et al. [28] with permission from Elsevier.

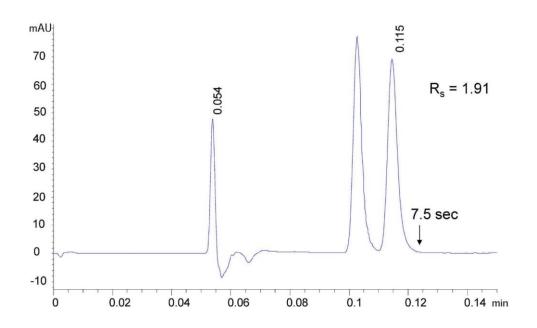


Figure 2. Performance of the 50 × 3 mm, 1.6 μ m ChiralPak IA-U column, with 0.1 μ L injections of *trans*-stilbene oxide. 4.65 mL/min of 30% MeOH in CO₂, 40 °C, 100 bar back-pressure. Pump pressure 592 bar. Reproduced from Berger [31], with permission from Elsevier.

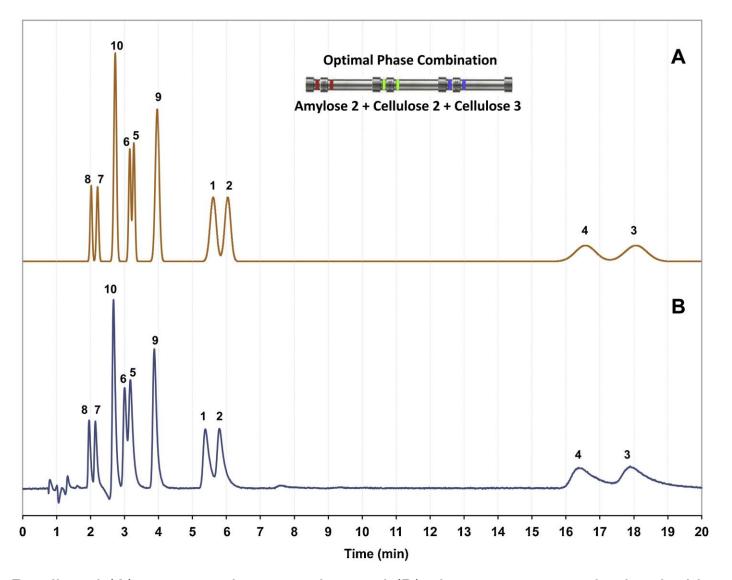


Figure 3. Predicted (A) compared to experimental (B) chromatograms obtained with a combination of three chiral stationary phases for a mixture of 5 racemates. Conditions: CO₂/ethanol/trifluoroacetic acid/isopropylamine (90/10/0.1/0.5% v/v) isocratic composition. Reproduced from Hegade and Lynen [38] with permission from Elsevier.

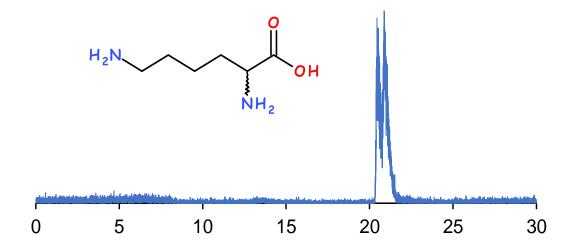


Figure 4. Resolution of lysine enantiomers on Chiralpak Zwix(+) (150 x 4.6 mm, 5 μ m), with methanol co-solvent containing 50 mM ammonium formate and 5% of water. Gradient elution from 10% to 100% co-solvent, 25 °C, 150 bar, 0.5 mL/min, ESI (+) detection (m/z = 147). Adapted from Raimbault et al. [58], with permission from Springer.

INNOVATIONS IN CHIRAL SFC



Pharmaceuticals



Forensics



Natural products



Agrochemicals



