

Effects of high concentrations of mobile phase additives on retention and separation mechanisms on a teicoplanin aglycone stationary phase in supercritical fluid chromatography

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► To cite this version:

Adrien Raimbault, Caroline West. Effects of high concentrations of mobile phase additives on retention and separation mechanisms on a teicoplanin aglycone stationary phase in supercritical fluid chromatography. Journal of Chromatography A, 2019, 1604, pp.460494 -. 10.1016/j.chroma.2019.460494 . hal-03487761

HAL Id: hal-03487761 https://hal.science/hal-03487761v1

Submitted on 21 Dec 2021

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- 1 Effects of high concentrations of mobile phase additives on retention and separation
- 2 mechanisms on a teicoplanin aglycone stationary phase in supercritical fluid
- 3 chromatography
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Abstract

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The objective of this study is to understand the behavior of a peptide in a medium containing supercritical carbon dioxide mixed with an alcohol (methanol) and acidic or basic additives in uncommonly high concentrations. Chirobiotic TAG is a chromatographic column made of silica bonded with a macrocyclic peptide, teicoplanin aglycone. With this stationary phase, two additives (trifluoroacetic acid and isopropylamine) were tested under extreme concentration conditions to observe the behavior of this peptide. Indeed, concentrations exceeding 1 M in the methanol co-solvent (>0.1 M overall concentration in the CO₂-methanol mixture) were used whereas usual additive concentrations employed in supercritical fluid chromatography (SFC) rarely exceed 50 mM in the co-solvent. One purpose was to modify the apparent pH of the fluid, which is normally slightly acidic (around 5) and consequently possibly changing the ionization state of the peptide. Firstly, the effect of acidic and basic additives on the polarity and the apparent pH were evaluated with the help of color indicators. This served to assess the ionization state of the peptide under the selected operating conditions. Secondly, 54 achiral and 24 chiral molecules were injected in the chromatographic column at different levels of additives. The achiral species served at establishing retention models based on linear solvation energy relationships (LSER), while the chiral species were examined for their enantioresolution. From the LSER equations and observation of chromatograms, it appeared that specific interactions between the peptidebased stationary phase and the analytes evolved when increasing the concentration of additives, particularly hydrogen bonds and ionic interactions. A bare silica stationary phase (Acquity BEH) served as reference to deconvolute the contributions of silica support and bonded peptide. This study, with these extreme conditions of mobile phase, could be useful to understand the behavior of such peptides in SFC mobile phases and also improve the knowledge of the effects of additives in SFC, which should be helpful in the future prospect of analyzing large biomolecules in SFC.

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Keywords

Additives; Linear solvation energy relationships; Mobile phases; Peptides; Solvation parameter model; Supercritical fluid chromatography

1. Introduction

Supercritical Fluid Chromatography (SFC) has faced a renewed interest in recent years [1,2], thanks to the introduction of modern analytical systems [3] and because it is considered as a green analytical technique with a low consumption of solvents, thereby producing little waste. Indeed, the main solvent employed as mobile phase is pressurized carbon dioxide (CO₂) which is easily renewable and has a low toxicity. SFC was previously mainly used for chiral applications [4-7], especially at the preparative scale in the pharmaceutical industry. Currently, more and more achiral and analytical-scale applications are being developed with this technique [1]. In particular the analysis of biomolecules is raising expectations. While several recent papers have demonstrated the feasibility of eluting small polar biomolecules like nucleotides or nucleosides [8-12], the elution of large biomolecules was only rarely shown. Lipophilic peptides and proteins were analyzed with SFC in a few occasions [13-15]. Hydrophilic peptides and proteins were explored recently with SFC [16,17] or enhancedfluidity liquid chromatography (EFLC) in the hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatographic mode (HILIC) [18]. EFLC typically employs a larger portion of liquid solvent than is usually done in SFC, and this liquid solvent often contains a significant percentage of water. The question of peptides and proteins solubility and stability in a typical SFC mobile phase, where the portion of liquid solvent remains moderate (typically inferior to 50%), is thus still vacant [17].

This work aims at understanding the behavior of free (non-derivatized) peptides when they are placed in typical SFC mobile phases, i.e. a mobile phase made of a pressurized CO₂-alcohol mixture. In addition, the effect of acidic and basic additives introduced in the methanol co-solvent is of interest. While the effects of additives in SFC mobile phases have long been explored [19–23], they are still not fully understood. It is generally accepted that they adsorb on the stationary phase (like any other mobile phase component), thereby changing the surface in contact with analytes [24], may suppress ionization [20] and/or form ion pairs with ionic or ionizable analytes [16,25]. Typical concentrations used in current SFC practice range in the 1-50 mM or 0.1-1% in the alcohol co-solvent. The behavior of a CO₂-alcohol mixture with higher concentrations of additive has only rarely been explored in SFC. A recent study from Speybrouck and co-workers explored the effects of large concentrations of additive (10% ispropylamine) on enantioresolution of drug-like molecules with polysaccharide stationary phases [26]. Unusual effects were observed like reversals of elution order of the enantiomers, suggesting that the retention mechanism had been deeply modified.

There may be two different ways to study the behavior of a molecule in a fluid with chromatography. The first method is to directly inject this molecule on any column with different mobile phases to control the evolution of its retention under several conditions. The second approach is to study this molecule as a stationary phase (coated or bonded on a support) and to inject known molecules in varied conditions, to observe how the interactions that the target molecule (as stationary phase) is able to do vary with the operating conditions. The latter option was selected in the present study, with the use of a commercial chromatographic column packed with silica particles bonded with a macrocyclic peptide. The chosen column was Chirobiotic TAG based on teicoplanin aglycone, whose structure is presented in Fig.1. It is a complex macrocyclic peptide possessing four cavities within its structure. This stationary phase is normally employed as a chiral selector, where each of these four cavities may participate in the enantiorecognition process. Note that the structure presented in Figure 1 is not the exact structure of the stationary phase, as the TAG molecule is bonded to silica gel, probably through the amine function [27], and perhaps also through the phenolic groups [28]. Teicoplanin, which has 3 additional sugar units relative to the aglycone molecule, is an antibiotic produced by the fermentation of Actinoplanes teicomyceticus. While teicoplanin-bonded silica was first introduced as a chiral selector [29], it was later modified to remove the glycosyl groups and obtain different enantiorecognition capabilities [30]. This column was already cited in many studies in HPLC, notably for pharmaceutical applications [31-33], and sometimes in SFC [34-37]. In addition, although it is an enantioselective stationary phase, it may also be useful to the analysis of achiral molecules [38].

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The TAG structure comprises two free ionizable functions: a carboxylic acid function and a primary amine function. The latter may however serve as an attachment to the silica support and may then be converted to a urea function. However, the three-step bonding protocol employed to prepare the stationary phase [30] also involves modifying the silica surface with amino-propyl groups prior to bonding of the peptide. It is therefore likely that amine groups also remain on the silica surface, along with possible residual silanol groups. All these ionizable functions will have different ionization states depending on the mobile phase pH and would therefore contribute differently to the interaction capabilities. This in turn would affect retention and possibly enantiorecognition of the analytes injected in this column. Similarly, the acid and amine ionizable functions would be present in all linear and non-derivatized peptides as well as in free amino acids, and their ionization state would have a significant influence on their solubility in the mobile phase fluid and on their retention properties in any stationary phase.

It is likely that large concentrations of acidic or basic additives in SFC could affect the ionization state of biomolecules like peptides, thereby impacting their solubility in the CO₂-alcohol mobile phase and their interaction properties, whether they are immobilized on a stationary phase or injected as analytes. One objective of the present paper was thus to

assess whether the ionization state of a peptide could be manipulated through the concentration of acidic or basic additives.

Two additives were tested: trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) and isopropylamine (IPA) at different concentrations in methanol mixed to 90% pressurized CO₂. These additive concentrations were pushed to the extreme to go above 1 M in methanol, representing an overall concentration greater than 100 mM in the mobile phase. Mathematical models based on Linear Solvation Energy Relationships (LSER) [39,40] were used to model the possible interactions between probe molecules and the peptide stationary phase to better understand the evolution of these interactions depending on the nature and concentration of additives in the mobile phase. A modified version of the solvation parameter model, comprising five Abraham descriptors [41], two additional descriptors to account for ionic interactions [42], and two more descriptors that were previously developed to characterize enantioselective stationary phases [43], was employed. These models were made following the injection of 54 achiral molecules under 11 different mobile phase conditions. 24 racemates were also analyzed in order to see the evolution of enantioseparation with the presence of additives. A silica stationary phase (Acquity BEH) served as reference material to deconvolute the effects related to the silica support or the bonded peptide.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Chemicals and Solvents

Nile Red, Thymol Blue, Bromocresol Green, Methyl Red, Bromocresol Purple and Bromothymol Blue were provided by Sigma-Aldrich (Sigma Aldrich Chimie, France). Their structures and UV-visible spectra can be observed in supplementary material (Fig. S1 and S2). Solutions were prepared in methanol. The colors and aqueous pKa values associated to each acid-base pair are presented in Fig. 2.

54 achiral and 24 chiral molecules were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. The complete list of analytes together with molecular descriptors can be found in electronic supplementary information (Tables S1 for achiral probes and S2 for chiral probes). Although the set may be considered rather small, the achiral molecules were selected so as to provide a good distribution of properties to achieve meaningful LSER description, according to the recommendations of Vitha and Carr [44]. As a rule of thumb dictates that a minimum of three analytes per variable should be employed, 54 adequately chosen analytes should be largely sufficient to account for the effects of 9 variables. Descriptors for the chiral molecules are also indicated for information although they did not serve to establish models but only to assess the structural variance among this set. Solutions of all analytes were prepared in

methanol. Ultra-pure water was supplied by an Elga UHQ system from Veolia (Wissous, France). The HPLC-grade methanol used as the mobile phase was supplied by VWR (Fontenay-sous-Bois, France). CO₂, with a purity of 99.995 %, was delivered by Air Liquide (Paris, France). Isopropylamine (IPA) and trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) were provided by Sigma Aldrich (Sigma Aldrich Chimie, France).

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2.2 Instruments and stationary phases

All LSER experiments were carried out on two columns: Chirobiotic TAG column (150 x 4.6 mm; 5 μ m), provided by Merck and Acquity UPC² BEH (100 x 3.0 mm; 1.7 μ m) provided by Waters, that served for comparison purposes. The charge state of teicoplanin aglycon depending on mobile phase pH was calculated based on aqueous pKa values determined with Chemicalize program (http://www.chemicalize.org/). The supercritical fluid chromatography system used was an ACQUITY Ultra Performance

The supercritical fluid chromatography system used was an ACQUITY Ultra Performance Convergence Chromatography™ (UPC²®) from Waters Corporation (Millford, MA, USA). It was equipped with a binary solvent delivery pump compatible with mobile phase flow rates up to 4 mL/min and pressures up to 414 bar, an autosampler that included partial loop volume injection system, a back-pressure regulator, a column oven compatible with 150 mm length columns and a photodiode-array (PDA) detector. Empower® 3 (Waters Corporation) was used to process the chromatograms.

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2.3 Analytical methods

The mobile phase was a mixture of 90% CO₂ and 10% MeOH, comprising additive or not. Two additives commonly employed in chiral SFC, an acidic one (trifluoroacetic acid) and a basic one (isopropylamine), were selected. 11 mobile phase compositions were tested: no additive; 20 mM, 122 mM, 366 mM and 610 mM trifluoroacetic acid in methanol; and 20 mM, 61 mM, 122 mM, 366 mM, 610 mM and 1220 mM isopropylamine in methanol. As a note of caution, it is worth saying that a very thorough rinsing of the system is absolutely necessary after operation, as such high concentrations of additives tend to leave traces in the system for a long while (especially isopropylamine). Obviously, the adsorption on the stationary phase is also quite extensive thus the columns must be rinsed for a long time to restore the initial state. The 54 achiral and 24 chiral molecules (Tables S1 and S2) were injected with each of these mobile phase conditions. The flow rate was 3.0 mL/min for the Chirobiotic TAG column, and 1 mL/min for the BEH column, to allow for comparable internal pressure in the two columns and avoid reaching the pump upper pressure limit. The backpressure was maintained at 15 MPa and the column oven was heated to 25 °C. The injection volume was set at 2 µL. The dead time and retention times of all compounds were recorded to calculate the log k value, required to achieve the LSER models.

2.4 Evaluation of polarity and apparent pH

Measurements of UV-visible spectra in the carbon dioxide – methanol – additive compositions were done as previously described [45]. Briefly, solutions of the color indicators (Nile Red polarity indicator and pH indicators) were injected in the Acquity BEH column to ensure that the analyte would have time to be desolvated from the dilution solvent plug (methanol), and would thus reflect the mobile phase polarity and acidity, with operating conditions identical to the LSER experiments described above. UV-visible spectra were recorded with the diode-array detector between 300 and 700 nm with 1.2 nm intervals. The spectra for pH indicators were first recalculated for 1 nm intervals, then they were normalized and compared to UV-visible spectra measured in aqueous phases with controlled pH values through principal component analyses (PCA). PCA were computed with XLStat 2015.2.02 software (Addinsoft, New York, NY). The reader is referred to previous works for full details on this procedure [45].

2.5 LSER model

The LSER equation usually employed in chromatography, based on Abraham descriptors, is:

$$\log k = c + eE + sS + aA + bB + vV \tag{1}$$

In this equation, capital letters represent the solute descriptors, related to particular interaction properties, each molecule has its own molecular descriptors. While lower case letters represent the system constants, related to the complementary effect of the two phases (stationary and mobile). c is the model intercept term and is dominated by the phase ratio. E is the excess molar refraction (calculated from the refractive index of the molecule) and models polarizability contributions from n and π electrons; S is the solute dipolarity/polarizability; A and B are the solute overall hydrogen-bond acidity and basicity; V is the McGowan characteristic volume in units of cm³ mol⁻¹/100. The system constants (e, s, a, b, v), obtained through a multilinear regression of the retention data for a certain number of solutes with known descriptors, reflect the magnitude of difference for that particular property between the mobile and stationary phases.

However, in previous works we have had many occasions to point out that the lack of terms to account for ionic interactions in Eq. (1) is a problem when dealing with ionizable analytes. To take account of electrostatic interactions with anionic and cationic species, we have previously proposed to extend Eq. (1) with two additional terms [42], as follows:

$$\log k = c + eE + sS + aA + bB + vV + d^{T}D^{T} + d^{T}D^{T}$$
 (2)

where D⁻ represents the negative charge carried by anionic and zwitterionic species, and D⁺ represents the positive charge carried by cationic and zwitterionic species. They are calculated with the apparent pH (that may be different from effective pH*) of the mobile phase and the pK_a values of the analyte. For neutral species, D⁻ and D⁺ are zero so that Eq. (2) reverts to Eq. (1). We had initially designed Eq. (2) for hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatography (HILIC) [42,46,47], but they were also applied to other HPLC systems [48,49]. We have recently showed that it is also well suited to the description of SFC systems [24,50,51], provided we admit to some approximations (aqueous pK_a values and apparent pH equal to 5).

Finally, two more descriptors (F and G), previously introduced to characterize enantioselective stationary phases [43,52], are needed to provide information related to the 3D behavior of the probe molecules interacting with chiral selectors. As described in previous works, the F descriptor reflects the flexibility of the molecule (fraction of rotatable bonds), which is important for chiral recognition because flexible molecules have more conformers, thus more ways for intermolecular interactions, which is generally detrimental to enantioresolution. The G descriptor accounts for globularity (or sphericity) and can be related to steric impedance to insertion into the stationary phase but also to the possibility for a small molecule to better fit on the walls of a spherical cavity thus establish several interactions at a time. While F and G are often found to contribute very little to retention mechanisms, they are both highly significant to enantiorecognition. The full LSER equation employed in the present work is then:

$$\log k = c + eE + sS + aA + bB + vV + fF + gG + d^{+}D^{-} + d^{+}D^{+}$$
(3)

This 9-term equation was never employed before and should allow for a most complete assessment of interactions with the complex, enantioselective and ionizable stationary phase.

Multiple linear regressions (MLR) were performed using XLStat 2015.2.02 software. The quality of the MLR fits was estimated using the adjusted determination coefficient (R^2_{adj}), standard error in the estimate (RMSE) and Fisher F statistic. The statistical significance of individual coefficients was evaluated with the 95% confidence intervals.

Because the selection of probe molecules is rather small (54 achiral molecules for 9 independent variables), the statistical quality of the models is moderate (R²_{adj} values ranging from 0.77 to 0.93). However, no prediction capability was desired, only some understanding

of the interactions contributing to retention and their variation with mobile phase composition. For this reason, only the terms that vary significantly will be discussed in the following.

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3. Results & Discussion

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3.1 Evaluation of changes in polarity with a solvatochromic dye

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Nile Red was selected as a solvatochromic probe to assess possible changes in the polarity of the mobile phase when large concentrations of additives were present. Its structure and UV-visible spectra are visible in electronic supplementary information (Fig. S1). UV-visible spectra of Nile Red were recorded in SFC conditions with all levels of acidic and basic additives as described in methods section. Based on the first derivative of smoothed spectra, the wavelength at maximum absorbance was measured, from which the transition energy E_{NR} was calculated using the Planck-Einstein equation. As appears in the spectra (Fig. S1), large concentrations of additives yielded very small shifts in the absorbance maximum. Namely, large concentrations of trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) caused a small bathochromic shift (ENR decreases from 55.9 to 55.8 kcal.mol⁻¹), which is comparable to the polarity increase that would result from increasing the percentage of methanol co-solvent from 10 to 11% [45]. Conversely, large concentrations of isopropylamine (IPA) caused a small hypsochromic shift (ENR increases from 55.9 to 56.0 kcal.mol⁻¹), which is comparable to the polarity decrease that would result from decreasing the percentage of methanol co-solvent from 10 to 9%. Thus the two additives have opposite effects on polarity: TFA slightly increases the polarity in the cybotactic region (solvation sphere around the analyte) while IPA slightly decreases it. This conclusion is not so surprising considering the structures of the two molecules, compared to CO₂ and methanol, as TFA possesses a high proportion of heteroatoms with significant electronegativity (O and F) while IPA possesses a larger portion of hydrocarbon moieties. In the following, we shall consider these changes as negligible.

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3.2 Evaluation of the ionization state of teicoplanin aglycone

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In previous works, we had demonstrated how a selection of color indicators of pH could be used to obtain some information on the apparent pH of the SFC mobile phases [45]. In particular, we had shown that additives in usual concentrations could modify the apparent pH of the fluid. Indeed, mixtures of carbon dioxide and alcohols comprising no additives are slightly acidic, with an apparent pH close to 4.5-5, due to the formation of alkyloxycarbonic acid. In usual concentrations, acidic additives can reduce the apparent pH down to 1-2 while

basic additives would cause only a moderate increase (5-6). As mentioned in the introduction, typical concentrations used in current SFC practice range in the 1-50 mM or 0.1-1% in the alcohol co-solvent. At such low concentrations, a basic additive is not susceptible to compensate for the large concentration of alkyloxycarbonic acid, possibly explaining why the increase in apparent pH is rather small. However, higher concentrations of basic additive may create a really basic environment for the analytes and stationary phase. With these further experiments, we wished to verify this point and the extent of apparent pH increase.

> In Fig. 2, the selection of five color indicators of pH (one of which has two pKa values) with their aqueous pK_a values can be seen. As detailed in section 2.4 above, UV-visible spectra were measured for each of the color indicators of pH with the diode-array detector of the SFC system. The spectra were then compared to spectra measured in aqueous phases of controlled pH. All spectra can be observed in electronic supplementary information (Fig. S2). A simple comparison of spectra is not sufficient. As was demonstrated in our previous study, the use of principal component analysis (PCA) to compare all spectral data is most informative to obtain a better estimate of apparent pH. In the present case, PCA were computed for each color indicator individually, and also with combinations of color indicators that proved the most informative. One interesting combination can be observed in electronic supplementary information (Fig. S3) with a PCA score plot computed with the spectral data measured for Thymol Blue, Bromocresol Green, Methyl Red and Bromocresol Purple. On this plot, the first principal component (PC1) is essentially a pH axis between 2 and 8, while the second principal component (PC2) is a pH axis in the ranges 1-2 and 8-10. Based on the examination of all spectra and PCA plots, the estimated apparent pH values can be observed in Fig. 2.

> We had demonstrated before that the mobile phase comprising no additive has an apparent pH close to 5, or somewhat smaller depending on the proportion of methanol (around 4.5-5). When large concentrations of TFA are introduced, the apparent pH is strongly decreased, around 1-2. Indeed, all spectra in these conditions show the acidic form for each of the five color indicators. When large concentrations of IPA are introduced, the apparent pH is slowly increasing and reaches a value of about 6. This is demonstrated by the spectra of Bromocresol Purple, where the absorption of the basic form is observed at the largest concentrations of IPA, but still in equilibrium with a significant portion of the acidic form. The apparent pH is therefore never above the pK_a value of Bromocresol Purple (6.3). Furthermore, the basic forms of Bromothymol Blue and Thymol Blue are never observed (pK_a values 7.1 and 8.9).

It must be mentioned again here that all these values are estimates of apparent pH, based on aqueous pK_a values, which are obviously not identical in pressurized CO_2 -methanol environment.

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The structure of teicoplanin aglycon was processed with the Chemicalize program to compute aqueous pK_a values for each of the ionizable function (carboxylic acid, amine, phenolic and amide groups). Based on these values, a curve of charge state vs. mobile phase pH was computed and can be seen in Fig. 3. On this figure, the pKa values of the principal ionizable functions is pointed with arrows, and the estimated pH domains are presented. Not all of these ionizable functions may be available, as the amine [27] or phenol groups [28] may both have served as attachment points to the supporting silica gel. The availability of the amine function is clearly a matter of debate as some authors report bonding via the amine through a urea attachment [27], while other bonding protocols have maintained a quaternary ammonium function as the binding site [53]. Besides, several papers have demonstrated that interaction with the protonated amine function was significant to enantiorecognition [54], suggesting that the amine was still free in the bonded phase. Our own works [55] demonstrate that interactions with anionic compounds is significant to successful enantioseparation. This may result from positive interactions with an amine group, but whether this group is present in the peptide ligand on in the aminopropyl ligands cannot be told. Both options shall be considered in the following. According to these estimations, we can however suppose that:

- (i) in the CO₂-methanol mobile phase comprising no additive, both the acid and amine functions should be ionized, thus the net charge for the ligand would be zero. If the amine function is unavailable, the net charge is -1.
- (ii) when IPA is introduced, deprotonation of a free amine function would not occur, thus the net charge would still be the same;
- (iii) when TFA is introduced, the acid function should protonate, thus the net charge would be +1, or zero in case the amine function is not free.

These observations should be kept in mind when interpreting retention and separation behavior, as will be done below.

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3.3 LSER characterization of the effects of additives

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In a previous paper, we had characterized three macrocyclic peptide stationary phases (Chriobiotic V, T and TAG based respectively on vancomycin, teicoplanin and teicoplanin aglycon) [55]. LSER methodology was employed, based on Eq. (2), to describe the retention

mechanisms in a carbon dioxide-methanol environment, without additives. In the present paper, a most complete LSER model, based on Eq. (3), is employed, with the intention to describe the effects of additives. The full LSER models obtained from Eq. (3) can be observed in supporting information, in histograms (Figure S1a for the TAG column and Figure S1b for the silica column) or in the tables reporting the statistical features of each model (Tables S3 and S4).

To some extent, the mobile phase employed here (carbon dioxide – methanol, with or without an additive) should be comparable to polar organic and polar ionic modes where only organic solvents (methanol and/or acetonitrile) are used as eluents, together with additives to adjust the acidity in the polar ionic mode.

On both columns, the most significant variations were observed for the a, b, d and d⁺ terms, related to hydrogen bonding and ionic interactions. Thus only these four selected system constants will be discussed and are represented in Figure 4a (Chirobiotic TAG) and 4b (Acquity BEH). On the figures, the evolution of the system constants with increasing apparent mobile phase pH is represented from left to right, corresponding on the left to the highest concentration of TFA (610 mM in methanol co-solvent) and on the right to the highest concentration of IPA (1220 mM in methanol).

3.3.1 Evolution of retention with IPA concentration

Hydrogen bonds

With both stationary phases, when IPA concentration increases, a significant variation in the a and b system constants related to hydrogen bonding is observed, with opposite trends for a and b. Indeed, an increase in the a term (related to retention of proton donors) and a decrease in the b term (related to retention of proton acceptors) are observed when the concentration of IPA increases from no additive to 1220 mM IPA in the methanol co-solvent. Moreover, the trends of a and b variations are nearly collinear (they vary with the same slopes). This suggests that the reason for the variation is identical on both columns. In the LSER equation, each system constant is related to the difference in the interactions between analyte and stationary phase on the one hand, analyte and mobile phase on the other hand. As a result, the increase in one system constant may be due to (i) increase of analyte – stationary phase interactions or (ii) decrease of analyte – mobile phase interactions. Conversely, the decrease in one system constant may be due to (i) decrease of analyte – stationary phase interactions or (ii) increase of analyte – mobile phase interactions. Considering previous observations on a large variety of stationary phases [24], the increase

in a term on both stationary phases may be explained by an adsorption phenomenon of the additive on the surface of the stationary phase. Indeed, as should be the case for any other

component of the mobile phase, the additive gets adsorbed at the surface of the stationary phase, which modifies the possible interactions between the analytes and stationary phase. The higher the concentration of additive in the mobile phase, the greater the quantity of additive adsorbed on the stationary phase. In this case, because isopropylamine is basic, hydrogen-bonding interactions with proton donors (*a* term) increase.

Basic analytes do not interact favorably with isopropylamine thus the adsorbed additive should not cause particularly favorable interactions with electron donors (*b* term). On the opposite, the adsorption of isopropylamine is increasingly shielding proton-donor interaction sites of the stationary phases. Additionally, isopropylamine likely acts as a competitor for adsorption of basic analytes on the stationary phases. As a result of both effects (adsorption and increasing elution strength towards basic compounds), the retention of basic compounds reduces when IPA concentration increases (*b* term decreases). This is illustrated in Fig. 5 where it appears that the retention time of the two enantiomers of 5-methyl-5-phenylhydantoin, an electron-donor chiral compound, significantly decreases with increasing IPA concentration. However, the peak shapes are improved and good resolution is maintained in that case.

Ionic interactions

The d and d⁺ terms are related to interactions with anionic and cationic species respectively. Again their variation on both columns is most similar, indicating that the effects observed probably have the same causes.

The *d* term varies significantly in a non-monotonous manner. First, it is near zero on both stationary phases when no additive is present. Anionic compounds may be partly repulsed by the stationary phases. Indeed, at the apparent pH obtained with such a mobile phase (around 5), some accessible residual silanol groups and the carboxylic acid function of the teicoplanin aglycone may be partly deprotonated. Therefore, there would be some repulsion between the negative charges of the analytes and the negative charges on the stationary phases. Thus negatively charged species experience rather low retention in these conditions. The *d* term increases strongly when IPA is first introduced in the mobile phase (20 mM in methanol co-solvent). This is again consistent with adsorption of isopropylamine on the stationary phase as anionic compounds are expected to interact favorably with adsorbed isopropylamine molecules (which may be in the neutral or protonated form).

Further increases in IPA however see the *d* term reach a maximum then a subsequent decrease. Considering the above observations on ionization state of teicoplanin aglycone, deprotonation of free amine functions (whether from the peptide or the aminopropyl groups) should not contribute to this effect. However, the decrease in retention when adding high concentrations of IPA can be explained by two phenomena. First, at high IPA concentrations,

the stationary phase is saturated with additive and then more and more free IPA is found in the mobile phase, creating ion pairs with the anionic analytes, which increases favorable interactions with the mobile phase, resulting in a decrease in the overall value of the d constant. Second, we may infer that, at such high base concentration, the methoxylcarbonic acid present in the mobile phase due to the reaction of carbon dioxide with methanol may be titrated by isopropylamine, and the mobile phase apparent pH is now somewhat increasing towards more neutral values (up to 6).

We had previously demonstrated a similar reversal of dominant behavior — with a dominant effect of adsorption at low concentrations and dominant effect of mobile phase properties at high concentrations — when examining the effects of the nature of the co-solvent with porous graphitic carbon stationary phases [56].

The trend in d term is illustrated by the chromatograms in Fig. 6 of an acidic compound, aspirin (aqueous pK_a = 3.41), which, at an apparent pH greater of about 6, should be predominantly in its deprotonated form. It can be observed that the low concentrations of IPA cause a sharp increase in retention compared to the "no additive" mobile phase composition, while further increases of IPA concentration cause retention decrease.

Concerning the retention of cationic species (d^* term), comparing the "no additive" composition and 20 mM IPA in methanol, the first introduction of small concentrations of IPA in mobile phase causes a significant decrease in the d^* term from positive values to near zero on the TAG column, indicating that cationic species are much less retained when IPA is present in mobile phase. Further increases in IPA concentration cause no significant changes. On the silica column, the introduction of IPA in the mobile phase is mostly insignificant. Therefore, this is the only case where the introduction of IPA causes different variations between the two columns. We may attribute these differences to the different interaction capability of the "bare" stationary phases (uncovered with additive): on the silica surface, only silanol groups (neutral or ionized) should interact with cationic species while on the teicoplanin aglycone stationary phase, the deprotonated carboxyl group should also contribute to interaction with cationic species.

3.3.2 Effect of IPA on enantioseparations

From a chirality point of view, overall, a loss of enantioseparation is observed when adding high concentrations of IPA for most of the compounds that were resolved when no additive was used. This is in contradiction with previous observations from Phinney and Sander, where the introduction of isopropylamine in the SFC mobile phase was seen to slightly diminish separation factors on a vancomycin stationary phase, without loss of separation

[23]. However, the enantiorecognition site may be significantly different between vancomycin and teicoplanin aglycone.

An example of chromatograms is presented in Fig. 7 where the ketoprofen enantiomers show some debut separation when the mobile phase does not contain any additive, but even the smallest concentrations of IPA cause a co-elution of the enantiomers. This molecule should also be partly anionic at the apparent pH of the mobile phase (aqueous pK_a = 4.45), that is to say that this molecule has a non-zero D^- descriptor value, and behaves according to the variations of d^- term, with a sharp increase of retention at low IPA concentrations, followed by a decrease in retention when IPA concentration increases.

A single exception was observed with dichlorprop, for which the separation factor improved with IPA compared to no additive (for instance, α = 1.65 with 120 mM IPA compared to 1.43 without additive). In all other cases examined, separation factors decreased when IPA was used. The loss of enantioresolution can have two possible origins. Firstly, the chiral cavities may be rendered inaccessible to the enantiomers by the thick layer of adsorbed additive. Secondly, ionizable analytes for which the pK_a values are close to the apparent pH may change protonation state, thereby affecting the way they interact with the stationary phase. The ionizable functions are known to contribute significantly to enantiorecognition in this stationary phase. This can however not contribute to changes for non-ionizable species like methylphenylsulfoxide or chlormezanone.

Interestingly, a recent paper from Pokrovskiy [57] showed that the manipulation of ionic interactions through the selection and concentration of additives in the SFC mobile phase was significant to enantioresolution on another antibiotic stationary phase, erymomycin.

3.3.3 Evolution of retention with TFA concentration

On both columns, the only significant effect of TFA introduction is observed with the d^+ term, namely, increasing the concentration of TFA causes a sharp increase of d^+ values, indicating that cationic species are more retained when TFA is present in the mobile phase. Without an additive, the d^+ term was already positive on both columns due to interactions between cationic analytes and the silanol groups or carboxyl function of the teicoplanin aglycone. At the largest concentration of TFA tested (610 mM in methanol), the d^+ term is the most significant contributor to retention.

This is perhaps counter-intuitive as one might expect TFA to act as an ion-pairing agent to favor the elution of protonated basic compounds. Besides, as the carboxylic acid function of the teicoplanin aglycone should protonate, strong coulombic interactions between the stationary phase and cationic analytes were expected to decrease. The opposite behavior

observed is most likely related to the same phenomenon as described for IPA: TFA adsorbs on the stationary phase and creates a layer on top of the surface and ligands. Because TFA interacts strongly with cationic species, the interactions between analyte and stationary phase strongly increase. Contrary to the observations with IPA, no reversal of trend was observed at the largest concentrations on the TAG column (although we may suspect some of it on the BEH column). But then it was not possible to increase the concentration as high as in the IPA experiments due to solubility issues, thus if a reversal should occur at higher TFA concentrations, it was impossible to verify.

An example is given in Fig. 8 with the chromatograms of zopiclone, where the retention is seen to increase continuously with the concentration of TFA.

3.3.4 Effect of TFA on enantioseparations

Similarly to the effect of IPA, TFA had a negative influence on separation factors. Apart from one exception, separation factors decreased when TFA was introduced, compared to no additive. In one case, 5-methyl-5-phenylhydantoin, for which the separation factor was already very large without an additive (α = 3.07), it increased further with the introduction of TFA (α = 3.30 with 120 mM TFA). The loss of enantiorecognition when an acidic additive is introduced may again have different

The loss of enantiorecognition when an acidic additive is introduced may again have different origins, including obstruction of the chiral cavities by the adsorption of a large amount of TFA, varying charge state of ionizable analytes, or the protonation of the carboxylic group of

the stationary phase, which may be deleterious to enantiorecognition.

Conclusion

In this paper, we have evaluated how large concentrations of acidic and basic additives influenced the retention and enantioseparation behavior of a complex macrocyclic peptide-bonded stationary phase. It was first demonstrated that these highly concentrated additives had negligible influence on the mobile phase polarity. The influence on mobile phase acidity was however more significant, with TFA inducing strong decrease in the apparent pH (from 4.5-5 to 1-2), and IPA inducing some moderate increase (up to 6). This could cause changes in the ionization state of the carboxylic acid function of teicoplanin aglycone, but should have limited effect on the ionization state of free amine functions. Therefore, the probable unavailability of the amine function in teicoplanin aglycone could not be assessed through these means.

Considering these elements, the retention and enantioseparation behavior were examined with the help of LSER methodology, with a most complete description achieved with nine molecular descriptors. Based on the comparison to the effects observed on a bare silica

phase, many effects could be explained by the adsorption of additives on the stationary phase. With the high concentrations that could be achieved for isopropylamine, it was observed that the primary effect of additives on retention mechanisms is through adsorption on the stationary phase, then when even higher concentrations are used, the effects in the mobile phase dominate the retention mechanisms. With trifluoroacetic acid, only adsorption effects were observed, but then it was not possible to increase its concentration as high as that of isopropylamine, due to solubility issues.

These results should be helpful in further understanding the effects of mobile phase additives in SFC, but also to understand the behavior of large biomolecules analyzed in SFC.

Acknowledgements

Adrien Raimbault is grateful for a PhD grant received from the Ministry of Higher Education and Research. Caroline West is grateful for the support received by the Institut Universitaire de France (IUF), of which she is a Junior Member. Waters Corporation is greatly acknowledged for the support received through the Centers of Innovation. Dave Bell (formerly at Sigma-Aldrich) is acknowledged for the kind gift of Chirobiotic TAG column. Angéline Noireau is warmly acknowledged for technical assistance.

Compliance with ethical standards

579 The authors declare they have no conflict of interest.

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760 Figure captions

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Fig. 1: Structure of Teicoplanin Aglycone (TAG), the chiral selector in the stationary phase examined.

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Fig. 2: Evaluation of apparent pH when large concentrations of acidic and basic additives are employed. TFA is trifluoroacetic acid, IPA is isopropylamine.

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Fig. 3: Ionization states of teicoplanin aglycon depending on mobile phase pH, according to aqueous pK_a values

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Fig. 4: Selected system constants from the LSER models of (a) the teicoplanin aglycone stationary phase (Chirobiotic TAG) and (b) a bare silica stationary phase (Acquity BEH), retaining only the 4 system constants that vary significantly with a change in the nature or concentration of the additive (TFA or IPA). Mobile phase: carbon dioxide – methanol (with or without additive according to legend, from left to right) 90:10 (v/v), 25°C, 15 MPa, 3 mL/min on TAG or 1 mL/min on BEH.

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780 781 **Fig. 5:** Chromatograms of *rac*-5-methyl-5-phenylhydantoin on the Chirobiotic TAG column with increasing concentrations of IPA from bottom to top: without additive (gray), IPA 61 mM (orange) and IPA 610 mM (brown). The inserted histograms show the related variation of LSER *b* term when IPA concentration increases.

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Fig. 6: Chromatograms of aspirin on the Chirobiotic TAG column with increasing concentrations of IPA: no additive (gray), IPA 122 mM (light orange), IPA 366 mM (dark orange) and IPA 1220 mM (brown). The inserted histograms show the variation of related LSER d term when IPA concentration increases.

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Fig. 7: Chromatograms of *rac*-ketoprofen on the Chirobiotic TAG column with increasing concentrations of IPA: no additive (gray), IPA 61 mM (yellow), IPA 122 mM (orange), IPA 610 mM (light brown), IPA 1220 mM (dark brown). The inserted histograms show the variation of related LSER *d* term when IPA concentration increases.

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Fig. 8: Chromatograms of zopiclone on the Chirobiotic TAG column with increasing concentrations of TFA: no additive (gray), TFA 20 mM (light blue), TFA 122 mM (blue), TFA 610 mM (dark blue). The inserted histograms show the variation of related LSER *d*⁺ term when TFA concentration varies.

Fig. 1: Structure of Teicoplanin Aglycon (TAG), the chiral selector in the stationary phase examined.

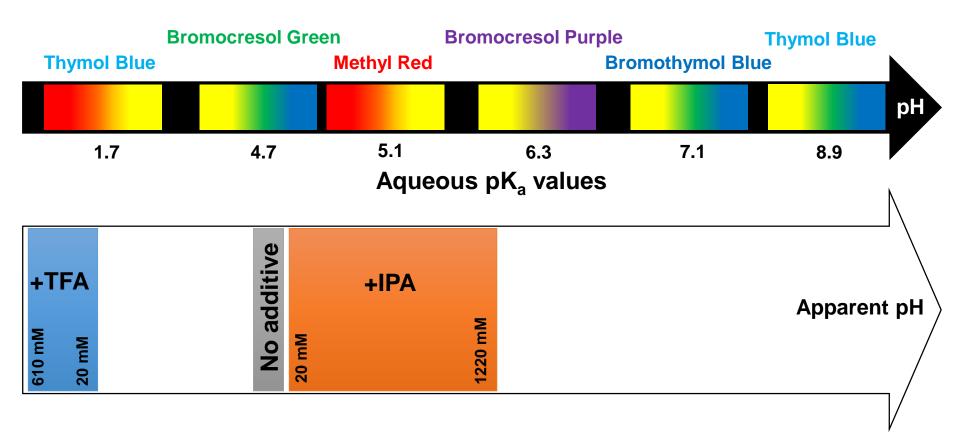


Fig. 2: Evaluation of apparent pH when large concentrations of acidic and basic additives are employed. TFA is trifluoroacetic acid, IPA is isopropylamine.

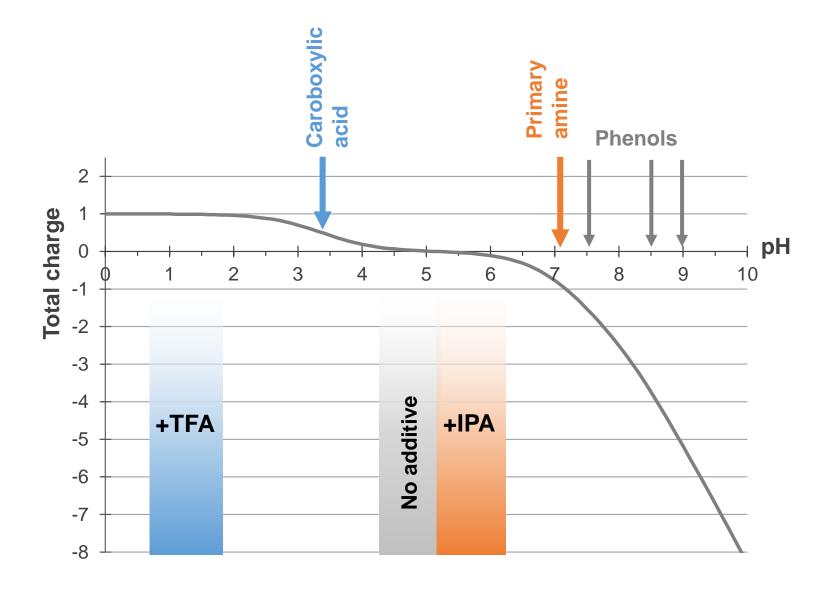


Fig. 3: Ionization states of teicoplanin aglycon depending on mobile phase pH according to aqueous pK_a values

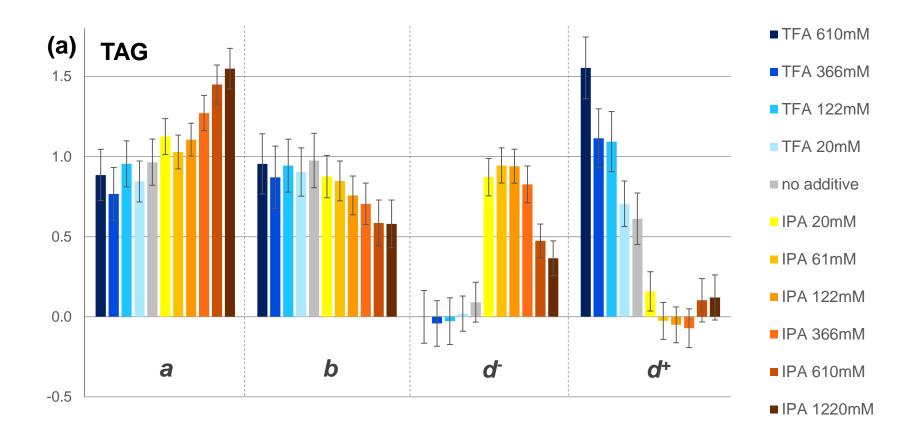


Fig. 4.: Selected system constants from the LSER models of (a) the teicoplanin aglycone stationary phase (Chirobiotic TAG) and (b) a bare silica stationary phase (Acquity BEH), retaining only the 4 system constants that vary significantly with a change in the nature or concentration of the additive (TFA or IPA). Mobile phase: carbon dioxide – methanol (with or without additive according to legend, from left to right) 90:10 (v/v), 25°C, 15 MPa, 3 mL/min on TAG or 1 mL/min on BEH.

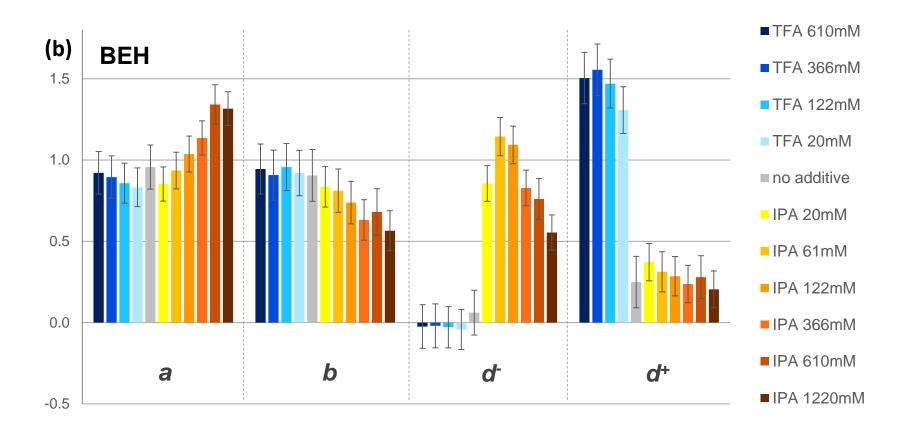


Fig. 4 (continued): Selected system constants from the LSER models of (a) the teicoplanin aglycone stationary phase (Chirobiotic TAG) and (b) a bare silica stationary phase (Acquity BEH), retaining only the 4 system constants that vary significantly with a change in the nature or concentration of the additive (TFA or IPA). Mobile phase: carbon dioxide – methanol (with or without additive according to legend, from left to right) 90:10 (v/v), 25°C, 15 MPa, 3 mL/min on TAG or 1 mL/min on BEH.

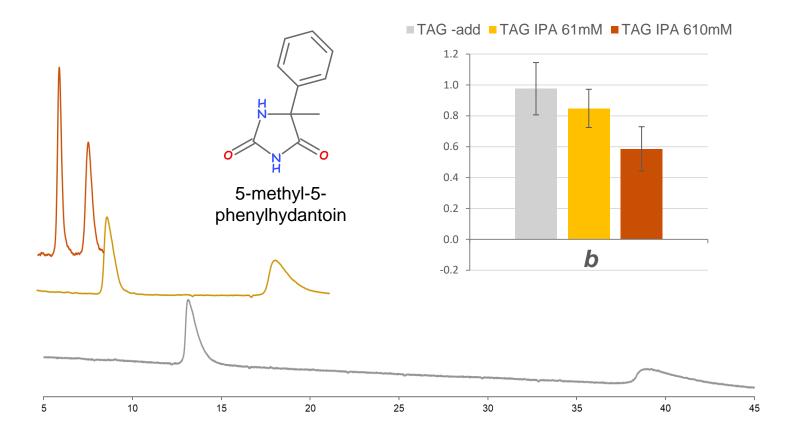


Fig. 5: Chromatograms of *rac*-5-methyl-5-phenylhydantoin on the Chirobiotic TAG column with increasing concentrations of IPA from bottom to top: without additive (gray), IPA 61 mM (orange) and IPA 610 mM (brown). The inserted histograms show the variation of related LSER *b* term when IPA concentration increases.

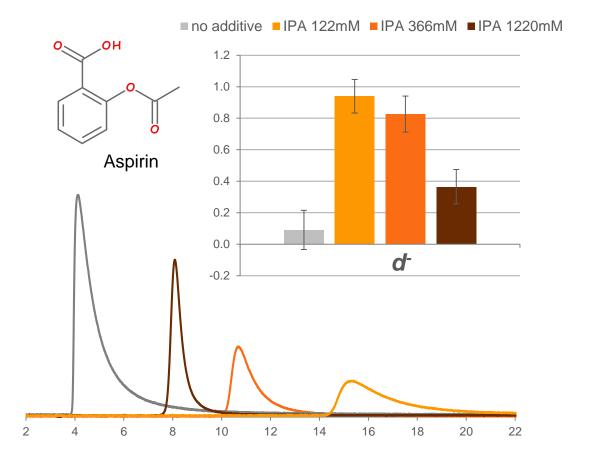


Fig. 6: Chromatograms of aspirin on the Chirobiotic TAG column with increasing concentrations of IPA: no additive (gray), IPA 122 mM (light orange), IPA 366 mM (dark orange) and IPA 1220 mM (brown). The inserted histograms show the variation of related LSER *d* term when IPA concentration increases.

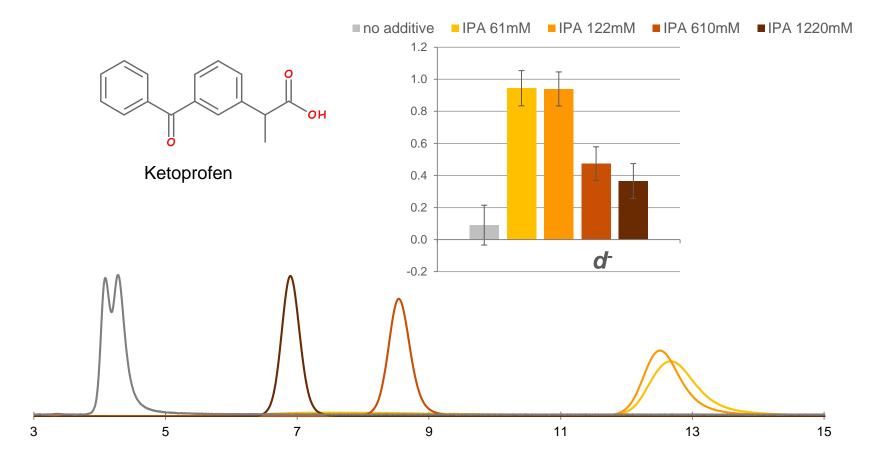


Fig. 7: Chromatograms of *rac*-ketoprofen on the Chirobiotic TAG column with increasing concentrations of IPA: no additive (gray), IPA 61 mM (yellow), IPA 122 mM (orange), IPA 610 mM (light brown), IPA 1220 mM (dark brown). The inserted histograms show the variation of related LSER *d* term when IPA concentration increases.

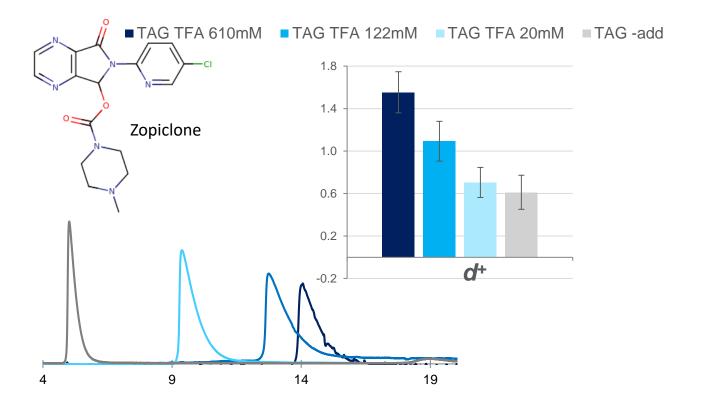


Fig. 8: Chromatograms of zopiclone on the Chirobiotic TAG column with increasing concentrations of TFA: no additive (gray), TFA 20 mM (light blue), TFA 122 mM (blue), TFA 610 mM (dark blue). The inserted histograms show the variation of related LSER *d*⁺ term when TFA concentration varies.