

# Chiral Separation Techniques

A Practical Approach

*Edited by*  
*Ganapathy Subramanian*

3rd, completely revised and updated edition



WILEY-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA



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**The Editor**

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## Contents

Preface XVII

List of Contributors XIX

<b>1</b>	<b>Method Development and Optimization of Enantioseparations Using Macrocyclic Glycopeptide Chiral Stationary Phases</b>	<b>1</b>
	<i>Thomas E. Beesley and J. T. Lee</i>	
1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Structural Characteristics of Macrocyclic Glycopeptide CSPs	2
1.2.1	Chiral Recognition Mechanisms	2
1.2.2	Multi-modal Chiral Stationary Phases	5
1.3	Enantioselectivity as a Function of Molecular Recognition	6
1.3.1	Ionizable Molecules	6
1.3.1.1	Polar Ionic Mode	6
1.3.1.2	Reversed-phase Mode	9
1.3.2	Neutral Molecules	9
1.4	Complementary Effects	12
1.5	Method Development	12
1.6	Optimization Procedures	15
1.6.1	Polar Ionic Mode	15
1.6.2	Reversed-phase Mode	19
1.6.2.1	pH Effects	19
1.6.2.2	Organic Modifier Effects	20
1.6.3	Polar Organic/Normal-phase Mode	21
1.6.4	Flow-rate and Temperature Effects	22
1.7	Amino Acid and Peptide Analysis	23
1.8	Conclusion	27
	Acknowledgments	27
	References	27

<b>2</b>	<b>Role of Polysaccharides in Chiral Separations by Liquid Chromatography and Capillary Electrophoresis</b>	<b>29</b>
	<i>Imran Ali and Hassan Y. Aboul-Enein</i>	
2.1	Introduction	29
2.2	Structures of Polysaccharide Chiral Selectors	30
2.2.1	Synthesis of Polysaccharide Chiral Selectors	32
2.2.2	Preparation of Polysaccharide Chiral Stationary Phases	33
2.2.2.1	Preparation of CSPs by Coating	34
2.2.2.2	Preparation of CSPs by Immobilization	34
2.2.2.3	Coated versus Immobilized CSPs	41
2.3	Properties of Polysaccharide CSPs	41
2.3.1	Enantioselectivities	42
2.3.2	Spectroscopic Studies	45
2.4	Applications	48
2.4.1	Analytical Separations	48
2.4.2	Preparative Separations	50
2.5	Optimization of Chiral Separations	53
2.5.1	Mobile Phase Compositions	54
2.5.2	pH of the Mobile Phase	64
2.5.3	Flow-rate	64
2.5.4	Temperature	68
2.5.5	Structures of Solutes	72
2.5.6	Other Parameters	76
2.6	Chiral Recognition Mechanisms	76
2.7	Chiral Separation by Sub- and Supercritical Fluid Chromatography	80
2.8	Chiral Separation by Capillary Electrochromatography	84
2.9	Chiral Separation by Thin-layer Chromatography	87
2.10	Chiral Separation by Capillary Electrophoresis	88
2.11	Conclusion	90
	References	91
<b>3</b>	<b>Analytical and Preparative Potential of Immobilized Polysaccharide-derived Chiral Stationary Phases</b>	<b>99</b>
	<i>Tong Zhang and Pilar Franco</i>	
3.1	Introduction	99
3.1.1	Scientific Developments in Polysaccharide Immobilization with Chiral Recognition Purposes	100
3.1.2	State of the Art on Immobilized Polysaccharide-derived CSPs	104
3.2	Scope of Immobilized Polysaccharide-derived CSPs	105
3.3	Beneficial Characteristics of Immobilized Polysaccharide-derived CSPs	106
3.3.1	New Selectivity Profile on Immobilized CSPs	107



3.3.2	Universal Miscibility of Non-standard Solvents and their Contribution to the Performance of Analytical Methods	110
3.3.3	Various Sample Injection Media	113
3.3.4	Inhibition or Minimization of Racemization by Mobile Phase Switch	116
3.3.5	Preparative Potential of Immobilized CSPs	118
3.3.6	CSP Stability	120
3.4	Method Development on Immobilized Polysaccharide-derived CSPs	122
3.4.1	Selection of the Mobile Phase	122
3.4.1.1	Analytical Method Development	122
3.4.1.2	Preparative Method Development	125
3.4.2	Mobile Phase Additives	126
3.4.3	A Powerful Hyphenation: DAD–ELSD	126
3.5	Regeneration of Immobilized CSPs – Why, How and When	129
3.6	Conclusions and Perspectives	132
	References	132
<b>4</b>	<b>Chiral Separations Using Supercritical Fluid Chromatography</b>	<b>135</b>
	<i>Karen W. Phinney and Rodger W. Stringham</i>	
4.1	Introduction	135
4.2	Overview of SFC	135
4.2.1	Properties of Supercritical Fluids	135
4.2.2	Comparison of LC and SFC	137
4.2.3	Instrumentation for SFC	138
4.3	Chiral Stationary Phases in SFC	139
4.3.1	Cyclodextrins	140
4.3.2	Brush-type (Pirkle-type)	140
4.3.3	Macrocyclic antibiotics	141
4.3.4	Polysaccharides	141
4.4	Mobile Phase Effects in SFC	142
4.4.1	Pressure Effects	142
4.4.2	Flow-rate Effects	143
4.4.3	Temperature Effects	143
4.4.4	Mobile Phase Modifier Effects	144
4.4.5	Mobile Phase Additive Effects	147
4.5	Preparative-scale Separations	148
	References	152
<b>5</b>	<b>Chiral Separation by Ligand Exchange</b>	<b>155</b>
	<i>Gerald Gübitz and Martin G. Schmid</i>	
5.1	Introduction	155
5.2	Chiral Ligand-exchange Chromatography	156

- 5.2.1 Separation by LC on Chemically Bonded Chiral Stationary LE Phases 156
- 5.2.2 Separation by HPLC on Chiral Coated LE Phases 161
- 5.2.3 Separation by HPLC Using Chiral Additives to the Mobile Phase 164
- 5.2.4 Separation by LE-TLC 164
- 5.3 Complexation Gas Chromatography 165
- 5.4 LE-Electromigration Techniques 165
- 5.4.1 Separation by Capillary Zone Electrophoresis (CZE) 165
- 5.4.2 Separation by Micellar Electrokinetic Chromatography (MEKC) 171
- 5.4.3 Separation by Micro-channel Chip Electrophoresis 172
- 5.4.4 Separation by Capillary Electrochromatography (CEC) 172
- List of Abbreviations 175
- References 176

## 6 Advances in Simulated Moving Bed Chromatographic Separations 181

*Pedro Sá Gomes, Mirjana Minceva, Luís S. Pais, and Alírio E. Rodrigues*

- 6.1 Introduction 181
- 6.2 Modeling Strategies 183
  - 6.2.1 Real SMB 183
    - 6.2.1.1 Detailed Particle Model 184
    - 6.1.2.1 Linear Driving Force Approach 186
    - 6.2.2 Equivalent TMB 186
      - 6.2.2.1 Detailed Particle Model 187
      - 6.2.2.2 LDF Approach 189
    - 6.3 Simulation 189
      - 6.3.1 Numerical Solution 189
      - 6.3.2 Case Study: Operating Conditions and Model Parameters 190
      - 6.3.3 Simulations Results 191
        - 6.3.3.1 Real SMB Models 191
        - 6.3.3.2 Equivalent TMB Models 194
      - 6.4 Novel SMB Configurations 195
        - 6.4.1 Varicol and Multiple Feed SMB 195
          - 6.4.1.1 Varicol 195
          - 6.4.1.2 Multiple (Distributed) Feed 198
        - 6.5 Improvements in Operation Conditions Evaluation (Separation Volume Method) 200
        - 6.6 Conclusions 201
        - References 201

<b>7</b>	<b>Less Common Applications of Enantioselective HPLC Using the SMB Technology in the Pharmaceutical Industry</b>	<b>203</b>
	<i>Stefanie Abel and Markus Juza</i>	
7.1	Introduction –	
	From an Emerging Technology to a Classical Unit Operation	203
7.1.1	Less Common Applications of SMB Technology for Chiral Separations	206
7.1.2	Design and Optimization of Operating Conditions for a Classical SMB Separation	208
7.1.3	Chiral Stationary Phases	211
7.2	Unbalanced Separations and Multi-component Separations Using SMB	213
7.2.1	Binary Separations	214
7.2.1.1	Case Study I: 1:1 vs. 10:1 and 1:10	215
7.2.2	Three-component Separations	217
7.2.2.1	Case Study II: Three-component Separations with Two Targets	218
7.2.3	Multi-component Separations via SMB	221
7.2.3.1	Case Study III: Multi-component Separation	221
7.2.4	Generalized Rules for Optimizing Unbalanced and Multicomponent Separations via SMB	223
7.2.4.1	Detecting Problems	223
7.2.4.2	Solving Problems	225
7.3	Unusual Isotherms and Adsorption Behavior	225
7.3.1	Langmuir Adsorption Isotherm	226
7.3.2	Non-Langmuir Adsorption Isotherms	227
7.3.2.1	Peak Shape and Form of Linear and Anti-Langmuir Isotherms	229
7.3.2.2	Region of Complete Separation for an Anti-Langmuir Isotherm	230
7.3.3	Case Studies	231
7.3.3.1	Case Study IV: Both Compounds Show Anti-Langmuirian Behavior	232
7.3.3.2	Case Study V: One Compound Shows Anti-Langmuirian Behavior	234
7.3.4	General Trends for Loading Studies and Adsorption Isotherms	237
7.4	Applications of Various Column Configurations	237
7.4.1	Symmetrical Configurations	237
7.4.1.1	Case Study VI: Comparing a 2–2–2–2 and a 1–2–2–1 Configuration	240
7.4.1	Asymmetric Configurations	241
7.5	Application of Solvent Gradients	243
7.5.1	Solvent Gradient SMB	244
7.5.1.1	Case Study VII: Preparative-scale SMB Applying a Reversed Solvent Gradient	247
7.6	Chemistry and Racemization	251
7.6.1	Racemization	253
7.6.2	Case Studies	257

7.6.2.1	Case Study VIII: ASBAT Inhibitor	257
7.6.2.2	Case Study IX: Antidepressant Oxetine Derivatives	258
7.6.2.3	Case Study X: Zolofit, a Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitor	259
7.6.2.4	Case Study XI: Synthesis of Enantiomerically Pure Amines via Schiff Bases	262
7.6.2.5	Case Study XII: Synthesis of COX-2 Inhibitors	263
7.7	Future Developments	264
7.7.1	Non-HPLC Enantioselective SMB Modes	265
7.7.2	Operation Modes, Modeling Software, Control of SMB Units, and Stationary Phases	266
7.8	Conclusion	267
	Notation	268
	Greek Letters	268
	Subscripts	268
	Acknowledgments	268
	References	269
<b>8</b>	<b>Enantiomer Separation by Chiral Crown Ether Stationary Phases</b>	<b>275</b>
	<i>Myung Ho Hyun</i>	
8.1	Introduction	275
8.2	Development of CSPs	276
8.2.1	CSPs Based on Chiral Crown Ethers Incorporating a Chiral 1,1'-Binaphthyl Unit	276
8.2.2	CSPs Based on Chiral Crown Ethers Incorporating a Tartaric Acid Unit	277
8.2.3	CSPs Based on Phenolic Pseudo Chiral Crown Ethers	281
8.3	Applications of CSPs	282
8.3.1	Resolution of Primary Amino Compounds	282
8.3.2	Resolution of Non-primary Amino Compounds	285
8.4	Composition of Mobile Phase	288
8.4.1	Aqueous Mobile Phase	288
8.4.1.1	Organic Modifier in Aqueous Mobile Phase	288
8.4.1.2	Acidic Modifier in Aqueous Mobile Phase	290
8.4.1.3	Inorganic Cationic Modifier in Aqueous Mobile Phase	293
8.4.2	Nonaqueous Mobile Phase	294
8.5	Temperature Effect	295
8.6	Conclusion	297
	Acknowledgment	298
	References	298

<b>9</b>	<b>Enantioselective Separation of Amino Acids and Hydroxy Acids by Ligand Exchange with Copper(II) Complexes in HPLC (Chiral Eluent) and in Fast Sensing Systems</b>	<b>301</b>
	<i>Rosangela Marchelli, Roberto Corradini, Gianni Galaverna, Arnaldo Dossena, Francesco Dallavalle, and Stefano Sforza</i>	
9.1	Introduction	301
9.2	Enantiomeric Separation of Amino Acids and Hydroxy Acids with the Chiral Selectors Added to the Mobile Phase in HPLC (CMPs)	303
9.2.1	Bidentate Ligands	303
9.2.1.1	Enantiomeric Separation of Free D,L-Amino Acids	303
9.2.1.2	Enantiomeric Separation of D,L-Dns-Amino Acids	308
9.2.1.3	Enantiomeric Separation of $\alpha$ -Hydroxy Acids and Dicarboxylic Acids	309
9.2.2	Terdentate Ligands	312
9.2.2.1	Enantioseparation of Unmodified Amino Acids	312
9.2.2.2	Enantioseparation of Dns-Amino Acids	314
9.2.3	Tetradentate Ligands	315
9.2.3.1	Enantiomeric Separation of Unmodified Amino Acids	316
9.2.3.2	Chiral separation of Dns-Amino Acids	318
9.3	Dynamically Coated Stationary Phases	319
9.4	Comparison Between Enantiomeric Separations Obtained with the Chiral Selector Bound to the Stationary Phase or Added to the Eluent	320
9.5	Mixed Inclusion–Ligand-exchange Chromatography	325
9.6	Ligand Exchange in Fast Sensing Systems	327
	Acknowledgment	329
	References	329
<b>10</b>	<b>Enantiomer Separation by Capillary Electrophoresis</b>	<b>333</b>
	<i>Gerhard K. E. Scriba</i>	
10.1	Introduction	333
10.2	Modes of Capillary Electromigration Techniques	334
10.3	Theory of Electrophoretic Separations	334
10.3.1	Basics of Capillary Electrophoresis	334
10.3.2	Chiral Separations	335
10.4	Enantiomer Separations	337
10.4.1	Indirect Chiral Separations	338
10.4.2	Direct Chiral Separations	338
10.4.2.1	Cyclodextrins	343
10.4.2.2	Macrocyclic Antibiotics	346
10.4.2.3	Chiral Crown Ethers	349
10.4.2.4	Chiral Ligand Exchange	350
10.4.2.5	Chiral Ion-pair Reagents	350
10.4.2.6	Chiral Surfactants	351

10.4.2.7	Miscellaneous Chiral Selectors	353
10.5	Applications	354
10.6	Method Development and Validation	358
10.7	Migration Models	362
10.8	Enantiomer Migration Order	364
10.9	Future Trends	365
	References	366
<b>11</b>	<b>Counter-current Chromatography in the Separation of Enantiomers</b>	<b>369</b>
	<i>Eva Pérez and Cristina Minguillón</i>	
11.1	Introduction	369
11.2	Instrumentation	371
11.3	Some Thoughts on CCC Enantioseparation	372
11.4	Chiral Selectors Used in CCC Enantioseparations	375
11.4.1	Chiral Recognition in the Aqueous Phase	375
11.4.2	Chiral Recognition in the Organic Phase	380
11.5	pH-zone-refining CCC	387
11.6	Sample Resolution in CCC	392
11.7	Continuous CPC	393
11.8	Conclusions and Future Trends	394
	Acknowledgments	394
	References	395
<b>12</b>	<b>Separation of Enantiomers Using Molecularly Imprinted Polymers</b>	<b>399</b>
	<i>Börje Sellergren</i>	
12.1	Introduction	399
12.2	Fundamental Studies Using Enantiomers as Model Templates	401
12.3	Using Frontal Analysis to Elucidate Retention Mechanisms	406
12.4	Approaches to Binding Site Design	412
12.4.1	Combinatorial and Computational Techniques to Optimizing MICSPs	413
12.4.2	MICSPs by Rational Design	415
12.5	Other Formats: Beads, Monoliths, and Films	418
12.5.1	Beads and Nanoparticles	419
12.5.2	Layers and Films	421
12.5.3	Superporous Monoliths	425
12.5.4	Hierarchical Imprinting Techniques	426
12.6	Other Matrices for Imprinting of Enantiomers	426
12.7	Conclusions	429
	References	429

<b>13</b>	<b>Enantioselective Biosensors</b>	
	<i>Raluca-Ioana Stefan-van Staden, Jacobus Frederick van Staden, and Hassan Y. Aboul-Enein</i>	433
13.1	Introduction	433
13.2	The Design of Enantioselective Electrochemical Biosensors	433
13.3	Applications of Enantioselective Analysis	434
13.3.1	Amino Acids	434
13.3.2	Angiotensin-converting Enzyme Inhibitors	434
13.3.3	Thyroid Hormones	435
13.3.4	Alanine	435
13.3.5	Carnitine and <i>o</i> -Acetyl-L-carnitine	436
13.3.6	Lysine	436
13.3.7	Methotrexate	437
13.3.8	Pipecolic Acid	437
13.4	Conclusion	438
	References	438
<b>14</b>	<b>Chiral Analysis in Capillary Electrochromatography (CEC) and CEC Coupled to Mass Spectrometry</b>	441
	<i>Jie Zheng and Shahab A. Shamsi</i>	
14.1	Introduction	441
14.2	CEC Column Technologies for Chiral Separation	443
14.2.1	Packed Capillaries	443
14.2.2	Open-tubular Capillaries	445
14.2.3	Monolithic Capillaries	447
14.2.3.1	Inorganic Monolith-based Columns	447
14.2.3.2	Organic Polymeric Monolithic Columns	448
14.2.3.3	Particle-loaded Monolithic Columns	450
14.3	Chiral Stationary Phases for CEC	451
14.3.1	Brush-type CSPs	453
14.3.2	Cyclodextrins and their Derivatives	456
14.3.3	Macrocyclic Glycopeptide-bonded CSPs	460
14.3.4	Polysaccharide-based CSPs	466
14.3.5	Protein-based CSPs	473
14.3.6	Molecular Imprinting-based CSPs	475
14.3.7	Ligand Exchange-based CSPs	477
14.3.8	Ion Exchange-based CSPs	479
14.3.9	Miscellaneous	483
14.4	Chiral CEC Coupled to Mass Spectrometric Detection	485
14.4.1	CEC/MS Instrumentation and Column Technology	486
14.4.2	Chiral CEC/MS Applications	491
14.5	Conclusions	499
	List of Abbreviations	500
	References	501

<b>15</b>	<b>Chiral Analysis Using Polymeric Surfactants in Micellar Electrokinetic Chromatography (MEKC) and MEKC Coupled to Mass Spectrometry</b> 505
	<i>Syed A. A. Rizvi and Shahab A. Shamsi</i>
15.1	Introduction 505
15.2	Chiral Anionic Surfactants 509
15.2.1	Amino Acid-based Polymeric Chiral Anionic Surfactants with Amide Linkage 509
15.2.2	Peptide-based Polymeric Chiral Anionic Surfactants with Amide Linkage 525
15.2.3	Amino Acid-based Polymeric Chiral Anionic Surfactants with Carbamate Linkage 537
15.3	Chiral Cationic Surfactants 544
15.3.1	Single Amino Acid-based Cationic Surfactants with Amide Linkage 544
15.4	Coupling of MEKC to Mass Spectrometry Using Polymeric Surfactants 545
15.4.1	MEKC/MS Method Development 547
15.4.2	MEKC/MS of ( $\pm$ )-1,1'-Binaphthol (BOH) 548
15.4.3	MEKC/MS of $\beta$ -Blockers 550
15.4.4	MEKC/MS of Benzodiazepines and Benzoxazocine 555
15.5	Conclusions 556
	Acknowledgment 557
	List of Abbreviations 557
	References 559
<b>16</b>	<b>Polarimeter Chiral Detectors in Enantioseparations</b> 561
	<i>Gary W. Yanik</i>
16.1	Introduction 561
16.2	Theory of Operation 562
16.3	Comparison with UV and CD Detection 565
16.4	Useful Definitions 565
16.4.1	Chemical Purity ( <i>cp</i> ) 565
16.4.2	Enantiomeric Purity ( <i>ep</i> ) 566
16.4.3	Enantiomeric Excess ( <i>ee</i> ) 566
16.4.4	Specific Rotation ( <i>sr</i> ) 566
16.5	Automation of Method Development and Preparative Purifications 566
16.6	Method Development 568
16.7	Preparative Purifications 569
16.8	Analytes 572
16.8.1	Small Molecule Pharmaceutical Candidates 572
16.8.2	Antibiotics and Sugars: Compounds without Chromophores 574
16.8.3	Amino Acids 575
16.8.4	Natural Products 575



16.8.5	Foods, Flavors, and Fragrances	575
16.8.6	Fertilizers and Pesticides	576
16.9	Applications	577
16.9.1	Analysis and QA/QC	577
16.9.2	Example: QA/QC of Antibiotic Residues in Milk – Gentamicin	577
16.9.3	HPLC/SFC Method Development	580
16.9.4	HPLC/SFC Preparative Purification – Fraction Collection	580
16.9.5	Process Monitoring	581
16.10	Summary and Conclusion	584
	References	584

## **17 Preparative Chiral Chromatography – a Powerful and Efficient Tool in Drug Discovery** 585

*Shalini Andersson*

17.1	Introduction	585
17.2	Chiral Chromatographic Resolution of Enantiomers	586
17.2.1	Selecting the Chiral Stationary Phase	586
17.3	Chiral Preparative Chromatography Process	588
17.3.1	Column Screen and Optimization	588
17.3.2	Preparative Chromatography	590
17.3.2.1	Choice of the Chromatography Mode	590
17.3.2.2	Loadability	591
17.3.2.3	Solubility	592
17.4	Examples of Preparative Separation of Enantiomers	593
17.4.1	Resolution of DNZ- $\beta$ -Phenylalanine Isomers	593
17.4.2	Resolution of a Chiral Acid in Late-stage Discovery Phase	595
17.5	Analysis and Chiroptical Characterization of the Isolated Enantiomers	598
17.6	Conclusions	598
	References	599

**Subject Index** 601



## Preface

The recognition of differences in the pharmacological activity of enantiomeric molecules has created the need to administer them as an isolated enantiomer. However, this problem of producing enantiopure products affects not only the pharmaceutical industry but other industrial sectors such as agrochemicals, food, petroleum and also biotechnology, all of which are increasingly concerned with developing techniques to produce the pure enantiomeric product. The majority of the chiral products are sold as racemates or mixtures. Today, with impending regulations on the production and use of chiral drugs, the need to monitor production, report the isomeric composition of products and study the pharmacological effects of drugs has resulted in more than 70% of the chiral chromatography market being accounted for by the pharmaceutical industry, with emphasis on both analytical- and preparative-scale processes.

The first commercially available stationary phase for chiral HPLC was introduced in 1981 and the continuous development of technology has resulted in several stationary phases being applied successfully in analytical and preparative separations of chiral molecules. The versatility of chiral stationary phases and their effective application in both analytical- and large-scale enantiopurification have been discussed in earlier books, *A Practical Approach to Chiral Separation by Liquid Chromatography* (ed. G. Subramanian, VCH, Weinheim, 1994) and *Chiral Separation Techniques: a Practical Approach* (ed. G. Subramanian, Wiley-VCH, Weinheim, 2001). The present book aims to bring to the forefront current developments in and successful application of chiral separation techniques, providing an insight for chemists, biochemists and chemical engineers, allowing a choice of methodology in the production of enantiopure substances of quality. For comprehensive overviews, the reader is referred to specialized review articles.

I am indebted to thirty-four authors and co-authors from laboratories from all over the world who have agreed to share their experience and knowledge.

Each chapter represents an overview of its chosen topic. Chapter 1 provides an overview of Method Development and Optimization of Enantioseparations Using Macrocyclic Glycopeptide Chiral Stationary Phases, while Chapter 2 provides an account of Role of Polysaccharides in Liquid Chromatography and Capillary Electrophoresis and Chapter 3 details the Analytical and Preparative Potential of Immobilized Polysaccharide-derived Chiral Stationary Phases. Chapter 4 gives an account of Supercritical Fluid Chromatography in Chiral Separations

while Ligand Exchanges in Chiral Separation are detailed in Chapter 5. SMB Technology and Its Application are discussed in Chapters 6 and 7. Chiral Crown Ethers are detailed in Chapter 8 and Chapter 9 surveys the separation of Amino Acids and Hydroxy Acids. Capillary Electrophoresis is discussed in Chapter 10. Countercurrent Chromatography and Molecular Imprinting in Chiral Separations are detailed in Chapters 11 and 12. Chapter 13 gives an outline of Biosensors in Enantioselectivity and CEC and MEKC Coupled to Mass Spectrometry in the Analysis of Chiral Products are discussed in Chapters 14 and 15. Chapter 16 describes the Application of the Chiral Polarimeter in Enantioseparations. An insight into Preparative Chromatography in Drug Discovery is detailed in Chapter 17.

This book should be helpful to pharmaceutical chemists, biochemists, molecular biologists, pharmacologists and scientists in the agrochemical, food and biotechnology fields.

I wish to express my sincere thanks to Dr. Frank Weinreich for inviting me to edit this volume and Dr. Romy Kirsten and her colleagues in the publishing department for their sustained enthusiasm and support through the production of this book.

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## 1

## Method Development and Optimization of Enantioseparations Using Macrocyclic Glycopeptide Chiral Stationary Phases

*Thomas E. Beesley and J. T. Lee*

## 1.1

### Introduction

The efficient development of enantiomeric separations has become increasingly important, especially in the pharmaceutical industry, as optical isomers often produce different biological properties, some detrimental to further drug development. The closer to the point of drug discovery these issues are resolved, the less costly the outcome will be. This recognition has put pressure on the demand for more efficient chiral screening protocols. The analysis and preparation of a pure enantiomer often involve resolution from its antipode. Among all the chiral separation techniques, chiral high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) and mass spectrometry (MS) have proven to be the most robust and widely applicable platform. Chiral stationary phase (CSP) development has plateaued, but several CSPs now dominate selectivity screening protocols.

Currently, several hundred CSPs have appeared in publications and over 110 of them are available commercially [1]. These CSPs are made by using either a polymeric structure or a small ligand ( $MW < 3000$ ) as the chiral selector. The polymeric CSPs include synthetic chiral polymers [2] and naturally occurring chiral structures [3–5]. The most commonly used natural polymers include proteins and carbohydrates (cellulose and amylose). The chiral recognition mechanisms for these polymeric CSPs are relatively complicated. A protein, for example, is often complex enough to contain several chiral binding sites, in which case the major (high-affinity) site may differ for any given pair of enantiomers [6]. The other types of CSPs, with small molecule as the chiral selector, include ligand-exchange CSPs [7],  $\pi$ -complex (Pirkle-type) CSPs [8, 9], crown ether CSPs [10], cyclodextrin CSPs [11–15] and macrocyclic glycopeptide CSPs [16–20]. Compared with the polymeric CSPs, the separation mechanisms on these small-molecule CSPs are better characterized and understood. Macrocyclic glycopeptides, which were introduced by Armstrong in 1994, are one of the newest classes of CSPs [44]. To date, there are six macrocyclic glycopeptides CSPs available commercially [20] – vancomycin (V and V2), teicoplanin (T and T2), teico-

planin aglycone (TAG) and ristocetin A (R). Much research effort has been devoted to the characterization and application of these CSPs for a wide variety of chiral compounds.

## 1.2

### Structural Characteristics of Macrocylic Glycopeptide CSPs

#### 1.2.1

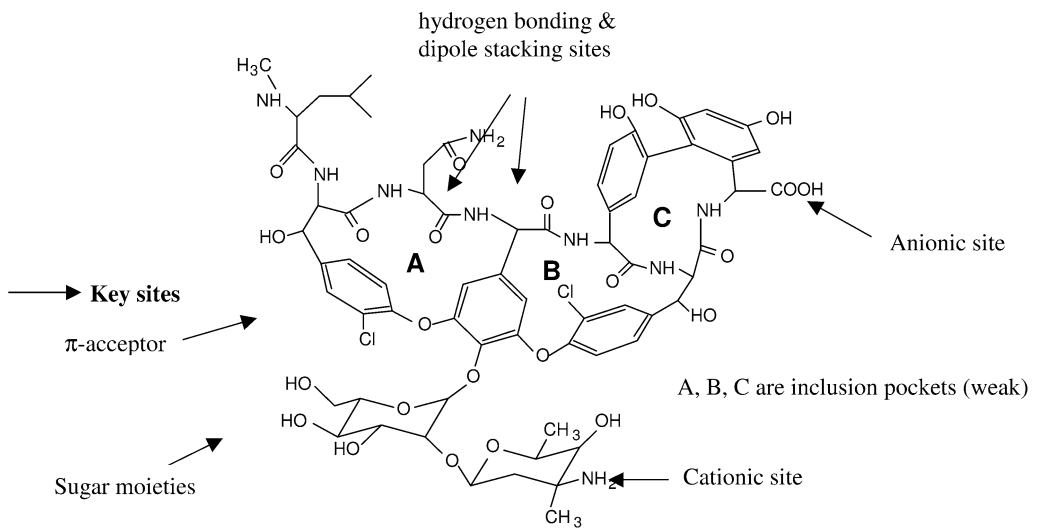
##### Chiral Recognition Mechanisms

The macrocylic glycopeptides vancomycin, teicoplanin and ristocetin A are produced as fermentation products of *Streptomyces orientalis*, *Actinoplanes teichomyceticus* and *Nocardia lurida*, respectively. All three of these related compounds consist of an aglycone “basket” made up of fused macrocylic rings and a peptide chain with differing numbers of pendant sugar moieties off the phenoxide groups (Fig. 1.1). The macrocylic rings of vancomycin and teicoplanin contain two chloro-substituted aromatic rings whereas the analogous portion of ristocetin A has no chlorine substituents.

Vancomycin is the smallest of the three basic molecules, consisting of three macrocylic rings and a glycoside comprising D-glucose and L-vancosamine. The other two glycopeptides are larger, having four fused rings and different types of pendant sugar moieties. Teicoplanin has three monosaccharides: one D-mannose and two D-glucosamines. On one of the latter sugars was attached a hydrophobic acyl side-chain (hydrophobic tail). Ristocetin A has a pendant tetrasaccharide (arabinose, mannose, glucose and rhamnose) and two monosaccharide moieties (mannose and ristosamine) [21]. In addition to the natural CSPs, teicoplanin aglycone was produced by removing the sugar moieties from teicoplanin. The structural characteristics of the four basic macrocycles are outlined in Table 1.1. In addition, V2 and T2 were produced using different bonding chemistries on the surface of the silica compared with V and T, respectively. Although the chemical ligand remains the same, the loading and accessibility of the key interaction sites are different between V and V2 [22] and T and T2, yielding higher selectivity and sample loading capacity for certain significant classes of compounds.

All macrocylic glycopeptides have analogous ionizable groups which have been proven to play a major role in their association with ionizable analytes and, thus, chiral recognition. For example, there is an amino group on the aglycone portion of each CSP. There is a carboxylic acid moiety on the other side of macrocylic basket of both vancomycin and teicoplanin, while the equivalent group on ristocetin A is methylated. When the sugars are removed from teicoplanin, a dramatic increase in selectivity is observed for a number of types of racemates [23]. This variety of structures and functionalities on the macrocylic glycopeptides provides a unique range of interactions for chiral recognition. A list of available interactions and their relative strengths is given in Table 1.2.

## Vancomycin



## Ristocetin A

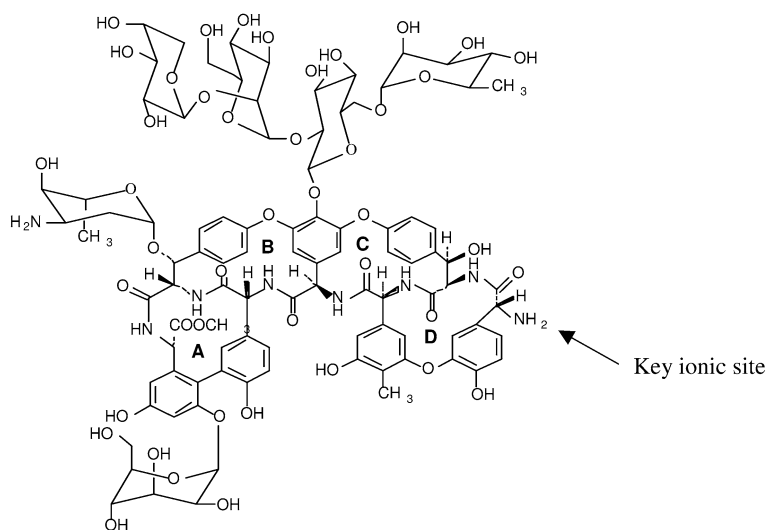


Fig. 1.1 Proposed structures of glycopeptide CSPs.

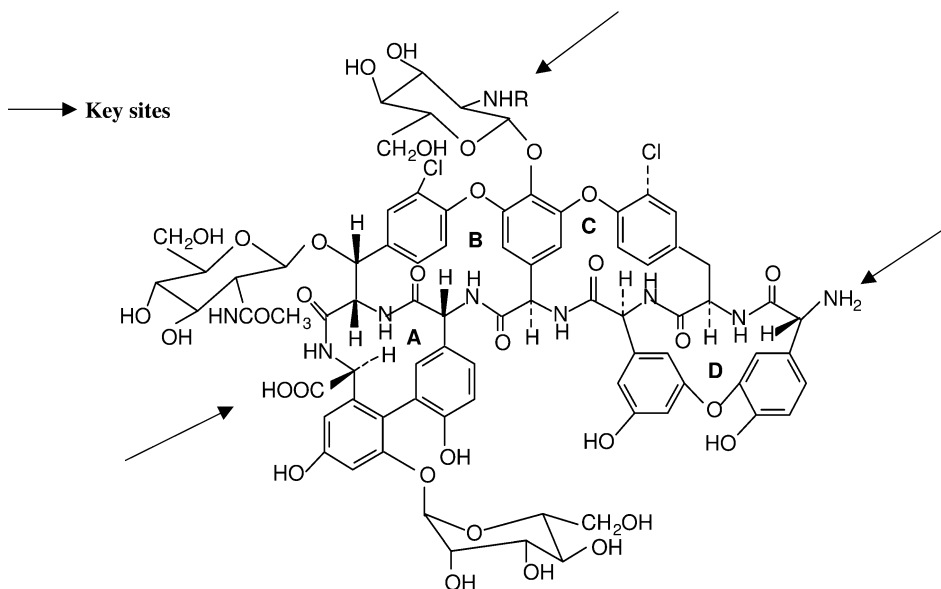
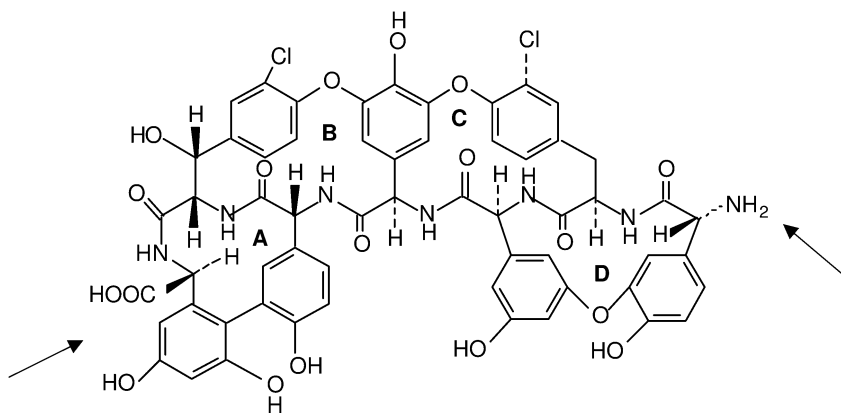
**Teicoplanin****Teicoplanin Aglycone**

Fig. 1.1 (continued)

**Table 1.1** Structural characteristics of macrocyclic glycopeptide chiral ligands.

	Vancomycin	Teicoplanin	Ristocetin A	Teicoplanin aglycone
Molecular weight	1449	1877	2066	1197
Stereogenic centers	18	23	38	8
Macrocycles	3	4	4	4
Sugar moieties	2	3	6	0
Hydroxyl groups	9	15	21	7
Amino groups	2	1	2	1
Carboxyl groups	1	1	0	1
Amido groups	7	7	6	7
Aromatic groups	5	7	7	7
Methyl esters	0	0	1	0
Hydrophobic tail	0	1	0	0
pI value	7.2	3.8–6.5	7.5	N/A

**Table 1.2** Relative strength of potential interactions between macrocyclic glycopeptide CSPs and chiral analytes.

Anionic or cationic interactions	Very strong
Hydrogen bonding	Very strong
$\pi$ - $\pi$ complexation	Strong
Steric interactions	Medium strong
Inclusion complexation	Medium
Dipole stacking	Weak

### 1.2.2

#### Multi-modal Chiral Stationary Phases

From the structural information given above, it can be seen that the macrocyclic glycopeptide CSPs are multi-modal such that a variety of mobile phase types can be used to initiate selectivity [16–18]. Typically, these mobile phase systems are classified as polar ionic mode (PIM, nonaqueous), reversed-phase mode (RP, aqueous), polar organic mode (POM, nonaqueous) and normal-phase mode (NP, nonaqueous). Since these macrocyclic glycopeptides are covalently bonded to silica gel through multiple (>4) linkages, there is no detrimental effect when switching from one mobile phase system to another. The only limitation is the pH range of the aqueous buffer, which should be between 2.8 and 7.0. The enantioselectivities of these CSPs are different in each of the mobile phase systems, because certain molecular interactions (between CSP and analyte) function more effectively in certain eluent conditions. Table 1.3 shows the breakdown of separation mechanisms versus the mobile phase systems in descend-

**Table 1.3** Possible separation mechanisms for three types of mobile phase systems on the macrocyclic glycopeptide CSPs.

Polar ionic mode	Ionic interaction Hydrogen bonding Steric interaction $\pi$ - $\pi$ interaction
Reversed-phase mode	Ionic interaction Hydrogen bonding Inclusion complexation Steric interaction
Polar organic/normal-phase mode	Hydrogen bonding $\pi$ - $\pi$ interaction Steric interaction Dipole stacking

ing order of strength. Statistically, the most successful mobile phase for pharmaceutical compounds is the nonaqueous PIM on macrocyclic glycopeptide CSPs. This mode accounted for more than 50% of the applications, balanced by the RP mode, while the POM and NP mode resulted in about 15% of separations. The most unique characteristic of these CSPs is that they have effective chiral ionic interaction sites on either side of the aglycone: vancomycin has a secondary amine and a carboxyl group, teicoplanin and teicoplanin aglycone have a primary amine and a carboxyl group whereas ristocetin A has one primary amine only. These ionic sites provide the key interaction site for any compound with ionizable groups. Since chiral separations require three-point simultaneous interactions, the subtle differences between these CSPs near the anchoring site provide complementary separation effects.

### 1.3

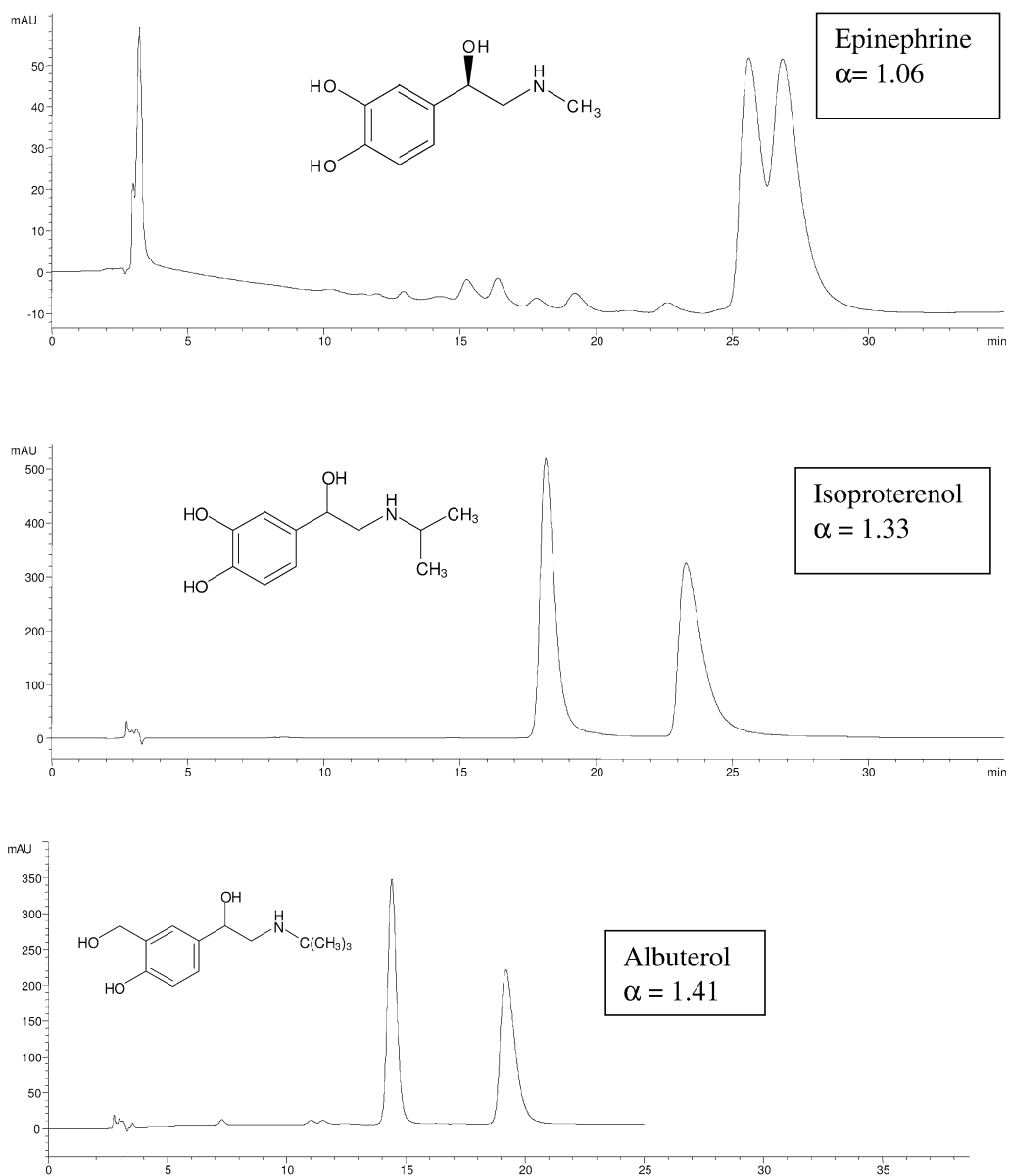
#### Enantioselectivity as a Function of Molecular Recognition

##### 1.3.1

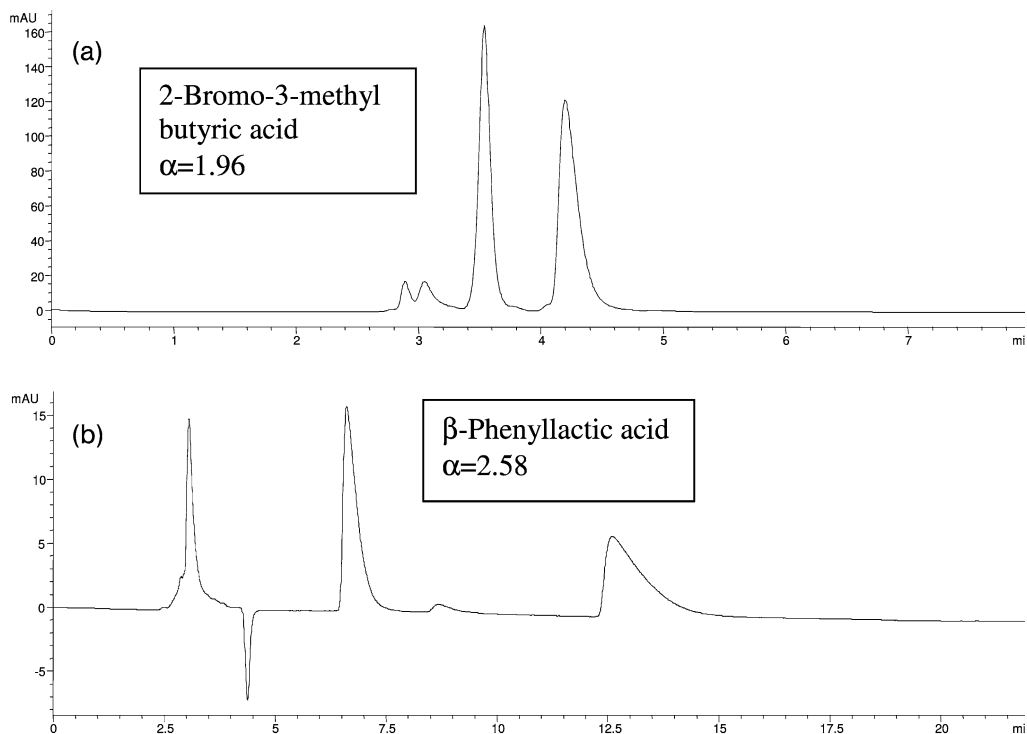
##### Ionizable Molecules

###### 1.3.1.1 Polar Ionic Mode

The PIM is a preferred mobile phase system to take advantage of ionic interactions efficiently. This mobile phase has beneficial MS-compatible components and low volatility and is easy to manipulate. When dealing with ionizable compounds (either acid or base), the proximity and availability of functional groups around the chiral center control the degree of selectivity/separation. For example, when propranolol was first separated using the PIM on a teicoplanin column, most  $\beta$ -blockers were also found to be baseline-resolved by the same mobile phase. These amino alcohols have identical key functionalities around the chiral center



**Fig. 1.2** Selectivity comparison for structurally related amino alcohols using a teicoplanin column in the polar ionic mode. Mobile phase, 100:0.1:0.1 MeOH–HOAc–TEA; flow-rate, 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup>; UV detection at 230 nm.



**Fig. 1.3** Enantiomeric separation of  $\alpha$ -hydroxy-/halogenated acids on ristocetin CSP. Column, 250 $\times$ 4.6 mm i.d.; mobile phase, 100:0.1 MeOH-NH<sub>4</sub>OH; flow-rate, 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup>; UV detection at 230 nm. (a) 2-Bromo-3-methylbutyric acid; (b)  $\beta$ -phenylactic acid.

(secondary amine and a hydroxyl plus an aromatic moiety). The carboxyl group (COO<sup>-</sup>) of the teicoplanin provided the anchoring point with the amino group (secondary -NH<sup>+</sup>) of the  $\beta$ -blocker. However, the degree of selectivity obtained was dictated by the bulkiness of alkyl groups off the anchoring site (secondary -NH<sup>+</sup>). The best examples to demonstrate this were albuterol, isopreterol and epinephrine, as their structures are very similar. Note the decreased selectivity that is observed in Fig. 1.2, from albuterol (*tert*-butyl group) to isoproterenol (isopropyl group) to epinephrine (methyl group). It follows that steric effects play a significant role in chiral selectivity in the PIM system.

The predictability of selectivity is further shown with  $\alpha$ -hydroxy-/halogenated carboxylic acids on a ristocetin A column. Again, the mobile phase is a PIM (Fig. 1.3). In this example, a carboxylic group of the analyte initiates the interaction with the amino group of the ristocetin A chiral stationary phase. Then, an H-bonding-capable functional group (bromine or/hydroxyl) enhances the chiral recognition. The last point of interaction (minor one), which is steric or hydrophobic, completes the enantioselective interactions. Note that in the PIM, the eluent is



mostly methanol, which has a strong H-bonding capability. With this mobile phase system, only ionic and H-bond interactions between the CSP and analyte stand out and interact with each other more effectively, leading to retention and possible separation. Most profen-type compounds can be separated in a similar fashion, but only with the ristocetin A CSP. Again, the selectivity is dictated by the availability and the strength of the additional functionalities (e.g. H-bond, dipole) in addition to carboxyl group and aromatic rings. It is not surprising that ibuprofen demonstrates no selectivity in the PIM since it has only a hydrocarbon functional group (off the aromatic ring) that will not provide significant interaction in this mobile phase system. Finally, it should be noted that the effectiveness of these chiral interactions is inversely proportional to the distance from the chiral center of the analyte. In other words, the shorter the distance of the chiral interactions to the chiral center is, the higher the selectivity will be.

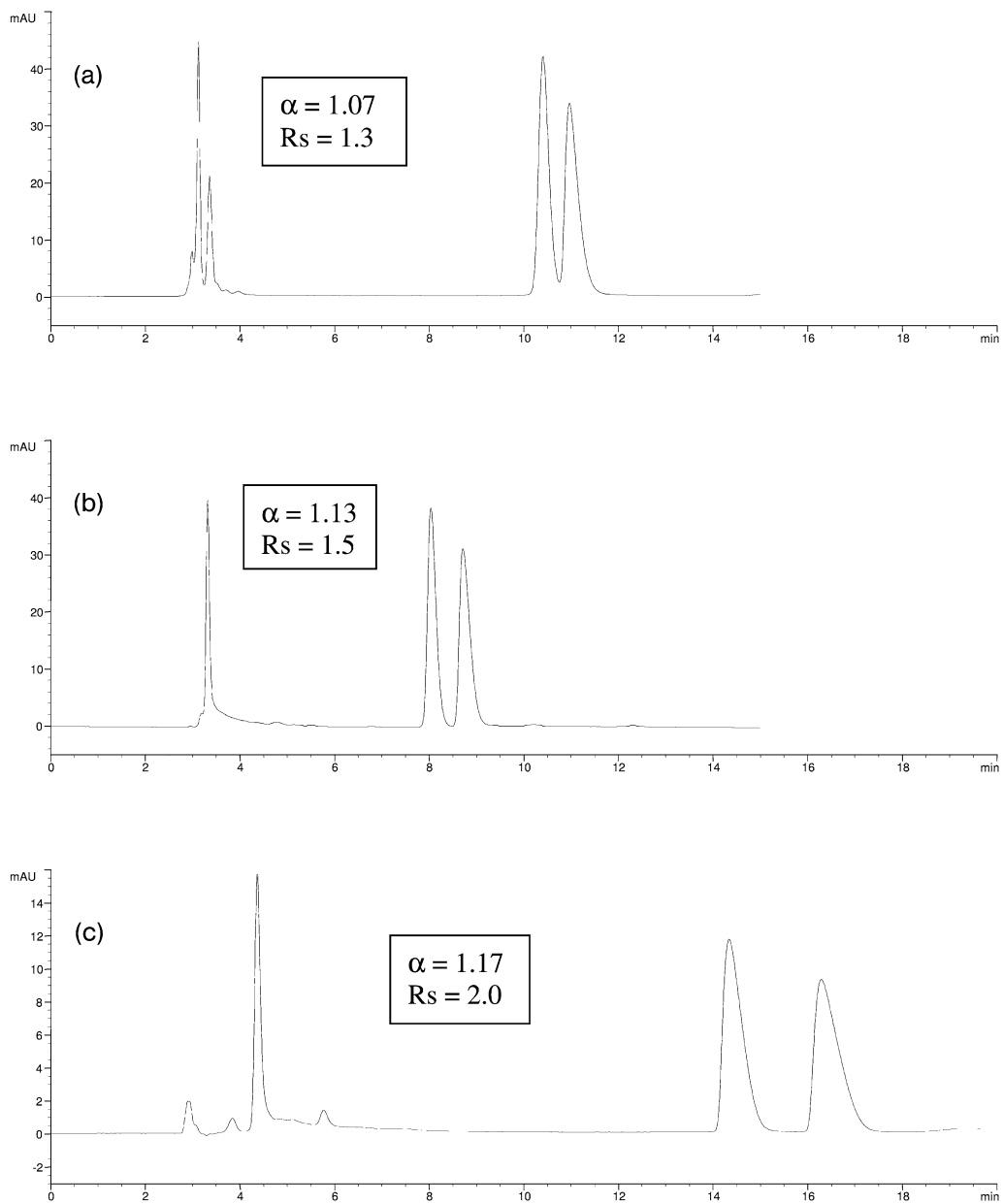
#### 1.3.1.2 Reversed-phase Mode

The typical RP mode involves the use of aqueous buffers as part of the mobile phase composition. However, macrocyclic CSPs can tolerate from 0 to 95% buffer without any deleterious effects. In this mobile phase system, ionic and H-bond interactions and hydrophobic inclusion complexation may provide the needed mechanisms for chiral recognition. For ionizable compounds (acid or base), the anchoring point is still either carboxyl or amino group, respectively. Then, H-bond and hydrophobic/inclusion complexation helps complete the chiral discrimination of the analyte. There are two reasons why ketoprofen was separated better in the RP mode than in the PIM on the ristocetin A column. First, in the PIM, the carbonyl group of the analyte is far away from the chiral center so that the effectiveness of H-bond interaction is compromised. Second, in the RP mode, the aromatic ring helps stabilize the molecule through inclusion complexation within the cavity of the CSP so that H-bonding with carbonyl becomes more effective. Another example is  $\alpha$ -methylbenzylamine, separated on a vancomycin (V2) CSP. When the PIM was used initially, just baseline separation was obtained. When water was added to the mobile phase, the selectivity, along with separation, increased (Fig. 1.4). By adding water, the structural conformation of CSP changes such that it favors inclusion complexation, leading to a much better separation.

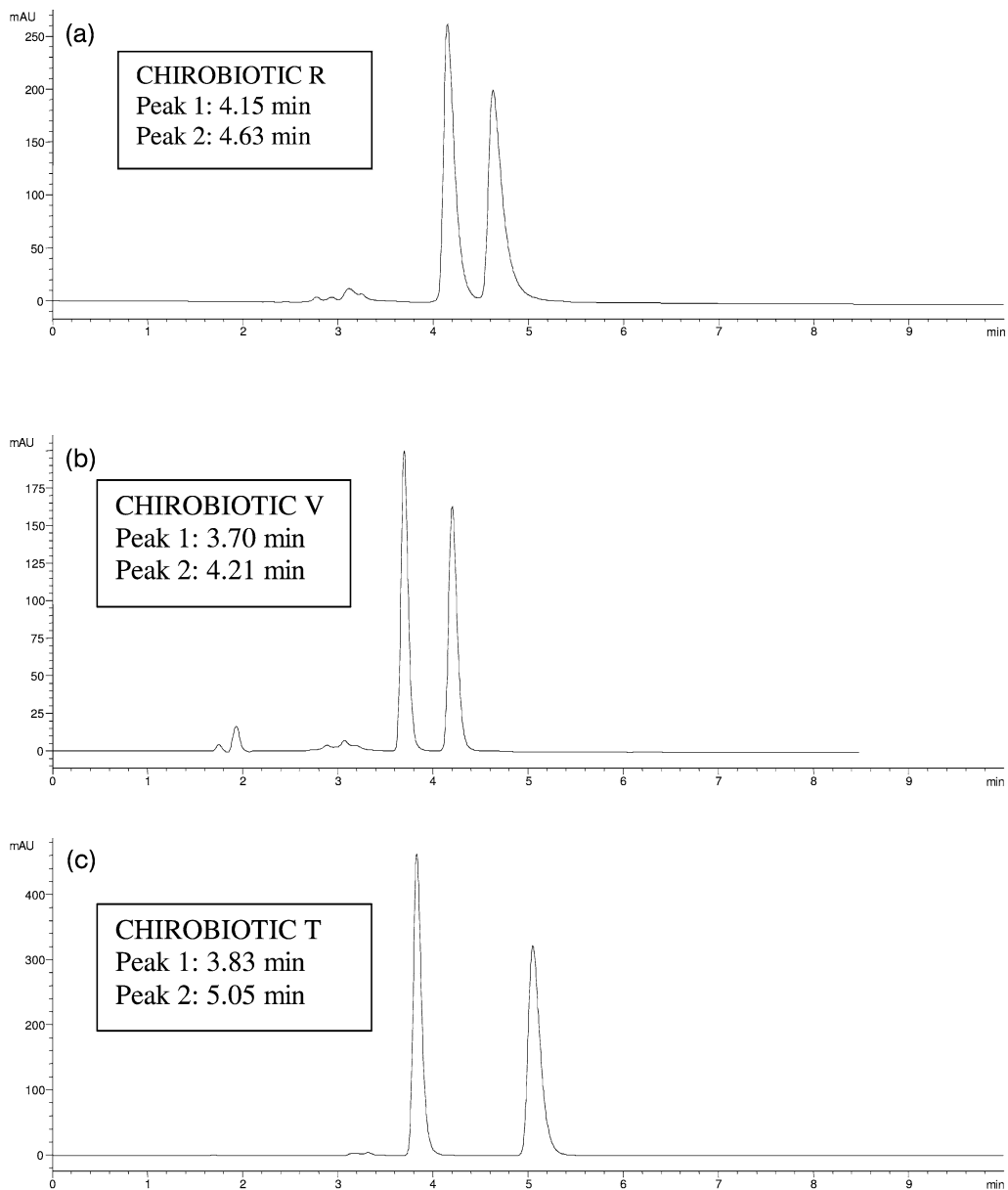
#### 1.3.2

##### Neutral Molecules

For neutral molecules, the chiral recognition processes rely heavily on the peptide chain and the multiple cavities on the cleft of the CSPs. Therefore, in the RP mode, in addition to the availability of inclusion complexation, analytes should have multiple H-bond donor/acceptor sites for a decent separation, although it is more unpredictable than for ionizable compounds. Compounds without an ionizable group (neutral) are also suitable for POM/NP systems. In



**Fig. 1.4** From polar ionic mode to reversed-phase mode on a vancomycin (V2) column. Sample:  $\alpha$ -methylbenzylamine. Mobile phase: (a) 100:0.05 MeOH-NH<sub>4</sub>TFA; (b) as (a) + 25% H<sub>2</sub>O; (c) as (a) + 50% H<sub>2</sub>O. Flow-rate, 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup>; UV detection at 254 nm.



**Fig. 1.5** Polar organic node separations on 5-methyl-5-phenyl-hydantoin using (a) ristcetin A, (b) vancomycin and (c) teicoplanin. Mobile phase, 100% MeOH; flow-rate, 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup>; UV detection at 220 nm.

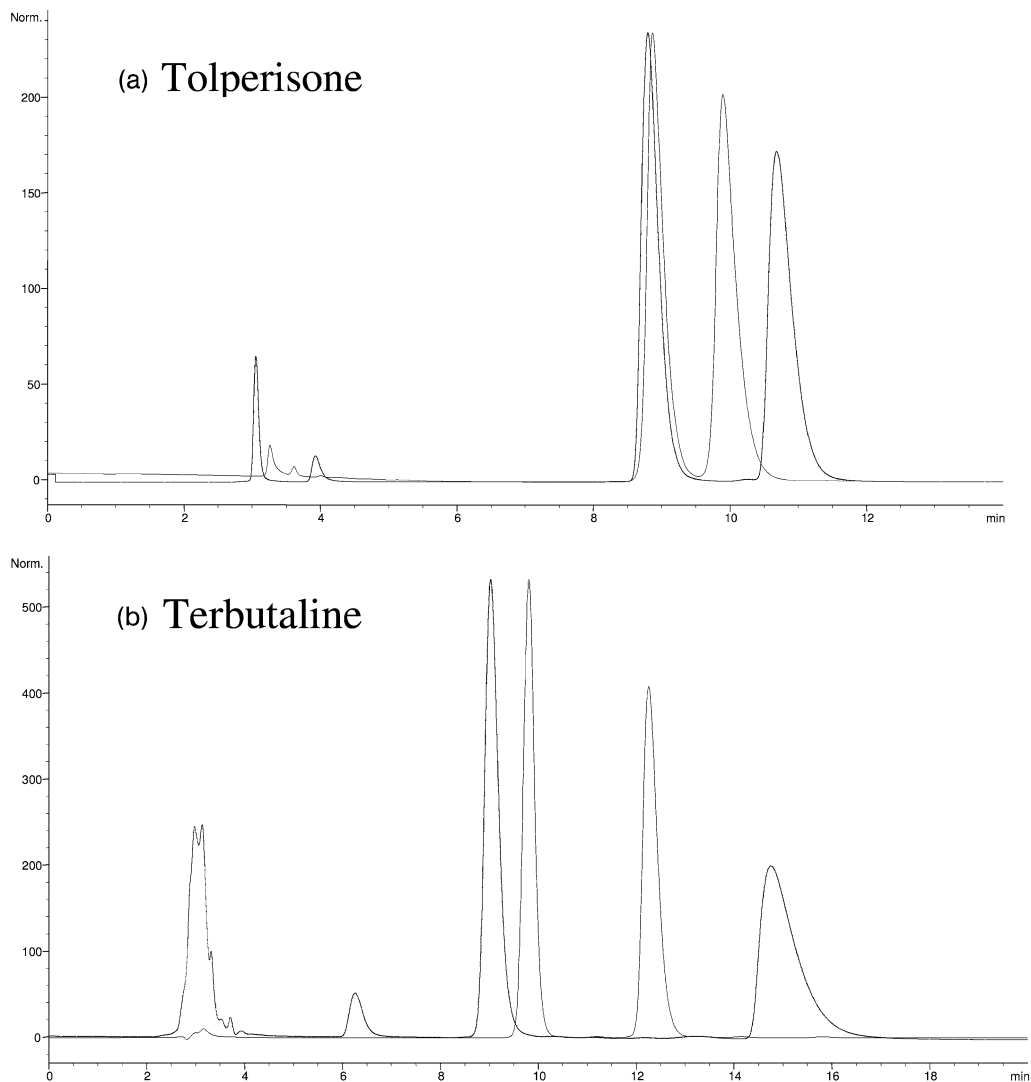
these systems, the eluent is composed of pure organic solvents with different degrees of polarity. For molecules with multiple H-bonding (>2) capability around the chiral center, the POM should be tried first. The best example is observed with 5-methyl-5-phenylhydantoin (Fig. 1.5). Pure MeOH or EtOH (or a combination of the two) yields very efficient separations. Other neutral compounds should be tried with typical normal phases such as the combinations of EtOH [or 2-propanol (IPA)] and hexane (or heptane). Again, the peptide chain of the macrocyclic glycopeptide CSPs provides ample opportunities for multiple H-bond interactions, aided by steric,  $\pi$ - $\pi$  or dipole-dipole interactions to obtain effective chiral recognition. In addition the above-mentioned solvents, acetonitrile (ACN), tetrahydrofuran (THF), methylene chloride, methyl *tert*-butyl ether (MtBE) and dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) have been used as the major eluent component or as additives to control selectivity and the separation by modulating H-bond interactions, by reinforcing steric effects and/or by improving the compounds' solubility.

#### 1.4 Complementary Effects

One of the unique characteristics of macrocyclic glycopeptide CSPs is the complementary effects among these six CSPs [18, 20]. Under the same mobile phase composition, if one CSP has shown marginal selectivity, other glycopeptide phases will most likely yield better selectivity. Also, by utilizing different linkers to the silica surface, enhanced selectivity could be obtained between vancomycin columns, V and V2. Teicoplanin demonstrated a similar effect between T and T2, for the same reason. Figure 1.6 demonstrates this complementary effect on these two phases. Also, propranolol, for example, is just baseline resolved on a teicoplanin column in the PIM. When the same mobile phase is used on a teicoplanin aglycone column, better separation is obtained. In addition, the elution order is reversed. Figure 1.7 demonstrates these unique phenomena. Also, as mentioned in the previous section, when one type of mobile phase did not yield satisfactory results, better separation may be obtained by switching to one of the other mobile phase types (see Fig. 1.4).

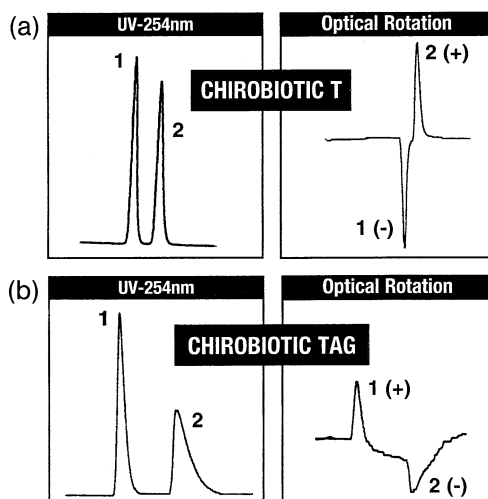
#### 1.5 Method Development

The macrocyclic CSPs are multi-modal phases and can be switched from one mobile phase system to another without any deleterious effects. The PIM offers the advantages of broad selectivity, high efficiency, low back-pressure, short analysis time, extended column life, high capacity and excellent prospects for preparative-scale applications. Whenever a racemic compound is targeted for separation, its structure can give a hint as to which mobile phase/CSP combination



**Fig. 1.6** Comparison of two vancomycin columns, V (solid line) and V2 (broken line), and two teicoplanin columns, T (solid line) and T2 (broken line) in polar ionic mode. (a) Tolperisone; (b) terbutaline. Mobile phase, 100:0.1 MeOH-NH<sub>4</sub>TFA; flow-rate, 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup>; UV detection at 230 nm.

should be approached. Table 1.4 summarizes the relationship between CSPs, mobile phase system and type of compound to be analyzed. A typical screening protocol in HPLC for the PIM is 100:0.1:0.1 (v/v/v) MeOH-HOAc-TEA whereas for the RP mode it is 20:80 MeOH-buffer (pH 5), for the POM it is 100% EtOH and for the NP mode it is 30:70, EtOH-heptane.



**Fig. 1.7** Complementary effect and reversal of elution order on propranolol using (a) a teicoplanin and (b) a teicoplanin aglycone column. Mobile phase, 100:0.1 MeOH–NH<sub>4</sub>TFA; flow-rate, 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup>.

With LC/MS platforms, 100:0.5:0.3 (v/v/v) MeOH–HOAc–NH<sub>4</sub>OH or 100:0.1 (v/w%). MeOH–ammonium formate is recommended for screening in the PIM. In the RP mode, volatile additives such as formic acid–acetic acid and ammonium acetate–formate salts can be used.

**Table 1.4** Compound type versus mobile phase system on all the macrocyclic glycopeptide CSPs. A double tick means that the selection is preferred based on the statistics.

Mobile phase type <sup>b)</sup>	Molecules <sup>a)</sup>						
	Acidic (-)		Basic (+)		Neutral		
	PIM	RP	PIM	RP	POM	NP	RP
Vancomycin		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓/✓
Vancomycin 2			✓/✓	✓/✓	✓	✓	✓
Teicoplanin	✓/✓	✓/✓	✓/✓	✓ <sup>c)</sup>	✓	✓	✓/✓
Teicoplanin 2	✓/✓	✓/✓	✓/✓	✓ <sup>c)</sup>	✓	✓	✓
Teicoplanin aglycone	✓/✓	✓/✓	✓		✓/✓	✓/✓	✓
Ristocetin A	✓/✓	✓/✓			✓	✓	✓/✓

- a) Samples are classified into three groups according to their ionizable functionality around the chiral center.  
 b) PIM, polar ionic mode; RP, reversed-phase mode; POM, polar organic mode; NP, normal-phase mode.  
 c) Mobile phase consists of >70% ACN.

## 1.6 Optimization Procedures

### 1.6.1 Polar Ionic Mode

This anhydrous organic solvent system uses methanol as primary carrier with addition of small amounts of acid and base functioning as the primary mechanism to maintain proper charges on both the CSP and the ionizable compound being chromatographed. Since ionic interaction is the key, the ratio of acid to base controls both the selectivity and retention, because the changes in the ratio of acid to base affect the degree of charge on both the glycopeptides and the analytes. As in the case of the basic analyte mianserin (Fig. 1.8), the highest selectivity is obtained when the HOAc:TEA ratio is 3:1 whereas very little selectivity is observed when the ratio is 1:3. When the amino group is fully positively charged while the COOH of vancomycin maintains sufficient negative charge,

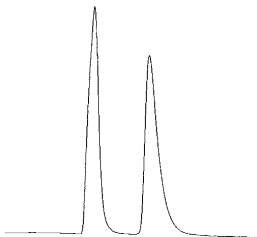
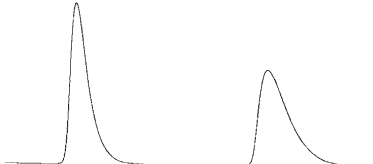
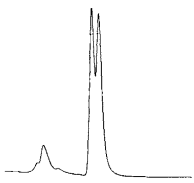
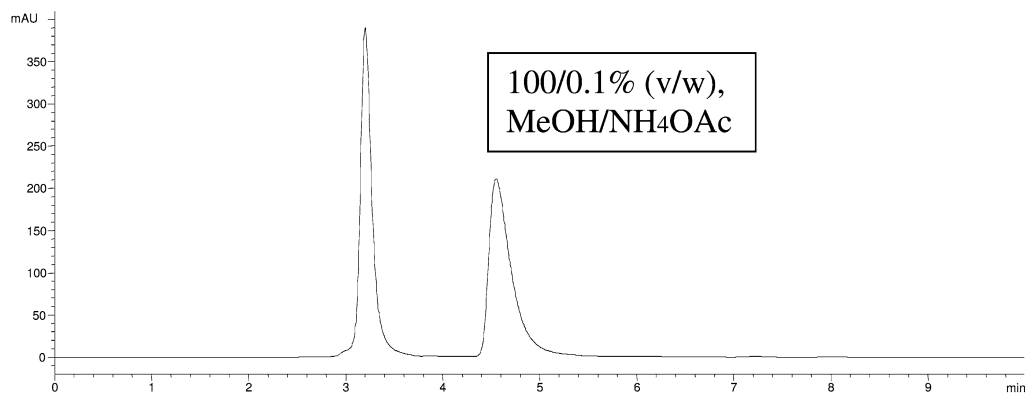
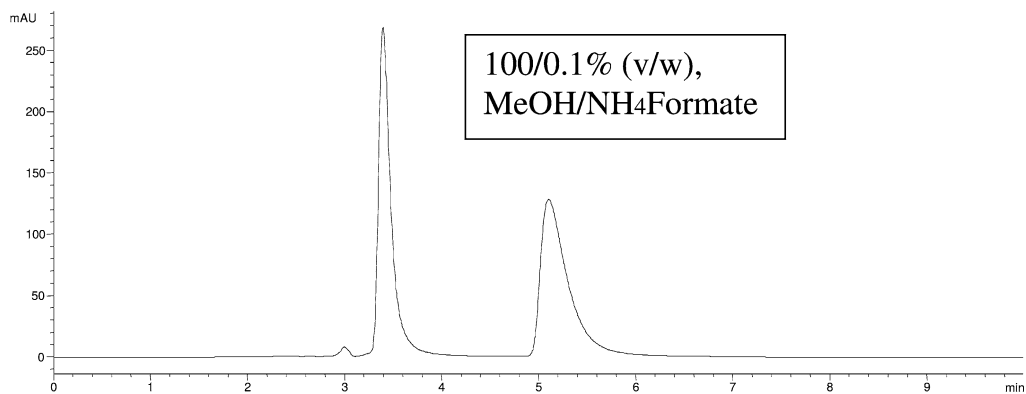
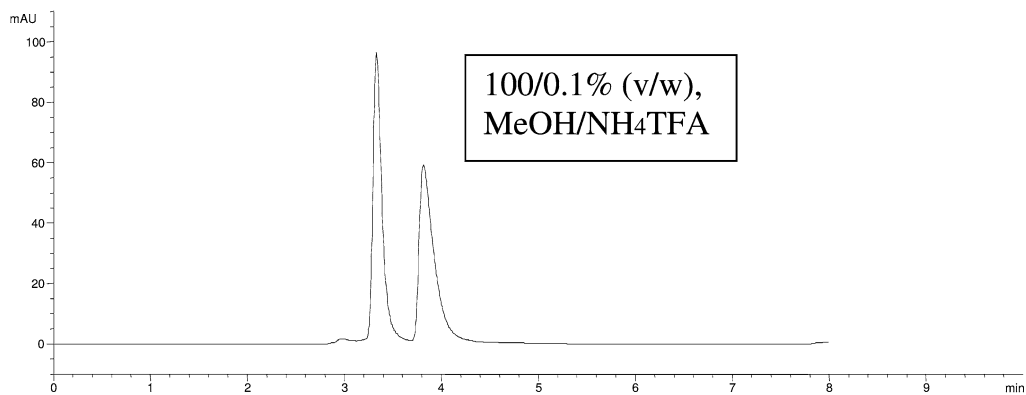
Example	Mianserin
Mobile Phase	MeOH/HOAc/TEA
100/0.1/0.1  Peak 1 – 6.21 min. Peak 2 – 7.36 min.  Ratio: 1:1	
100/0.15/0.05  Peak 1 – 10.44 min. Peak 2 – 14.46 min.  Ratio: 3:1	
100/0.05/0.15  Peak 1 – 3.43 Peak 2 – 3.58  Ratio: 1:3	

Fig. 1.8 Acid–base effect in the polar ionic mode on a vancomycin column.

(a) CHIROBIOTIC T2, 250x4.6mm  
Sample: Atrolactic acid



**Fig. 1.9** Ammonium salt effect in the polar ionic mode on (a) a teicoplanin (T2)