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Regardless of particle size or format, adsorption was described by means of a Bilangmuir model with ethanol/hexane MPs. On the other hand, in pure hexane, the Tóth isotherm was employed. Interestingly, it was found that selective and nonselective Henry's constants vary in opposite directions by increasing the percentage of strong MP modifier (between 3 and 10%, v/v). Saturation capacity of SPPs (referred only to the porous zone of the particle) was remarkably smaller than those of FPPs. On the other hand, binding constants on both selective and nonselective sites were significantly larger on SPPs. Finally, a correlation between the specific loading of chiral selector and the binding constants of enantiomers was suggested by data, which can be important also to understand the kinetic behavior of these particles in chiral ultrafast applications.

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**Università  
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**Ref.: Revision MS JCA-18-1284R1**

Dear Editor,

We are pleased to send you our revised version of MS **JCA-18-1284R1** according to reviewer's comment.

Attached as a separate file, you will find our response to the comment raised by reviewer #2 to **JCA-18-1284R1**. Our answer is reported in italic after reviewer's comment.

For your convenience, we also prepared a pdf version of the revised manuscript where changes have been tracked in red.

Thank you in advance for your time and cooperation.

With best regards,

Martina Catani

*Martina Catani*

## Reviewer #2

The authors have well and detailed responded to the reviewers' comments. They provided very reasonable explanations in the responding letter but they did not really clarify the easily misunderstood and unfortunate term "true" enantioselectivity from a semantic point of view. The experimentally observed enantioseparations always depends on the mobile phase conditions, the spatial neighborhood of the immobilized chiral selectors on the surface, in the present case on amorphous silica, the morphology of the surface and the pore structure, etc. This includes the conformation of the chiral selector moiety and its solvation which depends on the temperature.

It is fully agreed solid state NMR experiments could give additional informations in comparison to solution NMR with respect to the influence of the spatial neighborhood of the chiral selector and of the effect of the solvent and the solvation of all the selector and silica sites.

In summary, I still recommend to add to the text more explicitly what with the term " $\alpha$ -true" is actually meant and what is behind this expression. The calculated term stereoselective " $\alpha$ -true" is not true from a semantic point of view, but it describes more detailed the contribution of the stereoselective and non-stereoselective portfolio of "intermolecular" interactions taking place at the solvated and stereochemically modified silica surface with the chiral analytes.

It is agreed the chemically modified surface is indeed heterogeneous in terms of its morphology, chemical composition and its "solvation" status as factor of the mobile phase composition and temperature. I agree, porous silica of the SPP and FPP type will vary and thus also the morphology of the modified silica surface leading to different values of the " $\alpha$ -true" term.

The reader of this important paper needs to better understand why the same chiral selector chemically bound on FPP and SPP silica can lead to different binding constants expressed as  $\alpha$ -apparent and  $\alpha$ -true.

*We thank the reviewer for this observation. Accordingly, we have added a deeper explanation of what the term " $\alpha$ -true" applied to chiral chromatography is actually meaning (see ll. 251-266 of the revised version of the MS).*

# On the effect of chiral selector loading and mobile phase composition on adsorption properties of latest generation fully- and superficially-porous Whelk-O1 particles for high-efficient ultrafast enantioseparations

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## Abstract

The adsorption isotherms of *trans*-stilbene oxide (TSO) enantiomers have been measured under a variety of normal phase (NP) mobile phases (MPs) on three Whelk-O1 chiral stationary phases (CSPs), prepared respectively on 1.8  $\mu\text{m}$  and 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  fully porous particles (FPPs) and 2.6  $\mu\text{m}$  superficially porous particles (SPPs). Specific loading of chiral selector (moles per square meter) of the two FPPs was about 20% smaller than that of SPPs (even if they were prepared under exactly the same experimental conditions).

Regardless of particle size or format, adsorption was described by means of a Bilangmuir model with ethanol/hexane MPs. On the other hand, in pure hexane, the Tóth isotherm was employed. Interestingly, it was found that selective and nonselective Henry's constants vary in opposite directions by increasing the percentage of strong MP modifier (between 3 and 10%, v/v). Saturation capacity of SPPs (referred only to the porous zone of the particle) was remarkably smaller than those of FPPs. On the other hand, binding constants on both selective and nonselective sites were sig-

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nificantly larger on SPPs. Finally, a correlation between the specific loading of chiral selector and the binding constants of enantiomers was suggested by data, which can be important also to understand the kinetic behavior of these particles in chiral ultrafast applications.

*Keywords:* Chiral Stationary Phases; Whelk-O1 selector; Superficially Porous Particles; Sub-2 $\mu$ m Fully Porous Particles; Adsorption Isotherms.

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## 1. Introduction

The design and development of high efficient particles, either sub-2 $\mu$ m fully porous (FPPs) [1–3] or (second-generation) superficially porous (SPPs) ones [4–12], functionalized with chiral selectors, have represented the most important innovation in the last decade in the field of chiral separations by liquid chromatography. Not only have they allowed for the preparation of packed columns with extraordinary kinetic performance – altogether comparable to that of typical reversed-phase (RP) achiral separations [13–15]– but they also have permitted to decrease the analysis time by up to three orders of magnitude (from tenths of minutes to fractions of seconds) [1–5, 12–14, 16–20].

Many remarkable examples showing the very large potential of new generation particles towards high-efficient ultrafast (sub-seconds) enantioseparations have been published [1–12]. Essentially, in all of these studies the key has been to use very short prototype columns (either 10 or even 5 mm long) operated at the maximum flow rate allowed by the equipment (between 5 and 8 mL/min depending on the brand of the instrument). At very large flow rates, the so-called mass transfer term, or *c*-term, of the van Deemter equation dominates over the other mechanisms of band broadening (longitudinal diffusion and eddy dispersion). Differently from what happens in RP achiral chromatography, in chiral chromatography this term accounts not only for diffusion of molecules through the particles of the packed bed (where flow is absent) but also for the adsorption-desorption kinetics. Adsorption-desorption kinetics is negligible in RP achiral chromatography unless very large molecules (such as proteins or large polypeptides) are considered. It has been indeed demonstrated that for small molecules adsorption-desorption is very fast ([21, 22]). On the opposite, the enantiorecognition process can be slow, even if the extent largely depends on the type of chiral selector employed. For instance, it is generally accepted that brush-type chiral selectors, such as the Whelk-O1 type, are “fast” while other kinds of selectors, including macrocyclic glycopeptides and polysaccharides, are “slow”. This information basi-

33 cally comes from molecular spectroscopic investigation (firstly, by NMR).  
34 Therefore, it is not unusual that experimental conditions under which it  
35 was obtained can be significantly different from those typical of liquid  
36 chromatography. Not just because spectroscopic measurements are (very  
37 often) performed in homogeneous systems, where both chiral selectors  
38 and analytes are in solution, but also since solvents employed in these  
39 measurements can be very different from typical eluents used in liquid  
40 chromatography. Thus, these measurements does not account for the ef-  
41 fect of several variables that may affect chiral recognition in heterogenous  
42 systems (i.e., when the chiral selector is tethered to the surface), such as  
43 the chemical composition of the surface around chiral selector, the surface  
44 density of chiral selector, pore size and morphology, their accessibility, the  
45 competitive effect for adsorption by so-called strong mobile phase (MP)  
46 modifiers, etc.

47 For the reasons explained above, however, these considerations assume  
48 great importance for latest generation sub- $2\mu\text{m}$  fully porous and second-  
49 generation superficially porous particles. This is particularly so when one  
50 wants to compare superficially- and fully-porous particles (functionalized  
51 with the same chiral selector) in terms of kinetic performance. The common  
52 reasoning [8, 23–27] about the alleged superiority, in terms of efficiency, of  
53 the former type of particles over their fully porous counterpart is based on  
54 the same considerations employed in achiral RP chromatography, namely  
55 that eddy dispersion, longitudinal diffusion and solid-liquid mass transfer  
56 are smaller on chiral SPPs than on FPPs. Therefore, these conclusions ei-  
57 ther completely neglect the role of adsorption-desorption kinetics or they  
58 implicitly assume that adsorption-desorption kinetics is identical on both  
59 kinds of particles. On the other hand, many authors report that functional-  
60 ization of SPPs and FPPs systematically leads to different specific loading,  
61 or density ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2$ ) of chiral selectors on the two types of particles, even  
62 if their chemical modification is performed under exactly the same exper-  
63 imental conditions [1, 5, 8, 11, 13].

64 With the purpose of shedding light on some of these aspects, in this work  
65 the adsorption isotherms of *trans*-stilbene oxide (TSO) enantiomers have  
66 been measured under normal phase (NP) conditions on three different  
67 Whelk-O1 chiral stationary phases (CSPs). Two of them were prepared  
68 on FPPs (2.5 and 1.8  $\mu\text{m}$  particle diameter, respectively) and the other one  
69 on 2.6  $\mu\text{m}$  SPPs [1, 13]. The investigation of adsorption isotherms is fun-  
70 damental not only to characterize surface heterogeneity (in terms of ad-  
71 sorption energy distribution) but also to investigate if, e.g., the bonding  
72 density has an effect on the binding constants of enantiomers and enan-  
73 tioselectivity of CSPs. In addition, since adsorption-desorption kinetics

74 is strongly influenced by thermodynamic equilibria [28], this information  
 75 can also be useful to understand the chromatographic behavior of fully-  
 76 and superficially-porous particles at high flow rates [1, 2, 29–31].

## 77 2. Theory

78 The equilibrium-dispersive (ED) model has often been used to describe  
 79 chromatographic separations characterized by efficient mass transfer [28].  
 80 In this model, instantaneous equilibrium between mobile (MP) and sta-  
 81 tionary phase (SP) is assumed. Since both thermodynamics of phase equi-  
 82 libria and mass transfer kinetics change with experimental conditions, the  
 83 only parameter that is conserved during a chromatographic separation (in  
 84 absence of chemical reaction) is the mass of the injected sample. Therefore,  
 85 a differential mass balance equation can be written that, for the ED model,  
 86 includes an apparent lumped dispersion term ( $D_a$ ) accounting for all the  
 87 contributions to band broadening observed in linear chromatography:

$$\frac{\partial C_i}{\partial t} + F \frac{\partial q_i}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial C_i}{\partial z} = D_{a,i} \frac{\partial^2 C_i}{\partial z^2} \quad (1)$$

88 where the index  $i$  indicates  $i$ th component of the system. In this equation,  
 89  $C_i$  and  $q_i$  are the concentrations of analyte in MP and SP, respectively,  $t$   
 90 represents the temporal coordinate and  $z$  the spatial one. Finally,  $u$  is the  
 91 MP linear velocity and  $F$  the phase ratio:

$$F = \frac{1 - \epsilon_t}{\epsilon_t} \quad (2)$$

92 being  $\epsilon_t$  the total porosity of the packed bed given by the ratio between the  
 93 hold-up,  $V_0$ , and the geometric volume,  $V_{col}$ , of the column. The apparent  
 94 dispersion coefficient is calculated through the efficiency of the chromato-  
 95 graphic peak under analytical conditions:

$$D_{a,i} = \frac{uL}{2N_i} \quad (3)$$

96 where  $N$  is the number of theoretical plates and  $L$  the column length. In  
 97 the case of enantiomeric separations ( $i = 1, 2$ ), the system will be described  
 98 by two partial differential equations, which are coupled through a competi-  
 99 tive isotherm equation,  $q_i = f(C_1, C_2)$  (see later on).

100 *2.1. Inverse Method for determination of isotherms*

101 The direct numerical resolution of the system of mass balance equations  
102 requires the knowledge of the isotherm. This can be, for instance, eval-  
103 uated through (competitive) frontal analysis. Contrary, in the so-called  
104 Inverse Method (IM) [32–34], isotherm parameters are derived through  
105 a procedure based on the iterative resolution of system of mass balance  
106 equations (once an isotherm model has been chosen). Isotherm param-  
107 eters are calculated by minimizing the differences between experimental  
108 and calculated chromatograms. Schematically, IM requires the following  
109 steps: i) recording of some experimental overloaded profiles; ii) selection  
110 of an isotherm model (the shape of overloaded profiles guides this process  
111 [28]) and guess of initial parameters; iii) resolution of system of mass bal-  
112 ance equations with the adsorption isotherm just selected (to get a calcu-  
113 lated chromatogram); iv) comparison between calculated overloaded pro-  
114 files and experimental ones; v) tuning of isotherm parameters until cal-  
115 culated and experimental profiles match as much as possible. Numerical  
116 optimization of isotherm parameters was made by means of the super-  
117 modified simplex method described in [32, 35].

118 To solve the system of mass balance equations, obviously proper initial  
119 and boundary conditions must be defined. In this work, the following  
120 initial

$$C_i(z, t = 0) = 0 \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (4)$$

121 and boundary

$$C_i(z = 0, t) = \begin{cases} C_{i,0} & 0 \leq t \leq t_{inj} \\ 0 & t > t_{inj} \end{cases} \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (5)$$

122 conditions were taken describing, respectively, that at  $t = 0$  the column  
123 is equilibrated with pure eluent (Eq. 4) and that the injection profile is a  
124 rectangular pulse of concentration  $C_{i,0}$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ) during the injection time,  
125  $t_{inj}$  (Eq. 5).

126 *2.2. Isotherm models*

127 *2.2.1. Langmuir isotherm*

128 The Langmuir model is the most frequently used to describe adsorption  
129 in liquid chromatography. Based on the Langmuir model, the adsorption  
130 surface is assumed to be paved by only one type of adsorption sites (ho-  
131 mogeneous adsorption). In addition, adsorption is monolayer and no lat-  
132 eral interactions between adsorbed molecules are possible. In the case the



133 Langmuir isotherm is used to model chiral separations, not only it is as-  
 134 sumed that nonselective interactions have a negligible contribution to re-  
 135 tention of enantiomers but also that energies of all possible enantioelec-  
 136 tive interactions are close enough that they can be averaged. Accordingly,  
 137 a single adsorption energy and a single adsorption constant can be de-  
 138 fined, which characterize all adsorption sites on the surface. (Obviously,  
 139 average energies and constants are different for the two enantiomers).  
 140 The competitive Langmuir model applied to the separation of two enan-  
 141 tiomers (denoted hereafter 1 and 2) is written as:

$$q_i = \frac{q_s b_i c_i}{1 + b_1 c_1 + b_2 c_2} \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (6)$$

142 where  $q_s$  is the saturation capacity (equal for both enantiomers [28]) and  $b_i$   
 143 is the adsorption equilibrium (binding) constant. The product between  $q_s$   
 144 and  $b_i$  defines the so-called Henry's constant of adsorption,  $a_i$  (that is the  
 145 initial slope of the isotherm). Retention factor (under linear condition),  $k$ ,  
 146 and Henry's constant are connected by:

$$k = \frac{t_R - t_0}{t_0} = aF \quad (7)$$

147 where  $t_R$  and  $t_0$  are respectively the retention and hold-up time measured  
 148 under linear conditions.

### 149 2.2.2. *Tóth isotherm*

150 This isotherm describes heterogeneous adsorption. In particular, it as-  
 151 sumes a continuous and possibly wide adsorption energy distribution.  
 152 Width depends on the value of the so-called heterogeneity parameter,  $\nu$   
 153 ( $0 < \nu < 1$ ). The smaller  $\nu$  the wider the adsorption energy distribution  
 154 function. For binary competitive systems, the Tóth isotherm is:

$$q_i = \frac{q_s b_i c_i}{[1 + (b_1 c_1 + b_2 c_2)^\nu]^{1/\nu}} \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (8)$$

### 155 2.2.3. *Bilangmuir isotherm*

156 The Bilangmuir model, finally, accounts for a bimodal adsorption energy  
 157 distribution due to the presence of two different adsorption sites that,  
 158 in case of chiral separations, are considered selective (responsible for di-  
 159 astereomeric or enantioselective interactions) and nonselective (where both  
 160 enantiomers behave identically) [36]. This model has been often success-  
 161 fully applied to describe adsorption processes of enantiomers on CSPs

162 [32, 37, 38]. The competitive 2-component adsorption isotherm is:

$$q_i = \frac{q_{sel} b_{i,sel} c_i}{1 + b_{1,sel} c_1 + b_{2,sel} c_2} + \frac{q_{nrel} b_{nrel} c_i}{1 + b_{nrel} (c_1 + c_2)} \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (9)$$

163 where subscripts *sel* and *nrel* refer to selective and nonselective sites, re-  
164 spectively [28, 32, 39, 40].

### 165 3. Materials and methods

#### 166 3.1. Columns and materials

167 All solvents and reagents were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis,  
168 MI, USA). Kromasil fully porous silica particles (2.5 and 1.8  $\mu\text{m}$  particle  
169 size, 100  $\text{\AA}$  pore size, 323  $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$  specific surface area) were from Akzo-  
170 Nobel (Bohus, Sweden). Accucore second-generation superficially porous  
171 silica particles (2.6  $\mu\text{m}$ , 80  $\text{\AA}$  pore size, 130  $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$  specific surface area, ra-  
172 dius of core over particle radius,  $\rho = 0.63$ ) were from Thermo Fisher Sci-  
173 entific (Waltham, MA, USA). Whelk-O1 selector was generously donated  
174 by Regis Technologies Inc. (Morton Grove, IL, USA). Synthesis and prepa-  
175 ration of Whelk-O1 CSPs are reported in Ref. [1]. 100 and 150  $\text{mm} \times 4.6$   
176  $\text{mm}$  empty stainless steel columns were from IsoBar Systems by Idex (Er-  
177 langen, Germany).

#### 178 3.2. Equipment

179 All measurements were performed on an Agilent 1100 Series Capillary LC  
180 system equipped with a binary solvent pump, a column thermostat and a  
181 photodiode array detector. An external manual injector (Rheodyne 8125,  
182 equipped with either 5 or 50  $\mu\text{L}$  fixed-loops) was used for sample injec-  
183 tions. Detector calibration was performed by sequentially injecting 50  $\mu\text{L}$   
184 TSO racemic solutions (concentration from 0.05  $\text{g}/\text{l}$  to 5  $\text{g}/\text{L}$ ) without the  
185 column. This volume was large enough to observe concentration plateau.  
186 Wavelength: 280 nm.

#### 187 3.3. Experimental conditions

188 Adsorption isotherms were measured at five different hexane/ethanol MP  
189 compositions: 90/10, 92/8, 95/5, 97/3 and 100/0, % v/v. Temperature  
190 was 35°C. TSO racemic mixture injected concentrations were: 3, 10, 20, 40,  
191 50  $\text{g}/\text{L}$ . Injection volume was 5  $\mu\text{L}$ .

## 192 4. Results and discussion

193 Table 1 reports some of the physico-chemical characteristics of particles  
194 and columns employed in this work [1, 2, 30]. Fully porous particles  
195 were used to prepare the columns named FPP-1.8 and FPP-2.5; the col-  
196 umn called SPP-2.6 was packed with core-shell particles (see Table 1). In-  
197 formation on particle diameter, specific surface area and pore size comes  
198 from manufacturers. Bonding density was determined through elemental  
199 analysis (more information under SI). As expected, bonding densities  
200 per gram of base silica are larger on FPPs (for which essentially the same  
201 value was obtained regardless of particle size) than on SPPs. On the other  
202 hand, specific bonding density ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2$ ) is significantly larger (by al-  
203 most 20%) on SPPs than that of FPPs. This last finding has been observed  
204 also with other chiral selectors [13] and by other authors [5, 8]. How-  
205 ever, in other cases [7] the opposite was reported so that no generaliza-  
206 tion can be made. It is worth noting that functionalization of both SPPs  
207 and FPPs was performed under identical experimental conditions (and  
208 repeated several times). Nevertheless, specific bonding density was dif-  
209 ferent. Among the hypotheses that can be formulated to explain why this  
210 happens, the different reactivity of surface silanol groups on the two kinds  
211 of particles or the different accessibility of intraparticle space (during par-  
212 ticle functionalization) are the most likely. Particle porosity,  $\epsilon_p$ , was mea-  
213 sured as reported under SI.  $\epsilon_p$ , describing the fraction of empty pores per  
214 particle, is consistent with values of specific bonding density.

215 To investigate whether the different specific bonding density of chiral se-  
216 lector entails changes on the CSPs, the adsorption isotherms of the enan-  
217 tiomers of a probe compound, TSO, were measured under NP conditions.  
218 Measuring the isotherms is the only approach to characterize the surface  
219 in terms of adsorption sites and their abundance. This information, on the  
220 other hand, cannot be gathered through measurements performed under  
221 linear conditions (i.e., by means of retention factors) [28, 32, 41–45].

222 Isotherms were measured through IM. Different competitive adsorption  
223 models were considered, including the simplest Langmuir, the Bilangmuir  
224 and the Tóth isotherm. Based on the statistical evaluation of results ac-  
225 cording to Fisher’s test, IM has shown that the most suitable model to  
226 describe the separation of TSO enantiomers on Whelk-O1 CSPs is the Bi-  
227 langmuir isotherm for all MP compositions but 100% hexane (see later on).  
228 In Figure 1, overloaded profiles obtained through IM calculations with a  
229 Bilangmuir isotherm (continuous lines) are overlapped to experimental  
230 peaks (with points). As it can be seen, in all cases the agreement between  
231 experimental and calculated peaks is very consistent.

232 Table 2 lists the Bilangmuir isotherm parameters as a function of the per-  
233 centage of ethanol in MP (from 10 to 3%, v/v) for the three columns used  
234 in this work.

#### 235 4.1. 1.8 and 2.5 $\mu\text{m}$ FPPs

236 The first thing that can be observed by data in Table 2 is that both binding  
237 constants and saturation capacity on selective ( $q_{sel}$ ) and nonselective ( $q_{nssl}$ )  
238 sites are very similar on the columns packed with FPPs (FFP-2.5 and FFP-  
239 1.8). This is, therefore, consistent with the loading of chiral selector mea-  
240 sured through elemental analysis (see Table 1). On another viewpoint, it  
241 is a confirmation that preparation of Whelk-O1 CSPs, even when based  
242 on particles of very reduced dimensions, is a very reproducible and ro-  
243 bust process. Finally, it offers a sound thermodynamic explanation for the  
244 observation that not only retention (see  $k_1$  values on the third column of  
245 Table 3) but also selectivity (fourth column of the same Table) measured  
246 at the different MPs under linear conditions are essentially equal on the  
247 columns packed with FPPs. Following Fornstedt et al. [41, 42], selectivity  
248 measured through retention factors will be denoted by the symbol  $\alpha_{app}$ :

$$\alpha_{app} = \frac{k_2}{k_1} \quad (10)$$

249 where the subscript *app* serves to underline that, when measured this way,  
250 enantioselectivity comes from a combination of both selective and nonse-  
251 lective interactions. Therefore, it is an apparent value. On the other hand,  
252 the so-called “true” enantioselectivity ( $\alpha_{true}$ ), based only on enantioelec-  
253 tive contributions, can be estimated once isotherm parameters are known  
254 (see later on). For the sake of clarity, it is worth clarifying the use of the  
255 term “true” applied to the concept of liquid chiral separations on CSPs.  
256 As it was pointed out before, chemically modified (chiral) surfaces are  
257 intrinsically heterogeneous in terms of their morphology, chemical com-  
258 position and “solvation” status (which strongly depends on the mobile  
259 phase composition). SP and FP porous silica types, in addition, are dif-  
260 ferent and thus also the morphology of the modified silica surface. All of  
261 these variables/conditions may have an effect on an experimentally ob-  
262 served enantioselectivity. The word “true”, therefore, must not use be  
263 considered as an “absolute” concept. It merely describes, under specific  
264 conditions, the contribution of the stereoselective and non-stereoselective  
265 portfolio of “intermolecular” interactions taking place at the solvated and  
266 stereochemically modified silica surface with the chiral analytes.

267 4.1.1. The effect of the strong MP modifier amount on binding constant and sat-  
268 uration capacity. Excess isotherms

269 By considering how binding constants and saturation capacity change by  
270 changing the amount of ethanol (Table 2), some interesting features can  
271 be evidenced. Firstly, one may see that selective binding constants for the  
272 first eluted enantiomer ( $b_{1,sel}$ ) are essentially independent on the amount  
273 of ethanol (they are between 0.010 and 0.013 L/g). On the other hand,  
274 increasing ethanol percentage provokes a significant decreasing not only  
275 of the enantioselective binding of the more retained enantiomer ( $b_{2,sel}$  de-  
276 creases by almost 60% by moving from 3 to 10% ethanol, v/v in MP), but  
277 also of nonselective binding, even if to a smaller extent ( $b_{n,sel}$  decreases of  
278 about 35% for the same change in MP composition). The other interest-  
279 ing observation is about the behavior of saturation capacity with the per-  
280 centage of ethanol. Surprisingly, indeed saturation capacities of selective  
281 sites,  $q_{sel}$ , and of nonselective ones,  $q_{n,sel}$ , exhibit opposite trends. While  
282  $q_{sel}$  decreases by almost 30% by decreasing the percentage of ethanol in  
283 MP from 10 to 3% v/v (by roughly passing from 42 to 30 g/L),  $q_{n,sel}$  in-  
284 creases by roughly 10% (from about 98 to 110 g/L). Therefore, the overall  
285 effect on retention of selective sites is that, by increasing the amount of  
286 ethanol in MP, the Henry's constant of adsorption (see Eq. 7) of the first  
287 enantiomer ( $a_1 = q_{sel}b_{1,sel}$ ) slightly increases while that of the second one  
288 ( $a_2 = q_{sel}b_{2,sel}$ ) decreases. In addition, nonselective contributions lead to  
289 a decrease of retention due to the simultaneous reduction of both binding  
290 constant and saturation capacity. The combination of both selective and  
291 nonselective contributions leads to the trend observed in Figure 1 (see fig-  
292 ure caption for details), where retention decreases with increasing ethanol  
293 in MP.

294 Figure 2 reports the excess isotherm for ethanol/hexane binary mixtures  
295 on the three chiral CSPs employed in this work. Details on how excess  
296 isotherms were measured are given under SI. Excess isotherms allow to  
297 describe the preferential adsorption of ethanol on the stationary phase in  
298 function of the bulk MP composition. Basically, the interpretation of these  
299 plots reveals that the composition of the stationary phase can be consid-  
300 ered constant (and thus independent on the bulk MP composition) only  
301 when percentage of ethanol in MP exceeds 10-15% v/v (i.e., when excess  
302 isotherms decrease almost linearly with increasing ethanol amount). In  
303 this region, our understanding is that ethanol has saturated all polar sites  
304 on the surface. It is where a "true" NP chromatographic behavior is ef-  
305 fective and retention decreases – following the increase of the strong MP  
306 modifier – due to the increasing competition for adsorption on the po-

307 lar surface by MP modifier molecules [33, 46–49]. On the other hand, in  
308 the initial part of isotherms, the composition of stationary phase is not  
309 constant but changes with the amount of ethanol in MP. Herein more  
310 complex, so-called “mixed-mode” mechanisms can be active which can  
311 explain the observed features. Excess isotherms could therefore offer a  
312 thermodynamic-based interpretation to the behavior of binding constant  
313 and saturation capacity previously observed. Existence of mechanisms  
314 affecting retention in opposite ways can also be at the origin of the well  
315 known but little understood phenomenon in chiral liquid chromatogra-  
316 phy, that is the inversion of elution order of enantiomers by changing ei-  
317 ther MP composition or modifier [50–52].

#### 318 4.2. Comparison between FPPs and 2.6 $\mu\text{m}$ SPPs

319 The same general dependence of both saturation capacity and binding  
320 constant on the strong MP modifier has been observed also for the chiral  
321 SPPs, as shown by data in Table 2.

322 On the other hand, if one compares fully- and superficially-porous parti-  
323 cles at the same MP composition, it can be seen that SPPs are character-  
324 ized by larger selective and nonselective binding than FPPs. This there-  
325 fore seems to correlate with the specific loading of chiral selector, which is  
326 larger on SPPs than on FPPs (see Table 1).

327 This could be due to the fact that high selector loading may be responsi-  
328 ble, as expected, for an higher contribution of selective sites but, on the  
329 other hand, it could also lead to the formation of different structures of  
330 chiral selector bonded to the surface that can interact with enantiomers  
331 in different manners. This sort of clusters or aggregates between two or  
332 more chiral selectors could possibly behave also as nonselective sites. An-  
333 other hypothesis that can be made is about the existance of secondary in-  
334 teractions between enantiomers and chemical neighborhood of the chiral  
335 selector that can be different on FPPs or SPPs. However, it is difficult to  
336 predict what happens at a molecular level and which kinds of interactions  
337 can be involved. More physically-sound explanations can be deduced by  
338 performing more specific measurements (e.g. solid NMR) [53].

339 This finding is of remarkable interest when considering the employment of  
340 these particles in high-efficient ultrafast separations for which they have  
341 been originally designed. It is evident indeed that a larger binding con-  
342 stant provokes (on average) longer adsorption-desorption times, which  
343 negatively impacts on the  $c$ -term of the van Deemter equation [1, 2, 28].

344 The other interesting observation comes from the comparison of satura-  
345 tion capacities. It is evident, indeed, that they are significantly lower  
346 (roughly -40%) on superficially- than on fully-porous particles. It is worth

347 noting that saturation capacity values reported for SPPs are referred only  
348 to the porous zone of particles (see details under SI) so that, in principle,  
349 one should not expect this large difference. Therefore a possible explanation  
350 could be the significantly smaller particle porosity and the following  
351 reduced access to intraparticle volume, of SPPs than FPPs (Table 1).  
352 Data reported in Table 2, finally, allows also to calculate the so-called “true”  
353 enantioselectivity (see before) defined by [42]:

$$\alpha_{true} = \frac{b_{2,sel}}{b_{1,sel}} \quad (11)$$

354  $\alpha_{true}$  values are reported in Table 3 next to their corresponding  $\alpha_{app}$ s (see  
355 Eq. 10). It is interesting to observe that in all cases true enantioselectivity  
356 is larger on fully porous particles. This is due to the large binding constant  
357 of first eluted enantiomer on selective sites of SPPs, which is on average  
358 more than twice as large as that on FPPs.

#### 359 4.3. Adsorption equilibria with pure hexane

360 In the last part of this study the behavior of TSO enantiomers with a MP  
361 made of pure hexane has been investigated. As it was previously men-  
362 tioned, in this case the Bilangmuir model did not allow an accurate fitting  
363 of overloaded profiles. This means that an heterogeneous model based  
364 on the existence of only two different adsorption sites is not satisfactory  
365 to account for the heterogeneity of the surface when ethanol is not a MP  
366 component. As a matter of fact, the competitive adsorption by ethanol  
367 makes the surface “more homogenous” by masking the most polar sites  
368 of the surface. Figure 3 show the experimental overloaded band profiles  
369 (points) obtained on the three columns with pure hexane MP (see figure  
370 captions for more information). As it can be seen, especially for second  
371 eluted peaks, tailing is much more pronounced than with binary MPs (see  
372 Figure 3). In the same figures, continuous lines represent the overloaded  
373 peaks calculated by solving the IM by means of the Tóth isotherm (eq. 8),  
374 which assumes a continuous adsorption energy distribution function. Ta-  
375 ble 4 summarizes the isotherm parameters obtained in this case. Even if,  
376 from a theoretical viewpoint, the adsorption model used with pure hexane  
377 is very different from that employed with binary MPs, the main informa-  
378 tion derivable from these parameters is consistent with that obtained with  
379 the simpler Bilangmuir isotherm. First of all, indeed, isotherm parame-  
380 ters for the two CSPs made of FPPs are very close each other. In addi-  
381 tion, by comparing FPPs and SPPs, it can be observed that, for both enan-  
382 tiomers, binding constants are larger on SPPs, while saturation capacity is

383 smaller. This thus confirms the intrinsic difference between chiral fully-  
384 and superficially-porous Whelk-O1 particles.

## 385 **5. Conclusions**

386 The investigation of adsorption isotherms of enantiomers on new gener-  
387 ation CSPs is a fundamental tool for the deep characterization of the ad-  
388 sorption properties of these phases and possibly for finding correlations  
389 between their chemico-physical characteristics (bonding density of chi-  
390 ral selector, porosity, etc.) and thermodynamic quantities that directly af-  
391 fect the enantio-recognition process (such as binding constants on selective  
392 and nonselective sites, saturation capacity, adsorption energy distribution  
393 function, etc.).

394 This approach may help to investigate some very important unanswered  
395 questions such as whether chiral recognition process is the same on fully-  
396 or superficially-porous particles (functionalized with the same chiral selec-  
397 tor), how enantio-recognition changes by changing experimental variables  
398 (e.g. mobile phase composition), if and how loading of chiral selector af-  
399 fects enantio-recognition, etc.

400 Combined with studies on the efficiency of these CSPs and mass transfer  
401 through them, this information can help not only to understand the com-  
402 plexity of enantio-separations but also to drive further the development of  
403 particles, either fully- or superficially-porous, with enhanced kinetic and  
404 thermodynamic properties.

## 405 **6. Acknowledgements**

406 Authors acknowledge dr. Ercolina Bianchini of the University of Ferrara  
407 for technical support.



408 **7. Figures and Tables**

409 **Figure captions**

410 **Fig 1.** Experimental (empty circles) and calculated (full lines) overloaded  
411 profiles of TSO enantiomers on FPP-1.8 (top), FPP-2.5 (middle) and SPP-  
412 2.6 (bottom) columns measured at 90:10 (blue), 92:8 (red), 95:5 (green) and  
413 97:3 (yellow) % (v/v) of hexane/ethanol. Injected concentration: 40 g/L.

414 **Fig 2.** Excess adsorption isotherms on the three columns employed in this  
415 work (see text for details), expressed as excess volume of ethanol adsorbed  
416 on the stationary phase ( $V_{EtOH}^{exc}$ ) as a function of percentage (v/v) of EtOH  
417 (% EtOH) in the mobile phase. Experimental (full circles), fitted curves  
418 (full lines).

419 **Fig 3.** Experimental (empty circles) and calculated (full line) overloaded  
420 profiles of TSO enantiomers on FPP-1.8 (top), FPP-2.5 (middle) and SPP-  
421 2.6 (bottom) columns measured at 100% hexane MP. Injected concentra-  
422 tion: 40 g/L.

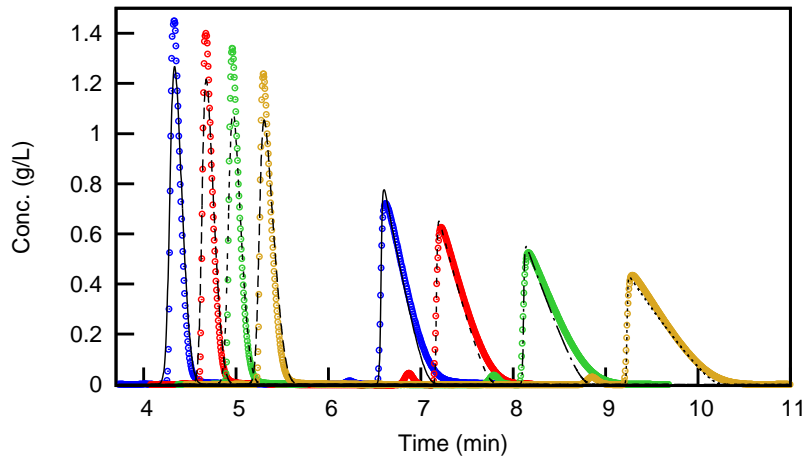
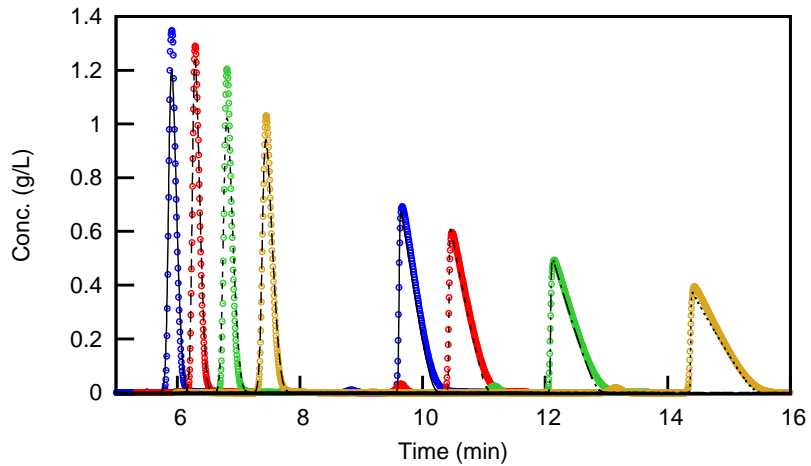
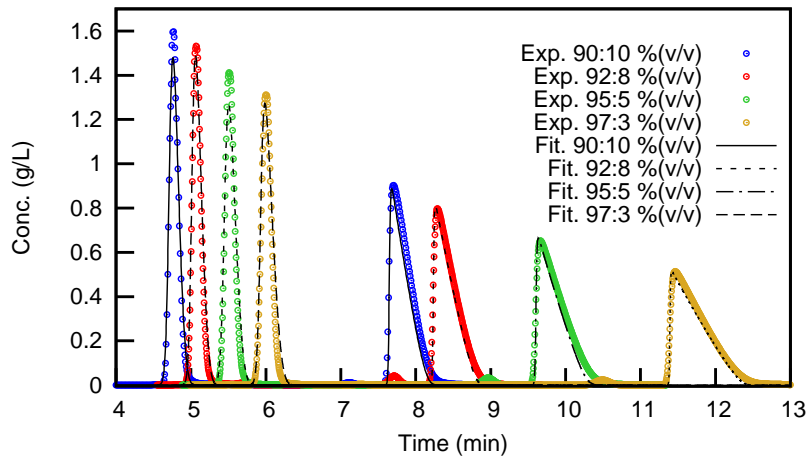


Figure 1:

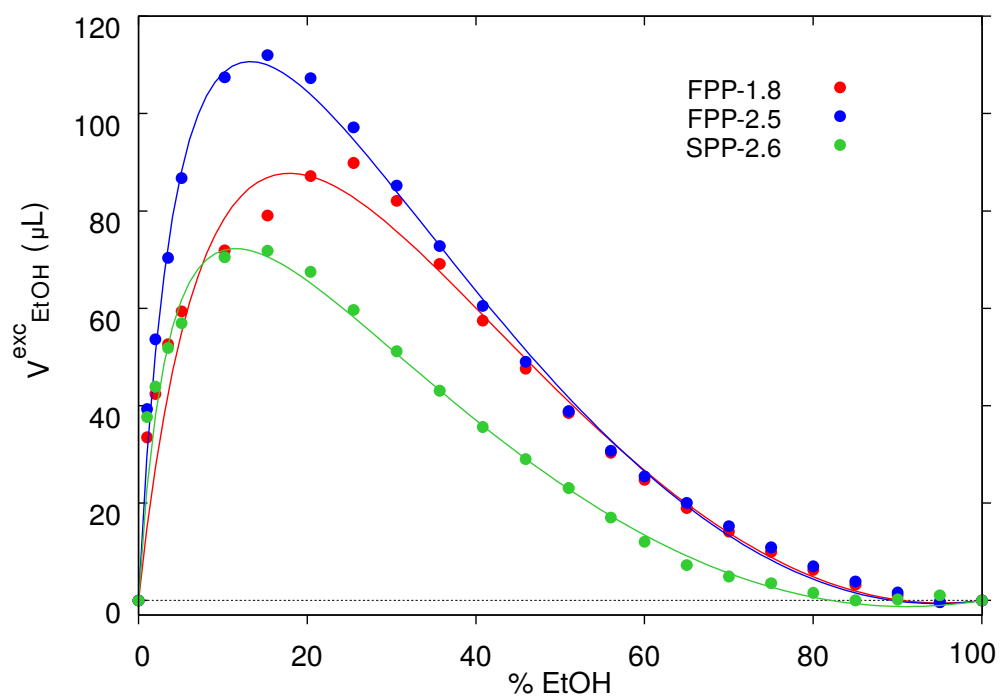


Figure 2:

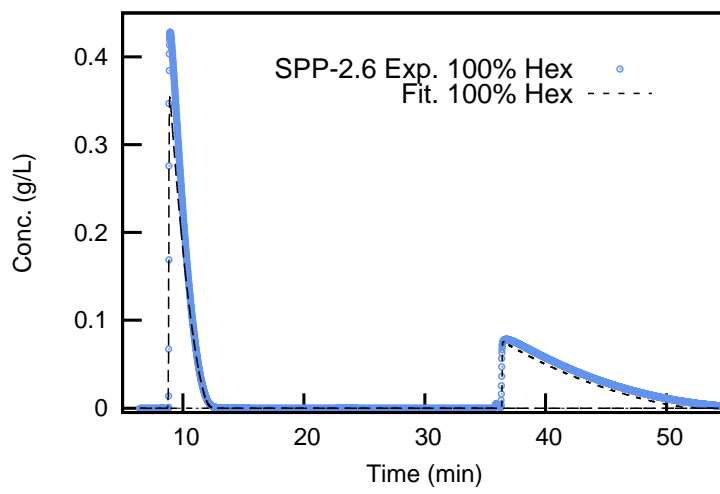
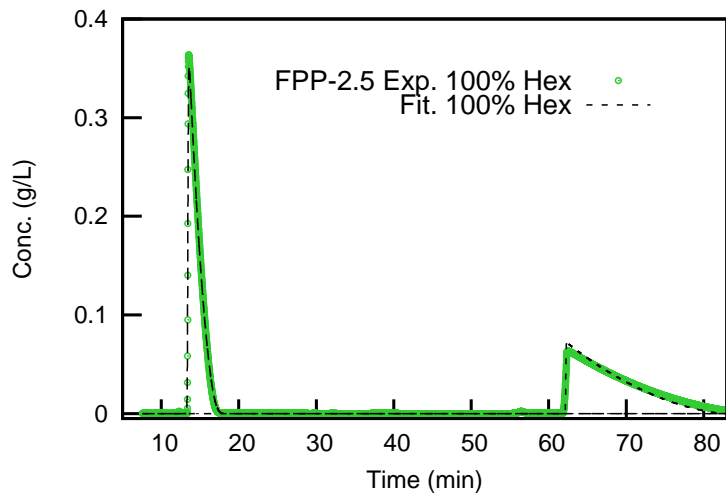
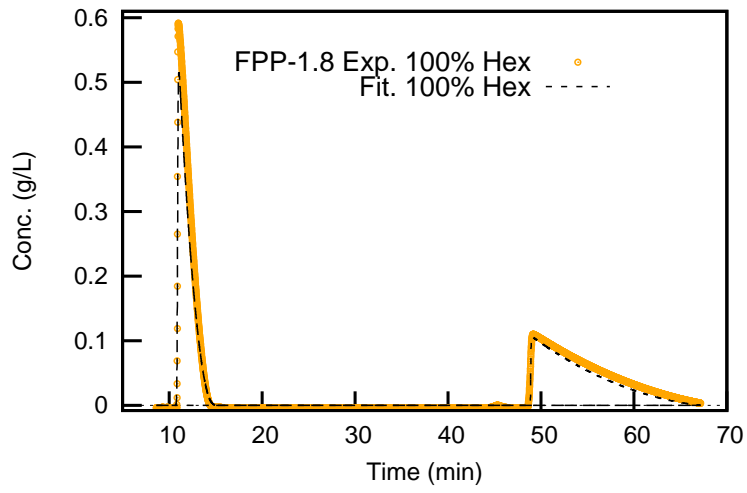


Figure 3:

Table 1: Acronyms of columns employed in this work and their dimensions (length times internal diameter). Chemico-physical characteristics of particles: base silica brand, particle diameter,  $d_p$ , specific surface area,  $A_s$ , pore size, bonding density (given both as  $\mu\text{mol}$  per gram of base silica and  $\mu\text{mol}$  per square meter) and particle porosity,  $\epsilon_p$ .

Column acronym	Dimensions (L×I.D., mm)	Silica brand	$d_p$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	$A_s$ ( $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$ )	Pore size ( $\text{\AA}$ )	Bonding density ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{g}$ ) ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2$ )		$\epsilon_p$
FPP-1.8	100×4.6	Kromasil	1.8	323	100	394.6	1.22	0.414
FPP-2.5	150×4.6	Kromasil	2.5	323	100	391.2	1.21	0.438
SPP-2.6	150×4.6	Accucore	2.6	130	80	189.8	1.46	0.251

Table 2: Bilangmuir isotherm parameters calculated through Inverse Method at different percentage of strong MP modifier

MP (% EtOH)	Column	Selective Site			Nonselective Site	
		$q_{sel}$ (g/L)	$b_{1,sel}$ (L/g)	$b_{2,sel}$ (L/g)	$q_{nselect}$ (g/L)	$b_{nselect}$ (L/g)
10	FPP-1.8	42	0.010	0.063	100	0.012
	FPP-2.5	42	0.011	0.071	96	0.013
	SPP-2.6	22	0.022	0.095	50	0.015
8	FPP-1.8	38	0.011	0.071	101	0.012
	FPP-2.5	41	0.013	0.082	102	0.013
	SPP-2.6	22	0.025	0.105	39	0.019
5	FPP-1.8	40	0.011	0.090	104	0.015
	FPP-2.5	36	0.011	0.111	105	0.017
	SPP-2.6	22	0.024	0.128	50	0.020
3	FPP-1.8	33	0.012	0.142	106	0.018
	FPP-2.5	30	0.013	0.170	108	0.020
	SPP-2.6	15	0.025	0.212	49	0.027

Table 3: Retention factor of first eluted enantiomer ( $k_1$ ) and apparent ( $\alpha_{app}$ ) and true ( $\alpha_{true}$ ) selectivity. See text for more details

Eluent (% EtOH)	Column	$k_1$	$\alpha_{app}$	$\alpha_{true}$
10	FPP-1.8	0.6	2.6	6.3
	FPP-2.5	0.7	2.5	6.4
	SPP-2.6	0.5	2.5	4.4
8	FPP-1.8	0.7	2.7	6.5
	FPP-2.5	0.8	2.7	6.3
	SPP-2.6	0.6	2.7	4.2
5	FPP-1.8	0.8	2.9	8.2
	FPP-2.5	0.9	2.8	10.0
	SPP-2.6	0.7	2.8	5.3
3	FPP-1.8	1.0	3.1	11.6
	FPP-2.5	1.0	3.0	13.2
	SPP-2.6	0.8	3.0	8.5

Table 4: Tóth isotherm parameters calculated through Inverse Method with a MP made of pure hexane

Column	$q_s$ (g/L)	$b_1$ (L/g)	$b_2$ (L/g)	$\nu$
FPP-1.8	94	0.110	0.589	0.71
FPP-2.5	96	0.128	0.697	0.71
SPP-2.6	30	0.289	1.425	0.81

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## Highlights

- Adsorption mechanism was studied on superficially- and fully porous- chiral stationary phases.
- Saturation capacity of chiral core-shell particles is lower than that of fully porous ones.
- Binding constants are larger on superficially porous particles than on fully porous ones.
- Binding constants could be dependent from specific loading of chiral selector.
- Strong mobile phase modifier affects selective and nonselective Henry's constants differently.

# On the effect of chiral selector loading and mobile phase composition on adsorption properties of latest generation fully- and superficially-porous Whelk-O1 particles for high-efficient ultrafast enantioseparations

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## Abstract

The adsorption isotherms of *trans*-stilbene oxide (TSO) enantiomers have been measured under a variety of normal phase (NP) mobile phases (MPs) on three Whelk-O1 chiral stationary phases (CSPs), prepared respectively on 1.8  $\mu\text{m}$  and 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$  fully porous particles (FPPs) and 2.6  $\mu\text{m}$  superficially porous particles (SPPs). Specific loading of chiral selector (moles per square meter) of the two FPPs was about 20% smaller than that of SPPs (even if they were prepared under exactly the same experimental conditions).

Regardless of particle size or format, adsorption was described by means of a Bilangmuir model with ethanol/hexane MPs. On the other hand, in pure hexane, the Tóth isotherm was employed. Interestingly, it was found that selective and nonselective Henry's constants vary in opposite directions by increasing the percentage of strong MP modifier (between 3 and 10%, v/v). Saturation capacity of SPPs (referred only to the porous zone of the particle) was remarkably smaller than those of FPPs. On the other hand, binding constants on both selective and nonselective sites were sig-

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nificantly larger on SPPs. Finally, a correlation between the specific loading of chiral selector and the binding constants of enantiomers was suggested by data, which can be important also to understand the kinetic behavior of these particles in chiral ultrafast applications.

*Keywords:* Chiral Stationary Phases; Whelk-O1 selector; Superficially Porous Particles; Sub-2 $\mu$ m Fully Porous Particles; Adsorption Isotherms.

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## 1. Introduction

The design and development of high efficient particles, either sub-2 $\mu$ m fully porous (FPPs) [1–3] or (second-generation) superficially porous (SPPs) ones [4–12], functionalized with chiral selectors, have represented the most important innovation in the last decade in the field of chiral separations by liquid chromatography. Not only have they allowed for the preparation of packed columns with extraordinary kinetic performance – altogether comparable to that of typical reversed-phase (RP) achiral separations [13–15]– but they also have permitted to decrease the analysis time by up to three orders of magnitude (from tenths of minutes to fractions of seconds) [1–5, 12–14, 16–20].

Many remarkable examples showing the very large potential of new generation particles towards high-efficient ultrafast (sub-seconds) enantioseparations have been published [1–12]. Essentially, in all of these studies the key has been to use very short prototype columns (either 10 or even 5 mm long) operated at the maximum flow rate allowed by the equipment (between 5 and 8 mL/min depending on the brand of the instrument). At very large flow rates, the so-called mass transfer term, or *c*-term, of the van Deemter equation dominates over the other mechanisms of band broadening (longitudinal diffusion and eddy dispersion). Differently from what happens in RP achiral chromatography, in chiral chromatography this term accounts not only for diffusion of molecules through the particles of the packed bed (where flow is absent) but also for the adsorption-desorption kinetics. Adsorption-desorption kinetics is negligible in RP achiral chromatography unless very large molecules (such as proteins or large polypeptides) are considered. It has been indeed demonstrated that for small molecules adsorption-desorption is very fast ([21, 22]). On the opposite, the enantiorecognition process can be slow, even if the extent largely depends on the type of chiral selector employed. For instance, it is generally accepted that brush-type chiral selectors, such as the Whelk-O1 type, are “fast” while other kinds of selectors, including macrocyclic glycopeptides and polysaccharides, are “slow”. This information basi-



33 cally comes from molecular spectroscopic investigation (firstly, by NMR).  
34 Therefore, it is not unusual that experimental conditions under which it  
35 was obtained can be significantly different from those typical of liquid  
36 chromatography. Not just because spectroscopic measurements are (very  
37 often) performed in homogeneous systems, where both chiral selectors  
38 and analytes are in solution, but also since solvents employed in these  
39 measurements can be very different from typical eluents used in liquid  
40 chromatography. Thus, these measurements does not account for the ef-  
41 fect of several variables that may affect chiral recognition in heterogenous  
42 systems (i.e., when the chiral selector is tethered to the surface), such as  
43 the chemical composition of the surface around chiral selector, the surface  
44 density of chiral selector, pore size and morphology, their accessibility, the  
45 competitive effect for adsorption by so-called strong mobile phase (MP)  
46 modifiers, etc.

47 For the reasons explained above, however, these considerations assume  
48 great importance for latest generation sub-2 $\mu\text{m}$  fully porous and second-  
49 generation superficially porous particles. This is particularly so when one  
50 wants to compare superficially- and fully-porous particles (functionalized  
51 with the same chiral selector) in terms of kinetic performance. The common  
52 reasoning [8, 23–27] about the alleged superiority, in terms of efficiency, of  
53 the former type of particles over their fully porous counterpart is based on  
54 the same considerations employed in achiral RP chromatography, namely  
55 that eddy dispersion, longitudinal diffusion and solid-liquid mass transfer  
56 are smaller on chiral SPPs than on FPPs. Therefore, these conclusions ei-  
57 ther completely neglect the role of adsorption-desorption kinetics or they  
58 implicitly assume that adsorption-desorption kinetics is identical on both  
59 kinds of particles. On the other hand, many authors report that functional-  
60 ization of SPPs and FPPs systematically leads to different specific loading,  
61 or density ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2$ ) of chiral selectors on the two types of particles, even  
62 if their chemical modification is performed under exactly the same exper-  
63 imental conditions [1, 5, 8, 11, 13].

64 With the purpose of shedding light on some of these aspects, in this work  
65 the adsorption isotherms of *trans*-stilbene oxide (TSO) enantiomers have  
66 been measured under normal phase (NP) conditions on three different  
67 Whelk-O1 chiral stationary phases (CSPs). Two of them were prepared  
68 on FPPs (2.5 and 1.8  $\mu\text{m}$  particle diameter, respectively) and the other one  
69 on 2.6  $\mu\text{m}$  SPPs [1, 13]. The investigation of adsorption isotherms is fun-  
70 damental not only to characterize surface heterogeneity (in terms of ad-  
71 sorption energy distribution) but also to investigate if, e.g., the bonding  
72 density has an effect on the binding constants of enantiomers and enan-  
73 tioselectivity of CSPs. In addition, since adsorption-desorption kinetics

74 is strongly influenced by thermodynamic equilibria [28], this information  
 75 can also be useful to understand the chromatographic behavior of fully-  
 76 and superficially-porous particles at high flow rates [1, 2, 29–31].

## 77 2. Theory

78 The equilibrium-dispersive (ED) model has often been used to describe  
 79 chromatographic separations characterized by efficient mass transfer [28].  
 80 In this model, instantaneous equilibrium between mobile (MP) and sta-  
 81 tionary phase (SP) is assumed. Since both thermodynamics of phase equi-  
 82 libria and mass transfer kinetics change with experimental conditions, the  
 83 only parameter that is conserved during a chromatographic separation (in  
 84 absence of chemical reaction) is the mass of the injected sample. Therefore,  
 85 a differential mass balance equation can be written that, for the ED model,  
 86 includes an apparent lumped dispersion term ( $D_a$ ) accounting for all the  
 87 contributions to band broadening observed in linear chromatography:

$$\frac{\partial C_i}{\partial t} + F \frac{\partial q_i}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial C_i}{\partial z} = D_{a,i} \frac{\partial^2 C_i}{\partial z^2} \quad (1)$$

88 where the index  $i$  indicates  $i$ th component of the system. In this equation,  
 89  $C_i$  and  $q_i$  are the concentrations of analyte in MP and SP, respectively,  $t$   
 90 represents the temporal coordinate and  $z$  the spatial one. Finally,  $u$  is the  
 91 MP linear velocity and  $F$  the phase ratio:

$$F = \frac{1 - \epsilon_t}{\epsilon_t} \quad (2)$$

92 being  $\epsilon_t$  the total porosity of the packed bed given by the ratio between the  
 93 hold-up,  $V_0$ , and the geometric volume,  $V_{col}$ , of the column. The apparent  
 94 dispersion coefficient is calculated through the efficiency of the chromato-  
 95 graphic peak under analytical conditions:

$$D_{a,i} = \frac{uL}{2N_i} \quad (3)$$

96 where  $N$  is the number of theoretical plates and  $L$  the column length. In  
 97 the case of enantiomeric separations ( $i = 1, 2$ ), the system will be described  
 98 by two partial differential equations, which are coupled through a competi-  
 99 tive isotherm equation,  $q_i = f(C_1, C_2)$  (see later on).

100 *2.1. Inverse Method for determination of isotherms*

101 The direct numerical resolution of the system of mass balance equations  
102 requires the knowledge of the isotherm. This can be, for instance, eval-  
103 uated through (competitive) frontal analysis. Contrary, in the so-called  
104 Inverse Method (IM) [32–34], isotherm parameters are derived through  
105 a procedure based on the iterative resolution of system of mass balance  
106 equations (once an isotherm model has been chosen). Isotherm param-  
107 eters are calculated by minimizing the differences between experimental  
108 and calculated chromatograms. Schematically, IM requires the following  
109 steps: i) recording of some experimental overloaded profiles; ii) selection  
110 of an isotherm model (the shape of overloaded profiles guides this process  
111 [28]) and guess of initial parameters; iii) resolution of system of mass bal-  
112 ance equations with the adsorption isotherm just selected (to get a calcu-  
113 lated chromatogram); iv) comparison between calculated overloaded pro-  
114 files and experimental ones; v) tuning of isotherm parameters until cal-  
115 culated and experimental profiles match as much as possible. Numerical  
116 optimization of isotherm parameters was made by means of the super-  
117 modified simplex method described in [32, 35].

118 To solve the system of mass balance equations, obviously proper initial  
119 and boundary conditions must be defined. In this work, the following  
120 initial

$$C_i(z, t = 0) = 0 \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (4)$$

121 and boundary

$$C_i(z = 0, t) = \begin{cases} C_{i,0} & 0 \leq t \leq t_{inj} \\ 0 & t > t_{inj} \end{cases} \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (5)$$

122 conditions were taken describing, respectively, that at  $t = 0$  the column  
123 is equilibrated with pure eluent (Eq. 4) and that the injection profile is a  
124 rectangular pulse of concentration  $C_{i,0}$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ) during the injection time,  
125  $t_{inj}$  (Eq. 5).

126 *2.2. Isotherm models*

127 *2.2.1. Langmuir isotherm*

128 The Langmuir model is the most frequently used to describe adsorption  
129 in liquid chromatography. Based on the Langmuir model, the adsorption  
130 surface is assumed to be paved by only one type of adsorption sites (ho-  
131 mogeneous adsorption). In addition, adsorption is monolayer and no lat-  
132 eral interactions between adsorbed molecules are possible. In the case the

133 Langmuir isotherm is used to model chiral separations, not only it is as-  
 134 sumed that nonselective interactions have a negligible contribution to re-  
 135 tention of enantiomers but also that energies of all possible enantioelec-  
 136 tive interactions are close enough that they can be averaged. Accordingly,  
 137 a single adsorption energy and a single adsorption constant can be de-  
 138 fined, which characterize all adsorption sites on the surface. (Obviously,  
 139 average energies and constants are different for the two enantiomers).  
 140 The competitive Langmuir model applied to the separation of two enan-  
 141 tiomers (denoted hereafter 1 and 2) is written as:

$$q_i = \frac{q_s b_i c_i}{1 + b_1 c_1 + b_2 c_2} \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (6)$$

142 where  $q_s$  is the saturation capacity (equal for both enantiomers [28]) and  $b_i$   
 143 is the adsorption equilibrium (binding) constant. The product between  $q_s$   
 144 and  $b_i$  defines the so-called Henry's constant of adsorption,  $a_i$  (that is the  
 145 initial slope of the isotherm). Retention factor (under linear condition),  $k$ ,  
 146 and Henry's constant are connected by:

$$k = \frac{t_R - t_0}{t_0} = aF \quad (7)$$

147 where  $t_R$  and  $t_0$  are respectively the retention and hold-up time measured  
 148 under linear conditions.

### 149 2.2.2. *Tóth isotherm*

150 This isotherm describes heterogeneous adsorption. In particular, it as-  
 151 sumes a continuous and possibly wide adsorption energy distribution.  
 152 Width depends on the value of the so-called heterogeneity parameter,  $\nu$   
 153 ( $0 < \nu < 1$ ). The smaller  $\nu$  the wider the adsorption energy distribution  
 154 function. For binary competitive systems, the Tóth isotherm is:

$$q_i = \frac{q_s b_i c_i}{[1 + (b_1 c_1 + b_2 c_2)^\nu]^{1/\nu}} \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (8)$$

### 155 2.2.3. *Bilangmuir isotherm*

156 The Bilangmuir model, finally, accounts for a bimodal adsorption energy  
 157 distribution due to the presence of two different adsorption sites that,  
 158 in case of chiral separations, are considered selective (responsible for di-  
 159 astereomeric or enantioselective interactions) and nonselective (where both  
 160 enantiomers behave identically) [36]. This model has been often success-  
 161 fully applied to describe adsorption processes of enantiomers on CSPs

162 [32, 37, 38]. The competitive 2-component adsorption isotherm is:

$$q_i = \frac{q_{sel} b_{i,sel} c_i}{1 + b_{1,sel} c_1 + b_{2,sel} c_2} + \frac{q_{nrel} b_{nrel} c_i}{1 + b_{nrel} (c_1 + c_2)} \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (9)$$

163 where subscripts *sel* and *nrel* refer to selective and nonselective sites, re-  
164 spectively [28, 32, 39, 40].

### 165 3. Materials and methods

#### 166 3.1. Columns and materials

167 All solvents and reagents were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis,  
168 MI, USA). Kromasil fully porous silica particles (2.5 and 1.8  $\mu\text{m}$  particle  
169 size, 100  $\text{\AA}$  pore size, 323  $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$  specific surface area) were from Akzo-  
170 Nobel (Bohus, Sweden). Accucore second-generation superficially porous  
171 silica particles (2.6  $\mu\text{m}$ , 80  $\text{\AA}$  pore size, 130  $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$  specific surface area, ra-  
172 dius of core over particle radius,  $\rho = 0.63$ ) were from Thermo Fisher Sci-  
173 entific (Waltham, MA, USA). Whelk-O1 selector was generously donated  
174 by Regis Technologies Inc. (Morton Grove, IL, USA). Synthesis and prepa-  
175 ration of Whelk-O1 CSPs are reported in Ref. [1]. 100 and 150  $\text{mm} \times 4.6$   
176  $\text{mm}$  empty stainless steel columns were from IsoBar Systems by Idex (Er-  
177 langen, Germany).

#### 178 3.2. Equipment

179 All measurements were performed on an Agilent 1100 Series Capillary LC  
180 system equipped with a binary solvent pump, a column thermostat and a  
181 photodiode array detector. An external manual injector (Rheodyne 8125,  
182 equipped with either 5 or 50  $\mu\text{L}$  fixed-loops) was used for sample injec-  
183 tions. Detector calibration was performed by sequentially injecting 50  $\mu\text{L}$   
184 TSO racemic solutions (concentration from 0.05  $\text{g}/\text{l}$  to 5  $\text{g}/\text{L}$ ) without the  
185 column. This volume was large enough to observe concentration plateau.  
186 Wavelength: 280 nm.

#### 187 3.3. Experimental conditions

188 Adsorption isotherms were measured at five different hexane/ethanol MP  
189 compositions: 90/10, 92/8, 95/5, 97/3 and 100/0, % v/v. Temperature  
190 was 35°C. TSO racemic mixture injected concentrations were: 3, 10, 20, 40,  
191 50  $\text{g}/\text{L}$ . Injection volume was 5  $\mu\text{L}$ .

## 192 4. Results and discussion

193 Table 1 reports some of the physico-chemical characteristics of particles  
194 and columns employed in this work [1, 2, 30]. Fully porous particles  
195 were used to prepare the columns named FPP-1.8 and FPP-2.5; the col-  
196 umn called SPP-2.6 was packed with core-shell particles (see Table 1). In-  
197 formation on particle diameter, specific surface area and pore size comes  
198 from manufacturers. Bonding density was determined through elemental  
199 analysis (more information under SI). As expected, bonding densities  
200 per gram of base silica are larger on FPPs (for which essentially the same  
201 value was obtained regardless of particle size) than on SPPs. On the other  
202 hand, specific bonding density ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2$ ) is significantly larger (by al-  
203 most 20%) on SPPs than that of FPPs. This last finding has been observed  
204 also with other chiral selectors [13] and by other authors [5, 8]. How-  
205 ever, in other cases [7] the opposite was reported so that no generaliza-  
206 tion can be made. It is worth noting that functionalization of both SPPs  
207 and FPPs was performed under identical experimental conditions (and  
208 repeated several times). Nevertheless, specific bonding density was dif-  
209 ferent. Among the hypotheses that can be formulated to explain why this  
210 happens, the different reactivity of surface silanol groups on the two kinds  
211 of particles or the different accessibility of intraparticle space (during par-  
212 ticle functionalization) are the most likely. Particle porosity,  $\epsilon_p$ , was mea-  
213 sured as reported under SI.  $\epsilon_p$ , describing the fraction of empty pores per  
214 particle, is consistent with values of specific bonding density.

215 To investigate whether the different specific bonding density of chiral se-  
216 lector entails changes on the CSPs, the adsorption isotherms of the enan-  
217 tiomers of a probe compound, TSO, were measured under NP conditions.  
218 Measuring the isotherms is the only approach to characterize the surface  
219 in terms of adsorption sites and their abundance. This information, on the  
220 other hand, cannot be gathered through measurements performed under  
221 linear conditions (i.e., by means of retention factors) [28, 32, 41–45].

222 Isotherms were measured through IM. Different competitive adsorption  
223 models were considered, including the simplest Langmuir, the Bilangmuir  
224 and the Tóth isotherm. Based on the statistical evaluation of results ac-  
225 cording to Fisher’s test, IM has shown that the most suitable model to  
226 describe the separation of TSO enantiomers on Whelk-O1 CSPs is the Bi-  
227 langmuir isotherm for all MP compositions but 100% hexane (see later on).  
228 In Figure 1, overloaded profiles obtained through IM calculations with a  
229 Bilangmuir isotherm (continuous lines) are overlapped to experimental  
230 peaks (with points). As it can be seen, in all cases the agreement between  
231 experimental and calculated peaks is very consistent.

232 Table 2 lists the Bilangmuir isotherm parameters as a function of the per-  
233 centage of ethanol in MP (from 10 to 3%, v/v) for the three columns used  
234 in this work.

#### 235 4.1. 1.8 and 2.5 $\mu\text{m}$ FPPs

236 The first thing that can be observed by data in Table 2 is that both binding  
237 constants and saturation capacity on selective ( $q_{sel}$ ) and nonselective ( $q_{nssl}$ )  
238 sites are very similar on the columns packed with FPPs (FFP-2.5 and FFP-  
239 1.8). This is, therefore, consistent with the loading of chiral selector mea-  
240 sured through elemental analysis (see Table 1). On another viewpoint, it  
241 is a confirmation that preparation of Whelk-O1 CSPs, even when based  
242 on particles of very reduced dimensions, is a very reproducible and ro-  
243 bust process. Finally, it offers a sound thermodynamic explanation for the  
244 observation that not only retention (see  $k_1$  values on the third column of  
245 Table 3) but also selectivity (fourth column of the same Table) measured  
246 at the different MPs under linear conditions are essentially equal on the  
247 columns packed with FPPs. Following Fornstedt et al. [41, 42], selectivity  
248 measured through retention factors will be denoted by the symbol  $\alpha_{app}$ :

$$\alpha_{app} = \frac{k_2}{k_1} \quad (10)$$

249 where the subscript *app* serves to underline that, when measured this way,  
250 enantioselectivity comes from a combination of both selective and nonse-  
251 lective interactions. Therefore, it is an apparent value. On the other hand,  
252 the so-called “true” enantioselectivity ( $\alpha_{true}$ ), based only on enantioelec-  
253 tive contributions, can be estimated once isotherm parameters are known  
254 (see later on). For the sake of clarity, it is worth clarifying the use of the  
255 term “true” applied to the concept of liquid chiral separations on CSPs.  
256 As it was pointed out before, chemically modified (chiral) surfaces are  
257 intrinsically heterogeneous in terms of their morphology, chemical com-  
258 position and “solvation” status (which strongly depends on the mobile  
259 phase composition). SP and FP porous silica types, in addition, are dif-  
260 ferent and thus also the morphology of the modified silica surface. All of  
261 these variables/conditions may have an effect on an experimentally ob-  
262 served enantioselectivity. The word “true”, therefore, must not use be  
263 considered as an “absolute” concept. It merely describes, under specific  
264 conditions, the contribution of the stereoselective and non-stereoselective  
265 portfolio of “intermolecular” interactions taking place at the solvated and  
266 stereochemically modified silica surface with the chiral analytes.

267 4.1.1. *The effect of the strong MP modifier amount on binding constant and sat-*  
268 *uration capacity. Excess isotherms*

269 By considering how binding constants and saturation capacity change by  
270 changing the amount of ethanol (Table 2), some interesting features can  
271 be evidenced. Firstly, one may see that selective binding constants for the  
272 first eluted enantiomer ( $b_{1,sel}$ ) are essentially independent on the amount  
273 of ethanol (they are between 0.010 and 0.013 L/g). On the other hand,  
274 increasing ethanol percentage provokes a significant decreasing not only  
275 of the enantioselective binding of the more retained enantiomer ( $b_{2,sel}$  de-  
276 creases by almost 60% by moving from 3 to 10% ethanol, v/v in MP), but  
277 also of nonselective binding, even if to a smaller extent ( $b_{nsel}$  decreases of  
278 about 35% for the same change in MP composition). The other interest-  
279 ing observation is about the behavior of saturation capacity with the per-  
280 centage of ethanol. Surprisingly, indeed saturation capacities of selective  
281 sites,  $q_{sel}$ , and of nonselective ones,  $q_{nsel}$ , exhibit opposite trends. While  
282  $q_{sel}$  decreases by almost 30% by decreasing the percentage of ethanol in  
283 MP from 10 to 3% v/v (by roughly passing from 42 to 30 g/L),  $q_{nsel}$  in-  
284 creases by roughly 10% (from about 98 to 110 g/L). Therefore, the overall  
285 effect on retention of selective sites is that, by increasing the amount of  
286 ethanol in MP, the Henry's constant of adsorption (see Eq. 7) of the first  
287 enantiomer ( $a_1 = q_{sel}b_{1,sel}$ ) slightly increases while that of the second one  
288 ( $a_2 = q_{sel}b_{2,sel}$ ) decreases. In addition, nonselective contributions lead to  
289 a decrease of retention due to the simultaneous reduction of both binding  
290 constant and saturation capacity. The combination of both selective and  
291 nonselective contributions leads to the trend observed in Figure 1 (see fig-  
292 ure caption for details), where retention decreases with increasing ethanol  
293 in MP.

294 Figure 2 reports the excess isotherm for ethanol/hexane binary mixtures  
295 on the three chiral CSPs employed in this work. Details on how excess  
296 isotherms were measured are given under SI. Excess isotherms allow to  
297 describe the preferential adsorption of ethanol on the stationary phase in  
298 function of the bulk MP composition. Basically, the interpretation of these  
299 plots reveals that the composition of the stationary phase can be consid-  
300 ered constant (and thus independent on the bulk MP composition) only  
301 when percentage of ethanol in MP exceeds 10-15% v/v (i.e., when excess  
302 isotherms decrease almost linearly with increasing ethanol amount). In  
303 this region, our understanding is that ethanol has saturated all polar sites  
304 on the surface. It is where a "true" NP chromatographic behavior is ef-  
305 fective and retention decreases – following the increase of the strong MP  
306 modifier – due to the increasing competition for adsorption on the po-



307 lar surface by MP modifier molecules [33, 46–49]. On the other hand, in  
308 the initial part of isotherms, the composition of stationary phase is not  
309 constant but changes with the amount of ethanol in MP. Herein more  
310 complex, so-called “mixed-mode” mechanisms can be active which can  
311 explain the observed features. Excess isotherms could therefore offer a  
312 thermodynamic-based interpretation to the behavior of binding constant  
313 and saturation capacity previously observed. Existence of mechanisms  
314 affecting retention in opposite ways can also be at the origin of the well  
315 known but little understood phenomenon in chiral liquid chromatogra-  
316 phy, that is the inversion of elution order of enantiomers by changing ei-  
317 ther MP composition or modifier [50–52].

#### 318 4.2. Comparison between FPPs and 2.6 $\mu\text{m}$ SPPs

319 The same general dependence of both saturation capacity and binding  
320 constant on the strong MP modifier has been observed also for the chiral  
321 SPPs, as shown by data in Table 2.

322 On the other hand, if one compares fully- and superficially-porous parti-  
323 cles at the same MP composition, it can be seen that SPPs are character-  
324 ized by larger selective and nonselective binding than FPPs. This there-  
325 fore seems to correlate with the specific loading of chiral selector, which is  
326 larger on SPPs than on FPPs (see Table 1).

327 This could be due to the fact that high selector loading may be responsi-  
328 ble, as expected, for an higher contribution of selective sites but, on the  
329 other hand, it could also lead to the formation of different structures of  
330 chiral selector bonded to the surface that can interact with enantiomers  
331 in different manners. This sort of clusters or aggregates between two or  
332 more chiral selectors could possibly behave also as nonselective sites. An-  
333 other hypothesis that can be made is about the existance of secondary in-  
334 teractions between enantiomers and chemical neighborhood of the chiral  
335 selector that can be different on FPPs or SPPs. However, it is difficult to  
336 predict what happens at a molecular level and which kinds of interactions  
337 can be involved. More physically-sound explanations can be deduced by  
338 performing more specific measurements (e.g. solid NMR) [53].

339 This finding is of remarkable interest when considering the employment of  
340 these particles in high-efficient ultrafast separations for which they have  
341 been originally designed. It is evident indeed that a larger binding con-  
342 stant provokes (on average) longer adsorption-desorption times, which  
343 negatively impacts on the  $c$ -term of the van Deemter equation [1, 2, 28].

344 The other interesting observation comes from the comparison of satura-  
345 tion capacities. It is evident, indeed, that they are significantly lower  
346 (roughly -40%) on superficially- than on fully-porous particles. It is worth

347 noting that saturation capacity values reported for SPPs are referred only  
348 to the porous zone of particles (see details under SI) so that, in principle,  
349 one should not expect this large difference. Therefore a possible explanation  
350 could be the significantly smaller particle porosity and the following  
351 reduced access to intraparticle volume, of SPPs than FPPs (Table 1).  
352 Data reported in Table 2, finally, allows also to calculate the so-called “true”  
353 enantioselectivity (see before) defined by [42]:

$$\alpha_{true} = \frac{b_{2,sel}}{b_{1,sel}} \quad (11)$$

354  $\alpha_{true}$  values are reported in Table 3 next to their corresponding  $\alpha_{app}$ s (see  
355 Eq. 10). It is interesting to observe that in all cases true enantioselectivity  
356 is larger on fully porous particles. This is due to the large binding constant  
357 of first eluted enantiomer on selective sites of SPPs, which is on average  
358 more than twice as large as that on FPPs.

#### 359 4.3. Adsorption equilibria with pure hexane

360 In the last part of this study the behavior of TSO enantiomers with a MP  
361 made of pure hexane has been investigated. As it was previously men-  
362 tioned, in this case the Bilangmuir model did not allow an accurate fitting  
363 of overloaded profiles. This means that an heterogeneous model based  
364 on the existence of only two different adsorption sites is not satisfactory  
365 to account for the heterogeneity of the surface when ethanol is not a MP  
366 component. As a matter of fact, the competitive adsorption by ethanol  
367 makes the surface “more homogenous” by masking the most polar sites  
368 of the surface. Figure 3 show the experimental overloaded band profiles  
369 (points) obtained on the three columns with pure hexane MP (see figure  
370 captions for more information). As it can be seen, especially for second  
371 eluted peaks, tailing is much more pronounced than with binary MPs (see  
372 Figure 3). In the same figures, continuous lines represent the overloaded  
373 peaks calculated by solving the IM by means of the Tóth isotherm (eq. 8),  
374 which assumes a continuous adsorption energy distribution function. Ta-  
375 ble 4 summarizes the isotherm parameters obtained in this case. Even if,  
376 from a theoretical viewpoint, the adsorption model used with pure hexane  
377 is very different from that employed with binary MPs, the main informa-  
378 tion derivable from these parameters is consistent with that obtained with  
379 the simpler Bilangmuir isotherm. First of all, indeed, isotherm parame-  
380 ters for the two CSPs made of FPPs are very close each other. In addi-  
381 tion, by comparing FPPs and SPPs, it can be observed that, for both enan-  
382 tiomers, binding constants are larger on SPPs, while saturation capacity is

383 smaller. This thus confirms the intrinsic difference between chiral fully-  
384 and superficially-porous Whelk-O1 particles.

## 385 **5. Conclusions**

386 The investigation of adsorption isotherms of enantiomers on new gener-  
387 ation CSPs is a fundamental tool for the deep characterization of the ad-  
388 sorption properties of these phases and possibly for finding correlations  
389 between their chemico-physical characteristics (bonding density of chi-  
390 ral selector, porosity, etc.) and thermodynamic quantities that directly af-  
391 fect the enantio-recognition process (such as binding constants on selective  
392 and nonselective sites, saturation capacity, adsorption energy distribution  
393 function, etc.).

394 This approach may help to investigate some very important unanswered  
395 questions such as whether chiral recognition process is the same on fully-  
396 or superficially-porous particles (functionalized with the same chiral selec-  
397 tor), how enantio-recognition changes by changing experimental variables  
398 (e.g. mobile phase composition), if and how loading of chiral selector af-  
399 fects enantio-recognition, etc.

400 Combined with studies on the efficiency of these CSPs and mass transfer  
401 through them, this information can help not only to understand the com-  
402 plexity of enantio-separations but also to drive further the development of  
403 particles, either fully- or superficially-porous, with enhanced kinetic and  
404 thermodynamic properties.

## 405 **6. Acknowledgements**

406 Authors acknowledge dr. Ercolina Bianchini of the University of Ferrara  
407 for technical support.

408 **7. Figures and Tables**

409 **Figure captions**

410 **Fig 1.** Experimental (empty circles) and calculated (full lines) overloaded  
411 profiles of TSO enantiomers on FPP-1.8 (top), FPP-2.5 (middle) and SPP-  
412 2.6 (bottom) columns measured at 90:10 (blue), 92:8 (red), 95:5 (green) and  
413 97:3 (yellow) % (v/v) of hexane/ethanol. Injected concentration: 40 g/L.

414 **Fig 2.** Excess adsorption isotherms on the three columns employed in this  
415 work (see text for details), expressed as excess volume of ethanol adsorbed  
416 on the stationary phase ( $V_{EtOH}^{exc}$ ) as a function of percentage (v/v) of EtOH  
417 (% EtOH) in the mobile phase. Experimental (full circles), fitted curves  
418 (full lines).

419 **Fig 3.** Experimental (empty circles) and calculated (full line) overloaded  
420 profiles of TSO enantiomers on FPP-1.8 (top), FPP-2.5 (middle) and SPP-  
421 2.6 (bottom) columns measured at 100% hexane MP. Injected concentra-  
422 tion: 40 g/L.

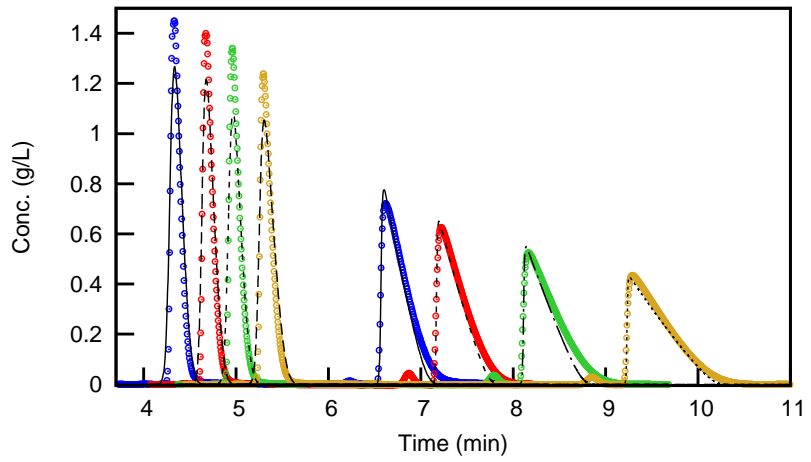
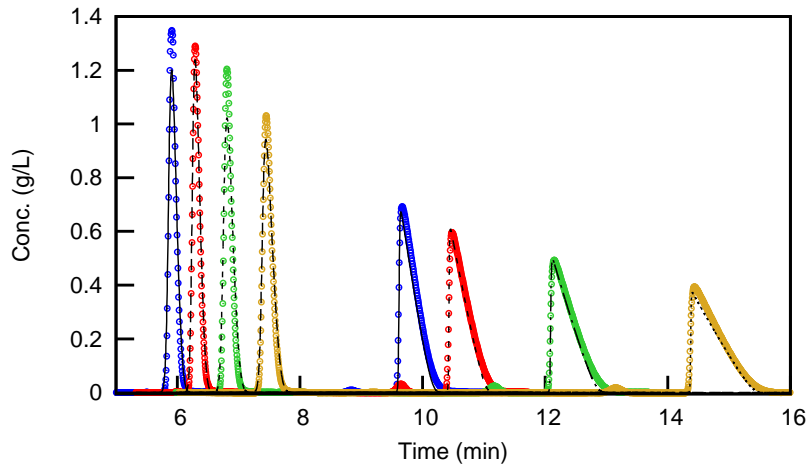
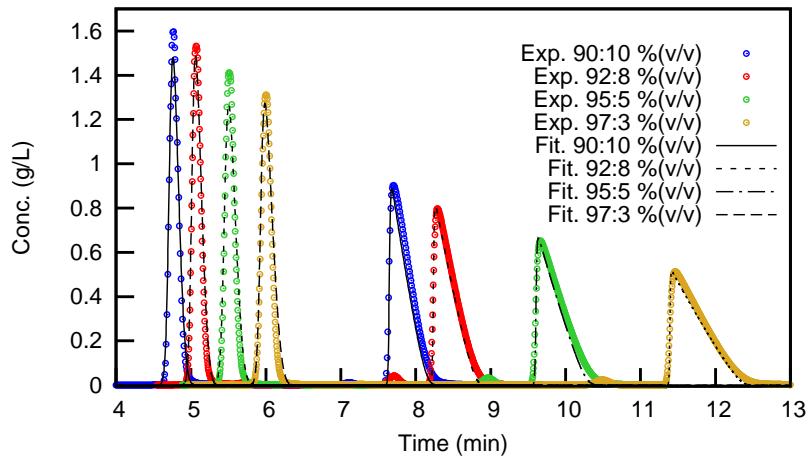


Figure 1:

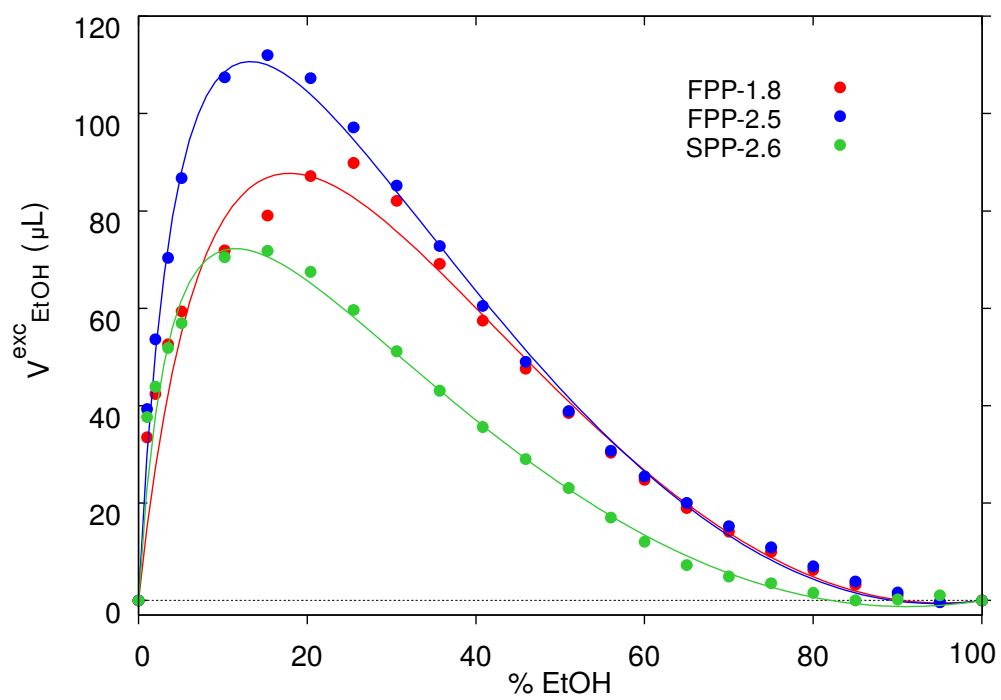


Figure 2:

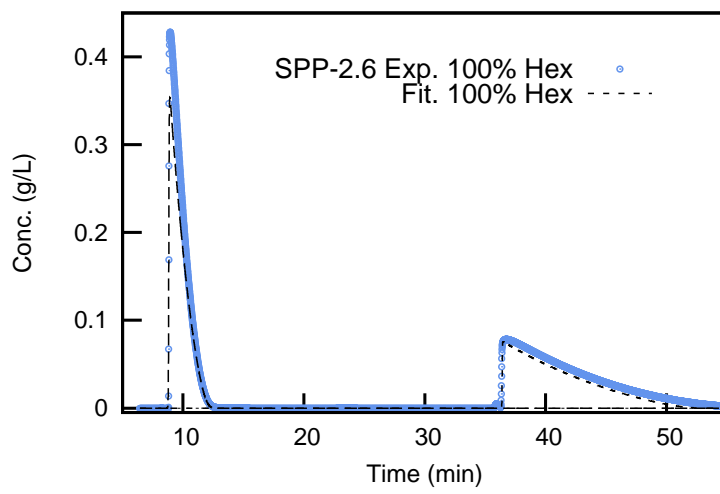
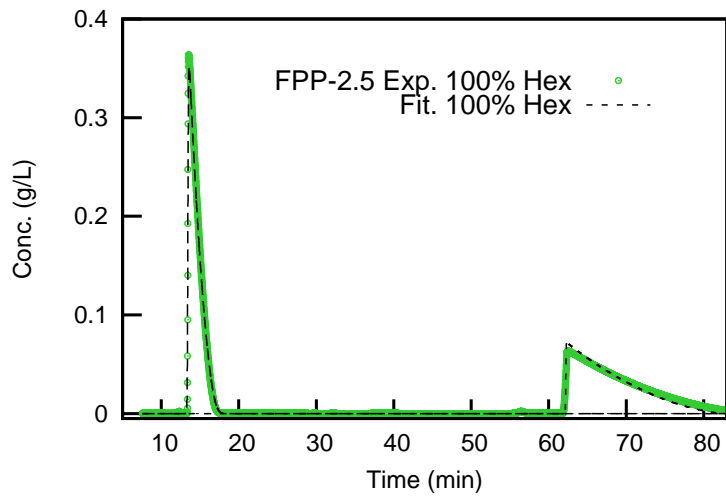
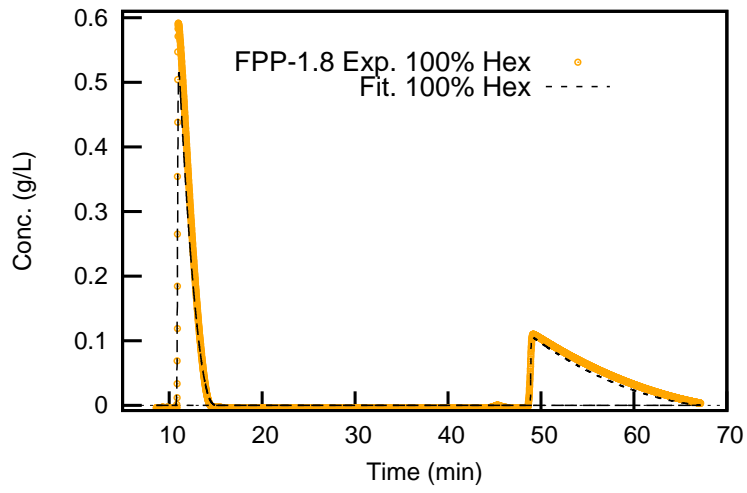


Figure 3:

Table 1: Acronyms of columns employed in this work and their dimensions (length times internal diameter). Chemico-physical characteristics of particles: base silica brand, particle diameter,  $d_p$ , specific surface area,  $A_s$ , pore size, bonding density (given both as  $\mu\text{mol}$  per gram of base silica and  $\mu\text{mol}$  per square meter) and particle porosity,  $\epsilon_p$ .

Column acronym	Dimensions (L×I.D., mm)	Silica brand	$d_p$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	$A_s$ ( $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$ )	Pore size ( $\text{Å}$ )	Bonding density ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{g}$ ) ( $\mu\text{mol}/\text{m}^2$ )		$\epsilon_p$
FPP-1.8	100×4.6	Kromasil	1.8	323	100	394.6	1.22	0.414
FPP-2.5	150×4.6	Kromasil	2.5	323	100	391.2	1.21	0.438
SPP-2.6	150×4.6	Accucore	2.6	130	80	189.8	1.46	0.251



Table 2: Bilangmuir isotherm parameters calculated through Inverse Method at different percentage of strong MP modifier

MP (% EtOH)	Column	Selective Site			Nonselective Site	
		$q_{sel}$ (g/L)	$b_{1,sel}$ (L/g)	$b_{2,sel}$ (L/g)	$q_{nselect}$ (g/L)	$b_{nselect}$ (L/g)
10	FPP-1.8	42	0.010	0.063	100	0.012
	FPP-2.5	42	0.011	0.071	96	0.013
	SPP-2.6	22	0.022	0.095	50	0.015
8	FPP-1.8	38	0.011	0.071	101	0.012
	FPP-2.5	41	0.013	0.082	102	0.013
	SPP-2.6	22	0.025	0.105	39	0.019
5	FPP-1.8	40	0.011	0.090	104	0.015
	FPP-2.5	36	0.011	0.111	105	0.017
	SPP-2.6	22	0.024	0.128	50	0.020
3	FPP-1.8	33	0.012	0.142	106	0.018
	FPP-2.5	30	0.013	0.170	108	0.020
	SPP-2.6	15	0.025	0.212	49	0.027

Table 3: Retention factor of first eluted enantiomer ( $k_1$ ) and apparent ( $\alpha_{app}$ ) and true ( $\alpha_{true}$ ) selectivity. See text for more details

Eluent (% EtOH)	Column	$k_1$	$\alpha_{app}$	$\alpha_{true}$
10	FPP-1.8	0.6	2.6	6.3
	FPP-2.5	0.7	2.5	6.4
	SPP-2.6	0.5	2.5	4.4
8	FPP-1.8	0.7	2.7	6.5
	FPP-2.5	0.8	2.7	6.3
	SPP-2.6	0.6	2.7	4.2
5	FPP-1.8	0.8	2.9	8.2
	FPP-2.5	0.9	2.8	10.0
	SPP-2.6	0.7	2.8	5.3
3	FPP-1.8	1.0	3.1	11.6
	FPP-2.5	1.0	3.0	13.2
	SPP-2.6	0.8	3.0	8.5

Table 4: Tóth isotherm parameters calculated through Inverse Method with a MP made of pure hexane

Column	$q_s$ (g/L)	$b_1$ (L/g)	$b_2$ (L/g)	$\nu$
FPP-1.8	94	0.110	0.589	0.71
FPP-2.5	96	0.128	0.697	0.71
SPP-2.6	30	0.289	1.425	0.81

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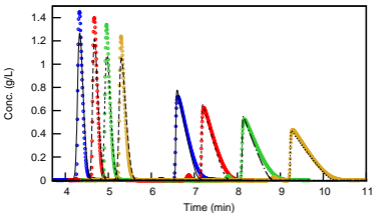
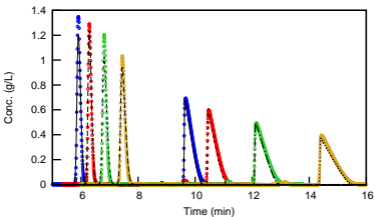
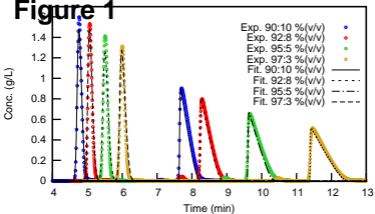
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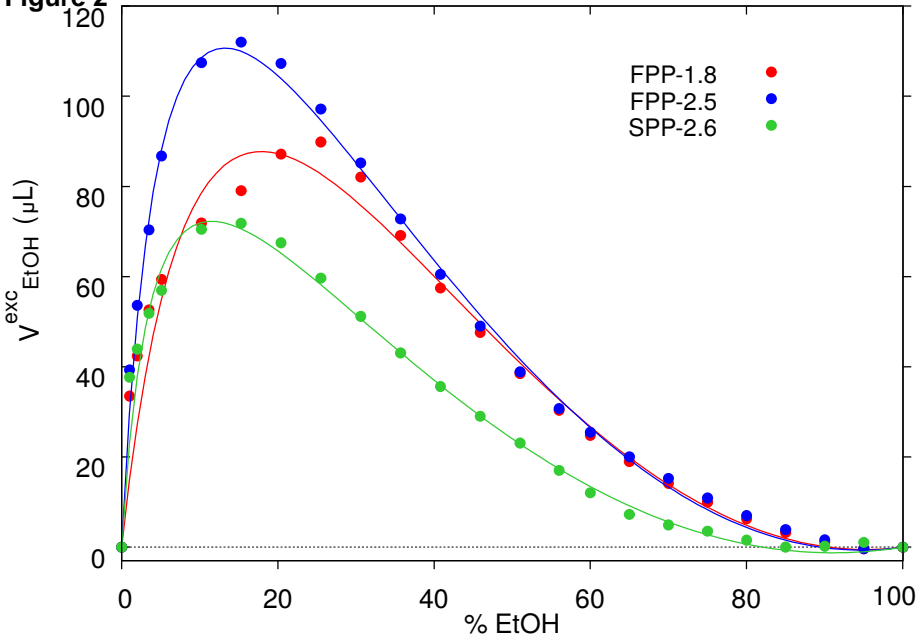
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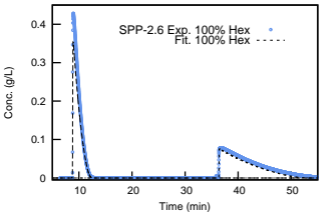
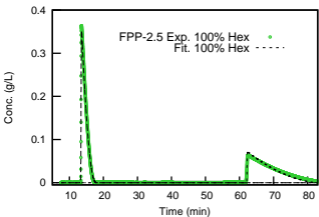
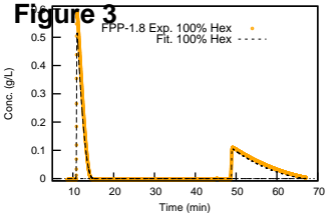


# Figure 1



**Figure 2**

# Figure 3



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