Exploring Fluorous Affinity by Liquid Chromatography

Martina Catani,[†] Roberta Guzzinati,[‡] Nicola Marchetti,[†] Luisa Pasti,[†] and Alberto Cavazzini^{*,†}

University of Ferrara, Department of Chemistry and Pharmaceutical Sciences, via L. Borsari, 46,
44121 Ferrara, Italy, and Italian National Agency for New Technologies, Energy and Sustainable
Economic Development (ENEA), RC Casaccia, via Anguillarese, 301, 00123 S.M. di Galeria,
Roma, Italy

E-mail: cvz@unife.it

Phone: +39 0532 455331. Fax: +39 0532 240709

Keywords: Fluorophilicity, Recognition Mechanisms, Adsorption/Partition Equilibria, Nonlinear Liquid Chromatography

^{*}To whom correspondence should be addressed

[†]University of Ferrara

[‡]University of Ferrara and ENEA

Abstract

2	Terms such as "fluorous affinity" and "fluorophilicity" have been used to describe the
3	unique partition and sorption properties often exhibited by highly fluorinated organic com-
4	pounds, that is molecules rich in sp ³ carbon-fluorine bonds.
5	In this work, we made use of a highly fluorinated stationary phase and a series of ben-
6	zene derivatives to study the effect of one single perfluorinated carbon on the chromatographic
7	behavior and adsorption properties of molecules. For this purpose, the adsorption equilib-
8	ria α, α, α -trifluorotoluene, toluene and other alkylbenzenes, have been studied by means of
9	nonlinear chromatography in a variety of acetonitrile/water eluents.
10	The results of this investigation are interesting. They reveal that one single perfluorinated
11	carbon is already enough to induce a drastic change in the adsorption properties of molecules
12	on the perfluorinated stationary phase. In particular, it has been found that adsorption is mono-
13	layer if the perfluoroalkyl carbon is present but that, when this unit is missing, molecules
14	arrange as multilayer stack structures. These findings can contribute to the understanding of
15	molecular mechanisms of fluorous affinity.

16 Introduction

1

Fluorous affinity is the property that describes the capacity of highly (or heavily) fluorinated materials to selectively interact with each other by means of strong noncovalent fluorine-fluorine (F-F) interactions, in a sort of similar dissolves (or likes) similar principle. By definition, highly fluorinated materials are those where a relevant number of hydrogen atoms, typically from 7 to 20, attached to sp³ carbon atoms are replaced with F atoms. This gives the molecules specific properties, different from those of their parent hydrocarbon analogs.¹

Fluorophilicity has been extensively employed especially in organic chemistry for the purification of fluorous-tagged molecules from other mixture components by solid phase extraction over fluorous-functionalized silica gel^{2,3} and in fluorous-biphase technology to promote the hightemperature mixing of innately immiscible fluorous and organic phases as to conduct catalytic
reactions efficiently under homogeneous conditions.⁴ More recently, fluorous separations have
been introduced to other fields of research such as proteomics,⁵ metabolomics⁶ and environmental
analytical science for enrichment and determination of perfluorinated emerging contaminants.^{7,8}

The most common material for solid-based fluorous-separations is silica gel with a fluoro-30 carbon bonded phase.¹ Perfluoro-functionalized silica gels have the general structure silica-O-31 Si(CH₃)₂(CH₂)_n-R_f, where the alkyl bridge is usually made by two or three alkyl units (n = 2, 3) 32 and the perfluorinated portion, R_f , is either C_6F_{13} or C_8F_{17} . Previous investigations with these 33 stationary phases^{9–12} have shown that, when employed with aqueous/acetonitrile (ACN) binary 34 eluents, they exhibit features very similar to traditional reversed-phase (RP) stationary phases,8 35 such as C_{18} . For instance, in agreement with the basic concept of RP liquid chromatography (LC) 36 that the solubility of analytes in the mobile phase (MP) controls their retention, ¹³ a linear depen-37 dence of the logarithm of retention factor on the volume fraction of the organic modifier has been 38 observed.^{7,8} Another similarity comes from studies about the preferential adsorption of ACN from 39 ACN/water binary mixtures, which have evidenced that the shape of the excess isotherm of ACN 40 on perfluoro-functionalized silica gels is quite comparable to those typically found on C₁₈ phases, 41 where the excess adsorption of ACN is positive at any MP composition with the exception of very 42 organic-rich eluents (i.e., when the ACN amount in the MP exceeds approx. 95% v/v).^{8,9} 43

What differentiates perfluorinated and C18 stationary phases, instead, is their ability to dis-44 criminate between molecules differing by one single methylene or perfluomethylene group that 45 is, in chromatographic terms, their methylene^{14,15} or perfluoromethylene selectivity.^{7,16} Experi-46 mentally, perfluoromethylene selectivity can be estimated by the dependence of the logarithm of 47 retention factor on the number of CF2 groups in homologous series of, e.g., perfluorinated acids.^{7,8} 48 When perfluorinated stationary phases are employed in these measurements, the Gibbs free energy 49 of phase transfer for the passage of a perfluoroalkyl carbon from the mobile to the stationary phase 50 can be considered a sort of direct measure of fluorous affinity.^{7,8} As a consequence, by employing 51

eluents of different composition, these experiments permit to establish how fluorous affinity varies
 with the composition of the eluent.⁸

The majority of models used to describe retention in RPLC are based on measurement per-54 formed under linear conditions, i.e. when the concentrations of solutes injected in the column are 55 very low (ideally, infinite dilution conditions for the solute). A common example of these models 56 are the so-called linear free-energy relationships (LFER).¹⁷ However, an important limitation of 57 these approaches is that the effects of different possible interactions between molecule and sta-58 tionary phase are lumped in one single parameter (the retention factor), so that some fundamental 59 aspects of the chromatographic process might be lost.¹⁸ For instance, if the adsorption surface is 60 energetically heterogeneous (i.e. composed by different kinds of adsorption sites), the retention 61 factor cannot be used to distinguish between sites with different energy/abundance. 19-21 To gather 62 this information, indeed, one needs to extend the adsorption measurements to the nonlinear range 63 of the adsorption isotherm.^{13,22} 64

In this work, the adsorption equilibria of α , α , α -trifluorotoluene and toluene on a straight-chain perfluorinated stationary phase have been studied with the purpose of investigating the effect of one single perfluorinated sp³ carbon on the adsorption behavior of these molecules. The investigation has been carried on under a variety of experimental conditions, through linear and nonlinear chromatographic measurements. For the sake of comparison and to assess the possible effect of the alkyl-chain length on the adsorption process, in addition, linear alkyl benzenes with alkyl chain lengths ranging from C₂ to C₆ have also been considered in our study.

The conclusions of these investigations are interesting, showing a drastic change in the adsorption properties of molecules due to the presence of one single CF₃ group. On the contrary, the adsorption mode was not found to be substantially influenced by the alkyl-chain length. These findings may contribute to the understanding of molecular mechanisms of fluorous affinity.

76 Theory

For the sake of space, only a short overview of the theory and equations employed in this work is
given. For a detailed discussion about theoretical aspects or how these equations can be derived,
readers are referred to literature (and to Supporting Information) where these features are covered
in detail.

81 Tracer pulse chromatography

The tracer pulse method has been extensively used for measuring excess surface isotherm of binary systems.^{7,23–32} According to this theory, the operational definition of the excess volume of an isotopically labeled compound *i*, V_i^{exc} , is given by:²⁴

$$V_i^{exc} = (V_{R,i}^* - V_{R,j}^*) \boldsymbol{\theta}_i^M \boldsymbol{\theta}_j^M \tag{1}$$

where $V_{R,i}^*$ and $V_{R,j}^*$ are the elution volumes for each labeled component *i* and *j* of the binary system and θ_i^M and θ_j^M their volume fractions in the bulk MP. In the context of this model, the thermodynamic void volume (i.e., the total volume of the eluent in the column) is:

$$V_0 = V_{R,i}^* \boldsymbol{\theta}_i^M + V_{R,j}^* \boldsymbol{\theta}_j^M \tag{2}$$

⁸⁸ According to the method originally proposed by Nagy and Schay,³³ the capacity and thickness of ⁸⁹ the surface phase (needed to pass from excess to absolute adsorption^{24,30,34}) can be estimated by ⁹⁰ the linear region of the excess isotherm, being:

$$V_i^{exc} = V_i^S - V_S \theta_i^M \tag{3}$$

⁹¹ where V_i^S and V_S are the volume of *i* in the stationary phase and the stationary phase volume, ⁹² respectively.

Retention factor and selectivity

⁹⁴ The (phase) retention factor, 35 k, is defined as:

$$k = \frac{V_R - V_M}{V_M} \tag{4}$$

where V_R is the solute retention volume and V_M is the kinetic void volume:

$$V_M = V_0 - V_S \tag{5}$$

⁹⁶ The selectivity, α , is the ratio of the retention factor, k, of two solutes (here, 1 and 2):

$$\alpha = \frac{k_1}{k_2} \tag{6}$$

⁹⁷ When alkyl homologues are employed for the evaluation of α , the so-called methylene selectivity ⁹⁸ is defined; ³⁶ analogously, the perfluoromethylene selectivity is when perfluoroalkyl homologues ⁹⁹ are used to calculate α .^{8,10,16} With homologous series, in addition, α is best calculated by the ¹⁰⁰ slope of the plot of ln*k* vs. the carbon number in the chain.¹⁴ The natural logarithm of methylene ¹⁰¹ or perfluoromethylene selectivity multiplied by the factor -RT (being *R* the gas constant and *T* the ¹⁰² temperature) gives the change of Gibbs free energy for the transfer, respectively, of a methylene or ¹⁰³ perfluoromethylene group from the mobile to the stationary phase, $\Delta G_{CX_2}^{\circ}$:

$$-RT\ln\alpha = \Delta G_{CX_2}^{\circ} \tag{7}$$

where X is either H (methylene selectivity) or F (perfluoromethylene selectivity).

¹⁰⁵ Finally, following Martin, ³⁷ the total free energy ΔG° for the transfer of a molecule from the ¹⁰⁶ mobile to the stationary phase can be calculated by assuming that each group *g* of the molecule is ¹⁰⁷ associated with its own unique change ΔG_g° in free Gibbs energy, independent of the presence of ¹⁰⁸ other groups, that is:

$$\Delta G^{\circ} = \sum_{g} \Delta G_{g}^{\circ} \tag{8}$$

Inverse Method

The inverse method permits to determine adsorption isotherms in chromatography through a nu-110 merical procedure in which the parameters of an isotherm model are derived from overloaded 111 (non-linear) band profiles of compounds. It is based on nonlinear least-squares method. The nu-112 merical constants of the isotherm models are tuned so that the calculated and the measured band 113 profiles match as much as possible. Calculated band profiles are derived by numerically solving 114 the equilibrium-dispersive model of chromatography, once an isotherm isotherm model has been 115 chosen to correlate the concentration of the component in the mobile, C, and stationary, q, phases³⁸ 116 (more information under Supporting Information). In the equilibrium-dispersive model of chro-117 matography, it is assumed instantaneous equilibrium between the stationary and the mobile phases, 118 and an apparent dispersion term (D_a) accounts for both the axial dispersion and the finite rate of 119 the mass transfer kinetics. The differential mass balance equation is written as: 120

$$\frac{\partial C(z,t)}{\partial t} + F \frac{\partial q(z,t)}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial C(z,t)}{\partial z} = D_a \frac{\partial^2 C(z,t)}{\partial z^2}$$
(9)

where *z* is the length, *t* the time, *u* the MP linear velocity, and *F* the phase ratio (V_S/V_M) . D_a is the apparent dispersion coefficient that can be calculated from the number of theoretical plates (*N*) determined by an analytical injection:

$$D_a = \frac{uL}{2N} \tag{10}$$

¹²⁴ being *L* the column length. Initial and boundary conditions employed to solve Eq. 9 are reported
¹²⁵ under Supporting Information.

Experimental Section

127 Column and materials

¹²⁸ A commercial 150×2.1 mm stainless steel column, packed with perfluorohexylpropylsiloxane-¹²⁹ bonded silica, 5μ m particle size, 100 Å pore size (Fluophase-RP, Thermo Scientific) was used ¹³⁰ for all measurements. Toluene, ethylbenzene, propylbenzene, pentylbenzene, hexylbenzene and ¹³¹ α, α, α -trifluorotoluene were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. Ultra-high quality Milli-Q water was ¹³² obtained by a Milli-Q water purification system (Millipore). ACN was LC-MS grade from Sigma ¹³³ Aldrich. Deuterated water, D₂O, and deuterated ACN, D₃-ACN, were from Cambridge Isotope ¹³⁴ Laboratories Inc.

Equipment and Measurements

136 Tracer pulse experiments

The excess isotherm of ACN from binary water/ACN mixtures was measured through the tracer 137 pulse technique by using a LC/MS/MS instrumentation made of a micro-HPLC (Finnigan Sur-138 veyor Plus) interfaced to a LTQ-XL linear ion trap MS detector (Thermo Scientific) through an 139 APCI source. Ion source operational conditions are reported under Supporting Information. 5 μ L 140 injections of D_3 -ACN and D_2O were done in column equilibrated with different ACN aqueous 141 solutions. ACN concentration was varied with increase of 10% in the range 0-80%. Between 80-142 100%, the following concentrations were prepared: 85, 90, 93, 95, 97 and 100%. Measurements 143 were done triplicate. Retention times of perturbations were determined through peak moments.⁷ 144

145 Linear and nonlinear measurements of benzene derivatives

A 1290 Infinity ultra high-performance liquid chromatography system (from Agilent Technolo gies) equipped with degasser, binary pump, autosampler, column thermostat and UV-Vis diode
 array was employed.

¹⁴⁹ Under linear conditions, 1 μ L of diluted solutions of benzene derivatives (0.02% v/v) were ¹⁵⁰ injected. Chromatograms were recorded at 214 nm. Four different binary water/ACN MP com-¹⁵¹ positions were considered, with ACN ranging from 60 to 90% v/v (in increments of 10%). Peak ¹⁵² retention times were estimated through peak moments.

High-concentration injections (needed for estimating the adsorption isotherm through the in-153 verse method) of toluene, butylbenzene and α, α, α -trifluorotoluene were performed at two differ-154 ent MP compositions, namely 60/40 and 70/30% v/v ACN/water. The highest injected concentra-155 tions were close to the empirically evaluated solubility limits of the analytes in the actual MP. In 156 particular, at 60/40% v/v ACN/water, these were: 13 g/L (toluene), 10 g/L (butylbenzene) and 20 157 g/L (α, α, α -trifluorotoluene). At 70/30% v/v ACN/water, on the other hand, we found solubilities 158 of 35, 30 and 48 g/L, respectively for toluene, butylbenzene and α, α, α -trifluorotoluene. Large 159 volume (up to 20 μ L) injections were performed by using the available binary solvent delivery 160 system. One channel was used to deliver the sample solution and the other to pump the pure MP. 161 The low volume (35 μ L) of the jet-weaver mixer of the 1290 chromatograph allows for an efficient 162 mixing of solvent streams without loss of performance (with the column employed in this work). 163 Under nonlinear conditions, the detector was calibrated at 266 nm for butylbenzene and at 278 nm 164 for toluene and α, α, α -trifluorotoluene. 165

All chromatographic measurements (including tracer pulse experiments) were performed at 0.1 ml/min at $25\pm0.1^{\circ}$ C. Temperature was controlled by a digital contact thermometer (IKA Laboratory Equipment). All measurements were performed as triplicate determinations.

For the calculation of the simulated profiles, Eq. 9 was solved by using a finite difference scheme. ^{13,39} The isotherm parameters were optimized by using a super modified downhill simplex ¹⁷¹ search routine.^{38,40} All programs were written in Matlab.

Results and Discussion

A rigorous description of thermodynamic equilibria in complex systems such as in RPLC would 173 require simultaneously measuring the competitive isotherms of all the species in the system, that 174 is both the eluent components and the analytes. These measurements, however, are very difficult 175 to perform. Usually, therefore, the distribution isotherms of the eluent components are measured 176 on the entire concentration range without regard to analytes (excess isotherms), while those of 177 analytes are measured at a fixed MP composition when a convention for the determination of 178 the volume of the mobile and the stationary phase has been established (absolute isotherms). A 179 common approach for fixing the position of the boundary between mobile and stationary phase 180 (or, in other words, to define the position of the Gibbs dividing surface⁴³) is by employing a 181 purportedly unretained compound, from the retention time of which it is possible to estimate V_M . 182 The very common example is uracile with traditional C_{18} silica gel in RP conditions. This is the 183 so-called "component J not adsorbed" (JNA) convention, according to Riedo and Kováts.⁴¹ 184

In this work, the determination of the stationary and MP volumes has been done through an 185 approach, originally proposed by Schay and Nagy,³³ which involves measuring the excess adsorp-186 tion isotherm of ACN from water/ACN binary mixtures and the use of Eqs. 3, 2 and 5. Briefly: Eq. 187 3 shows that the estimation of V_{S} can be obtained by considering the region of the excess isotherm 188 where the excess of ACN decreases linearly with θ_{ACN}^{M} (i.e., the zone of saturation of the stationary 189 phase by ACN^{24,33,42}); then, through Eqs. 2 and 5, the estimation of V_M is straightforward (so is 190 the calculation of F in Eq. 9). This approach has some advantages over the simpler JNA method. 191 Indeed, it not only shows when (i.e., for which eluents) the composition of the stationary phase is 192 constant and independent on that of the MP (saturation region) but it also permits an estimation of 193 the composition of the stationary phase at saturation. 194

The excess isotherm of ACN is represented in the main part of Figure 1 in the form of excess 195 volume of adsorbed ACN per column. The excess volume increases gradually in the first part of 196 the isotherm (roughly up to θ_{ACN}^M 0.4), it reaches a maximum and then it decreases quasi-linearly 197 for $0.5 < \theta_{ACN}^M < 0.9$. For very organic-rich eluents, the excess of ACN becomes negative in 198 consequence of a positive excess of adsorbed water. This is due to the presence of residual unre-199 acted surface silanols, that under these conditions have not been yet completely saturated by water 200 molecules. The analysis of the linear region of the excess isotherm by means of Eq. 3 leads to es-201 timated values of V_S and V_{ACN}^S roughly of 75 and 68 μ L, respectively. In other words, at saturation, 202 the stationary phase is made by more than 90% of ACN. Accordingly, being $V_0 = 351 \mu L$ (from 203 Eq. 2), the phase ratio was 0.27. 204

All measurements of benzene derivatives have been performed in this zone of the excess 205 isotherm. Indeed, since retention in LC involves equilibria in both the stationary and the MP, 206 it is very important to work where these phases can be properly defined and characterized.^{8,24,43} 207 Initially, the dependence of $\ln k$ on θ_{ACN}^{M} for a series of six alkyl-benzenes (namely, toluene, ethyl-208 benzene, propylbenzene, butylbenzene, pentylbenzene and hexylbenzene) has been investigated. 209 The inset of Figure 1 shows the experimental data. From them it can be observed that, at a given 210 MP composition, retention increases as the hydrophobic portion of the molecule increases (thus 211 with a typical RP behavior) and that, for all compounds, $\ln k$ decreases linearly with θ_{ACN}^{M} . The 212 linear fitting of experimental data, in fact, led to correlation coefficients R² larger than 0.99 in all 213 cases (straight lines not shown to avoid overcrowding the figure). Therefore, these data can be used 214 for the calculation of the methylene selectivity ¹⁴ and, by means of Eq. 7, of the free energy change 215 for the transfer of a CH₂ unit from the mobile to the stationary phase. Calculated $\Delta G^{\circ}_{CH_2}$ values, in 216 function of the eluent composition, are listed in the second column of Table 1 (more information 217 under Supporting Information). 218

²¹⁹ By considering now the chromatographic behavior of α , α , α -trifluorotoluene, i.e. of a molecule ²²⁰ that differs from toluene only for the aromatic ring substituent (a CF₃ vs. a CH₃ group), some

Table 1: Gibbs free energy for the transfer of either a methylene group, $\Delta G_{CH_2}^{\circ}$, or a perfluoromethylene group, $\Delta G_{CF_2}^{\circ}$, from the mobile to the stationary phase as a function of the MP composition. $\Delta G_{CF_2}^{\circ}$'s were taken from.⁸ Free energy values in J mol⁻¹ (T = 298 K). See text for details.

θ^M_{ACN}	$\Delta G^{\circ}_{CH_2}$	$\Delta G^{\circ}_{CF_2}$	$4 imes \Delta G^{\circ}_{CH_2}$
0.6	-562	-2006	-2248
0.7	-456	-1775	-1824
0.8	-359	-1677	-1436
0.9	-280	-1426	-1120

interesting things can be observed. Figure 2 reports the dependence of $\ln k$ on θ_{ACN}^M for α, α, α -221 trifluorotoluene in the same range of eluent compositions previously considered. For the sake of 222 comparison, in the same plot also the data for toluene and butylbenzene (see later on) have been 223 shown. By looking at these data, it is evident that the presence of the CF₃ group provokes a drastic 224 change in the retention behavior of the molecule inducing an increase in retention of roughly 60% 225 (compare retention of toluene and α, α, α -trifluorotoluene). This finding is still more significant by 226 considering that solubility of α, α, α -trifluorotoluene in water/ACN mixtures is noticeably larger 227 than that of toluene and that, in RP chromatography, retention is expected to decrease when the 228 solubility in MP increases.^{13,36} As an example, at 70/30% v/v ACN/water, the experimentally 229 measured solubility limit for α, α, α -trifluorotoluene was approx. 48 g/L vs. only about 35 g/L 230 for toluene. This is, however, only apparently in contrast with our understanding of retention 231 in RP liquid chromatography. The explanation lies in the concept of fluorous affinity. From a 232 thermodynamic viewpoint, indeed, it is largely more favorable to transfer one CF₃ group from 233 the aqueous/ACN MP to the perfluorinated stationary phase than one CH_3 unit. This has been 234 demonstrated, e.g., in reference [8] where $\Delta G_{CF_2}^{\circ}$ s were evaluated, at different MP compositions, 235 by using a series of perfluorinated acids. For the sake of comparison, the $\Delta G_{CF_2}^{\circ}$ values calculated 236 in [8] have been reported in Table 1 (third column). They are indeed significantly more negative 237 than the corresponding $\Delta G^{\circ}_{CH_2}$ s. 238

Another interesting information that can be derived from Figure 2 is that, since retention of 239 α, α, α -trifluorotoluene is comparable to that of butylbenzene, in terms of energy transfer change, 240 four methylene units should correspond to one single perfluoromethylene group. This comes di-241 rectly from the application of the group additivity principle (Eq. 8) to these molecules, as detailedly 242 shown under Supporting Information. Indeed, by comparing, at each MP composition, the free en-243 ergy change for the transfer of the CF₂ group with four times the value of $\Delta G^{\circ}_{CH_2}$ (third column 244 of Table 1), one observes that, within the limits of experimental errors and the simplification in-245 troduced by the model of additivity of the free energies per functional group, these values are 246 reasonably comparable. 247

From a more fundamental viewpoint, however, the most interesting thing that can be observed 248 in Figure 2 is probably the inversion of the elution order of α, α, α -trifluorotoluene and toluene 249 induced by a change in the MP composition (to emphasize this aspect, the linear regressions of ex-250 perimental data have been represented in the figure). Indeed one may observe that, at organic-rich 251 MP compositions, the former is more retained than the latter but, when the MP becomes more po-252 lar, the opposite is true. An inversion of the elution order in liquid chromatography is very often an 253 intriguing phenomenon. The most relevant case is definitely the temperature-induced inversion of 254 elution order of enantiomers in chiral chromatography.⁴⁴ However, even in RP chromatography the 255 inversion of the elution order following a change of experimental conditions (in this case the eluent 256 composition) might suggest the presence of different chromatographic recognition mechanisms or 257 adsorption modes for the involved molecules.^{36,45} 258

To further investigate these aspects, therefore, our study has been extended to the nonlinear range of the adsorption isotherm. Thus, the adsorption isotherm of toluene, butylbenzene and α, α, α -trifluorotoluene have been measured, through the inverse method, at different MP compositions. As mentioned above, these measurements have been performed under conditions where the composition of the stationary phase is constant. To minimize the perturbation of the adsorption equilibria of the MP constituents following the injection of analytes, the inverse method has

been preferred to other, more common techniques of isotherm determination such as, for instance, 265 frontal analysis as it allows to gather the information about the isotherm through relatively small-266 volume injections of compounds (in the case of this work the largest injected volume was 20μ L). 267 The results of the nonlinear investigation are surprising. They are summarized in Figure 3 268 and Figure 4 where the overloaded band profiles recorded for toluene, butylbenzene and α, α, α -269 trifluorotoluene, at the maximum injected concentrations and two different eluent compositions 270 (70/30 and 60/40 % v/v ACN/water), have been reported. As it can be seen, the shapes of the 271 nonlinear peaks of alkyl-benzenes (Figure 3 and Figure 4, squares a and b) are remarkably differ-272 ent from those of α, α, α -trifluorotoluene (same figures, squares c). Indeed, in the former cases, 273 the profiles present a so-called diffuse boundary in their front and a shock in the rear. The op-274 posite, instead, can be observed for α, α, α -trifluorotoluene, where the shock comes before the 275 diffuse boundary. According to the theory of nonlinear chromatography,¹³ we may conclude that 276 for toluene and butylbenzene the isotherm must be convex downward (anti-Langmuirian) while, 277 on the contrary, for the perfluoro-substituted compound the isotherm must be convex upward, or 278 Langmuirian. Based on this preliminary information, the adsorption isotherms were determined 279 through the inverse method. The anti-Langmuir isotherm has been used for modeling the over-280 loaded band profiles of alkyl-benzenes.⁴⁶ It is written: 28

$$q = \frac{aC}{1 - bC} \tag{11}$$

where *a* and *b* are numerical coefficients. On the other hand, for α, α, α -trifluorotoluene, we employed the Tóth isotherm, which has been often successfully employed to describe monolayer adsorption on heterogeneous surfaces: ^{13,47}

$$q = \frac{q_s K^{1/\nu} C}{[1 + (KC)^{\nu}]^{1/\nu}}$$
(12)

where v is the so-called heterogeneity parameter, K the equilibrium constant (L/g) and q_s the

²⁸⁶ saturation capacity (g/L).

The results of the inverse method calculations have been also represented in Figure 3 and 287 Figure 4, with continuous lines, overlaid to experimental profiles. These peaks have been ob-288 tained by solving Eq. 9 and using, as isotherm models, either Eq. 11 (alkyl-benzenes) or Eq. 289 12 (α, α, α -trifluorotoluene), with the optimized isotherm parameters given by the inverse method 290 (more details under Supporting Information). Table 2 lists their values. Other comparisons be-291 tween experimental and simulated peaks, for different injection volumes and concentrations, have 292 been reported under Supporting Information. In all cases, included those of Figure 3 and Figure 4, 293 the matching between calculated and empirical profiles has been very satisfactory. This allows to 294 conclude that the models proposed to describe the adsorption behavior of alkyl-benzenes (Eq. 11) 295 and α, α, α -trifluorotoluene (Eq. 12) take into account, within experimental error, the main features 296 of the adsorption process. 297

Table 2: Best isotherm parameters calculated according to the inverse method for toluene and butylbenzene (anti-Langmuir model, Eq. 11) and α, α, α -trifluorotoluene (Tóth model, Eq. 12). See text for details.

θ^M_{ACN}	Toluene	Butylbenzene	α, α, α -trifluorotoluene
0.6	a = 6.85 b = 0.012	a = 14.5 b = 0.034	$q_s = 2472$ K = 0.088 v = 0.46
0.7	a = 4.26 b = 0.00050	a = 7.42 b = 0.017	$q_s = 667$ K = 0.076 v = 0.57

Accordingly the conclusion can be drawn that the adsorption nature of benzene derivatives on highly-fluorinated stationary phases changes radically depending if the molecule bears a perfluorinated carbon or not. Indeed, in the former case, adsorption leads to formation of Langmuir monolayers while, in the latter, of multilayer stack structure. These data emphasize the importance of the F-F interaction to drive the adsorption process. The information and the approach proposed in this study might useful for a better understanding not only of the specificity of the F-F interaction at a molecular level but also, more in general, of other properties of highly perfluorinated
 materials, such as the fact that they do not mix mix with most organic solvents or their tendency to
 bioaccumulate in body compartments high in protein content such as the liver, kidney, and blood.

307 Conclusions

The comparison between toluene and α, α, α -trifluorotoluene has evidenced that the presence of 308 one single CF₃ group provokes a drastic change in the adsorption behavior of molecules on a highly 309 perfluorinated stationary phase from water/ACN solutions. In particular, this study has revealed 310 that α, α, α -trifluorotoluene molecules interact with the stationary phase to form a monolayer, 31 while, on the contrary, the adsorption of toluene is multilayer. An analogous anti-Langmuirian 312 adsorption behavior has been observed also for linear alkyl-benzenes with longer alkyl chain. This 313 information can contribute to the understanding, at a molecular level, of the nature of F-F inter-314 actions. The interaction was found to be effective already when one single fluorinated sp^3 carbon 315 interacts with an highly perfluorinated moiety. This is interesting if one considers that, in the flu-316 orous literature, a fluorous label or tag (i.e., that portion that properly introduced into a molecule, 317 for example as a part of a protecting group, "exerts primary control over the separability charac-318 teristics of the molecule in fluorous separation techniques"¹) is defined to contain at least six fully 319 fluorinated sp³ carbons. 320

Supporting Information Available

322 Acknowledgments

- The authors thank the Italian University and Scientific Research Ministry (PRIN 2012ATMNJ_003).
- NM thanks Laboratory Terra&Acqua Tech, member of Energy and Environment Cluster, Technopole

³²⁵ of Ferrara of Emilia-Romagna High Technology Network.

326 References

(1) Handbook of Fluorous Chemistry; Gladysz, J. A., Curran, D. P., Horváth, I. T., Eds.; Wiley-

³²⁸ VCH, 2004.

- (2) Curran, D. P.; Hadida, S.; He, M. J. Org. Chem. 1997, 62, 6714–6715.
- (3) Curran, D. P.; Luo, Z. J. Amer. Chem. Soc. 1999, 121, 9069–9072.
- (4) Horváth, I. T.; Rábai, J. *Science* **1994**, *266*, 72–75.
- (5) Brittain, S. M.; Ficarro, S. B.; Brock, A.; Peters, E. C. Nat. Biotechnol. 2005, 23, 463–468.
- (6) Go, E. P.; Uritboonthai, W.; Apo, J. V.; Trauger, S. A.; Nordstrom, A.; O'Maille, G.; Brittain, S. M.; Peters, E. C.; Siuzdak, G. *J. Proteome Res.* 2007, *6*, 1492–1499.
- (7) Marchetti, N.; Caciolli, L.; Laganà, A.; Gasparrini, F.; Pasti, L.; Dondi, F.; Cavazzini, A.
 Anal. Chem. 2012, 84, 7138–7145.
- (8) Cavazzini, A.; Marchetti, N.; Guzzinati, R.; Pasti, L.; Ciogli, A.; Gasparrini, F.; Laganá, A.
 Anal. Chem. 2014, 86, 4919–4926.
- (9) Cavazzini, A.; Pasti, L.; Greco, R.; Costa, V.; Solera, D.; Dondi, F.; Marchetti, N.; Laganà, A.;
 Gasparrini, F. *J. Chromatogr. A* 2013, *1286*, 47–54.
- (10) Marchetti, N.; Guzzinati, R.; Catani, M.; Massi, A.; Pasti, L.; Cavazzini, A. Anal. Bioanal.
 Chem. 2015, 407, 17–21.
- (11) Cavazzini, A.; Marchetti, N.; Pasti, L.; Greco, R.; Dondi, F.; Laganà, A.; Ciogli, A.; Gaspar rini, F. *Anal. Chem.* 2013, 85, 19–22.

- (12) Ciogli, A.; Simone, P.; Villani, C.; Gasparrini, F.; Laganà, A.; Capitani, D.; Marchetti, N.;
 Pasti, L.; Massi, A.; Cavazzini, A. *Chem. Eur. J.* 2014, 20, 1–12.
- (13) Guiochon, G.; Felinger, A.; Shirazi, D. G.; Katti, A. M. *Fundamentals of Preparative and Nonlinear Chromatography*; Academic Press, Elsevier: Second Edition, 2006.
- (14) Bhagwat, V.; Bereznitski, T.; Buszewski, B.; Jaroniec, M. J. Liq. Chrom. & Rel. Technol.
 1998, 21, 923–939.
- ³⁵¹ (15) Sadek, P. C.; Carr, P. W.; Russo, M. J. Anal. Chem. **1987**, *59*, 1032–1039.
- ³⁵² (16) Gilpin, R. K.; Jaroniec, M.; Lin, S. Anal. Chem. **1990**, 62, 2092–2098.
- (17) Kaliszan, R.; Wiczling, P.; Markuszewski, M. J.; Al-Haj, M. A. J. Chromatogr. A 2011, 1218,
 5120–5130.
- (18) Cavazzini, A.; Pasti, L.; Dondi, F.; Finessi, M.; Costa, V.; Gasparrini, F.; Ciogli, A.; Bedani, F.
 Anal. Chem. 2009, *81*, 6735–6743.
- ³⁵⁷ (19) Cavazzini, A.; Remelli, M.; Dondi, F.; Felinger, A. Anal. Chem. 1999, 71, 3453–3462.
- ³⁵⁸ (20) Dondi, F.; Munari, P.; Remelli, M.; Cavazzini, A. Anal. Chem. 2000, 72, 4353–4362.
- (21) Dondi, F.; Cavazzini, A.; Remelli, M. Advances in Chromatography 1998, 38, 51–74.
- 360 (22) Gritti, F.; Guiochon, G. J. Chromatogr. A 2005, 1099, 1–42.
- ³⁶¹ (23) Weng, M.; Mallette, J.; Parcher, J. F. J. Chromatogr. A 2008, 1190, 1–7.
- ³⁶² (24) Mallette, J.; Wang, M.; Parcher, J. F. Anal. Chem. **2010**, 82, 3329–3336.
- ³⁶³ (25) Lindholm, J.; Forssen, P.; Fornstedt, T. Anal. Chem. 2004, 4856–4865.
- ³⁶⁴ (26) Lindholm, J.; Forssen, P.; Fornstedt, T. Anal. Chem. 2004, 5472–5478.

- ³⁶⁵ (27) Arnell, R.; Fórsen, P.; Fornstedt, T. J. Chromatogr. A 2005, 1099, 167–174.
- ³⁶⁶ (28) Arnell, R.; Ferraz, N.; Fornstedt, T. Anal. Chem. **2006**, 78, 1682–1689.
- ³⁶⁷ (29) Fornstedt, T. J. Chromatogr. A **2010**, 1217, 792–812.
- 368 (30) Gritti, F.; Kazakevich, Y.; Guiochon, G. J. Chromatogr. A 2007, 1161, 157–169.
- ³⁶⁹ (31) Knox, J. H.; Kaliszan, R. J. Chromatogr. 1985, 349, 211–234.
- 370 (32) Peterson, D. L.; Helfferich, F. J. Phys. Chem. 1965, 69, 1283–1293.
- ³⁷¹ (33) Schay, G.; Nagy, L. J. Chim. Phys. **1961**, 140, 149–158.
- 372 (34) Ościk, J. Adsorption; Ellis Horwood Limited, Chichester, 1982.
- 373 (35) Knox, J. H. J. Chromatogr. Sci 1977, 15, 352–364.
- (36) Snyder, L. R.; Kirkland, J. J.; Dolan, J. W. *Introduction to modern liquid chromatography*,
 Third Edition ed.; Wiley & Sons, 2010.
- ³⁷⁶ (37) Martin, A. J. P. *Biochem. Soc. Symp.* **1949**, *3*, 4–13.
- 377 (38) Cavazzini, A.; Felinger, A.; Guiochon, G. J. Chromatogr. A 2003, 1012, 139–149.
- (39) Rouchon, P.; Schonauer, M.; Valentin, P.; Guiochon, G. Separat. Sci. Technol. 1987, 22,
 1793–1833.
- 380 (40) Morgan, E.; Burton, K. W. Chemom. Intel. Lab. Syst. 1990, 8, 97–107.
- ³⁸¹ (41) Riedo, F.; Kováts, E. S. J. Chromatogr. **1982**, 239, 1–28.
- ³⁸² (42) Slaats, E. H.; Kraak, J. C.; Poppe, H. J. Chromatogr. 1978, 149, 519-.
- ³⁸³ (43) Yun, K. S.; Zhu, C.; Parcher, J. F. Anal. Chem. **1995**, 67, 613–619.

- ³⁸⁴ (44) Pirkle, W. H.; Murray, P. G. J. High Resolut. Chromatogr. **1993**, *16*, 285–288.
- ³⁸⁵ (45) Glajch, J. L.; Quarry, M. A.; Vasta, J. F.; Snyder, L. R. Anal. Chem. **1986**, 58, 280–285.
- (46) Cavazzini, A.; Bardin, G.; Kaczmarski, K.; Szabelski, P.; Al-Bokari, M.; Guiochon, G. J.
 Chromatogr. A 2002, 957, 111–126.
- (47) Marchetti, N.; Dondi, F.; Felinger, A.; Guerrini, R.; Salvadori, S.; Cavazzini, A. J. Chro *matogr. A* 2005, *1069*, 162–172.

Figures

Figure 1: Main: excess adsorption isotherm of ACN (μ L per column) from binary water/ACN mixtures. Straight line: linear regression for the evaluation of V_S and V_{ACN}^S , according to Eq. 3. Inset: dependence of the logarithm of retention factor of alkyl-benzenes on the volume fraction of acetonitrile in MP: toluene (\Box); ethylbenzene (\triangle); propylbenzene (\blacksquare); butylbenzene (\circ); pentylbenzene (\blacktriangle); hexylbenzene (\bullet).

396

Figure 2: Dependence of the logarithm of retention factor of benzene derivatives on the volume fraction of acetonitrile in MP: toluene (\Box); propylbenzene (\blacksquare); α, α, α -trifluorotoluene (\diamond). Linear regressions have been shown to stress the inversion of the elution order between propylbenzene and α, α, α -trifluorotoluene as a function of θ_{ACN}^{M}

401

Figure 3: Comparison between experimental (points) and simulated (continuous line) overloaded profiles. (a) Toluene (injected volume: 20 μ L, injected concentration: 13 g/L); (b) Butylbenzene (20 μ L, 10 g/L); (c) α , α , α -trifluorotoluene (20 μ L, 20 g/L). MP: 60/40 ACN/water, v/v.

405

Figure 4: Comparison between experimental (points) and simulated (continuous line) overloaded profiles. (a) Toluene (injected volume: 20 μ L, injected concentration: 35 g/L); (b) Butylbenzene (20 μ L, 30 g/L); (c) α , α , α -trifluorotoluene (20 μ L, 48 g/L). MP: 70/30 ACN/water, v/v.

409



Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3



Figure 4

410 Graphical TOC Entry



411

412 "For TOC only"