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## Review Article

**Enantioselective selectors for chiral electrochemistry and electroanalysis: Stereogenic elements and enantioselection performance**<sup>☆</sup>

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The ability to select among different electroactive molecules, or among different redox centers on a single molecule, in both analytical and synthetic applications, is a typical asset of electrochemistry, based on fine control of the electrode potential, possibly enhanced by the choice of appropriate electrode surfaces and media. An attractive step further, of great fundamental and applicative interest, is represented by *enantioselective* electrochemistry, implying the ability to discriminate the *enantiomers* of chiral molecules (in electroanalysis), or to selectively activate or achieve a given enantiomer of a chiral molecule controlling the electrode potential (in electrosynthesis). Since the enantiomers of a chiral molecule have identical scalar physico-chemical properties and therefore the same electrochemical behavior except when interacting with some other chiral entity, enantioselective electrochemistry necessarily implies the electron transfer process to take place in asymmetric conditions. This can be achieved by the use of a *chiral electrode surface* or a *chiral medium*. Artificial selectors are particularly interesting on account of the virtually unlimited range of tailored structures possible as well as the possibility to have both enantiomers of a given selector equally available. Among the many approaches so far proposed for this ambitious target along either of the two above ways, outstanding results have been recently obtained, based on the use of "inherently chiral molecular materials" (either as electrode surfaces or as media) in which the same structural element endows the molecule with both its key functional property and with chirality.

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<sup>☆</sup> Dedicated to Professor Francesco Sannicolò, an artist in designing intelligent molecules.

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This is an open access article under the CC BY license. (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).**Introduction**

The ability to select among different electroactive molecules, or among different redox centers on a single molecule, in both analytical and synthetic applications, is a typical asset of electrochemistry, based on fine control of the electrode potential, possibly enhanced by the choice of appropriate electrode surfaces and media. An attractive step further, of great fundamental and applicative interest, is represented by *enantioselective* electrochemistry, implying the ability to discriminate the *enantiomers* of chiral molecules (in electroanalysis), or to selectively activate or achieve a given enantiomer of a chiral molecule (in electrosynthesis), an issue particularly important in the biological and pharmaceutical fields.

Since the enantiomers of a chiral molecule have identical scalar physico-chemical properties and therefore the same electrochemical behavior except when interacting with chiral entities, resulting in energetically different diastereomeric conditions, enantioselective electrochemistry necessarily implies the electron transfer process to take place in asymmetric conditions, e.g., on a *chiral electrode surface* or in a *chiral medium*.

The task has been defined as one of the most difficult measurements, implying only one separation act, corresponding to a single theoretical plate in chromatographic separations [1].

The many approaches so far proposed for this ambitious target along either of the two above ways will be compared, particularly focusing on a strategy recently

resulting in outstanding performance, based on the use of "inherently chiral" molecular materials ([2<sup>••</sup>], SI.1), either as electrode surfaces [3] or as media [4<sup>••</sup>].

### Looking for an ideal chiral selector: desirable features

A summary of desirable features for an ideal chiral selector is the following one:

- Above all, it should be able to discriminate probe enantiomers in terms of the largest possible peak potential differences, to (analytically) recognize or (preparatively) manage either antipode at its own activation potential. In this respect discrimination in terms of, e.g., current differences appears less useful.
- It should be available in both enantiomer configurations, so that the first activable electron transfer can correspond to the preferred target enantiomer (particularly for preparative purposes).
- It should exhibit a linear dynamic range for currents, possibly with low limit of detection, to complement enantiodiscrimination with quantitative analysis and enantiomeric excess estimation (particularly for analytical purposes).
- It should be of general applicability to many probes and operating protocols/conditions.
- It should have reproducibility in preparation and recognition as well as stability and robustness.
- It should be of easy, fast and low-cost preparation, and/or be required in low quantity, and/or recyclable.

Either natural or artificial chiral selectors can be considered. Actually, many natural ones are currently employed in electroanalysis (e.g., enzymes, antibiotics ...); however, the second alternative looks particularly attractive for many reasons, including the virtually unlimited range of tailored structures possible as well as the possibility to have both enantiomers of a given selector equally available, thus enabling to freely choose the probe enantiomer to be activated first.

In this context, many efforts have been devoted to achieve enantioselective electrochemistry and electroanalysis based either on chiral enantiopure electrodes or in chiral enantiopure media, and with increasing development of artificial selectors.

### Chiral electrode strategies

Most efforts have so far concentrated on the *chiral electrode* approach.

A very wide range of strategies was explored in *analytical experiments*:

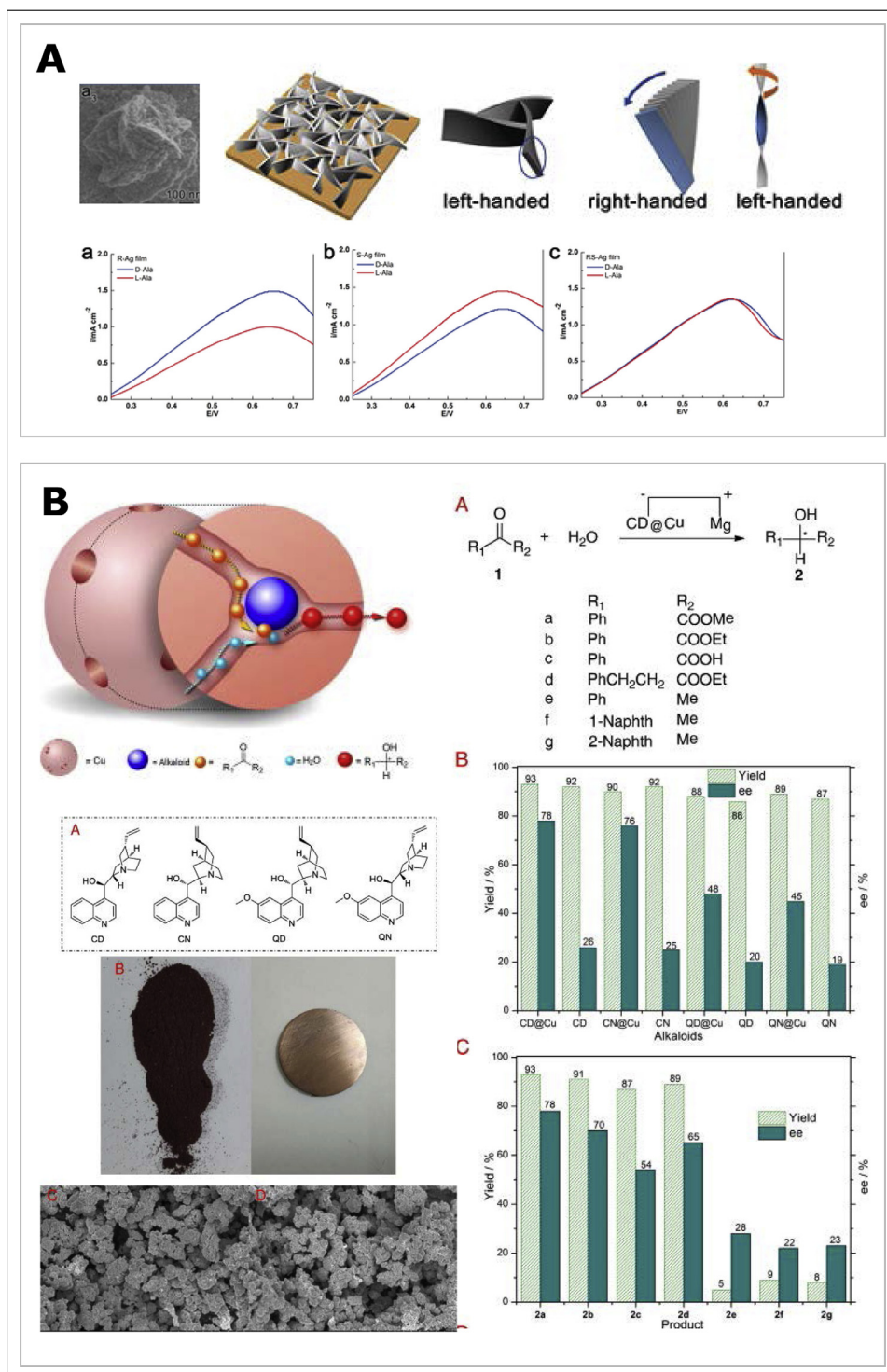
- a) Chiral metal or metal oxide surfaces, Figure 1 (e.g., [5–14<sup>••</sup>]; SI.2/A1.a);

- b) Mesoporous metals molecularly imprinted with chiral templating molecules, Figure 2 (e.g., [15–17<sup>••</sup>]; SI.2/A1.b);
- c) Electrodes modified with chiral conducting polymers/oligomers, mostly with stereocenters localized in "pendants" attached to the conjugated backbone, or based on monomers including other stereogenic elements (like atropisomeric or helicoidal ones), or grown in asymmetric environments/matrices, or under magnetopolarization, or with chiral counteranions, or with chiral dopants/entrapped chiral selectors, Figure 3 (e.g., [3,18<sup>•</sup>–30<sup>•</sup>]; SI.2/A1.c; *detailedly discussed in our concurrent paper* [18<sup>•</sup>];
- d) Electrodes modified with molecularly imprinted polymers (MIP) obtained with chiral templating molecules, Figure 2 (e.g., [1,31–41]; SI.2/A1.d);
- e) Electrode surfaces based on inherently chiral single-walled carbon nanotubes (e.g., [42,43<sup>••</sup>]; SI.2/A1.e);
- f) Electrodes modified with adsorbed or covalently grafted chiral molecules, chiral self-assembled monolayers SAMs, or other kinds of non-electroactive thin layers including, or templated with, chiral selectors (e.g., [22<sup>••</sup>,44–53]; SI.2/A1.f);
- g) Electrodes modified by polysaccharide-based selectors, Figure 3 (actually, a large subcategory of the former one; e.g., [54–71]; SI.2/A1.g);
- h) Chiral potentiometric electrodes with chiral ionophores incorporated in a membrane (also connected with the former two categories, e.g., [1,72]; SI.2/A1.h);
- i) Chiral amperometric biosensors based on enzymes ([1]; SI.2/A1.i);
- j) Chiral photoelectrodes, resulting in photocurrent differences (e.g., [23<sup>••</sup>,73]; SI.2/A1.j);
- k) Chiral metal–organic frameworks (e.g., [74<sup>•</sup>–76<sup>•</sup>]; SI.2/A1.k);
- l) Chiral thin-film transistors, Figure 2 (e.g., [35<sup>••</sup>, 77,78]; SI.2/A1.l);
- m) Complex composites, combining an increasing number of materials including one or more chiral selector(s), a typical recent trend (e.g., [79<sup>•</sup>–87<sup>••</sup>]; SI.2/A1.m).

In such approaches the electrochemical transduction of the enantiorecognition event consisted:

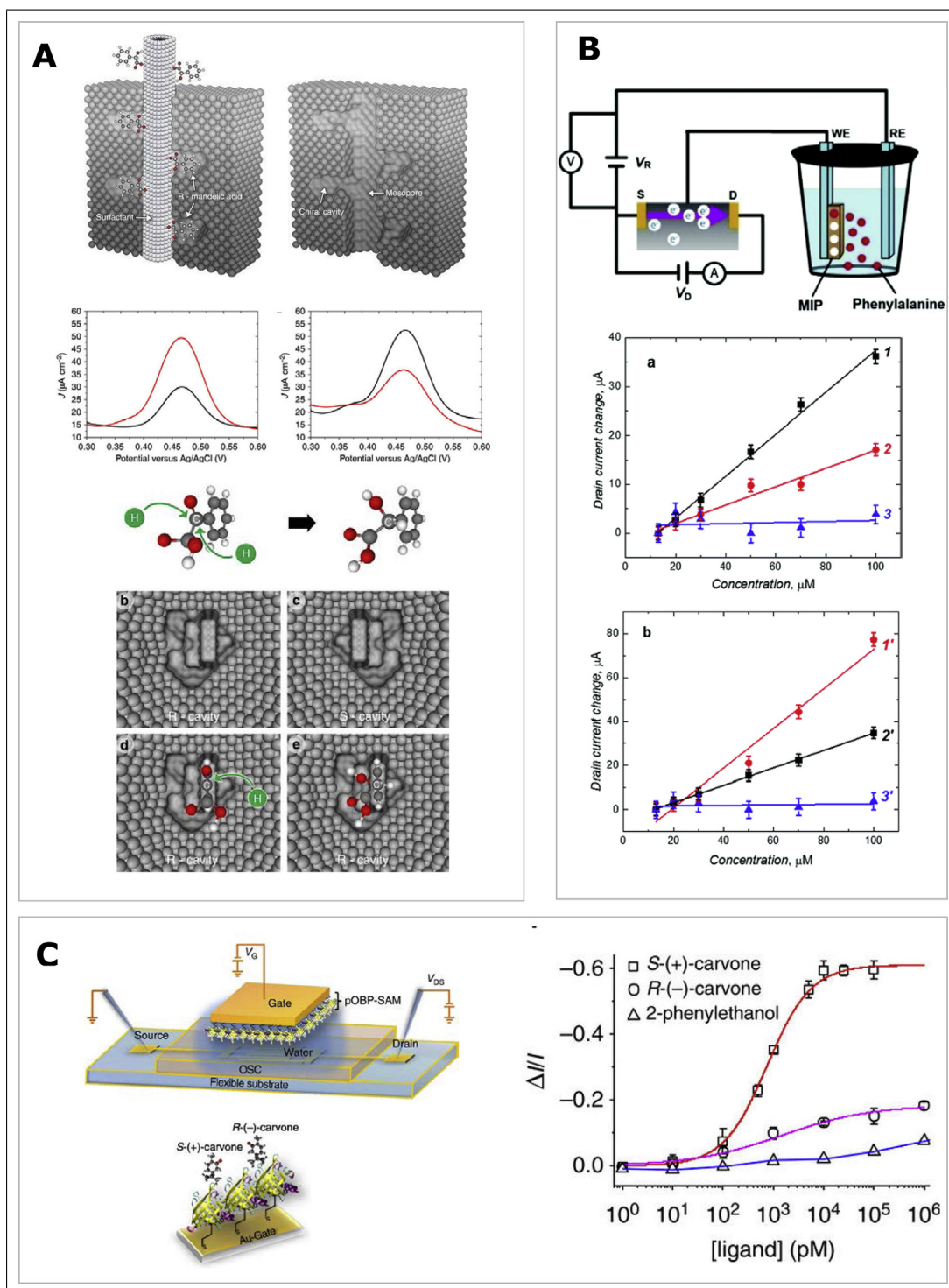
- in most cases, in current differences for the two enantiomers (in voltammetry, amperometry, transistors, photoelectrodes, spin-selective electrochemistry ...);
- in conductivity differences or different electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) patterns;
- in differences in equilibrium potentials and/or potentials vs. concentration trends in potentiometric mode;

Figure 1



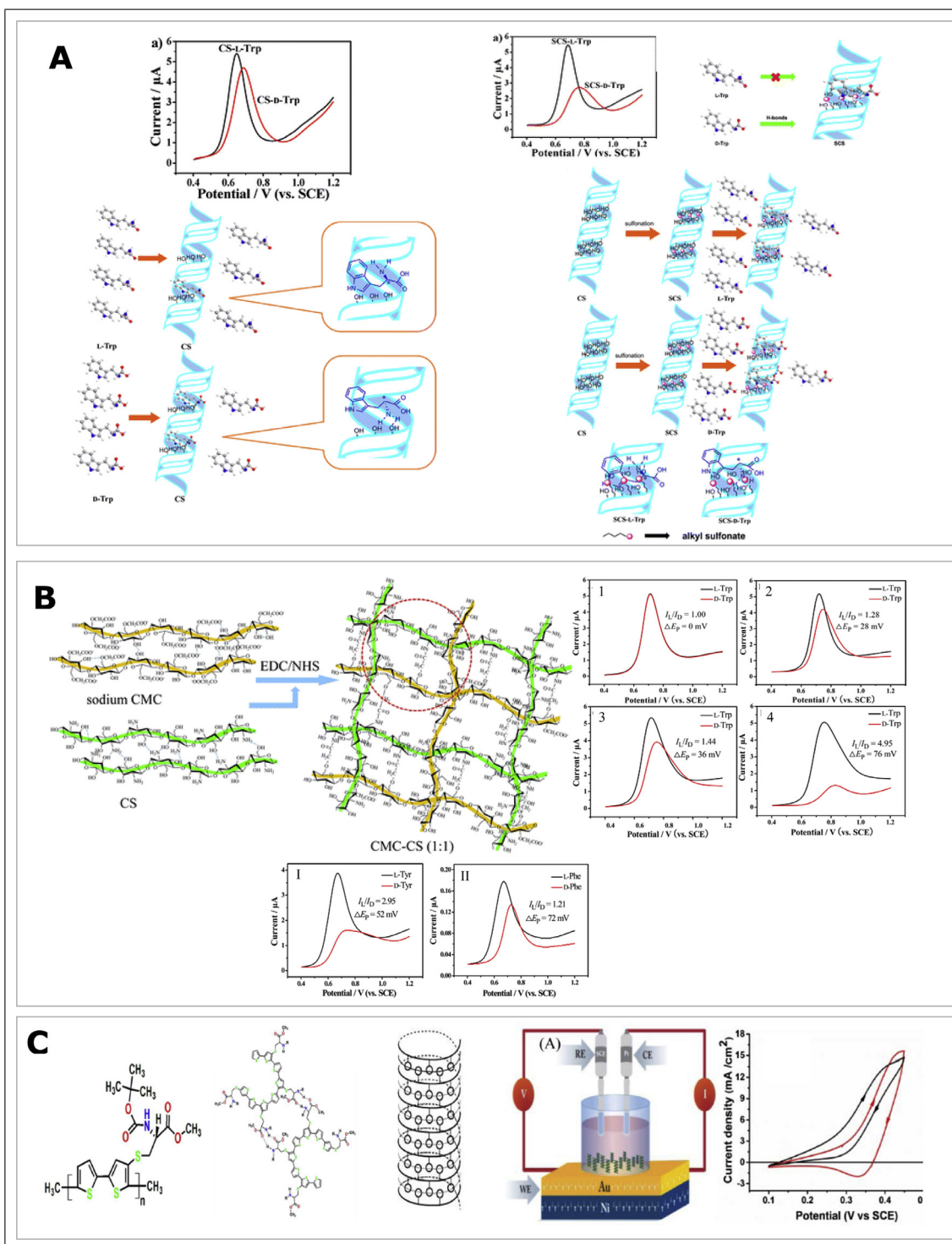
Recent examples of enantioselection on chiral metal surfaces. A. Enantioselective voltammetry of L- and D-alanine (red and blue) on chirally grown Ag surfaces: (a) (*R*)-Ag; (b) (*S*)-Ag; (c) racemate Ag. The SEM photo concerns (*R*)-Ag (adapted with permission from ref. [10]). B. Chiral electrocatalytic preparative reductions on a copper surface with entrapped alkaloids. Left column (from top to bottom): a process rendering; the tested alkaloids; the composite cathode as a powder and pressed in coin shape; SEM micrographs. Right column: process yields and enantiomeric excesses as a function of alkaloid and substrate (adapted with permission from ref. [14]).

Figure 2



Recent examples of chiral molecular imprinting and of chiral transistor devices. A: Mesoporous Pt imprinted with mandelic acid: DPV tests with L- and D-Dopa (red/black) on (R)- or (S)-imprinted electrode (right/left); enantioselective reduction of phenylglyoxylic acid to mandelic acid (rendering) (adapted with permission from ref. [17]). B: A MIP film implemented in a EG-FET applied for L- and D-phenylalanine enantioselective sensing (adapted with permission from ref. [35]). Published by the Royal Society of Chemistry. C: a capacitance-modulated protein-based transistor: rendering and enantioselective current response to (S)- and (R)-carvone (adapted with permission from ref. [78]).

Figure 3



Recent examples of enantioselective helicoidal structures. A: DPV of tryptophan enantiomers with chitosan (CS) helices, as such (left) or sulfonated (right) (adapted with permission from ref. [67]). Copyright (2017) American Chemical Society. B: Cooperative effects between CS and carboxymethylcellulose (CMC): DPV patterns for tryptophan enantiomers with 1: no selector; 2: CMC 3: CS; 4: CMC + CS, and DPV patterns for tyrosine and phenylalanine enantiomers with CMC + CS (adapted with permission from ref. [68]). Copyright (2017) American Chemical Society. C: Spin selective electrochemistry through helicoidal molecular film (adapted with permission from ref. [22]).

- in some voltammetry cases, in differences in peak potentials (particularly with "inherently chiral" selectors, as discussed later);
- sometimes also in peak morphology.

A comparatively much smaller number of studies, most of them very old, is so far available concerning *chiral electrodes applied to asymmetric electrosynthesis*.

According to a recent review [87\*\*] they can be classified into:

- (a) non-covalently linked chiral electrode adsorbents, resulting in enantiomeric excesses ranging from small/medium to ~70% in a few cases only, but appearing to be too sensitive to experimental conditions;
- (b) chirally modified electrodes, appearing more promising also on account of the smaller selector quantity required; a 93% e.e. in asymmetric oxidation of alkyl aryl sulfides on polymer-coated electrodes has been reported [88].

A detailed casebook is provided in SI/A2. Very recent studies deal with:

- enantioselective hydrogenation on metal-alkaloid hybrid electrode surfaces with water as hydrogen source, resulting in optically active alcohols with 71% e.e. and 93% yield [12,13,14\*\*];
- enantioselective synthesis of mandelic acid (MA) by electroreduction of phenylglyoxylic acid on MA-imprinted chiral mesoporous platinum [17\*\*];
- a striking photoelectrosynthetic application of *photoanodes coated with chiral molecules* [89,90\*\*], resulting in remarkable drop of the overpotential for hydrogen production and elimination of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production. The authors proposed the spin specificity of electrons transferred through chiral molecules to be the origin of a more efficient oxidation process in which oxygen is formed in its triplet ground state. Enhanced hydrogen production is obtained also using *a chiral polymer* respect to an achiral one ([22\*\*]), and when CdSe quantum dots were embedded within the polymer, the current density was doubled.

### Chiral media approaches

Respect to the aforementioned chiral electrode strategy, a much smaller number of studies have dealt with electrochemistry or electroanalysis on achiral electrodes, the selector being provided by the medium, either having a chiral selector dissolved into it or being itself endowed with chirality.

A number of early chiral electrosynthesis experiments had been performed using *chiral supporting electrolytes*

(SI.2/B1.a), obtaining enantiomeric excesses up to 44% in preparative experiments [91].

More recent analytical works relied on media with dissolved *chiral selectors/receptors/mediators* able to interact with the target molecule forming diastereomeric complexes (SI.2/B1.b; e.g., [92\*–95]).

Only a few studies involved *chirality of the medium itself* (SI.2/B2):

- *a chiral diamine cosolvent* in different organic solvents (e.g., [96]) resulted in small enantiomeric excesses (smaller than with chiral supporting electrolytes, which could ensure a more ordered chiral interphase);
- *water/chiral organic liquid interfaces* resulted in differences in enantiomer ion transfers (e.g., [97]);
- *magnetic fields* were employed to induce asymmetry in electropolymerization [18\*] or electrodeposition [SI.2/A.1a], and also to produce spin-selective currents (e.g., [22\*\*]);
- *liquid crystals with chiral additives inducing a cholesteric transition* effectively promoted macromolecular asymmetry in electropolymerization (e.g., [98–100\*\*]). Attractively, the resulting polymers can be converted into helical graphite [99,100\*\*]. Notably, years before a cholesteric liquid crystal provided a chiral environment for electrochemical processes at the electrode interphase [101].

Very recently, *inherently chiral ionic liquids (ICILs) and additives* [4\*\*] have resulted in outstanding enantioselection, as discussed further on.

### Problems and weaknesses

A problem common to most approaches, even attractive and successful, with only a few exceptions, consists in the difficulty to detect or manage both enantiomers when they are both present (or when it cannot be *a priori* excluded). On one side, sensors approaching full enantioselectivity in current or mass or potentiometric response (i.e., responding 100% to one enantiomer probe and 0% to the other one) can offer outstanding detection and quantification of one molecule antipode even in the presence of the opposite enantiomer, but for the same reason cannot account for the presence and concentration of the antipode (unless two specular sensors be employed concurrently). On the other side, non-fully enantioselective sensors in terms of current, or mass, or conductivity, or potentiometric response (i.e., responding X% to one enantiomer probe and Y% to the other one) could be applied to detection and management of a given enantiomer only provided that the presence of its antipode be *a priori* excluded.

Instead voltammetric peak potential differentiation, which could overcome this limitation (provided that

the two enantiomers be sufficiently separated), is obtained only in a few cases (e.g., significant differences in cyclic voltammetry (CV) potentials besides currents have been recently observed with chitosan-based helicoidal or network structures [67,68<sup>••</sup>], rationalized in terms of different binding constants [67]), often with too small peak differences and/or suffering from other drawbacks. For example, the elegant and conceptually simple chiral metal surfaces, offering by CV neat differentiation between probe enantiomers, are very difficult to prepare and manage.

Moreover, preparation procedures and/or operating protocols often appear sophisticated and expensive, and/or lacking robustness and/or reproducibility. Furthermore, most of them could hardly be applied to preparative experiments, which could explain the limited number of preparative studies so far available; actually, chiral electrosynthesis, in spite of its perspective importance, appears far from being mature.

### The outstanding potential of "inherently chiral" selectors

A weak point possibly connected with modest and/or labile chirality manifestations is that in most of the selectors considered, the chirality source is not intrinsic to the whole selector, but either

- *localized*: in molecular selectors, by one or more stereocenters; in oligo/polymer films, by stereocenters located in external "pendants"; in composite materials, by the stereocenter(s) of the chiral selector(s) included in the hybrid material;

or

- *external*: from external molecular templating agents in molecularly imprinted materials or in conducting polymers with chiral counterions or from a chiral electropolymerization medium, for asymmetrically grown films.

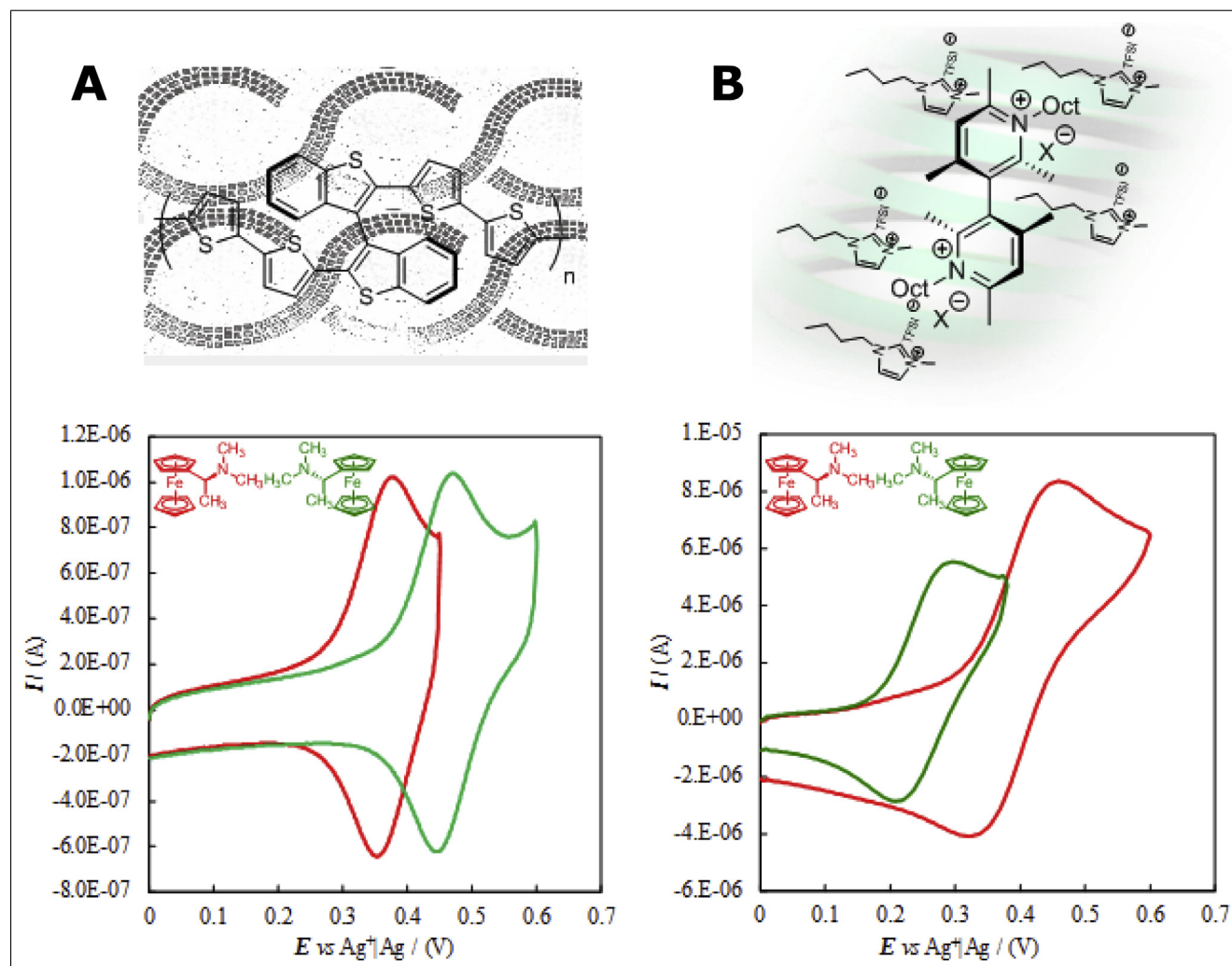
In this context, a breakthrough can come exploiting the "inherent chirality" strategy, according to which *the stereogenic element responsible for chirality coincides with the functional group responsible for the molecular material specific property* (that is, following F. Sannicolò's definition, SI.1). This concept can be effectively implemented as a stable tailored torsion in the main molecular scaffold (responsible of the key functional properties). In the case of chiral conducting polymers [18<sup>•</sup>] such molecular design strategy implies a stable torsion in monomeric units regioregularly propagating into very stable foldamers, unlike, e.g., helicoidal "secondary" structures of achiral conjugated systems induced by chiral electropolymerization media or by weak interactions involving chiral pendants on the achiral main chain (which can be easily overcome by solvent, pH

and/or temperature changes) [17<sup>••</sup>,102]. Such stable torsion can be induced by insertion in the selector backbone of stereogenic elements like helicoidal conjugated systems (like [103]) or atropisomeric ones (i.e., with sterically hindered rotation between two moieties) systems with  $C_2$  symmetry (e.g., [2<sup>••</sup>,3,26–29,46,47,95,104]). In both cases of course the monomer torsional energy barrier must be very high, not to be overcome in the temperature range of interest, so that the selector be available in two stable antipodes; moreover, regioregularity in the selector backbone design is a key issue to maximize chirality manifestations.

Reconsidering the above overviewed approaches, atropisomeric systems have been successfully employed to induce liquid crystals cholesterization, achieving effective media to obtain "secondary" chiral structures in achiral polymers ([98–100<sup>••</sup>]). Furthermore, importantly, metal surfaces grown with a helicoidal pattern resulted in significant differences between CV patterns of chiral probe antipodes [5–8]; and significant differences in potential trends with enantiomer concentrations were obtained with different kinds of selectors based on binaphthyl atropisomeric elements [26,46,47].

The potential of the "inherent chirality" strategy for electrochemical enantioselection proved to be outstanding when Sannicolò et al. developed inherently chiral electrodes of impressive chirality manifestations [3,27–29] obtained by easy and fast oxidative (electro)oligomerization of the enantiopure antipodes of the inherently chiral BT<sub>2</sub>T<sub>4</sub> monomer [105] (Figure 4A). The monomer design implies a very high torsional angle and energy barrier, granting atropisomerism and a strong 3D character, while not entirely hampering conjugation; it ensures high electroactivity as well as regioregularity in oligomerization on account of the two homotopic terminal positions. The oligomer films retain the (*R*) or (*S*) configuration of the starting monomer antipode and include a significant amount of cyclic terms (e.g., dimers, trimers, tetramers [27,106], providing attractive cavities of different diameters with heteroatoms for potential host/guest effects). Such enantiopure films showed outstanding chiroptical properties, such as circularly polarized luminescence and sharp specular circular dichroism signals, reversibly modulated by electrochemistry (chirality and electroactivity both originating from the molecular backbone). Tested as chiral electrode surfaces in CV experiments, they resulted in significant peak potential differences for the probe enantiomers, specularly inverting the selector configuration, besides a linear dynamic range on peak currents; this appeared to hold for very different chiral probes and operating conditions (solvent, electrode support) [3,28,29]. Similar results were also obtained starting from a different, all-thiophene atropisomeric monomer with two pairs of homotopic terminals [30<sup>•</sup>] confirming the validity of the inherent chirality concept. Extending such studies

Figure 4



Examples of enantiomer peak separation obtained for a model ferrocenyl probe on screen-printed electrodes in achiral ionic liquid medium (A) on an electrodeposited inherently chiral enantiopure BT<sub>2</sub>T<sub>4</sub> oligomer film or (B) adding inherently chiral bicollidinium double salts.

to inherently chiral films based on other stereogenic elements is very important.

More recently, the same strategy proved its effectiveness also implemented as medium rather than as electrode surface. Considering that increasing order at the electrode|solution interphase should enhance enantioselectivity manifestations, it is surprising that, to our knowledge, no attempts have been made so far with chiral ionic liquids (CILs).

Ionic liquids, organic salts with low melting points, are increasingly popular media on account of many peculiar advantageous properties respect to volatile organic solvents (low vapor pressure, chemical and thermal stability, high solvating ability, non-flammability ...) [107,108].

They are even more attractive for electrochemical processes (and already popular, e.g., for batteries and electrodepositions), acting as both solvent and supporting electrolyte, and especially featuring an extremely well-ordered structure at the interface with a charged electrode, expanding for many layers, like a semisolid crystal [109<sup>••</sup>–112], even in the presence of significant water traces [113<sup>••</sup>,114<sup>•</sup>], and modulated by other species possibly present at the interface [115]. Sometimes, they even border with liquid crystals [116<sup>•</sup>]. They also provide valuable components for electrochemical biosensors [117]. With CILs, already available in many structures (a well-organized overview up to 2012 is available in [118,119]), such a high degree of supramolecular organization can induce significant chirality transfer from the medium to the dissolved species. And, analogously to the electrode case,



this attitude could be maximized by the “inherent chirality” strategy, that is, working in ICILs.

To implement inherent chirality in ionic liquids, that are usually based on a heteroaromatic cation with at least one long alkyl chain (to lower the melting point), Sannicolò et al. proposed to start from *h*heteroaromatic scaffolds, like bipyridine or bibenzimidazole ones [4\*\*,120], bearing several alkyl substituents placed in such a way to result in strong reciprocal sterical hindrance and therefore high torsion between the two rings, being nearly perpendicular; this results in low reactivity and a very large potential window, as well as in the existence as two stable enantiomers. By dialkylation such inherently chiral scaffolds can be converted into the corresponding double salts. With at least one suitably long alkyl chain and a suitable anion such as bistriflimidate, the melting point can be lowered below room temperature; thus, two ICILs have been very recently obtained as enantiopure antipodes, starting from bicollidine, a very convenient scaffold on account of its low-cost synthesis and possibility to be separated into enantiomers by fractional crystallization, without expensive chiral HPLC [4\*\*]. Their enantioselectivity was tested as low-concentration additives in achiral commercial ionic liquids on screen-printed electrodes, with chiral probes already used for inherently chiral electrode tests; large, specular enantiomer peak potential differences were observed (Figure 4B). Attractively, the same behavior as chiral additives was also shown by family terms solid at room temperature, of faster and easier synthesis. The peak potential separation appears to regularly increase with inherently chiral salt concentration and to be modulated by the nature of the bulk ionic liquid. As a possible explanation, it was proposed that in the peculiar highly ordered electrode–ionic liquid interface the inherently chiral additives might induce a local chiral organization, analogously to the nematic/cholesteric transition in liquid crystals. Moreover, even if bulk complexation was excluded by NMR experiments (which could be expected, since the additives are not specifically tailored to complex the chiral probes, and appear to work with different probes), local specific interactions between chiral additive and chiral probe at the electrode|solution interface cannot be excluded. Application to preparative experiments is the next frontier; in the meanwhile, preliminary tests of electrooligomerization of BT<sub>2</sub>T<sub>4</sub> chiral monomer on achiral electrodes using inherently chiral bibenzimidazolium additives pointed to significant differences according to the additive/monomer enantiomer combinations [120].

## Conclusions

A wide variety of chiral surfaces and chiral media have been developed and tested to achieve enantioselective electrochemistry, with different enantioselectivity degrees and transduction modes in analytical experiments, including, e.g., enantiomer differences in currents (the

most common occurrence), potentiometric response, conductance and/or EIS patterns, mass variations, photocurrents... as well as significant enantiomeric excesses in preparative experiments. High to full specificity for a single enantiomer can be reached by the use of very specifically tailored selectors, like, e.g., in several MIP or enzyme sensor cases. However, in nearly all cases the kind of response is unsuitable to enable recognition of the (*R*)- or (*S*)-probe enantiomer configuration (alone or in mixture) by a single selector.

In this frame, a valuable asset appears to be provided by inherently chiral selectors, resulting in the observation of significant potential differences between probe enantiomers, working either on inherently chiral electrodes or on achiral electrodes in inherently chiral media. Importantly, this feature appears to be of general character (testing different kinds of probes and selectors) and requires in most cases only small amounts of inherently chiral selector (thin chiral films, low-concentration chiral additives). Of course, the newly available attractive palette of inherently chiral tools must be supported by detailed studies about the discrimination mechanism, as well as fully exploited by exploring a wider range of selector/probe combinations, as well as applications of preparative character and in advanced electrochemistry devices.

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## Supplementary materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at [doi:10.1016/j.coelec.2018.01.002](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coelec.2018.01.002).

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- Paper of outstanding interest.

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