Non-equimolar discrete compounds in binary chiral systems of organic substances†

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Since knowledge on the occurrence of non-equimolar discrete compounds in binary systems containing chiral molecules is very limited, this study reviews and systematizes the current state of investigating such systems and summarizes the results on two example systems studied in detail by the authors. In particular, the identification and verification of the non-equimolar discrete compounds compared to other discrete solid phases occurring in the two systems are discussed by presenting the results of related SCXRD, PXRD, TRPXRD, DSC, IR, and HSM studies. The (S)-malic acid-(R)-malic acid system has been found to contain non-equimolar 1:3 and 3:1 stable (SR and SR₂) and metastable (3S1R and 1S3R) discrete compounds, along with the equimolar compounds RS₁ and RS₁I (known monoclinic modifications) and the recently discovered RS₁II modification. Polymorphic transformations of the discrete phases are debated, and the crystal structure of the stable compound S₂R is identified (S. G. P1). The L-valine-L-isoleucine system has been stated to contain a non-equimolar 2:1 discrete compound, V₃L, that could independently be proven by the ternary solubility diagram in water and its crystal structure solved (S. G. C2). The results obtained are discussed in conjunction with the findings reported in the literature. In order to systematize the variety of terms used for the description of discrete phases in binary chiral systems of organic substances, a systematization of equimolar and non-equimolar compounds based on chemical and crystallographic characteristics is proposed.

1. Introduction

When studying the limits of solid solutions and the polymorph diversity of organic compounds, several geometric and chemical factors are taken into account, such as dimensions, shape, and symmetry of a molecule, as well as the type of intermolecular bonding.1–3 In the last decades, further geometrical (stereochemical) factors – the molecule chirality and its configuration4 – have been found to be essential for the analysis of molecular packing in crystal structures of enantiomeric compounds.5,6 An avalanche-like growing interest in a rather abundant class of organic substances that contain chiral molecules is prompted by their numerous applications in the pharmaceutical industry, medicine, biochemistry7–11 and even in geology,12–16 where they are used, for example, for sediment rock dating; the last method is based on interrelations between levorotatory and dextrorotatory enantiomers in fossilized organic matter.13,16 Industrial use and treatment of biochemically active chiral compounds requires development and improvement of synthesis techniques and also of methods for chiral resolution and

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purification. This requires, in its turn, a fundamental knowledge and understanding of the phase equilibria and crystal chemistry in chiral systems.6–20

The three general types of phase diagrams known for chiral systems are shown in Fig. 1 (upper part).5,21 These are diagrams containing a eutectic (Fig. 1a), a binary compound (Fig. 1b), and (complete) solid solutions (Fig. 1c). The exact type of phase diagram is determined by the nature of the equimolar (1:1) mixture of enantiomers. The diagram of the first type corresponds to a physical mixture of enantiomers, or conglomerate, S + R; the second type to a binary compound (racemic compound5), RS; and the third type to a solid solution, S,R. Schematic representations of the equimolar compositions that correspond to the three types mentioned are illustrated in Fig. 1 (bottom part). The maximum of the liquidus line of the racemic compound can lie above or below the melting points of the enantiomers or even be equal to them (Fig. 1b). So, the diagrams of the second type can be further divided into three subtypes.5,6,22 Analogous subtypes are allocated for the diagrams containing solid solutions (Fig. 1c). According to J. Jacques et al.,5 a majority of binary systems (~90%) belongs to the second type, while the first type systems are much less frequent (~10%), with the third type being the rarest.

A diagram of each type may be further complicated due to polymorphism of the system components and/or equimolar compounds. Moreover, the diagrams of the first two types can be additionally diversified due to the formation of limited solid solutions.19 For example, in very recent work,23 C. Brandel et al. described the complex behavior of the diprophylline enantiomers, a system where solid solutions form in addition to the polymorphism of both the equimolar compound and the enantiomer.23 Possible phase diagram arrangements that can result from such complications are discussed in detail by G. Coquerel.6 However, all the diagrams presented there correspond to binary systems of the same group, viz. systems consisting of enantiomers of the same chemical compound.

In the published literature, there are sparse data on two other groups of binary systems containing chiral molecules. One group includes systems of diastereomers and the other systems of enantiomers of different compounds. Examples of our investigations of the solid phases existing in binary systems of the three above groups are summarized in Table 1.

The three systems of the first group24–30 contain enantiomers of the same compound. The system formed by the S-
and R-enantiomers of the ethanamine salt of 3-chloromandelic acid (E3ClMA) is an example of a eutectic system with partial miscibility between the components.24,25 The system of malic acid S- and R-enantiomers belongs to the type 2 systems showing different polymorphs of the racemic compound and limited solid solutions.26-29 Moreover, the system is complicated by the presence of two non-equimolar discrete compounds, $S:R = 1:3$ and $3:1$.29 The system of L- and D-enantiomers of threonine is a eutectic system free from solid solutions.30 Two shown systems of the second group are formed by diastereomers of the same compound. L- and D-threonine and L-valine; Ile and D-threonine show relatively rarely reported additional phase behaviours as limited solid solutions and, in particular, non-equimolar discrete compounds. Both, as well as literature data concerning these and similar systems, will be presented in this paper. A discrete compound as used here is a solid phase with fixed stoichiometry (equimolar or not but stoichiometric) having a crystal structure different from the compound components and, hence, clearly differs from solid solutions.

The paper is structured as follows. After introducing in section 2 the materials and experimental methods used in our own studies, in section 3, the systems of enantiomers of the same compound containing non-equimolar discrete phases are reviewed and followed by a detailed discussion of the (S)-malic acid–(R)-malic acid example. Section 4 refers to the systems of enantiomers of different compounds containing equimolar and non-equimolar discrete solid phases with a special emphasis on the L-val–L-isoleucine. For both exemplary systems, particular focus is set on discrete compounds described recently. In section 5, a systematization of the discrete compounds occurring in binary chiral systems of organic substances is suggested. Finally, the main results are summarized, and conclusions are drawn.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Materials

System 1: (S)-malic acid–(R)-malic acid. The starting reagents were S- and R-enantiomers and racemates of the RSI modification with 98% purity, which are available from Merck Schuchardt OHG, Hohebrunn, Germany. The reactants were used for preparing samples of quenched mixtures and growing samples of different compositions from aqueous, ethanol, acetone, and isopropanol solutions. The sample preparation techniques are described in detail elsewhere.27-29

System 2: l-valine and l-isoleucine. The starting substances were L-valine and L-isoleucine with a 99% purity, which are available from Alfa Aesar, Massachusetts, USA, as well as deionized water as solvent. These reactants were used for sample preparation by means of isothermal evaporation and cooling techniques, as well as grinding of mixtures with various compositions. The sample preparation techniques are described in detail elsewhere.27-29

2.2 Experimental techniques

High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). An analytical HPLC system equipped with a Phenomenex Chirex 3126 column was used. System 1: The material was dissolved in distilled water (1 wt%) and analyzed under the following conditions: eluent – 5 mM CuSO₄ at pH 3.2 (acetic acid), flow
rate – 0.5 mL min\(^{-1}\), injection volume – 2 \(\mu\)L, temperature – 25 °C, wavelength – 254 nm.\(^{29}\)

**System 2:** The material was dissolved in distilled water (up to 0.2 wt\%) and analyzed using the following conditions: eluent – 2 M aqueous CuSO\(_4\) solution/MeOH 85/15 (v/v), flow rate – 0.5 mL min\(^{-1}\), injection volume – 5 \(\mu\)L, temperature – 25 °C, wavelength – 280 nm.\(^{34}\)

**Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC).** System 1: For the melting temperature measurement, a SETARAM DSC 131 unit (France) was employed. Helium purge gas flow was 20 mL min\(^{-1}\). About 10 mg of the substance were studied in closed aluminum crucibles at a heating rate of 1 K min\(^{-1}\) in the range of 30–150 °C.\(^{29}\) Melting temperatures were taken from the extrapolated onset temperatures of the melting peaks.

**Powder X-ray diffractometry (PXRD).** System 1: Measurements were performed using a Bruker D2 Phaser diffractometer (Germany) applying CuK\(_{\alpha}\) radiation and collecting data in 2\(\theta\) range of 5–45° with a step of 0.02°.\(^{29}\) System 2: Measurements were carried out at an X’Pert Pro diffractometer (PANalytical GmbH, Germany) using CuK\(_{\alpha}\) radiation and an X’Celerator detector in a 2\(\theta\) range of 3–40° with a step size of 0.017°.\(^{34}\) The diffraction patterns obtained for both systems were processed using a STOE WinXPOW software package.

**Temperature-resolved powder X-ray diffractometry (TRXRD).** System 1: A STOE diffractometer (Germany) (CuK\(_{\alpha}\) radiation) provided with high-temperature equipment was used in an air atmosphere. The temperature variation was from room temperature to the substance decomposition point with a temperature step of 2–10 °C.\(^{27}\) This work

**Single crystal X-ray diffractometry (SCXRD).** Systems 1\(^{\text{This work}}\) and 2\(^{\text{24}}\) A diffractometer, Agilent Technologies SuperNova (USA), with CuK\(_{\alpha}\) radiation was used at a temperature of 100 K. The structure was solved by direct methods and refined by means of the SHELX program incorporated in the OLEX2 program package.

**Infrared spectroscopy (IR).** System 1: A Bruker ALPHA FT-IR-spectrometer (Germany) equipped with a Platinum- ATR-sampling module was used for the analysis of solid samples.\(^{\text{This work}}\)

**Hot stage microscopy (HSM).** System 1: A Linkam LTS 420 hot stage (UK) combined with a Zeiss Axioskop microscope (Germany) was applied. Samples prepared on a microscope glass slide were continuously heated from room temperature to the substance melting point at 2 K min\(^{-1}\) heating rate. The temperature was held constant at certain temperatures to observe the changes in the sample behaviour.

### 3. Systems of enantiomers of the same compound containing non-equimolar discrete phases

#### 3.1 Overview

A list of enantiomeric systems, which are found to contain equimolar, as well as non-equimolar discrete compounds (anomalous racemates), is presented in Table 2. Published data on the formation of non-equimolar discrete compounds in chiral systems is not always reliable, in particular, when the study is only based on melting point/DSC analyses, and the crystal structure of the compounds is not deciphered. A brief description of some systems is presented below.

**β-hydro-di-γ-benzoylaminobutyric acid.** M. Bergmann and M. Lissitzin\(^{51}\) were the first (in 1930) to introduce the concept of so-called “anomalous raceme”. In the research,\(^{51}\) they tried to separate enantiomers of β-hydro-di-γ-benzoylami-

### Table 2 Non-equimolar discrete compounds in binary systems of enantiomers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ratio</th>
<th>Compounds</th>
<th>Crystal structure; methods of research</th>
<th>Ref.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1:3</td>
<td>2,4-Dimethylglutaric acid</td>
<td>Not determined; melt phase diagram</td>
<td>36, 37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:3</td>
<td>Tetramisole (6-phenyl-2,3,5,6-tetrahydroimidazo[2,1-b][1,3]thiazole)</td>
<td>Not determined; DSC, PXRD, DSC, PXRD, HPLC</td>
<td>38, 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:3</td>
<td>3-Hydroxy-4-(2,4,5-trifluorophenyl)butanoic acid</td>
<td>Not determined; DSC</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:4</td>
<td>Carvone (2-methyl-5-(prop-1-en-2-yl)cyclohex-2-en-1-one)</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:5</td>
<td>4-Methyl-7-methylenetriazolo[7,2,1.0,1,5,2,12-one oxime</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:2</td>
<td>Bicyclic bis-lactam derivative BBL7</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:2</td>
<td>Exo-trans-exo-(13R,24R)-14,23-dioxaoctacyclodecan-12-one oxime</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:2</td>
<td>triaccontane-15,22-dione</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:2</td>
<td>[1-(Hydroxymethyl)-4,10-dimethyl-3-oxatricyclo[5.2.1.0^2,7]decan-10-ol]</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:2</td>
<td>2-Diisopropylcarbamoyl-3-methylpentane-3,4-diol</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:2</td>
<td>rac-2,2′-di(Ethoxycarbonyl)-6′,6′-tetramethoxy-1′,2′,2′,3′,3′′,4′′-octahydro-1′-,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:2</td>
<td>–bissiquinoline</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:2</td>
<td>(E)-3,4-Di-butyl-1,1,2,2-tetrakis(trimethylsilyl)-1,2-disilacyclobutane</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:2</td>
<td>trans-[1RS,3SR]-2-N,N-Dimethylaminomethyl-1,3-dithiolane-1,3-dioxide</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:2</td>
<td>3-Propyl-4-(p-toluenesulfonylamo)-1,2-dienesalene</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:3</td>
<td>3-(2-tert-Butylphenoxy) propylene-1,2-diol</td>
<td>Determined;(^{\text{a}}} PXRD, DSC, SCXRD, TRXRD, IR, HSM</td>
<td>29, 37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:3</td>
<td>6-[Dimethoxymethylene]-dibenz[d,6]tricyclo[5.2.2.0^{5,7}]undeca-4,10-dien-8-one</td>
<td>Determined;(^{\text{a}}} PXRD, DSC, SCXRD, TRXRD, IR, HSM</td>
<td>29, 37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{\text{a\}}\} This work.
butyric acid via rapid crystallization from a highly supersaturated aqueous solution containing both enantiomers in the ratio of about 1:2. They found that the homogeneous precipitate obtained via such crystallization has a unique optical activity value. Its angle of optical rotation [α]D was +/−7.2°, while the same parameter for the enantiomers was +/−22°. On this basis, they stated that the compound in question could crystallize in the racemic form and two additional compounds 1:2 and 2:1. Quite recently (2015), A. A. Bredikhin et al.52 proved in a reinvestigation via IR spectra, SCXRD and PXRD analysis, and solubility data that no additional compounds exist in the system. Taking this into account, we did not include the system in Table 2.

Naringenin. Furthermore, Table 2 does not include the system of naringenin enantiomers, which was studied by P. J. Cox et al.53 The authors synthesized racemic naringenin via recrystallization of the precursor substance from an ethanol solution. They detected the micro-inhomogeneity of a crystal of racemic composition. Despite the fact that its crystal structure corresponds to that of the racemate, the crystal is a combination of two types of unit cells; those of the 1st type are populated with R- and S-molecules in proportions of 77.5% and 22.5%, while the proportions in the 2nd type unit cells are 22.5% and 77.5%, respectively. These proportions roughly correspond to compositions of S:R = 1:2 and 1:3. The authors53 assumed that the matter analyzed was a solid solution. Later, J. E. Tabora et al.21 mentioned that the existence of unit cells with 1:3 and 3:1 populations in the crystal structure of racemic naringenin can be indirect evidence of the presence of 1:3 phases in the system. In our opinion, this crystal structure can be regarded as a partially disordered racemate since the authors21 showed it to be centrosymmetric (present authors' note: pseudo-centrosymmetric).

As a result, Table 2 contains 16 systems with non-equimolar discrete compounds of which we have knowledge. It should be mentioned that crystal structures of four of the listed compounds have not yet been clarified.21,36−38 For example, paper21 reports the results of the crystallization of different mixtures of the 3-hydroxy-4-(2,4,5-trifluorophenyl) butanoic acid enantiomers from toluene solutions. In the ternary phase diagram, two additional eutonics and a maximum in-between were detected. The composition S:R = 1:3, corresponding to the maximum, showed both a unique melting point and X-ray powder pattern, leading to the conclusion that it is a discrete compound.

Thus, the compounds found in the systems discussed must be further investigated since a final conclusion can be drawn only after depicting their crystal structures. For this reason, the detection of such compounds can be considered completely valid only for 12 (ref. 29, 40–50) of the systems shown in Table 2. Among them, 1:2 and 1:3 compounds are reported for eight and three cases, respectively; for one system, a 1:5 compound is described. Beside our research on the malic acid system in section 3.2, two examples shall be briefly mentioned.

R. G. Kostyanovsky et al.41 determined crystal structures for two chiral compounds belonging to the group of bicyclic bis-lactam (BBL). There, compound BBL7 is composed of three different, independent homochiral chains: two of them comprising molecules of the same chirality, −R−R−R−, while the third contains molecules of chirality −S−S−S−. Therefore, it could be classified as a compound of an S:R = 1:2 type. A. A. Bredikhin et al.50 studied the 3-(2-tert-butylphenoxy)-propane-1,2-diol system and found an additional peak in the DSC curve for the composition with an S:R ratio close to 1:3. SCXRD analysis of that sample allowed identification of a discrete phase and its crystal structure.

3.2 The system (S)-malic acid-(R)-malic acid

3.2.1 History. The system of malic acid enantiomers has been investigated over decades. One of the four carbon atoms forming the malic acid C4H6O5 molecule includes a chiral center. As already mentioned, it is a representative of the chiral systems containing a racemic compound,54 and it is also remarkable for being an example of the combination of a few complications discussed in the work.6 For example, the RS compound can crystallize in various polymorphic modifications. The data on the crystal structure and diffraction spectra of the two monoclinic modifications of RS-malic acid (designated as RS I and RS II in the following), as well as the malic acid enantiomers, are available from the Cambridge Structural Database (CSD)55 and the International Centre for Diffraction Data (ICDD).56 In the crystal structures of the Senantiomer and racemic compounds RS I and RS II, malic acid molecules form chains with neighbour molecules in the chains being linked by hydrogen bonds.57−60 This is a common arrangement for dicarboxylic acids, such as terephthalic,64 succinic62 and adipic62 acids.

In addition to the racemic compound, the presence of “anomalous racemates” in the malic acid system was firstly reported in paper.17 The authors studied some enantiomeric compositions using HSM and plotted the phase diagram. Besides the maximum corresponding to the racemic compound (RS I, the only modification known at that time), they found additional inflexion points of the liquidus line at compositions S:R = 3:1 and 3:1. They also found that the sample crystallized from aqueous solution with the composition S:R = 1:3 was characterized by a unique diffraction pattern. Later, the authors of other work63 discovered a second monoclinic polymorph of the racemic compound (RS II). They assumed that the inflexions of the liquidus line discovered by previous authors resulted from the intersections of two liquidus lines belonging to the different polymorphs of the racemic compound, which, consequently, could not be proof of the anomalous racemates existence. For many years, this point of view has prevailed. Later, H. Kaemmerer et al.64 carried out experiments to verify that the racemic forms RS I and RS II are monotropically related. They showed that the lower melting form RS II undergoes a polymorphic phase transition to RS I by storage at room temperature. The DSC data also
proved monotropy in accordance with the heat-of-fusion rule.\textsuperscript{64} DSC and DTA studies on $S$- and \textit{R}S-malic acid have been also reported by other authors.\textsuperscript{65}

3.2.2 Phase relations in the system based on PXRD, TRPXRD, IR-spectroscopy, DSC and HSM investigations

\textit{Phase diversity in the (S)-malic acid-(\textit{R})-malic acid system.}\ The system of malic acid enantiomers appeared to be more complex than it seemed before. Firstly, along with the known monoclinic modifications $R_{SI}$ and $R_{SII}$, a third modification of the racemic compound $R_{SIII}$ can be formed. Secondly, in addition to the equimolar compound $RS$, non-equimolar discrete phases with the ratio $S:R = 3:1$ and $1:3$ occur that thirdly, can crystallize as stable $S_{3}R$ ($SR_{3}$) and metastable $3S1R$ ($1S3R$) modifications. Moreover, the discovery of additional discrete phases necessitated further adjusting the limits of solid solutions in this system.

\textit{Equimolar discrete compounds.} PXRD studies of samples of the racemic compounds crystallized from various solvents showed\textsuperscript{27} that the polymorphic diversity of the $RS$ compound depends, first of all, upon the crystallization medium and the crystallization rate (ESI:† Table 1). The influence of some other crystallization conditions is discussed in details in the paper.\textsuperscript{27} Phase distribution of the crystallization products according to the crystallization time (ESI:† Table 1) correlates with estimation of the stability of the various phases based on DSC data.

\textit{Non-equimolar discrete compounds.} A PXRD study of samples with an enantiomer ratio of $S:R = 3:1$ (1:3) allowed the determination of stable $S_{3}R$ ($SR_{3}$) and metastable modifications $3S1R$ ($1S3R$) of 3:1 and 1:3 discrete compounds in the system.\textsuperscript{66} As for the racemic compound, the diversity of the polymorphic modifications of these compounds depends upon the crystallization medium and the crystallization rate (ESI:† Table 1). The presence of the non-equimolar discrete phases in the system was also confirmed by IR-spectroscopy, DSC and HSM studies. We obtained IR spectra of the malic acid equimolar and non-equimolar compounds in the area of 4000–400 cm\textsuperscript{-1}. Fig. 2a and b show the IR spectra of $S$-enantiomer, racemic compounds $R_{SI}$ and $R_{SII}$ and non-equimolar $S_{3}R$ and $3S1R$ discrete phases in the diagnostic ranges of 3600–3300 cm\textsuperscript{-1} and 1740–1630 cm\textsuperscript{-1}. It can be seen that each of the phases $S$, $RS$, $RS_{II}$, $SR_{3}$, and $3S1R$, of malic acid has its own spectrum that allows for the use of IR-spectroscopy for their identification. The results for the known racemic and enantiomer phases agree with data reported in the works\textsuperscript{26,63} and do not contradict other literature findings.\textsuperscript{67}

\textit{Phase relationships in the (S)-malic acid-(\textit{R})-malic acid system.} The TRPXRD method showed that the racemic phases $R_{SI}$ and $R_{SIII}$ do not undergo polymorph transformations until the substances reached their melting points at 124 °C and 123 °C, respectively. However, heating a sample of an $R_{SI} + R_{SIII}$ mixture resulted in a homogenization at 110–123 °C to form $RSI$ and the subsequent melting of the latter at 124 °C. In addition, a slurry experiment where a $R_{SI} + R_{SIII}$ mixture was slurried in an acetonitrile solution for 1 month also showed $R_{SI}$ to be stable and $R_{SIII}$ to be metastable. Upon heating, the $R_{SII}$ phase transforms into $R_{SI}$ at a temperature of 106–108 °C. The experiments confirmed stability of the $R_{SI}$ phase, the obvious metastability of $R_{SII}$, and the less obvious metastability of $R_{SIII}$ at ambient temperature.

Fig. 3 shows the DSC melting curves for the three racemic phases and the non-equimolar $S:R = 3:1$ modifications of malic acid. The melting temperatures increased in the order $3S1R$, $S_{3}R$, $R_{SI}$, $R_{SII}$, $R_{SIII}$. Based on the heat-of-fusion rule,\textsuperscript{64} the monotropic relationships between the polymorphs $R_{SI}$,
RSII and RSIII of the racemic compound as well as the polymorphs $S_3R$ and $3S1R$ of the non-equimolar discrete compounds could be proven (Fig. 3).

Thermomicroscopic (HSM) investigations of the $S$-enantiomer, racemic compounds $RSI$ and $RSII$, physical mixtures of enantiomers $S + R$ with the proportions of 1:1 and 1:3 for the components, and the non-equimolar discrete compounds $S_3R$ and $3S1R$ were performed (ESI:† Fig. 1a). Close to the DSC results, the heating of the enantiomer and racemates $RSI$ and $RSII$ did not lead to any noticeable changes until melting of the substances. Instead of powders, in experiments with a 1:1 physical mixture of enantiomers $S + R$, we used two homochiral crystallites obtained by quenching the melt of the corresponding enantiomers (ESI:† Table 1). Experiments with the 3:1 physical mixture ($S + R$) were run with powders (ESI:† Fig. 1b). They resulted in the formation of the discrete compound that finally melts. After recrystallization, a crystallite was taken, which was the metastable discrete phase $3S1R$, and analyzed (ESI:† Fig. 1c). A visible transformation of the metastable into the stable phase, $3S1R \rightarrow S_3R$, was not observed. The substance melted and recrystallized after removal of the heat.

The thorough study of the malic acid system resulting in identification of various modifications of the equimolar and non-equimolar discrete phases as well as the limits of solid solutions in two of the systems facilitates compiling a schematic representation of the phase diagram (Fig. 4). It is based on the data obtained by the PXRD, TRPXRD, DSC, HSM, IR, and SCXRD methods mentioned. The given melting points originate from both the DSC and TRPXRD results. The limits of solid solutions were allocated using the results of a PXRD study of molten mixtures (ESI:† Fig. 2). When compared with the known diagrams of the second type (see Fig. 1), the diagram of the malic acid system is very complex with the following characteristics. 1) The racemic compound can form three polymorphic modifications, with two of them already known ($RSI$ and $RSII$), and the third one ($RSIII$) discovered by the present authors. 2) Non-equimolar discrete compounds with the ratio $S:R = 3:1$ and $1:3$ (ref. 29) are formed in the system. 3) The non-equimolar discrete compounds can crystallize in stable ($S_3R$ and $SR_3$) and metastable ($3S1R$ and $1S3R$) modifications. 4) Studies of the detected discrete phases allow determination of the areas of solid solutions in this system, which are found in the vicinity of all the discrete phases. | 1857

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Fig. 3 DSC curves and derived melting data of the racemic compounds $RSI$, $RSII$, and $RSIII$ and the $S_3R$ and $3S1R$ compounds of malic acid.

Fig. 4 Schematic representation of the phase diagram of the malic acid enantiomers (not scaled) with melting temperatures added. Explanations are provided in the discussion.
3.2.3 Crystal structure of compound $S,R$. Definitive confirmation of the existence of non-equimolar discrete compounds in the system became possible after determining the crystal structure of the stable compound $S,R$. A single crystal with the $S : R$ ratio of 75:25% obtained from an acetoneitrile solution via an isothermal evaporation method was studied by means of SCXRD. The crystal structure data and structure refinement of the compound are presented in ESI:† Table 2. The powder X-ray diffraction pattern calculated using the structural data (ESI:† Fig. 3a) is consistent with the experimental diffractogram of the stable compound $S,R$ (ESI:† Fig. 3b) and differs from the pattern of the metastable compound 3S1R (ESI:† Fig. 3c). ESI:† Table 3 shows the triclinic cell parameters of the compound $S,R$ in comparison to the other discrete phases in the system.

Fig. 5 presents the crystal structure of the compound $S,R$ in projections on the planes $ab$ (a), $bc$ (b), and $ac$ (c). It might be described as an arrangement of molecular chains of two types. Chains of the first “enantiomeric” type are composed of molecules of the same chirality $-S-S-S-S-$, while chains of the second “racemic” type include alternating molecules of both chiralities $-S-R-S-R-$. ESI:† Fig. 4 shows projections of the crystal structures of racemate $RS$, racemate $RSII$, $S$-enantiomer, and compound $S,R$ onto the $ab$ and $bc$ planes. The most interesting for analysis of these crystal structures are their projections on the $ac$ plane depicted in Fig. 6. It can be seen that the neighbor molecules within the chains are interlinked via hydrogen bonds in all the crystal structures of $RSI$ (Fig. 6a), $RSII$ (Fig. 6b), $S$ (Fig. 6c), and $S,R$ (Fig. 6d). For a convenient description, two opposite edges of the molecules will be designated here as a “head” and a “tail”, where the head is the end of the molecule, which is closer to the side OH group, while the opposite end is, correspondingly, the tail.

In the crystal structures of racemate $RSI$, $S$-enantiomer and compound $S,R$, the neighbor molecules have “head-to-head, tail-to-tail” connections. Molecules of different chiralities are characterized by the same conformation in the case of $RSI$ chains and “racemic” chains of $S,R$. Alternatively, molecules of the same chirality in the case of enantiomer chains and “enantiomeric” chains of $S,R$ are characterized by two conformations; this allows interlinking of such molecules. The crystal structure of $RSII$ contains “head-to-tail” arrangements of molecules. As for $RSI$, the molecules are also characterized by different chiralities and by the same conformation.

In the crystal structures of all the malic acid compounds, the hydrogen bonds between neighbor molecules are conducted by the edge COOH groups. Two COOH groups belonging to neighbor molecules form carboxylic dimers (dimer ring). The differences in H-bond topography between various compounds ($RSI$, $RSII$, $S$, and $S,R$) are due to the number of such contacts linking the molecules of the neighbor chains. In the case of $RSI$ (Fig. 6a), there is an alternating number of H-bonds that connect the carboxylic rings corresponding to the neighbor chains. Carboxylic rings forming four contacts alternate with those forming six contacts. In Fig. 6, the contacts connecting the carboxylic dimers, as well as the contacts forming the dimers, are shown by the blue dashed lines. In
the case of RSII (Fig. 6b), there are no hydrogen bonds between the neighbor chains. In the case of the S-enantiomer (Fig. 6c), only half of the carboxylic rings are connected to those of a neighbor chain. There are five H-bonds per one ring. Moreover, there are two H-bonds on both sides from the ring that connect the pendant OH groups of the molecules corresponding to the neighbor chains. The contacts are shown by green dashed lines. In the case of SR (Fig. 6d), there are rings of four types. This is due to molecular chains of two types alternating in the crystal structure – enantiomeric and racemic. In the enantiomeric chains, there are alternating dimers with three and two contacts with the neighbor chains. In the racemic chains, there are alternating dimers forming two and four such contacts.

For convenience, the crystal structures described are schematically shown in Fig. 7(a–d). The use of different colors enables distinguishing S- and R-enantiomer molecules, and the different conformations are indicated to recognize the “tails” and the “heads” of the molecules. The molecular shape reflects its conformation – a straight shape corresponds to the “racemic” conformation, while the slanted shape corresponds to the “enantiomeric” conformation. This representation shows the principle packing of molecular chains of two types in the crystal structure of the compound SR. The crystal structure is a combination of the racemate RSII chains and S-enantiomer chains.

4. Systems of enantiomers of different compounds containing equimolar and non-equimolar discrete phases

4.1 Systems of enantiomers of different compounds containing equimolar discrete phases

In the available literature, there are a considerable number of publications reporting systems composed of enantiomers of different compounds. Some of these systems belong to the type two (see Fig. 1) since their equimolar compositions are discrete compounds. Fifteen examples of such systems are presented in Table 3, and for ten of the related compounds, the crystal structures were determined using SCXRD. Almost all the represented enantiomeric molecules have only one chiral center, the exceptions being (+)-dilactic acid, (+)-2,4-dimethylglutaric acid and tartaric acid molecules with two equal chiral centers, i.e., the carbon atoms with the chiral centers have the same substituents.

The most interesting for our discussion are three systems: t-malic–L-tartaric acid, t-malic–d-tartaric acid and d-valine–L-isoleucine, while malic acid and L-valine–L-isoleucine are, in turn, the subjects of our studies (see Table 1).

The first two systems differ from each other only in the type of chirality of tartaric acid as the second component. It should be noted that malic and tartaric acids have non-coinciding directions of rotation for the polarized light plane, which are l(+) and d(+) for malic acid and l(+) and d(−) for tartaric acid. The configuration difference of the tartaric acid molecule is reflected in the structure of the resulting binary compounds. The compound formed in the l-malic acid–d-tartaric acid system has the space group P2₁, while the one in the l-malic acid–l-tartaric acid system is characterized by the space group P1. The schematic representations of the molecular packing in the equimolar compounds of the above systems and selected discrete phases in the system of malic acid enantiomers are shown in Fig. 7(e and f) and (a–d), respectively. The third system, d-valine–L-isoleucine, differs from the one we studied only in having a different chirality in valine. This discrepancy determines the differences in the molecular compositions of the discrete compounds formed in the corresponding systems. A comparative analysis of their crystal structures is given in section 4.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Systems</th>
<th>Methods of research</th>
<th>Crystal structure</th>
<th>Ref.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(+)-Chlorosuccinic acid–(−)-bromosuccinic acid</td>
<td>Melt phase diagram</td>
<td>Not determined</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(+)-Mercaptosuccinic acid–(−)-methylsuccinic acid</td>
<td>Melt phase diagram</td>
<td>Not determined</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(−)-Dilaetic acid–(−)-2,4-dimethylglutaric acid</td>
<td>Melt phase diagram</td>
<td>Not determined</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(−)-Thiodiabetic acid–(−)-2,4-dimethylglutaric acid</td>
<td>Melt phase diagram</td>
<td>Not determined</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(−)-2-Methylglutaric acid–(−)-2,4-dimethylglutaric acid</td>
<td>Melt phase diagram</td>
<td>Not determined</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(+)-m-Methoxyphenoxypionic acid–(−)-m-bromophenoxypionic acid</td>
<td>SCXRD</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(S)-2-(3-Bromophenoxypionic acid–(R)-2-(3-methoxyphenoxypionic acid</td>
<td>SCXRD</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R)-2-(2,4-Dichlorophenoxypionic acid–(S)-2-(2-chloro-4-nitrophenoxypionic acid</td>
<td>SCXRD</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R)-N-(4-Methylbenzoyl)-R-methylbenzylamine–(S)-N-(4-nitrobenzoyl)-R-methylbenzylamine</td>
<td>SCXRD</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(S)-2-(4,4,5-Trichloroanilinino)propanoic acid–(R)-2-(2,4,5-trichlorophenoxypionic acid</td>
<td>SCXRD</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(R)-N-(2-Chlorobenzoyl)methylbenzylamine–(S)-N-(2-bromobenzoyl)methylbenzylamine</td>
<td>SCXRD</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(+)-Chlorosuccinic acid–(−)-2-(2,4,5-Trichlorophenoxy)propanoic acid</td>
<td>SCXRD</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(+)-Chlorosuccinic acid–(−)-2-(2-chloro-4-nitrophenyl)propanoic acid</td>
<td>SCXRD</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(+)-Mercaptosuccinic acid–(−)-2-(2,4-Dichlorophenyl)propanoic acid</td>
<td>SCXRD</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(+)-m-Methoxyphenoxypionic acid–(−)-m-bromophenoxypionic acid</td>
<td>SCXRD</td>
<td>Determined</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
of their elongation. This shift results in the molecules having a staggered arrangement (Fig. 7e). The tartaric acid molecule contains two side OH groups, while malic acid only has one. Hence, the neighbor molecular chains in the crystal structure of tartaric acid form more hydrogen bonds than the chains in the crystal structure of the malic acid racemate RSI.

**4.2 Systems of enantiomers of different compounds containing non-equimolar discrete phases: the example of l-Val–Ile**

We are aware of the existence of only three such systems containing non-equimolar discrete phases (Table 4). Two of them have been studied by means of melting point measurements, and both are cited in Table 3 since they also include equimolar compounds. According to work, these systems tend to form non-equimolar discrete compounds because they involve 2,4-dimethylglutaric acid as a component. The crystal structures of the 1:3 discrete compounds have not been determined; their presence was indicated by additional inflexion points in the liquidus lines. Molecules constituting both systems have different chiralities. Each of the molecular components of the system (−)-dilactic acid–(−)-2,4-dimethylglutaric acid has two equal chiral centers, while the molecules of the system (+)-2-methylglutaric acid–(−)-2,4-dimethylglutaric acid possess (with one and two) different numbers of chiral centers.

The principal feature distinguishing the l-valine–l-isoleucine system from those discussed above is the same – the l-chirality (configuration) of its components. The valine molecule has one chiral center; isoleucine contains two unequal chiral centers that differ from the (−)-dilactic and (+)-2,4-dimethylglutaric acid molecules, which have equal chiral centers (Table 4).

At least since 1933, studies of solubility of Ile and Val in combination, and of individual solubilities of Val and Ile have been performed. The equilibria between the solid and liquid phases in the ternary system l-Val–Ile–water were studied by I. Kurosawa et al. (HPLC and PXRD) and by D. Binev et al. (HPLC). H. Koolman and R. Rousseau investigated the effect of small amounts of Val admixture on the growth and morphology of Ile crystals. The detailed correlation to our findings is discussed in work, where most of our results for the l-Val–Ile system using HPLC (11 samples), PXRD (13 compositions), and SCXRD methods are published. First data obtained by TRPXRD was recently reported.

According to the PXRD data, the limits of solid solutions in the system l-Val–Ile are rather limited. The system has been found to contain a non-equimolar discrete compound V,I with the ratio Val : Ile = 2 : 1 (∼66 mol% Val). According to this, three areas of solid solutions (ss) originating from valine ssV (>70 mol% Val), isoleucine ssI (<10 mol% Val), and discrete compound ssV2I (60–68 mol% Val) were distinguished; also, two-phase regions were identified consisting of solid solutions ssI + ssV1 (10–60 mol% Val) and ssV1 + ssV (∼68–70 mol% Val). The results agree well with that obtained by independent HPLC studies. As shown in Fig. 8, the ternary phase diagram of the system l-Val–Ile–water contains a local solubility minimum that corresponds to the composition of ∼66 mol% Val.

![Fig. 7 Schematic representations of molecular packing in the crystal structures of racemic compounds RSI (a) and RSII (b), non-equimolar compound S,R (c), and S-enantiomer (d) in the system formed by enantiomers of the same compound, i.e., (S)-malic acid–(R)-malic acid, and in the crystal structures of equimolar compounds ω′ (e) and ω′ (f), in the systems formed by enantiomers of different substances, i.e., L-malic acid–D-tartaric acid and L-malic acid–L-tartaric acid, correspondingly. Explanations are provided in the discussion.](image-url)
mol% Val and is positioned in-between two eutonics laying asymmetrically left and right from it. Such behavior of the solubility curve is characteristic for systems containing a binary discrete compound.\textsuperscript{22,89} Although the absolute solubility data (obtained by different methods) differ slightly from each other, they clearly indicate the local solubility minimum close to the 2 : 1 Val : Ile composition and verify the presence of the related V\textsubscript{1}I compound in the system.

**Crystal structure of compound V\textsubscript{2}I.** Crystal structures of the system components, valine and isoleucine, are known.\textsuperscript{90–94} The newly discovered non-equimolar discrete compound V\textsubscript{2}I\textsuperscript{+} has been studied by means of SCXRD.

The monoclinic cells of Val and Ile (space group P\textsubscript{2\textsubscript{1}}) (Fig. 9a and b) are characterized by two crystallographically independent positions of the molecules.\textsuperscript{90–94} Molecules occupying both positions have the same conformation. The monoclinic cell of V\textsubscript{2}I (space group C\textsubscript{2}) (Fig. 9c) is characterized by four independent positions of the molecules, each of which have mixed populations, i.e., can be occupied by either a Val or Ile molecule. The parameter \(a\) of the V\textsubscript{2}I monoclinic cell is doubled in comparison to the corresponding parameter \(c\) of Val and Ile monoclinic cells (due to different unit cell orientations). The empirical formula of compound V\textsubscript{2}I calculated on the basis of structural data corresponds to the Val:Ile ratio of \(\sim 60:40\) and is practically confirmed by the composition of the sample studied (66 mol% Val). The calculated powder X-ray diffraction pattern shows good agreement with the experimentally obtained one.\textsuperscript{24}

Similar to the crystal structures of Val\textsuperscript{90,92,94} and Ile,\textsuperscript{91,93,94} the crystal structure of the discrete compound V\textsubscript{2}I is layered. Molecules in the three crystal structures are combined in H-bonded dimer molecules, and dimers form molecular layers also via H-bonds. The layers interact with each other by van der Waals forces. The Val and Ile dimers are elongated along the \(c\) axis, and the layers are connected by axes \(2\). However, the dimers in the crystal structure of V\textsubscript{2}I are elongated along the \(a\) axis, and the layers are connected by axes \(2_1\) and 2. The difference in the azimuthal arrangement of the molecular layers can be seen easily if the doubled unit cell of Ile and the unit cell of V\textsubscript{2}I are compared (see ESI:† Fig. 5 and work\textsuperscript{24}).

Components of the system D-Val–L-Ile are known in the literature\textsuperscript{80} and were mentioned before (Table 3). They differ from those of the system L-Val–L-Ile only by the configuration of the valine molecules. These systems exemplify the effect of the different chiralities of the molecules forming a binary system. In the first system,\textsuperscript{80} an equimolar discrete compound VI (Val : Ile = 1 : 1) is formed, while in the second system, a non-equimolar discrete compound V\textsubscript{2}I (Val : Ile = 2 : 1) is formed. The crystal structures of both compounds are characterized by alternating azimuthally non-equivalent molecular...
layers and by doubled unit cells including two layers in corresponding translation. Therein, the compound VI crystallizes in the space group $P2_1$, and the compound V$_2$I in the space group $C2$.

Schematic representations of the molecular packing in the crystal structures of Val, Ile, V$_2$I, and VI are shown in Fig. 10 for comparison. Molecules with $l$-configuration and the coordinates $y$ and $y + 1/2$ at the $b$ axis of the unit cell are shown in blue and light blue colors, respectively; molecules with $d$-configuration are in green. Different shapes of the Val and Ile molecules reflect the fact that in comparison to Val, the edge $H$ atom is replaced by a CH$_3$ group in Ile. The group is shown by an additional rear circle. Partial coloring of the circle in the case of V$_2$I symbolizes the partial (33%) occupation of the site by a rear CH$_3$ group.

5. Systematization of discrete compounds formed in binary chiral systems of organic substances

The term “racemate” or “racemic modification” was introduced as early as the 2nd half of the 19th century after L. Pasteur’s well-known experiments to describe an enantiomer mixture containing equimolar amounts of the components. However, this definition does not reveal the nature of the mixture itself. In the published literature, there are plenty of terms used for discrete phases in related systems, e.g., true racemates, false conglomerates, quasiracemates, anomalous racemates, anomalous quasiracemates, anomalous conglomerates, cocrystals, 1:1 complexes, and others. The importance of knowledge about the variety of solid phases in chiral systems (e.g., for pharmaceutical and food industries) as well as the great scope of acquired data made the following questions emerge: Which particular type of compound is implied when one of the above definitions is used? How do they relate to each other?

We have attempted to systematize the data on discrete compounds in such systems, and the results are compiled in Table 5. The systematization is not aimed at changing the terminology but clarifying what is exactly meant under the terms mentioned. To make the systematics viable, it is necessary to define the border lines covering the types of compounds that can be included.

First, it is applicable only to chiral compounds that are “true” organic substances (known to contain a selected number of chemical elements$^{96}$) and, therefore, excludes organometallic compounds. Second, the systematization is proposed only for compounds formed in true binary systems, i.e., substances composed of only two molecular species. That is why it does not encompass compounds containing solvent molecules. For example, E. Wachter et al.$^{96}$ recently described the crystal structure of a PF$_6^-$ salt of [Ru(2,9-dimethyl-1,10-phenanthroline)$_2$(dipyrido[3,2-d:2′,3′-f]quinoxaline)]$^{2+}$ with the enantiomer ratio of 5:4. However, the crystal structure of this compound incorporates molecules of the solvents (acetone, diethyl ether, and water) in addition to the organometallic component. Third, we only consider hydrogen and van der Waals-bonded crystals where the molecular components are related to each other as enantiomers or quasi-enantiomers (including diastereomers)$^{97}$. Furthermore, attention should be paid to the term “cocrystals,” which is frequently used in relation to pharmaceuticals with the potential to improve their physicochemical properties.$^{98}$ A broadly accepted definition of the term comprises substances composed of two or more neutral molecular components at definite stoichiometric amounts, which are characterized by structural homogeneity and the absence of solvate molecules in their crystal structure.$^{99,100}$ Therefore, related compounds include binary donor-acceptor complexes and crystals with hydrogen bonds.$^{99}$ Consequently, the term cocrystal has a rather broad definition, especially considering chiral and achiral compounds. Accordingly, only cocrystals containing chiral components and only two of them find proper positions in our systematization.
Table 5  Discrete compounds in binary systems of organic substances with chiral molecules

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Equimolar discrete compounds 1:1</th>
<th>Heteromolecular compounds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Homomolecular (racemic) compounds</strong></td>
<td><strong>Pseudo-centrosymmetric Quasiracemates</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centrosymmetric</td>
<td>Non-centrosymmetric Cocystals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S and R molecules are connected via other symmetry elements</td>
<td>1:1 Complexes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racemic compounds (true racemates)</td>
<td>Kryptoracemates (= false conglomerates)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enantiomers S:R</td>
<td>Enantiomers S:R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g.: Malic acid</td>
<td>e.g.: SR-Allylglycine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Racemic compounds (true racemates)</strong></td>
<td><strong>Diastereomers of different substances</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kryptoracemates</td>
<td>Enantiomers of different substances S:R (S’:R) and S’S’ (R’:R)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. (S:S): l-Isoluecine–l-allo-isoluecine</td>
<td>e.g.: l-Isoluecine–d-valine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. (S:R): l-Isoluecine–d-allo-isoluecine</td>
<td>e.g.: l-Isoluecine–d-tartaric acid</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-equimolar discrete compounds 1:N</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Homomolecular compounds</strong></td>
<td><strong>Heteromolecular compounds</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anomalous racemates (= anomalous conglomerates)</td>
<td>Enantiomers of different substances S:S’ (R:R’) = 1:N or N:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enantiomers S:R = 1:N and N:1</td>
<td>Diastereomers of different substances S’S:Ra’ (R’Sa) and S:Ra (R’Sa’) = 1:N or N:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g.: Malic acid S:R = 1:3 and 3:1 (ref. 29)</td>
<td>No examples found</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No examples found</td>
<td>e.g. (S’S): l-Valine–l-isoluecine = 2:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.g. (S:S): Dilactic acid–dimethylglutaric acid = 1:3 (ref. 70)</td>
<td>No examples found</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The systematization in Table 5 is based on the following two principles. **Principle 1**: Classification according to the composition of the compound: 1) division into two major groups, viz.: equimolar and non-equimolar discrete compounds (at top and bottom of Table 5), and 2) further division into two subgroups, viz.: homomolecular and heteromolecular compounds, *i.e.*, compounds composed of molecules of the same or different substances. **Principle 2**: Classification within each one of the four resulting subgroups according to 1) compound stereochemistry (enantiomers or diastereomers) and 2) crystallographic features. Each subsection in the table provides particular examples. The references given there correspond to the original publications with the authors’ definitions.

**Homomolecular (racemic) compounds**

Homomolecular (racemic) compounds can be divided into centrosymmetric and non-centrosymmetric compounds.

Centrosymmetric compounds of this group are represented only by racemic compounds or *true racemates*. They form the most abundant and most frequently studied group. In the compounds, molecules form dimers, wherein a dextrorotatory molecule is connected to a levorotatory one *via* a pseudo-inversion center. One of the feasible examples is racemic malic acid of the *RSI* modification. The second subgroup consists of *kryptoracemates*, also known as *false conglomerates*. In compounds of this type, *S* and *R* molecules do not form dimers here; they are combined *via* other symmetry elements instead of an inversion center. It includes the *RSI* modification of racemic malic acid discussed before. The second subgroup consists of *kryptoracemates*, also known as *false conglomerates*. In compounds of this type, *S* and *R* molecules occupy independent crystallographic positions, *i.e.*, they are not connected *via* symmetry elements. According to the authors, about 180 substances form compounds of this type. The third subgroup is comprised of compounds named 1:1 *complexes*, where the components are diastereomers of the same substance and can have either the same chirality (*S*: *S* and *R*: *R*) or different chiralities (*S*: *R* and *R*: *S*). Diastereomeric molecules forming such pairs cannot be related *via* symmetry elements.

**Heteromolecular compounds 1:1**

Heteromolecular compounds 1:1 cannot be centrosymmetric by definition. However, they can also be classified into two subgroups: pseudo-centrosymmetric and non-centrosymmetric ones.

Pseudo-centrosymmetric compounds of this type are known to be reported as *quasiracemates*. They contain enantiomer molecules of different substances (see Table 3). However, structural differences between the molecules are rather insignificant, and, usually, they differ only by one atom or a small group of atoms. In some works, the term “quasienantiomers” is used for such molecules. In a crystal structure, a pair of such molecules usually forms a dimer, wherein the molecules are connected to each other *via* a pseudo-inversion center.

Non-centrosymmetric compounds of this group can be subdivided into two subgroups. One of them would include *cocrystals*, *i.e.*, the system components are enantiomers of different substances. The other one contains 1:1 *complexes* wherein the system components are diastereomers of different compounds.

**Homomolecular compounds 1:N**

Homomolecular compounds 1:N (Table 5, bottom part) can formally be classified into two subgroups. One of them contains *anomalous racemates* or *anomalous conglomerates*. Both terms were introduced to define non-equimolar compounds formed by enantiomers. Compounds of this type have not been found yet among diastereomeric pairs. Systems containing anomalous racemates are rather rare and scarcely studied, and most publications, with a couple of minor exceptions, are devoted to compounds of enantiomer pairs with the enantiomer ratio of 1:3 (see Table 2). Examples include the stable *S*: *R* and metastable *S*: *1R* modifications of malic acid described above.

**Heteromolecular compounds 1:N**

Heteromolecular compounds 1:N (Table 5, bottom part) form the rarest group, and the number of reported studies of such compounds is very limited. Technically, three subgroups can be distinguished. The first one was named *anomalous quasiracemates* and contains compounds of enantiomer molecules of different substances. The term has been introduced to denote 1:N compounds formed in addition to quasiracemates in systems of components of different chiralities. The second subgroup (no name yet) includes compounds occurring in systems of components of the same chirality; such systems do not produce quasiracemates. A representative of this subgroup, compound *V*: *J*, has been depicted above. The third subgroup (also no name yet) is comprised of compounds formed by diastereomers of different substances. We know only three systems forming 1:N heteromolecular compounds (see Table 4), and they belong to the first and second subgroups.

According to statistical data, the occurrence of non-equimolar discrete compounds among substances with chiral molecules is negligible, being 1:100 000. If so, is their study practical? We think that it is. Their physicochemical properties (beneficial, harmful, or neutral) have not been sufficiently investigated yet. We suppose that this may change in the future provided the examinations of chiral systems (enantiomers and diastereomers) are performed using a combination of precision methods. Both systems that we investigated can serve as good examples.
6. Summary

Information on non-equimolar discrete compounds in binary systems of chiral organic substances, which is available in the literature, has been reviewed and systematized, including the rate of occurrence of such systems and the current state of knowledge in the field.

For the systems (S)-malic–(R)-malic acid and L-valine–L-isoleucine, as examples representing different types of binary systems, the crystal structures of the non-equimolar discrete compounds were analyzed on the basis of comprehensive experimental studies. The results obtained were compared with the data reported in the literature for these two and other similar systems.

The (S)-malic acid–(R)-malic acid system was shown to form 1) an equimolar compound, which could occur in three modifications; two of these, the RS1 and RSII modifications, have been known for some time, while the third form, RSIII, was discovered and described by the present authors, and 2) the non-equimolar stable (S3R and SR3) and metastable (3S1R and 1S3R) compounds with ratios $S:R$ equal to 3:1 and 1:3, correspondingly. Crystallization conditions resulting in the formation of a particular modification of both equimolar and non-equimolar compounds have been ascertained, and the polymorphic transformations between the discrete phases have been studied. The data obtained were used to plot a schematic representation of the system phase diagram. The (triclinic) crystal structure of the non-equimolar discrete compound S3R has been identified and compared to those of the S-enantiomer and the racemic compounds RS1 and RSII. At present, information on the crystal structures of non-equimolar discrete compounds is available only for a dozen systems of enantiomers of the same compound of which we have knowledge (including our data).

For the L-valine–L-isoleucine system, the occurrence of a non-equimolar compound V3I with the Val:lle ratio of 2:1 could be proven. The solubility diagram plotted for the ternary L-valine–L-isoleucine–water system exhibits two eutonics located on both sides from the local solubility minimum, which corresponds to the composition of compound V3I. The (monoclinic) crystal structure of the V3I compound has been determined and compared to those of the system components L-Val, L-Ile and the equimolar compound formed in the d-Val–l-Ile system. To the best of our knowledge, this is the only available information on the crystal structure of a non-equimolar compound in a system of enantiomers of different substances and, at the same time, the only example of a binary compound where these enantiomers are of the same chirality.

Based on the results of the study, a systematization of discrete compounds occurring in binary chiral systems of organic substances was proposed. This was motivated by the great scope of the acquired knowledge and the variety of terms used in the literature. The presented systematics define chemical and crystallographic characteristics of the discrete compounds that can be ascertained when using a particular term. To increase its applicability, the types of compounds covered with the systematization were defined. Of course, we do not consider this systematization as complete and all-encompassing. New materials are steadily appearing that might fill the still empty places in the systematization table and support a deeper understanding of the structure–property relationships within the systems studied.

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