SCALE-UP OF THE SEMI-CONTINUOUS

CHROMATOGRAPHIC PROCESS

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Summary

A review is given of the reported experimental and theoretical work which has led to a better understanding of the gas/liquid chromatographic scale-up problem. The potential of several proposed process schemes for production-scale separations is discussed.

Colum utilisation can be increased, with respect to the conventional batch process, by employing a counter-current movement between the soluteladen gas stream and the solvent-coated particulate solid to separate a continuous feed mixture into two fractions. A novel unit has been constructed in which this relative phase movement is simulated by sequencing the position of the input and output streams around a closed symmetrical system of twelve, fixed 7.6 om-diameter columns. Mechanical movement, save the automatically timed opening and closing of proven reliability solenoid valves, has thus been eliminated.

The chemical system chosen for the study of the operating characteristics of the unit was an equivolume mixture of 1.1.2. trifluoro- 1.2.2, trichloro-ethane and 1.1.1. trichloro-ethane, The solvent phase was silicone oil DC 200/50 (25% wt./wt.) coated onto 500-355 m particles of Chromosorb P.

In the separating mode, the effects of the solute mixture feedrate, gas rate and apparent liquid solvent rate were primarily investigated by determination of the on-colum concentration profiles. The operating limits for a successful separation were shown, in keeping with theory, to be reduced by both a concentration dependent absorption isotherm and column pressure drop. Measured H.E.T.P. values lay in the range 0.7 to 2.0 cm, the average value increasing with both solute concentration and gas

flowrate. Typically, purities in excess of 99.7% for both products have been achieved up to a feedrate of $0.7 \text{ dm}^3 \text{ hr}^1$.

A computer simulation of the process scheme has been written which incorporates the concentration and pressure effects. The predicted and experimental concentration profiles are compared.

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SUPPORTING PUBLICATION

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Chromatography originates from the work of Tswett in 1906 (1) and Martin and Synge in 1941 (2). However it has been in the two decades following the successful demonstration of elution gas/liquid chromatography by James and Martin (3) that the technique has become firmly established as a powerful method for the resolution of chemical mixtures.. These researchers packed a 3.35 m long capillary tube with kieselguhr onto which was coated a silicone oil containing 10% stearic acid to act as a solvent phase. Several mixtures selected from the range within the formic to dodecanoic members of the volatile fatty acid series were then injected into a stream of nitrogen flowing through the packed colum. The resultant continuous absorption and desorption process caused the respective solutes to progress at different rates through the column. Separate 'peaks' were therefore monitored on elution of each acid in the injected mixture.

With the increasing demand for pure chemicals the potential of the chromatographic process not only for analysis but also as a separation technique at commercially viable throughputs was quickly realised. In 1955 Evans and Tatlow (4) published their work on the fractionation of fluorinated hydrocarbons in gram quantities on a 3 cm-diameter column. By 1969 the separation of m-xylene and p-xylene at a combined production rate of 45 million kg yr^{-1} on a 4.3 m diameter column was being proposed (5) .

The technique is still not fully established amongst the range of separation processes available to the chemical engineer. Early optimism, which led to the use of such terms as 'production' and

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'plant-scale' gas chromatography, has been tempered by the problem commonly associated with mass transfer operations; the resolving power is reduced with both increasing colum diameter and throughput. Indeed it is this fact which has favoured the more rapid development of the technique for analysis.

Overcoming the inherent restriction on scale-up has provided a challenge to research workers. The various approaches pursued to improve large-scale colum efficiency and increase column utilisation can be characterised by the three notional ways the gas and solvent phases may be moved to effect the relative direction of flow of the solutes; (i) co-currently, (ii) cross-currently and (iii) countercurrently.

(4) The most direct approach to scale-up is to increase the size of the analytical column in diameter and/ or length. The solvent phase remains stationary while the gas phase flows through the colum carrying the solutes. Provided separating efficiency can be maintained at a reasonable level, resolution of the injected feed into its multiple constituents is possible. Research and development work has concentrated on column design and packing techniques so now acceptable efficiencies can be achieved. However, throughput is still restricted by the batch nature of the process, a restriction only partially counteracted by the use of periodic injections of smaller volume.

(ii) The cross-flow mode of operation appears very attractive. Theoretically the movement of the gas phase and solvent phase at right angles to one another should enable the attainment of a continuous

 \overline{c}

'spectrum' of products as a consequence of the different resultant component velocities. Although several novel designs have been proposed to achieve this concept, none are amenable to large-scale operation.

(iii) The contimous fractionation of a feed mixture into two components or into two mixtures of different composition can be achieved by a counter-current movement, within limits set by solubility considerations, of the solvent and the gas phase. For a centrally located feed the solute(s) with least affinity for the solvent will be preferentially carried to the gas outlet while the solute(s) more strongly absorbed onto the solvent will move preferentially in the direction of the packing. The attraction of the application of counter-current chromatography at the production-scale is the prospect of higher throughputs for a given dimensioned column. The feed is continuous, utilising all of the available separating power of the column. Further, within the column, the respective component concentration profiles need only be partially offset to permit collection of resolved products at the column exits. This feature allows severe overloading by conventional batch chromatographic standards.

Following the pioneering work of Pichler and Schultz (6) and Scott (7) , Barker and co-workers have actively developed this latter process $(8 - 21)$. Its viability has been demonstrated by the successful fractionation of several mixtures of widely varying separation difficulty, including isomers and heat sensitive materials. A typical example was the recovery of 91% of 99 $\frac{+}{\%}$ alpha-pinene from a crude turpentine feed (essentially a mixture of a-pinene, B-pinene and camphene) at a throughput of $66.5 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ hr}^{-1}$ on a 2.5 cm-diameter column (20).

 $\overline{3}$

As will be discussed in Section 2, during the development period until 1970 the form of the equipment used by Barker et al underwent several changes to overcome mechanical problems and improve resolving power. However, the largest column diameter utilised was 3.8 cm. The logical step was to increase this value, a step demanding a novel mechanical approach.

In originating the proposed new chromatographic separation unit the design was to be adaptable to any column dimension as well as mechanically reliable. Once constructed, the operating characteristics were to be investigated. In particular the importance of such parameters as the respective component absorption isotherms on the limitation of throughput were to be studied.

From the experimental observations a theoretical model of the process was to be attempted. Being akin to other counter-current mass transfer processes, either the traditional plate or transfer unit modelling approaches could be adapted to the development of a design procedure.

4

CHAPTER 2

Literature Survey

2.1 Scope

A measure of the spectacular growth of interest in the general field of chromatography following the work of James and Martin in 1951 (3) is given by the number of publications relating to the subject. Within a decade the number was approaching two thousand per annum and has continued to increase. The majority of these papers are concerned with analysis. Hence, after the introduction of the basic terminology and Concepts, whose origins inevitably lie in the analytical field, this survey will necessarily be restricted to the application of gas/liquid chromatography as a chemical separation technique.

The problems which have faced those wishing to scale-up the basic chromatography process will be discussed in the light of theoretical knowledge. This will be followed by a section contrasting the practical solutions which have been developed, paying particular attention to their scale-up potential.

2.2 Basic Terminology and Relationships for Gas/Liquid Chromatography

The following subsection has been included to provide a basic understanding of the subject area. Further details may be found in several general texts (22, 23, 24, 25).

2.2.1 The Basic Process

Resolution is achieved in chromatography as a consequence of the different affinities of individual solutes within a mixture for a common solvent. In gas/liquid chromatography the non-volatile liquid solvent - the 'stationary phase' - is coated onto a particulate solid - the 'solid support'. The solutes are then brought into repeated contact with the solvent by 'carrying' them through the coated 'packing' in an inert gas stream. Solute zones are formed which move at a fraction, R, of the carrier gas velocity to be eluted in the order of least retarded first. At infinite dilution R may be defined as (23) :-

- (a) The relative solute band migration rate
- (b) The probability that a solute molecule is in the gas phase
- (c) The limiting fraction of time a molecule spends in the gas phase
- (a) The fraction of molecules in the gas phase at equilibrium

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(a) The relative solute
(b) The probability that
the gas phase
(c) The limiting fractic
in the gas phase
(d) The fraction of mole
equilibrium
The precise The precise value of R applies only to the centre of the solute band; i.e. true equilibrium between the solute in the mobile and stationary phases occurs only at the point of maximum concentration in the migrating zone.

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Injection uotzosfuy

The chromatogram (elution curve) shown in Fig 2.1 is that obtained for two fully resolved components, i and ii, using a thermal conductivity cell - 'katharometer' - as detector. The first small peak is obtained for unabsorbed gas, often referred to as the 'air peak', while the second and third peaks have undergone the chromatographic process.

Thus: $t_m = 'elution'$ or 'retention time' for an unabsorbed component and is therefore a measure of the gas hold-up in the column; i.e. the total interparticle volume in the colum.

$$
t_R
$$
 = 'elution' or 'retention time' for a component.
 t'_R = 'adjusted retention time'.

 $=$ t_R - t_m and is therefore a measure of the effect of the chromatographic process on a component.

It should be noted that t_R and t_m include a contribution from the extra colum apparatus, the injection and detection system, the sum of which is designated as the 'dead' time, t_p .

The respective times can be related to volumes through the gas phase velocity or flowrate. The average velocity of the carrier gas depends on the compressibility of the carrier gas in the colum. To correct for the pressure gradient the 'compressibility factor', j, first deduced by James and Martin (3) , is used.

$$
j = 1.5 (P_{i0}^{2} - 1) / (P_{i0}^{3} - 1)
$$

where P_{i} equals the ratio of inlet to outlet column pressures.

Hence the 'corrected retention volume', V_R^o , can be calculated from:

$$
V_R^o
$$
 = $F \cdot \frac{T_c}{T_a} \cdot \frac{P_o}{P_a} \cdot j \cdot t_R$ 2.2
\nwhere : F = flowrate measured at ambient conditions
\n T_c = column temperature
\n T_a = ambient temperature
\n P_o = column outlet pressure
\n P_a = ambient pressure

The 'partition' or 'distribution coefficient', K, is defined as the equilibrium ratio of the solute concentration in the liquid solvent phase to the concentration in the gas phase. Hence it is a measure of the slope of a chord to the absorption isotherm, $\frac{q}{c}$. Generally, for analytical gas chromatography, the concentrations are sufficiently low to make the assumption of a linear 'absorption' or 'partition' isotherm realistic and the partition coefficient can be well approximated by the slope of the curve itself.

As the solutes can only progress through the chromatographic column when in the gas phase, K can be expressed in terms of measured volumes as

$$
K = j_* \frac{v_R}{v_L} = \frac{v_R^o}{v_L} - v_G
$$

where $:$ V_G = the volume of the gas phase in the column = jVm V_L = the volume of the liquid phase impregnated on the support.

From a previous definition of the retention factor, R, K can also be expressed as

$$
K = \frac{1 - R}{R}
$$
 2.4

Thus the partition coefficient is a measure, independent of the column on which it is measured, of the affinity of a solute for a solvent. It can therefore be used to define the potential resolution between two solutes i and ii, the 'separation factor'.

Separation factor

\n
$$
= \frac{K_{ij}}{K_{ij}}
$$
\n
$$
2.5
$$

It is customary to place the larger value of K in the numerator. As the separation factor approaches one the separation becomes more difficult.

While attention has been focussed on the most common elution technique, other forms of chromatography are possible. In particular should be mentioned 'frontal elution' chromatography, first applied to gas/liquid systems by Phillips et al $(26, 27)$. Rather than a discrete sample, the solutes are continuously fed into the flowing carrier gas stream. The selective retardation process results in a chromatogram consisting of a successive series of 'S'-shaped steps, each step representing break through of a component in the feed. While this technique has little application for analysis it is important to both the study of concentration effects on resolution and large-scale separations.

2.2.2 Basic Theories

Two factors are important in determining whether a separation is obtained in elution chromatography:

(i) The centres of the solute zones should be as far apart as possible.

(ii) The zones must be kept narrow to eliminate or reduce overlap. The former, as shown above, is related to thermodynamic equilibriun. The latter is a fumction of colum dynamics and it is this which the theories of chromatography attempt to define.

2.2.2.1 The Theoretical Plate Concept

Considering a mass transfer process as a series of theoretical plates or equilibration stages is a well established procedure. It is, therefore, not surprising that such a model was used for the first description of gas/liquid chromatography by James and Martin (3). The column was considered to consist of a series of discrete volumes, or plates, "such that the solution issuing from it is in equilibrium with the mean concentration of solute in the non-mobile phase throughout the layer". The mobile gas phase was regarded as discontinuous, consisting of a stepwise addition of volumes of mobile phase, each equal to the free volume per plate.

Two further fundamental assumptions were made:

(i) The partition coefficient was constant throughout the column, being independent of concentration; i.e. a linear absorption isotherm was assumed.

(ii) The exchange process was thermodynamically reversible. 'This implies that the equilibrium between solute and solvent was instantaneous - the mass transfer coefficient was infinitely high - and diffusion processes could be ignored.

These assumptions have led to the use of the term 'linear ideal chromatography' for this type of model.

An equation was derived relating the concentration of solute to the plate number along the colum, which allows calculation of the shape of the elution curve. V^0 , V^0 $\frac{1}{1}$

$$
Q_{n+1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \cdot \pi \cdot n}} \cdot (\frac{v^{\circ}}{v^{o}_{R}})^{n} \cdot e^{n(1-v)} v^{o}_{R} \t{2.6}
$$

Gluekauf (28), by reducing the discrete volumes to infinitely small dimensions, derived a continuous model. The distribution of the eluted curve was found to be of the Poisson type which, as was subsequently pointed out by Van Deemter et al (29) and Young (30), could be approximated by a Gaussian distribution if the number of plates, N, was sufficiently large (say greater than 100).

The effect of the stagewise operation on the single pulse injection is, in the ideal case, to spread the solute zone into a Gaussian distribution curve, a curve characterised by the second moment or variance, σ^2 . Therefore the height equivalent of a theoretical plate, H.E.T.P., can be considered as the rate of increase of the second moment per unit length of column.

$$
H = \frac{1}{N} = \frac{d(\sigma_1^2)}{dz}
$$
 2.7

where (σ_1^2) is the length-based second moment and z is a measure of distance along the column of length 1. An efficient column results in a narrow peaks

This may be related to the chromatogram presented as figure 2.1 as follows. The concentration/time profile has a standard deviation of σ_t in time-based units.

Now
$$
\sigma_t = \frac{\sigma_v}{\pi} = \frac{\text{appearance time for 1}}{\text{standard deviation}}
$$

\nThus $N = \frac{1^2}{(\sigma_1)^2} = \frac{1^2}{(\sigma_t)^2 \cdot \pi^2}$ 2.9

But $1/R$ equals the elution time, t_R .

Therefore
$$
N = (t_{R/\sigma_t})^2
$$
 2.10

Considering the width of the peak at the base to be $4 \sigma_t$, then

$$
N = 16 \left(\frac{t_R}{t_b}\right)^2
$$
 2.11

The semi-empirical plate-theory has been superseded by models which include consideration of the fundamental mass transfer processes occurring within the chromatographic colum. However, Klinkenberg and Sjenitzer (31), adopting a statistical approach, showed that the various factors contributing to band spreading, such as diffusion in both the gas and liquid phase and a finite mass transfer rate, could be individually described by the second moment of a Gaussian distribution. A property of this quantity is that it is additive to give the total second moment of the eluted peak. H.E.T.P., although a misnomer, has remained as the term describing column efficiency.

2.2.2.2 Rate Theories

The idealised reversible process considered in the plate model is unattainable in practice. Van Deemter, Zuiderweg and Klinkenberg (29) developed a theory accounting for the contribution of certain, rate determining, kinetic processes to the diffuseness of solute bands. Individual terms for the effect of longitudinal diffusion in the gas phase, eddy diffusion resulting from the inhomogeneity of the packing and a finite rate of mass transfer(preventing the instantaneous attainment of equilibrium at all points on the solute curve) were combined to give the following equation for H.E.T.P.

$$
H = 2\lambda \cdot d_p + 2Y' \cdot \frac{D_g}{u} + \frac{8}{\pi^2} \cdot \frac{k \cdot d_f^2}{(1+k)^2}.
$$

where λ = eddy diffusivity factor; i.e. a characteristic quantity of the packing

 d_n = mean particle diameter

Y = labyrinth factor; i.e. factor to allow for the tortuous nature of the gas flow-path

 D_{0} , $D_{\overline{L}}$ = molecular diffusivities in gas and liquid phases u = interstial gas velocity

 d_{ρ} = effective thickness of liquid film coating support

 $k = F_g/K F_L$ = mass distribution coefficient or capacity ratio F_{c} , F_{L} = fractional volume of a plate occupied by gas and liquid.

This equation is commonly written for simplicity as

$$
H = A + \underline{B} + C_{L}u
$$
 2.13

where $A = eddy diffusion term$

- B = longitudinal gas phase diffusion term
- C_T = mass transfer resistance term, the liquid phase being assumed controlling for this model.

4A review of the experimental determination of the terms in equations 2,12 and 2.13 has been given elsewhere (15, 22).

Since 1955 this basic equation has been extended and/or modified by many workers. Van Deemter (32) added an additional term to allow for the contribution to the plate height made by resistance to mass transfer in the gas phase. After Golay had developed the theory of capillary columns (33), Purnell (22) further modified the gas phase term to emphasise the effect of radial diffusion. The resultant equation was

$$
H = 2 \lambda \cdot d_p + 2 Y' \cdot D_G^{\circ} + \frac{2}{3} \left[\frac{k \cdot d_f^2}{(1+k)^2} \right] \overline{u} + \left[\frac{1+6k+11(k)^2}{24(1+k)^2} \right]
$$

$$
x \left[\frac{d_p^2 \cdot X}{D_G^{\circ}} \right] u_0
$$
 2.14

where:

X = characteristic of packing interstices.

or, more simply,

$$
H = A + B_0 + C_L \bar{u} + C_0^0 u_0
$$
 (2.15)

After studying the elution of acetone and benzene in nitrogen and hydrogen from columns containing three different 'Sil-0-Cel' support particle sizes $(320, 160, 100 \,\mu m)$ coated with 20 per cent by weight polyethylene glycol, Bohemen and Purnell (34) concluded that $\lambda = 0.75$, $Y = 1$ and $X = 1.5$.

An extensive theoretical study of chromatography has been undertaken by Giddings which is summarised in his, now standard, text (24) . A stochastic approach - the 'random walk model' - gave an equation similar in form to equation 2.12. It differed only in that the labyrinth factors λ and γ did not occur. A more rigorous approach - the 'generalised non-equilibrium theory'- was then developed. The basis of this theory is as follows.

Only the centre of the band moving through the chromatographic colum represents true equilibrium between solute in the respective gas and liquid phases. As the rate of migration is proportional to the fraction of solute molecules in the gas phase, then the band is continually being widened by the velocity divergence within its boundaries. This local non-equilibrium can be described in terms of an effective diffusion coefficient,which can be used to determine the mass transfer, 'C', terms in equation 2.15.

Both the mass balance approach of Van Deemter et al and the random walk method depend on the additivity of the variance contributions of each term to the plate height. The implied

assumption is that all band spreading processes can be regarded as independent. However, it is believed that eddy diffusion and gas mass transfer effects are interdependent. Giddings (24), through his non-equilibrium approach, was able to introduce a 'coupling theory', the two effects being considered as acting in parallel. The simplified form of the extended rate equation was

$$
H = \frac{1}{1/4} + \frac{1}{1/6} + \frac{1}{\bar{u}} + c_{\bar{L}} \bar{u}
$$
 (2.16)

The experimental results of Harper and Hammond (36) were most accurately described by this theory.

A strong theoretical base for the understanding of the operation of an analytical gas/ liquid chromatographic colum has been established. While values for the various constants in the expressions can be calculated from the chromatographic results themselves, it has recently been shown by Bethea and Bentsen (37) in an evaluation of nine plate height equations that prediction of H.E.T.P. purely from physical parameters is not generally accurate. In particular, satisfactory correlations for C_{r} and the complex gas phase flow pattern remain elusive.

The form of the equations presented do provide a guide to maximising analytical colum performance; i.e. minimising the measure of the width of the eluted peak, H.E.T.P.

(i) Considering equation 2.13. As the value of the carrier gas velocity is increased from zero, it passes through a minimum (see Fig 2.2). This is a well established experimental fact.

Figure 2.2 Chromatographic Plate Height VS. Carrier Flow Velocity

(ii) The particle size and mesh range should be kept at a minimum to reduce eddy diffusion. However, as the particle size is decreased, pressure drop will increase causing an increasing variation in the carrier gas velocity through the column. Only a short column section will be operating at or near the optimum value.

(iii) The particulate solid support should be evenly coated with a very thin film of the liquid solvent. Low solvent loadings can result in active sites on the support surface being free to adsorb the solutes. The resultant 'tailing' of the eluted peaks can be reduced by treatment with such chemicals as dimethyl-dichlorosilane, (D.M.C.S), which neutralises the sites.

(iv) The 'dead' volume, particularly in extra column fittings, should be kept to a minimum to reduce the contribution to H.E.T.P. made by gas phase diffusion.

(v) As the contribution of the C_G° term is considered to be very much less than the C_L term in the analytical plate height expression, equation 2.15, then the attainable minimum H.E.T.P, is only slightly dependent on the identity of the carrier gas. However, Purnell (22) has shown that the optimum gas velocity increases almost in proportion to D_{α}° , offering the possibility of faster analysis using hydrogen or helium as opposed to the more dense nitrogen or argon gases.

(vi) Colum diameter should be kept to a minimum as the likelihood of efficient radial mixing giving a uniform solute band flow pattern through the colum is reduced as the diameter increases. In keeping with this consideration the packing technique should give a uniform packed density.

(vii) The ideal injected sample has a narrow rectangular profile. Indeed a maximum allowable sample size (M.A.S.S.) exists beyond which the contribution of the width of the initial injection to the variance of the eluted peak will be significant (28, 29, 38).

$$
v_{\text{IG}} \leqslant \frac{v_{\text{R}}}{2\sqrt{\text{N}}} \tag{2.17}
$$

As the column efficiency is increased, then the value of M.A.S.S.is reduced. Even if this criterion is met the peak concentration should be kept within the linear range of the partition isotherm.

(viii) 'Temperature does not appear directly in the plate height equations but is obviously crucial to the equilibrium relationship and speed of mass transfer. In practise a balance between analysis time and resolution is sort.

For the analyst, the introduction of such sensitive peak detection devices as the flame ionisation detector (39) has enabled the sample size to be reduced to a fraction of a cubic millimetre. Plate heights of less than 0.1 mm are therefore readily obtained with narrow bere columns $(1-2$ mm) packed with 150-125 μ m support particles coated with only 1% (weight/weight) or less of the stationary phase.

2:3 The Scale-up of the Co-current Process

The discussion of the theory of the analytical process has underlined the problem facing those wishing to employ the unique resolving power of chromatography for separations at the laboratory ("preparative') or production-scale level. To be successful the rapid decline in separating ability with increased column diameter and solute concentration within the column must be reduced or counteracted. Again a theoretical understanding has been sought to suggest practical guidelines to the solution of this problem.

2.3.1 The Dynamics of Large Diameter Columns

In discussing ten factors which may detract from the performance of large diameter columns, Giddings (40) concluded that the observed variation in the point gas flow velocity across the column cross-section was of primary significance (41). The source of this variation is in the non-uniformity of the packed density. Using the conventional packing technique of vibrating or tapping of the colum wall as the packing is poured into the column causes size segregation of the particles (42), the larger particles congregating near the wall. As the resistance of the packing to gas flow is therefore less at the wall Giddings argues that the solute band will become convex to the flow direction, the outside edge preceding the bulk by many centimetres.

In opposition to this theory several workers (41, 43, 44) have emphasised the significance of the 'wall effect' which has two distinct facets. The wall itself exerts a frictional drag, retarding the outermost gas molecules. However the path of least resistance is still

a) Postulated by Giddings (40)

b) Postulated by Pretorius and De Clerk (44)

considered to be in the vicinity of the wall due to the misfit of the packed particles close to the cylindrical surface. Assuming the remainder of the bulk of the packing to be perfectly uniform the postulated cross-sectional flow profile is as shown in Fig 2.3. Also, Hupe (45) has experimentally shown that the centre of the solute band is relatively advanced in a 10 cm-diameter colum. He attributed this fact to a faster exchange mechanism between mobile and stationary phase in the more densely packed central region. Hence the uniformity of the solvent phase loading is of fundamental importance.

The shape of the advancing solute band is further complicated by radial diffusion. This movement of solute molecules laterally to the flow direction can be beneficial. A more uniform band results from the repeated transfer of molecules back and forth from the respective points of high and low migration rate.

Attempts to formulate the additional band spreading occurring within large diameter columns have resulted in a further term, H_s , being added to the Van Deemter plate height equation. Huyten et al (41) , Giddings $(46, 47, 48)$, Higgins and Smith (49) and Rijinders (50) , while adopting differing mathematical approaches, all derived a term of similar form.

$$
H_{\tilde{G}} = f \left(\frac{r_{\tilde{G}}^2 \cdot u}{D_T} \right)
$$
 (2.18)

where : r_c = column radius

 D_{r} = effective radial diffusivity u = carrier gas velocity.

23

The exact interdependence of these parameters was dictated by the nature of the assumed velocity profile and/ or the definition of the radial diffusivity.

For a quadratic profile,
$$
u = \bar{u} \left[G_1 + G_2 \left(\frac{r_x}{r_c} \right)^2 \right]
$$
, then (46)

$$
H_c = \frac{G^2_{2} \cdot r_c^2 \cdot \bar{u}}{9.6 Y_{r_c} P_G}
$$

where G_1 and G_2 are dimensionless constants and r_x is a general point on the lateral axis of the colum.

For an arbitrary profile, $u(r)$, then (51)

$$
H_c = 2\overline{\hat{K}} \cdot \frac{r_c^2 \cdot \overline{u}}{\lambda_{r_c} d_{p_c} u + Y'_{r_c} D_G}
$$

in which K^* is a complicated double definite integral of the velocity profile gradient, $\frac{du}{dx}$, being a general function of the particle to column diameter ratio. In the latter case D_n was considered to include the lateral movement resulting from the path of the gas through the packing, $\lambda_n d_n u$, in addition to the molecular diffusion in the radial direction, Y, D_n .

Giddings(48) tested the validity of the H.E.T.P, equation including an additional term of the above form (equation 2.19) by comparing 0.6 cm and 5.1 cm-diameter columns. He was able to show agreement between the theoretically predicted and experimentally measured values. In contrast Bayer et al (52), from experimental results obtained on a series of columns ranging from 1.3 cm to 10.2 cm, obtained a good fit to the equation

$$
H = A + \frac{B}{u} + C_{G}u + C_{L}u + 2.83 \frac{r_{e}^{0.58}}{u^{1.886}}
$$
 2.21

Pretorius and De Clerk (44) contest the assumption that all large diameter column band spreading mechanisms are scaled up in proportion to the radius. Considering the 'wall effect', the particle to colum diameter ratio, d_{pc} , is of fundamental importance to the velocity profile. On this basis a semi-empirical expression for H_c was obtained (52):

$$
H_{c} = \left(\frac{m}{2 \cdot d_{p}^{2} \cdot D_{r}}\right) \cdot d_{p} \cdot u
$$

where $m = \frac{1}{100} \cdot \exp. - \left(\frac{1}{10} d_{pc}\right)$ 2.23

The above term was included in a dimensionless expression for the plate height;

$$
\frac{H}{d_p} = 2\lambda + \left[s\frac{1 \cdot 2 \epsilon}{G_g(1 - \epsilon)}\right] \cdot \frac{1}{Re_p}
$$
\n
$$
+ \left[\frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{k}{(1 + k)^2} \cdot \frac{d_f^2}{d_p} \cdot \frac{v_g}{v_L} \cdot \frac{1 - \epsilon}{\epsilon} \cdot \frac{e_g}{v_L}\right] \cdot Re_p
$$
\n
$$
+ H
$$
\n
$$
2.24
$$

where ε = void fraction

 Sc_G , Sc_L = Schmidt number for the gas and liquid phase

 $=$ \vee θ and \vee θ respectively \overline{u}

$$
\underline{\mathbf{L}} \qquad \qquad \text{respecti}
$$

 $V_{G}V_{L}$ = Kinematic viscosities of gas and liquid phase Re_p = Reynolds number for packed columns

$$
= \frac{d_{p} \cdot u}{v_{G}} \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{1-\epsilon}
$$

25
According to this study, the plate height first increases with a_c (a_p being held constant), reaches a maximum when a_{nc} approximately equals 0.5 and then decreases as d_c is further increased. This hypothesis is experimentally supported $(53, 54)$. Considering the significance of dimensionless groups to column performance it is interesting to note the experimental work of Charm et al (55) in the field of large-scale liquid chromatography. They concluded that provided dynamic similarity was maintained between two columns by maintaining the length to diameter ratios and Reynold's number constant then the separation characteristics would be the same.

In summary, a non-uniform velocity profile exists across the column cross-section. Its exact form and hence dependence on the column diameter, being complicated by packing defects, remains a matter of conjecture.

2.3.2 Finite Solute Concentration Effects

As the size of the injected sample is increased, the column efficiency in terms of the number of theoretical plates, is markedly reduced (see for example references 56, 57). The increased variance of the solute band can be attributed not only to the width of the injected sample as previously discussed (Section 2.2.2.2) but also to the effect of the comparatively high solute concentration on the chromatographic process.

The original derivation of terms in gas chromatography by James and Martin (3) was based on a model much simplified by the assumption of a 'linear ideal' process. While this assumption has some justification at the near infinite dilution conditions existing in an

analytical colum it becomes increasingly unrealistic as the concentration is increased.

In addition to kinetic mechanisms, as the solute front proceeds through the colum five possible factors affecting the retention, and therefore band broadening, can be pinpointed (58-63):

(4) The non-linearity of the absorption isotherm

(ii) Changes in the velocity of the gas phase caused by the flux of solute molecules across the gas/ solvent interface wherever a concentration gradient exists.

(iii) The low thermal conductivity of the packing prevents the rapid transfer of heat emitted or absorbed during the chromatographic process (termed 'enthalpic overloading')

(iv) Gas phase non-ideality

(v) Ligquid-surface and solid surface adsorption.

 (iv) and (v) should be considered when applying chromatography to the accurate measurement of thermodynamic properties. (iii) can result in the occurrence of both axial and radial temperature gradients within a large diameter colum. Further discussion of this phenomena is given in Section 6.1.2.4. (i) and (ii) are discussed below.

2.3.2.1 The Absorption Isotherm

The retention volume is the volume of gas required to move a zone of given concentration on the solute boundary through the chromatographic colum. This can be related to a linear absorption isotherm by equation 2.3. For the general case the ratio of solute partitioning between the gas and liquid phase may vary with concentration; i.e. the isotherm is non-linear. A more correct definition of V_{R}^{O} was therefore

given by Helfferich (64) as

$$
v_R^{\circ} = v_G + v_{L^*}(\frac{\delta q}{\delta c})
$$
 (2.25)

Figure 2.4 shows the effect of the three commonest types of isotherm in the B.E.T. classification on the shape of the solute boundary (59). For a type 1 (Langmir) isotherm, the retention volume and associated partition coefficient, K = $\frac{q}{c}$, decrease with increasing concentration. The leading edge of the solute peak is therefore sharpened while the trailing edge becomes diffuse. The converse is true for the effect of an anti-Langmuir isotherm. As the majority of systems in chromatography exhibit a non-linear isotherm then an increase in band width is to be expected at high solute concentration.

2.3.2.2 The Sorption Effect

Bosanquet (65, 66) was the first to describe the influence on the shape of the chromatogram of the variation in gas velocity with concentration. This results from the movement of molecules into or out of the gas phase as the solute boundary progresses. Conder and Purnell (60 - 63) subsequently included the sorption effect, corrected for gas phase compressibility, in their general retention volume equation. In its simplest form the equation can be expressed as

$$
V_R^o = V_G + V_L \cdot (1 - jy_o) \cdot \frac{dq}{d_o}
$$
 2.26

where y_0 equals the mole fraction of solute in the gas phase as measured at the column outlet. As the concentration increases the

solute flowrate is increased giving a reduced retention volume. Hence the sorption effect always gives a self-sharpening leading edge and a diffuse trailing edge to the solute band, zones of high concentration moving faster than those at a lower level. The resultant effect of high concentration on band broadening is therefore dependent on whether the effects of the absorption isotherm and of sorption are naturally supporting or opposed. If opposed, a 'stationary front' can be formed, the band width becoming independent of column length $(67 - 70)$.

2.3.3 Practical Solutions to the Scale-up Problem

Successful scale-up of the basic co-current process demands that the detrimental effects on capacity of a non-uniform velocity profile and finite solute concentration must be overcome. The practical solutions proposed may be classified into six categories; (i) multiple columns; (ii) columns of non-circular cross-sections (iii) flow distributors within the colum; (iv) improved packing technique; (v) increased column length and (vi) repetitive injection. Bach will now be discussed.

2.3.3.1 The Use of Multiple Columns

Utilizing several columns in parallel has the obvious advantage of allowing each individual colum to be of narrow bore,while the total quantity of solvent phase remains substantial. Thus detrimental large diameter column effects are avoided without reduction in capacity. Johns et al (71, 72) compared a combination of eight parallel columns, each of 1.6 cm-diameter and 183 cm-length, with a single column of the same dimensions. Their experimental results showed the H.E.T.P. values

for the two systems to be equivalent even when the sample size for the parallel column array was increased by a factor of eight. This must be contrasted with the results of McCallum (73) who, for a similar experiment, observed very little gain in capacity.

The problem resides in the need to perfectly match the retention characteristics of each individual column. While the search for a reproducible packing technique has been moderately successful, the improved methods have been accompanied by a reduction to an acceptable level of the value of H.E.T.P. for large diameter colums (see Section 2.3.3.4). Difficulty is also experienced in even distribution of sample and gas flow through the inlet manifold. Hence, parallel colums have not found wide acceptance.

2.3.3.2 The Use of Columns of Non-Circular Cross-Section

Several column geometries have been proposed as a means of unifying the profile developed within a conventional circular tube. Oval $(74, 75)$ and annular $(76, 77, 78)$ cross-sectioned columns have been studied as well as the introduction of longitudinal fins (79, 80) or rods (81) within the column itself. Performance improvement is gained not only from improved column dynamics but also from better heat transfer properties. However, all the above work was carried out at an order of equivalent diameter of approximately 2 to 3 om, save for the 7.5 cm hexagonal finned colum of Reiser (80). Their difficulty of construction generally restricts application to the small preparative-scale where temperature programming may be successfully applied.

2.3.3.3 The Use of Flow Distributors Within The Colum

Golay (82) recognised that maldistribution of the solute in the gas phase could be overcome by remixing the carrier stream at periodic intervals along the colum, thus serving ag an artificial radial diffusivity. He suggested that short column sections should be joined by a length of small diameter tubing in which diffusion may take place. The spacing of the remixing zone is critical. If too frequent, they could cause more band spreading than they eliminate.

This concept is of particular relevance to production-scale columns where the promotion of radial mixing is crucial to performance. In recent years homogenisers or baffles have been developed for insertion into such colums. At their simplest, these devices have taken the form of washers. By placing 'doughnut' type rings at 10 cm intervals, Bayer et al (83) achieved a plate height of less than 2 mm in a 10 omdiameter column. Frisone (84) successfully retarded the normally advanced periphery of the solute band (wall effect) by the use of solid washers, soaked in stationary phase. A spacing of 30 cm was used in a column of 5 cm-diameter. In contrast, Verzele (85) was mable to obtain any beneficial effect with various shaped chemical washers.

The flow homogeniser patented by Carel and Perkins was of a more elaborate design (86, 87). It consisted of a plate with a single central hole sandwiched between two sintered discs, The outer discs servedto smooth flow variations while the central 'doughnut' promoted remixing. With the aid of such devices these workers were able to successfully scale-up throughput in direct proportion to cross-sectional

area when increasing column diameter from 1 to 30 om (88). For the column of 30 cm-diameter, a single injection of 1475 $cm³$ of a hydrocarbon mixture $(n - C_6, C_7, C_8)$ was fully resolved. The column length was 2.44 m. Plate heights of 2 mm on a 10 cm-diameter column are commonly achieved (89), which compares favourably with the value of 3 mm observed by Verzele employing a four ring homogeniser in a column of only 7.6 cm-diameter (reported as private communication by Pecsar, 89).

Abcor Inc., Massachusetts, a company marketing production-scale chromatographs, favour the 'disc and doughnut! type baffling system associated with liquid-liquid extraction columns $(5, 90 - 93)$. The disc, of diameter less than the column, forces the gas flow toward the column wall. The following 'doughnut' returns the flow to the centre, promoting mixing. An example of the few published experimental results obtained when using this type of baffling is the separation of 98.6% pure a -pinene from crude turpentine at a throughput rate of 900 cm^3 hr⁻¹. The column was 10 cm wide by 2.74 m long (91).

An economic feasibility study has been reported by Abcor for the separation of para-and meta-xylene at a combined production rate of 45.4 million kg yr^{-1} . (5). As a gas chromatographic process, two columns of length and diameter 4.26 m are envisaged, giving 99% pure products at a manufacturing cost of 4.4 β per kg of p-xylene (U. S cents - paper published in 1969). This cost compares favourably with the normal crystallisation process.

The introduction of baffling has been a significant factor in improving the viability of chromatography as a production-scale process.

2.32324 Improving Colum Packing Techniques

Experimental results reported by Huyten et al (41) demonstrate the problem associated with packing colums of large diameter. Investigating the effect of the packing technique on 7.6 om and 25.4 cm-diameter columns, they found that H.E.T.P. values of between 2 mm and 20 mm could be obtained on the same column by using different methods; pouring, pouring with tapping of the colum wall, tapping, vibration and tapping with vibration. The source of this variation has been identified as the difficulty in obtaining a homogeneous packing. Pypker (42) was able to visually observe the particle size segregation resulting from the above listed methods by mixing green 841 - 425 μ m 'celite' with red 212 - 125 μ m 'Celite' in a $1:1$ ratio (Fig 2.5).

The search for a reproducible packing technique giving columns of high efficiency has been extensive. In addition to the work of Huyten, Bayer (94), Frisone (84) and Higgins and Smith (49) have all investigated methods involving some combination of pouring, tapping and vibration with conflicting results. Huyten and Bayer concluded that tapping and slow filling produced the best colums. Higgins and Smith obtained the lowest H.E.T.P., a value of 1.0 mm for a colum of diameter 2.5 cm, by allowing the packing to trickle from a funnel through a glass tube centred above the column. Frisone was unsatisfied by any of the three methods he employed; vibration plus vacuum, tamping plus vacuum and slurry-packing, finally resorting to the use of flow homogenisers.

Hupe et al (45) observed that a 10 cm-diameter colum packed by

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Packing Rotated until Homogenous

Figure 2.5

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Vibrator on Wall

Fines Brought Down Column by slowly
moving Vibrator
downwards

pouring and tapping gave a plate height of 6 mm, A study of the crosssectional solute profile revealed that the profile was advanced at the point of highest packed density, the colum centre line. The profile was corrected by increasing the peripheral packed density with a conical shaped plunger. An H.E.T.P. of 2.7 mm was then obtained.

Guillemin $(95 - 98)$ and Pecsar (89) have demonstrated the high reproducibility in chromatographic performance of a fixed bed after fluidisation. H.E.T.P,values as low as 1.6 mm have been obtained with this technique on a 15.3 cm-diameter colum. However, the resultant open packing structure, while giving a low pressure drop, is very susceptible to collapse by mechanical shock or vibration, with an increase in the plate height of 15-30%

Following the work of Bayer and associates (83), Albrecht and Verzele (99) have recently developed a technique combining mechanical rotation and shaking with the continuous application of pressure. Packing is added in small quantities and the shake-turn-pressurise (S.T.P.) procedure repeated until the level within the colum is constant. A 7.6 cm-diameter column yielded an H.E.T.P.,of 1.2 mm which exceeds the performance obtained by any other method.

In summary, it can be said that those techniques which remove operator interaction are superior in terms of both reproducibility and low plate heights. For column diameters of several metres as envisaged for co-current chromatography at the full production-scale such techniques are unlikely to be applied, the preference being for some form of baffling.

Finally, in discussing packing techniques consideration must be given to the entrance and exit sections of the column. Several studies have shown that if these sections are left unpacked the expected efficiency loss from diffusion occurs (41, 100, 101). The design, type and degree of packing giving the best result is a matter of conjecture. Huyten et al (41) , studying conical shaped inlet and outlets to a column of diameter 7.6 om, concluded the conical angle had no effect. However, filling the entire exit cone with chromatographic packing gave a 40% efficiency increase. No advantage was gained by totally filling the inlet cone. For a 25.4 cm column a partially filled inlet cone gave the lowest colum H.E.T.P. of 2.2 mn.

Albrecht and Verzele (101), in a similar study on a 7.5 cm-diameter column, found the lowest plate heightswere obtained for an inlet cone packed with inert glass spheres. The $250-210 \mu m$ spheres were thought to assist the even distribution of the injected solute across the column cross-section. Hupe et al (45) have experimentally shown the importance of this initial distribution. A non-uniform profile at the column inlet is unlikely to be corrected by the low natural radial diffusion experienced at large column diameters.

2.3.3.5 Increasing Column Length

From analytical theory, the maximum feed volume permissable if the intrinsic theoretical plate height of a column is not to be adversely effected,is given by equation 2.17, which may be written (30) as

$$
v_{\text{IG}} \leqslant \frac{v_{\text{R}}'}{2\sqrt{\text{N}}} = \frac{v_{\text{R}}(1+\text{k})}{2\sqrt{\text{N}}} \qquad (2.27)
$$

If this equation is satisfied then Purnell (102) has shown that the number of plates required to exactly separate a pair of components (i.e. peak centres 6 σ apart) is given by

$$
\text{Nreq} = 36 \left(\frac{a}{a-1} \right)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{1+k}{k} \right)^2 \qquad \qquad 2.28
$$

 $v'_{Ri,i}$ where $: a = the separation factor for a given column$ Ri

Thus, in the ideal case, the value of N in equation 2.27 is specified. fo increase the permissable feed volume the adjusted retention volume must be increased. The quantity of stationary phase contained in the column must, therefore, be increased. In addition to increasing stationary phase loading and column diameter this can be achieved by increasing the column length, The advantage of such as approach is that intrinsic efficiency, in terms of plate height, can be maintained, provided the length is above a minimum value (40, 41, 103 - 109).

Conder and Purnell (110, 111) have extended the above ideal case to consider the effect of 'overloading'; i.e. exceeding the feed volume limitation imposed by equation 2.27. They concluded that the feed band width could be increased by a factor of twelve, giving a six-fold increase in throughput, by tripling the column length. Any further increase was unlikely to be economically justified.

Considering again equation 2.28, as the capacity ratio, k, is generally much greater than unity, then it is the separation factor, a, which largely dictates the minimum plate number and therefore coluwm

length requirement. Hence Verzele (104 - 108) and Sakodynskii and Volkov (112, 113) have advocated that difficult separations (a approaching 1) are best achieved on very long, narrow bore columns. For a 75 m x 9 mm coiled glass column filled with a 30% loaded support, Verzele was able to successfully resolve dichloromethane, chloroform and tetrachloromethane from a single injection of 35 om? (106). The pressure drop associated with columns of such length must be counteracted by the use of a coarser solid support. A particle size range of 1680 to 821 μ m was used in the example quoted, representing a compromise with respect to mass transfer efficiency.

A mechanical technique for overcoming the pressure drop restriction is to circulate the solute bands around two or more columns, linked to form a closed cycle, before elution. Several schemes have been proposed (114 - 119), an interesting example being the three column system of Golay (119). A complete sequence of six cycles is illustrated in Fig 2.6. At any time two of the columns are linked to form the main separating section while the third is used to vent the more strongly absorbed component.

Long-narrow colums have the advantage of being more amenable to temperature programming. However, a long retention time is associated with the increased column length, placing a restriction on the throughput rate. Coupling this fact with:the generally larger single sample capacity for wide columns suggests that short-wide columns are superior for production-scale applications. At the preparative-scale the choice of column dimensions is not so straightforward. Pecsar (89), following

a cost comparison (86, 120), concludes that long-narrow columns are to be preferred if the separation factor is less than 1.15.

2.3.3.6 Repetitive Injection

Analytical chromatography is a batch process. As the single injection migrates through the column the total width of the solute bands occupy only part of the available length at any one time. For practical scale-up, column utilisation and therefore throughput, is usually increased by introducing a 'repeated injection' technique. The batch samples are injected at as frequent an interval as the total on-column width of the preceding sample permits without extensive overlap. Synchronized automatic injections are used in conjunction with a peak sensing device,which diverts the individual eluting bands to separate fraction collection points.

As an example of the throughput gain, Ryan et al (91) observed that, for a 10 cm x 3.04 m column operating at carefully selected conditions, the feed of turpentine could be injected 1.8 times more frequently than for a single injection to give 9% resolved $a-$ and β -pinene products.

The introduction of repetitive injection poses several questions regarding the optimum design and operating parameters for a co-current chromatographic separation process. Should the eluted peaks be fully resolved or can sample size, carrier gas velocity, injection rate or temperature be increased to reduce retention time and give overlapping peaks? In the latter case the contaminated fraction of the chromatogram needs to be 'cut out' and recycled. Which gives greater throughput, rapid small injections on a low loaded, small particle size

support or slower, large injections onto coarse support heavily coated with stationary phase? Theoretical and experimental studies have attempted to answer such questions.

2.3.4 Optimisation of Column Design and Performance

When applying chromatography as a separation technique the concept of minimising H.E.T.P, is inadequate as the sole guide to optimising column characteristics and operating conditions. The primary objective is the production of high purity components in least time (preparativescale) or at least cost (production-scale). The expression for efficiency should therefore reflect the compromise between throughput and component resolution for a system of given separation difficulty.

The simpler case, where successive injections are made only on complete elution of the preceding solute bands, has been treated by Sawyer (38, 120). Equation 2.27 was expressed in terms of column parameters and combined with equation 2.28 to give an expression for the maximum throughput of a component in an ideal column containing the minimum required number of plates, Nreq. production-scale).

ore reflect the compro

for a system of given

re successive injecti

receding solute bands

ion 2.27 was expresse

rith equation 2.28 to

component in an ideal

f plates, Nreq.

(x / 1 - x).k. $\rho_p.f_L$

$$
\frac{V_{SL}}{\text{unit time}} = \frac{(x / 1 - x) \cdot k \cdot \rho_p \cdot f_L}{12 \cdot [a / (a - 1)] \cdot (1 + k)^2 \cdot M_L} \left[\frac{\pi \cdot r_o^2 \cdot M_i \cdot u_o \cdot j}{\rho_i} \right]
$$

2.29

- f_L = fraction of total weight of packing which is solvent; i.e. stationary phase loading
- M_T , M_S = molecular weight of the liquid solvent and sample components respectively.

Equation 2.29 enabled the following general observations to be made concerning the selection of column parameters for a separation process $(38):$

(i) Providing column efficiency can be maintained, throughput increases in proportion to cross-sectional area.

(ii) A solvent phase giving the largest separation factor should be employed to reduce the plate requirement.

(iii) A carrier gas velocity beyond the optimum value for minimum plate height is advantageous.

(iv) Mass throughput increases with sample molecular weight while decreasing with sample density.

(v) A high stationary phase loading is desirable. From equations 2.28, 2.29 and a plate height expression the minimum colum length required for a given separation, column diameter and carrier gas flowrate can be calculated.

The question of optimum colum length was considered by Timmins et al (5) . Defining efficiency in terms of column utilisation.

 $\eta = \frac{\text{moles produced per time}}{\text{column volume}}$, they derived:

$$
\eta = \left(\begin{array}{c} 0.4 \\ R_s \end{array}\right) \cdot \left(\begin{array}{c} P_3^0 \\ R_g^0 \end{array}\right) \cdot \left(\begin{array}{c} u_{\text{lin}} \phi \\ \overline{1}_{\text{min}} \end{array}\right) \cdot \left(\begin{array}{c} 1_{\text{min}} \\ 1 \end{array}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1_{\text{min}}}{1}\right)^{1/2}
$$

 $1/\gamma$

where $R_{\rm g}$ = resolution

$$
= \frac{t_{Rii} - t_{Ri}}{4 \sigma_{ii}}
$$

- P_{0} = vapour pressure of the feed at column temperature
- R_{g} = gas constant
- T_c = temperature of column

$$
u_{\text{in}} =
$$
 carrier gas velocity at the column inlet

 ϕ = porosity of the packed column

 1_{min} = minimum column length required for separation of two components by 4σ

=
$$
\text{H} \times 16 \text{ (R}_\text{s})^2 \cdot \left[\frac{\text{a}}{\text{a} - 1} \right]^2 \cdot \frac{\text{k}_{\text{ii}} + 1}{\text{k}_{\text{ii}}^2}
$$

1 = actual column length.

(Notes units for the above expression are feet, minutes,

atmospheres, °R)

A plot of η versus $1/\frac{1}{\min}$ showed a maximum for $1/\frac{1}{\min}$ = 1.2 to 1.5. This range was therefore considered to represent the optimum balance between sample volume and column length. The range is considerably lower than the previously reported suggestion by Conder and Purnell (110, 111) that, for preparative columns, the minimum column length could be effectively increased by a factor of three. Equation 2.30 also confirms that a high feed vapour pressure, carrier gas velocity and permeability of the packing favour effective column utilisation. However, a larger particle size reduces the effect of gas compressibility at the expense of some mass transfer efficiency.

Pretorious and colleagues at the University of Pretoria have extensively studied the optimisation of preparative chromatographic performance for the more practical repeated injection case (44, 122 - 130). The basis of their approach was to define an efficiency term which relates production rate to separation difficulty and purity through the chromatogram. Thus for a two component system requiring two cuts per injected sample (two-fraction technique), De Clerk (44,130) defines the efficiency as (see Fig 2.7).

$$
E = \frac{(m_i - \Delta m_i) \cdot u_0}{W_{\text{to}} \cdot (1 + k_i)}
$$

where :
$$
E =
$$
 mass production rate of component i

 $m₁$ = mass of component i produced at the column outlet per sample injection

$$
\Delta m_{\dot{1}} =
$$
 mass discarded during fraction cutting
\n
$$
W_{\dot{1}}
$$
 = total chromatogram width per sample at the column
\n
$$
W_{\dot{1}}
$$

Purity is inherent in the assumed distance between peaks. For Gaussian shaped peaks, a distance of four standard deviations, $4\sigma_{10}$, leads to a cross-contamination of about 2% .

Equation 2.31 has been related to packed colum parameters to give

the following expression for volumetric production rate (44).
\n
$$
E' = \frac{E}{\text{intet concentration}} = F_i \cdot r_c^2 \cdot Re_p \cdot \left(1 - \frac{G_i \cdot H}{1}\right)^{1/2}
$$
\n(2.32)

with
$$
F_i = \pi \cdot \sqrt{2\pi} \cdot (1 - \epsilon) \cdot v_g \cdot (1 + \text{erf}/2\text{R}_g)
$$

and $G_i = 16(1 + k_i)^2 R_g^2$
 $k_i^2 (a - 1)^2$

In addition to confirming the significance of such factors as separation factor and particle size, several important conclusions have been drawn from this work $(44, 125 - 128, 130)$.

(i) Production rate is dependent only on the square root of the plate height, H. Hence,in contrast to analytical chromatography the importance of H at the preparative-scale is secondary.

(ii) The value of the partition coefficient does not significantly \mathbf{a} ffect E .

(iii) Carrier gas velocity appears implicitly in the terms Re_p and H. The dependence of efficiency on these terms at increasing velocity are opposed. Hence an optimum value of velocity exists for a colum of given length and diameter which is greater than the analytical value. Gordon et al (125) have shown that for a three-fraction technique with two components ('heart-cutting') this optimum value may exceed the limit at which the required resolution can still be met.

(iv) An optimum sample volume exists for each component in a mixture. However,the production efficiency decreases quite slowly as the optimum value is exceeded.

(v) The dependence of production efficiency on colum radius is complex as r_a appears both explicitly and implicitly in H. It is expected that for easily resolved mixtures the r_c^2 term will dominate, production efficiency increasing almost linearly with cross-sectional area. For more difficult separations the significance of plate height in the equation will increase and, therefore, an optimum column diameter will exist beyond which no significant gain in E is achieved. In this

case Gordon et al (127) suggest a colum diameter of approximately 10 om will represent the optimum.

(vi) The maximum feed concentration should be used. Indeed the column could be operated in the non-linear isotherm region, peak skewing being tolerated for the gain in throughput.

(vii) Production efficiency increases almost linearly with length, the ultimate restriction being pressure drop (44, 126).

(viii) For a two-fraction technique there is an optimum stationary layer thickness, $\frac{d_f}{dp}$ = 0.01 (44). When heart-cutting, the loading should be the maximum that the support can hold without 'clogging'.

Thus, as expected, the optimum conditions for a preparative chromatographic column are radically altered by the introduction of a repetitive injection technique.

Craven (131) experimentally observed the existence of an optimun carrier gas velocity (4 cm s⁻¹) and sample volume (60 cm³) for the separation of $a-$ and β -pinene on a 10 cm-diameter column. An optimum temperature (125°C) , some 35°C below the system boiling point, was also found to exist. Operating at these conditions with repetitive injection gave a throughput of 828 cm³ hr⁻¹, recovering 98.6% β -pinene. While this is approximately 8% less than the throughput obtained by Ryan et al (91) for the same system, column diameter and stationary phase, the column used by Craven was only 2.03 m long, a decrease of 35% in length.

At the full production-scale a cost element must figure prominently in the optimisation expression. However, as a relatively new separation process, available data is limited. Empirical equations projecting production cost as a function of column parameters must, of necessity, be extremely tentative.

The common approach has been to define as a criterion of performance the reciprocal of the total separation cost per unit mass of product; throughput, Q, divided by the total processing cost. including product recovery, per unit time, 3. Process variables should be selected to minimise this quantity.

The analysis of Conder (132) has been the most extensive to date. He combined a theoretically based equation for throughput in a repeated injection process with an empirical expression for cost based on data published by Ryan and Dienes (133) for the separation of a - and β -pinene ona 10 cm-diameter colum. A summary of his conclusions is given belows

(i) For a 'heart-cutting' technique the optimum recovery of product per injected sample is 60%, the contaminated 40% being recycled. Columns should therefore be made deliberately short and operate at the maximum carrier gas velocity with long, rectangular shaped, feed injections.

(ii) With increasing column diameter, $\sqrt[9]{s^*}$ initially undergoes a rapid reduction. When the scale is large, the change in cost advantage is much slower. Hupe (134) empirically estimated the transition point in the slope of the cost curve to be at a colum diameter of approximately 20 cm.

(iii) For large columns, say greater than 30 cm in diameter, it is important to achieve a low value for H.E.T.P. As the diameter is reduced the plate height becomes of less significance to throughput as previously reported.

(iv) $\sqrt[Q]{s}$ is not very sensitive to the separation factor, although the stationary phase resulting in the easier separation should always be chosen. In addition the stationary phase loading has little effect on the economics, simply dictating whether small batches are frequently injected or large batches injected at longer intervals.

(v) The optimum temperature is at,or slightly above,the boiling point for thermally stable solutes as, at this temperature, the asymmetry resulting from finite concentrations is least.

(iv) ana (v) are surprising observations. As the separation factor is a measure of the separation difficulty, it would seem logical to assume that, as for distillation with respect to relative volatility, the product cost would be very sensitive to this factor. With respect to temperature, Craven (131) has experimentally shown the optimum value for the throughput of $a-$ and β -pinene on a 10 cm-diameter column to be some 35°C below the boiling point. A higher temperature would be detrimental to both operating cost and production rate.

Summarising, it is not possible to draw up a general set of recommended guide lines for column design and operation when applying gas/ liquid chromatography as a separation technique. Conflict arises with the chemical system, the duty, and the injection plus product recovery technique.

At the preparative-scale the co-current system is now accepted as a general laboratory tool. The largest constructed unit reported is 30 cm in diameter. However, larger units extending into full production-scale have been economically justified for systems which are, at present, difficult to resolve to a high degree of purity.

2.4. Alternative Process Schemes

In describing practical solutions to the problem facing those wishing to scale-up the basic, batch, co-current process, it was shown that a repeated injection technique represented an increase in column utilisation and, therefore, throughput. Several researchers have devised mechanical schemes to enable the final step in this direction to be made, the introduction of a continuous feed. These may conveniently be divided in two groups as described in Chapter 1; (i) cross-current flow processes (ii) counter-current flow processes.

2.4.1 Cross-current Flow Processes

A scheme for the continuous separation of a multicomponent mixture by the lateral movement of the solvent phase relative to the carrier gas was proposed by Martin (135). The column was to be formed by packing the annular space between two concentric cylinders. While gas flowed through these cylinders they would be rotated past a fixed feed point. The solutes would therefore follow a helical path to elute, for collection, at a point relative to the feed dictated by their respective solvent affinities. The more strongly absorbed components would be carried farthest (Fig 2.8a).

A theoretical appraisal led Giddings (136) to conclude that this scheme was capable of better resolution and throughput than a conventional column of similar packed cross-section. Dinelli et al (137, 138) converted the concept to a working unit. To avoid both eross-contamination within the packing and construction difficulties, the annulus was replaced by 100, 6 mm x 1.2 m individual tubes arranged

a) Helical Flow

b) Radial Flow

Parallel Disc System of Sussman et al (145)

Principle

on a circular pitch. The tube bundle was enclosed in a heating jacket while the corresponding collecting traps were suspended below the unit in a cooling bath.

Optimum operating conditions have been determined (139). In practice, as the feedrate is increased, the number of traps in which a component appears increases until eventually overlap occurs. The feedrate, therefore, has a maximum for a given product purity. For the separation of benzene/ cyclohexane on tricresyl phosphate as stationary phase the theoretical maximum throughput for 99.9% purity was predicted to be 220 cm^3 hr⁻¹. Experimentally it was found to be $200 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ hr}^{-1}$. Examples of the separation of isomers and close boiling mixtures on a unit with greater column length have also been given $(140 - 142)$.

The careful matching of column characteristics, the need for a reliable mechanical seal between the individual columns and the traps, and the physical movement of a large column bundle make it unlikely that a unit in this form will be applied at the production-scale.

Mosier (143) has patented a unit operating on the same rotating annular column principle. In this case the solutes move in a horizontal rather than vertical plane, travelling from the centre to the circumference of a wide annular packing $(Fig 2.8 (b))$. For a practical unit, Sussman et al (144, 145) replaced the packed annulus by two parallel discs $(Fig 2.8 (b))$, the adjacent surfaces being coated with solvent phase. Plastic spacers held the discs apart to form a capillary channel approximately 0.01 mm wide. With 60.8 om-diameter

discs, the largest unit constructed, a throughput of 18.9 cm^3 min⁻¹ was reported for the separation of a mixture of 55% butane and 45% methane. A theoretical study led the authors to claim that the gas throughput could be as high as 50 cm^3 min⁻¹ on a 30.4 cm-diameter unit (145).

The primary application of this system is for the separation of gases which require only a short residence time between the plates for resolution. More difficult separations, requiring longer retention of the components, would lead to increased band spreading, each solute occupying a greater fraction of the coated disc surface. The throughput for successful resolution would therefore decrease.

Further scale-up is limited by two factors:

(i) The feed emanating from the centre of the disc must result in an inner band of very high solute concentration. Throughput is therefore restricted by the saturation of the solute phase in this zone. In scaling up the disc dimensions, available surface area will be lost to the necessary increase of the inside diameter of the annulus.

(ii) The manufacture of the discs and the seals between the disc circumference and solute collection ports requires a high degree of precision engineering.

The final scheme falling within the cross-current flow category $remains, as yet, conceptual (146). It consists of a rectangular box$ whose four sides are constructed in porous metal (Fig 2.9). Filled with chromatographic support, the 'slab' is suspended inside another, solid wall, box. A plate set at each corner isolates the four sides of the slab. The feed mixture $(i + ii)$ is introduced into one corner. The

Figure 2.9 'Chromatographic Slab' Proposed by Tuthill (146)

flow direction of the carrier gas is changed by alternate selection of the inlets placed on the two adjacent sides which together form that corner. When the carrier gas inlet point is switched, the slab temperature is also changed. The two solutes i and ii, as a consequence of their differing solvent affinity, progress at different rates in both the horizontal and vertical direction. Flowrate and temperature conditions can be selected such that the resultant velocity of solute i (lower solvent affinity; i.e. lower K value) is greatest in the vertical direction while solute ii preferentially moves in a horizontal direction. The resolved components will therefore elute from differing sides of the slab.

In concluding this subsection, it is interesting to note that neither of the units constructed on the cross-current flow principle have been used to exploit its major theoretical advantage, the ability to continuously resolve a multicomponent mixture in a one-stage operation.

2.4.2 Counter-current Flow Processes

The increased potential throughput for a counter-current flow scheme relative to a conventional co-current system can best be illustrated by considering Fig 2.10 in which the solute concentration profiles obtained for a binary separation are compared. If 'pure' products are to be collected in the batch process (Fig 2.10 (a)) then, either the eluted components must be fully resolved (X) or the central 'valley' fraction must be cut-out (YZ). As previously discussed (Section 2.3.4), the latter 'heart cutting' procedure appears most economically attractive, Conder (132) suggesting that the optimum recycle is 40% of the injected

less strongly absorbed component (lower K value) Note $i =$ more strongly absorbed component (higher K value) $ii =$

sample.

In contrast, for the counter-current flow scheme (Fig 2.10 (b)). the solute concentration profiles need only be partially resolved within the chromatographic colum to permit collection of pure products at the column exits $(1, 2)$. The entire separating power of the column can be used to effect this partial resolution and therefore severe overloading, by co-current standards, of the solvent phase is permitted. Hence, in principle, a gain in throughput should be achieved.

The achievement of a mechanical system based on the principle of counter-current gas/liquid chromatography has undergone two main stages of development; (i) moving-bed and (ii) moving-colum systems.

2.4.2.1 Moving-Bed Systems

A typical apparatus for moving-bed chromatography was that used by Barker and co-workers $(8 - 11, 15, 21)$ which is illustrated in Fig 2.11. A vertical copper colum of 2.5 cm-diameter was fed with solvent-coated solid support from a hopper. The solids flowed under gravity at a rate controlled by an orifice and rotating table at the colum base. Vibration of the column wall ensured a continuous steady solids flow. On exiting from the column, the solids were returned to the hopper.

The column can be considered to consist of two parts; a main separating section into which the feed is pumped and a heated stripping section. Hot, dry, excess carrier gas entered the base of the stripping section to remove the more strongly absorbed component(s), ii, carried preferentially in the direction of solvent flow, as Product 2. Gas not removed from the Product 2 offtake port continued to flow through the

separating section to exit from the column, carrying the least strongly absorbed component (s) , i, as Product 1. Components were recovered from the respective product streams by cold traps.

Barker and Lloyd (10 - 12) and Huntington (15) have studied the performance of the above described moving-bed unit with a series of equivolume binary mixtures selected from benzene, cyclohexane and methylcyclohexane. With air as carrier gas and operating the separating section at ambient temperatures, high separated product purities were obtained at throughputs of up to 30 $cm³$ $hr⁻¹$ of cyclohexanemethyleyclohexane. The chromatographic packing used was 29.6% by weight polyoxyethylene 400 diricinoleate coated onto 1680-841 um particles of C22 Sil-0-Cel Firebrick (Johns Manville), a diatomaceous earth. The separation factor at 20 $^{\circ}$ C for this system is 1.8. Evaluating column efficiency in terms of transfer units gave values for $H \cdot T \cdot U \cdot_{O \cdot G}$ of between 9 and 10 cm.

Schultz (147) investigated the separation of cis- and trans-butene-2 on a column 100 cm long and 1 om in diameter. At a feedrate of 78 $cm³ hr⁻¹$, consisting of 37.6% by volume trans and 62.4% cis, 32 cm above the feed point trans was 99.7% pure and 32 cm below cis was 99.4% pure. Purities in excess of 99.999% were claimed for the separation of 38.8 mole % dimethylbutane and 61.2 mole% cyclopentane at a feedrate of 21 g hr⁻¹ on a larger column (2.6 cm x 138 cm). The column was operated at the boiling point of the materials.

Tiley and co-workers (148, 149) and Scott (150) have also reported successful separations on moving-bed columns of small diameter. Larger

scale operating data have been reported by the Phillips Petroleum Company (151). The 15 om-diameter column, of length 2.54 m, was constructed with a separate stripping section. Carrier and stripping gas streams were independent. Regenerated packing was recycled to the head of the column by a gas lift. Using a packing of approximately 1.5 mm firebrick spheres coated with dioctyl phthalate, and hydrogen as carrier gas, 225 cm^3 min⁻¹ of a 30% cyclohexane/70% benzene mixture was successfully separated at an operating temperature of 85°C. No product purities were quoted.

A sidearm of 1.27 cm-diameter was introduced in the lengthened separation section between the feed inlet and Product 2 offtake ports by Barker and Lloyd (12). Selecting differing values for the relative gas and liquid phase flowrates in the main separating section and sidearm enabled the continuous separation of a three-component mixture to be attempted. For the equivolume mixture cyclohexane-benzenemethylcyclohexane, at a feedrate of 12.6 cm^3 hr⁻¹, 99.5% pure cyclohexane was obtained as Product 1, 99.5% benzene as Product 2 while the sidearm product was methyloyclohexane (maximun purity 78.6%) contaminated with benzene (13, 15).

While industrial-scale units have been constructed for both gas/solid chromatographic systems and ion-exchange, the truly continuous moving-bed system presents three problems associated with solids flow:

(i) Accurate control of the solids flow is difficult to achieve.

(ii) Comparatively low, uneven packed densities are obtained, with a consequent efficiency loss.
(iii) Attrition of the expensive friable packing occurs, requiring a regular sieving and replenishing operation to be undertaken. The return of the solids to the feed hopper by air-lift would aggravate this problem.

In addition, the gas velocity within the colum is limited to being less than the minimum fluidisation velocity. To overcome these problems, mechanical schemes based on rotation of a fixed bed within a moving circular column have been devised.

2.4.2.2 Moving-Column Systems

Three schemes have been proposed in which a closed circular column packed with coated support is rotated past fixed inlet and outlet ports, thus eliminating the disadvantages associated with solids flow. Within the main separating section, XYZ, the direction of carrier gas flow is counter-current to the direction of the colum, and therefore solvent phase, rotation. (Fig 2.12)

The schemes differ in the flow direction in the stripping purging sections and the means of controlling the flow direction generally within the column. Pichler (6), Gulf Research and Development Corporation (152), Glasser (153) and Luft (154) all proposed that the relative port positions and carrier gas flowrates be selected such that correct directional flow was maintained by balancing pressure drops. Barker (17) removed the consequent restrictions on column usage and flowrates by placing a cam-operated gas lock valve between the carrier gas inlet port and the Product 1 offtake. Gas flow is unidirectional, hence the column length available for separation is limited only by the requirement for the short

Figure 2.12 Circular Columns for Counter-current Flow Processes

 $c)$ Barker and Universal Fisher Eng.Co.Ltd. (17)

stripping section and to provide a gas seal.

The unit constructed by Barker and Huntington $(14 - 16)$, Fig 2.13. consisted of eight square cross-section chambers, 3.8 om in diameter, linked through external valves to form a circle of 1.5 m diameter. Isolating one section by mechanically closing a consecutive pair of these valves provided an effective gas lock. Hach section contained a copper helix through which a heating (or cooling) fluid could be passed. As the column rotated, the fluid was directed to the current stripping section by a system of cam-operated valves.

To permit gas flow into and out of the column 180 gas passages were equally spaced over the chamber face, each passage being normally closed by a self-sealing valve. These valves were automatically opened when they passed under one of the fixed inlet and product offtake ports. Spring loaded plates pressing onto '0'-rings set in the toroid face prevented leakage to the atmosphere from the opened passages between port and colum. The feed mixture entered the colum in a vapour state. A "bleed' of carrier gas was introduced behind the feed port to 'scavenge! any condensed liquid. A chain drive mechanism could rotate the colum at between 1 and 10 revolutions per hour although, in practice, a rotational speed close to the lower end of the range was used.

A series of chemical systems were chosen to study the operating performance of the unit $(14, 15, 20)$. Air was used throughout as carrier gas. The packing, as for the moving-bed system of Barker and Lloyd, was 1160-850 pm particles of Sil-0-Cel C22 firebrick coated with 30% by weight of polyoxyethylene 400 diricinoleate. An equivolume mixture of the

Figure 2.13 Circuler, Moving-Column Chromatograph (17)

azeotrope cyclohexane-benzene was separated to high purity at throughputs up to 90 cm^3 hr⁻¹. A similar maximum throughput for pure products was obtained for the close boiling system dimethoxymethane/dichloromethane (separation factor = 2.8 at 20°). For the removal of five impurities from a 97% pure cyclopentane fraction the feedrate was increased to 410 cm³ hr. With a separating section of 2.72 m length, operating at ambient temperature more than 80% of the cyclopentane was recovered as 'pure' Product 2. The separation factor for this system is 1.52 at 20[°]C.

Colum efficiency was expressed in terms of both H.T.U. and, following modification of an expression given by Tiley and co-workers (148) , H.E.T.P, The latter term was not equivalent to that generally associated with chromatography. It more closely resembled the meaning of plate height as used in chemical engineering. For the benzene/ cyclohexane system, calculated H.T.U.'s were as low as 2.2 om (based on benzene above the feed zone) while H.E.T.P.'s ranged from 5 to 6.25 om.

To increase the separating length of the 1.5 m diameter unit as designed would require the construction of an even larger, cumbersome unit. Barker, in collaboration with the Universal Fisher Group Ltd., Crawley (17), overcame this problem by forming the column from a cylindrical nest of 44, 2.5 cm-diameter by 22.8 cm long tubes linked alternately at top and bottom to give a closed loop (Fig 2.14). Stainless steel was the material of construction.

The tubes were held between two rings. Poppet-valves controlled transfer of gas between tubes in the bottom ring. As the colum was rotated, at speeds between 0.2 and 2 rph, a fixed cam depressed at least

two of these valves to provide the required gas lock and hence maintain unidirectional flow.

Two sets of evenly spaced holes were drilled in the upper face of the top ring. One set provided access to the packed columns for vaporized feed the other serving for excess carrier gas inlet and Products 1 and 2 outlet. Poppet valves were again used to normally close these access points. As the column rotated under the four, fixed position ports,carefully positioned cams depressed the respective valve stems to permit flow to and from the tube bundle. Spring-loaded 'Graphlon' seals, held against the polished top ring face were used to prevent leakage from the ports when the valves were opened.

The entire unit was housed in a thermostatically controlled oven capable of operating up to 200°C,

Published experimental performance data demonstrate the improved separation power of this unit relative to the 1.5 m circular chromatograph (18 - 21). With the analytical chromatograph used, no detectable impurity was observed when refining a 97% pure fraction of cyclopentane at a throughput of 154.4 cm^3 hr^{-1} . The cyclopentane was almost completely recovered as pure Product 2. While throughput has been reduced by a factor of 3, in proportion to the reduction in crosssectional area, the increased length of the separation section, 4.3 m relative to 2.75 m, enabled a considerable improvement in the purity and yield of the desired product to be achieved.

Selecting a further example from the range of systems studied, Barker and Al-Madfai recovered 91.3% of 99.5% pure a-pinene from crude

turpentine being fed to the unit at a rate of $66.5 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ hr}^{-1}$. The packing was 500-355 ym particles of 'Celite' coated with 20% by weight polypropylene sebacate. The oven temperature was 113° C.

For a proportional scale-up, the quoted throughput is 20% greater. and the recovery and purity superior, to that found by Ryan et al (91) for a 10 cm-diameter column operating with repeated batch injections. As the column length, 2.74 m, and the operating temperature, 152° C. used by Ryan differ, the comparison is inconclusive.

Three mechanical factors restrict the direct scale-up of the compact circular chromatographic units

(4) Operating experience has shown the cam-operated 'poppet! valves, as designed, to be unreliable under the rigorous conditions of stress, temperature and corrosive chemicals. Two simplified versions of the unit have been constructed in which these valves have been replaced by a machined 'Graphlon' dise (155, 156) or annulus (157) held, under compression, against a metal face of the same geometry. Alignment of slots in the two plates as the tube bundle rotates, provide the inlet and outlet ports. Both units have been applied to preparative-scale liquid/solid chromatographic separations.

(ii) Successful operation of the moving-colum system is heavily dependent on a reliable face-seal between the top ring and the fixed ports. Wilkinson (158) states that the two surfaces should be flat to within 0.1 μ m for such a seal to be fully successful. The high precision engineering problems introduced by increasing the dimensions of such a seal makes this approach impractical.

(iii) Rotating a bundle of large diameter tubes would also present mechanical difficulties which were costly to overcome.

For advancement, a new mechanical approach which did not employ column rotation was required. The design and study of such a scheme forms the basis of the present work, part of which has been previously reported (159, 160).

CHAPTER 3

The Design and Construction of a New Sequential Chromatographic Separator

The experience gained from the moving-bed/fixed port circular chromatographic machines of Barker and co-workers led to the following two conclusions:

(i) In moving to large colum diameters it was evident that physical movement of the colum should be avoided.

(ii) A separate colum section would be advantageous for the purging of the more strongly sorbed component(s), the purge fluid being independent of the carrier stream. Two main advantages result. The purging gas rate can be increased to such a level as to ensure the complete removal of product from the isolated section without increasing pressure in the separating section. Also, the carrier gas entering the main separating section is not contaminated with Product 2.

In designing a new unit three general factors had to be considered; reliability, flexibility and cost. As a continuously operating unit, the need for reliability is self-evident. Flexibility arises out of the future desire to be able to apply the design principle at all colum diameters for all forms of chromatography. In addition, the facility to operate as a batch system was required for comparative purposes within the projected experimental program. Finally, for this research work, a capital budget of £1,000 was available for the construction of the new unit. The design, therefore, represents a compromise with respect to size and materials of construction.

3-1 Principle of Operation

Fig 3.la schematically shows the distribution of two components within the system soon after 'start-up'. Carrier fluid enters the colum at port C and flows through the solute coated packing. The least strongly sorbed component (component i) is preferentially moved towards the Product 1 offtake port, Cp. A section of the closed loop column is isolated by locks Tx and Txx, an independent fluid stream entering at port P and exiting from Pp.

In Fig 3.1b all the port functions have been advanced around the fixed column,co-current to the direction of mobile phase flow. The rate of port advancement is less than the velocity of the less strongly sorbed component through the packing but greater than that of the more strongly sorbed component (component ii). Consequently component ii is being "held' preferentially on the solvent phase while component i is issuing from Cp as 'pure' Product 1.

Fig 3.lc represents the fully established operating condition of the system. The isolated section, now containing component ii, is being purged to give Product 2 and regenerate the packing ready to receive the advancing component i, at present issuing from Cp. It can be seen that the counter-current movement of solute laden carrier and solvent phase has been simlated by the movement of the ports, co-current to the direction of the carrier phase, past a fixed column.

A gas/liquid chromatographic separator based on the above principle was constructed at the 7.6 om (3 inch) column diameter level. British and American Patent applications have been registered describing this equipment (161).

3.2 The Central Unit

3.2.1 Overall Description

From Fig 3.1 it can be seen that seven moving functions were required; feed inlet, carrier gas inlet and outlet, purge gas inlet and outlet and two gas locks. The unit was therefore designed in discrete sections, the column forming each section being provided with the necessary functions by solenoid operated valves.

Twelve packed columns were linked alternatively at top and bottom to form a closed symmetrical ring. Fig 3.2 shows three consecutive colums in diagramatic form. On each transfer line between the columns was situated a normally open solenoid valve (T). Energising a consecutive pair of these solenoids effectively isolates an individual colum. The gas inlet and outlet ports, situated on the end cones of each column, were provided by four, normally closed, solenoid valves (C, Cp, P, Pp). A similar valve provided the inlet port for liquid feed (F).

The twelve ports of each type were connected to an independent, centrally situated, distributor system. Lines from the gas distributors then passed to the relevant control and measuring devices while the feed distributor was connected to a positive displacement pump.

The inlet and outlet solenoid valves (gas plus liquid feed) were electrically comected, in the required combinations of five, to twelve terminals. An additional rail of twelve terminals was provided for the transfer valves. The two terminal rails were interconnected, through a relay bank, such that when one terminal on the inlet/ outlet valve rail was energised then two terminals on the transfer valve rail were also

energised. Each of these terminal combinations were energised in turn, for a selectable time interval, by an automatic electronic timing device.

Assigning the numbers 1 to 12 to the individual columns; at a particular point in the cycle bed 2 would be isolated by energising the solenoid valves T_1 and T_2 . The purge gas inlet, P_2 , and outlet Pp_2 solenoids on bed 2 would be energised to open, effecting purging of the more strongly sorbed component. The carrier gas inlet solenoid on bed 3, $C_{\frac{7}{2}}$, would also be energised to open, carrier gas passing through eleven packed columns to exit from bed 1, as Product 1, where the carrier gas outlet solenoid, C_{P_1} , is energised. Feed would be pumped into an appropriate bed lying between 3 and 1, say 8, through the energised centrally positioned valve, F_{α} .

On sequencing, column 3 would be isolated by energising solenoids T_2 , T_3 . Purge gas now enters column 3, at P_3 , to purge Product 2, issuing from $P_{\mathcal{B}_{\mathcal{B}}}$. Carrier enters column 4 at C_4 and flows round the unit to exit from the regenerated bed 2 through Cp_{2} . Feed would be entering bed 9 , through F_Q . 12 sequences complete the cycle which then resumes.

Details of the design and construction follows.

3.2.2 Detailed Design and Construction

5.2.2.1 The Colums

The individual column dimensions were selected as a balance of two factors, cost versus continuity. The 'ideal' system is truly continuous in operation, with the port functions being gradually rotated past the fixed column, giving a steady product concentration level. It was, therefore, desirable to limit the discrete nature of operation of the

sequential process. However, each packed column introduced into the system required a further six solenoids plus their respective pipe networks. In addition the format of the equipment demanded an even number of columns.

Within the given budget for the research, twelve copper colums of 7.6 cm-diameter were selected, representing a 9 : 1 scale-up factor over the unit constructed by Universal Fisher (17 - 20). In keeping with that unit a length/diameter ratio of 8 : 1 was chosen giving a packed length of 61 cm (24 in).

Plate 3.1 shows the assembled unit while Fig 3.3ais a detailed drawing of an individual colum.

The end flanges of 1.3 cm $(1/2$ in) mild steel were silver soldered to the outer wall of the copper tube. The outside diameter of the flanges was 12.7 cm (5 in) with 4, 9.6 mm $(3/8 \text{ in})$, bolt holes evenly spaced on a pitch circle diameter of 10.2 cm (4 in). This did not comply with B.S. 10, which specified a flange diameter of 18.4 cm (7.1/4 in) with 4, 1.6 cm $(5/8$ in) bolts as a p.c.d of 14.6 cm $(5.3/4$ in). However, as it was desired to keep the transfer lines to a minimum, smaller flange dimensions were selected.

The packing was retained in the column by a copper gauze, of nominal aperture size 150 μ m (100 B.S.mesh), silver soldered onto an annular brass ring of 8.9 om (3.5 in) inside diameter. The seals between the tube and flange, the gauze retaining ring and the end cone flange were provided by 2.4 mm (3/32 in) thick gaskets of 'Klingerit', an asbestos/ rubber composite supplied by Richard Klinger Ltd., Warley, Worcs.

PLATE 3.1 The Columns - Side View

PLATE 3.1

Figure 3.3 Design of an Individual Column

a) Overall Construction

i) dimensions given are in centimetres Notes scale is $^{1}/5$ th full size $\pm\pm$)

Note: Scale is ²/5th full size

It was found necessary to coat the gaskets with a sealing compound. 'Stag' (I.C.I. Ltd.).

The mild steel flanged copper end cones are shown in detail in Fig 3.3b. The truncated cones were formed from 1.6 mm copper sheet, the angle being approximately 60° and height 5.1 cm (2 in) . A "5/8 in" B.S.P. brass parallel female stud coupling (all couplings were supplied by Simplifix, Wednesfield, Staffs.) was silver soldered into the apex of the truncated cone to receive the 1.6 cm o.d. copper transfer line from the isolating solenoid. The tube diameter for the lines is consistent with the inlet port diameter of the selected solenoids.

The gas inlet/outlet lines entering the cones were 9.5 mm o.d. copper tube, two being present in each cone. The length of these lines was kept to a minimum as their volume represents 'dead' space between the colums and the solenoid valves. Allowing the lines to extend 2.5 om beyond the flange wassufficient to permit connection to the parallel male stud coupling from the normally closed solenoid valves. The ends of the inlet and outlet gas lines within the cone were turned in the direction of gas flow through the unit.

At construction the cones and transfer lines were packed with glass wool. This was removed during testing as strands were being carried in the gas stream, onto the seating of the valves, resulting in unacceptable leakage.

The feed inlet was centrally positioned in each column. '1/8 in B.S.P.', brass stud coupling was soldered into the tube wall, allowing the feed solenoid to be set as close as possible to the column.

Inside the column the feed line was split into four by a cross fitting (see Fig 3.4). A 1.6 mm o.d. tube, packed with glass wool, emanated from each arm of the cross and was turned in the direction of gas flow. Such an arrangement gave four feed exit points within the packed bed evenly spaced on a circular pitch with a diameter of approximately 4 cm. The intention was to assist even cross-sectional solute loading of the solvent phase while limiting the distributor volume. A large volume of liquid feed in the distributor after the feed solenoid was closed would slowly vapourise, possibly resulting in contamination of resolved products at a later stage in the cycle.

A sample point was set midway between the feed point and the end cones on each column. In addition, on four of the columns, regularly spaced around the unit, two rows of six sample points were set at right angles to each other between the feed point and the upstream end cone. Each column sampling point consisted of a '1/8 in' B.S.P. stud coupling soldered into the column wall and cut flush to the inside of the column. A silicone rubber septum (Perkin Elmer Ltd., Beaconsfield, Bucks.) set into the nut head provided a seal while permitting gas sampling by a syringe. A sampling tube, similarly fitted with a septum, was let into each end cone.

The twelve columns were connected, as shown in Fig 3.2 and Plate 3.1, to form a compact closed circle suspended in a frame. The distance between column centres was 21.6 cm, giving a diameter for the central unit of 90 cm. The column spacing was dictated by the space requirement of the transfer solenoids and associated lines, as well as the central

Figure 3.4 Internal Feed Distributor

distribution pipe network for the inlet/outlet fluid lines. The orientation of the tubes and end cones was such that all inlet/ outlet fluid access points faced to the centre of the circle,while all sample points faced outwards for access. The support frame, of 4 om 'Handy Angle', had dimensions of 96.5 cm long by 96.5 cm wide by 58.5 cm high.

3.2.2.2 The Solenoid Valves

Careful selection of the valves was necessary as they must remain fully closed when possibly operating against a substantial 'back pressure'. This consideration results from the independence of the pressure in the isolated and main separating sections. The valves chosen, all of brass bodies with 'Viton' seats, were purchased from Burkert Contromatic Ltd. (Bowbridge, Stroud). They fall into two categories:

(i) The gas inlet and outlet ports (C, Cp, P, Pp) were provided by 6 mm orifice, '3/8 in B.S.P.' port, normally closed, direct acting solenoid valves. A similar valve but of 3 mm orifice, '1/8 in B.S.P.' port was used as the inlet port for the liquid feed (F) . Both valves, on testing, withstood a differential back pressure in excess of 150 kV m^{-2} without the plunger being lifted against the spring to cause leaking. A value of 150 kN m^{-2} was considered to give adequate flexibility in the flow and pressure settings.

(ii) 13 mm orifice, '5/8 in B.S.P.' port, normally open, servoacting solenoids were used for the transfer solenoids (T). To meet the selection criteria it was found necessary to modify these valves. An external high pressure air line, linked around the twelve solenoids, was used to seat the diaphragm in the energised state. (Fig 3.5).

Figure 3.5 Modification to 'Transfer' Solenoid Valves

Note: Valve cross-section shown in energised state

All solenoid coils were fully encapsulated and fitted with a 'Burkert' cable plug. The connecting 5 A, 240 V cables from the solenoids to the automatic timed sequencing unit were harnessed together, according to valve function, to run tidily around the periphery of the unit. While the transfer solenoids were directly connected to the transfer valve terminal rail, in which two successive socket points are energised, the wiring for the inlet/ outlet gas solenoid valves and for the feed solenoids was taken to two sets of connecting blocks. The neutral and earth lines within the two respective sets of connecting blocks were strapped together allowing a single line for each to be used to make the final connection to the 'timer'. Twelve live lines, each line combining four valves (C, C_p, P, P_p) , were then connected to the single energised socket terminal rail. For flexibility, jack plugs were attached to the twelve live feed valve lines. These could then be plugged into the single energised socket rail, offsetting the feed location with respect to the isolated column as required.

A detailed description of the terminal, and hence solenoid, energisation pattern is given in Section 3.3.1.

3.2.2.3 The Central Distribution Network

A pipe network was constructed to separately distribute the five input/output fluid streams to each column. The five streams are; carrier gas inlet, carrier gas outlet (Product 1), purge gas inlet, purge gas outlet (Product 2) and the liquid feed. The nature of the separation unit, giving consideration to such factors as pressure drop in the gas lines, demands symmetry. Consequently nine distribution centres were required. The feed port is located at the mid-height of the colum.

Therefore the liquid feed could be distributed by one distribution centre with twelve 'arms'. However, the position of the four inlet/outlet gas ports successively alternated from, say, the base of one column to the top of the next (Fig 3.2). Hence, two distributors having six arms were required for each gas port type.

The design of the distributors, constructed in brass and copper, took three forms $(Fig 3.6)$:

(i) The liquid feed distributor (Fig 3.6a and Plate 3.2) was essentially a closed cylinder of diameter 10.2 om (4 in) and wall height 3.8 cm $(1.1/2$ in) with a shallow coned base. Twelve ' $3/16$ in B.S.P.' parallel male stud brass couplings were silver soldered into the circumference of the copper cylinder at an even spacing. A spring loaded 15/16 in B.S.P.' brass tap, of a simple cock type (Simplifix, Wednesfield, Staffs.) was similarly soldered into the centre of the brass base and top plates. The lower tap enabled isolation of the distributor from the feed pump and control of drainage of the feed pipe network at the end of a run. The purpose of the top plate tap was to permit displacement of air from the distributor during start-up (see Section 8.1). This tap was subsequently replaced by a nut and septum because of leakage.

(ii) The four gas outlet distributors had the same dimensions as the feed distributor. The six evenly spaced 'arms' were formed by 13/8 in B.S.P.' parallel male stud couplings. The same sized coupling was soldered into the top plate to accept the inlet gas line. In case of condensation of any of the products in the lines a gas tap was set in the base plate cone. For the chemical system chosen for study in this work this was superfluous but may prove valuable in the future.

(iii) The four gas inlet distributors (Fig 3.6c) are as described in (ii) but with a flat base plate. The provision of a drainage tap is obviously unnecessary.

The nine distributors were set vertically on the axis of the cylinder formed by the twelve columns $(Fig 3.7)$. Their order was set by two factors; the need for symmetry and the prospect of studying in the future a chemical system which may condense in the product lines. Hence, the lines from the product ports must have a generally downward run. As the purged product is normally the least volatile this was placed in the lowest position of the two sets of four gas distributors. The pairs of like function distributors were linked by 9.6 mm 0.4. copper tubing to the line running to the relevant central device by an equal 'tee' coupling. The spacing between distributors, although kept to a minimum, was set by the sharpness of angle through which the linking pipe could be turned.

The tubing connecting the feed solenoids to the feed distributor was of white 4.8 mm o.d. nylon. This material was chosen for its transparency. A small steel ball-bearing held in the line between two wire stops could be observed as a check on the correct functioning of the feed solenoid valves during operation of the mit. A 'tee' fitting was also placed in the line immediately preceding the valve to enable all air to be displaced from the feed lines before start-up. The vertical stem of the 'tee' was initially capped with a gas tap but 'this was also subsequently replaced by a nut and septum to eliminate slight leakage.

The tubing pattern for the 9.6 mm copper gas lines from the solenoid valves to the distributors was largely dictated by the width of the valves. Symmetry was of course maintained (Fig 3.8 and Plate 3.3).

Figure 3.6 Central Distributors

Note: Scale is ²/5th full size

Figure 3.7 Vertical Order of Central Distributors

a) Carrier Gas Inlet (C)

b) Purge Gas Inlet (P)

c) Carrier Gas Outlet (Cp)

d) Purge Gas outlet (Pp)

Feed (F) $e)$

PLATE 3.2 Central Distributor

 $\overline{\mathbf{F}}$ Solute feed

Nylon tube (3/16" 0.4.) $\mathbb N$

Purge product (Product 2) $\mathbb{P}_{\mathbf{p}}$

PLATE 3.2

PLATE 3.3 The Columns - Plan View

PLATE 3.3

3.3 Control, Measuring and Peripheral Functions

3.3.1 The Automatic Timed Sequencing Unit

The unit used for the switching of the solenoid valves in the required pattern was designed and constructed by the departmental electronics technician, M.F. Lea. Fig 3.9a schematically shows the operating principle while Figs 3.9 (b - d) give the circuit diagrams.

Considering Fig 3.9c, 12 V dc. from a stabilised power supply (detailed in Fig 3.9b) charged three parallel 100 μ F capacitors at a rate determined by the settings of variable resistances Rl and R2. R2 was pre-set while R1 could be adjusted by a calibrated dial on the front panel. When the capacitor charge was at a sufficient value, the unijunction, U , was triggered, allowing current to flow through the relay, RL1. Switching from A to B energised the solenoid, 5, of the uniselector, which then stepped through one of the twenty-five sets of four contacts. At the same time, the now short-circuited clock, reset.

The switching of the uniselector continued for twenty-four time periods, giving two complete sequencing cycles for the separation unit. At the final, twenty-fifth contact, it'homed' to contact 1 and restarted. 4s the switching action of the miselector was electro-mechanical, a spark-quenching circuit, Q, was included. The scaling of the clockcircuit gave a time period of $1 - 10$ minutes, a calibration curve against Rl dial setting is given in Appendix 1. A switch, 0, permitted the circuit to be 'frozen' while a contact button, K, when pressed, caused the uniselector to switch rapidly.

Fig 3.9d shows the wiring pattern from the uniselector contacts to two independent banks of twelve relays, RLX and RLXX respectively. The

3.9a Overall Scheme of Operation

3.9b Regulated Power Supply

Circuit Diagrams for the Automatically Figure 3.9 Timed Switching Unit

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 \bullet

Solenoid Valve Connection Pattern to the Terminals of the Automatically Timed Sequencing Unit $$

Solute feed shown entering centre of main separating section. Note

relays separately switched 240 V A.C. supply across two rails of terminals, V_{X} and W_{XY} at the rear of the unit. It can be seen that, at any time, only one terminal connection in the rail V_y was 'live' while there were two consecutive 'live' terminals in the rail W_{yy} . Thus in operation, the unit energised terminals $W_{1,2}$, W_1 and V_1 together and then, after a selected time interval, de-energised terminals $W_{1,2}$ and V_1 and energised terminals W_2 and V_2 so that terminals W_1 , W_2 and V_2 were energised. After a further time interval terminals W_1 and V_2 are de-energised and terminals W_5 , V_5 energised, and so on until the cycle is completed. Repetition of the cycle continues automatically.

Two indicator panels of neon lights fed by signals from the relay distribution tray provided an instantaneous indication of the terminals energised.

The connection pattern of the various sets of solenoid valves to the terminals is tabulated in Fig 3.10. The feed point is set at the middle of the separating section. Numbering of the columns was related to the panel of neon lights such that the isolated column corresponded to the terminal number in the single energised terminal rail, V.

3.3.2 Inlet and Outlet Gas Control and Purification

The overall flow diagram of the system is given in Fig 3.11. Plate 3.4 shows the front control panel.

As no carrier gas recycle system was incorporated, economics dictated the use of the University mains air supply. Opening of the 2.5 cm butterfly type isolating valve permitted air of approximate pressure 650 kN m^{-2} to pass through a'l.1/2 in B.S.P.T.' port industrial 5 pm filter (Norgren, West Bromwich) to a cylindrical surge tank of

NEA

F

5H

Legend:

- R = Rotameter, P = Pressure Gauge, D = Silica Gel Driers,
FR = Pressure Regulator, FR = Flow Regulator, FRV = Pressure Relief Valve
SV = Solenoid Operated Valve, F = Filter, K = Katharometer,
	-
- S = Sample Stream, R = Reference Stream.

PLATE 3.4 The Control Panel

Solute feedrate measuring burette

 $\,$ B

 $\, {\bf p}$

 $\mathbf S$

 $\boldsymbol{\mathrm{V}}$ Vent to extractor fan

capacity 0.126 m^3 volume. The tank could be emptied through a gas tap fitted near the base. A flexible, reinforced P.V.C., 6.3 mm bore tube was used to connect the tank to the subsequent filtering and pressure regulation stage. This consisted of a Norgren ,'3/8 in B.S.P.T.' port, 'Ultraire' filter connected to a coarse pressure regulator. The pressure was regulated to approximately 500 kN m^{-2} , being monitored further upstream.

The final drying stage consisted of two beds of silica gel (D) , individually selectable by two brass 3-way cock valves positioned in line as shown in Fig 3.12. The dimensions of the flanged colums proved adequate to each give at least six hours drying operation without regeneration. For a longer run, replacement of the spent silica in the 'off line' colum was possible without interruption of air flow.

Before splitting the inlet air line into the carrier and purge streams, the flowrate was monitored by a 24 A Rotameter (Rotameter Manufacturing Co. Ltd., Croydon, Surrey.). This rotameter, plus the associated 100-520 kN m^{-2} (0-60 psig) pressure gauge proved valuable for pressure testing the mit for leakages (see Section 8.1).

Two identical '1/4 in B.S.P.T.' port, diaphragm type, fail safe precision regulators (Norgren) were used to accurately maintain the measured inlet pressure of the gas streams before they entered the distribution network. The spring range of the regulators was 100-520 kN m^{-2} (1-60 psig), matching the range of the pressure gauges. On exit from the sequential unit the flowrate of each stream was held constant by a Brook's $/3/8$ in B.S.P' port, brass body, diaphragm type flow regulator (Brooks Instruments Ltd., Stockport, Cheshire), the flowrate

Figure 3.12 Silica Gel Air Driers

3-way '1"' Cock Valve

Note: Scale is ²/5th full size

being registered on an 18 K and 14 K Rotameter for the purge and carrier gas streams respectively. Control therefore gave a set inlet pressure and set outlet flowrate, any column to column variation being registered by the outlet 100-310 kN m^{-2} (0-30 psig) pressure gauges. The control proved adequate for rapid dampening of the surge resultant from sequencing.

It was not possible to construct a refrigerated product recovery system within the capital budget for this research project. The standard nut and septum sampling point was therefore placed in the outlet lines, upstream of the flow regulators, to permit chromatographic analysis of these streams.

The rotameters and pressure gauges were calibrated, the former against a standard gas meter, the latter against a dead weight pressure tester. The calibration curves are given in Appendix 1.

323-3 Solute Mixture Feed

Ideally the feed should enter the columns in the vapour phase. However, problems of possible condensation in the feed distribution network led to acceptance of a liquid feed.

The feed pump selected was of the reciprocating, positive displacement type (F.A. Hughes Ltd., Epsom, Surrey). . A micrometer adjustment permitted variation of the stroke length of the P.T.F.E. plunger, and hence throughput. A calibration curve is given in Appendix 1.

Experience showed that the pump tended to 'stick' after start-up if the plunger was not lubricated. A mannitol-based grease successfully overcame this problem. The non-return valves in the pump head consisted of two seated stainless steel ball-bearings. A simple filter consisting of a 15 cm long copper tube packed with glass wool wag, therefore, placed between the feed reservoir and the pump head to remove any particulate solid.

The main feed reservoir was a 10 dm³ glass aspirator fitted with an outlet cock-tap. The line from aspirator ran to a three-way glass tap. A 100 cm³ burette was connected to the adjacent tap inlet arm, permitting the feedrate to be checked during an experimental run. The tap outlet was connected to the pump, through the simple filter. Placing the reservoir above the pump provided a positive head on the suction side. A connection from the pump outlet to the tap on the base of the feed distributor completed the liquid feed system. The volume of the feed distributor helped to dampen the reciprocating action of the pump.

3.3.4 Monitoring of the Solute Level in the Product Streams

A continuous visual display of the total solute level in the exiting gas streams was incorporated so that the progress of an experimental run could be followed. Two katharometers in conjunction with a dual channel 'Servoscribe' potentiometric recorder (Smiths Industries, Wembley Pk, Middlesex) were used.

The reference side of the respective katharometer blocks were fed by a flow regulated bleed stream from the dried and filtered inlet air lines (Fig 3.11 - flow regulators purchased from Platon Control Ltd.,). As the product streams were already flow regulated, the two reference bleed streams required only throttling by a fine needle valve or capillary tubing.

For the carrier product stream (Product 1) a katharometer block an

power supply purchased as part of a standard Pye 104 analytical chromatograph was used. The two katharnmeter filaments were of tungsten. Consequently the 'bridge' current was always kept at its lowest value of 80 m A to limit oxidation of the filaments in the presence 6f air. The recommended gas throughput of 0.83 cm³ s⁻¹ was also used throughout the experimental work (162).

Gow-Mac (Shannon Airport Ltd.,) supplied the katharometer used to monitor the Product 2 stream. This had four, gold sheathed, tungsten filements for improved oxidation resistance. The associated Wheatstone bridge circuitry was constructed in the department by Mr. Lea (Fig 3.13) from a diagram given by Gow-Mac (163). Setting the bridge at 24 V and 100 m A was found to give adequate sensitivity. A comparatively large throughput of approximately 12.5 cm^3 s⁻¹ was recommended.

The ketharometer traces give no indication of the composition of the exit streams. The individual components must first be resolved on an analytical chromatographic column, Thus, for quantitative analysis of the product streams and for determination of the concentration profile in the operating unit, a Perkin Elmer Fll gas chromatograph in conjunction with a Kent Chromelog 1 integrator was used.

Two additional control features were added to the basic chromatograph. An accurate pressure regulator of range $140-280$ kN m^{-2} was installed on the hydrogen line between the coarse cylinder head regulator and the flame ionisation detector (Elliot Process Instru. Ltd., Birmingham). In the nitrogen line a fine needle flow regulator and rotameter were installed (Brooks Instru. Ltd., Stockport). Accurate

Power Supply and Bridge Circuit Control for Katharometer Figure 3.13

control of the oxygen supply is not necessary. Hence the cylinder head regulator was adequate.

Iron/ constantan thermocouples were positioned in the injection heating block and oven of the chromatograph. A standard circuit incorporating an ice/water reference junction enabled these two temperatures to be accurately recorded.

3.3.5 Safety

The quantity of chemical handled, the pressure of operation and the extensive electrical wiring led to the following safety precautions.

A pressure relief valve was present in the mains air surge tank. This was set to lift at approximately 700 kN m^{-2} , some 100 kN m^{-2} below the stated safe working pressure for the vessel. In addition, a gas tap at the base of the tank provided means of quick pressure relief. The thickness of all metal tube and plate wall under pressure was greatly in excess of that required by British Standards 1500 and 2871.

A solenoid valve, of the type used for the inlet/outlet gas ports, was placed in line after the surge tank. During a run this was permanently energised, de-energisation providing instant isolation of the rig from the mains air.

The inlet air rotameter, operating under a gas pressure of the order of 500 kN m^{-3} , was enclosed in a 1.2 cm thick perspex box. The solute rich product lines were combined after the rotameters and led to a large extractor fan near the roof of the laboratory. The feed reservoir was sealed from the laboratory atmosphere by a rubber bung. A tube passing through this bung was connected into the line running to the extractor fan.

A removeable perspex cover was made for the terminals and connecting blocks at the rear of the timer unit.

Finally all mains operated devices, the solenoid valve in the mains air line, the feed pump, the timer unit and the katharometers, were fed power through a direct, on line, A.C. contacter-starter (M.E.M. Auto Memota, Birmingham). The switch, with separate step and start push buttons, was fused and incorporated a relay system to prevent restart when power was restored after failure. Thus triggering or pressing the stop button froze the system until the switch was manually reset. All electrical devices were earthed.

Safety considerations also played a substantial part in the selection of chemicals for processing by the sequential separation unit. CHAPTER 4

Selection of a Chemical System for Study

The chemical systems available for study on the constructed sequential chromatographic separation unit were limited by three factors; the use of air as carrier gas, the lack of heating facilities and the materials of construction. These restrictions led to members of the halocarbon group of chemicals which generally satisfy the criteria of high volatility and non-inflammability.

Such members of the group as $1.1.1.$ - trichloro-ethane, $1,1,2$ - trichloro - $1,2,2$, - trifluoro-ethane and dichloromethane satisfied further selection restrictions. All three are liquid at ambient conditions, have a comparatively low toxicity and are available in bulk in reasonable purity from I.C.I. Ltd. 1.1.1. trichloro-ethane is sold under the trade name of 'Genklene' P while that for 1,1,2 - trichloro - 1,2,2 - trifluoro-ethane is 'Arklone' P. The 'P' in the respective names denotes that no stabilisers have been added, their general use being industrial and domestic cleaning.

Private communications with I.C.I. Ltd., gave details of the maximum levels of the impurities in the 'as sold' products. For all three chemicals the total impurity concentration did not exceed 1%, an acceptable figure for a chemical produced in bulk. Relevant physical properties are given in Table 4.1.

The selection of a solvent phase was made from consideration of the partition coefficients chromatographically determined on four recommended phases (167). Experimental procedure is given in Section 6.2 while the results are tabulated in Table.4.2. The method of calculation of partition coefficients is also given in Section 6.2.

References:

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166 $\widehat{\mathbb{G}\times\mathbb{G}}$

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Table 4.2 Comparison of Four Solvent Phases for the Separation of the Proposed Halocarbons

a) Column Details

 $b)$ Chromatographic Measurements

Legend: Solutes

 $\begin{array}{lll} \hline \texttt{CH}_4 & - \texttt{Method} \\ \texttt{D.C.M.} & - \texttt{Dichloromethane} \\ \texttt{A.P} & - \texttt{'Arklone'} & \texttt{P} \\ \texttt{G.P} & - \texttt{'Genklene'} & \texttt{P} \end{array}$

Solvents

Silicone fluid DC 200/50 (Dow Corning Ltd) was chosen for three reasons?

(4) Together with silicone fluid DC 200/5 it gave comparatively low values for the respective partition coefficents. Hence, the analysis time at given analytical chromatographic settings will be less, and the general range of gas flowrates required will be lower, when operating the sequential unit at a given sequencing rate (see Section 6.1).

(ii) It provides two synthetic binary mixtures for study, the pair 'Arklone' P/'Genklene' P being comparatively easy to separate (Separation Factor = 2.88 $(0, 25^{\circ}\text{C})$ while dichloromethane/'Arklone' P is difficult (Separation Factor = 1.16 \circ 25°C). Comparing the two silicone fluids, DC 200/5 appeared to give a greater 'stickiness' of the coated support at a high solvent phase loading as witnessed by the high pressure drop across the packed analytical column.

(iii) It is inexpensive and readily available in bulk.

The present studies were restricted to an artificial equivolume mixture of 'Arklone' P and' Genklene!P which was considered to be an adequate system for the initial investigation of the operating characteristics of a novel unit.

90% of all chromatographic supports are prepared from filter aids mined from deposits of marine diatomites by the Johns-Manville Corporation (89). Table 4.3 compares the properties of the four commonest supports used, trade names Chromosorb P, W, Gand A. The desirable properties for large-scale applications are a high packed density and solvent capacity (giving a high level of solvent in the packed column) , a large surface area, mechanical strength and low surface adsorptivity. Chromosorb A, specially developed for preparative work, exhibits all of these properties. However, Chromosorb P is by far the cheapest support available and therefore finds general favour.

Basic chromatographic theory suggests that as the particle size is decreased, colum efficiency in terms of N.T.P. will increase. This efficiency increase is gained at the expense of a greatly increased flow resistance. For preparative-scale work the several researchers who have studied the effect of both mesh size and mesh range $(41, 47, 54, 105)$ have generally concluded that the actual particle size is of little importance to column efficiency when large samples are used. However, a narrow particle size range is desired to limit the effect of size segregation on the uniformity of the solute bands.

As a compromise between cost and efficiency $500 - 355$ μ m (30 - 44 B.S. 410 mesh) Chromosorb P was selected. The supplier was Jones Chromatography and Co., Monmouthshire.

Table 4.5 Chromosorb Support Properties (89).

CHAPTER₅

Comparison of Individual Packed Column Chacteristics

5.1 The 'Packing'

4 hand sieve analysis was performed on the Chromosorb P as delivered in accordance with the procedure laid down in British Standard 410. From Table 5.1 it can be seen that only half of the sample was in the specified size range of $500 - 355$ μ m. As a narrow particle size distribution was desired the entire purchased supply was machine sieved in 100 gm batches through 200 mm B.S. 410 metric sieves. The final analysis is also given in Table 5.1.

After sieving, the support was repeatedly washed in water to remove fine dust. This precaution was taken as the particles of dust may have been blown onto either the solenoid valve or flow regulator seatings with consequent malfunctioning of these devices. After washing, the support was spread on trays and thoroughly dried in a large oven.

As the solute feed to the sequential unit is continuous, it was decided to employ the highest solvent loading with which the support could be coated without losing its 'dry' handling properties. A high loading would also reduce the possibility of deleterious solute adsorption on the active sites of the support surface. The latter normally requires that 'acid washing' or'silanization' of the support be performed. Experimental tests revealed that a solvent loading of 25% of the total coated weight was close to the maximum permissable.

Approximately 200 gm of Chromosorb P were placed in the specially fluted 3 dm^3 flask of a rotary evaporator. The proportional weight (one-third) of silicone fluid DC 200/50, dissolved in dichloromethane, was then added. While the dichloromethane was slowly evaporated under vacuum and slight heating, the flask was rotated. The fluting of the flask

improved mixing and minimised'sticking'of the solid support to the wall of the flask, therefore assisting the attainment of an even coating of the silicone fluid. The coated packing was finally placed in a fume cupboard to allow the remainder of the dichloromethane to evaporate.

Following the conclusions of Hupe et al (45) from their studies of the solute front profiles occurring in a 10 cm-diameter column, the colum packing procedure was as follows.

Successive additions of weighed quantities of approximately 50 gm of the coated support were made. Between each addition, the column wall was vigorously beaten around the circumference while a heavy 30[°] metal cone. concave to the packing, was rested on the packing surface. The diameter of the 3.0 kg cone was 7.3 cm. Its purpose was to ensure a relatively higher packed density at the colum wall and hence assist the formation of an even cross-sectional flow profile.

On reaching the column mid-point, the feed cross-distributor was connected in position by a pair of tongs. Packing then continued until each column was apparently full, at which point the top retaining gauge and cone were bolted into position.

The entire unit was then subjected to both static and flowing air pressure for leak testing. In addition, trial separation runs were performed. Observation of column pressure drops and of the individual outlet concentration levels, as monitored by the purged product (Product 2) katharometer revealed the need to improve column equality.

Inspection of column packing levels showed that further settling had occurred. The columns were repacked, being repeatedly subjected to pressure until the level of packing remained constant. Finally the

total weight in each column was made nearly equivalent (Table 5.2). The average packed density (based on uncoated support) was 0.45×10^3 kg m⁻³ which is in excellent agreement with that reported in Table 4.2.

A comparison of the batch chromatographic efficiency (expressed as H.E.T.P.) of the individual columns was then performed before commencing the study of the unit operating in the separation mode.

Table 5.2 Weight of Coated Solid Support in each Column

Total weight of solvent phase (25% loading) Total volume of solvent phase (ρ_{τ}) Average volume of solvent phase per column 0.97 g cm^{-2}) 4.955 ke 5.09 dm^2 417 cm²

Note: 1) Colum numbers correspond to the position of the isolated bed on 'timer'.

2) Colums 1, 4, 7, 10 are those with additional sample points.

5.2 Theoretical Basis For Comparison

The conventional column performance term in chromatography, height equivalent to a theoretical plate, essentially relates the width of the eluted peak and column length. However, the size and shape of this peak is not solely determined by the chromatographic process occurring within the column. Several contributing extra-column factors can be pinpointed; the size and method of sample injection, the 'dead' volume of the column inlet and outlet lines and the response of the peak detection system.

The contribution made by these factors may be non-Gaussian in form. For example, a liquid sample injected directly into the inflowing carrier gas requires time to evaporate. Coupled with slow mixing and diffusion effects, the resultant injection profile will be exponential in shape. Unless such extra-column factors are minimised, calculating $H.E.T.P.$ by only considering the eluted peak, in addition to assuming that peak to be Gaussian (Equ.. 2.7 and 2.11), will introduce large errors.

Following the work of Reilley et al (168), Sternberg (169) employed Laplace Transforms to calculate the shape of the output peak for any shape of input function modified both by a Gaussian operator (the chromatographic colum) and additional spreading effects resulting from the colum fittings and detector. This work emphasised that the second moment, or variance, of the finally recorded non-Gaussian peak could be obtained by summing the individual variances of all the contributing factors. That is

$$
(\sigma_t)^2_{\text{r.o.}} = (\sigma_t)^2_{\text{injection}} + (\sigma_t)^2_{\text{column}} + (\sigma_t)^2_{\text{fittings}} + (\sigma_t)^2_{\text{fittings}}
$$
\n
$$
(\sigma_t)^2_{\text{detector}}
$$

where $(\sigma_t)^2$ equals the time-based second moment or variance.

Giddings (170) has shown that the additive property of this statistical quantity extends to non-ideal colums which in themselves can lead to skewed peaks. In such a case the overall column variance, $(\sigma_{\text{L}}^{\epsilon})$ or $\sigma_{\text{L}}^{\epsilon}$ would represent the summation of band broadening contributions from such factors as adsorption onto the surface of the solid support and 'dead' volume within the column as well as the mass transfer process.

Thus, for a practical large-scale chromatographic system, H.E.T.P. should be determined from an accurate knowledge of $(\sigma_t)^2$ column. Considering Equ. 5.1, this implies that both the injected and eluted profiles should be recorded 'on-column' by a common detection system. Subtraction of the time-based variances calculated from the respective profiles cancels the contribution from extra-colum factors. Also, subtraction of the respective peak retention times gives the retention time solely attributable to the column.

The value of H.E.T.P. is given by

5.5 Experimental Procedure

Fig 5.1 diagramatically represents the arrangement for the comparison experiments. Each column was isolated in turn and a constant inlet gas pressure of 231.5 M/m^{-2} applied. The pressure measuring device consisted of a syringe needle connected by a flexible nylon tube to a mercury manometer. Tapping for all accurate pressure readings was a simple matter of inserting the needle, through the septum cap, into the appropriate sample point. The outlet volumetric flowrate was set constant by the purge gas outlet flow regulator in conjunction with a gas meter. Any variation in colum flow resistance resulted in a variation in the outlet pressure, which was recorded. Whilst this did not ensure a constant gas velocity through the column it was a more realistic comparison in terms of subsequent sequential operation of the unit.

A 1.0 cm³ sample of 'Arklone' P was injected, upstream of the purge gas inlet distributor, directly into the gas stream flowing into the colum. The profile was monitored by the katharometer in conjunction with the pen recorder, a flow regulated sample stream being bled from the inlet cone sample point through a syringe needle. The reference arm of the block was fed, through a needle valve, from the precision inlet pressure regulator. An equal flowrate of 13.7 cm^3 s⁻¹ was set for the two bleedstreams by timing the rise of a bubble in a 100 cm³ soap bubble meter.

Switching the katharometer sample stream to the column outlet cone enabled monitoring of the elution profile. The flowrate for the comparison study was, therefore, selected as 610 cm^3 s⁻¹ at ambient conditions, which permitted complete recording of both traces for a

common injection. Attenuation of the katharometer bridge circuit output and the range of the recorder pen response were set to give a near full scale peak height.

Positioning of the injection point well upstream of the column inlet introduces a large additional 'dead' volume into the injection profile. However, it was found that, if the injection point was brought closer to the inlet sample point, poor reproducibility resulted. This was attributed to the flow regulator in the sample offtake line not responding quickly enough to representatively sample the fast moving peak. The presence of the regulator was necessary to maintain a constant flow through the katharometer when sampling both the inlet and outlet column flow streams which are at significantly different pressures.

The inter-packing void volume for each column was determined from a measurement of the difference in the time taken for the peak of an in-line injected sample of hydrogen to pass two sample points in the colum wall. 4 10-second sweep stopwatch was used for the measurement. It was reasonably assumed that the hydrogen was not retained on the solvent phase. The pressure at the respective sample points was measured by the manometer.

Line Diagram to show Arrangement for Single Column Measurements Figure 5.1

5-4 Computation of Results

The forms of the recorded traces obtained for the inlet injection and elution profiles are given in Fig 5.2. For each profile, values of the peak height at equal time increments were read from the calibrated recorder chart. The time increment was chosen to give at least thirty values of peak height, this being the minimum for statistical significance (171) . $t_{r,i,c}$ and $t_{r,o,c}$, were also noted for each peak. The data for each pair of profiles were then processed by a simple computer program, written in BASIC language (172). A flow chart of the calculations is given as Fig 5.3 while the full listing is to be found in Appendix 2.

The program calculated the mean, variance, skew and kurtosis of the injection and elution profiles respectively. Peak retention time was then calculated by the addition of the computed mean $(\overline{t}_{r,i}, \overline{t}_{r,o})$ to the time to peak commencement $(t_{r,i,c.}, t_{r,o.c.})$. Both these profiles include a common contribution from extra-column factors and thus the retention time and variance solely attributable to the column were obtained by subtraction (Equ. 5.2). Finally the program calculated N.2.P. and hence H.E.T.P.

The form of the print-out is given in Fig 5.4. BASIC is an interactive high-level language; i.e. data can be input from a 'teletype! keyboard during the running of the program. A request for input is denoted by an exclamation mark. The results for each column are summarised in Table 5.3.

A simple BASIC language program was also written to calculate the column voidage and interparticle velocity. Fig 5.5 shows a flow chart for the calculation, the listing being given in Appendix 2, while the results have been included in Table 5.4.

FIGURE 5.4 EXAMPLE PRINT-OUT OF SINGLE COLUMN H.E.T.P. -------------------------COMPUTATION -----------

PROGRAM TO CALCULATE MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, SKEW, KURTOSIS, N.T.P. AUD H.E.T.P. CALC. FOR INJECTION PROFILE ------------------------------INPUT TIME TO START OF PROFILE OUTPUT(SECS.) 15.5 NOS. OF DATA POINTS STORED = 143 TIME INTERVAL BETWEEN DATA POINTS STORED (SECS.) 12.5 INPUT FRACTION OF DATA POINTS TO BE SAMPLED ALL=1, HALF=2, THIRD=3 ETC. 11 ARITHMETIC MEAN = 19.7071 $STAN DARD DEVIATION =$ 14.6931 $VARIANCE = 216.034$ KURTOSIS = 1.7511 4.0934 CALC FOR COLUMN OUTLET PROFILE -------------------------------------INPUT TIME TO START OF PROFILE OUTPUT(SECS.) 1161 NOS. OF DATA POINTS STORED = 134 TIME INTERVAL BETWEEN DATA POINTS STORED (SECS.) 15 INPUT FRACTION OF DATA POINTS TO BE SAMPLED ALL=1, HALF=2, THIRD=3 ETC. 11 ARITHMETIC MEAN = 58.0852 STANDARD DEVIATION = 23.0654 VARIANCE = 532.015 .749193 $SKEW =$ KURTOSIS = -905323 NOW CALCULATION FOR N.T.P. AND H. E. T. P. INPUT LENGTH OF PACKED SECTION IN CMS 161 113.959 $N \cdot T \cdot P \cdot =$
 $H \cdot E \cdot T \cdot P \cdot =$.512732 CMS

430 EXIT $\overline{?}$

Computation for a Single Column H.E.T.P. the: the Results of O_L^2 Summary Table 5.3

9.5 4.9 8.4 7.2 **0.1** 7.2 5.9 4.6 8.8 9.5 5.1 10.0 m 田 125 119 132 65 $\frac{5}{6}$ 104 73 2 87 8 69 84 \approx kurtosis 0.32 0.09 0.73 2.38 2.16 0.62 0.69 0.82 0.55 4.41 0.93 0.11 skew 0.60 1.55 0.68 1.14 1.00 0.69 0.56 0.82 0.83 0.67 0.57 0.71 Outlet Profile $(\sigma_t)_{x,0}$ 674.8 532.0 639.5 917.5 907.8 714.5 570.8 519.3 904.2 675.3 1123.8 1017.0 62.2 $\frac{4}{5}$.
 $\frac{4}{5}$ 62.7 77.8 58.1 58.4 62.3 62.0 59.5 76.7 60.7 65.5 78.1 ω $t_{x_{\bullet}0\bullet0\bullet}$ 162.0 153.0 160.0 185.0 177.0 167.0 161.0 0.01 182.0 173.0 0.0/T 177.0 ω kurtosis 5.19 3.92 3.26 4.04 3.25 3.51 3.67 5.67 2.41 3.33 2.91 3.84 skew 1.63 1.58 1.75 1.65 1.60 1.74 1.69 1.44 1.56 1.70 1.64 1.71 Injection Profile $(\sigma_t)_{\text{r.i.}}$ 193.6 209.8 246.7 216.0 201.3 204.9 206.9 196.5 212.8 212.0 283.1 221.0 23.5 20.5 19.5 19.2 19.0 $\frac{1}{2}$. $\frac{1}{2}$ 22.0 21.1 21.7 19.4 20.3 20.9 19.4 $U₂$ $t_{\texttt{right}}$ 2.5 5.5 3.0 5.0 4.5 5.0 5.0 5.0 4.0 3.0 5.0 5.5 ω Assigned C_{\odot} lumn Nos. 12 ∞ \overline{M} $\sqrt{2}$ \circ Ω $\overline{}$ \Rightarrow \circ Γ ∞ \exists

Figure 5.5 Flowchart of Program used to Compute Interparticle Volume, Volume of Packing and Mean Carrier Gas Velocity for Comparison of Individual Colum Physical Properties. used
d Mear
Phys:
ST/

Table 5.4 Comparison of Individual Column Physical Properties

5.5 Discussion

Both the injection and elution profiles have long 'tails' as a consequence of several contributing factors, namely:

(i) The experimentally necessary large 'dead' volume between the injection point and the column packing.

(ii) The experimentally necessary presence of a flow regulator in the peak sampling line.

(iii) The injection of a large liquid sample without any addition of heating to assist 'instantaneous' vaporization.

While the experimental technique attempts to nullify the effect of i and ii on the determined value of H.E.T.P., its accuracy is limited by the katharometer and potentiometric recorder. The values of peak mean and variance are very sensitive to the length of the 'tail' and thus care was necessary to ensure that no base line drift or offset occurred during the experimental work. The injection and recording procedure was repeated until the respective peak heights and the time taken for the trace to return to the base line were reproduced to within 2% . This gave a reproducibility for the calculated value of $H.E.T.P.$ of within 5% .

Skew and kurtosis are a measure of the shape of the elution profiles. Consideration of the calculated values show that the technique, despite accuracy limitations, is superior for large-scale systems to the classical' graphical method of determining H.E.T.P. The latter assumes the peak to be Gaussian in shape for which the value of skew is one and kurtosis three.

The response of the katharometer and recorder, with respect to speed, was also important to the accuracy of the voidage determination.

The hydrogen peak, being unretained on the silicone fluid solvent, passed the respective sample points very quickly. As the differential time of passing the sample points was only of the order of four seconds, a significant lag in response, if not cancelled out, would introduce a large error. The injected hydrogen sample size, katharometer bridge settings and recorder scale setting were consequently selected to give a peak height of approximately one-tenth of full scale deflection for both sample points. All injections were repeated to give a result reproducible to within $-$ 0.1 s. suggesting an accuracy in the calculated voidage of about $-$ 5%.

The accuracy of all the above work could be improved by using two matched katharometers of small internal volumes, replacing the flow regulators by capillary tube to restrict sample bleed to an equal value and using a very sensitive recorder with a response time of 0.1 s to full scale deflection.

From the results in Tables 5.3 and 5.4, the variation from column to column appears prohibitive to successful operation of the unit in the separating mode. However, eleven columns are linked to form the main separating section. Thus in sequencing through the cycle the variation in the total number of 'plates' in the separating section at any time is considerably reduced. Further, as the unit is to be operated at high solute concentration it is to be expected that with the consequent further increase in plate height the colum to colum variation would diminish. Experimental observations substantiated both these points (see Section $8.2.2$).

The computed values of the plate heights are high when compared with the 1.2 mm reported for a 7.6 cm (3 in) diameter column by Albrecht and Verzele (99). This is in part attributable to the short length of column over which the measurements were made, coupled with a severe tailing contribution resulting from the substantial 'dead' volume of the unpacked cones. It should also be stressed that the comparison is somewhat erroneous as no attempt was made in this work to minimise the H.E.T.P. values by careful selection of optimum flowrate and sample size.

In conclusion, the experimental comparison of the individual column characteristics emphasised the importance of the packing technique in large-scale chromatography. High H.E.T.P. values coupled with column to colum variation, although the effect of the latter is minimised in operation, represents a limitation on the separating potential of this unit with difficult separations. As the system 'Arklone' P/'Genklene' P has a high separation factor, it was considered that the separation studies could be commenced without the need for further repacking. However, it is envisaged that future development work on the sequential system would incorporate the improved column design and packing techniques, reviewed in Section 2.3.3, which have resulted from research in the 'batch' field.

CHAPTER 6

The Partition Coefficient

6.1 The Significance of the Partition Coefficient in the The Significance of the Partition Coeffice
Selection of Column Operating Conditions

6.1.1 A Simplistic Model

Separation in chromatography is dependent on the fact that solutes have differing affinities for the solvent phase. As was shown in Section 2.2, a measure of that affinity is given by the partition coefficient, K . It is therefore to be expected that the respective K^1 values provide the basis for the selection of the relative rates of movement of the gas and liquid phases in counter-current chromatographic systems.

The separation of a binary mixture on an ideal, mechanically continuous, moving-port unit with a separate purging section is illustrated in Fig 6.1. Component i, as the less strongly absorbed component, is to be removed in the carrier gas stream G. Component ii is to be held preferentially on the liquid phase. Through the continuous rotation of the ports, the column section containing componentii will eventually become isolated for purging by gas stream S. Defining phase movement relative to the port positions it can be seen that the liquid phase moves at an apparent rate, L_5 counter-current to the gas phase. S, G and L are volumetric flowrates. For the purpose of the present discussion S and G are considered to be constant across the column, that is the pressure drop is assumed negligible and the temperature constant.

A material balance on component i at the feed point gives

$$
f_i = G_{i} + Lq_i
$$

where f_i is the feedrate of component i to the column, c_i denotes the

Figure 6.1 Continuous Moving Port Unit

concentration of component i in the gas phase, and q_i the concentration of i in the liquid phase.

The condition for preferential movement of component i in the gas phase is that

$$
Gc_i > Lq_i
$$
6.2
i.e.
$$
G \qquad \frac{q_i}{1}
$$
6.3

or $G \sim K$. 6.4 $rac{G}{T}$

Similarly for component ii to travel preferentially with the solvent phase

 \overline{L} $>$ \overline{c}

$$
\frac{G}{L} \quad < \quad \frac{K}{11} \tag{6.5}
$$

Thus the two components will have opposing resultant velocities if the ratio of the volumetric gas to apparent liquid flow lies within the range specified by the respective partition coefficients,
 $K. \leq \frac{G}{I}$, $K. \leq K.$ 6.6

$$
x_{i} \leq \frac{G}{L} < x_{ii} \tag{6.6}
$$

The same logic suggests that component ii will be purged from the isolated section if fied by the 1
ame logic sug
on if
6.1.2 The P1

$$
\frac{S}{L} \quad > \quad K_{11} \tag{6.7}
$$

6.1.2 The Practical Case

Equations 6.6 and 6.7 provide a basis for the selection of colum operating flow conditions for an ideal counter-current system. A discussion of their practical application to the unit under study now follows. Four factors must be considered; (i) colum length, (ii) the sequential nature of operation, (iii) pressure drop and (iv) finite solute concentrations.

6.1.2.1 The Effect of a Finite Colum Length

Colum length is of prime importance in determining whether a successful separation will result when operating the unit at specific flow conditions. As the $\frac{G}{L}$ ratio selected approaches either the upper or lower level of the range for separation, the tendency of the solutes to move in opposing directions is reduced. The separation becomes increasingly difficult wmtil, at the 'K' value limits, an infinite number of equilibration stages are required (a situation analogous to the 'pinch! point in distillation). Thus, for a finite column length, the range of $\frac{G}{L}$ values for a successful separation is narrower than that specified by the respective partition coefficient;

i.e.
$$
(K_i + \delta_i) < \frac{G}{L} < (K_{ii} - \delta_{ii})
$$
 6.8

where δ is a function of the number of theoretical plates, and therefore colum characteristics, as well as the criteria for a 'successful! separation.

Barker and Lloyd (10, 11, 21) have experimentally observed a narrowing of the $\frac{G}{L}$ range for separation when studying the systems benzene/ cyclohexane and methylcyclohexane/ cyclohexane on a moving-bed colum. As the effect of a finite colum length was not investigated in isolation from other colum parameters, no attempt was made to obtain a specific value for 6.

6.1.2.2 The Effect of the Sequential Mode of Operation

Within a sequencing interval, the unit is operating as a co-current 'frontal-elution' system. The counter-current movement of the liquid phase relative to the gas phase is imposed by the discontinuous stepping of the port functions around the twelve linked colums. Intuitively this system of operation must further reduce the selectable range for the G_{L} ratio.

$$
(K_{i} + \delta_{i} + s_{i}) < \frac{G}{L'} < (K_{ii} - \delta_{ii} - s_{ii})
$$
 6.9

where: L' = the apparent volumetric liquid phase flowrate

= total volume of liquid phase in colum cycle time.

s = the reduction in the limits of $\frac{G}{L}$ attributable to the sequencing action.

s will be a function of the degree of discontinuity in terms of the length of the column sections and sequencing interval as well as the criteria for successful separation and column characteristics.

Discontinuity is of particular importance to the section of colwm isolated for purging. Within the sequencing interval all solute must be removed as Product 2 if contamination of Product 1 is not to occur. However, equation 6.7 refers to the mean solute molecule migration rate. To overcome diffusion and tailing effects, S must be increased beyond the theoretical value calculated from equation 6.7.

6.1.2.3 The Effect of Pressure Drop Across the Column

For the simplistic model the pressure drop across the column was assumed to be negligible, enabling S and G to be considered constant. In practise, the small particle sizes used in chromatography present a considerable resistance to flow. The consequent pressure drop results in a continual change in the volumetric gas flowrate. At the column inlet G is at a minimm. As the pressure falls G increases to a maximum value at the column outlet.

The implication of this factor is best illustrated by considering the two ends of the separating section. At the point of carrier gas inlet the relatively lower volumetric flowrate means that the rate of migration of solute molecules in the direction of gas flow is reduced. If conditions are such that both solutes appear close to this point in the column, then the rate at which they separate will be decreased. With increasing concentration the eventual result will be contamination of Product 2 (component ii) with component i.

Approaching the Product 1 exit the opposite effect will occur. The migration rate of solute molecules will be increased as the pressure falls. Component ii molecules appearing in this section of the column will be accelerated, forming a long leading edge which will eventually extend to contaminate Product 1 (component i).

A further restriction should therefore be imposed on the limits of $^{G}/_{L}$ to ensure a successful separation.

 $(K_{i} + \delta_{i} + s_{i}) < \frac{G_{min}}{I} < \frac{G_{max}}{I} < (K_{ii} - \delta_{ii} - s_{ii})$ 6.10

where G_{min} , G_{max} are the respective volumetric flowrates at the separating section inlet and outlet.

The central inequality is important. If the flow conditions imposed by the $(K + \delta + s)$ terms are such that $\frac{G_{\text{max}}}{I}$ - $\frac{G_{\text{min}}}{I'}$ is negative, then complete separation is theoretically impossible.

6.1.2.4 The Effect of Finite Solute Concentration

In Section $2.5.2$ the direct significance of two phenomena, the form of the absorption isotherm and the 'sorption' effect, to the value of the partition coefficient at finite solute concentrations was emphasised.

For a non-linear absorption isotherm the point value of the partition coefficient, $\frac{1}{2}$ c, changes with solute concentration. With increasing concentration K decreases for a type I (Langmuir) isotherm while for a type II (anti-Langmuir) isotherm K increases. A standard point is given by the value at infinite dilution, K^{∞} ,

$$
K = K^{\bullet} + \Delta K \qquad 6.11
$$

where ΔK is either the positive or negative deviation from K^{∞} with increasing solute concentration,under isothermal conditions.

The sorption effect always results in a migration rate for the solute molecules which is higher than that specified solely by the ratio of the liquid and gas phase solute concentrations. To allow for the contributions of the solute molecules in the gas phase to the carrier gas flowrate an 'apparent' partition coefficient, K' , must be defined which is less than the true thermodynamic value.

$$
K = K' + \Delta K'
$$
 6.12

where $\Delta K'$ equals the positive correction to the apparent partition coefficient attributable to the sorption effect. $\Delta K'$ can be calculated, for a specific value of solute concentration, from equation 2.26.

$$
\Delta K' = K_{\bullet} j_{\bullet} y_{\bullet}
$$
 6.13

where j is the compressibility factor and y the mole fraction of solute in the gas phase.

A further complication results from a solute concentration dependent phenomena termed by Higgins and Smith (49) as 'enthalpic overloading'.

The heat of solution of solutes from the gas phase is high. Consequently positive and negative deviations from the mean colum temperature accompany absorption and desorption of the solute species. Under adiabatic conditions, temperature would have the same distribution along the colum as the solute concentration, the temperature rise or fall being controlled by the heat capacity of the colum. In practise, these temperature excursions will be modified by the degree of heat redistribution resulting from conduction through the packing and column wall. As the thermal conductivity of the solid support is low, localised regions of comparatively high temperature fluctuation are to be expected near the centre of a large diameter column.

The experimental work of several researchers confirm the significance of this effect $(45, 100, 178 - 180)$. For example, Hupe et al (45) observed a cross-column temperature variation of up to 7.5° C when injecting 6 cm^3 of n-hexane onto a 980 mm long by 100 mm diameter column packed with 20% polypropylene glycol on silica gel (0.2 - 0.3 mm). The mean column temperature was 60 °C.

Axial and radial temperature gradients will have the following effects on a separation.

(4) The leading edge of the solute band will tend to be at a comparatively high temperature giving an increased solute migration rate. Conversely, the migration of a solute molecule in the tail of the solute band will be retarded. A further correction to the isothermal partition coefficient should be introduced.

$$
K = K'' + \Delta K''
$$
 6.14

where ΔK equals the positive or negative correction to the apparent partition coefficient, K'' , attributable to the enthalpic overloading effect. Theoretical expressions for this very complex term have been given by Scott (178) and Higgins and Smith (49).

(ii) Radial temperature gradients will lead to a non-uniform crosscolum solute migration profile. The experimental profiles recorded by Hupe et al (45) follow the expected pattern, the centre of the band being advanced relative to the column wall (see Section 2.3.1). This represents a further contribution to the theoretical plate height for large diameter columms. An increased column length is therefore required to effect a separation.

Introducing finite concentration effects on the partition coefficient into equation 6.10 gives:

$$
(\kappa_{i}^{\infty} + \Delta \kappa_{i} - \Delta \kappa'_{i} - \Delta \kappa''_{i} + \delta_{i} + s_{i}) < \frac{G_{\min}}{L} < \frac{G_{\max}}{L}
$$

$$
< (\kappa_{ii}^{\infty} + \Delta \kappa_{ii} - \Delta \kappa'_{ii} - \Delta \kappa''_{ii} - \delta_{ii} - s_{ii}) 6.15
$$

For the purge section $\frac{S_{\min}}{K}$ > $(K_{ii}^{\infty} + \Delta K_{ii} - \Delta K'_{ii} - \Delta K''_{ii} + \delta_{ii} + s_{ii})$ 6.16

These inequalities give a qualitative indication of the factors which must be considered when selecting column flow settings. However, they cannot be used for accurately predicting the operating limits for a successful separation. Extensive experimental and theoretical work is required.

To elucidate the complex interaction of parameters affecting the performance of the sequential wit purely from experimental data would be extremely difficult, if not impossible. For example, the effect of a finite column length is intimately related to column characteristics, sequencing rate and pressure drop. Also, the concentration of the solutes varies along the length of the column giving a variation in the ΔK , $\Delta K'$ and ΔK ["] terms.

A theoretical model is required to enable study of the individual factors in isolation. Operating data would serve both to observe actual performance and to provide basic information with which to test the validity of this model.

Hence equations 6.15 and 6.16 have helped to define the path for the research on the sequential unit. Experimental separation runs are reported in Chapter 8 while a computer simulation is described in Chapter 9. As a preliminary to this work the partition coefficients of the solutes 'Arklone' P and 'Genklene' P were determined both at infinite dilution and as a function of solute concentration. K values for dichloromethane were also obtained, the solute pair dichloromethane/ 'Arklone' P providing a more difficult system for separation which may be studied in a future research project.

6.2 Determination of the Partition Coefficient

6.2.1 At Infinite Dilution

Equation 2.3 relates the partition coefficient to the elution chromatogram.

$$
K = \frac{v_R^o - v_G}{v_L}
$$

where: V_R^O = corrected retention volume

$$
\mathcal{C}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}
$$

$$
= \qquad \qquad \mathbf{F.} \qquad \frac{\mathbf{T_0}}{\mathbf{T_a}} \qquad \frac{\mathbf{P_0}}{\mathbf{P_a}} \qquad \mathbf{0} \qquad \mathbf{0} \qquad \mathbf{t_R}
$$

 V_{α} = corrected gas 'hold-up' in the column and associated fittings j V_m

 $V_{\overline{l}}$ = volume of stationary phase.

As discussed in Section 2.2, the accurate application of this equation, without further modification, is subject to the following restrictions:

(i) The value of the partitiion coefficient must be independent of the level of solute concentration.

(ii) The concentration of the solute in the gas phase must be such that no significant contribution is made to the retention volume (i.e. the 'sorption' effect and 'enthalpic overloading' effects are negligible).

(iii) The gas phase must obey the ideal gas laws, allowing the use of the James and Martin compressibility factor, j.

(iv) No adsorption of the solute onto the surface of the solid support should occur.

The thermodynamic concept of 'infinite dilution' satisfies restrictions (4) and (4i) for all solutes. For elution chromatography at the analytical level, the very small sample sizes used permits the solute concentration within the column to be considered to approximate to this 'ideal' concept. Carrying out the measurements of retention time at near ambient pressures on a column pre-treated to saturate active sites overcomes restrictions (iii) and (iv) .

In selecting a suitable chemical system for study, partition coefficients at infinite dilution for 'Arklone' P, 'Genklene' P and dichloromethane were measured on a series of four solvent phases. The experimental procedure was as follows.

2.5 m of 4.8 mm o.d. stainless steel tube was tightly packed with a measured weight of coated solid support. A solvent phase loading of 25% of the total weight on $500 - 355$ μ m Chromosorb 'P' was used throughout. The coiled column was then connected to the injection head of the Perkin-Elmer chromatograph and the oven temperature raised to 180° C. Three 0.01 cm³ injections of dimethyl chloro-silane were introduced into the columns to be slowly eluted by the flowing nitrogen stream.

Following this pre-treatment the oven temperature was reduced to 25° C. A soap-bubble meter was used to set the nitrogen flowrate to approximately 0.9 cm^2 s⁻¹ before finally connecting the column to the flame ionisation detector head. The inlet pressure to the column was measured by a mercury manometer. A syringe needle attached to one leg of the manometer permitted sampling of this pressure directly at the sample injection point. Ambient pressure was assumed for the column outlet.

A series of 0.1 mm^3 injections of the respective solutes were introduced and the retention time recorded on a 10-second sweep stopwatch. Reproducibility was better than 1%.

As the flame-ionisation detector does not give an 'air' peak, measurement of the column gas hold-up, V_m , poses a problem. Of the several methods proposed $(173 - 176)$, the most direct was selected. This assumes the retention of methane on the solvent phase to be negligible. Preliminary tests had shown that the standardised value of V_m , calculated from a methane peak, was essentially independent of column temperature. Further, the retention times for the three solutes was generally in excess of 500 s at 25°C while that for methane was approximately 25 s. Any possible error in V_m would, therefore, introduce only a very small error in the partition coefficient.

An example of the calculation of K^{∞} from the experimental data is given as Fig 6.2. A comparative summary of the data used for selection of silicone fluid DC 200/50 as the solvent phase has previously been recorded in Chapter 4.

For the silicone fluid phase, the partition coefficents were determined over the temperature range 20 - 100°C. A plot of log K_i^{∞} versus the reciprocal of absolute temperature gave a straight line (Fig 6.3) in keeping with thermodynamic theory (181). A computed 'least squares' fit to the data gave:

> For dichloromethane, log_{10} $K_{\text{DCM}}^{\text{oo}}$ = 1311, 2/ T (K)- 2.3909 For 'Arklone' P, $log_{10} K_{AP}^{\infty} = 1363.3/T (K) - 2.4993$
For 'Genklene' P, $log_{10} K_{AP}^{\infty} = 1528.3/T (K) - 2.5976$ For 'Genklene' P, $log_{10} K_{\text{CP}}^{\text{O}} = 1528.3 / T (K) - 2.5976$

The correlation coefficient was in excess of 0.997 for all three solutes.

Fig 6.2 An Example of the Evaluation of the Partition Coefficient at Near Infinite Dilution

Description of Column - 2.5 m of 4.8 mm o.d. stainless steel packed with 11.186 g of $500 - 355$ μ m Chromosorb 'P' coated with 25% (of total weight) silicone fluid D.C. 200/50

Weight of solvent phase in column (w_L) 2.797 g Density of solvent phase (ρ_{I}) 0.97 g cm⁻³

Column temperature (T_c) 25.0% = 298.2 K Ambient temperature (\mathbb{T}_a) 24.0% = 297.2 K

Column inlet pressure (P_{in}) 161.9 kN m⁻² Column outlet pressure, atmospheric $(P_o = P_a)$ 101.9 kN m⁻²

Flowrate of carrier gas at T_{g} and P₀ (F) 0.880 cm³ s⁻¹

$$
j = \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{(P_{i0})^2 - 1}{(P_{i0})^3 - 1} \right) \qquad 0.759
$$

Retention time for 'Arklone' P (t_{p}) 529.3 s Retention time for methane (t_m) 24.7 s

nperature
$$
(T_c)
$$
 25.0°
\ntemperature (T_a) 24.0°
\nlet pressure, atmospheric $(P_0 = P_a)$ 101.9
\nof carrier gas at T_a and $P_o (F)$ 0.880
\n
$$
\left(\frac{(P_{io})^2 - 1}{(P_{io})^3 - 1}\right)
$$
\ntime for 'Arklone' P (t_R) 529.3
\ntime for methane (t_m) 24.7
\n
$$
K^{\infty} = F. \quad (\frac{T_o}{T_a}) \quad (\frac{P_o}{P_a}) \quad \text{or} \quad (t_R - t_m)
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{117}{\sqrt{17}} \tag{24.7}
$$

It should be noted that the relationship between K^{∞} and $\frac{1}{T}$ is only exact for the limited temperature range within which no variation in the solvent phase volume occurs. The strength of the fit of the experimental data suggests that the inherent assumption of a negligible volume change was reasonable over the range $20 - 100^{\circ}$. It should be not
for the limited
nt phase volume
suggests that the
easonable over the casonable over the strain of the state of the

6.2.2 At Finite Concentrations

A full expression for the partition coefficient at any solute concentration may be given as

$$
K_{\underline{i}} = \frac{q_{\underline{i}}}{\frac{q_{\underline{j}}}{\frac{q_{\underline{i}}}{\frac{q_{\underline{j}}}{\frac{q_{\underline{i}}}{\frac{q_{\underline{j}}}{\frac
$$

where: $m_{i(L)}$, $m_{i(G)}$ = mass of solute in the liquid solvent phase and gas phase respectively $V(L)$, $V(G)$ = unit volume of the respective liquid and gas phases.

Now, the mole fraction of inthe liquid phase can be written for a single solute as:

$$
x_{\underline{i}} = \frac{\frac{m_{\underline{i}}}{M_{\underline{i}}}}{\frac{m_{\underline{i}}}{M_{\underline{i}}}(L)_{+} \frac{m_{\underline{i}}}{M_{\underline{i}}}} \qquad \qquad 6.18
$$

where: m_{τ} = mass of solvent phase per unit volume M_i , M_i = molecular weight of the solute and solvent respectively.

written:

y

P

$$
\frac{m_{\underline{i}}(G)}{\frac{F_{\underline{i}}(G)}{R_{g} \cdot T}}
$$

where:

$$
R_g
$$
 = gas constant
 T = absolute temperature

total pressure

Substituting for $m_{\texttt{i}(L)}$ and $m_{\texttt{i}(G)}$ in equation 6.17 gives

$$
K_{i} = x_{i} \cdot R_{g} \cdot T \cdot \frac{m_{i}(L) + m_{i}}{M_{i}} \qquad (6.20)
$$

From Raoult's law for an ideal gas phase

$$
\frac{x_i}{y_i \cdot P} = \frac{1}{\gamma_i(L) \cdot P_i^0}
$$
 6.21

where:

activity component for component i $Y_{\pm(\perp)}$ $\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \end{array} \end{array}$ $P_i^0 =$ saturated vapour pressure of component i.

Therefore

$$
K_{\underline{i}} = R_{\underline{g}} \cdot T \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \frac{m_{\underline{i}}}{M} (L) & + \frac{m_{\underline{j}}}{M_{\underline{i}}} \\ \frac{m_{\underline{i}}}{M} (L) & \frac{m_{\underline{j}}}{M_{\underline{j}}} \end{pmatrix}
$$
 6.22

Equation 6.22 relates the partition coefficient to the moles of a single solute in the liquid phase both explicitly $\binom{m_i}{M_i}(L)$ and implicitly through the concentration dependent activity coefficient. To calculate K_i a correlation between $Y_i(L)$ and x_i must be known.

Sunal (58) has measured the value of the partition coefficient at a series of finite concentrations for dichloromethane (temperature range 25 - 40°C), 'Arklone' P (temperature range 25 - 40°C) and 'Genklene' P (temperature range $35 - 74^{\circ}$) on the phase silicone fluid DC 200/50. The experimental values were corrected for the 'sorption' effect. No correction was necessary for enthalpic overloading as the work was performed on a narrow bore column. Activity coefficients calculated from the true K values (i.e. K^{∞} + ΔK) were correlated with solute mole fraction in the liquid phase through an equation of the Flory-Huggins type.

$$
Y_{i(L)} = \frac{\tau_i}{\tau_i \cdot x_i + x_L} \exp \left[\frac{x_L \cdot (1 - \tau_i)}{\tau_i \cdot x_i + x_L} + \psi_i \left(\frac{x_L}{\tau_i x_i + x_L} \right)^2 \right]
$$

 6.23

where:
$$
x_{\underline{L}} =
$$
 mole fraction of solvent in the liquid phase.
\n= 1 - $x_{\underline{i}}$
\n $T_{\underline{i}} =$ fitted experimental constant
\n= 0.008101 for dichloromethane
\n= 0.0159839 for 'Arklone' P
\n= 0.0085363 for 'Genklene' P
\n $\Psi_{\underline{i}} =$ fitted experimental constant
\n= 0.9547 for dichloromethane
\n= 0.437641 for 'Arklone' P
\n= 0.930414 for 'Genklene' P

For a value of x_i above approximately 0.2 the root mean square deviation from the correlation, for the three solutes, was generally less

than 1% . At this concentration level $Y_{i(L)}$ exhibited only a very weak dependence on temperature over the range considered. In fact, the deviation of $Y_{j(L)}$ from the correlation with changing column temperature could be included in the above quoted figure for 'Arklone' P and 'Genklene! P, However, as the solute mole fraction was reduced towards infinite dilution the correlation became less satisfactory, the predicted values of $Y_{i(L)}$ being lower than those experimentally observed. Further, at infinite dilution, thermodynamic theory gives the relationship

 $\log Y_i(L) = \int \left(\frac{1}{T}\right)$

for a limited temperature range.

The conclusion to be drawn from Sunal's work is that, at low solute concentrations, a plot of the activity coefficient against solute concentration for a series of temperatures gives a family of curves. The curves converge to the single Flory-Huggins correlation at a value of x_j approximately equal to 0.2 for the chemical systems and temperature range studied. Partition coefficients calculated from values of $Y_{j(L)}$ predicted by equation 6.23 will be slightly high at low solute concentrations in the liquid phase.

Fig 6.4 shows the flowchart of a simple BASIC language program which was used to obtain the relationship between the gas phase concentration of solute and the partition coefficient at one degree temperature intervals within the range $19 - 24^{\circ}$. The full program listing is given in Appendix 2.

For each solute $Y_{i(L)}$ was calculated for a series of values of x_i in

the range 0 - 0.95. The error introduced by applying equation 6.23 below x_{j} = 0.2 was assumed to be negligible. Substitution of $Y_{j(I)}$ into a rearrangement of equation 6.22 gave K_j

$$
K_{i} = \frac{R_{g} \cdot T}{Y_{i(L)} \cdot P_{i}^{o}} \cdot \left(\frac{P_{L}}{M_{L} \cdot x_{L}}\right)
$$
 6.24

where: $x_{\overline{x}}$ = the mole fraction of solvent in the liquid phase $1 - x_i$ P_{T} = density of the liquid solvent 0.97 g cm^{-3}

The value of M_{π} , the average molecular weight of the polymeric liquid solvent, was given by Dow Corning as 7100 g mole⁻¹ (182). Values for the saturated vapour pressure were read from Fig 6.5. The source of the data points used to locate the position of the straight line relating $log_{10} P_i^{\circ}$ and $\frac{1}{T}$ (K) was Perry (165).

 c_i was finally calculated from

$$
\sigma_{i} = \frac{x_{i} \cdot P_{L} \cdot M_{i}}{K_{i} \cdot x_{L} \cdot M_{L}}
$$
 6.25

The computed results are presented graphically as Fig 6.6.

A test of the accuracy of the computed partition coefficients at low solute concentrations was given by a comparison of the experimental and computed values of K_i^{∞} (Table 6.1). For 'Arklone' P and 'Genklene' P the agreement was satisfactory, the discrepancy between the two values being less than 1% and 2% respectively. A less satisfactory agreement was obtained for dichloromethane. The major source of this error probably lay in the fitted constants used in the Flory-Huggins equation. It was for the dichloromethane/ silicone oil system that Sunals' results exhibited the largest statistical deviation between experimental and predicted values of the activity coefficient.

The assumption of an ideal gas phase in the derivation of equation 6.22 introduces only a very small error provided the column pressure is reasonably close to atmospheric pressure and the gas phase solute concentration is low (59, 61). For the highest concentration level studied by Sunal $(0.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ g cm}^{-3})$ the error was estimated to be about 0.5% (58). However, partition coefficients for 'Arklone' P and dichloromethane have been calculated at concentrations in excess of this value. (Fig 6.6 (a),(b)). K values for these solutes at the upper concentration levels must be subject to an increased error.

Error may also result from extrapolating the correlation for the activity coefficients beyond the experimental temperature range.

Figure 6.5 Plot of log₁₀ P_i versus ¹/T (K) for 'Genklene' P

Figure 6.6 Plot of Partition Coefficient (K_1) versus Gas Phase Solute $\frac{\text{Concentration}}{\text{c}_i}$ (c_i) with Temperature as Third Parameter

Figure 6.6 (Cont'd.)

b) For 'Arklone' P

* calculated from fitted straight line relationships

between $\textbf{K}_{\underline{i}}^{\textbf{\large \infty}}$ and $\textbf{1}_{/\textbf{T}}$

 $-\infty$

CHAPTER 7

Calibration of the Analytical Chromatographic Detector

Of the several types of analytical chromatographic peak detection systems currently available, the flame ionisation detector $(F.D.)$ is to be recommended for quantitative analysis. The response versus eluted component concentration curve for this type of detector has a comparatively long linear range. The recorded area of the elution peak falling within this range is, therefore, directly proportional to the mass of solute injected onto the column.

However, the level of response of an F.1.D. is a function of several variables, namely; design, temperature, hydrogen flowrate, nitrogen flowrate and chemical species. Above a certain level oxygen flowrate has little effect. Hence the detector of the analytical chromatograph was calibrated under specific operating conditions in preparation for analysis during the proposed separation runs.

1-1 Experimental Procedure

Before optimising the hydrogen and oxygen flowrates to the F.I.D., experimentation was required to select the column packing and operating conditions.

There were two conflicting criteria for the analysis. A fast analysis enabled more than one sample to be injected within a sequencing interval of the separation unit. However, for an accurate 'trace analysis', the two peaks for 'Arklone' P and 'Genklene' P had to be sufficiently far apart on elution to permit the peak area for the minor component to be ascertained without contamination from the leading or trailing edge of the major component. The final compromise choice was a 3.04 m, 0.3 om o.d. annealed stainless steel tube packed with 2.24 μ m of 250 - 177 μ m particle size (B.S. mesh 60 - 80) 'Universal B' support coated with 10% by weight silicone oil, DC 200/50. Universal B (supplied by Jones Chromatography Ltd., Newport) was chosen as the solid support for its comparatively inert surface properties (183). Treatment, in situ, with D.M.C.S. further reduced 'tailing'. A column temperature of 60° C and nitrogen flowrate of 0.254 cm^3 s⁻¹ (corrected to mean column pressure and 0° C) gave a satisfactory complete analysis in approximately 140-seconds with a test mixture of 0.1% 'Genklene' P in 'Arklone! P.

Following the analytical chromatograph instruction manual (164), the oxygen pressure to the flame, as read on the cylinder head regulator, was set at the maximum value consistent with an acceptably stable baseline. This was found to be 275 kN m^{-2} , giving a large excess delivery of oxygen to the flame.

Finally the hydrogen flowrate was adjusted to give maximum response. A series of constant volume gas injections of fixed concentration were analysed at different hydrogen pressure settings. The resultant peak heights and areas are recorded in Table 7.1. The optimum hydrogen pressure setting of 260 kN m^{-2} was chosen. Once set, the operating conditions for the analytical chromatograph were held constant for all subsequent quantitative analysis.

Gas samples of known composition were prepared for the detector calibration in the simple equipment shom in Fig 7.1. The total volume of the three-necked flask, including the sockets and the line connecting the flask to the manometer, was measured by determining the weight of deaerated water which occupied that space. The carefully cleaned flask was sealed, all joints being greased and held tightly in position by spring clips. Known weights of both 'Arklone' P and 'Genklene' P were then injected into the flask by a previously calibrated 100 mm³ syringe fitted with a reproducibility adaptor. The samples vaporized causing a small increase in the pressure.

A 1.0 cm³ 'Pressure-Lok' syringe (supplied by Jones Chromatography Ltd., Newport) was used to sample known volumes of gas from the sealed flask. The syringe volume was again calibrated against deaerated water, using grooved 9.6 mm brass rods for reproducibility. (Plate 5). The rods, cut to measured lengths,fitted onto the plunger stem, maintaining a fixed distance between the thumb button and rear lock nut of the barrel. Hence the 'Teflon' plunger was set at a reproducible position in the precision bore glass barrel. The fixed hypodermic needle of the syringe was fitted with

a gas-lock valve ensuring that the gas sample was maintained at the sampling pressure up till the point of injection.

For each injected sample the attenuation of the 'ionisation amplifier' was adjusted to give maximum on-scale peak height. The attenuation, peak height and peak area, as measured by the Kent Chromalog Integrator were recorded together with the sample volume and pressure in the flask. Each injection of a specific volume was repeated four times. The data are recorded in Appendix 3.

Table 7.1 Flame Ionisation Detector Response as a Function of Hydrogen Cylinder Head Pressure

Apparatus for Pr
for Calibration Figure 7.1 Apparatus for Preparing Gas Samples for Calibration of F.I.D.

1.2 Correlation of Results

The respective weights of the two components in each injection were calculated as shown in Appendix 3. Peak heights and areas were brought to a common base of amplifier attenuation of 1×10^2 ; e.g. an area or peak height measured at an attenuation of 1×10^4 would be multiplied by a factor of 100. This assumed that the range setting switch for attenuation was linear.

Peak height was then plotted against peak area. (Fig 7.2). The graph gave the expected straight line passing through the origin, the correlation falling off slightly at the higher values as the limit of the linear response was approached, It was therefore decided that the volume of the sample taken from the sequential mit, for quantitative analysis during a separation run, would be chosen to ensure that the response fell within the range covered by these graphs.

The graph of peak area versus weight of sample gave a very good straight line. (Fig 7.3). Using a standard computer library routine the two parameters were correlated by the method of least squares. The slope of the respective straight lines were calculated to bet

'Arklone' P : Weight injected = Peak Area x 0.34338×10^{-8} gm 'Genklene' P : Weight injected = Peak Area x 0.2167×10^{-8} gm The correlation coefficient for both curves was in excess of 0.999 showing the strength of the 'fit'.

The 'count' rate of the integrator was very slow by more recent standards (185) giving a peak area at 'print out' within a limited range of © - 300 integrator units. In addition the response of the detector was found to vary slightly with time. Thus, despite regular recalibration, the accuracy can only be quoted as being generally better than $-$ 2% from observations of reproducibility.

CHAPTER 8

Operation of the Sequential Unit in the Separating Mode

Three objectives were defined for the separation studies:

(41) To investigate the practical viability of the sequential chromatographic process as a separation technique and to establish the mechanical reliability of the design.

(ii) To observe the significance of the factors affecting the separation, as discussed in Section 6.1.

(iii) To provide data for testing the computer model of the unit, reported in Chapter 9.

A systematic study of all the separating process variables would require a very extensive experimental program. The time factor restricted this program to twenty-four experimental runs. Attention was focussed on the solute mixture feedrate, carrier gas rate and sequencing rate.

Throughout the runs performed the feedstock was maintained as an equivolume mixture of 'Arklone' P and 'Genklene' P. The feed inlet was always centrally positioned within the main separating section of eleven colums. Although the purge gas rate was varied to meet the requirement of each run, it was not specifically studied to determine the optimun setting; i.e. the minimum flowrate to ensure complete purging of the isolated bed.

This chapter can be conveniently subdivided into four sections. The first describes experimental procedure and analysis common to all runs. For the second, experimental runs detailing the effect of feedrate on separating performance are discussed. Consideration is then given to the effect of varying the gas to 'apparent' liquid ratio. The chapter is completed by a concluding discussion.

8.1 Experimental Procedure and Analysis

8.1.1 'Start-up'

A formal 'start-up' procedure was established as follows:

(4) A general check and servicing of the various functions of the mit was performed. The taps on the feed system were lightly greased as was the plunger of the reciprocating pump. The packed driers were recharged with regenerated silica gel. Septa were replaced as necessary.

After opening the mains inlet air valve and energising the gas solenoids, two pressure tests for leaks were effected. Initially the timer/sequencing unit was frozen and the carrier and purge gas outlet flow regulators fully closed. Registration of an air flow on the total inlet gas rotameter and/or a discrepancy between the inlet and outlet pressure gauge readings indicated a leak from the system. Small leaks were traced by the use of soap solution.

For the second test the inlet carrier gas pressure regulator was also fully closed. Thus gas pressure was only applied to the isolated column. Any build-up of pressure in the carrier section or in the sealed feed distribution system now indicated a leakage across the seating of a closed solenoid valve. Location of the exact valve was assisted by manually 'skipping' the isolated column round the cycle, depressuring the carrier section between each sequencing step, and observing the effect on the leak rate.

Appropriate action was taken to eliminate any leaks, highlighted by the above procedures, before continuing.

(ii) As a practical guide to the selection of gas and apparent liquid flowrates without a detailed knowledge of the terms in equations 6.15 and 6.16, the approximate inequalities

$$
\mathbb{K}_{AP}^{\infty} \quad < \quad \frac{\mathbb{G}_{m_{\bullet}C}}{\mathbb{L}^{\bullet}} \quad < \quad \mathbb{K}_{GP}^{\infty} \tag{8.1}
$$

$$
\frac{S_{m, c.}}{L'} < K_{GP}^{\infty} \tag{8.2}
$$

were used. The subscript m.c. shows that the gas flowrates have been corrected to mean column pressure by the James and Martin compressibility factor.

$$
\frac{G_{\text{m.c.}}}{I'} = \frac{G_{\text{a}} \times P_{\text{o}} \times j}{\frac{\text{total volume of solvent in columns}}{\text{time for 1 cycle.}}} 8.3
$$

Having selected a value for L'_2 , the sequencing rate $(L_g = t_0$ one-twelth of the cycle time) was calculated. The variable and pre-set resistance of the clock circuit were then adjusted according to the calibration chart in Appendix 1. An accurate stopwatch was used to check the length of a sequencing interval.

Setting a specific mean colum gas flowrate by adjustment of the inlet pressure and outlet flowrate requires a trial and error procedure. To limit this a family of calibration curves was experimentally determined which related both $G_{m, c}$, and $S_{m, c}$, to the rotameter height setting for a range of column inlet pressures. (Appendix 1).

Three factors restricted the range of pressure and flow settings available for selection:

(4) The available air pressure after passing through the cleaning, drying and preliminary control stages.

(ii) The need for a pressure drop of at least 50 km m^{-2} across the outlet flow regulators for effective control.

(iii) A differential pressure in excess of approximately 170 kN m^{-2} could not exist between the carrier gas inlet and purge gas inlet lines or contamination of the product streams,by leakage across their respective solenoid valve systems, may have occurred.

Approximate settings for the purge and carrier gas flowrates, as read from the graphs, were made. A more accurate setting followed the measurement of the respective inlet and outlet column pressures actually on the colum. A hypodermic needle was attached to a pressure gauge for this purpose.

(iii) A soap bubble meter was used to adjust the reference and sample bleed streams to the katharometers. The function of the katharometers was to monitor the levels of product concentration in the respective gas exit lines. For Product 1 (carrier gas exit) the bleed flowrates were matched at approximately 0.83 cm³ s⁻¹ while for Product 2 a common flowrate of 12.5 $cm³$ s⁻¹ was used for the sample and reference streams. These values were recommended by the manufacturers (162, 163).

Switching on the two bridge circuits, the bridge current for Product 1 was adjusted to 80 mA, 100 mA being set for Product 2, Comparatively low bridge current settings were used in view of the use of air as the gas phase

and the high solute concentrations being monitored. The attenuation of the output signals to the two-pen recorder and the associated recorder span were set, from experience, to maintain the maximum pen height below half fullscale deflection. The baseline of the two channels were set at opposite sides of the chart, the direction of pen movement in response to a positive signal also being set in opposition. A clear, independent trace of both product concentration levels was, therefore, recorded.

(iv) The feed pump was started with the feedrate initially being set by reference to the calibration chart (Appendix 1). Fine adjustment of the micrometer setting was made after timing the discharge rate from the side-arm burette.

Pumping of the solute mixture continued to fill the feed distribution network. Air was completely displaced from each line via the open vertical arm of the tee-connection immediately preceding the closed feed solenoid valve. When liquid issued from the 'tee', it was firmly capped with a nut and septum. The highest open point in the feed system was the top of the central distributor. Hence, this was the last point to be sealed.

(v) A pressure gauge was used to observe the pressure in the feed network. As pressure increased with continued pumping the last step in the start-up procedure was hastily performed. The common negative lead for the twelve feed solenoid valves was connected to a socket at the rear of the timer/ sequencing unit. Twelve separate live lead connections were then made between the feed valves and the single energised socket terminal, rail. The final jack plug was inserted, into the terminal energised at that time, when the monitored liquid feed pressure was approximately equal to the

mid-pressure of the carrier section. This precaution was taken to avoid surging from, or 'blow-back' into, the feed distribution network. The time and point of start-up was noted on the recorder chart.

Two further sets of data were recorded as the run progressed. The column outlet pressure readings changed slightly from the initial values as the concentration of the solutes in the gas phase increased. Therefore, on-column inlet and outlet pressures and the respective rotameter heights were remeasured as the unit sequenced through a complete cycle. Fig 8.1 serves as an example of the recorded data together with the corresponding calculation of the gas to 'apparent' liquid ratio.

At this stage the calibration of the $F \cdot I \cdot D$. was checked against five differing volume samples of known composition. If necessary, the relationship between peak area and sample mass was recomputed.

8.1.2 Column to Column Concentration Profile Analysis

Being semi-continuous in operation a true steady state was not achieved by the sequential unit. However, a stable state was eventually reached whereby, although the column to column profile changes with time during a sequencing interval, the dynamic profile is reproduced from one interval to another.

The approach to this 'pseudo-steady' state condition was observed on the katharometer traces. From the example given in Fig 8.2 it can be seen that the shape and height of the exiting product concentration level became reasonably consistent. As expected, the fluctuation was greater for the single column exit trace (Product 2) than for the multiple column (Product 1). It should also be noted that, once established, the minor column to column

Run Title									
Nominal Feedrate		Nominal G_{mc}/L'		Nominal	Time Commenced	η α	- a	Measured -s	Measured Feedrate
$h\overline{r}^{\perp}$						\circ_{C}	kN m ⁻²¹		cm
300		275	$\frac{1}{2}$	300	08:25	23	101	299	300

Fig 8.1 Example of the Data Recorded After Commencement of an Experimental Run and the Subsequent Calculation of G_{mc}/L'

Fig 8.1 Cont'd.

Calculation of Gm.c

j = $\frac{3}{2}$ $\frac{(P_{10})^2 - 1}{(P_{10})^3 - 1}$ $=\frac{\frac{407}{2}}{\frac{407}{171}}^2 - 1$ 0.545 $G_{m \bullet C}$ = $G_{\underline{a}}$ x j x $\frac{P_{\underline{a}}}{P_{\underline{c}}}$ = 1198 x 0.545 x $\frac{101}{171}$ $=$ $\frac{383 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}}{1}$

Calculation of L'

Total volume of solvent phase in unit (Table 5.2) = 5090 cm^3

$$
I' = \frac{5090}{12.1} = \frac{5090}{12 \times 299} = 1.42 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}
$$

=
$$
\frac{383}{1.42}
$$

=
$$
\frac{272}{1.42}
$$

 \mathbb{G}

variation was reproduced from one cycle to another.

The symmetry of the sequential unit permitted determination of the on-column concentration profile once the pseudo-steady state condition was achieved. For a complete cycle, a sample was taken from a fixed point in the twelve column arrangement at a set time after each sequencing of the port functions. Suitably plotted, the resultant profile was equivalent to sampling all twelve columns at a single instant.

Throughout this experimental work, all samples were taken from a point 15 om from the exit of the same column, designated column 2. Using the calibrated 'Pressure-Lok' syringe in conjunction with the grooved spacer rods, at least two accurate volume gas samples at column pressure were quantitatively analysed per sequencing interval. The pressure at the point of sampling was also recorded by a pressure gauge with attached hypodermic needle.

Sampling was continued for at least two cycles, the relative position of colum 2 in the cycle being denoted by reference to the position of the isolated colum. From the analysis results for the first cycle any necessary adjustments were made to either the volume taken or the amplifier attenuation for a specific sample. The criteria to be met were that the sample volume should be such as to give a response within the linear range of the detector, and the amplifier attenuation be selected to maximise the recorded peak area. Comparison of the results from the two cycles confirmed the achievement of a pseudo-steady state.

Samples were also taken from the product outlet lines to determine their purity. Product 2 was sampled soon after sequencing had occurred

while the Product 1 sample was taken close to the end of a sequencing interval. These points in the sequencing interval correspond to the maximum level of solute concentration in the respective streams. An example of the recorded data is given in Table 8.la.

A simple BASIC language program was used to compute the concentration of 'Arklone' P and 'Genklene' P in each sample injection (flowchart - Fig 8.3, listing - Appendix 2).

The peak areas, in equivalent chromalog units, were adjusted to the base of amplifier attenuation used for the flame ionisation detector curves; i.e. 1 x 10^2 (Fig 7.4). Hence, the previously computed slope of these curves could be directly applied for the conversion of peak area to solute mass.

Two values of concentration were calculated:

(4) 'On-column', the solute mass being divided by the 'as-sampled! sample volume.

(ii) ''Standardised', the solute mass being divided by the sample volume corrected to atmospheric pressure.

fable 8.1b records the results of the computation for the data given in Table 8.la.

The sample point, although in a fixed position relative to the column wall, changes its position relative to the input and output functions as the unit sequences round the closed cycle. As the advancing concentration profile is reproduced from one sequencing interval to the next, this profile ean be obtained by plotting concentration against the distance of the sample point from the carrier outlet (Product 1) position at a set time after the sequencing action has occurred. For the purpose of plotting the profile the Determination of the Column Concentration Profile Around the Sequential Unit Table 8.1

Table 8.1a Recorded Concentration Profile Analysis Data for Run 300 - 275 - 300

(Sampling from point 15 cm from outlet of column 2)

Table 8.1b Results of the Computation of the Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 275 - 300

(Concentration <0.1 x 10⁻⁶ g cm⁻³ calculated to first significant figure)

Table 8.1b Cont'd.

column to column transfer lines were ignored; i.e. each column length was equivalent to the packed length of 61 cm. Fig 8.4 shows the forms of profile obtained when plotting the data given in Table 8.1b.

Gas phase solute concentration expressed at a standard pressure differs from mole fraction by a constant factor.

From equation 6.17

$$
^{\circ}i(std)^{=} \frac{m_{\underline{i}}}{v}(G)(std) = v_{\underline{i}} \cdot \frac{M_{\underline{i}}}{R_{\underline{j}}}\cdot \frac{P_{std}}{s}
$$
 8.4

where: c_i _(std) standardised concentration of solute in the gas phase; i.e. concentration at atmospheric pressure

> $\frac{P_{\text{c}}}{P_{\text{c}}}$ y_i = solute mole fraction in the gas phase.

$$
\mathbf{v} \quad \text{(G)} \qquad \mathbf{v} \quad \text{(G)} \quad \mathbf{x} \quad \frac{\mathbf{r} \quad \text{coll}}{\mathbf{P}_{\text{std}}}
$$

A concentration profile in terms of mole fraction would, therefore, change only the scale of the abscissa axis. However, standardised concentration was selected as the basis for comparison of experimental runs rather than mole fraction to maintain consistency with other chromatographic terms, particularly the partition coefficient.

8.1.3 Measurement of H.E.T.P.

Within a sequencing interval a solute front is 'carried' through the final bed in the main separating section to elute as Product 1. Therefore, the katharometer trace is equivalent to the 'break-through' of the leading edge of a frontal elution system in conventional chromatography. Similarly the trace recorded for Product 2 is akin to the tailing edge in such a system. Fig 8.5 shows the form of the respective traces, recorded at a

Figure 8.5 Form of Product Katharometer Traces

a) Carrier Product - Product 1

greater chart speed than shown in Fig 8.3.

An estimate of H.E.T.P. was made from the enlarged Product 1 traces once pseudo-steady state was achieved. The graphical technique used was that proposed by Reilley et al (168).

Following Gluekauf (28) these workers analysed the response of a series of ideal equilibrium stages, or theoretical plates, to a step change in inlet solute concentration and found the resultant column outlet trace could be related to the number of plates by

 $N.T.P.$ = 2 πV_R 8.5

$$
2 \pi \frac{v_R^{\prime}}{\omega^2}
$$

where: V_p = the net retention volume the corrected volume of gas having flowed from the commencement of the step impulse to the emergence of the front to half-height. ω = the volume of the eluted solute front the volume between the intersections of the tangent to the curve's inflection point with the axis and plateau line.

Comparing equation 8.1 with the analogous equation for single pulse injection elution chromatography (equation 2.8) gives a value for the standard deviation of $2\pi\omega$. Assuming a constant value for the flowrate, irrespective of the 'sorption' effect, equation 8.1 can be expressed in time units, and hence recorder chart distances (Fig 8.5), as

 $N.T.P.$ = $2 \pi / {t_R \over R}$ 2 $\boldsymbol{\mathsf{w}}$ where: $t_R' = t_R - t_m$

 t_{p} = the time from the commencement of the step impulse (in our case, sequencing) to the emergence of the front to half-height (A C in Fig 8.5).

 t_m = the contribution to t_R attributable to the non-absorptive lags in the system; i.e. the sum of the extra-colum and on-column 'dead volume'.

In practice, tp was determined by measuring the distance from the peak front half-height to a perpendicular drawn through point where the trace returned to the base line after sequencing $(C B)$. t_{ω} was determined by measuring the distance D E shown in Fig 8.5. The value of H.E.T.P. was then calculated, for each column, by dividing the individual colwm length of 61 cm by the value of N.T.P.

8.1.4 Estimation of Experimental Errors

Before presenting and discussing the results obtained from the separation studies, they must first be put into perspective by an estimation of their accuracy.

Having carefully calibrated all the rotameters and pressure gauges, it is to be expected that the individual measurements made by these instruments were accurate. However, in order to estimate the mean carrier and purge gas flowrates, average values were taken from those recorded as the unit sequenced round the cycle.

For the main separating section two sources of fluctuation can be pinpointed; the variation in flow resistance from the differing configuration of 11 packed beds and the changing solute concentration at the column outlet. As the carrier gas flowrate and inlet pressure were

accurately controlled at a constant value, the fluctuation occurred in the measured outlet column pressure. An extreme fluctuation of $\frac{1}{2}$ 5 kN m⁻² in the value of carrier gas outlet pressure would introduce a possible error into $G_{m,n}$ of $\frac{1}{2}\%$. It should be noted that all readings for the separating section were taken towards the end of the sequencing interval when Product 1 concentration was at a maximum. The recorded values of $G_{m, c}$, therefore, inherently include an approximate correction for the 'sorption' effect.

The fluctuation in the outlet pressure from the isolated purge section was generally less than that observed for the main section. Consequently the extreme error in $S_{m_{\bullet}C_{\bullet}}$ is expected to be less than 2% .

As the sequencing rate was accurately measured by a 10-second sweep stopwatch, and the packing weight and solvent loading were also accurately determined, the possible error in the calculated value of the apparent liquid rate can be considered negligible.

In Chapter 7 the error in the calibration of the flame ionisation detector was quoted as being generally less than $\frac{1}{2}$ 2% , inclusive of a contribution from the sample volume. For the accuracy of the standardised colum to column concentration profile three other factors must be considered; the pressure, the time of sampling and the assumed symmetry of the operating performance of the unit.

The calibrated pressure gauge used to determine the sample point pressure can be assumed to have given a value correct to within $\frac{1}{r}$ 1%. The possible error in the standardised concentration of the withdrawn sample, therefore, becomes $\frac{+}{-}$ 3%.

Having used the accurate stopwatch to time sample withdrawal, the error in the recorded time is expected to be small. However, to quantify the effect of any such error on the concentration profile is not realistic as it is a function of the shape of the curve. If the concentration was changing rapidly at the time of sampling then a significant error could have occurred. Consideration of Fig 8.6a, in which the point values of standardised concentration determined for two successive cycles are plotted, shows the reproducibility to be satisfactory.

The assumption of perfectly matched columns, which forms the basis of the concentration profile analysis technique, is idealistic. As a test of this assumption an experimental run was performed in which two complete profiles were obtained from sample points at opposite sides of the unit. Samples were taken, at the same time after sequencing, from columns of assigned numbers 2 and 8 during two successive cycles. Fig 8.6b shows that, despite the known individual column variation in efficiency, very similar point concentration values were obtained.

This latter reproducibility test was performed at column operating conditions and a solute mixture throughput which represented an easy separation. It was to be expected that when the unit was operated at conditions close to the limits of its separating power then the column to column variation would have greater effect. For this reason sampling was restricted to a single point in column 2 to give a reasonable basis for comparison of the experimental runs.

Of all the experimental measurements, the determination of H.E.T.P. was the most inaccurate. The development of equation 8.1 was based on the

Experimental Test of the Reproducibility of the Concentration Profiles Figure 8.6

Note: Samples taken from Column 2, 250 s after sequencing action

Successive Cycles from Differing Sample Points Comparison of Profiles Obtained During Two b) Run $300 - 275 - 300$,

assumption of 'linear-ideal' chromatography. Thus any consideration of the effect of a finite solute concentration on the shape of the front has been ignored.

Considering the actual graphical measurements made, constructing a tangent to the inflection point of the frontal curve is an obvious error source. For a chart speed of 0.5 mm s⁻¹, a front width of, say, 30 s would well have been subject to an incorrect measurement of $\frac{1}{x}$ 2 s. Combining this with a 1 s error in the equivalent 80 s corrected retention time measurement gives a total possible error of approximately $\frac{1}{r}$ 16% in the calculated value of N.T.P. Although an extreme case has been considered the recorded values can be taken only as an estimate of the magnitude of H.E.T.P.

8.2 The Study of Feedrate

8.2.1 Experimental Results

Summaries of the experimental operating conditions and results together with the standardised concentration profiles for the fourteen runs performed are given as Figs 8.7 to 8.10 inclusive. A complete record of the concentration profile analysis, including both the calculated on-colwm and standardised concentration values, is to be found in Appendix 4.

Each run is denoted by a combination of three significant variables; the nominal solute mixture feedrate, the nominal ratio of the mean column gas flowrate to apparent liquid phase flowrate $(\overline{m \cdot c \cdot}/t)$, and the nominal sequencing rate, I_g.

Throughout these runs the calculated value of $\frac{G_{\text{m}}}{T}$. was maintained within 275 $-$ 5. This range of values lay approximately midway between the limits defined by the respective partition coefficients of 'Arklone! P ("A! P) and 'Genklene! P ('G! P) at infinite dilution. In keeping with the $\frac{G_{\text{m.c.}}}{H}$ ratio, as the length of the sequencing interval was increased from $\frac{1}{200}$ to 600 s in 100 s steps. G was proportionately reduced. For each value of $G_{m_{\bullet}C_{\bullet}}$ and I' the feedrate of the equivolume mixture was increased, at 100 cm^3 h_r^{-1} intervals, to a value at which Product 2 purity was lost. It should be emphasised that 'purities' are quoted strictly as a chromatographically measured ratio of the two components, 'Arklone!' P and "Genklene' P,

The mean column purge gas rate, $S_{m,c}$, was set such that $\frac{S_{m,c}}{I}$. was substantially in excess of the partition coefficient at infinite dilution of 'Genklene' P. For several runs, on analysis, the selected value was

Mote: Presented at end of subsection,p 203.

found to be inadequate resulting in a reduction in the purity of Product 1.

The summary of results given for each figure includes values of the respective partition coefficients, K^{∞} + ΔK , at the maximum recorded on-column solute concentrations. These were read from Figs 6.6b and 6.6c. From the average outlet gas flowrates and inlet and outlet pressures for G , G From the average outlet gas llowrates and linet and outlet pressures
both the separating and purge sections, $\frac{G_{\text{min}}}{T}$ and $\frac{S_{\text{min}}}{T}$ have been calculated.

The individual column values of H.E.T.P. for four runs at constant $G_{m.c.}$ and L'settings are presented for comparison in Table 8.2. Only the average values have been included in the results summaries.

With respect to the standardised concentration profiles, two points should be noted:

(4) All gas samples were taken from a fixed point which was 15 om from the outlet of assigned column number 2.

(ii) Standardised concentrations which were less than 0.5×10^{-6} g cm⁻³ have not been plotted. the outlet i is i star i star i star i star i seen $8.2.2$ D

8.2.2 Discussion

For the duration of a sequencing interval the main separating section was equivalent in operation to a conventional frontal elution chromatographic system. Hence, plotting the standardised concentration profiles for at least two sampling times within that interval allowed the progress of the respective components through the columns to be followed.

Under the influence of the flowing carrier gas both components moved towards the Product 1 exit. In keeping with the partition coefficients the rate of advancement of 'Arklone' P was greater than for 'Genklene' P,

Table 8.2.

Comparison of H.E.T.P.'s graphically determined from Product 1 output traces at four feedrates.

the latter being preferentially retained on the solvent phase. This fact also explains why an equivolume mixture of two chemicals of similar density should give gas phase concentrations of substantially different levels.

As the first sampling time after sequencing was never less than 100-seconds it was only for the longer sequencing intervals, nominally 500-seconds and 600-seconds, with their correspondingly lower values of $G_{m,n}$, that the leading edge of the 'Arklone' P profile was observed in the freshly purged column (Figs 8.9 and 8.10). For the other sequencing intervals, 300-seoonds and 400-seconds, the front had already broken through this colum, to be recorded by the katharometer as Product 1, before the first sample was withdrawn.

Considering the purge section, an indication of the concentration level of the respective components within this column on isolation was given by the levels in the preceding colum for the sampling time closest to the end of a sequencing interval. The success of the purging could be gauged from the concentration of solute(s) remaining within the isolated colum at the same time.

A successful separation was defined as one giving high 'purity' (measured component ratio greater than 997:3) for both products, 'Arklone! P as Product 1 and 'Genklene' P as Product 2. In terms of the concentration profiles this demanded that 'Genklene' P should not at any time markedly appear in equivalent column 3 (0 - 61 cm from carrier gas outlet) while 'Arklone' P should not remain in equivalent column 1 (610 - 671 cm) when sequencing occurred.

Throughout these experimental runs the recorded profile for 'Genklene' P

did not extend beyond equivalent column 7 (244 - 305 cm from carrier gas outlet). While the purity of Product 1 was sometimes marred, particularly at the higher solute feedrates, by the incomplete purging of the isolated column, the level of 'Genklene' P was always less than 1%. Therefore, the assumption of a single component front of 'Arklone' P breaking through equivalent column 3 for the H.E.T.P. determination was fully acceptable.

An example of a series of individual colum measurements of H.E.T.P. was given in Table 8.2. It can be seen that the relative column to colum variation observed for a single 1.0 cm^3 injection (Table 5.3) was considerably reduced when operating the mit in the separating mode. As expected the level of solute concentration plus interaction with other colums was exerting a smoothing influence on the measured values.

Considering the average H.E.T.P. values for all twelve colums in the unit reported in the result summaries (Pigs 8.7 to 8.10) two clear trends were indicated:

(4) a gradual increase in the average value of plate height as the solute concentration in the solvent increases with increased throughput. This observation is consistent with the reported effects of concentration on the spreading of the solute band.

(ii) a diminishing of the plate height as the carrier gas flowrate was decreased to maintain the $\frac{G_{m_{\bullet}C_{\bullet}}}{T'}$ ratio constant at the longer sequencing intervals.

A conflict therefore arises when considering this measure of mass transfer efficiency. The lower gas flowrates, while given a velocity closer to the optimum value for minimum H.E.T.P. (see Fig 2.2), result in a higher

solute concentration for a given throughput. As successively higher throughputs were successfully separated at increasing gas flowrates, the effect of concentration on the form of the concentration profiles appeared to be the most important factor for the system under study.

The five standardised concentration profiles from the separation runs carried out at a sequencing interval of 400-seconds clearly show this concentration effect (Figs 8.8a - 8.8e). Feeding solute at a rate of 200 and 300 cm^3 hy the comparatively easy separation was largely achieved within a distance of two columns. The remaining length of the separating section served to marginally improve the purity of both products. For 300 cm^2 hr^{-1} , the purge gas rate being set sufficiently high, product purities were in excess of 99.9%. The maximum concentration of 'Genklene' P occurred close to the feed point.

As the feedrate increased, the profiles for both solutes tended toward the isolated colum. This observation is consistent with the type II (anti-Langmir) absorption isotherms; i.e. the preference of the solutes for the solvent phase increases with increasing concentration.

At 500 cm^3 hr^1 , the 'Arklone' P profile extended into the fourth column following the feed point (549 - 610 cm from the carrier gas outlet). The maximum 'Genklene' P concentration also occurred in that colum. While the purity of Product 1 was still measured in excess of 99.9% 'Arklone! P, Product 2 was now, at best, 99.9% ''Genklene' P.

Increasing the feedrate by a further 100 cm^3 h_T^{-1} resulted in a severe reduction in the purity of the purged product, the 'Arklone' P profile covering the entire length of the separating section. The maximum feedrate in accordance with a successful separation has been exceeded for the operating conditions employed.

It is perhaps more correct to state that the maximum concentration of 'Arklone' P for a successful separation has been exceeded. Comparison with the series of runs performed at a sequencing interval of 300-seconds shows that the reduction of 'Arklone' P concentration gained by the use of an increased carrier gas flowrate enabled resolution of 700 cm^3 hr^1 of the solute mixture feed (Figs 8.7a to 8.7d). However, at the slower sequencing rates of 500 and 600-seconds the maximum throughput for a successful separation was reduced below 500 and 400 cm^3 hr^1 respectively (Figs 8.9a to 8.9c and 8.10a, 8.10b). Insufficient mains air supply pressure was available to determine the maximum throughput at a shorter sequencing interval than 300-seconds.

Inspection of all the colum to colum profiles suggests that a limiting standardised 'Arklone' P gas phase concentration of the order of 0.3 x 10⁻³ g cm⁻³ existed, beyond which successful separation of the feed mixture was unlikely to be achieved with this particular setting for $\frac{m_{\bullet}c_{\bullet}}{l}$ Appendix 5 shows that the calculated partial pressure of 'Arklone' P at the highest recorded standardised concentration (from Run 500 - 275 - 500) was considerably lower than the saturated vapour pressure at ambient temperature. Hence, it can be stated, that saturation of the gas phase by this solute did not occur during any experimental run.

Contamination of Product 2 occurred when the 'Arklone' P concentration profile stretched the entire length of the separating section. The summary of results given for each figure shows that the simplified inequality K_{AP} (= K_{AP}^{∞} + ΔK_{AP}) < $\frac{G_{min}}{T}$, 8.7

which should ensure preferential movement of 'Arklone' P in the direction of carrier gas flow towards the Product 1 outlet, was satisfied even for unsuccessful runs. Similarly, for the purge section, the criteria

$$
\frac{S_{\min}}{L'} < K_{GP} \tag{8.8}
$$

was met when incomplete regeneration of the isolated colum gave contamination of Product 1.

Thus, despite deliberately erring on the conservative side by recording K_{AP} and K_{GP} at the maximum on-column concentration, these two inequalities do not, by themselves, dictate whether successful separation of the solutes will be achieved.

The partition coefficient is specifically related to the migration rate of the mean solute molecule. As solute concentration is increased the spread of the solute band around the mean increases giving a wide variation in the velocity of individual molecules in the direction of gas flow. This variation results from the combined effects of the form of the absorption isotherm, the 'sorption effect' and 'enthalpic overloading'. Resolution of the two solute species becomes more difficult, the length of column required to effect the separation consequently increasing. At the limit all available separation length is being used. Increasing the solute concentration levels beyond this value will, for the operating flowrates used in this series of rus, result in contamination of Product 2 even though equation 8.7 is satisfied. Similarly for the isolated section of fixed length, 'tailing' will result in the need for considerably higher purge gas rates than predicted by equation 8.8.

Fig 8.7. The Study of Feedrate - Sequencing Rate = 300 s

Summary of Experimental Settings

Summary of Results

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 275 - 300 Figure 8. Ja

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 500 - 275 - 300

Figure 8.7b

 $\begin{array}{cc} \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } 0 \end{smallmatrix} \right) \\ \text{rotational conditions} \end{array}$

Stendardised Concentration Profile for Run 600 - 275 - 300 Figure 8.7c

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 700 - 275 - 300 Figure 8.7d

The Study of Feedrate - Sequencing Rate = 400 s $$

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 200 - 275 - 400 Figure 8.8a

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 275 - 400 Figure 8,8b

Figure 8.8c Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 400 - 275 - 400

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 500 - 275 - 400 Figure 8.8d.

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 600 - 275 - 400 Figure 8.8e

Fig 8.9. The Study of Feedrate - Sequencing Rate = 500 s

Summary of Experimental Settings

Summary of Results

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 275 - 500 Figure 8.9a

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 400 - 275 - 500

Figure 8.9b

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 500 - 275 - 500 Figure 8.90

Fig 8.10. The Study of Feedrate - Sequenoing Rate = 600 s

Summary of Experimental Settings

Summary of Results

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run $300 - 275 - 600$ Figure 8.10a

Sample

급 \mathbf{H}

Time

 \circ S

> $-1 \mathbf \Phi$

100 550

 $^{\prime}$ W $^{\prime}$

 μ

63

Sequence

After

 \overline{n}

Action

 \sharp \leftrightarrow \circ

Note: Only 2 curves plotted for
clarity.

550 100

 \mathbf{p}_4

 $\frac{1}{2}$

 $\overline{6}$

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 400 - 275 - 600 Figure 8.10b

> ζ and ζ $\xi = O(T)$ Standardised Concentration

8:3 The study of the 'Apparent Gas to Liquid Rate' Ratio

8.3.1 Results

The presentation of the experimental results within this subsection follows the format of the feedrate studies.

A further nine runs were performed which combined with the previously presented results to give the following series:

(i) $\frac{G_{\text{m.c.}}}{L'}$ held constant while both $G_{\text{m.c.}}$ and L are proportionately varied. Runs 500 - 275 - 300, 500 - 275 - 400 and 500 - 275 - 500 provide an example of such a series, the value of $\frac{G_{m_{\bullet}c_{\bullet}}}{T}$ being held within 275 $\frac{+}{\cdot}$ 2 as the sequencing rate was increased from 300 to 500-seconds. These results are represented as Fig 8.11 for discussion.

(ii) $\frac{G_{\text{m.c.}}}{T}$ varied by changing both $G_{\text{m.c.}}$ and L' . A guideline for the settings was given by the ratio of $G_{m.C.}$ to the length of the sequencing interval, this being $0.73 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ s}^{-2}$ for all five runs in the series. The feedrate of the binary equivolume solute mixture was $300 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ hr}^1$. Fig 8.12 records the results.

(iii) Finally $G_{m, c}$, was held constant within 293 $\frac{+}{3}$ om³ s⁻¹ while the sequencing interval was increased from 300 to 550-seconds in 50-second steps. A feedrate of 300 cm^3 hr^{-1} was again used throughout the series (Fig 8.13).

The full details of the concentration profile analyses for the additional nine runs are included in Appendix 4.
8.3.2 Discussion

Comparing the three experimental runs conducted at a constant solute feedrate of 500 cm^3 hr^1 and constant $\frac{\text{m.c.}}{\text{r}}$ ratio re-emphasises the importance of concentration to the successful separation of this chemical system (Fig 8.11). As the sequencing interval was extended from 300 to 500-seconds,with a corresponding reduction in the mean column carrier gas flowrate of 394 om³ s⁻¹ to 232 cm³ s⁻¹, the column concentration of 'Arklone' P and 'Genklene' P more than doubled. In keeping with the absortion isotherm the two components increased their preference for the solvent phase, both component profiles exhibiting an increasing tendency toward the isolated section.For Run 500 - 275 - 500 insufficient column length between the feed point and isolated section was available to effect the separation and Product 2 purity was lost.

Changing the $G_{m, c, j}$ ratio by varying both the carrier gas flowrate and the sequencing permitted observation of the concentration profiles from one extreme, loss of purity of Product 2, to the other, Product 1 impure (Fig 8.12).

G. 8.12).
For run 300 - 155 - 300 the value of $\frac{G_{\text{m.o.s.}}}{T}$ was greater than K_{Ap} but $\frac{G_{\text{min}}}{T}$ was less than K_{AP} at the column concentration. In keeping with the understanding of the separation process, the expected loss of Product 2 purity resulted with the 'Arklone' P profile covering all of the available separating length. Increasing $\frac{G_{\text{m.c.}}}{T}$ to 215 (run 300 - 215 - 300) still gave a Product 2 purity of only 98%. In this case K_{AP} was less than $\frac{G_{min}}{L}$, the respective numeral values being 157 and 167. Inclusion of factors in addition to the pressure gradient and concentration dependent partition

coefficient in the inequality defining the lower limit for successful separation again appears justified.

With a further increase in the value of $\frac{G_{\text{m.o.}}}{T}$ the two components exhibited a greater preference to move in the direction of the flowing carrier gas stream towards the Product 1 exit port. This resulted in a general reduction in the 'hold-up' of 'Arklone' P,while that for 'Genklene! P increased. The length of separating section achieving the bulk of the separation decreased to a minimum of approximately 150 cm for run 300 - 275 - 400 before begining to increase once again.

Finally for run 300 - 425 - 500 the 'Genklene' P profile had developed a long leading edge which contaminated the 'Arklone' P exiting as Product 1. K_{GP} was substantially less than $\frac{G_{max}}{I}$ which must contravene the operating conditions for the upper separation limit (equation 6.15). The result, therefore, follows the expected pattern.

The third series of runs was performed to give further insight into the operating limits of the $\frac{G}{L}$ ratio for a successful separation. $G_{m_{\bullet}C_{\bullet}}$ was held constant within 293 $\frac{1}{2}$ 5 cm³ s⁻¹ to eliminate an additional variable, only the sequencing interval being changed (Fig 8.13).

For separation of the two solutes to occur then, within a sequencing interval, the distance travelled by all 'Arklone' P molecules in the direction of carrier gas flow must be greater than one equivalent column length,while that travelled by 'Genklene' P molecules must be less than this distance of 61 cm. Similarly, for the isolated section, the sequencing interval must be such as to permit all solute molecules to be at least carried a single colum length by the flowing purge gas. These

restrictions follow directly from the discontinuous mode of operation.

As the sequencing interval was increased from 300 to 550-seconds the carrier gas flowrate and binary mixture feedrate were such that the series of runs passed through the lower and upper limiting conditions. For run 300 - 205 - 300 the tail of the 'Arklone' P profile contaminated Product 2. Increasing the length of the sequencing interval to 350 s recovered Product 2 purity. The value of the partition coefficient of 'Arklone' P at the maximum recorded column concentration was 162 which, in accordance with equation 6.15, is less than the $\frac{G_{\min}}{L}$ value of 189.

Progressively increasing the sequencing interval increased the 'hold-up! of 'Genklene' P while that for 'Arklone' P was reduced. In particular the maximum 'Genklene' P concentration moved closer to the feed, representing a balance point between the actual on-column gas to liquid rate and 'apparent' partition coefficient.

At a sequencing interval of 500-seconds (run 300 = 340 - 500) the distance travelled by the fastest moving 'Genklene' P molecules per interval was very close to one column length. A long leading edge was developing for the 'Genklene' P profile to give contamination of Product 1. The maximum values of K_{GP} and $\frac{G_{max}}{I'}$ were almost equal, being 520 and 519 respectively.

The final run, run $300 - 370 - 550$, resulted in the full development of the leading edge to the 'Genklene' P profile. In this case K_{OP} at the maximum recorded on-column concentration level is greater than $\frac{G_{\text{max}}}{T}$ which should ensure successful separation if only the pressure gradient and non-linear absorption isotherm factors were considered. However, the

general concentration level of 'Genklene' P in the leading edge was considerably lower than the maximum value for the profile. Hence the resultant velocity of 'Genklene' P molecules towards the Product 1 outlet in this low concentration region is greater than for the bulk, the partition coefficient being less. Once formed, a leading edge to the 'Genklene' P profile will tend to be extended, requiring an increasing length of column to effect the separation.

The inclusion of a negative length and sequencing action term in the full inequality defining the upper separation limit appears to be justified by these results (see equation 6.13).

Inspection of all results obtained for experimental runs performed at a binary mixture feedrate of $300 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ hr}^1$ shows that the minimum point value for the gas to apparent liquid rate ratio which gave pure Product 2 was in the region of 170. The maximum point value for pure Product 1 was 520. These values must be considered approximate as the temperature dependence of the partition coefficient is an important variable. Future experimental work should be carried out in a controlled temperature environment. Measurement of the on-column temperature profiles should also be made to gain insight into the magnitude of the enthalpic overloading effect.

, vary $\frac{G}{m_{\bullet}c_{\bullet}}$ and \underline{L}' Fig 8.11. The Study of the $\frac{G}{L}$ ratio - Constant \overline{L} ...

Summary of Experimental Settings

 e^{cos^2} $\xi = 0t$ atamdardised Concentration 227

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 500 - 275 - 300 Figure 8.11a

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 500 - 275 - 400 Figure 8.11b

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 500 - 275 - 500

Figure 8.11c

Summary of Experimental Settings

Summary of Results

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 155 - 300

Figure 8.12a

Distance of Sample Point from Carrier Cas Outlet (cm)

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 215 - 350 Figure 8.12b

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 275 - 400 Figure 8.12c

Distance of Sample Point from Carrier Gas Outlet (cm)

234

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 345 - 450 Figure 8.12d

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 425 - 500

Figure 8.12e

Fig 8.13. Study of the ${}^G/L'$ ratio - constant G m.c. vary L'

 70211 $\overline{\Gamma}$

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 205 - 300

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 240 - 350 Figure 8.13b

noitarineono0 beaibrahasta

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 275 - 400 Figure 8.13c

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 310 - 450 Figure 8.13d

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 340 - 500 Figure 8.13e

Standardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 370 - 550 Figure 8.13f

8.4 Concluding Discussion of the Separation Studies

Equations 6.15 and 6.16 have served as an adequate guide to the interpretation of the experimental results. Four factors have been identified as restricting the separation power of the sequential unit, namely;

(i) the increase in the respective solute partition coefficients with finite concentrations.

(ii) the additional variation of the solute molecule velocity through the separating section with both solute concentration and the inevitable pressure gradient.

(iii) the finite length of the separation section $or,$ to be exact, the finite number of theoretical plates.

(iv) the semi-continuous nature of operation. Factors (i) and (ii) appeared to be the most significant for the comparatively easy separation of the binary equivolume mixture 'Arklone' P/'Genklene' P. The maximum throughput achieved which gave two products of purity in excess of 99.7% was 700 cm² hr^{\perp} .

Considering other chemical systems having similar absorption chacteristics, as the separation difficulty is increased (i.e. separation factor approaches unity), the potential throughput of the unit in its present form will be substantially reduced. From the observed performance four possible changes can be suggested to improve potential capacity.

A larger sized solid support would reduce the pressure drop, for a given flowrate, across the separating section and hence reduce the

variation in the point values of the gas to apparent liquid rate ratio. The associated increase in H.E.T.P. with increased particle size could be counteracted by an improved packing technique or the use of flow homogenisers.

As the effect of pressure on partition coefficients is generally negligible below about 1000 $km⁻²$ the level of column operating pressure could be set at a higher value. The cross-colwm varietion in volumetric gas flowrate would be relatively reduced while the solute capacity of the gas phase would be increased. Care must be taken in selecting the pressure conditions for the present unit to ensure that the restrictions imposed by the solenoid valves are strictly upheld.

As the temperature approaches the boiling point of a component the deviation of the absorption isotherm from linearity is reduced. Increasing the temperature reduces the partition coefficient. lower values for the gas to apparent liquid rate ratio would be required, in particular lower gas flowrates, in view of the increased mobility of solute molecules. The advantage is that the cross-colum pressure drop can be reduced without having to accept an increase in gas phase solute concentration. This must be balanced against a reduction in the value of the separation factor with increasing temperature.

The conclusion drawn by Conder (132) that the optimum temperature in production-scale gas/liquid chromatographic separations is close to the solute boiling points does not agree with the experimental results of Graven (131) . He found that a temperature some 40° C below the boiling

points of a - and β - pinene gave maximum throughput on a 10 cm-diameter column.

Experimental study to determine the effect of temperature on separations performed on the sequential unit is required. A maximum ambient temperature of 55° , dictated by the solenoid valves, is possible. Placing the mit in an oven would overcome a limitation of the experimental results reported here in that ambient temperature could be closely controlled. The on-colum temperature profiles should also be recorded to gain insight into the magnitude of the 'enthalpic overloading' effect.

Finally the contamination of Product 1 as a result of incomplete regeneration of the isolated section could be counteracted by isolating two successive colums. The time interval for purging would therefore be twice the sequencing interval. Complete elution of the tail of the more strongly absorbed component could be ensured at lower purge gas flowrates, although this advantage is gained at the expense of the column length in the separating section.

The final choice of operating conditions would, in the industrial situation, be largely determined by economics. The provision of heating facilities and high pressures are obvious contributors to the capital and running costs of the equipment. Also, minimising the column concentration by the use of high carrier and purge gas flowrates must be balanced against the capital and ruming costs of the product recovery and gas recycle systems.

CHAPTER 9

Computer Simulation of the Sequential Unit

21 Introduction

Theoretical models of mass transfer processes are usually based on either the 'transfer unit' or 'equilibrium stage' concepts. Both concepts have been used to analyse counter-current chromatography.

Barker and Lloyd (11, 21) considered the counter-current chromatographic process to be equivalent to a conventional packed absorption tower with a central solute mixture feed point. For the case of straight 'operating! and 'equilibrium! lines they gave the following equation for the number of overall gas phase transfer mits over a section of the column lying between the feed point and Product 1 offtake.

$$
(N_{OG})_R = \frac{1}{G(KL-1)} \ln \left[\frac{E_1/KL - c_g(G/KL-1)}{E_1/KL - c_b(G/KL-1)} \right] \qquad 9.1
$$

Analysis of a section lying between the feed point and Product 2 offtake gave:

$$
(N_{OG})_S = \frac{1}{(1-G/KL)} \ln \left[\frac{E_2/KL - e_a(1-G/KL)}{E_2/KL - e_b(1-G/KL)} \right]
$$
 9.2

where:

- $(N_{\text{o}c})_{\text{R}}$, $(N_{\text{o}c})_{\text{S}}$ = the number of overall gas phase transfer units in the 'rectifying! and 'stripping' sections respectively E_1 , E_2 = the mass flowrate of solute leaving in the Product 1 and Product 2 streams respectively
	- $c_{\rm g}$, $c_{\rm b}$ = the gas phase solute concentration at points a and b within the column, c_p being greater than

(Note: G and L, the gas and liquid volumetric flowrates and K, the partition coefficient, were defined here on a solute free basis).

 c_{a} .

Experimental studies on a 2.5 om-diameter vertical moving-bed colum with benzene, cyclohexane and methylcyclohexane as solutes and solvent phase polyoxyethylene 400 diricinoleate showed that the resistance to mass transfer essentially lay in the gas phase. A first order relationship was found between the logarithm of H_{0G} and the solvent phase flowrate, H_{Ω} values for the systems and operating conditions studied were of the order of 10 om (10, 11, 21).

Following the work of Fitch et al (148), Barker and Huntington (15, 16, 21) adapted the theory of stagewise liquid/liquid extraction given by Alders (186) to obtain a relationship between the difficulty of separation, the number of equilibrium stages and product purity. For a solute mixture feed point at the centre of the separating section the derived expression was

$$
\begin{array}{rcl}\n\log \frac{(\mathbf{G}/\mathbf{L})_{\mathrm{R}}}{(\mathbf{G}/\mathbf{L})_{\mathrm{S}}} & = & \log \mathrm{S} \mathbf{F} + \frac{2}{\mathrm{N}} \cos \left[\log \left(1 - \frac{(\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{i}})}{\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{i}}} \right) \right] \\
& & + & \log \frac{(\mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{i}})}{\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{i}}} \right] \n\end{array} \tag{9.5}
$$

where: $(G/L)_R$, $(G/L)_S$ = the ratio of gas to liquid phase flowrates in the 'rectifying' and 'stripping' sections respectively

$$
SF = the separation factor \frac{K_{ii}}{K_i}
$$

 N_{eq} = the total number of counter-current theoretical plates (stages) in the column (E_i) ₁, (E_{ii}) ₁ = the mass production rate of components i and ii as Product 1

$$
f_i
$$
, f_{ii} = the mass feedback of components i and ii to the column.

Barker and Huntington calculated H.E.T.P. values of approximately 5 cm when separating benzene and cyclohexane on the circular, moving-column unit described in Section 2.4.2.2.

It should be re-emphasised that a theoretical plate height determined from a counter-current stage model is not equivalent to the co-current plate height usually associated with elution chromatography. Rony (187 - 9) gives the relationship between these two plate definitions as

$$
N_{\text{oc}} = \frac{N}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{(1 + K_{\text{i}})}{(u_{\text{m}}t / \sigma_{\text{i}})}
$$
 9.4

The derivation of equation 9.3 was based on the assumption that infinite dilution conditions prevailed within the column. To enable introduction of a non-linear absorption isotherm into the theoretical treatment of counter-current chromatography, Tiley (190) developed a computer program which performed a stage-to-stage calculation for a

vertical moving-bed colum. The column operating conditions, number of equilibrium stages, the position of the feed point and ternary Margules constants were-input as data. The calculation was repeated with successive guesses for the liquid phase composition at the feed stage until mismatch between the assumed and calculated values for this composition were eliminated.

Using approximate equilibrium data for such systems as benzene/ cyclohexane and dimethoxymethane/dichloromethane on the solvent phase dinonyl phthalate Tiley was able to study the effect of stage number, flow conditions and temperature on the column concentration profiles. Two significant conclusions were drawn:

(i) There exists a limiting feed mixture throughput for a given solvent rate, product purity and number of stages which is dependent on the phase equilibrium characteristics. The experimental results from the sequential unit appear to substantiate this conclusion.

(ii) There is an optimum operating temperature just below the mean boiling points of the feed mixture.

Tiley also suggested that the existence of temperature or pressure gradients within the column could easily be introduced into the computer program.

In a subsequent paper, Pritchard et al (191) improved the predictive accuracy of the program by incorporating the Wilson equation for computing activity coefficients in the ternary liquid phase (two solutes plus solvent).

Sunal (58) developed a computer model of the moving-bed process based on the 'two film theory' of mass transfer. While the partition coefficient, pressure and temperature were assumed constant, the program included consideration of diffusion in the controlling gas phase. A comparison of experimental and predicted concentration profiles for the single solute system cyclohexane/polyoxyethylene 400 diricinoleate led to the conclusion that the effect of axial mixing on separation efficiency was negligible.

The four theoretical treatments of counter-current chromatography described above together with the statistically based model given by Sciance and Crosser (192) all inherently assumed a true steady state process. In the strict sense this assumption is only satisfied by the original continuous moving-bed system. For the sequential unit time must be introduced as an additional variable.

The experimental results emphasised that a realistic model of the sequential mit must also include the deleterious effects of solute concentration and e pressure gradient. Following Tiley, a digital computer program has been developed which, by means of a plate-to-plate computation, simulates operation of the unit in time. A similar approach has been used by Sunal (58) to describe the operation of the compact circular counter-current chromatograph reported in Section 2.4.2.2.

2.2 The Computer Model

9.2.1 Basis

For the duration of a sequencing interval the sequential unit operates as two separate batch columns with:

(4) a continuous feed entering at some point within the main separating section.

(ii) no solute feed being introduced into the initially solute rich purging section.

The essence of the programming approach was to impose the sequencing action onto a simple chromatographic plate model of these two sections.

9.2.2 Mass Balance Over a General 'Theoretical Plate'

4 theoretical plate is defined as that volume element in which an equilibration of solute between the gas and liquid phase occurs. This is an empirical quantity and the theory does not deal with the mechanisms which determine its equivalent height. The limitations introduced by the use of a discontinuous plate model for the description of a continuous packed column are well appreciated.

For programming simplicity each of the twelve packed colums forming the unit is considered to consist of an equivalent number of theoretical plates, N. Let $v_{n(g)}$ and $v_{n(L)}$ be the volumes of the respective phases in a general plate, n, while c_n and q_n are the average gas and liquid phase concentrations of a single solute occurring in that plate over a small time increment (t - Δt) to t. Let G denote the gas phase volumetric flowrate in the main separating section. The unit is assumed to operate isothermally.

It is convenient at this stage in the development of the model to also assume that:

(i) the solute volume in the gas phase is negligible in comparison to the carrier gas volume; i.e. G is independent of solute concentration

(ii) no pressure change occurs on a plate; i.e. the values of G and $v_{n(G)}$, being in volumetric units, do not change across the column

(iii) the value of the partition coefficient is independent of solute concentration.

A mass balance over plate n for a small differential time element, $d(\Delta t)$, within the small time increment $(t - \Delta t)$ to t yields

$$
\Psi_{\mathbf{r}} \cdot \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{n}} = \mathbf{1} - \mathbf{G} \cdot \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{n}} = \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{G}) \cdot \frac{\mathbf{d} \mathbf{c}_{\mathbf{n}}}{\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{\Delta} \mathbf{t})} + \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{n}}(\mathbf{L}) \cdot \frac{\mathbf{d} \mathbf{q}_{\mathbf{n}}}{\mathbf{d}(\mathbf{\Delta} \mathbf{t})}
$$

Substituting $K \cdot c_n = q_n$ and collecting c_n terms on the right hand side gives

$$
G \cdot c_{n-1} = G \cdot c_n + (v_{n(G)} + K \cdot v_{n(L)}) \cdot \frac{d c_n}{d(\Delta t)}
$$
 9.6

The term $(v_{n(G)} + K.v_{n(L)})$ is known as the 'effective plate volume', v_{n} (29).

Now, providing Δt is sufficiently small to allow c_{n-1} to be considered constant, integration of equation 9.6 yields

$$
c_n = c_{n-1} (1 - e^{-\frac{G_{\bullet} \Delta t}{v_n}})
$$

\n
$$
- \frac{G_{\bullet} \Delta t}{v_n}
$$

\n
$$
+ c_n (t - \Delta t) \cdot e^{-\frac{G_{\bullet} \Delta t}{v_n}}
$$

\nwhere c_{n-1} = the average input gas phase concentration to plate
\nn from the preceding plate in the small time
\nincrement $(t - \Delta t)$ to t

$$
c_{n(t - \Delta t)} =
$$
 the initial condition
= the average gas phase concentration in plate n in
the preceding time increment ($t - 2 \Delta t$) to
($t - \Delta t$).

An equivalent equation to 9.7 is obtained for the purge section with G replaced by S, the purge gas volumetric flowrate.

Equation 9.7 is applicable to all plates in the unit for all time with the following exceptions:

- (i) For the plate which is receiving the solute the feed concentration, c_p , is added to c_{n-1} to give the total input gas phase concentration to that plate.

(ii) For the first plate in either the purge or separating sections there is no input from the previous plate and, therefore, the equation simplifies to only one term as the right hand side.

A more general expression may be given asi

 \equiv

$$
c_n = c_{input} \cdot (1 - e^{-\frac{V_n}{V_n}}) + c_n(t - \Delta t) e^{-\frac{G_{\bullet} \Delta t}{V_n}}
$$

- where: c_{in} = the total <u>average</u> input gas phase concentration to plate n in the small time increment $(t - \Delta t)$ to t
	- 0 for the first plates in either the purge or separating sections

$$
= \quad c_{n-1} + c_F \text{ for the feed plate}
$$

=
$$
c_{n-1} \text{ for all other plates.}
$$

Commencing from time zero, a plate to plate calculation for a single solute over a small time increment can be performed by substituting successive values of c_{input} into the appropriate form of equation 9.8 . In the first time increment $c_n(t - \Delta t)$ is, of course, zero. The resultant concentration profile can then be updated by repeating the entire calculation for successive time increments, c_n in the first time increment becoming $c_n(t - \Delta t)$ in the second and so on.

9.2.3 Imposing the Sequencing Action onto the Plate to Plate Calculation The close loop nature of the symmetrical unit permits three possible

approaches when imposing the sequencing action onto the basic plate to plate calculation.

(i) The twelve linked columns can be considered stationary and the port functions advanced by N plates at the end of a sequencing interval (Fig 9.1a).

Figure 9.1 Diagramatic Representation of the Imposition of the Sequencing Mechanism onto the Plate to Plate Calculation

10 11 9 12 8 P1 S $P2G$ 9 10 11 5 6 12 8 P₁

Ports Fixed, Columns Stepped Backwards $b)$

a) Columns Fixed, Ports Advanced

c) Ports and Columns Fixed, Concentration Profile Stepped Backwards

(ii) The port functions can be considered stationary and the colums of N plates stepped backwards by redefining the relative position of the plate number at the end of a sequencing interval (Fig 9.1b).

(iii) Both the columns and the port functions can be considered stationary and the concentration profile stepped backwards by N plates at the end of a sequencing interval.

Although (i) describes the operating system in practise, approach (iii) was found easier to program and was, therefore, adopted.

Numbering the theoretical plates from 1 to 12 N then, for all time: (4) Plates 1 to N represents the isolated section. Purge gas enters at plate 1 and exits, as Product 2, from plate N. Hence

 c_{inout} = 0 when $n = 1$ 9.9 (ii) Plates $N + 1$ to 12 N form the main separating section. Carrier gas enters plate N + 1 and exits, as Product 1, from plate 12 N. Hence

 c_{input} = 0 when n = N + 1 9.10 The gas stream leaving the final plate in a column is taken as the input to the first plate in the subsequent column, save for the above noted exceptions. It has, therefore, been assumed that no change in the gas phase solute concentration occurs when the gas stream passes through the transfer line linking two consecutive columns.

For simplicity, it was also assumed that the solute feed was introduced as vapour onto a single plate in the centre of a column, F_{c} , lying between columns 2 and 12. Hence

> c_{input} = c_{n-1} + c_{F} for $n = (F_c - 1) N + N/2 + 1$ 9.11
Sequencing occurs when the entire plate to plate calculation has been performed for a specified number of small increments. Before the calculation proceeds, the relative position of the solute concentration profile is adjusted by putting

$$
c_n = c_{(n - N) \text{ for } N + 1 \le n \le 12. N}
$$
 9.12

and

$$
c_n = c_{(n+11,N)} \text{ for } 1 \leq n \leq N
$$

The latter equality follows from the fact that, for the practical closed loop system, the isolated column becomes the final column in the main separating section.

Substituting the redefined plate concentrations for $c_{n(t - \Delta t)}$ into equation 9.8 during the first time increment after sequencing effectively imposes the port movement onto the plate to plate calculation.

9.2.4 The Introduction of a Second Solute

The above description of the computer model has considered only one solute to be present in the sequential unit. A second solute is included by duplicating the calculation at each plate with different variable names for the respective solute concentrations $(c_{n(i)}, c_{n(ii)})$ and partition coefficients $(K_{j}, K_{j,j})$. The assumption being made is that the solute concentration profiles are independent.

9.2.5 The Introduction of Solute Concentration Effects

Two solute concentration effects have been introduced into equation 9.8:

(i) For each plate a value is calculated for the gas flowrate

 (G, S) which includes the contribution made by the presence of both species of solute molecules in the gas phase. For the main separating section

$$
G_{n} = G^{0} \cdot \left[1 + M_{v} \cdot \left(\frac{c_{n}(i)}{M_{i}} + \frac{c_{n}(ii)}{M_{i1}} \right) \right] \qquad 9.14
$$

- where: G° = the volumetric flowrate of solute free carrier gas M_{1} = the molar volume at the column operating temperature
	- M_i , $M_{i,i}$ = the respective molecular weights for solutes i and ii.

(ii) As a consequence of a non-linear absorption isotherm the relationship between the partition coefficient and gas phase concentration for the solutes 'Arklone' P and 'Genklene' P on the silicone fluid solvent phase was found to be curved (Fig 6.6). A series of tests with a standard 'least squares fit' computer library routine showed the Telationship for each solute to be accurately expressed by a third order polynomial. The polynomial constants at each temperature between 19 and 24° C are given in Table 9.1. Therefore, rather than K being considered a constant it is calculated from

$$
K_{i} = a_{i(i)} + a_{1(i)}c_{n(i)} + a_{2(i)}c_{n(i)}^{2} + a_{3(i)}c_{n(i)}^{3}
$$

9.15

If the above concentration dependent terms were introduced directly into equation 9.8 as a function of c_n then a trial and error computation would be required. To avoid such a time consuming requirement a dumny variable, c_{d} , is defined which is taken to be the closest known value to

Table 9.1 Constants for the Relationship $K = a + a_0 c + a_0 c^2 + a_0 c^3$ Table 9.1 Constants for the Relat Table 9.1 Constants for the Relation

a) For 'Arklone! P

b) For 'Genklene! P

 c_n at a particular point in time. Hence

$$
c_d = c_{input}
$$
 for $n \neq 1$ or $N + 1$ 9.16

$$
c_d = c_{n(t - \Delta t)}
$$
 for $n = 1$ or $N + 1$ 9.17

The latter equality is introduced as c_{input} equals zero for the first plate in either the purge or main separating sections.

Equations 9.14 and 9.15 become

$$
G_{n} = G^{o} \cdot \left[1 + M_{v} \left(\frac{c_{d}(i)}{M_{i}} + \frac{c_{d}(ii)}{M_{ii}} \right) \right]
$$
 9.18
K. = 8.01 + 8.018.01 + 8.016², t + 8.016³,

$$
K_{i}
$$
 = $a_{o(i)} + a_{1(i)}c_{d(i)} + a_{2(i)}c_{d(i)} + a_{3(i)}c_{d(i)}$
9.19

Analogous expressions are used to calculate S_n and K_{jj} .

9.2.6 The Introduction of a Pressure Gradient

The basic equation for the plate to plate calculation, equation 9.8, was simplified by the assumption that no change in pressure occurred across either the purge or separating sections of the unit. In practise a significant pressure gradient existed. Indeed, it was concluded from the experimental results that the consequent variation in volumetric gas flowrate had a detrimental effect on the separation process. A pressure gradient has therefore been introduced into the simulation.

It is assumed that the pressure drop along each section is directly proportional to the distance from the point of gas entry. Hence the average plate pressure, P_n , can be expressed as a function of plate number

(i) For the purge section $(1 \le n \le N)$

$$
P_n
$$
 = P_{in} - $\left(\frac{P_{in} - P_o}{N}\right)$. $(n - 0.5)$ 9.20

(ii) For the main separating section $(N + 1 \le n \le 12. N)$

$$
P_{i} = P_{\text{in}} - \left(\frac{P_{in} - P_{o}}{11 \cdot N}\right) \cdot (n - N - 0.5) \qquad 9.21
$$

where: P_{in} , P_o the respective inlet and outlet pressures to the purge and main separating sections.

The point concentration values used to plot the experimental concentration profiles were adjusted to a standard pressure. As it is proposed to compare the experimental and simulated results it was convenient to compute the concentration profiles on the same basis

Equation 9.8 can be written:

P

$$
c_{n(std)} \cdot \frac{P_n}{f_{std}} = c_{input(std)} \cdot \frac{P_n}{f_{std}} \left[1 - e^{-\frac{G_{n(std)} \cdot \overline{P}_n \cdot \Delta t}{V_{n(std)}}} \right]
$$

+
$$
c_{n(t - \Delta t)(std)} \cdot \frac{P_n}{f_{std}} \cdot e^{-\frac{G_{n(std)} \cdot \overline{P}_n \cdot \Delta t}{V_{n(std)}}}
$$

9.22

where:
$$
v_{n(std)}
$$
 = $v_{n(G)(std)} \cdot \frac{P_{std}}{P_n} + K \cdot v_{n(L)}$

$$
K = a \text{ third order polynomial in } c_{d(\text{std})} \cdot \frac{P_n}{P_{\text{std}}}
$$

the value of the respective terms at a standard subscript std \equiv pressure.

For the purge section $G_{n(\text{std})}$ is replaced by $S_{n(\text{std})}$. Thus the concentration profiles for solutes i and ii generated by successive plate

 \overline{P}

to plate calculations based on equation 9.22 includes a correction for the pressure gradients within the sequential mit yet is recorded at a standard pressure.

9.2.7 The Program

A detailed flow chart of the computation is given as Fig 9.2. The listing of the program, written in Fortran IV, is given in Appendix 6, Definitions of variable names and explanatory 'comments' relating the program to the above text are included in the flow chart.

9.3 Results

If the number of theoretical plates per coluwm is defined as 40 and the length of a small time increment defined as 1.0 s then, for a binary feed, 24,000 plate calculations must be performed per 300 s sequencing interval. Consequently, running the program on the departmental Honeywell 316 computer required approximately one hour of computing time to simulate the operation of the sequential unit for one sequencing interval. As a 'pseudo-steady state' condition was not reached by the 'Genklene! P concentration profile until at least sixteen sequences had occurred, the total computation time was generally 16-20 hrper run.

Attention has been focussed on a single experimental run, Run 300 - 275 - 300. The experimental operating conditions and concentration profile are represented for comparison as Fig 9.3.

Hight simulation runs have been performed to date. A summary of the input date for each run is given in Table 9.2.

The pure carrier gas flowrate at standard pressure, G_{std}^0 , differs slightly from the experimental value as it has been corrected for the concentration of solute, 0.8×10^{-4} g cm⁻³ of 'Arklone' P, in the stream when measured. As the purge gas stream was solute free when the flowrate was measured no correction to S_{std}^O was required.

The gas phase volume per plate, $v_{n(G)(std)}$, was calculated by dividing the experimentally measured average dead volume per column (fable 5.4) by the assumed number of theoretical plates per column, N. Similarly, $v_{n(L)}$ was obtained by dividing the average measured volume of solvent phase per column (Table 5.2) by N.

The respective standardised solute feed concentrations were calculated from

$$
c_{F(i)(std)}
$$
 = volumetric feedback per second x $\frac{P_i}{G_{std}^{o}}$

A record of the build-up of the respective solute concentration profiles was obtained from a print-out of the current standardised solute concentrations in both the central and final plates of each colum at 100 s intervals.

With Run 1 providing a standard, the effect of independently changing four variables on the computed solute concentration profiles has been studied.

(i) For Runs 1, 2 and 3 the length of a small time increment, Δt , was respectively 1, 2 and 0.5 s.

(ii) For Runs 1, 4 and 5 the number of theoretical plates per column, N, was respectively 40, 30 and 20.

(iii) For Runs $1, 6$ and 7 the column temperature was respectively 23, 22 ana 20°C.

(iv) For Runs 1 and 8 the combined equivolume solute feedrate was respectively 300 and 600 cm^3 hr^1 .

In general only the standardised concentration profiles 100 s after sequencing have been plotted (Figs $9.4a - h$). However, for Run 1 (Fig $9.4a$) additional profiles at 200 and 300 s are plotted to show the progress with time of the two solutes through the unit. The number of sequencing intervals which had been simulated before a 'pseudo-steady! condition was established by each solute profile is also recorded.

Standardised Concentration

Stendardised Concentration Profile for Run 300 - 275 - 300 Figure 9.3

List of Variables Together with their Values for the Eight Computer Simulation Rung

Table 9.2

(Variables changed from Run 1 are underlined)

Table 9.2 Cont'd.

Computer Simulation of Run $500 - 275 - 300$ Figure 9.4a

Computer Simulation of Run 300 - 275 - 300

Figure 9.4c

Computer Simulation of Run 300 - 275 - 300 Figure 9.4d

Figure 9.4e Computer Simulation of Run 300 - 275 - 300

Conputer Simulation of Run 300 - 275 - 300

Standardised Concentration

9.4 Discussion of the Results

9.4.1 The Effect of the Length of a Small Time Increment (Δt)

The mathematical development of the basic equation describing the change in gas phase solute concentration across a general plate was simplified by the assumption that, for a small time increment, the input to that plate could be represented by a constant average value. In practise the input solute concentration changes continually with time and the assumption will only be reasonable if Δt is small. However, the total computation time increases in inverse proportion to Δt . A compromise value was sought.

Comparing the solute concentration profiles 100 s after sequencing has occurred for Runs 1 and 2 (Figs 9.4a and b) shows that when Δt was increased from 1 to 2 s then both the plateau concentration for 'Genklene! P and the amplitude of the variation in the 'Arklone' P concentration were significantly increased. When Δt was reduced from 1 to 0.5 s, as in Run 3 (Fig 9.4c), little change in the level and form of the respective concentration profiles was observed. It can be concluded that $\Delta t = 1$ s represents a good compromise between computation time and accuracy.

9.4.2 The Effect of the Number of Theoretical Plates per Column (N)

As the number of theoretical chromatographic plates per column was reduced from 40 to 20, only a marginal change was noted in the concentration profiles (Figs 9.4a, d , e). This response is consistent with the experimental results, from which it was concluded that the number of plates was not a major factor in the successful separation of the system 'Arklone' P/' Genklene' P on the silicone fluid solvent phase. If the

operating conditions were selected closer to either limit for the ${}^{G}/L'$ ratio or the solute feedrate increased (i.e. the difficulty of separation increased) then the number of plates is expected to play a more important role.

It is interesting to note that the above conclusion is in agreement with that drawn for large scale 'batch' units employing repetitive injection (89, 132, 193).

9.4.3 The Effect of Column Temperature

As the temperature is reduced the value of the solute partition coefficients increase. Consequently the preference of the solutes to move in the direction of carrier gas flow within the sequential wit is decreased giving a greater 'hold-up' of 'Arklone' P, while that for 'Genklene' P falls.

This effect is clearly shown by Figs 9.4a, f and g . A 3° C reduction in the assumed isothermal operating conditions results in the plateau of the standardised 'Genklene' P profile being reduced from 0.116 to 0.84 $g \text{ cm}^{-3}$. For 'Arklone' P the increase in solute concentration with falling temperature was not so marked, reflecting the lower value of the partition coefficient relative to 'Genklene' P, although a definite decrease in the amplitude of the profile fluctuation was recorded.

The sensitivity of the concentration profiles to temperature is an important observation.

9.4.4 The Effect of Solute Feedrate

For Run 9 the solute feed concentrations were increased to give an equivalent combined volumetric feedrate of 600 cm³ hr⁻¹. The effect on the

'Arklone' P profile was to approximately double the computed plate concentration values (Pigs 9.4a and 9.4h). However, for 'Genklene' P, the concentration level of the plateau in the computed profile only increased by a factor of approximately 1.5 as the solute molecules exhibited an increased tendency to remain in the solvent phase and notionally move with that phase towards the isolated column at an increased rate.

This result shows that, as expected from Fig 6.6, the 'K' value for 'Genklene' P is more sensitive to solute concentration than 'Arklone!' P.

9.4.5 The Accuracy of the Simulation

A comparison of the experimental (Fig 9.3) and computed concentration profiles leads to the following two criticisms:

(4) Poor agreement was obtained around the feed zone. In particular the computed profile for 'Genklene! P did not exhibit a distinct 'hump' as recorded experimentally

(ii) The establishment of a 'pseudo-steady' state condition during a simulated run was comparatively rapid.

It can be concluded that the model, despite correction for pressure and concentration effects, represents an idealised picture of the actual process taking place within the sequential unit. A more realistic simulation can be achieved by the removal of the several simplifying assumptions which have been made.

Hach column was considered to contain an equivalent number of theoretical plates, N. The experimental measurements of N, reported in Chapters 5 and 8, show this was not the case in practise. However, the

effect of uniformly changing the plate number per column on the computed concentration profiles was marginal. Therefore, the additional computation time incurred is unlikely to warrant an extension of the program to permit N to vary from column to column. It should also be noted that, for an easy separation, the insensitivity of the concentration profiles to N implies that one object for the model cannot be met; i.e. the determination of the number of theoretical plates per colum by a comparison of experimental and computed results.

An indication of the pressure gradient which existed across the main separating sections during the experimental run, Run $300 - 275 - 300$, is given by plotting the pressure at the time of sampling against the distance of the sample point from the Product 1 outlet (Fig 9.5). While the graph is not a straight line, the error introduced into the model by assuming that P_p decreased in direct proportion to n was quite small. Again, the slight improvement in the simulation which would result from a more accurate definition of the pressure gradient (e.g. as a polynomial in n). together with an allowance for the pressure drop across the transfer lines, would have to be balanced against the corresponding increase in computation time.

A basic assumption to the model was that the colum operates isothermally. The literature suggested that, in practise, both longitudinal and radial temperature fluctuations are to be expected across the unit as a result of the 'enthalpic overloading' effect (Section 6.1.2.4). In addition, the heat required to vaporize the liquid solute feed may lead to cooling around the feed point, particularly at high feedrates.

 $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \\ -x & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{R} \end{pmatrix}$

As the concentration profiles have been shown to be sensitive to temperature, the inclusion of an experimentally measured temperature profile in the model would appear to be a necessary improvement. Each plate temperature could be specified in a similar manner to the pressure gradient. The partition coefficients would then be defined in terms of both concentration and absolute temperature.

For the model, the solute feed was assumed to be introduced onto a single plate in the gas phase. The practical difficulty of maintaining the feed vaporized in the distribution network led to the feed being introduced in reality as a liquid. A wide feed zone could, therefore, result from two sources:

(i) Solute not instantly veporized by the flowing carrier gas stream would tend to spread around the feed point.

(ii) On sequencing, liquid trapped in the internal cross distributor (Fig 3.4) would be relatively transferred to a point one colum length behind the true feed point, where it would slowly vaporize.

The inaccuracy of the simulation around the feed point, which was magnified at an increased solute feedrate, suggests that the program be modified to accommodate a wide feed zone by defining several 'feed' plates. The input gas phase solute concentration to each of these plates, $(c_{F(stat)}$ + $c_{n-1 (std)})$, could then be varied according to experimental observations.

A conclusion which can be drawn from the idealised simulated concentration profiles is that an improvement in the separation efficiency

of the sequential unit will be gained by introducing the solute feed as vapour. Additional heating for the feed distribution network could be provided when the unit is placed in an oven, as previously suggested, to study the effect of operation at a controlled temperature close to the solute boiling points.

A final criticism of the model lies in the assumption that the two solute profiles are totally independent of each other. As both solutes are competing for the same solvent phase then, at high solute concentrations, interaction will occur. Sunal (58) has experimentally measured and correlated activity coefficients for the solutes 'Arklone! P and 'Genklene' P, on the silicone fluid phase, in the presence of each other. Although the accuracy of the correlations was less satisfactory than for the pure solute case, some improvement may be gained by using this data for the prediction of the point values of the partition coefficients within the unit.

Summarising, the limited number of simulation runs performed to date have served to evaluate the effect in isolation of three key variables, the number of theoretical plates per column, column temperature and feedrate, on the separation process. Several improvements to the model have been suggested, most significantly the inclusion of a temperature profile and a wide feed zone. However, the extremely long computation time required for a simulated run must represent a limitation on its practical value.

CHAPTER 10

Conclusions and Recommendations for Future Work

1. The principal of counter-current chromatography has been successfully applied at a colum diameter of 7.6 om. The mechanical reliability of the sequential operating scheme, proven by virtually trouble free research operation over a period of two years, has, however, been gained at the expense of product continuity.

Designing the unit in discrete sections satisfies the desire for flexibility. Column dimensions can be varied without increased complexity, while an increase in separating length can be achieved by the addition of further identical sections.

2. 99.7% 'pure' products were obtained for the system 'Arklone! P/ 'Genklene' P on the phase silicone fluid DC 200/50 at equivolume feedrates of up to 700 cm^3 hr^1 despite a significant measured variation in individual column characteristics. Future work with a system of greater separation difficulty may require an improvement in both column efficiency and equality for comparable performance. The literature suggests that this can be achieved by

(i) the use of an improved packing technique; e.g. the shake, turn and pressure method.

(ii) packing the inlet and exit cones of each column with inert glass spheres

(iii) the use of 'baffling' within each column.

3. The experimental concentration profiles confirm that the separating power of the sequential unit is restricted by

(i) the effect of high solute concentrations on the partition coefficients

(ii) the inevitable pressure gradient

(iii) the finite separating length

(iv) the sequencing action,

as postulated in equations 6.15 and 6.16. It was found that successful resolution of 'Arklone! P and 'Genklene' P was unlikely over the range of operating conditions studied if the standardised concentration of 'Arklone' P exceeded 0.3×10^{-3} g cm⁻³.

Future investigation of methods to improve the capacity of the unit should include:

(4) using a higher carrier gas flowrate, and thus faster sequencing rate, in conjunction with a larger particle size solid support to reduce the pressure gradient

(ii) operating at a temperature closer to the solute boiling points

(iii) isolating two colums for purging to increase the time available for regeneration.

4. To enable the study, in isolation, of the individual factors affecting the performance of the sequential unit a digital computer simulation, based on a simple chromatographic plate model, has been developed. Despite the inclusion of a pressure gradient and concentration dependent partition coefficients in the model, the experimentally recorded concentration profiles are not accurately reproduced. Preliminary studies have, however, shown that for the 'Arklone' P/'Genklene' P/silicone fluid system:

(i) a 'pseudo-steady' state condition is established within two cycles, a fact assumed for the experimental analysis
(ii) the concentration profiles are insensitive to the number of theoretical plates per column as a consequence of the comparative ease of the separation. Hence the simulation could not be used to determine the actual H.E.T.P. values, as was hoped.

(iii) the concentration profiles are very sensitive to temperature emphasising the future need to place the unit in a controlled temperature environment,

(iv) an improvement in performance would be gained by the introduction of the solute feed in the vapour phase.

Several improvements to the existing computer program have been suggested, the most significant being the introduction of an experimentally measured on-colum temperature profile and a wider feed zone. Unfortunately, the move towards a more realistic simulation is likely to be accompanied by an increase in the already very long program execution time.

5. Alternative applications for the basic design and operating principle of the sequential unit should be investigated.

(i) The compartmentalised nature of the design permits its modification to a co-current system capable of resolving periodically injected complex mixtures. As each injection progresses through the unit the column(s) containing the trailing component would be isolated in turn for recovery of that component in a purified state (Fig 10.1). The advantage over a conventional 'batch' colum is that the solvent phase in each column could be varied in type and loading to suit the separation steps. Flow programming would also be possible.

(ii) Operating in the normal sequential mode, a third component whose solvent affinity lay between that of the other two would tend to be

concentrated on-colum. The addition of a third product port system in the main separating section would permit the removal of this component in a higher purity state than initially introduced in the feed.

(4ii) A ternary separation would be possible if the mit was divided into two separating sections, each followed by a purge section. Additional port functions would be required as illustrated in Fig 10.2.

(iv) Although designed for gas/liquid chromatography, the process scheme can be generally adapted to solid/fluid contacting systems (160). In particular, ion-exchange and gel permeation offer attractive applications for the future.

Figure 10.2 Diagram to show Flow Scheme for a Ternary Separation on the Sequential Unit

Port Sequencing

- Note: 1) $K_A < K_B < K_C$
	- 2) Velocity of G in Section 1 > Velocity of G in Section 2

NOMENCLATURE

Eddy diffusion term in the chromatographic theoretical plate height expression.

 a_{0} , a_{1} , a_{2} , a_{3} Fitted constants in the third order polynomial relationship between K and c.

> Longitudinal gas phase diffusion term in the chromatographic theoretical plate height expression. Mass transfer resistance term with respect to the gas phase in the chromatographic theoretical plate height expression.

C with respect to the gas phase corrected to colum outlet pressure.

> C with respect to the gas phase corrected to mean column pressure.

Concentration of solute in the gas phase.

¢ at-points a and b within a column.

Dummy c value used in the computer simulation of the sequential unit to evaluate concentration dependent terms: i.e. $c_{\overline{d}}$ = closest known value to $c_{\overline{p}}$. Gas phase concentration for a single solute in the feed to the sequential unit.

Total average input gas phase concentration of a single solute to plate n.

input

 \mathbf{A}

 \overline{B}

 $\mathbf C$

 C_Q°

 \overline{c}_α

 $\mathbf C$

 C_{d}

 $C_{\overline{W}}$

 c_a , c_b

 ${}^c n(t - \Delta t)$ Average gas phase concentration of a single solute in plate n during the time increment $(t - 2 \Delta t)$ to $(t - \Delta t)$.

î,

 $\bar{\epsilon}$

General Subscripts.

 $(\sigma_t)_{r_{\circ}0}^2$ Time based variance of the eluted peak recorded at the column outlet.

Greek Fitted constant in Florry-Huggins equation. $\mathsf T$ Porosity. ϕ $\phi(p)$ - $\int \frac{dp'}{p'} \int_{p}^{p'} p'' \times X^{*}$ (p") dp'' $\mathsf{\chi}$ Characteristic of packing interstices. $X^*(p)$ $\frac{u-\overline{u}}{\overline{u}}$ ψ Fitted constant in Florry-Huggins equation. Volume of the eluted solute front in frontal analysis. ω

Dimensionless Groups. Reynolds number for a packed column = $\frac{d_p \cdot u}{v_p}$. $\frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon}$ Re_p $\text{Sc}_{(G)}$ Schmidt number for the gas phase, $\frac{v}{D_G}$ $\text{Sc}_{(L)}$ Schmidt number for the liquid phase, $\frac{v}{D_{\tau}}$

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8.

M. Tswe

l.

 $2.$

 3.5

 4.0

 $5.$

 $6.$

 $7.$

 $A. J. P.$

A. T. J.

 $D. E. M$

R. S. T

H. Pich

R. P. W G. A. P Butterw

P. E. B

D. Crit

P. E. B.
Separat

D. Lloy

 $P. E. B$

 P_o E. B
A. B. L

D. H. H

 $9.$

10.

11.

12.

13.

146

15°

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APPENDIX 1

Calibration Charts

100 v + + r r 7 ° 2 4 6354.65 LO 12 14 16 16 20 22 24 26

Atmospheric Pressure 101 M/m ⁻²

Temperature 22°C

 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\frac{1}{2}}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\frac{1}{2}}}\right) \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\frac{1}{2}}}\right)$

 $310 - 2$

 \hat{T} 300 =

 $250 -$

200 +

 $150 -$

 $\binom{cm^3}{\text{cm}^3}$

 $\mathbf{e}^{\mathbf{H}}$

 $\mathcal{E} \longrightarrow \mathcal{E}$

 69.3

 $\overline{30}$

Applied Pressure (p.s.i.)

Figure A.1.4 (Cont'd.)

Applied Pressure (p.s.i.)

Figure 4.1.4 (Cont'd.)

Micrometer Setting

Dial Setting

Figure A.1.7 Calibration of Fll Oven Temperature

(Injection block not heated)

APPENDIX 2

Listings of Computer Programs Used for Calculation of Experimental Results

FIGURE A.2.1 a series de la provincia de **Service** (FLOWCHART GIVEN AS FIG. 5.3)

PRINT "PROGRAM TO CALCULATE MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, SKEW," 10 PRINT "KURTOSIS, N. T. P. AND H.E. T. P." 20 23 $FOR A=1,2$ 24 IF $A=1$ GOTO 23 25 PRINT "CALC FOR COLUMN OUTLET PROFILE" 26 GOTO 30 27 PRINT "CALC. FOR INJECTION PROFILE" 23 29 PRINT "sessessessessessessessesses" 32 DIM F(200) PRINT "INPUT TIME TO START OF PROFILE OUTPUT(SECS.)" 35 36 INPUT T(A) 40 PRINT "NOS. OF DATA POINTS STORED =" INPUT N 50 PRINT "TIME INTERVAL BETWEEN DATA POINTS STORED (SECS.)" 55 56 INPUT I 30 FOR J=1,N 90 READ F(J) 95 REM F(J)=PROFILE HEIGHTS (CHART UNITS) AT INTERVAL I NEXT J 100 $S=0:51=0:52=0:53=0:54=0$ $110.$ 155 PRINT "INPUT FRACTION OF DATA POINTS TO BE SAMPLED " 156 PRINT "ALL=1, HALF=2, THIRD=3 ETC." INPUT N1 157 FOR $J=1$, N , $N1$ 160 170 S=S+F(J) 130 $SI = SI + I * J * F(J)$ 190 NEXT J 203 $M1 = S1/S$ 213 FOR $J=1$, N, N1 223 S2=S2+F(J)*(I*J-M1)+2 230 S3=S3+F(J)*(I*J-M1):3 240 S4=S4+F(J)*(I*J-M1)14 250 NEXT J 260 M2=S2/S: D=M2t.5:M3=S3/S: S9=M3/Dt3:K=M4/Dt4-3 313 PRINT "ARITHMETIC MEAN =", M1 323 PRINT "STANDARD DEVIATION =", D PRINT "VARIANCE =", M2 325 330 PRINT "SKEW=", S9 340 PRINT "KURTOSIS =", K $361 \quad 14(A)=M1$ $362 \text{ V(A)} = M2$ 365 NEXT A 366 PRINT " \bullet 367 PRINT " " PRINT "NOW CALCULATION FOR N.T.P. AND H. E. T. P." 363 PRINT "INPUT LENGTH OF PACKED SECTION IN CMS" 373 330 INPUT L 390 N9=((T(2)+M(2))-(T(1)+M(1)))+2/(V(2)-V(1)) 395 REM THIS SI EQU. 5.2 FOR N.T.P. 430 H=L/N9 410 PRINT 'W.T.P.=", N9 420 PRINT "H.E.T.P. = ", H, "CMS" 433 FND

FIGURE A. 2.2 ------------(FLOWCHART GIVEN AS FIG.5.5)

```
PRINT "PROGRAM TO CALCULATE INTERPARTICLE VOLUME PACKING"
\frac{1}{1}2 PRINT "VOLUME AND MEAN CARRIER GAS VELOCITY FOR COMPARISON"
   PRINT "OF INDIVIDUAL COLUMN PROPERTIES"
\mathbf{3}5 DIM V(23), T(23), I(23), O(23), P(23), R(23), L(23)
6 DIN R(20), J(20), F(20), D(20), S(20), A(20), U(20)
7 DIM X(20), Y(20)
    REM L=COL.LEN(CMS), D=COL. DIAM(CMS), N=JOS.OF RUIS<br>REM V(J)=VOL.METER(FT'3), T(J)=TIME VOL.MEASURED(SECS)
15
16 RE4
    RE4 I(J)=COL. INLET PRESS. (IN.HG), O(J)=COL. OUTLET PRESS. (IN.HG
17REA P(J)=ATMOS. PRESS. (CM.HG), H(J)=H2 RETEVTION TIME(SECS.)
1523
    READ D.N.L.
    FOR J=1, i43
    READ V(J), T(J), I(J), O(J), P(J), H(J), L(J)
53
   V(J) = V(J) * . 23317E95/T(J)60<sup>o</sup>65 REY V(J) = CARRIER GAS FLOWRATE IN CM:3/SEC.
    I(J)=I(J)*2.54700(J) = 0(J) * 2.5453
35 REM COLUMN PRESSURES NOW CONVERTED TO CM.HG
90 R(J) = (I(J) + P(J)) / (0(J) + P(J))103 J(J) = 1.5 * (R(J) + 2 - 1) / (R(J) + 3 - 1)REM J(J) = 'J'FACTOR195
110 F(J) = V(J) * P(J) / (0(J) + P(J)) * J(J)115
     REM F(J)=MEAI COLUMN CARRIER GAS FLOWRATE
120 D(J)=F(J)*H(J)RE4 D(J) = RETENTION VOLUME FOR H2
125
133
     S(J)=(L(J)*3.142*D72/4-D(J))*L/L(J))135 RE4 S(J) = PACKING VOLUME IN COLUMN
147 A(J) = D(J)/L(J)153
     U(\overrightarrow{J}) = F(\overrightarrow{J}) / A(\overrightarrow{J})REM U(J) = MEAN CARRIER GAS VELOCITY
151
155 \ddot{(}) = A(\dot{J}) * L156 REM X(J)= TOTAL INTERPARTICLE VOLUME('DEAD VOLUME')
160 NEXT J
                 RUN
170 PRINT "
                                            PACK VOL
                                                               VEL (CM/SEC)"
                            DEAD VOL
171 PRINT "
                            ========
                                             =======
                                                               ============"
                 = 20175 FOR J=1, V = 1130 PRINT J.X(J), S(J), U(J)
190 NEIT J
220STOP
```
 $\overline{\mathbf{?}}$

FIGURE A.2.3 (FLOWCHART GIVEN AS FIG. 6.4)

1 PRINT "PROGRAM TO CALCULATE K V'S C AT A SERIES OF TEMPERATURES 10 READ D.MI.R READ RI, CI, M9 $20¹$ READ N.K 33 $35₁$ REM D=DENSITY OF SOLVENT, MI =M. WT. OF SOLVENT. REM R=GAS CONSTANT, RI= , Cl= , M9=M4. WT. OF SOLUTE $3₆$ REM N=NOS. OF TEMPS. X=MAX. SOLUTE MOLE FRACTION IN LIQUID 37 40 $I = 1$ 50 READ T.P REM T=TEMPERATURE (K), P=SATURATED VAPOUR PRESSURE OF SOLUTE 55 67 PRINT "FOR TEMPERATURE =", T-273.2, "C" 63 PRINT "-----------------" PRINT "SATURATED VAPOUR PRESSURE =", P 69 PRINT " X1 GAS CONC. GAMMA 75 $K^{\prime\prime}$ PRINT " 71 $- - - -$ ----------- $-- -11$ -------- $30 \t X1 = 3$ 85 REM X1=MOLE FRACTION OF SOLUTE IN LIQUID SOLUENT PHASE $190 \t X2=1-X1$ 105 RE4 X2=MOLE FRACTION OF SOLVENT IN LIQUID SOLVENT PHASE 110 G=R1/(R1*X1+X2)*EXP(X2*(1-R1)/(R1*X1+X2)+C1*(CX2/(R1*'(1+X2))+2 115 REM $G = Y$, --- EQU. 6.23 120 $K= R*T*D/(G*P*M1*X2)$ 125 RE4 EQU. 6.24 133 C=K1*D*M9/(K*K2*M1) 135 RE4 EQU. 6.25 143 PRINT X1, C.G.K IF (X1+.1E-01) >X GOTO 263 200 205 RE4 NOTE PRECAUTION AGAINST ROUND-OFF ERROR IN LINE 200 $210 \t\t X1 = 11 + .5E - 31$ 220 GOTO 100 PRINT 263 264 $273 = 1 = 1 + 1$ 230 IF I>N GOTO 300 293 GOTO 50 STOP 300

327

 $\overline{\mathbf{r}}$

FIGURE A. 2.4 ------------(FLOWCHART GIVEN AS FIG. 3.3)

 1 PRINT "PROGRAM TO CALCULATE COLUMN CONCENTRATION PROFILES" DIM I(100), P(100), V(100), A(100), G(100), V(100), B(100) $1₀$ 11 DIM C(100), H(100), K(100) 15 READ K 16 REM X= NOS. OF SAMPLES PER SEQUENCING INTERVAL READ W.P.SI.S2 23 REM N=TOTAL NOS. OF SAMPLES 21 22 RE1 SI = SLOPE OF F.I.D. CALIBRATION CURVE FOR 'A'P 23 REM S2 = SLOPE OF F.I.D. CALIBRATION CURVE FOR 'G'P 30 FOR $J=1$, N 40 READ I(J), P(J), V(J), A(J), G(J) REM I(J)=NOS. OF ISOLATED COLUMN WHEN SAMPLING COLUMN 2 41 RE4 P(J) = SAMPLE POINT PRESS., V(J) = SAMPLE VOLUAE 42 REM A(J)=AREA OF 'A'P PEAK (CHROMOLOG UNITS TO BASE 1*10+2) 43 REM G(J)=AREA OF 'G'P PEAK 44 70 $W(J) = V(J) * (P(J) + P)/P$ 71 REM W(J)=STANDARDISED SMPLE VOLUME 32 $A(J) = A(J) * S1$ 31 REM A(J)=VEIGHT OF 'A'P IN SAMPLE 90 $G(J) = G(J) * S2$ REM G(J) = WEIGHT OF 'G'P IN SAMPLE 91 133 $C(J) = A(J) / J(J)$ 131 REM C(J)=STANDARDISED CONCENTRATION OF 'A'P 110 $B(J) = A(J)/V(J)$ REM B(J)=COLUMN CONCENTRATION OF 'A'P 111 123 $X(J) = G(J) / U(J)$ 121 RE4 K(J) = STANDARDISED CONCENTRATION OF 'G'P 130 $H(J) = G(J) / V(J)$ 131 RE4 H(J)=COLUMN CONCENTRATION OF 'G'P 143 NEVT J PRINT "FOR ARKLONE P" 153 PRINT " 169 BED ST. VOL. WT. INJ. COL. CONC. CONC." 165 $Z = .5$ FOR $Y=1.$ 173 175 F OR $J = Y, N, X$ IF Z>1 GOTO 185 177 PRINT I(J), W(J), A(J), B(J), C(J) 133 132 GOTO 196 PRINT I(J), W(J), G(J), H(J), K(J) 165 NEIT J $19₃$ 193 PRINT 194 PRINT 195 PRINT PRINT "NEXT SAMPLING TIME AFTER SWITCHING" 195 197 PRINT NEXT Y 193 200 PRINT PRINT "FOR GENKLENE P" 210 PRINT " BED ST. VOL. WT. INJ. COL. CONC. 223 CONC." 225 IF Z>1 GOTO 260 243 $Z = Z + 1$ GOTO 170 250 STOP 263

APPENDIX 3

Example Calculation of Weight of Solute Injected and Subsequent Calibration of Flame Ionisation Detector

Big A.3.1 Example Calculation of the Weight of Solute Injected onto the Analytical Column

Solute - 'Arklone' P

- 1) Weight of solute initially injected into sealed flask = $0.015 g$ Initial volume of flask at 20 C and 101.3 kN m^{-2} = 1.2522 dm³ Ambient temperature $= 18.4^{\circ}$ Pressure in flask after solute injection = 101.5 kN m⁻²
- 2) Initial solute concentration in flask

$$
= \frac{0.0815}{1252.2 \times \frac{293.2}{291.6} \times \frac{101.5}{101.5}}
$$
 = c₁ g cm⁻²

 1.048 cm^3 volume of sample drawn from flask for 1.048 cm^3 injection onto column Weight of solute injected

$$
= 1.048 \times \frac{293.1}{291.6} \times \frac{101.5}{101.3} \times c_1
$$

= 1.048 \times \frac{0.0815}{1252.2} = 0.682 \times 10^{-4} g

4) Weight of solute remaining in flask

= $0.0815 - 0.682 \times 10^{-4} g$ = 0.0814 g

Return to (2) to recalculate solute concentration in the flask for next injection and so on.

Table A.3.1 Calibration of 1 cm^3 'Pressure-Lok' Syringe using Grooved Spacer Rods A.3.1 Calibration of 1 cm³ '
Syringe using Grooved

Table A.3.2 Example Flame Ionisation Detector Calibration

Initially injected 0.0815 g 'Arklone' P and 0.0688 g of 'Genklene' P by calibrated 100 µl syringe
Flask volume 1252.0 cm³ at 20⁰0
Lab. Pressure 99.9 km m⁻²
...

Fable A.3.2 Cont'd.

APPENDIX 4

Detailed Results of Concentration Profile Analyses

- (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 102 \text{ kN m}^{-2}$ Notes:
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1 x 10^{-5} g cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure
	- (iii) Analysis recorded 6.25 hrafter start-up

- (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 100 \text{ kN m}^{-2}$ Notes:
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1×10^{-5} g cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure
	- (iii) Analysis recorded 5.50 hrafter start-up

- (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 101 \text{ km}^{-2}$ Notes:
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1×10^{-5} g cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure
	- (iii) Analysis recorded 7.75 hrafter start-up

- (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 102 \text{ kN m}^{-2}$ Notes:
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1 x 10⁻⁵ $_{g}$ cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure
	- (iii) Analysis recorded 11.0 hrafter start-up

320

336

352

366

236

191

 211

 232

 252

271

285

306

323

337

352

366

381

442

503

564

625

686

15

76

137

198

249

320

381

442

503

564

625

9

10

11

 12

 \mathbb{I}

 $\overline{2}$

 $\overline{3}$

 $\overline{4}$ $\frac{1}{5}$

 $\overline{7}$

8 9

10

11

 12

 $\mathbbm{1}$

 0.122

 0.186

 0.246

 0.288

 0.225

0.0004

0.0007

0.0006

0.0005

0.0005

0.0005

 0.119

 0.122

 0.221

 0.328

 0.204

 0.238

 0.417

 0.053

 0.002

 0.002

Sampling 350 s after sequencing action

0.0004

0.00007

 0.197

 0.294

 0.347

 0.377

 0.387

 0.541

 0.320

0.003

 0.002

0.0009

0.0002

 0.143

 0.017

0.0006

 0.0004

 0.0001

0.00003

0.105

 0.143

 0.153

 0.153

 0.146

 0.194

 0.107

0.0009

0.0006

0.0003

0.0005

 0.042

0.059

0.075

0.084

0.063

0.0002

0.0004

0.0003

0.0002

 0.0002

0.0002

 0.043

 10.041

0.070

 $0.100.$

0.059

0.066

- (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 102 \text{ km m}^{-2}$ Notes:
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1 x 10⁻⁵ $_{g}$ cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure
	- (iii) Analysis recorded 6.67 hrafter start-up

- (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 102 \text{ km m}^{-2}$ Notes:
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1 x 10⁻⁵ $_{g}$ cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure
	- (iii) Analysis recorded 7.5 heafter start-up

- (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 100 \text{ kN m}^{-2}$ Notes:
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1 x 10⁻⁵ $_{g}$ cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure
	- (iii) Analysis recorded 7.0 hrafter start-up

(i) $P_{std} = P_a = 102 \text{ km m}^{-2}$ Notes:

(ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than

0.1 x 10^{-5} g cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure

345

(iii) Analysis recorded 7.67 hrafter start-up

- (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 101 \text{ kN m}^{-2}$ Notes:
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1 x 10⁻⁵ $_{g}$ cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure
	- (iii) Analysis recorded 5.0 hrafter start-up

- $\frac{\text{Notes:}}{\text{101 km}^2}$ (i) $P_{\text{std}} = P_{\text{a}} = 101 \text{ km}^{-2}$ Table A.4.14 Concentration Profile An

Notes: (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 101 \text{ kN}$

(ii) All gas phase solute

0.1 x 10⁻⁵ g cm⁻³ are

(iii) Analysis recorded 5.
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1 x 10⁻⁵ $_{\text{g cm}}$ ⁻³ are given in first significant figure
	- (iii) Analysis recorded 5.5 hrafter start-up

(iii) Analysis recorded 7.0 hrafter start-up

- Table A.4.16 Concentration Profile An

Notes: (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 100$ kN

(ii) All gas phase solute

0.1 x 10^{-5} g cm⁻³ are

(iii) Analysis recorded 8.5 Notes: (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 100$ kN m⁻²
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1×10^{-5} g cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure

(iii) Analysis recorded 8.5 hrafter start-up

- Notes: (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 98 \text{ kN m}$
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1 x 10⁻⁵ g cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure
	- (iii) Analysis recorded 7-Ohrafter start-up

- (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 99 \text{ km m}^{-2}$ Notes:
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1 x 10⁻⁵ $\rm g$ cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure
	- (iii) Analysis recorded 8.67 hrafter start-up

- Notes: (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 101$ kN m⁻² Table A.4.19 Concentration Profile And

Notes: (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 101$ kN

(ii) All gas phase solute

0.1 x 10⁻⁵ g cm⁻³ are

(iii) Analysis recorded 8.0
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1×10^{-5} g cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure
	- (iii) Analysis recorded 8.0 hrafter start-up

- Notes: (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 101 \text{ km m}^{-2}$ Table A.4.20 Concentration Profile An

Notes: (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 101 \text{ kN}$

(ii) All gas phase solute

0.1 x 10⁻⁵ g cm⁻³ are

(iii) Analysis recorded 8.5
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1×10^{-5} g cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure
	- (iii) Analysis recorded 8.5 hrafter start-up

- (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 101 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$ Notes:
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than
		- 0.1×10^{-5} g cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure
	- (iii) Analysis recorded 6.33hrafter start-up

- (i) $P_{std} = P_a = 99 \text{ km m}^{-2}$ Notes:
	- (ii) All gas phase solute concentrations of less than

0.1 x 10⁻⁵ $\rm g$ cm⁻³ are given in first significant figure

(iii) Analysis recorded 9.0 hrafter start-up

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APPENDIX 5

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Calculation of Partial Pressure of 'Arklone' P at Maximum Column Concentration
Calculation of the Partial Pressure of 'Arklone' P Corresponding to the Highest Recorded Standardised Concentration During the Study of Solute Feedrate

For an ideal gas

$$
P_{\text{i}} = P_{\text{col}} \cdot y_{\text{i}} \qquad \qquad \text{A5-1}
$$

where

 P_i = partial pressure of component i

Substituting for y from equation 8.4

$$
P_{\text{i}} = P_{\text{col}} \cdot c_{\text{i(std)}} \cdot R_{\text{g}} \cdot T
$$
 45.2

From Run 500 - 275 - 500 the maximum value of $c_{AP}(std)$ = 0.469×10^{-3} g cm⁻³ (Appendix 4). The corresponding sample point pressure was 296 kN m^{-2} and temperature 22°C.

 P_i = 296 x 0.469 x 10⁻³ x 0.896 x 10⁴ x 295 Hence

$$
18.0 \text{ km m}^{-2}
$$

From Fig 6.5 the saturated vapour pressure of 'Arklone' P, P_{AP}^o , at 22° = 38.0 kN m⁻².

Therefore the gas phase was not saturated by 'Arklone' P.

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APPENDIX 6

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Listing of Program for the Simulation f the Sequential Unit

FORTRAN PLATE TO PLATE SIMULATION OF SCCR 1 C PAGE

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FORTRAN PLATE TO PLATE SIMULATION OF SCCR I
  1<sup>C</sup>DIMENSION CI(720), C2(720), P(720), K(60), Y(60)
  S
  \mathbf{3}REAL MWTI, MWT2, MOLVOL
          DO 1 NN=1,720
  45
           C1(NN) = 3.0
           C2(NN)=0.06
  7\phantom{.}P(WN) = 0.0I CONTINUE
 .39
          DO 2 W1 = 1,60X(X) = 0.010.7\simY(.JN) = 0.011122 CONTINUE
          READ(2, 3) GFLOW, SFLOW, VG, VL, CFEED1, CFEED2, DT
13143 FORMAT(7F13.0)
15
           READ(2, 4) NFEED, NN COL, I TO TAL, I I I NI, I I TYPE, NN TYPE
        4 FORMAT(614)
1617
           READ(2,5) PAMB, PING, POUTG, PINS, POUTS
135 FORMAT(5F10.0)
           READ(2,6)A01, All, A21, A31
19
206 FORMAT(4E13.6)
           READ(2, 15) A02, A12, A22, A32
312215 FORMAT(4E13.6)
23
           READ(2, 14) MWT1, MWT2, MOL VOL, TAMB
       14 FORMAT(4F10.0)
2425WRITE(1,7)GFLOW, SFLOW, VG, VL
        7 FORMAT(1H, 7HGFLOW= F3.3, 4X, 7HSFLOW= F3.3, 4X, 4HVG= F10.5,
26\sim \sim2714\%, 4HVL = F10.5WRITE(1,8)CFEEDI, CFEED2, DT
 23538 FORMAT(IH , SHCFEED1= E13.6, 4X, SHCFEED2= E13.6, 4X,
         1/4HDT= F10.5)
 30<sub>o</sub>31WRITE(1,9)NFEED, NNCOL, ITOTAL, IIINI, IITYPE, NNTYPE
        9 FORMAT(IN , 7HNFEED= 12, 1X, 7HNNCOL= 13, 1X, 3HI TO TAL= 13,
32
          11X, 7H111N1 = 14, 1X, 8H11TYPE = 13, 1X, 8HNNTYPE = 1333
           WRITE(1,10) PAMB, PING, POUTG, PINS, POUTS
34
35
       10 FORMATOM , 6HPAMB= F6.1, 1K, 6HPING= F6.1, 1K, 7HPOUTG= F6.1,
36
          11K, 6HPINS= F6. 1, IX, 7HPOUTS= F6. 1)
37
           WRITE(1, 11) A01, A02
83311 FORMAT(IN , 5HA01= E13. 6, 10X, 5HA02= E13. 6)
39
          WRITE(1,16)All, A12
40 .
       16 FORMATCIH, 5MA11= E13.6, 10X, 5MA12= E13.6)
41
           WRITE(1, 17) A21, A22
42
       17 FORMAT(1H, 5HA21= E13.6, 10X, 5HA22= E13.6)
43
           WRITE(1, 18) A31, A32
44
       13 FORMAT(IH , 5HA31= E13. 6, 10X, 5HA32= E13. 6)
45WRITE(1,19) MWT1, MWT2, MOL VOL, TAMB
46
       19 FORMAT(1H , GMMWT1= F6.2, 2X, 6HMWT2= F6.2, 2X, 3HMOL VOL= F6.8,
4712X, 6H TAMB= F5.1)
43
          MOL VOL=MOL VOL*(TAMB/273.)*(100.3/PAMB)
49MNTOT=NNCOL*12
5%
          WNELEV=NNCOL*11+1
51
          MNFEED=(NFEED-1)*NNCOL+NNCOL/2+1
52
          MNCOL1 = NNCOL + 153
           DO 26 NN=NNCOLI, NNTOT
54
          P(NN) = (PING-(((PING-POUTG)/FLOAT(NNCOL*11))
55
         1*(FLOAT(NN-NJCOL)-3.5)))/PAMB
56
       23 CONTINUE
57
           DO 33 NN=1, NNCOL
```
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FORTI

91 CINP CSTA: 92 93 CSTAN2=CINP2 94 60 CCOLI=CSTANI*P(NN) 95 CCOL2=CSTAN2*P(NN) GFLOWC=GFLOW*(1.+MOLVOL*(CSTAN1/MWT1+CSTAN2/HWT2)) 96 A=GFLOWC*DT/P(NN) 97 AA=EXP(-A/((VG/P(NN))+VL*(((A31*CCOL1+A21)*CCOL1+A11)* 93 99 $ICCOL1+A01)$) BB=E(P(-A/((VG/P(NN))+VL*(((A32*CCOL2+A22)*CCOL2+A21)* 133 101 ICCOL2+A32))) $C1(NN) = (1 - AA) * CINPI + AA * C1(NN)$ 132 $C2(iN) = (1 - BB) * CINP2 + BB * C2(iN)$ 103 GO TO 150 174 70 IF(NN.EQ.NNFST)GO TO 80 135 $IF(Cl(NN-1).LT.0.1E-10)CI(NN-1)=0.0$ 106 IF(C2(NN-1).LT. 0.1E-10)C2(NN-1)=0.0 107 123 $CSTAY1 = C1(N) - 1$ $CSTAI2=C2CNI-1$ 109 $CIMPI = C1$ (NN-1) 110

- 30 $CI:IP1 = 0.0$ 113
- 114 $CIVP2 = 0.0$

 C

33 CONTI WRIT

12 FORM

 1144 II SU

> ISTI LSTI

N.V SU.

IF(N **NUFS**

NNLS DO 4

IF(N IF(()

IF(N)

IFCC

IFCC

CSTA:

CINP CINP

GO T 40 CINP

CINP

CSTA

CSTA GO T

50 CINP

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Supporting Publication

and "Advances in Chromatography 1973", A. Zlatkis, Ed., "Proceedings of the 8th International Symp., Toronto, Canada", published by Chromatography Conference, Chem. Dept., Univ. of Houston, 1973, p33.

Production Scale Organic Mixture Separation Using a New Sequential Chromatographic Machine

P. E. Barker and R. E. Deeble

Chemical Engineering Department, University of Aston in Birmingham, England

A new twelve-column, 7.6-cm diameter production scale
sequential chromatographic separator is described which
is suitable for the separation of a wide range of organic
mixtures. The mode of operation of the separator has
 graphic efficiency measured in terms of HETP of the 12 packed columns varied from 10.7 to 14.3 mm as liquid
feed rates increased from 300 to 600 ml/hr. Lower HETP values and higher throughputs are anticipated by using improved packing techniques and different operating conditions.

Harnessing the high resolving power of analytical chromatography for a chemical separation process at commercially viable throughputs has provided a challenge to research workers. From an appreciation of the principle of c

The most direct approach to scale-up is to increase the size of the analytical column in diameter and/or length (1). Provided separating efficiency can be maintained at a reasonable level, resolution of the injected feed mixture —1 into its multiple constituents is theoretically possible. Re- search and development work has concentrated on column design and packing techniques, so now acceptably low HETP's can be achieved (2).

The largest operational co-current type of equipment
reported in the literature is a 1.2-m diameter liquid chro-
matography system having a production capacity of 0.9
million kg/year, which is installed in a pharmaceutica

The cross-flow mode of operation appears very attrac-
tive. Theoretically, the movement of mobile and solvent
phase at right angles to one another should enable the at-
tainment of a continuous "spectrum" of products as a

-
- (1) R. E. Pecsar, "Preparative Gas Chromatography," A. Ziatkis and V.
Pretorius, Ed., Wiley-Interscience, London, 1971, Chap. 3, p 73.
(2) (a) J. Albrecht and M. Verzele, J. Chromatogr. Sci., 8, 586 (1970);
(b) $bidi$., 9,
-

tively small scale $(4, 5)$. The system proposed by Dinelli *et al.* $(6-8)$, in which carrier fluid flows down laterally rotated columns, suffers from two major limitations when considering further scale-up. For efficien

The continuous fractionation of a feed mixture into two cmp
position, The continuous fractionation of a feed mixture info two cam
be achieved by a counter-current movement, within definable limits, of the nobile and solve

- (4) P. E. Barker, "Preparative Gas Chromatography," A. Ziatkis and V.
Pretorius, Ed., Wiley-Interscience, London, 1971, Chap. 10, p 325.
(5) E. J. Tuthill, J. Chromatogr. Sci., 8, 285 (1970).
(6) D. Dinelli, S. Polezzo, a
-
-
-
- (8) M. Taramasso and D. Dinelli, J. Gas Chromatogr., 2, 150 (1964).

Figure 1. Diagrammatic representation of the principle of the counter-current chromatographic system (a) Moving column past fixed ports, (b) moving ports past fixed column

Figure 2. Schematic diagram of three columns showing relative position of solenoid valves

 $T =$ Transfer valve, $F =$ feed valve, $C =$ carrier fluid inlet valve, $P =$ purge fluid inlet valve, $Cp =$ carrier product outlet valve, $Pp =$ purge product outlet vaive

column diameter level. The form of chromatography chosen was gas-liquid.

EXPERIMENTAL

Design of the Unit (9). From
seven moving functions are requand outlet, purge gas inlet and
unit was therefore designed in
being provided with the necessa
valves. Such a design enables
construction of the individual c
vari Design of the Unit (9), From Figure 16, it can be seen that seven moving functions are required; feed inlet, carrier gas inlet and outlet, purge gas inlet and outlet, and two gas locks. The unit was therefore designed in discrete sections, each section being provided with the necessary functions by solenoid operated valves. Such a design enables the dimensions and materials of variable over wide limits. However, the unit can no longer be termed "continuous."

Twelve 7.6-cm diameter copper columns of packed length 61-cm are linked alternatively at top and bottom to form a closed symmetrical ring (see Figure 2). On each "transfer" line between
the columns is situated a "modified" 13-mm orifice, normally the columns is situated a "modified" 13-mm orifice, normally open, servo-acting solenoid valve (T). Energizing a consecutive pair of these solenoids effectively iso-

lates an individual column. The gas inlet and outlet ports, situated on the end cones of each column, are provided by four 6-mm orifice, normally closed, direct acting solenoid valves (C, C_p, P,

(9) P. E. Barker and R. E. Deeble, Br. Patent Appl. 27786/72.

P,). A similar valve, but of 3-mm orifice, provides the inlet port for liquid feed (F). The 12 ports of each type are connected to an independent, centrally situated, distributor system. Lines from the gas distributors then pass to the relevant control and measur- ing devices while the feed distributor is connected to a positive displacement pump.

All valves are of brass bodies with Viton seats. It should be noted that careful selection of the direct operating valves was necessary as they must remain tightly closed when operating against a considerable back pressure.
The inlet and outlet solenoid valves are electrically connected,

in the required combinations of 5, to 12 terminals. An additional rail of 12 terminals is provided for the transfer valves. The two terminal rails are interconnected, through a relay bank, such that when one terminal on the inlet/outlet valve rail is energized, then two terminals on the transfer valve rail are also energized. Each of these terminal combinations is energized in turn, for a selectable time interval of between 1 and 15 min, by an automatic electronic timing unit.
Assigning the numbers 1 to 12 to the individual columns; at a

particular point in the cycle bed 2 would be isolated by energizing the solenoids on the transfer lines 1/2 and 2/3. The purge gas inlet and outlet solenoids on bed 2 are energized to open, effecting purging of the more strongly absorbed component. The carrier gas inlet solenoid on bed 3 is energized to open, carrier gas thus passing through 11 beds to exit from bed 1 as product 1, where the carrier gas outlet solenoid is energized. Feed is pumped into an appropriate bed lying between 3 and 1, say 8, through the energized centrally positioned valve. Within the column the feed is split into fourths by a simple cross distributor to assist even

cross-sectional loading. On sequencing, column 3 is isolated by energizing the solenoids on transfer lines 2/3 and 3/4. Purge gas now enters column 3 to purge product 2. Carrier flows from bed 4 round the unit to exit from the regenerated bed 2. Feed is now entering bed 9. Twelve sequences complete the cycle which then resumes.

'The exact format of the switching arrangement for the solenoid valves is varied by rearranging the wiring to the 12 contact points on the timing unit. Hence, the feed point relative to carrier gas inlet can be easily repositioned as can the number of beds isolat ed for stripping.

minar intering and
rough an interchang and
d 90 cm long. Total
r before being sp
reams. The inlet ro
blished before the is
w rates of the out The overall flow diagram of the system is given in Figure 3. As no carrier gas recycle system has been constructed, economics dictated the use of air. High pressure air (80 psig) passes through an initial filtering and drying stage followed by regulation to a lower pressure. Final clean-up and drying is achieved by passing through an interchangeable bed of silica gel 10 cm in diameter and 90 cm long. Total air inlet flow rate is monitored by a rotameter before being split into the respective carrier and purge streams. The inlet rotameter provides a means of checking for eter before being split into the respective carrier and p
streams. The inlet rotameter provides a means of checking
leaks. Accurate pressure control of the respective streams is
tablished before the gas streams enter the s tablished before the gas streams enter the separation uni flow rates of the outlet gas streams are regulated before being

Figure 3. Line flow diagram for complete system (no detail of sequential unit is shown)
 $R =$ rotameter, $P =$ pressure gauge, $S =$ sequential unit, $D =$ silica gel driers, $PR =$ pressure regulator, $FR =$ flow regulator, $F =$

measured by rotameters. As this is a research unit, no product recovery system has been constructed.

Continuous monitoring of the respective output profiles by a
katharometer has been incorporated. A variable throughput posi-
ktive displacement pump is used to control the liquid feed rate,
the lines between the pump head (I.C.I. Ltd., Genklene P), 1,1,2,-trichloro-1,2,2,-trifluoroethane (I.C.I. Ltd., Arklone P), and methylene chloride on the phase sili-

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Ited in turn and a constant
butlet volumetric flowrate
my variation in column f
riation in the outlet pressure
constant gas velocity throu
U. Busch, and K. Winde, J. (Comparison of the Efficiency of the Packed Columns.
Care was taken to approximately match the columns
when packing. A combination of vigorous beating, tamp-
ing down with a heavy 30° cone (10) , and the application

(10) K.-P. Hupe, U. Busch, and K. Winde, J. Chromatogr. Sci., 7, 1 (1969).

Table I. Comparison of Individual Column Properties^a

Table I. Comparison of Individual Column Properties ^a						
Assigned column No.	Pressure drop across column, cm	Weight of packing, g	Dead volume. cm ³	Packed volume. cm ³	Velocity of carrier. cm/sec	HETP. mm
$\mathbf{1}$	5.0	1635	1915	867	8.6	4.9
\overline{c}	5.2	1650	2007	774	8.2	8.4
3	4.4	1650	1977	804	8.4	9.5
4	4.6	1635	1820	962	9.1	5.1
5	5.0	1650	1861	921	8.9	7.2
6	5.5	1635	1893	890	8.8	7.0
$\overline{7}$	5.7.	1650	1862	920	8.9	7.2
8	5.0	1650	1896	886	8.8	5.9
9	5.2	1650	2017	765	8.2	10.0
10	5.3	1635	1826	955	8.9	4.6
11	6.4	1650	2014	767	8.3	8.8
12	4.9	1650	1900	881	8.7	9.5

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(11) J. C. Sternberg in
Giddings and R. A.
Chan B n.205 was a more realistic comparison in terms of the subse-
quent operation of the unit in the separating mode. The
injected sample was 1.0 ml of Arklone P injected directly
into the inflowing gas stream. As such a technique r

<u> Elizabeth Composition (1984)</u>

Figure 4 (b)

(a) Carrier outlet (product 1), (b) purge outlet (product 2)

tion column dead volume and, hence, interparticle gas velocity were determined from the measurement of the retention time of a hydrogen sample.

From the results in Table I, the variation from column to column appears prohibitive to successful operation. However, it will be realized that 11 columns are linked to form the separating section. Thus, in sequencing through the cycle, the variation in the total number of plates in the separating section at any time is comparatively small. Further, as the unit is to be operated at high solute concentration, it is to be expected that in operation the column to column variation will diminish. Experimental observations substantiate both these points.

The computed values of the plate heights are high. This is in part attributable to the short length of column over which the measurements were made, coupled with a severe tailing contribution resulting from the substantial dead volume of the unpacked cones at the column ends. A reduction in HETP could be attained by an improved packing technique such as the shake, turn, and pressure method proposed by Albrecht and Verzele (2), coupled with packing of the cones with a suitable inert material (12).

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(13) P. E. Bark
(1963). Operation of the Sequential Unit in the Separation Mode. Details of three separation runs are given here. An equivolume mixture of Arklone P and Genklene P was the feedstock. The range: of throughputs covered was 300-600 mil/hr. Selection of the gas flow rate through the separating section and the sequencing rate (apparent countercurrent liquid rate) was based on the simple theory outlined by Barker and Lloyd (13) for a truly continuous (12) W. M. Musser and R. E. Sparks, J. Chromatogr. Sci., 9, 116 (1971).

(13) P. E. Barker and D. |. Lioyd, J. Inst. Petrol, London, 49, 73 (1963).

counter-current system. The partition coefficients used to estimate this gas-to-liquid ratio (G/L) were determined at the analytical level, no correction being made for finite concentrations. Table II gives details of the flow settings.

While the conditions for the separating section were held approximately constant throughout the experimental runs, it was necessary to increase the purge gas rate as feed rate and, hence, column concentration increased to ensure complete purging. This was taken as clear evidence of a nonlinear isotherm, the retention time of Genklene P increasing substantially with increasing concentration at the operating temperature (20-22 °C). Unpublished work performed in this department substantiates this observation.

The product output concentration profiles were continuously monitored by a katharometer on both product streams. These fulfilled a dual purpose. The build-up to a pseudo-steady state, necessary for the total system concentration profile analysis, as well as any variation in column-to-column product output profile shape could be observed.

The output profiles are akin to the leading (product 1) and tailing edged (product 2) of a frontal elution system in conventional chromatography (see Figure 4). An estimate of HETP was made from the carrier product profiles by the graphical technique proposed by Reilley et al. (14). The HETP values calculated and shown in Table III can only serve to indicate an order of the magnitude as the assumptions made in the techniques theoretical development are very tenuous when applied to the levels of concentration occurring in this unit. However, two clear trends are indicated by the results. They are the greater equivalence of the columns and a gradual decrease in the average value of plate height as the solvent concentration increases.

On the establishment of a reproducibly shaped outlet katharometer profile, the system concentration profile was

(14) C. N. Reilley, G. P. Hildebrand, and J. W. Ashley, Anal. Chem., 34, 1198 (1968).

ascertained by quantitative analysis on the standard analytical chromatograph of samples taken from a fixed point in the unit during a complete sequencing cycle, two sam ples being taken at constant times within a switching interval. The calibration curve for the flame ionization detector was obtained from noted peak height and peak area responses to known concentration injections of a range of volumes of both Arklone P and Genklene P. The responses were analyzed to determine the linear range of the detector under the particular operating conditions. Within this Tange, a least squares fit was performed on the peak area vs. sample size data. The pressure at the time and point of sampling from the unit was also noted, utilizing a pressure gauge connected to a hypodermic needle. A plot of concentration against time in the cycle, for all but the two columns from which product is issuing, gives a profile which is equivalent to the concentration profile around the unit measured at a fixed point in time.

A limitation of the technique is that its accuracy only affords an order of magnitude estimate for the minor peak in the analysis of a near pure sample. Purities are quoted here strictly as a measured ratio of Arklone P to Genklene Ρ.

The three concentration profiles from the separation runs reported here clearly show the effect of increasing concentration, Figure 5, $a-c$. Feeding at a rate of 300 ml/hr, this comparatively easy separation has been largely achieved within two columns. The remaining columns serve to marginally increase product purity of both products to a level in excess of 99.9%. The maximum concentration of Genklene occurs close to the feed point.

As the feed rate and, hence, concentration increases, both solutes increase their tendency toward the purge product exit, an observation consistant with the concentration isotherm. At 500 ml/hr, the Arklone P profile stretches into the fourth column following the feed point, the maximum Genklene P concentration also occurring in that column. While product 1 is still in excess of 99.9% Arklone P, product 2 is now at best 99.8% Genklene P.

Increasing the feed rate by a further 100 ml/hr results in a severe reduction in purity of the purged product, the Arklone P profile stretching the entire length of the separating section. The maximum feed rate in accordance with a good separation has been exceeded. However, this does not represent the maximum attainable throughput for the system. Moving the feed point closer to the carrier product offtake, together with an increase in the carrier gas flow rate, should permit throughputs approaching 1 1./hr.

CONCLUSION

The initial work clearly demonstrates the potential of the sequential valve process for production scale gas or liquid chromatographic separations. The mechanical reliability of the system is proved by virtually trouble-free research operation over the past year. Development work in column design and packing techniques can easily be incorporated, while a general increase in individual column size requires no increased complexity.

Figure 5. Concentration profiles around unit for three feed rates

(a) Feed rate = 300 ml/hr, O Arkione P \times Genklene P, approximate
time to steady state = 2 hr, time to start of analysis = 11 hr, carrier
product > 99.9% Arkione P, purge product > 99.9% Genklene P.
(b) Feedrate = 500 m

Further work should give a better insight into the operating characteristics of the unit. In particular the effect of gas and "apparent" liquid rates on the throughput needs closer study.

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