# ΔΙΕΡΓΑΣΙΕΣ ΔΙΑΧΩΡΙΣΜΟΥ

## Μάθημα 20

Ακαδημαϊκό έτος 2017-2018

### Solid phase : mostly rigid structure

Disadvantage : formation of solid particles is a rather slow process, and to reach an acceptable production rate large vessels are generally needed.

Advantage: The rigid structure of the solid phase impedes the incorporation of foreign substances or solvent molecules, and in only one separation step a pure solid product is obtained.



## Crystallization

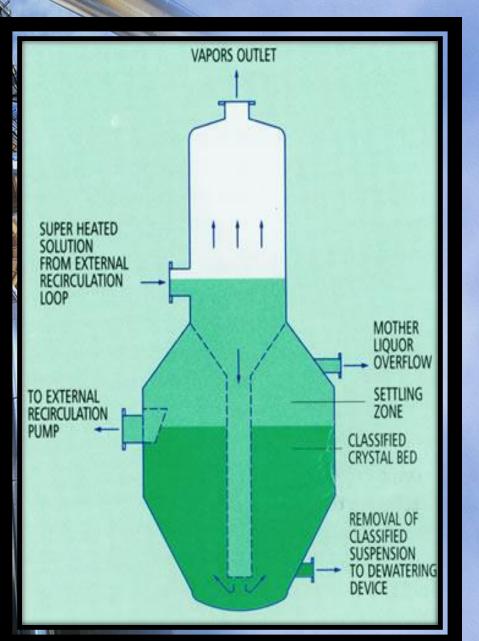
Often used as a generic term for: •Evaporative •Cooling crystallization •Precipitation •Melt crystallization.

Considerable differences between the four types of crystallization as far as the processing method and the corresponding equipment are concerned.

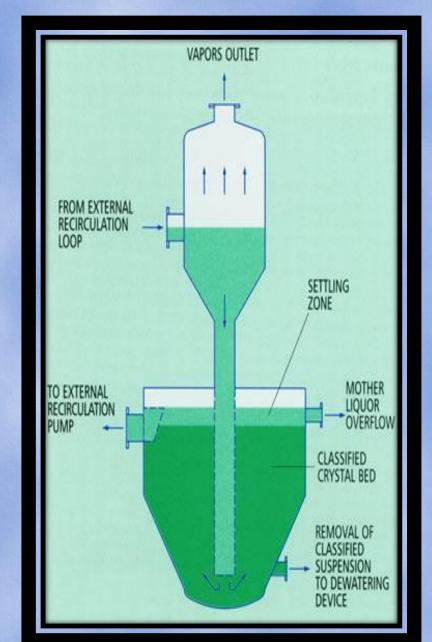
## **Evaporative Crystallization**

Evaporative crystallization is usually a process that is conducted under vacuum. This process is chosen when solubility of the solute is nearly independent of temperature. Special scaling problems are not a serious problem as long as boiling on the heater surface is avoided

## OSLO CRYSTALLIZER



Z



## Crystallization

Precipitation: the separation of the solid phase is achieved by mixing two feed streams that are either two reactants or a solvent containing the solute and an antisolvent.

Hydrodynamics of the process play a predominant role in precipitation with regard to the properties of the obtained product.

Melt crystallization: production of a pure product is by re-melting the solid phase to obtain the final product.

Applications: ultra-purification of organic compounds production of pure water (concentration technique).

# **Cooling Crystallization**

Crystallization is based on the principles of solubility: compounds (solutes) tend to be more soluble in hot liquids (solvents) than they are in cold liquids.

If a saturated hot solution is allowed to cool, the solute is no longer soluble in the solvent and forms crystals of pure compound.

Impurities are excluded from the growing crystals and the pure solid crystals can be separated from the dissolved impurities by filtration.

## Crystallization

- Supercritical crystallization:
- mostly with condensed CO<sub>2</sub>, because of its benign properties compared to organic solvents.
- Condensed CO<sub>2</sub> can be used either as a solvent or as an anti-solvent, and specifically adapted processes and equipment have been developed for these high pressure crystallization techniques.

Pressure Supercritical fluids Liquid p~102-103 kg.m-3 ρ~10<sup>3</sup> kg.m<sup>-3</sup> η~10-4-10-5 Pa.s η~10<sup>-3</sup> Pa.s D~10-7-10-8 m2.s-1 D~10-9 m<sup>2</sup>.s-1 Solid **Critical point** Gaz ρ~1 kg.m<sup>-3</sup> ή~10⁻⁵ Pa.s D~10-5 m<sup>2</sup>.s-1

### Temperature

## Importance of Supercritical Fluid

- Liquids have solubilizing nature
- Gases have diffusivity and compressibility / expandable nature.

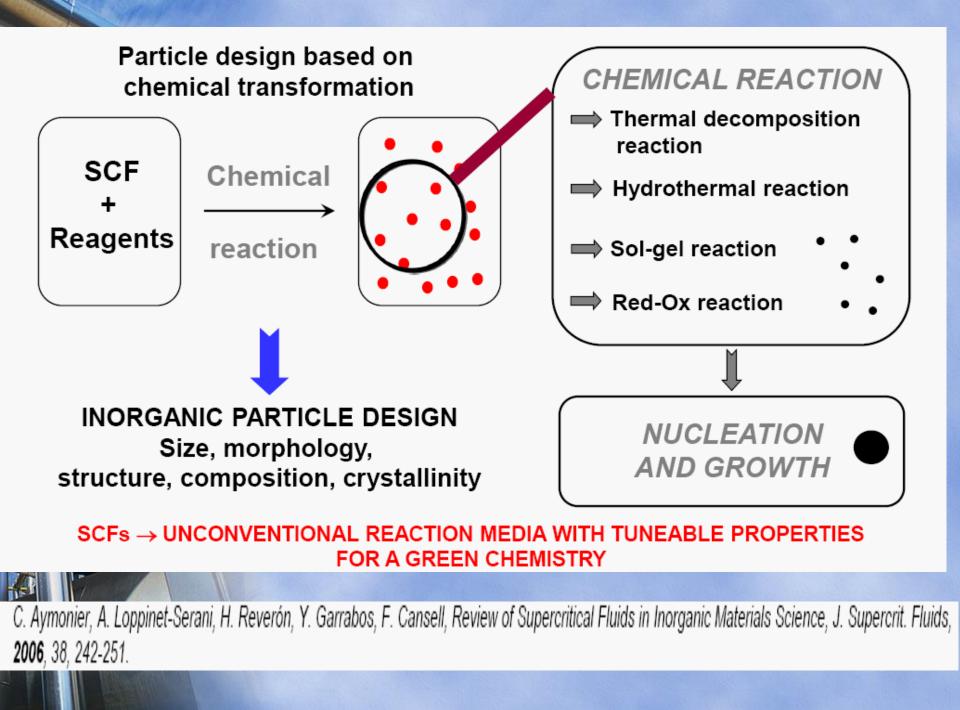
- Supercitical fluids
- SCFs offer:
  - Liquid-like density and solubilizing capacity
  - ✓ Gas-like viscosity, compressibility and diffusivity
  - allowing for good mixing and mass transfer hence labeled as fluids.



## **Key Features**

- SCFT offers tremendous potential, as it is safe, inexpensive, eco-friendly, non-toxic and economical.
- With SCFs at hand, there is no need of any organic solvents.
- Solvation capacity of SCF α fluid density.
- Sensitive to small changes in operating conditions.
- Operating conditions of low temperature and pressure make SCFs attractive for pharmaceutical research, especially thermolabile materials.





## **Critical properties of commonly used SCFs**

Fluid	<b>Critical Temperature (<sup>0</sup>C)</b>	Critical Pressure (bar)
Ethylene	9.4	50.4
Trimethoflurane	26.3	48.6
Chlorotrifluoromethane	29.0	38.7
Carbon dioxide	31.1	73.8
Ethane	32.4	48.8
Propylene	91.9	46.0
Propane	96.8	42.5
Ammonia	132.5	113.5
n-Pentane	196.7	33.7
Trichloromethane	198.2	44.1

### Ideal Properties of CO<sub>2</sub>

- Low critical temperature (31.1° C)
- Moderate critical pressure of 73 bar
- Non-flammable
- Non-toxic
- Miscible with variety of organic solvents
- Recoverable after processing
- Diffuses faster than conventional liquid solvents
- Generally Recognized As Safe (GRAS) status
- Approved by FDA for use in food and pharmaceutical operations
- Eco-friendly
- Inexpensive

## **Co-solvent**

- Polar or non-polar miscible solvent (1% to 5%).
- Purpose: To modify the polarity and solvent strength of the SCF.
  E.g., Methanol, Ethanol, Acetone & Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO).
- Mechanisms:
  - ✓ Hydrogen bonding
  - ✓ Complex formation
  - ✓ Dipole interactions
  - Solvent / co-solvent / solute interactions



### Anti Solvent Processes:

- Substances that are not soluble in SCFs
- Anti solvent process
- Principle: Salting out technique

Dissolution of solid material in a suitable solvent

large amount of a poor solvent supersaturation

. . 0

## Rapid Expansion of Supercritical Solutions (RESS) Or Supercritical Fluid Nucleation (SFN)

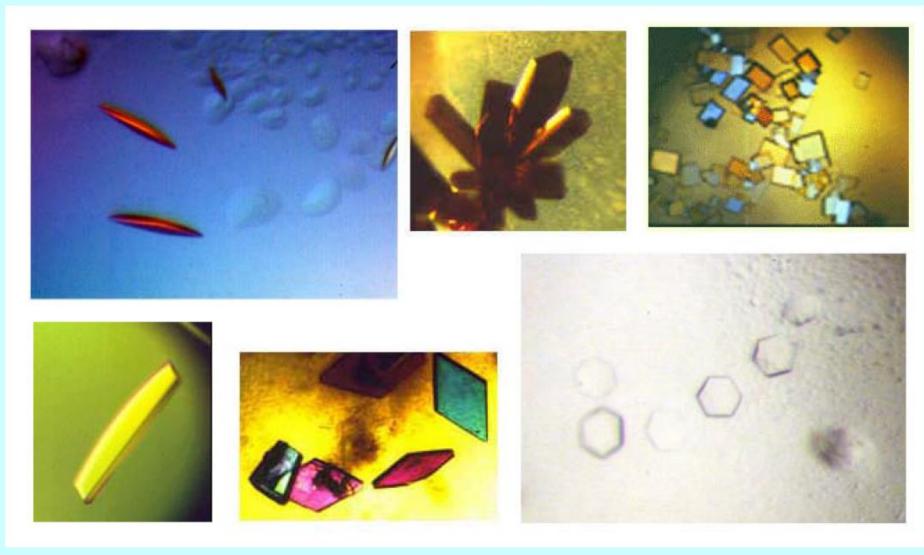
Rapid expansion

Supersaturation

Precipitation

Solute Particles

# I. Protein crystals



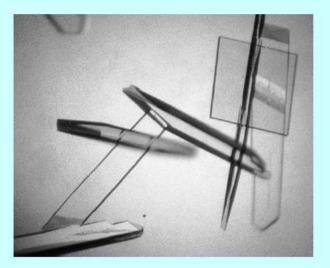


# II. Protein crystals



#### Sperm whale myoglobin



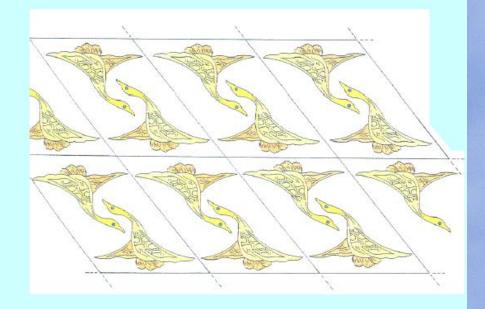


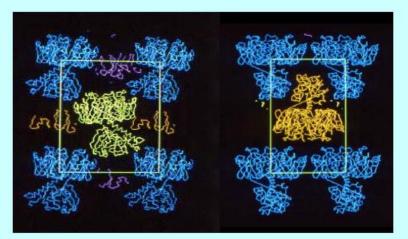


See Hampton Research: http://www.hamptonresearch.com) their Photo Gallery.

# Protein crystals

- Regular arrays of protein molecules
- Few crystal contacts
- Protein crystals contain active protein
- Enzyme turnover
- Ligand binding





Example of crystal packing

# When a crystal is **ordered**, strong diffraction results from constructive interference of photons.

crystal

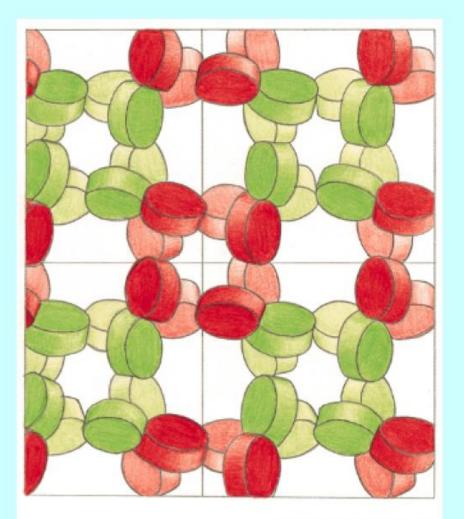
Interference is constructive because path lengths differ by some integral multiple of the wavelength ( $n\lambda$ ).

Incident X-ray

This situation is possible only because the diffracting objects are periodic.

detector

## Protein crystals contain lots of solvent

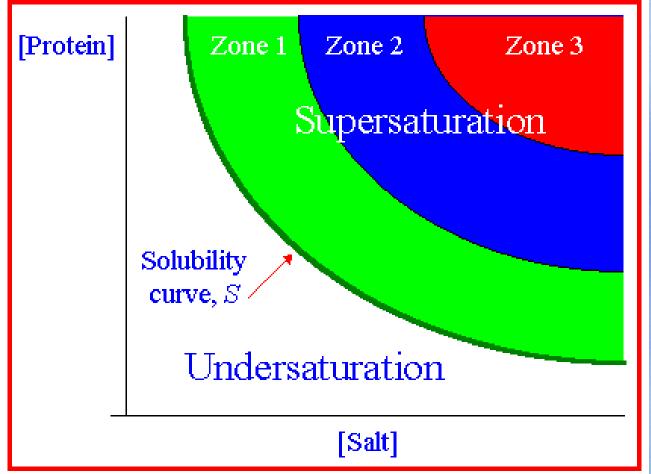


© 1999 GARLAND PUBLISHING INC. A member of the Taylor & Francis Group typically 30 to 70% solvent by volume 'Wet crystals' The crystallization of proteins requires its own dedicated approach, because large, sometimes easily degradable molecules require carefully designed processes.

# Four major steps in crystallization

Obtain large amounts of pure protein samples
 Choose a protein buffer in which the protein is both soluble and stable
 Bring protein solution to supersaturation where spontaneous nucleation can take place

Crystal growth now begins





Below S-no ppt

Zone 1 -Metastable rare nucleation sustains growth (seed)

Zone 2- Nucleation crystals grow

Zone 3 -Precipitation

# Increase [protein] to favor crystallization

Increasing the monomer concentration [M] pushes the equilibrium toward the product.

 $nM \rightarrow M_n$ DG=DG°+RTIn( [M<sub>n</sub>]/[M]<sup>n</sup> )

<u>Lesson</u>: To crystallize a protein, you need to increase its concentration to exceed its solubility (by 3x). Force the monomer out of solution and into the crystal. Supersaturate!

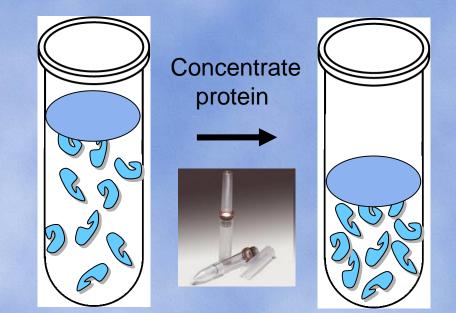
Unstable nucleus N soluble lysozyme molecules 1 crystal (lysozyme)<sub>N</sub> ٨G

 $nM \rightarrow M_n$ 

## Three steps to achieve supersaturation.

### 1) Maximize concentration of purified protein

- Centricon-centrifugal force
- Amicon-pressure
- Vacuum dialysis
- Dialysis against high molecular weight PEG
- Ion exchange.
- Slow! Avoid precipitation. Co-solvent or low salt to maintain native state.

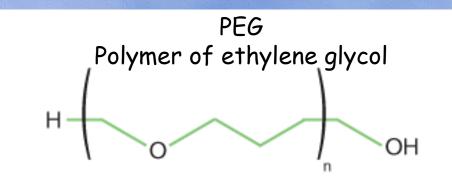


## Three steps to achieve supersaturation.

# 2) Add a precipitating agent

- Polyethylene glycol
  - PEG 8000
  - PEG 4000
- High salt concentration
  - (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>
  - NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>
    Polyethylene glycol
- Small organics
  - ethanol
  - Methylpentanediol (MPD)

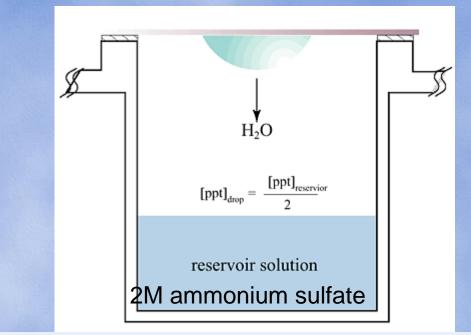




Precipitating agents monopolize water molecules, driving proteins to neutralize their surface charges by interacting with one another. It can lead to (1) amorphous precipitate or (2) crystals.

# Three steps to achieve supersaturation.

### Drop = $\frac{1}{2}$ protein + $\frac{1}{2}$ reservoir



### 3) Allow vapor diffusion to dehydrate the protein solution

- Hanging drop vapor diffusion
- Sitting drop vapor diffusion
- Dialysis
- Liquid-liquid interface diffusion

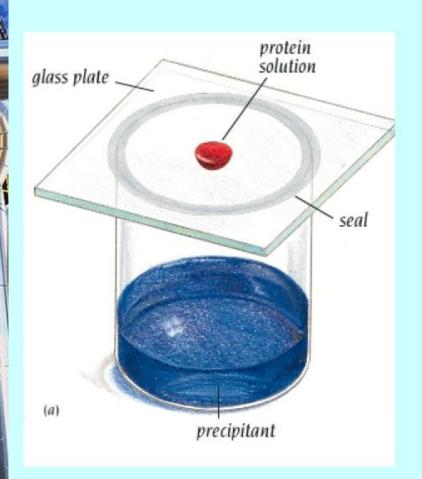


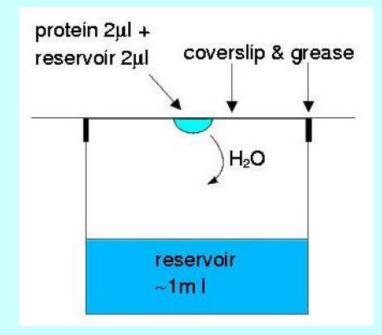
Note: Ammonium sulfate concentration is 2M in reservoir and only 1M in the drop.

With time, water will vaporize from the drop and condense in the reservoir in order to balance the salt concentration.— SUPERSATURATION is achieved!

# Protein crystallization

### 'Hanging drop':



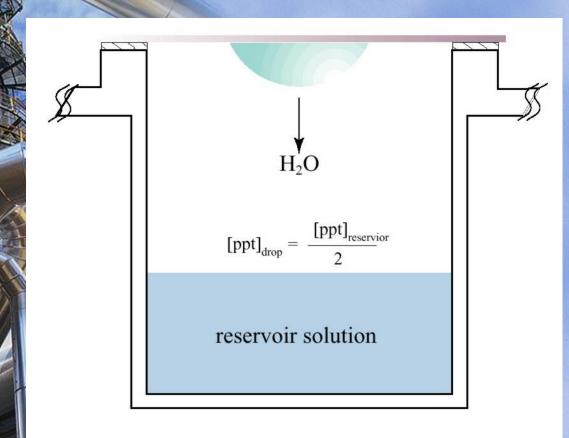


### Example:

Protein: 10mg/ml in 10 mM Tris buffer, pH7.5

Reservoir solution: 2M ammonium sulphate in 100mM citrate buffer, pH5.5

### Hanging Drop Vapor Diffusion

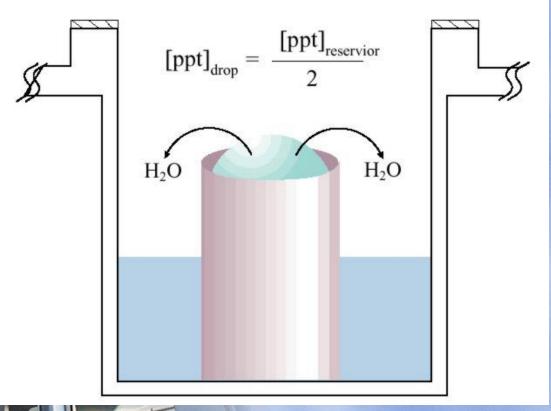


Most popular method among protein crystallographers.

1. Crystal screen buffer is the well solution (0.5 - 1 mL) 2. Drop (on siliconized glass cover slip) is 1/2 protein solution, 1/2 crystal screen buffer (6-10  $\mu$ L). So, the concentration of precipitant in the drop is 1/2 the concentration in the well. 3. Cover slip is inverted over the top of the well and sealed with vacuum grease (airtight).

4. The precipitant concentration in the drop will equilibrate with the precipitant concentration in the well via vapor diffusion.

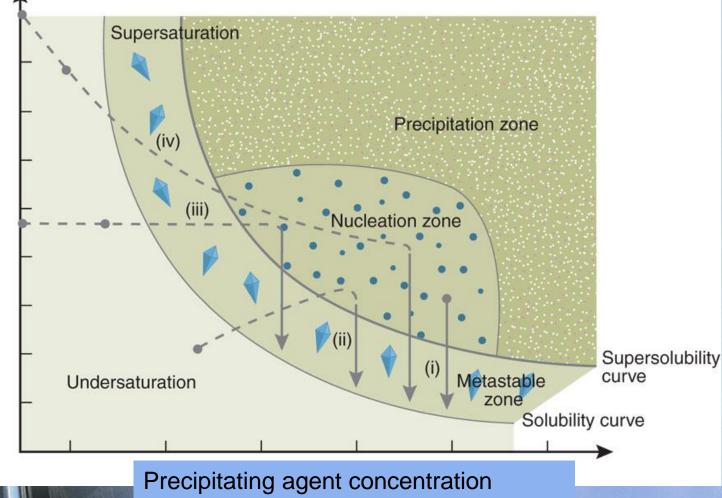
### **Sitting Drop Vapor Diffusion**



Same basic principles as in hanging drop method, except the drop containing your sample sits on a bridge within the well. This allows for a larger sample size (20 -40 μL), however protein is frequently precious to the crystallographer, so there isn't that much demand for a larger sample size.

### Naomi E Chayen & Emmanuel Saridakis Nature Methods - 5, 147 - 153 (2008) Published

online: 30 January 2008; | doi:10.1038/nmeth.f.203

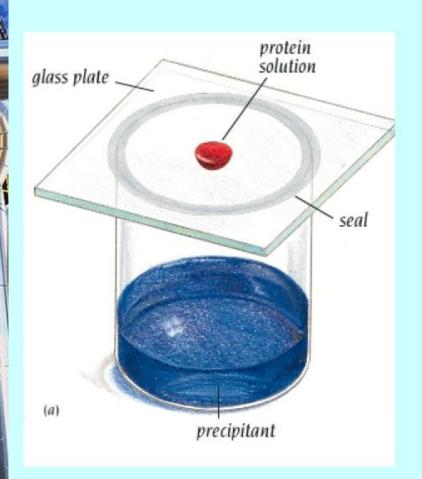


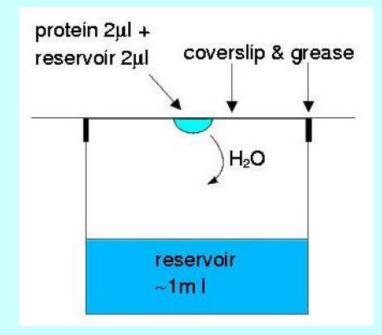
Protein concentration

10

# Protein crystallization

### 'Hanging drop':



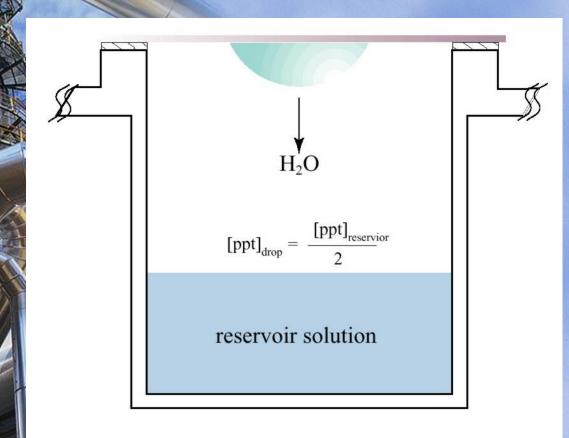


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### Hanging Drop Vapor Diffusion



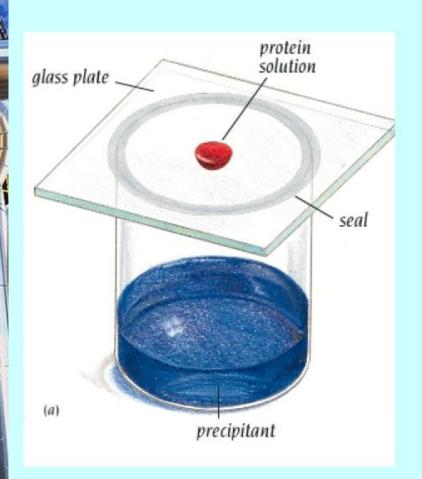
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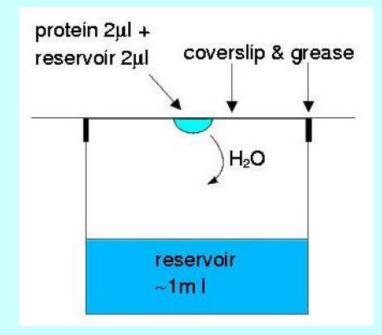
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# Protein crystallization

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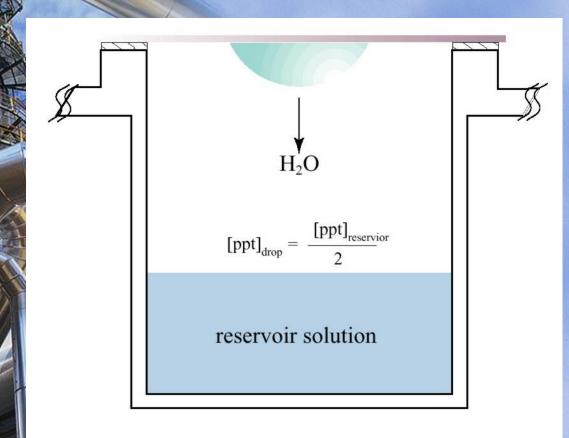


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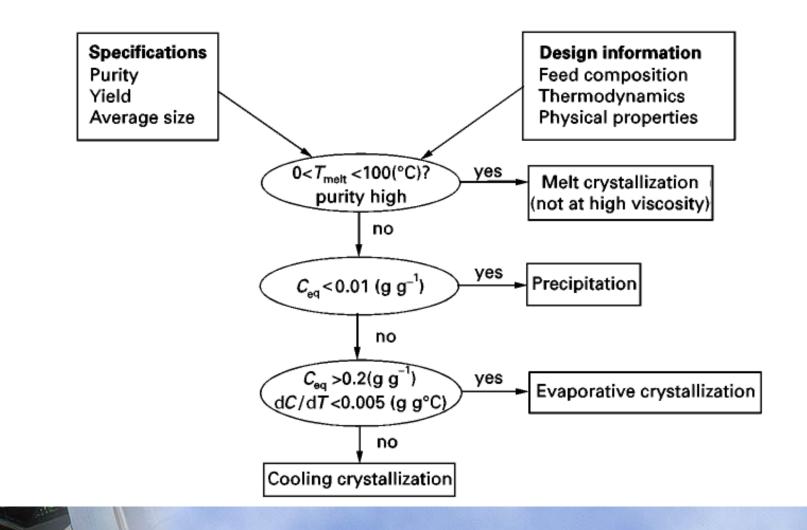
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Decision diagram for choosing the method of crystallization.

## Crystallization Thermodynamics

- The crystallization method is selected on the basis of Thermodynamics taking into account the physicochemical parameters both of the crystallizing substance and of the solvent based on the desired purity of the end product
- ε-caprolactam:99,999% raw material for the production of NYLON-66 by polymerization

# When can we say that a system is at equilibrium??

# The system is at equilibrium in the absence of spontaneous processes

## Temperature

- The system should be at the same temperature as its surroundings
- The temperature should be uniformly distributed
- Steady state should not be confused with equilibrium

Steady state

 $\left(\frac{\delta T}{\delta x}\right) \neq 0$  $\left(\frac{\delta T}{\delta t}\right) = 0$ 

At steady state, there are different temperatures at different points but the system does not change with time.



 $\left(\frac{\delta T}{\delta x}\right) = 0$  $\left(\frac{\delta T}{\delta t}\right) = 0$ 

At equilibrium the temperature is the same throughout the bulk of the system and it does not change with time



## Energy

- Mechanical energy cannot be fully converted into another form of mechanical energy
- It may be converted into heat with a friction process
- The opposite, i.e. the full conversion of heat into energy through friction is not possible!

## Immobile parts

 A system at equilibrium, does not have moving parts because in real systems *motion is associated with friction*, which is increased

## Constant pressure

 In the absence of gravity, electrostatic, magnetic, osmotic or other type of surface forces the system should be at a state of uniform pressure

 If not, the pressure differences (gradients), result in motion

## Lack of electric current flow

- Electric current flowing through a resistance causes its heating
- Electric current is converted into heat
- The process is irreversible

## Phase equilibria

- Definitions
  - Gas substance in gas state
  - Vapor gas at temperature lower than the critical
  - Increasing pressure it may be liquefied

## Liquid-Vapor Equilibria

- Water (liquid) -water vapour equilibria
- The rates in the two directions (departure of molecules from the liquid-return of the gas molecules for the liquid) become equal
- Evaporation = condensation
- Vapour pressure of a liquid = Pressure of the vapours

## If the system is not at equilibrium

 Spontaneous boiling transferring mass to the vapour phase until equilibrium is reached, or...

 Vapour condenses until the pressure of the gas phase becomes equal to the vapour pressure of the liquid.

## A more complex system involving air

Frictionless

Air + vapor

Air dissolves in water and vapour in the gas phase

water + dissolved air

#### Air-water composition at equilibrium 20 °C ,1 atm

	Gas Phase	Liquid Phase
Water mol fraction	0.023	.999985
mol fraction	0.205	5×10 <sup>-6</sup>
Nitrogen mol fraction	0.772	10×10-6
Totals	1.0	1.0

The composition of gas and liquid phases is different

What happens during temperature changes??

 More liquid is vaporized and is transferred in vapour phase.

 Less gas is dissolved in the liquid



## Increase of complexity

- For a pure substance the composition of the two phases is the same (100%)
- The addition of more components results in the differentiation of the composition of the two phases

Chemical engineers take advantage of this differentiation in separation processes



It is the basis of the distillation columns, extraction, drying and crystallization processes Is it possible to predict the composition of each of the phases in a system consisting of several components??

- Raoult's Law
- · Henry's Law

#### Raoult's Law - Partial Pressure

 $P_i = y_i P$ 

P<sub>i</sub> partial pressure of component i

yi mole fraction of component i in the gas

P Total gas pressure

Raoult's Law – Vapour partial pressure

 $P_i = x_i P_i^0 = y_i P$  At equilibrium

P<sub>i</sub> partial vapour pressure of component i

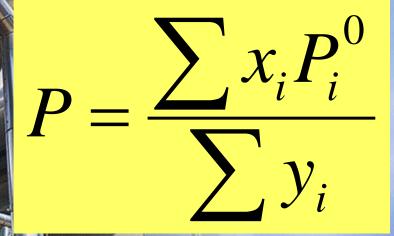
x, mole fraction of component i in the liquid phase

P0 vapour pressure of pure component i

Raoult's Law

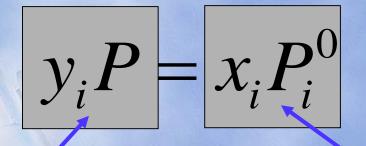
 $y_i P = x_i P_i^0$ 

# and hence for a multicomponent system





Fugacity



Partial pressure Partial vapour pressure

fugacity of gas

Fugacity of the liquid

Refers to ideal gases and ideal solutions

## Henry's Law

- Used for gases above their respective critical temperature
- e.g. dissolution of  $O_2$  in water
  - O<sub>2</sub> is not a liquid at room temperature, It is not possible to use Raoult's Law
  - We do not have a vapour pressure. We have thus to use a "pseudo" vapour pressure, defined as Henry's law constant

## Henry's Law

Henry's law coincides with Raoult's law. The difference is in the fact that Henry's law constant replaces for the vapour pressure

 $y_i P = x_i H_i$ 

#### Which equation should we use?

- Raoult's law refers to vapourliquid equilibria
- Henry's law refers to gasliquid equilibria

- Gases do not dissolve extensively in liquids

#### Problem solution

 In a system, water is at equilibrium with air, pressure 1 atm

 $y_{water}P = x_{water}P_{water}^{0}$   $y_{water}P = x_{water}P_{water}^{0}$   $P = x_{oxygen}H_{oxygen}$  Henry's law  $F = x_{nitrogen}H_{nitrogen}$  Henry's Law  $y_{nitrogen}P = x_{nitrogen}H_{nitrogen}$  Henry's Law 3 equations and 6 unknown!!!

## 3 more equations...

- The sum of the mole fractions of all components in vapour is 1
  - The sum of the mole fractions of all components in the gas is 1 The O:N ratio

$$y_{water} + y_{oxygen} + y_{nitrogen} = 1$$

$$x_{water} + x_{oxygen} + x_{nitrogen} = 1$$

$$\frac{y_{oxygen}}{y_{nitrogen}} = \frac{0.21}{0.79} = 0.266$$

# Solution of the system of equations

- Excel worksheets
- · MATLAB
- Pocket calculators
- Pencil, paper and brain..

## Use and limitations of Raoult's and Henry's laws

- 1. In dilute solutions, Raoult's law is possibly valid for the solvent.
- In case both the solvent and the solute are similar, Raoult's law is valid for the entire concentration range.

 If the solvent and the solute interact chemically, Raoult's law is no more valid.

#### Use and limitations of Raoult's and Henry's laws

- Henry's law is valid for most of the gases except for the case they interact chemically with the solvent.
- 5. Henry's law is valid for liquids practically immiscible with water (very low solubility).
- 6. Henry's law may be used for solvents other than water.

#### Use and limitations of Raoult's and Henry's laws

 It is possible to use a "fudge factor" (συντελεστή μαγειρέματος), known as activity coefficient, to correct for deviations from ideal behaviour.