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unfavourable vapour pressures or ease of decomposition, or where super-pure materials are required. It has been used for the latter purpose for purifying anthracene, benzoic acid, chrysene, morphine, 1,8-naphthyridine and pyrene to name a few. [See E.F.G.Herington, *Zone Melting of Organic Compounds*, Wiley & Sons, NY, 1963; W.Pfann, *Zone Melting*, 2nd edn, Wiley, NY, 1966; H.Schildknecht, *Zonenschmelzen*, Verlag Chemie, Weinheim, 1964; W.R.Wilcox, R.Friedenberg et al. *Chem Rev* **64** 187 *1964*; M.Zief and W.R.Wilcox (Eds), *Fractional Solidification*, Vol I, M Dekker Inc. NY, 1967.]

SUBLIMATION

Sublimation differs from ordinary distillation because the vapour condenses to a solid instead of a liquid. Usually, the pressure in the heated system is diminished by pumping, and the vapour is condensed (after travelling a relatively short distance) onto a cold finger or some other cooled surface. This technique, which is applicable to many organic solids, can also be used with inorganic solids such as aluminium chloride, ammonium chloride, arsenious oxide and iodine. In some cases, passage of a stream of inert gas over the heated substance secures adequate vaporisation. This procedure has the added advantage of removing occluded solvent used in recrystallising the solid.

CHROMATOGRAPHY

Chromatography is often used with advantage for the purification of small amounts of complex organic mixtures. Chromatography techniques all rely on the differential distribution of the various components in a mixture between the mobile phase and the stationary phase. The mobile phase can either be a gas or a liquid whereas the stationary phase can either be a solid or a liquid.

The major chromatographic techniques can also be categorised according to the nature of the mobile phase used - vapour phase chromatography for when a gas is the mobile phase and liquid chromatography for when a liquid is the mobile phase.

A very useful catalog for chromatographic products and information relating to chromatography (from gas chromatography to biochromatography) is that produced by Merck, called the ChromBook and the associated compact disk, ChromCircle.

Vapour phase chromatography (GC or gas-liquid chromatography)

The mobile phase in vapour phase chromatography is a gas (e.g. hydrogen, helium, nitrogen or argon) and the stationary phase is a non-volatile liquid impregnated onto a porous material. The mixture to be purified is injected into a heated inlet whereby it is vaporised and taken into the column by the carrier gas. It is separated into its components by partition between the liquid on the porous support and the gas. For this reason vapour-phase chromatography is sometimes referred to as gas-liquid chromatography (g.l.c). Vapour phase chromatography is very useful in the resolution of a mixture of volatile compounds. This type of chromatography uses either packed or capillary columns. Packed columns have internal diameters of 3-5 mm with lengths of 2-6 m. These columns can be packed with a range of materials including firebrick derived materials (chromasorb P, for separation of non polar hydrocarbons) or diatomaceous earth (chromasorb W, for separation of more polar molecules such as acids, amines). Capillary columns have stationary phase bonded to the walls of long capillary tubes. The diameters in capillary columns are less than 0.5 mm and the lengths of these columns can go up to 50 m! These columns have much superior separating powers than the packed columns. Elution times for equivalent resolutions with packed columns can be up to ten times shorter. It is believed that almost any mixture of compounds can be separated using one of the four stationary phases, OV-101, SE-30, OV-17 and Carbowax-20M. The use of capillary columns in gas chromatography for analysis is now routinely carried out. An extensive range of packed and capillary columns is available from chromatographic specialists such as Supelco, Alltech, Hewlett-Packard, Phenomenex etc.

Table 10 shows some typical liquids used for stationary phases in gas chromatography.

Although vapour gas chromatography is routinely used for the analysis of mixtures, this form of chromatography can also be used for separation/purification of substances. This is known as preparative GC. In preparative GC, suitable packed columns are used and as substances emerge from the column, they are collected by condensing the vapour of these separated substances in suitable traps. The carrier gas blows the vapour through these traps hence these traps have to be very efficient. Improved collection of the effluent vaporised fractions in preparative work is attained by strong cooling, increasing the surface of the traps by packing them with glass wool, and by applying an electrical potential which neutralises the charged vapour and causes it to condense.

When the gas chromatograph is attached to a mass spectrometer, a very powerful analytical tool (*gas chromatography-mass spectrometry*; **GC-MS**) is produced. Vapour gas chromatography allows the analyses of mixtures but does not allow the definitive identification of unknown substances whereas mass spectrometry is good for the identification of a single compound but is less than ideal for the identification of mixtures of

compounds. This means that with GC-MS, both separation *and* identification of substances in mixtures can be achieved. Because of the relatively small amounts of material required for mass spectrometry, a splitting system is inserted between the column and the mass spectrometer. This enables only a small fraction of the effluent to enter the spectrometer, the rest of the effluent is usually collected or vented to the air.

Liquid chromatography

In contrast to vapour phase chromatography, the mobile phase in liquid chromatography is a liquid. In general, there are four main types of liquid chromatography: *adsorption, partition, ion-chromatography*, and *gel filtration.*

Adsorption chromatography is based on the difference in the extent to which substances in solution are adsorbed onto a suitable surface. The main techniques in adsorption chromatography are TLC (Thin Layer Chromatography), paper and column chromatography.

Thin layer chromatography (TLC). In thin layer chromatography, the mobile phase i.e. the solvent, creeps up the stationary phase (the absorbent) by capillary action. The adsorbent (e.g. silica, alumina, cellulose) is spread on a rectangular glass plate (or solid inert plastic sheet or aluminium foil). Some adsorbents (e.g. silica) are mixed with a setting material (e.g. $CaSO_4$) by the manufacturers which causes the film to set hard on drying. The adsorbent can be activated by heating at 100-110° for a few hours. Other adsorbents (e.g. celluloses) adhere on glass plates without a setting agent. Thus some grades of absorbents have prefixes e.g. prefix G means that the absorbent can cling to a glass plate and is used for TLC (e.g. silica gel GF_{254} is for TLC plates which have a dye that fluoresces under 254nm UV light). Those lacking this binder have the letter H after any coding and is suitable for column chromatography e.g. silica gel 60H. The materials to be purified or separated are spotted in a solvent close to the lower end of the plate and allowed to dry. The spots will need to be placed at such a distance so as to ensure that when the lower end of the plate is immersed in the solvent, the spots are a few mm above the eluting solvent. The plate is placed upright in a tank containing the eluting solvent. Elution is carried out in a closed tank to ensure equilibrium. Good separations can be achieved with square plates if a second elution is performed at right angles to the first using a second solvent system. For rapid work, plates of the size of microscopic slides or even smaller are used which can decrease the elution time and cost without loss of resolution. The advantage of plastic backed and aluminium foil backed plates is that the size of the plate can be made as required by cutting the sheet with scissors or a sharp guillotine. Visualisation of substances on TLC can be carried out using UV light if they are UV absorbing or fluorescing substances or by spraying or dipping the plate with a reagent that gives coloured products with the substance (e.g. iodine solution or vapour gives brown colours with amines), or with dilute sulfuric acid (organic compounds become coloured or black when the plates are heated at 100° if the plates are of alumina or silica, but not cellulose). (see Table 11 for some methods of visualisation.) Some alumina and silica powders are available with fluorescent materials in them, in which case the whole plate fluoresces under UV light. Non-fluorescing spots are thus clearly visible, and fluorescent spots invariably fluoresce with a different colour. The colour of the spots can be different under UV light at 254nm and at 365nm. Another useful way of showing up non-UV absorbing spots is to spray the plate with a 1-2% solution of Rhodamine 6G in acetone. Under UV light the dye fluoresces and reveals the non-fluorescing spots. For preparative work, if the material in the spot or fraction is soluble in ether or petroleum ether, the desired substance can be extracted from the absorbent with these solvents which leave the water soluble dye behind.
TLC can be used as an analytical technique, or as a guide to establishing conditions for column chromatography or as a preparative technique in its own right.
The thickness of the absorbent on the TLC plates could be between 0.2mm to 2mm or more. In preparative work, the thicker plates are used and hundreds of milligrams of mixtures can be purified conveniently and quickly. The spots or areas are easily scraped off the plates and the desired substances extracted from the absorbent with the required solvent. For preparative TLC, non destructive methods for visualising spots and fractions are required. As such, the use of UV light is very useful. If substances are not UV active, then a small section of the plate (usually the right or left edge of the plate) is sprayed with a visualising agent while the remainder of the plate is kept covered.
Thin layer chromatography has been used successfully with ion-exchange celluloses as stationary phases and various aqueous buffers as mobile phases. Also, gels (e.g. Sephadex G-50 to G-200 superfine) have been adsorbed on glass plates and are good for fractionating substances of high molecular weights (1500 to 250,000). With this technique, which is called *thin layer gel filtration* (**TLG**), molecular weights of proteins can be determined when suitable markers of known molecular weights are run alongside (see Chapter 6).
Commercially available pre-coated plates with a variety of adsorbents are generally very good for quantitative work because they are of a standard quality. Plates of a standardised silica gel 60 (as medium porosity silica gel with a mean porosity of 6mm) released by Merck have a specific surface of 500 m^2/g and a specific pore volume of 0.75 mL/g. They are so efficient that they have been called *high performance thin layer chromatography* (**HPTLC**) plates (Ropphahn and Halpap *J Chromatogr* **112** 81 *1975*). In another variant of thin layer chromatography the

adsorbent is coated with an oil as in gas chromatography thus producing *reverse-phase thin layer chromatography*. Reversed-phase TLC plates e.g. silica gel RP-18 are available from Fluka and Merck.
A very efficient form of chromatography makes use of a circular glass plate (rotor) coated with an adsorbent (silica, alumina or cellulose). As binding to a rotor is needed, the sorbents used may be of a special quality and/or binders are added to the sorbent mixtures. For example when silica gel is required as the absorbent, silica gel 60 PF-254 with calcium sulfate (Merck catalog 7749) is used. The thickness of the absorbent (1, 2 or 4 mm) can vary depending on the amount of material to be separated. The apparatus is called a **Chromatotron** (available from Harrison Research, USA). The glass plate is rotated by a motor, and the sample followed by the eluting solvent is allowed to drip onto a central position on the plate. As the plate rotates the solvent elutes the mixture, centrifugally, while separating the components in the form of circular bands radiating from the central point. The separated bands are usually visualised conveniently by UV and as the bands approach the edge of the plate, the eluent is collected. The plate with the adsorbent can be re-used many times if care is employed in the usage, and hence this form of chromatography utilises less absorbents as well as solvents.
Recipes and instructions for coating the rotors are available from the Harrison website (http://pw1.netcom.com/~ithres/harrisonresearch.html). In addition, information on how to regenerate the sorbents and binders are also included.

Paper chromatography. This is the technique from which thin layer chromatography developed. It uses cellulose paper (filter paper) instead of the TLC adsorbent and does not require a backing like the plastic sheet in TLC. It is used in the **ascending procedure** (like in TLC) whereby a sheet of paper is hung in a jar, the materials to be separated are spotted (after dissolving in a suitable solvent and drying) near the bottom of the sheet which dips into the eluting solvent just below the spot. As the solvent rises up the paper the spots are separated according to their adsorption properties. A variety of solvents can be used, the sheet is then dried in air (fume cupboard), and can then be run again with the solvent running at right angles to the first run to give a two dimensional separation. The spots can then be visualised as in TLC or can be cut out and analysed as required. A **descending procedure** had also been developed where the material to be separated is spotted near the top of the paper and the top end is made to dip into a tray containing the eluting solvent. The whole paper is placed in a glass jar and the solvent then runs down the paper causing the materials in the spots to separate also according to their adsorption properties and to the eluting ability of the solvent. This technique is much cheaper than TLC and is still used (albeit with thicker cellulose paper) with considerable success for the separation of protein hydrolysates for sequencing analysis and/or protein identification.

Column Chromatography. The substances to be purified are usually placed on the top of the column and the solvent is run down the column. Fractions are collected and checked for compounds using TLC (UV and/or other means of visualisation). The adsorbent for chromatography can be packed dry and solvents to be used for chromatography are used to equilibrate the adsorbent by flushing the column several times until equilibration is achieved. Alternatively, the column containing the adsorbent is packed wet (slurry method) and pressure is applied at the top of the column until the column is well packed (i.e. the adsorbent is settled).

Graded Adsorbents and Solvents. Materials used in columns for adsorption chromatography are grouped in Table 12 in an approximate order of effectiveness. Other adsorbents sometimes used include barium carbonate, calcium sulfate, calcium phosphate, charcoal (usually mixed with Kieselguhr or other form of diatomaceous earth, for example, the filter aid Celite) and cellulose. The alumina can be prepared in several grades of activity (see below).
In most cases, adsorption takes place most readily from non-polar solvents, such as petroleum ether and least readily from polar solvents such as alcohols, esters, and acetic acid. Common solvents, arranged in approximate order of increasing eluting ability are also given in Table 12. Eluting power roughly parallels the dielectric constants of solvents. The series also reflects the extent to which the solvent binds to the column material, thereby displacing the substances that are already adsorbed. This preference of alumina and silica gel for polar molecules explains, for example, the use of percolation through a column of silica gel for the following purposes-drying of ethylbenzene, removal of aromatics from 2,4-dimethylpentane and of ultraviolet absorbing substances from cyclohexane.
Mixed solvents are intermediate in strength, and so provide a finely graded series. In choosing a solvent for use as an eluent it is necessary to consider the solubility of the substance in it, and the ease with which it can subsequently be removed.

Preparation and Standardisation of Alumina. The activity of alumina depends inversely on its water content, and a sample of poorly active material can be rendered more active by leaving for some time in a round bottomed flask heated up to about 200° in an oil bath or a heating mantle while a slow stream of a dry inert gas is passed through it. Alternatively, it is heated to red heat (380-400°) in an open vessel for 4-6h with

occasional stirring and then cooled in a vacuum desiccator: this material is then of grade I activity. Conversely, alumina can be rendered less active by adding small amounts of water and thoroughly mixing for several hours. Addition of about 3% (w/w) of water converts grade I alumina to grade II.
Used alumina can be regenerated by repeated extraction, first with boiling methanol, then with boiling water, followed by drying and heating. The degree of activity of the material can be expressed conveniently in terms of the scale due to Brockmann and Schodder (*Chem Ber* B **74** 73 *1941*).
Alumina is normally slightly alkaline. A (less strongly adsorbing) neutral alumina can be prepared by making a slurry in water and adding 2M hydrochloric acid until the solution is acid to Congo red. The alumina is then filtered off, washed with distilled water until the wash water gives only a weak violet colour with Congo red paper, and dried.
Alumina used in TLC can be recovered by washing in ethanol for 48h with occasional stirring, to remove binder material and then washed with successive portions of ethyl acetate, acetone and finally with distilled water. Fine particles are removed by siphoning. The alumina is first suspended in 0.04M acetic acid, then in distilled water, siphoning off 30 minutes after each wash. The process is repeated 7-8 times. It is then dried and activated at 200° [Vogh and Thomson *Anal Chem* **53** 1365 *1981*].

Preparation of other adsorbents

Silica gel can be prepared from commercial water-glass by diluting it with water to a density of 1.19 and, while keeping it cooled to 5°, adding concentrated hydrochloric acid with stirring until the solution is acid to thymol blue. After standing for 3h, the precipitate is filtered off, washed on a Büchner funnel with distilled water, then suspended in 0.2M hydrochloric acid. The suspension is set aside for 2-3 days, with occasional stirring, then filtered, washed well with water and dried at 110°. It can be activated by heating up to about 200° as described for alumina.
Powdered commercial silica gel can be purified by suspending and standing overnight in concentrated hydrochloric acid (6mL/g), decanting the supernatant and repeating with fresh acid until the latter remains colourless. After filtering with suction on a sintered-glass funnel, the residue is suspended in water and washed by decantation until free of chloride ions. It is then filtered, suspended in 95% ethanol, filtered again and washed on the filter with 95% ethanol. The process is repeated with anhydrous diethyl ether before the gel is heated for 24h at 100° and stored for another 24h in a vacuum desiccator over phosphorus pentoxide.
To buffer silica gel for flash chromatography (see later), 200g of silica is stirred in 1L of 0.2M NaH_2PO_4 for 30 minutes. The slurry is then filtered with suction using a sintered glass funnel. The silica gel is then activated at 110°C for 16 hours. The pH of the resulting silica gel is ~4. Similar procedures can be utilized to buffer the pH of the silica gel at various pHs (up to pH ~8: pH higher than this causes degradation of silica) using appropriate phosphate buffers.
Commercial silica gel has also been purified by suspension of 200g in 2L of 0.04M ammonia, allowed to stand for 5min before siphoning off the supernatant. The procedure was repeated 3-4 times, before rinsing with distilled water and drying, and activating the silica gel in an oven at 110° [Vogh and Thomson, *Anal Chem* **53** 1345 *1981*].
Although silica gel is not routinely recycled after use (due to fear of contamination as well as the possibility of reduced activity), the costs of using new silica gel for purification may be prohibitive. In these cases, recycling may be achieved by stirring the used silica gel (1 kg) in a mixture of methanol and water (2L MeOH/4L water) for 30-40 mins. The silica gel is filtered (as described above) and reactivated at 110°C for 16 hours.

Diatomaceous earth (Celite 535 or 545, Hyflo Super-cel, Dicalite, Kieselguhr) is purified before use by washing with 3M hydrochloric acid, then water, or it is made into a slurry with hot water, filtered at the pump and washed with water at 50° until the filtrate is no longer alkaline to litmus. Organic materials can be removed by repeated extraction at 50° with methanol or chloroform, followed by washing with methanol, filtering and drying at 90-100°.

Charcoal is generally satisfactorily activated by heating gently to red heat in a crucible or quartz beaker in a muffle furnace, finally allowing to cool under an inert atmosphere in a desiccator. Good commercial activated charcoal is made from wood, e.g. *Norit* (from Birch wood), *Darco* and *Nuchar*. If the cost is important then the cheaper *animal charcoal* (bone charcoal) can be used. However, this charcoal contains calcium phosphate and other calcium salts and cannot be used with acidic materials. In this case the charcoal is boiled with dilute hydrochloric acid (1:1 by volume) for 2-3h, diluted with distilled water and filtered through a fine grade paper on a Büchner flask, washed with distilled water until the filtrate is almost neutral, and dried first in air then in a vacuum, and activated as above. To improve the porosity, charcoal columns are usually prepared in admixture with diatomaceous earth.

Cellulose for chromatography is purified by sequential washing with chloroform, ethanol, water, ethanol, chloroform and acetone. More extensive purification uses aqueous ammonia, water, hydrochloric acid, water, acetone and diethyl ether, followed by drying in a vacuum. Trace metals can be removed from filter paper by washing for several hours with 0.1M oxalic or citric acid, followed by repeated washing with distilled water.

Flash Chromatography

A faster method of separating components of a mixture is *flash chromatography* (see Still et al. *J Org Chem* **43** 2923 *1978*). In flash chromatography the eluent flows through the column under a pressure of *ca* 1 to 4 atmospheres. The lower end of the chromatographic column has a relatively long taper closed with a tap. The upper end of the column is connected through a ball joint to a tap. Alternatively a specially designed chromatographic column with a solvent reservoir can also be used (for an example, see the Aldrich Chemical Catalog-glassware section). The tapered portion is plugged with cotton, or quartz, wool and *ca* 1 cm of fine washed sand (the latter is optional). The adsorbent is then placed in the column as a dry powder or as a slurry in a solvent and allowed to fill to about one third of the column. A fine grade of adsorbent is required in order to slow the flow rate at the higher pressure, e.g. Silica 60, 230 to 400 mesh with particle size 0.040-0.063mm (from Merck). The top of the adsorbent is layered with *ca* 1 cm of fine washed sand. The mixture in the smallest volume of solvent is applied at the top of the column and allowed to flow into the adsorbent under gravity by opening the lower tap momentarily. The top of the column is filled with eluent, the upper tap is connected by a tube to a nitrogen supply from a cylinder, or to compressed air, and turned on to the desired pressure (monitor with a gauge). The lower tap is turned on and fractions are collected rapidly until the level of eluent has reached the top of the adsorbent (do not allow the column to run dry). If further elution is desired then both taps are turned off, the column is filled with more eluting solvent and the process repeated. The top of the column can be modified so that gradient elution can be performed. Alternatively, an apparatus for producing the gradient is connected to the upper tap by a long tube and placed high above the column in order to produce the required hydrostatic pressure. Flash chromatography is more efficient and gives higher resolution than conventional chromatography at atmospheric pressure and is completed in a relatively shorter time. A successful separation of components of a mixture by TLC using the same adsorbent is a good indication that flash chromatography will give the desired separation on a larger scale.

Paired-ion Chromatography (PIC)

Mixtures containing ionic compounds (e.g. acids and/or bases), non-ionisable compounds, and zwitterions, can be separated successfully by paired-ion chromatography (PIC). It utilises the 'reverse-phase' technique (Eksberg and Schill *Anal Chem* **45** 2092 *1973*). The stationary phase is lipophilic, such as μ-BONDAPAK C_{18} or any other adsorbent that is compatible with water. The mobile phase is water or aqueous methanol containing the acidic or basic counter ion. Thus the mobile phase consists of dilute solutions of strong acids (e.g. 5mM 1-heptanesulfonic acid) or strong bases (e.g. 5 mM tetrabutylammonium phosphate) that are completely ionised at the operating pH values which are usually between 2 and 8. An equilibrium is set up between the neutral species of a mixture in the stationary phase and the respective ionised (anion or cation) species which dissolve in the mobile phase containing the counter ions. The extent of the equilibrium will depend on the ionisation constants of the respective components of the mixture, and the solubility of the unionised species in the stationary phase. Since the ionisation constants and the solubility in the stationary phase will vary with the water-methanol ratio of the mobile phase, the separation may be improved by altering this ratio gradually (gradient elution) or stepwise. If the compounds are eluted too rapidly the water content of the mobile phase should be increased, e.g. by steps of 10%. Conversely, if components do not move, or move slowly, the methanol content of the mobile phase should be increased by steps of 10%.

The application of pressure to the liquid phase in liquid chromatography generally increases the separation (see HPLC). Also in PIC improved efficiency of the column is observed if pressure is applied to the mobile phase (Wittmer, Nuessle and Haney *Anal Chem* **47** 1422 *1975*).

Ion-exchange Chromatography

Ion-exchange chromatography involves an electrostatic process which depends on the relative affinities of various types of ions for an immobilised assembly of ions of opposite charge. The stationary phase is an aqueous buffer with a fixed pH or an aqueous mixture of buffers in which the pH is continuously increased or decreased as the separation may require. This form of liquid chromatography can also be performed at high inlet pressures of liquid with increased column performances.

Ion-exchange Resins. An ion-exchange resin is made up of particles of an insoluble elastic hydrocarbon network to which is attached a large number of ionisable groups. Materials commonly used comprise synthetic ion-exchange resins made, for example, by crosslinking polystyrene to which has been attached non-

diffusible ionised or ionisable groups. Resins with relatively high crosslinkage (8-12%) are suitable for the chromatography of small ions, whereas those with low cross linkage (2-4%) are suitable for larger molecules. Applications to hydrophobic systems are possible using aqueous gels with phenyl groups bound to the rigid matrix (Phenyl-Superose/Sepharose, Pharmacia-Amersham Biosciences) or neopentyl chains (Alkyl-Superose, Pharmacia-Amersham Biosciences). (Superose is a cross-linked agarose-based medium with an almost uniform bead size.) These groups are further distinguishable as strong [$-SO_2OH$, $-NR_3^+$] or weak [-OH, $-CO_2H$, $-PO(OH)_2$, $-NH_2$]. Their charges are counterbalanced by diffusible ions, and the operation of a column depends on its ability and selectivity to replace these ions. The exchange that takes place is primarily an electrostatic process but adsorptive forces and hydrogen bonding can also be important. A typical sequence for the relative affinities of some common anions (and hence the inverse order in which they pass through such a column), is the following, obtained using a quaternary ammonium (strong base) anion-exchange column:

Fluoride < acetate < bicarbonate < hydroxide < formate < chloride < bromate < nitrite < cyanide < bromide < chromate < nitrate < iodide < thiocyanate < oxalate < sulfate < citrate.

For an amine (weak base) anion-exchange column in its chloride form, the following order has been observed:

Fluoride < chloride < bromide = iodide = acetate < molybdate < phosphate < arsenate < nitrate < tartrate < citrate < chromate < sulfate < hydroxide.

With strong cation-exchangers (e.g. with SO_3H groups), the usual sequence is that polyvalent ions bind more firmly than mono- or di- valent ones, a typical series being as follows:

$Th^{4+} > Fe^{3+} > Al^{3+} > Ba^{2+} > Pb^{2+} > Sr^{2+} > Ca^{2+} > Co^{2+} > Ni^{2+} = Cu^{2+} > Zn^{2+} = Mg^{2+} > UO_2^+ = Mn^{2+} > Ag^+ > Tl^+ > Cs^+ > Rb^+ > NH_4^+ = K^+ > Na^+ > H^+ > Li^+$.

Thus, if an aqueous solution of a sodium salt contaminated with heavy metals is passed through the sodium form of such a column, the heavy metal ions will be removed from the solution and will be replaced by sodium ions from the column. This effect is greatest in dilute solution. Passage of sufficiently strong solutions of alkali metal salts or mineral acids readily displaces all other cations from ion-exchange columns. (The regeneration of columns depends on this property.) However, when the cations lie well to the left in the above series it is often advantageous to use a complex-forming species to facilitate removal. For example, iron can be displaced from ion-exchange columns by passage of sodium citrate or sodium ethylenediaminetetraacetate.

Some of the more common commercially available resins are listed in Table 13.

Ion-exchange resins swell in water to an extent which depends on the amount of crosslinking in the polymer, so that columns should be prepared from the wet material by adding it as a suspension in water to a tube already partially filled with water. (This also avoids trapping air bubbles.) The exchange capacity of a resin is commonly expressed as mg equiv./mL of wet resin. This quantity is pH-dependent for weak-acid or weak-base resins but is constant at about 0.6-2 for most strong-acid or strong-base types.

Apart from their obvious applications to inorganic species, sulfonic acid resins have been used in purifying amino acids, aminosugars, organic acids, peptides, purines, pyrimidines, nucleosides, nucleotides and polynucleotides. Thus, organic bases can be applied to the H^+ form of such resins by adsorbing them from neutral solution and, after washing with water, they are eluted sequentially with suitable buffer solutions or dilute acids. Alternatively, by passing alkali solution through the column, the bases will be displaced in an order that is governed by their pK values. Similarly, strong-base anion exchangers have been used for aldehydes and ketones (as bisulfite addition compounds), carbohydrates (as their borate complexes), nucleosides, nucleotides, organic acids, phosphate esters and uronic acids. Weakly acidic and weakly basic exchange resins have also found extensive applications, mainly in resolving weakly basic and acidic species. For demineralisation of solutions without large changes in pH, mixed-bed resins can be prepared by mixing a cation-exchange resin in its H^+ form with an anion-exchange resin in its OH^- form. Commercial examples include Amberlite MB-1 (IR-120 + IRA-400) and Bio-Deminrolit (Zeo-Karb 225 and Zerolit FF). The latter is also available in a self-indicating form.

Ion-exchange Celluloses and Sephadex. A different type of ion-exchange column that finds extensive application in biochemistry for the purification of proteins, nucleic acids and acidic polysaccharides derives from cellulose by incorporating acidic and basic groups to give ion-exchangers of controlled acid and basic strengths. Commercially available cellulose-type resins are given in Tables 14 and 15. AG 501 x 8 (Bio-Rad) is a mixed-bed resin containing equivalents of AG 50W-x8 H^+ form and AG 1-x8 HO^- form, and Bio-Rex MSZ 501 resin. A dye marker indicates when the resin is exhausted. Removal of unwanted cations, particularly of the transition metals, from amino acids and buffer can be achieved by passage of the solution through a column of Chelex 20 or Chelex 100. The metal-chelating abilities of the resin reside in the bonded iminodiacetate groups.

Chelex can be regenerated by washing in two bed volumes of 1M HCl, two bed volumes of 1M NaOH and five bed volumes of water.
Ion-exchange celluloses are available in different particle sizes. It is important that the amounts of 'fines' are kept to a minimum otherwise the flow of liquid through the column can be extremely slow to the point of no liquid flow. Celluloses with a large range of particle sizes should be freed from 'fines' before use. This is done by suspending the powder in the required buffer and allowing it to settle for one hour and then decanting the 'fines'. This separation appears to be wasteful but it is necessary for reasonable flow rates without applying high pressures at the top of the column. Good flow rates can be obtained if the cellulose column is packed dry whereby the 'fines' are evenly distributed throughout the column. Wet packing causes the 'fines' to rise to the top of the column, which thus becomes clogged.
Several ion-exchange celluloses require recycling before use, a process which must be applied for recovered celluloses. Recycling is done by stirring the cellulose with 0.1M aqueous sodium hydroxide, washing with water until neutral, then suspending in 0.1M hydrochloric acid and finally washing with water until neutral. When regenerating a column it is advisable to wash with a salt solution (containing the required counter ions) of increasing ionic strength up to 2M. The cellulose is then washed with water and recycled if necessary. Recycling can be carried out more than once if there are doubts about the purity of the cellulose and when the cellulose had been used previously for a different purification procedure than the one to be used. The basic matrix of these ion-exchangers is cellulose and it is important not to subject them to strong acid (> 1M) and strongly basic (> 1M) solutions.
When storing ion-exchange celluloses, or during prolonged usage, it is important to avoid growth of microorganisms or moulds which slowly destroy the cellulose. Good inhibitors of microorganisms are phenyl mercuric salts (0.001%, effective in weakly alkaline solutions), chlorohexidine (Hibitane at 0.002% for anion exchangers), 0.02% aqueous sodium azide or 0.005% of ethyl mercuric thiosalicylate (Merthiolate) are most effective in weakly acidic solutions for cation exchangers. Trichlorobutanol (Chloretone, at 0.05% is only effective in weakly acidic solutions) can be used for both anion and cation exchangers. Most organic solvents (e.g. methanol) are effective antimicrobial agents but only at high concentrations. These inhibitors must be removed by washing the columns thoroughly before use because they may have adverse effects on the material to be purified (e.g. inactivation of enzymes or other active preparations).

Sephadex. Other carbohydrate matrices such as *Sephadex* (based on dextran) have more uniform particle sizes. Their advantages over the celluloses include faster and more reproducible flow rates and they can be used directly without removal of 'fines'. *Sephadex*, which can also be obtained in a variety of ion-exchange forms (see Table 15) consists of beads of a cross-linked dextran gel which swells in water and aqueous salt solutions. The smaller the bead size, the higher the resolution that is possible but the slower the flow rate. Typical applications of Sephadex gels are the fractionation of mixtures of polypeptides, proteins, nucleic acids, polysaccharides and for desalting solutions.
Sephadex is a bead form of cross-linked dextran gel. *Sepharose CL* and *Bio-Gel A* are derived from agarose (see below). Sephadex ion-exchangers, unlike celluloses, are available in narrow ranges of particle sizes. These are of two medium types, the G-25 and G-50, and their dry bead diameter sizes are *ca* 50 to 150 microns. They are available as cation and anion exchange Sephadex. One of the disadvantages of using Sephadex ion-exchangers is that the bed volume can change considerably with alteration of pH. *Ultragels* also suffer from this disadvantage to a varying extent, but ion-exchangers of the bead type have been developed e.g. *Fractogels, Toyopearl*, which do not suffer from this disadvantage.

Sepharose (e.g. *Sepharose CL and Bio-Gel A*) is a bead form of agarose gel which is useful for the fractionation of high molecular weight substances, for molecular weight determinations of large molecules (molecular weight > 5000), and for the immobilisation of enzymes, antibodies, hormones and receptors usually for affinity chromatography applications.
In preparing any of the above for use in columns, the dry powder is evacuated, then mixed under reduced pressure with water or the appropriate buffer solution. Alternatively it is stirred gently with the solution until all air bubbles are removed. Because some of the wet powders change volumes reversibly with alteration of pH or ionic strength (see above), it is imperative to make allowances when packing columns (see above) in order to avoid overflowing of packing when the pH or salt concentrations are altered.

Cellex CM ion-exchange cellulose can be purified by treatment of 30-40g (dry weight) with 500mL of 1mM cysteine hydrochloride. It is then filtered through a Büchner funnel and the filter cake is suspended in 500mL of 0.05M NaCl/0.5M NaOH. This is filtered and the filter cake is resuspended in 500ml of distilled water and filtered again. The process is repeated until the washings are free from chloride ions. The filter cake is again suspended in 500mL of 0.01M buffer at the desired pH for chromatography, filtered, and the last step repeated several times.

Cellex D and other anionic celluloses are washed with 0.25M NaCl/0.25M NaOH solution, then twice with deionised water. This is followed with 0.25M NaCl and then washed with water until chloride-free. The Cellex is then equilibrated with the desired buffer as above.

Crystalline Hydroxylapatite is a structurally organised, highly polar material which, in aqueous solution (in buffers) strongly adsorbs macromolecules such as proteins and nucleic acids, permitting their separation by virtue of the interaction with charged phosphate groups and calcium ions, as well by physical adsorption. The procedure therefore is not entirely ion-exchange in nature. Chromatographic separations of singly and doubly stranded DNA are readily achievable whereas there is negligible adsorption of low molecular weight species.

Gel Filtration

The gel-like, bead nature of wet Sephadex enables small molecules such as inorganic salts to diffuse freely into it while, at the same time, protein molecules are unable to do so. Hence, passage through a Sephadex column can be used for complete removal of salts from protein solutions. Polysaccharides can be freed from monosaccharides and other small molecules because of their differential retardation. Similarly, amino acids can be separated from proteins and large peptides.

Gel filtration using Sephadex G-types (50 to 200) is essentially useful for fractionation of large molecules with molecular weights above 1000. For Superose, the range is given as 5000 to 5 x 10^6. Fractionation of lower molecular weight solutes (e,g, ethylene glycols, benzyl alcohols) can now be achieved with Sephadex G-10 (up to Mol.Wt 700) and G-25 (up to Mol.Wt 1500). These dextrans are used only in aqueous solutions. In contrast, Sephadex LH-20 and LH-60 (prepared by hydroxypropylation of Sephadex) are used for the separation of small molecules (Mol.Wt less than 500) using most of the common organic solvents as well as water.

Sephasorb HP (ultrafine, prepared by hydroxypropylation of crossed-linked dextran) can also be used for the separation of small molecules in organic solvents and water, and in addition it can withstand pressures up to 1400 psi making it useful in HPLC. These gels are best operated at pH values between 2 and 12, because solutions with high and low pH values slowly decompose them (see further in Chapter 6).

High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC)

When pressure is applied at the inlet of a liquid chromatographic column the performance of the column can be increased by several orders of magnitude. This is partly because of the increased speed at which the liquid flows through the column and partly because fine column packings which have larger surface areas can be used. Because of the improved efficiency of the columns, this technique has been referred to as high performance, high pressure, or high speed liquid chromatography and has found great importance in chemistry and biochemistry.

The equipment consists of a hydraulic system to provide the pressure at the inlet of the column, a column, a detector, data storage and output, usually in the form of a computer. The pressures used in HPLC vary from a few psi to 4000-5000 psi. The most convenient pressures are, however, between 500 and 1800psi. The plumbing is made of stainless steel or non-corrosive metal tubing to withstand high pressures. Plastic tubing and connectors are used for low pressures, e.g. up to ~500psi. Increase of temperature has a very small effect on the performance of a column in liquid chromatography. Small variations in temperatures, however, do upset the equilibrium of the column, hence it is advisable to place the column in an oven at ambient temperature in order to achieve reproducibility. The packing (stationary phase) is specially prepared for withstanding high pressures. It may be an adsorbent (for adsorption or solid-liquid HPLC), a material impregnated with a high boiling liquid (e.g. octadecyl sulfate, in *reverse-phase* or *liquid-liquid or paired-ion* HPLC), an ion-exchange material (in *ion-exchange* HPLC), or a highly porous non-ionic gel (for high performance *gel filtration*). The mobile phase is water, aqueous buffers, salt solutions, organic solvents or mixtures of these. The more commonly used detectors have UV, visible, diode array or fluorescence monitoring for light absorbing substances, and refractive index monitoring and evaporative light scattering for transparent compounds. UV detection is not useful when molecules do not have UV absorbing chromophores and solvents for elution should be carefully selected when UV monitoring is used so as to ensure the lack of interference in detection. The sensitivity of the refractive index monitoring is usually lower than the light absorbing monitoring by a factor of ten or more. It is also difficult to use a refractive index monitoring system with gradient elution of solvents. When substances have readily oxidised and reduced forms, e.g. phenols, nitro compounds, heterocyclic compounds etc, then electrochemical detectors are useful. These detectors oxidise and reduce these substances and make use of this process to provide a peak on the recorder.

The cells of the monitoring devices are very small (*ca* 5 µl) and the detection is very good. The volumes of the analytical columns are quite small (*ca* 2mL for a 1 metre column) hence the result of an analysis is achieved very quickly. Larger columns have been used for preparative work and can be used with the same equipment. Most

machines have solvent mixing chambers for solvent gradient or ion gradient elution. The solvent gradient (for two solvents) or pH or ion gradient can be adjusted in a linear, increasing or decreasing exponential manner.
In general two different types of HPLC columns are available. Prepacked columns are those with metal casings with threads at both ends onto which capillary connections are attached. The cartridge HPLC columns are cheaper and are used with cartridge holders. As the cartridge is fitted with a groove for the holding device, no threads are necessary and the connection pieces can be reused. A large range of HPLC columns (including guard columns, i.e. small pre-columns) are available from Alltech, Supelco (see www.sigmaaldrich.com), Waters (www.waters.com), Agilent Technologies (www.chem.agilent.com), Phenomenex (www.phenomenex.com), YMC (www.ymc.co.jp/en/), Merck (www. merck.de), SGE (www.sge.com) and other leading companies. Included in this range of columns are also columns with chiral bonded phases capable of separating enantiomeric mixtures, such as Chiralpak AS and Chirex™ columns (e.g. from Restek-www.restekcorp.com, Daicel-www.daicel.co.jp/indexe.html).
HPLC systems coupled to mass spectrometers (LC-MS) are extremely important methods for the separation and identification of substances. If not for the costs involved in LC-MS, these systems would be more commonly found in research laboratories.

Other Types of Liquid Chromatography

New stationary phases for specific purposes in chromatographic separation are being continually proposed. *Charge transfer adsorption chromatography* makes use of a stationary phase which contains immobilised aromatic compounds and permits the separation of aromatic compounds by virtue of the ability to form charge transfer complexes (sometimes coloured) with the stationary phase. The separation is caused by the differences in stability of these complexes (Porath and Dahlgren-Caldwell *J Chromatogr* **133** 180 *1977*).

In *metal chelate adsorption chromatography* a metal is immobilised by partial chelation on a column which contains bi- or tri- dentate ligands. Its application is in the separation of substances which can complex with the bound metals and depends on the stability constants of the various ligands (Porath, Carlsson, Olsson and Belfrage *Nature* **258** 598 *1975*; Loennerdal, Carlsson and Porath *FEBS Lett* **75** 89 *1977*).

An application of chromatography which has found extensive use in biochemistry and has brought a new dimension in the purification of enzymes is *affinity chromatography*. A specific enzyme inhibitor is attached by covalent bonding to a stationary phase (e.g. AH-Sepharose 4B for acidic inhibitors and CH-Sepharose 4B for basic inhibitors), and will strongly bind only the specific enzyme which is inhibited, allowing all other proteins to flow through the column. The enzyme is then eluted with a solution of high ionic strength (e.g. 1M sodium chloride) or a solution containing a substrate or reversible inhibitor of the specific enzyme. (The ionic medium can be removed by gel filtration using a mixed-bed gel.) Similarly, an immobilised lectin may interact with the carbohydrate moiety of a glycoprotein. The most frequently used matrixes are cross-linked (4-6%) agarose and polyacrylamide gel. Many adsorbents are commercially available for nucleotides, coenzymes and vitamins, amino acids, peptides, lectins and related macromolecules and immunoglobulins. Considerable purification can be achieved by one passage through the column and the column can be reused several times.
The affinity method may be *biospecific*, for example as an antibody-antigen interaction, or chemical as in the chelation of boronate by *cis*-diols, or of unknown origin as in the binding of certain dyes to albumin and other proteins.

Hydrophobic adsorption chromatography takes advantage of the hydrophobic properties of substances to be separated and has also found use in biochemistry (Hoftsee *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **50** 751 *1973*; Jennissen and Heilmayer Jr *Biochemistry* **14** 754 *1975*). Specific covalent binding with the stationary phase, a procedure that was called *covalent chromatography*, has been used for separation of compounds and for immobilising enzymes on a support: the column was then used to carry out specific bioorganic reactions (Mosbach *Method Enzymol* **44** 1976; A.Rosevear, J.F.Kennedy and J.M.S.Cabral, *Immobilised Enzymes and Cells: A Laboratory Manual*, Adam Hilger, Bristol, 1987, ISBN 085274515X).

DRYING

Removal of Solvents

Where substances are sufficiently stable, removal of solvent from recrystallised materials presents no problems. The crystals, after filtering at the pump (and perhaps air-drying by suction), are heated in an oven above the boiling point of the solvent (but below this melting point of the crystals), followed by cooling in a desiccator. Where this treatment is inadvisable, it is still often possible to heat to a lower temperature under reduced pressure, for example in an Abderhalden pistol. This device consists of a small chamber which is heated externally by the vapour of a boiling solvent. Inside this chamber, which can be evacuated by a water pump or some other vacuum pump, is

placed a small boat containing the sample to be dried and also a receptacle with a suitable drying agent. Convenient liquids for use as boiling liquids in an Abderhalden pistol, and their temperatures, are given in Table 16. Alternatively an electrically heated drying pistol can also be used. In cases where heating above room temperature cannot be used, drying must be carried out in a vacuum desiccator containing suitable absorbents. For example, hydrocarbons, such as cyclohexane and petroleum ether, can be removed by using shredded paraffin wax, and acetic acid and other acids can be absorbed by pellets of sodium or potassium hydroxide. However, in general, solvent removal is less of a problem than ensuring that the water content of solids and liquids is reduced below an acceptable level.

Removal of Water

Methods for removing water from solids depends on the thermal stability of the solids or the time available. The safest way is to dry in a vacuum desiccator over concentrated sulfuric acid, phosphorus pentoxide, silica gel, calcium chloride, or some other desiccant. Where substances are stable in air and melt above 100°, drying in an air oven may be adequate. In other cases, use of an Abderhalden pistol may be satisfactory.

Often, in drying inorganic salts, the final material that is required is a hydrate. In such cases, the purified substance is left in a desiccator to equilibrate above an aqueous solution having a suitable water-vapour pressure. A convenient range of solutions used in this way is given in Table 17.

The choice of desiccants for drying liquids is more restricted because of the need to avoid all substances likely to react with the liquids themselves. In some cases, direct distillation of an organic liquid is a suitable method for drying both solids and liquids, especially if low-boiling azeotropes are formed. Examples include acetone, aniline, benzene, chloroform, carbon tetrachloride, heptane, hexane, methanol, nitrobenzene, petroleum ether, toluene and xylene. Addition of benzene can be used for drying ethanol by distillation. In carrying out distillations intended to yield anhydrous products, the apparatus should be fitted with guard-tubes containing calcium chloride or silica gel to prevent entry of moist air into the system. (Many anhydrous organic liquids are appreciably hygroscopic).

Traces of water can be removed from solvents such as benzene, 1,2-dimethoxyethane, diethyl ether, pentane, toluene and tetrahydrofuran by refluxing under nitrogen a solution containing sodium wire and benzophenone, and fractionally distilling. Drying with, and distilling from CaH_2 is applicable to a number of solvents including aniline, benzene, *tert*-butylamine, *tert*-butanol, 2,4,6-collidine, diisopropylamine, dimethylformamide, hexamethylphosphoramide, dichloromethane, ethyl acetate, pyridine, tetramethylethylenediamine, toluene, triethylamine.

Removal of water from gases may be by physical or chemical means, and is commonly by adsorption on to a drying agent in a low-temperature trap. The effectiveness of drying agents depends on the vapour pressure of the hydrated compound - the lower the vapour pressure the less the remaining moisture in the gas.

The most usually applicable of the specific methods for detecting and determining water in organic liquids is due to Karl Fischer. (See J.Mitchell and D.M.Smith, *Aquametry*, 2nd Ed, J Wiley & Sons, New York, *1977-1984*, ISBN 0471022640; Fieser and Fieser *Reagents for Organic Synthesis*, J.Wiley & Sons, NY, Vol 1, 528 *1967*, ISBN 0271616X). Other techniques include electrical conductivity measurements and observation of the temperature at which the first cloudiness appears as the liquid is cooled (applicable to liquids in which water is only slightly soluble). Addition of anhydrous cobalt (II) iodide (blue) provides a convenient method (colour change to pink on hydration) for detecting water in alcohols, ketones, nitriles and some esters. Infrared absorption measurements of the broad band for water near 3500 cm^{-1} can also sometimes be used for detecting water in non-hydroxylic substances.

For further useful information on mineral adsorbents and drying agents, go to the SigmaAldrich website, under technical library (Aldrich) for technical bulletin AL-143.

Intensity and Capacity of Common Desiccants

Drying agents are conveniently grouped into three classes, depending on whether they combine with water reversibly, they react chemically (irreversibly) with water, or they are molecular sieves. The first group vary in their drying intensity with the temperature at which they are used, depending on the vapour pressure of the hydrate that is formed. This is why, for example, drying agents such as anhydrous sodium sulfate, magnesium sulfate or calcium chloride should be filtered off from the liquids before the latter are heated. The intensities of drying agents belonging to this group fall in the sequence:

P_2O_5 >> BaO > $Mg(ClO_4)_2$, CaO, MgO, KOH (fused), conc H_2SO_4, $CaSO_4$, Al_2O_3 > KOH (pellets), silica gel, $Mg(ClO_4)_2.3H_2O$ > NaOH (fused), 95% H_2SO_4, $CaBr_2$, $CaCl_2$ (fused) > NaOH (pellets), $Ba(ClO_4)_2$, $ZnCl_2$, $ZnBr_2$ > $CaCl_2$ (technical) > $CuSO_4$ > Na_2SO_4, K_2CO_3.

Where large amounts of water are to be removed, a preliminary drying of liquids is often possible by shaking with concentrated solutions of sodium sulfate or potassium carbonate, or by adding sodium chloride to salt out the organic phase (for example, in the drying of lower alcohols), as long as the drying agent does not react (e.g. $CaCl_2$ with alcohols and amines, see below).

Drying agents that combine irreversibly with water include the alkali metals, the metal hydrides (discussed in Chapter 2), and calcium carbide.

Suitability of Individual Desiccants

Alumina. (Preheated to 175° for about 7h). Mainly as a drying agent in a desiccator or as a column through which liquid is percolated.

Aluminium amalgam. Mainly used for removing traces of water from alcohols *via* refluxing followed by distillation.

Barium oxide. Suitable for drying organic bases.

Barium perchlorate. Expensive. Used in desiccators (*covered with a metal guard*). Unsuitable for drying solvents or organic material where contact is necessary, because of the danger of **EXPLOSION**

Boric anhydride. (Prepared by melting boric acid in an air oven at a high temperature, cooling in a desiccator, and powdering.) Mainly used for drying formic acid.

Calcium chloride (anhydrous). Cheap. Large capacity for absorption of water, giving the hexahydrate below 30°, but is fairly slow in action and not very efficient. Its main use is for preliminary drying of alkyl and aryl halides, most esters, saturated and aromatic hydrocarbons and ethers. Unsuitable for drying alcohols and amines (which form addition compounds), fatty acids, amides, amino acids, ketones, phenols, or some aldehydes and esters. Calcium chloride is suitable for drying the following gases: hydrogen, hydrogen chloride, carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, sulfur dioxide, nitrogen, methane, oxygen, also paraffins, ethers, olefins and alkyl chlorides.

Calcium hydride. See Chapter 2.

Calcium oxide. (Preheated to 700-900° before use.) Suitable for alcohols and amines (but does not dry them completely). Need not be removed before distillation, but in that case the head of the distillation column should be packed with glass wool to trap any calcium oxide powder that might be carried over. Unsuitable for acidic compounds and esters. Suitable for drying gaseous amines and ammonia.

Calcium sulfate (anhydrous). (Prepared by heating the dihydrate or the hemihydrate in an oven at 235° for 2-3h; it can be regenerated.) Available commercially as Drierite. It forms the hemihydrate, $2CaSO_4.H_2O$, so that its capacity is fairly low (6.6% of its weight of water), and hence is best used on partially dried substances. It is very efficient (being comparable with phosphorus pentoxide and concentrated sulfuric acid). Suitable for most organic compounds. Solvents boiling below 100° can be dried by direct distillation from calcium sulfate.

Copper (II) sulfate (anhydrous). Suitable for esters and alcohols. Preferable to sodium sulfate in cases where solvents are sparingly soluble in water (for example, benzene or toluene).

Lithium aluminium hydride. See Chapter 2.

Magnesium amalgam. Mainly used for removing traces of water from alcohols by refluxing the alcohol in the presence of the Mg amalgam followed by distillation.

Magnesium perchlorate (anhydrous). (Available commercially as Dehydrite. Expensive.) Used in desiccators. Unsuitable for drying solvents or any organic material where contact is necessary, because of the danger of **EXPLOSION**.

Magnesium sulfate (anhydrous). (Prepared from the heptahydrate by drying at 300° under reduced pressure.) More rapid and effective than sodium sulfate but is slightly acidic. It has a large capacity, forming $MgSO_4.7H_2O$ below 48°. Suitable for the preliminary drying of most organic compounds.

Molecular sieves. See later.

Phosphorus pentoxide. Very rapid and efficient, but difficult to handle and should only be used after the organic material has been partially dried, for example with magnesium sulfate. Suitable for anhydrides, alkyl and aryl halides, ethers, esters, hydrocarbons and nitriles, and for use in desiccators. Not suitable with acids, alcohols, amines or ketones, or with organic molecules from which a molecule of water can be eliminated. Suitable for drying the following gases: hydrogen, oxygen, carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide, sulfur dioxide, nitrogen, methane, ethene and paraffins. It is available on a solid support with an indicator under the name *Sicapent* (from Merck). The colour changes in Sicapent depend on the percentage of water present (e.g. in the absence of water, Sicapent is colorless but becomes green with 20% water and blue with 33% w/w water). When the quantity of water in the desiccator is high a crust of phosphoric acid forms a layer over the phosphorus pentoxide powder and decreases its efficiency. The crust can be removed with a spatula to expose the dry pwder and restore the desiccant property.

Potassium (metal). Properties and applications are similar to those for sodium but as the reactivity is greater than that of sodium, the hazards are greater than that of sodium. **Handle with extreme care.**

Potassium carbonate (anhydrous). Has a moderate efficiency and capacity, forming the dihydrate. Suitable for an initial drying of alcohols, bases, esters, ketones and nitriles by shaking with them, then filtering off. Also suitable for salting out water-soluble alcohols, amines and ketones. Unsuitable for acids, phenols, thiols and other acidic substances.

Potassium carbonate. Solid potassium hydroxide is very rapid and efficient. Its use is limited almost entirely to the initial drying of organic bases. Alternatively, sometimes the base is shaken first with a concentrated solution of potassium hydroxide to remove most of the water present. Unsuitable for acids, aldehydes, ketones, phenols, thiols, amides and esters. Also used for drying gaseous amines and ammonia.

Silica gel. Granulated silica gel is a commercially available drying agent for use with gases, in desiccators, and (because of its chemical inertness) in physical instruments (pH meters, spectrometers, balances). Its drying action depends on physical adsorption, so that silica gel must be used at room temperature or below. By incorporating cobalt chloride into the material it can be made self indicating (blue when dry, pink when wet), re-drying in an oven at 110° being necessary when the colour changes from blue to pink.

Sodium (metal). Used as a fine wire or as chips, for more completely drying ethers, saturated hydrocarbons and aromatic hydrocarbons which have been partially dried (for example with calcium chloride or magnesium sulfate). Unsuitable for acids, alcohols, alkyl halides, aldehydes, ketones, amines and esters. Reacts violently if water is present and can cause a fire with highly flammable liquids.

Sodium hydroxide. Properties and applications are similar to those for potassium hydroxide.

Sodium-potassium alloy. Used as lumps. Lower melting than sodium, so that its surface is readily renewed by shaking. Properties and applications are similar to those for sodium.

Sodium sulfate (anhydrous). Has a large capacity for absorption of water, forming the decahydrate below 33°, but drying is slow and inefficient, especially for solvents that are sparingly soluble in water. It is suitable for the preliminary drying of most types of organic compounds.

Sulfuric acid (concentrated). Widely used in desiccators. Suitable for drying bromine, saturated hydrocarbons, alkyl and aryl halides. Also suitable for drying the following gases: hydrogen, nitrogen, carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide, chlorine, methane and paraffins. Unsuitable for alcohols, bases, ketones or phenols. Also available on a solid support with an indicator under the name *Sicacide* (from Merck) for desiccators. The colour changes in Sicacide depends on the percentage of water present (e.g. when dry Sicacide is red-violet but becomes pale violet with 27% water and pale yellow to colorless with 33% w/w water).

For convenience, many of the above drying agents are listed in Table 18 under the classes of organic compounds for which they are commonly used.

Molecular sieves

Molecular sieves are types of adsorbents composed of crystalline zeolites (sodium and calcium aluminosilicates). By heating them, water of hydration is removed, leaving holes of molecular dimensions in the crystal lattices. These holes are of uniform size and allow the passage into the crystals of small molecules, but not of large ones. This *sieving* action explains their use as very efficient drying agents for gases and liquids. The pore size of these sieves can be modified (within limits) by varying the cations built into the lattices. The four types of molecular sieves currently available are:

Type 3A sieves. A crystalline potassium aluminosilicate with a pore size of about 3 Angstroms. This type of molecular sieves is suitable for drying liquids such as acetone, acetonitrile, methanol, ethanol and 2-propanol, and drying gases such as acetylene, carbon dioxide, ammonia, propylene and butadiene. The material is supplied as beads or pellets.

Type 4A sieves. A crystalline sodium aluminosilicate with a pore size of about 4 Angstroms, so that, besides water, ethane molecules (but not butane) can be adsorbed. This type of molecular sieves is suitable for drying chloroform, dichloromethane, diethyl ether, dimethylformamide, ethyl acetate, cyclohexane, benzene, toluene, xylene, pyridine and diisopropyl ether. It is also useful for low pressure air drying. The material is supplied as beads, pellets or powder.

Type 5A sieves. A crystalline calcium aluminosilicate with a pore size of about 5 Angstroms, these sieves adsorb larger molecules than type 4A. For example, as well as the substances listed above, propane, butane, hexane, butene, higher *n*-olefins, *n*-butyl alcohol and higher *n*-alcohols, and cyclopropane can be adsorbed, but not branched-chain C_6 hydrocarbons, cyclic hydrocarbons such as benzene and cyclohexane, or secondary and tertiary alcohols, carbon tetrachloride or boron trifluoride. This is the type generally used for drying gases, though organic liquids such as THF and dioxane can be dried with this type of molecular sieves.

Type 13X sieves. A crystalline sodium aluminosilicate with a pore size of about 10 Angstroms which enables many branched-chain and cyclic compounds to be adsorbed, in addition to all the substances removed by type 5A sieves.

They are unsuitable for use with strong acids but are stable over the pH range 5-11.
Because of their selectivity, molecular sieves offer advantages over silica gel, alumina or activated charcoal, especially in their very high affinity for water, polar molecules and unsaturated organic compounds. Their relative efficiency is greatest when the impurity to be removed is present at low concentrations. Thus, at 25° and a relative humidity of 2%, type 5A molecular sieves adsorb 18% by weight of water, whereas for silica gel and alumina the figures are 3.5 and 2.5% respectively. Even at 100° and a relative humidity of 1.3% molecular sieves adsorb about 15% by weight of water.
The greater preference of molecular sieves for combining with water molecules explains why this material can be used for drying ethanol and why molecular sieves are probably the most universally useful and efficient drying agents. Percolation of ethanol with an initial water content of 0.5% through a 144 cm long column of type 4A molecular sieves reduced the water content to 10ppm. Similar results have been obtained with pyridine.

The main applications of molecular sieves to purification comprise:
1. Drying of gases and liquids containing traces of water.
2. Drying of gases at elevated temperatures.
3. Selective removal of impurities (including water) from gas streams.

(For example, carbon dioxide from air or ethene; nitrogen oxides from nitrogen; methanol from diethyl ether. In general, carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide, ammonia, hydrogen sulfide, mercaptans, ethane, ethene, acetylene (ethyne), propane and propylene are readily removed at 25°. In mixtures of gases, the more polar ones are preferentially adsorbed).

The following applications include the removal of straight-chain from branched-chain or cyclic molecules. For example, type 5A sieves will adsorb *n*-butyl alcohol but not its branched-chain isomers. Similarly, it separates *n*-tetradecane from benzene, or *n*-heptane from methylcyclohexane.
The following liquids have been dried with molecular sieves: acetone, acetonitrile, acrylonitrile, allyl chloride, amyl acetate, benzene, butadiene, *n*-butane, butene, butyl acetate, *n*-butylamine, *n*-butyl chloride, carbon tetrachloride, chloroethane, 1-chloro-2-ethylhexane, cyclohexane, dichloromethane, dichloroethane, 1,2-dichloropropane, 1,1-dimethoxyethane, dimethyl ether, 2-ethylhexanol, 2-ethylhexylamine, *n*-heptane, *n*-hexane, isoprene, isopropyl alcohol, diisopropyl ether, methanol, methyl ethyl ketone, oxygen, *n*-pentane, phenol, propane, *n*-propyl alcohol, propylene, pyridine, styrene, tetrachloroethylene, toluene, trichloroethylene and xylene. In addition, the following gases have been dried: acetylene, air, argon, carbon dioxide, chlorine, ethene, helium, hydrogen, hydrogen chloride, hydrogen sulfide, nitrogen, oxygen and sulfur hexafluoride.

After use, molecular sieves can be regenerated by heating at between 300°–350° for several hours, preferably in a stream of dry inert gas such as nitrogen or preferably under vacumm, then cooling in a desiccator. Special precautions must be taken before regeneration of molecular sieves used in the drying of flammable solvents.
However, care must be exercised in using molecular sieves for drying organic liquids. Appreciable amounts of impurities were *formed* when samples of acetone, 1,1,1-trichloroethane and methyl-*t*-butyl ether were dried in the liquid phase by contact with molecular sieves 4A (Connett *Lab Pract* **21** 545 *1972*). Other, less reactive types of sieves may be more suitable but, in general, it seems desirable to make a preliminary test to establish that no unwanted reaction takes place. Useful comparative data for Type 4A and 5A sieves are in Table 19.

MISCELLANEOUS TECHNIQUES

Freeze-pump-thaw and purging

Volatile contaminants, e.g. traces of low boiling solvent residue or oxygen, in liquid samples or solutions can be very deleterious to the samples on storage. These contaminants can be removed by repeated freeze-pump-thaw cycles. This involves freezing the liquid material under high vacuum in an appropriate vessel (which should be large enough to avoid contaminating the vacuum line with liquid that has bumped) connected to the vacuum line *via* efficient liquid nitrogen traps. The frozen sample is then thawed until it liquefies, kept in this form for some time (*ca* 10-15min), refreezing the sample and the cycle repeated several times without interrupting the vacuum. This procedure applies equally well to solutions, as well as purified liquids, e.g. as a means of removing oxygen from solutions for NMR and other measurements. If the presence of nitrogen, helium or argon, is not a serious contaminant then solutions can be freed from gases, e.g. oxygen, carbon dioxide, and volatile impurities by purging with N_2, He or Ar at room, or slightly elevated, temperature. The gases used for purging are then removed by freeze-pump-thaw cycles or simply by keeping in a vacuum for several hours. Special NMR tubes

with a screw cap thread and a PTFE valve (Wilmad) are convenient for freeze thawing of NMR samples. Alternatively NMR tubes with "J Young" valves (Wilmad) can also be used.

Vacuum-lines, Schlenk and glovebox techniques

Manipulations involving materials sensitive to air or water vapour can be carried out by these procedures. Vacuum-line methods make use of quantitative transfers, and **P**(pressure)-**V**(volume)-**T**(temperature) measurements, of gases, and trap-to-trap separations of volatile substances.

It is usually more convenient to work under an inert-gas atmosphere using **Schlenk** type apparatus. The *principle* of Schlenk methods involve a flask/vessel which has a standard ground-glass joint and a sidearm with a tap. The system can be purged by evacuating and flushing with an inert gas (usually nitrogen, or in some cases, argon), repeating the process until the contaminants in the vapour phases have been diminished to acceptable limits. A large range of Schlenk glassware is commercially available (e.g. see Aldrich Chemical Catalog and the associated technical bulletin AL-166). With these, and tailor-made pieces of glassware, inert atmospheres can be maintained during crystallisation, filtration, sublimation and transfer.

Syringe techniques have been developed for small volumes, while for large volumes or where much manipulation is required, dryboxes (*glove boxes*) or dry chambers should be used.

ABBREVIATIONS

Titles of periodicals are defined as in the Chemical Abstracts Service Source Index (CASSI), except that full stops have been omitted after each abbreviated word. Abbreviations of words in the texts of Chapters 4, 5 and 6 are those in common use and are self evident, e.g. distn, filtd, conc and vac are used for distillation, filtered, concentrated and vacuum.

TABLES

TABLE 1. SOME COMMON IMMISCIBLE OR SLIGHTLY MISCIBLE PAIRS OF SOLVENTS

Carbon tetrachloride with ethanolamine, ethylene glycol, formamide or water.
Dimethyl formamide with cyclohexane or petroleum ether.
Dimethyl sulfoxide with cyclohexane or petroleum ether.
Ethyl ether with ethanolamine, ethylene glycol or water.
Methanol with carbon disulfide, cyclohexane or petroleum ether.
Petroleum ether with aniline, benzyl alcohol, dimethyl formamide, dimethyl sulfoxide, formamide, furfuryl alcohol, phenol or water.
Water with aniline, benzene, benzyl alcohol, carbon disulfide, carbon tetrachloride, chloroform, cyclohexane, cyclohexanol, cyclohexanone, diethyl ether, ethyl acetate, isoamyl alcohol, methyl ethyl ketone, nitromethane, tributyl phosphate or toluene.

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