

# Flow of fluids

on lid meter

water meter

pipe tube • Rotameter

The substance which cannot resist permanent distortion.

## # Fluid

- Mass of Substance
- Forms Layer over one another

## # Importance

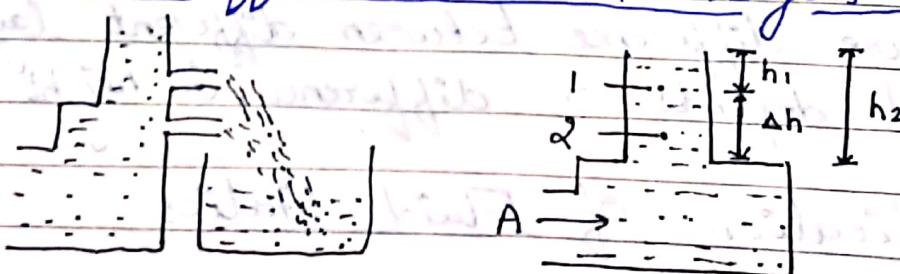
- Rate of flow of fluids
- Flow of solid particles in suspension while pouring
- Flow of fluids while breaking collapsible tubes.

# When external pressure is applied layer of fluids roll over one another which makes the fluid to roll.

## # Fluid Statics → Pressure may be defined as force exerted on a unit area

Fluid at rest state.

## # Pressure Difference between layers of Liquids



Force acting on point 1

= Force on the surface + Force exerted by liquid above

— (1)

(Force = Pressure  $\times$  Area)

Pressure on  $P_1$  = Pressure on surface.

$$x S_1 \quad x \text{ Surface area} + \text{mass} \times \text{acceleration} - (2)$$

$$(\text{mass} = \text{Vol} \times \text{Density}) P_1 S = P_2 S + \text{Volume} \times \text{density} \times \text{Acceleration}$$

$$(\text{Vol} = \text{area} \times \text{height}) P_1 S = P_2 S + \text{height} \times \text{Area} \times \text{Density} \times \text{Acc}$$

$$P_1 S = P_2 S + h_1 S \times \rho g - (3)$$

$$P_1 = P_s + h_1 \rho g - (4)$$

$$\text{Pressure at } P_2 = P_s + h_2 \rho g - (5)$$

$$(5) - (4)$$

$$P_2 - P_1 = [P_s + h_2 \rho g] - [P_s + h_1 \rho g]$$

$$\Delta P = g [P_s + h_2 \rho g] - g [P_s + h_1 \rho g]$$

$$\Delta P = g [P_s + h_2 \rho g - P_s - h_1 \rho g]$$

$$\Delta P = (h_2 - h_1) \rho g$$

$$\boxed{\Delta P = \Delta h \rho g}$$

Pressure difference between different layers of liquid depends on difference in height.

#

## Application of Fluid Statics

- Depends on the working of manometer.

## # Manometers

Device used for measuring pressure difference.

#

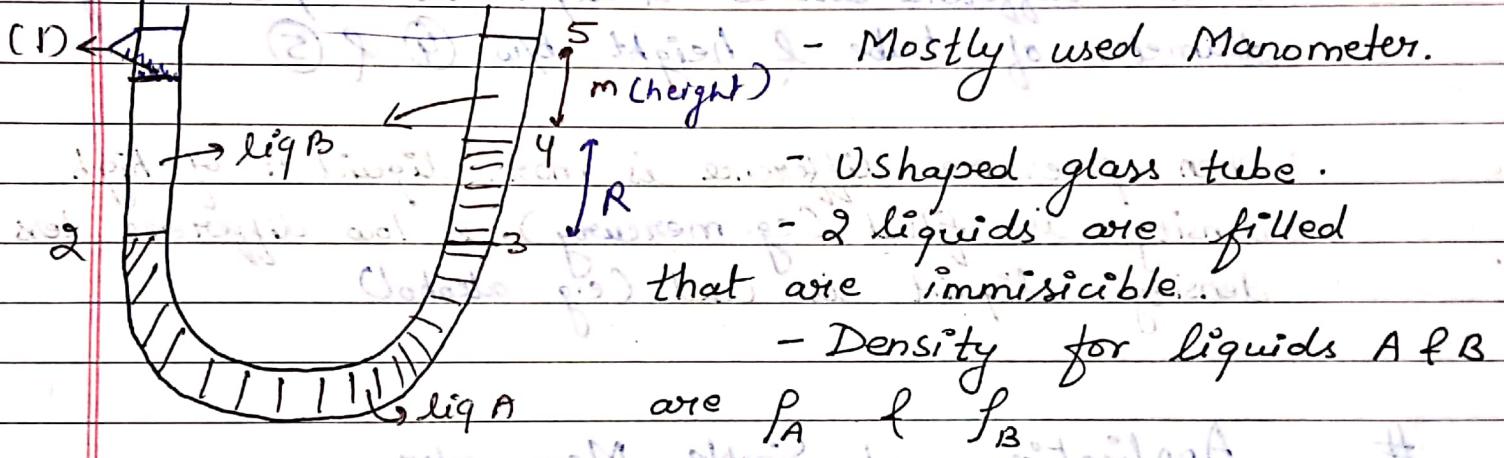
### 3 Types

- Simple
- Differential
- Inclined

#

### Simple Manometer

To find out what is used to measure pressure difference



- Mostly used Manometer.

- U shaped glass tube.

- 2 liquids are filled that are immiscible.

- Density for liquids A & B

are  $\rho_A$  &  $\rho_B$

- When different pressure is applied at different tubes the meniscus of liquid is lower in 1 tube & higher in other tube.

Then the pressure at two points is calculated -

$$\text{Pressure at point 2} = P_i + (m + R) \rho_B g$$

$$\text{Pressure at point 3} = P_i + (m + R) \rho_B g$$

$$\text{Pressure at point 4} = P_2 + m \rho_B g$$

$$\text{Pressure at point 4} = P_i(m + R) \rho_B g - \rho_A R g$$

$$P_1 + \rho_B g (m+R) - \rho_A Rg = P_2 + m \rho_B g$$

$$P_1 - P_2 = gm \rho_B - \rho_B (m+R)g + \rho_A Rg$$

$$\Delta P = gm \rho_B - gm \rho_B - \rho_B Rg + \rho_A Rg$$

$$\boxed{\Delta P = (\rho_A - \rho_B) Rg}$$

- Press. diff. is independent of height.

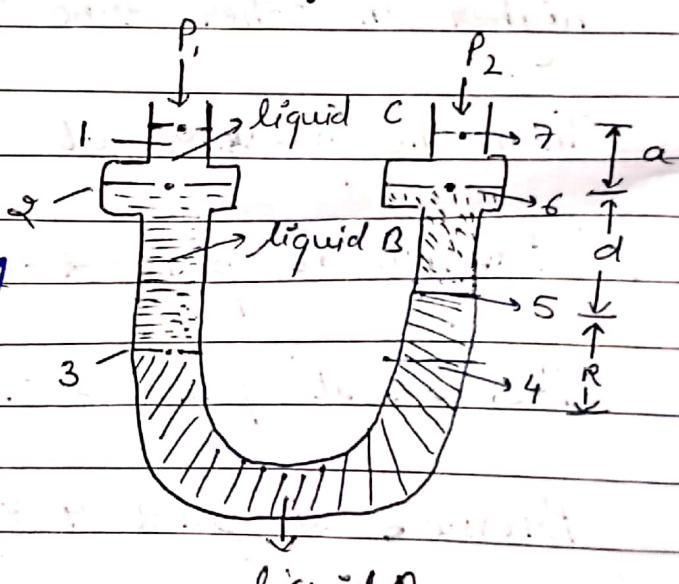
Pressure difference between 2 liquid is independent of diameter of tube & height b/w ④ & ⑤

When pressure difference is more liquid A of high density is filled (e.g. mercury) & low difference less density liquid is used (e.g. alcohol)

## # Application of Simple Manometer

- To calculate pressure difference of gas.
- Bernoulli's principle.

## # Differential Manometers



$$\text{Pressure at Point 3} = P_1 + \rho (a+d+R)g$$

$$\Delta P = R (\rho_B - \rho_A)g$$

$$\boxed{\Delta P = P_1 - P_2 + R (\rho_B - \rho_A)g}$$

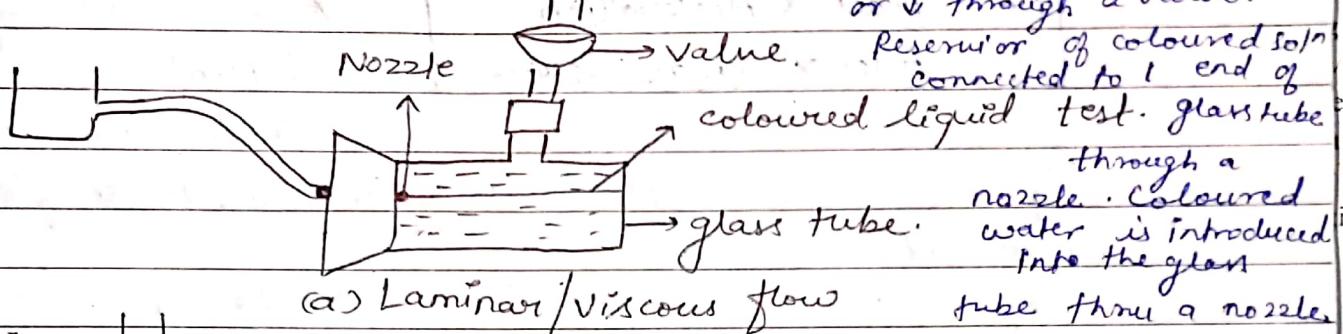
$$P_5 = P_2 + (d+a) \rho_B g$$

$$P_5 = P_1 + (d+a+R) \rho_B g - \rho_A R g \quad \times$$

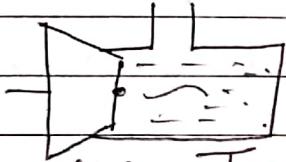
## fluid Dynamics

when the liquid flows or it is in motion is called fluid dynamics.

## Reynold's Experiment



(a) Laminar/Viscous flow



(b) Turbulent flow

### Laminar flow

It is flow in which fluid particle flow in layers or with one layer sliding over the other. So, there is no exchange of fluid particles from one layer to another.

Turbulent flow - when the velocity of water is increased, the threads of coloured water disappears & the entire mass of water gets uniformly coloured. It indicates complete mixing of solution. Then, the flow of the water is considered to be turbulent.

### Critical factor / Critical velocity

It is defined as average velocity of any fluid at which viscous flow changes to turbulent flow.

## # Reynold's Number

Depends on 4 factors :-

- Diameter of pipe (in meters) =  $D$
- Avg. velocity ( $\text{ms}^{-1}$ ) =  $v$
- Density of liquid ( $\text{kg/m}^3$ ) =  $\rho$
- Viscosity of fluid ( $\eta$ )

$$Re = \frac{D \rho v}{\eta}$$

$Re = \frac{\text{Inertial Forces}}{\text{Viscous Forces}}$

$$Re = \frac{\text{Mass} \times \text{Acceleration}}{\text{Area} \times \text{Shear Stress}}$$

\* When viscosity is more acceleration is less flow will be laminar.

\* If velocity is less & acceleration is more flow will be turbulent.

\*  $Re < 2000 \rightarrow \text{laminar}$

\*  $Re > 4000 \rightarrow \text{Turbulent}$

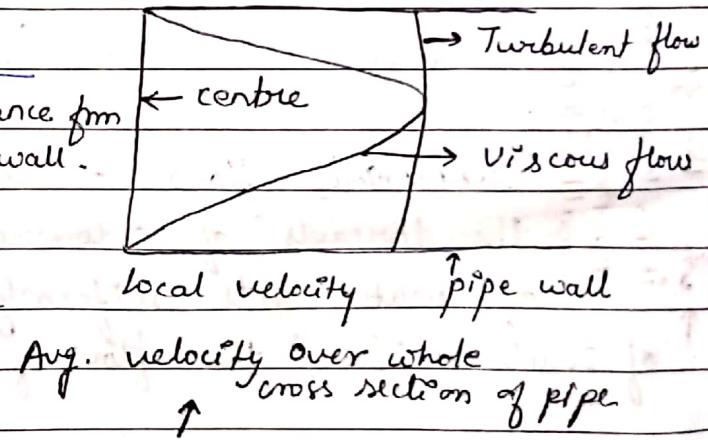
\* If  $Re$  is from  $2000 - 4000$  viscous flow changes to turbulent flow.

## # Applications of Reynold's Number

- To find out nature of fluid flow.
- To study the physical stability of suspns & emulsions.
- To study rate of heat transfer in fluids.

## # Variation of fluid flow

\* flow of fluid is max. in middle of pipe



(1) Viscous flow  $\rightarrow$  Av. velocity ( $C_{pi}$ ) = Local velocity  $\times 0.5$

(2) Turbulent flow  $\rightarrow$  Av. velocity = local velocity  $\times 0.8$

\* The layer which is present at pipe wall where velocity is 0 is called stagent layer. In this liquid is present in steady state.

Application of variation of fluid flow  $\rightarrow$  used to determine the rate of transfer. If the thickness of stagnant layer is more than rate of heat transfer will be less.  $K.E = \frac{U_A^2}{2g}$  Page No. \_\_\_\_\_

Ques

### Bernoulli's Theorem

Initial stage

$$K.E. = \frac{U_A^2}{2g}$$

$$\text{Point A} \rightarrow \text{Pressure energy} = \frac{P_A}{f_A g}$$

$$\text{Potential energy} = x_A$$

Pump

Pump head =  $W$

Frictional Energy

Horizontal Datum

Final stage

$$2g \text{ Press. energy} = \frac{P_B}{f_B g}$$

Point B

$$\text{Potential energy} = x_B$$

"Bernoulli's theorem states that in a steady state of the ideal flow of an incompressible fluid, the total energy per unit mass, which consists of pressure energy, kinetic energy and potential energy, at any point of fluid is constant."

$$\text{Pressure energy at point A} = \frac{P_A}{f_A g} - (1)$$

$$\text{Potential energy} = x_A - (2)$$

"Potential energy of a body is defined as the energy possessed by the body by virtue of its position or its configuration."

$$\text{Kinetic energy} = \frac{\frac{U_A^2}{2g}}{} - (3)$$

"KE of a body is defined as the energy possessed by the body by virtue of its motion."

$$\text{Total Energy} = P.E + K.E + P.E$$

$$= \frac{P_A}{S_A g} + \frac{\mu_A^2}{2g} + X_A - \textcircled{4}$$

$$\text{Potential energy} = X_B = \frac{P_A}{S_A g} + X_A + \frac{\mu_A^2}{2g} = \text{constant} - \textcircled{5}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Total energy at} \\ \text{point B} &= \frac{P_B}{S_B g} + X_B + \frac{\mu_B^2}{2g} = \text{constant} - \textcircled{6} \end{aligned}$$

Acc. to energy conservation,  
Input = Output

$$\frac{P_A}{S_A g} + X_A + \frac{\mu_A^2}{2g} = \frac{P_B}{S_B g} + X_B + \frac{\mu_B^2}{2g} - \textcircled{7}$$

$$\text{Energy added by the pump} = + W J - \textcircled{8}$$

$$\text{Energy loss due to friction} = F J - \textcircled{9}$$

(8) & (9) is inserted in point (7)

$$\frac{P_A}{S_A g} + X_A + \frac{\mu_A^2}{2g} - F + W = \frac{P_B}{S_B g} + X_B + \frac{\mu_B^2}{2g} - \textcircled{10}$$

This eqn is applicable b/w any 2 points in a system.

## # Applications of Bernoulli's Theorem

- Applied in the measurement of fluid flown by using orifice meter & venturi meter.
- Applied in the working of centrifugal pumps.
- It is easy to measure heights of applied as energy terms.

# Note. — Bernoulli's eqn. is numerically correct but is not correct theoretically as each of the terms is actually energy & should be measured in J/mass. In practice, these are referred as heights & measured in terms of height of a column of liquid.

## # Energy loss

- Friction losses
- Losses in fitting.
- Enlargement losses
- Contraction losses

① Friction losses  $\propto \rho \propto \mu \propto L$  length  
 $\propto \frac{1}{\text{diameter}}$

## Fanning Equation

$$\Delta P_f = \frac{2f \mu^2 L P}{D}$$

frictional factor  
diameter

$f$  depends upon

- Type of flow (viscous, turbulent)
- Inner surface of pipe.

- \* Copper / lead pipe = 0.6
- \* New steel / cast iron = 1.0
- \* Old steel pipe = 1.0
- \* Badly rusted cast iron = 2.5

- friction can be prevented by adding high molecular weight compounds (polymers) in low concentration.
- fanning equation is applicable for straight pipes of turbulent flow.

For viscous flow

\* Hasen Poiseuille Equation

$$\Delta P = \frac{32 L \mu Q}{D^2}$$

viscosity

Note → friction losses are permanent because friction cannot be eliminated but can be reduced.

PE & KE are converted into heat.

## (2) loss in fittings

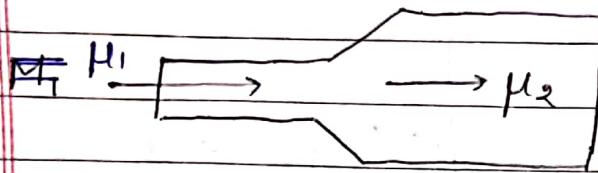
When we insert fittings in a pipe the flow of fluid is disturbed, velocity decreased & loss of energy.

Its reasons are -

- Change in bending of pipe
- Inserting walls or fittings in pipe.

### (3) Enlargement losses

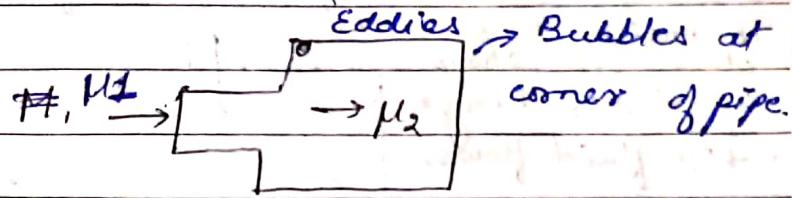
$$\mu_1 \approx \mu_2$$



(Gradual enlargement)  
(No loss of energy).

$$\mu_1 > \mu_2$$

$$\cancel{\mu_1} > \cancel{\mu_2}$$

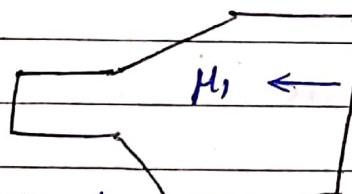


(Sudden enlargement)

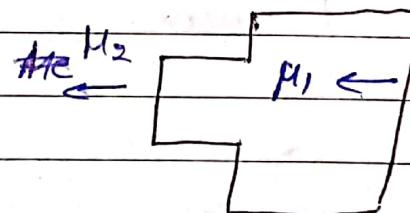
\* Sudden enlargement losses -

$$\Delta H_e = (\mu_1 - \mu_2)^2 / 2g$$

### (4) Contraction losses



(No loss of energy)  
Gradual compression



Sudden compression

$$\Delta H_e = K \mu_2^2 / 2g$$

(Loss of energy)

-  $K$  depends on type of flow & area of opening

- If opening is circular & flow will be turbulent  
 $K = 0.04$

→ Rate of flow is amount of fluid flown out in particular time.  
Principle :- Bernoulli's theorem,  $\frac{1}{2}$  in velocity decreases pressure & this pressure fall is measured by manometer.

## (1) Orifice Meter

### Construction

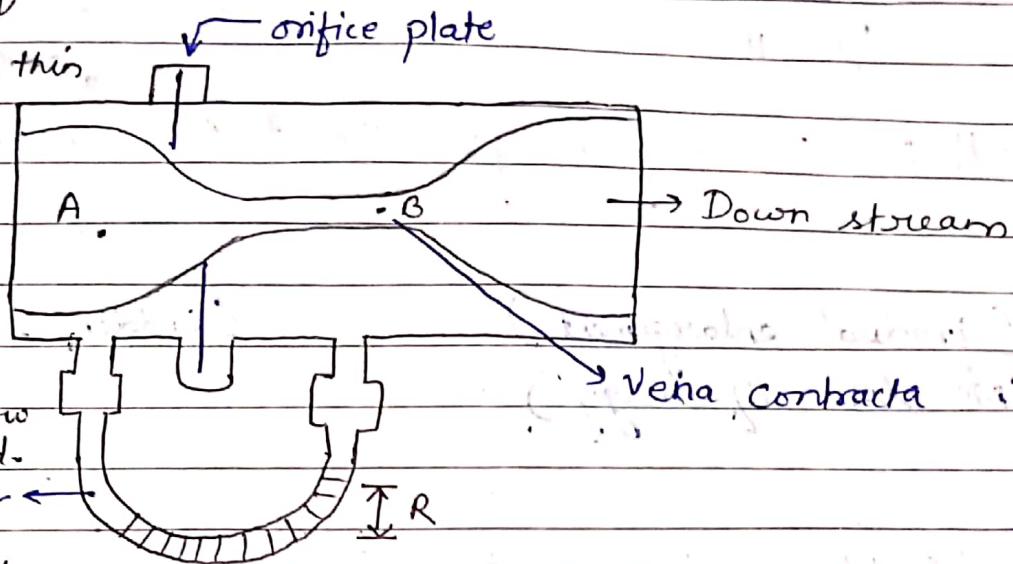
It consists to be a thin plate with sharp apertures through which fluid flows.

It is normally placed b/w 2 long straight pipes so that other fittings do not alter the flow rate being measured.

### Manometer

A manometer is connected to two points

A & B to measure acc. to Bernoulli's theorem -  
the pressure difference



$$\frac{P_A + \rho g x_A + \frac{\mu v^2}{2g}}{\rho g} - F + w = \frac{P_B + \rho g x_B + \frac{\mu v^2}{2g}}{\rho g}$$

- Height at same level  $\therefore$  cancelled
- Same liq.  $\therefore$  density same i.e.  $\rho_A = \rho_B = \rho$
- assume friction is zero.
- Since at same level; work. done zero.

$$\therefore \frac{P_A + \rho g x_A}{\rho g} = \frac{P_B + \rho g x_B}{\rho g}$$

$$\frac{1}{2g} (\mu_B^2 - \mu_A^2) = \frac{1}{\rho g} (P_A - P_B)$$

$$(\mu_B^2 - \mu_A^2) = \frac{2g}{\rho g} \Delta P \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

- Now from eqn of fluid statics -

$$\Delta P = \Delta H \rho g, \quad \Delta H = \frac{\Delta P}{\rho g} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

"The butterfly counts not months but moments, and has time enough." — Rabindranath Tagore

Application used to determine  $\mu_A$  &  $\mu_B$ . Ratio of  $\mu_A$  &  $\mu_B$  gives the ratio of area of orifice to area of pipe.

Date Also to determine volume of liquid flowing /hour Page No.: .....

Substitutn ① in ②, we get

$$(\mu_B^2 - \mu_A^2) = 2g\Delta H, \therefore (\Delta H = \frac{\Delta P}{\rho g})$$

now take underroot at both side -

$$\boxed{\sqrt{\mu_B^2 - \mu_A^2} = \sqrt{2g\Delta H}} \quad \text{or} \quad \boxed{\sqrt{(\mu_B^2 - \mu_A^2)} = C_o \sqrt{2g\Delta H}}$$

\* at point of orifice & at vena contracta to correlate velocities we use a co-efficient 'Co' which depends on the ratio of Pipe diameter orifice diameter.

If ratio =  $\frac{1}{5}$ ,  $A_{velo} < B_{velo.}$ , we

consider  $\mu_A$  as negligible,  
∴ we get as -

$$\boxed{\mu_0 = C_o \sqrt{2g\Delta H}}$$

{  $\mu_B$  or  $\mu_0$ , ∵ it }  
is at orifice }

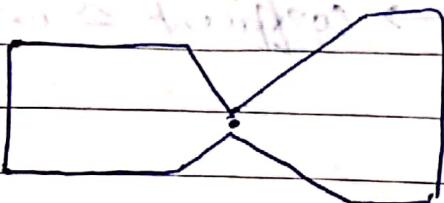
$\mu_0$  = velocity of fluid at the point of orifice.

$\Delta H$  = difference in pressure head.

②

## Venturiometer

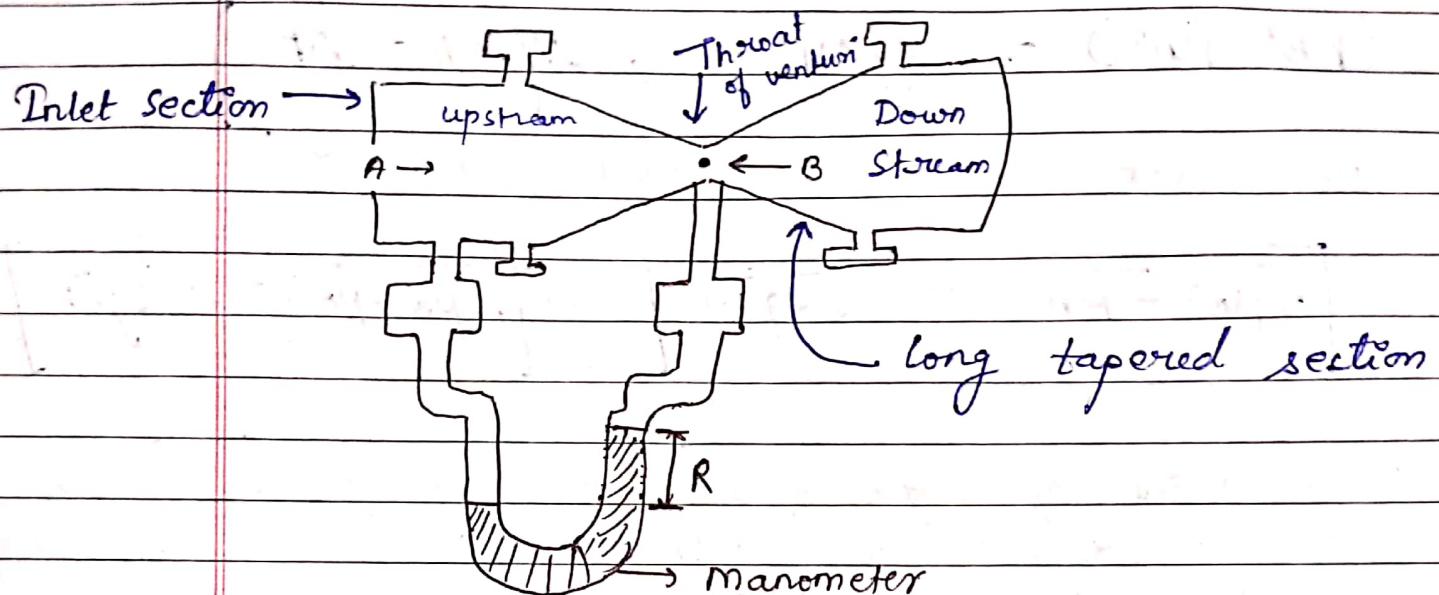
$$\text{final eqn} = C_v \sqrt{2g\Delta H}$$



$$(C_v = 0.98)$$

a constant

## (11) Venturi meter



Principle - Bernoulli's Theorem  $\uparrow$  in velocity  $\downarrow$  the pressure and this decrease in pressure is measured by manometer.

Construction - Consists of 2 tapered sections inserted in a pipeline placed b/w long straight pipes so that other fittings will not alter the flow of fluid rate.

- upstream cone shorter than downstream cone.
- Tapering is smooth & power loss are absent in downstream.

Working - Called as variable head meter as it measures variable pressure difference across a fixed constriction. Velocity  $\uparrow$  in the throat so the pressure decreases if this pressure drop is measured by manometer.

$$uv = cv \sqrt{2g \Delta H} \rightarrow \text{diff. in pressure height}$$

↓

velocity at the point of venturi      coefficient  $\approx 0.98$

## Advantages

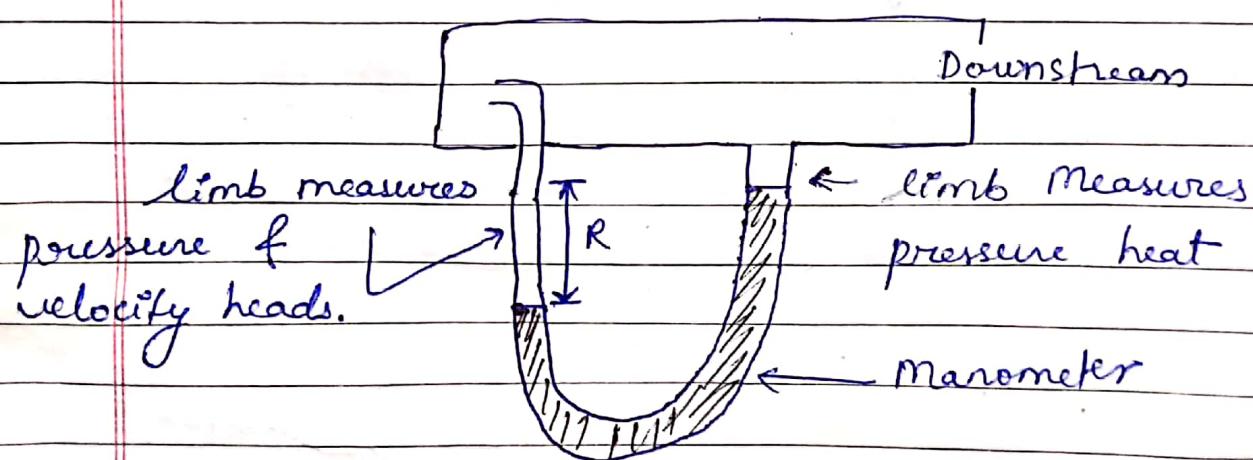
- commonly used for liquids, especially water, can also be used for measurement of gases.

## Disadvantages

- Expensive
- Occupies more space
- Ratio of throat diameter to pipe diameter cannot be changed.

## (iii) Pitot Tube

- also known as insertion meter.
- size of sensing element is small as compared to size of flow channel.
- point of measurement is centre of channel.
- one tube ⊥ to direction of flow of other || to direction of flow.
- Both connected by manometer



- used to measure velocity head of flow.
- Velocity of fluid increased at narrow constriction.
- This results in decreased pressure.
- Tube at right angle = Pressure head.
- Tube pointing upstream = Pressure head of velocity head.

"Faith is the bird that feels the light when the dawn is still dark." - Rabindranath Tagore

$R = \text{Pressure head} + \text{Velocity head} - \text{Pressure head}$

$R = \text{Velocity head}$

$$\mu = \rho \sqrt{2g \Delta H_p}$$

→ Advantages :- Measures velocity at one point.

→ Disadvantages

- Eddies within the pressure tube disturb reading.
- Do not give average velocity directly.
- Reading is small for gases. for gases working on low pressure, multiplying gauges should be used.

#### (IV) Rotameter

- Variable area meter. Measures the area of flow to produce constant head differential.
- Consists of a vertical tapered tube, mounted with narrow end down.
- Tube made of glass on which linear scale attached.

# → Size Reduction

Date \_\_\_\_\_

Page No.: \_\_\_\_\_

## # Size Reduction or Comminution or Diminution or Pulverisation

Size reduction is a process of reducing large solid unit mass into small unit mass, coarse particles or fine particles.

## # Objectives of size Reduction

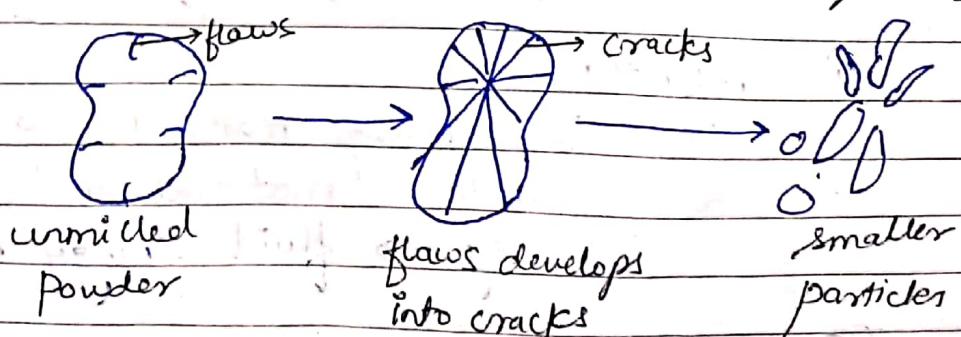
- ① Content uniformity ✓ \* Increased surface area  
dissolution rate of drug ↑  
ex → micronised size of Griseofulvin (antifungal drug)  
↓ 5 times better absorptn.
  - ② Uniform flow ✓
  - ③ Effective extraction of drug ✓
  - ④ Effective drying ✓
  - ⑤ Improved physical stability ✓
  - ⑥ Improved dissolution rate ✓
  - ⑦ Improved absorption rate ✓
- \* dosage form  
\* Reduce irritation.
- ☒ Ease of mixing
  - ☒ Stability of suspensn  
↓ decreased stabilisatn rate.
  - ☒ Stable emulsion
  - ☒ Increased absorption

## # Disadvantages

- ① Drug degradation (due to drug red., temp. is generated hence drug is little degraded)
- ② Poor mixing (since particle small, they get aggregated)
- ③ Contamination. (impurities will be added during the process)

## # Mechanism

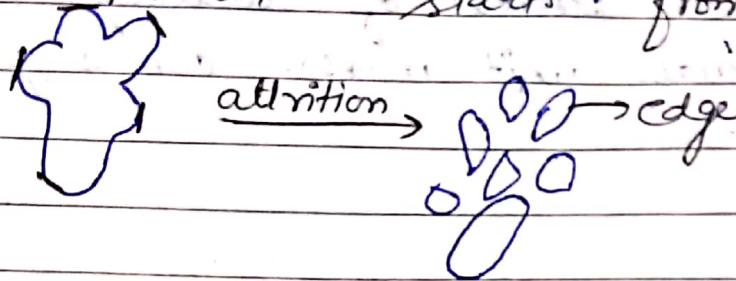
### ① Impact



- \* whenever pressure is applied, particle breaks if process is called as impact.

## (2) Attrition

- Whenever rubbing occurs between two surfaces.
- Breakdown starts from edge.



## # Modes of Stress

### (1) Cutting

- Material or drug is cut with the help of sharp instrument.  
eg → cutter mill

### (2) Compression

- Material is crushed b/w two heavy rollers.  
eg → roller mill

### (3) Impact

- \* Hammers or Bars are used
- \* (a) hammers rotate :- material stationary f hammers continuously hit the material. ex → Hammer mill  
(b) Hammer stationary :- material go f hit the hammer. eg → fluid energy mill.

### (4) Attrition

- Any two heavy materials get rubbing action along with material or drug.  
eg → fluid energy mill.

### (5) Combined Impact & Attrition

- eg → Ball mill

## Factors affecting Size Reduction

device used to measure is Moh's scale.

- ① Hardness - It is easy to break brittle drug or less hard (soft materials)
- ② Toughness - It is hard to break a tough material.  
eg → wet wood log, fibres  
\* soft but tough material is hard to break.  
ex - difficult to break a rubber than black board chalk stick.
- ③ Stickiness - more sticky material, it is tough to break it. as particles get adhere to themselves & also the meshes may get blocked.
- ④ Moisture Content → it can affect no. of ppts like hardness,  
\* wet & dry grinding toughness & viscosity.  
50% ↑ ↓ max moisture  
moisture must be there.
- ⑤ Material Structure
  - \* If material fibrous → more problematic size reduction.
  - \* If cracks fint, it is easy to break it.
- ⑥ Softening Temp.
  - \* It is used for thermo labile drugs.  
ex → waxy materials (stearic acid) may find difficulty bcz of this.
- ⑦ Purity Required
  - \* Inner surface of material must have extra layers to avoid contamination of material.
- ⑧ Physiological effects
  - Poisonous material must be reduced in closed chambers.
  - Slipperiness → material shows lubricating action & reduces effecting grinding.

## (9) Ratio of feed size to product

$$100\text{ mm} \rightarrow 1\text{ mm}$$
$$50 \rightarrow 10$$

## (10) Bulk density

Density defines which method to used for the size reduction.

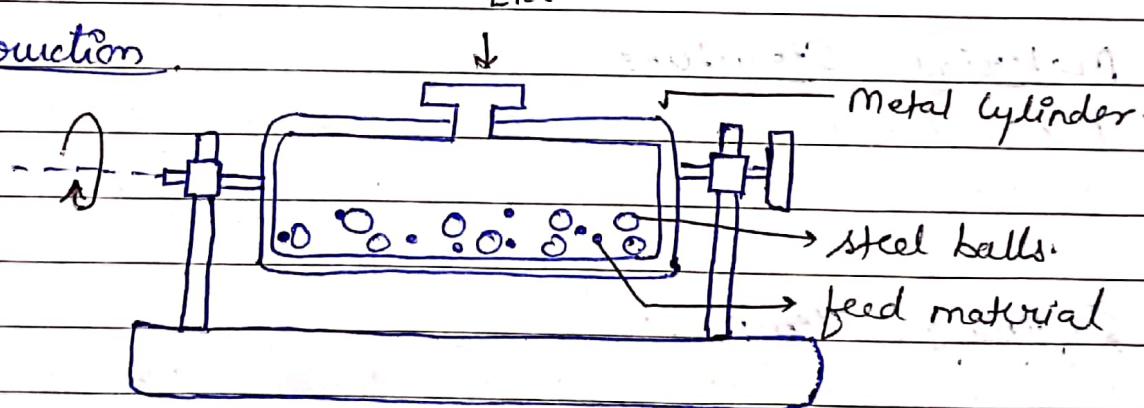
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## Ball Mill or Pebble Mill (Tumbling Mills)

### Principle (Impact & Attrition)

- Impact b/w rapidly moving balls of powder materials, both enclosed in a hollow cylinder.
- At low speeds, balls roll over each other of attrition (crushing action).

### Construction



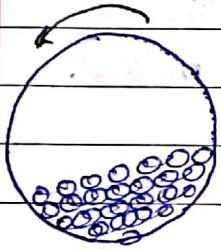
The construction of Ball Mill

- It consists of a Hollow Cylinder which is mounted on metallic frame & can be rotated on its longitudinal axis.
- Cylinder's length is slightly greater than diameter.
- Cylinder → made of metal & lined with chrome.  
Even in pharmaceutical industry cylinders are sometimes lined with rubber or porcelain.

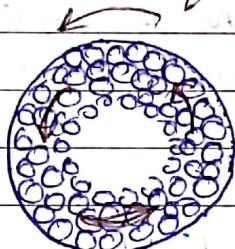
- cylinder occupies 30 to 50 % balls
- Ball's wt. is kept constant.
- Ball size depends upon - size of feed  
diameter of mill.
- Balls are made of steel, iron or stoneware if these act as grinding material.

### Working

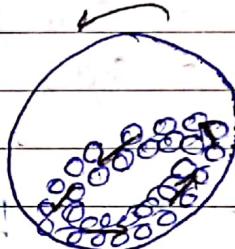
- drug which is to be ground is filled in cylinder upto 60% of volume.
- fixed no. of ball is introduced f cylinder is closed f
- mill is rotated on its longitudinal axis.
- Speed of rotatn is an imp. factor.



low speed  
↓



high speed  
↑



correct speed.  
↓

- Balls roll over each other due to centrifugal force balls thrown on wall, hence grindn does not occur.
  - Attrition will be the predominant mode of stress.
- Centrifugal force occurs  
balls picked up by mill walls & carried nearly to top where they break contact from wall & fall to bottom to be picked up.
- ↓
- Compressn by the balls will not be sufficient for effective comminution of substance.
- ↓
- Impact stress introduced  
size redu. effective.

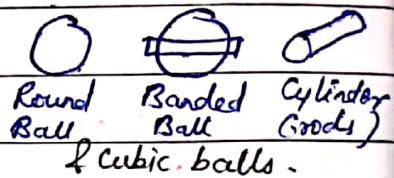
### Uses

- for grindn particle size upto 100 to 5mm or less.
- particularly used for hard and abrasive materials.
- stainess steel balls are used in products of ophthalmic & parenteral productn f in this lens chance of contamination due to wear & tear.
- At low speeds used for milling dyes, insecticides, etc.

"Faith is the bird that feels the light when the dawn is still dark." — Rabindranath Tagore

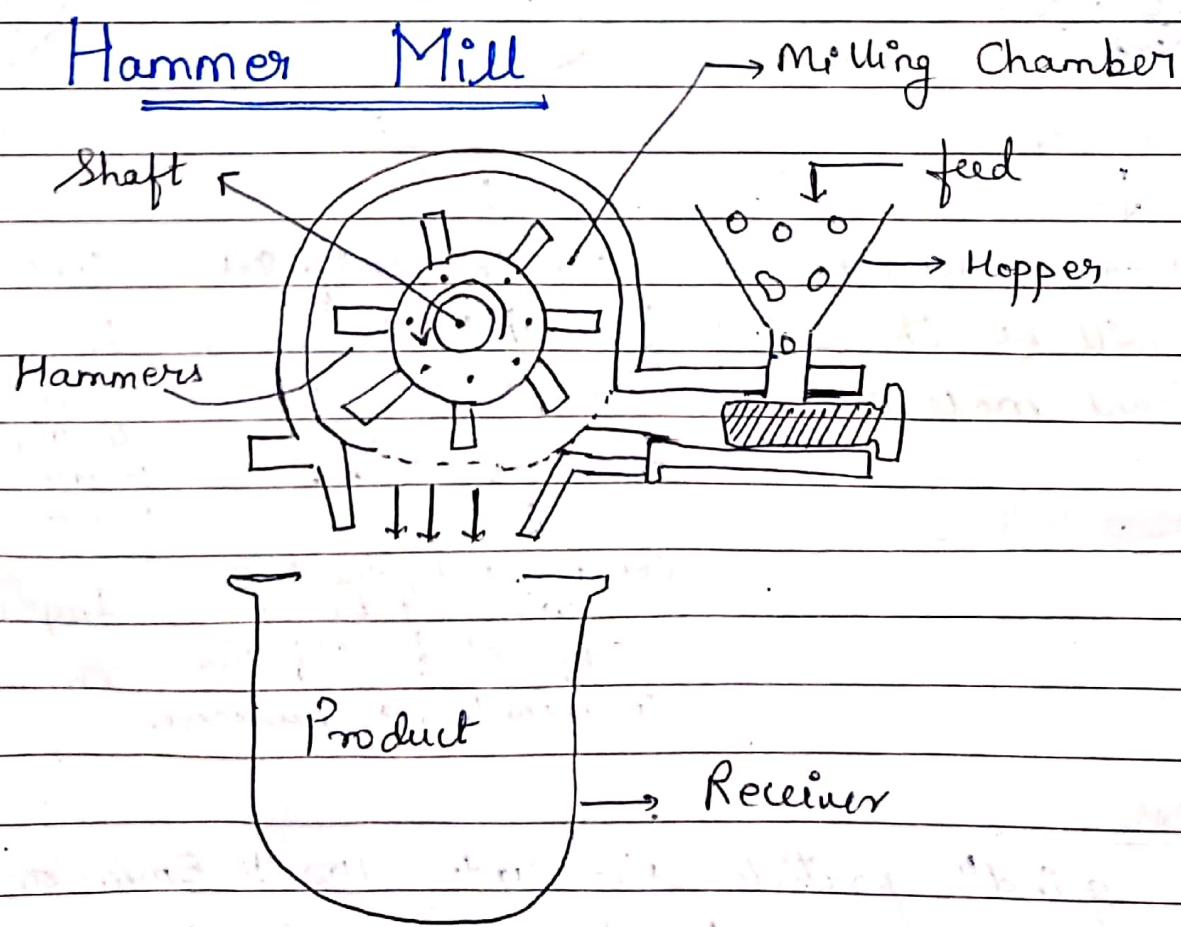
## Advantages

- very fine powder obtained.
- Used for batch operation.
- Suitable for both wet & dry grinding processes.
- Toxic substances can be milled.
- Since, mill is closed system, sterility can be achieved.
- Milling operations can be accomplished (done) in an inert atmosphere to prevent oxidation.
- Balls can be of various shapes & size



## Disadvantages

- very noisy
- Wear occurs by walls as well as casing, can cause contamination.
- Slow process, energy applied rate is limited.
- Soft, tacky, fibrous materials can't be milled.



## Principle :- Impact

- Impact is seen b/w rapidly moving hammers mounted on rotor & the powder material.

## # Construction

- Can be of vertical or of horizontal shaft type.
  - Hammers made of → hardened steel, stainless steel
  - Impact surface made of ~~extremely abrasive~~ {extremely abrasive} materials  
Haystellite or carbaly {resistant}
  - can be of several shapes. (basic are • stirrup }  
• Bar }
  - Stirrups extensively used in tablet granulation.
  - Blades can either be flat or sharp edges. or even both on either sides.
  - These are either rigid or swing-type.
- \* free swing type → advantage → increase clearance b/w hammers & screen. uncase of excessive builds.
- Entire unit is closed in chamber which has a removable screen through which material must pass.
  - screen → not woven  
made of metal of varyn thickness with holes.

## # Working

- Hammers → continuous motion (8000 - 15000 RPM)
  - feed in hopper → flow vertically → horizontally down
- due to tangential exit particle ← pass thru screen ← material to small size is "Faith is the bird that feels the light when the dawn is still dark." — Rabindranath Tagore particles small than the aperture
- ↓  
Hammers continuous mot?

- Screens are interchangeable to achieve fineness.
- Hammers → centrifugal fan so as large amount of air is drawn through mill
  - To counteract heat generated during milling.

fineness of powder is regulated by :-

- \* rotor speed
- \* feed rate
- \* clearance b/w hammers & grinding plates
- \* Number & type of hammers
- \* size of discharge sheet

## #

### Uses

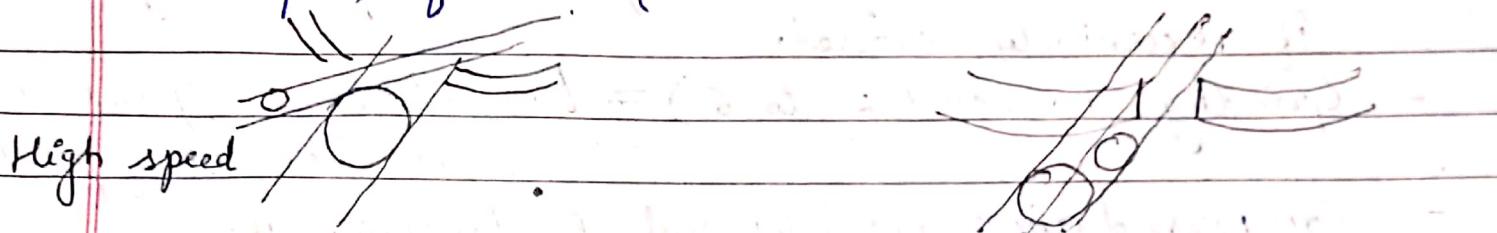
- fine, moderate grindn.
- particle size (10 to 400 nm)
- non-abrasive to moderately abrasive & brittle materials are used.
- used for dry materials, wet filter press cake
- fibrous material → reduced by cut<sup>n</sup> edge
- Brittle material → Impact

### Advantages

- easy setup, dismantle & clean up.
- minimum scale-up problems.
- small space is occupied.
- versatile (speed of screen can be changed)
- ∵ operated in closed environment, dust reduced & explos<sup>n</sup> hazards prevented.

## Disadvantages.

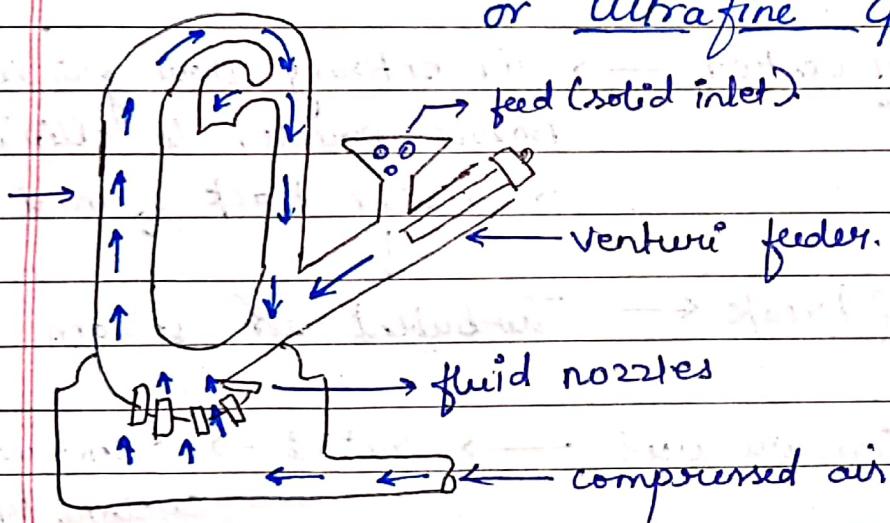
- screens may get clogged.
- heat build up is more, product degradation possible.
- wearing of screens & mill possible.
- sticky, fibrous & hard materials can't be milled.



Mesh size  
of the sieve.

Thin screen Thick screen.

## Fluid Energy Mill or Jet Mill or Micronizers or Ultrafine Grinders



## Principle (Impact & Attrition.)

- feedstock suspended within high velocity air stream.
- milling occurs due to high velocity collision b/w suspended particles.

## # Construction

- It has an elliptical pipe (height = 2 meters & diameter = 20 to 200 mm)
- mill surface either soft stainless steel or tough ceramics.
- mills contact surfaces may be changed or replaced if excessively eroded.
- Grinding nozzles (2 to 6) = tangential or opposed to initial flow path of powder
- Compressed air = 600 kilopascal to 1 megapascal.
- Inert Gases used to eliminate oxidation of susceptible compound.
- Venturi feeder
- Outlet with classifier which allow air escape.

## # Working

Powder → inlet of venturi → air entering thru grinding nozzle powder to elliptical or circular track of mill

↓  
particles collide & break ← Turbulent air streams

Impact of attrition are used → outlet → removed by cyclone separator or bag filter.

\* Coarse particle again repeats process until particle reduced sufficiently.

## # Uses

- Reduce particle size of antibiotics & vitamins
- Used to obtain better bioavailability
- Ultrafine grinding obtained.
- Moderately hard particles can be grinded.

## Advantages

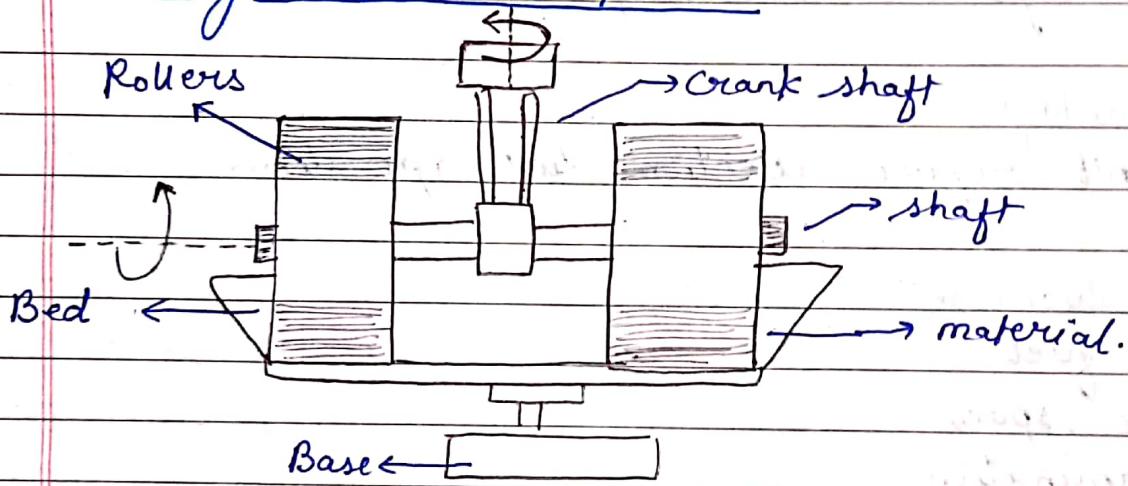
- no moving particle, no heat production.
- Rapid. (size obtained 30mm or less)
- no wear of mill, contamination not possible.

## Disadvantages

- Can't mill soft, tacky & fibrous material.
- Expensive equipment.

#

## Edge Runner Mill



## Principle

- Crushing (compression)
- Shearing force also involved during stone movement.

## Construction

- Two heavy rollers (tonnes)
- Bed (stone or granite)
- Roller has central shaft to revolve on its axis.
- Rollers are mounted on horizontal shaft to move around bed.

## → Working (a batch process)

- Material → bed → stone revolves + travel around (in path of stone) on axis shallow stone bed wheel
- Size reduction ⇒ shearing + crushing.
- Grinded material → passed thru sieve.

## # Uses

- used for grinding tough, fibrous materials.
- Grinds plant-based products.

## Advantage

- doesn't require attention during operation.

## Disadvantage

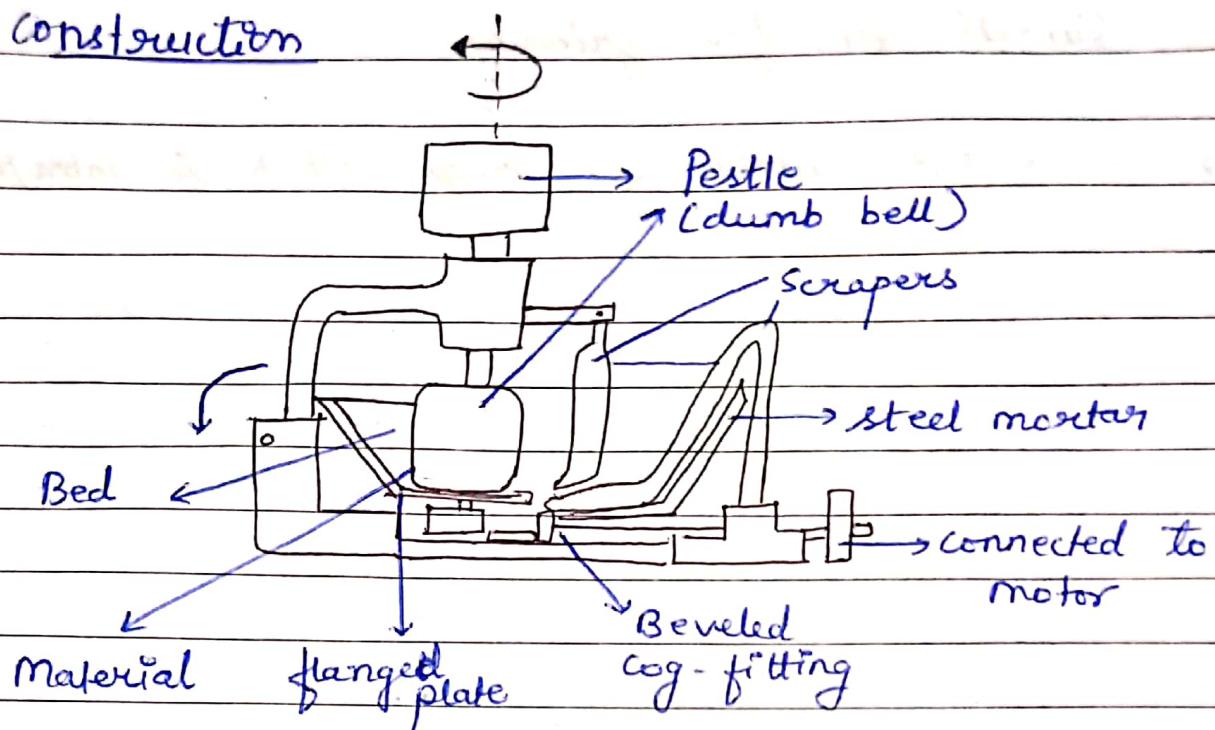
- High fuel
- more space
- contamination
- time consuming
- not used for sticky materials

## # End Runner Mill

### Principle → Crushing (compression)

- Reductn obtained by crushing b/w heavy wt. of steel pestle.
- shear stress also involved during movement of mortar & pestle.

## construction



- Mechanical mortar of pestle.
- It has :-
  - ① steel mortar fixed to flanged plate.
  - ② under flanged plate, a bevelled cog fitting is attached to horizontal shaft bearing a pulley, ∴ mortar & plate can be rotated on high speed.
    - Pestle dumbbell shaped (balancing & efficient grinding).
    - Bottom of pestle flat.
    - Pestle has a hinged arm with it, due to this pestle can be raised from mortar for emptying & clearing.
      - Narrow central portion of pestle is longer than the band of arm around it, ∴ pestle can rise & fall over all material in mortar.

## Working

- Material in mortar of scraper puts the material in path of pestle.
- Mortar revolves at high speed, pestle is in this hence it causes pestle to revolve.
- During this size reduction achieved by shearing & crushing.
- Material collected & passed thru sieve to get desired size powder.

# Size Separation

Date \_\_\_\_\_

Page No. \_\_\_\_\_

- \* <sup>report</sup> Size reduction is a unit operation that involves the separation of a mixture of various sizes of particles into two or more portions by means of screening surfaces.
- also known as sieving, sifting, classifying or screening.
  - Technique based on physical differences b/w particles such as shape, size & density.
  - Screening - separating particle acc. to size alone through sieve.
  - Material remaining on given screening surface <sup>oversize or plus material</sup>
  - Material passing through the screening surface <sup>undersize or minus material</sup>

## # Applications

- ① In production of tablets & capsules, it is a method to determine particle size & size distribution.
- ② As quality control tool for raw materials like griseofulvin & aspirin.
- ③ To test efficiency of size reduction equipment or process.
- ④ To recover valuable products or byproducts.
- ⑤ To prevent environmental pollution.

## # Official Standards For Powders

- Mainly powders are either fine or coarse.
- Acc. to Indian Pharmacopoeia, degree of coarseness or fineness is expressed with reference to nominal aperture size of sieve through which powder is able to pass.

Grade of powder	Sieve thru which all particles must pass	Nominal mesh aperture size	Sieve thru which 90% particles pass	Nominal mesh aperture size
Coarse	10	1.7 mm	44	355 $\mu\text{m}$
Moderately Coarse	22	710 $\mu\text{m}$	60	250 $\mu\text{m}$
Moderately fine	44	355 $\mu\text{m}$	85	180 $\mu\text{m}$
Fine	60		-	-
Very fine	85	180 $\mu\text{m}$	-	-
	120	125 $\mu\text{m}$	-	-

## # Coarse Powder

It is a powder whose particles pass through a sieve with nominal mesh aperture of 1.70mm (No. 10 sieve) if not more than 40% thru a sieve with nominal mesh aperture of 355  $\mu\text{m}$  (no. 44 sieve)

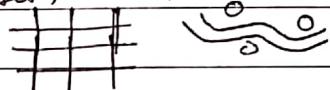
- \* Coarse powder = Percolation process.
- \* moderately coarse = tinctures

Liquid Extract	Useful Part	Grade of Powder
Ashoka	stem bark	Coarse
Nux Vomica	seeds	moderately coarse
Rauwolfia	roots	moderately coarse
Ergot	sclerotia	moderately fine
Ipecac	root	fine
Ephedra	stem	fine

## # Sieves → wire mesh type

- Sieves are simplest of sieving and is most frequently used method of size separation.
- Each sieve is given a no. which represents meshes that in one inch Construction or in 2.54 cm
- constructed from wire cloth with square meshes.
- wires are of brass, bronze, stainless steel or any suitable material.
- Sieve should not be coated or plated, there must be no rxn b/w sieve material & substance to be sieved.
- Material for construction must be resistant to corrosion.

### Types of Sieve



Plain



Twilled



- Woven Wire Sieve
- Bolting Cloth sieve (silk, nylon & cotton)
- Closely spaced bars (screens)
- Punched plates (Perforated screens)



### • Sieve Number

No. of meshes per linear length of 25.4 mm.

### • Nominal Size of Aperture

- It indicates the distance between two adjacent wires. Represents the size of square apertures.
- DP 1996 gives the nominal mesh aperture size for majority of sieves in mm or µm.

\* Generally iron wire used but avoid (corrosive nature)

\* Brass, Phosphor-bronze & stainless steel → (corrosion resistant, good strength, non-contaminating qualities).

\* Non-metals (Nylon & Teflon used which reduce risk of metallic contamination).

\* Punched plates or perforated screens used for special purposes.

## # Modes Of Motion In Size Separation

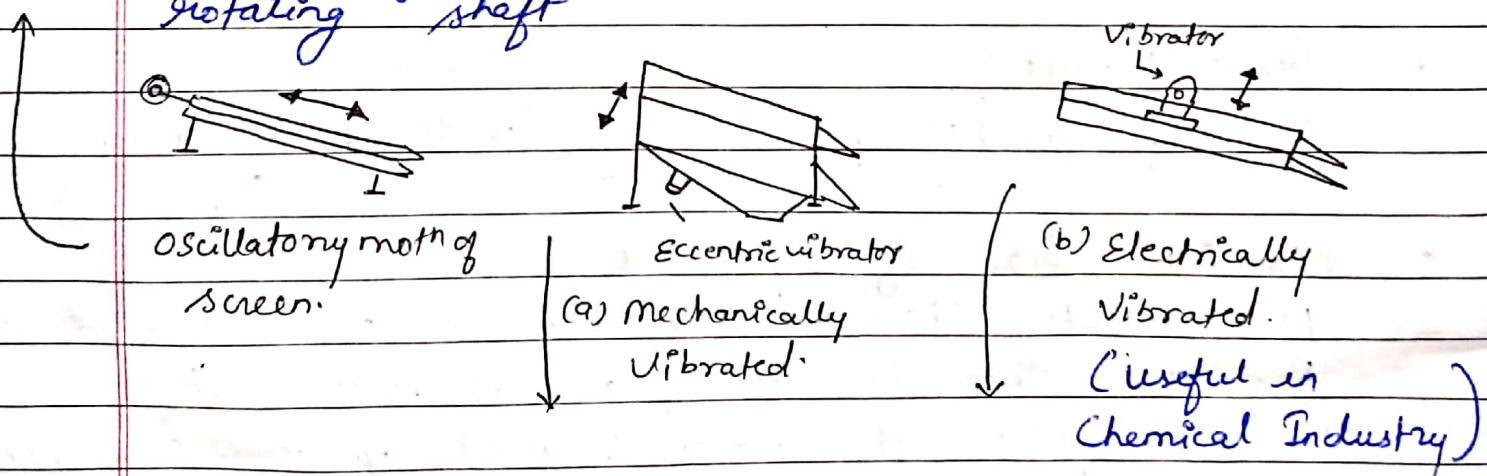
- Screening → oscillation
- Agitation → vibration
- Brushing → gyration
- Centrifugal Force.

### → Agitation

sieves agitated in no. of ways:-

#### (a) Oscillation

- Sieve mounted on frame that oscillates back & forth, i.e., reciprocal motion.
- Simple method.
- material may roll over sieve surface.
- motion parallel to sieve plane.
- sieves can be slightly tilted. ordinary
- Reciprocating motion is induced by means of eccentric on rotating shaft

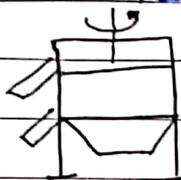


#### Vibration

- sieve vibrated at high speed with help of eccentric device.
- Vibrations help the powder to pass thru the sieve.  
ex → Hummer screen.
- Vibration also prevent blending of meshes.

## Gyration

- sieve is on rubber mounting & connected to an eccentric flywheel.
- This gives rotatory movement to small amplitude to the sieve, which in turn gives spinning motion to particles that helps them to pass thru the sieve.



(a) Gyrat<sup>n</sup> in horizontal plane



(b) Gyrat<sup>n</sup> in vertical plane

### Adv.

- agitat<sup>n</sup> = inexpensive, simple & Rapid.

disad - low limit of particle size.

Not useful for wet powders as clogging occurs.

Durr agitat<sup>n</sup>, attrition occurs which causes size reduct<sup>n</sup>.

## # Brushing Method

- A brush is used to remove particles from sieve & to keep meshes clear.

• Circular sieve :- Brush is rotated in middle.

• Horizontal cylindrical sieve :- In this spiral brush is rotated in the longitudinal axis.

ex → Brush shifter

(used for size separation of greasy or sticky powders such as waxes & soaps)

## # Centrifugal Method

- In this a high speed rotor is fixed inside vertical cylindrical sieve, so that on rotation the particles are thrown outwards by centrifugal force.

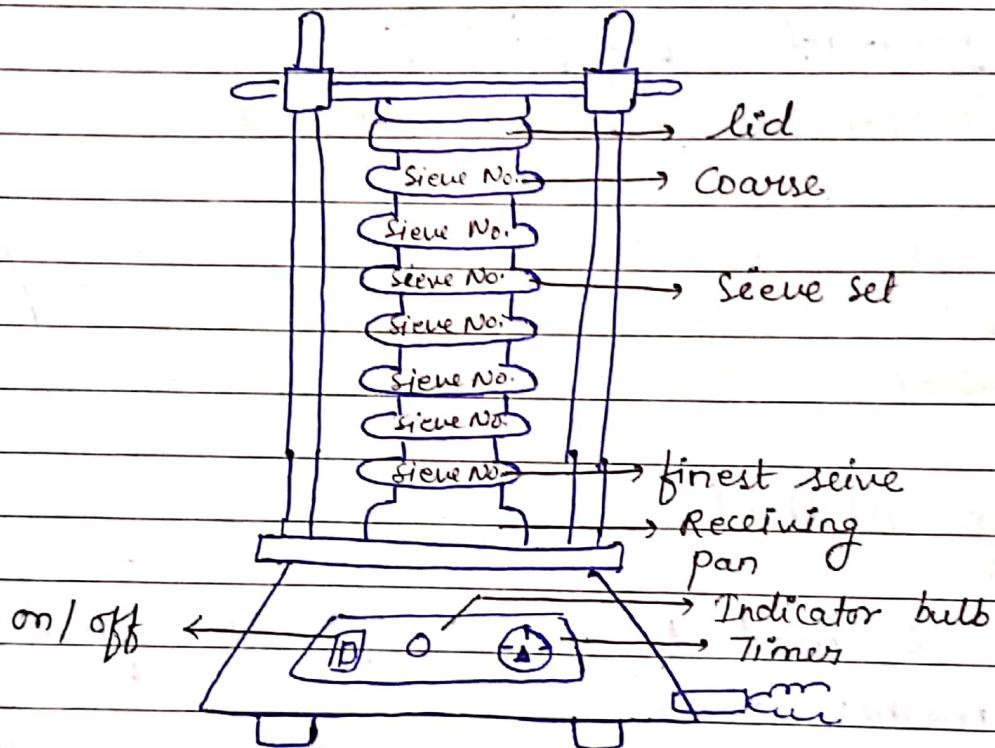
• By air jet air currents are passed to separate the particles.

ex → cyclone separator / air separator

## advantages

- When because of ventional sieving sieves get blocked in such cases these methods are extremely beneficial.
- beneficial for fine particles.

## # Sieve Shaker Machine



### \* laboratory sieve shaker machine

#### Principle (agitation)

- Powdered drug is separated acc. to its particle size, using number of sieves in a nest.
- These are subjected to agitation for rapid size separation.

#### Construction

- Standard sieves of different mesh numbers are available commercially as per specifications of IP & USP.

- These sieves are fixed in mechanical shaker apparatus.

### Working

- Sieves arranged in nest with coarse at top.
- 50g sample placed on top sieve.
- Sieve set fixed to mechanical shaker apparatus & shaken for time duration of 20 mins.
- Powder retained on <sup>each</sup> sieve is weighed.

### Advantages

- Inexpensive
- Simple
- Rapid with reproducible results.

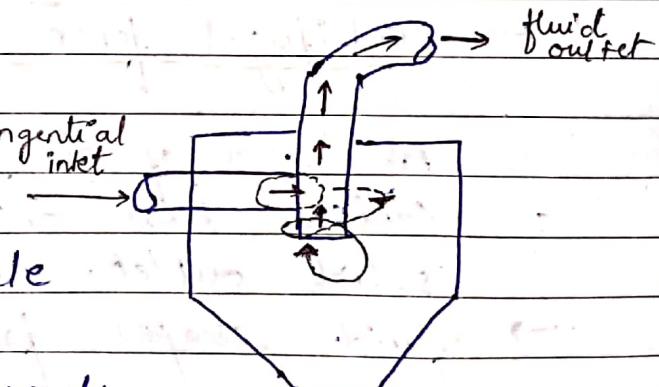
### Disadvantages

- lower limit of particle size is 50 $\mu\text{m}$ .
- Not useful for wet powders due to clogging of meshes.
- Error occurs in estimation due to attrition which causes reduction in particle size.

## Cyclone Separator

### Principle

- These ~~are~~ mainly separate the solids from fluids.
- This is based on principle of centrifugal force.
- The separation process depends not only on the particle size, but also on density of particles.
- On basis of fluid density, it separates all types of particles.
- It is also possible to allow fine particles to be carried by fluid.



"Truth is the bird that feels the light when the dawn is still dark." -Rabindranath Tagore

## Construction

- It consists of vertical, cylindrical vessel.
- It has conical base or bottom.
- Upper portion of vessel is fitted with tangential inlet.
- Outlet is arranged at base.
- Outlet for air is provided at center of top, which extend inwardly into separator to prevent air short circuiting directly from inlet to outlet of fluids.

## Working

- The solids are suspended in gas or steam if are introduced tangentially at very high velocity into vessel.
- Tangential inlet → most common type → least expensive & most efficient.
- Now rotatory motion takes place inside vessel.
- Due to this vortex formation occurs.
- centrifugal force + vortex throw solid to the wall.
- As speed of air diminishes, particles fall to the conical base and are discharged through solid outlet.
- fluid escapes from central outlet at the top.

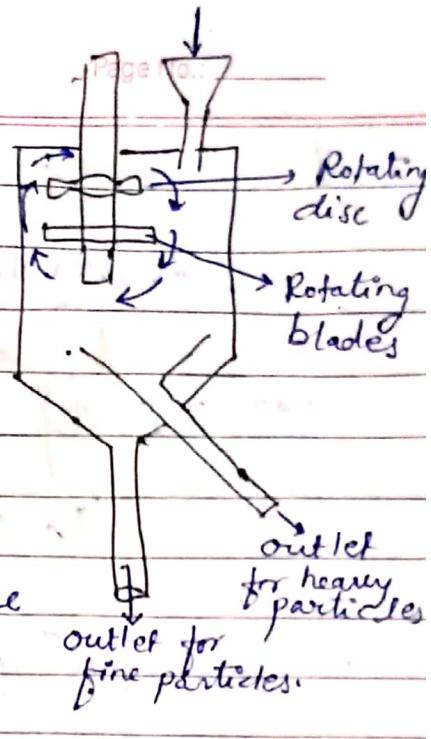
## Uses

- To separate solid from gases.
- Used for size separation.
- for separating heavy or coarse fraction from fine dust.

## Air Separator

### Principle

- Centrifugal force is used to separate Solids.
- Air environment is obtained by means of rotating.
- Stationary blades are used to improve the separation.
- Size at which separation occurs depends upon:- (1) Blades (2) Speed of Rotation.



### Construction

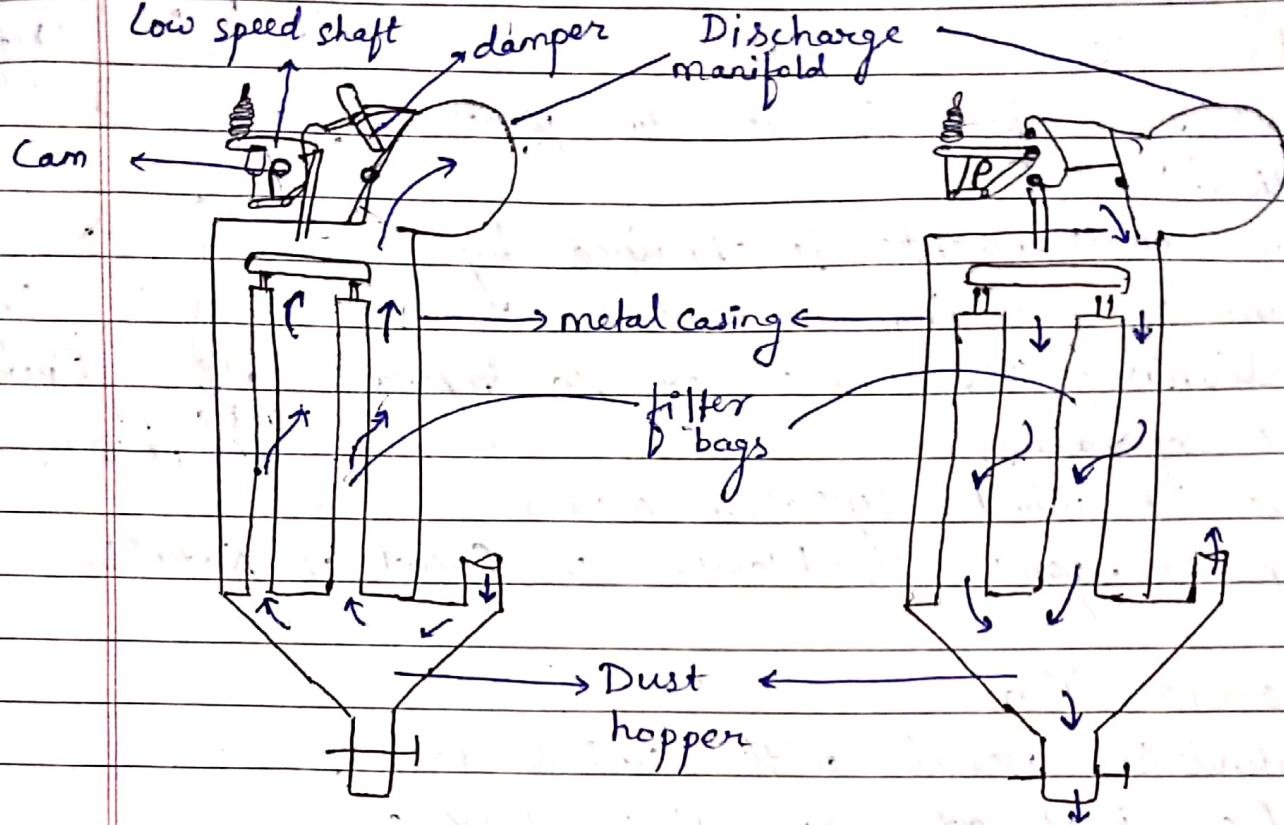
- Cylindrical vessel with conical base.
- Feed inlet at upper side of vessel
- Rotating & rotating blades attached to central shaft to produce air environment.
- At base, two outlets, one for fine particle & another for heavy.

### Working

- Discs of blades rotated with help of motor.
- These produce air current (as shown by arrows.)
- Sample powder introduced through feed inlet.
- feed falls on rotating disk
- fine particles are picked up & carried into space, where air velocity sufficiently reduced.
- fine particles are dropped & ultimately collected at the outlet meant for fine particles.
- Heavy particle fall forward & removed by outlet

Uses → These are attached to ball mills or handmill to separate & return oversized particles for further size reduction

# # Bag filter



## Principle

- In this size separation of fines (dust) from milled powder achieved in two steps.
- In 1st step milled powder is passed through a bag filter (cloth) by applying suction on opp. side of feed entry. It facilitates separation.
- In next step; pressure is applied in order to shape bags so that powder adhering bag falls off which is collected from conical base.

## Construction

- It has no. of bags (cotton, wool, fabric).
- Bags are suspended in a sheet metal container.
- Hopper arranged at bottom of filter to receive fed.
- At top there is a provision for exhaust.

"The butterfly counts not months but moments, and has time enough." —Rabindranath Tagore

- Adjacent to exhaust, bell crank lever arrangement is built to bring filter to normal atmospheric conditions.

Working - - Occurs in 2 steps

- Feed is separated from air by passing through cloth bag.
- Bags are shaken to collect fine particles sticked to walls.
- These 2 steps further controlled by bell crank lever arrangement.
- In bell crank lever arrangement, a shaft of a cam rotates at low speed.
- Simultaneously, the cam can either press the bell crank lever or does not come in contact.
- On it damper changes the position & allows follo. 2 steps:-

### Filtering Period

- During this period gas containing dust enters through the hopper.
- Then it is passed inside the bags at the top of apparatus.
- Vacuum fan produces a pressure below atmospheric pres. inside the apparatus. As a result, particle get trapped within the bags.

### Shaking Period

- During this period, bell-crank lever rotates & changes the position of damper.
- The outside air enters through the top in the metal casing of ∵ the vacuum is broken.
- At same time, it causes violent shaking or jerking actions to the bags.
- Dust or fine particles displaced from bags.
- Max. portion of dust falls into the hopper which is withdrawn further from conical base.

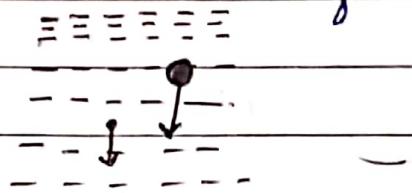
## Elutriation Method

Elutriation is a method of separation of particles in a powder based on low density of fine particles & high density of coarse particles using fluid flow.

### Diffr. b/w Elutriation & Sedimentation

#### Sedimentation

- Particles move in direction of gravity.
- fluid stationary & particle settle on basis of their velocity.



#### Elutriation

- Some particles move against gravitational force.
- fluid flows in opp. direction of settling movement.
- upward velo  $>$  settling velocity of particle.



#### Uses

- applicable in case of insoluble solid (kaolin & chalk) which are subjected to wet grinding by sedimentation or elutriation.

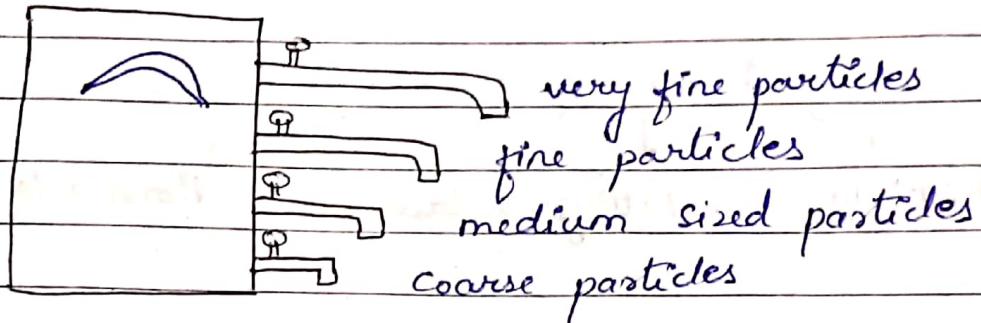
#### Advantage

- continuous process
- separation of size fraction is quick.

#### Disadv.

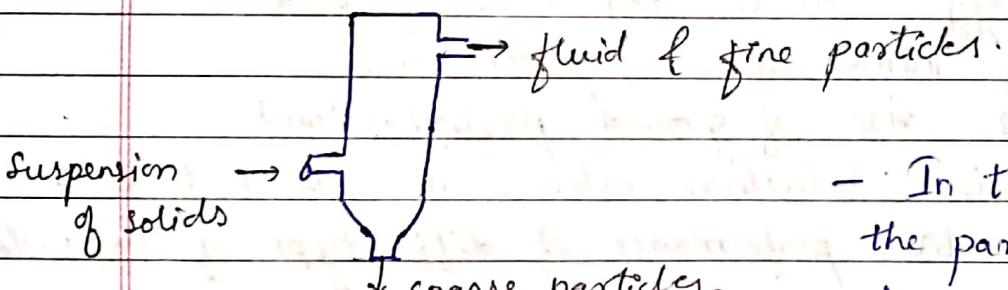
- suspension should be diluted, which may not be desirable in certain cases.

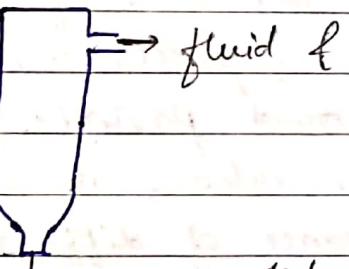
## Static Tank method.



- Powder / paste made by levigation, kept in this tank.
- Powder + water = mixed well, solid particle distributed uniformly in liquid during stirring.
- Particles allowed to settle on basis of density.
- Particles collected on basis of density.
- Powders are dried & thus various size fraction collected.

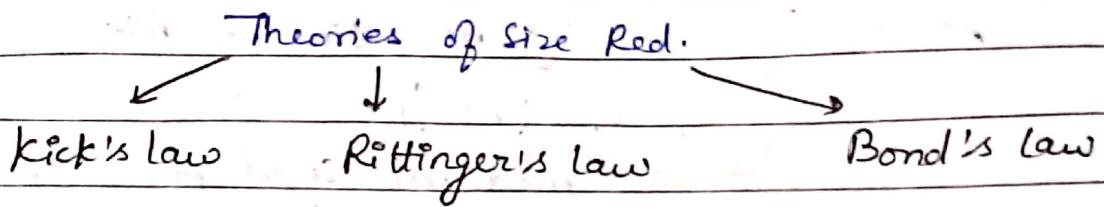
## Single separation with mobile liquid



- Suspension →  fine particles  
of solids
- In this elutriating process, the particles are suspended in a moving fluid, generally water.

- The apparatus consists of vertical columns of glass tube with an inlet near the bottom of introducing the suspension.
- An outlet is provided at the top for the overflow of fluid of fine particles. The feed is introduced from the bottom.
- Generally fluid is allowed to flow in upwards direction, while particle moves downwards due to gravitational force.
- If upwards velocity < settling velocity = sedimentation occurs.
- If settling velocity < upwards velocity = particles moves upwards with fluid flow.

## # Laws Governing Size Reduction



### → Kick's Law

Acc. to this law, energy req. to reduce size of particle is proportional to ratio of initial size of a typical dimension to the final size of that dimension.

$$E = K_k \ln \left[ \frac{d_1}{d_2} \right]$$

where,

$K_k$  = Kick's constant

$E$  = Energy required per mass of feed

$d_1$  = avg. initial size of pieces (cm)

$d_2$  = avg. size of ground particles (cm)

$d_1/d_2$  = size reduction ratio, it is used to evaluate relative performance of diff. type of equipments.

Coarse grinding has  $d_1/d_2 = 8 : 1$

Fine grinding has  $d_1/d_2 \approx 100 : 1$

reasonably

Application - This law gives good results for coarse grinding where there is a relatively small inc. in surface area per unit mass.

### → Rittinger's Law → applicable for smooth materials

This law states that energy req. for size red. of unit mass is proportional to new surface area produced.

$$E = K_R \left[ \frac{1}{d_2} - \frac{1}{d_1} \right]$$

where,  $E$  = Energy required per mass of feed.

$K_R$  = Rittinger's constant

$d_1$  = avg. initial size of pieces (m)

$d_2$  = avg. size of ground particles (m)

$1/d$  = (surface area)

so, eq. becomes,

$$E = K_R (s_n - s_i)$$

$s_n$  = initial specific surface area

$s_i$  = new surface area.

Application - This law gives better results with fine grinding where there is much greater inc. in surface area.

→ Bond's Law

It states that energy req. for size red. is prop. to new crack length.

$$\frac{E}{W} = \sqrt{\frac{100}{d_2}} - \sqrt{\frac{100}{d_1}}$$

where,

$E$  = energy req. per mass of feed weight

$W$  = Bond work index work required to reduce a unit n

$d_1$  = diameter of sieve aperture 80% mass of feed to pass.

$d_2$  = diameter of sieve aperture that allows 80% of mass of ground materials to pass.

## # Theories of size reduction

### Griffith Theory

If a drug has flaws or microscopic cracks. When pressure is applied these flaws get widened. 1st weaker flaws break then on applying more pressure stronger flaws are broken & finally we get small particles of our drug.

$$T = \sqrt{\frac{YE}{C}}$$

where,

T = Tensile strength

Y = Young's modulus

E = Surface Energy

C = Critical Attack Path

- If flaws are not present in a particle, force of milling produces new flaws.  
useful work  $\propto$  New crack length formed.

Usually surface of particle is irregular. The applied force initially takes on high portion of surface leads to high stress &  $\uparrow$  of temp. Bonds get weak flaws are created. Thus deformation occurs.

Strain energy needed to extend crack  $\propto$  New crack length.

- Tougher particles do not exhibit brittle behaviour. They undergo particle flow that allows the particle step over one another & this deformation required energy.

#

## Objectives of size separation

- To formulate uniform dosage form  
→ Size red. of solid material never gives particles of same size. The material obtained must undergo a separation technique to get a narrow size range.
- To prepare granules of larger size  
While undergoing size separation small particles gets separated from larger granules & the granules of desired size are obtained.
- To separate undesirable particles  
while separation occurs impurities get removed from the material we will obtain.

#

## Applications of Size Separation

- It can be used as a method to determine particle size & size distribution, which are used in the production of tablets & capsules.
- Can be used as a quality control tool for the analysis of raw material. Eg - aspirin
- To test the efficiency of a size reduction equipment process.