- Krivankova L and Bocek P (1997) Synergism of capillary isotachophoresis and capillary zone electrophoresis. *Journal of Chromatography B* 689: 13–34.
- McLaughlin GM, Weston A and Hauffe KD (1996) Capillary electrophoresis methods development and sensitivity enhancement strategies for the separation of industrial and environmental chemicals. *Journal of Chromatography A* 744: 123–134.
- Muijselaar PG, Otusuka K and Terabe S (1997) Micelles as pseudo-stationary phases in micellar electrokinetic chromatography. *Journal of Chromatography A* 780: 41–61.
- Poole CF and Poole SK (1997) Interphase model for retention and selectivity in micellar electrokinetic

chromatography. Journal of Chromatography A 792: 89-104.

- Reijenga JC, Verheggen TPEM, Martens JHPA and Everaerts FM (1996) Buffer capacity, ionic strength and heat dissipation in capillary electrophoresis. *Journal* of Chromatography A 744: 147–153.
- Rodriguez-Diaz R, Zhu M and Wehr T (1997) Strategies to improve performance of capillary isoelectric focusing. *Journal of Chromatography A* 772: 145–160.
- Watzig H, Matthias D and Kunkel A (1998) Strategies for capillary electrophoresis: method development and validation for pharmaceutical and biological applications. *Electrophoresis* 19: 2695–2752.

ESSENTIAL GUIDES TO METHOD DEVELOPMENT IN EXTRACTION

J. R. Dean, University of Northumbria at Newcastle, Newcastle upon Tyne, UK

Copyright © 2000 Academic Press

Introduction

Samples for extraction can be broadly categorized as solid, liquid or gaseous matrices. It is obvious that the different methods of extraction of analytes from



Figure 1 Sample preparation protocol.

these matrices will also vary. This guide provides an overview of the different approaches for extraction of analytes from these different matrices.

It is important to consider that extraction is only one part of the sample preparation protocol. Other steps are highlighted in **Figure 1**. A typical solid sample is most likely to be heterogeneous. This is a problem in the analysis, if appropriate steps have not been taken to remove a representative sample using a statistical approach. Failure to do so can make any subsequent extraction and analysis results meaningless.

Also of relevance to any subsequent extraction and analysis is whether the sample has been stored (and preserved, if necessary) in the appropriate manner to prevent losses of the analyte due to degradation and/or adsorption. It is necessary to consider, in the



Figure 2 Extraction of analytes from solid matrices.



Figure 3 Soxhlet extraction.

case of a soil sample, whether it should be dried (volatile analytes may be lost) or extracted in the unadulterated state. If possible, drying is favoured, as the subsequent matrix can be ground and sieved to increase its surface area (smaller particle size).



Extraction of analytes from solid matrices can be classified according to the scheme shown in **Figure 2**. The main extraction techniques are Soxhlet extraction, soxtec extraction, supercritical fluid extraction



Figure 4 Ultrasonic extraction.

Figure 6 Supercritical fluid extraction.



Figure 7 Microwave-assisted extraction.

PFE system operational and

connected to electric and gas

supply

(SFE), pressurized microwave-assisted extraction (pMAE), atmospheric microwave-assisted extraction (aMAE), pressurized fluid extraction (PFE) or accelerated solvent extraction (ASE), ultrasonic ex-

Sample e.g. soil, accurately weighed

and mixed with drying agent and

copper (for soils with high sulfur

content).



Liquid Matrices

Liquid extraction approaches are essentially centred around methods of preconcentration. Typically, this involves the use of sorbent and/or an organic solvent. The choice of solvent/organic solvent depending upon the nature of the analyte, e.g. polar/nonpolar. The main extraction approaches are liquid–liquid



Figure 8 Pressurized fluid extraction (or accelerated solvent extraction).

Figure 10 Thermal desorption.





Figure 12 Solid-phase extraction.

Figure 13 Solid-phase microextraction.

Gaseous/Atmospheric Samples

Gaseous samples are normally analysed by gas chromatography (GC). The volatile nature of the analytes means that some form of trapping is required. Typical approaches for analyte trapping are shown in **Table 1**.

SPME/HPLC interface

desorption chamber.

the column.

the needle.

Depress the plunger, exposing

and desorbing the analytes onto

the fibre to the mobile phase

Retract the fibre and remove

Solvent Selection

injector port.

onto the column.

needle.

Depress the plunger, exposing the fibre in the heated zone of the

injector to desorb the analytes

· Retract the fibre and remove the

Extraction of an analyte is dependent upon overcoming any interactions between the matrix with the extraction technique. These interactions, for organic molecules, are predominantly based on weak forces of attraction between the analyte and the matrix, e.g.

Technique	Comments
Solid phase trapping	Gaseous sample passed through a sorbent, e.g. Tenax, activated charcoal, etc. Trapped analytes are eluted with a suitable solvent.
Liquid trapping	Gaseous sample is bubbled through a suitable trapping solvent. To improve trapping efficiency it is important to minimize the flow rate and/or lower the temperature. The use of multiple traps or impingers may be necessary.
Headspace sampling	Solid or liquid sample placed in a sealed glass vial until equilibrium is reached. Volatile analytes sampled from the headspace using a gas-tight syringe or solid-phase microextraction.
Purge and trap Solid-phase microextraction	See Figure 14. See Figure 14 and Headspace sampling, above.

Table 1	Common	approaches	for	gaseous	samples
---------	--------	------------	-----	---------	---------

Table 2 Calculation of individual group contributions for a solvent (methanol) and the analyte, DDT

Molecule	Group	Group contribution to dispersion (F _d) J ^{1/2} cm ^{3/2} mol ⁻¹	Group contribution to polarity (F _p) J ^{1/2} cm ² mol ⁻¹	Group contribution to hydrogen bonding (U _h) J mol ⁻¹	Molar volume (V) cm³ mol ⁻¹
Methanol	CH ₃	420	0	0	33.5
	OH	210	500	20 000	10.0
	Total	630	500	20 000	43.5
DDT	$2 \times -Ph-$	2540	220	0	104.8
	$2 \times CI-CH =$	900	1100	800	48
	3×Cl	1350	1650	1200	72
	$1 \times CH$	80	0	0	- 1.0
	> C <	- 70	0	0	- 19.2
	Total	4800	2970	2000	204.6

Table 3 Total Hildebrand solubility parameter and its individual components

Solvent/analyte	Dispersion coefficient, $\delta_{ m d}~(MPa^{1/2})$	Polarity, δ_{p} (MPa ^{1/2})	Hydrogen bonding, $\delta_{\sf h}~(MPa^{1/2})$	Total Hildebrand solubility parameter, $\delta_{\rm t}~({\it MPa}^{ m 1/2})$
Methanol	14.48	11.49	21.44	28.31
Acetonitrile	14.78	19.13	6.59	25.06
Acetone	14.52	9.90	5.07	18.29
Dichloromethane	18.25	8.58	3.53	20.48
iso-Hexane	14.27	0.00	0.00	14.27
DDT	23.46	9.75	3.13	25.60

Van der Waal's, hydrogen bonding, etc. While the choice of extraction technique is important, often for economic and environmental concerns, its physical/chemical properties are largely influenced by the choice of solvent (in most cases). This is not to say that the effects of heat, pressure, agitation and sorbent are negligible, but that these on their own are largely unimportant without the presence of an organic solvent and that the choice of solvent is critical. Apart from general rule of thumb guidelines for solvent selection, i.e. like extracts such as a nonpolar analyte can be extracted by a nonpolar solvent, little attempt has been made to offer a scientific approach.

The solvent prediction scheme used is based on the Hildebrand solubility parameter (δ_t). The solubility parameter is a measure of the internal energy of cohesion in the solvent/solute. Solvents with similar solubility parameter form mixtures, hence an analyte and a solvent that have similar solubility parameters, should also form mixtures.



Figure 14 Purge and trap.

 δ_t is defined as the square root of the cohesive energy density or:

$$\delta_{\rm t} = (\Delta E_{\rm v}/V)^{1/2}$$
[1]

where $\delta_t = \text{total}$ Hildebrand solubility parameter, $\Delta E_v = \text{energy of vaporization at a given temperature}$ and V = molar volume of the molecule.

Hansen (1967) took this work further and assumed that the total cohesive energy is a linear addition of



Figure 15 Comparison of calculated solvent and analyte fractional parameters.

Table 4	Pressurized fluid extraction of DDT from contaminated
soil follow	red by GC-MSD quantitation, $n = 6^a$

Solvent	Mean $\mu g g^{-1}$	SD
Methanol	89	10.1
Acetone	163	7.4
Dichloromethane	220	13.9
Acetonitrile	65	2.9
Iso-Hexane	120	4.4

^aExtraction conditions: sample size 2 g; temperature, 100°C; pressure 2000 psi; static extraction time 10 min; one static/flush cycle.

three components: δ_h , hydrogen bonding ability contribution; δ_d , dispersion co-efficient contribution; and, δ_p , polarity contribution. They are linked by the following equation:

$$\delta_{\rm t}^2 = \delta_{\rm h}^2 + \delta_{\rm p}^2 + \delta_{\rm d}^2 \qquad [2]$$

The individual components of δ_t can be determined using a group contribution additive method. The data available allows each group's contribution to polarity, dispersion and hydrogen bonding (F_p , F_d , and U_h , respectively) to be calculated using the following equations δ_p , δ_h , and δ_d :

$$\delta_{\rm d} = ({}_{\rm z} \Sigma^{\rm z} F_{\rm d}) / V$$
 [3]

$$\delta_{\rm p} = (_{\rm z} \Sigma^{\rm z} F_{\rm p}) / V \qquad [4]$$

$$\delta_{\rm p} = (_{\rm z} \Sigma^{\rm z} F_{\rm p}^2)^{1/2} / V \qquad [5]$$

$$\delta_{\rm h} = ((_{\rm z} \Sigma^{\rm z} U_{\rm h}) / V)^{1/2}$$
 [6]

For molecules with more than one polar group present, then eqn [5] must be used instead of eqn [4] to take into account the interactions between the polar groups.

An example calculation of the individual components of the solubility parameter for a solvent (methanol) and an analyte (1,1,1-trichloro-2-2-bis(pchlorophenyl)ethane (DDT)) are shown in **Table 2**. The individual Hansen parameters for a range of solvents and an analyte (DDT) are shown in **Table 3**. As an example, the calculated total Hildebrand solubility parameter, δ_t , for methanol (28.3 MPa^{1/2}) compared favourably with the literature value of 29.6 MPa^{1/2}.

In order to normalize the data, fractional parameters of the Hildebrand solubility parameter can be calculated and plotted on a triangular graph in order to give a visual representation of the extent of contribution from the three components (polarity,



dispersion and hydrogen bonding). A plot of selected solvents and DDT is shown in **Figure 15**. Using this plot, it can be seen that dichloromethane (DCM) is predicted to be the optimum solvent for extraction of DDT. **Table 4** shows results for the extraction of DDT contaminated soil for selected solvents using accelerated solvent extraction (ASE). It is clearly shown that DCM gives the highest recovery of DDT. Similarly, it is also predicted and confirmed that both isohexane and acetone would remove significantly more of the DDT than methanol and acetonitrile. Work is on-going to identify whether the model can be applied to other systems.

Selected Examples of Extraction of Analytes from Environmental Matrices

In order to provide specific details on particular extraction techniques selected examples are provided from the author's own laboratory. In particular, the following techniques are covered: **Box 1**, Soxhlet extraction of polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) from contaminated soil; **Box 2**, shake flask extraction of four phenols from soil; **Box 3**, SFE of OCPs from soil and Celite; **Box 4**, pressurized microwaveassisted extraction of PAHs from soil; **Box 5**, atmospheric microwave-assisted extraction of PAHs from



soil; Box 6, pressurized fluid extraction of DDT, 1,1-dichloro-2,2-bis(p-chlorophenyl)ethane (DDD) and 1,1-dichloro-2,2-bis(p-chlorophenyl)ethylene (DDE) from soil; Box 7, liquid-liquid extraction of PAHs from water; Box 8, SPE of phenols from water; Box 9, solid-phase microextraction of benzene, toluene, ethyl benzene and xylene (BTEX) from water; and, Box 10, purge and trap of BTEX from water.

Further details on the theoretical and technical aspects of these and other extraction techniques can be found in the relevant entries in the Encyclopedia.









4604 APPENDIX 2/ESSENTIAL GUIDES TO METHOD DEVELOPMENT IN EXTRACTION









See also: I/Extraction; Chromatography: Thin-Layer (Planar): Theory of Thin-Layer (Planar) Chromatography. Extraction: Analytical Extractions; Analytical Inorganic Extractions; Microwave-Assisted Extraction; Solid-Phase Extraction; Solid-Phase Microextraction; Solvent Based Separation; Steam Distillation; Supercritical Fluid Extraction; Ultrasound Extractions. III/Airborne Samples: Solid-Phase Extraction. Bioanalytical Applications: Solid-Phase Extraction. Bioanalytical Applications: Solid-Phase Extraction. Drugs of Abuse: Solid-Phase Extraction. Environmental Applications: Solid-Phase Microextraction; Soxhlet Extraction; Supercritical Fluid Extraction. Herbicides: Solid-Phase Extraction. Immobilised Boronic Acids: Extraction. Immunoaffinity Extraction. Molecular Imprints for Solid-Phase Extraction. Multiresidue Methods: Extraction. On-line Sample Preparation: Supercritical Fluid Extraction. Pesticides: Extraction from Water. Phenols: Solid-Phase Extraction. Pressurized Fluid Extraction: Non-Environmental Applications. Solid-Phase Extraction with Discs. Sorbent Selection for Solid-Phase Extraction. Appendix: 2/Essential Guides to Method Development in Solid-Phase Extraction.

Further Reading

Barton AFM (1983) The Handbook of Solubility Parameters and other Cohesion Parameters. Boca Raton: CRC Press Inc. Dean JR (1998) Extraction Methods for Environmental Analysis. Chichester. John Wiley and Sons.

Handley AJ (ed.) (1999) *Extraction Methods in Organic Analysis*. Sheffield: Sheffield Academic Press.

Hansen CM (1967) Journal of Paint Technology 39: 104.

Pawliszyn J (1997) Solid Phase Microextraction: Theory and Practice. New York: Wiley-VCH.

Pawliszyn J (1999) Applications of Solid Phase Microextraction. Cambridge: Royal Society of Chemistry, Cambridge.

- Ramsey ED (1998) Analytical Supercritical Fluid Extraction Techniques. London: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Thurman EM and Mills MS (1998) Solid Phase Extraction: Principles and Practice. New York: Wiley-Interscience.
- van Krevelen DW and Hoftzyer PJ (1976) Properties of Polymers; Their Estimation and Correlation with Chemical Structure. Amsterdam: Elsevier.

ESSENTIAL GUIDES TO METHOD DEVELOPMENT IN FLOTATION

E. Woodburn, UMIST, Manchester, UK

Copyright © 2000 Academic Press

General

This article is designed to develop methods for an interested non-specialist, by showing how they can be used as a basis for a Chemical Engineering Unit Operations course.

Flotation is practised extensively in industry. The technique requires a detailed knowledge in physical metallurgy, the physical chemistry of surfaces, a competence both in mathematics and practical hydro-dynamics.

The operation is based simply on the attachment of an air bubble to either a small or low-density particle, or to a liquid droplet.

Method 1: Selective Separation

Mineral flotation has by far the greatest usage, processing 20 billion tons per year; however the process of delinking newsprint is currently at about 25 million tons per year and is expected to grow significantly in the next decade. In these operations the selective attachment of a bubble to the valuable or an unwanted component of a particle is required. In de-inking, this refers to the removal of ink particles from cellulosic fibres. For mineral processing, a higher degree of selectivity is required, to recover a valuable particle from a suspension of waste particles. This operation is very seldom used on its own but is part of a flowsheet in which, after pretreatment which includes size reduction, a solid suspension in water is fed to the flotation circuit.

In the circuit, cells may be arranged in sequence with each successive cell treating the concentrate from the previous one to improve its purity; this is, called 'roughing'. The final concentrate from the rougher bank is fed to a bank of 'cleaning' cells. The reject stream from the last of the cleaning cells is itself recycled to improve the final recovery and is called 'scavenging'. The concentrate from the final scavenger stream is recirculated to the feed of the first of the rougher cells. The waste from the final scavenging cell is discharged as the overall plant waste. This may be recycled, or treated to minimize its environmental impact. The final cleaner concentrate is essentially the plant product, although it may also have to be processed possibly by recleaning and drying.

In waste paper, de-inking the ink-rich stream tailings appears in what in mineral processing is the concentrate and the de-inked paper in what is usually the mineral processing tailings.

Method 2: Non-Selective Separations

The other class of operations require only the nonselective attachment of air bubbles to a particle/droplet, producing an aggregate of high buoyancy, so that the attached material can be withdrawn from the top of the flotation vessel. Processes of this type include the off-shore recovery of crude oil which may be 5-50% oil by volume, containing dispersed oil in the form of 10-50 µm oil droplets in water. After processing, virtually all the oil is recovered containing only 0-5% water. Other processing operations of this class include water treatment, in which the rate of setting of the flocculants on their own is very slow while the buoyancy of the air bubble/flocculant is high. Also the separation of rejected plastics from general wastes is economically attractive, with polyethylene terephthalate (PET), polyethylene (PE),