



ION EXCHANGE TECHNOLOGY

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Foreword

In recent years, we have been reminded that the first ion exchange conference was organised by the Society of Chemical Industry in the William Beveridge Hall, London University, 5–7 April 1954. The Proceedings of that conference were entitled 'Ion Exchange and its Applications' and was published in 1955. On re-reading the papers presented almost exactly thirty years ago, we are immensely impressed by the quality and range of work and also by the vision of some of the distinguished authors at that time. The conference was hardly international, since of the twenty papers presented, sixteen originated from speakers in the UK and the remainder from one or two European countries. However, the range of applications presented was considerable, for example the application of ion exchange in water treatment processes, synthetic fibre processes, metallurgical industries, drugs and pharmaceuticals, wine treatment and therapeutic applications in the field of medicine. Developments such as continuous ion exchange were anticipated and the paper by Hutcheon still deserves to be read by those of us interested in the historical background to this fascinating subject. Several contributors to the first meeting are still extremely active today, and it is a pleasure to pick out the names of Dr Roger Kressman and Dr Tom Arden, both of whom are active participants at this fourth SCI organised conference.

The second conference was organised at Imperial College, London in July 1969 and was truly international in character. Approximately 60 papers were published in the Proceedings in a wide variety of subject areas, though ion exchange resin developments, water treatment and ion exchange equipment developments were at the forefront of interest. The concept of continuous ion exchange was fashionable and many papers proposed new contactor designs and flowsheet applications.

In 1976 the third conference entitled 'The Theory and Practice of Ion Exchange' was organised at Churchill College, Cambridge University. The subject matter was somewhat narrower than at the previous meetings in an attempt to bridge the gap between academic endeavour and industrial practice. This aim

was achieved in a number of ways; many practical problems were highlighted and the advent of novel solutions to several hydrometallurgical problems started to emerge.

In the intervening eight years, the ion exchange industry has gone through difficult times, though research has continued undaunted. This is reflected in the present conference whereby the number of papers to be presented has increased substantially, though the topic areas are reduced. The most important area of application and research is clearly the field of water treatment, and it is noticeable that some topics have now settled into a state of publishable equilibrium. Examples are resin developments and hydrometallurgical processes. No attempt was made to restrict the scope of the conference and it is significant that some areas of work, such as inorganic materials, sugar processing and effluent treatment, no longer enjoy such predominance.

All papers presented at this conference are published in these Proceedings and we have not discriminated between oral and poster presentations. It is intended that the papers as a whole represent the state of the art in ion exchange technology in July 1984.

The joint editors would like to express their gratitude to the members of the organising committee, namely Morton Carlyle, Michael Hudson, Roger Kressman, Michael Slater, and Michael Verrall, for their tireless work in processing manuscripts and assisting in the preparation of this book.

DAVID NADEN
MICHAEL STREAT
February 1984

PART 1
WATER TREATMENT

Ion exchange in water purification

Where do we stand?

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1. INTRODUCTION

In a little over two decades, ion exchange technology has gained a virtual monopoly of use for the determineralisation of make-up water supplies to power station boilers within the CEGB. It has displaced traditional methods based on distillation or precipitation and, as yet, has not been seriously challenged by newer technologies such as reverse osmosis. Moreover, the confidence that has grown in ion exchange has led to its direct use for condensate purification of the main feedwater circuit of units which are particularly sensitive to impurities in boiler water. These are mainly the once-through nuclear boilers and certain sea-cooled conventional stations where full flow condensate polishing plants are employed. It is in the context of condensate purification that more stringent standards of performance have progressively been demanded from mixed-bed ion exchangers, but without matching improvements in the technology available.

In the period during which final water purification by ion exchange has become the norm, resin manufacturers have developed new types of resins and many new variants of existing types. In addition, the plant manufacturers have offered various innovations aimed at improving overall performance, some of which have gained general acceptance following the resolution of early problems. Over this period, also, a wealth of experience has clearly been acquired in the operation of ion-exchange systems. However, these developments have not been matched by improvements in knowledge of the basic processes involved, and some of the major problems of using resins which were apparent in the early 1960s are still apparent today and a number of new ones have appeared. In particular, the lifetimes of anion resins in service are still unpredictable and the fouling of such materials still presents significant limitations. Moreover, there are uncertainties in the manufacturing process itself as evidenced by the receipt of resins which are not within specification. From a mechanical point of view, inadequacies in the separation and re-mixing of resins in different parts of the regeneration/exhaustion cycle have assumed greater importance as the need for higher standards of treated water has become apparent in certain applications.

The plant provided is not particularly robust or reproducible in terms of routine day-to-day plant operation using semi-skilled operatives and work in resin separation techniques has intensified to improve this situation. It has also led to a reopening of the debate on whether mixed beds or separate cation and anion units are the best choice for certain condensate purification applications.

As a result of the limitations outlined we continue to use ion exchange processes for the most part in an empirical way, and this calls for a high degree of vigilance and monitoring. The object of this paper is to illuminate these points and to consider what the prospects are for materially improving the situation. In this field, as in others, the CEGB has elected to become an 'informed user' by developing its own expertise and test procedures while leaving actual resin development to the manufacturers. The paper will, therefore, also include commentary on the progress that has been made in characterising resins to improve selection for specific applications, particularly in the production of ultra-pure water.

2. THE DETERIORATION OF ANION RESINS IN SERVICE

2.1 Background

Leaving aside for the moment specific problems such as fouling, anion resins inevitably deteriorate in service from a combination of progressive hydrolysis of the thermodynamically unstable basic groups, general loss of groups, and more obscure ageing processes leading to loss in rate of exchange, possibly by self-fouling. The lifetime that might be expected is a function of the resin type and the water being treated, and type II strongly basic resins, developed for higher regeneration efficiency, are particularly prone to rapid deterioration (Fig. 1). In practice, however, the resins are used at low regeneration levels and useful operational lifetimes are obtained by progressively increasing the amounts of regenerant used, to maintain output despite resin deterioration, albeit at a cost.

The physical chemistry of the ageing process and the rate of deterioration under controlled conditions have been studied and, in theory, it should be possible to predict an upper limit to the resin life. The actual rate may be a function of the particular matrix, its temperature history in operation and of time. In our experience it is apparently not directly related to frequency of regeneration and exhaustion. However, even if the dependence on these individual factors were sufficiently well known, the continual variations in service conditions would make it difficult to compute the probable residual life of the resin at any particular point in time without a prohibitive amount of monitoring. Consequently, we fall back on the direct measurement of the effects of deterioration in terms of quality and actual throughput to some overriding break point. This deterioration is then confirmed by actual capacity measurements on samples of the resin to ensure that the observed decline in performance is not the result of maloperation of the plant rather than the state of the resin itself.

The incentive to improve this data base/methodology is small when other problems are added to the picture. The most obvious and complex of these is fouling of the resins by certain classes of organic compounds which may be present in the water being treated.

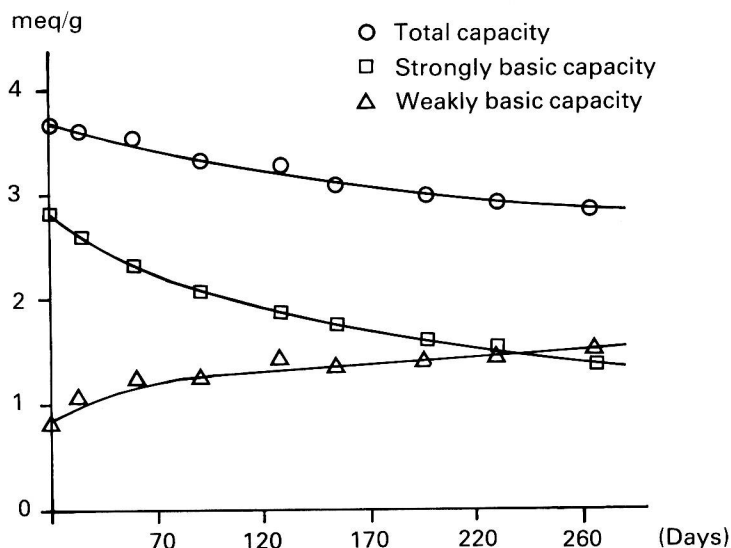


Fig. 1 – Deterioration of type II anion resin.

2.2 Organic fouling

Twenty years ago the principal organic fouling problem was that arising from the presence of high-molecular-weight organic acids in town waters derived from upland surface sources. As town mains water has become more expensive and its availability for power generation purpose has decreased, other sources of raw water have become increasingly important. In particular, many plants treating river water have been commissioned. This development has increased the risk and diversity of organic fouling because industrial rivers may contain numerous unidentified natural and synthetic organic materials often in only trace quantities. The isolation and identification of these compounds which is seen as an essential precursor to any controlled basic studies of the fouling process would be extremely difficult and little progress in this direction has been made, although there have been some non-specific studies based on the measurement of total organic carbon. This is a significant and continuing limitation because, as will be seen

later, in high flow-rate plants the effects of quite moderate accumulations of organic material become important and vary considerably with the origin of the organic contamination.

Macroporous resins were originally developed to resist organic fouling rather than for their high strength (which at the time was very much an incidental benefit and not strictly required for most make-up applications). It was postulated that the larger pore size of these resins allowed large organic molecules to diffuse into and out of the exchanger surface more easily thus increasing the rate of uptake during the service cycle and minimising the chance of retention during regeneration. Additionally the microspheres within the bead were highly crosslinked and this conferred a high selectivity for organic matter. Nevertheless, in practice, macroporous resins in the OH-form have not proved to have any outstanding advantage in either respect over gel resins and tend now to be selected for applications where the advantage of high strength outweighs the lower capacity. Studies carried out during the development of acrylic-polymer-based resins suggested that these materials, although having lower selectivity for large organic molecules, would react faster than the polystyrene types [1]. The inference that acrylic resins might be superior to other types for the removal of organic matter from water has not been confirmed in practice, but they may offer a compromise, balancing rate of intake and ease of removal. In this overall context, it should be remembered that selectivity data are derived from long-term equilibrium studies and will not necessarily reflect the dynamic situation in the plant.

In treating low-grade raw waters, a great deal of the organic material is removed from the water by the pretreatment plant before it reaches the resins, but TOC studies on River Trent water have shown that significant amounts of uncharacterised organic compounds pass forward, some of which are retained by and foul the resins (Table 1). A small amount of material, presumably un-ionised, is not taken up by the resin and passes forward into the boiler feedwater. However, recent experience with acrylic resins in the main anion stage of treatment shows these to strike a satisfactory balance between uptake and release of organic matter.

Table 1.

Typical total organic levels across de-ionisation plant treating River Trent water.

Sample point	Total organic carbon mg kg ⁻¹	Removal %
River water	16	0
After pre-treatment stage	7	56
Main anion outlet	2 – 3	81 – 87
Mixed bed outlet	1	93