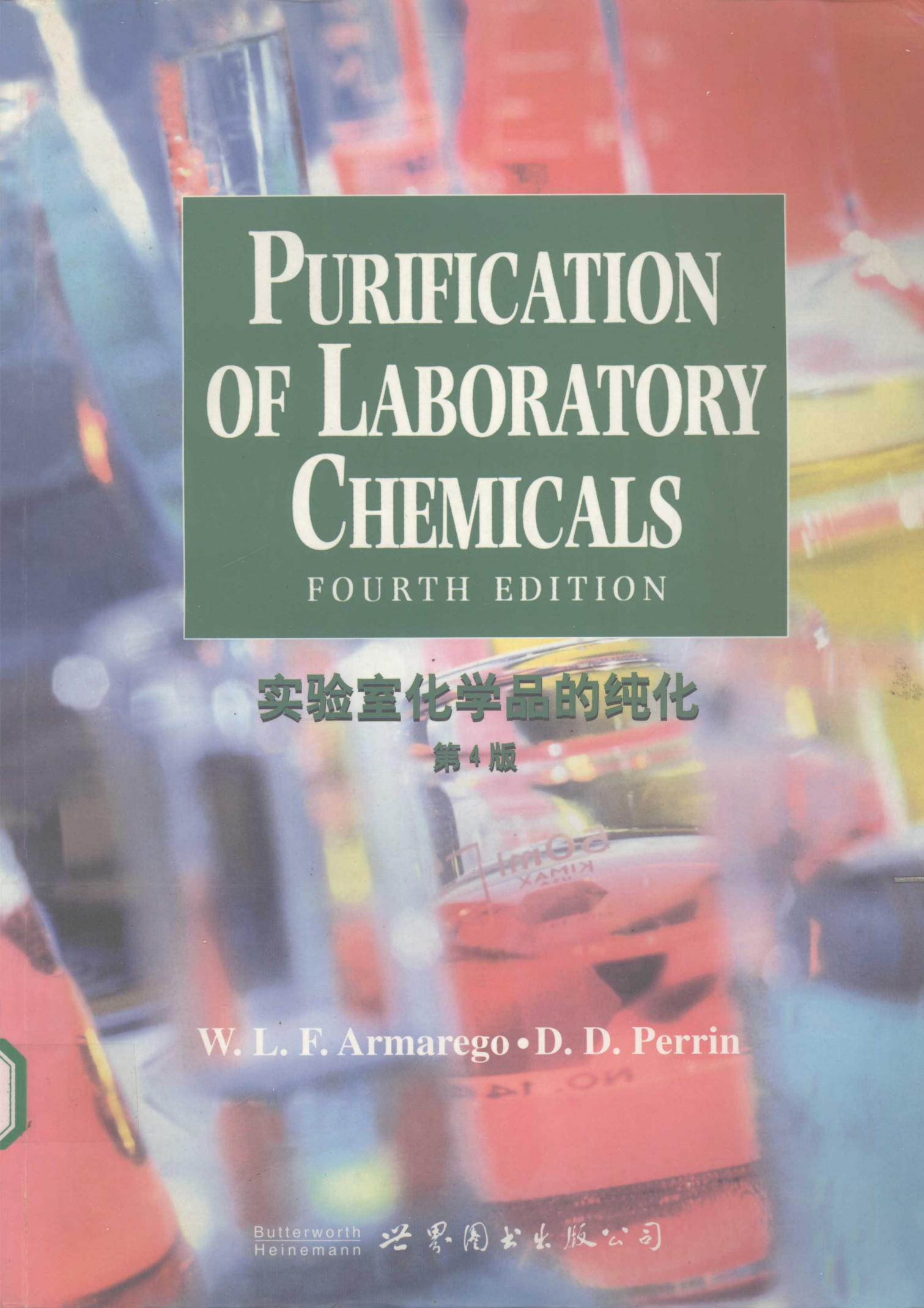

PURIFICATION OF LABORATORY CHEMICALS

FOURTH EDITION

实验室化学品的纯化

第4版

W. L. F. Armarego • D. D. Perrin

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PURIFICATION OF LABORATORY CHEMICALS

Fourth Edition

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Preface to the Fourth Edition

THE AIMS of the first three editions, to provide purification procedures of commercially available chemicals and biochemicals from published literature data, are continued in this fourth edition. Since the third edition in 1988 the number of new chemicals and biochemicals which have been added to most chemical and biochemical catalogues have increased enormously. Accordingly there is a need to increase the number of entries with more recent useful reagents and chemical and biochemical intermediates. With this in mind, together with the need to reorganise and update general purification procedures, particularly in the area of biological macromolecules, as well as the time lapse since the previous publication, this fourth edition of **Purification of Laboratory Chemicals** has been produced. Chapter 1 has been reorganised with some updating, and by using a smaller font it was kept to a reasonable number of pages. Chapters 2 and 5 were similarly altered and have been combined into one chapter. Eight hundred and three hundred and fifty entries have been added to Chapters 3 (25% increase) and 4 (44% increase) respectively, and four hundred entries (310% increase) were added to Chapter 5 (Chapter 6 in the Third Edition), making a total of 5700 entries; all resulting in an increase from 391 to 529 pages, i.e. by *ca* 35%.

Many references to the original literature have been included remembering that some of the best references happened to be in the older literature. Every effort has been made to provide the best references but this may not have been achieved in all cases. Standard abbreviations, listed on page 1, have been used throughout this edition to optimise space, except where no space advantage was achieved, in which cases the complete words have been written down to improve the flow of the sentences.

With the increasing facilities for information exchange, chemical, biochemical and equipment suppliers are making their catalogue information available on the Internet , e.g. Aldrich-Fluka-Sigma catalogue information is available on the World Wide Web by using the address http://www.sigma.sial.com, and GIBCO BRL catalogue information from http://www.lifetech.com, as well as on CD-ROMS which are regularly updated. Facility for enquiring about, ordering and paying for items is available *via* the Internet. CAS on-line can be accessed on the Internet, and CAS data is available now on CD-ROM. Also biosafety bill boards can similarly be obtained by sending SUBSCRIBE SAFETY John Doe at the address "listserv@uvmvm.uvm.edu", SUSCRIBE BIOSAFETY at the address "listserv@mitvma.mit.edu", and SUBSCRIBE RADSAF at the address "listserv@romulus.ehs.uiuc.edu"; and the Occupational, Health and Safety information (Australia) is available at the address "http://www.worksafe.gov.au/~wsa1". Sigma-Aldrich provide Material Safety data sheets on CD-ROMs.

It is with much sadness that Dr Douglas D. Perrin was unable to participate in the preparation of the present edition due to illness. His contributions towards the previous editions have been substantial, and his drive and tenacity have been greatly missed.

The Third Edition was prepared on an IBM-PC and the previous IBM files were converted into Macintosh files. These have now been reformatted on a Macintosh LC575 computer and all further data to complete the Fourth Edition were added to these files. The text was printed with a Hewlett-Packard 4MV -600dpi Laser Jet printer which gives a clearer resolution.

I thank my wife Dr Pauline M. Armarego, also an organic chemist, for the arduous and painstaking task of entering the new data into the respective files, and for the numerous hours of proofreading as well as the corrections of typographic errors in the files. I should be grateful to my readers for any comments, suggestions, amendments and criticisms which could, perhaps, be inserted in the second printing of this edition.

W.L.F. Armarego
30 June 1996

Preface to the First Edition

WE BELIEVE that a need exists for a book to help the chemist or biochemist who wishes to purify the reagents she or he uses. This need is emphasised by the previous lack of any satisfactory central source of references dealing with individual substances. Such a lack must undoubtedly have been a great deterrent to many busy research workers who have been left to decide whether to purify at all, to improvise possible methods, or to take a chance on finding, somewhere in the chemical literature, methods used by some previous investigators.

Although commercially available laboratory chemicals are usually satisfactory, as supplied, for most purposes m scientific and technological work, it is also true that for many applications further purification is essential.

With this thought in mind, the present volume sets out, firstly, to tabulate methods, taken from the literature, for purifying some thousands of individual commercially available chemicals. To help in applying this information, two chapters describe the more common processes currently used for purification in chemical laboratories and give fuller details of new methods which appear likely to find increasing application for the same purpose. Finally, for dealing with substances not separately listed, a chapter is included setting out the usual methods for purifying specific classes of compounds.

To keep this book to a convenient size, and bearing in mind that its most likely users will be laboratory-trained, we have omitted manipulative details with which they can be assumed to be familiar, and also detailed theoretical discussion. Both are readily available elsewhere, for example in Vogel's very useful book **Practical Organic Chemistry** (Longmans, London, 3rd ed., 1956), or Fieser's **Experiments in Organic Chemistry** (Heath, Boston, 3rd ed, 1957).

For the same reason, only limited mention is made of the kinds of impurities likely to be present, and of the tests for detecting them. In many cases, this information can be obtained readily from existing monographs.

By its nature, the present treatment is not exhaustive, nor do we claim that any of the methods taken from the literature are the best possible. Nevertheless, we feel that the information contained in this book is likely to be helpful to a wide range of laboratory workers, including physical and inorganic chemists, research students, biochemists, and biologists. We hope that it will also be of use, although perhaps to only a limited extent, to experienced organic chemists.

We are grateful to Professor A. Albert and Dr D.J. Brown for helpful comments on the manuscript.

D.D.P., W.L.F.A. & D.R.P.
1966

Preface to the Second Edition

SINCE the publication of the first edition of this book there have been major advances in purification procedures. Sensitive methods have been developed for the detection and elimination of progessively lower levels of impurities. Increasingly stringent requirements for reagent purity have gone hand-in-hand with developments in semiconductor technology, in the preparation of special alloys and in the isolation of highly biologically active substances. The need to eliminate trace impurities at the micro- and nanogram levels has placed greater emphasis on ultra purification technique. To meet these demands the range of purities of laboratory chemicals has become correspondingly extended. Purification of individual chemicals thus depends more and more critically on the answers to two questions -Purification from what, and to what permissible level of contamination. Where these questions can be specifically answered, suitable methods of purification can usually be devised.

Several periodicals devoted to ultra purification and separations have been started. These include "Progress in Separation and Purification" Ed. (vol. I) E.S. Perry, Wiley-Interscience, New York, vols. 1-4, 1968-1971, and **Separation and Purification Methods** Ed. E S.Perry and C.J.van Oss, Marcel Dekker, New York, vol. 1-, 1973-. Nevertheless, there still remains a broad area in which a general improvement in the level of purity of many compounds can be achieved by applying more or less conventional procedures. The need for a convenient source of information on methods of purifying available laboratory chemicals was indicated by the continuing demand for copies of this book even though it had been out of print for several years.

We have sought to revise and update this volume, deleting sections that have become more familiar or less important, and incorporating more topical material. The number of compounds in Chapters 3 and 1 have been increased appreciably. Also,

We take this opportunity to thank users of the first edition who pointed out errors and omissions, or otherwise suggested improvements or additional material that should be included. We are indebted to Mrs S.Schenk who emerged from retirement to type this manuscript.

D.D.P., W.L.F.A. & D.R.P.
1980

Preface to the Third Edition

THE CONTINUING demand for this monograph and the publisher's request that we prepare a new edition, are an indication that **Purification of Laboratory Chemicals** fills a gap in many chemists' reference libraries and laboratory shelves. The present volume is an updated edition which contains significantly more detail than the previous editions, as well as an increase in the number of individual entries and a new chapter.

Additions have been made to Chapters 1 and 2 in order to include more recent developments in techniques (e.g. Schlenk-type, *cf* p. 10), and chromatographic methods and materials. Chapter 3 still remains the core of the book, and lists in alphabetical order relevant information on *ca* 4000 organic compounds. Chapter 4 gives a smaller listing of *ca* 750 inorganic and metal-organic substances, and makes a total increase of ca 13% of individual entries in these two chapters. Some additions have also been made to Chapter 5.

We are currently witnessing a major development in the use of physical methods for purifying large molecules and macromolecules, especially of biological origin. Considerable developments in molecular biology are apparent in techniques for the isolation and purification of key biochemicals and substances of high molecular weight. In many cases something approaching homogeneity has been achieved, as evidenced by electrophoresis, immunological and other independent criteria. We have consequently included a new section, Chapter 6, where we list upwards of 100 biological substances to illustrate their current methods of purification. In this chapter the details have been kept to a minimum, but the relevant references have been included.

The lists of individual entries in Chapters 3 and 4 range in length from single line entries to *ca* one page or more for solvents such as acetonitrile, benzene, ethanol and methanol. Some entries include information such as likely contaminants and storage conditions. More data referring to physical properties have been inserted for most entries [i.e. melting and boiling points, refractive indexes, densities, specific optical rotations (where applicable) and UV absorption data]. Inclusion of molecular weights should be useful when deciding on the quantities of reagents needed to carry out relevant synthetic reactions, or preparing analytical solutions. The Chemical Abstracts registry numbers have also been inserted for almost all entries, and should assist in the precise identification of the substances.

In the past ten years laboratory workers have become increasingly conscious of safety in the laboratory environment. We have therefore in three places in Chapter 1 (pp. 3 and 33, and bibliography p. 52) stressed more strongly the importance of safety in the laboratory. Also, where possible, in Chapters 3 and 4 we draw attention to the dangers involved with the manipulation of some hazardous substances.

The world wide facilities for retrieving chemical information provided by the Chemical Abstract Service (CAS on-line) have made it a relatively easy matter to obtain CAS registry numbers of substances, and most of the numbers in this monograph were obtained *via* CAS on-line. We should point out that two other available useful files are CSCHEM and CSCORP which provide, respectively, information on chemicals (and chemical products) and addresses and telephone numbers of the main branch offices of chemical suppliers.

The present edition has been produced on an IBM PC and a Laser Jet printer using the **Microsoft Word (4.0)** word-processing program with a set stylesheet. This has allowed the use of a variety of fonts and font sizes which has made the presentation more attractive than in the previous edition. Also, by altering the format and increasing slightly the sizes of the pages, the length of the monograph has been reduced from 568 to 391 pages. The reduction in the number of pages has been achieved in spite of the increase of *ca* 15% of total text.

We extend our gratitude to the readers whose suggestions have helped to improve the monograph, and to those who have told us of their experiences with some of the purifications stated in the previous editions, and in particular with the hazards that they have encountered. We are deeply indebted to Dr M.D. Fenn for the several hours that he has spent on the terminal to provide us with a large number of CAS registry numbers.

This monograph could not have been produced without the expert assistance of Mr David Clarke who has spent many hours to load the necessary fonts in the computer, and for advising one of the authors (W.L.F.A.) on how to use them together with the idiosyncrasies of Microsoft Word.

D.D.P. & W.L.F.A.
1988

CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

COMMON PHYSICAL TECHNIQUES USED IN PURIFICATION

GENERAL REMARKS

Purity is a matter of degree. Other than adventitious contaminants such as dust, paper fibres, wax, cork, etc., that may have been incorporated into the sample during manufacture, all commercially available chemical substances are in some measure impure. Any amounts of unreacted starting material, intermediates, by-products, isomers and related compounds may be present depending on the synthetic or isolation procedures used for preparing the substances. Inorganic reagents may deteriorate because of defective packaging (glued liners affected by sulphuric acid, zinc extracted from white rubber stoppers by ammonia), corrosion or prolonged storage. Organic molecules may undergo changes on storage. In extreme cases the container may be incorrectly labelled or, where compositions are given, they may be misleading or inaccurate for the proposed use. Where any doubt exists it is usual to check for impurities by appropriate spot tests, or by recourse to tables of physical or spectral properties such as the extensive infrared and NMR libraries published by the Aldrich Chemical Co. The important question, then, is not whether a substance is pure but whether a given sample is sufficiently pure for some intended purpose. That is, are the contaminants likely to interfere in the process or measurement that is to be studied. By suitable manipulation it is often possible to reduce levels of impurities to acceptable limits, but absolute purity is an ideal which, no matter how closely approached, can never be attained. A *negative* physical or chemical test indicates only that the amount of an impurity in a substance lies below a certain level; no test can demonstrate that a specified impurity is entirely absent.

When setting out to purify a laboratory chemical, it is desirable that the starting material is of the best grade commercially available. Particularly among organic solvents there is a range of qualities varying from *laboratory chemical* to *spectroscopic*, *chromatographic* and *electronic* grades. Many of these are suitable for use as received. With many of the commoner reagents it is possible to obtain from the current literature some indications of likely impurities, their probable concentrations and methods for detecting them. However, in many cases complete analyses are not given so that significant concentrations of unspecified impurities may be present. See for example *Reagent Chemicals* (American Chemical Society Specifications, 8th edn, 1992), the American Chemical Society for Testing Materials D56-36, D92-46, and national pharmacopoeias. Other useful sources include *Ashford's Dictionary of Industrial Chemicals*, R.D.Ashford, Wavelength Publications Ltd, 1995 and references on pp.44-47 and pp. 61-62. For purification of proteins, see for example R.K.Scopes, *Protein Purification*, Springer-Verlag, New York, 3rd edn, 1994, and for nucleic acids see for example T.A.Brown, *Essential Molecular Biology - A Practical Approach* (2 vols), Oxford University Press 1991.

Abbreviations

To save space the following abbreviations have been generally used in Chapters 3, 4 and 5: abs (absolute), anhyd (anhydrous), aq (aqueous), atm (atmospheric), crystd (crystallised), crystn (crystallisation), crysts (crystallises), dec (decomposes), dil (dilute), distd (distilled), distn (distillation), evap (evaporate), evapd (evaporated), evapn (evaporation), filtd (filtered), h (hour[s]), pet ether (petroleum ether, ligroin), ppte (precipitate), ppted (precipitated), pptn (precipitation), satd (saturated), soln (solution), TLC (thin layer chromatography), HPLC (high pressure liquid chromatography), vac (vacuum), vol (volume). Other abbreviations used occasionally are self evident in meaning.

The following journals are designated by their initials:

Annalen Chem.	*A*	*J.Chem.Soc.Farad.Trans.*	*JCSFT*
Analyt.Biochem	*AB*	*J.Heterocyclic Chem.*	*JHC*
Anal.Chem.	*AC*	*J.Chromatography*	*JC*
Ber.deut.Chem.Ges. or Chem.Ber.	*B*	*J.IndianChem.Soc.*	*JICS*
Biochem.J.	*BJ*	*J.Inorg.Nucl.Chem.*	*JINC*
Biochem.Biophys.Res.Commun.	*BBRC*	*J.Org.Chem.*	*JOC*
Brit.J.Pharmacol.	*BJP*	*J.Phys.Chem.*	*JPC*
Bull.Acad.Sci.USSR	*BASU*	*Monatsh Chemie*	*M*
Helv.Chim.Acta	*HCA*	*Pure Appl.Chem.*	*PAC*
Fed.Eur.Biochem.Soc.Letters	*FEBS LETT*	*Synthesis*	*S*
Ind.Eng.Chem.(Anal.Ed.)	*IECAE*	*Synth.Commun.*	*SC*
J.Am.Chem.Soc.	*JACS*	*Tetrahedron*	*TET*
J.Biol.Chem.	*JBC*	*Tetrahedron Letters*	*TET LETT*
J.Chem.Phys.	*JCP*	*Trans.Faraday Soc.*	*TFS*
J.Chem.Soc.	*JCS*	*Zhur.Org.Khimii*	*ZOK*
J.Chem.Soc.Chem.Commun.	*JCSCC*	*Z.Physik.Chem.*	*ZPC*
J.Chem.Soc.Dalton Trans.	*JCSDT*		

Abbreviations of periodicals not included in this list are written in such a way that the periodical can be readily identified, e.g. *Acta Chem Scand* for Acta Chemica Scandinavica.

Purity of Substances

Solvents and substances that are specified as *pure* for a particular purpose may, in fact, be quite impure for other uses. Absolute ethanol may contain traces of benzene, which makes it unsuitable for ultraviolet spectroscopy, or plasticizers which make it unsuitable for use in solvent extraction.

Irrespective of the grade of material to be purified, it is essential that some criteria exist for assessing the degree of purity of the final product. The more common of these include:

1. Examination of physical properties such as:
   (a) Melting point, freezing point, boiling point, and the freezing curve (i.e. the variation, with time, in the freezing point of a substance that is being slowly and continuously frozen).
   (b) Density.
   (c) Refractive index at a specified temperature and wave-length. The sodium D line at 589.26 nm (weighted mean of D_1 and D_2 lines) is the usual standard of wavelength but results from other wavelengths can often be interpolated from a plot of refractive index versus $1/(\text{wavelength})^2$.
   (d) Absorption spectra (ultraviolet, visible, infrared, and nuclear magnetic resonance).
   (e) Specific conductivity. (This can be used to detect, for example, water, salts, inorganic and organic acids and bases, in non-electrolytes).
   (f) Optical rotation, optical rotatory dispersion and circular dichroism.
   (g) Mass spectroscopy.

2. Empirical analysis, for C, H, N, ash, etc.

3. Chemical tests for particular types of impurities, e.g. for peroxides in aliphatic ethers (with acidified KI), or for water in solvents (quantitatively by the Karl Fischer method).

4. Physical tests for particular types of impurities:
   (a) Emission and atomic absorption spectroscopy for detecting and determining metal ions.
   (b) Chromatography, including paper, thin layer, liquid (high, medium and normal pressure) and vapour phase.
   (c) Electron spin resonance for detecting free radicals.
   (d) X-ray spectroscopy.

(e) Mass spectroscopy.
(f) Fluorimetry.

5. Electrochemical methods (see Chapter 5 for macromolecules).

6. Nuclear methods which include a variety of radioactive elements as in organic reagents, complexes or salts.

A substance is usually taken to be of an acceptable purity when the measured property is unchanged by further treatment (especially if it agrees with a recorded value). In general, at least two different methods, such as recrystallisation and distillation, should be used in order to ensure maximum purification. Crystallisation may be repeated (from the same solvent or better from different solvents) until the substance has a constant melting point or absorption spectrum, and until it distils repeatedly within a narrow, specified temperature range.

With liquids, the refractive index at a specified temperature and wavelength is a sensitive test of purity. Note however that this is sensitive to dissolved gasses such as O_2, N_2 or CO_2. Under favourable conditions, freezing curve studies are sensitive to impurity levels of as little as 0.001 moles per cent. Analogous fusion curve or heat capacity measurements can be up to ten times as sensitive as this. With these exceptions, most of the above methods are rather insensitive, especially if the impurities and the substances in which they occur are chemically similar. In some cases, even an impurity comprising many parts per million of a sample may escape detection.

The common methods of purification, discussed below, comprise distillation (including fractional distillation, distillation under reduced pressure, sublimation and steam distillation), crystallisation, extraction, chromatographic and other methods. In some cases, volatile and other impurities can be removed simply by heating. Impurities can also sometimes be eliminated by the formation of derivatives from which the purified material is regenerated.

Safety in the Chemical Laboratory

Although most of the manipulations involved in purifying laboratory chemicals are inherently safe, care is necessary if hazards are to be avoided in the chemical laboratory. In particular there are dangers inherent in the inhalation of vapours and absorption of liquids and low melting solids through the skin. To the toxicity of solvents must be added the risk of their flammability and the possibility of eye damage. Chemicals, particularly in admixture, may be explosive. Compounds may be carcinogenic or otherwise deleterious to health. Present day chemical catalogues specifically indicate the particular dangerous properties of the individual chemicals they list and these should be consulted whenever the use of commercially available chemicals is contemplated. Radioisotopic labelled compounds pose special problems of human exposure to them and of disposal of laboratory waste. Purchased chemicals are sometimes accompanied by detailed information regarding their toxicity, safety handling procedures and the necessary precautions to be taken. These should be read carefully.

The commonest hazards are:

(1) Explosions due to the presence of peroxides formed by aerial oxidation of ethers and tetrahydrofuran, decahydronaphthalene, acrylonitrile, styrene and related compounds.
(2) Compounds with low flash points (below room temperature). Examples are acetaldehyde, acetone, acetonitrile, benzene, carbon disulphide, cyclohexane, diethyl ether, ethyl acetate and *n*-hexane.
(3) Contact of oxidising agents ($KMnO_4$, $HClO_4$, chromic acid) with organic liquids.
(4) Toxic reactions with tissues.

For detailed discussion, see *Bretherick's Handbook of Reactive Chemical Hazards*, Butterworths, London, 1990, Sax's *Dangerous Properties of Industrial Materials*, 8th edn, van Nostrand Reinhold, NY 1992.

The laboratory should at least be well ventilated and safety glasses should be worn, particularly during distillation and manipulations carried out under reduced pressure or elevated temperatures. With this in mind we have endeavoured to warn users of this book whenever greater than usual care is needed in handling chemicals. As a general rule, however, **all chemicals which users are unfamiliar with should be treated with extreme care and assumed to be highly flammable and toxic.** The safety of others in a

laboratory should always be foremost in mind, with ample warning whenever a potentially hazardous operation is in progress. Also, unwanted solutions or solvents should never be disposed of *via* the laboratory sink. The operator should be aware of the usual means for disposal of chemicals in her/his laboratories and she/he should remove unwanted chemicals accordingly. **Never mix organic liquids for disposal in the same container, and always keep halogenated waste solvents for disposal separate from other liquids.**

Further aspects of safety are detailed on p.29.

Trace Impurities in Solvents

Some of the more obvious sources of contamination of solvents arise from storage in metal drums and plastic containers, and from contact with grease and screw caps. Many solvents contain water. Others have traces of acidic materials such as hydrochloric acid in chloroform. In both cases this leads to corrosion of the drum and contamination of the solvent by traces of metal ions, especially Fe^{3+}. Grease, for example on stopcocks of separating funnels and other apparatus, e.g. greased ground joints, is also likely to contaminate solvents during extractions and chemical manipulation.

A much more general source of contamination that has not received the consideration it merits comes from the use of plastics for tubing and containers. Plasticisers can readily be extracted by organic solvents from PVC and other plastics, so that most solvents, irrespective of their grade (including spectrograde and ultrapure) have been reported to contain 0.1 to 5ppm of plasticizer [de Zeeuw, Jonkman and van Mansvelt *AB* **67** 339 *1975*]. Where large quantities of solvent are used for extraction (particularly of small amounts of compounds), followed by evaporation, this can introduce significant amounts of impurity, even exceeding the weight of the genuine extract and giving rise to spurious peaks in gas chromatography (for example of fatty acid methyl esters, Pascaud, *AB* **18** 570 *1967*). Likely contaminants are di(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate and dibutyl phthalate, but upwards of 20 different phthalic esters are listed as plasticisers as well as adipates, azelates, phosphates, epoxides, polyesters, trimellitates, and various heterocyclic compounds. These plasticisers would enter the solvent during passage through plastic tubing or from storage in containers or from plastic coatings used in cap liners for bottles. Such contamination could arise at any point in the manufacture or distribution of a solvent. The trouble with cap liners is avoidable by using corks wrapped in aluminium foil, although even in this case care should be taken because aluminium foil can dissolve in some liquids e.g. benzylamine and propionic acid.

Solutions in contact with polyvinyl chloride can become contaminated with trace amounts of lead, titanium, tin, zinc, iron, magnesium or cadmium from additives used in the manufacture and moulding of PVC.

N-Phenyl-2-naphthylamine is a contaminant of solvents and biological materials that have been in contact with black rubber or neoprene (in which it is used as an antioxidant). Although it was only an artefact of the separation procedure it has been isolated as an apparent component of vitamin K preparations, extracts of plant lipids, algae, livers, butter, eye tissue and kidney tissue [Brown *Chemistry in Britain* **3** 524 *1967*].

Most of the above impurities can be removed by prior distillation of the solvent, but care should be taken to avoid plastic or black rubber as much as possible.

Cleaning Apparatus

Laboratory glassware and Teflon equipment can be cleaned satisfactorily for most purposes by treating initially with a solution of sodium dichromate in concentrated sulphuric acid, draining, and rinsing copiously with distilled water. Where traces of chromium (adsorbed on the glass) must be avoided, a 1:1 mixture of concentrated sulphuric and nitric acid is a useful alternative. (*Used in a fumehood to remove vapour and with adequate face protection.*) Acid washing is also suitable for polyethylene ware but prolonged contact (some weeks) leads to severe deterioration of the plastic. For much glassware, washing with hot detergent solution, using tap water, followed by rinsing with distilled water and acetone, and heating to 200-300° overnight, is adequate. (Volumetric apparatus should not be heated: after washing it is rinsed with acetone, then hexane, and air-dried. Prior to use, equipment can be rinsed with acetone, then with petroleum ether or hexane, to remove the last traces of contaminants.) Teflon equipment should be soaked, first in acetone, then in petroleum ether or hexane for ten minutes prior to use.

For trace metal analyses, prolonged soaking of equipment in 1M nitric acid may be needed to remove adsorbed metal ions.

Soxhlet thimbles and filter papers may contain traces of lipid-like materials. For manipulations with highly pure materials, as in trace-pesticide analysis, thimbles and filter papers should be thoroughly extracted with hexane before use.
Trace impurities in silica gel for TLC can be removed by heating at 300° for 16h or by Soxhlet extraction for 3h with redistilled chloroform, followed by 4h extraction with redistilled hexane.

Sililation of Glassware and Plasticware
Sililation of apparatus makes it repellant to water and hydrophilic materials. It minimises loss of solute by adsorption onto the walls of the container. The glassware is placed in a desiccator containing dichloromethyl silane (1ml) in a small beaker and evacuated from 5min. The vacuum is turned off and air is introduced into the desiccator which allows the sililating agent to coat the glassware uniformly. The desiccator is then evacuated, closed and set aside for 2h. The glassware is removed from the desiccator and baked at 180° for 2h before use.
Plasticware is treated similarly except that it is rinsed well with water before use instead of baking. Note that dichloromethyl silane is highly **TOXIC** and **VOLATILE**, and the whole operation should be carried out in an efficient fumecupboard.
An alternative procedure used for large apparatus is to rinse it with a 5% solution of dichloromethyl silane in chloroform, then rinse several times with water before baking at 180°/2h (for glass) or drying in air (for plasticware). REPEL-SILANE (a solution of 2% w/v of dichloromethyl silane in 1,1,1-trichloroethane) is available commercially (LKB, Sweden).

DISTILLATION

One of the most widely applicable and most commonly used methods of purification of liquids or low melting solids (especially of organic chemicals) is fractional distillation at atmospheric, or some lower, pressure. Almost without exception, this method can be assumed to be suitable for all organic liquids and most of the low-melting organic solids. For this reason it has been possible in Chapter 3 to omit many procedures for purification of organic chemicals when only a simple fractional distillation is involved - the suitability of such a procedure is implied from the boiling point.
The boiling point of a liquid varies with the atmospheric pressure to which it is exposed. A liquid boils when its vapour pressure is the same as the external pressure on its surface, its normal boiling point being the temperature at which its vapour pressure is equal to that of a standard atmosphere (760mm Hg). Lowering the external pressure lowers the boiling point. For most substances, boiling point and vapour pressure are related by an equation of the form,

$$\log p = A + B/(t + 273),$$

where p is the pressure, t is in °C, and A and B are constants. Hence, if the boiling points at two different pressures are known the boiling point at another pressure can be calculated from a simple plot of log p *versus* $1/(t + 273)$. For organic molecules that are not strongly associated, this equation can be written in the form,

$$\log p = 8.586 - 5.703\ (T + 273)/(t + 273)$$

where T is the boiling point in °C at 760mm Hg. Table 1 gives computed boiling points over a range of pressures. Some examples illustrate its application. Ethyl acetoacetate, **b** 180° (with decomposition) at 760mm Hg has a predicted **b** of 79° at 8mm; the experimental value is 78°. Similarly 2,4-diaminotoluene, **b** 292° at 760mm, has a predicted **b** of 147° at 8mm; the experimental value is 148-150°. For self-associated molecules the predicted **b** are lower than the experimental values. Thus, glycerol, **b** 290° at 760mm, has a predicted **b** of 168° at 8mm: the experimental value is 182°.
For pressures near 760mm, the change in boiling point is given approximately by [Crafts *B* **20** 709 *1887*],

$$\hat{I}t = a(760 - p)(t + 273)$$

where $a = 0.00012$ for most substances, but $a = 0.00010$ for water, alcohols, carboxylic acids and other associated liquids, and $a = 0.00014$ for very low-boiling substances such as nitrogen or ammonia.

When all the impurities are non-volatile, simple distillation is an adequate purification. The observed boiling point remains almost constant and approximately equal to that of the pure material. Usually, however, some of the impurities are appreciably volatile, so that the boiling point progressively rises during the distillation because of the progressive enrichment of the higher-boiling components in the distillation flask. In such cases, separation is effected by fractional distillation using an efficient column.

The principle involved in fractional distillation can be seen by considering a system which approximately obeys *Raoult's law*. (This law states that the vapour pressure of a solution at any given temperature is the sum of the vapour pressures of each substance multiplied by its mole fraction in the solution.) If two substances, A and B, having vapour pressures of 600mm Hg and 360mm Hg, respectively, were mixed in a mole ratio of 2:1, the mixture would have (ideally) a vapour pressure of 520mm Hg and the vapour phase would contain 77% of A and 23% of B. If this phase was now condensed, the new liquid phase would, therefore, be richer in the volatile component A. Similarly, the vapour in equilibrium with this phase is still further enriched in A. Each such liquid-vapour equilibrium constitutes a "theoretical plate". The efficiency of a fractionating column is commonly expressed as the number of such plates to which it corresponds in operation. Alternatively, this information may be given in the form of the height equivalent to a theoretical plate, or HETP.

In most cases, systems deviate to a greater or less extent from Raoult's law; and vapour pressures may be greater or less than those calculated from it. In extreme cases, vapour pressure-composition curves pass through maxima or minima, so that attempts at fractional distillation lead finally to the separation of a constant-boiling (azeotropic) mixture and one (but not both) of the pure species if either of the latter is present in excess.

Techniques

Distillation apparatus consists basically of a distillation flask, usually fitted with a vertical fractionating column (which may be empty or packed with suitable materials such as glass helices or stainless-steel wool) to which is attached a condenser leading to a receiving flask. The bulb of a thermometer projects into the vapour phase just below the region where the condenser joins the column. The distilling flask is heated so that its contents are steadily vaporised by boiling. The vapour passes up into the column where, initially, it condenses and runs back into the flask. The resulting heat transfer gradually warms the column so that there is a progressive movement of the vapour phase-liquid boundary up the column, with increasing enrichment of the more volatile component. Because of this fractionation, the vapour finally passing into the condenser (where it condenses and flows into the receiver) is commonly that of the lowest-boiling components in the system. The conditions apply until all of the low-boiling material has been distilled, whereupon distillation ceases until the column temperature is high enough to permit the next component to distil. This usually results in a temporary fall in the temperature indicated by the thermometer.

The efficiency of a distillation apparatus used for purification of liquids depends on the difference in boiling points of the pure material and its impurities. For example, if two components of an ideal mixture have vapour pressures in the ratio 2:1, it would be necessary to have a still with an efficiency of at least seven plates (giving an enrichment of 2^7 = 128) if the concentration of the higher-boiling component in the distillate was to be reduced to less than 1% of its initial value. For a vapour pressure ratio of 5:1, three plates would achieve as much separation.

In a fractional distillation, it is usual to reject the initial and final fractions, which are likely to be richer in the lower-boiling and higher-boiling impurities. The centre fraction can be further purified by repeated fractional distillation.

To achieve maximum separation by fractional distillation:

1. The column must be flooded initially to wet the packing. For this reason it is customary to operate a still at reflux for some time before beginning the distillation.

2. The reflux ratio should be high (i.e the ratio of drops of liquid which return to the distilling flask and the drops which distil over), so that the distillation proceeds slowly and with minimum disturbance of the equilibria in the column.

3. The hold-up of the column should not exceed one-tenth of the volume of any one component to be separated.

4. Heat loss from the column should be prevented but, if the column is heated to offset this, its temperature must not exceed that of the distillate in the column.

5. Heat input to the still-pot should remain constant.

6. For distillation under reduced pressure there must be careful control of the pressure to avoid flooding or cessation of reflux.

Distillation at Atmospheric Pressure

The distilling flask. To minimise superheating of the liquid (due to the absence of minute air bubbles or other suitable nuclei for forming bubbles of vapour), and to prevent bumping, one or more of the following precautions should be taken:

(a) The flask is heated uniformly over a large part of its surface, either by using an electrical heating mantle or, much better, by partial immersion in a bath somewhat above the boiling point of the liquid to be distilled.

(b) Before heating begins, small pieces of unglazed fireclay or porcelain (porous pot, boiling chips), pumice, carborundum, Teflon, diatomaceous earth, or platinum wire are added to the flask. These act as sources of air bubbles.

(c) The flask may contain glass siphons or boiling tubes. The former are inverted J-shaped tubes, the end of the shorter arm being just above the surface of the liquid. The latter comprise long capillary tubes sealed above the lower end.

(d) A steady slow stream of inert gas(e.g. N_2, Ar or He) is passed through the liquid.

(e) In some cases zinc dust can also be used. It reacts chemically with acidic or strongly alkaline solutions to liberate fine bubbles of hydrogen.

(f) The liquid in the flask is stirred mechanically. This is especially necessary when suspended insoluble material is present.

For simple distillations a Claisen flask (see, for example, Quickfit and Quartz Ltd cataloque of interchangeable laboratory glassware, Kontes Glass Co, Vineland, New Jersey, cat.no TG-15, Normschiff, Wertheim, Germany, Embell Scientific, Murwillumbah, NSW 2484, Australia) is often used. This flask is, essentially, a round-bottomed flask to the neck of which is joined another neck carrying a side arm. This second neck is sometimes extended so as to form a Vigreux column.
For heating baths, see Table 2 (p 33). For distillation apparatus on a semi-micro scale see Quickfit, Kontes and other glassware catalogues (above).

Types of columns and packings. A slow distillation rate is necessary to ensure that equilibrium conditions operate and also that the vapour does not become superheated so that the temperature rises above the boiling point. Efficiency is improved if the column is heat insulated (either by vacuum jacketing or by lagging) and, if necessary, heated to just below the boiling point of the most volatile component (an electrical heating tape is convenient for this purpose.) Efficiency of separation also improves with increase in the heat of vaporisation of the liquids concerned (because fractionation depends on heat equilibration at multiple liquid-gas boundaries). Water and alcohols are more easily purified by distillation for this reason.
Columns used in distillation vary in their shapes and types of packing. Packed columns are intended to give efficient separation by maintaining a large surface of contact between liquid and vapour. Efficiency of separation is further increased by operation under conditions approaching total reflux, i.e. under a high reflux ratio. Better control of reflux ratio is achieved by fitting a total condensation, variable take-off still-head (see, for example, catalogues by Quickfit and Quartz, or Kontes) to the top of the fractionating column. However, great care must be taken to avoid flooding of the column during distillation. The minimum number of theoretical plates for satisfactory separation of two liquids differing in boiling point by $\hat{I}t$ is approximately $(273 + t)/3\hat{I}t$, where t is the average boiling point in °C.

Some of the commonly used columns are: