

Procedure

The sulfonation was carried out by charging the dodecylbenzene to the kettle and agitating with cooling while adding the air-SO₃ stream to the mass.

One of the primary requisites of this process is to prevent any static contact of dodecylbenzene and SO₃. Such contact results in instantaneous charring and causes discoloration of the finished product. For this reason a small amount of air is always introduced through the SO₃ line in the kettle during the charging of dodecylbenzene. This is continued until the SO₃ flow is started, thus preventing dodecylbenzene from backing into the SO₃ delivery line.

It was found necessary to use a near maximum charge of dodecylbenzene in the kettle in order to get the greatest degree of sulfonation with a minimum of SO₃. A charge of 100-125 pounds was required to achieve the best results in this equipment. This effect was probably a function of height of liquid through which the gases were passing.

Experimental

Sulfonation temperatures from 45° to 80°C. were studied. Viscosities of the sulfonic acid were measured over a range of temperatures and at various times during the reaction. Colors of the finished sodium sulfonates were also obtained at the various sulfonation temperatures. Analyses were run to determine the degree of sulfonation. The final quantity of SO₃ added for all runs in this phase of the study was 110% of theory. Figure 3 shows the rela-

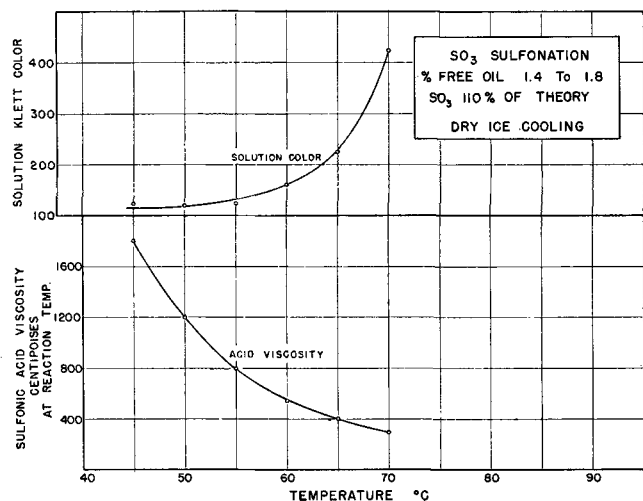


Fig. 3

tionship of sulfonic acid viscosity and sulfonate color to sulfonation temperature. It can be seen that the viscosity rapidly decreases with increases in sulfonation temperature. From a processing standpoint it would be desirable to run at as high a temperature as possible. Color of the finished sulfonates began to darken rapidly however as sulfonation temperatures exceeded 55°C.; therefore, in order to achieve maximum quality at the lowest viscosity, a sulfonation temperature of 55°C. was considered optimum. Temperature had no noticeable effect on degree of sulfonation in the range studied. Sulfonate colors were obtained with a Klett-Summerson photoelectric col-

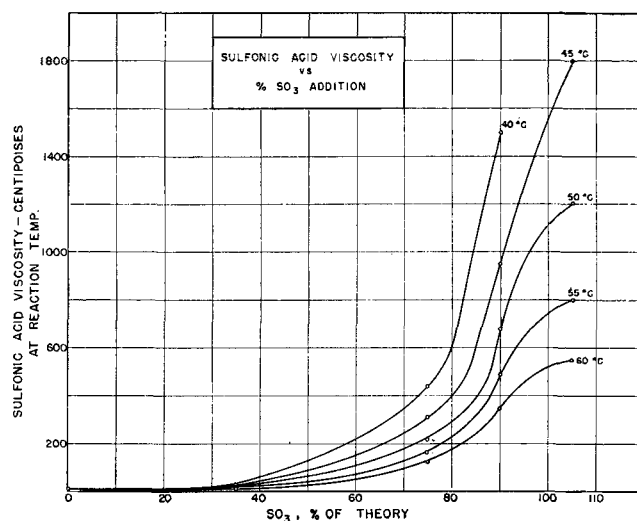


Fig. 4

orimeter, employing a No. 42 blue filter. An 8.7% solution based on active material was used.

Figure 4 shows that the high viscosity encountered occurs only after 75% of the required SO₃ has been added.

The quantity of SO₃ required to reduce the unsulfonated oil to less than 1.9% was slightly different, depending upon whether dry ice or external heat exchangers were used for cooling. With external cooling only 5 to 6% excess SO₃ over theory was required. With dry ice cooling 10% excess was required. One hundred per cent of theory is equivalent to 0.34 pound of SO₃ per pound of alkylate.

Volume ratios of air to SO₃ were also studied, and it was found that high volumes of air to SO₃ (at least 9:1) gave the best results in regard to sulfonate color and degree of sulfonation. Reduction of the air to SO₃ ratio resulted in significantly poorer colors and a decline in degree of sulfonation. It is believed that this poorer degree of sulfonation may have been the result of reducing the dispersion of the air-SO₃ input. Since all the work was done with the same size holes in the air-SO₃ delivery tube, any reduction of air velocity would result in a reduction in dispersion. It is possible that the optimum volume ratio may be different for other equipment.

In the equipment described about two hours were required to complete the SO₃ addition. It is desirable to carry out the reaction in a minimum of time followed by immediate neutralization of the sulfonic acid. When the time of contact with SO₃ was appreciably extended, the color of the finished sulfonate was dark.

In an effort to improve color further, a number of runs were made in which 97% sulfuric acid was added prior to the SO₃. This was added in an amount equivalent to 9% of the dodecylbenzene charge. The purpose of this "acid heel" was to reduce viscosity during sulfonation and thus obtain lighter colored sulfonates. This technique resulted in sulfonates of better color. No reduction of SO₃ requirement was realized. Analysis of this product showed the composition to be comparable to that of typical sulfonate prepared, using sulfuric acid for sulfonation.

Figure 5 shows the relationship of the degree of the sulfonation and of sulfonate color to the SO₃ in-

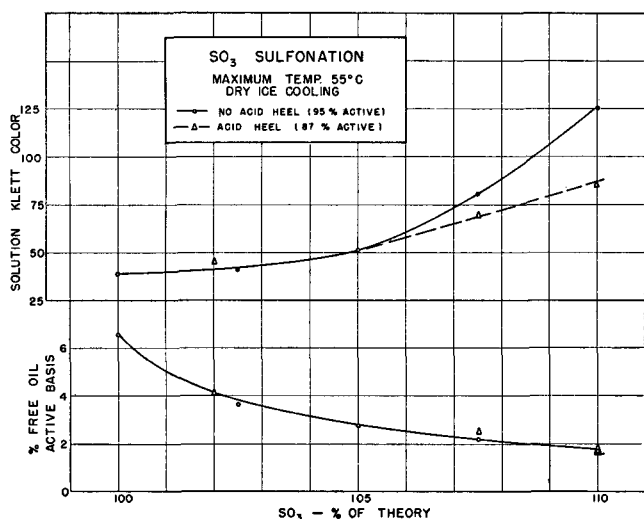


Fig. 5

put. The data on this chart were obtained using dry ice for cooling. A 10% excess of SO₃ over theory was required to reduce the free oil to a reasonable value (1.69%). Maximum activities obtainable approximate 95-95.5% on a solids basis when no acid heel is used or 87-87.5% when a 9% acid heel is used. Most of the color is picked up during the final stages of sulfonation. Although the excess SO₃ required was reduced to 106% with the advent of external cooling, no measurable quality change was noted.

Back pressure from the Votator heat exchanger was 75 p.s.i. during the viscous stage without an acid heel. This pressure drop was reduced to half when acid heel was used.

The over-all heat transfer coefficients determined on the Votator during this operation varied from 330 B.t.u. per hour per square foot per °F. during the initial stages of the sulfonation to slightly over 100 during the latter stage (Figure 6). The values were substantially the same with or without an acid heel.

Discussion

The heat of reaction of anhydrous SO₃ with dodecylbenzene is much higher than that of oleum (306 B.t.u. per pound of dodecylbenzene as compared with

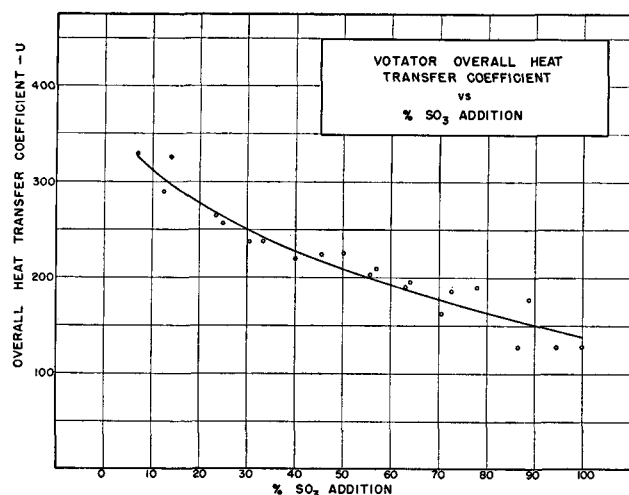


Fig. 6

about 175 B.t.u. per pound (1, 2)]. The high viscosity of the sulfonation mass resulted in low heat transfer to the cooling medium in the kettle jacket. There is also present a smaller volume of reaction mixture per weight of alkylate when using SO₃. The combination of these factors results in a requirement for more efficient heat removal. The use of a Votator heat exchanger as an external heat exchanger on pilot scale batch sulfonation was very successful.

Long time of contact with SO₃ during sulfonation and low neutralization temperatures result in neutralized slurries which increase in acidity upon standing. For example, a slurry which has been neutralized to the basic side may develop a pH of less than 7. The free oil content of such a slurry immediately after neutralization is also higher than that of the same slurry after standing. These phenomena are believed to be due to the slow breakdown of anhydrides of the sulfonic acids present in the neutralized mass.

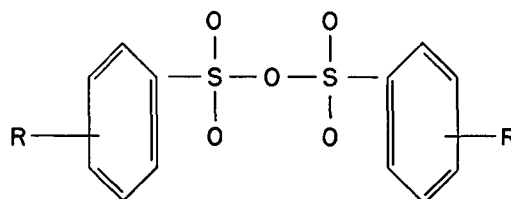


Fig. 7

These anhydrides would analyze as free oil immediately after neutralization. This explains the decrease in free oil content of the slurry. For each mole of anhydride formed, one mole of H₂O is probably produced. This water reacts with SO₃, yielding H₂SO₄ which ultimately appears as Na₂SO₄ in the neutralized slurry. The Na₂SO₄ content of the slurry is therefore proportional, to some extent at least, to the anhydride content and therefore to the acid drift to be anticipated. Indications have been obtained that rapid addition of sulfur trioxide during sulfonation and/or high temperature neutralization (70°C.) may alleviate this problem.

Dry air was used as the diluent gas for the SO₃ in all of the work reported in this paper. It is not necessary that the diluent be air; any dry inert gas or vapor may be used. It is also possible that the gas could be compressed and recirculated.

Summary

The results of this study indicate sulfonation with anhydrous SO₃ to be feasible. Heat removal is adequately accomplished with the Votator heat exchanger. Products are equivalent to or better than those from oleum sulfonation.

The relative values assigned to SO₃, sulfuric acid, and spent acid govern the economics of raw materials for this process as compared with using sulfuric acid. In most cases the sale price of the spent acid will be the controlling factor.

Following are several advantages and disadvantages of sulfonation with anhydrous SO₃.

Advantages

1. One of the foremost advantages is the elimination of handling, storing, and disposing of spent sulfuric acid. In some instances, this spent-acid problem has actually discouraged companies from entering the field.

2. The SO₂ type of sulfonation requires no aging or digestion period and no drowning steps to remove spent acid. This simplification results in a significant reduction in the time required to complete the operation. Depending upon the particular process and equipment used, this reduction can be as great as 60%.
3. The increased activity and lower salt content resulting from straight SO₂ sulfonation offer an obvious advantage to the manufacturer or potential manufacturer of liquid formulations. It has also been reported by some observers that the sulfonate odors are improved as a result of SO₂ sulfonation. Color of sulfonate is equal to that from oleum sulfonation.
4. Smaller volume equipment is required for a given quantity of alkylate.
5. The use of a higher sulfonation temperature than with oleum facilitates heat removal.

Disadvantages

1. The equipment required for the vaporization and handling of SO₂ is more extensive than that for handling oleum.

This may be at least partially offset by reduction in equipment required for spent acid removal.

2. The high sulfonic acid viscosity necessitates more efficient heat transfer equipment.
3. The pH drift of the neutralized product from sulfonation without an acid heel might result in the requirement of a reneutralization step.

Acknowledgment

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REFERENCES

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The Determination of Small Amounts of Trimethylene Glycol in High Gravity and Chemically Pure Glycerine

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IN 1919 Rojahn (1, 2) prepared tables for determining trimethylene glycol in high gravity and C. P. glycerines based upon the specific gravity and the water content. These tables are useful although it has long been recognized that they are slightly in error (3) due to the lack of sufficiently pure material and the shortcomings of the available methods. For this reason and because more exact data were available on the specific gravity of glycerol (4) and the more accurate Fischer volumetric method for water (5), it seemed appropriate to bring this phase of glycerine analysis up to date.

Analyses of sweet water concentrates have shown the presence of from 5 to 10% propylene glycol and 50 to 60% trimethylene glycol (6). These two compounds have very similar boiling points so that some propylene glycol will no doubt be present in high gravity and C. P. glycerine whenever trimethylene glycol is present. Refined glycerine usually does not contain a determinable amount of trimethylene glycol. Chemical methods like those of Pohle and Mehlenbacher (6) are satisfactory and generally applicable to samples containing more than 3% propylene and trimethylene glycols but cannot be considered suitable for smaller amounts. In the lower range the specific gravity and water methods must be employed.

The glycerol content of C. P. and high gravity glycerines can be determined most accurately by the specific gravity method (2) and somewhat less accurately from the water content determined by the Fischer volumetric method (5). When the sample contains only water and glycerol, 100 - % water equals the glycerol, and these results agree with the glycerol found by the specific gravity method. When the sample also contains trimethylene glycol, the percentage of glycerol found by the two methods does not agree, and the exact glycerol content is uncertain. Lawrie (3) gives a table for determining trimethylene glycol in high gravity glycerine from the specific gravity and water content of the sample. However it covers only the range of 0 to 3.0% trimethylene glycol

when the water content varies between 0 and 2.5% so that the limited range for moisture will not include C. P. glycerines which contain approximately 5% water. Therefore a procedure was sought which would not require a table and could be applied to most of the conditions that are encountered in C. P. and high gravity glycerines.

The procedure which was investigated involved measuring the specific gravity at 25°/25°C. (8) and the water content by the Fischer volumetric method (5). Trimethylene glycol, including similar constituents, is calculated from these measurements and the change in specific gravity (0.0023) caused by a change of 1% in trimethylene glycol content. The factor (0.0023) was calculated from data in Lawrie's book (7) and was checked experimentally. The trimethylene glycol is calculated as follows:

A = % water by A. O. C. S. Fischer volumetric method (5)

B = specific gravity at 25°/25°C. by A. O. C. S. Method (8)

C = % glycerol from water content = 100 - A

D = specific gravity at 25°/25°C. of a glycerol-water solution with a glycerol content of C.

Trimethylene glycol, % = (D - B) / 0.0023 = E

Glycerol, % = 100 - (A + E)

TABLE I
Properties and Composition of Compounds Used in Preparing
Known Mixtures

Compound	Sp. gr. 25°/25° C.	Water, %	Trimeth- ylene glycol, %	Pro- pylene glycol, %	Glyc- erol, %
C. P. glycerin ^a	1.2492	4.9	0.0	0.0	95.0
High gravity glycerine (containing trimethyl- ene glycol) ^b	1.2583	0.5	1.1	98.4
Trimethylene glycol (6).....	1.0533	0.0	100.0	0.3	0.0
Propylene glycol (6).....	1.0377	0.0	0.0	100.2	0.0

^a Glycerol from specific gravity measurements.

^b Trimethylene glycol and glycerol from method described above.