

Agglomeration of Needle-like Crystals in Suspension: II. Modeling

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Abstract

A population balance model for the agglomeration of nonspherical particles in a well-mixed batch reactor is presented. In the model, two separate distributions are used; one for primary particles, which are described by multiple characteristic sizes, and one for agglomerates, which are characterized only by their volume. The two coupled population balance equations describing the evolution of both particle populations over time are solved in parallel together with the material balance. The output of the model for varying operating conditions and using different agglomeration kernels—including two simple, shape-sensitive functions—is assessed and finally compared to experimental results for needle-like crystals reported in the first part of this series. It is found that

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12 the qualitative trends for three important characteristics, the average needle length,
13 the average width, and the total agglomeration degree, are well-described by all kernels.
14 However, the average aspect ratio of primary particles, as well as the particle size
15 and shape distribution of primary particles in general, are described better with the
16 shape-sensitive kernels.

17 **1 Introduction**

18 The influence of primary particle morphology on the agglomeration behavior of crystals
19 in suspension, and conversely, the impact of agglomeration on the particle size and shape
20 distribution (PSSD) is an intriguing, yet poorly understood topic in crystallization research.
21 Indeed, given the strong effect of agglomeration on the PSSD, whose importance for down-
22 stream properties has been repeatedly shown,^{1,2,3} there is abundant incentive to start closing
23 the current knowledge gap in this area.

24 The theoretical aspects of agglomeration in suspension have been studied for almost a century.
25 Since Smoluchowski's groundbreaking contribution,⁴ several authors have investigated and
26 improved upon the description of the agglomeration kinetics for particles in suspension.^{5,6,7,8}
27 Likewise, the desire to model the evolution of particle size distributions has led to the imple-
28 mentation of a variety of agglomeration models in the population balance framework,^{9,10,11,12}
29 leading in turn to works on the kinetics of the phenomenon.^{13,14,15} Given the rekindled
30 interest in continuous crystallization processes coupled with the evidence that some operating
31 conditions of MSMPR (Mixed Suspension Mixed Product Removal) crystallizers exhibit
32 increased agglomeration as compared to the batch mode,^{16,17} or the impact of agglomeration
33 for chiral resolution via Viedma ripening,¹⁸ the industrial relevance of agglomeration can
34 be expected to further increase in the near future. Still, as highlighted above, the role
35 of crystal habit on the likelihood of agglomeration remains a virtually unexplored subject
36 for nonspherical crystals that are well-described by convex geometries, as opposed to the
37 better-understood fractal-like morphologies encountered, for example, in colloidal science.¹⁹

38 In fact, we believe we have identified five key obstacles that need to be overcome in order
39 to close the current knowledge gap in this area: 1. We need experimental tools that allow
40 for the measurement of both the shape and the degree of agglomeration simultaneously;
41 2. We require a suitable modeling framework—of affordable complexity—that enables the
42 description of entire crystallization processes with reasonable accuracy; 3. We must obtain a
43 better grasp of the role of fluid dynamics and mixing; 4. We need adequate models describing
44 the collision frequency and the agglomeration efficiency of nonequant crystals that take
45 into account their rotational anisotropy; 5. We must find instructive ways of analyzing
46 experiments and comparing them to models in order to inform us of potential shortcomings
47 and to iteratively improve predictions.

48 In the first part of this publication series we have presented a novel and robust way of
49 identifying and characterizing agglomerates of needle-like crystals together with an analysis of
50 the behavior of the β L-glutamic acid system under varying operating conditions, tackling the
51 first and last point of our list.[?] Here, in the second part, we wish to complement this step by
52 addressing the second and the fourth point above, namely, we wish to develop the theoretical
53 and modeling tools necessary to study the complex underlying mechanisms. Moreover, by
54 comparing the qualitative behavior of the resulting process models to experimental data, this
55 work also aims at investigating whether and how particle shape is a factor in how particles
56 agglomerate. To this end and as a preliminary study, two shape-sensitive agglomeration
57 kernels are introduced and compared to a standard shape-*independent* kernel. Particular care
58 is taken to account for the nonequant shape of crystals not only in the collision frequency,
59 but also in the cementation time, i.e., the characteristic time necessary to form inter-particle
60 bridges.

61 This work is structured as follows: In ??, two shape-dependent agglomeration kernels are
62 proposed as modifications of classical, purely size-dependent descriptions. In ??, a set of
63 appropriate (morphological) population balance equations is derived and a solution strategy
64 is presented. Simulation results are finally reported and discussed in ??, in which the two

65 shape-dependent models are compared with one another, with the predictions of a classical,
66 shape-independent kernel, and the trends observed in the experimental data.

67 **2 Shape-dependent agglomeration kernels**

68 In the following, key concepts that are commonly used in the modeling of agglomeration
69 processes are briefly illustrated, and possible modifications for the case of nonspherical particles
70 are derived. We reiterate the fact that our ultimate goal is to test whether experiments show
71 any indication that the rate of agglomeration—hence the agglomeration kernel—is dependent
72 on the shape of the agglomerating particles. In other words, whether a shape-dependent
73 agglomeration kernel may be a better choice to describe the process than state of the art,
74 shape-*independent* approaches. We further focus on particles whose habit can be meaningfully
75 approximated by cylinders with length L_1 and width L_2 , even though extensions to other,
76 convex shapes (convex polytopes, ellipsoids, etc.) could be implemented with reasonable
77 effort if needed.

78 While many different formulations for the agglomeration of crystals in solution can be found
79 in the literature, the vast majority of them assume that the agglomeration kernel β can be
80 written as the product of two terms, that is $\beta = \beta_c \Psi$, where β_c is the collision frequency
81 and Ψ is the agglomeration efficiency, a measure of the likelihood of two collided particles to
82 form a stable agglomerate. ? ? ? ? ? Both these terms may in general be complex functions
83 of process parameters and particle properties, such as their characteristic lengths. In what
84 follows, we will provide a compact overview of the most important descriptions of both
85 elements and lay out an argument as to where and why the shape of primary particles might
86 play a role in the agglomeration process. More detailed derivations of the standard kernels
87 can be found in the references accompanying the text.

88 **2.1 Collision Frequency**

89 Particles in solution may collide with each other for a variety of reasons, including the
 90 diffusion of small particles (perikinetic agglomeration). However, for particles of sufficient size
 91 under strong stirring, as is often the case in crystallization, agglomeration can be considered
 92 to be purely controlled by shear rate (orthokinetic agglomeration).

93 Furthermore, when particle relaxation times are short compared to the characteristic time of
 94 velocity fluctuations and in the case where particles are small or of similar size compared to
 95 the size of the smallest eddies (Kolmogorov microscale), the collision kernel of two spherical
 96 particles with diameters L and L' in a given medium is often written as^{?????}

$$\beta_{c,\text{sphere}} = k_{c,1} \gamma^{k_{c,2}} \left(\frac{L + L'}{2} \right)^{k_{c,3}} \quad (1)$$

97 where $k_{c,i}$ are constant parameters and the last factor in brackets corresponds to the mean
 98 diameter of the two spheres. In^{??}, γ denotes the shear rate, here approximated as

$$\gamma = \left(\frac{\epsilon}{\nu} \right)^{1/2} \quad (2)$$

99 using the kinematic viscosity, ν , and the rate of energy dissipation, ϵ . The latter can be
 100 calculated independently, e.g., via a power number correlation as done in this work.

101 The values of $k_{c,2}$ and $k_{c,3}$ can be derived from theoretical considerations and are typically
 102 given as $k_{c,2} = 1/3$, $k_{c,3} = 7/3$ (particle size in inertial subrange) or $k_{c,2} = 1/2$, $k_{c,3} = 3$
 103 (particles smaller than Kolmogorov microscale).^{??} implies that the collision rate depends
 104 solely on the energy dissipation and particle size; however, it should be highlighted that the
 105 assumptions leading to^{??} are violated in the case of particles with large inertia and/or for
 106 very high energy dissipation rates and that the true behavior of colliding particles is in fact
 107 much more complex than described by this model.^{??}

108 The question arises how to best incorporate nonequant particles in such a scheme, that is,
 109 particles described by a characteristic length vector $\mathbf{L} \in \mathbb{R}_+^n$ where $n \geq 2$. Clearly, given the

110 complexity of the phenomena involved, a rigorous implementation of all possible effects of
111 particle shape on the collision properties lies outside the scope of this work.?? Rather, we
112 choose to use a simplified approach in which we assume the main effect of shape to be an
113 alteration of the mean doublet diameter. In particular, it is assumed that the sphere diameter
114 L in ?? can be replaced by an effective diameter $\ell(\mathbf{L})$. We choose $\ell : \mathbb{R}_+^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ to be the
115 function that maps the characteristic lengths of a complex-shaped particle to the diameter
116 of a sphere with the same average projected area. For convex bodies, a simple relationship
117 exists between the average projected area and the surface area of the object, that is, the
118 latter is equal to four times the former.? This allows determining, on the one hand, the
119 average projected area for simple shapes, whose surface area can be calculated easily, and on
120 the other hand, computing the surface area of more general objects, whose average projected
121 area is straightforward to measure. Given the average projected area of a sphere, i.e., $\pi\ell^2/4$,
122 the desired effective diameter is given as

$$\ell = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi} [\text{Surface Area of Convex Body}]} \quad (3)$$

123 which leads to a modified, shape-dependent version of ??

$$\beta_{\mathbf{c}} = k_{\mathbf{c},1} \gamma^{k_{\mathbf{c},2}} \left(\frac{\ell(\mathbf{L}) + \ell(\mathbf{L}')}{2} \right)^{k_{\mathbf{c},3}} \quad (4)$$

124 In particular, for cylindrical model particles with length L_1 and width L_2 , ?? is given by

$$\ell = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}L_2^2 + L_1L_2} \quad (5)$$

125 It can easily be shown that ?? reduces to ?? in the case of spheres, i.e., the behavior of the
126 special 1D case is preserved. Note however that, whereas the values of $k_{\mathbf{c},2}$ and $k_{\mathbf{c},3}$ can be
127 derived when assuming spherical particles, these values cannot be fixed easily a priori in the
128 case of nonequant shapes and are regarded as simple fitting parameters in this work.

129 2.2 Agglomeration efficiency

130 While there is a consensus that the balance between the strength of the connecting bridge
 131 and the forces acting on it play a pivotal role in determining whether or not two particles
 132 successfully agglomerate after they have collided, a plethora of approaches to approximate
 133 the resulting agglomeration efficiency exists in the literature. A common approach is to
 134 make use of the ratio of two characteristic times, namely the cementation time t_{cem} (the time
 135 necessary to create a sufficiently strong bridge between particles) and the interaction time t_r
 136 (the contact time available to build such a bridge). The agglomeration efficiency Ψ can then
 137 be written as^{??}

$$\Psi = \left(1 + k_{e,1} \frac{t_{\text{cem}}}{t_r}\right)^{-1} \quad (6)$$

138 where $k_{e,1}$ is an empirical constant. Note that there exist alternative descriptions for the
 139 agglomeration efficiency also making use of this ratio.[?] The interaction time t_r is intimately
 140 connected to the properties of the flow and, in the dilute limit, independent of the presence
 141 of particles. It can be approximated in a variety of ways, yet as we are primarily interested
 142 in determining qualitative features of the agglomeration kernel—especially whether and how
 143 it depends on particle morphology—we do not further investigate these various options, but
 144 rather use a correlation originally proposed by[?] which had been utilized previously, with the
 145 additional assumption of isotropic turbulence:[?]

$$t_r = 0.10 \left(\frac{d_{\text{imp}}^2}{\epsilon}\right)^{1/3} \quad (7)$$

146 where d_{imp} is the diameter of the impeller in the crystallizer.

147 As for the cementation time, a possible shape-dependence warrants a deeper discussion.
 148 Similar to our treatment of the collision kernel, we might choose to use a standard description
 149 of t_{cem} and replace the diameters with the effective ones given by^{??}, thus yielding, for
 150 example[?]

$$t_{\text{cem}}^{\text{I}} = k_{e,2} \frac{(\epsilon\nu)^{1/2} \ell_{\text{m}}^2}{G_{\text{b}}} \quad (8)$$

151 in which $k_{e,2}$ is a constant, G_{b} is the bridge growth rate, and $\ell_{\text{m}} = (\ell(\mathbf{L}) \ell(\mathbf{L}'))^{1/2}$ is the
 152 geometric mean of the two effective diameters. Clearly, when using ??, the parameters $k_{e,1}$
 153 and $k_{e,2}$ are coupled and thus can be lumped together. However, while this implementation
 154 has the advantage of being computationally simple, it also neglects the occurrence of different
 155 bridge geometries that result for nonspherical particles.

156 Generally speaking, for the bridge to be stable, the disrupting forces acting on it must be
 157 smaller or equal to the strength of the bridge. The resulting condition may be summarized
 158 in terms of the critical cross-sectional area of the bridge (see the supplementary material for
 159 a more detailed discussion)

$$A_{\text{b,crit}} = k_{e,2} (\epsilon\nu)^{1/2} \ell_{\text{m}}^2 \quad (9)$$

160 It seems physically reasonable that the geometries of the particles, as well as their relative
 161 orientation, affect the geometry of the bridge and therefore the time to achieve $A_{\text{b,crit}}$. While
 162 an infinite number of orientations is conceivable, two extreme collision types, that both
 163 involve only the sides of the cylindrical particles, shall be analyzed in detail in the following
 164 (cf. ??): the cases where the two particles are perfectly aligned ($\varphi = 0$, where φ is the angle
 165 between the axes of the two cylinders) and where they cross orthogonally ($\varphi = \pi/2$), as
 166 illustrated in ?????, respectively. We approximate the bridge geometry as that of the yellow
 167 objects in ??, that is, as having a rectangular cross-section with flat outer surfaces.

168 Following a similar line of reasoning as that used by ?, the cementation times for different
 169 orientations can be determined from

$$t_{\text{cem},\varphi}^{\text{II}}(\varphi) = \frac{V_{\text{b,crit}}^*(\varphi)}{S_{\text{b,crit}}^*(\varphi) G_{\text{b}}} \quad (10)$$

170 where $V_{\text{b,crit}}^*$ is the minimal bridge volume necessary to achieve the critical cross-sectional
 171 area and $S_{\text{b,crit}}^*$ is the outer surface area of the corresponding bridge; both $V_{\text{b,crit}}^*$ and $S_{\text{b,crit}}^*$

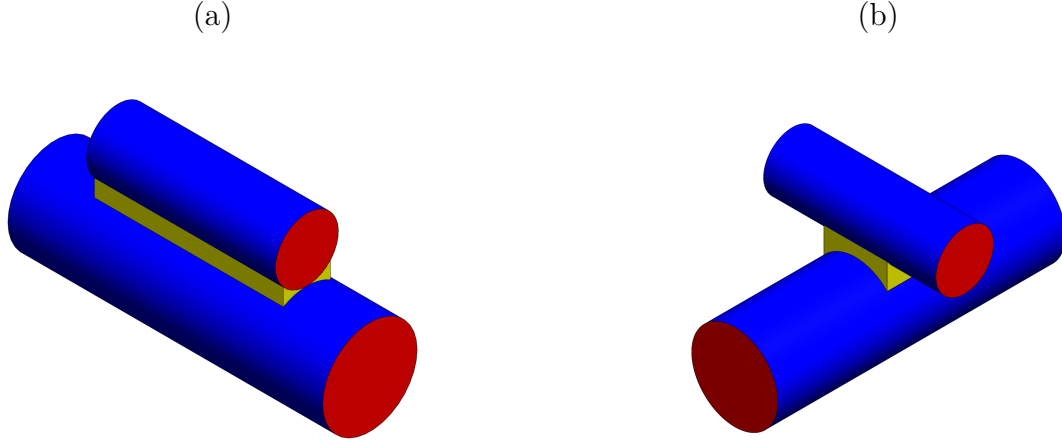


Figure 1: Alignments for cylinders: (a) parallel alignment and (b) orthogonal crossing. Blue and red color is used for the two different types of faces of the cylindrical particles, while yellow elements show the interparticle bridges.

172 depend on the inter-particle orientation φ . A more detailed derivation together with the
 173 exact procedure to find $V_{b,crit}^*$ and $S_{b,crit}^*$ is reported in the supplementary material. It is
 174 noteworthy that the cementation time calculated using ?? can become infinite, namely in the
 175 cases in which a sufficiently large cross-sectional area cannot be reached.

176 A majority of collisions will occur with an orientation between the two extremes considered
 177 in ????, i.e., $\varphi = 0$ and $\varphi = \pi/2$, respectively. Assuming the centers of the cylinders are
 178 aligned, a possible definition of the characteristic cementation time while accounting for the
 179 random contact angle φ is given by

$$t_{cem}^{II} = \mathbb{E} [t_{cem,\varphi}^{II}(\varphi)] = \int_0^{\pi/2} g(\varphi) t_{cem,\varphi}^{II}(\varphi) d\varphi \quad (11)$$

180 where $g(\varphi)$ is a probability density function containing information regarding the likelihood
 181 of collisions with orientation angle φ . Alas, $g(\varphi)$ is an unknown function and neither
 182 information regarding the type of distribution or at least its mean or its variance are
 183 available in literature. Furthermore, calculating $g(\varphi)$ in a physically meaningful way is not
 184 straightforward. Regardless, let us assume that the integral in ?? can be approximated

185 numerically using a simple midpoint rule

$$t_{\text{cem}}^{\text{II}} \approx \sum_{i=1}^N w_i g(\varphi_i) t_{\text{cem},\varphi}^{\text{II}}(\varphi_i) \quad (12)$$

186 where $w_i > 0$ is the weight of the i 'th bin and N is the number of points. We may further
 187 choose to use only two points in ??, i.e., $N = 2$, with for example, $\varphi_1 = 0$ and $\varphi_2 = \pi/2$:

$$t_{\text{cem}}^{\text{II}} \approx w_1 g(0) t_{\text{cem},\varphi}^{\text{II}}(0) + w_2 g(\pi/2) t_{\text{cem},\varphi}^{\text{II}}(\pi/2) \quad (13)$$

188 While it is true that $g(\varphi)$ is unknown, a visual inspection of photographs of agglomerates (see
 189 for example Figure 9 in the first part of this series?) suggests that the crossed scenario occurs
 190 more frequently than its aligned counterpart, i.e., we find empirically that $g(0) < g(\pi/2)$.
 191 Additionally, an analysis of the characteristic times for the two cases shows that, for a vast
 192 majority of cases, $t_{\text{cem},\varphi}^{\text{II}}(0) \ll t_{\text{cem},\varphi}^{\text{II}}(\pi/2)$, i.e., cementation of aligned particles is essentially
 193 instantaneous compared to the orthogonal case.

194 These two observations imply that ?? can be approximated as

$$t_{\text{cem}}^{\text{II}} \approx w'_2 t_{\text{cem},\varphi}^{\text{II}}(\pi/2) \quad (14)$$

195 where the unknown factor $w'_2 = w_2 g(\pi/2)$ can be lumped together with the parameter
 196 $k_{e,1}$ in the agglomeration efficiency. While the assumed bridge geometries are only crude
 197 approximations of stable bridges and ?? can really be considered only an order of magnitude
 198 approximation of the characteristic cementation time, its derivation motivated by the under-
 199 lying physics represents an improvement compared with the more simplistic approach given
 200 by ??.

201 Summarizing, we propose two conceptually simple approaches for the description of a size-
 202 dependent cementation time and thus for the agglomeration efficiency:

$$\Psi^i = \left(1 + k_{e,1} \frac{t_{\text{cem}}^i}{t_r} \right)^{-1}, \quad i \in \{\text{I, II}\} \quad (15)$$

203 which differ solely in the way the cementation time is computed for a given collision pair.

204 **2.3 Properties of the shape-dependent agglomeration kernel**

205 In the following, a brief summary of the properties of the shape-dependent agglomeration
 206 kernel shall be presented. We refer the reader to Section 2 of the supplementary material
 207 for a more thorough discussion of the properties of the proposed collision frequency and
 208 agglomeration efficiencies.

209 ?? illustrates the scaling of the collision kernel β_c , the cementation time $t_{\text{cem}}^{\text{I}}$, and the
 210 cementation time $t_{\text{cem}}^{\text{II}}$ with four different independent variables. These are chosen to be the
 211 total volume of colliding particles, $V_p + V'_p$, the volume ratio, V_p/V'_p and the two aspect ratios,
 212 $x = L_1/L_2$ and $x' = L'_1/L'_2$. In particular, each variable is varied independently while the
 213 remaining ones are held constant at a value of one. Furthermore, all results are normalized
 214 by the value of the corresponding function obtained when all variables equal one ($\beta_{c,0}$, $t_{\text{cem},0}^{\text{I}}$,
 215 and $t_{\text{cem},0}^{\text{II}}$). Note that, due to the symmetry of the kernel for particles with identical volume,
 216 the behavior for varying x and x' is identical.

217 As can be seen from ??, the collision rate increases rapidly with increasing total volume and
 218 decreases with increasing ratio of particle volumes, a result that is consistent with classical
 219 descriptions. Further, higher aspect ratios of needles lead to higher collision frequencies, which
 220 is explained by the higher surface to volume ratio of elongated cylinders when compared to
 221 equant-sized ones. For the two cementation times, illustrated in ????, a similar behavior as for
 222 β_c is evident, thus implying that the agglomeration efficiency behaves—qualitatively speaking—
 223 exactly opposite to the collision rate. While more subtle differences are present (cf. Section 2
 224 of the supplementary material), the main distinction between the two proposed cementation
 225 times lies in a different scaling of the cementation time (and thus of the agglomeration

226 efficiency) with increasing total particle volume: model II predicts a significantly smaller
227 sensitivity with respect to the total particle volume, therefore implying a higher chance of
228 crystals of large total volume to form a strong bridge and hence to agglomerate.

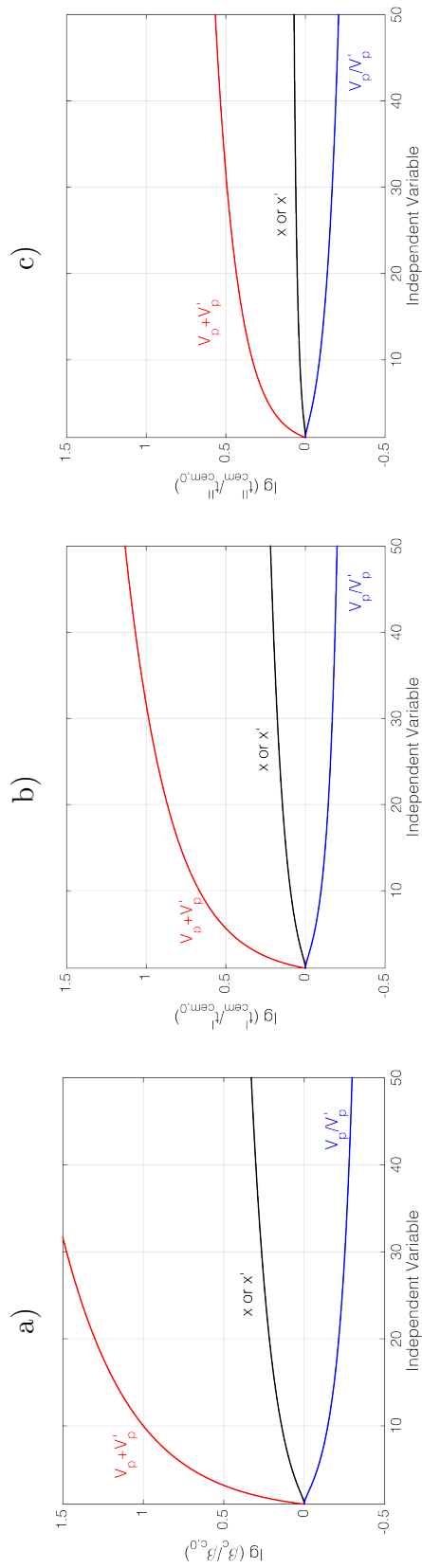


Figure 2: Normalized behavior of the a) collision kernel β_c , b) cementation time t_{cem}^I , and c) cementation time t_{cem}^{II} as a function of different independent variables (colors). The value of the independent variable (red: $V_p + V'_p$; black: x or x' ; blue: V_p/V'_p) is varied individually, while all other variables are held constant at unity. All results are normalized by the value of the corresponding function with all variables equal to one.

3 Process model

3.1 Population Balance Model

The modeling of the agglomeration of a population of particles with nonspherical shape in suspension has been the subject of only a small number of works in the past, none of which attempted to investigate the effects of various agglomeration kernels on the behavior of the ensemble. Furthermore, a main goal of this work is to establish a connection between experimental data and mathematical description. As was shown in part I of this series, the classification of a large number of particles into primary crystals and agglomerates is feasible within reasonable times utilizing the stereoscopic imaging equipment available in our laboratory. Such a classification implies the existence of two separate, but interacting, particle size (and shape) distributions, whose dimensionality may differ in general. The situation resembles that occurring during a polymorphic transformation, in which different polymorphs may be well-described by characteristic size vectors of different lengths, as shown previously in the case of α and β L-glutamic acid.

An appropriate model of the evolution of the process can be obtained within the population balance framework. In our experimental work we approximated primary particles by cylinders with length L_1 and width L_2 , while we characterized agglomerates by a single size, their volume v_a . Here, we choose to describe the evolution of these two particle populations in a well-mixed batch crystallizer and in the absence of nucleation. The deliberate choice to neglect any and all spatial variations of both fluid and particle properties (e.g. shear rate or local number density) appears to be a reasonable first step in the description of an entirely new phenomenon.

$$\frac{\partial f_s}{\partial t} + \sum_{i=1}^2 \frac{\partial (G_i f_s)}{\partial L_i} = -D_s \quad (16)$$

$$\frac{\partial f_a}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial (G_a f_a)}{\partial v_a} = B_a - D_a \quad (17)$$

251 where f_s and f_a are the number densities of primary particles and agglomerates, respectively.
 252 G denotes growth rates of particles while B and D indicate birth and death terms. Note
 253 that ?? is written in terms of the agglomerate volume v_a while ?? utilizes the characteristic
 254 lengths L_i .

255 Assuming agglomeration to be irreversible and nucleation/breakage to be absent, the agglom-
 256 erate population serves as the only sink in the system, which is why ?? does not contain
 257 any source term. Note that removing the former irreversibility assumption would correspond
 258 to allowing for loosely bound aggregates, which may deaggregate at a later point due to,
 259 e.g., the influence of agitation. A standard approach would be to describe such events by
 260 an additional breakage term in ??.[?] However, in order to properly describe the resulting
 261 birth term in ??, the model should keep memory of the (average) number, size and shape of
 262 primary needles constituting such aggregates, thus increasing its complexity significantly.

263 The disappearance of primary particles occurs due to agglomeration events between two
 264 primary particles and between one primary particle and one agglomerate. Therefore, the rate
 265 of loss D_s is the sum of two terms, namely D_s^{ss} and D_s^{as} , respectively:

$$D_s(\mathbf{L}) = D_s^{ss} + D_s^{as} \quad (18a)$$

$$= f_s(\mathbf{L}) \int_{\Omega} \beta(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{L}') f_s(\mathbf{L}') d\mathbf{L}' + f_s(\mathbf{L}) \int_0^{\infty} \beta(\mathbf{L}, v_a) f_a(v_a) dv_a \quad (18b)$$

266 where Ω is the space domain (equal to \mathbb{R}_+^2 in the case of cylinders). Note that we
 267 make use of an abbreviated notation for the agglomeration kernel β . First, $\beta(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{L}') =$

268 $\beta(L_1, L_2, \dots, L'_1, L'_2, \dots) = \beta(\mathbf{L}', \mathbf{L})$, thus indicating that the agglomeration kernel is a sym-
 269 metric function that depends on the characteristics of the two colliding particles, regardless
 270 of the dimensionality of \mathbf{L} and \mathbf{L}' . Second, in the last term of ??, the agglomeration kernel
 271 should be more correctly written as $\beta(\mathbf{L}, L(v_a))$ to emphasize the need for an appropriate
 272 choice of a characteristic agglomerate size L ; it is only for the sake of readability that we omit
 273 this in ?? and in the following equations. This, in turn, implies an assumption regarding
 274 the shape of agglomerates. For the purpose of the modeling in this work and in the absence
 275 of clear evidence to the contrary, we choose to approximate the shape of agglomerates,
 276 wherever such an assumption is necessary, as spheres, that is, the corresponding size is
 277 the diameter of the volume equivalent sphere, $L = (6/\pi v_a)^{1/3}$. For model II this implies
 278 that collisions involving agglomerates are handled as collisions between spheres, i.e., using
 279 the kernel originally described by ?. Finally, note that the agglomeration kernels for the
 280 two collision types (and all others) are assumed to be identical, that is, the mechanism of
 281 agglomeration between, e.g., two needles and two agglomerates is assumed to be the same.
 282 While possibly rationalized by the relatively small change in total surface area during the
 283 agglomeration of needles, this can only be viewed as a first approximation, as there is no
 284 experimental or theoretical evidence either for or against this hypothesis.
 285 The death term in ?? can be written in a similar fashion as that in ??, that is

$$D_a(v_a) = D_a^{\text{as}} + D_a^{\text{aa}} \quad (19a)$$

$$= f_a(v_a) \int_{\Omega} \beta(v_a, \mathbf{L}) f_s(\mathbf{L}) d\mathbf{L} + f_a(v_a) \int_0^{\infty} \beta(v_a, v'_a) f_a(v'_a) dv'_a \quad (19b)$$

286 Let us now consider the term accounting for the birth term of agglomerates, which is the
 287 sum of three contributions

$$B_a = B_a^{\text{aa}} + B_a^{\text{as}} + B_a^{\text{ss}} \quad (20)$$

288 The integral describing the birth of particles of volume v_a due to collisions between agglomer-
 289 ates, B_a^{aa} , can be written as

$$B_a^{aa}(v_a) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{C^{aa}} \beta(v'_a, v''_a) f_a(v'_a) f_a(v''_a) ds \quad (21)$$

290 where we integrate over the set C^{aa} , defined as follows

$$C^{aa} = \{(v'_a, v''_a) \mid v'_a \in \mathbb{R}_+, v''_a \in \mathbb{R}_+, v'_a + v''_a = v_a\} \quad (22)$$

291 This defines a line in $\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}_+$, on which the volume of the two agglomerating particles is
 292 equal to the volume of the resulting agglomerate. Clearly, for this simple case, ?? may be
 293 written in the following shorter, more explicit form

$$B_a^{aa}(v_a) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{v_a} \beta(v'_a, v_a - v'_a) f_a(v'_a) f_a(v_a - v'_a) dv'_a \quad (23)$$

294 The two remaining terms, B_a^{as} and B_a^{ss} , are given by

$$B_a^{as}(v_a) = \int_{C^{as}} \beta(v'_a, \mathbf{L}) f_a(v'_a) f_s(\mathbf{L}) ds \quad (24)$$

$$B_a^{ss}(v_a) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{C^{ss}} \beta(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{L}') f_s(\mathbf{L}) f_s(\mathbf{L}') ds \quad (25)$$

295 where the corresponding integration domains are given by

$$C^{as} = \{(v'_a, \mathbf{L}) \mid v'_a \in \mathbb{R}_+, \mathbf{L} \in \mathbb{R}_+^n, v'_a + V_p(\mathbf{L}) = v_a\} \quad (26)$$

$$C^{ss} = \{(\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{L}') \mid \mathbf{L} \in \mathbb{R}_+^n, \mathbf{L}' \in \mathbb{R}_+^n, V_p(\mathbf{L}) + V_p(\mathbf{L}') = v_a\} \quad (27)$$

296 and we have made use of the function $V_p(\mathbf{L}) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$, which returns the volume of a particle
 297 with characteristic lengths \mathbf{L} , i.e., in the case of cylinders $V_p(\mathbf{L}) = \pi/4 L_1 L_2^2$.

298 The population balance equations (PBEs) are coupled to a mass balance of the solute in the

299 liquid phase, which can be expressed for a well-mixed batch crystallizer as:

$$\frac{dc}{dt} + \rho_c \frac{d}{dt} \left[\int_{\Omega} f_s(\mathbf{L}) V_p(\mathbf{L}) d\mathbf{L} + \int_0^{\infty} f_a(v_a) v_a dv_a \right] = 0 \quad (28)$$

300 In the case of cylinders, given the definition of $V_p(\mathbf{L})$ above as well as that of the general
 301 cross-moment of the shape distribution:

$$\mu_{ij} = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} f_s(L_1, L_2) L_1^i L_2^j dL_1 dL_2 \quad (29)$$

302 and of the agglomerate distribution moment

$$\mu_i^a = \int_0^{\infty} f_a(v_a) v_a^i dv_a, \quad (30)$$

303 we can rewrite ?? to yield

$$\frac{dc}{dt} + \rho_c \frac{d}{dt} \left[\frac{\pi}{4} \mu_{12} + \mu_1^a \right] = 0 \quad (31)$$

The above equations can finally be solved together with a set of appropriate initial and boundary conditions

$$f_s(t = 0, \mathbf{L}) = f_{s,0}(\mathbf{L}), \quad f_s(t, 0) = 0 \quad (32a)$$

$$f_a(t = 0, v_a) = f_{a,0}(v_a), \quad f_a(t, 0) = 0 \quad (32b)$$

$$c(t = 0) = c_0 \quad (32c)$$

304 In ??, $f_{s,0}(\mathbf{L})$ and $f_{a,0}(v_a)$ are the seed distributions of primary particles and of agglomerates,
 305 respectively, and c_0 is the initial solute concentration.

3.2 Solution of population balance model

The population balance equations are solved using a high resolution finite volume scheme with van Leer flux limiter and Strang-splitting.[?] This fractional-step method can be thought of as a sequence of three steps: (1) a first subproblem (equations with right hand sides equal zero) is solved over a half time step; (2) the effect of the nonlinear source terms (second subproblem) on the distributions is calculated over the full time step; (3) the first subproblem is propagated over half a time step. In other words, the solution of the problem can be seen as separated between growth (steps (1) and (3)) and agglomeration (step (2)).

The two particle distributions are coupled not only via the mass balance but also via the agglomeration events in step (2) hence the nonlinear source terms have to be calculated simultaneously. To this end, a set of ordinary differential equations for all bins in both distributions is constructed and solved by a standard ODE-solver (*ode15s* in Matlab in this work). The rates for individual bins are calculated in a similar fashion as in other techniques by taking into account conservation of mass and of number of particles.[?] Note that, while the dimensionality of the problem is very large, given that the utilized method uses a fixed point grid, a major part of the computations can be done offline. This means that, with a number of grid points of the order of 50 per characteristic dimension (roughly 2500 grid points; $>6 \times 10^6$ collision pairs), online computation times are typically less than 20 minutes on a dual-core i7-4600U running at 2.10 GHz (stock) and 8 GB of local memory (1 DIMM x 8 GB @ 800 MHz).

4 Results and discussion

In order to get a better understanding of the complex behavior of the proposed process model, simulations using the different kernels were performed for a variety of process conditions, outlined in the following and summarized in Table 1. In order to allow for a better comparison with the experimental data shown in part I of this series,[?] the compound properties of β

331 L-glutamic acid, such as its solubility c^* or crystal density ρ_c , are used where needed, and we
332 restrict ourselves to simulations of desupersaturation experiments at constant temperature.
333 Furthermore, to test in an unbiased manner the hypothesis that the agglomeration kernel is
334 shape-dependent, an additional, shape-*independent* agglomeration kernel has been considered
335 as well. This kernel, referred to as model 0 in the following, is essentially the one used
336 earlier,[?] and thus is equivalent to model I with the difference that the volume equivalent
337 sphere diameter is used in all equations.
338 Nevertheless, given that no information is available so far about the kinetics at the high
339 supersaturations required to induce significant agglomeration, a number of approximations
340 and assumptions had to be incorporated into the mathematical model; these are described in
341 detail in the following.

342 4.1 Model assumptions

343 4.1.1 Growth Rates

344 A critical factor in the description of agglomeration is the growth rate of particles. In fact, it
345 strongly affects the agglomeration efficiency due to the inverse relationship between t_{cem} and
346 the bridge growth rate G_b .

347 Alas, little is known about the exact facet growth rates of β L-Glu at the high supersaturation
348 levels ($1 \leq S \leq 5$) considered here. In fact, authors aiming at investigating facet growth
349 rate kinetics deliberately avoid high driving forces in order to avoid agglomeration (and
350 nucleation) of particles. ? ? ? ? ? The two facet growth rates used in the following simulations
351 were chosen arbitrarily as

$$G_1(S) = R k_{g,1} (S - 1)^{k_{g,2}} \quad (33a)$$

$$G_2(S) = k_{g,3} (S - 1)^{k_{g,4}} \quad (33b)$$

352 with $k_{g,1} = k_{g,3} = 2 \times 10^{-9}$ m/s and $k_{g,2} = k_{g,4} = 1.5$. This choice of parameters implies
 353 $G_1(S)/G_2(S) = R = \text{const.}$, i.e., a reasonable assumption for many systems. ? ?
 354 Note that, in this case and if only growth is considered, the shape of all crystals, individually
 355 defined here by the aspect ratio $x = L_1/L_2$, approaches the steady state shape x_{ss} :

$$x(t) \rightarrow x_{ss} = R \quad (34)$$

356 Hence, we can partially decouple the effects of growth and agglomeration on the system
 357 by varying the relative growth rate R (cf. ??). While the specific choice of relative growth
 358 rates used in this work is arbitrary, a value of $1 < R < 20$ appears to be consistent with
 359 all available literature data as well as with the images obtained in our experiments. Also,
 360 an order of magnitude analysis of the mass transfer coefficient reveals diffusion limitation
 361 (which would result in $R \approx 1$) to be unlikely in the case of the slow-growing β L-glutamic
 362 acid crystals.

363 Similar considerations as for G_1 and G_2 were made concerning the growth rate of the
 364 agglomerates as well as that of the bridge. For the agglomerate growth rate, it is assumed
 365 that the rate of change of the volume equivalent sphere is given by $(G_1 + G_2)/2$, or in terms of
 366 the volume growth rate of agglomerates, $G_a = 3/2(\pi/6)^{1/3}v_a^{2/3}(G_1 + G_2)$. The bridge growth
 367 rate was set to be equal to the growth rate of the cylinder mantle, i.e., $G_b = G_2$. It should
 368 further be noted that for the purpose of the material balance in ??, the bridge volumes are
 369 considered negligible, such that the growth of the bridges does not contribute to the overall
 370 solute consumption. Finally, note that the supersaturation is defined as

$$S(t) = \frac{c(t)}{c^*(T)} \quad (35)$$

371 where $c^*(T)$ is the solubility and we further define $S_0 = S(t = 0)$ for convenience.

372 4.1.2 Agglomeration Kernel Parameters

373 If parameters $k_{c,2}$ and $k_{c,3}$ are set to the frequently used values of 1/2 and 3, respectively,
 374 the agglomeration kernel models considered here depend on two (model 0 and I) or three
 375 (model II) independent parameters. Given that their values are unknown and a full parameter
 376 estimation lies outside the scope of this work, a sensitivity study was conducted for these
 377 parameters. While, for the sake of clarity, only the results for one representative set of
 378 parameters is reported (see ??), the trends and conclusions obtained do not differ for other
 379 values studied.

Table 1: Agglomeration kernel parameter values used in the simulations.

Kinetic Parameter	Value	Units
$k_{c,1}$	10^4	$[\text{kg m}^{-3}]$
$k_{c,2}$	0.5	[-]
$k_{c,3}$	3	[-]
$k_{e,1}$	1	[-]
$k_{e,2}$ (models 0 and I)	1	$[\text{s m}^{-1}]$
$k_{e,2}$ (model II)	5×10^{-4}	[s]

380 4.1.3 Initial and Operating Conditions

381 The initial distributions of the primary particles, $f_{s,0}(\mathbf{L})$, were chosen so as to emulate the
 382 two populations S (small) and L (large) present in the experiments presented in part I of
 383 this series,[?] whereas the agglomeration distribution, $f_{a,0}(v_a)$, was set to be zero in the
 384 simulations, i.e., there are no agglomerates present at the beginning of the process. A variety
 385 of operating conditions were tested in order to obtain an understanding of the behavior of
 386 the different kernels presented. In particular, all combinations between three different initial
 387 supersaturations, $S_0 \in \{3, 5, 7\}$, four different stirring rates, $n_r \in \{250, 300, 350, 400\}$ rpm,
 388 and two constant relative growth rates, $R \in \{5, 10\}$, were simulated for both seed distributions
 389 and all agglomeration models, thus yielding a total number of 144 simulations. In all cases,

390 as in the experiments, simulations were run until virtual depletion of the supersaturation
 391 (termination condition: $S \leq 1.10$).

Table 2: Operating conditions used in the simulations.

Operating Parameter	Value	Units
n_r	{250, 300, 350, 400}	[rpm]
S_0	{3, 5, 7}	[-]
R	{5, 10}	[-]
$f_{s,0}$	{S, L}	[m ⁻² kg ⁻¹]
m_s	{3 (S), 5 (L)}	[g]
T	25	[°C]
m_{solvent}	500	[g]

392 4.1.4 Mean energy dissipation rate

393 For the purpose of the simulations, the mean value of the energy dissipation was estimated
 394 using a power number correlation[?] :

$$\epsilon = \frac{0.6 d_{\text{imp}}^5 n_r^3}{V_{\text{suspension}}} \quad (36)$$

395 The same correlation had been tested earlier and found to yield acceptable predictions for
 396 most cases.[?]

397 4.2 Evaluation of Process Simulations

398 In the following, we present a selection of the results obtained for the different models under
 399 the various conditions. Note that all results are plotted as a function of the dimensionless
 400 time τ , defined as

$$\tau = \frac{t}{t_{\text{end}}} \quad (37)$$

401 where t_{end} is the time at which, in a given process, the supersaturation has been depleted
 402 almost completely, that is, where $S(t_{\text{end}}) = 1.10$.

403 4.2.1 Average Sizes and Agglomeration Degree

404 In ??, the behavior of four quantities is illustrated for models 0 and I, namely the volume-
 405 weighted average length of primary particles, μ_{22}/μ_{12} , the corresponding width, μ_{13}/μ_{12} , the
 406 supersaturation and the volume-based agglomeration degree, X_v , which is defined as

$$X_v = \frac{V_{\text{a,tot}}}{V_{\text{a,tot}} + V_{\text{s,tot}}} = \frac{\mu_1^{\text{a}}}{\mu_1^{\text{a}} + \pi/4 \mu_{12}} \quad (38)$$

407 In the same plots, the initial supersaturation, S_0 , is varied while the seed distribution, the
 408 stirring rate and the relative growth rate are held constant. The qualitative trends are the
 409 same for model II, but we omit the corresponding plots for the sake of clarity and brevity.

410 Unsurprisingly and as shown in ??, the extent of agglomeration increases with increasing
 411 initial supersaturation. Agglomeration occurs predominantly during an initial phase where
 412 supersaturation is high (ca. $S \geq 2.5$), after which the agglomeration degree changes only
 413 marginally. The existence of these two phases is visible also in the plots showing the mean
 414 lengths and widths, that is, ??????. In the beginning, the average primary particle sizes
 415 decrease due to the agglomeration of large needles, but this trend reverses later in the process
 416 when growth dominates. Nevertheless, particularly at lower initial supersaturations, this last
 417 phase of growth may be insufficient to yield a final particle size that is larger than the initial
 418 value.

419 The characteristic sizes may exhibit a minimum or not, depending on the relative importance
 420 of growth and agglomeration in the process during the initial high supersaturation phase.
 421 Evidence for this is the behavior of the system with smaller seed crystals, as illustrated in
 422 ??. In this case, the primary particle size always increases as agglomeration of large crystals
 423 dominates neither growth nor the depletion of small crystals due to agglomeration.

424 The behavior of the system for varying stirring rates, n_r , is shown in ?? for the large seeds.

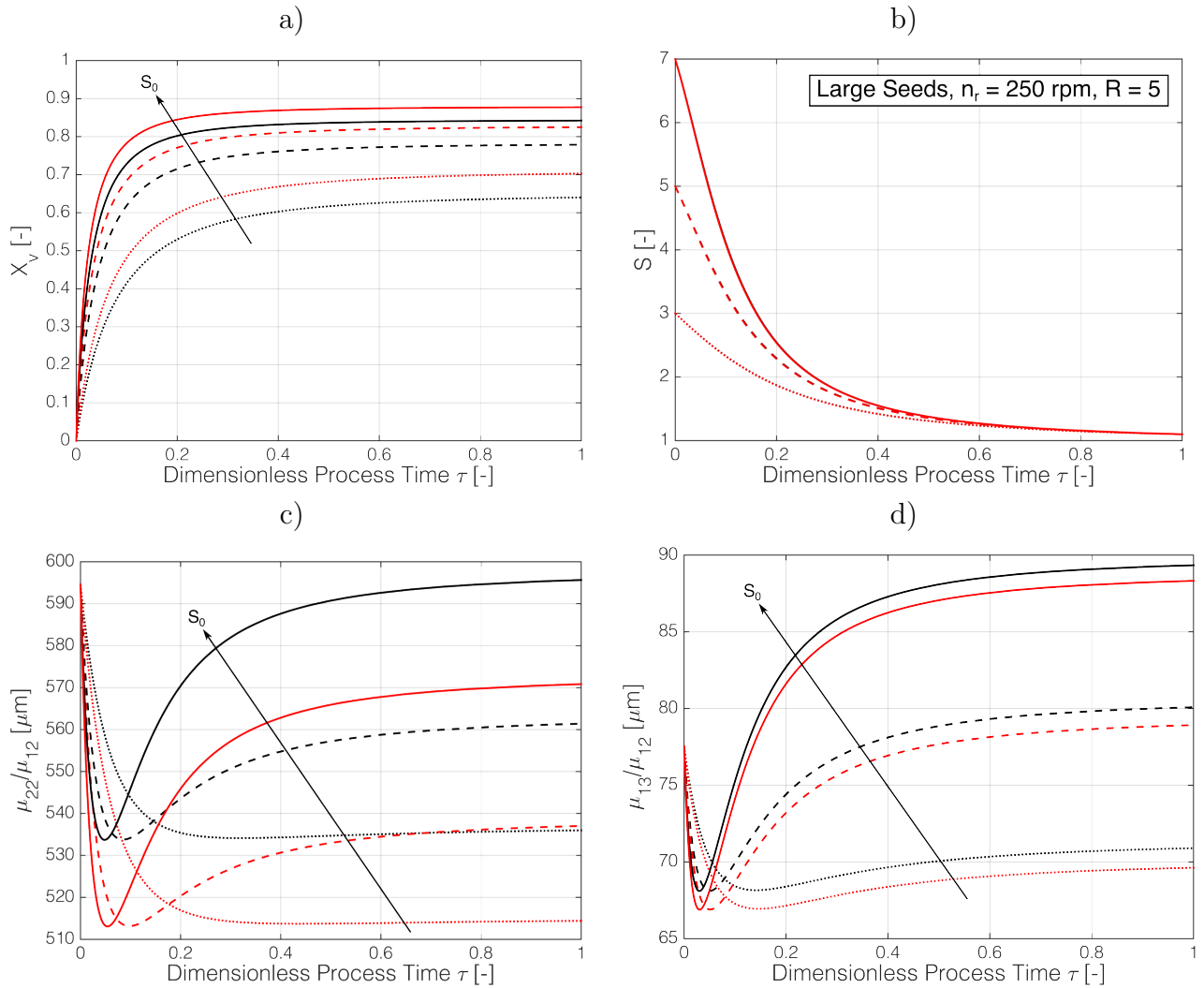


Figure 3: Evolution of particle properties and supersaturation for large seeds over time for model 0 (black curves) and I (red curves) and for different initial supersaturations (dotted line: $S_0 = 3$, dashed line: $S_0 = 5$, solid line: $S_0 = 7$): a) agglomeration degree X_v ; b) supersaturation S ; c) mean length μ_{22}/μ_{12} ; d) mean width μ_{13}/μ_{12} .

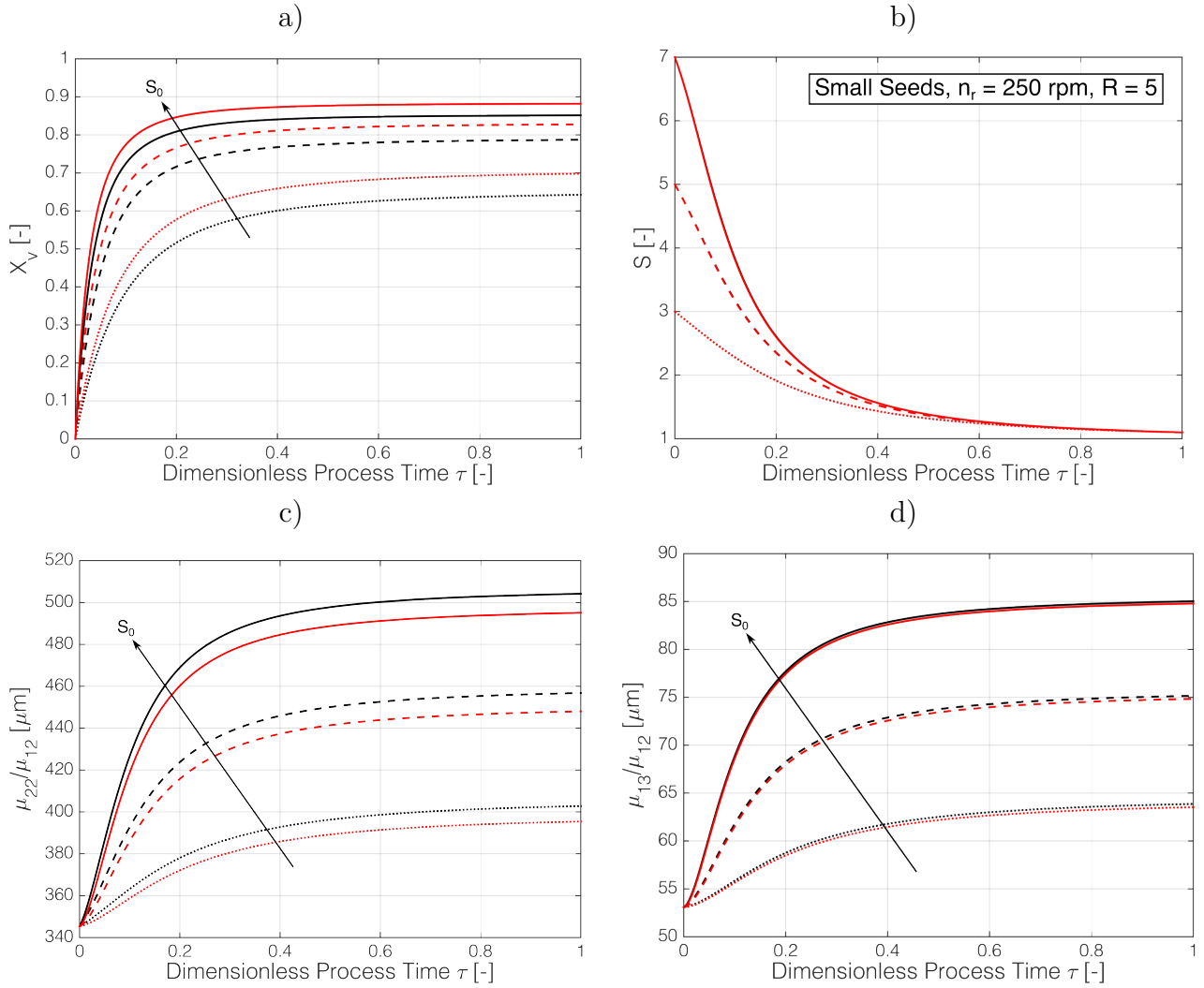


Figure 4: Evolution of particle properties and supersaturation for small seeds over time for model 0 (black curves) and I (red curves) and for different initial supersaturations (dotted line: $S_0 = 3$, dashed line: $S_0 = 5$, solid line: $S_0 = 7$): a) agglomeration degree X_v ; b) supersaturation S ; c) mean length μ_{22}/μ_{12} ; d) mean width μ_{13}/μ_{12} .

425 As evident from ??, X_v decreases with increased stirring rate, yet interestingly, this decreased
 426 agglomeration degree is not accompanied by smaller-sized particles as in the previous case.
 427 On the contrary, higher stirring rates also lead to larger primary particles (compare this
 428 behavior with that in ?????). Furthermore, the supersaturation profile is virtually unaffected,
 429 while, as conjectured, the extent of the size decrease observed in the initial stages of the
 430 process is positively correlated with the extent of agglomeration.

431 As can be seen in ??????, for the plotted quantities and the realistic seed distributions used
 432 in this work, models 0 and I behave qualitatively identically, with the behavior of model I
 433 essentially being a more pronounced version of that of the shape-independent kernel. This
 434 similarity stems from the relationship between the volume equivalent diameter L and the
 435 average area equivalent sphere diameter ℓ , which differ only by a factor that depends on the
 436 aspect ratio x of the particle. In particular, this relationship is described by:

$$\ell = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2} + x\right)^{1/2}}{\left(\frac{3}{2}x\right)^{1/3}}L = \phi(x)L \quad (39)$$

437 where $1.07 \leq \phi(x) \leq 1.89$ for $1 \leq x \leq 100$. A significant, qualitative difference between the
 438 two models is therefore unlikely for properties that are not strongly impacted by particle
 439 shape, at least in the cases in which the distribution of aspect ratios is not too broad.

440 **4.2.2 Average Aspect Ratio**

441 Let us now turn our attention to the volume-weighted, mean aspect ratio μ_{21}/μ_{12} of the
 442 primary particles, a feature which, given the nature of our investigation, is likely to contain
 443 some of the most important information regarding the differences between the various
 444 descriptions. The results produced by the three different models for different stirring rates
 445 are plotted in ??????, in which we additionally report the behavior of the system without
 446 any agglomeration (only growth) using a solid gray line. Several observations are readily
 447 made: first, agglomeration always tends to decrease the aspect ratio of primary particles

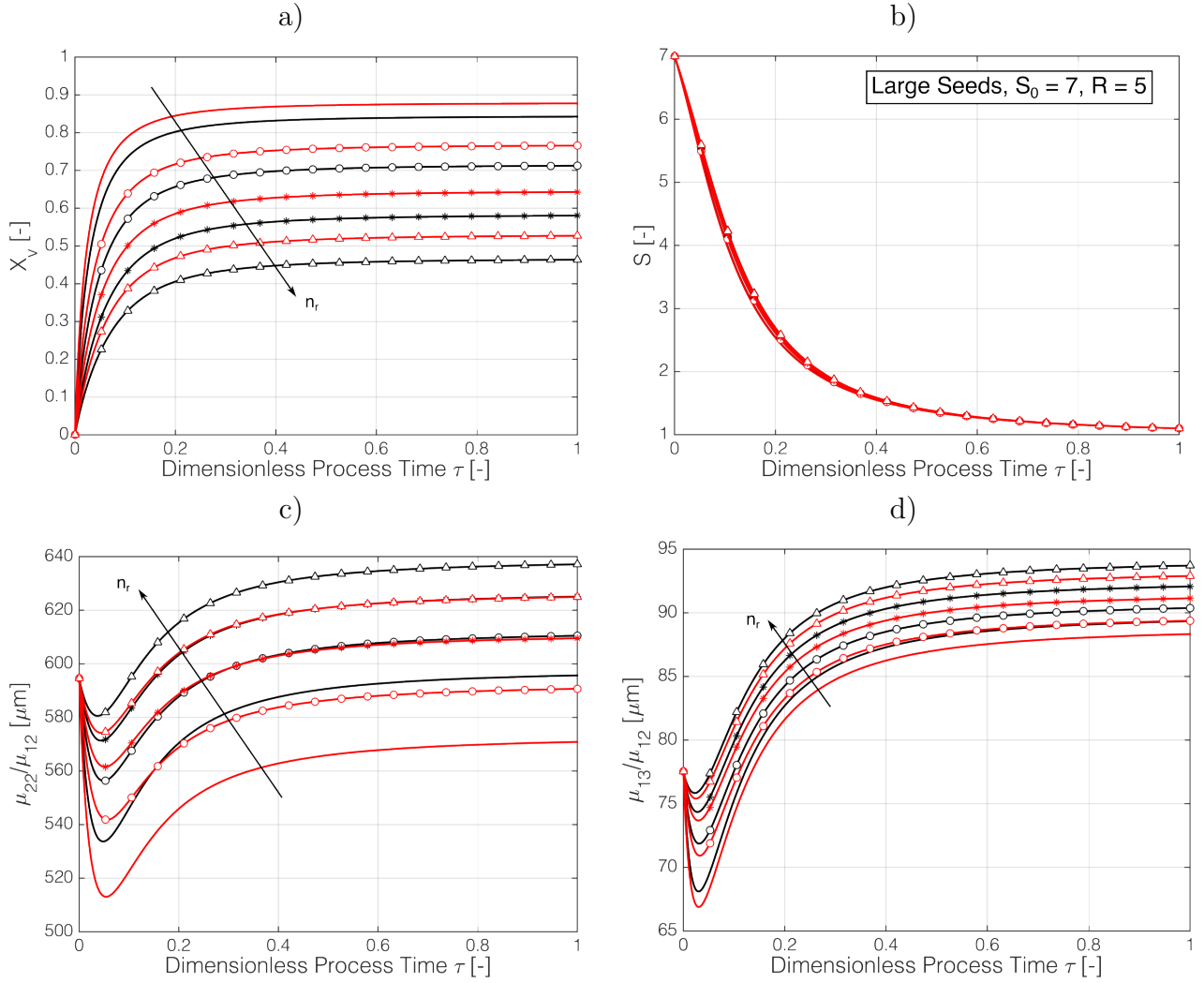


Figure 5: Evolution of particle properties and supersaturation for large seeds over time for model 0 (black curves) and I (red curves) and for different stirring rates (no marker: $n_r = 250$ circles: $n_r = 300$, asterisks: $n_r = 350$, triangles: $n_r = 400$): a) agglomeration degree X_v ; b) supersaturation S ; c) mean length μ_{22}/μ_{12} ; d) mean width μ_{13}/μ_{12} .

448 when compared to the growth-only case. Second, model 0 predicts the highest aspect ratios
449 and the least sensitivity to the stirring rate n_r , while model II predicts the lowest aspect
450 ratio for comparable degrees of agglomeration. Third, models 0 and I predict a monotonous
451 increase of the aspect ratio with increasing stirring rate, while model II exhibits a more
452 complicated behavior in which an increase of the stirring rate initially leads to lower aspect
453 ratios throughout the simulation time before the opposite occurs at even higher stirring rates.
454 Regardless, as outlined in ??, a discussion about the evolution of the average aspect ratio
455 should not be held without taking into account the effect of the relative growth rate R .
456 While individual primary crystals will always evolve towards their stable steady state shape
457 $x_{ss} = R$, agglomeration may speed up or slow down this evolution for the ensemble through
458 depletion of particles with aspect ratios much higher or much lower than x_{ss} . Therefore,
459 we have conducted additional simulations in which the constant relative growth rate is
460 *higher* than the initial average aspect ratio, the results of which we report in ??????. The
461 corresponding simulations indicate that the shape-independent model 0 consistently predicts
462 only small deviations of the average aspect ratio from the growth-only case while maintaining
463 a seemingly monotonous relationship between μ_{21}/μ_{12} and the stirring rate, though the trends
464 have reversed. In contrast, the two shape-dependent models exhibit more complex behaviors
465 with possible inversions over time (cf. ??) and generally higher sensitivities, particularly in
466 the case of model II. Note that, for other parameter values, the trend for model II with the
467 higher constant relative growth rate, is reversed.

468 4.2.3 Particle Size Distributions

469 ???? illustrate the final, volume-weighted distributions of primary particles and agglomerates
470 for the three different models at the same given operating conditions. As evident in the plots,
471 the difference between the different models for the chosen process is either subtle, as in the
472 case of the PSSDs, or virtually non-existent, as in the case of the PSDs of agglomerates.
473 A distinctive and reproducible observation is that the two shape-dependent models—and in

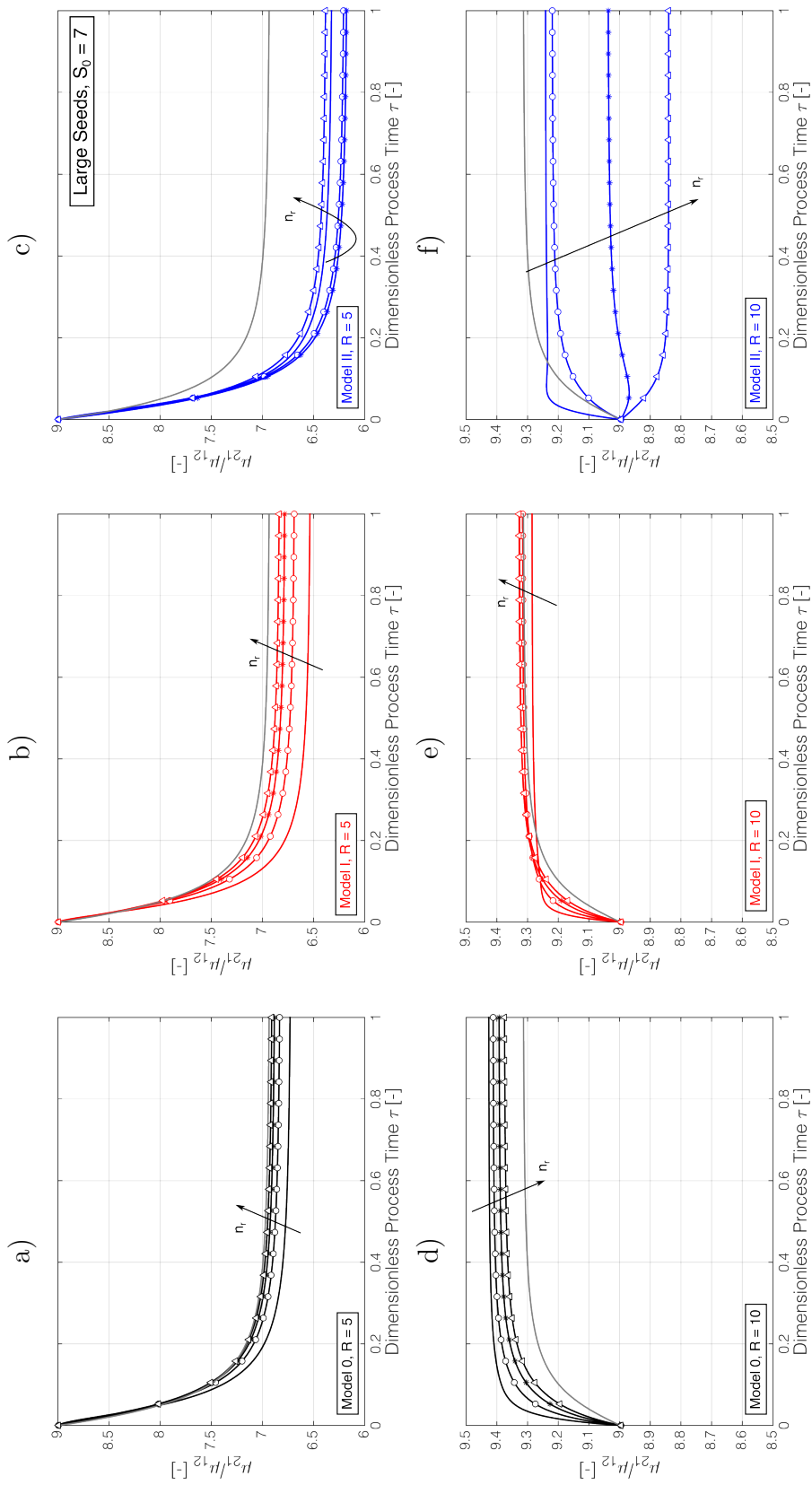


Figure 6: Evolution of mean aspect ratio μ_{21}/μ_{12} for large seeds over time for a) model 0, $R = 5$; b) model I, $R = 5$; c) model II, $R = 5$; d) model 0, $R = 10$; e) model I, $R = 10$; f) model II, $R = 10$; for different stirring rates (no marker: $n_r = 250$ circles; $n_r = 300$, asterisks; $n_r = 350$, triangles; $n_r = 400$). Additional solid gray line in all plots indicates the results without any agglomeration.

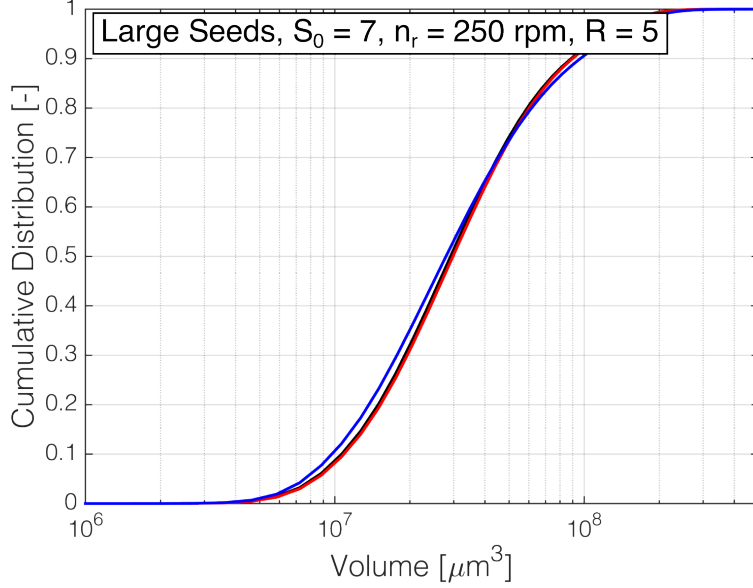


Figure 8: Final, volume-weighted cumulative size distribution of agglomerates for model 0 (black), model I (red) and model II (blue).

474 particular model II—lead to more compact distributions than model 0, specifically in the
 475 processes exhibiting extensive agglomeration. This is especially evident in ????, where the
 476 final, volume-weighted distributions for model 0 and II are shown for two different stirring
 477 rates. While the PSSDs at higher stirring rates are very similar, model II leads to significantly
 478 more compact distributions at lower stirring rates, where the final agglomeration degrees of
 479 the two models are comparable (85% vs. 82% for models 0 and II, respectively). We highlight
 480 this difference by plotting and directly comparing the volume-weighted distribution of needle
 481 lengths $q_1(L_1)$, defined as

$$q_1(L_1) = \frac{\int_0^\infty f_s L_1 L_2^2 dL_2}{\mu_{12}} \quad (40)$$

482 at the same stirring rates for the two models in ??. Whereas the distribution of needle lengths
 483 changes little for the shape independent model, there is a significant change in model II.

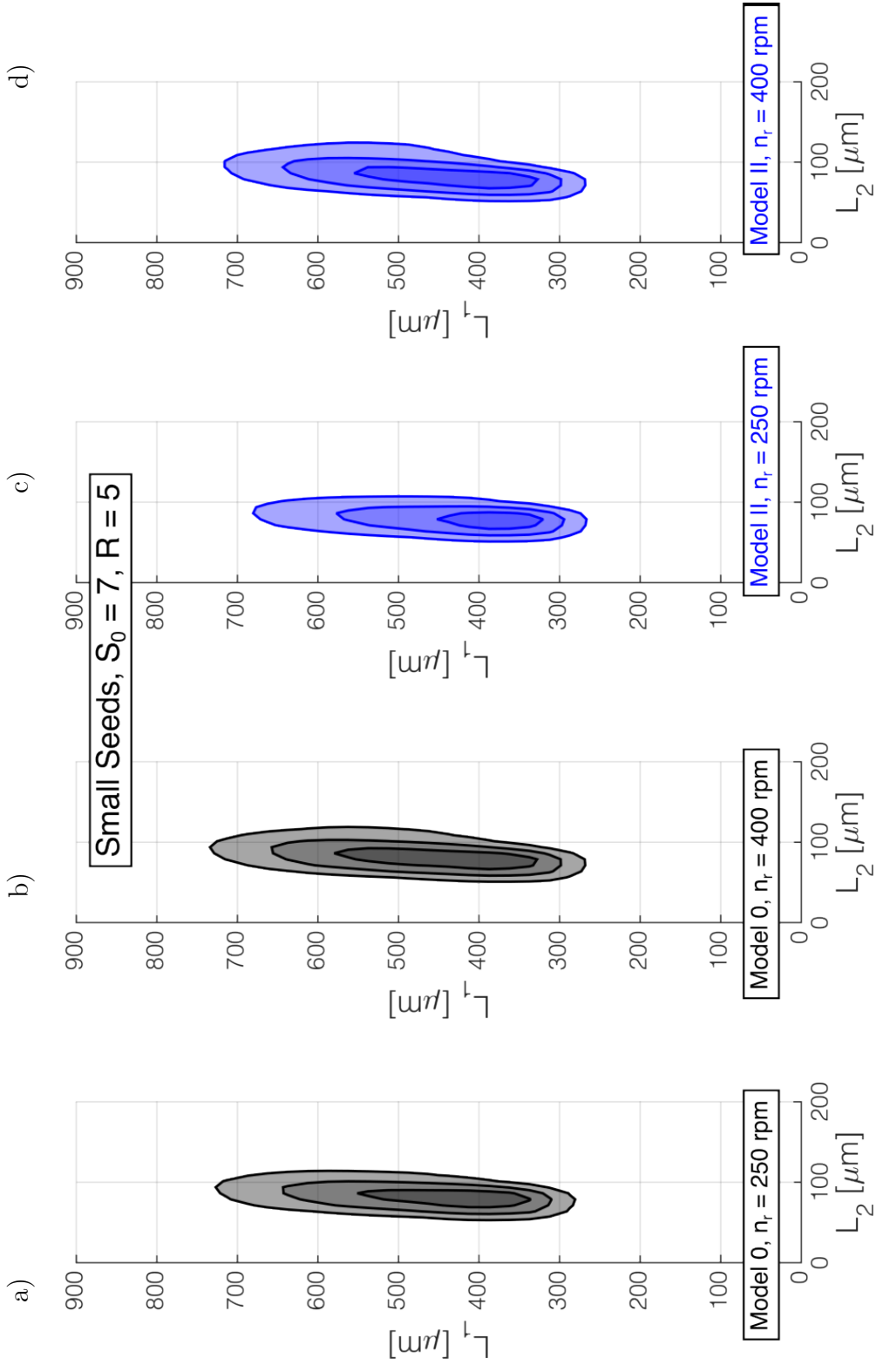


Figure 9: Final, volume-weighted PSSD of primary particles for a) model 0, $n_r = 250$ rpm ($X_v(t_{\text{end}}) = 85\%$); b) model 0, $n_r = 400$ rpm ($X_v(t_{\text{end}}) = 47\%$); c) model II, $n_r = 250$ rpm ($X_v(t_{\text{end}}) = 82\%$); d) model II, $n_r = 400$ rpm ($X_v(t_{\text{end}}) = 16\%$). The plotted contour lines represent the 20%, 50% and 80% level sets of a distribution with respect to its maximum.

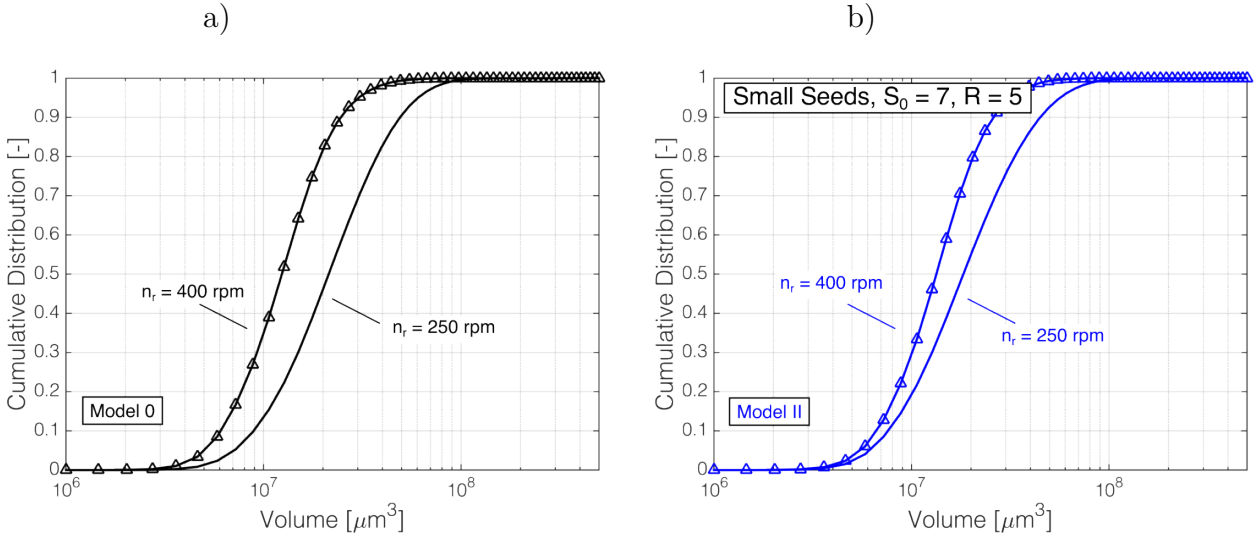


Figure 10: Final, volume-weighted cumulative size distribution of agglomerates for a) model 0 (black); b) model II (blue). No marker: $n_r = 250$, triangles: $n_r = 400$.

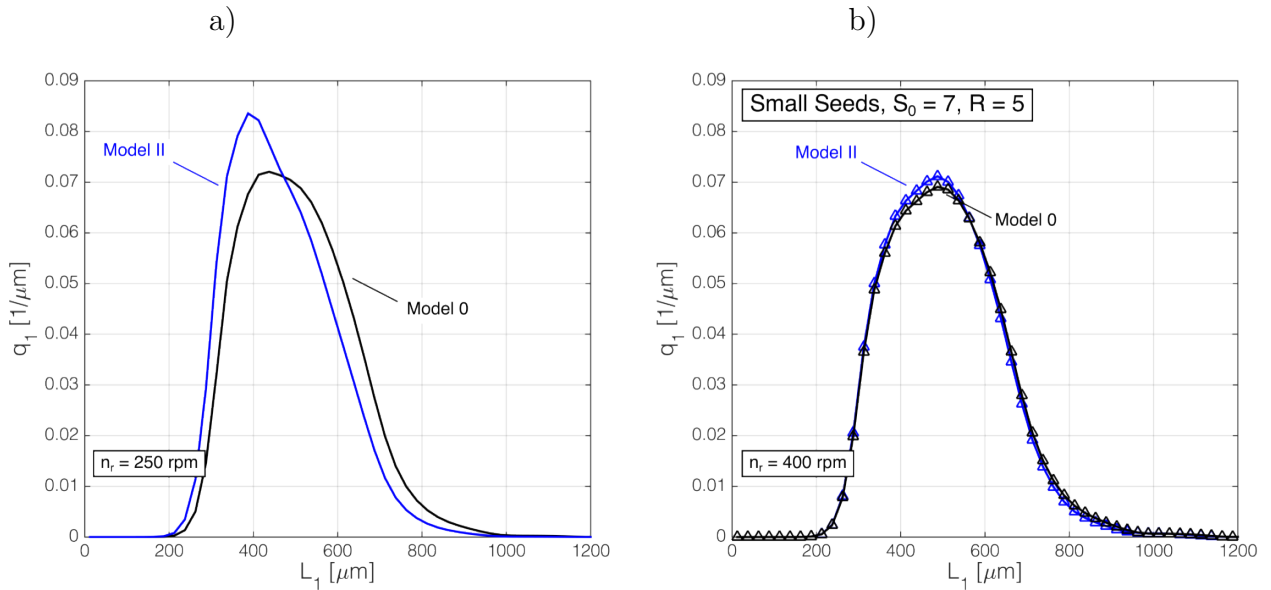


Figure 11: Final, volume-weighted distribution of primary particle lengths $q_1(L_1)$ for models 0 and II and a) $n_r = 250$ rpm; b) $n_r = 400$ rpm.

484 4.3 Comparison with Experimental Results

485 In the following and in order to obtain a better understanding of the validity of the different
486 models, the qualitative predictions described in ?? shall be compared to the experimental
487 trends reported previously.?

488 First, let us focus on the behavior of the models with regard to the agglomeration degree and
489 the average sizes. While we must deem the kernels indistinguishable from one another in
490 terms of qualitative trends for the quantities shown above, we emphasize the fact that the
491 predictions are in complete agreement with the experimental results. Even the decrease in
492 average primary particle size in case of intense agglomeration has been observed experimentally
493 (cf. results of groups A and D in part I). Hence, it can be concluded that all models, including
494 the shape-independent model 0, can be used to study and predict the relative evolution of
495 these quantities during the agglomeration of needle-like crystals.

496 Regarding the behavior of the average aspect ratios described in ??, the complex interplay
497 between growth and agglomeration, the non-monotonous behavior of the shape-dependent
498 models and the unknown true kinetics make the quantitative comparison between different
499 kernels and between models and experiments a difficult endeavor. Nevertheless, all models have
500 shown to be capable of predicting the correct trends of the aspect ratio with supersaturation
501 (not shown) and stirring rate, that is, a decrease of the average aspect ratio with lower stirring
502 rates. However, it is our belief that the higher sensitivities of the average aspect ratio with
503 regard to the stirring rate, which are more in line with the experimental data, are a key
504 indicator that the two shape sensitive models are closer to describing this aspect of the actual
505 process than the shape-independent model 0. Further experimental evidence of this would
506 be the observation of non-monotonous variations of the final average aspect ratio with the
507 stirring rate in particular. Alas, the current data set, which contains experiments only at two
508 distinct stirring rates, excludes the possibility of observing such behavior.

509 As for the agglomerate distributions, all models correctly predict the shift of the distributions
510 and the median volume towards larger agglomerate sizes for lower stirring rates, larger seed

511 sizes and higher supersaturations (latter two effects not shown). Also, the simulated particle
512 size and shape distributions of primary crystals exhibit some trends that are also observed in
513 the experiments. Most prominently, the models—and in particular the two shape-dependent
514 ones—predict a significant decrease in the broadness of the distribution in the length direction
515 for lower stirring rates, i.e., at higher agglomeration degrees. While none of the models reach
516 the rather massive decrease in broadness observed in the experiments (cf. groups A and B as
517 well as D and E in Figure 10 of the experimental work), we emphasize the lack of sensitivity
518 of the PSSD obtained using model 0, which is another indication that the shape-independent
519 description may be incomplete.

520 5 Conclusions

521 In this work, a morphological population balance model for the agglomeration of nonequant
522 crystals has been presented together with possible extensions of classical agglomeration
523 kernels to needle-shaped particles. The population balance model allows the description of
524 the behavior of two different, interacting species (primary particles and agglomerates) simul-
525 taneously, accounting for both shape and agglomeration. By choosing to describe and model
526 the two classes of particles with different levels of accuracy, an otherwise inaccessible process
527 was made tractable. Thus, the model may be used to obtain a qualitative understanding of
528 the behavior of real systems under varying conditions in a fast and reliable manner and opens
529 up the possibility to conduct also more quantitative comparisons, e.g., through a parameter
530 estimation, in the future.

531 The derived agglomeration models allow taking into account the shape of crystals when
532 determining the frequency of agglomeration and to compare for the first time their predictions
533 to classical shape-independent kernels and, ultimately, to experimental data. For a variety
534 of reasons, but mainly due to unknown kinetic parameters of growth and agglomeration,
535 the latter can only be conducted in a semi-quantitative manner. Thus, a final conclusion
536 regarding the shape dependence of agglomeration based on the small available data set cannot
537 be reached. Yet, the two shape-dependent models exhibit a number of trends that are in
538 better agreement with the experimental observations, in particular for those quantities that
539 are strongly impacted by changes in the ensemble's shape distribution. However, crucially,
540 the presented comparison also enabled some level of understanding concerning which features
541 are already well-described by standard, shape *independent* agglomeration kernels, such as
542 the overall agglomeration degree or the primary particle sizes.

543 Finally, we wish to emphasize the fact that the presented population balance framework
544 is independent of the assumptions made to define the agglomeration kernels. Hence, while
545 useful for our preliminary evaluation and as a basis for future comparison, the simplistic
546 description of agglomeration prescribed by those functions may be replaced by an improved

547 version without requiring any modification of the overall model structure.
548 The aim of this series has been to establish the necessary experimental and mathematical
549 tools to allow for a practical and robust analysis of the agglomeration of needle-like crystals
550 in suspension. As such, these works provide two additional tools for researchers to gain quan-
551 titative insight into the complex interaction between crystal morphology and agglomeration.
552 Specifically, the sensitivity analysis performed in this work yields insight into how different
553 models affect various properties of the system. Therefore, it offers some guidance as to which
554 experimental outputs may be meaningful choices for a further study, which can be conducted
555 using the experimental tools presented in part I of this series. It is our belief that, through
556 their amalgamation, these methods, which are tailored towards the analysis of large data
557 sets, have the potential to greatly improve upon a field within crystallization science that has
558 eluded rigorous and quantitative assessment for too long.

559 **Acknowledgements**

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561 time model, and Dr. Stefan Schorsch, for useful discussions in the initial stages of this work.
562 Furthermore, the authors are thankful to the Swiss National Science Foundation for their
563 financial support (Project number 200021-155971).

564 **Supporting Information Available**

565 Additional information regarding the cementation time used for model II and the properties
566 of proposed collision frequency and agglomeration efficiencies. This material is available free
567 of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org/>.

Notation

A	cross-sectional area	$[\text{m}^2]$
B	birth terms in the PBE	[varies]
C	integration domain	[-]
c	solute concentration in the liquid phase	$[\text{kg kg}^{-1}]$
c^*	solubility	$[\text{kg kg}^{-1}]$
c_0	initial solute concentration in the liquid phase	$[\text{kg kg}^{-1}]$
D	death terms in the PBE	[varies]
d_{imp}	impeller diameter	[m]
f	number density function	[varies]
f_0	seed PSD	[varies]
G	growth rate	[varies]
g	probability distribution of collision angles	[-]
k	kinetic parameter	[varies]
ℓ	average projected area equivalent sphere diameter	[m]
L	(volume equivalent) sphere diameter	[m]
L_i	characteristic length in the i^{th} dimension	[m]
m	mass	[kg]
N	number of points for numerical integration	[-]
n	number of characteristic sizes for primary crystals	[-]
n_r	stirring rate	$[\text{s}^{-1}]$
q_1	normalized, volume-weighted distribution of needle lengths	$[\text{m}^{-1}]$
R	constant relative growth rate	[-]
S	supersaturation	[-]
S_b	bridge outer surface area	$[\text{m}^2]$
T	temperature	[K]
t	time	[s]
t_{cem}	expected value of cementation time	[s]
$t_{\text{cem},\varphi}$	contact angle dependent cementation time	[s]
t_{end}	final process time (time at which $S = 1.10$)	[s]
t_r	interaction time	[s]
V	volume	$[\text{m}^3]$
V_p	primary particle volume	$[\text{m}^3]$
v_a	characteristic agglomerate volume	$[\text{m}^3]$
w	weighting factor	[-]
X_v	agglomeration degree	[-]
x	aspect ratio	[-]
x_{ss}	steady state aspect ratio	[-]

Greek letters

β	agglomeration kernel	$[\text{kg s}^{-1}]$
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β_c	collision frequency	$[\text{kg s}^{-1}]$
γ	shear rate	$[\text{s}^{-1}]$
ϵ	energy dissipation rate	$[\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-3}]$
μ_i^a	moment of agglomerate distribution	$[\text{m}^{3i} \text{kg}^{-1}]$
μ_{ij}	ij -cross moment of shape distribution	$[\text{m}^{i+j} \text{kg}^{-1}]$
ν	kinematic viscosity	$[\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}]$
ρ_c	crystal density	$[\text{kg m}^{-3}]$
τ	dimensionless process time	$[-]$
ϕ	aspect ratio dependent function in ??	$[-]$
φ	angle between cylinders	$[-]$
Ψ	agglomeration efficiency	$[-]$
Ω	space domain	$[-]$

Sub- and Superscripts

a	variable pertaining to agglomerate distribution	$[-]$
b	variable pertaining to agglomerate bridge	$[-]$
c	variable pertaining to collision frequency	$[-]$
e	variable pertaining to agglomerate efficiency	$[-]$
g	variable pertaining to crystal growth	$[-]$
s	variable pertaining to primary particle distribution	$[-]$

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683 Chapter 2.

684 **For Table of Contents Use Only**

685 **Title:** Agglomeration of Needle-like Crystals in Suspension: II. Modeling

686 **Authors:** David R. Ochsenein, Thomas Vetter, Manfred Morari and Marco Mazzotti

687 **Synopsis:** A morphological population balance model for the description of processes with
688 agglomeration of needles is presented. The distributions of primary particles and agglomerates
689 over time are modeled by two coupled population balance equations. Two simple shape-
690 dependent agglomeration kernels are derived by extending classical approaches. Their
691 predictions for varying operating conditions are compared with that of a shape-independent
692 kernel and experiments.

