

**Lecturer Note On
MINERAL PROCESSING
[MTPC203(TH2)]**



ORISSA SCHOOL OF MINING ENGINEERING, KEONJHAR

ଓଡିଶା ଖଣି ଯାନ୍ତ୍ରିକ ବିଦ୍ୟାଳୟ, କେଉଁଝର

GOVERNMENT OF ODISHA | ଓଡିଶା ସରକାର

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Vision and Mission of the Department

VISION: To offer quality technical education In the field of Metallurgical Engineering with orientation towards industry, entrepreneurship, higher education and to strive for developing professionally competent technicians meeting the needs of the global economy.

MISSION:

M1 :To develop students in the field of Metallurgical Engineering as highly motivated, skillful and qualified manpower for employment and higher learning

M2 :To promote a conducive environment for all round development of students.

M3 :To promote linkages with external agencies to meet changing needs of industry and society. **M4 :** To Improve Laboratories

Program Education Objectives (PEOs)

PEO 1:Diploma professionals will be able to make a successful career in metallurgical industries or higher studies to meet the needs of future requirements.

PEO 2:Diploma metallurgists will have technical and behavioral competencies through adequate exposure to industry.

PEO 3:To impart technological knowledge and skills for solving real-time engineering problems.

PEO 4:To develop human resources with capabilities of effective communication, moral values and social responsible .

Syllabus

UNIT	CONTENT	HOUR
UNIT-1	Definition and importance Role in the metallurgy industry , Various mineral resources of India , Mineral and Ore , Types of Ores Metallic ores (e.g., iron, copper, gold), Non-metallic ores (e.g., limestone, phosphate), scope and objective of Ore dressing ,Different physical and chemical property of ore with their application to mineral dressing	5
UNIT-II	Size Reduction Importance of Comminution in mineral processing, Mechanisms of size reduction, Blake jaw Crusher, Dodge jaw Crusher, Roll crusher & angle of Nip, capacity and reduction ratio of crusher, Laws of Crushing, Ball mill operation, open circuit grinding and close circuit grinding	15
UNIT-III	Sizing & Concentration Methods Ro-tap Sieve Shaker Particle size analysis, Basic fundamentals & principle of jigging, operations and application of wilfley table, principle of heavy media separation, industrial process using heavy liquid and heavy suspensions (Du - Pont process & Chance process), Principle of froth flotation, practical utility of frother, collector, modifier, activators, depressant (without physic – chemical Principle), Magnetic and Electrostatic separator with their application to mineral dressing (Two Drum Ball-Norton Wet magnetic separator, High Tension or Huff's Electrostatic separation)	20
UNIT-IV	Advanced Topics in Mineral Dressing Advanced Comminution Techniques: High-Pressure Grinding Rolls (HPGR), Ultra-Fine Grinding (UFG), Microwave-Assisted Comminution, Advanced Gravity Separation Techniques: Multi-Gravity Separator (MGS), Advanced Flotation Techniques: Microbubble & Nanobubble Flotation, Magnetic & Electrostatic Separation: High- Intensity Magnetic Separation (HIMS), Sustainable & Eco-Friendly Mineral Processing: Dry Beneficiation Technique, Zero-Waste Processing	5

UNIT:1

Mineral Resources and Ore Dressing

1. Definition and Importance of Mineral Resources

A mineral resource is a naturally occurring substance found in the Earth's crust that has economic value and can be extracted and processed for useful purposes.

Mineral resources are important because they:

Provide raw materials for industries.

Supply metals required for engineering and manufacturing.

Support construction and infrastructure development.

Provide fuels and energy resources.

Generate employment and contribute to economic development.

Support industries such as iron and steel, cement, fertilizer, electronics and automobiles.

2. Role of Minerals in the Metallurgy Industry

Minerals are the basic raw materials of the metallurgical industry. Ores obtained from mines are processed to concentrate the valuable mineral before extraction of the metal.

The general sequence is:

Mining → Ore dressing → Extraction of metal → Refining → Metal/Alloy production

Importance in metallurgy

Source of metals: Iron ore provides iron, bauxite provides aluminium, copper ores provide copper, etc.

Concentration: Ore dressing increases the percentage of valuable minerals before metallurgical extraction.

Reduction of impurities: Gangue materials such as sand, clay and unwanted minerals are removed.

Lower processing cost: Concentrating the ore reduces the quantity of material that must be treated in subsequent operations.

Improved recovery: Proper mineral processing increases recovery of valuable minerals.

Production of suitable feed: Concentrates can be prepared with appropriate size and composition for smelting or other extraction processes.

3. Various Mineral Resources of India

MINERALS	<u>DEPOSITS</u>	
Chromite	Orissa, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Tamil Nadu and Manipur.	
Bauxite	Orissa, Andhra Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Gujarat, Maharashtra and Jharkhand.	

Copper	Singhbhum (Jharkhand), Balaghat (Madhya Pradesh) and Jhunjhunu and Alwar (Rajasthan).	
Iron Ore	1. Haematite resources are located in Orissa, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Karnataka, Goa, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan. 2. Magnetite resources are located in Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Goa, Kerala, Jharkhand, Rajasthan and Tamil Nadu.	
Lead/Zinc	Rajasthan, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Orissa, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Tamil Nadu and Sikkim.	
Manganese	Main reserves fall in Karnataka, followed by Orissa, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra and Goa. Minor occurrences of manganese are in Andhra Pradesh, Jharkhand, Gujarat, Rajasthan and West Bengal.	
Tungsten	The main reserves are at Degana, Rajasthan. It also occurs in Maharashtra, Haryana, West Bengal and Andhra Pradesh.	
Dolomite	Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Orissa, Gujarat, Karnataka, West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh and Maharashtra.	
Gypsum	Production of gypsum is confined to Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Jammu and Kashmir, and Gujarat. Rajasthan is the main producer of gypsum followed by Jammu and Kashmir.	
Graphite	Andhra Pradesh, Jharkhand, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan and Tamil Nadu.	
Limestone	Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Andhra Pradesh, and Gujarat: Rajasthan, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra, Himachal Pradesh, Orissa, Bihar, Uttaranchal and Uttar Pradesh.	
Magnesite	Uttaranchal, Tamil Nadu and Rajasthan while minor deposits are in Jammu and Kashmir, Karnataka, Himachal Pradesh and Kerala.	

4. Mineral and Ore

Mineral

A mineral is a naturally occurring inorganic substance having a definite chemical composition and characteristic physical properties.

Examples: Quartz, calcite, hematite, magnetite.

Ore

An ore is a naturally occurring mineral or aggregate of minerals from which a valuable metal can be extracted economically and profitably using available technology.

Examples:

Hematite → iron ore

Chalcopyrite → copper ore

Bauxite → aluminium ore

Difference between Mineral and Ore

Mineral

Naturally occurring inorganic substance. Mineral deposit from which a metal can be economically extracted.

May or may not have economic value. Has sufficient economic value for extraction.

Can contain valuable or non-valuable minerals. Contains valuable mineral along with gangue.

5. Types of Ores

Ores can broadly be classified into:

Metallic ores

Non-metallic ores

5.1 Metallic Ores

Metallic ores contain minerals from which metals can be extracted.

Iron ores

Hematite (Fe_2O_3)

Magnetite (Fe_3O_4)

Limonite

Siderite

Copper ores

Chalcopyrite (CuFeS_2)

Chalcocite (Cu_2S)

Cuprite (Cu_2O)

Malachite

Gold ores

Gold commonly occurs as native gold, often associated with quartz and sulphide minerals.

Other metallic ores

Bauxite $\rightarrow$ Aluminium

Galena (PbS) $\rightarrow$ Lead

Sphalerite (ZnS) $\rightarrow$ Zinc

Chromite (FeCr_2O_4) $\rightarrow$ Chromium

Pyrolusite (MnO_2) $\rightarrow$ Manganese

5.2 Non-Metallic Ores/Mineral Resources

Non-metallic minerals do not serve primarily as sources of metals.

Limestone

Mainly composed of calcium carbonate (CaCO_3).

Uses:

Cement manufacture

Lime production

Construction

Flux in metallurgy

Phosphate minerals

Mainly contain phosphate minerals such as apatite.

Uses:

Fertilizer production

Phosphoric acid production

Chemical industries

Other non-metallic minerals

Mica – electrical and insulation applications

Gypsum – cement and plaster

Dolomite – refractory and flux applications

Graphite – electrodes and refractories

Silica – glass and foundry industries

6. Scope and Objectives of Ore Dressing

Definition of Ore Dressing

Ore dressing, also called mineral processing, is the process of separating the valuable mineral from the unwanted gangue materials by using mainly physical and sometimes physicochemical methods.

Main objectives

To increase the concentration of valuable minerals.

To remove unwanted gangue materials.

To obtain a concentrate suitable for extraction.

To improve the recovery of valuable minerals.

To reduce the quantity of material sent to metallurgical processes.

To reduce transportation, fuel and processing costs.

To improve the efficiency of subsequent extraction processes.

To recover useful minerals from low-grade ores.

Scope of Ore Dressing

The major operations include:

Crushing → Grinding → Screening → Classification → Concentration → Dewatering

Common concentration methods include:

Gravity separation

Magnetic separation

Electrostatic separation

Froth flotation

Dense-medium separation

7. Physical and Chemical Properties of Ores and Their Application in Mineral Dressing

Different minerals have different physical and chemical properties. These differences are used to separate valuable minerals from gangue.

A. Physical Properties

1. Specific Gravity / Density

Different minerals have different densities.

Application:

Used in gravity separation.

Example: Heavy minerals can be separated from lighter gangue using shaking tables, jigs and spiral concentrators.

2. Magnetic Properties

Some minerals are strongly attracted to a magnetic field, while others are weakly magnetic or non-magnetic.

Application:

Used in magnetic separation.

Example: Magnetite can be separated from non-magnetic gangue using magnetic separators.

3. Electrical Conductivity

Minerals differ in their ability to conduct electricity.

Application:

Used in electrostatic separation.

Conducting and non-conducting particles can be separated using an appropriate electric field.

4. Size and Shape

Mineral particles can differ in size and shape after crushing and grinding.

Application:

Used in screening and classification.

Screening separates particles according to size.

Classification separates particles according to settling behaviour, which depends on size, density and

shape.

5. Hardness

Different minerals have different resistance to scratching and abrasion.

Application:

Useful during crushing and grinding because softer and harder minerals behave differently during size reduction.

It also influences the degree of liberation obtained during grinding.

6. Colour and Lustre

Minerals may have different colours and surface appearances.

Application:

Can assist in hand sorting and optical/automated sorting.

7. Cleavage and Fracture

Minerals break along particular planes or irregularly depending on their cleavage and fracture characteristics.

Application:

Influences crushing and grinding behaviour and can help achieve selective liberation of valuable minerals.

B. Chemical / Physicochemical Properties

1. Surface Wettability

Some mineral surfaces are naturally water-loving (hydrophilic), while others can be made water-repellent (hydrophobic).

Application:

This property is the basis of froth flotation.

2. Surface Chemical Properties

Different minerals react differently with collectors, activators, depressants and other flotation reagents.

Application:

Used for selective flotation of valuable minerals.

3. Solubility

Minerals differ in their solubility in water or particular chemical solutions.

Application:

Useful in chemical or hydrometallurgical separation processes and in some mineral-processing operations.

4. Chemical Reactivity

Different minerals react differently with acids, alkalis and other chemicals.

Application:

Used for selective dissolution or chemical treatment of minerals.

5. Oxidation-Reduction Behaviour

Minerals can differ in their tendency to oxidize or reduce.

Application:

Important in flotation and in the treatment of sulphide and oxide ores.

UNIT OPERATIONS (ORE DRESSING)

Distinction between Mineral and Ore

<u>MINERAL</u>	<u>ORE</u>
● Minerals are naturally occurring inorganic solid compounds with crystalline structure and a definite range of chemical. ● All Minerals are not ore. ● Clay is a mineral of aluminum.	● Ore is the rock form which the metal is extracted in a convenient and economically way. ● All ores are mineral. ● Bauxite is the main ore of aluminum.

UNIT:02 SIZE REDUCTION

Importance of Comminution in Mineral Processing

Comminution is the process of reducing the size of mineral particles by crushing and grinding. It is one of the most important operations in mineral processing because valuable minerals are usually locked within a matrix of unwanted gangue minerals.

Importance

- 1.Liberation of valuable minerals
 - 2.Comminution breaks the ore into smaller particles so that valuable minerals become physically separated, or liberated, from gangue.
 - 3.Improves concentration efficiency
 - 4.Properly sized and liberated particles can be efficiently separated by methods such as gravity separation,
 - 5.magnetic separation, flotation, and electrostatic separation.
 - Increases surface area
 - 6.Grinding produces finer particles and greatly increases their surface area, which is particularly important for flotation and leaching.
 - 7.Prepare ore for further processing
 - 8.Ore must generally be reduced to a suitable size before beneficiation, extraction, or chemical treatment.
 - 9.Improves recovery of valuable minerals
 - 10.Adequate size reduction increases the probability of separating valuable minerals from gangue, thereby
- Size reduction occurs when an applied force produces stress within a particle that exceeds the particle's strength, causing it to fracture. The main mechanisms are:

1. Compression

The particle is subjected to compressive forces between two surfaces.

Causes the particle to fracture mainly by crushing.

Produces relatively coarse products.

Common in jaw crushers, gyratory crushers, and cone crushers.

Example: A piece of ore squeezed between the jaws of a jaw crusher.

2. Impact

A sudden force is applied to the particle, producing a high rate of loading and causing fracture.

Effective for brittle materials.

Produces relatively fine particles.

Common in impact crushers and hammer mills.

Example: Ore particles struck by rapidly rotating hammers.

3. Attrition

Size reduction occurs because of rubbing or friction between particles or between particles and the grinding surface.

Produces fine particles.

Important in grinding operations.
Common in ball mills and stirred mills.

Example: Particles rubbing against each other as they move inside a grinding mill.

4. Shear

The particle is subjected to forces acting in opposite directions, causing it to break by shearing.

Particularly useful for materials that are weak along certain planes.
Can produce fine particles.

5. Cleavage

A particle breaks along a preferred crystallographic or structural plane where the material is relatively weak.

Depends strongly on the mineral's crystal structure.
Can produce relatively clean fractures.

CRUSHING

Gangue:-Unwanted particles or worthless portion of ore is known as gangue.

Comminution of anyone is carried out in several stages using different crushing equipments.
So the objective crushing is to reduce the large lumps into smaller sizes. Depending upon the feed and product particle size, the crushing operation can be classified as follows:

1. **Primary crushing:** The feed material is usually the run of mine.
2. **Intermediate crushing or secondary crushing:** The feed material is usually product of a jaw crusher.
3. **Fine crushing or coarse grinding:** The feed material is usually comes from the secondary crushers.
4. **Fine Grinding:** The objective of fine grinding is to produce ultra fine material less than one micron.

■ **Mechanism of Size Reduction:** Crushing is a mechanical operation in which has force of large magnitude is applied to a relatively brittle solid material in such a direction that its failure takes place. The theory of size reduction for solids is quite complex, but can be attributed to the action of following forces acting on the particle:

1. A huge compressive force exceeding the ultimate strength of the material may be responsible for size reduction as actually happens in case of jaw, gyratory and roll crushers.
2. A sufficiently high impact force may be responsible for size reduction. Impact force is largely utilized in hammer & ball mills.

3. Attrition, rubbing action or frictional forces may be utilized for size reduction. Such action is largely responsible for crushing in attrition mill, tube and pebble mills.
4. Cutting force is utilized in knife edge mill to reduce the size of fibrous materials like mica, asbestos.

Basic Requirements of Crushing Equipment's:

An ideal crusher or grinder should have the following characteristics:

- a. It should have a large capacity.
- b. It should require a small (energy) input per unit weight of production.
- c. It should yield a product of uniform size or in the required size range.

Classification of the Size Reduction Equipment's:

(In The Order Of Finer Size Product)

A. Primary Crushers:

1. Jaw crusher.
2. Gyratory crusher.

B. Intermediate crushers:

1. Crushing rolls.
2. Cone crusher.
3. Disc crusher.

C. Fine crushers or Coarse Grinders:

1. Ball Mill.

D. Fine Grinders:

1. Rod mill.
2. Pebble mill.
3. Tube mill.
4. Hammer mill with internal classifier.

• Primary crushers are of two types:

1. Jaw crusher.
2. Gyratory crusher.

Classification of Jaw Crushers:

From capacity and working mechanism point of view jaw crushers are three types such as:

1. Blake crusher.
2. Dodge crusher.
3. Universal crusher.

The functional figure of different jaw crushers are as shown schematically in the figure.

BLAKE JAW CRUSHER

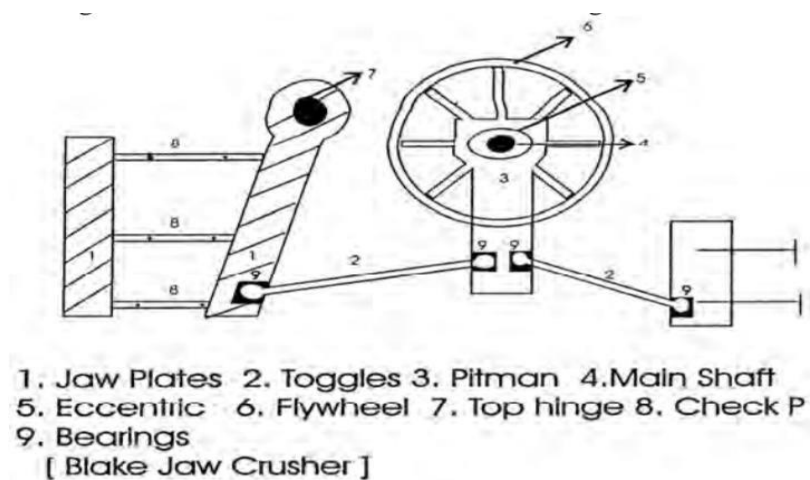
It is a primary crusher used most widely. It has its moving jaw pivoted (hinged). Though the working principles of Blake and Dodge crushers may be different from constructional point of view they are almost identical excepting two notable differences which will be discussed afterward. The Blake crusher may be classified as single toggle or double toggle type.

Application of Blake Jaw Crusher

It is used for reducing run-of-mine ore or coal to a size small enough to be taken by the next crusher in the series during the first stage of crushing.

Technical Specifications

1. Toggle Type: Single or double toggle



2. Feed size: 100mm

3. Product Size: (5-15)mm

4. Capacity: 20-30kg/hr.

5. Jaw Type: One fixed jaw and one movable jaw with Mn steel liner. Provisions for output gap adjustment is available.

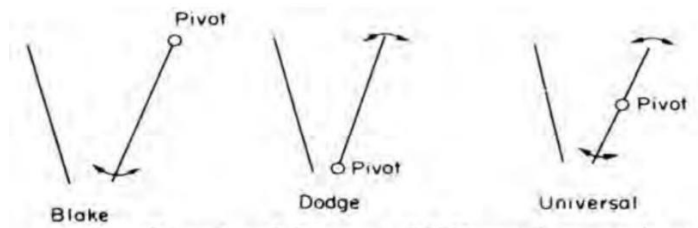


Fig-- Functional figures of different jaw crushers.

6. Feed materials: Coal, iron ore, Mn ore, Chromite ore, Rock, Mg ore, Aluminium ore etc.

7. Motor capacity: Preferably with (415-440)V/3Ph/50Hz electric supply, and on site isolator switch

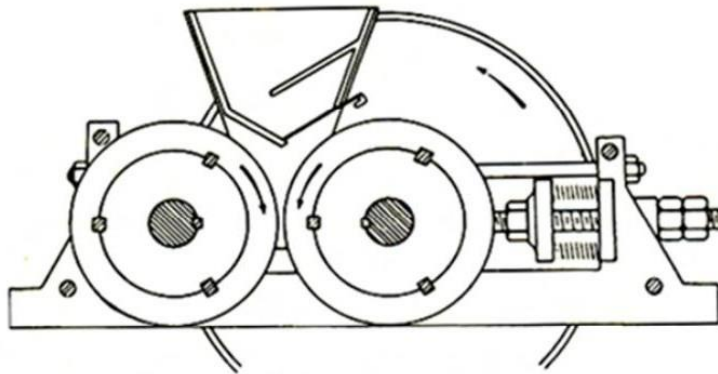
Comparison between Blake & Dodge Crusher:

<u>BLAKE JAW CRUSHER</u>	<u>DODGE JAW CRUSHER</u>
1. It has got two toggles.	1. It has one toggle in the form of a lever
2. It has one pitman	2. It has no pitman
3. The movable jaw is pivoted at the top, so has a variable product discharge opening while feed receiving opening is fixed.	3. The movable jaw is pivoted at the bottom so the discharge opening is fixed. The set is fixed, while the feed receiving opening varies. This results in almost uniform sized product.
4. No choking takes place here as it has variable discharge. It operates on principle of forced feed.	4. Choking is a very common problem as the set is quite small compared to receiving opening.
5. This crusher is mechanically more balanced and has fewer breakdowns. Further it is built for much larger capacity.	5. Mechanically the design of this crusher is inferior. So it is built only for lower capacity. This machine has more breakdowns as compared to the other.
6. Product size distribution is large & produces more fines.	6. Product size distribution is more uniform.
7. Blake is preferred at large industrial setups where elaborate screening facility is available along with other comminution machines.	7. A Dodge is preferred where jaw crusher is to be used as the only comminution equipment.
8. This machine is of higher cost for same output.	8. This machine is cheaper for same output.
9. Because of forced feed lubrication it yields a coarser product.	9. As choke feeding is possible, it can yield a much finer product.

Crushing Rolls:

- Consist of two heavy cylindrical rolls revolving/rotating towards each other
- Rolls are made of wear resisting cast Hadfield manganese steel
- Roll centers are at the same height separated by a distance.
- Crushing occurs by compressive force.
- Rolls turn towards each other at the same speed to avoid slip.
- Rolls are 300mm diameter and 600mm long.
- Roll speed is 50-300rpm
- Feed size 12-75mm
- Product size 12-20mm.

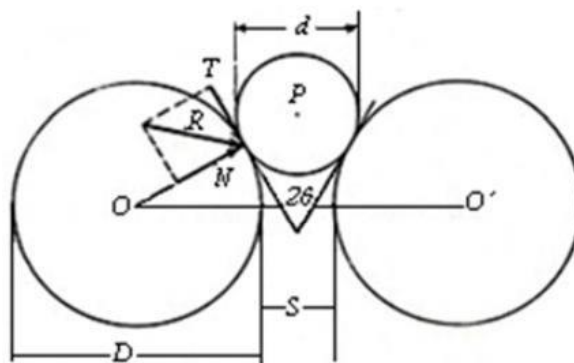
CRUSHING ROLL



ANGLENIPOFA CRUSHER

It is defined as the angle subtended between the two tangents drawn at the points of contact of the rolls and the particle to be crushed.

1. Roll diameter (D).
2. Particle diameter (d).
3. Interroll distance (S). Assuming the particle to be spherical.
4. Friction factor between the roll & the mineral (μ).



Characteristics of the Crushing Rolls:

1. It has a reduction ratio ($r.r$) is around 3-4 only which is very low compared to other size reduction equipment.
2. It yields a uniform sized product.

3. The product of the crushing rolls contains fewer fines as the massification time is limited and no repeated crushing takes place.

4. Capacity:

Capacity of the roll crusher depends on the following factors:

i. Speed of revolution (N).

ii. Width of the faces (W).

iii. Diameter of the rolls (D).

iv. Set (S), the interroll distance

v. Specific gravity of rock (ρ) lb/in³

6. Rolls can be operated either wet or dry. Dry crushing has a lower output but causes lesser wear of the rolls.

5. It is best operated on choke feeding for maximum output. In open feeding the output is less.

Uses:

The rolls are most suitable in effecting only a smaller size reduction in a single operation. Therefore, it is common to employ a number of pair of rolls in series to achieve higher reduction ratio. Crushing rolls are extensively used in crushing oil seeds, gun powder and coal because of lower residence time of the feed as lower residence time reduces the effect of heat on the feed material.



Laws of Crushing

The laws of crushing describe the relationship between the energy required for size reduction and the size of the particles. The three important laws are:

1. Rittinger's Law

Rittinger's law states that the energy required for size reduction is proportional to the new surface area produced.

$$E \propto \left(\frac{1}{D_2} - \frac{1}{D_1} \right)$$

or

$$E = K_R \left(\frac{1}{D_2} - \frac{1}{D_1} \right)$$

Where:

- E = energy required
- D_1 = initial particle size
- D_2 = final particle size
- K_R = Rittinger's constant

Application: Mainly applicable to fine grinding, where a large amount of new surface area is created.

2. Kick's Law

Kick's law states that the energy required for size reduction is proportional to the logarithm of the size reduction ratio.

$$E = K_K \ln \left(\frac{D_1}{D_2} \right)$$

Where:

- K_K = Kick's constant
- D_1/D_2 = size reduction ratio

Application: Mainly applicable to coarse crushing, where relatively little new surface area is produced.

3. Bond's Law

Bond proposed that the energy required for size reduction is proportional to the new crack length produced, and lies between the concepts of Kick and Rittinger.

The commonly used Bond equation is:

$$E = 10W_i \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{P}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{F}} \right)$$

Where:

- E = energy required, usually in kWh/tonne
- W_i = Bond's work index
- P = 80% passing size of product
- F = 80% passing size of feed

Application: Widely used for crushing and grinding equipment design and power calculations.

BALL MILL

Classification of Ball Mills:

Ball mills can be classified according to the

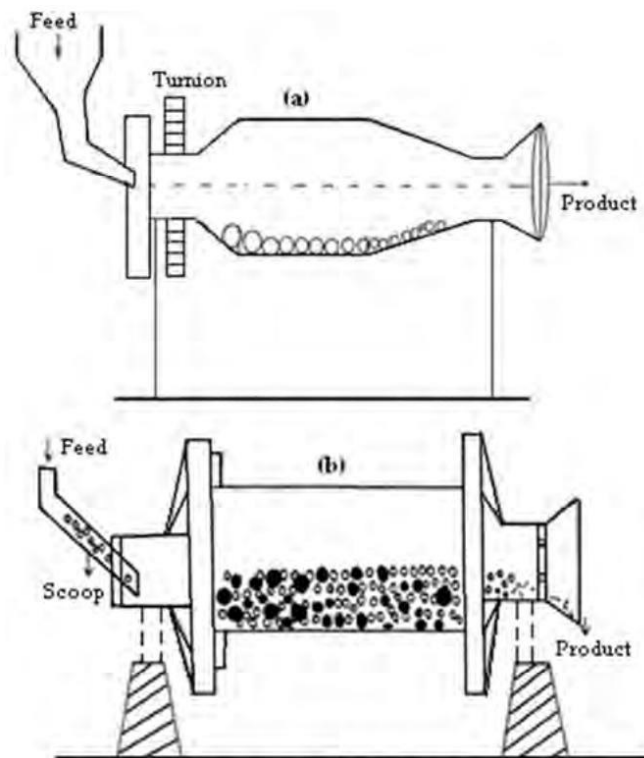
- a. Shape of the mill.
- b. Method of discharge of the ground ore.
- c. Whether the grinding is conducted dry or wet.

Shape of the Mills:

According to the shape the mills are classified as:

1. Cylindro-conical mills: Harding mill (where feed & discharge ends are fixed).

2. Cylindrical mills. This represents the usual ball mills.

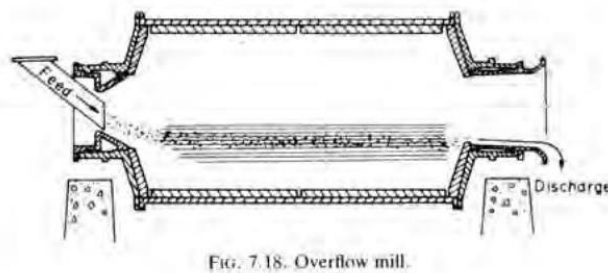
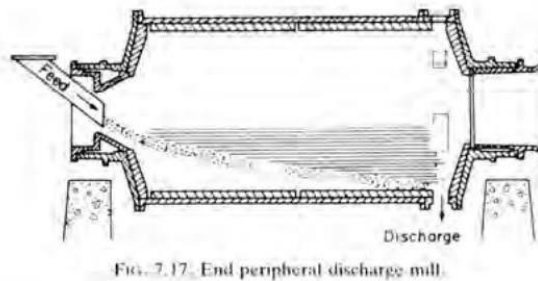
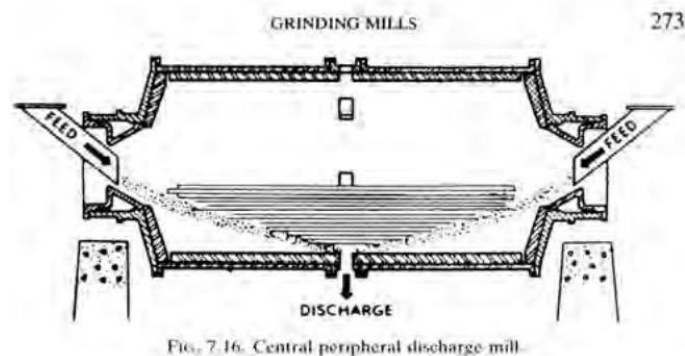


2. Method of Discharge:

Cylindrical mills are also classified according to the mode of product discharge taking place from the mill. According to the discharge method mills are classified as:

- a. Peripheral discharge mill: Discharge of the ground product takes place through meshed cylindrical shell.
- b. Grate mill: Discharge of the ground product takes place through a screen extending as a diaphragm across the full section of the mill at the discharge end.

c. Overflow mill: Discharge of the ground product takes place by free overflow from the axis of the mill.



Theory of Ball Mill Operation:

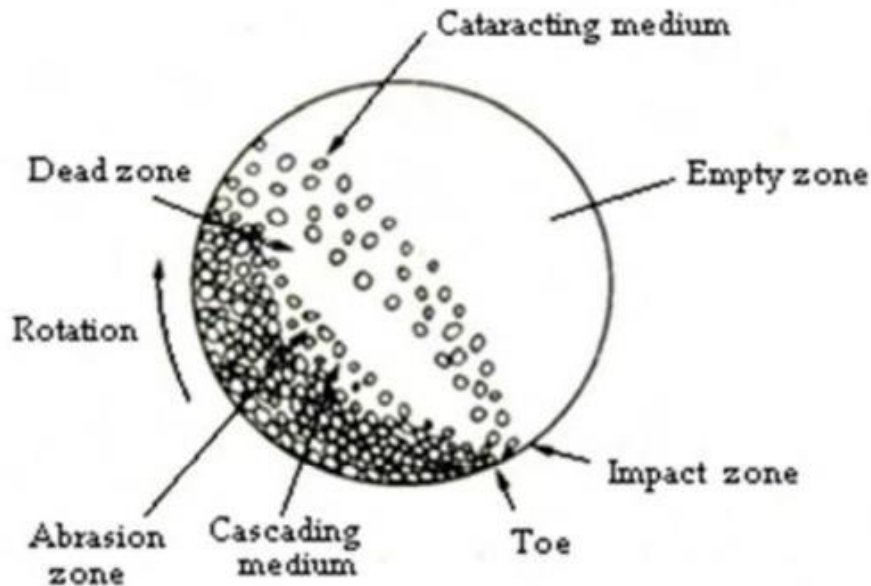
Ball mills may be continuous or batch type in which grinding media and the ore to be ground are rotated around the axis of the mill. Due to the friction between the liners—balls & liners—ore lumps, both the ore and balls are carried up along the inner wall of the shell nearly to the top from where the grinding media fall down on the ore particles below creating a heavy impact on them. This usually happens at the toe of the ball mill.

The energy expended in lifting up the grinding media is thus utilized in reducing the size of the particles as the rotation of the mill is continued. In fact the grinding process is attributed to three different stages of ball mill working. They are:

- a. Cascading (attrition between the balls and particles).
- b. Cataracting (impact of the ball on the particles).

c. Centrifuging.

All these stages of working are shown schematically in below



CASCADING:-Grinding occurs due to attrition, and balls will not be carried up along the inner wall to a greater height, they roll over each other or slip.

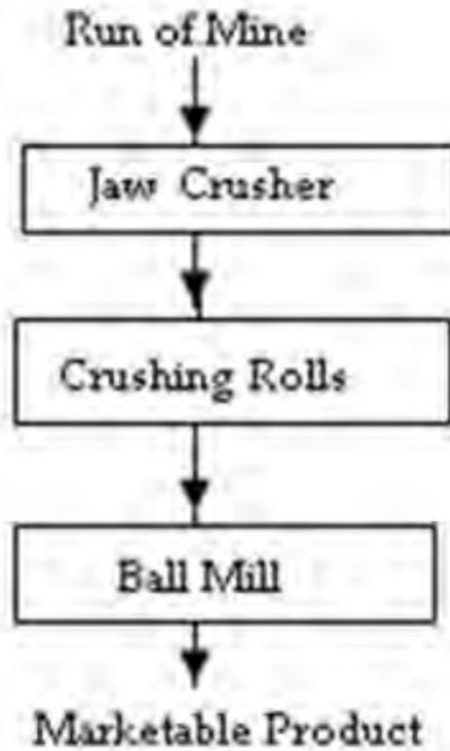
CATARACTING:-If speed increases then balls will be raised to a greater height and fall down and create a large impact, This impact is largely responsible for most of the grinding.

CENTRIFUGING:-If the speed of rotation becomes too high, the balls are carried over and over again all along the inner lining as if they are sticking to the inner wall and there is hardly any grinding. This condition is known as centrifuging of the mill.

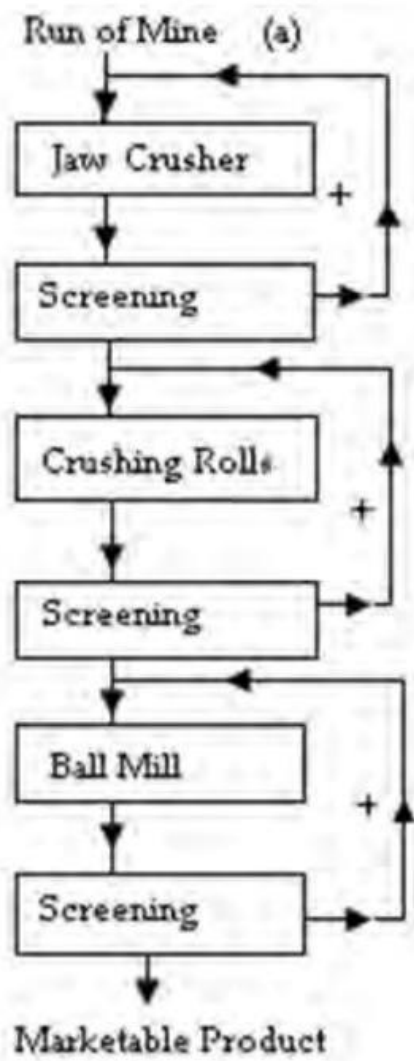
GRINDING

Open Circuit Grinding Operations: The usual meaning of grinding here is comminution and has nothing to do with the product particle size. In many mills the feed is broken into particles of satisfactory size by passing it once through the mill. When no attempt is made to return the over sized particles in the product once again to the crusher for further size reduction the product simply passes-off to the next stage of size reduction.

Such a method of size reduction at various stages till the desired product is obtained is termed as open circuit grinding. A bright example is Dodge crusher operating on choke feeding. This grinding may require excessive amount of power and much of the energy is wasted in regrinding the particles that are already fine enough.



Close Circuit Grinding Operation: In another method the partially crushed material is screened and the oversized material is returned back to the crusher for further crushing and the undersized product is given as the feed to the next machine for further size reduction. If such a method is followed in all successive crushers till the desired product is obtained it is termed as closed circuit grinding. This method of grinding operation is generally adopted as such a process has been found to be economical making full capacity utilization of all equipments efficiently. This process avoids unnecessary regrinding.



UNIT:02 SIZING AND CONCENTRATION METHODS

LABORATORY SIZING TECHNIQUE

Introduction

Size analysis of various products of a crushing mill constitutes a fundamental part of the laboratory testing procedure. Particle size has a great role to play during reactions between solid-liquid or solid-gas. So the product from the crushing equipment is to be analysed for its size for all practical purposes. Further the size analysis of the product is required to evaluate the energy consumption and the size reduction process it may require for further size reduction.

Particle size and shape

The size of a spherical particle can be defined uniquely by its diameter. However, there is no unique dimension by which the size of an irregular particle can be described. The term most often used to describe an irregular particle is the equivalent diameter ($\bar{D}$). There can be various shapes to describe a particle as discussed below:

1. Accicular: Needle like particles.
2. Angular: Sharp edged polyhedrons.
3. Crystalline: Particles of regular geometric shapes.
4. Fibrous: Regular or irregular thread like particles.
5. Dendritic: Particles having branched crystalline structure.
6. Flaky: Plate like particles.
7. Granular: Equidimensional irregular shaped particles.
8. Irregular: Lack of any symmetry in the particles.
9. Nodular: Particles having rounded irregular shape.

Particle Size:

The crushed ore particles are generally irregular in shape and it is quite difficult to define the size of the particle uniquely. In case of spherical particles, the diameter is the size. For cubes the edges, the long diameter or diameter of a sphere of equal volume may be considered as the size. But for totally irregular particles there is no such standard method. So it is impossible to define what is meant by size of the particle.

Common Methods of Size Analysis:

Particle size is usually defined as the narrowest regular aperture through which mineral particle passes through. Through this definition is applicable to polyhedrons it is not valid for rod shaped narrow particles. Particle size can be determined by various methods as described below table;

Methods	Approximate size range (microns) ($1 \mu m = 10^{-6} m$)
Sieve analysis	100000 - 10
Elutriation	40 – 5.0
Optical microscopy	50 – 0.25
Sedimentation(gravity)	40 – 1.0
Sedimentation(centrifugal)	5 – 0.05
Electron microscopy	1 – 0.005

Microscopic Measurement: For measuring the particle size under microscope, it is customary to sprinkle them on a slide and to measure their diameter in random directions or in any two perpendicular axes within the plane of vision. In both the cases the smallest dimension is neglected. For number of particles the dimension is measured and tabulated as follows:

Number of observations	x_i
1	x_1
2	x_2
$n-1$	x_{n-1}
N	x_n

$$\text{Now average size, } \bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_{n-1} + x_n}{n}$$

2. Elutriation: Elutriation is based on the fact that a particle will just be sustained in an upward rising current of water or any other fluid if the velocity of the water current is equal to that which the particle would attain when falling in still water. This works on the principle of Stoke's law of settling.

3. Sieve Analysis: This is the most important method of sizing the mineral particles. This is widely used to determine the efficiency of size reduction operations and also used as a yardstick for assessing the fineness of a ground product. As sieve analysis has been the most important method of size analysis it has become pertinent to discuss about the standard screens British Standard Sieves:

British standard sieves:-

In the British system a screen is designated with a number called mesh number and the aperture of screen opening is termed as mesh size. Mesh number is defined as the number of square openings available per linear inch length on the screen surface. If the screen has 4

openings per linear inch length of the screen surface then the mesh number of the screen is 4. Likewise we have screens of 20, 40 ... 200, 270 and 400 mesh number. When mesh number increases aperture of the screen opening decreases and vice versa. or sieves used worldwide for the purpose.

ASTM Standard Sieve Series:

Mesh Number	Aperture (in mm)	Mesh Number	Aperture (in mm)
3	6.680	35	0.417
4	4.699	48	0.295
6	3.362	65	0.208
8	2.362	100	0.147
10	1.651	150	0.104
14	1.168	200	0.074
20	0.833	270	0.052
28	0.589	400	0.037

Screen Analysis Equipment: For sieve analysis, screening is usually carried out in a mechanised sieve shaker called Ro-tap sieve shaker. Ro-Tap Sieve Shaker: Figure 3.2. shows the Ro-tap machine schematically. It consists of a movable cage with a base *a* and a top plate *b* between which 13 half height or 7 full height sieves with pan and cover lid can be mounted. The mounted sieves are subjected to rotary shifting motion while at the same time the lever *c* strikes the top plate once per revolution. This striking vibrates the screen cloth for better screening. A timer switch with the motor is used to control the time duration of screening. The machine is so designed that it performs the most ideal screening operation within the specified time period.

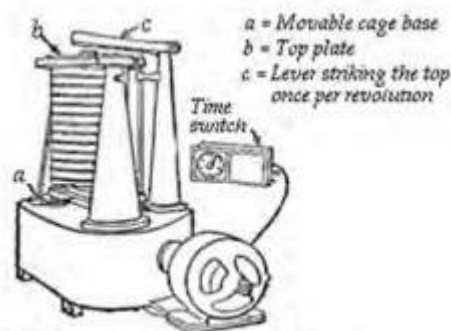
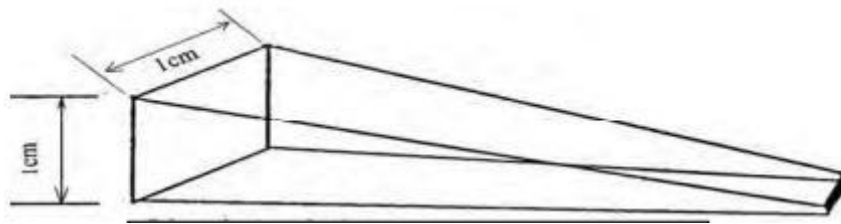


Fig 3.2. Rotap Sieve Shaker.

WILFLEY TABLE

Principle of Wilfley Table

- The velocity of the fluid is not the same at all depths of the fluid film.
- The variation in fluid velocity happens due to the viscosity of the fluids.
- Flowing fluid film can effectively separate coarse light particles from the heavy small particles.
- During tabling larger spherical particles move faster than the finer irregular particles down the stream during tabling.
- Tabling takes place on an inclined shaking table which is known as Wilfley table.
- Flat plane surface is called DECK.
- Table is shaken asymmetrically.
- The lighter gangue materials are thrown into the suspension and are discharged out over the edge of the table opposite to the feed box by the wash water.
- Speed of the table (200–300) strokes/min.
- Stroke Length (12–15) mm
- Finer feed material → Higher speed → Smaller stroke length.



- $\frac{2}{3}$ rd of total surface area of table is cleated/riffled and rest $\frac{1}{3}$ rd portion is unriffled.

-

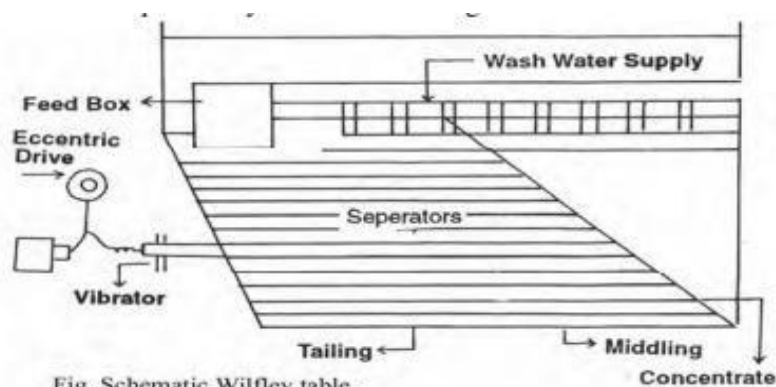


Fig. Schematic Wilfley table.

- Thenormalinclinationinboththedirectionsislimitedto0-3degrees.Foramajorityof ores a slope of 0.75-1.25 degrees is used.

Cost of Operation.

- Power 0.5 ----- -- 0.8 Kw/hr
- Repairing, cost of cleats & deck as and when required.

Important Use of Wilfley Table:

- It is widely used to concentrate cassiterite or tin ore.
- It is widely used to concentrate free milled gold ores.
- It is widely used for beneficiation of non-metallics like glass sand and sand.
- It is widely used for beneficiation of chromite and tungsten ores.
- It is widely used to recover the part of galena and sphalerite in coarse aggregate of lead-zinc ores. 5. It is widely used for cleaning fine coal.
- It is widely used for beneficiation of some iron ores.
- It is adopted as a pilot and guide to flotation plants.

JIGGING:-

Jigging is one of the most ancient methods of ore concentration. It is a special form of hindered settling resulting in stratification of particles into layers of different specific gravities followed by removal of the stratified layers. The stratification is achieved by repeatedly affording an opportunity to a very thick suspension of mixed particles to settle for a short time.

Principles of Jigging: The three physical factors responsible for stratification of particles during jigging are:

- a. Hindered settling classification.
- b. Differential acceleration at the beginning of the fall.
- c. Consolidation trickling at the end of the fall.

Hindered settling classification:

The essential difference in hindered settling in jigs and classifiers is that in jigging the solid - fluid mixture is very thick and it approximates to a loosely packed bed of solids with interstitial fluid flowing through the particles rather than fluid carrying the solid particles with it happens in the case of classifiers. The thick solid-fluid suspension used in jigs cannot be maintained for a long length of time and also doesn't allow sufficient play between the particles for their complete rearrangement. As the jigs produce a fluidized bed for few seconds, it offers an open bed alternatively and particle rearrangement takes place during that time period only. Other parameters remaining same higher settling ratios are obtainable in jigs compared to classifiers.

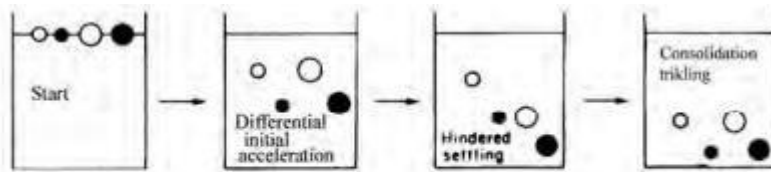


Fig.7.1. Effect of Hindered Settling During Jigging.

Jigging Cycles: Short falls are to be realized in jigs for stratification to occur. This is obtained by pulsation and suction of water or any other fluid through a bed of ground ore held on a perforated grate or sieve. During pulsation & suction the fluid moves up and downward respectively with reference to a stationary point. Fig.7.3. Consolidation Trickling. 99 During pulsation the ore bed expands while during suction the bed gets compacted. Most jigs use bath pulsation & suction, but in some jigs the suction is avoided. The plot of fluid velocity with respect to time describing a full cycle of pulsation and suction is termed as jigging cycle.

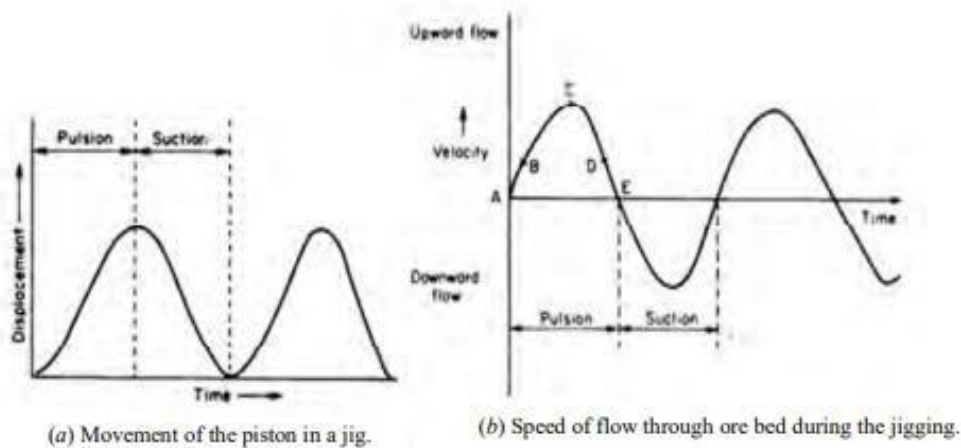


Fig.7.4. A Schematic Jigging Cycle.

Different jigging cycles:

Jigging cycle is said to consist of pulsation and suction. Below figure shows several jigging cycles schematically.

- Type A & B use pulsation only.
- Type C & D use pulsation and suction both being symmetrical.
- Type E is asymmetrical pulsation and suction.
- Type F is symmetrical but unequal suction and pulsation.

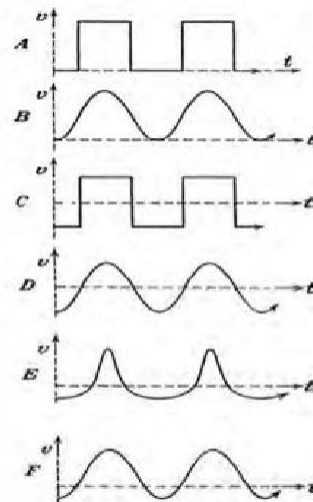


Fig.7.5. Several Idealized Jigging Cycles.

Classification of Jigs

Jigs are classified into two types:

- a. Hand jig.
- b. Mechanical jig.

Hand jig:

This is the simplest of all jigs which consists of a framed sieve held by hands and is actuated by the operator with a reciprocating vertical motion. In general a perforated cylindrical shape container is used. After filling up the vessel with minerals up to the desired level it is closed tightly. With a rope and pulley arrangement it is made to move up and down in a water tank to attain the condition of pulsation and suction of water in the mineral bed. As the process is continued or repeated for several times complete stratification takes place. This jig is mainly used in the laboratory to demonstrate the effect of jigging operation.

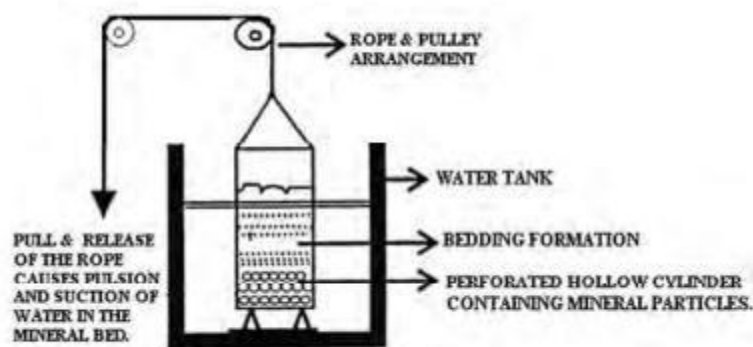


Fig. Laboratory Hand Jig.

Mechanical jigs:

Mechanical Jigs are of various types. But regardless of type they are essentially composed of:

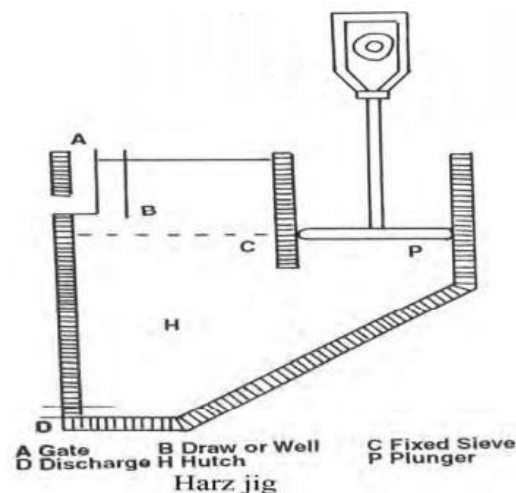
- i. shallow open tank containing a screen-bottom on which ore is supported.
- ii. A hydraulic water chamber or hutch.
- iii. A reciprocating system for pulsation and suction of water through the screen.

Typical Mechanical Jig:

There are different mechanical jigs such as:

1. Fixed sieve plunger jig.
2. Fixed sieve Pulsator jig.
3. Pneumatic or Baum jig.

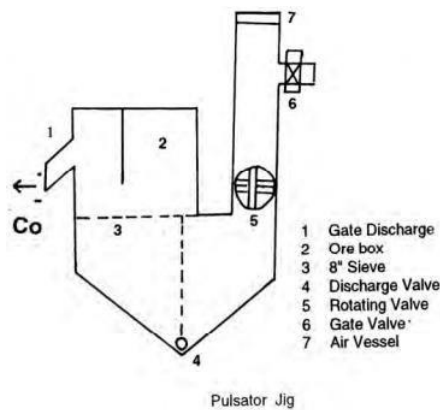
Fixed Sieve Plunger Jig (Harz Jig): The harz jig has a fixed sieve. The jigging motion is obtained by plunger, P reciprocating in a compartment adjoining the sieve compartment, C. The bottom layer (usually the concentrate) is removed through the gate, A. The upper layer (usually tailings) is discharged at the end away from the feed. Working: The crushed & graded ore is held on the sieve, C. Water is held in the hutch, when the plunger is pushed down water rushes up and when the plunger is moved up, water rushes down through the mineral bed held on the screen. 104 When water moves up it imparts a pulsation and when water moves down it imparts suction to the mineral bed. So both pulsation and suction takes place alternatively resulting in jigging. Jigging duration ranges from 0.2 to 0.6 sec (100- 300 cycles per minute).



2. Plunger Jig: The plunger jig consists of a forebox of size 24'' x 8'' x 6'' fitted to one half of the tank and then plunger is fixed in the other half. The plunger is made to move up and down by mechanical arrangement. The bifurcation board between the jigging and plunger section at the centre extends sufficiently below the jigging sieve to ensure even arrival of water impulses at the sieve. Sieve plays an important role in jigging. Different types of jigs are used for different materials. Smaller materials use woven wire sieves, average sized material use punch plates while larger sized materials need barred grates.

3. Pulsator jigs: In this class of jig there is no suction stroke. The jigging is due to impulses of water flowing under pressure from the water service point. These impulses are obtained by

placing a rotating device in the water service line. The number of impulses is around 200/minute. This type of jig can handle around 100 tons/sq. foot/day.



4. Diaphragm Jigs: Bendelari diaphragm jig is the most popular diaphragm jig used worldwide. This jig is an improved version of Harz type jig. In this case a diaphragm is used in place of plunger to produce pulsion and suction of water in the ore bed held on the sieve. The mineral separation is rapid compared to Harz jig. Constructional features of this jig are shown schematically in the figure.

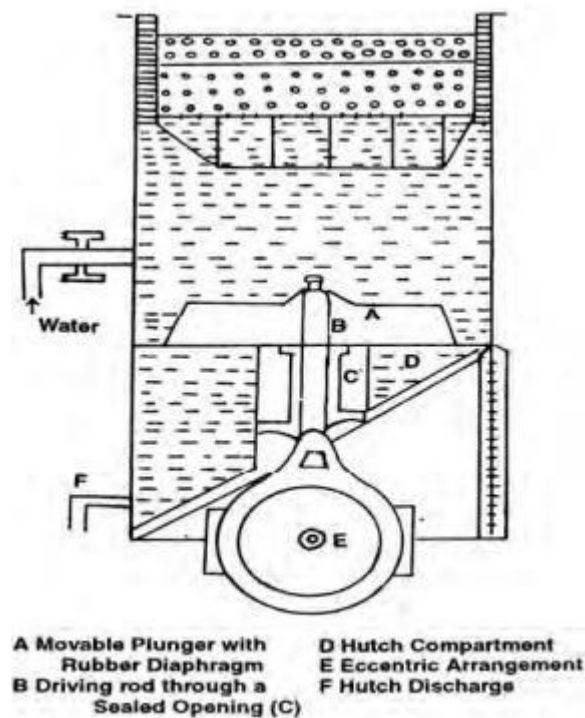


Fig. Bendelari Jig

In this case the plunger is sealed to the frame by a rubber diaphragm; hence there is no water leakage around the plunger which is a frequent problem in harz jig. Further the jiggling surface is more accessible in this case as the actuating mechanism is placed at the bottom.

This results in an appreciable saving in floor space and weight. Compared to the Harz jig, the Bendelari jig has a more open bed, larger capacity consumes less water and requires less maintenance. The jigging cycles range from 0.2-0.8 seconds, i.e. 100-160 strokes per minute.

5. Pneumatic or Baum Jigs: Baum jig resembles the plunger jig in construction but differs in the working principle. With little modification it has been in use for the last 150 years. Presently it is extremely popular in coal washing. In this case air under pressure is forced in & out of a large air chamber on one side of the jig vessel causing pulsion and suction to the jig water. This in turn causes pulsion and suction through the crushed coal bed held on the screen. Thus stratification is caused finally. Baum jig has the advantage of handling wide range of sizes with high capacity.

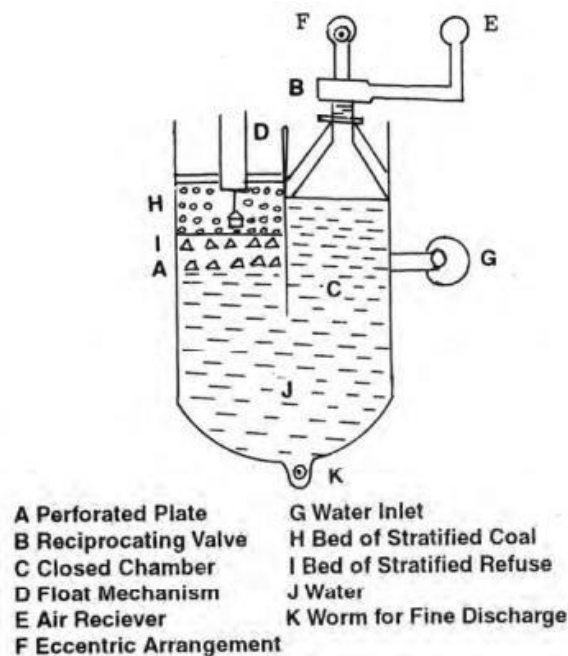


Fig. Baum Jig

Advantages of Jigs:

1. Jigs are primarily used to concentrate coarse-minerals. In coal washing, up to 4 - 5 inches coal pieces can be washed in Jigs. In case of ores, pieces up to 1 inch size can be treated. Hydraulic jigs can wash coal up to 1/8 inch & minerals as fine as 20#. Pneumatic jigs can treat minerals as fine 65# mesh and as coarse as 1-1.5 inches but not in a wider size range.
2. Excluding washing of coal, it is used widely to beneficiate non-magnetic iron ores.
3. Jigs are cheap to operate and substantially foolproof and offers an easy access for inspection.

Limitations of Jigs:

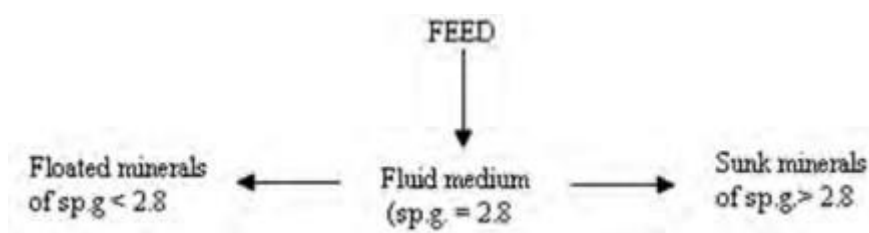
- Jigs are obsolete for sulphide ores.
- It requires large amount of water during ore beneficiation.
- Fines cannot be treated in jigs. Jigging is applicable to the ore that is too coarse for complete liberation.
- Jigs do not provide a complete solution to any mineral beneficiation problem.

HEAVY MEDIA SEPARATION

Introduction:

If a fluid is available whose specific gravity is intermediate between two solids which are to be separated, then one of the simplest processes will be to suspend the mixed mass in that fluid. As per law of buoyancy, one of the solids will float at the top of fluid level while the other one will sink to the bottom of the vessel. Then a mechanical arrangement will be required to draw out different products from the top and bottom of the vessel. A typical example can be the separation of wood chips from gravel or sand using water medium.

Principle of Heavy Media Separation: The basic principle involved in the gravity concentration process is the 'Float and Sink'. This is carried out by using a fluid whose specific gravity is in between the specific gravities of the two mixed up minerals particles in the crushed ore. Since most of the minerals are heavier than water, water is not a suitable fluid medium for practicing 'float and sink' method of separation. For this process to be effective, fluids heavier than water are required. The below figure explains the basic principle involved in HMS.



Laboratory Grade Heavy Fluids: Most of the heavy organic liquids are used as heavy fluids and can be used only on a laboratory scale to assess the optimum separation obtainable by gravity concentration. One of the most useful heavy fluids is acetylene tetra bromide whose specific gravity is 2.96. This fluid can be diluted with carbon tetra chloride with sp.g. of 1.59 to yield a series of fluids with a sp.g. varying from 2.96 to 1.59. Another group of useful fluids of low specific gravity is the aqueous solution of zinc chloride (ZnCl_2) and calcium chloride (CaCl_2). High cost of laboratory heavy fluids precludes their employment in industrial applications.

Industrial Grade Heavy Fluids: For industrial application pseudo liquids can be prepared by suspending solids in water. These fluids can be used almost like true liquids provided the particles to be separated are coarser compared to the size of particles used to prepare the medium. This medium is continuously agitated to prevent settling of particles used to form the pseudo fluid but the agitation allows the settling of heavy particles in the crushed ore to be separated. Finely divided quartz, magnetite, galena or ferrosilicon is used for making up the suspension. The above figure Scheme of heavy Media Separation. A range of specific gravity for fluids of commercial interest is 1.3-2. Such fluids are mainly used to separate coal from clay. Pseudo fluids are much cheaper than organic liquids of high specific

gravity, so the cost of fluid loss is not significant. But on the other hand, the use of pseudo fluids is not as simple as that of true fluids.

Heavy Media Separation Circuit: A simple heavy media separation circuit would essentially consist of the followings:

- i. A separating vessel in which heavy suspension is kept with a provision for introducing the feed and withdrawing the product continuously.
- ii. Means to clean the product separated, recover the media and recirculate it to the vessel for further utilization.

Specific Industrial Processes Using Heavy Liquids:

Three different processes have been developed until now using true heavy liquids. The processes are:

1. Lessing Process.
2. Bertrand Process.
3. DuPont Process.

Lessing Process:

Lessing process is used to clean coal in a solution of calcium chloride having an approximate specific gravity of 1.4. It is most useful in separating coal from clay & slate.

Lessing's Settling Tank: Settling takes place in a cylindrical tank of 30 ft height & 6-10 ft diameter with a conical bottom as shown schematically in the figure 6.2. Graded raw coal freed from dust and fines is introduced into the tank through a central pipe to mix up with the separating solution thoroughly. As per "float & sink" principle cleaned coal floats up and is removed from the tank by a chain scraper or any such mechanical arrangement. The slate, shale and sand drop to the conical bottom and are removed by the help of a bucket conveyor. Both cleaned coal and slate are delivered to the draining towers.

After draining, they are washed clean of the CaCl_2 solution. The wash liquor is returned to the concentration tank for recalculation CaCl_2 solution to the settling tank.

320 liters of CaCl_2 liquor is withdrawn from the separating tank after each ton of raw coal cleaned. During cleaning of coal the specific gravity of the parting solution drops to 1.2 from 1.4 due to addition of wash water and inherent moisture in the coal. 320 liters of parting liquid withdrawn from the tank is made-up to 640 liters and concentrated to a volume to yield CaCl_2 87 solution of specific gravity 1.4. Subsequently the solution is recirculated to the separating tank for further cleaning of coal.

FLOTATION

Introduction:

Flotation is the most widely used method of wet concentration of ores for separating the valuable constituent of the ore from the worthless gangue. The process is primarily a surface phenomena based on the adhesion of some mineral particles to air and simultaneous adhesion of other particles to water in the pulp. It is the most efficient but is the most complex of all ore beneficiation processes. In this process adhesion is made between air bubbles and small mineral particles in such a way that they rise in that pulp. The floating mineralized froth is then skimmed off while the other minerals are retained in the pulp. The above fact is known as flotation proper. There is another term called skin flotation.

In general flotation depends on a number of interrelated physico-chemical factors. After treatment with reagents, the air bubbles attach it to the mineral particles and lift them up to the surface of water. The mineral is usually transferred to the froth leaving behind the gangue in the pulp. This is termed as direct flotation. However, during reverse flotation the gangue is separated into the float fraction while the valuable mineral is retained in the pulp.

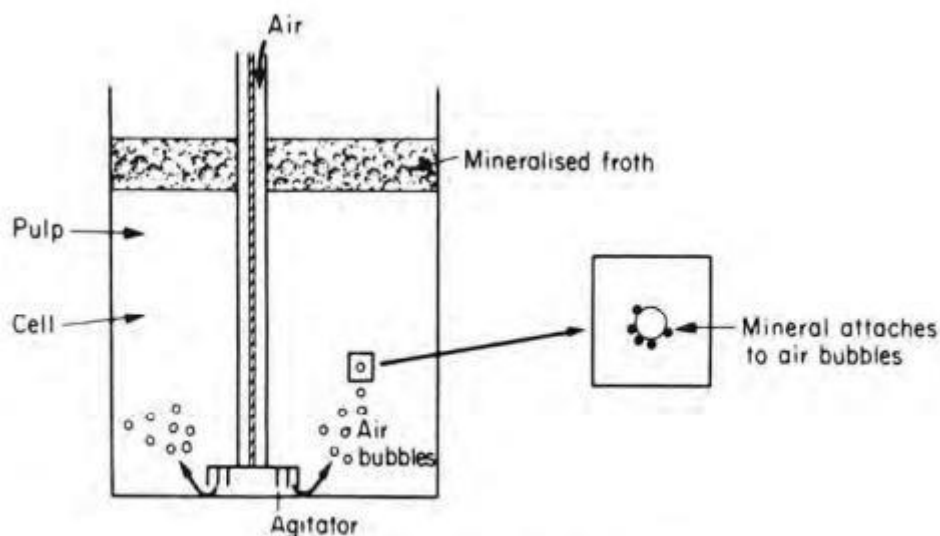


Fig.9.1. Basic Principles of Flotation.

Physico-Chemical Principles of Flotation: Physico-chemical principles of flotation can be explained in terms of surface energy & surface tension, contact angle, polarity and adsorption.

Flotation Reagents:

Froth flotation being a physico-chemical process requires a number of chemical reagents for its successful operation. Broadly the flotation reagents can be classified under following categories:

1. Frothers
2. Collectors
3. Modifiers.

Frothers: Frothers are heteropolar surface active organic reagents, capable of being adsorbed on the air-water interface. The adsorption of frothers at the bubble-water interface reduces the surface tension and stabilizes the air bubble. In the froth bubble, the non-polar group is oriented towards the water phase providing the necessary water repellency to the froth as required. A typical froth bubble is shown schematically in the below figure.

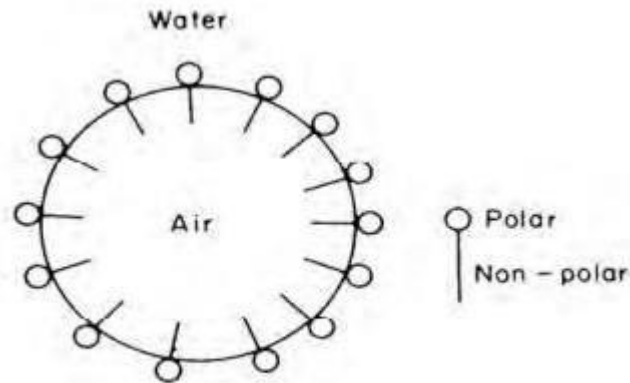


Fig.9.4. Schematic Froth Bubble.

The frothers practically have no effect on the floatability of the mineral particle in the pulp. Production of persistent froth of desired selectivity and durability is of prime importance in successful flotation. The froth should be strong and stable enough to support the weight of the desired mineral attached to it and permits its separation from pulp. On the other hand, the froth should break down readily after its removal from the flotation cell. Most widely used frothers are pine oil, isobutylcarbinol (MIBC), turpeneol, aliphatic alcohols & cresol (cresylic acid).

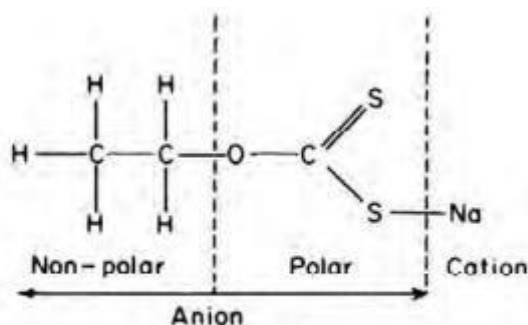
Collectors:

The collector is said to be the most important reagent in flotation. Each collector molecule contains a polar and a non-polar group. It gets adsorbed on the mineral surface and forms a continuous heteropolar film all around the particle.

The heteropolar film is so formed that the polar part is attached to the mineral surface and the non-polar group is projected outwardly providing hydrophobicity to the mineral surface. This results in attachment of mineral particles to the air bubbles available in the pulp and ultimately results in flotation. Collectors are broadly classified according to the chemical nature of the nonpolar part available in them as follows:

1. Anionic collectors
2. Cationic collectors.

Anionic Collectors: These are the most widely used collectors in froth flotation. If the nonpolar part of the collector, which imparts water repellency to the mineral surface, carries a negative charge on it, it is termed as an anionic collector. The structure of an anionic collector is shown schematically in the below figure.



9.5. Structure of an Anionic Collector: Sodium Ethyl Xanthate.

Some typical anionic collectors are:

1. Potassium or sodium methyl xanthate (Xanthogenates),
2. Dithiophosphates (Aerofloats),
3. Thiocarbamates,
4. Fatty acids
5. Sulphonates.

Xanthates, thiocarbamates & dithiophosphates are primarily used to float sulphide minerals while fatty acids and sulphonates are used for nonsulphide minerals.

Cationic Collectors: The characteristic property of this group of collectors is that the nonpolar water repellent group has a positive charge in place of a negative charge as in the case of anionic collectors. The schematic molecular structure of the cationic collector is shown in the figure,

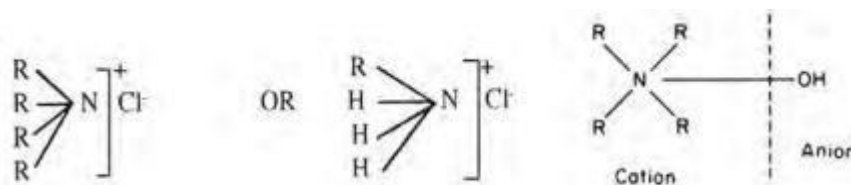


Fig.9.6. Structure of Cationic Collector.

The most general cationic collector is the fatty amine acetate. Cationic collectors are very sensitive to the pH of the pulp. They are most efficient in slightly acidic solutions but inactive in strongly alkaline or acidic media. They are specifically used to float oxides, carbonates and silicate minerals.

4. **Modifiers or Regulators:**

Sometimes it may be necessary to use a modifier before any collector can be made to function effectively. By means of a modifier, it is possible to accomplish the followings:

- a. Utilize collectors under optimum conditions
- b. Prevent or control mutual mineral interaction.
- c. Prevent or control action of atmospheric air or aquatic ingredients at the mineral surfaces.
- d. Modify favourably or adversely the ability of some minerals to acquire floatability.

Due to the action of the diverse chemical reagents tremendous flexibility is achieved with regards to the floatability of the minerals. This is one of the two major reasons behind the success of froth flotation and the other being the applicability of flotation to particles of much finer size on which no other processes can be applied so successfully. Fig.9.6.

Structure of Cationic Collector.

According to their function the modifying agents may be classed into one of the following categories:

- i. pH Regulator.
- ii. Activator.
- iii. Depressant or Depressor.
- iv. Dispersant.

i. pH Regulator:

In the modern froth flotation, alkaline circuits are used almost exclusively for sulphide ores. For any particular ore there is a definite range of pH (7 to 13) at which optimum results are obtained. For this reason proper pH control of the pulp is of great importance: The reagents commonly used to control pH & obtain the desired alkalinity are lime, soda ash and sulfuric acid. But use of sulphuric acid has been highly restricted in the present days.

ii. Activator:

It is not only difficult but also impossible to float certain minerals with collectors and frothers alone. Some times xanthates are found ineffective in floating sphalerite and under such condition an activator is used to obtain the desired floatability of sphalerite. The activator ions are adsorbed at the mineral surfaces and enhance adsorption of collectors at the same surface thereafter. The outstanding example of this type of reagent is copper sulphate (CuSO_4) which is used to activate sphalerite. Hydrogen sulphide (H_2S) or sodium sulphide may be used for galena. Copper carbonate or lead nitrate is used to improve the floatability of various non-metallic minerals with fatty acid type collectors.

iii. Depressant or Depressor:

In some cases to induce selective flotation, it is required to prevent or suppress the flotation of a mineral over another. To achieve such selective flotation, a class of reagents is added to the pulp called depressant or depressor. Depressing agents are used only to assist separation of a mineral from another. The basic mechanism of this activity is that the depressant gets adsorbed at the mineral surfaces and subsequently inhibit the adsorption of

collectors. Beside lime, which works both as a pH controller & depressant the other widely used depressant is sodium cyanide. Sodium cyanide along with zinc sulphate is a depressant for sphalerite. Dichromate salts are used to depress the flotation of galena.

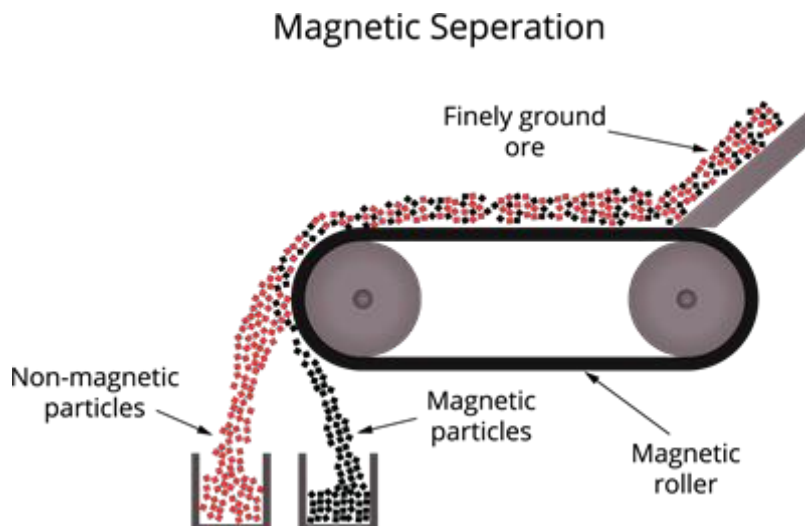
iv. Dispersant:

Sometimes the gangue may have the nature of flocculating along with the minerals. The extent of flocculation may be such that it interferes with the efficient flotation of the desired minerals. Then it becomes imperative to use a dispersant or deflocculator. Sodium silicate is used as a dispersant. Starch, casein and glue are used to disperse both gangue and carbonaceous materials associated with metallic minerals.

MAGNETIC AND ELECTROSTATIC SEPARATOR

Magnetic Separation:-

1. It is the separation of valuable mineral from the gangue.
2. It is the separation of one mineral from another essentially based on the difference in the value of magnetic attractability of the minerals.
3. The ore is magnetic but the gangue is nonmagnetic.
4. The ore is passed over the conveyor belt that runs over 2 rollers, one of which is magnetic.
5. Then nonmagnetic particles drop down first due to the gravity.
6. The magnetic particles will stay on the belt for a little longer time and drop down a little later.



Magnetic separation is the process of separating components of mixtures by using a magnet to attract magnetic substances. The process that is used for magnetic separation separates non-magnetic substances from those which are magnetic. This technique is useful for the select few minerals which are ferromagnetic (iron-, nickel-, and cobalt-containing minerals) and paramagnetic. Most metals, including gold, silver and aluminum, are nonmagnetic.

A large diversity of mechanical means are used to separate magnetic materials. During magnetic separation, magnets are situated inside two separator drums which bear liquids. Due to the magnets, magnetic particles are being drifted by the movement of the drums. This can create a magnetic concentrate (e.g. an ore concentrate).

Elements in Designing Magnetic Separators:

The following facts are essential and to be considered during the designing of a magnetic separator:

1. Production of a suitably converging magnetic field.

2. Easy regulation of magnetic field intensity.
3. Even feeding of ore particle as a stream or ribbon.
4. Controlling the passage speed of ore particles through the magnetic feed.
5. Avoidance of nonmagnetic materials within magnetic field as occlusion.
6. Suitable means to dispose the products.
7. Provision for production of middlings.
8. Elimination or reduction of moving parts to a minimum.

Applications of Magnetic Separation:

1. For removal of tramp iron in coarse and intermediate crushing circuits as a protection to the crushing machineries.
2. To concentrate magnetite ore.
3. To concentrate ores other than magnetite after converting iron ore to magnetite by magnetic roasting.
4. To remove small quantities of iron or iron minerals from the ceramic raw materials.

ELECTROSTATIC SEPARATOR

An electrostatic separator is a device for separating particles by mass in a low energy charged beam. An example is the electrostatic precipitator used in coal-fired power plants to treat exhaust gas, removing small particles that cause air pollution.

Electrostatic separation is a method of concentrating or separating minerals from each other on the basis of their differences in electrical conductivities. The basic principle of electrostatic separation is the coulomb's law which implies like charges repel and unlike charges attract. It was first used to separate zinc ore from lead sulphide ore. However, it was abandoned after introduction of froth flotation. But recently it has got a new lease of life for separating nonmetallics. Electrical concentration can be broadly classified into:

- Electrostatic separation.
- 2. High tension separation.

Theory:

It works on the principle of mutual attraction of unlike charges and mutual repulsion of like charges (Coulomb's law). On the basis of electrostatic charge, a body is said to be positively charged if it is deficient in electrons and is said to be negatively charged if it has excess of electrons. From the electrostatic point, materials can be classified as:

a. Conductor: When electrons are highly mobile in them (Metals).

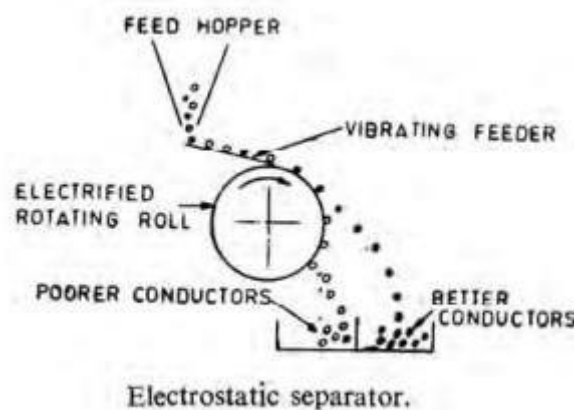
b. Insulators: No mobility of electrons in them (plastics, rubber).

c. Semi-conductor: Higher mobility of electrons in them as compared to insulators but much less conductivity compared to conductors.

Electron mobility increases in all materials when they are placed inside an electrical field. Almost all the metallic ores and minerals gain electron mobility and develop excess electrical charges when they are placed or brought near a strong electrical field. This is due to electrostatic induction. However, the extent of induction will vary over a large range depending on the material. Depending on the extent of induction ore particles can be classified as:

- a. Better conductors.
- b. Poor conductors.

Electrostatic Separator Setup: In electrostatic separation the feed material is brought near a revolving roll which is either permanently electrified or electrified by means of induction. When the feed material touches the roll or comes near the electrified roll it develops an electrostatic charge on its surface by induction, conduction or by friction from charged drum surface. According to the principle of mutual repulsion of similar electrical charges, better conducting materials are repelled away from the roll surface and fall with a trajectory determined by the size & shape of the particle and the speed of the rotating electrified drum. The poor conducting particles move along the roll surface and have a free fall under the force of gravity. The working of an electrostatic separator is shown schematically in the figure.



Requirements for the Proper Working of an Electrostatic Separator:

1. For electrostatic separation, feed materials must be dried prior to separation.
2. For effective separation dry mineral grains are to be fed as a layer of one particle deep at the top of the rotating electrified roll. This is achieved by using a vibrating feeder.
3. For effective high tension separation, feed must be closely sized in the range of 1.0 - 0.1 mm free from fines. Quite often the feed material is to be heated above room temperature for effective separation.

Use

1. It is employed to separate conducting ores and minerals from non-conducting materials in ceramic industries.
2. This is applied for beneficiating rutile beach sands from non-conducting silica sand in rare earth plants. *

UNIT-IV: ADVANCED TOPICS IN MINERAL DRESSING

ADVANCED COMMINUTION TECHNIQUES

Comminution means reducing the size of ore particles by crushing and grinding. Its main purpose is to **liberate valuable minerals from gangue** so that subsequent separation becomes easier. Conventional grinding can consume a large amount of energy; therefore, advanced techniques aim to improve energy efficiency, liberation and throughput.

High-Pressure Grinding Rolls (HPGR)

Principle: HPGR consists of two counter-rotating rolls. Ore is fed into the gap between them and subjected to very high compressive pressure. Particles break mainly by inter-particle compression rather than by impact from a grinding medium.

Working:

- Ore enters the feed zone between the rolls.
- One roll is driven while the other is mounted so it can move slightly against hydraulic/pneumatic force.
- High pressure creates cracks and fractures through the particles.
- The product leaves as a compacted cake containing fine particles and fractured coarse particles.
- The cake can be de-agglomerated and classified; the appropriate fraction may proceed to further grinding or concentration.

Advantages:

- Lower specific energy consumption than many conventional grinding circuits.
- High throughput and good reduction ratio.
- Creates micro-cracks, which can make later grinding easier.
- Can improve mineral liberation at a given product size.
- Dry operation is possible, reducing water use in suitable applications.

Limitations:

- High capital cost and need for careful roll-gap/pressure control.
- Wear of roll surfaces is important when processing abrasive ores.
- Product may require de-agglomeration and classification.

Applications: iron ore, copper ore, gold ores, cement raw materials and other competent ores.

Ultra-Fine Grinding (UFG)

Ultra-fine grinding reduces particles to very small sizes, commonly into the micron and sub-micron range depending on the technology and application. It is used when valuable minerals remain locked in very fine

intergrowths after conventional grinding.

Principle: Fine grinding media and high-energy agitation generate repeated impact, attrition and shear forces. Stirred media mills are commonly used for producing very fine products.

Benefits:

- Improves liberation of finely disseminated minerals.
- Increases surface area, which can improve leaching and some flotation responses.
- Can improve recovery of valuable minerals that cannot be liberated by coarse grinding.

Problems: energy requirement rises rapidly as the target size becomes finer; overgrinding can also produce excessive slimes that may reduce separation efficiency.

Microwave-Assisted Comminution

Principle: Microwave energy heats minerals internally according to their electromagnetic response. Different minerals absorb microwave energy differently. Differential heating creates thermal stresses at mineral boundaries and may weaken the ore.

Process:

- Ore is exposed to controlled microwave radiation.
- Susceptible mineral phases heat faster than less-absorbing phases.
- Thermal expansion and contraction create internal stresses and cracks.
- The weakened ore requires less mechanical effort for subsequent crushing/grinding.

Advantages: potential reduction in grinding energy, improved liberation and selective weakening of some ores.

Limitations: equipment cost, energy-transfer efficiency, penetration-depth limitations and dependence on mineral composition and moisture.

ADVANCED GRAVITY SEPARATION: MULTI-GRAVITYSEPARATOR (MGS)

Gravity separation separates particles mainly according to differences in density, with particle size and shape also affecting performance. The **Multi-Gravity Separator (MGS)** is designed to improve gravity separation of fine and very fine particles.

Principle: MGS combines gravitational force with enhanced centrifugal effects and a shaking motion. A thin film of slurry flows over a slightly inclined rotating drum/conical surface. Heavy particles move differently from light particles and are collected separately.

Working:

- A feed slurry is introduced onto the rotating, inclined surface.
- The drum rotates and generates an enhanced effective gravitational/centrifugal field.
- Shaking motion assists stratification and separation.
- Heavy particles tend to remain closer to the surface and move toward the concentrate collection zone.
- Lighter particles are carried away by the flowing water toward the tailings zone.

Advantages:

- Effective for fine heavy minerals.
- Can achieve better fine-particle separation than simple gravity devices.
- Relatively low reagent requirement.
- Useful for upgrading mineral concentrates and recovering fine valuable minerals.

Applications: chromite, tin, tungsten, gold, mineral sands and other high-density valuable minerals.

Limitations: performance is affected by particle size distribution, slurry density, feed rate and the density difference between valuable mineral and gangue.

ADVANCED FLOTATION TECHNIQUES

Froth flotation separates minerals based mainly on differences in surface properties. Reagents make selected mineral surfaces hydrophobic, allowing them to attach to air bubbles and rise into a froth.

Microbubble Flotation

Microbubbles are very small air bubbles compared with conventional flotation bubbles. Their small size provides a large total surface area and can improve contact with fine particles.

Working:

- Air is dispersed into the pulp to form microbubbles.
- Hydrophobic mineral particles collide with and attach to bubbles.
- Particle-bubble aggregates rise to the froth.
- The froth is collected as concentrate while hydrophilic gangue remains mainly in the pulp.

Advantages: improved recovery of fine particles, high bubble surface area and potentially better selectivity under suitable conditions.

Nanobubble Flotation

Nanobubbles are extremely small gas bubbles, generally in the nanometre scale. They have distinctive interfacial behavior and can influence particle-bubble attachment and flotation kinetics.

Important effects:

- Very high surface-area-to-volume ratio.
- Can persist in suspension longer than larger bubbles under suitable conditions.
- May promote attachment or provide nucleation sites for flotation.
- Can be useful in recovering very fine or difficult-to-float particles.

Microbubble vs Nanobubble:

Feature	Microbubble	Nanobubble
Relative size	Micrometre range	Nanometre range
Main benefit	Fine-particle flotation	Interfacial effects and ultra-fine particle recovery
Typical challenge	Generation/control of bubble size	Measurement, stability and scale-up

HIGH-INTENSITY MAGNETIC SEPARATION (HIMS)

Magnetic separation uses differences in magnetic susceptibility between minerals. Conventional low-intensity separators are mainly suitable for strongly magnetic minerals. **High-Intensity Magnetic Separation** produces a much stronger magnetic field and is therefore useful for weakly magnetic minerals.

Principle: When a mixture passes through a high-intensity magnetic field, magnetic or weakly magnetic particles experience a magnetic force and are attracted toward the magnetic region. Non-magnetic particles follow a different path and are collected separately.

Working:

- Feed is introduced into the magnetic separation zone.
- A high-intensity magnetic field is generated using suitable magnetic equipment.
- Magnetic/weakly magnetic particles are attracted and retained or deflected.
- Non-magnetic particles continue along their normal trajectory.
- Separate concentrate and tailings streams are collected.

Applications: separation or removal of iron-bearing minerals, upgrading silica sands, feldspar/quartz separation and beneficiation of weakly magnetic ores.

Advantages: useful for weakly magnetic minerals, can improve concentrate grade and can remove unwanted iron-bearing impurities.

Limitations: high equipment/energy requirements for some systems; separation depends strongly on particle size, magnetic susceptibility and liberation.

SUSTAINABLE & ECO-FRIENDLY MINERAL PROCESSING

Modern mineral processing aims not only at high recovery but also at reducing water consumption, energy use, reagent consumption, emissions and waste generation. Sustainable processing tries to obtain maximum value from the ore with minimum environmental impact.

Dry Beneficiation Technique

Dry beneficiation separates valuable minerals from gangue without using water. It is particularly attractive in water-scarce regions and can reduce the need for slurry handling and dewatering.

Possible methods:

- Dry magnetic separation for magnetic or weakly magnetic minerals.
- Air classification based on particle size and density-related behavior.
- Electrostatic separation based on differences in electrical properties.
- Dry density-based or sensor-assisted technologies where suitable.

Advantages:

- Greatly reduces process-water demand.
- Avoids or reduces tailings slurry formation.
- Reduces dewatering requirements.
- Can lower water-treatment and pumping requirements.

Limitations: dust generation, humidity sensitivity and difficulty in treating some very fine materials.

Zero-Waste Processing

Zero-waste processing is an approach in which waste generation is minimized and residues are converted into useful products wherever technically and economically possible. It does not simply mean that no residue ever exists; rather, the goal is to approach maximum resource utilization and minimum final disposal.

Main strategies:

- Maximize recovery of the primary valuable mineral.
- Recover secondary valuable minerals from tailings.
- Reuse process water through closed-loop systems.
- Use waste rock and tailings in construction or other suitable applications after safety and quality assessment.
- Recover useful heat or energy where feasible.
- Reduce reagent consumption and select less hazardous reagents.
- Use dry or filtered tailings where appropriate to reduce water-related risks.

Benefits: conservation of natural resources, lower environmental footprint, reduced land requirement for waste disposal, potential additional revenue and improved compliance with environmental requirements.

COMPARISON OF THE ADVANCED TECHNIQUES

Technique	Main purpose	Key principle
HPGR	Efficient size reduction	High-pressure inter-particle compression
UFG	Very fine liberation	High-energy impact/attrition/shear
Microwave-assisted comminution	Weaken ore before grinding	Differential heating and thermal stress
MGS	Fine gravity separation	Enhanced gravity/centrifugal effect + shaking
Microbubble flotation	Fine-particle flotation	Attachment to small air bubbles
Nanobubble flotation	Ultra-fine flotation assistance	Nano-scale gas-liquid interfaces
HIMS	Separate weakly magnetic minerals	High magnetic field
Dry beneficiation	Water-free/low-water separation	Air, magnetic/electrostatic or other dry methods
Zero-waste processing	Minimize final waste	Recovery, reuse and recycling

***THE END ***