

## Impact of particle size gradients on the apparent efficiency of chromatographic columns

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1 **Impact of particle size gradients on the apparent efficiency of chromatographic**  
2 **columns** ~~Is there a value to use columns packed with a particle size gradient in~~  
3 **liquid chromatography?**  
4

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16 **Impact of particle size gradients on the apparent efficiency of chromatographic**  
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19  
20  
21 **Abstract**

22 In this paper, the benefits of using columns packed with particles of decreasing size (particle  
23 size gradient) in liquid chromatography was investigated from a theoretical point of view. It is  
24 indeed well known that such columns may be useful in gradient elution, since the decrease  
25 of particle size along the chromatographic column can provide extra peak focusing effect. In  
26 the present contribution, several parameters (i.e., mobile phase gradient steepness, retention  
27 times and operating pressures) were considered and the kinetic performance of various  
28 types of columns packed with particle size gradient were evaluated.

29 In the best case, about 15-20% gain in efficiency can be expected at a given retention time  
30 when utilizing a particle size gradient, compared to constant particle size. Conversely, when  
31 fixing efficiency, the analysis time can be decreased by about 15% with an optimal particle  
32 size gradient. However, it is also important to keep in mind that a too large a particle size  
33 gradient can result in lower efficiencies than a column packed with monodisperse packing.

34 We have introduced the  $g_d$  value, which is a dimensionless measure of the particle size  
35 gradient steepness that measures the relative variation of particle diameter throughout the  
36 column with respect to the average. We finally observed that  $g_d = 0.3 - 0.4$  provides the  
37 highest gain under practically useful conditions.

38  
39 **Keywords:**

40 Particle size gradient, apparent efficiency, plate number, gradient elution mode, analysis time

41

## 42 1. Introduction

43 In liquid chromatographic (LC) separations, the chemistry and efficiency of the stationary  
44 phase are maintained (constant) along the column, while the mobile phase composition,  
45 temperature or flow rate are often varied to adjust the selectivity or resolution [1,2]. However,  
46 an alternative approach which became more attractive in the past few years is to vary the  
47 selectivity of the stationary phase along its length [3].

48 A well-established method consists in serially coupling columns of different selectivity. This  
49 methodology is often referred to as stationary phase optimized selectivity liquid  
50 chromatography (SOSLC) [3,4]. This SOSLC approach has been commercialized under the  
51 name of POPLC (as phase optimized liquid chromatography, provided by Bischoff  
52 Chromatography), and several studies have reported the possible increase in selectivity  
53 resulting in improved separation quality, compared to the use of a single column [5,6,7,8].

54 Such approach can be considered as a discontinuous stationary phase gradient. A potential  
55 drawback of POPLC is that the connections between the coupled columns may create  
56 undesired void volume and therefore can decrease the apparent efficiency and peak  
57 symmetry [9,10]. Another limitation is that serially connected columns do not allow for  
58 cooperative interactions to take place between the various stationary phase ligands [11,12].

59 Continuous stationary phase gradients consisting of a gradual change in chemical  
60 functionality along the column length, can eliminate or reduce the possible difficulties of  
61 discontinuous stationary phase gradients [13]. Pucci *et al.*, first applied continuous stationary  
62 phase gradients by photografting ionizable chains onto a hydrophobic polymer monolithic in  
63 a gradient fashion for capillary electrochromatography [14]. Since then, continuous stationary  
64 phase gradients have been applied in thin layer chromatography (TLC) and also for silica  
65 monoliths used in LC [11,15,16,17]. Very recently, the principles of so-called controlled rate  
66 of infusion (CRI) were adapted to develop a new approach to fabricate continuous stationary  
67 phase gradients on packed columns [13]. Such stationary phase gradients were formed  
68 using commercial C18 columns. This new destructive method can be applied in both  
69 reversed phase (RP) and hydrophilic interaction liquid chromatography (HILIC) modes.

70 Gritti and Guiochon discussed stationary phase gradients from a different point of view [18].  
71 The advantages of using columns packed with stationary phases having a composition  
72 gradient, so that retention factors increase throughout the column and compounds elute with  
73 isocratic mobile phase, which may provide increased peak resolution. When retention factor  
74 varies linearly along the column, then band compression occurs due to a differential of  
75 retention between the front and the rear parts of the peak. Their results showed that the  
76 resolution has an optimum for a specific value of the retention factor gradient along the  
77 column. This optimum depends on the retention factor observed at the column inlet. It is also  
78 worth mentioning that this work ~~has risen some debates and discussions~~ and a related  
79 discussion [19] emphasized the careful treatment of band variance and the way of  
80 determination of the apparent plate height along an axially heterogeneous column [19].  
81 Besides selectivity, stationary phase gradient can also be discussed in terms of efficiency. In  
82 our previous work, theory was developed for both isocratic and gradient elution modes to  
83 predict separation efficiency over a coupled system which includes columns packed with  
84 different particle sizes [20]. It was shown that the apparent efficiency of such column system  
85 - in gradient elution mode - depends on the column order. Higher peak capacity is expected  
86 when the columns are coupled in the order of increasing efficiency (decreasing particle size).  
87 If the differences between the individual column efficiencies are large enough, then an  
88 overall peak sharpening may occur along the column, which is never the case with a single  
89 column. This approach was recently extended to combine any column formats in a serial  
90 configuration [21]. For a five-column system, significant decrease of peak variance was  
91 predicted when columns were placed in order of decreasing particle size (discontinuous  
92 particle size gradient) versus random column order. The results suggested that a continuous  
93 particle size gradient – packed in one column – may further increase the gain in efficiency.  
94 As particle size gradients may also show effects from the particle size distribution (PSD), the  
95 impact of PSD on column efficiency seems also interesting to study. The problem is that it  
96 still remains unclear [22]. Furthermore, the literature on the topic is rather contradictory on  
97 whether the width of the PSD significantly affects band broadening in LC or not [23-28]. A

98 strong correlation has been observed between the width of the PSD of several commercially  
99 available HPLC particle types (both fully porous and superficially porous) and some  
100 commonly used parameters that reflect the quality of a packing, namely the minimum  
101 reduced plate height and the eddy dispersion's term [29]. In contrast, in another experimental  
102 study, different particle sizes have been mixed in various ratios, and no significant  
103 relationship was evidenced between the width of PSD and column efficiency [22]. It is now  
104 clear, that the trans-column dispersion of columns packed with superficially porous particles  
105 is significantly smaller than those of fully porous ones probably because shell particles can  
106 be packed more homogeneously across the column diameter – possibly due to their  
107 roughness. Because they are prepared through a controlled step by step growth layer  
108 process, the external surface area of these particles is not as smooth as that of fully porous  
109 particles [30]. Recently, fully porous particles were also prepared with very narrow PSD  
110 (RSD ~ 5%, while it is typically around 20%) and produced unprecedentedly low plate  
111 heights. Gritti *et al.* proposed that it is due to the small longitudinal diffusion and not due to  
112 the improved eddy dispersion [31]. A contradictory study did not confirm the very small  
113 intra-particle diffusion of the same narrow PSD fully porous particles and highlighted that the  
114 observations may depend on the applied experimental conditions and retention of the solutes  
115 [32]. Hence, the effect of PSD on efficiency is still a controversial question in liquid  
116 chromatography.

117 In this work, our aim was to study the potential ~~benefits~~ of columns packed with particles of  
118 continuously changing (with a linear decrease) diameter along the column, as example to  
119 demonstrate the theoretical benefits of non-uniform column format [33,34]. Various  
120 conditions (particle size gradient, mobile phase gradient steepness, operating pressure) were  
121 assumed and the expected gain in efficiency or analysis time were studied. Please note that  
122 it is a pure theoretical work, experimental verification was not feasible as such columns are  
123 not available. Moreover, to neglect possible issues related to very high pressure applications  
124 (such as radial and axial thermal effects on band broadening – caused by friction -, and

pressure related change of retention), relatively large particle sizes and a maximum pressure drop of 400 bar were considered in this study.

## 2. Theory

To consider a column packed with particles possessing continuously changing diameter, particle size needs to be parametrized. For a linear gradient, the following formula can be written for the particle size diameter at any position ( $z$ ) along the column:

$$d_p(z) = d_M \left[ 1 - g_d \left( \frac{2z}{L} - 1 \right) \right] \quad (1)$$

so that  $d_p(z)$  is the particle diameter at a certain position,  $d_M$  is the average diameter,  $L$  is the column length and  $g_d$  is a dimensionless measure of the particle size gradient steepness, that measures the relative variation of particle diameter throughout the column with respect to the average. As a function of the inlet and outlet particle sizes, this gives

$$g_d = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{d_p(0)}{d_p(L)} - 1 \right) \quad (2)$$

Positive  $g_d$  corresponds to decreasing particle sizes, which is the case in this study. As an example, a column with 15  $\mu\text{m}$  inlet particle diameter and 5  $\mu\text{m}$  outlet particle diameter with an average of  $d_M = 10 \mu\text{m}$  would have  $g_d = 0.5$ . Please note, that only linear particle size gradients were considered, but they should give a first reasonable approximation to the effects of decreasing particle size in nonlinear gradients. Figure 1 shows a schematic view of column packed with particles of continuously decreasing size.

Changing the particle size does not affect, up to negligible boundary effects, the available cross-section of the interstitial space in the column (assuming particle shape does not change as particles become smaller). This means that for a constant flow, the average speed  $u_0$  of the mobile phase in the interstitial space is also constant along the column. It will, however, depend on the particle size and pressure. One can obtain the relation through the Darcy's law. Written in the form of Giddings [3235], it states that the speed of flow through a material made of packed particles is proportional to the pressure ( $P$ ) differential, as

151 
$$u_0 = -\frac{1}{2\phi} \frac{d_p^2(z)}{\eta} \frac{dP}{dz} \quad (23)$$

152 with  $\eta$  the mobile phase viscosity and  $\phi$  the column's flow resistance parameter. For fixed  $u_0$ ,  
 153 it can be integrated along the particle size gradient to give:

154 
$$P(z) = P(0) + \frac{2L \phi \eta u_0}{d_M^2} \frac{z/L}{1-g_d^2+2g_d(1+g_d)(1-z/L)} \quad (34)$$

155 Evaluating this at the end of the column we can solve for the flow velocity:

156 
$$u_0 = (1 - g_d^2) \frac{d_M^2 \Delta P}{2L \phi \eta} \quad (45)$$

157 where  $\Delta P$  is the pressure differential between column inlet and outlet. Please note that for  
 158 fixed pressure, introducing a particle size gradient will reduce the flow velocity independently  
 159 on the direction of the gradient. The question is, of course, whether it pays off in terms of  
 160 column efficiency or not. Figure 2 shows some examples of the expected evolution of  
 161 pressure as function of  $z$ , for columns with particle size gradient ( $g_d = 0.5$  and  $-0.5$ ) compared  
 162 to a homogeneous particle size ( $g_d = 0$ ). In the  $g_d = +0.5$  case, particle size decreases  
 163 along the column. Therefore, the pressure gradient is smaller at the beginning of the column  
 164 than that of the constant particle size column, but increases at the column end, due to the  
 165 non-linear dependence of pressure drop with particle size. The overall effect is a larger  
 166 pressure drop than in the constant particle size case. Using an increasing particle size  
 167 column, with  $g_d = -0.5$ , the overall effect is the same however in this case, the relative  
 168 pressure is higher at the inlet of the column. In general, the order of different particle sizes is  
 169 out of concerns as pressure drops are additive (neglecting second-order effects coming from  
 170 higher derivatives of the particle size gradient, which should be the case in anything that  
 171 could be actually manufactured).

172 We remember the system of equations for peak migration and broadening from our previous  
 173 works [20,21]. The speed of migration  $u$  at a certain point and time in the column is given by  
 174 the mobile phase speed divided by the retention, which for a mobile phase gradient running  
 175 over a time  $t_G$  with a mobile phase variation  $\Delta\phi$  is:



$$176 \quad u(z, t) = \frac{u_0}{1 + k_0 \exp\left[\frac{-S \Delta \phi}{t_G} \left(t - \frac{z}{u_0}\right)\right]} \quad (56)$$

177 where  $S$  and  $k_0$  are the parameters of the Linear Solvent Strength (LSS) model ( $S$  is a  
 178 constant for a given compound at fixed experimental conditions, and  $k_0$  is the extrapolated  
 179 value of  $k$  for  $\phi = 0$ ). This can be reparametrized with the intrinsic mobile phase gradient  
 180 steepness:

$$181 \quad b = S \Delta \phi \frac{L}{t_G u_0} \quad (67)$$

182 The intrinsic gradient steepness expresses the rate of change in  $\log k$  during the gradient per  
 183 volume of mobile phase passing through the column.

184 Then, the system of equations determining the evolution of peak position and width is:

$$185 \quad t'(z) = \frac{1}{u(z, t(z))} \quad (78)$$

$$186 \quad (w(z)^2)' = H(z) + 2 \partial_z \log u(z, t)|_{t=t_z} \cdot w(z)^2 \quad (89)$$

187 where  $t$  is the migration time to get to point  $z$  and  $w$  the spatial peak width, always assuming  
 188 that  $w/z \ll 1$ . Since particle size is not constant along the column, the local plate height  
 189 needs to be parametrized as a function of position,  $H(z)$ . The first one integrates to:

$$190 \quad t(z) = \frac{z}{u_0} + \frac{L}{b u_0} \log \left(1 + \frac{b k_0 z}{L}\right) \quad (910)$$

191 The compression term is then given by:

$$192 \quad 2 \partial_z \log u(z, t)|_{t=t_z} = -\frac{2p}{L} \frac{1}{1+p z/L} \quad (4011)$$

193 with

$$194 \quad p = \frac{k_0}{1+k_0} b \quad (4412)$$

195 A first reasonable approach for  $H(z)$  (that is analytically tractable) is to parametrize it by [32]:

$$196 \quad H(z) = \alpha d_p(z) + \beta \frac{d_p(z)^2 u_0}{D_m} + \gamma \frac{D_m}{u_0} \quad (4213)$$

197 with  $D_m$  the diffusion coefficient of the substance under migration, and  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are  
 198 dimensionless constants parametrizing the strength of each of the contributing effects (eddy  
 199 dispersion, resistance to mass transfer and longitudinal diffusion, respectively). The solution  
 200 for  $w(z)^2$  is too large an expression (see in appendix), but importantly, it has a closed form

201 that we can study. Please also note that it depends on  $u_0$  in a non-trivial way, and through it,  
 202 on the pressure differential of the column.

203 The observed retention time is of course the migration time to the outlet of the column:

204  $t_R = t(L)$  (4314)

205 Finally, the observed time width at the outlet,  $\sigma_t$ , depends on the speed of migration at that  
 206 point. Notice that for very steep gradients this will be close to  $u_0$ , but in general it reads as:

207  $\sigma_t = \frac{w(L)}{u(L,t_R)} = \frac{1+k_0(1+b)}{1+bk_0} \frac{w(L)}{u_0}$  (4415)

208 In these terms, the efficiency of the column can be measured by apparent plate number:

209  $N = \frac{t_R^2}{\sigma_t^2}$  (4516)

210 The key point of this analysis is that the small  $g_d$  expansion of  $\sigma_t$  starts with a term linear in  
 211  $g_d$  as one can derive from the expression in the appendix,

212  $\frac{d\sigma_t}{dg_d} < 0$  (4617)

213 Compare this to the dependence of  $u_0$  (and with  $t_R$ ), that has a quadratic correction. Fixing  
 214 the pressure differential, for small enough  $g_d$  the decrease in peak width must necessarily  
 215 outweigh the increase in retention time caused by the particle size gradient.

216 Let us quantify this improvement. To make a meaningful comparison, one cannot just take  
 217 columns at fixed  $d_M$ , since changing  $g_d$  affects both efficiency and retention time. Instead, let  
 218 us define a fixed retention time particle size function, as:

219  $d_F(t_R, g_d)$  (4718)

220 such that

221  $t_R|_{d_M=d_F(t_R, g_d)} = \tau$  (4819)

222 that is, the particle size for which with a particle size gradient  $g_d$  we obtain precisely a  
 223 retention time of  $\tau$ . It is easy to compute from the expression of the retention time and the  
 224 flow speed:

225  $d_F(t_R, g_d)^2 = \frac{1}{1-g_d^2} \frac{2L^2}{t_R} \frac{\phi\eta}{\Delta P} \frac{b+\log(1+bk_0)}{b}$  (4920)

226 Inserting this as the value of  $d_M$  for the calculation of the efficiency, we can compare  
227 columns that produce the same retention time under the same length and conditions of  
228 pressure, gradient steepness, compound retention, viscosity, etc. Notice that it grows as we  
229 increase the particle size gradient.

230

### 231 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 232 **3.1. Benefits of particle size gradient**

233 As reported in our previous works, in gradient elution mode, a gain in efficiency is expected  
234 when decreasing the particle size of columns along them [20,21]. Up to now, it has been  
235 studied and demonstrated only for coupled columns packed with different particle sizes  
236 (columns were placed in the order of decreasing particle size). Here, we focus on the  
237 understanding of the impact of particle size gradient on peak width, column pressure  
238 (resistance) and analysis time (retention time) when assuming a linear particle size gradient  
239 along a single column.

240 To illustrate with numerical data, a compound with  $\log_{10} k_0 = 6$  and a diffusivity of  $D_m =$   
241  $10^{-5} \text{cm}^2/\text{s}$  was considered on a column's length of  $L = 15 \text{ cm}$ . The viscosity is  
242 approximately that of water at room temperature,  $\eta = 10^{-3} \text{ Pa} \cdot \text{s}$ . Finally, the coefficients of  
243 the plate height parametrization are taken from Giddings as  $\alpha = \gamma = 0.1$  and  $\beta = 0.5$ , as well  
244 as the flow resistance parameter  $\phi = 300$ , [3235]. Various plots have been prepared to  
245 compare different particle size gradients.

246 First, the gain in apparent plate number was studied for different mobile phase compositional  
247 gradients (from  $b = 0$  to  $b = 10$ ) as a function of particle size gradient ( $g_d$ ). Figure 3 plots the  
248 relative increase in efficiency, for fixed retention time ( $t_R = 10 \text{ min}$ ) and applied pressure ( $\Delta P$   
249  $= 100 \text{ bar}$ ), as a function of increasing particle size gradient. Notice that since we fix the  
250 length of the column and the retention time, the flow velocity  $u_0$  will only depend on the  
251 retention properties of the compound. For instance, for  $b = 5$  the previous parameters  
252 correspond to  $u_0 \simeq 6.1 \text{ cm/min}$ . Under isocratic conditions ( $b = 0$ ), any modification to

253 particle size is detrimental, since the migration suffers from reduced flow rate, while having  
254 no band compression mechanism to benefit from the smaller particle size at the end of the  
255 column. As the mobile phase gradient increases (e.g.  $b = 1, 2.5, 5$  or  $10$ ), so does the  
256 usefulness of the particle size gradient, up to a 20% gain in efficiency was obtained in the  
257 best-case scenario. However, exceeding the optimal point in particle size gradient quickly  
258 results in reduced gains or even losses in efficiency. Because of this, it seems reasonable to  
259 suggest a maximum value of the particle size gradient between  $g_d = 0.3 - 0.4$ . (e.g. a  
260 column with  $7 \mu\text{m}$  inlet particle diameters and  $3 \mu\text{m}$  outlet diameters gives  $g_d = 0.4$ ). Around  
261 that region, the impact on compounds with low  $S$  values (resulting in low  $b$ ) will be negligible,  
262 while compounds with higher  $S$  values can in principle see gains in efficiency of more than  
263 15%.

264 One can now ask what happens at very high mobile phase gradient steepness. As expected,  
265 when the gradient is steep enough then the classical band compression already does a good  
266 job even for relatively large particles, and the relative gain of using a particle size gradient is  
267 diminished. This is illustrated in figures 4, 5 and 6. In figure 4, pressure was fixed at  $\Delta P =$   
268  $100 \text{ bar}$  and particle size gradient at  $g_d = 0.3$  (close to the optimal). The average particle size  
269 in each column was chosen to produce a specified retention time (e.g.  $t_R = 10, 15, 20, 25$  and  
270  $30 \text{ min}$ ). Increasing the mobile phase gradient improves efficiency until a certain point, after  
271 which it slowly decreases. It can be seen that shorter runs benefit the most. At  $t_R = 10 \text{ min}$ ,  
272 the efficiency increases up to  $b = 10$ , while for a  $t_R = 30 \text{ min}$  separation, the relative plate  
273 number increases only up to  $b = 3.5$ . Figure 5 shows the actual apparent plate numbers for  
274 the same conditions as in figure 4 to have an idea about the absolute values. The apparent  
275 efficiency quickly reaches a maximum at a certain gradient steepness, after which it decays  
276 slowly.

277 A different way of comparison is illustrated on Figure 6. It shows the average particle size for  
278 a  $g_d=0.3$  particle size gradient column, which is required to produce a specified retention  
279 time, at a given value of the mobile phase gradient steepness. The longer and steeper the  
280 mobile phase gradient, the smaller the required average particle size is. As an example, to

281 perform a fast separation ( $t_R = 10$  min) at a relatively flat mobile phase gradient ( $b = 2$ ), the  
282 required average particle size is  $d_M \sim 4.5$   $\mu\text{m}$ . However when performing a 30 min long  
283 separation with a steeper mobile phase gradient ( $b = 5$ ) then as low as  $d_M \sim 2$   $\mu\text{m}$  particle  
284 size is required.

285 Figures 7, 8 and 9 show the same magnitudes for fixed particle size and mobile phase  
286 gradients ( $g_d = 0,3$  and  $b = 5$ ), for varying retention time obtained at different pressures ( $\Delta P =$   
287 25, 50, 100, 200 and 400 bar). Figure 7 shows the relative increase in efficiency, while  
288 figures 8 and 9 show the apparent plate number itself and the required average particle size,  
289 respectively. Figure 7 indicates that the most significant improvements can be obtained,  
290 again as expected, for shorter elution times – produced by larger average particle sizes, who  
291 stand to gain the most in terms of efficiency by band compression at the end of the column.  
292 In other words, shorter runs and lower pressures benefit the most, since high pressures  
293 already have higher base efficiency without the particle size gradients, and excessively long  
294 retention times diminish the peak focusing from the mobile phase gradient. In figure 8 we  
295 observe how the apparent efficiencies converge to a similar value for too large retention  
296 times, with which the benefits of band compression from the gradient are less relevant.  
297 Finally, figure 9 gives the necessary particle sizes to obtain these retention times under the  
298 given conditions, again in the  $\mu\text{m}$  range.

299 Finally figure 10 shows an illustrative theoretical plot for the benefit of particle size gradient  
300 ( $g_d = 0.3$  and  $d_M = 3.004.4$   $\mu\text{m}$ ) when compared to a monodisperse packing ( $g_d = 0$  and  $d_M =$   
301  $2.684.0$   $\mu\text{m}$ ). Both peaks shown are simple Gaussians whose width and position follow from  
302 the model proposed in the article. The particle size configurations were chosen so that the  
303 apparent efficiency was identical ( $N = 2.5942 \cdot 10^5$ ) for both peaks. From figures 7 and 8 we  
304 can see that low pressures and times between 20-60 minutes will see improvements while  
305 keeping a good apparent efficiency. We therefore took ~~(considering~~  $b = 102.5$  mobile phase  
306 gradient steepness, as corresponds to large molecules with large  $S$  values, and a  $\Delta P = 400$   
307 25 bar pressure drop). A decrease (reduction) of  $\sim 44$  min min (14%) in the retention time  
308 (analysis time) is observed thanks to the particle size gradient, as expected from the

309 ~ 10% – 15% improvements noticed in the previous figures. It suggests that indeed an  
310 optimal particle size gradient enables to decrease the analysis time by 10 – 15 % whilst  
311 maintaining the same efficiency and operating pressure in gradient elution mode.

312

### 313 **3.2. ~~Production of columns~~Ideas to produce columns packed with particle size** 314 **gradient**

315 Finally, we would like to discuss the possibility of producing/packing columns with different  
316 particle sizes in a gradient arrangement. It might be feasible to inject a mixture of particles  
317 that settle in a long narrow tube, so that gravity would automatically create a size gradient  
318 and then force the content of this tube into a column once the particles have been “sorted”.  
319 However, when operating such columns at high pressure, particle rearrangement and bed  
320 consolidation can be an issue in case of only gravitational particle sedimentation. Similar  
321 ideas have been recently applied in production of ground silica monolith particles to improve  
322 chromatographic separation efficiency [3336]. The monolithic particles after calcination were  
323 separated by sedimentation into three zones using an Imhoff sedimentation cone [36]. The  
324 sedimentation process was found to not only eliminate troublesome particles, but also to  
325 narrow down the particle size distribution. In addition, sedimentation in a specially designed  
326 centrifuge may help the procedure. Slurry packing makes sense as well, since packing  
327 procedure takes typically a few minutes. A few sections (3-5) of different particle size batches  
328 might be packed in a column to develop a stepwise arrangement (discontinuous particle size  
329 gradient) which approaches a linear particle size gradient. Finally, we have to refer again to  
330 the POPLC concept [5,6,7,8], as it offers short column segments coupled in series using an  
331 optimized hardware (with minimal extra-column dispersion). However, at the time of writing,  
332 only 5 and 3 µm particle size segments were available.

333

## 334 **4. Conclusions**

335 The potential of columns packed with particles of decreasing size (particle size gradient) has  
336 been studied. As previously seen, decreasing particle size along columns (in a coupled

337 system) can result in extra peak sharpening effect in addition to the common gradient band  
338 compression [20,21]. A further increase in efficiency gain was expected with continuous  
339 particle size gradient compared to discontinuous ones. Since a particle size gradient is  
340 equivalent to the limit of a large number of serial columns, these efficiency gains  
341 provide an upper bound on the efficiency gains of any number of coupled columns.

342 A measure of particle size gradient ( $g_d$ ) was introduced which takes into account the  
343 steepness, direction and average particle size. Then, various conditions (i.e., mobile phase  
344 gradient steepness, retention times and operating pressures) were considered and columns  
345 with different particle size gradients were compared to each other and to monodisperse  
346 packing.

347 In isocratic elution mode, varying particle size do not present obviously any advantage.  
348 However, as the mobile phase gradient increases, the benefit of the particle size gradient  
349 becomes more important. In the best case, about 15-20% gain in efficiency can be expected  
350 at a given retention time when utilizing a particle size gradient, compared to constant particle  
351 size. Conversely, when fixing efficiency the analysis time can be decreased by about 15%  
352 with an optimal particle size gradient. It also worth mentioning, that compounds with higher  $S$   
353 values resulting in higher  $b$  (large molecules such as peptides, proteins) can in principle see  
354 the highest gains in efficiency.

355 It was also shown that particle size gradient should not increase without boundaries. Above a  
356 given  $g_d$  value, it stops providing any benefit. Even more, too large a particle size gradient  
357 can result in lower efficiencies than a column with monodisperse packing would achieve. We  
358 observed that  $g_d = 0.3 - 0.4$  provides the highest gain under practically useful conditions.

359

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361

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462

463 **Figure captions**

464

465 | Figure 1. Schematic view of column with a linear particle size gradient.

466

467 | Figure 2. Pressure drop along a column with no particle size gradient, and with particle size  
468 | gradients  $g_d = \pm 0.5$ , for fixed average particle size  $d_M = 0.5 \mu\text{m}$ , mobile phase velocity  
469 |  $u_0 = 1 \text{ cm/s}$  and a 15 cm long columns.

470

471 | Figure 3. Relative gain in apparent efficiency between a column with no particle size  
472 | gradient, and column with a particle size gradient given by the value of  $g_d$  in the x-axis.  
473 | Average particle size in both cases is chosen so that both columns produce the same  
474 | retention time of 10 minutes at a pressure of 100 bar, enabling a fair comparison. Without  
475 | mobile phase gradient, the optimal configuration is to not have particle size gradient either  
476 | (since the system cannot use the late-column peak focusing effect to compensate for the  
477 | larger particles in the early column). Increasing the mobile phase gradient increases the  
478 | maximal gain available by the particle size gradient.

479

480 | Figure 4. Relative gain in apparent efficiency between a column with no particle size  
481 | gradient, and a column with a particle size gradient of  $g_d = 0.3$ , as a function of mobile phase  
482 | gradient steepness, for several fixed retention times.

483

484 | Figure 5. Actual apparent efficiency of the  $g_d = 0.3$  column at each value of the mobile phase  
485 | gradient steepness. (Same conditions as in figure 4.)

486

487 | Figure 6. The required average particle size of the  $g_d = 0.3$  column to produce the indicated  
488 | retention time, at each value of the mobile phase gradient steepness. (Same conditions as in  
489 | figure 4.)

490

491 Figure 7. Relative gain in apparent efficiency between a column with no particle size  
492 gradient, and a column with a particle size gradient of  $g_d = 0.3$ , as a function of produced  
493 retention time, for several pressure drops and at a fixed mobile phase gradient steepness ( $b$   
494 = 5). The average particle size in each column is chosen to produce the specified retention  
495 time.

496

497 Figure 8. Actual apparent efficiency of the  $g_d = 0.3$  column for each produced retention time  
498 when fixing mobile phase gradient steepness at  $b = 5$ . (Same conditions as in figure 7.)

499

500 Figure 9. The required average particle size of the  $g_d = 0.3$  column to produce the indicated  
501 retention time when fixing mobile phase gradient steepness at  $b = 5$ . (Same conditions as in  
502 figure 7.)

503

504 Figure 10. Overlaid theoretical chromatograms for a compound expected with a column  
505 having particle size of  $d_M = 1.02.68 \mu\text{m}$  and no particle size gradient (blue chromatogram)  
506 and with a column packed with a  $g_d = 0.3$  particle size gradient and average particle size of  
507  $d_M = 1.13.0 \mu\text{m}$  (red chromatogram). For both runs,  $b = 2.510$  mobile phase intrinsic gradient  
508 steepness and  $\Delta P = 40025$  bar pressure drop were considered.

509

Figure

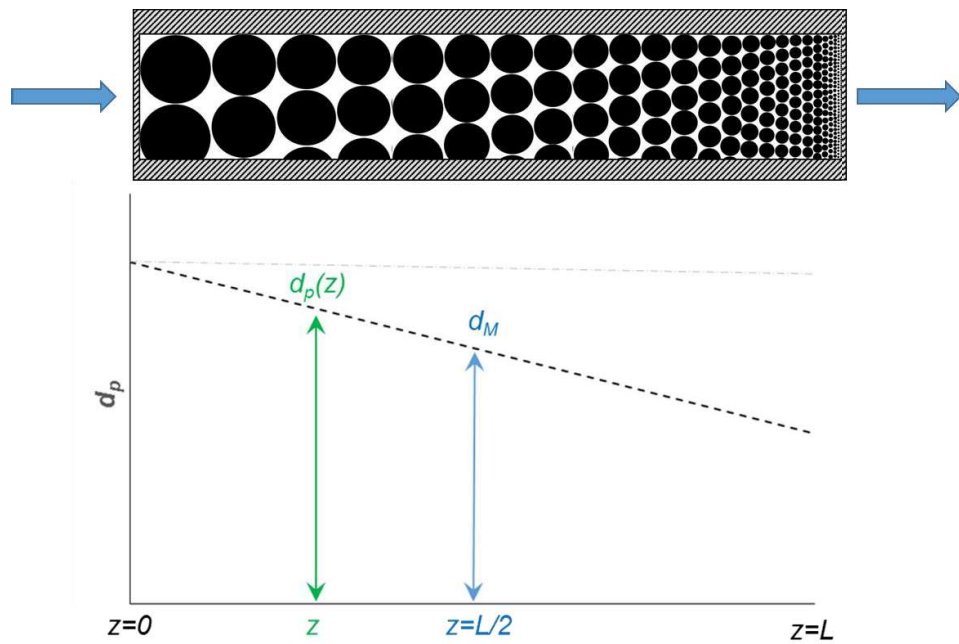


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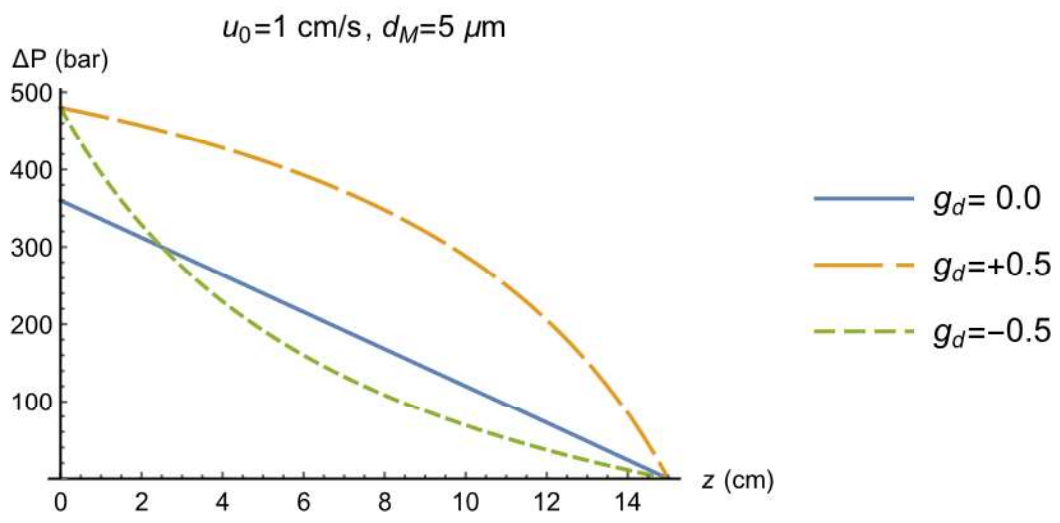


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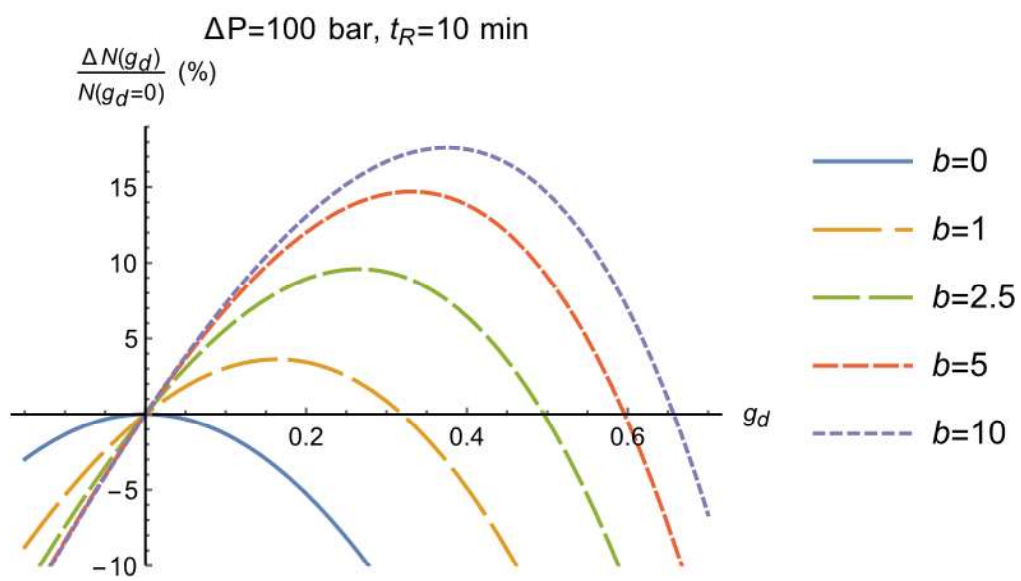


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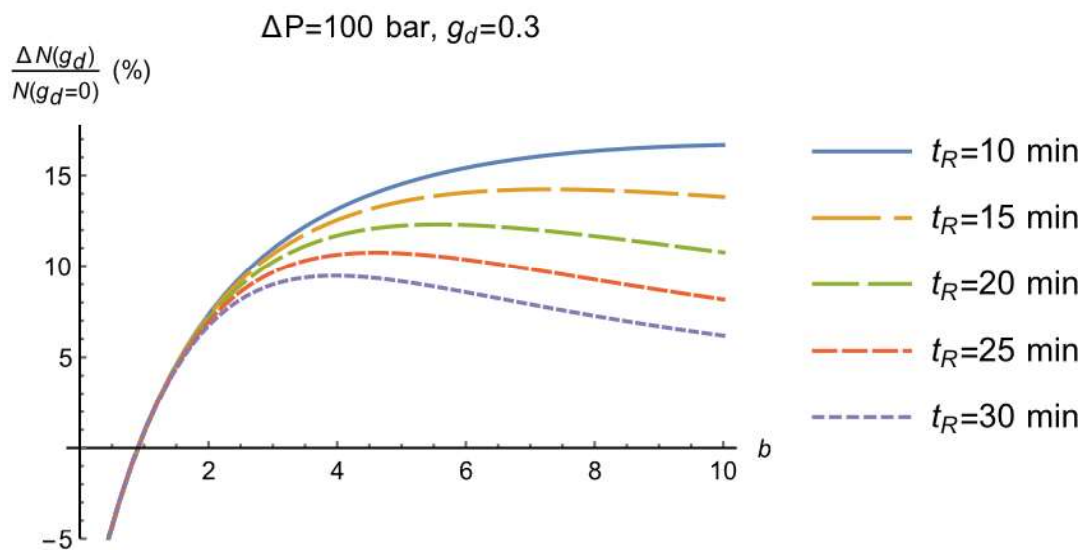


Figure 4.

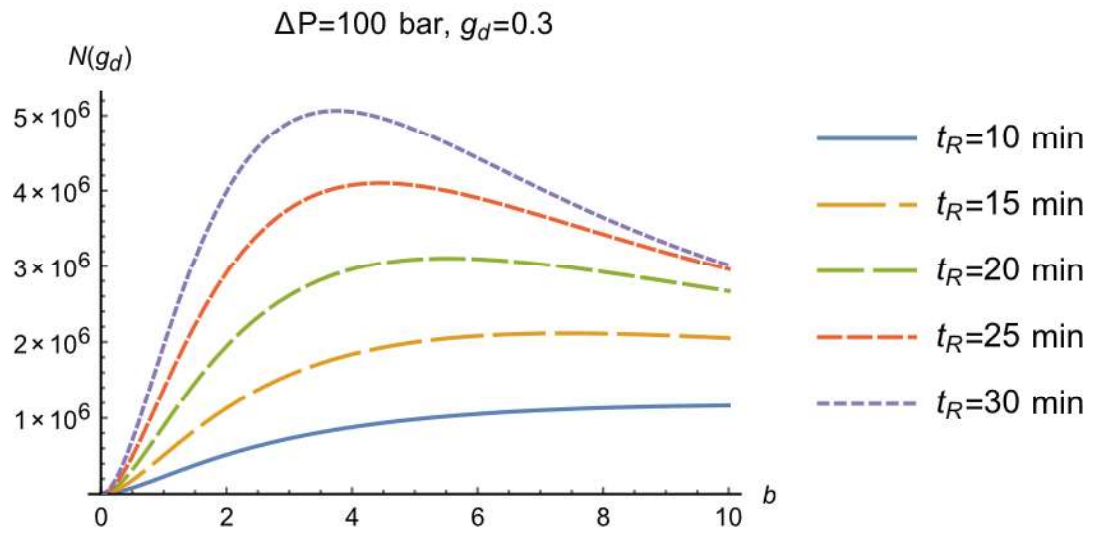


Figure 5.

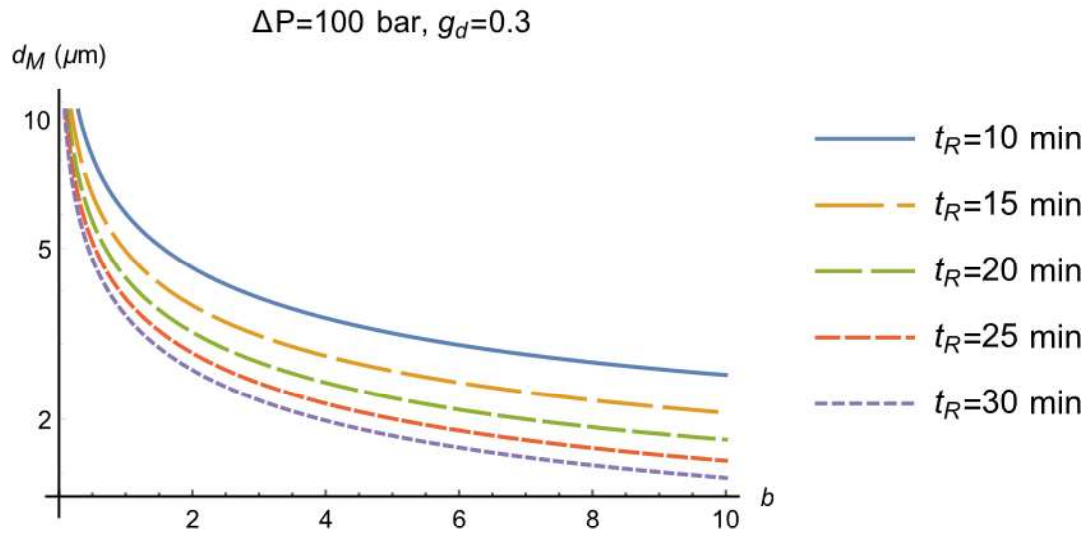


Figure 6.

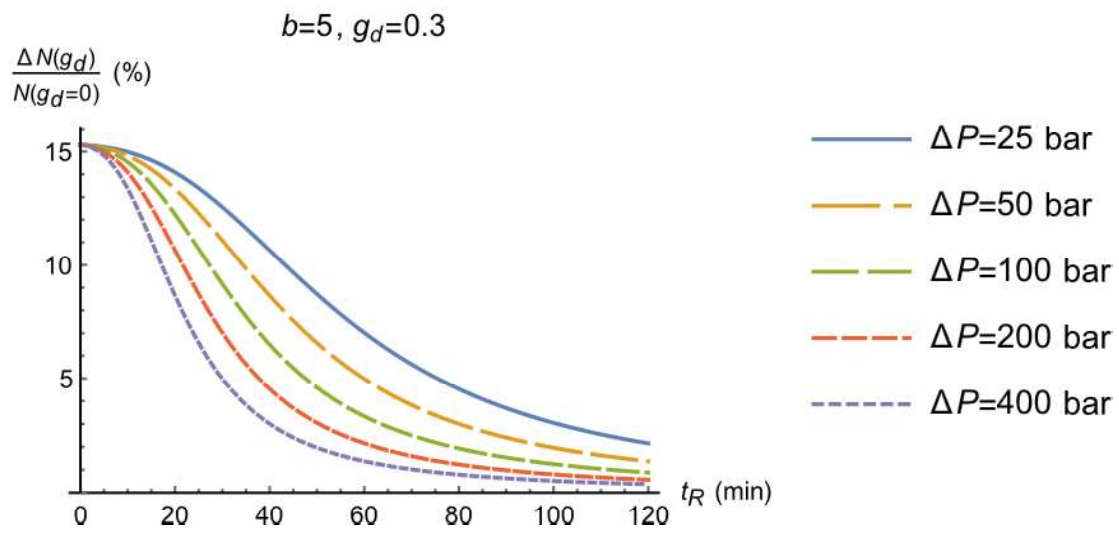


Figure 7.

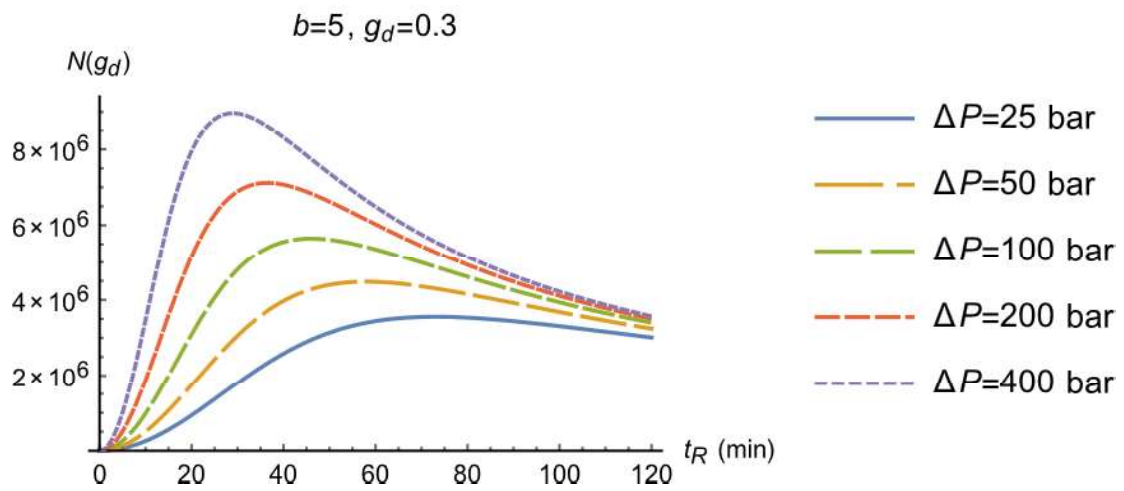


Figure 8.

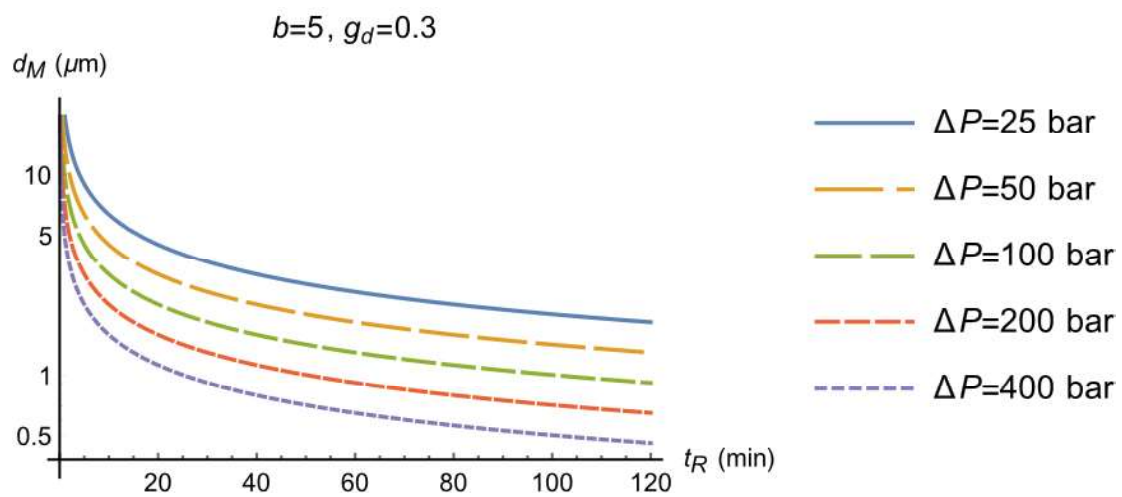


Figure 9.

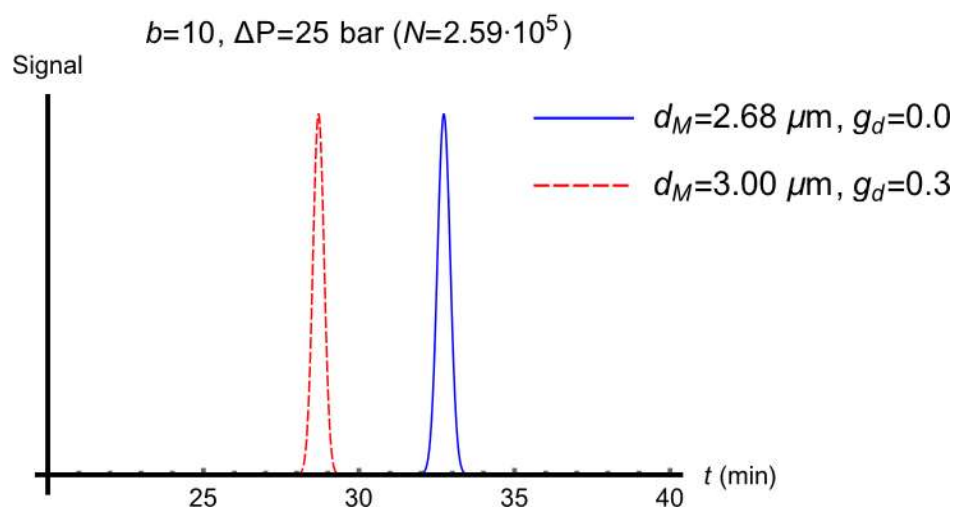


Figure 10.