

A steady-state model of the high-pressure grinding rolls

Alex Thivierge^{*,***} Jocelyn Bouchard^{*} André Desbiens^{**}

LOOP, Centre E4m, Université Laval, Quebec City, Canada

** Department of Chemical Engineering*

*** Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering*

**** Corresponding author: alex.thivierge.1@ulaval.ca*

Abstract:

This paper presents a steady-state model of the high-pressure grinding rolls (HPGR) based on population balance methods. It simulates the power draw, flow rate, and particle size distribution of both the edge and center products from the operating pressure, rotating speed, and size-by-size feed rates. Upgrades from previous work include the addition of the edge cutter setting (in distance unit) as an input parameter, and the equation for the variation of density along the rolls width to account for inaccuracy in throughput prediction generally compensated using an extrusion or slip correction factor. Results appear qualitatively coherent, but remain to be validated with experimental data.

Keywords: High-pressure grinding rolls, phenomenological modeling, mineral processing

1. INTRODUCTION

The minerals industry accounts for approximately 11% of the total energy consumption (McLellan et al., 2012), and 53 % of this share comes from comminution processes (CEEC, 2013). Napier-Munn (2015) listed different ways to reduce this amount including novel flowsheets and improved process control. Simulation environments allow studying these solutions without the risks associated with expensive plant trials, but require process unit models.

This paper presents a steady-state high-pressure grinding rolls (HPGR) model, which could be used in such applications, even if process dynamics are neglected. This unit operation indeed exhibits a very short residence time compared to that of the secondary grinding circuit, thus allowing considering it as a static process, providing the simulation step is sufficiently long.

The manuscript first introduces the model workflow. A simulation example is then presented. Follows a discussion about the model advantages and limitations.

2. HPGR MODEL

Fig. 1 shows the general structure of the model. Empirical models allow estimating key variables (operating gap and extrusion density), and the rest of the simulation workflow makes use of a modular approach following the work of Torres and Casali (2009) and Morrell et al. (1997a).

2.1 Grinding pressure

The HPGR has two operating settings: the hydraulic operating pressure P_o , and the rolls tangential speed η . P_o is linked to the grinding force F applied to the floating roll through the hydraulic system with:

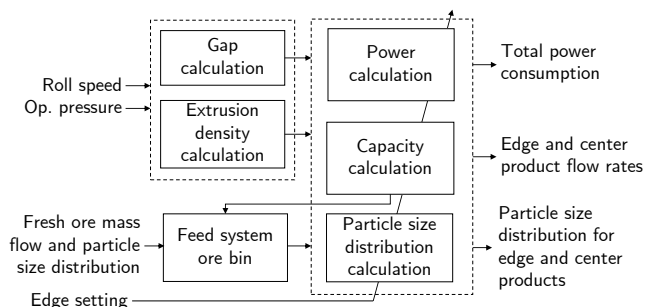


Fig. 1. Simplified schematic of the HPGR model structure

$$F = P_o A, \quad (1)$$

where A is the total area of the hydraulic pistons. The ratio:

$$\tilde{F} = \frac{F}{DL} \quad (2)$$

defines the specific force \tilde{F} , where D and L are the diameter and width of the rolls, respectively.

Although the set-point of P_o is manipulated, it is actually the grinding pressure that acts on the material bed. It cannot be measured directly, but Klymowsky et al. (2002) proposed estimating its average (along both y and z axis) using:

$$\bar{P}_{m_{y,z}} = \frac{F}{\frac{D}{2} \bar{\alpha}_c L}, \quad (3)$$

where $\bar{\alpha}_c$ is the average nip angle along the roll (i.e. the arithmetic mean of Eq. (12), see below). The grinding pressure is known to vary along the roll and gap as shown

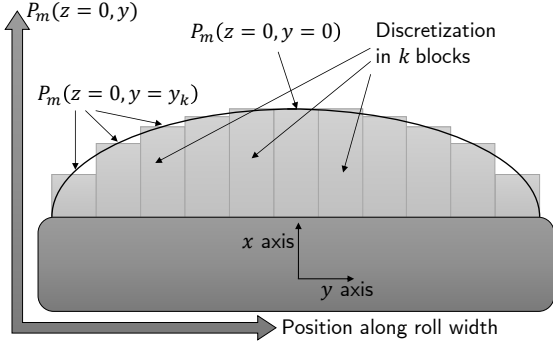


Fig. 2. Grinding pressure P_m distribution along the roll

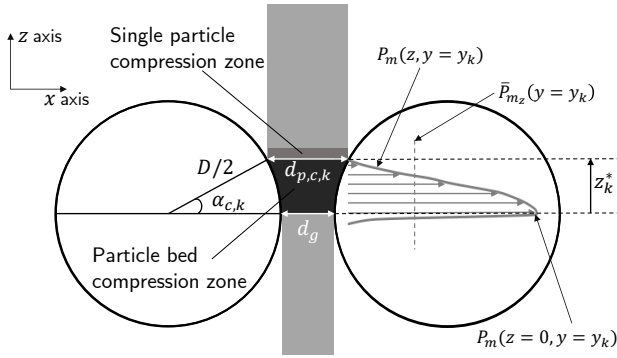


Fig. 3. Grinding pressure P_m distribution along the gap, showing also d_g , the operating gap, $D/2$, the radius of the rolls, along with $\alpha_{c,k}$, the nip angle, $d_{p,c,k}$ the critical size, and z_k^* , the height at the beginning of the bed particle compression zone in block k

in Fig. 2 and 3 (Klymowsky et al., 2002). The model accounts for the distribution by considering k discrete blocks along the width as shown in Fig. 2.

Along the z axis, the maximum pressure occurs right before the extrusion at $z = 0$, i.e. inside the operating gap. The average (along the y axis) is:

$$\bar{P}_{m_y}(z=0) = \frac{F}{c \bar{\alpha}_{c,k} D L} \approx 2.5 \bar{P}_{m_{y,z}}, \quad (4)$$

with $0.18 < c < 0.23$ (Klymowsky et al., 2002). In this work, it is assumed that this relation also holds true in each discretized block k along the y axis:

$$P_m(z=0, y=y_k) = \frac{F_k}{c \alpha_{c,k} D L_k} \approx 2.5 \bar{P}_{m_z}(y=y_k), \quad (5)$$

where $\bar{P}_{m_z}(y=y_k)$ is the grinding pressure average along the z axis in each block, y_k is the relative position on the y axis of the block k and ranges from $-\frac{L}{2}$ to $\frac{L}{2}$, F_k is the grinding force applied on block k with length L_k , and $\alpha_{c,k}$ is the nip angle in block k . Lubjuhn (1992) proposed an equation to model the pressure in the gap along the roll (y axis) for a laboratory scale HPGR:

$$\frac{P_m(z=0, y=y_k)}{P_m(z=0, y=0)} = 1 - \left(2 \left| \frac{y_k}{L} \right| \right)^{1.6}. \quad (6)$$

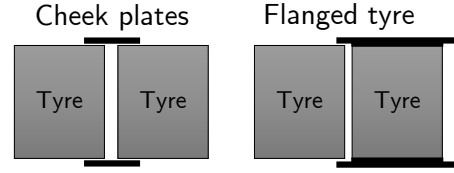


Fig. 4. Top view showing cheek plates and flanges configurations (Adapted from Knorr et al., (2013))

For larger HPGR's, the pressure distribution is expected to be different because of the reduction of the edge effect (Van der Meer, 2010). From discrete element method simulation results, Johansson and Evertsson (2019) concluded that the pressure distribution should instead plateau for most of the roll as:

$$\frac{P_m(z=0, y=y_k)}{P_m(z=0, y=0)} = \min \left(4 - 4 \left(\frac{2y_k}{L} \right)^2 ; 1 \right). \quad (7)$$

It is noted that Eq. (6) and (7) apply only if cheek plates are used on the HPGR as a different pressure profile is expected with flanges (Knorr et al., 2013). These alternative mechanisms, cheek plates being attached to the frame, and flanges, to the rolls are depicted in Fig. 4.

2.2 Working gap

The working gap width d_g varies according to the force applied. Morrell et al. (1997a) showed that:

$$\frac{d_g}{D} = k_5 \left(k_1 \eta^2 \psi + k_2 \eta \sqrt{\psi} + k_3 \right) \left(1 + k_4 \log \tilde{F} \right), \quad (8)$$

where $\psi = \frac{2}{gD}$, g is the gravitational acceleration constant, and k_1 to k_5 are empirical parameters. k_5 is used to account for different moisture content, feed top size, type of rolls, and machine size (scale-up factor).

2.3 Extrusion density

Austin et al. (1993) proposed the following empirical relationship to model the average porosity of the material in the gap θ_g :

$$(1 - \theta_g) - (1 - \theta_0) = k_6 (\tilde{F})^{k_7}, \quad (9)$$

where θ_0 is the average porosity in the feed material, with empirical parameters k_6 and k_7 . Multiplying this equation by the solid density, and rearranging the terms lead to:

$$\rho_g = k_8 (\tilde{F})^{k_7} + \rho_b, \quad (10)$$

where ρ_g is the average density of the material in the gap and ρ_b is the bulk density of the ore. Assuming compaction is actually function of the pressure exerted on the particle bed, i.e. $P_m(z=0, y=y_k)$, the density distribution in the gap varies with blocks along roll width as:

$$\rho_{g,k} = k_9 (P_m(z=0, y=y_k))^{k_{10}} + \rho_b. \quad (11)$$

2.4 Nip angle

The steady-state momentum balance is used to calculate the nip angle (shown in Fig. 3) as a function of the ore density in the extrusion zone (Morrell et al., 1997a). For each k block, it is:

$$\alpha_{c,k} = \arccos \left(\frac{1}{2D} \left(\phi + \sqrt{(\phi)^2 - \frac{4d_g \rho_{g,k} D}{\rho_b}} \right) \right), \quad (12)$$

with $\phi = d_g + D$.

It is noted that all unknowns F_k , $P_m(z = 0, y = y_k)$, $P_g(z = 0, y = 0)$, d_g , $\rho_{g,k}$, and $\alpha_{c,k}$ are found simultaneously by solving the system of equations comprised of Eq. (5), (6) or (7) depending on HPGR size, (8), (11), (12), and:

$$F = \sum_{k=1}^{n_k} F_k, \quad (13)$$

where n_k is the total number of blocks.

2.5 Capacity

Applying a mass balance at the extrusion zone provides the equation of continuity (Daniel and Morrell, 2004):

$$\dot{M} = \rho_g d_g \eta L, \quad (14)$$

where \dot{M} is the mass flow rate. This equation is also true on each block, therefore the throughput can be defined as:

$$\dot{M} = \sum_{k=1}^{n_k} \dot{M}_k = \sum_{k=1}^{n_k} \rho_{g,k} d_g \eta \frac{L}{n_k}, \quad (15)$$

where \dot{M}_k is the production rate in each block section.

2.6 Power draw

The total power draw of a single roll \dot{W}_{sr} is defined by (Klymowsky et al., 2002):

$$\dot{W}_{sr} = \omega T, \quad (16)$$

where ω is the rotation speed (rad/s) (i.e. $\omega = \frac{2\eta}{D}$), and T is the total torque applied on the roll:

$$T = T_G + T_0, \quad (17)$$

where T_0 is the no-load torque, i.e. required to rotate the rolls without processing mineral, and T_G is the torque caused by the grinding force. T_0 should be constant because the HPGR behaves as a constant load machine (Numbi and Xia, 2015), and T_G is found with a free body diagram as:

$$T_G = \sum_{k=1}^{n_k} F_k \sin(\beta_k) \frac{D}{2}, \quad (18)$$

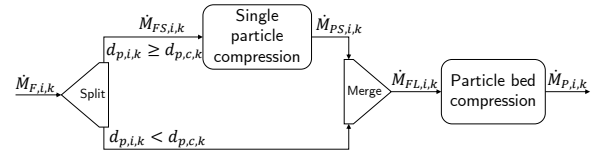


Fig. 5. Calculation work flow for the two stages of compression

where β_k is the angle at which the grinding force is applied. According to Klymowsky et al. (2006): $\beta \approx \frac{\alpha_c}{2}$, thus the torque resulting from the grinding action is:

$$T_G \approx \sum_{k=1}^{n_k} F_k \sin \left(\frac{\alpha_{c,k}}{2} \right) \frac{D}{2}, \quad (19)$$

which must be multiplied by 2 to obtain the combined torque of both rolls. Therefore, the grinding power, or the net power consumption per block is:

$$\dot{W}_{N,k} = 2F_k \sin \left(\frac{\alpha_{c,k}}{2} \right) \eta, \quad (20)$$

and the total power draw of the HPGR is:

$$\dot{W} = 2\omega T = \frac{4\eta}{D}(T_G + T_0). \quad (21)$$

2.7 Particle size distribution

A population balance describes the particle size distribution of the HPGR product. Two grinding mechanisms are assumed to exist: single particle compression, and bed particle compression grinding as shown on Fig 3.

The proposed model is largely inspired by the work of Torres and Casali (2009) but introduces the following updates: (1) a subdivision of the single compression zone to account for every block, (2) a varying hold up along blocks, and (3) upgraded breakage and selection functions. Fig. 5 illustrates the calculation work flow. If the particle size in class i and block k $d_{p,i,k}$ is greater than the critical size $d_{p,c,k}$ shown in Fig 3, then it will break through single particle compression before undergoing particle bed compression. The material feeding the second grinding zone $\dot{M}_{FL,i,k}$ is therefore the sum of the mass flow rate of initial material smaller than $d_{p,c,k}$ and the product of the single particle compression grinding in class i and block k ($\dot{M}_{PS,i,k}$). The critical size in each block is derived from a steady-state momentum balance as:

$$d_{p,c,k} = d_g + D(1 - \cos(\alpha_{c,k})). \quad (22)$$

The particles in block k and size class i greater than $d_{p,c,k}$ will break according to the breakage matrix:

$$\dot{M}_{PS,i,k} = \sum_{l=1}^{n_i} b_{i,l} \dot{M}_{FS,l,k}, \quad (23)$$

where $b_{i,l}$ is the breakage matrix coefficients, $\dot{M}_{FS,l,k}$ is the particle size distribution of the HPGR feed in block k , and n_i is the number of size classes.

The particle bed compression grinding zone assumes plug flow of particles, hence the mass balance along the height of the zone is (Torres and Casali, 2009):

$$v_z \frac{d}{dz} m_{i,k}(z) = \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} s_{j,k} b_{i,j} m_{j,k}(z) - s_{i,k} m_{i,k}(z), \quad (24)$$

where v_z is the vertical speed of particles at height level z , $m_{i,k}$, the mass of particles of size class i in block k , $s_{i,k}$, the i, i element of the diagonal selection matrix for the k block, i.e. the rate at which a particle of size i is fragmented, and $b_{i,j}$, the i, j coefficient of the breakage matrix. As proposed by Torres and Casali (2009), both grinding zones use the same breakage matrix.

The previous differential equation has an analytic solution (Reid, 1965) from border conditions:

$$\frac{d}{dt} m_{i,k}(z = z_k^*) = \dot{M}_{FL,i,k},$$

and

$$\frac{d}{dt} m_{i,k}(z = 0) = \dot{M}_{P,i,k},$$

where z_k^* is the height at the beginning of the bed particle compression zone, and $\dot{M}_{P,i,k}$, the HPGR product mass flow rate of size i in block k . The value of z_k^* is found geometrically as shown in Fig. 3 (Torres and Casali, 2009):

$$z_k^* = \frac{D}{2} \sin(\alpha_{c,k}). \quad (25)$$

The analytic solution of Eq. (24) is (Torres and Casali, 2009):

$$\dot{M}_{P,i,k} = \sum_{j=1}^i a_{i,j,k} \exp(-s_{j,k} \tau_k), \quad (26)$$

where τ_k is the residence time in block k , and $a_{i,j,k}$ is:

$$a_{i,j,k} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i < j \\ \sum_{l=j}^{i-1} \frac{b_{i,l} s_{l,k}}{s_{i,k} - s_{j,k}} & \text{if } i > j \\ \dot{M}_{FL,i,k} - \sum_{l=1}^{i-1} a_{i,l,k} & \text{if } i = j. \end{cases}$$

The breakage and selection matrix are calculated through their respective function. Torres and Casali (2009) used a normalized breakage function. More recently, Anticoi et al. (2018) performed piston press particle bed compression tests and noticed that the breakage function was not always normal depending on the ore. Hence, the model here makes use of the non-normalized breakage function from Austin and Luckie (1972), with the matrix cumulative coefficients:

$$b_{i,j}^* = K_i \left(\frac{d_{p,i}}{d_{p,j}} \right)^{h_2} + (1 - K_i) \left(\frac{d_{p,i}}{d_{p,j}} \right)^{h_3} \quad (27)$$

with

$$K_i = h_1 \left(\frac{d_{p,i}}{h_5} \right)^{h_4}, \quad (28)$$

where h_1 to h_5 are empirical parameters. If the breakage function is normal, then h_4 becomes 0. $b_{i,j}^*$ is the breakage matrix coefficients expressed in cumulative form. The discrete breakage matrix coefficient $b_{i,j}$ are:

$$b_{i,j} = b_{i-1,j}^* - b_{i,j}^*. \quad (29)$$

Herbst and Fuerstenau (1980) defined the elements of the energy-based selection function s_i^E as:

$$\ln \left(\frac{s_i^E}{S_1^E} \right) = \zeta_1 \ln \left(\frac{\bar{d}_{p,i}}{\bar{d}_{p,1}} \right) + \zeta_2 \left(\ln \left(\frac{\bar{d}_{p,i}}{\bar{d}_{p,1}} \right) \right)^2, \quad (30)$$

where ζ_1 , ζ_2 et S_1^E are empirical parameters. $\bar{d}_{p,1}$ and $\bar{d}_{p,i}$ are the average size in class 1 (coarsest) and i , respectively. For each block k , the elements of the diagonal selection matrix are estimated considering an energy dissipation factor γ (Fuerstenau et al., 1991):

$$s_{i,k} = \frac{\dot{W}_{N,k}}{\left(\dot{W}_{N,k} / \dot{M}_k \right)^\gamma} s_i^E. \quad (31)$$

At steady-state, the hold up will depend on the residence time of each block which is found using geometry, as:

$$\tau_k = \arcsin \left(\frac{2z_k^*}{\sqrt{D}} \right) \frac{\sqrt{D}}{2\eta} \approx \frac{z_k^*}{\eta}. \quad (32)$$

Summing along the n blocks provide the total mass flow rate in class i :

$$\dot{M}_{P,i} = \sum_{k=1}^{n_k} \dot{M}_{P,i,k}. \quad (33)$$

The edge flow rate per class:

$$\dot{M}_{E,i} = \sum_{k \in \Gamma} \dot{M}_{P,i,k} \quad (34)$$

allows estimating the total edge flow rate as:

$$\dot{M}_E = \sum_{k \in \Gamma} \dot{M}_k, \quad (35)$$

where the Γ set contains the blocks in edge area, i.e. the blocks delimited by the edge cutter positions.

2.8 HPGR feed bin

A variable transport delay models the feed system bin as a function of ore level.

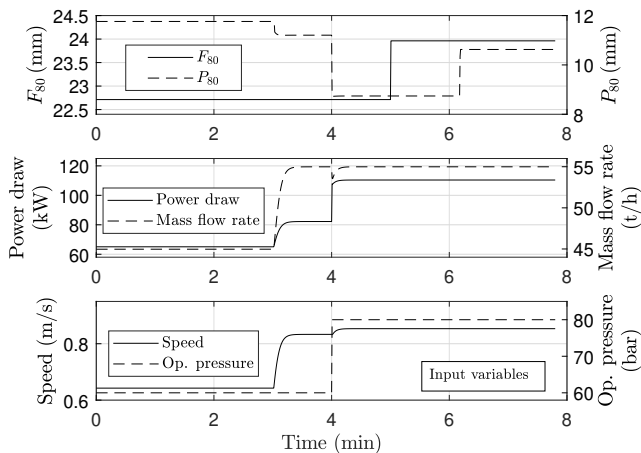


Fig. 6. Simulation results

3. SIMULATION

Fig. 6 presents a simulation example in which a PI controller keeps the feed bin level constant by varying the rolls speed. Three cases are simulated: fresh ore feed rate to the HPGR bin inlet variation (+10 t/h step change at $t = 3$ min), operating pressure set-point step change ($t = 4$ min), and inlet ore size disturbance (increased sieve dimension greater than 80% of feed particles (F_{80}) at $t = 5$ min).

Speed and pressure both increase power draw significantly. The former has a large effect on the processing rate, but very little on the sieve dimension greater than 80% of product particles (P_{80}), while the latter has the opposite effects. The effect of increasing the pressure on the mass flow rate is explained by the decreasing working gap. Increasing the speed slightly reduces the P_{80} as explained by the relationship between the selection function and the power draw (Eq. (31)). These results are consistent with the experimental observations of Lim et al. (1997).

As expected, feeding a coarser, but equally hard, ore results only in an increased P_{80} . It affects neither the mass flow rate, nor the power draw.

4. DISCUSSION

More data are needed to validate the grinding pressure distributions used in this model (Eq. (6) and (7)). Indeed, Lubjuhn (1992) developed his model from a lab scale HPGR, equipped with only three sensors, and assuming symmetry. Also, the pressure distribution for industrial scale HPGR's was derived from discrete element modeling rather than from actual measurements (Johansson and Evertsson, 2019). Back-calculating the grinding pressure distribution from test data, using different edge settings and this simulation framework, should cast some light on this issue.

Regarding the gap prediction, only the speed and pressure are considered in Eq. (8), which limits the range of application in simulation studies. As an example, Fig. 7 depicts the important effect of moisture on the measured working gap during HPGR pilot scale tests carried out by Weir Minerals. The feed particle size is also expected to display a significant effect, as it is known to influence

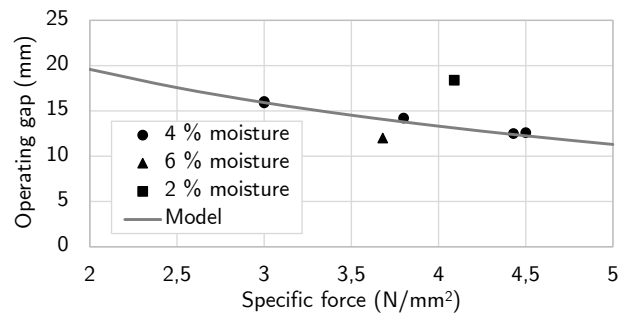


Fig. 7. Eq. (8) predictions with 4 % moisture content and $k_5 = 1$

particle bed compaction behavior (Hosten and Cimilli, 2009). This requires further work.

Campos et al. (2019) and Morrell et al. (1997b) found the basic continuity equation to sometimes be inaccurate for mass flow prediction, and proposed slip or extrusion factors to account for discrepancies. However, Schönert and Sander (2002) showed that no slip was possible inside the gap. The model presented in this paper is in agreement with these findings. It is expected that the lack of precision of the continuity equation will be corrected by considering the extrusion density distribution along the roll width as in Eq. (15).

The proposed power model is different from the one published by Torres and Casali (2009):

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n_k} \dot{W}_{N,k} = P_o D L \eta \sin\left(\frac{\bar{\alpha}_c}{2}\right), \quad (36)$$

which has been used extensively (e.g. by Hasanzadeh and Farzanegan (2011) and Numbi and Xia (2015)). Although this equation seemed to be adequate in its original paper, Campos et al. (2019) introduced a correction factor to explain more recent experimental results. This model attempt to explain the discrepancy in a different manner, albeit validation work still needs to be undertaken: (1) a piston area converts operating pressure to grinding force explicitly, (2) the area where the grinding pressure is applied is only the nipping area as opposed to the whole top half, and (3) the material density in the extrusion zone changes according to the position along the roll.

Figure 8 depicts data from Austin et al. (1993). The remaining material in the coarsest sieve class after HPGR grinding is plotted as a function of the specific energy consumption, which was manipulated by varying the hydraulic pressure. Both the breakage rate models used in Torres and Casali (2009) (without γ) and the one used here are calibrated on the data set. The quality of the fit indicates that using the energy dissipation factor increases the accuracy of the breakage rate model as suggested by Fuerstenau et al. (1991).

5. CONCLUSION

This paper presented a general framework of a steady-state HPGR model that considers the edge setting as an input parameter. The calculation workflow involves esti-

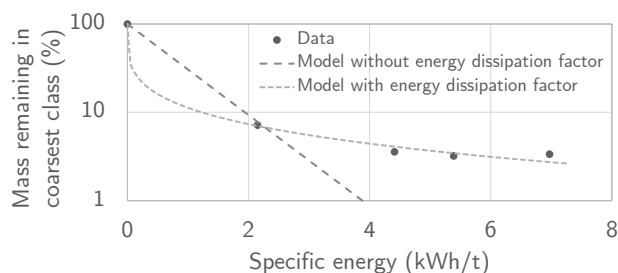


Fig. 8. Effect of the energy dissipation factor γ

inating a density distribution to account for the previous inaccuracies in mass flow and power draw predictions.

Future work will include quantifying the effect of the moisture and feed particle size on the working gap and extrusion density distribution, validating the capacity and power models, and calibrating the model. The simulator will then be used along with grinding and flotation models (Thivierge et al., 2019) to study the issue of designing and controlling HPGR circuits to increase the economic performance, and reduce energy consumption.

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