

DEFORMATION OF COMPACTS
OF MAGNESIUM HYDROXIDE DURING
DEHYDROXYLATION

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ABSTRACT

The deformation behaviour of polycrystalline compacts of Mg(OH)_2 during dehydroxylation has been studied in an attempt to evaluate the nature of strain that can be introduced into the compact during the reaction. A study of neck-growth between tips of single crystals of Ca(OH)_2 and between two hemispherical tips of Mg(OH)_2 compacts showed both deformation and interaction at the contact point during the dehydroxylation reaction. Load-dependent deformation of the compacts gave a total strain proportional to the one-third power of the applied stress. The creep deformation of Mg(OH)_2 compacts during dehydroxylation was also studied under isothermal conditions. The overall creep behaviour can be divided into three stages. The initial stage is initiated by the dehydroxylation reaction. During the second or steady state creep stage the highest creep rate was obtained. The steady state creep rate was determined as a function of temperature, pressure, and relative density of the green compact. The results are represented by:

$$\dot{\epsilon} = \dot{\epsilon}_0 + \frac{A \sigma}{\rho} \exp \left(\frac{-17500}{RT} \right) t^{-1}$$

Particle sliding was considered to be the most probable mechanism for creep during the second stage.

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CHAPTER I

1. Introduction

1. 1 Reactive Hot Pressing

Several workers have recently (1-4) shown that the hot pressing of the decomposable compounds such as $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$, etc. during the decomposition reaction results in high density products. The process utilizes a transient "reactivity" resulting from either chemical decomposition (1-4) or a polymorphic phase transformation (5) to obtain dense, high strength ceramic bodies at comparatively low temperatures and pressures, usually below 1000°C and 10,000 psi. The process has all the advantages of conventional hot pressing: low porosity and hence high strength in the product, fine grain size since recrystallization and grain growth are minimized by the comparatively low temperatures, and accurate dimensions of the product, as well as requiring lower temperatures and holding times than the conventional hot pressing process.

The process has been applied to many ceramic systems. Chaklader and McKenzie (4) pressed several natural clays as well as synthetic hydroxides of aluminum and magnesium. Unstabilized zirconia was densified(5) by cycling it through the monoclinic ~~1100°C~~ 860°C tetragonal phase transformation, and up to 99.8% of theoretical density was obtained. Another application(6) was to the production of cermets of alumina with iron, copper and chromium. The low temperature required for the decomposition of boehemite (600°C)

resulted in a minimal formation of interfacial phases which could reduce the strength of the product.

Morgan and Schaeffer (7) have reported work on the fabrication of magnesia by a process they call "pressure calcinering", which is essentially identical to reactive hot pressing; They conducted a series of investigation of the process, analysing such effects as the nature (chemical history) of the precursor and the effect of impurity content on densification.

Chaklader and Cook (8) have also studied the hot pressing characteristics of the $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2 \longrightarrow \text{MgO}$ system, as well as boehmite and two clays.

1. 1. 1 Hypotheses for Reactive Hot Pressing

(8)
In the earlier papers they suggested that the formation of strong, dense compacts by reactive hot pressing might be associated with an "enhanced reactivity" during or just after a phase change, which is known as the "Hedvall Effect". (9) The precise nature of this reactivity has not been established, although Chaklader has made the following statements regarding the mechanisms of reactive hot pressing: (4).

"The idea of using the high reactivity of a solid during a decomposition reaction or a polymorphic phase change (the Hedvall Effect) for densification stems from the following hypotheses and observations:

(a) Broken bonds and unsatisfied valence links exist both on the surface and in the bulk of particles undergoing a decomposition reaction; these broken bonds and links may be available for inter-face reaction leading to interparticle bonding.

(b) Very transient instability of the atomic position during a reaction can produce a transient plastic state which may be utilized for densification".

The first proposition is easily accepted. It is well known that bonds of strength comparable to the bulk tensile strength of the material are formed by clean metal surfaces in frictional contact in high vacuum where surface contamination is prevented. Contact areas are obtained from electrical resistance measurements. While the nature of chemical bonding in ceramics is quite unlike the metallic bond, it is easy to understand the possibility of bond formation where clean oxide surfaces are brought together intimately on an atomic scale. It is the necessity of producing suitable contact that precludes the production of frictional bonding in ceramic systems. Plastic flow is required to bring finite areas into contact, and under low temperature conditions sufficient flow is not possible. Therefore it can be seen that the formation of interparticle bonds of finite strength depends upon some mass transfer mechanism, such as plastic flow or diffusion. It is to be expected that the large evolution of water vapour (or some other gas) would have a purging effect, reducing possible surface contaminants to such a low level that bonding can take place freely between contacting

asperities.

The second proposition, concerning a transient transformation plasticity*, is more important. To see exactly how plastic flow enters the densification process it is useful to consider the possible means of densification of a powder compact subjected to pressure at an elevated temperature (hot pressing).

1. 1. 2 Theories of Hot Pressing

The behaviour of a compact through a history of die filling in a gravitational field, vibratory compaction, applied pressure, densification up to the point of closed pore formation, and finally mechanisms of pore elimination can be followed. The factors which control the compaction of a powder to a dense body are manifold: particle size, particle size distribution, particle shape, the mechanical properties of the material - i. e. its susceptibility to fracture or flow, or its work hardening rate if plastic flow occurs, the anisotropy of mechanical properties, the melting point, surface energy and finally the rates of self diffusion and of grain growth. Some of these properties are obviously interrelated.

* Transformation plasticity is taken to denote an anomalous propensity for plastic flow, manifested by low flow stress and usually by large "ductility", accompanying a solid-solid phase transformation or decomposition reaction.

When a powder is placed in some container (say a die) the density obtained will be quite low since irregularly shaped particles may form bridges, or powder with a range of particle sizes may segregate, giving rise to less efficient packing than if the sizes were thoroughly mixed. (This segregation will not be altered by subsequent operations and therefore will not be considered further).

If subjected to either vibration or pressure, particle rearrangement will occur, filling large voids. Vibration will quickly produce a packing density characteristic of the particle shape and size distribution. Application of pressure will cause densification by fracture and flow of the particles, depending on the strength and ductility of the particles. Only a very soft material can densify completely by the flow mechanism, and no useful ceramic material can be fabricated to high density by flow alone on a commercial basis. The constraint offered by surrounding particles probably prevents densification beyond the point at which a line contact between three or more particles is formed. From this point mass transport by bulk diffusion, surface (i. e. grain boundary) diffusion, or by evaporation - condensation is probably a more important factor than plastic behaviour, in most cases Nabarro-Herring (diffusional) creep may be operative, although this mechanism is not considered a likely one⁽¹⁰⁾. The elimination of trapped gas from pores may be a problem since the pressure will eventually counteract the available driving force (reduction of surface

energy plus applied pressure) unless the gas is soluble and therefore can diffuse through the structure. The densification of MgO by pressure calcining of $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ has been shown to occur in two stages. Approximately half the observed densification occurs simultaneously with the dehydroxylation of the brucite. The remainder of the densification takes place from about 550°C until the final density is reached, usually at about 850° to 900°C . Similar behaviour has been observed by Chaklader and Cook⁽⁸⁾. This is shown in Figure 1. Morgan and Schaeffer⁽⁷⁾ have suggested that the first stage of densification is a result of a slip mechanism based on their observation of the formation of a (111) texture in magnesia resulting from the first stage. This departs from the theory earlier propounded by Morgan and Scala⁽²⁾ who suggested that crumbling of the precursor brucite flakes into tiny periclase (MgO) cubelets was responsible for the initial densification.

The second stage is probably due to diffusional transport or grain growth processes. This is confirmed by the fact that no additional textural development has been observed during stage II. The previously determined properties of the experimental system are summarized in section 1.4.

1.2 Objectives of this Investigation

The purpose of this investigation is to study the flow characteristics of powder compacts of $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ during the dehydroxylation reaction and thus to provide evidence of transformation

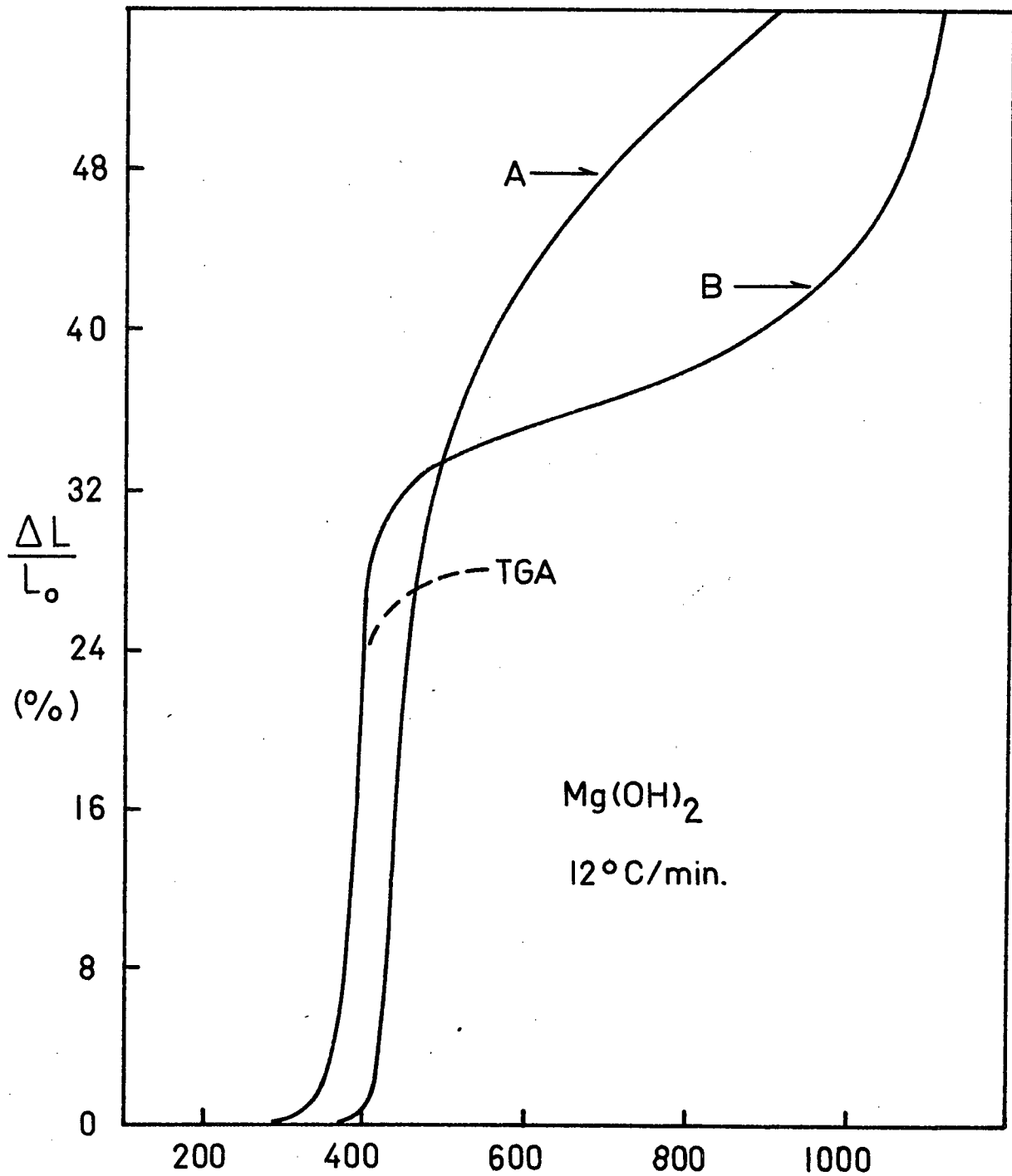


FIGURE 1 Compaction of $Mg(OH)_2$ as a function of temperature.
(After Chaklader and Cook, **B** (8) and Morgan and Scala, **A** (2)).

plasticity. If a flow process is operating during the dehydroxylation, its presence should aid in understanding the enhanced densification observed during the reactive hot pressing of a decomposable compound.

An attempt has also been made to explore the possibility of bond formation across the interface between two single crystals while decomposing under load.

1.3 Choice of Experimental System

When this study was first being considered it was felt that some material available as natural or easily grown single crystals would make a suitable precursor. Calcite is an obvious choice, as very large and quite pure single crystals are commercially available. Unfortunately, however, the decomposition of calcite does not give a coherent CaO layer on the calcite surface, as has been demonstrated by several workers.⁽¹¹⁾ Thus, as expected, early experiments with this material were unsuccessful.

The second choice was the system Ca(OH)_2 (Portlandite) - CaO, as small crystals of Ca(OH)_2 are quite easily grown⁽¹²⁾. This system has the disadvantage that both the product and precursor transform readily to calcium carbonate upon exposure to moist air containing CO_2 , i. e. the laboratory atmosphere, making handling difficult if contamination is to be avoided.

Therefore, in order to study quantitatively the nature of transformation plasticity cold compacts of synthetic magnesium

hydroxide powder were produced. These compacts were subjected to compressive creep deformation (at low stresses) during the dehydroxylation reaction, under varying conditions. Magnesium hydroxide was chosen for these experiments as it has several advantages over other possible choices: the structural relationship between precursor and product is simple, the crystal structures themselves are simple, and the reaction kinetics and morphology are quite well understood. The materials are also relatively easy to handle (although magnesia with high surface area rehydrates in moist air) and finally magnesia is a useful refractory. The relevant properties of this system are considered in the next section.

1.4 Properties of the Experimental System

The behaviour of the $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ - MgO system has been the subject of considerable investigation, mainly because of the influence of the conditions of decomposition on the subsequent hot pressing or sintering behaviour of the product phase. "Active" MgO is produced by the calcination of $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ at low temperatures, which produces high specific surface areas, as will be seen later.

1.4.1 Physical and Chemical Properties

Table I summarizes some important properties of the precursor-product pair. The decomposition $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2 \longrightarrow \text{MgO} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ occurs at temperatures in excess of 300°C , and is essentially complete (except for the removal of absorbed water) at about 400°C .

TABLE I

PROPERTIES of $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ and MgO

	Brucite $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$		Periclase MgO
Formula Weight	58.34		40.32
Ratio	1 1.449	: :	0.691 1
Specific Gravity	2.385		3.58 (20)
Structure	Hexagonal		Cubic
Type	CdI_2		NaCl
Lattice Parameters	$a_0 = 3.147\text{\AA}$ $c_0 = 4.769\text{\AA}$		$a_0 = 4.213\text{\AA}$ (21)
Bond Lengths	O - O 3.13, 2.98 \AA Mg - O 2.16 \AA		O - O 2.98 \AA (22) Mg - O 2.10 \AA

$$\Delta H_R +19 \text{ Kcal/mol at } 600^\circ \text{ K}$$

Decomposition of single crystals has shown (13-15) that a pseudo-morphous product is obtained, with only a few percent shrinkage from the original dimensions. The product crystal is only 47 volume percent MgO, and is composed of an aggregate of very small (about 100 Å, (15)) crystallites having a definite crystallographic relationship to the brucite.

1.4.2 Structural Aspects of the Decomposition

Brucite ($\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$) has a CdI_2 type structure, with the hydroxyl ions arranged in hexagonal (close packed layers) in hcp stacking sequence. The Mg^{++} ions are in octahedral sites between every second pair of OH layers. The arrangement is shown schematically in Figure 2. This stacking of OH layers results in a pronounced basal cleavage and in the characteristic "platy" shape of the hydroxide (Figure 9).

Periclase (MgO) has a NaCl type (cubic) structure , (Figure 2), consisting of oxygen ions in close packed layers, forming the (111) planes, with Mg in all the octahedral sites.

A number of investigators (13-15) have considered the structural relationships involved in the dehydroxylation reaction. The most recent and authoritative work is that of Gordon and Kingery (15), which consists of electron and optical microscopy, and a kinetic study. The mechanisms proposed by various authors are summarized in Table II, which includes both morphological and kinetic aspects.

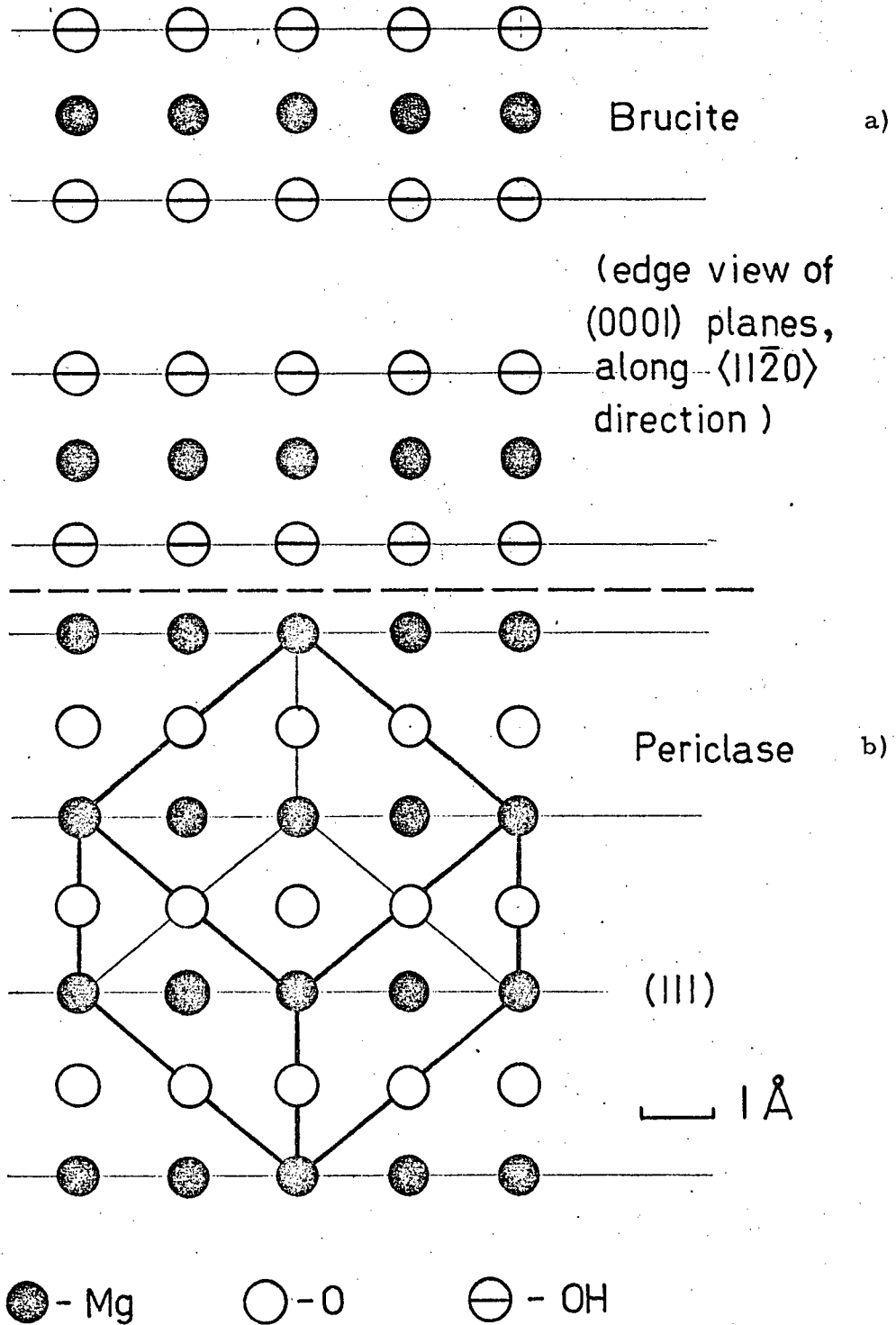


FIGURE 2 a) Structure of $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ - Schematic representation
b) Structure of MgO - Schematic representation

TABLE II SUMMARY OF MECHANISMS AND KINETICS OF $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ DEHYDROXYLATION

Authors	Mechanism or Model	Type of Kinetics	Activation Energy, kcal/mol
Kingery and Gordon ⁽¹⁵⁾	1) Nucleation and growth process, with coherent nucleation, resultant large strains and fissuring. 2) A small amount of decomposition causes large changes in the physical state of the crystal, having a considerable effect on the subsequent process and product. The model explains: a) the structural relationship. b) the product crystallite size. c) the cracking process, and d) the d-spacing range.	First order for small particles, thick single crystals more complex.	38 - 43
Anderson and Horlock ⁽¹⁴⁾	An interface reaction, described in terms of a contracting disc along the basal plane.		19 - 27
Gregg and Razouk	Described weight loss data satisfactorily in terms of the contracting sphere model.		12 - 27
Zhabrova and Gordeeva ⁽¹⁸⁾	Showed that their data could be described equally well by the contracting sphere or unimolecular decay law.		

The list is not exhaustive, but includes the most recent and significant work in this field.

Various decomposition studies performed in the electron microscope have shown the crystallographic relationship developed between the periclase and the parent brucite (13-15). One set of the (111) planes of the periclase are normal to the c-axis of the brucite. In addition, the $\langle 110 \rangle$ direction of the periclase is parallel to the $\langle 110 \rangle$ direction of the parent brucite.

Gordon and Kingery concluded that the decomposition of brucite is most likely a nucleation and growth process in which coherent nucleation of MgO results in large coherency strains and cracking, in the very early stages of weight loss as shown in Figure 3 . This cracking is a major change in the physical state of the crystal, and has a pronounced effect on the subsequent process and products. This model explains: a) the observed structural relationship, b) the small crystallite size of the product, c) the observed cracking process, and d) the observation of a range of d-spacings during the decomposition process.

Anderson and Horlock⁽⁴⁾ found that the reaction proceeded from the edges of the brucite platelets (for large single crystals approximately 1 by 3 mm), producing a "polycrystallization" subsequently attributed to the coherency strain by Gordon and Kingery. The former authors found that the major part of the decomposition

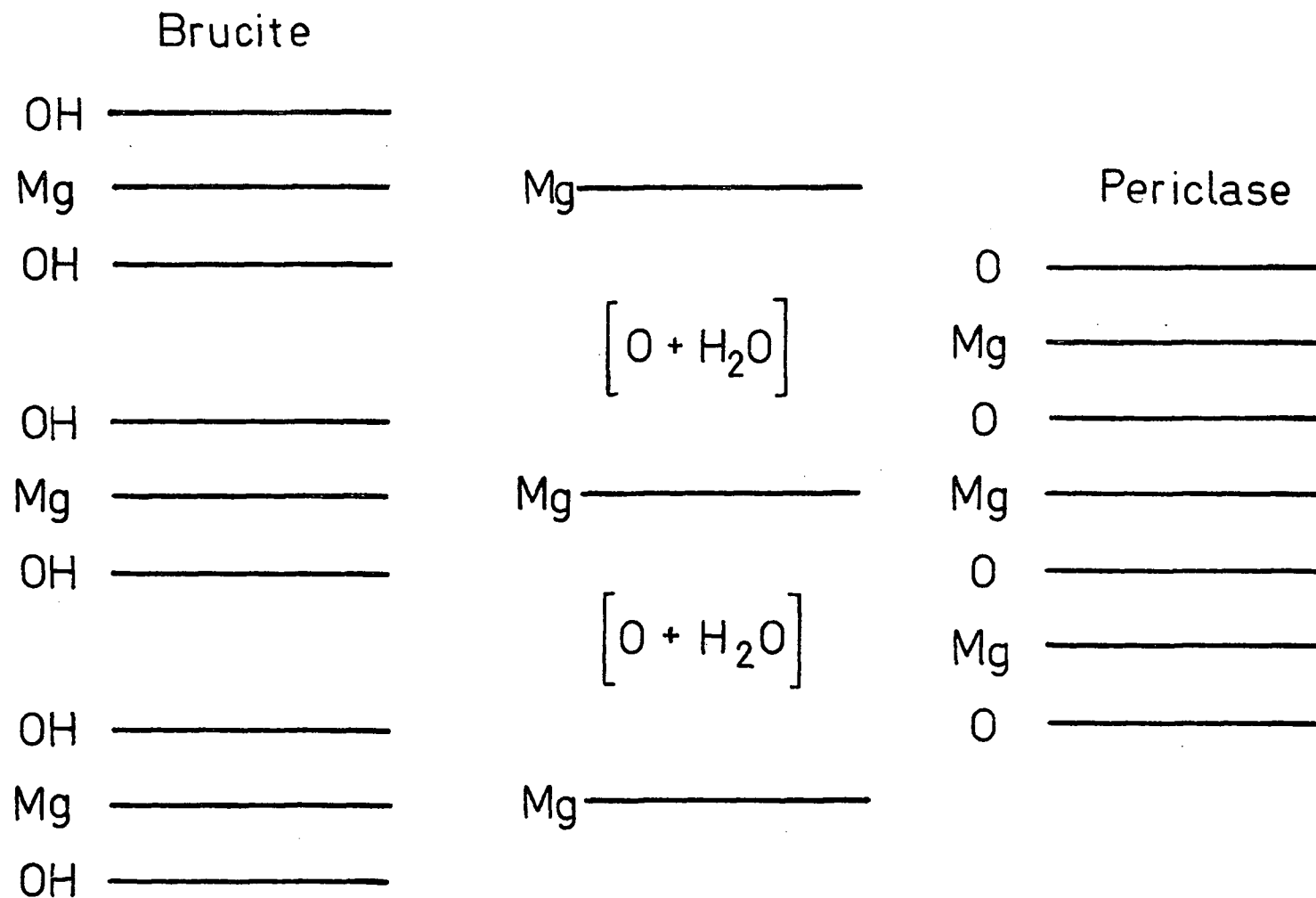


FIGURE 3 Goodman's ⁽¹³⁾ proposed mechanism for the dehydroxylation, showing collapse normal to the closed-packed oxygen planes in the formation of periclase.

originated at the "edge" of the platelets, an observation contradicted by Gordon and Kingery.

Goodman (13) was the first worker to use an electron microscope to study this decomposition, but he did not observe the initial cracking reported by the others. He was the first to recognize that the $O^=$ layers remained substantially undisturbed during the decomposition. This required diffusion of water (or its ionic components) between the $O^=$ layers, as schematically represented in Figure 3. Goodman proposed an atomistic mechanism that was essentially homogeneous. In this mechanism, he considered that H_2O was uniformly removed from all parts of the decomposing crystal (though not necessarily at the same time) by a two stage process. Water would first be formed by reaction between hydroxyl ions, causing the first observed shift in lattice parameter, and then eventually escape between the oxygen layers of the partially decomposed crystal, as shown in the Figure.

Although Gordon and Kingery did not make specific comment on the mass transport necessary for decomposition, Ball and Taylor (16) point out that the movement of the product water would be extremely likely to cause disruption of the material. They felt that the observed behaviour was described better by the concept of an inhomogeneous solid state reaction, operating as follows:

The decomposing crystal would develop donor and acceptor regions (Figure 4) between which diffusion of Mg^{++} (ionic

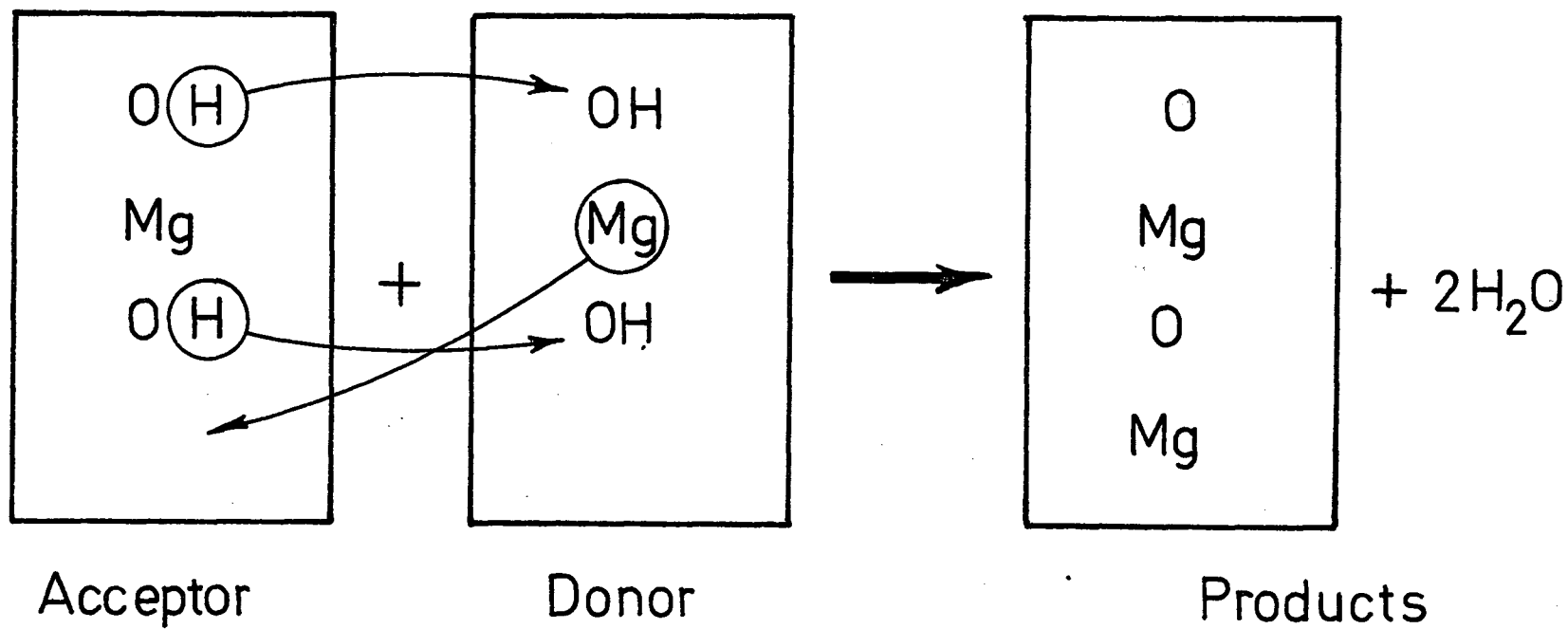


FIGURE 4 Ball and Taylor's proposed inhomogeneous mechanism for the dehydroxylation, showing donor and acceptor regions, and the diffusion of Mg^{++} and H^+ .

radius = 0.78Å, compared to about 1.75 for water) and H^+ would occur as shown. The donor regions (probably adjacent to free surfaces or cracks) would eventually be completely destroyed. The close packed OH^- layers of the acceptor regions would become close packed O^- layers, with the addition of sufficient Mg^{++} to form MgO .

1.4.3 Kinetics of Decomposition

The decomposition kinetics have been extensively investigated but no general agreement as to an exact mechanism has been made. Failure to obtain agreement has been attributed to variations in the material, experimental conditions, and in the size of the sample used (15).

Gregg and Razouk (17) interpreted their data by means of a contracting sphere model:

$$(1 - \alpha)^{1/3} = 1 - \frac{(k_2 t)}{R}$$

obtaining activation energies of 12 to 27 kcal/mole for $Mg(OH)_2$ powders, and 27.6 kcal/mole for brucite.

Anderson and Horlock (14) used a contracting disc model:

$$(1 - \alpha)^{1/2} = 1 - \frac{(k_2 t)}{R}$$

and obtained activation energies of 27.6 kcal/mole for powder, and 23.6 kcal/mole for two types of brucite.

Zhabrova and Gordeeva ⁽¹⁸⁾ had earlier shown that no single model could unequivocally be used: They fitted their data successfully to a contracting sphere relationship and to a uni-molecular (first order) decay law of the form

$$\ln (1-\alpha) = k_1 t + \text{constant}$$

in which k_1 is a nucleation rate constant and α is the fractional weight loss.

Gordon and Kingery ⁽¹⁵⁾ concluded that their data could best be interpreted using the unimolecular model, because of the complete disruption of the starting material early in the decomposition. Large crystals probably show mixed control as the fragmentation may be incomplete, making both contracting disc and the first order mechanism operative. They also concluded that the effect of water vapour back pressure was considerable causing discernable variation of rate with sample size, and from worker to worker with various conditions. Horlock, Morgan and Anderson ⁽¹⁹⁾ studied the effect of water vapour on the decomposition, showing that the rate of weight loss is much higher in vacuum than in water vapour atmosphere.

CHAPTER II

2. Experimental

2.1 Apparatus

The apparatus, shown in a schematic view in Figure 5, was constructed to permit the decomposition of various systems in a controlled atmosphere, since it was felt that gaseous atmospheres could produce considerable effects during and following decomposition. The design was intended to have fairly general applicability in the area of neck growth, sintering model studies, and for that reason incorporated some features not absolutely essential to the work forming the present study.

2.1.1 Furnace and Load Frame

The specimens themselves were mounted in a loading frame (Figure 6) which was removeable from the furnace for specimen mounting. The load frame was fabricated from Inconel X-750. The pushrod slid in boron nitride bushings, gave fairly low values of coefficient of static friction (about 0.05 when clean), permitting the use of small loads for studies with single crystals. The various "grips" slid onto the pushrod and anvil, permitting ready change from one type of specimen to another.

When in position in the furnace the load frame was enclosed by a resistant element consisting of 10 turns of No. 6 A. W. G. Chromel wire, operating at 10 volts. The furnace had a power rating of one

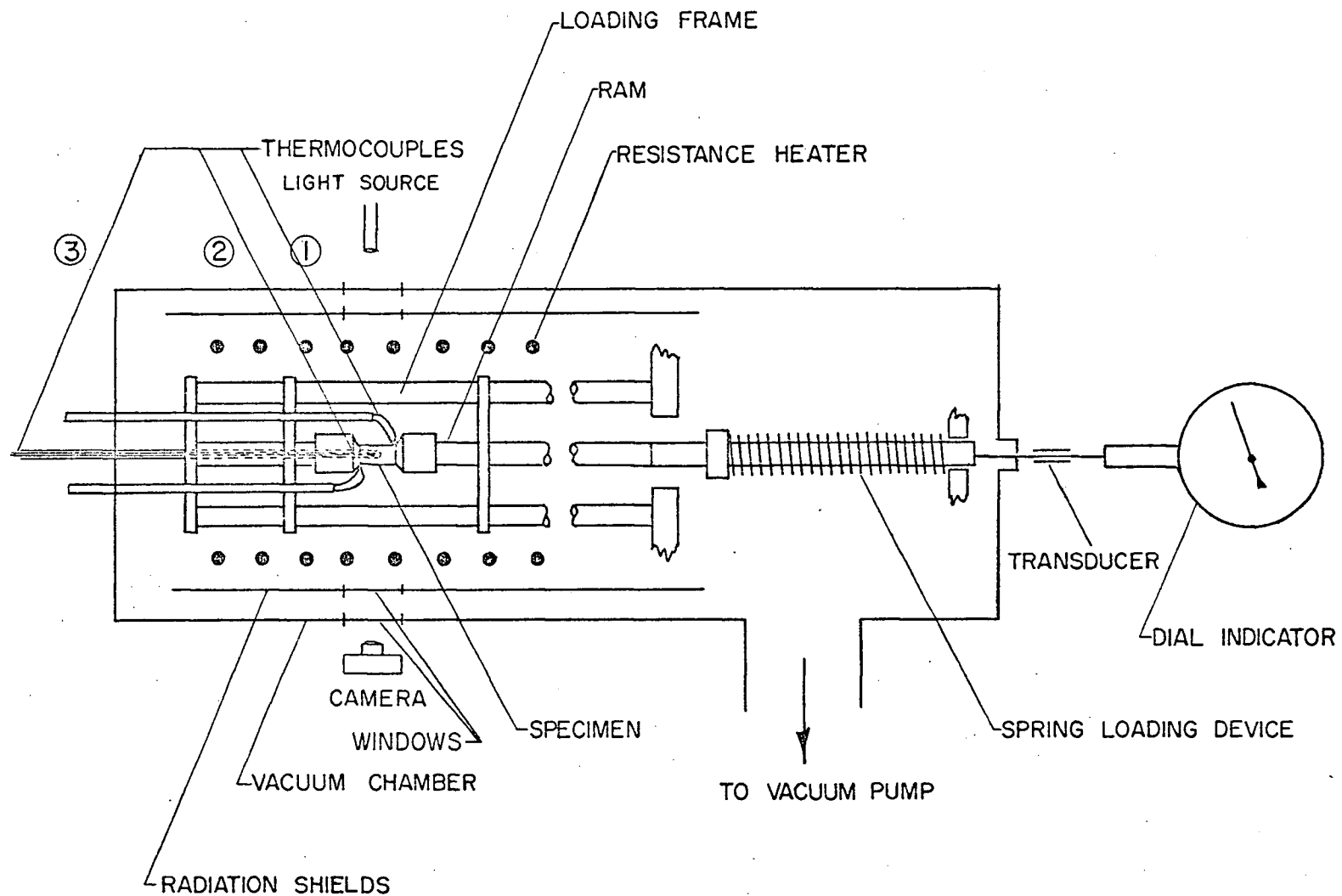


FIGURE 5 Schematic representation of the experimental apparatus.

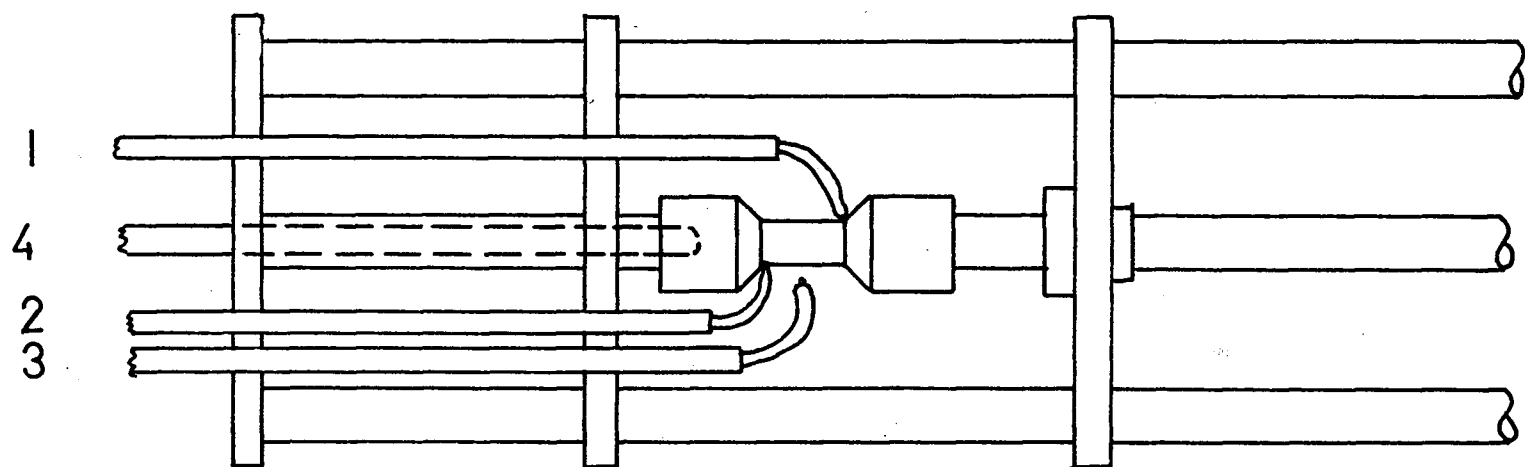


FIGURE 6 The loading frame, showing the thermocouples.

kilowatt with this winding. The heater was insulated from the water jacketted vacuum chamber by concentric silica tubes separated by corrugated stainless steel radiation shields, which provided reasonably efficient insulation with minimum surface area, permitting easy pump-down to high vacuums.

2. 1. 2 Vacuum System

The furnace chamber was fitted with two 2 inch diameter Pyrex windows, permitting viewing of the specimen when in position in the furnace. The sight path was through 3/4 inch holes in the furnace insulation and between turns of the heating coil.

The pumping system consisted of a 2 inch Edwards EO2 oil diffusion pump with liquid nitrogen trap and butterfly isolation valve, backed by a Balzers Duo 5 mechanical pump. Coarse and fine bleed valves permitted admission of any desired gas or vapour into the chamber, and by balancing bleed rate against pumping rate any desired pressure between 1 atmosphere and 1×10^{-5} Torr could be obtained fairly easily.

Vacuum gauging was by means of an Edwards Piranni-Penning gauge unit.

2. 1. 3 Photography

Specimens in the furnace were photographed with one of two different lens systems, depending on the magnification required. A conventional 135 mm Telephoto lens with extension tubes permitted magnification slightly in excess of 1:1, and higher magnifications were provided by Leitz Optics, having a magnification of about 4 x . The

specimens were photographed in silhouette, being backlighted by a microscope illuminator. The camera was a 35 mm single lens reflex.

2. 1. 4 Loading and Displacement Measurement

The pushrod of the loading frame was contacted by a spring loading device. Substitution of different springs permitted loads from 10 grams to about 3 kilograms for the present experiments. This system had an inherent load variation with displacement but for the small displacements involved it was not felt that the variation would be significant. The springs were selected to minimize this effect. A piece of hardened 0.030 diameter drill rod passing through a slightly undersized hole in a piece of 1/8 inch thick neoprene rubber provided a means of transmitting the motion outside the vacuum system. The rod was smeared with vacuum grease and provided a very low friction force which was almost exactly balanced by the ram force of the dial indicator, about 20 grams, and was only used for loads in excess of 100 grams and so did not provide a large source of error in the load.

The displacement was measured in two ways; by an inductive displacement transducer connected to a Phillips strain gauge bridge and Heathkit strip chart recorder, or directly by a Starret dial indicator (0.0001 inch per division), connected in tandem with the transducer. Use of the transducer-recorder combination was terminated after experience showed that correction for the drift of the recorder involved more difficulty than manual recording of the dial indicator readings.

2. 1. 5 Furnace Temperature Control and Power Supply

Temperature measurement was by means of Chromel-Alumel thermocouples. These were either connected directly to a compensated potentiometer controller (Honeywell Servotronic or Versatronic) or connected to a Pye Potentiometer or Heathkit recorder with an icewater (0°C) cold junction. Most of the experimental work with magnesium hydroxide was done using three thermocouples (Figure 6) of No. 32 A. W. G. wire. For the experiments two of the thermocouples were in contact with the specimen and grip (Nos. 1 & 2) while the third was free to measure radiant temperature within the furnace. Thermocouples 1 and 2 were generally in agreement within 5 degrees Centigrade, while the third was as much as 20 and 30 degrees different, depending on the particular thermal conditions.

For some of the early experiments temperature was measured by means of a 1/8 inch O. D. Inconel sheathed thermocouple, placed inside the fixed grip. This obviously was not representative of the specimen temperature except under isothermal (steady state) conditions, but it was used for temperature control during linearly increasing temperature runs.

The power to the furnace windings was supplied by 2 KVA Powerstat which was used in conjunction with the controllers to provide optimum control at a particular temperature setting.

2.2 Experimental Technique

2.2.1 Growth of $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ (Portlandite) Single Crystals

The $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ single crystals used were grown by the inter-diffusion of solutions of potassium hydroxide and calcium chloride by a technique due to Dave and Chopra ⁽¹²⁾, modified slightly as follows:

A 100 ml beaker was placed inside a 600 ml beaker, Figure 7, and the two were filled with CO_2 - free distilled water (prepared by bubbling nitrogen through distilled water) just above the top of the 100 ml beaker. In this work the solutions were introduced through two stopped funnels through fine glass tubing extensions rather than by pipette as suggested in the reference in order to prevent turbulence and premature mixing of the solutions.

When the distilled water had been added and the funnels filled with saturated solutions of KOH and CaCl_2 molten paraffin wax was poured onto the distilled water to a depth of about 1/4 inch to prevent contamination by atmospheric gases. 50 ml of the KOH solution and 40 ml of CaCl_2 was admitted to the beakers. In two or three days crystals started to appear on the outside of the small beaker and the inside of the larger one. In four days growth was essentially complete and the wax was lifted out and the crystals carefully removed from the walls of the beaker by scraping them off with a stirring rod equipped with a rubber scraper. The crystals were rinsed with distilled water and then stored in tightly capped jars. Each run produced about 500 small crystals. Only a small number of them were suitable for

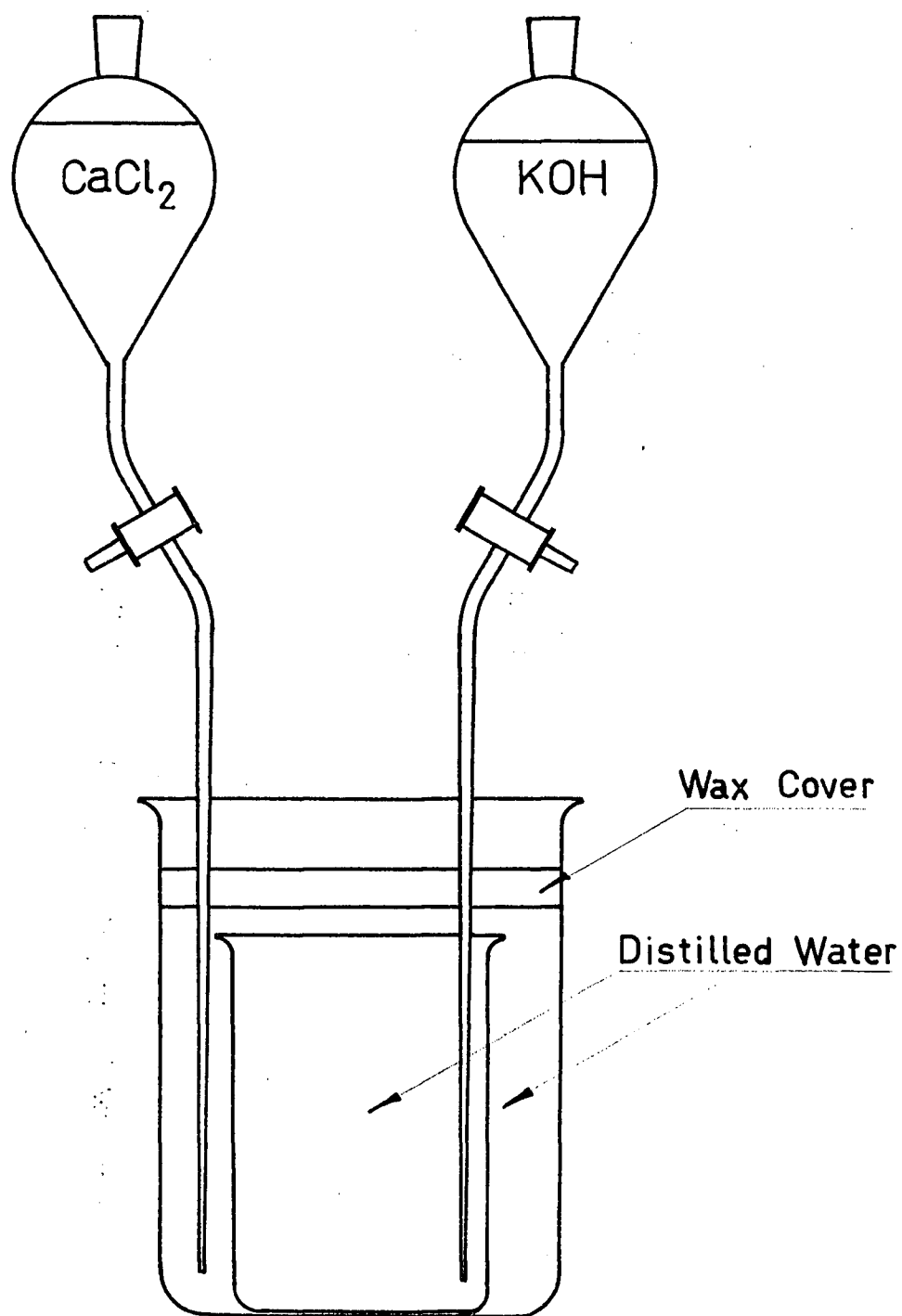


FIGURE 7 The apparatus used for growing Ca(OH)_2 crystals.

experiments as many were either very small, quite imperfect or broken fragments of larger crystals. The crystals had obvious hexagonal morphology and fractured very easily on the basal planes. Typical defects were pockets of trapped solution, or "pipe" extending some distance into the crystals from the root end.

The crystals were not analysed as purity was not felt to be of great importance at this stage of the investigation, but Dave and Chopra ⁽¹²⁾ quote 99.65% Ca(OH)_2 and 99.6% of the theoretical calcium in their crystals.

2.2.2 Experiments on Tip to Tip Contact

A. Ca(OH)_2 Crystals

For these experiments the camera set-up with 4 X magnification was used to view and record the behaviour of the crystals. During these early experiments the linear temperature programmer was not available so the heating rate was uncontrolled, giving a temperature - time profile similar to that shown in Figure 8.

The procedure of selection and mounting was tedious as the useful crystals were typically very small; less than 1 mm in diameter and 2 to 3 mm long. Crystals of good size and shape were selected from their storage jar, examined under a microscope (50X) to ensure suitable tip shape, then lightly etched in 10^{-4} N Hydrochloric acid solution; followed by rinsing in distilled water to give a fresh surface, then mounted, loaded and evacuated as quickly as possible to minimize surface transformation to CaCO_3 .

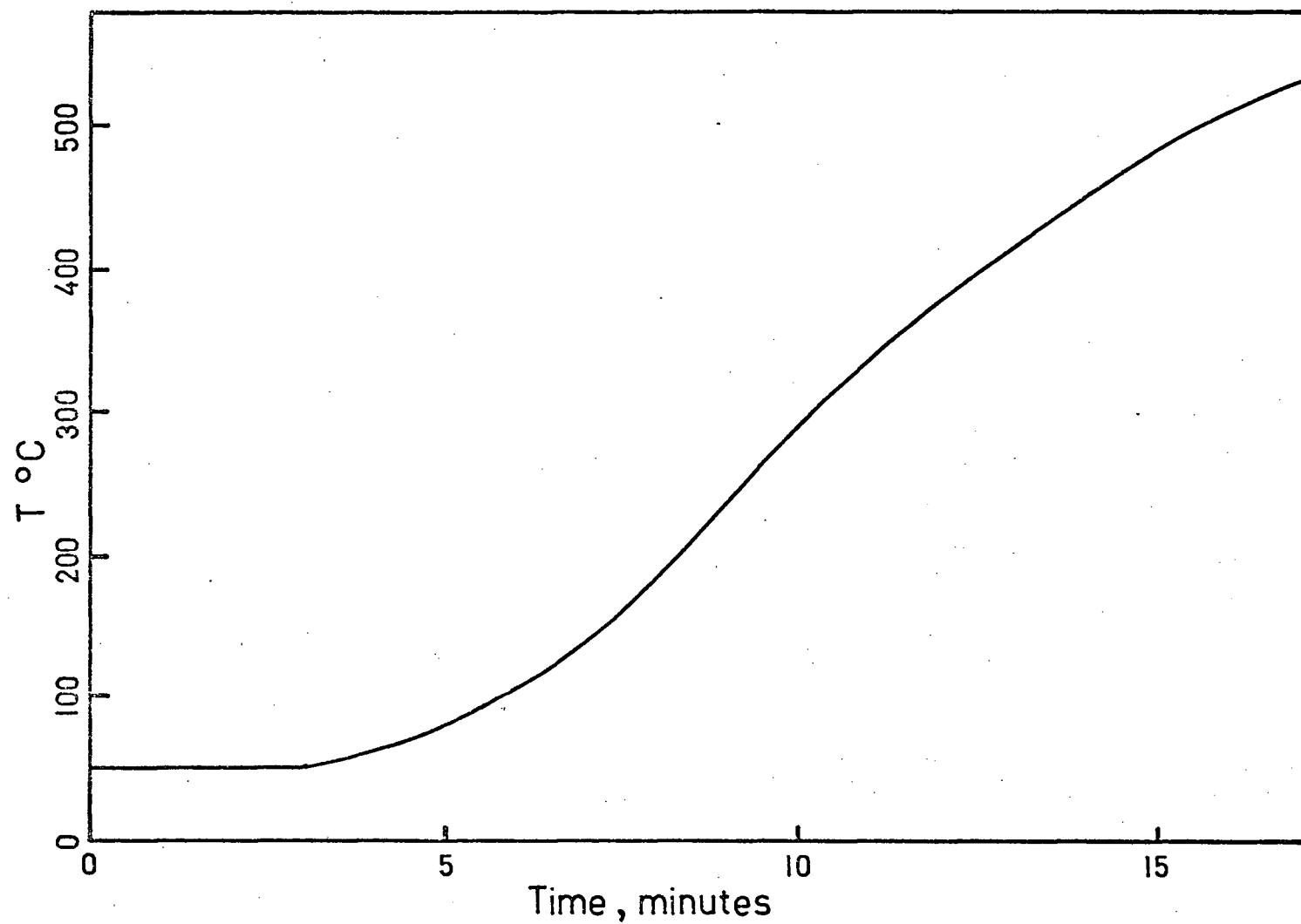


FIGURE 8 Time-temperature profile used for the decomposition of Ca(OH)_2 tips and for uniform heating rate experiments.

Mounting the crystals in the load frame was done with a commercial furnace cement "Sairset" as this provided a suitable mounting for the crystals inasmuch as it was quick setting, strong and yet easily removed from the grips after a run.

After the system had been evacuated to a vacuum of about 0.02 Torr, the furnace power was switched on and the run commenced. Photographs were taken before, during and after the decomposition, which could be followed easily, as the pressure in the furnace was to some extent proportioned to the decomposition rate.

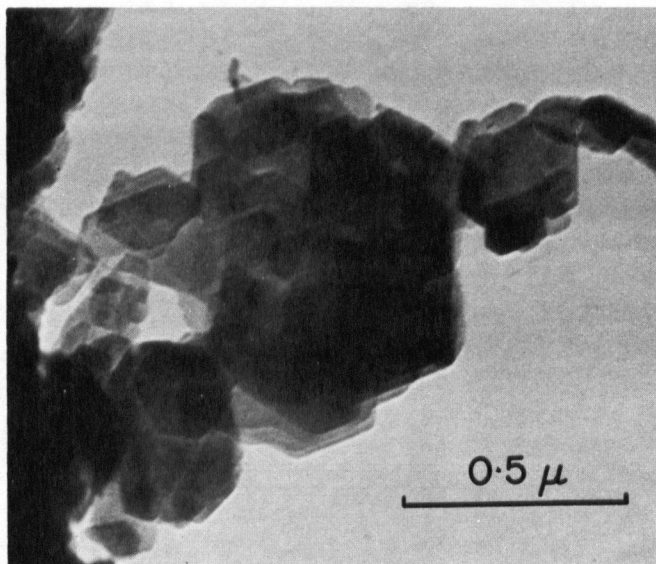
2. 2. 3 Preparation of $Mg(OH)_2$ Compacts

B. $Mg(OH)_2$ Compacts

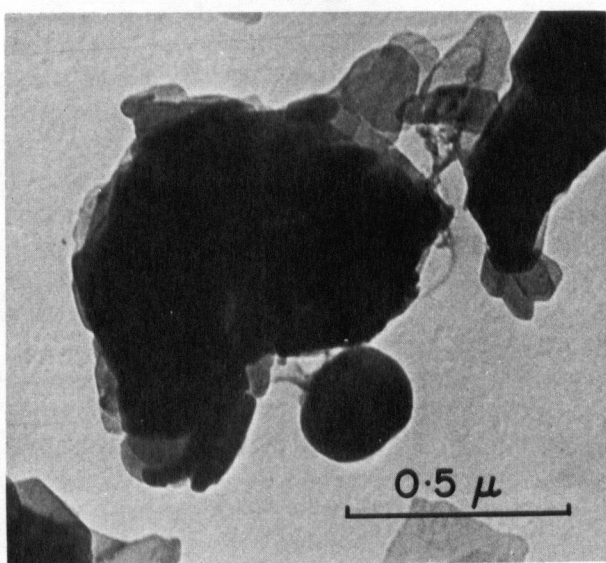
To study qualitatively both flow and bond formation, pairs of hemispherical tipped pellets were placed in the load frame and decomposed under various loads. Details of specimen preparation are given in the following section.

For deformation studies under compressive loading, $Mg(OH)_2$ compacts were prepared from Alcan magnesium hydroxide (Alcan Ltd., Montreal, Chemical Products Division). This material contained impurities as follows: MgO -96%- Al_2O_3 + Fe_2O_3 -1.5%, CaO + SiO_2 -2.5%, (after ignition).

The particle size and shape was determined in an electron microscope by suspending a small amount of the powder in a dilute HCl solution, then placing a drop of this suspension on a grid with a carbon support film and allowing the water to evaporate. The powder is shown



a) Before dehydroxylation



b) After dehydroxylation at 450°C

FIGURE 9 Electron micrographs of the $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ powder.

in Figure 9. The mean particle dimension in the basal plane was estimated to be 1500 \AA and the average thickness was about 250 \AA . Surface area was approximately $15 \text{ m}^2/\text{gm}$.

The powder was pressed into compacts in a 0.190 inch diameter die made from Atlas Keewatin steel, with plungers of drill rod. Both die and plungers were hardened and tempered, the die to $R_c 60$ and the plungers to $R_c 55$. The die was used successfully to 100,000 psi with $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$, although galling occurred at much lower pressures with MgO in a similar die. The bore had a very slight taper (about 0.0005 inches/ inch), which facilitated removal of the compacts. It was felt that experiments with the tip to tip contact of decomposing bodies might demonstrate both flow and bond formation with this material and to this end a number of compacts were pressed from $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ using a ram shaped to give a hemispherical end on the pellet, (shown later in Figure 13).

The compacts were produced using a floor model Instron Machine which was calibrated so that the chart read directly in pounds per square inch. By using the load cycle control it was possible to obtain very reproducible specimen density.

The pressing procedure was as follows:

- 1) The die was loaded (with pre-weighed charge).
- 2) The die was placed in the machine and preloaded to about 100 psi by means of the manual crosshead traverse.

- 3) The specimen was pressed under a constant crosshead speed of 0.05 inches/min.
- 4) The crosshead motion was stopped at a predetermined load.
- 5) The load was allowed to relax with constant crosshead position for 5 minutes.
- 6) The load was released at 0.05 inches/minute, and the specimen pressed out at 5 inches/minute.

The specimens were then weighed, measured for length and diameter and stored in stoppered vials until needed for experiments.

Practical considerations limited the densities available for study. It was found that below a relative density of 0.40 the specimens were too fragile to be handled easily, while above 0.70 they tended to develop circumferential cracks upon removal from the die.

The completed specimens were 0.1905 to 0.191 inches (4.839 to 4.851 mm) diameter, and approximately 0.32 inches (8.13 mm) long. Figure 10 shows the relationship between fractional density and the pressure used in compacting the specimens. The consistency of density was excellent; the range of densities observed was about $\pm 0.4\%$ at 50% relative density.

2.2.4 Deformation of $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ Cylindrical Compacts

Several different approaches were taken to the problem of characterizing the creep behaviour of the magnesium hydroxide compacts. In all cases the specimens were placed between the flat surfaces of the anvils or grips and the full load applied at room temperature.

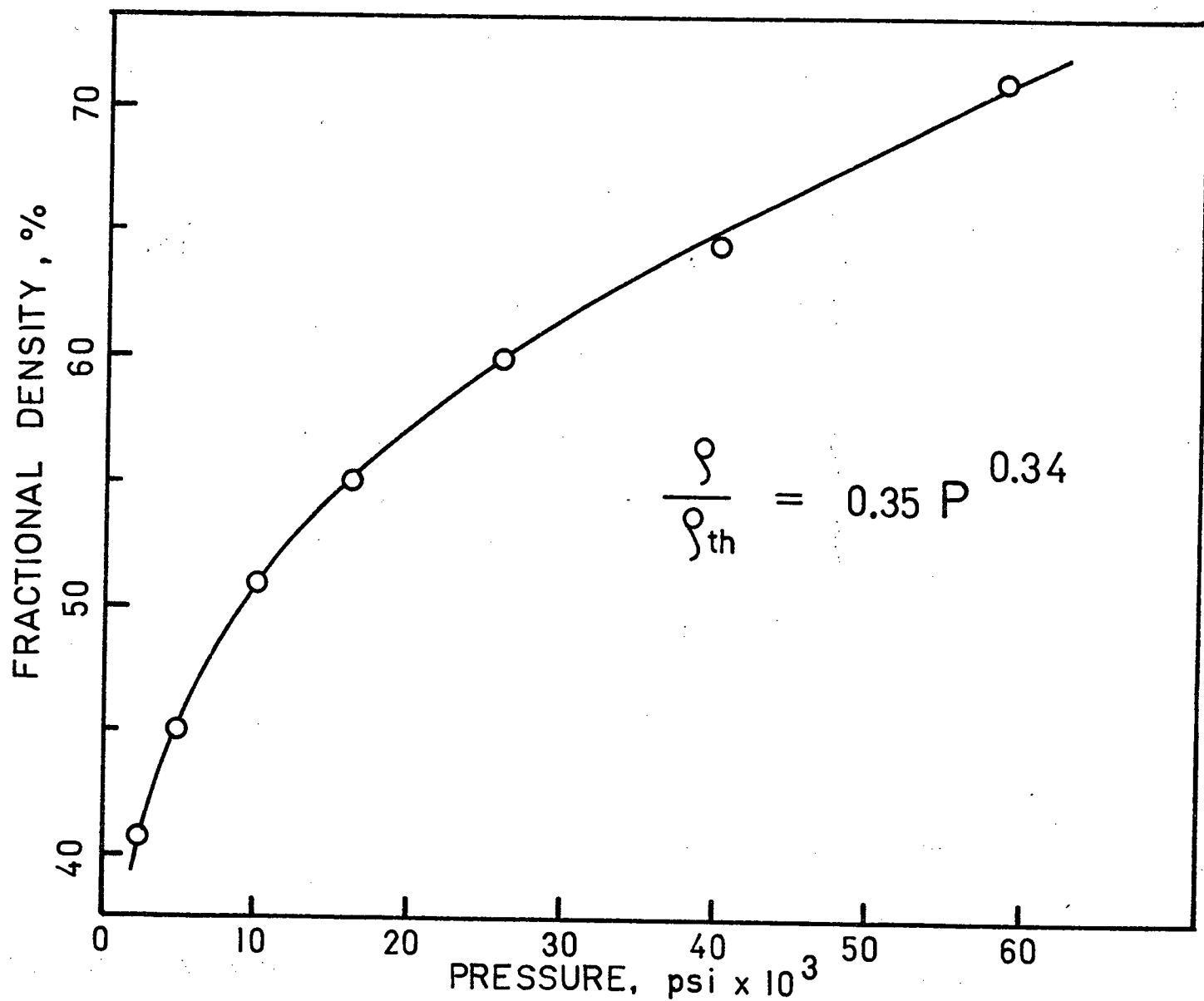


FIGURE 10 Relative density obtained in green compacts of $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$, versus pressure.

The types of experiments undertaken were as follows:

i) Quasi-uniform Heating Rate

The first series of runs were made to explore the reproducibility of the experiments, and to determine the effect of load on the creep behaviour under these conditions. The heating rate was obtained by using a fixed setting of the powerstat, giving the heating rate shown in Figure 8.

ii) "Isothermal" Runs

In order to facilitate the determination of an activation energy for the deformation, most of the experiments reported here were done under isothermal conditions. The maximum heating rate available was used to bring the specimen and load frame to the test temperature, and this was done within 10 to 12 minutes of the start of heating. The average heating rate was $40^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{minute}$, with an almost linear rate of $26^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{minute}$ from 320°C to 405°C (the maximum temperature used in these experiments), as shown in a time-temperature profile, Figure 11. Temperature was recorded continuously during all experimental runs. Periodic checks of the recorder calibration was made during the runs.

Thermal expansion correction was necessitated by the rather rapid rise in temperature, which caused uneven thermal strains in the different parts of the loading frame. Two thermal expansion runs were performed for each run or pair of identical runs for given temperature and load conditions, using a dummy quartz specimen. The expansion

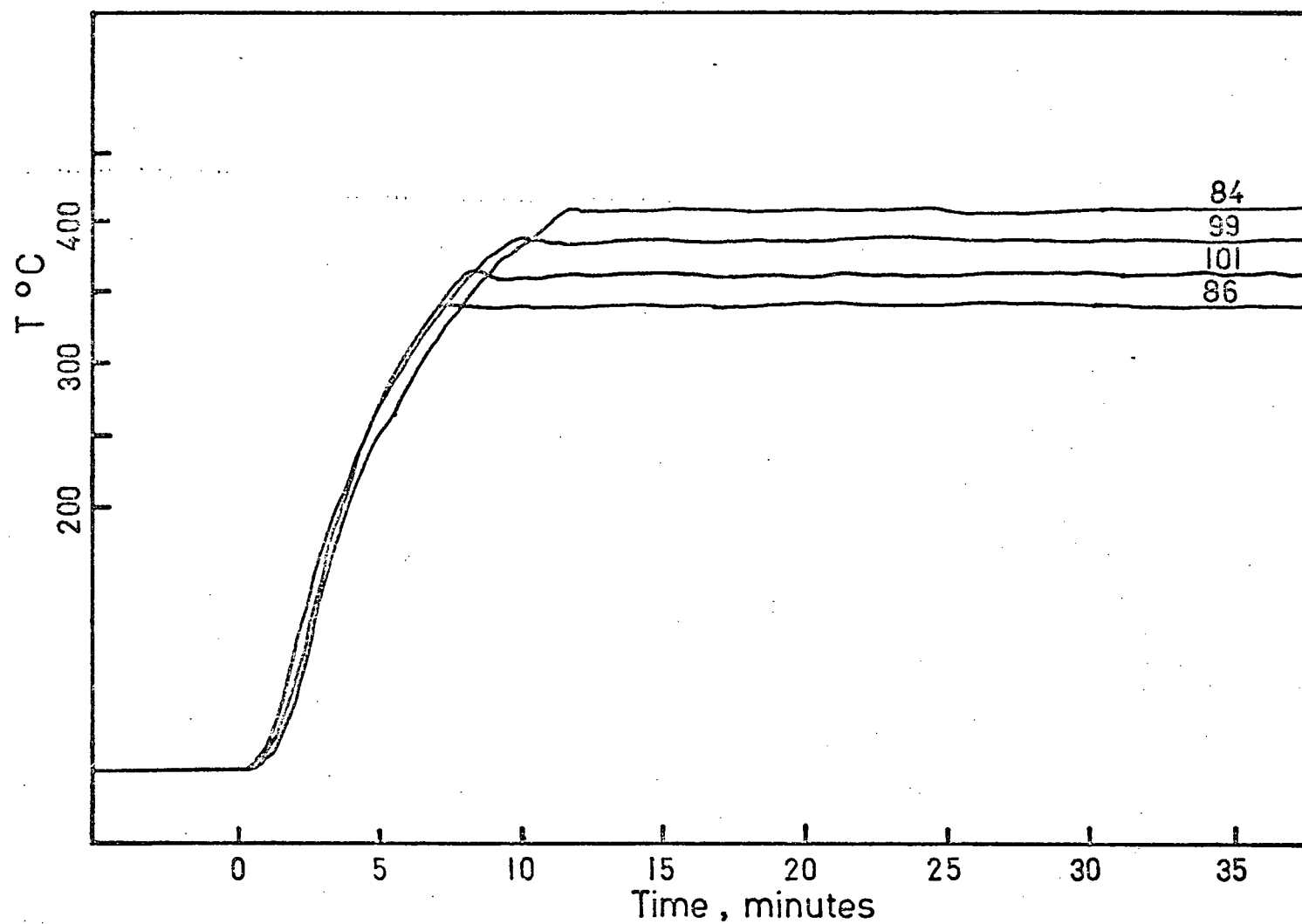


FIGURE 11 Specimen surface temperature as a function of time for the "isothermal" tests at four different temperatures.

data were subsequently used for correcting the deformation data.

The thermal expansion correction was also verified using a travelling microscope (Appendix III).

The variables considered in this series of experiments were temperature, load (compressive stress) and specimen bulk density. Other factors which could conceivably be experimental variables, such as particle size, shape and chemical purity were held constant. The specimens were loaded into the load frame, then into the furnace, and the system was sealed and pumped down to about 10^{-2} Torr. The run was usually commenced as soon as pumpdown was complete, but extended holding periods at low pressures (as long as 46 hours) had no discernable effect on the creep curve.

Temperature measurements during this group of runs were made using the thermocouples described earlier, but several additional runs were made with a thermocouple inserted along the specimen axis to measure temperature at the centre of the specimen, as described in the following section.

2.2.5 Temperature Distribution in Specimens

The creep tests were performed "isothermally". However, since the specimen was taken to the temperature for creep study as fast as practically possible, there was a period at the beginning of each experiment during which large thermal gradients existed. There are two ways of determining the temperature distribution in the specimen

during the experiments: by theoretical consideration of thermal diffusivity, or by experimental determination of the temperature of the center and on the surface of the specimen.

A precise theoretical analysis was not possible because of the lack of data necessary for such calculations. However, a preliminary order of magnitude calculation was made using the method of Carslaw and Jaeger (22). This calculation, which indicates that an interior temperature of approximately 0.97 of the surface temperature will be reached in 8 to 10 minutes is presented in Appendix I.

The temperature distribution during the creep study was also determined experimentally. A thermocouple (No. 3) was inserted at the center of the specimen from one end, as shown by the dotted line in Figure 5. The temperature was measured continuously on the surface (using thermocouples 1 and 2) and at the centre. Experimentally determined temperature profiles for two surface temperatures, 345° and 408° C are shown in Figure 12. After a very large temperature gradient in the initial stages, a steady state, having a differential of from 10° to 12°C between the surface and the centre temperature was reached, within 10 to 12 minutes of the start of heating. Thus, for kinetic analysis, it was possible to assume the specimen to be at some "steady state" temperature characterised by the mean temperature.

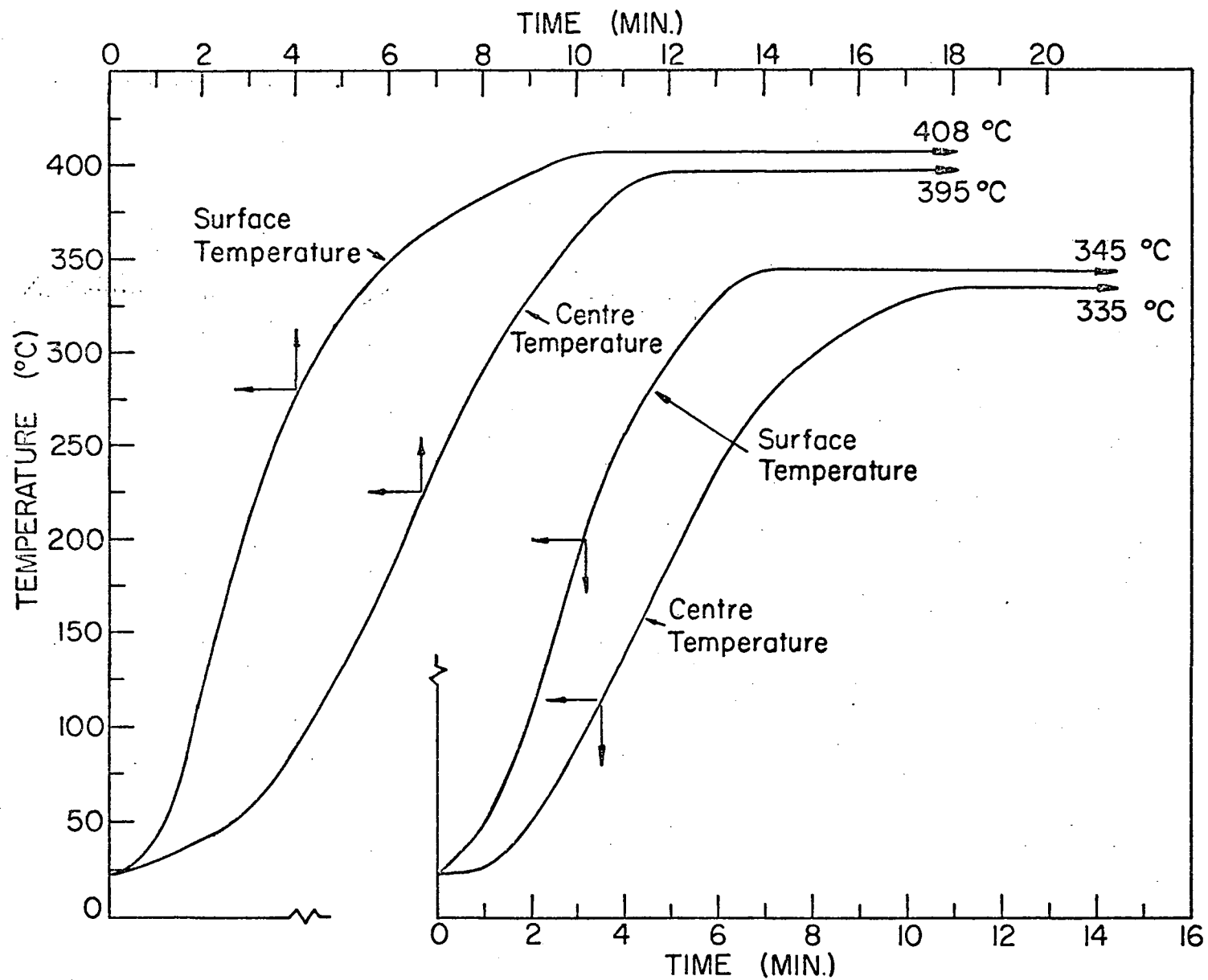


FIGURE 12 Specimen surface and centre temperatures for two different "isothermal" conditions.

CHAPTER III

3 Results

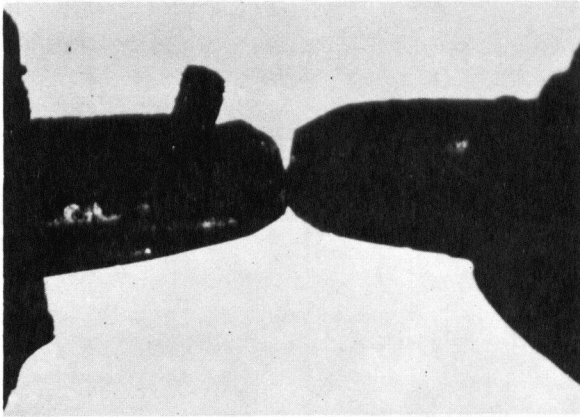
3.1 Calcium Hydroxide Single Crystals

As discussed earlier only a very few specimens of single crystal calcium hydroxide were obtained with suitable properties for deformation study in tip to tip contact. Experiments were performed with single crystals 3 to 4 mm long, about 1 mm in diameter, and of hexagonal cross section. The specimen pair was placed under a load of 10 grams and decomposed. This load corresponds to a contact pressure of about 0.5 kg/mm^2 , based on the final contact area.

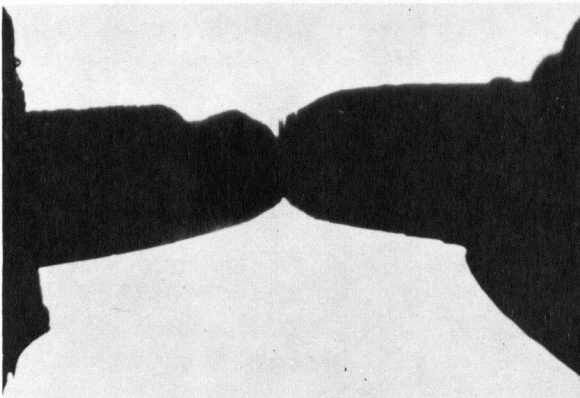
Figure 13 shows a series of photographs of a particular pair of crystals before, during, and after decomposition. Due to the irregular geometry of the contact and the virtual impossibility of duplicating the curvature of the tips, no attempt was made to analyse the neck growth data quantitatively. However, the phenomenon of neck growth during decomposition is clearly demonstrated in this series of photographs. Microscopic examination of the contact faces of the crystals after the neck growth experiments indicated fusion had taken place. This was the first indication that deformation could take place in the presence of applied stress during the decomposition of hydroxide.

3.2 Tip to Tip Contact of Magnesium Hydroxide Compacts

Following a similar procedure, Mg(OH)_2 compacts with hemispherical tips were decomposed while loaded into contact (Figure 14). Deformation of the contact area resulted, as can be seen. Considerably



Before decomposition



After decomposition

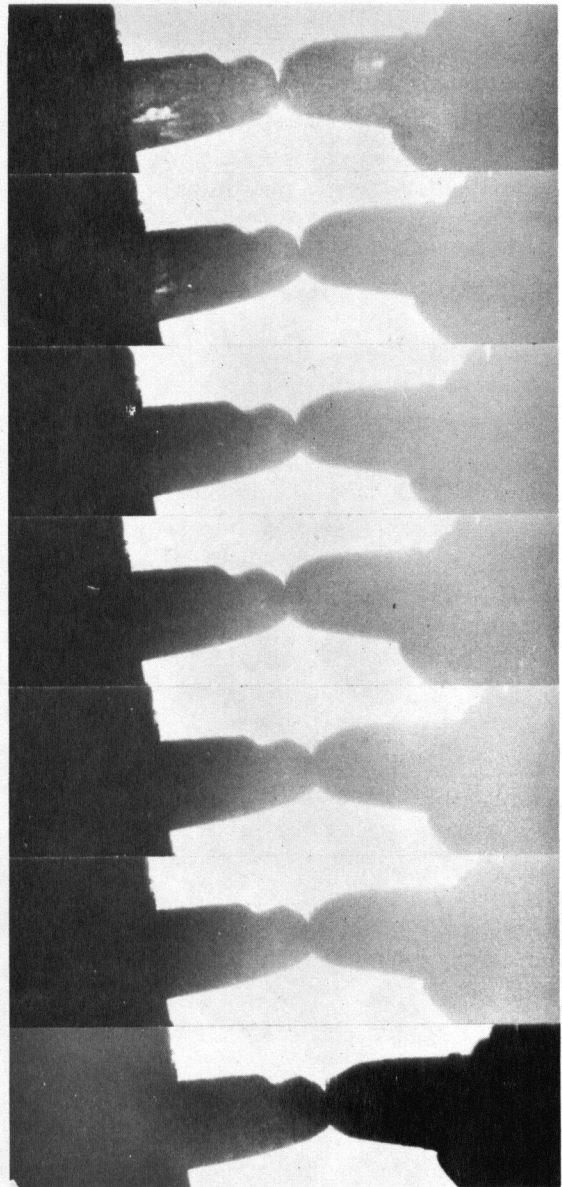


FIGURE 13 Growth of contact area during the decomposition of Ca(OH)_2 tips under load.

more interesting was the explicit evidence of bond formation which is provided in the form of a small piece of one tip left on the other, when the tips were broken apart following the decomposition (Figure 15). This showed that the adhesion between the two tips was at least as great as the cohesion within them.

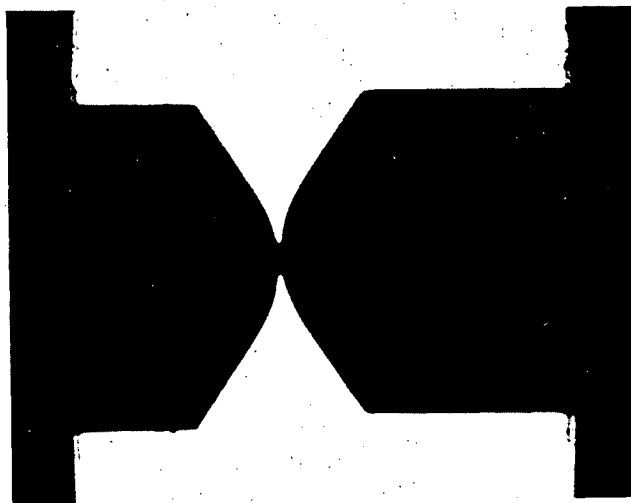
3.3 Deformation of Magnesium Hydroxide Compacts

After the initial experiment just described, attempts were made to study quantitatively the deformation behaviour of magnesium hydroxide compacts during dehydroxylation, both at a uniform heating rate and under isothermal conditions. The experiments at uniform heating rate under different loads were carried out to determine the extent of deformation obtained, and to establish limit on loads, temperature, and density which could be used in subsequent studies. These experiments also showed the relative amount of shrinkage and load-dependent deformation which were produced under these conditions.

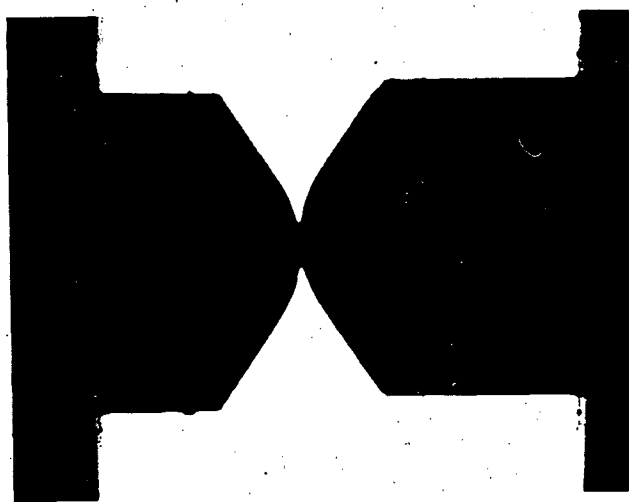
3.3.1 Uniform Heating Rate

The specimens used in this series of tests all had a nominal relative bulk density of 0.50 (Table III). A set of temperature-deformation curves for this series of runs is shown in Figure 16. The curves show a tendency to increasing maximum slope and increasing total deformation with increasing load.

The total deformation obtained during decomposition was measured from the initial and final length at the end of the decomposition,

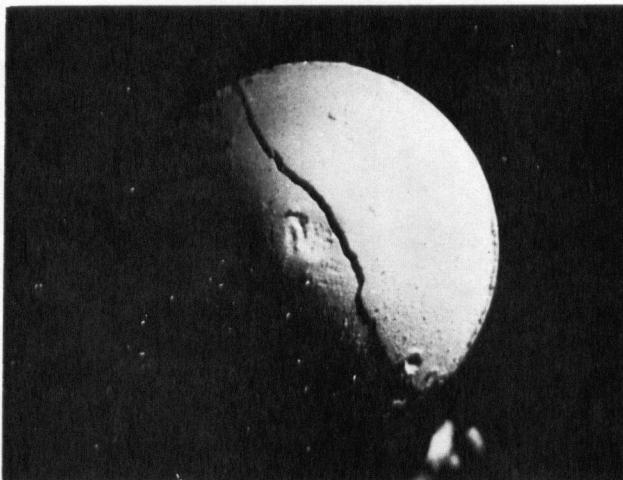


a) Before decomposition

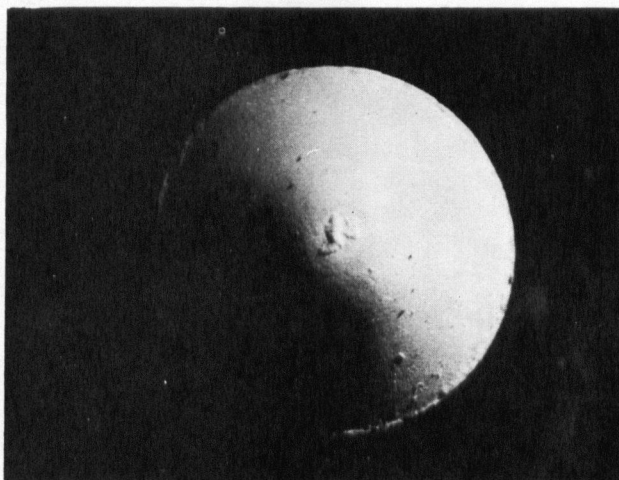


b) After decomposition

FIGURE 14 Growth of contact area during decomposition of $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$
Compact tips under load.



a) Crater in one tip



b) Material removed from the crater adhering to the other tip.

FIGURE 15 Evidence of bond formation during the decomposition of $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ compact tips under load.

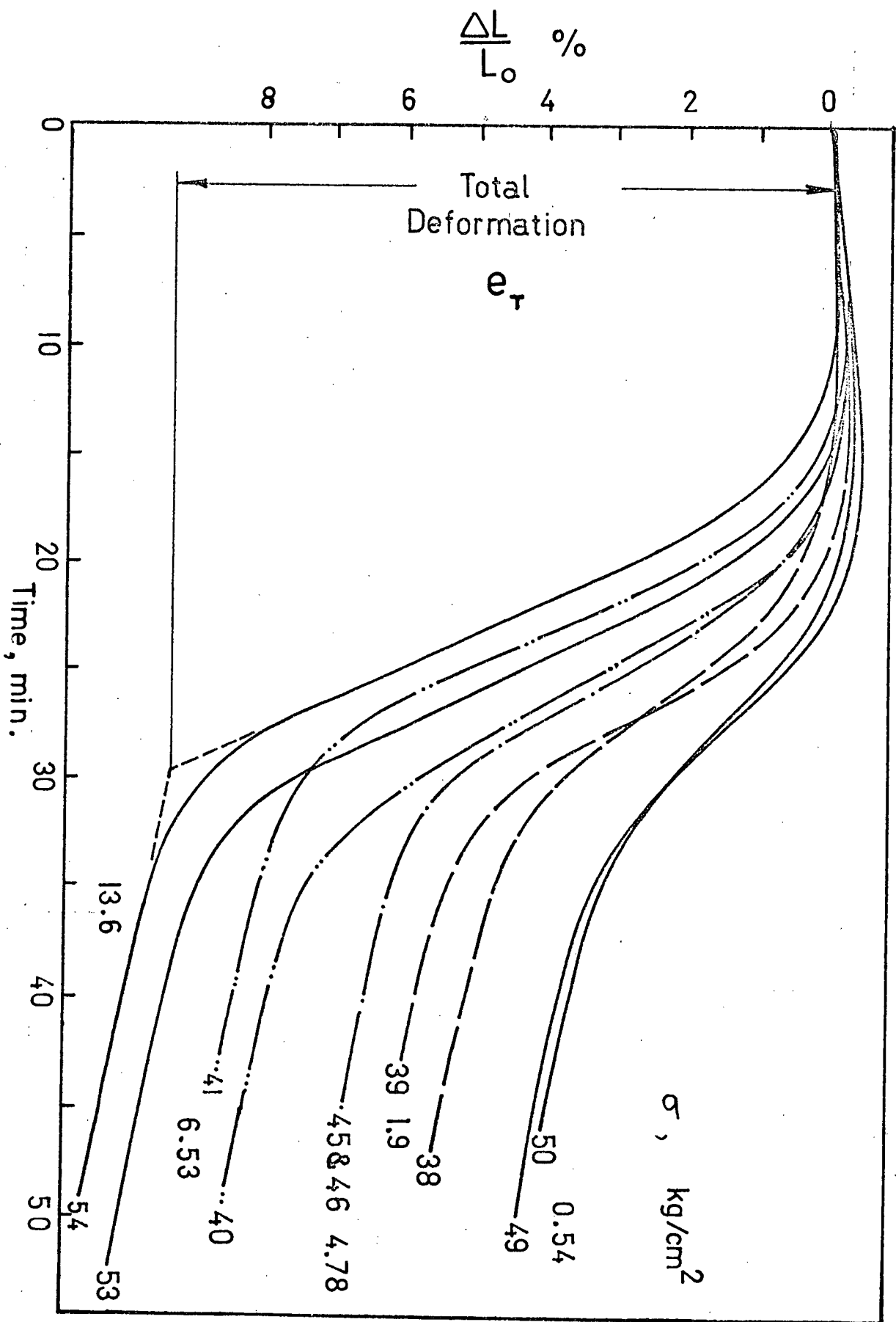


FIGURE 15 Family of Deformation - time curves for experiments under various loads at a uniform heating rate, showing the method of measuring the total deformation (e_T).

TABLE III

DEFORMATION DATA FOR UNIFORM HEATING RATE

SPECIMEN	LOAD, kg	kg/cm ²	$\frac{\Delta L}{L_0}$ (%)	ρ_0 , $\frac{\text{gm}}{\text{cm}^3}$
49	0.10	0.54	2.62	1.19
50	0.10	0.54	2.69	1.20
38	0.35	1.9	3.56	1.19
39	0.35	1.9	4.08	1.19
45	0.66	3.58	4.78	1.19
46	0.66	3.56	4.69	1.20
42	0.88	4.78	5.15	1.18
43	0.88	4.78	5.20	1.19
40	1.2	6.53	5.65	1.19
41	1.2	6.53	5.96	1.18
47	1.63	8.76	6.22	1.19
48	1.63	8.76	6.47	1.19
33	2.06	11.2	6.72	1.20
34	2.06	11.2	6.90	1.20
52	2.5	13.6	7.26	1.21
53	2.5	13.6	6.85	1.20
54	2.5	13.6	7.10	1.20

as shown in Figure 16. This total deformation was then converted to percent total strain and is plotted against load in Figure 17. A log-log plot of this data (Figure 18) suggests a relationship of the form

$$e_T = e_{0T} + K\sigma^n$$

where n is approximately $1/3$, and the extrapolated change of length under zero load was calculated to be 0.3% .

3.3.2 "Isothermal" Deformation (Creep)

As previously discussed, the optimum relative density that could be easily achieved by cold pressing was 0.50 of the density of magnesium hydroxide. For this reason most of the experiments under isothermal conditions were carried out using compacts of 0.50 relative density. All creep curves presented have been corrected for thermal expansion of the loading frame as outlined in Section 2.2.4, (ii). The compressive load was applied to the cold specimen, and maintained throughout the test. A typical time deformation curve is shown in Figure 19, along with the specimen surface temperature and pressure in the vacuum chamber. The apparent relationship between the pressure of the water vapour produced by the decomposition (as noted from the vacuum gauge on the system) and the deformation is notable; the peak of the pressure curve coincides in time with the region of maximum slope (maximum creep rate) of the deformation curve. The significance of this result will be discussed in more detail later.

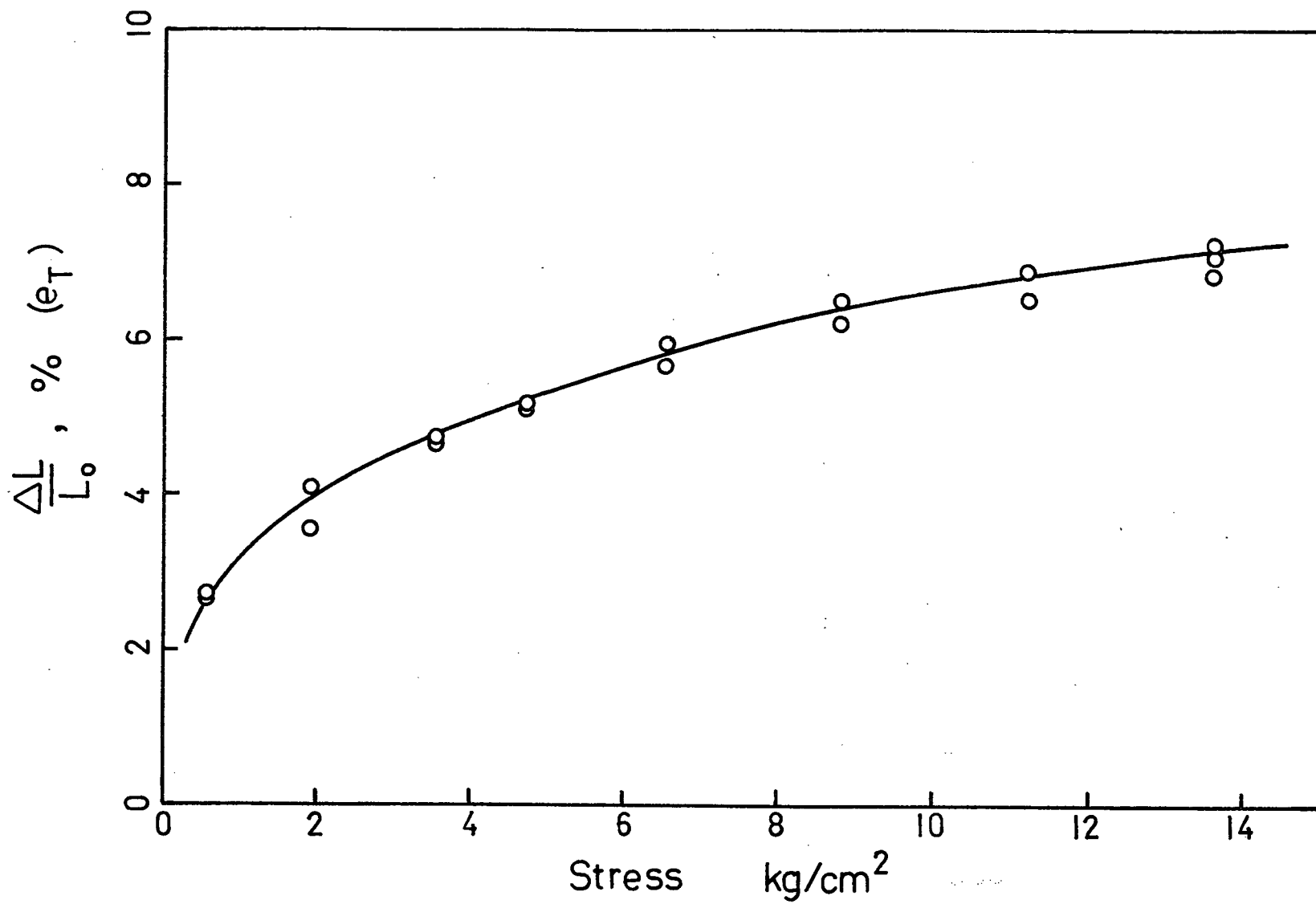


FIGURE 17 Total deformation as a function of load (uniform heating rate).

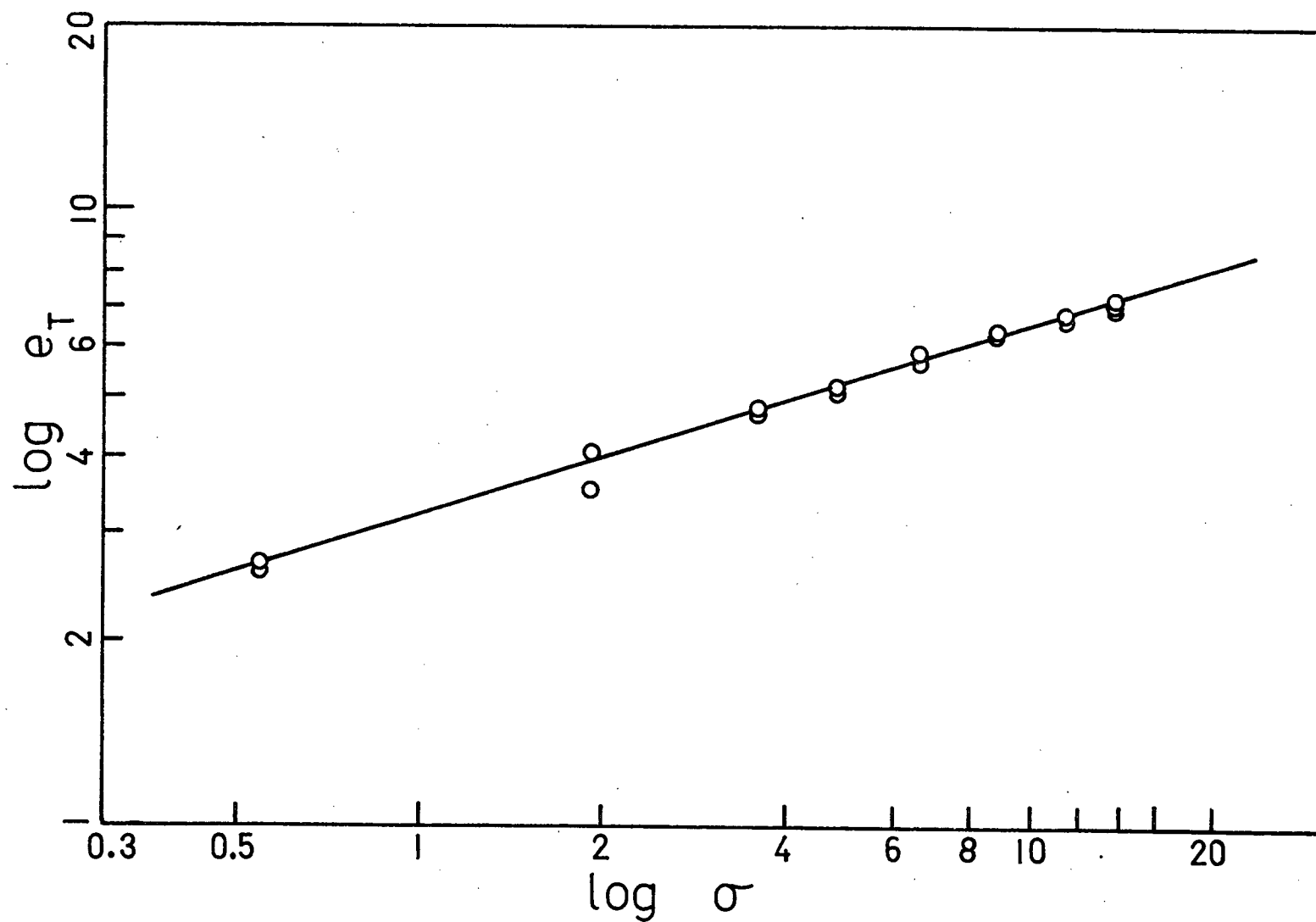


FIGURE 18 Log-Log plot of total deformation as a function of load (uniform heating rate).

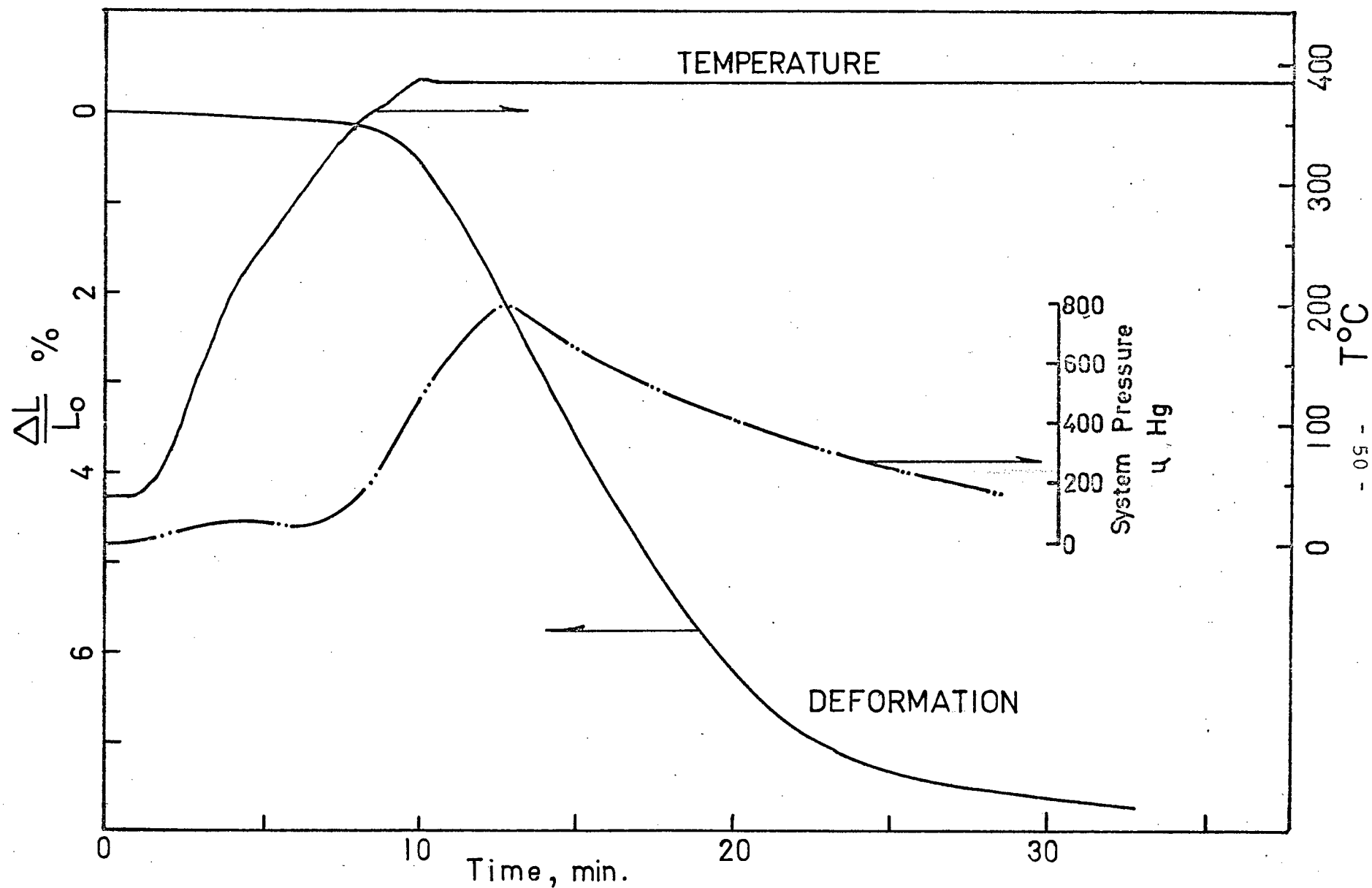


FIGURE 19 Temperature, deformation, and system pressure versus time for a typical "isothermal" run.

(a) Effects of Temperature on Deformation

The first series of runs were performed using a load 2.50 kg (13.6 kg/cm^2) at different temperatures in the range of 340° to 405° C . At least two runs were made for a given set of experimental conditions, to test reproducibility. Four pairs of representative time-deformation curves are shown in Figure 20, and time-temperature deformation data are tabulated in Appendix II (a).

The second series of runs were performed with a load of 1.1 kg, (6.0 kg/cm^2), and the same temperature was used in the previous series. Four pairs of curves for this series are shown in Figure 21, and data are presented in Appendix II (b).

(b) Effect of Stress at Constant Temperature

Following the same procedure outlined above, isothermal creep tests were performed to determine the effect of load on deformation, using specimens of 0.50 relative density. A temperature of 360° C was chosen for this study as it allowed a maximum range of loads to be used without fracture of the compact. Five stresses between 0.55 and 13.6 kg/cm^2 were used for these experiments. The results are plotted in Figure 22 and recorded in tabular form in Appendix II (c).

(c) Effect of Green Density

Previous creep studies of porous ceramic bodies have shown that the creep rate varies with the relative density of the compact⁽²⁴⁾. In order to determine the effect of the green density of

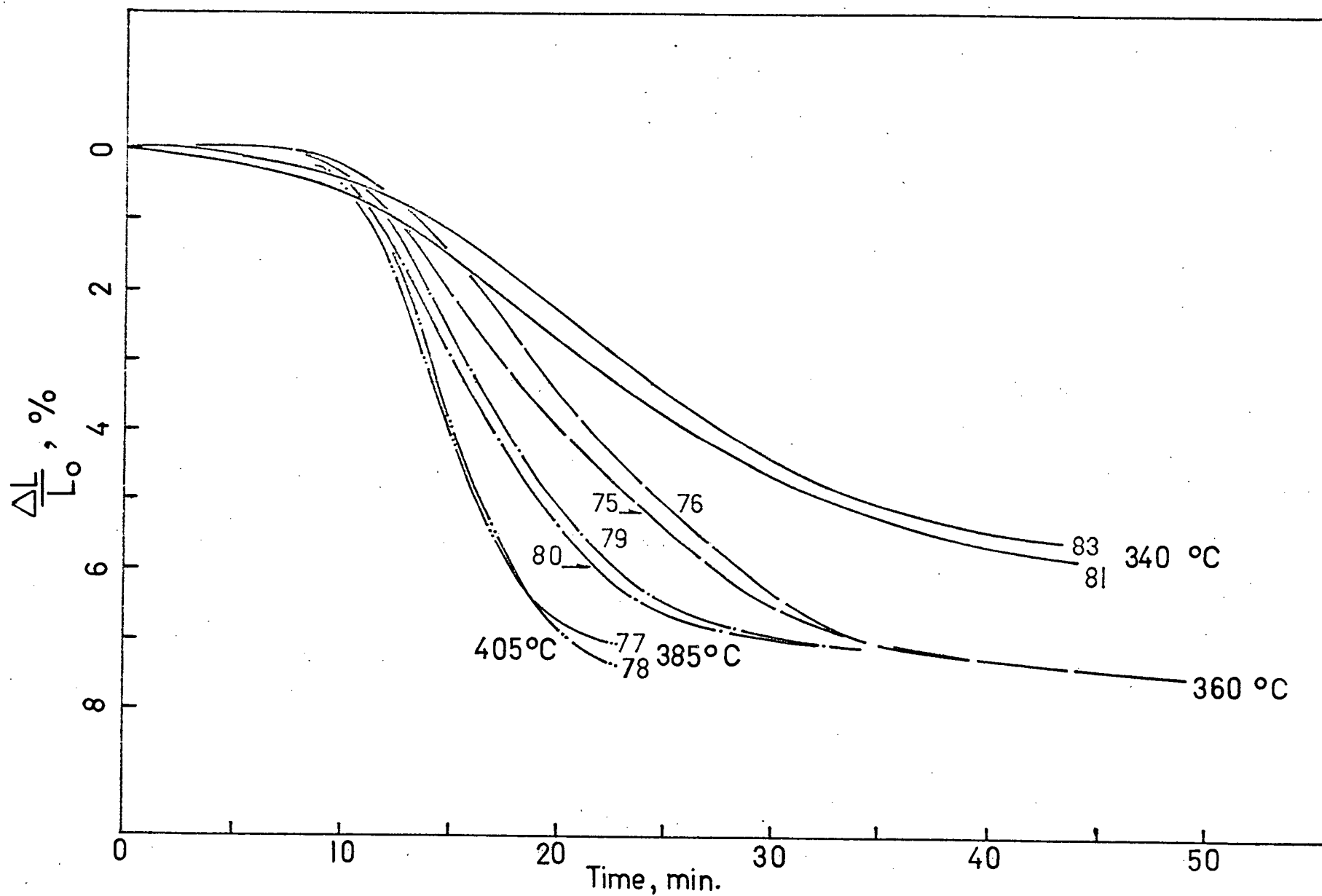


FIGURE 20 Deformation versus time for specimens of 0.50 relative density, at "isothermal" temperatures as shown. Stress 6.0 kg/cm².

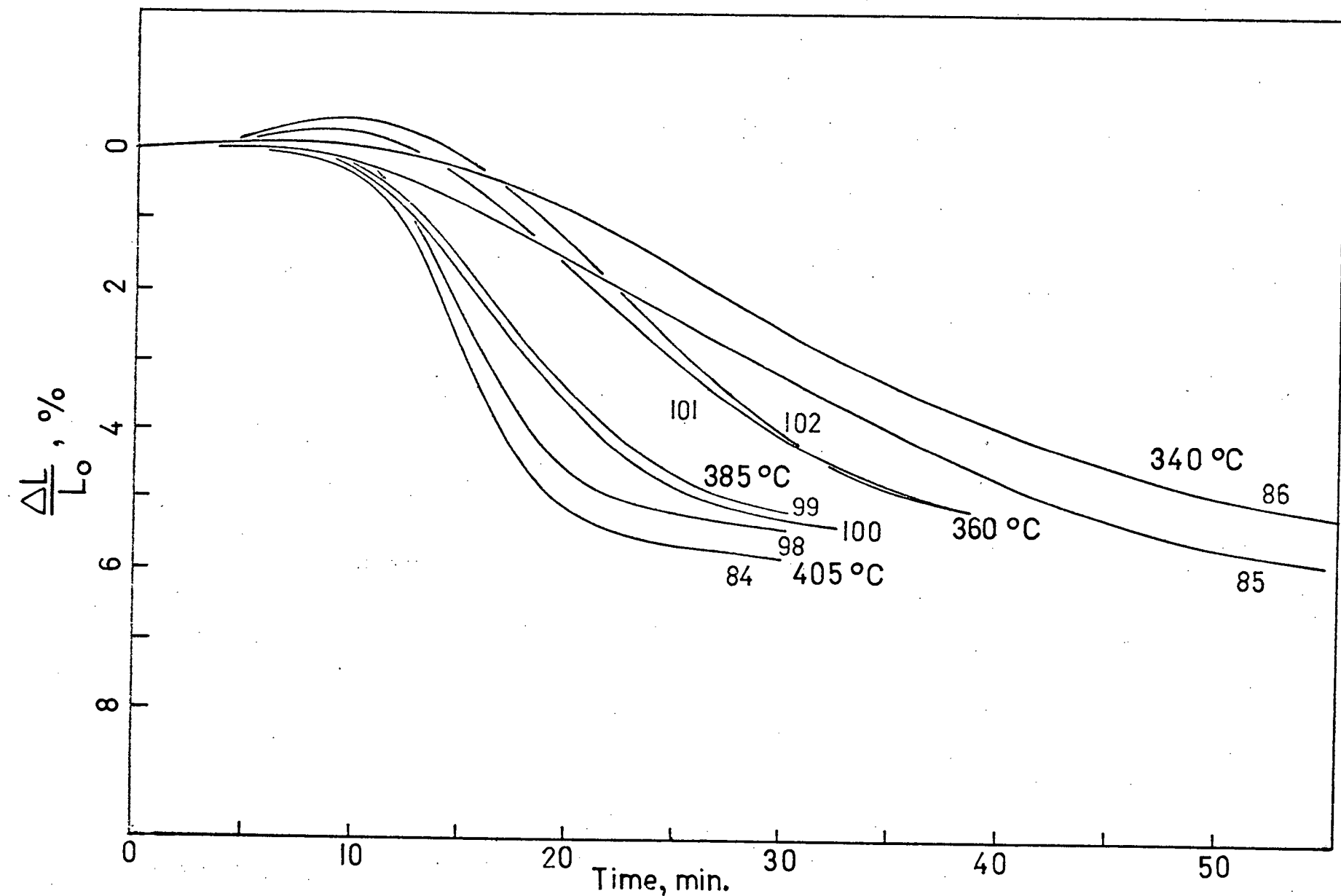


FIGURE 21 Deformation versus time for specimens of 0.50 relative density, at "isothermal" temperatures as shown. Stress 6.0 kg/cm².

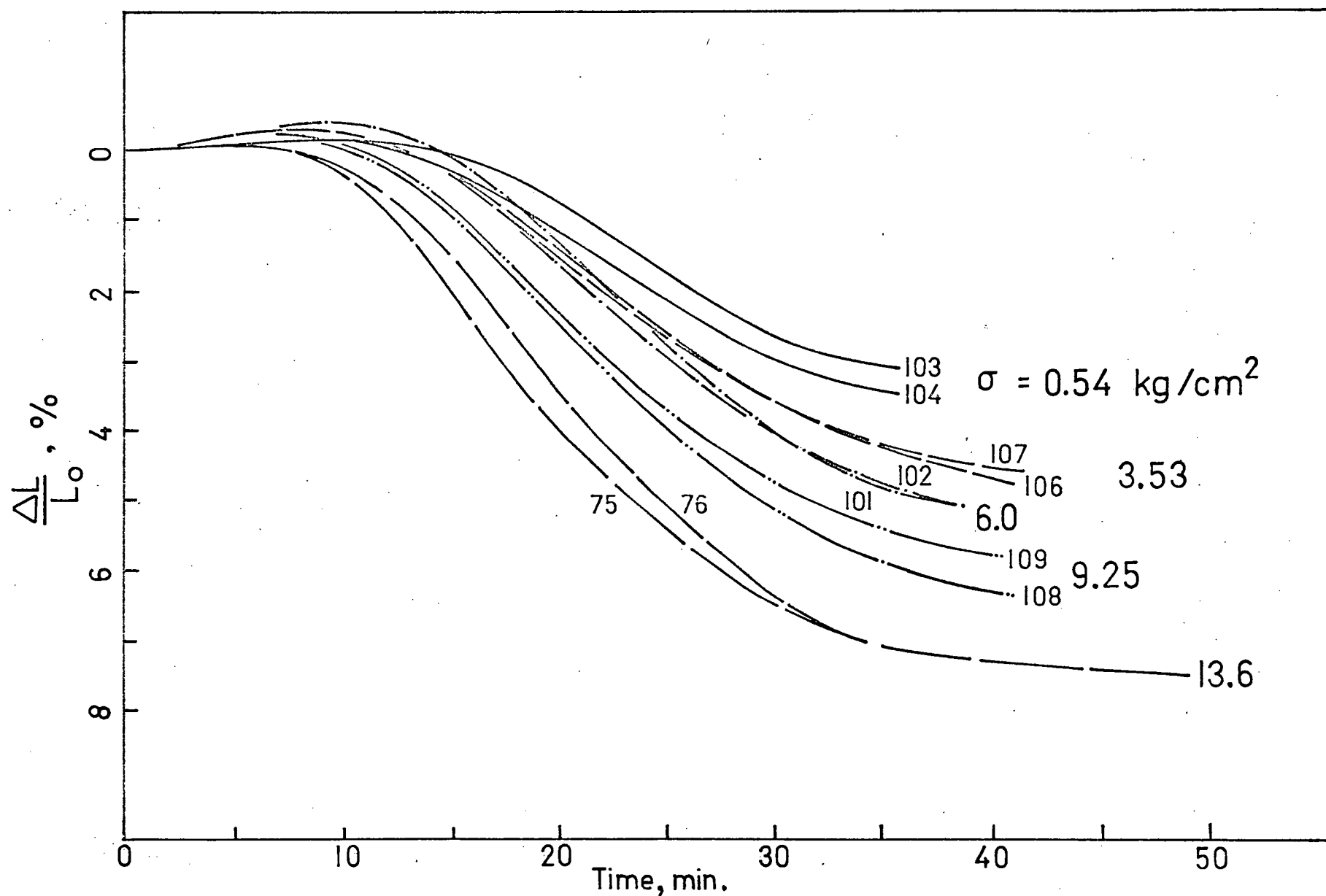


FIGURE 22 Deformation versus time for specimens of 0.50 relative density, at 360°C , for stresses as shown.

the compact on the deformation behaviour, a series of experiments were carried out under isothermal conditions. For this series a temperature of 360°C and a load of 9.25kg/cm² was used. As the specimens could be produced with relative densities in the range 0.4 to 0.7, compacts having densities in this range were used. As expected, the variation in green density significantly affected the creep behaviour as can be seen in Figure 23. The creep data are also presented in tabular form in Appendix II (d).

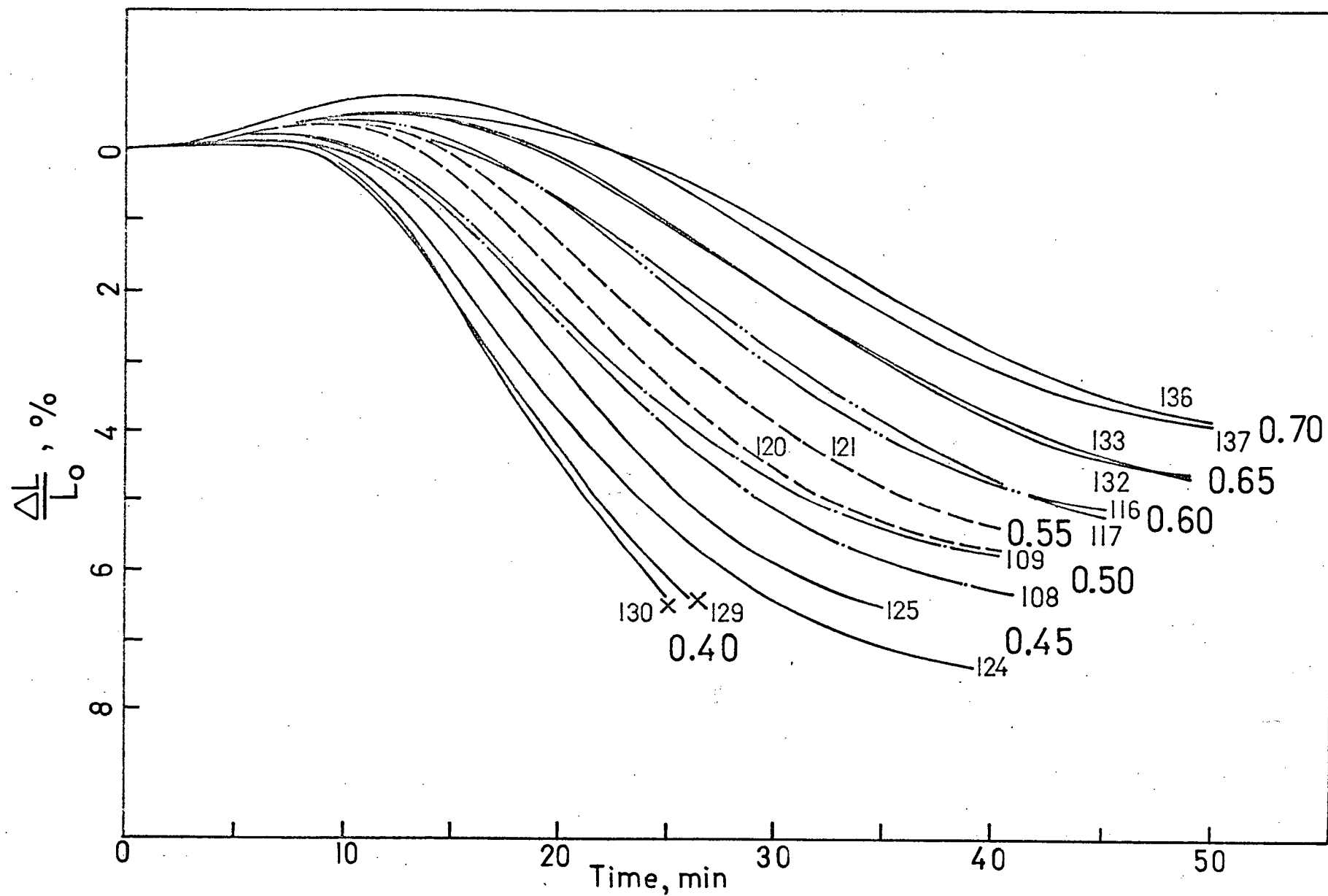


FIGURE 23 Deformation versus time for specimens of various relative densities as shown, at 9.25 kg/cm².

CHAPTER IV

4 Discussion

4.1 Shrinkage Versus Creep

The first consideration requiring clarification is that of the nature of the deformation observed. It must first be established that the deformation produced during the decomposition of magnesium hydroxide compacts under load, either with a uniform heating rate or under isothermal conditions, is not due simply to mass loss associated with the decomposition. The reaction involved in decomposition is -



and this results in a theoretical weight loss of 30.9% of the initial specimen. It can easily be shown that a fully dense specimen of brucite would if fully transformed to periclase occupy only 47% of its original volume. Thus, there is a net volume reduction of 53% associated with this decomposition. However, it is well established ⁽¹⁵⁾ that the decomposition of brucite produces pseudomorphous relics with only slight dimensional change.

It was therefore necessary to experimentally determine the extent of shrinkage directly associated with mass loss so that this could be differentiated from the creep deformation resulting from the externally applied stress (during dehydroxylation). However, with the apparatus used, a finite load on the specimen was required to ensure

the function of the measuring system, so direct measurement of shrinkage without load in the experimental setup was not possible. Therefore, several specimens were decomposed under the same conditions of temperature and vacuum in the furnace of the creep apparatus. The cylindrical specimens were set vertically on a foil pan to ensure that unrestricted shrinkage could occur during decomposition. The dimensional changes of the specimens, heated at temperatures in the range of 300° to 500°C , were determined with a conventional micrometer (sensitivity 0.0001 in.). As the specimens were quite fragile after decomposition, precise shrinkage measurement was difficult. However, the results indicated that the shrinkage was less than 0.4%.

The results presented in Section 3.3.1, for the deformation of magnesium hydroxide compacts subjected to varying loads and decomposed under a uniform heating rate also support this estimate of the shrinkage. The extrapolated value of total strain at zero load was calculated to be 0.3% on the basis of the experimental data. This value compares favourably with that obtained by direct shrinkage measurements.

Thus this shrinkage, due to the mass loss only, can be considered insignificant in comparison with the 6 to 8% linear dimensional change observed during the creep study. No attempt has been made to correct the creep curves for the shrinkage, which is smaller than other potential experimental sources of error. This observation firmly establishes for the first time that the material can be deformed plastically during a decomposition reaction.

4.2 Weight Loss Versus Creep

The shape of the creep curve (as opposed to the shrinkage curve) is similar to that of the weight loss curve determined thermogravimetrically. This is shown clearly in Figure 24, where a creep curve and a weight loss curve prepared under identical heating conditions are compared. A load of 6.0 kg/cm^2 and a linear heating rate of 25°C/min were used, on compacts having the same relative density (0.50). A shrinkage curve is also included for comparison with the observed deformation. The conditions of decomposition differed slightly in that the thermogravimetric analysis was carried out in a nitrogen atmosphere. This may explain the non-coincidence of the creep and weight loss curves in Figure 24.

4.3 Stages of Creep

The creep curve is of sigmoidal form (Figure 25 and Figures 20 - 23), with three apparent stages. These can be termed:

Stage I

The initiation period, where a rapid increase of creep rate occurs.

Stage II

A period of rapid creep, which in several cases appears to approach linearity.

Stage III

A decay region, during which the rate decreases rapidly and appears to approach zero asymptotically.

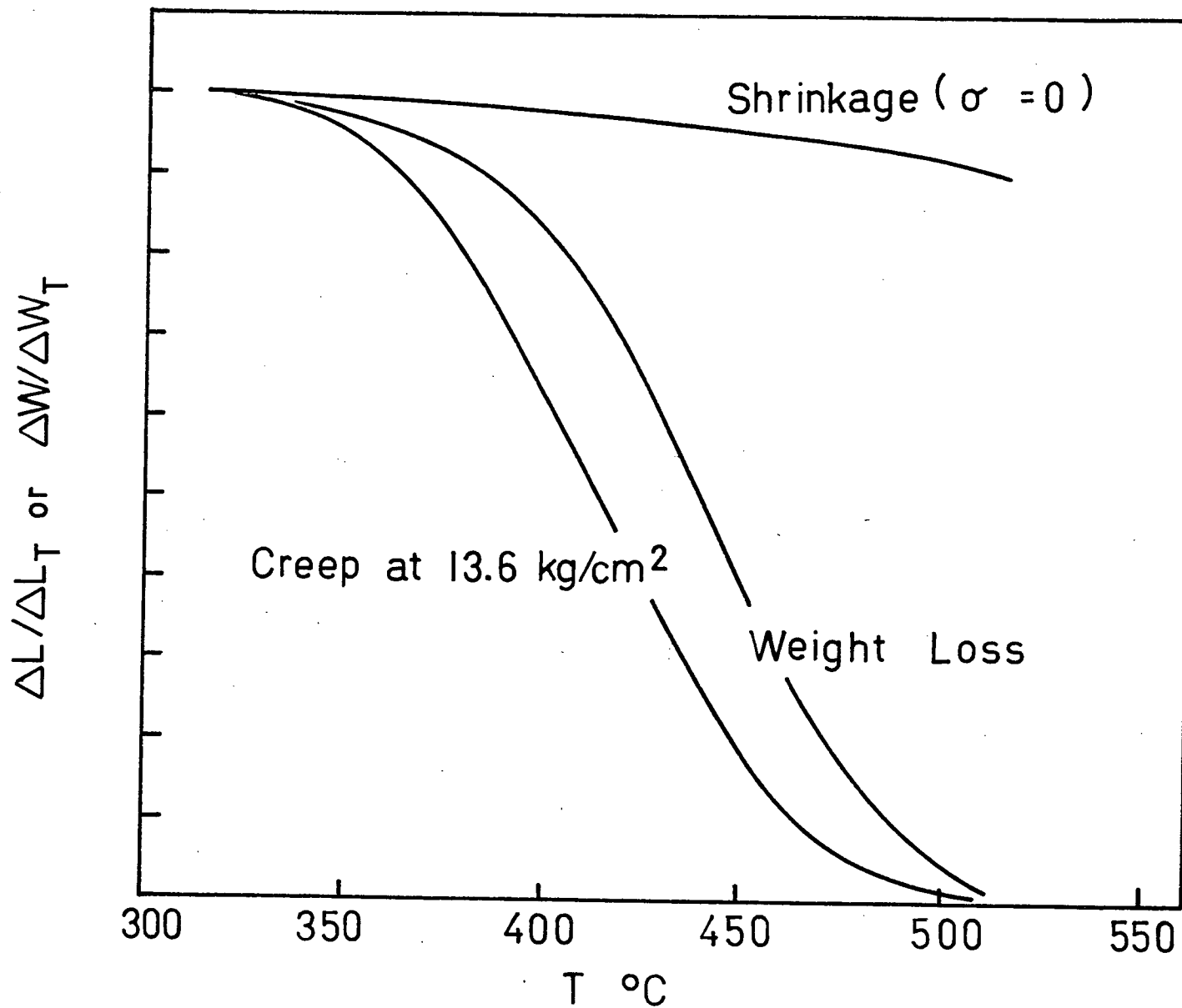


FIGURE 24 Creep, weight loss and shrinkage versus time.

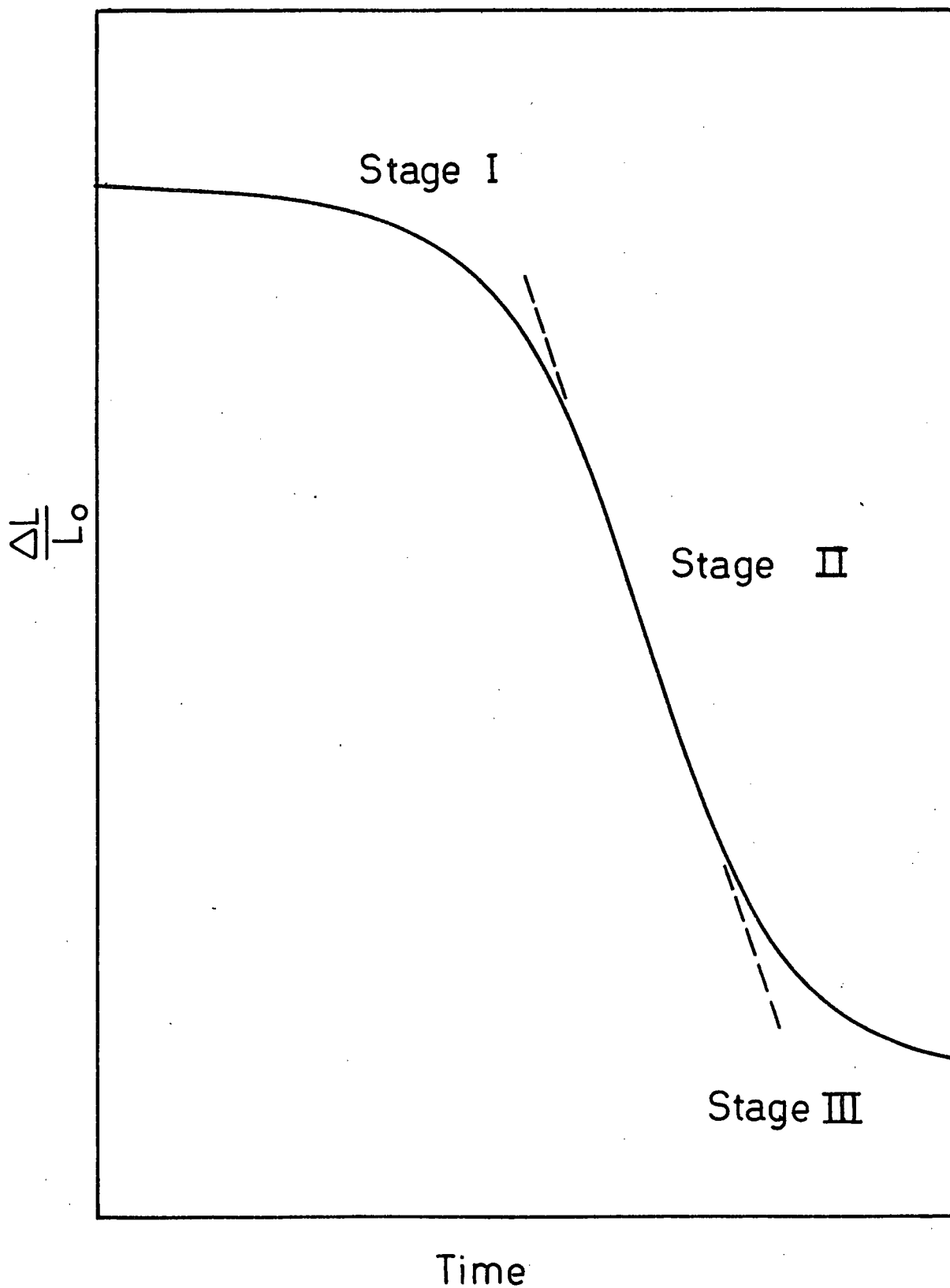


FIGURE 25 Stages of Creep

The first stage appears to be initiated by the dehydroxylation reaction. This is shown in Figure 19, where the beginning of Stage I coincides with the rise of pressure in the vacuum system. This stage appears to last for the first 10 to 20% of the total creep. In the second stage, the creep rate is highest. During this stage the temperature of the surface and the inside of the specimen reached a steady state thermal condition, with a differential of 10° to 12°C throughout the decomposition, as discussed in Section 2.2.5, and shown in Figure 12. This stage of the deformation coincides with the most rapid evolution of water vapour from the specimen, and hence the highest system pressures. The tendency of the system pressure to form a sharp peak, as shown in Figure 19, depends upon the temperature of the run, (specimen surface temperature). At 385° and 405°C the peak is quite pronounced; temperatures of 340° and 360° produced a broader and flatter pressure curve, as is expected, if the creep is directly related to the decomposition. Several more time-deformation-pressure relationships are shown in Figures 26 and 27. These demonstrate clearly the relationship between the system pressure and deformation.

The relationship between the system pressure and the rate of mass loss accompanying dehydroxylation is in principle a simple one. The pumping rate is probably a function of the absolute system pressure, and if the exact pumping rate is known it should be possible to determine reasonably accurately the rate of mass loss during

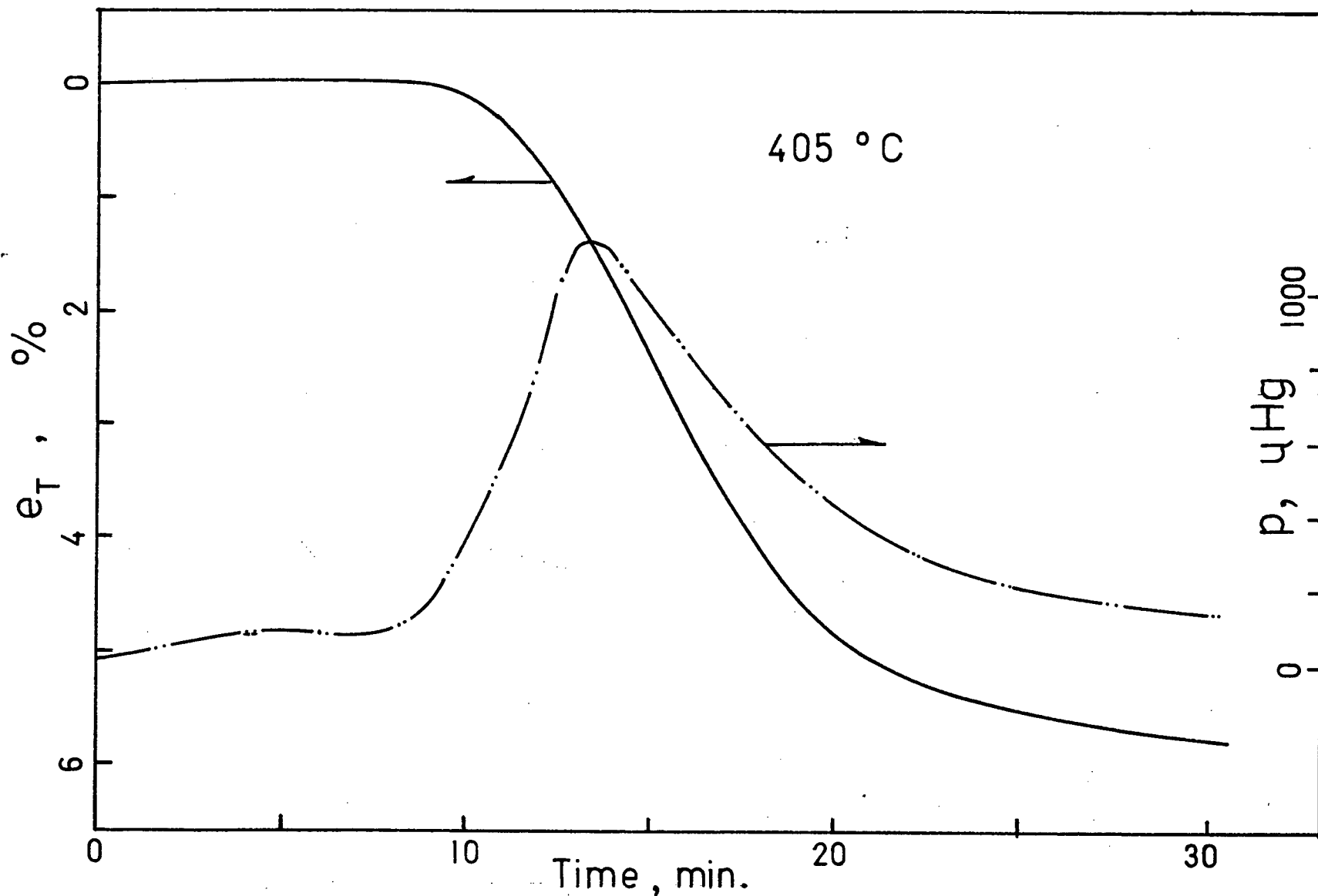


FIGURE 26 Deformation and system pressure versus time.

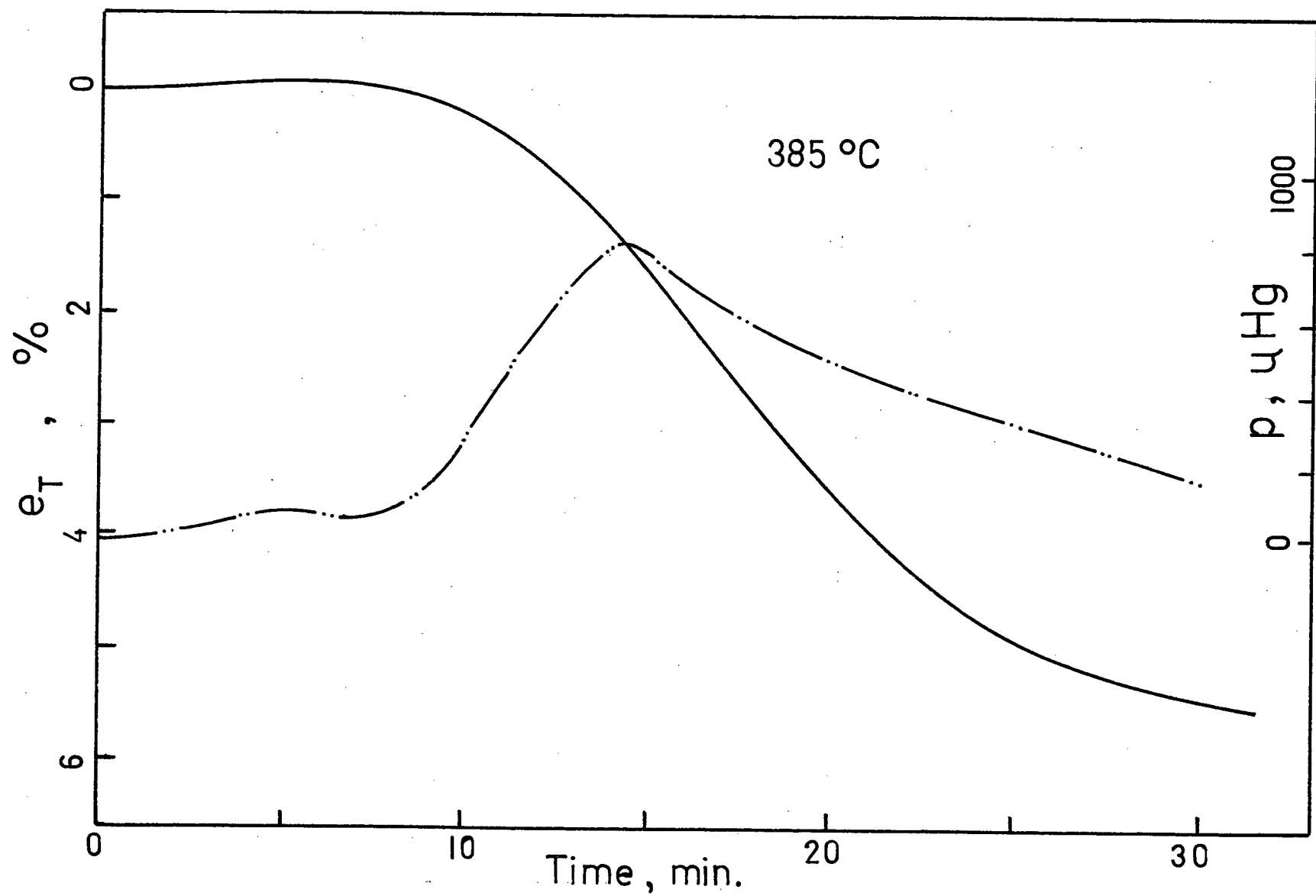


FIGURE 27 Deformation and system pressure versus time

the dehydroxylation. From this, the mass loss versus time curve could be obtained by integration.

This approach is complicated, unfortunately, by the variation of such parameters as the pumping rate, which depends to some extent on the mechanical condition of the backing pump, the type of gas previously pumped, the system temperature, and other factors. These factors are probably controllable, however, and the measurement of system pressure represents a potentially useful technique for correlating mass loss with mechanical deformation during dehydroxylation in this type of experiment.

In order to characterize the observed creep quantitatively, different aspects of the time-deformation curve should be considered. The beginning of Stage I seems to be related directly to the onset of dehydroxylation, and the extent of this stage varies with the temperature, load and density of the specimen as can be seen in Figures 20 - 23. Lower temperatures, and consequently lower rates of dehydroxylation produce a more prolonged initiation period.

The duration of Stage II varies with the temperature and applied load. At higher temperatures and loads, and lower densities, a longer and nearly linear Stage II is observed. At lower temperatures, higher densities and lower stresses, the Stage III decay region seems to form a larger portion of the curve. In all cases, however, the slope of the curve (maximum creep rate) is strongly influenced by variations

in stress, density and temperature .

The parameters selected to characterize the creep phenomenon are, therefore, the total creep strain developed under isothermal conditions and the maximum rate of creep. The total deformation was measured following the procedure shown in Figure 16, and the maximum creep rate was determined from the slope of a line drawn tangent to the steepest part of the creep curve. The creep rate is expressed as inches/inch/minute (or minute⁻¹).

These two parameters are somewhat arbitrarily defined. but as is shown in the following sections, they provide a basis for analyzing quantitatively the creep behaviour.

In the following sections, the effects of temperature, stress and relative density on the maximum creep rate and the total observed strain are considered.

4. 4 Creep Rate

4.4.1 Effect of Temperature

To determine the activation energy for the creep process, the maximum creep rates have been plotted against reciprocal absolute temperature in Figure 28. The Arrhenius plot of both sets of creep rates, determined using specimens of relative bulk density 0.50 and stresses of 6.0 and 13.6 kg/cm² produced an activation energy of 17.5 kcal/mol. The specimen properties, temperatures, stresses and creep rate are summarized in Table IV.

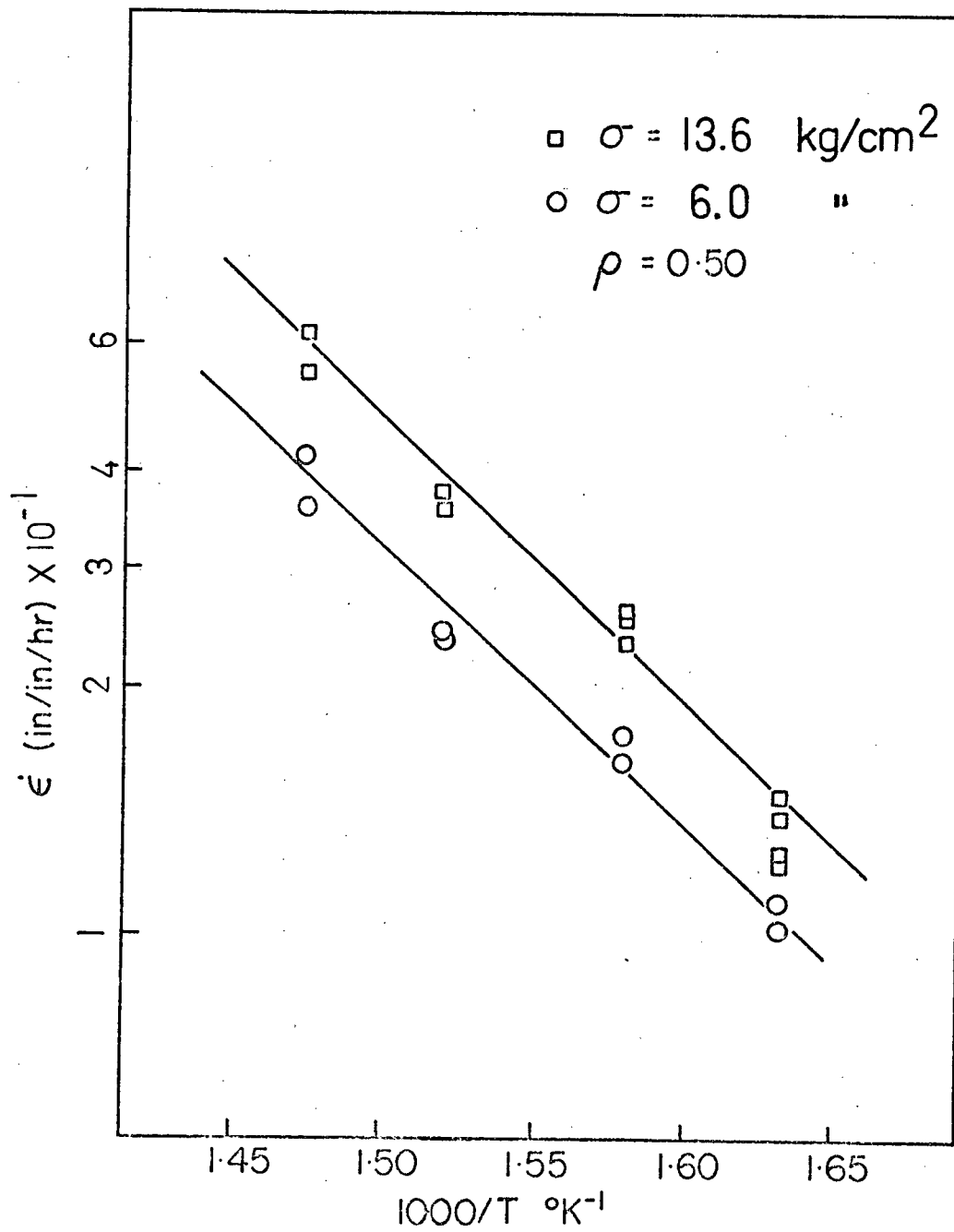


FIGURE 28 Arrhenius - type plot of creep rate versus temperature.

TABLE IV

TEMPERATURE DEPENDENCE OF ISOTHERMAL CREEP

Nominal Relative Bulk Density = 0.50 $\sigma = 13.6 \text{ kg/cm}^2$

SPECIMEN	T°C	$\dot{\epsilon} \times 10^4$ min ⁻¹	e_r %	ρ_o
81	340	24.6	7.55	1.206
83	340	22.9	7.48	1.206
76	360	43.4	7.25	1.208
75	360	42.9	7.25	1.203
82	360	39.0	6.86	1.196
79	385	66.6	6.95	1.202
80	385	70.6	6.94	1.206
77	405	90.3	7.26	1.204
78	405	100.8	7.52	1.199

$\sigma = 6.0 \text{ kg/cm}^2$

85	340	16.35	5.97	1.204
86	340	17.9	5.40	1.203
96	340	20.8	5.43	1.217
97	340	20.0	5.08	1.216
101	360	27.6	5.39	1.208
102	360	30.0	5.38	1.214
99	385	41.3	5.40	1.217
100	385	40.2	5.36	1.209
84	405	70.0	5.68	1.210
98	405	60.2	5.42	1.219

4.4.2 Stress Dependence

The observed maximum creep rate is plotted as a function of stress in Figure 29. The stress dependence is essentially linear, showing pseudo-Newtonian behaviour, with an apparent intercept on the rate axis, i. e. finite rate at zero stress. A direct proportionality between creep rate and stress is generally attributed to viscous flow, grain boundary sliding or Nabarro-Herring creep. Details of possible mechanisms of creep during dehydroxylation will be discussed later. The data is summarized in Table V.

4.4.3 Density Dependence

The maximum creep rate varied strongly with the green density of the specimen. A similar density dependence was also observed by Coble⁽²⁴⁾ for the creep of alumina at elevated temperatures.

To explain the density dependence of creep rate, the effective stress acting within the specimen must be considered. In a particulate compact, the effective stress acting on contact area A, (on a cross section of the compact), and the stress are related by -

$$\sigma_{\text{eff}} = \frac{\sigma_{\text{applied}}}{A}$$

Any increase in the relative density increases the contact area (assuming constant packing geometry) and thus reduces the effective stress. The contact area in a powder compact of spheres after deformation and the relative density of the compact are related by ⁽²⁵⁾

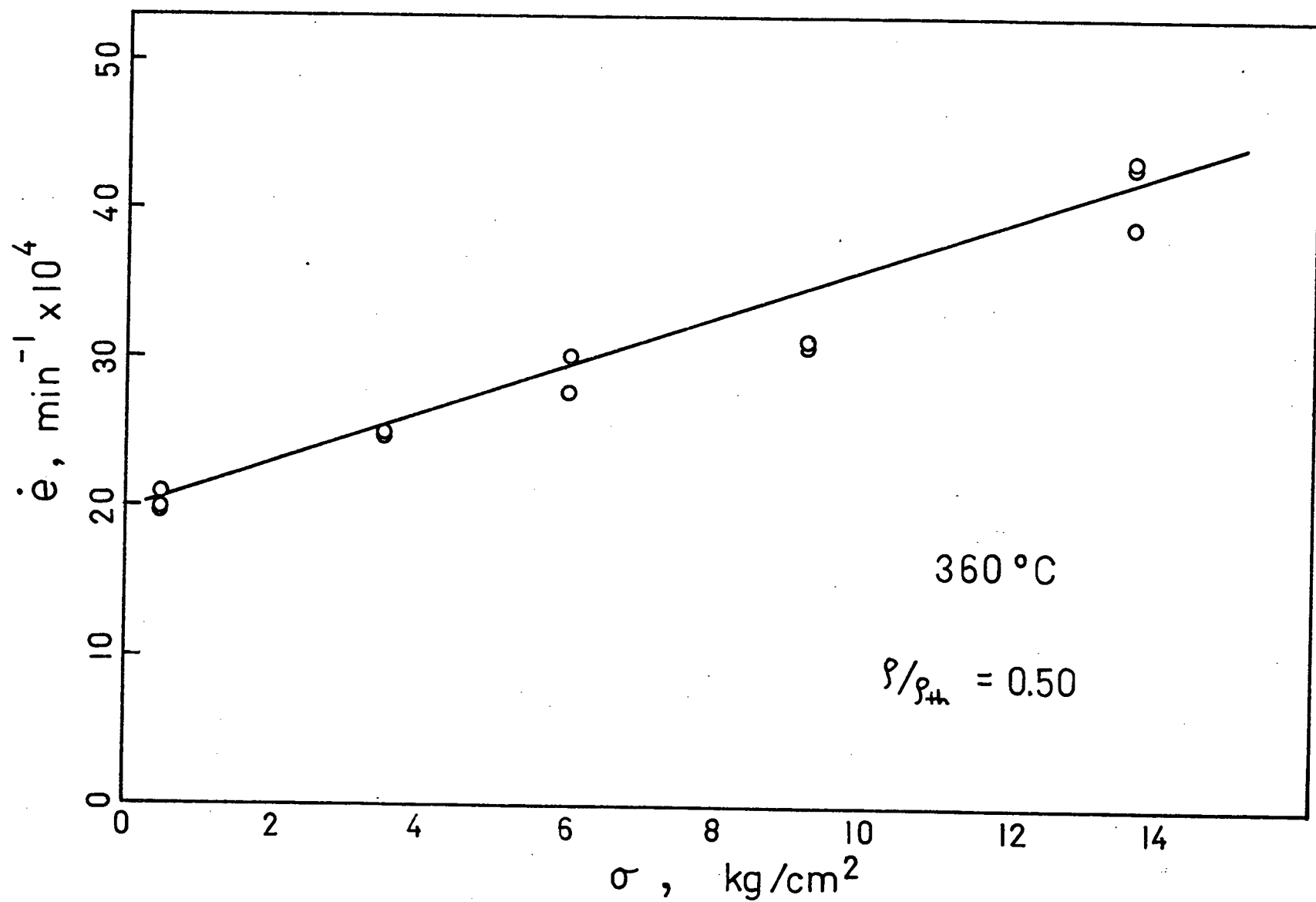


FIGURE 29 Stress dependence of maximum creep rate

TABLE V

STRESS DEPENDENCE OF ISOTHERMAL CREEP

Isothermal Creep

Stress Dependence

T = 360°C

Nominal relative bulk density = 0.50

SPECIMEN	STRESS kg/cm ²	$\dot{\epsilon}$ min ⁻¹ X10 ⁴	e_T %	η_0
103	0.54	20.9	3.16	1.214
104	0.54	19.9	3.48	1.214
105	0.54	17.7	2.53	1.212
101	6.0	27.6	5.39	1.208
102	6.0	30.0	5.38	1.214
108	9.25	30.6	6.58	1.212
109	9.25	31.2	6.27	1.220
106	3.53	24.9	5.02	1.205
107	3.53	24.7	4.70	1.212
75	13.6	42.9	7.25	1.203
76	13.6	43.4	7.25	1.208
82	13.6	39.0	6.86	1.196

$$\rho = \rho_0 + \frac{3\rho_0}{2} \left(\frac{a}{R} \right)^2$$

where ρ and ρ_0 are the relative densities at any face of radius a and $a=0$, respectively, and R is the radius of the deformed sphere.

This means that $\rho \propto a^2$ or contact area, for a constant initial packing density. Hence,

$$\sigma_{\text{eff}} \propto \frac{1}{\rho}$$

This relation may also be obtained by considering the solid area fraction in a plane cut through the specimen, the stress effective on this area, and the relative density of the specimen. A similar conclusion was also drawn by Fryer ⁽²⁶⁾. Finally, since the strain rate is proportional to the stress,

$$\dot{\epsilon} \propto 1/\rho$$

The experimental validity of the relation is shown in Figure 30, where the creep rate is plotted as a function of $1/\rho$. The data of Coble and Kingery ⁽²⁴⁾ for the creep behaviour of Al_2O_3 of varying relative densities are also plotted. It can be seen that this relation satisfies both sets of data. This result implies that the density dependence of the creep rate arises from the stress concentration on the grain boundaries or the contact area between the particles because of the porosity in the specimen.

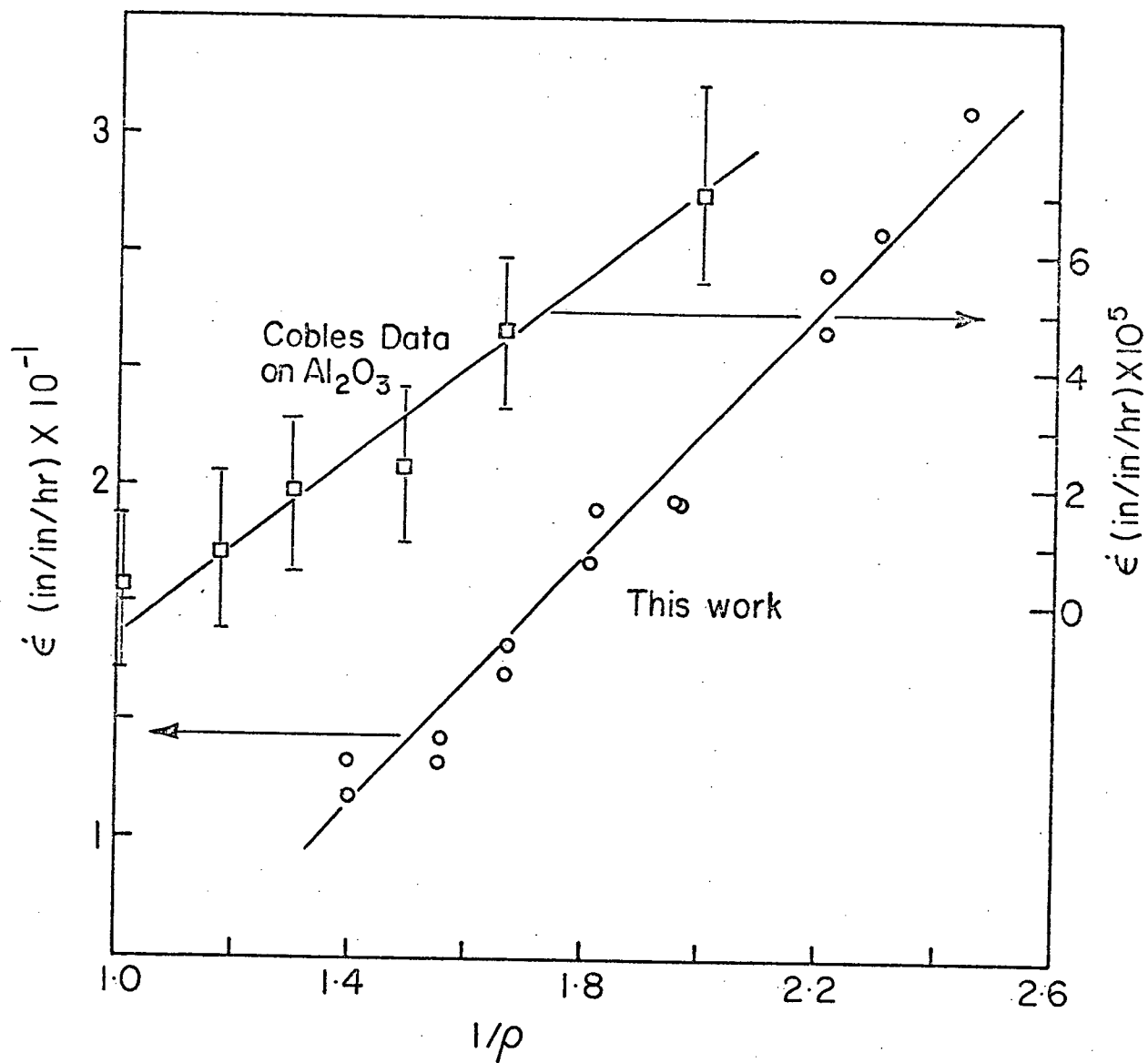


FIGURE 30 Density dependence of maximum creep rate.

TABLE VI

DENSITY DEPENDENCE OF ISOTHERMAL CREEP

Stress 9.25 kg/cm²

Temperature 360°C.

SPECIMEN	ρ_0	NOMINAL RELATIVE DENSITY	$\dot{\epsilon}$ min ⁻¹ X10 ⁴	ϵ_T %
129	0.963	0.40	44.9	collapsed
130	0.972	0.40	51.3	collapsed
124	1.072	0.45	41.2	7.62
125	1.073	0.45	40.7	7.05
108	1.212	0.50	30.6	6.58
109	1.220	0.50	31.2	6.27
120	1.313	0.55	31.4	5.96
121	1.317	0.55	29.2	6.04
116	1.425	0.60	25.5	5.42
117	1.430	0.60	24.3	5.59
132	1.537	0.65	21.3	5.02
133	1.535	0.65	20.2	4.87
136	1.702	0.70	19.1	4.28
137	1.700	0.70	20.1	4.21

It should be pointed out that the actual density of the compact at the instant of maximum creep rate is not the same as the green density, since a certain amount of decomposition (and hence mass loss) has taken place at the time the maximum creep rate is measured.

The fact that the density dependence may be described by as simple a relationship as $\dot{\epsilon} \propto \frac{1}{\rho}$ shows that: 1) $\dot{\epsilon}$ is independent of weight loss during Stage II, or 2) the maximum rate occurs at a certain fraction of the total weight loss in all cases.

The creep rate during Stage II appears to be relatively constant, even though the system pressure variation shows that the reaction reaches maximum rate and diminishes very rapidly, indicating that the dehydroxylation rate has the same behaviour. This suggests strongly that the creep rate may be independent of the extent of dehydroxylation as long as the reaction is actually in progress.

4. 5. Total Creep Strain

The total percent strain is summarized for a particular set of conditions in each of the tables mentioned in the preceding section. (Tables IV - VI). The effects of temperature, stress and green density upon the total strain will now be considered.

4. 5. 1 Effect of Temperature

The total strain is plotted in Figure 31, for two different stresses (6.0 and 13.6 kg/cm²) and a range of temperatures. A least squares fit performed on the data gave lines through both sets of points having a zero slope. That is, the total strain developed is independent

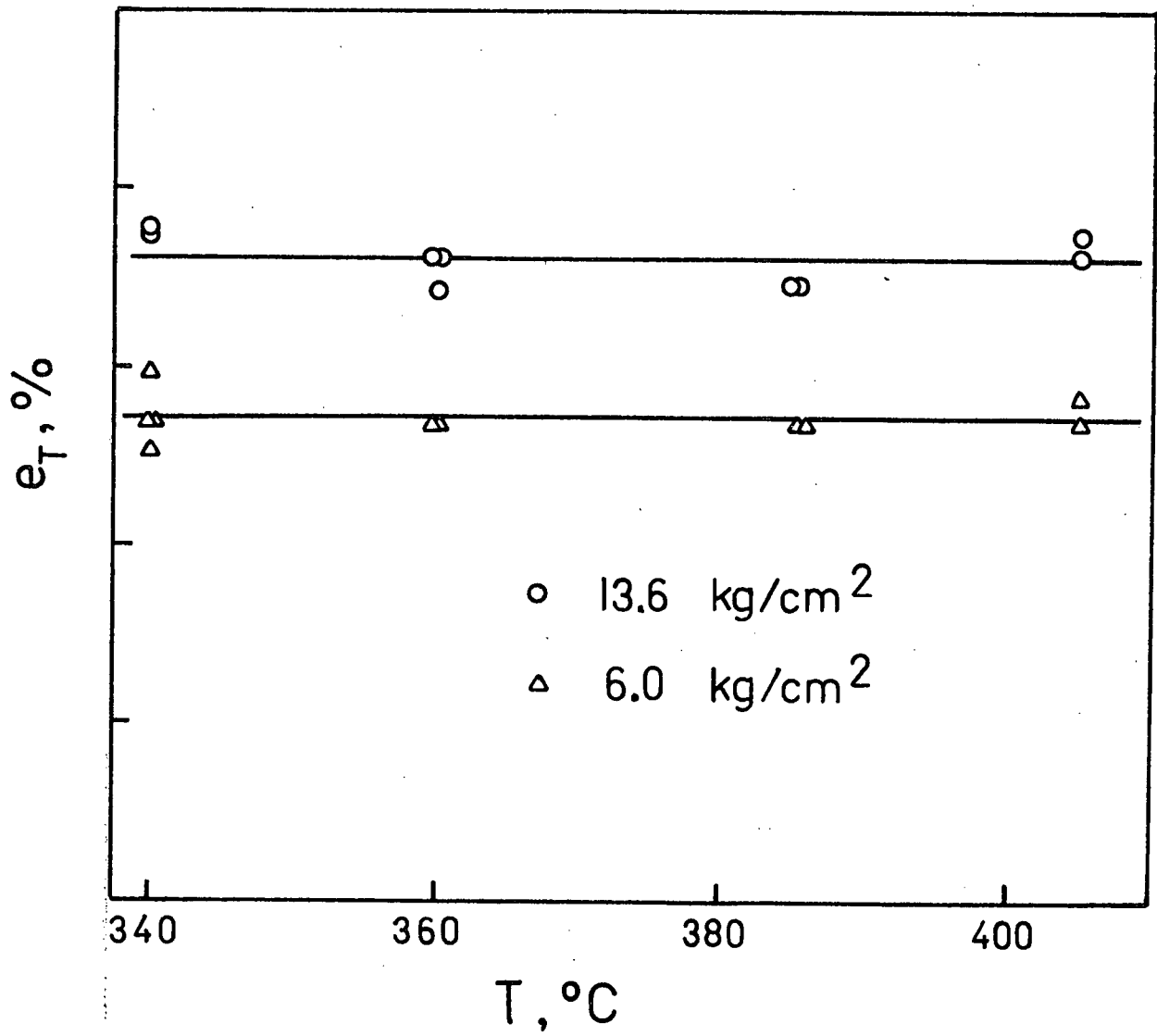


FIGURE 31 Total Strain Versus Temperature

of temperature.

4. 5. 2 Effect of Stress

The total percentage strain under isothermal conditions is also plotted as a function of stress in Figure 32. In order to find the stress dependence of the total strain, a log-log plot of the data is made (Figure 33). The equation which adequately represents the data is found to be $e_T = e_{0T} + k \sigma^n$, where the value of the power n is approximately one third. e_{0T} is very small, and so can not be determined from this plot. This behaviour is strikingly similar to that observed earlier (Section 3. 3. 1) for total strain at a uniform heating rate.

4. 5. 3 Effect of Density

The values of total strain observed following isothermal creep at 360°C, for a constant stress of 9.2 kg/cm², are plotted against density in Figure 34. The data have also been tested on a log-log plot, on which a line drawn through the point gives a slope of approximately -1, suggesting a reciprocal relationship. The data are therefore plotted against $1/\rho$, as shown in Figure 35. The experimental scatter in these data makes it impossible to determine with certainty the form of the relationship.

However, as the strain rate was shown to be inversely proportional to the density, it is likely that the density dependence of the total strain under isothermal conditions also arises from the effective stress acting on the compact, making the reciprocal relationship more probable.

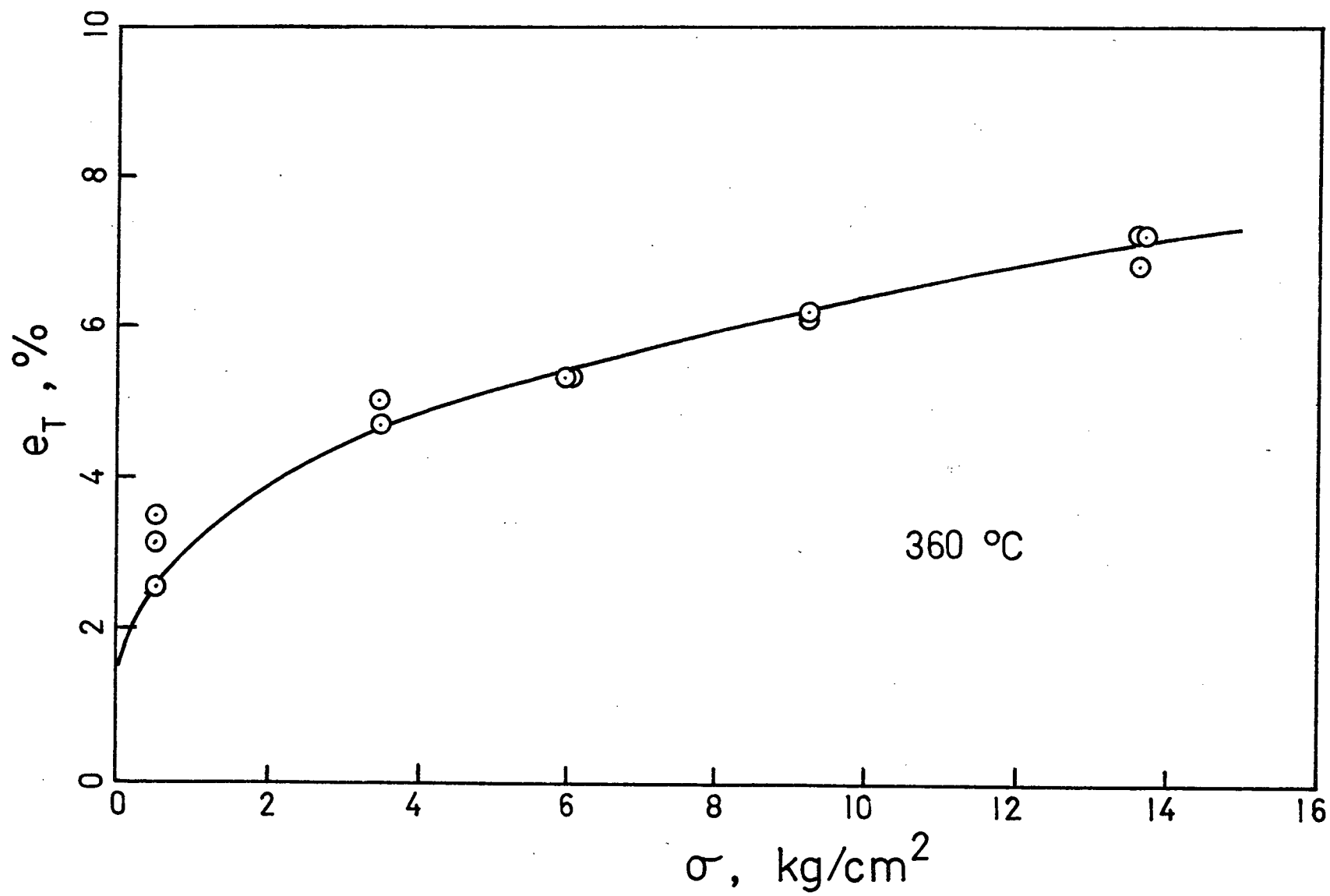


FIGURE 32 Total strain versus stress

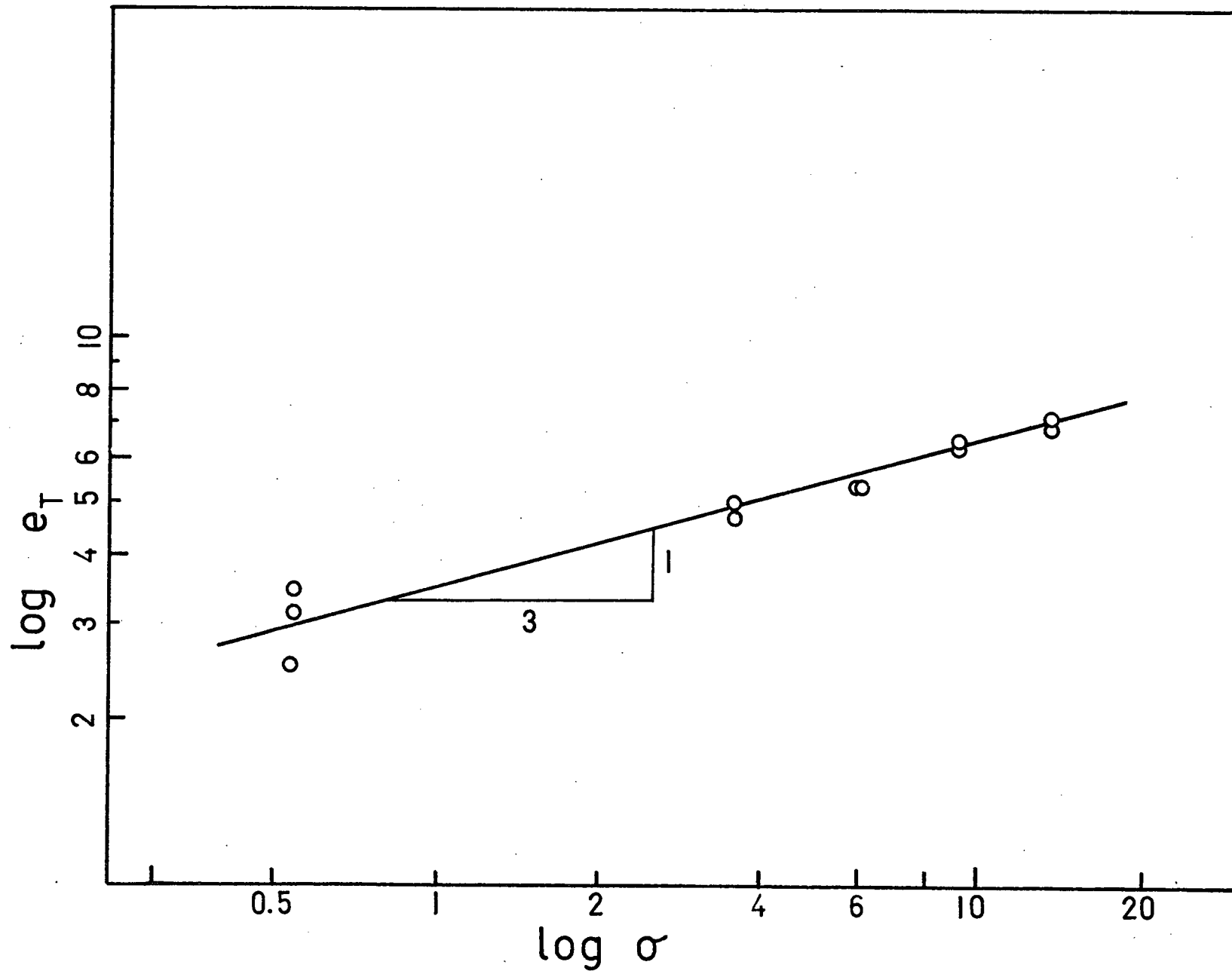


FIGURE 33 Log-Log Plot of Total Strain Versus Stress

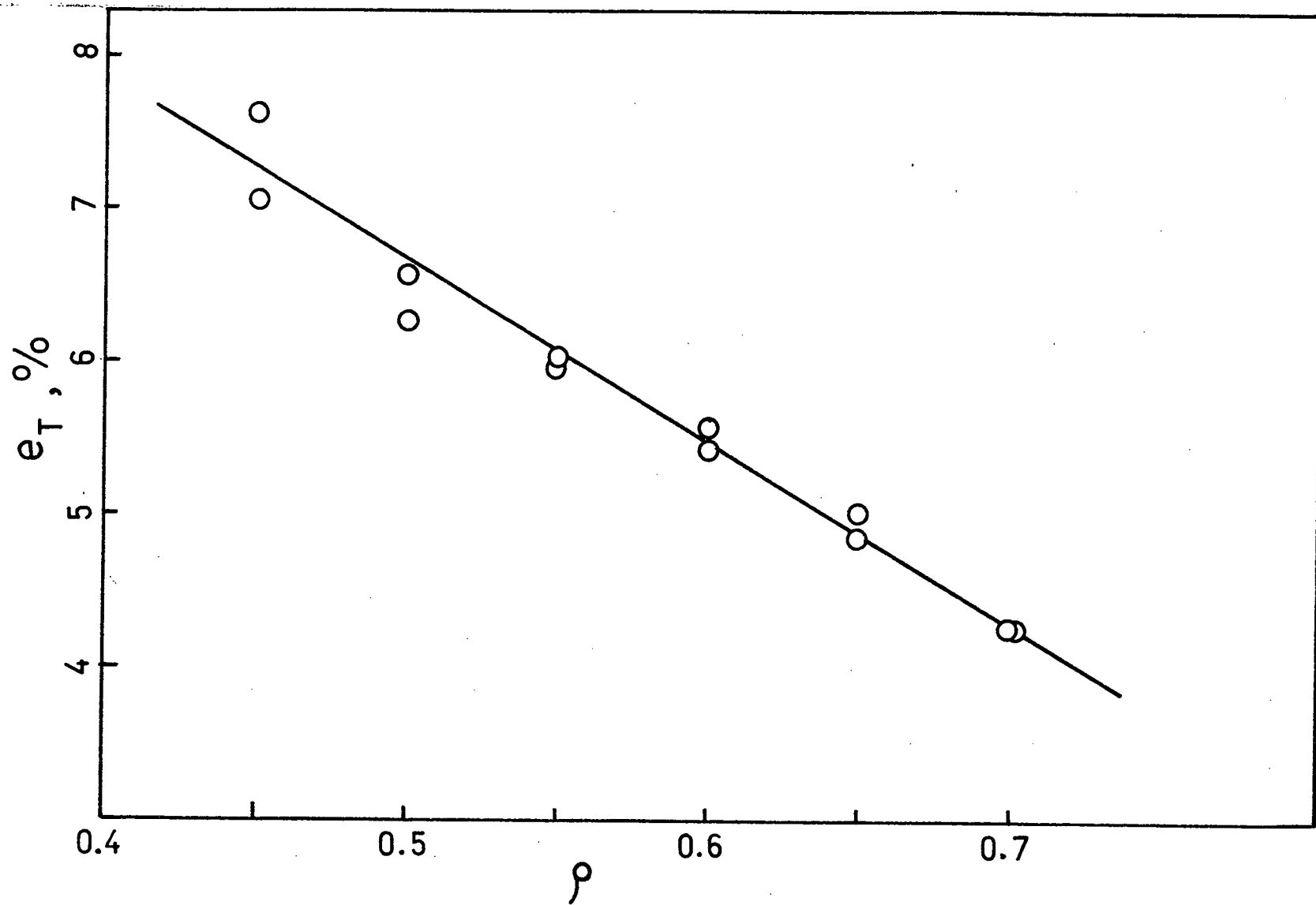


FIGURE 34 Total Strain Versus Density

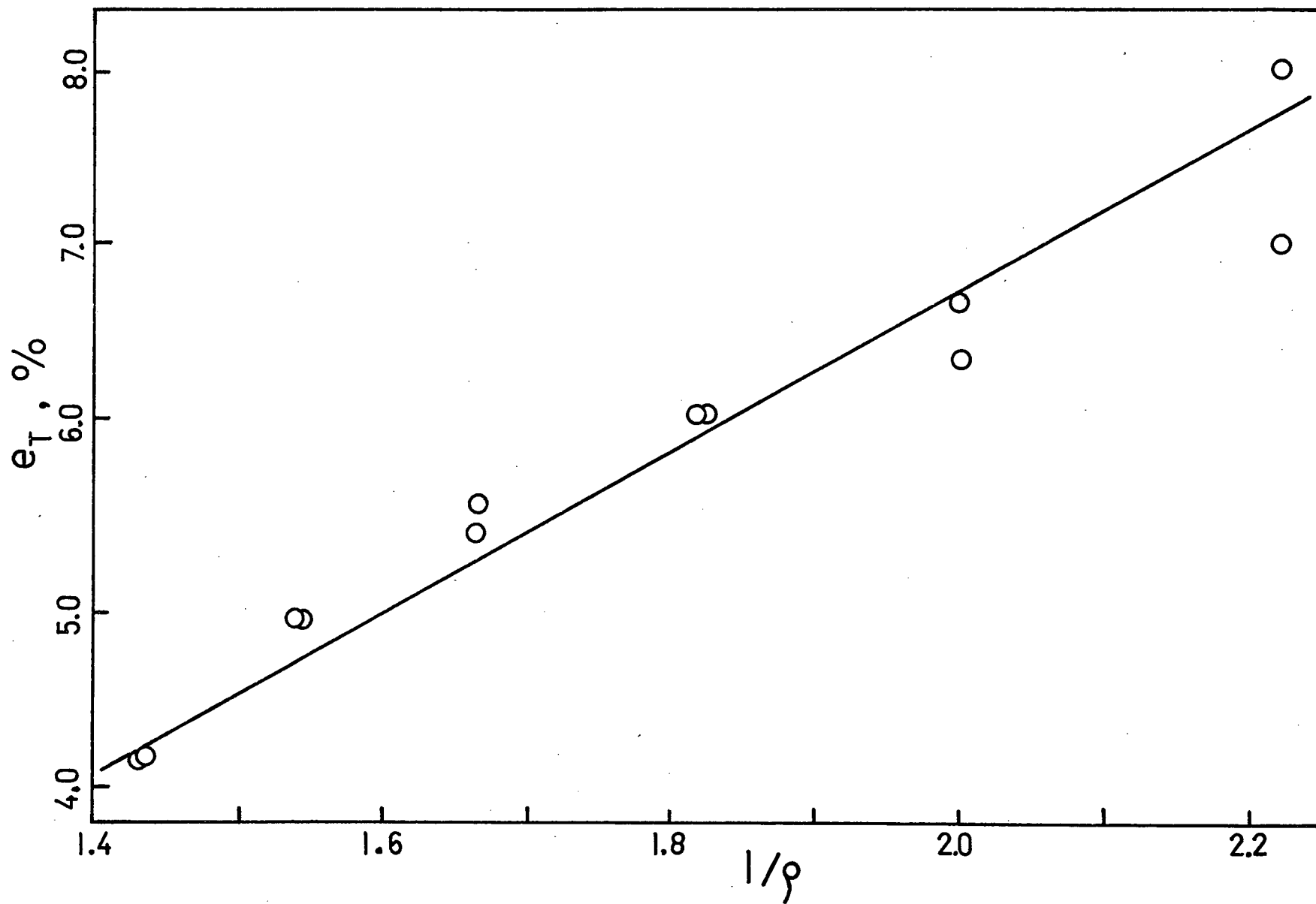


FIGURE 35 Total Strain Versus $1/\rho$

4.5.4 Phenomenological Behaviour

The relationship observed between total strain and stress, i.e.

$$e_T \propto \sigma^n, \text{ where } n \approx 1/3$$

is similar to the dependence of the cold compacted density of the material, which gave

$$\rho = \rho_0 P^n, \text{ with } n \text{ also } \approx 1/3$$

The similarity of the stress dependence suggests some possible mechanistic relationship, perhaps particle sliding, but no theoretical argument can be advanced for this power law. A similar power law dependence of density on stress has also been reported by Smith ⁽³⁰⁾, also on the basis of experimental data.

4. 6 Postulated Mechanisms of Creep

4. 6. 1 Physical Changes Accompanying Dehydroxylation

In order to postulate a mechanism for the observed creep it is necessary to consider the changes which accompany the decomposition. As discussed in the Introduction, the dehydroxylation of $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ forms particles of MgO , approximately 100 Å diameter. Calcination of the $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ used for this study (specific surface area $15\text{m}^2/\text{gm}$) in the temperature range 350° to 400°C has produced surface areas of up to $250\text{m}^2/\text{gm}$ on the product MgO . This corresponds to free cubes of average 66 Å to a side. This calculated size is in good agreement with X-ray line broadening experiments on the same material, calcined between 400° and 500°C , which produced a particle size range of 60 to 75 Å⁽²⁷⁾.

Samples of the $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ have been examined before and after dehydroxylation in the electron microscope. The magnesium hydroxide powder was placed on carbon support films on copper grids, then calcined in a vacuum furnace (10^{-5} Torr) at temperatures from 350° to 500°C . The samples were then examined to determine the extent of visible change at various temperatures. At the temperatures used for this study (below 450°C) the hexagonal brucite platelets retained their characteristic shape, although completely transformed to MgO .

These experiments served to confirm that the behaviour of this material was qualitatively similar to that observed by others (Section 1.4) on materials from different sources.

4. 6. 2 Activation Energies of Concurrent Processes

It is interesting to compare the activation energy obtained here for the creep process with the activation energies of other processes which may occur concurrently during dehydroxylation. Although this approach may not reveal the exact mechanisms involved in the deformation process, it is a basis for comparing quite different phenomena. Such comparison may lead to a hypothetical mechanism for the deformation observed in this investigation.

The dehydroxylation itself is the most important process associated with the creep, as the creep process observed is activated by the decomposition reaction. The most authoritative work on the dehydroxylation kinetics is that of Gordon and Kingery ⁽¹⁵⁾, who have shown that the activation energy of the process varies with the specimen geometry, primarily due to the back pressure of the water vapor created by the dehydroxylation. The activation energy for the dehydroxylation, when corrected for the specimen geometry appears to be in the range of 38 to 40 kcal/mol. This activation energy is more than double that determined for the creep process, which indicates that although the decomposition reaction initiates the deformation, the rate controlling mechanism for the creep is probably different from that of the dehydroxylation. The observation that the creep rate during the second stage is independent of the rate of dehydroxylation lends support to this argument. (Section 4. 4. 3).

Studies of the rehydration of MgO prepared by the calcination of MgCO_3 at 1000°C were carried out by Layden and Brindley⁽²⁸⁾.

These studies indicated that the temperature dependence of the reaction rate constant may be described by an Arrhenius - type relationship with an activation energy of about 16 kcal/mol. The exact mechanism was not determined, but it was felt most likely that the overall rate was governed by the rate of an interfacial reaction. This could presumably itself be diffusion controlled.

A grain growth study of MgO prepared by the calcination of Mg(OH)_2 has been performed by Kotera, Saito and Terada⁽²⁹⁾. Working in air in the temperature range 500° to 900°C they found an activation energy of 17 kcal/mol for the grain growth, using material prepared from precipitated Mg(OH)_2 . On the basis of the low activation energy of the process and the time exponent of grain growth (t^n , $n = 1/6$), Kotera et al suggested that the rate may be controlled by surface diffusion.

The good agreement between the activation energy of the grain growth process as determined by Kotera et al, and that of the creep process investigated here suggests that the rate controlling mechanisms for these two processes may be the same.

4. 6. 3 Viscous Flow and Grain Boundary Sliding

The stress dependence of the maximum creep rate is linear, suggesting that the mechanism of the deformation may be either viscous flow or grain boundary sliding (interparticle sliding).

Grain boundaries in the proper sense do not exist in a particulate compact of the type used, so particle (equivalent to grains) sliding is considered to be synonymous here. Grain boundary creep is generally important only at temperatures above $0.5 T_m$. This suggests that some form of increased atomic mobility must be present for this mechanism to be operable at the temperatures used in this study.

4.6.4 Possible Mechanisms of Deformation

From the foregoing it appears that the creep deformation observed during the decomposition of $Mg(OH)_2$ may be diffusion controlled, as the activation energy of the creep process is similar to those of grain growth and rehydration. On the other hand, it is possible that the deformation occurs by some other means. For example, it has been demonstrated recently⁽³³⁾ that a loose particulate compact of a mixture of tungsten and oxalic acid can be densified during the decomposition of the oxalic acid, apparently without any chemical reaction between the two materials. In this case the enhanced densification of the tungsten powder was attributed to the effect of gas phase lubrication.

At present it is difficult to choose between these two mechanisms:

- a) Deformation controlled by diffusion, and
- b) Deformation controlled by gas phase lubrication.

This system is further complicated by the fact that the

$\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ disintegrates into very fine crystallites of MgO (about 70 Å), thus creating a large number of new interparticle contact areas for sliding. In addition, the possible contribution of slip to the observed deformation must be considered.

4. 6. 4. 1 Slip Mechanisms

As near theoretically dense bodies have been produced just above the decomposition temperature, the deformation of individual crystallites must occur during the hot pressing process at higher stresses, indicating that the freshly formed MgO is plastic.

This plasticity may be manifested even at low stresses, giving rise to some or all of the creep deformation observed in this study. Hulse, Copley and Pask⁽³¹⁾ showed that fully dense polycrystalline MgO (of a certain and grain size) can yield plastically at as low as 400°C. (at 35,000 psi). They also showed that the yield stress on the $\{100\}\langle 110\rangle$ slip system of single crystal MgO is approximately 10,000 psi at 400°C. In the present investigation the particles are not constrained in the same manner as grains in a solid body, and the individual contact areas may be very small, giving rise to very high stress concentrations. Also, the freshly formed MgO particles may be highly defective as a result of the type of structural rearrangement involved in the decomposition. A combination of all these effects may contribute to the creep deformation observed.

4. 6. 4. 2 Stacking Rearrangement

Another possible stress dependent mechanism of deformation of the particles may stem from the effect of stress on the rearrangement of the stacking sequence necessary for the transformation from the hexagonal to the cubic lattice configuration. In considering the transformation of $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ to MgO , none of the previous investigators have studied in detail the required change of stacking sequence. Two basic models have, however, been proposed for the removal of water vapor from the material during the reaction.

The model suggested by Goodman⁽¹³⁾ for the transformation, as shown in Figure 3, necessitates a structural collapse normal to the basal oxygen planes due to the removal of whole layers of oxygen (hydroxyl) ions. Because of experimental difficulties none of the investigators have been able to determine the extent of the dimensional change normal to the basal planes. However, if such a collapse occurs, it is possible that the presence of an external stress having a component parallel to the oxygen planes can cause deformation during the dehydroxylation.

Alternatively, if the decomposition proceeds by the inhomogeneous mechanism of Ball and Taylor⁽¹⁶⁾, Figure 4, a stacking

sequence rearrangement is necessary at some time during the reaction. It can be shown that the necessary rearrangement can occur by the passage of a partial dislocation of the form $1/6 [\bar{2}11]$ between every second oxygen layer. To provide the necessary stacking rearrangement without gross shape change of the crystallite the succession of shifts would be in the sequence $1/6 \langle \bar{2}11 \rangle$, $1/6 \langle 1\bar{2}1 \rangle$ ("b") and $1/6 \langle 11\bar{2} \rangle$ ("c") on successive planes.

An arbitrarily chosen plane requiring shift from ABAB to ABCA could make the required change with a, b or c. In the presence of an applied stress the shift would be in the direction of that stress.

One property of the deformation could be related to this rearrangement. The observed dependence of strain rate on stress;

$$\dot{\epsilon} = \dot{\epsilon}_0 + A\sigma$$

where $\dot{\epsilon}_0$ is the intercept with the rate axis, and A is a constant, could result from the fact that a small external stress could cause the sequence of partial dislocations to change from abc etc. to another sequence causing gross strain.

This hypothesis has not been developed in detail, as there is no direct indication in this study that deformation of the particles themselves is actually occurring.

V. Summary and Conclusions

5.1 Contact deformation and bond formation have been demonstrated in experiments in which tips of single crystal Ca(OH)_2 and cold-compacted Mg(OH)_2 powder were decomposed while loaded in contact.

5.2 Compacts of Mg(OH)_2 , of 0.50 relative density have been decomposed under varying compressive loads. The shrinkage accompanying dehydroxylation in the absence of load was less than 0.4%. A load-dependent deformation of up to 7% at 13.6 kg/cm^2 (the maximum stress used) has been observed. The dependence of total strain on stress, at uniform heating rate takes the form:

$$e_T = e_{0T} + k \sigma^n$$

where e_{0T} is less than 0.4% and n is approximately 1/3.

These observations firmly establish for the first time that this material can be deformed plastically during a decomposition reaction.

5.3 The creep behaviour of the compacts was explored, for different isothermal temperatures, stresses and relative densities. The compressive creep curve is of sigmoidal form, similar to the thermogravimetric curve for the same material. The creep curve has three stages;

Stage I - an initiation period, with rapid increase of creep rate.

Stage II - a period of nearly linear rapid creep.

Stage III - a decay region, with rapidly decreasing rate, apparently approaching zero asymptotically.

5.4 The maximum creep rate (slope of the creep curve) has been measured, and its dependence on temperature, stress and density determined.

The creep rate shows a temperature dependence of the Arrhenius form, with an activation energy of 17.5 kcal/mol. This is approximately one-half the best published value for the activation energy of dehydroxylation, so the mechanisms of the two processes are thought to be different.

Comparison of the activation energy with those of grain growth and rehydration (17 and 16.1 kcal/mol, respectively) suggest that the creep process may be diffusion controlled.

The creep rate has a linear relationship with applied stress, in the stress range examined (0.54 to 13.6 kg/cm²), and an apparent finite creep rate at zero stress:

$$\dot{\epsilon} = \dot{\epsilon}_0 + A\sigma$$

A full explanation of this behaviour has not been developed, but it may relate to stacking sequence rearrangement during dehydroxylation.

The creep rate has been shown to be of the form

$$\dot{\epsilon} \propto 1/\rho$$

This has been explained in terms of an effective stress acting on interparticle contacts. The interparticle contact area is proportional to density, giving the above result.

The final form of the creep rate equation is:

$$\dot{\epsilon} = \dot{\epsilon}_0 + \frac{A\sigma}{\rho} \exp \left(- \frac{17,500}{RT} \right) t^{-1}$$

5.5 The total creep strain developed under isothermal conditions has also been determined. The total strain has been found to be independent of temperature. Its variation versus stress is of the form

$$\epsilon_T = \epsilon_{0T} + \epsilon \sigma^n$$

where n is again approximately $1/3$ and ϵ_{0T} less than 0.5%. The density dependence appears to be of the form

$$\epsilon_T \propto 1/\rho$$

5.6 The creep mechanism is postulated to be interparticle sliding, probably similar to grain boundary sliding in solid materials. However, it is possible that deformation of the particles occurs, probably by a mechanism associated with stacking sequence rearrangement, although this work does not permit the formulation of a rigorous hypothesis. It has, however, shown that load-dependent deformation can occur during dehydroxylation of $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$.

VI Suggestions for Future Work

6.1 In order to establish more definitively the relationship between weight loss and creep, experiments should be devised to measure simultaneously, and accurately, the weight loss and dimensional change.

6.2 The effect of specimen size has not been studied, and experiments with varying diameters might permit extrapolation to zero diameter, and hence elimination of any back water vapour pressure effect due to the compact size.

6.3 As the Mg(OH)_2 particles in the compacts undoubtedly show a strong texture, due to their platy shape and the uniaxial pressing, it would be interesting to explore the effect of textural orientation on the deformation. This could be done by using specimens pressed sideways.

6.4 The effect of water vapour pressure on the deformation could also be studied. This might serve to clarify the mechanism.

6.5 The range of stresses used could be expanded, particularly to lower stresses, so that the true form of the stress dependence at very small stresses could be determined. This would probably require optical measurement of dimensional changes.

6.6 The activation energy for the creep process should be compared with one accurately determined for the dehydroxylation of the same material.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION WITHIN THE CYLINDRICAL SPECIMEN

In order to assess the possible time lag between the specimen's surface and its centre, an approximate calculation was performed using a method due to Carslaw and Jaeger (23).

Values for the thermal conductivity and specific heat were first estimated, as experimental values for Mg(OH)_2 were not available in the literature. The specific heat may be obtained in several ways. One estimate, based on comparison with values (20) for CaO , Ca(OH)_2 , and MgO is $0.30 \text{ cal/gm}^\circ\text{C}$. Values for the specific heat of MgO from (32) Wicks indicate a value between 0.30 to 0.40 for Mg(OH)_2 , based on $0.265 \text{ cal/gm}^\circ\text{C}$ for MgO . A value of $0.35 \text{ cal/gm}^\circ\text{C}$ was selected for the calculations.

The thermal conductivity was estimated on the basis of the published values for MgO , which range from about 0.08 ($\text{cal/sec/cm}^2 / ^\circ\text{C/cm}$) for pure, dense MgO , to 10^{-4} for powdered MgO . The relative bulk densities used in the experiments were somewhat greater than expected for loose powders, but it was felt that the reduced pressure (10^{-2} Torr) would compensate, and a value of $K=10^{-4}$ was selected.

The method used permits the calculation of temperature as a function of time, the thermal diffusivity (K/ρ) and a reduced radius for an infinite cylinder subjected to a step increase in its surface temperature. The step increase is indicated by V on Figure 36 ,

and the local temperature at any time t by v . A typical steady state temperature of 400° is plotted on the left hand margin.

It can be seen that a temperature in excess of 390°F is reached at the specimen centre ($v/R=0$) in 8 to 10 minutes. This was felt to justify conducting the experiment and obtaining experimental verification of the specimen temperature during the tests.

It should be noted that the heat of reaction (endothermic) has not been taken into account in this calculation. Since it was found in the early tests that the maximum reaction rate did not develop until approximately 5 minutes after test temperature (405°C) had been reached (about 12 minutes from the start of the run), it was felt that the major endothermic reaction took place after the quasi-uniform temperature distribution has been achieved. Temperature measurements in the centre of the specimen during the test eventually confirmed the predicted temperature distribution.

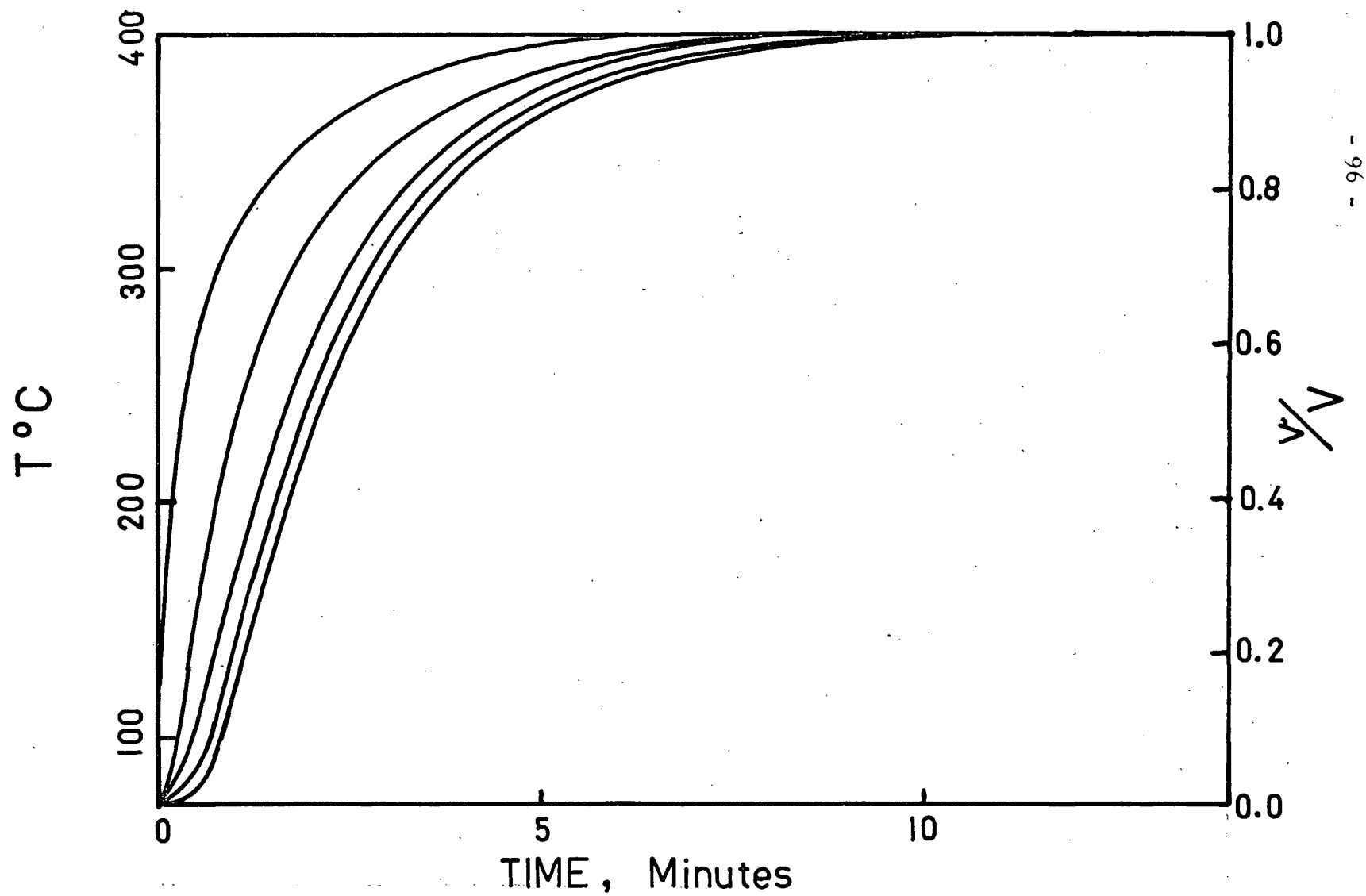


FIGURE 36 Theoretical temperature distribution in the specimens for the isothermal creep tests.

APPENDIX II

CREEP DATA - "ISOTHERMAL" CONDITIONS

The data is presented in tabular (columnar) form as time from the start of the run (minutes), specimen surface temperature ($T^{\circ}\text{C}$), and shrinkage from the initial length in inches $\times 10^{-5}$ (hundred thousandths). Duplicate runs are presented in the same table for comparison. The specimen particulars and run load are also presented. Initial length is given in inches and specimen density in gm/cm^3 .

The specimen numbers are included on the Figures in Section 3, so that direct comparisons may be made. All the data presented have been corrected for thermal expansion by the method shown in Appendix III. The runs are grouped in the manner in which they were presented in Section 3. One set of four duplicate runs has been included (Nos. 85, 86, 96, 97). All runs were started with a system pressure of from 10 to 50 μ Hg, depending on the rate of reaction (temperature).

APPENDIX II (a)

Specimen	81	83
l_o	0.3174	0.321
ρ_o	1.206	1.206

Temperature 340°C Stress 13.6 kg/cm²
Nominal relative density 0.50

Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.		Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.	
		81	83			81	83
0	40	0	0	31	340	1504	
1	40	2	0	32		1564	1438
2	55	0	-2	33		1620	1506
3	125	29	-74	34		1674	1565
4	194	44	-1	35	340	1727	1626
5	240	64	18	36		1783	1691
6	280	70	32	37		1835	1749
7	308	85	44	38		1884	1809
8	336	106	70	39		1932	1860
9	340	125	98	40	340	1976	1909
10	340	152	127	41		2017	1951
11		179	155	42		2058	1996
12		207	174	43		2092	2036
13		242	199	44		2125	2072
14		282	224	45	340	2160	2105
15	340	334	265	46		2189	2136
16		385	312	47		2216	2165
17		458	376	48		2239	2188
18		526	433	49		2264	2211
19		608	497	50	340	2296	2243
20	340	686	558	51		2315	2248
21		763	629	52			2259
22		840	703	53		2348	2279
23		918	785	54		2364	2283
24		999	863	55	340	2386	2294
25	340	1070	934	56		2393	
26		1148	1003				
27		1220	1069				
28		1297	1144				
29		1371	1211				
30	340	1438	1292				

APPENDIX II (a)

Specimen	75	76
l_0	0.318	0.3178
g_0	1.208	1.203

Temperature 360°C Stress 13.6 kg/cm²
Nominal relative density 0.50

Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.		Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.	
		75	76			75	76
0	40	0	0	31	360	2164	2095
1	40	0	0	32		2204	2152
2	75	-7	7	33		2243	2210
3	145	13	0	34		2264	
4	200	28	-12	35	360	2284	2278
5	244	31	-13	36		2296	2291
6	283	27	-12	37		2310	2305
7	312	14	-2	38		2316	2321
8	344	16	-2	39		2346	2339
9	362	70		40	360	2364	2355
10	360	113		41		2378	2369
11	360	190	-130	42		2385	2376
12	360	302	192	43		2392	
13	360	416	275	44		2399	2386
14	360	539	361	45	360		2397
15	360		459	46		2423	2410
16		816	580	47		2435	2419
17			708	48		2439	2423
18		1050	850	49			2426
19		1163	998	50	360		
20	360	1270	1099				
21		1374	1246				
22		1493	1459				
23		1590					
24		1669	1546				
25	360	1755	1631				
26		1845	1726				
27		1913	1793				
28		1986	1880				
29		2067	1968				
30	360	2116	2032				

APPENDIX II (a)

Specimen	79	80	77	78
l_0	0.3165	0.317	0.3166	0.3195
ρ_0	1.202	1.206	1.204	1.199

Temperature 385°C, 405°C Stress 13.6 kg/cm²
 Nominal relative density 0.50

Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.		Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.	
		79	80			77	78
0	40	0	0	0	40	0	0
1	40	4	0	1	45	0	0
2	60	3	-1	2	102	0	0
3	125	7	-3	3	191	23	-5
4	205	5	20	4	255	45	17
5	255	2	32	5	300	58	22
6	292	-3	25	6	334	60	32
7	320	-16	33	7	360		37
8	350	-21	39	8	384	74	47
9	369	0	58	9	400	117	62
10	382	50	118	10	407	187	94
11	386	155	229	11	405	301	174
12	385	299	390	12	405	404	347
13	385	460	566	13	405	770	620
14	385	640	758	14	405	1045	928
15	385	831	956	15	405	1310	1223
16		1011	1120	16		1573	
17		1199	1296	17		1798	1723
18		1265	1448	18		1991	1911
19		1517	1588	19		2128	2077
20	385	1643	1717	20	405	2202	2204
21		1767	1845	21		2258	2277
22		1858	1946	22		2282	2306
23		1950	2036	23		2400	2333
24		2073	2100	24			2360
25	385	2104	2152				
26		2156	2181				
27		2187	2200				
28		2214	2224				
29		2234	2244				
30	385	2262	2272				

APPENDIX II (b)

Specimen	85	86	96	97
l_0	0.3182	0.3150	0.3135	0.3148
S_0	1.204	1.211	1.217	1.216

Temperature 340°C Stress 6.0 kg/cm²
 Nominal relative density 0.50

Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.		Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.	
		85	86			96	97
0	40	0	0	0	40	0	0
1	40	3	0	1	40	-2	1
2	84	-3	-2	2	84	1	-2
3	165	-3	-16	3	165	-1	-19
4	228	-5	-14	4	228	-11	-42
5	285	-4	-17	5	285	-18	-52
6	320	-4	-32	6	320	-15	-62
7	340	-1	-42	7	340	-4	-68
8	340	18	-41	8	340	31	-61
9	340	32	-25	9	340	58	-35
10	340	61	-7	10	340	78	-14
11		88	25	11		96	11
12		114	32	12		111	29
13		155	45	13		120	66
14		200	55	14		132	78
15	340	149	81	15	340	157	104
16		292	116	16		179	136
17		342	152	17		216	196
18		402	191	18		256	237
19		452	234	19		300	296
20	340	509	283	20	340	349	352
21		556	333	21		387	413
22		605	384	22		437	483
23		654	441	23		494	547
24		704	499	24		550	611
25	340	756	549	25	340	608	678
26		819	605	26		659	741
27		858	659	27		715	799
28		921	720	28		774	857
29		974	773	29		840	907
30	340	1030	829	30	340	904	976

APPENDIX II (b) cont.

Specimen		85	86		96	97	
Time	T ^o C	Specimen No.		Time	T ^o C	Specimen No.	
Min.		85	86	Min.		96	97
31	340	1080	883	31	340	970	1040
32		1119	929	32		1030	1091
33		1168	974	33		1087	1140
34		1216	1024	34		1144	1182
35	340	1266	1073	35	340	1192	1220
36		1317	1117	36		1243	1257
37		1360	1160	37		1304	1295
38		1415	1200	38		1334	1328
39	340	1459	1235	39	340	1379	1363
40		1497	1277	40		1422	1398
41		1531	1317	41		1456	1423
42		1564	1361	42		1493	1453
43	340	1594	1395	43	340	1528	1474
44		1636	1431	44		1558	1494
45		1680	1461	45		1589	1507
46		1699	1492	46		1610	1518
47	340	1728	1525	47	340	1636	
48		1753	1542	48		1659	1537
49		1776	1565	49		1680	1545
50		1821	1592	50		1703	1560

APPENDIX II (b)

Specimen	84	98	99	100
ρ_o	0.3169	0.3140	0.3145	0.316
ρ_o	1.210	1.219	1.217	1.209

Temperature 385°C Stress 6.0 kg/cm²
Nominal relative density 0.50

Time Min.	T °C	Specimen No.		Time Min.	T °C	Specimen No.	
		84	98			99	100
0	40	0	0	0	40	0	0
1	40	1	0	1	40	0	1
2	75	1	0	2	62	-5	0
3	153	10	-11	3	144	-24	-9
4	217	28	-12	4	714	-29	-3
5	270	44	-12	5	263	-31	-3
6	300	55	-14	6	297	-40	-6
7	331	59	-27	7	329	-48	-4
8	355	64	-19	8	354	-49	11
9	375	80	-9	9	371	-39	37
10	390	105	23	10	388	-11	82
11	405	164	86	11	385	30	142
12	405	291	197	12	385	85	225
13	405	462	348	13	385	169	321
14	405	667	543	14	385	283	437
15	405	877	733	15	385	411	563
16		1087	921	16		521	687
17		1305	1091	17		664	814
18		1430	1250	18			931
19		1553	1389	19		895	1045
20	405	1653	1499	20	385	1011	1152
21		1717	1545	21		1115	1259
22		1747	1599	22		1206	1348
23		1773	1625	23		1304	1423
24		1803	1655	24		1380	1490
25	405	1821	1675	25	385	1441	1546
26		1825	1697	26		1490	1599
27		1837	1708	27		1531	1624
28		1852	1729	28		1573	1651
29		1867	1741	29		1592	1671
30	405	1877	1747	30	385	1617	1702

APPENDIX II (c)

Specimen	103	104	105
l_o	0.316	0.316	0.3167
ϕ_o	1.214	1.214	1.212

Temperature 360°C Stress 0.54 kg/cm²
 Nominal relative density 0.50

Time Min.	T °C	Specimen No.		Time Min.	T °C	Specimen No.
		103	104			105
0	40	0	0	0	40	0
1	40	0	0	1	40	0
2	78	-5	-5	2	78	-5
3	148	-9	-11	3	148	-17
4	214	-5	-18	4	214	-14
5	267	-23	-19	5	267	-30
6	302	-37	-43	6	302	-48
7	322	-52	-63	7	322	-65
8	354	-57	-63	8	354	-65
9	360	-50	-58	9	360	-61
10	360	-47	-50	10	360	-60
11		-40	-43	11		-60
12		-25	-25	12		-59
13		-9	12	13		-47
14		4	47	14		-34
15	360	26	96	15	360	-17
16		44	143	16		-4
17		91	196	17		32
18		135	256	18		74
19		191	305	19		119
20	360	245	365	20	360	164
21		306	428	21		211
22		374	493	22		272
23		440	558	23		341
24		502	617	24		384
25	360	570	676	25	360	443
26		636	740	26		500
27		705	800	27		562
28		768	856	28		608
29		818	918	29		659
30	360	862	964	30	360	698

APPENDIX II (c) cont.

Specimen		103	104	105		
Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.		Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.
		103	104			105
31	360	407	1006	31	360	732
32		940	1042	32		759
33		966	1076	33		786
34		984	1099	34		804
35	360	1004	1119	35	360	824

APPENDIX II (c)

Specimen	101	102	106	107
l_o	0.3176	0.316	0.3194	0.3165
ρ_o	1.208	1.214	1.205	1.212

Temperature 360°C Stress 6.0, 3.5 kg/cm²
Nominal relative density 0.50

Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.		Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.	
		101	102			106	107
0	40	0	0	0	40	0	0
1	40	0	7	1	40	0	0
2	95	-3	1	2	75	-4	-4
3	172	-28	-20	3	145	-29	-29
4	218	-24	-33	4	200	-51	-49
5	267	-41	-46	5	244	-70	-72
6	307	-57	-79	6	283	-88	-87
7	335	-84	-110	7	312	-102	-94
8	360	-99	-129	8	344	-80	-100
9	360	-91	-138	9	362	-75	-88
10	360	-86	-134	10	360	-67	-85
11		-70	-129	11	360	-50	-66
12		-43	-105	12	360	-24	-39
13		-4	-74	13	360	6	-5
14		50	-33	14	360	49	46
15	360	107	16	15	360	98	102
16		195	94	16		159	168
17		263	152	17		220	242
18		345	231	18		294	319
19		33	316	19		371	397
20	360	525	414	20	360	460	479
21		617	508	21		543	553
22		703	602	22		614	627
23		783	696	23		686	699
24		869	795	24		766	782
25	360	953	884	25	360	835	853
26		1028	975	26		898	916
27		1098	1055	27		954	978
28		1176	1145	28		1036	1047
29		1247	1224	29		1096	1104
30	360	1308	1294	30	360	1143	1152

APPENDIX II (c) cont.

Specimen		101	102		106	107	
Time	T°C	Specimen No.		Time	T°C	Specimen No.	
Min.		101	102	Min.		106	107
31	360	1359	1359	31	360	1194	1199
32		1410	1419	32		1248	1248
33		1458	1473	33		1290	1283
34		1500	1523	34		1327	1329
35	360	1538	1564	35	360	1359	1349
36		1568	1592	36		1405	1391
37		1598	1616	37		1434	1411
38		1644	1636	38		1463	1430
39		1771		39		1481	1447
40	360	1793		40	360	1498	1464

APPENDIX II (d)

Specimen	136	137
l_0	0.3045	0.3035
S_0	1.702	1.700

Temperature 360°C Stress 9.2 kg/cm²
 Nominal relative density 0.70

Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.		Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.	
		136	137			136	137
0	40	0	0	31	360	417	523
1	40	2	1	32		477	582
2	62	-6	-7	33		533	638
3	132	-22	-29	34		590	698
4	192	-33	-51	35	360	643	755
5	240	-43	-71	36		717	820
6	277	-56	-94	37		765	873
7	307	-82	-129	38		821	928
8	336	-111	-162	39		871	966
9	360	-134	-194	40	360	924	1014
10	360	-152	-122	41		976	1055
11		-163	-232	42		1020	1090
12		-164	-235	43		1061	1124
13		-165	-232	44		1097	1157
14		-159	-226	45	360	1133	1185
15	360	-148	-213	46		1166	1211
16		-135	-197	47		1198	1237
17		-122	-176	48		1223	1256
18		-107	-152	49		1244	1274
19		-84	-119	50	360	1263	1287
20	360	-64	-87				
21		-39	-50				
22		-13	-7				
23		19	45				
24		56	98				
25	360	93	146				
26		139	207				
27		194	271				
28		248	331				
29		303	392				
30	360	361	458				

APPENDIX II (d)

Specimen	132	133
l_o	0.309	0.3108
ρ_o	1.537	1.535

Temperature 360°C Stress 9.2 kg/cm²
 Nominal relative density 0.65

Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.		Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.	
		132	133			132	133
0	40	0	0	31	360	736	727
1	42	0	3	32		797	791
2	86	-7	-5	33		854	850
3	156	-25	-17	34		920	908
4	218	-39	-24	35	360	978	964
5	262	-54	-31	36		1048	1031
6	298	-74	-57	37		1103	1080
7	335	-97	-87	38		1150	1127
8	360	-120	-110	39		1200	1177
9	360	-135	-132	40	360	1248	1221
10	360	-150	-144	41		1291	1264
11		-154	-155	42		1326	1301
12		-152	-155	43		1364	1336
13		-146	-153	44		1391	1363
14		-138	-145	45	360	1418	1389
15	360	-122	-132	46		1442	1418
16		-105	-107	47		1467	1446
17		-80	-75	48		1481	1475
18		-65	-34	49		1495	1484
19		0	15	50	360	1506	1501
20	360	42	63				
21		93	117				
22		145	175				
23		209	235				
24		270	294				
25	360	331	351				
26		398	411				
27		468	477				
28		536	539				
29		601	596				
30	360	670	662				

APPENDIX II (d)

Specimen	120	121
l_0	0.3189	0.3148
S_0	1.313	1.317

Temperature 360°C Stress 9.2 kg/cm^2
 Nominal relative density 0.55

Time Min.	$T^{\circ}\text{C}$	Specimen No.		Time Min.	$T^{\circ}\text{C}$	Specimen No.	
		120	121			120	121
0	40	0	0	31	360	1536	1329
1	40	0	0	32		1589	1390
2	80	-8	-6	33		1632	1445
3	155	-26	-10	34		1676	1499
4	210	-37	-17	35	360	1712	1550
5	246	-59	-26	36		1758	1608
6	276	-76	-46	37		1784	1648
7	300	-95	-72	38		1802	1691
8	326	-177	-98	39		1824	1713
9	354	-125	-109	40	360	1843	1740
10	363	-114	-114				
11	360	-99	-108				
12	360	-67	-91				
13	360	-22	-63				
14	360	40	-19				
15	360	111	36				
16		200	97				
17		290	166				
18		391	258				
19		495	336				
20	360	597	434				
21		692	518				
22		793	618				
23		890	712				
24		995	801				
25	360	1068	883				
26		1161	964				
27		1252	1047				
28		1322	1121				
29		1404	1191				
30	360	1472	1258				

APPENDIX II (d)

Specimen	129	130	108	109
l_0	0.3142	0.3104	0.3165	0.3132
S_0	0.963	0.972	1.212	1.220

Temperature 360°C Stress 9.2 kg/cm²
 Nominal relative density 0.40, 0.51

Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.		Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.	
		129	130			108	109
0	40	0	0	0	40	0	0
1	40	0	0	1	40	0	0
2	86	-8	-8	2	80	-11	-10
3	160	6	-7	3	157	-13	-11
4	215	14	-3	4	219	-7	-13
5	254	6	-1	5	262	3	-18
6	292	-2	-8	6	300	-17	-24
7	320	-12	-13	7	334	-25	-36
8	348	5	10	8	360	-33	-39
9	360	45	38	9	360	-15	-36
10	360	101	79	10	360	-1	-21
11	360	185	171	11		33	4
12	360	290	246	12		87	47
13	360	414	394	13		160	102
14	360	545	541	14		237	171
15	360	682	697	15	360	315	262
16		822	865	16		443	350
17		967	1019	17		498	451
18		1110	1174	18		603	555
19		1251	1325	19		704	659
20	360	1381	1464	20	360	802	751
21		1510	1594	21		908	848
22		1639	1718	22		1008	945
23		1763	1832	23		1110	1039
24		1872	1967	24		1199	1122
25	360	1976	2120	25	360	1280	1200
26		2067		26		1362	1275
				27		1445	1352
				28		1524	1419
				29		1593	1479
				30	360	1660	1535

APPENDIX II (d) cont.

Specimen	108		109	
	Time Min.	T ^o C	Specimen No.	
			108	109
	31	360	1725	1590
	32		1783	1643
	33		1833	1688
	34		1881	1732
	35	360	1915	1766
	36		1948	1798
	37		1980	1826
	38		2005	1852
	39		2030	1874
	40	360	2050	1889

APPENDIX II (d)

Specimen	124	125
l_o	0.3275	0.3120
g_o	1.072	.073

Temperature 360°C Stress 9.2 kg/cm²
 Nominal relative density 0.45

Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.		Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.	
		124	125			124	125
0	40	0	0	31	360	2137	1989
1	40	0	1	32		2186	2031
2	86	-8	-6	33		2223	2068
3	160	0	-1	34		2260	2099
4	214	4	5	35	360	2292	2120
5	254	-2	7	36		2334	
6	293	-9	-2	37		2357	
7	320	-19	-8	38		2374	
8	347	-8	-7	39		2395	
9	360	10	8				
10	360	52	20				
11		117	52				
12		216	111				
13		320	180				
14		446	271				
15	360	587	369				
16		718	600				
17		854	601				
18		986	728				
19		1103	861				
20	360	1213	985				
21		1325	1105				
22		1439	1218				
23		1548	1332				
24		1642	1438				
25	360	1734	1532				
26		1810	1631				
27		1892	1725				
28		1950	1799				
29		2021	1858				
30	360	2088	1924				

APPENDIX II (d)

Specimen	116	117
$\frac{1}{\rho}$	0.3142	0.3130
ρ	1.425	1.430

Temperature 360°C Stress 9.2 kg/cm²
Nominal relative density 0.60

Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.		Time Min.	T°C	Specimen No.	
		116	117			116	117
0	40	0	0	31	360	1074	1002
1	40	0	0	32		1136	1062
2	78	-8	-8	33		1195	1119
3	150	-19	-15	34		1249	1178
4	208	-33	-14	35	360	1302	1235
5	256	-32	-16	36		1380	1304
6	294	-42	-29	37		1413	1360
7	326	-75	-51	38		1456	1410
8	350	-98	-67	39		1501	1464
9	362		-69	40	360	1540	1512
10	360	121	-73	41		1579	1557
11	360	122	-66	42		1600	1590
12	360	114	-53	43		1725	1623
13	360	101	-40	44		1641	1647
14	360	-77	-24	45	360	1657	1674
15	360	-46	-3				
16		-2	28				
17		65	65				
18		106	111				
19		173	164				
20	360	241	216				
21		313	279				
22		389	346				
23		472	416				
24		552	491				
25	360	624	558				
26		705	637				
27		787	713				
28		863	786				
29		935	853				
30	360	1005	926				

APPENDIX III

Accuracy of the Thermal Expansion Correction

The data from the experimental runs were corrected for the thermal expansion of the loading frame by the subtraction of a correction obtained from runs made using a dummy quartz specimen to obtain the expansion curve for the frame alone. The corrections were averaged and subtracted from the indicated creep deformation values, i. e. :

$$L(t) = L'(t) - \bar{c}(t)$$

where $L(t)$ = the actual length at time t , $L'(t)$ = the indicated length and $\bar{c}(t)$ = the average change in length developed during the thermal expansion runs.

The correction has been verified by two methods:

- 1) Comparison of the total strain, (with a Micrometer) as determined by direct measurements of the specimens before and after dehydroxylation.
- 2) Direct measurement in the furnace using a travelling microscope.
(Cathetometer).

The first method gave an apparent accuracy of about 0.001 inches for deformations of from 0.010 to 0.020 inches, indicating that the measurements are correct to one part in ten or twenty.

Figure 37 compares the deformation curve, as corrected by the normal procedure with lengths measured with the travelling microscope. The two are in agreement to within 10%, which is felt to be satisfactory.

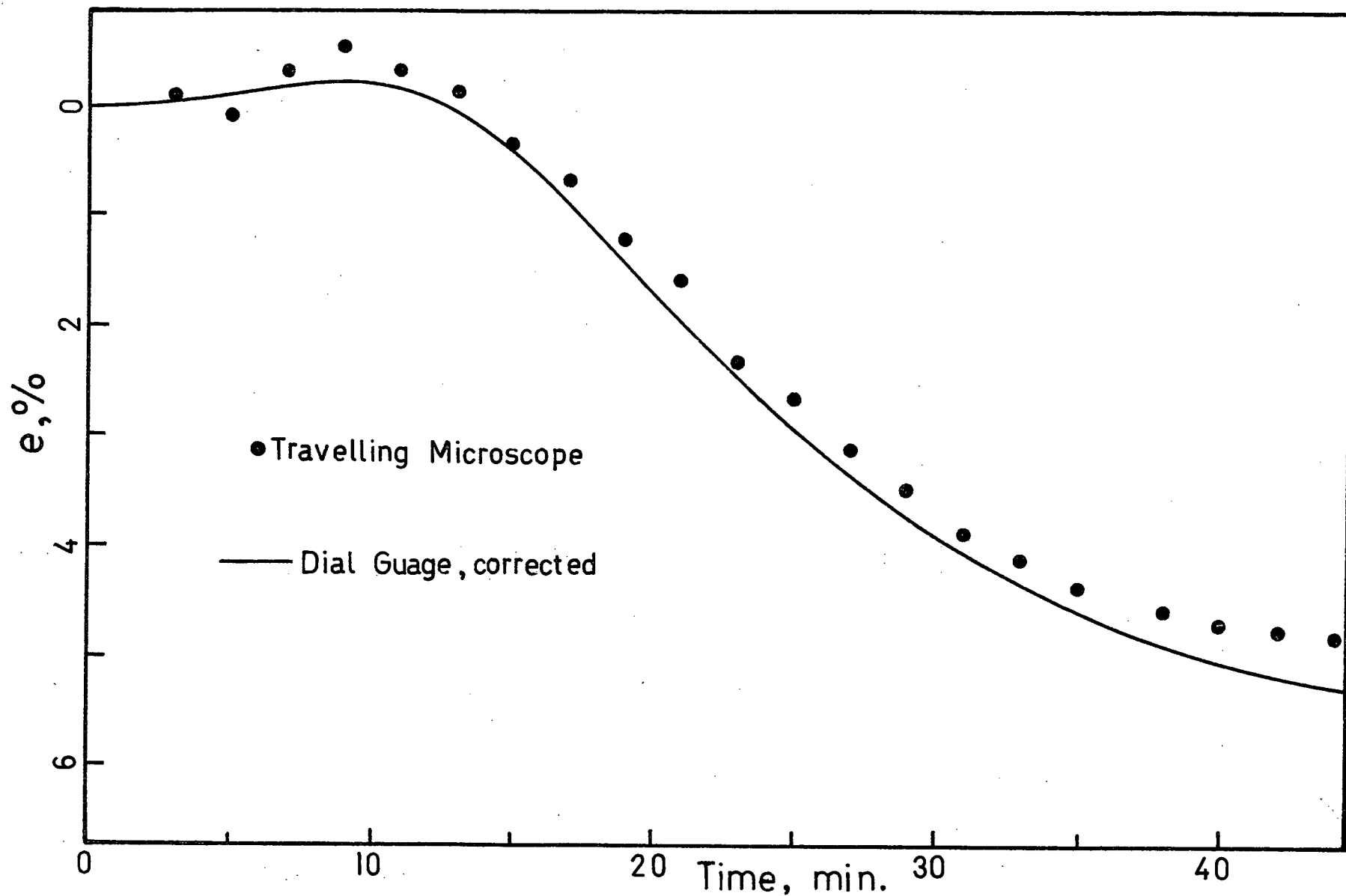


FIGURE 37 Comparative values of the deformation measured by the normal apparatus and a travelling microscope.

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