

építőanyag

A Szilikátipari Tudományos Egyesület lapja

Journal of Silicate Based and Composite Materials

A TARTALOMBÓL:

- Overview of ash as supplementary cementitious silicate-based composite and construction material
- Resilient modulus and deviatoric stress of cemented soils treated with crushed waste ceramics (CWC) for pavement subgrade construction
- The formation of phases with low or negative linear thermal expansion coefficient in porous mullite ceramics
- Effects of tunnel-fire on load bearing capacity of tunnel-lining and surrounding rock mass
- An investigation into practical values of sound transmission loss across natural luffa fibers
- A comparative study of the modified phyllosilicate group of minerals isoprene for a new nanocomposite preparation



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Overview of ash as supplementary cementitious silicate-based composite and construction material

Salak építőanyagként és cement kiegészítő anyagként való alkalmazásának áttekintése

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Abstract

The potential of ash as supplementary cementitious material with high silicate-based pozzolanic composition has been reviewed. Construction activities based on the utilization of ordinary cement have contributed hugely to the greenhouse emission due to the release of CO₂ into the atmosphere. The review was aimed at presenting the achievements that have been made using ash as a replacement for ordinary cement. Also, the source of ash from biomass and the biotechnological procedure involved in its usage have been reviewed. From the results so far reviewed, it has been observed that ash is an amorphous nonbiodegradable material with high aluminosilicates composition. This behavior makes it suitable for it to be utilized as alternative binder in problematic soils stabilization. Results also showed that the index and strength characteristics of expansive soils were improved substantially with increased proportion of ash, which included plasticity index, compaction, gradation, compression, California bearing ratio, resilient modulus and resistant value. Generally, it can be observed that ash is a good replacement for cement as a construction material. Keywords: biomass, bio-based ash, solid waste recycling (SWR), biotech soil stabilization, supplementary cementitious materials (SCM), geotechnics, silicate based composite materials
Kulcsszavak: biomassza, bioalapú salak, szilárd hulladék újrahasonosítása, biotechnológiai talaj stabilizálás, cement kiegészítő anyagok, geotechnika, szilikát alapú kompozit anyagok

1. Introduction

Supplementary cementitious potentials found in ash amorphous in nature, is strongly due to the aluminosilicate composition contained in it [1, 2, 3]. For a material like ash to be considered cementitious or otherwise considered pozzolanic, the aluminosilicate composition i.e., the composition of Al₂O₃, SiO₂ and Fe₂O₃ must be greater than or equal to 70% in accordance with the American Society for Testing and Materials [1] for pozzolanas. By this composition, it can be seen that these materials are silicate-based composites utilized as construction materials [4, 5]. It is also important at this point to note that ash is only derived by direct combustion of biomass, lignocellulosic materials, agro-industrial wastes, household wastes and municipal wastes in a setup presented in Fig. 1 and in a materials activity, cycle presented in Fig. 2 [2, 3]. However, in a world faced with the dangers of global warming resulting from the emissions of carbon and its oxides, which contribute to the depletion of the ozone layer, it is only understandable that the future technological advancement should move quickly towards ways of solving this condition [2, 3, 6, 7, 8]. It is equally important to note that one of the many ways through which oxides of carbon are released into the atmosphere is through construction activities during the utilization of ordinary cement. Results from environmental

impact assessment on the use of ordinary Portland cement and other conventional cements products in construction activities show that an equivalent amount of CO₂ is emitted into the atmosphere [3]. As a result, there have been technological effort to develop supplementary cementing or cementitious materials that would partially or totally replace ordinary and conventional cements. These supplementary cementitious materials (SCMs) are known to possess aluminosilicates at substantial amounts that enables them exhibit high pozzolanic properties enough to replace ordinary cements [3, 9]. They are divided into ash and powder materials. The ash materials are derived through the direct combustion of solid wastes while powder materials are derived through crushing or ball milling of selected solid waste materials [2, 3]. Research results have shown that ash materials are more efficient as supplementary binders than powder materials because ash materials are amorphous and nonbiodegradable while powder materials are biodegradable [10, 11, 12, 13, 14]. Further on this effort is the development of silicate-based composite materials with higher aluminosilicate contents because they are derived from the blending of more than one material [2, 3]. Geopolymer cements belong to this group of composite binders because they are developed by combining in proportions, which are dependent on the ash with the predominant aluminosilicates [15, 16]. These ashes of

different pozzolanic composition are mixed under the reactive influence of alkali activators as presented in Fig. 2 [2, 3, 17, 18]. It can be observed from previous findings that these materials of biomass and agro-industrial origin have shown to be good replacement for ordinary cement in construction operations. The aim and main objective of this work is reviewing relevant literatures that have shown that ash materials, as silicate-based materials are good replacements for cement as supplementary cementitious and composites materials for construction purposes. This is to bring an overview at a glance of the effects of these amorphous materials of ash and its associated composites on the mechanical properties of soils utilized as foundation and construction materials.

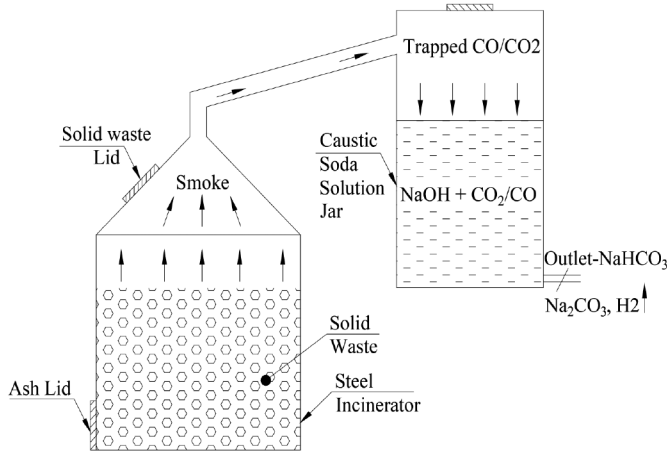


Fig. 1 Bio-waste controlled direct combustion setup [3]
1. ábra Biohulladék szabályozott elégetéséhez használt rendszer összeállítása [3]

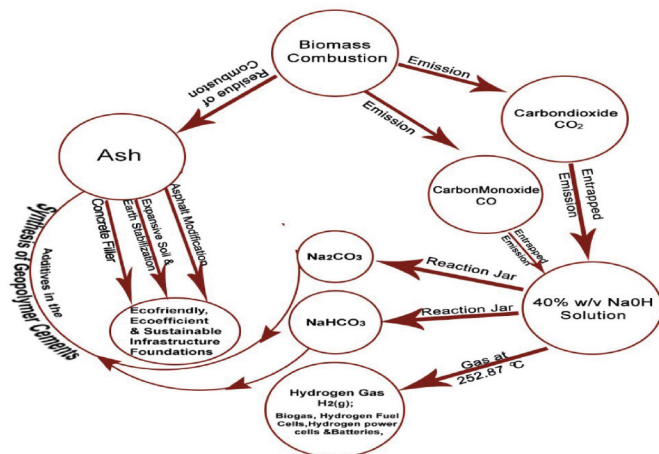


Fig. 2 Bio-waste valorization by combustion and the derivation of ash cycle [2]
2. ábra Biohulladék újrahasznosítása égetés által [2]

2. Overview of relevant resources

Ash has found been predominantly used as an admixture in the stabilization of soils to improve their geotechnical and mechanical properties for the purpose of foundation constructions and other civil engineering purposes. These also include concrete production and asphalt production as modifiers due to its constituents. This procedure has been successful due to the fact that; (i) ash particles are in the silt to sand size range, (ii) they are composed predominantly of

amorphous alumina-silicate, (iii) the basic mineral found in waste ashes is silica, and (iv) ashes contain high percentages of 0-5% of clay size, 20-70% of silt size, 30-70% of sand size and 0-5% of gravel size making it suitable for homogenous mixture with soil during admixture stabilization of soils. An extensive look into the relevant resources available from previous findings from the use of ash as supplementary cementing material, will expand the horizon of knowledge on the successes recorded in this area of investigation. In the area of geotechnical engineering experimentations, soil, which is the major geomaterial used in various disciplines of the area are adapted into many forms either as a single material or treated coupled materials in composite forms. It is developed into a coupled material during stabilization or soil improvement for foundation purposes. Pavement foundations (airfield and highway), landscapes and parking lots underlain, embankments, backfills, lateritic blocks, laterized marbles, etc. are geotechnical engineering activities that go on daily with soils. When these activities are suspected to be affected by problematic soils, a stabilization and ground improvement exercise is undertaken to enhance the properties of the soil to meet required standards. The binding effect and properties of the admixtures utilized during geotechnical engineering procedures have been harnessed over the years to substantially improve on the mechanical properties of soils used as foundation materials [2, 3]. It is important to note that the success of admixture or silicate-based binder stabilization rests on the ability of cations released from the oxides of the additive materials to migrate to the surface of the clayey soils being stabilized. This is where the diffused double layer or the adsorbed complex is formed, which gives rise to the formation of flocs; a resultant effect of hydration reaction, cation exchange reaction, carbonation, calcination and pozzolanic reaction as the case may be [10, 11, 12, 13, 14]. So, it is important that the mixing of the soils and the additive be done deeply to enhance reaction.

2.1 Review of selected ashes and their silicate-based potentials in accordance with ASTM C618, 1978

Rice husk is an agro-industrial waste discharged from rice farming and production. It has been observed through research that over 108 tons of rice husk is being generated annually across the world. The agro-industrial production of rice in Nigeria is over 2.0 million tons annually (see Fig. 3). While Niger state produces approximately 96.60 kilo-tons of rice, Ebonyi state produces well over 187.5 kilo-tons annually and this capacity has increased over the period due to increased demand for food. Moreover, the ash has been classified as a pozzolana, with silicon oxide component ranging between 67-70% with about 4.9% and 0.95% aluminum oxide and iron oxide respectively. The silicate-based composition of the pozzolanic ash is contained in amorphous state, which reacts with the ionized components of problematic soils throughout the hardening and strength gaining of the treated soils [19, 20].



Fig. 3 Rice husk
3. ábra Rizs héj



Fig. 4 Coconut shell
4. ábra Kókuszhéj



Fig. 5 Snail shells
5. ábra Csígház

According to E. S. Nnochiri *et al.* [22], snail shells ash (SSA) with a specific gravity of 3.07, is a product of the combustion of snail shells (see Fig. 5) discharged as agricultural and household wastes disposed on landfills that hardly decay. They are burnt and pulverized to fineness and then used as additives in the stabilization of weak engineering soils. This has been classified as a supplementary cementing material because of its silicate-based component having aluminosilicates composition of more than 70% according to ASTM C618.

According to Nnochiri [23], periwinkle shell ash derived by combusting periwinkle shells (see Fig. 6) and pulverizing the residue. Periwinkle shells are agricultural, biological and household wastes found in the coastal region of Nigeria and across the world. They are disposed as wastes on landfills. The shells are v-shaped, hard, brittle and usually black. The ash has also been classified as pozzolanic because of the aluminosilicate composition, which satisfies the condition for materials to be classified as supplementary cementitious materials (SCM) in accordance to the ASTM C618.



Fig. 6 Periwinkle shells
6. ábra Tengeri csígház



Fig. 7 Wood
7. ábra Fa

According to A. W. Otunyo and C. C. Chukuigwe [24], palm bunch ash and palm oil fuel ash are derived from the combustion of palm bunch as a biomass and a bio-based agricultural waste and the milling of palm oil from palm fruits respectively. Research results have shown also that this ash consists of aluminosilicates composition by weight over 70% thereby fulfilling the requirement for a material to be classified as a pozzolana. This composition makes palm bunch ash suitable as a construction material to supplement for cementation potentials.

According to B. D. Nath *et al.* [25], wood ash has been utilized in the modification of problematic soils for construction purposes. It is also the derivative of combusted wood materials in logs (see Fig. 7) or dusts, which are bio-based agricultural wastes. Wood ash contains high composition of aluminosilicates, which satisfies its utilization as a pozzolanic material in soft soils stabilization.

According to G. M. Ayininuola and A. O. Sogunro [26] and O. A. Adetayo *et al.* [27], bone ash was utilized in the modification of expansive soil to evaluate its effect on the shear properties of the soil. This was necessitated due to the calcium silicate based binding properties of the bone ash. Bone ash is an agricultural and household solid waste materials from animal bones (see Fig. 8). The high C-S composition satisfies the minimum pozzolanic requirements for use as a supplementary cementing construction material.



Fig. 8 Animal bones
8. ábra Állati csontok

Bello *et al.* [28] and Ramonu, J. A. L. *et al.* [29] had in different researches investigated the potential of cassava peel ash (CPA) and yam peel ash (YPA) as supplementary binders in soft and expansive soils stabilization. CPA and YPA are gotten from the peeling of the bark of cassava and yam peels (see Fig. 9) during garri and flour production. It was shown that CPA and YPA exhibited high composition of silicate based pozzolanic properties. This property enhanced the ashes suitability to be utilized as alternative binders in the stabilization of problematic soils.



Fig. 9 Cassava and yam peels
9. ábra Manióka és jam héj

According to Chou-Fu Liang and Hung-Yu Wang [30], G. M. Ayininuola and O. D. Afolayan [31] and Ubachukwu and Okafor [32], oyster shell (see Fig. 10) collected from the coastal regions of Nigeria- Rivers State, Delta State, Bayelsa State and across the world discharged as agricultural and bio-based waste has been studied for its potential property to be utilized

as a supplementary binder in its ash and crushed form. Results of the investigations show that oyster shell ash and powder possess high composition of aluminosilicates, which makes it suitable to be utilized as a pozzolana in accordance with appropriate standards.



Fig. 10 Oyster shells
10. ábra Osztriga héj

According to Oriola and Moses [33], groundnut shell ash (GSA) potential for use as a pozzolanic material in the modification of the index and mechanical properties of plastic soils was investigated and encouraging results were achieved. Groundnut shells (see Fig. 11) are discharged after separating the edible nuts and leaving the littered shells as solid wastes. After sun drying, combustion and pulverization, the ash is obtained. The alumina-silicate-based composition of the ash has been determined to be more than the minimum standard for pozzolanas and suitable as a supplementary silicate-based binder.



Fig. 11 Groundnut shells
11. ábra Földimogyoró héjak

According to Sadeeq *et al.* [34], the potential of bagasse ash (BA) to be used as an alternative binder to replace ordinary cement has been studied. Bagasse ash derived from the combusted sugarcane biomass discharged after the extraction of the fluid. Bagasse (see Fig. 12) is an agro-industrial waste material discharged on landfills. It is predominantly common in the northern states of Nigeria where sugarcane farming is the trade of the people living in these areas. Research has shown that BA contains high amount by weight of the aluminosilicates responsible for cementation behavior of construction materials. Hence its potential utilization as a supplementary cementitious material in construction activities.



Fig. 12 Sugarcane farm
12. ábra Cukornád farm

3. Overview of results from relevant resources

3.1 Gradation characteristics of soils treated with ashes

Results of previous investigation on the potentials of ashes utilized as supplementary cementitious additives have shown that the gradation of the soils improved substantially and consistently with increased addition of ash by weight proportion of treated solids. This was due to the fineness of ash derived by drying-in most cases, combusting and pulverizing to fineness [35]. The texture of ash achieved through this procedure changes the particle size distribution of the treated soils blended with ashes. Gradation is a very important factor in construction materials' characterization and structural behavior [36].

3.2 Index and strength characteristics of soils treated with ashes

Index and strength characteristics of soils especially the expansive and problematic soils are very important factors considered in the design and performance monitoring of flexible pavements across the world. The overall performance and durability of these structures depend ultimately on the strength of the foundation. For instance, when pavements are laid on weak or expansive subgrade, the behavior of the entire structure is compromised. More importantly, if the structure is under a hydraulically bound condition like the pavement foundations subjected to the rise and fall of water table, it becomes even a more difficult problem due to the swell and shrink potentials of the compacted earth underlain. Over the years, ordinary cement has been used to improve on these properties of soils utilized as subgrade materials with its attendant greenhouse emissions. In recent developments in geo-environmental engineering, ash materials due to their amorphous nature and high composition of aluminosilicates have been utilized in single forms and in composite forms to modify weak soils. This was targeted at making the compacted earth suitable to withstand the adverse conditions it is subjected to in the sub structural level. Ash is environmentally friendly and possesses properties that are resistant to heat, moisture, sulfates, crack and shrinkage [2, 3, 35]. Because of these characteristics, soils treated with ash have shown to improve in their plasticity index condition, compaction behavior, and other strength properties like California bearing ratio, resilient modulus, resistant value, deviatoric stress and durability potentials.

4. Conclusions

The use of ash as supplementary cementitious material has been reviewed and the following remarks can be made; (i) ash is derived by combusting bio-based materials, (ii) because of its amorphous nature, ash doesn't decompose, (iii) ash is composed of silicate-based pozzolanic properties i.e. aluminosilicates and this makes it suitable as alternative cement, (iv) ash has proven to be an environmentally friendly cement with no greenhouse effects, (v) the addition of ash to soil as a mixed blend improves the mechanical properties of problematic soils in a stabilization protocol, (vi) ash from various sources is readily available and its utilization in construction works is highly sustainable and (vii) ash is a good alternative and appropriate replacement for ordinary cement in an environment yearning to be saved from hazards and global warming.

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Resilient modulus and deviatoric stress of cemented soils treated with crushed waste ceramics (CWC) for pavement subgrade construction

Utalpozás készítéséhez alkalmazott zúzott hulladékkerámiával (CWC) kezelt cementált talajok rugalmassági modulusa és deviátoros feszültsége

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Abstract

The behavior of resilient modulus of cemented lateritic soils treated with crushed waste ceramics and utilized as pavement underlain has been investigated under laboratory conditions. This is the measure of the rigidity of soils used as foundation materials. The rampant failures of pavements due to undesirable characteristics exhibited by the foundations have spurred this research work to enable a better understanding of the behavior of soils used as foundation materials and how best they can be handled or treated to ensure stability and durability of the structures. The soils were first characterized and found to belong to A-7, A-7-6, A-7 and A-7-5 group of soils according to the AASHTO classification method. Also, they were found, from basic experiments, to be highly plastic soils with high clay contents. The soils were treated with crushed waste ceramics in the proportion of 10%, 20%, 30%, 40%, 50%, 60%, 70%, 80%, 90%, 100%, 110% and 120% by weight of solid with a constant addition of 2.5% by weight ordinary cement. The results of the examination showed that the resilient modulus increased substantially with increased rate of crushed waste ceramics. This showed that crushed ceramic waste is a good pozzolanic material for soils stabilization in the construction of pavement foundations.

Keywords: resilient modulus, deviatoric stress, cemented soils, crushed waste ceramics, solid wastes, geomaterials, pavement foundation

Kulcsszavak: rugalmassági modulus, deviátoros feszültség, cementált talajok, zúzott hulladék-kerámiák, szilárd hulladék, geoanyagok, útburkolat alapozás

1. Introduction

The unbounded aggregate layer and unsaturated state upon which pavement foundations are constructed play an important role in the performance of pavements more especially with the hydraulically bound conditions where rise and fall of moisture due to suction plays another role [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]. It is wrong to assume that pavement layers are under steady saturated conditions and this assumption affects the design

and eventually the stiffness and stability of the pavement foundations [6, 7]. According to Ba *et al.* [8] it is noted that moisture migration and percolation into the pavement layers either through suction and surface water seepage affects the resilient modulus and stability of subgrade materials, which commonly are constructed with compacted lateritic soils. It has been proven through research that moisture affects the carrying capacity and strength of clayey soils due to the loss of strength on immersion [7, 9]. The behavior of soils under suction is

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directly corresponding with the resilient modulus of such soils especially when subjected to the effect of moisture [10, 11]. This behavior brings about the failure of pavements when they are underlain with unsuitable and expansive soils, which behave in undesirable pattern under the influence of matric suction [2, 12]. Due to the fluctuations in the water conditions of the subgrade, the pavement foundations are designed for the most critical exposure conditions [13, 14, 15]. Soils stabilization has been adopted to improve on the inadequate properties of the soils utilized as subgrade materials [2-5, 10]. This is achieved through the use of chemical compounds like the ordinary Portland cement or biobased or lignocellulose materials, which are environmentally friendly geomaterials [10, 16, 17, 18]. The biobased or lignocellulose materials are derived through controlled direct combustion to have ash or through crushing to achieve powder with good gradation. In this work, crushed waste ceramics is derived by crushing waste ceramic materials collected from dumpsites. This material is used as a geomaterial in the stabilization of soils for use as subgrade materials because of its pozzolanic properties [18]. Due to the high content of aluminosilicates in the CWC, its blend with soft lateritic soils produce compacted stabilized subgrade soils with high rigidity, density and stability. This behavior gives rise to the improvement of the resilient modulus of the treated material at optimum molding moisture conditions [1]. The objectives of this work were to evaluate the effect of crushed ceramics wastes on the deviatoric stress and resilient modulus of the treated soils.

2. Materials

2.1 Soils

Four borrow pits in four different locations in Abia State, Nigeria were the source of the soil samples. These borrow pits are located on coordinates 5°29'16" North and 7°28'58" East (for Olokoro location soil), 5°27'0" North and 7°31'60" East (for Amaba location soil), 5°31'0" North and 7°26'0" East (for Ohiya location soil) and 4°53'14" North and 7°21'26" (for Akwete location soil). The samples were sundried for 7 days, 500 grams each was measured and prepared for use.

2.2 Crushed waste ceramics

The ceramics were collected from dumpsites within Umuahia urban area, sundried for two days and crushed by ball milling. The crushed ceramic waste was characterized and sieved to determine its gradation and particle distribution. Afterwards, it was stored for use in the stabilization exercise.

2.3 Ordinary Portland cement

Portland cement was used at a steady rate of 2.5%, that meets the requirements of ASTM C618 [18], as a binder as shown in the chemical oxide composition presented in *Table 2*. The preliminary characterization exercises were conducted on the test materials to determine their gradation and chemical oxide composition (aluminosilicates content). These test admixtures were utilized in the percentages of 10% to 120% in an incremental rate of 10% to treat the soils.

3. Methods

The particle size distribution, compaction, Atterberg limits, shrinkage limits, free swell index, and specific gravity were generally conducted on the test soils in accordance with BS 1377 [19]. This was carried out to determine the characterization and basic properties of the test soils. Similarly, chemical oxide composition and particle size distribution tests were conducted to determine the aluminosilicate content and gradation respectively in accordance with ASTM C618 [18] and BS 1377 [19] respectively. Of particular interest to this work was the stiffness of the treated soils as subgrade or pavement materials, which was determined with the resilient modulus test carried out on the CWC treated soils in accordance with AASHTO [10], AASHTO T 22-03 [1], and BS 1924 [20]. Specifically, the resilient modulus of both the control specimen and treated test soils was determined under the laboratory conditions. This represented the simulated physical and stress conditions of geomaterials treated soils A, B, C and D overlain by flexible pavements subjected to dynamic traffic loads. A cyclic axial stress of fixed magnitude under deviatoric stress, load duration of 0.1s, and cyclic duration of 3s is applied to prepared cylindrical test specimens in a modified triaxial compression set up. The final recoverable axial deformation response (recoverable strain) and the deviatoric stress of the test specimens were measured and the resilient moduli at different proportions of the additives were determined with Eq. 1.

$$M_R = \frac{\rho_d}{\epsilon_r} \quad (1)$$

where:

M_R = resilient modulus, ρ_d = deviatoric stress, ϵ_r = strain

4. Results and analytical remarks

4.1 Classification Characteristics of Test Materials

The basic properties of the test soils are presented in *Table 1*, *Fig. 1* and *Table 2*. The test soil were observed to possess 2.85%, 10%, 4.6% and 7.6% passing sieve No. 200, and classified as A-7, A-7-6, A-7 and A-7-5 respectively according to AASHTO classification method. Test soils A, B, C and D were classified as poorly graded according to unified soil classification system. The results of the consistency protocol show that the test soils are highly plastic soils (> 17%) with high free swell index. The basic results of the resilient modulus show that the soils fall under clayey subgrade (0.345E+05 to 1.034E+05 kN/m²) [16]. The chemical oxides composition test results presented in *Table 2* show that the test materials possess high aluminosilicates responsible for the pozzolanic, calcination and hydration reactions that take place in a stabilization process.

Property description of test soils and units	Values			
	Test soil (A)	Test soil (B)	Test soil (C)	Test soil (D)
% Passing Sieve, No 200	2.85	10	4.6	7.6
NMC (%)	12.1	13.49	14	16
LL (%)	40	46	64	65
PL (%)	18	21	36	33
PI (%)	22	25	28	32
SL (%)	8	8	7	10
FSI (%)	250	234	275	296
G_s	2.6	2.43	2.12	2.08
AASHTO Classification	A-7	A-7-6	A-7	A-7-5
USCS	GP, CH	GP	GP, CH	GP, CH
MDD (g/cm ³)	1.76	1.85	1.80	1.56
OMC (%)	13.1	16.2	13.13	15.4
CBR (%)	12	13	8	7
R-Value	11.74	11.70	11.70	11.50
MR (kN/m ²)	0.42E+05	0.42E+05	0.42E+05	0.72E+05
Color	Reddish Brown	Reddish Gray	Reddish Ash	Ash

Table 1 Basic properties of test soils

1. táblázat A vizsgált talajok alapvető tulajdonságai

Materials	Oxides Composition (content wt %)												
	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	CaO	Fe ₂ O ₃	MgO	K ₂ O	Na ₂ O	TiO ₂	LOI	P ₂ O ₅	SO ₃	IR	Free CaO
Soil A	76.56	15.09	2.30	2.66	0.89	2.10	0.33	0.07	-	-	-	-	-
Soil B	77.57	14.99	3.11	1.78	0.86	1.45	0.23	0.01	-	-	-	-	-
Soil C	77.73	16.65	1.42	3.22	0.07	0.89	0.02	-	-	-	-	-	-
Soil D	72.34	17.30	5.40	2.32	0.34	2.13	0.17	-	-	-	-	-	-
CWC	64.45	24.14	0.25	1.3	0.28	3.69	2.51	0.18	1.09	-	2.11	-	-
DOPC	21.45	4.45	63.81	3.07	2.42	0.83	0.20	0.22	0.81	0.11	2.46	0.16	0.64

*IR is Insoluble Residue, LOI is Loss on Ignition, CWC: Crushed Waste Ceramics
DOPC: Dangote Ordinary Portland cement

Table 2 Chemical oxides composition of the materials used in this paper

2. táblázat A felhasznált anyagok kémiai oxidos összetétele

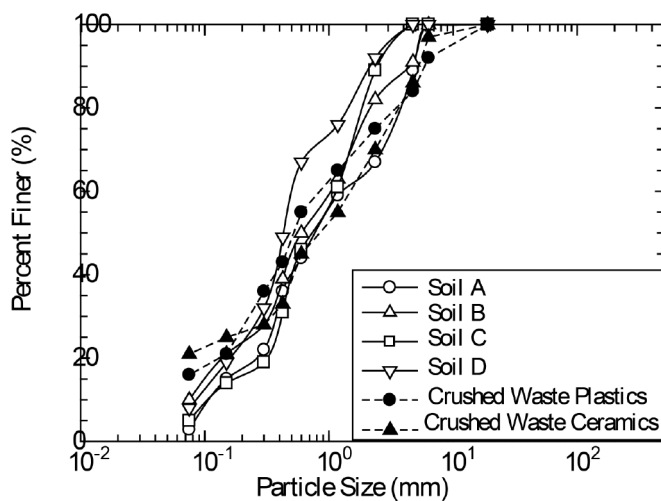


Fig. 1 Grain size distribution of studied materials

1. ábra A vizsgált anyagok szemcseméret eloszlása

4.2 Deviatoric stress and resilient modulus (M_R) of the treated cemented soils

The results of the resilient modulus of the CWC treated soils used to characterize the treated matrix as a subgrade material is presented in Figs. 2 and 3. The applied deviator stress and the recoverable strain of the modified triaxial test on the treated specimens were used. The four test soils behaved in almost the same pattern with similar reactions with increased crushed waste ceramics (CWC). The deviatoric stress consistently increased with increase in the proportion of the admixture for test soils A, B, C and D. It is important to note at this point that the additive CWC is a highly aluminosilicate compound according to the requirements of American Standard for Testing and Materials [18], with a crystal texture prior to its utilization in the stabilization procedure. These compounds are responsible for pozzolanic reaction, and strengthening by forming silicates of calcium hydrates and aluminates. These further forms floc, which condense to the strength buildup of the treated materials. Test soils A, B and C had an improvement index of about 21%, while test soil D had an improvement index of 25%. The higher improvement index recorded with test soil D is in line with its natural soil high resilient modulus of 0.72E+05, which was improved upon. The hydration reaction between compounds of strengthening from the additive and the dissociated soil ions

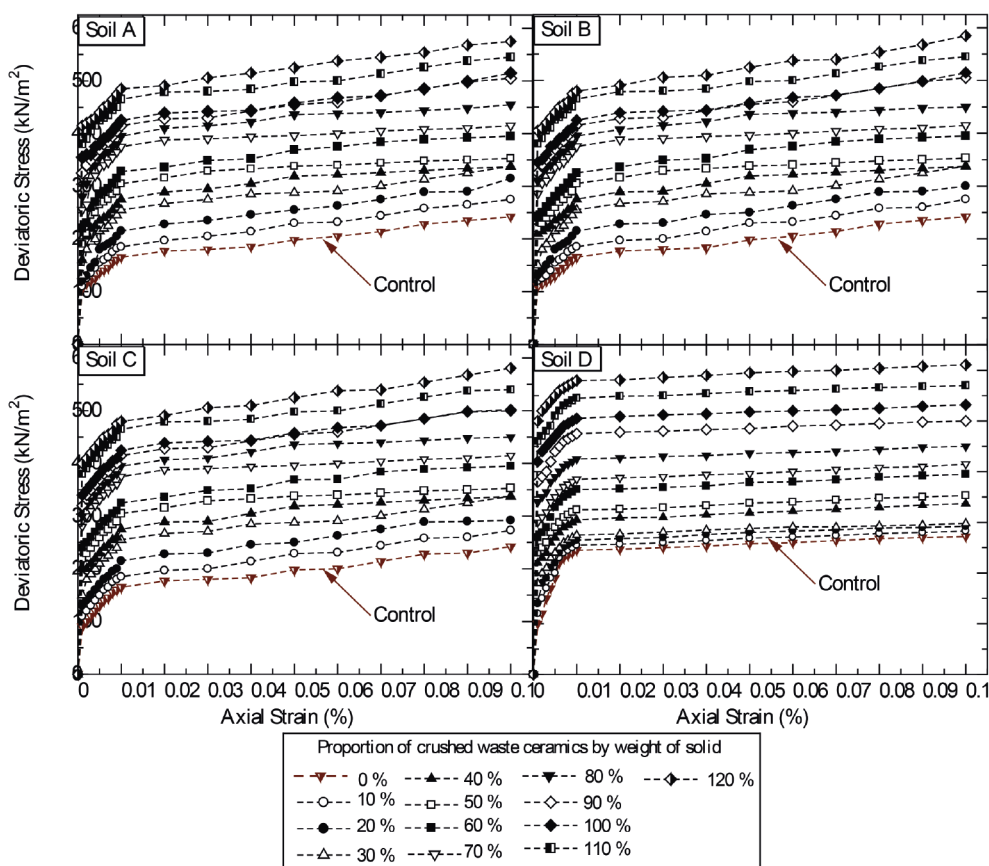


Fig. 2 Effects of CWC on deviatoric stress of the treated cemented soils
 2. ábra CWC hatása a cementált talajok deviatoros feszültségére

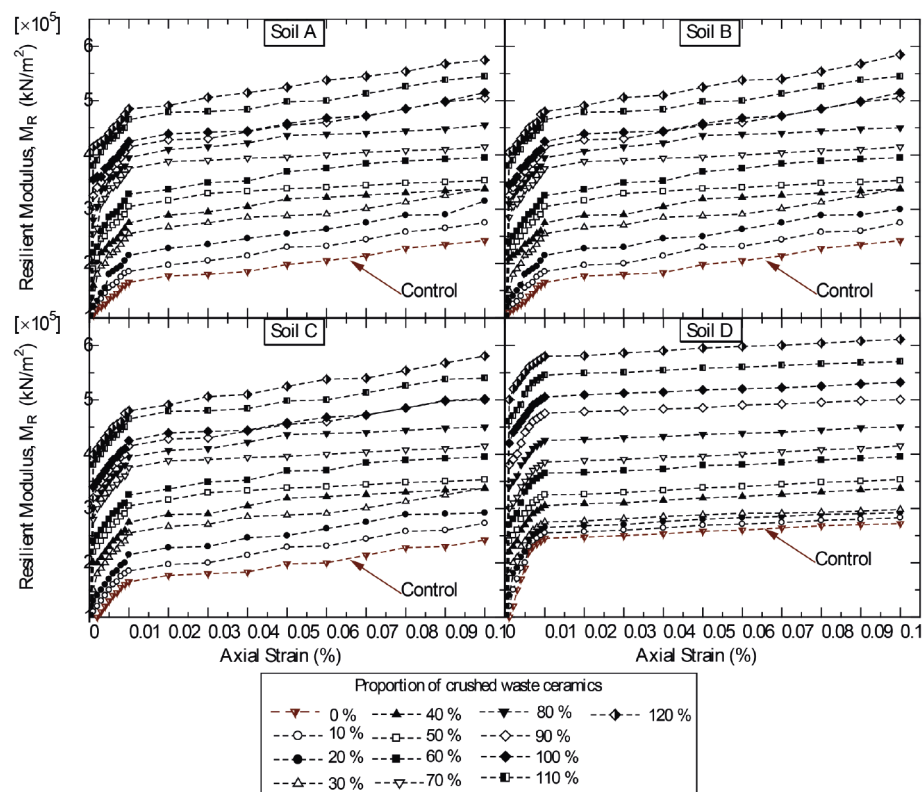


Fig. 3 Effects of CWC on resilient modulus, M_R , of the treated cemented soils
 3. ábra CWC hatása a cementált talajok rugalmassági modulusára (M_R)

in contact with moisture caused the improvement on both deviatoric stress and resilient modulus of the treated soils. In addition, the cation exchange reaction between the dipole ions of the additive when in contact with molding moisture and those of soils caused the improved properties of the test soils [21, 22]. These results were recorded under cyclic loading on specimens subjected to testing sequences. The physical conditions that affect the resilient modulus (moisture and unit weight) were influenced by the introduction of the highly aluminosilicate CWC hence improving the strength behavior of the treated soils.

5. Conclusions

The experimental results of the treatment of soils with crushed waste ceramics have been observed and tabulated. The following remarks can be made; (i) the crushed waste ceramics was characterized and sampled as a silicate-based geomaterial with similarly particle gradation with the test soils and results show that the prepared materials contains binding properties that make it useful as a supplementary cementitious material. (ii) the soils were also tested for their basic properties which showed that they belong to A-2-7, A-2-6, A-7 and A-7-5 groups according to the American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials classification method. Further characterization exercise on the soils shows that the soils are highly plastic soils, which implies that they are problematic and need modification to meet the requirements for use as construction materials. (iii) the soils were treated with the crushed waste ceramics at the rate of 10% to 120% by weight of solid in a steady increment of 10% by mixing and compacting to maximum dry density at an optimum moisture. (iv) the resilient modulus of the soils

was tested and results show that it improved consistently and substantially with increased rate of crushed waste ceramics. (v) the crushed waste ceramics showed that it can be utilized as a supplementary cementing construction material with its high content of aluminosilicates to improve the properties of soils used as pavement subgrade materials.

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The formation of phases with low or negative linear thermal expansion coefficient in porous mullite ceramics

Alacsony vagy negatív lineáris hőtágulási együtthatóval rendelkező fázisok kialakulása porózus mullit kerámiákban

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Abstract

Mullite ceramic has a low linear thermal expansion coefficient compared to other ceramics, such as alumina or zirconia ceramics. Applying porous mullite ceramics as modern refractory materials requires an extra reduction of linear thermal expansion. The main purposes of the investigation are the modification of porous mullite ceramic with WO_3 and differently stabilized ZrO_2 as well as in situ formation of crystalline phases with low or negative linear thermal expansion in such ceramic. Modified porous mullite ceramics were formed by slip casting the concentrated slurry of raw materials and were sintered at 1600 °C for 1 hour. Porosity of mullite ceramics obtained due to hydrogen gas evolution as a result of the reaction between the used aluminium paste and water. Using yttria stabilized zirconia (YSZ, 8 mol% Y_2O_3), magnesia stabilized zirconia (MSZ, 2.8 mol% MgO), WO_3 , α - and γ - Al_2O_3 , amorphous SiO_2 and kaolin allowed sintering the mullite ceramics with additional in situ formed crystalline phase of $ZrSiO_4$ and $Al_2(WO_4)_3$, which decreased the linear thermal expansion of certain porous mullite ceramics' samples. Used synthesis conditions allow to achieve stability of $ZrSiO_4$ and $Al_2(WO_4)_3$ phases. The differently stabilized zirconia additive had influence on the formation of $ZrSiO_4$. Doubling the WO_3 content in the mixture of components increased the formation of $Al_2(WO_4)_3$ with a negative linear thermal expansion coefficient.

Keywords: powders, solid-state reaction, thermal expansion, mullite, $Al_2(WO_4)_3$

Kulcsszavak: porok, szilárd állapotbeli reakciók, hőtágulás, mullit, $Al_2(WO_4)_3$

1. Introduction

Mullite-based ceramic is an important type of refractory ceramic. Relatively low linear thermal expansion is very important for mullite ceramic application in conditions of rapidly changing temperatures [1]. The literature reports linear thermal expansion coefficient (LTEC) values for porous mullite ceramics ranging from 4.0 to $5.9 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot ^\circ C^{-1}$ (average between 30 °C and 1000 °C) [2]. The average LTEC of mullite ceramics can be decreased by adding materials with a low or negative linear thermal expansion coefficient or the in situ formation of additional crystalline phases with low LTEC during the ceramic sintering time. Previous research investigated whether the thermal expansion of mullite ceramics can be effectively decreased by modification with cordierite ($\alpha_{\text{cord}} \approx 0.5 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot ^\circ C^{-1}$) [3], aluminium titanate ($\alpha_{\text{alum. tit}} \approx 1 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot ^\circ C^{-1}$) [4, 5] and zircon ($\alpha_{\text{zircon}} \approx 4.1 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot ^\circ C^{-1}$) [6] due to low linear thermal expansion coefficient of these phases. The influence of phases with negative LTEC on the properties of mullite ceramics has not been well studied. Research on materials with a negative LTEC has been of high interest since the mid-20th century and continues to now [7-9]. Crystalline phases such as aluminium tungstate ($Al_2(WO_4)_3$) and zirconium tungstate ($Zr(WO_4)_2$) have an average negative linear thermal expansion coefficient. The LTEC of aluminium tungstate is $-1.5 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot ^\circ C^{-1}$ in the temperature

range from 25 to 850 °C [8], and the LTEC of zirconium tungstate is $-8.6 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot ^\circ C^{-1}$ from 0 to 777 °C [9]. According to the literature data, $Al_2(WO_4)_3$ formation can be observed by the co-precipitation reaction method, by the sol-gel method and from solid-state synthesis. The $Al_2(WO_4)_3$ formation temperature is in the 620–1050 °C range, and depends on the sintering method. The holding time at the formation temperature varies from 5 hours to much longer, about 30–40 hours [10, 11]. The particle size and the morphology of $Al_2(WO_4)_3$ depends on the treatment temperature and holding time. In the case of the co-precipitation reaction method, crystalline $Al_2(WO_4)_3$ formation occurred after firing the Al-W-precipitated composition at temperatures of 430 °C [12], 630 °C, 700 °C [13], 800 °C [11] and 830 °C [12] for 5 hours. The particle size of synthesized $Al_2(WO_4)_3$ powder was increased from 20 to 300 nm [12] or from 50 to 150 nm [13, 14] with increasing temperature. Koseva and Nikolov had concluded that in the case of the sol-gel modified Pechini method, the particle size of pure phase $Al_2(WO_4)_3$ was between 50 nm (at 620 °C for 12 hours) and 200 nm (at 830 °C for 36 hours) [10, 14]. Achary et al. [8] synthesized $Al_2(WO_4)_3$ by the solid-state reaction from Al_2O_3 and WO_3 at 900 °C for 42 hours followed by 1000 °C for 30 hours with

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intermittent grinding. Later Nikolov et al. [14] also synthesized pure $\text{Al}_2(\text{WO}_4)_3$ by this method at similar temperatures, but with a shorter holding time, respectively at 930 °C for 16 hours, at 990 °C and 1050 °C for 8 hours. Romao et al. prepared $\text{ZrW}_2\text{O}_8/\text{Al}_2\text{W}_3\text{O}_{12}$ ceramics composites by the solid-state reaction from yttria stabilized zirconia, monoclinic ZrO_2 , Al_2O_3 and WO_3 during sintering at 1200 °C, with holding times varying from 6 to 21 hours [15]. A ZrW_2O_8 phase, in turn, can be synthesized by the combustion method [16], by hydrothermal synthesis of raw compounds at 160 °C for 36 hours with further sintering at 570 °C for 1 hour [17, 18], by the co-precipitation reaction with drying at 60–80 °C and firing at 1150 °C for 10 hours, and by the sol-gel method with firing at 600 °C for 10 hours [18]. From the literature, ZrW_2O_8 is stable in a narrow temperature range from 1105 to 1257 °C, but this phase decomposes to ZrO_2 and WO_3 at about 700–850 °C, respectively. The melting temperature of this phase is above 1257 °C [15–18].

The aim and novelty of this work is to investigate the use of ZrO_2 and WO_3 additives for the in situ formation of phases with negative LTEC, ($\text{Al}_2(\text{WO}_4)_3$ and ZrW_2O_8), in porous mullite ceramics sintered from powder raw materials by a solid-state reaction method.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Raw materials and sample preparation

Materials	Average particle size, d_{50} (μm)	Name, Manufacturer
$\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$	2.0	Nabalox NO 725, Nabaltec AG, Germany
$\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$	80.0	Nabalox NO 201, Nabaltec AG, Germany
SiO_2 amorphous	3.0–5.0	GetNanoMaterials, France
Kaolin (SiO_2 – 56.5 wt%, Al_2O_3 – 31.0 wt%)	1.5	MEKA, Amberger Kaolinwerke, Germany
ZrO_2 stabilized by 8 mol% Y_2O_3	0.5	GetNanoMaterials, France
ZrO_2 stabilized by 2.8 mol% MgO	0.8	Goodfellow, United Kingdom
WO_3	5.0	GetNanoMaterials, France
Aluminium paste (solid content of 70 ± 2%)	12.0	Aquapor-9008, Schlenk Metallic Pigments GmbH, Germany

Table 1 Raw material specifications

1. táblázat A felhasznált alapanyagok pontos megnevezése

Commercially available raw powders, such as $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$, $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$, amorphous SiO_2 , kaolin, two types of ZrO_2 and WO_3 were used for ceramics materials samples preparation. Table 1 summarises the raw materials specifications. In all compositions, the amount of kaolin was 30 wt%, the ratio of Al_2O_3 to SiO_2 was 2.57:1 and the ratio of $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ to $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ was 1:3. The ratio of Al_2O_3 to SiO_2 corresponded to the mullite stoichiometric composition, $3\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2$. The ratio of $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ to $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ was determined as effective in previous studies [19]. Yttria stabilized zirconia (YSZ, 8 mol% Y_2O_3), magnesia

stabilized zirconia (MSZ, 2.8 mol % MgO) and WO_3 were used as modification additives. 5 wt% of each type of zirconia was used, both separately as well as in a mixture with WO_3 in a 1:1 and 1:2 ratio. Aluminium paste (0.18 wt%) was used as a pore-forming agent to prepare porous mullite ceramic.

Slip casting the concentrated slurry of raw materials was used for samples preparation. The water content of the concentrated slurry was 38–40 wt%. The method and process of samples preparation were described in more detail in previous articles [19–21]. The dried samples were sintered at 1600 °C with a 250 °C/h (4.2 °C/min) heating rate and the holding time at maximum temperature was 1 hour. The fired samples cooling process was as slow as the heating process.

2.2 Characterisation

Appropriate equipment was used to analyse the crystallographic phases, different phase transformations and reactions in the samples at the heating treatment time and the sintered sample microstructure. X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) was carried out with a Rigaku Ultima+ (Japan) using Cu K_α radiation and operating at 30 kV and 20 mA. XRD patterns were scanned in the 5–60 2 θ° measurement angle range with a 0.02° step and a 2°/min goniometer scanning rate. Differential thermal analysis was done using „SETSYS Evolution TGA-DTA/TMA SETARAM”. The heating for DTA was 12 °C per minute at a temperature range from 0 to 1300 °C with air as the carrier gas. The samples microstructures were analysed using two scanning electron microscopes (SEM), -Hitachi TableTop Microscope TM3000 and high-resolution field emission low vacuum scanning electron microscope (FEI Nova NanoSEM 650). The samples were observed in low vacuum mode eliminating the need for metal coating sputtering. The sample elemental composition was determined using energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) with an X-ray fluorescence spectrometer (Apollo X SDD) created by TEAMTM Integrated EDX. The shrinkage after ceramics' sintering and bulk density of the samples was calculated mathematically. The determination of apparent porosity and water uptake was based on the Archimedes principle according to the European standard EN 623-2. The temperature dependence of the linear thermal expansion coefficient for sintered samples was determined by high temperature horizontal dilatometer L76/1600 D (Linseis, Selb, Germany).

3. Results and discussion

3.1 X-ray diffraction

The X-ray diffraction patterns in Fig. 1 represent the phase compositions of samples with yttria stabilized zirconia and magnesia stabilized zirconia additives. The mullite phase was the dominant phase of the samples for both raw material compositions, which were sintered at 1600 °C. The ZrO_2 phase was mainly expressed in monoclinic modification in both samples. Cubic ZrO_2 was detectable in samples with yttria stabilized zirconia, but tetragonal ZrO_2 modification observed in samples with magnesia stabilized zirconia. The corundum phase was found in the samples with YSZ additive (Fig. 1 (a)) as opposed to samples with MSZ (Fig. 1 (b)).

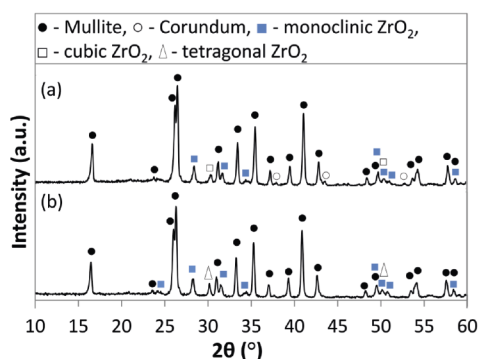


Fig. 1 XRD patterns of the samples with ZrO_2 additives: (a) with YSZ, (b) with MSZ
1. ábra ZrO_2 -t tartalmazó minták röntgen diffrakciós analízisének eredménye: (a) YSZ-t tartalmazó, (b) MSZ-t tartalmazó

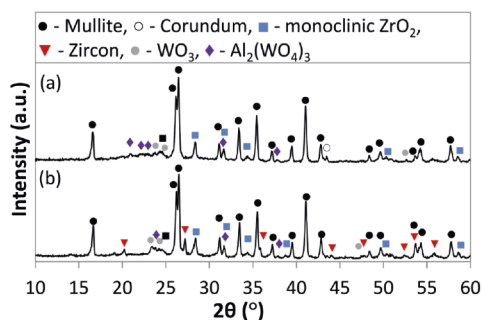


Fig. 2 XRD patterns of the samples with ZrO_2 and WO_3 additives in the ratio of 1:1: (a) with YSZ and WO_3 , (b) with MSZ and WO_3
2. ábra ZrO_2 -t és WO_3 -t 1:1 arányban tartalmazó minták röntgen diffrakciós analízisének eredménye: (a) YSZ-t és WO_3 -t tartalmazó, (b) MSZ-t és WO_3 -t tartalmazó

Fig. 2 shows the XRD patterns of the samples with YSZ or MSZ addition in a 1:1 ratio in the mixture with WO_3 , sintered at 1600 °C. The mullite and monoclinic ZrO_2 were the main phases of these samples. Tetragonal ZrO_2 and corundum phases were not detectable. The intensity peaks of WO_3 were less definite for samples with YSZ and WO_3 (1:1) than for samples with MSZ and WO_3 (1:1). The XRD pattern in Fig. 2 (b) shows that zircon was formed as an additional phase after firing in samples with MSZ and WO_3 (1:1). In the samples with the addition of only YSZ or MSZ (Fig. 1 (a) and (b)) and with the YSZ: WO_3 =1:1 (Fig. 2 (a)), the zircon phase was not observed. This is because the presence of stabilizers such as Y_2O_3 and MgO, respectively from YSZ and MSZ, led to the forming a liquid phase in the Y_2O_3 - Al_2O_3 - SiO_2 system at 1550 °C and MgO- Al_2O_3 - SiO_2 at 1450–1550 °C that promoted zircon dissociation with subsequent mullite phase formation [22]. In the case using YSZ, this influence was much more pronounced due to the higher amount of Y_2O_3 as a stabilization additive rather than MgO, respectively 8 mol% and 2.8 mol%. Using the WO_3 prevented liquid formation in the MgO- Al_2O_3 - SiO_2 system, and zircon was retained in the phase composition of synthesized mullite ceramics with MSZ and WO_3 (1:1), unlike the samples with YSZ and WO_3 (1:1).

The XRD patterns in the $2\theta^\circ$ range from 20° to 24° (Fig. 2 (a) and (b)) show the mixture of crystalline and amorphous phases for both samples with ZrO_2 and WO_3 (1:1). The presence of separate peaks on the XRD patterns of these compositions in the $2\theta^\circ$ range from 20° to 24°, at 32°, 35° and 43° corresponded to the aluminium tungstate phase.

Doubling the WO_3 amount contributed to the zircon and aluminium tungstate formation in both sample compositions with two types of stabilized ZrO_2 (Fig. 3 (a) and (b)). In the case of these samples, the number of intensity peaks ZrO_2 phase decreased due to ZrO_2 participation in forming $ZrSiO_4$. The location of t- ZrO_2 in the neighbourhood of amorphous SiO_2 promoted zircon formation at a lower temperature by a diffusion reaction. Zircon formation in the corresponding ceramic samples was proposed to occur via several successive reactions. First, $ZrSiO_4$ began forming by reacting t- ZrO_2 with amorphous SiO_2 at about 1200 °C. Then, zircon formation continued by the reaction of t- ZrO_2 with cristobalite at 1400–1470 °C owing to the crystallization and corresponding modification of SiO_2 . Complete formation of this phase occurred by the reaction of m- ZrO_2 with cristobalite after ~1580 °C due to t- ZrO_2 gradually transforming into m- ZrO_2 with an increase in temperature because of the decrease in excess surface energy [23–26]. In turn, increasing the WO_3 amount also prevented liquid formation and zircon dissipation in the case of samples with YSZ and WO_3 (1:2). 1600 °C was not high enough for decomposing $ZrSiO_4$ to ZrO_2 and SiO_2 according to the literature [23]. The mullite phase also remained dominant in these samples, but the intensity of this phase's diffraction maximums decreased (Fig. 3) because the Al_2O_3 and SiO_2 mullite components were used forming phases such as aluminium tungstate and zircon. The intensity of aluminium tungstate phase diffraction maximums increased in samples with ZrO_2 and WO_3 additives (1:2) due to the increasing WO_3 amount. The ZrW_2O_8 phase was not observed in sintered samples compositions. The XRD pattern of the ceramic material with YSZ: WO_3 (1:2) shows the significant presence of WO_3 phase than in samples with MSZ: WO_3 (1:2).

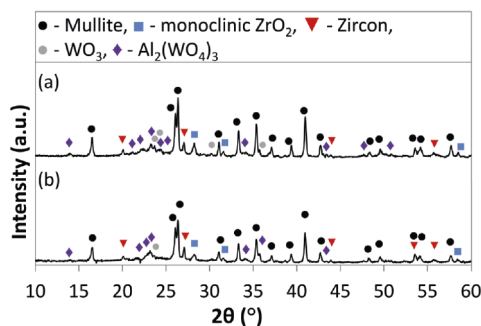


Fig. 3 XRD patterns of the samples with ZrO_2 and WO_3 additives in the ratio of 1:2: (a) with YSZ and WO_3 , (b) with MSZ and WO_3
3. ábra ZrO_2 -t és WO_3 -t 1:2 arányban tartalmazó minták röntgen diffrakciós analízisének eredménye: (a) YSZ-t és WO_3 -t tartalmazó, (b) MSZ-t és WO_3 -t tartalmazó

3.2 Differential thermal analysis

The DTA curves for heating and cooling the MEKA kaolin and the non-sintered sample compositions are shown, respectively, in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5. In the DTA plots (Fig. 4) for all samples, the first endothermic peak at about 180 °C represented the elimination of free water absorbed between the particles. In the case of kaolin (Fig. 4 (a)), the second strong endothermic peak at 530 °C corresponded to the dehydroxylation of kaolinite and the formation of metakaolinite [27]. The dehydroxylation

process should be considered a crystal-chemical process of the kaolinite's bilayer lattice changing with the absorption of a significant amount of heat [28-31]. The exothermic effect in the 647 to 660 °C temperature range defined the crystallization of some amorphous phase [32]. The sharp exothermic peak within 1000 °C was due to the formation of new crystalline phases such as a Si-containing γ - Al_2O_3 with spinel structure plus amorphous SiO_2 or a 2:1 mullite plus amorphous SiO_2 [30, 31]. Then, the mullite phase ($3\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2$) formation and cristobalite were followed at about 1235–1245 °C, which is represented as a gently sloping exothermic peak [30, 31].

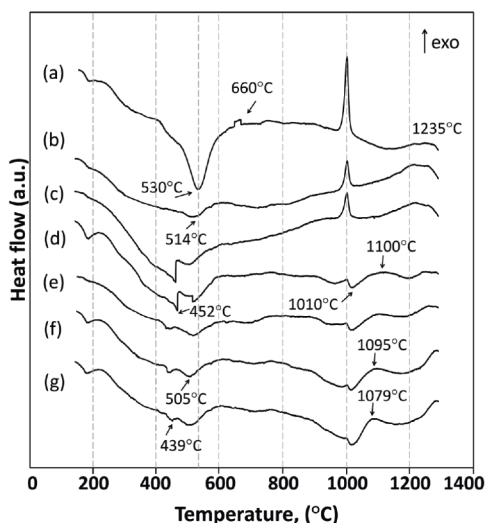


Fig. 4 DTA for samples, heating curves: (a) kaolin, (b) with YSZ, (c) with MSZ, (d) with YSZ:WO₃ (1:1), (e) with MSZ:WO₃ (1:1), (f) with YSZ:WO₃ (1:2), (g) with MSZ:WO₃ (1:2)

4. ábra Differenciális termoanalízisből származó fűtési görbék egyes mintákra: (a) kaolin, (b) YSZ-t tartalmazó, (c) MSZ-t tartalmazó, (d) YSZ:WO₃ (1:1) arányban tartalmazó, (e) with MSZ:WO₃ (1:1) arányban tartalmazó, (f) with YSZ:WO₃ (1:2) arányban tartalmazó, (g) with MSZ:WO₃ (1:2) arányban tartalmazó

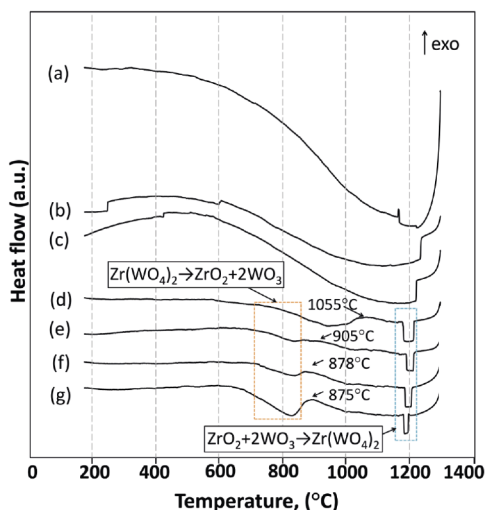


Fig. 5 DTA for samples, cooling curves: (a) kaolin, (b) with YSZ, (c) with MSZ, (d) with YSZ:WO₃ (1:1), (e) with MSZ:WO₃ (1:1), (f) with YSZ:WO₃ (1:2), (g) with MSZ:WO₃ (1:2)

5. ábra Differenciális termoanalízisből származó hűtési görbék egyes mintákra: (a) kaolin, (b) YSZ-t tartalmazó, (c) MSZ-t tartalmazó, (d) YSZ:WO₃ (1:1) arányban tartalmazó, (e) with MSZ:WO₃ (1:1) arányban tartalmazó, (f) with YSZ:WO₃ (1:2) arányban tartalmazó, (g) with MSZ:WO₃ (1:2) arányban tartalmazó

The DTA thermal behaviour of the samples compositions with YSZ and MSZ demonstrated processes similar to those seen in heating pure kaolin: the dehydroxylation of kaolinite at about 514 °C, spinel structure or primary mullite formation with amorphous SiO_2 at 1000 °C and secondary mullite ($3\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2$) formation at about 1200 °C. The DTA curves of the samples with a mixture of ZrO_2 and WO_3 in a 1:1 and 1:2 ratio showed an endothermic peak at about 400–460 °C (Fig. 4 (d–g)), which indicated the WO_3 phase transformation from the monoclinic modification to the orthorhombic [33–35]. The exothermic peak within 1000 °C for all samples with a ZrO_2 and WO_3 mixture was smaller than for kaolin and samples without WO_3 . It is important to note that after this small exothermic peak at 1000 °C, an endothermic peak immediately followed at 1015–1090 °C, which was also characteristic of all samples with a mixture of ZrO_2 and WO_3 . This can be explained by the combination of two processes that came at relatively the same time in the 950–1090 °C range. Therefore, the exothermic peak at 1000 °C corresponded to one of the stages of the thermal conversion of kaolin, which was described above, and the subsequent endothermic peak was associated with the formation of zirconium tungstate from ZrO_2 and WO_3 [16, 17, 36]. This was also confirmed by the behaviour of the cooling curves (Fig. 5 (d–g)). The elongated endothermic peak of the cooling curves at the 1185–1200 °C region was due to the formation of zirconium tungstate at the samples cooling as verified by the ZrO_2 and WO_3 system phase diagram [37] and the works of Dedova and Lommens [17, 36], and is not typical behaviour of an unmodified mullite ceramic DTA cooling curve. The ZrW_2O_8 phase intensity peaks were not observed in the XRD patterns after sample sintering because ZrW_2O_8 melting occurs above 1257 °C [17, 33], which is lower than the sample sintering temperature. ZrW_2O_8 was not present after slowly cooling the samples due to the decomposition of this phase into ZrO_2 and WO_3 within the narrow 770–825 °C temperature range [16, 36, 37]. ZrW_2O_8 decomposing into oxides caused a smooth rise in the DTA cooling curves from 825 °C to lower temperatures (Fig. 5 (d–g)).

The $\text{Al}_2(\text{WO}_4)_3$ formation is shown in the sample heating DTA curves (Fig. 4 (d–g)) as an exothermic effect at 1075–1100 °C. The mullite phase formed at temperatures higher than 1200 °C in the case of a mixture of differently stabilized zirconia and WO_3 in a 1:1 and 1:2 ratios. The wide exothermic peak of the cooling curves (Fig. 5 (d–g)) for samples with YSZ and WO_3 (1:1) at 1055 °C was due to the formation of aluminium tungstate while cooling, as verified by the Al_2O_3 - WO_3 system phase diagram [38, 39]. For samples with the addition of MSZ:WO₃=1:1, YSZ:WO₃=1:2 and MSZ:WO₃=1:2, the $\text{Al}_2(\text{WO}_4)_3$ formation also occurred while cooling but at lower temperatures, respectively at ~905 °C, ~878 °C and ~875 °C. The $\text{Al}_2(\text{WO}_4)_3$ formation temperature was lower in case of mullite ceramics with MSZ and WO_3 mixture of both ratios.

3.3 Scanning electron microscopy

SEM micrographs showing the microstructure of samples with the YSZ additive are presented in Fig. 6. The structure of these samples was composed of densely packed, elongated mullite crystals, which are located in a glassy phase (Fig. 6 (a))

and (b)). The glassy phase was formed with the participation of yttrium oxide and increased the sintering of the samples. Sample fracture occurred in the glassy phase at the time of sample preparation for the SEM (samples were broken in half), which is visible in Fig. 6 (c). The SEM micrograph from the TableTop SEM Microscope TM3000 (Fig. 6 (a)) shows large and small white inclusions, which confirm the presence of ZrO₂.

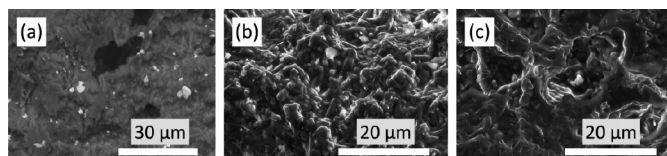


Fig. 6 SEM micrographs of the microstructure of sintered samples with YSZ
6. ábra Az YSZ-t tartalmazó szinterelt mintákról mikroszerkezetéről pásztázó elektronmikroszkóppal készített felvételek

The structure of ceramics samples with the MSZ additive was similar to the structure of the samples with YSZ (Fig. 7 (a) and (b)). The white particles in the SEM micrographs (Fig. 7 (a)) for samples with MSZ showed that m-ZrO₂ particles have a smaller size and are more uniformly distributed in the sample structure after sintering.

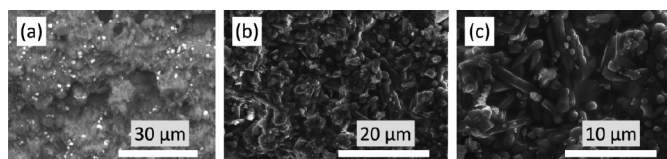


Fig. 7 SEM micrographs of the microstructure of sintered samples with MSZ
7. ábra Az MSZ-t tartalmazó szinterelt mintákról mikroszerkezetéről pásztázó elektronmikroszkóppal készített felvételek

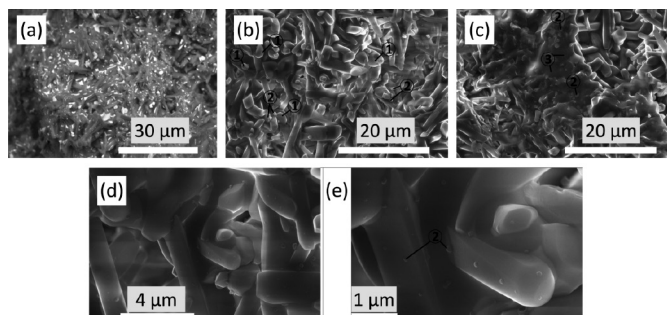


Fig. 8 SEM micrographs of the microstructure of sintered samples with YSZ and WO₃ additive in a 1:1 ratio
8. ábra Az YSZ-t és WO₃-at 1:1 arányban tartalmazó szinterelt mintákról mikroszerkezetéről pásztázó elektronmikroszkóppal készített felvételek

The sample structure changed with the use of a ZrO₂ and WO₃ mixture in the case of both ratios of these oxides. The structure of samples with YSZ:WO₃=(1:1) was formed from needle-like mullite crystals. Parts of the mullite crystals were covered by a continuous glassy phase that was white in the SEM micrograph from the TableTop SEM (Fig. 8 (a)). The structure of these samples also contained granular inclusions.

Table 2 presents the elemental compositions of samples' certain areas after EDX point analysis. EDX analysis results showing that some grains were ZrO₂, other grains were aluminium tungstate, respectively EDX points 1 and 2 in Fig. 8 (b) and in Table 2. The mullite crystals were distinguishable at the larger magnification (Fig. 8 (b-e)) after using the high-resolution SEM (FEI Nova NanoSEM 650). The EDX results (EDX point 3) in Fig. 8 (c) and data in Table 2 show that the existing amorphous phase contained a higher weight per cent of elements such as O, Al, Si, W and a lower weight per cent of Zr and Y, which can correspond to the alumina-silica glassy phase [40] and alumina-tungstate glassy phase with dissolved ZrO₂ and Y₂O₃. This amorphous part of the samples contained crystalline grains (Fig. 8 (c), EDX point 2), which were identified as aluminium tungsten crystalline grains after the EDX analysis. Some mullite crystals contained relatively small white points (Fig. 8 (a)), which were another phase. The SEM micrographs at the higher magnification (Fig.8 (d) and (e)) demonstrated small crystals on the surface of the mullite crystals. These crystals were identified as aluminium tungstate crystals by the results of the EDX point analysis (point 2) in Table 2.

Fig. 9 shows the structure of the samples with MSZ and WO₃ in a 1:1 ratio. Relatively fine particles (marked in light grey in Fig. 9. (a)) were distributed in the sample structure. These faceted crystals were zircon, by the EDX analysis (EDX point 4 and 5) (Fig. 9. (a-c) and Table 2). The prismatic mullite crystals in these samples are relatively thinner and longer than mullite crystals of the YSZ:WO₃=(1:1) samples.

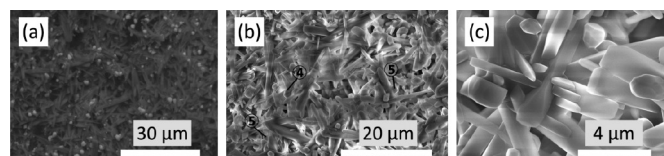


Fig. 9 SEM micrographs of the microstructure of sintered samples with MSZ and WO₃ additive in a 1:1 ratio
9. ábra Az MSZ-t és WO₃-at 1:1 arányban tartalmazó szinterelt mintákról mikroszerkezetéről pásztázó elektronmikroszkóppal készített felvételek

Element	Point 1		Point 2		Point 3		Point 4		Point 5	
	Weight %	Atom %	Weight %	Atom %	Weight %	Atom %	Weight %	Atom %	Weight %	Atom %
O	37.1	72.7	39.3	61.7	39.1	66.6	34.9	66.5	46.4	69.1
Al	4.9	5.6	30.8	28.6	15.9	16.1	-	-	13.3	11.8
Si	2.3	2.6	7.1	6.3	11.3	11.0	16.7	18.5	14.6	12.4
W	-	-	22.9	3.4	26.9	4.0	-	-	-	-
Zr	55.7	19.1	-	-	2.8	1.1	48.4	15.0	25.7	6.7
Y	-	-	-	-	4.0	1.2	-	-	-	-

Table 2 The elemental compositions of samples' certain plots after EDX point analysis
2. táblázat Az EDX (energia diszperzív röntgensugár) analízis egyes pontjaiban a minták elemi összetételei

The structures of samples with YSZ:WO₃ and MSZ:WO₃ in a 1:2 ratio were formed from crystal agglomerates of mullite and aluminium tungstate crystals. The aluminium tungstate crystals were located on and between the mullite crystals (Fig. 10 and Fig. 11). Comparing the SEM micrographs of samples with YSZ:WO₃ mixtures in ratios of (1:1) and (1:2) in Fig. 8 and Fig. 10, the quantity of aluminium tungstate crystals increased with increasing WO₃ quantity. In turn, thinner mullite crystals were randomly located among the larger mullite crystals. The presence of aluminium tungstate crystals in samples with MSZ:WO₃ also became noticeable after increasing the WO₃ quantity (Fig. 11. (b) and (c)).

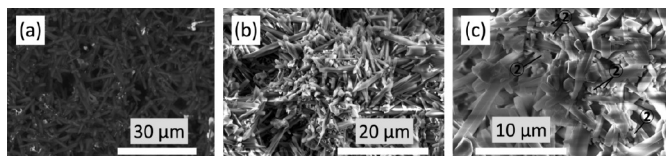


Fig. 10 SEM micrographs of the microstructure of the sintered samples with YSZ and WO₃ additive in a 1:2 ratio

10. ábra Az YSZ-t és WO₃-at 1:2 arányban tartalmazó szinterelt mintákról mikroszerkezetéről pásztázó elektronmikroszkóppal készített felvételek

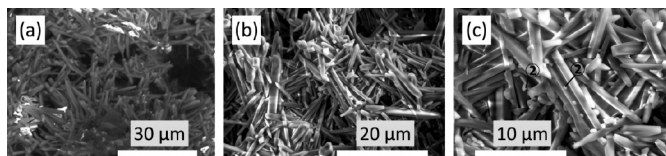


Fig. 11 SEM micrographs of the microstructure of the sintered samples with MSZ and WO₃ additive in a 1:2 ratio

11. ábra Az MSZ-t és WO₃-at 1:2 arányban tartalmazó szinterelt mintákról mikroszerkezetéről pásztázó elektronmikroszkóppal készített felvételek

The possible growth of aluminium tungstate crystals on the mullite crystals occurred from the Al₂O₃ and WO₃ solid-state reaction during sintering and from the alumina-tungstate liquid phase during cooling. The nucleation and growth of aluminium tungstate crystals proceeded in possible defect sites on mullite crystals. Supersaturation of the alumina-tungstate liquid phase occurred with increasing WO₃ in samples with YSZ:WO₃ (1:2) and MSZ:WO₃ (1:2) mixtures and aluminium tungstate crystalline grains continued to grow.

3.4 Shrinkage, bulk density and apparent porosity of the sintered samples

The ceramics samples, modified only with YSZ or MSZ, have shrinkage higher than 35±1% and bulk density 1.55±0.05 g/cm³ (Fig. 12). Using the mixture of stabilized ZrO₂ and WO₃ additive decreases the shrinkage and bulk density of the samples. The results of the bulk density decrease with increasing of the samples apparent porosity (Fig. 13). The apparent porosity of all samples compositions is higher than 40% and maximum porosity is 66–73%. The samples with YSZ:WO₃ (1:1) and MSZ:WO₃ (1:2) have porosity about 63-66% and the bulk density of 1.24±0.05 g/cm³. Modifying of the porous mullite ceramics with mixture of magnesia stabilized zirconia and WO₃ has higher influence on the apparent porosity and water uptake of the samples than the yttria stabilized zirconia in mixture with WO₃. The mixture of MSZ and WO₃ in a 1:1 ratio caused increasing of the apparent porosity of ≈15%, but these

oxides mixture in a 1:2 ratio caused increasing of the apparent porosity of ≈11%, respectively in comparison with YSZ:WO₃ (1:1) and YSZ:WO₃ (1:2). Doubling the WO₃ amount slightly decreases the porosity.

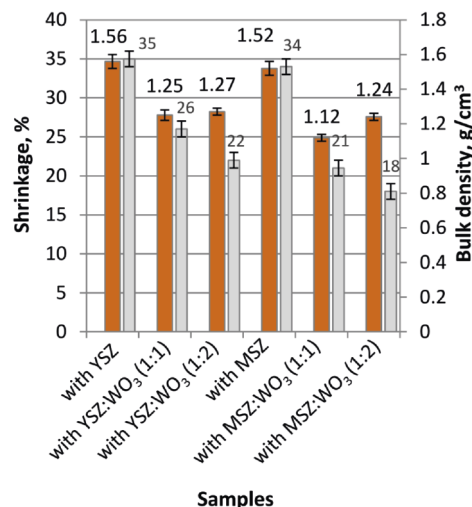


Fig. 12 Shrinkage and bulk density of the sintered samples
12. ábra A szinterelt minták zsugorodása és testsűrűsége

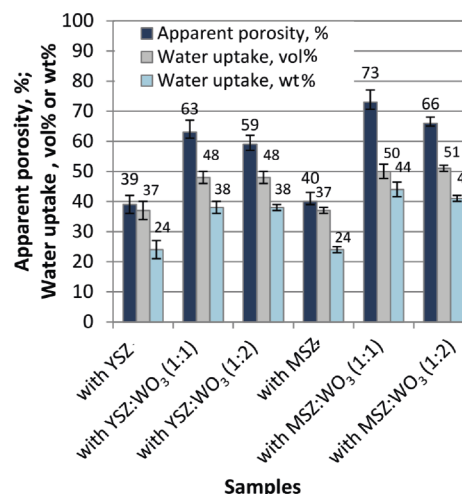


Fig. 13 Apparent porosity and water uptake of the samples
13. ábra A minták látszólagos porozitása és vízfelvétele

3.5 Linear thermal expansion of the sintered samples

The analysis of the thermal property in Fig. 14 shows that samples only with YSZ or MSZ have the similar linear thermal expansion as the pure mullite ceramics due to the mullite phase dominance in these samples. The presence of such phases as zircon ($\alpha_{\text{zircon}} = 4.1 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot \text{C}^{-1}$) [6] and aluminium tungstate ($\alpha_{\text{aluminium tungstate}} = -1.5 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot \text{C}^{-1}$) [8] decreased the linear thermal expansion of samples with YSZ:WO₃ mixture in a 1:1 ratio and with MSZ:WO₃ in a 1:2 ratio. At the same time, samples with YSZ:WO₃ mixture in a 1:2 ratio and with MSZ:WO₃ in a 1:1 ratio, containing unreacted WO₃ (confirmed by XRD results), have higher expansion due to the high linear expansion coefficient of WO₃ ($\alpha_{\text{tungsten oxide}} = 13-15 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot \text{C}^{-1}$) [8, 9]. The expansion of samples with the ZrO₂ and WO₃ mixture decreases in the temperature range approximately from

950 to 1020 °C due to the formation of zirconium tungstate ($\alpha_{\text{zirconium tungstate}} = -8.6 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot \text{°C}^{-1}$) [9] from ZrO_2 and WO_3 during the heating and at these temperatures the ceramic materials have an effect of contracting.

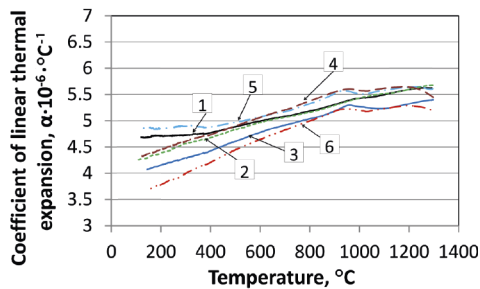


Fig. 14 Temperature dependence of the linear thermal expansion coefficient for sintered samples: 1 - with YSZ, 2 - with MSZ, 3 - with YSZ:WO₃ (1:1), 4 - with MSZ:WO₃ (1:1), 5 - with YSZ:WO₃ (1:2), 6 - with MSZ:WO₃ (1:2)

14. ábra A szinterelt minták lineáris hőtágulási együtthatójának hőmérséklet függése: 1 - YSZ-t tartalmazó, 2 - MSZ-t tartalmazó, 3 - YSZ-t és WO₃-at 1:1 arányban tartalmazó, 4 - MSZ-t és WO₃-at 1:1 arányban tartalmazó, 5 - YSZ-t és WO₃-at 1:2 arányban tartalmazó, 6 - MSZ-t és WO₃-at 1:2 arányban tartalmazó

4. Conclusions

Modified porous mullite ceramics were fabricated by slip casting a concentrated slurry of raw materials and were sintered at 1600 °C for 1 h with a slow cooling process. It was established that the in situ formation of crystalline phases with low or negative LTEC in mullite ceramics can be found after adding YSZ (8 mol% Y₂O₃) or MSZ (2.8 mol% MgO with WO₃ mixture in a 1:1 and 1:2 ratio at the correspond sintering conditions. These synthesis conditions are much simpler than the applicable methods and long holding time considered above from literature date, which is an advantage for obtaining porous mullite ceramics. Only Al₂(WO₄)₃ or two crystalline phases, ZrSiO₄ and Al₂(WO₄)₃, were formed into the porous mullite ceramics after its modification with metal oxides such as differently stabilized zirconia and WO₃. The Zr(WO₄)₂ phase was not detectable due to the not appropriate firing-cooling process, which does not allow remaining this phase in phase composition of investigated mullite ceramics. The 8 mol% Y₂O₃ stabilized zirconia additive has higher influence on decreasing temperature of ZrSiO₄ dissociation than 2.8 mol% MgO stabilized zirconia. Using the certain amount of WO₃ prevent the ZrSiO₄ dissociation in mullite ceramic modified with ZrO₂ and WO₃. Addition of the 2.8 mol% MgO stabilized zirconia in mixture with WO₃ increases the porosity of mullite ceramic. Sintered porous mullite ceramics with YSZ:WO₃ mixture in a 1:1 ratio and with MSZ:WO₃ in a 1:2 ratio have the potential application in conditions of elevated temperatures ≥1200 °C as thermal insulator with lowered linear thermal expansion.

Acknowledgements

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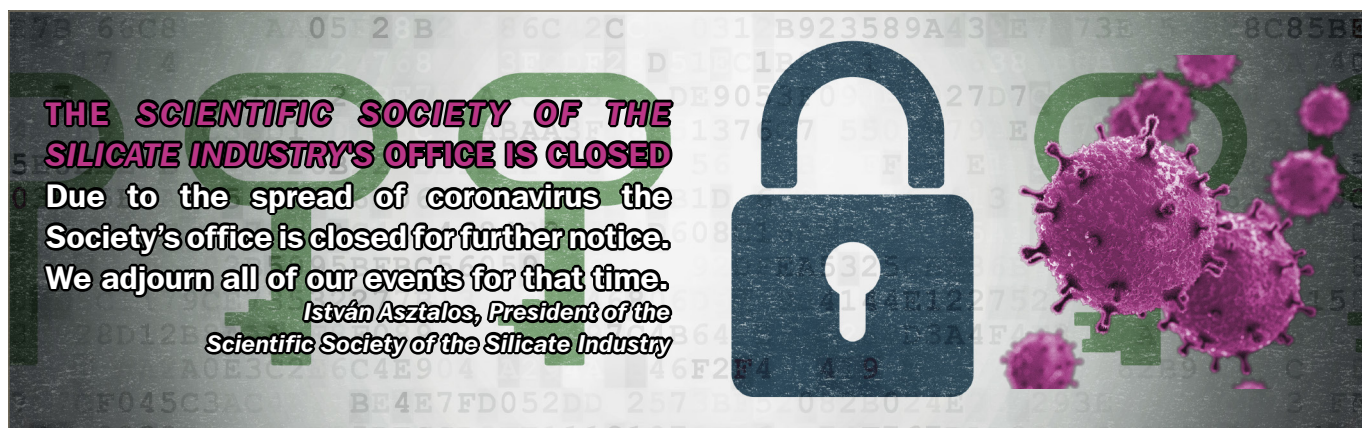
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Alagúttüzek hatása az alagútfalazat és kőzetkörnyezet teherbírására

2. rész (vágatstatikai számítás)

Effects of tunnel-fire on load bearing capacity of tunnel-lining and surrounding rock mass

Part 2 (Sectional Calculation)

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Abstract

The effect of tunnel-fire can cause significant changes in the strength of the tunnel-lining and its rock environment. This structural damage is a potential threat after fire load. The condition of the structure can be estimated if some concrete specimens exist from the mixture of the tunnel wall. These specimens should be loaded by the same temperature that affected the tunnel in fire during different heating and cooling treatments. According to the test results, the inner and outer part of the lining can be modelled under fire.

The change of compressive strength and Young's modulus can be obtained from compressive strength tests. These processes were explained in details in our previous article, titled "Effects of tunnel-fire on load bearing capacity of tunnel-lining and surrounding rock mass". The ratios of the initial and instantaneous material properties give reduction factors. If the maximum temperature during a fire is known the overheating of the lining wall can be modelled by numerical methods, from which isothermal zones can be determined. From the thickness of these zones and the reduction factors (compressive-, tensile strength and Young's modulus) the present condition of the tunnel wall can be estimated by the model. The damaged wall can be modelled with a wall with equivalent stiffness to the damaged one with the use of the reduction factors. The created numerical model gives an opportunity for a fast structural evaluation of the tunnel after fire.

This initial model was validated by comparison of model results from different software products tested with different boundary conditions. In present paper two software and three types of beam-spring models (2D, 3D, node and surface support) were compared. All of these model types gave very close results, so it can be concluded, that they can be applied for tunnel modelling under increased temperatures without the further laboratory test of concrete specimens of the tunnel wall.

Locations of partial failure (after fire) can be determined from the model which generates plastic hinges in the tunnel wall. In this step the model has to be recalculated to evaluate the final condition. From the different stresses and material properties of the wall the necessary provisional support system can be designed and constructed. This support system provides the required safety under the early stage of reconstruction. Besides this, the necessary thickness of reparation can also be estimated from the model results.

Kulcsszavak: Alagúttűz, gerenda-rugó modell, beton, nyomószilárdság, rugalmassági modulus

Keywords: Tunnel fire, beam-spring model, concrete, compressive strength, modulus of elasticity

1. Bevezetés

A beton alagútfalazatok és a kőzetkörnyezet anyagtulajdonosságainak vizsgálatát cikkünk előző részében mutattuk be [1]. Jelen cikkünk a korábbi eredménye épülő modellkészítésről és ebből levont következtetésekről szól.

Az alagúttüzekből származó hőhatás jelentős változásokat eredményezhet az alagútfalazat és a kőzetkörnyezet szilárdsági és merevségi tulajdonságaiban, esetlegesen teljesen tönkre is teheti a szerkezeti elemeket. A tűzhatáson túl a szerkezeti károsodások is potenciális veszélyforrást jelentenek. Az alagút betonjából célszerű előzetesen próbatesteket készíteni és tűzterhelés hatására az anyagtulajdonságaiban bekövetkező változásait megvizsgálni. A vizsgálat eredményeit egy modellbe építhetjük, a modell közelítőleg korrekt képet adhat az alagút tűz utáni állapotáról, növeli a mentés és a megerősítés alatti biztonságot.

Beton alagútfalazatok nyomószilárdságának és elszíneződésének laboratóriumi vizsgálatával foglalkozott [2]. A gerenda-rugó modellek vizsgálatával foglalkozott [3]. Talajok nyomásának számításánál nagyobb biztonságot követel meg a tervezés (mint például magasépítésben ahol pontosabban leírható az erőtér és a megtámasztási viszonyok), ezért fontos hogy az alagutat körülvevő kőzetek anyagtulajdonosságait (és változásait hőterhelés hatására) megfelelően pontosan vegyük fel és az alagútfalazatra ható terheket jól határozzuk meg. A témával részletesen foglalkozott és vizsgálta a gránitos kőzetek hő hatására történő szilárdságváltozását [4]. Az alagútfalazatra és kőzetre nem csak alagúttüzek esetén juthat hőterhelés, hanem például nukleáris hulladéklerakókban lejátszódó bomlási folyamatok által is. Nukleáris hulladéklerakó alagútját vizsgálta [5].

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Okl. építőmérnök, doktorandusz a BME Építőanyagok és Magasépítés Tanszékén. A Szilikátipari Tudományos Egyesület tagja. Fő érdeklődési körök: építőanyagok tűzzel szembeni viselkedése, új típusú betonok fejlesztése, környezetbarát építőanyagok, biomimetika, hőszigetelés, hangszigetelés, új építőanyagok fejlesztése.

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(1981), okl. építőmérnök (BME 2005), PhD (BME 2012), műemlékvédelmi szakmérnök (BME 2017), adjunktus a BME Építőanyagok és Magasépítés Tanszékén. Fő kutatási területei: betonok korai (autogén+száradási) zsugorodása, korai zsugorodási repedések normál és könnyűbetonokban, szálerősített betonok, szálerősített könnyűbetonok, könnyűbetonok tartóssága, önterülő könnyűbetonok, épületdiagnosztika, épített örökség védelme. A Szilikátipari Tudományos Egyesület Beton Szakosztályának titkára illetve Kő és kavics szakosztályának tagja, a fib (Nemzetközi Beton szövetség) Magyar Tagozatának tagja, a Magyar Mérnöki Kamara tagja.

MEGYERI Tamás

Okl. Építőmérnök (Noma Consulting, 2017), alagutak és földmegtámasztó szerkezetek tervezésével foglalkozó geotechnikus mérnök.

2. Célkitűzések

Munkánk során alapvetően a tűz tartószerkezetre gyakorolt hatásaival foglalkoztunk, kiemelve a vasbeton alagútfalazatban a beton anyagtulajdonságaiban okozott változásokat visszahílt állapotban (ezzel a biztonság oldaláról közelítve az anyagtulajdonságokat, továbbá a helyreállítás során ezen állapotok érvényesek). Az alagúttűz következményeinek reprodukcióját laboratóriumi környezetben és az alagútfalazat károsodásának vizsgálatát (mik a károsodások okai) az „Alagúttűzek hatása az alagútfalazat és kőzetkörnyezet teherbírására” című cikkünk első részében mutattuk be. A kapott eredmények felhasználásával végelemes programban épített síkbeli és térbeli gerenda-rugó („beam-spring”) modell segítségével mutatjuk be a szilárdsági tulajdonságok változásainak hatását az alagút erőjátékára. Választ kerestünk arra a kérdésre, hogy az alagútfalazat különböző részeinek teherbírása megfelel-e a tűzeset után, illetve kialakulnak-e képlékeny csuklók a falazatban. Majd a csuklókat beépítve a modellbe ellenőriztük, hogy képlékeny nyomatékátrendeződés után megfelelő teherbírású marad-e a falazat. Végül általános javaslatot adtunk a helyreállítás menetére. A síkbeli modell eredményeit összevetettük a térbeli modell eredményeivel, ha az egyezés megfelelő mértékű, elégséges lehet a síkbeli modell használata. A síkbeli gerenda-rugó modell előnye, hogy egyszerűen felépíthető, gyorsan szolgáltat eredményeket, ami alapján meghatározhatók az alagúttal kapcsolatos azonnali intézkedések illetve eldönthető, hogy a sérült alagútfalazat hosszútávon alkalmas-e a ráháruló terhek viselésére, vagy meg kell erősíteni, és ha igen, mely részeken és milyen módon.

3. A „beam-spring” modell

A gerenda-rugó modell vasbeton alagútfalazatok méretezése során kis takarású vasbeton elemek esetén használatos. Ez a végelemes modell csak a beton falazatot veszi figyelembe. A falazat deformációja az alagút hossz tengelyének irányában közel nulla ($\epsilon_z=0$) a keresztirányú alakváltozásokat (ϵ_x, ϵ_y) figyelembe vesszük. Az alagutat körülvevő talajnyomást a gerendaelemek csomópontjaiban ható külső erőhatásként veszi figyelembe a modell. A falazat talajba/kőzetbe való rugalmas ágyazását a csomópontokba csatlakozó rugóelemek adják. A csatlakozó rugók merevsége a körülvevő talaj rugalmassági/összenyomódási modulusától E (MPa) és Poisson tényezőjétől ν (-) függ. Kör keresztmetszetű alagutaknál a sugárirányú elmozdulások u (m) a következők szerint alakulnak (1):

$$u = \left(\frac{1+\nu}{E}\right) \times R \times p \quad (1)$$

ahol

- p (MPa) a talaj/kőzet nyomása
- R (m) az alagút sugara
- E (MPa) a körülvevő talaj rugalmassági modulusa
- ν (-) a körülvevő talaj Poisson tényezője

A rugóban ébredő erő értéke (2) egyenlet alapján számítható (N), ami azt jelenti, hogy az ébredő erő a radiális elmozdulások (u) függvénye (3)

$$F = A \times p \quad (2)$$

$$F = \left(\frac{E}{1+\nu} \times \frac{A}{R}\right) \times u. \quad (3)$$

ahol

- R (m) a kör keresztmetszetű alagút sugara
- E (MPa) a körülvevő talaj rugalmassági modulusa
- ν (-) a körülvevő talaj Poisson tényezője

A (m²) az egy rugóelemhez tartozó alagútfalazat-terület (általában a csomóponthoz csatlakozó gerendaelemek fél hosszainak összege szorozva a figyelembe vett szélességgel).

A rugóelem rugóállandója (4) egyenlet alapján

$$K = \left(\frac{E}{1+\nu} \times \frac{A}{R}\right) \text{ (N/m)} \quad (4)$$

Az előző képletek kör keresztmetszetű alagutakra érvényesek, viszont az alagutak keresztmetszete több eltérő ívből is állhat, amikhez különböző sugarak tartoznak. Ilyen alagút-keresztmetszet esetén R helyére R_{ait} kerül, ami az alagút keresztmetszet átlagos sugara.

Tapasztalatok szerint több ívből álló szerkezeti formák esetén az esetek döntő többségében számolhatunk a helyettesítő sugárral, amelyből számítható kör keresztmetszeti területe azonos a tényleges alagút keresztmetszeti területével. A rugók húzó- és nyomó- rugómerevsége eltérő, csak nyomás esetén vesznek fel terhelést, húzás esetén rugómerevségük nulla [6], [7], [8], [9]. Elsőként síkbeli modellel foglalkoztunk, majd a modellből kapott eredményeket összehasonlítottuk a térbeli modellből kapott eredményekkel.

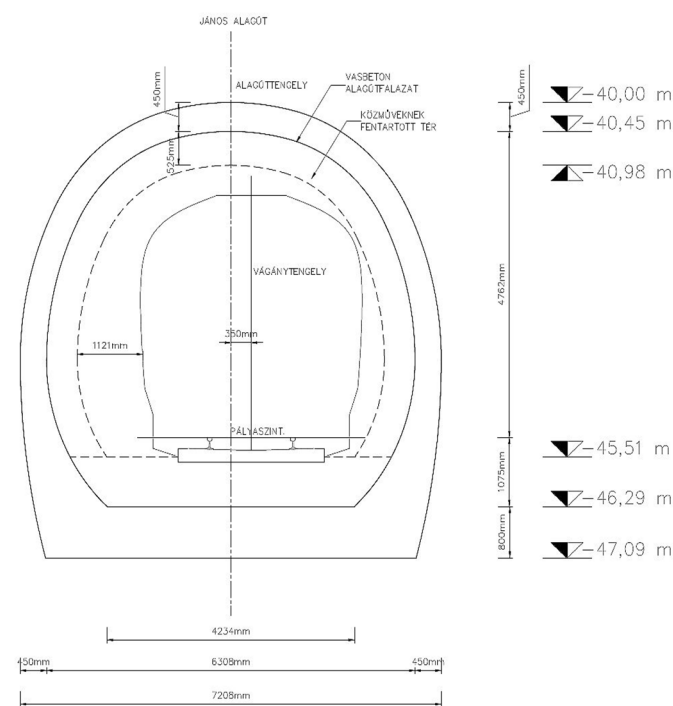
4. Vágatstatikai számítás

Az alagút modelljeit két végelemes programban is elkészítettük (1. ábra), mert a „program 1” (amit a terhek számítására is használtunk a „program 2”-ben készített modelltől eltérő módon számítja a terheket. Így az eredmények ellenőrizhetőek és, megfelelő egyezés esetén kijelenthető, hogy az eredmények nem függenek a használt szoftvertől. Szilárd, tagolt kőzetkörnyezetben készült alagutak vágatstatikai számításait mutatja be [10], végelemes és diszkrét elemes módszerrel [5]. Az alagút betonfalazatát és a mögötte lévő kőzet kölcsönhatásait vizsgálta laboratóriumi körülmények között [11], a modellekben való pontosabb kapcsolati jellemző felvétele érdekében. Több síkbeli és egy térbeli modellt építettünk, így elemezhetjük, hogy a síkbeli modellből kapott eredmények mennyire pontosan közelítik meg a valósághoz közelebb álló térbeli modell eredményeit.

A vizsgált minta-alagút nyomvonala tektonikai lemezek határához közel fekszik, ezért a területen jellemző a túlnyomórészt magmás kőzetek (gránit) jelenléte. Az alagút feletti fedés 40 m. A területen talajvizet nem találtak a fúrások során. A kőzet paramétereit az 1. táblázat tartalmazza.

Megnevezés	Test-sűrűség [kg/m ³]	Egyirányú nyomószilárdság [MPa]	Rugal-massági modulus [MPa]	Poisson tényező [-]	Kohézió [MPa]	Belső surlódási szög [°]	GSI [-]
Monzo gránit	2570	120	4500	12	0,091	36,61	10

1. táblázat Kőzetfizikai paraméterek
Table 1 Rock Strength Parameters



1. ábra Az alagútszelvény méretei
Fig. 1 Dimensions of the tunnel section

5. Mértékadó hőhatás meghatározása

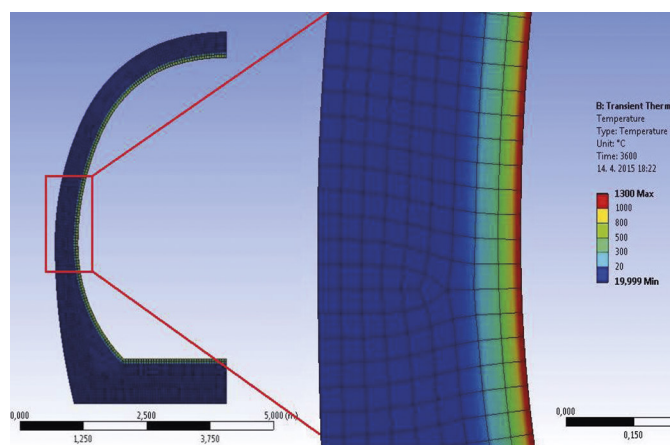
Alagutak tűzvizsgálata esetén a szénhidrogén és a módosított szénhidrogén görbék használata a jellemző, a létesítmény adottságai, alakja és az égő anyag összetétele miatt (pl. közlekedési járművek üzemanyaga). A szénhidrogének égése során a szabványos tűzgörbétől eltérő karakterisztikájú jelenségeket tapasztalhatunk. Mind a görbe lefutása, mind a maximuma eltér a magasépítési gyakorlatban alkalmazott szabványos tűztől. A szénhidrogének gyorsabb belobbanása meredekebb hőmérsékletemelkedést, míg nagyobb hőfejlésűjük magasabb maximum hőmérsékletet eredményez (5).

A görbe egyenlete:

$$T[^\circ\text{C}] = 20 + 1080 \times (1 - 0,325 \times e^{-0,167 \times t [\text{min}]} - 0,675 \times e^{-2,5 \times t [\text{min}]}) \quad (5)$$

Az alagút keresztmetszetében feltételezett hőmérséklet eloszlást a következőkre alapoztuk. A szénhidrogén tűzgörbe gyors emelkedése miatt, egyszerűsített tűzmodell esetén a lokalizált tűz elhanyagolható és a teljesen kifejlett tűz gyorsan kialakul. Másrészt a fejlett tűzmodellek közül az egyzónás modell indokolt használata támasztja alá a feltételezést. Ugyan mindkettő említett tűzmodellt (*egyszerűsített, fejlett*) általában a magasépítésben használják, de alagutak esetében is alkalmazható mindkettő modell típus második szakasza. A keresztmetszet geometriája miatt előáll az a teljesen kifejlett tűzhöz hasonló eset, amikor a lángok beborítják az alagút teljes keresztmetszetét, ami egyenletes léghőmérséklet kialakulását vonja maga után. A kezdeti léghőmérséklet-eloszlást az alagút hossz tengelyében vizsgálva, megállapítható, hogy a tűzfészek környezetében uralkodó magas hőmérséklet a távolsággal arányosan csökken [13]. Később az egyenletes léghőmérséklet eloszlás kialakulását az alagútban lévő erős ventiláció is

elősegíti. Ezen kívül az idő múlásával, a tűzfészekről távolabbi, éghető anyagok is lángra kaphatnak, aminek következtében a hőmérséklet-eloszlás maximumhelyei térben széthúzódhatnak és az alagút falazatának mind nagyobb szakaszát érheti a maximális hőterhelés [12], tehát egyenletesebbé válhat a hőmérséklet eloszlása a keresztmetszetben és a hossz mentén is. Feltételezésünk szerint a teljes alagút keresztmetszete mentén egyenletes a léghőmérséklet eloszlás, így a falazat vastagsága mentén egyenletesen melegszik át a keresztmetszet. Emellett az alagút hosszirányában is viszonylag egyenletes a hőmérséklet eloszlás, mivel az alagútban lévő erős ventiláció a tűz terjedésével egyre intenzívebb lesz, ami áramlásával közvetíti az energiát az alagút távolabbi részeibe. A hőmérsékletemelkedésnek és az ebből származó fluxusnak a ventilációval való összefüggését [14] vizsgálta.



2. ábra A modellezett fél keresztmetszet (balra), 1 óráos tűzhatás alatt átmelegedett falazat (jobbra)

Fig. 2 Modelled half-section (left), overheated cross-section right after 1 hour long fire (right)

A falazat átmelegedését vége-selemes programmal határoztuk meg 1 óra időtartamú tűz hatására, a módosított szénhidrogén tűzgörbe egyenlete alapján ($T_{\text{max}} = 1300^\circ\text{C}$). Az 1300°C az 1000°C -os terheléssel azonosnak tekinthető, mert a próbatestek már 1000°C -on elveszítik teljes szilárdságukat). A programba szimmetria megadásával a fél keresztmetszetet vittük be és egyenletes hőmérséklet eloszlást feltételeztünk. Így megkaptuk az egyes hőmérsékleti tartományokhoz tartozó zónákat, amikhez később hozzárendelhetjük a mért szilárdsági és merevségi értékeket (2. ábra).

6. A numerikus modellek felépítése

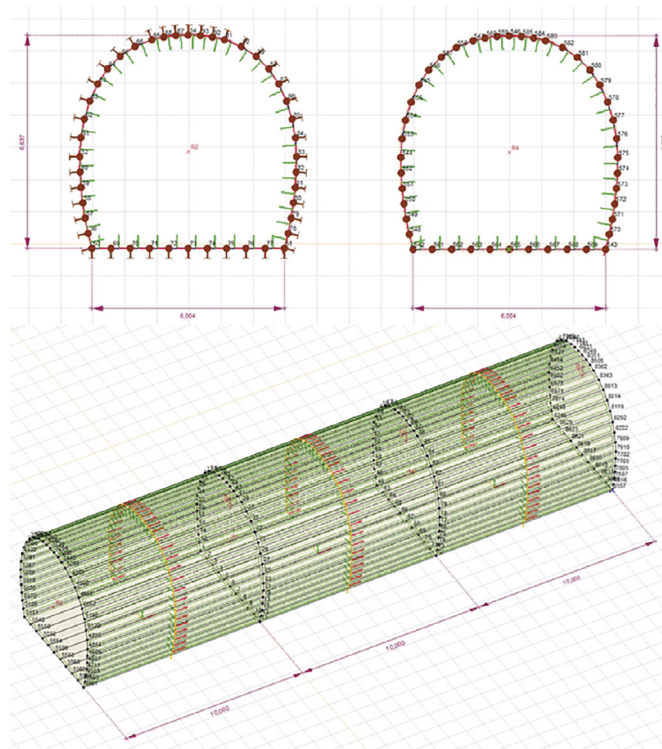
Két síkbeli és egy térbeli modellt készítettünk („program 2”-ben). A síkbeli modellek és a térbeli modell is gerenda-rugó elméleten alapulnak. Az első síkbeli modell egy „klasszikus”, csomópontjaiban megtámasztott gerenda-rugó modell, a második egy módosított változat, ahol csomóponti támaszok helyett vonalmenti támaszokat használtunk. A térbeli modell is gerenda-rugó modell alapjául szolgáló, az alagút boltozat ívét közelítő sokszög keresztmetszet alapján készült, mivel a program nem tud görbült felületeket modellezni. A modell héjelemekből áll, mert szegmensei mind középsíkjukkal párhuzamosan, mind erre merőlegesen terheltek és a valós

alagútfalazat egyszer görbült felületszerkezet (3. ábra). A szegmensek egymáshoz merev módon kapcsolódnak (mint ahogy a gerenda-rugó modellnél a gerendák), talajba/közetbe való rugalmas ágyazásukat felületre merőleges felületi támaszokkal vettük figyelembe. A térbeli modellt három, tíz méter hosszú részre osztottuk, ezek közül a középsőben maximális 1300 °C-ot feltételeztünk, a két szélső tíz méteres szakaszban 800 °C-ot. A tíz méteres szakaszokra való felosztás az eltérő maximális hőmérsékletekhez tartozó, a falazatban bekövetkező változások közti eltérést hivatott szemléltetni. Térben az alagútfalazat keresztmetszetét (a fal belső felületétől kifelé haladva) 1300 °C, 1000 °C, 800 °C, 500 °C, 300 °C-os zónákra bontottuk fel. A 300 °C-nál alacsonyabb hőmérsékletű zónák 20 °C-os betonként jelennek meg a szendvicsmodellben, mivel 300 °C-ig jelentős változás nem lép fel a beton szilárdságában. Ezekhez a zónákhoz rendeltük hozzá a kísérletekből kapott anyagjellemzők értékeit. Így a kapott szendvicsmodell különböző zónáihoz (zónánként eltérő inercia és rugalmassági modulus) tartozó merevségek összegzett értéke alapján számítható a helyettesítő vastagság. Az így számított vastagságú falazat a modellben a nem hőterhelt, 20 °C-os beton anyagtulajdonságaival (szilárdság, rugalmassági modulus) rendelkezik, de merevsége megegyezik a hőterhelt falazatával. Alapvető feltételezés, hogy a belső oldali betonfedés réteges, korai leválása miatt tönkrement, így a belső oldali vasalás is elvesztette tapadását, majd felmelegedés után a szilárdságának nagy részét. Progresszív réteges leválás nem történt, a levált betontakarást megtartotta a belső oldali vasalás, de a kialakuló repedések lehetőséget adtak arra, hogy a felmelegedett levegő közvetlen érintkezésbe kerüljön a betontakarás mögötti zónákkal. A réteges leválás miatt a betonfedés mögötti felületet a maximális hőmérséklet közvetlenül éri, így ez a zóna melegszik át leginkább. Így a végeelemes modellből kapott átmelegedett zónavastagságokat eltoltuk a levált betonfedés vastagságával (kb. 5 cm) a falazat külső része felé, ezzel is rontva a teherbírást és növelve a biztonságot a számításban. A nyomatóki maximumok helyén (a boltozat és az ellenbolt találkozásánál) a keresztmetszetben kiékelés található, hogy a falazat képes legyen viselni a nagy igénybevételeket, ezt a modellben a gerendamagasság növelésével vettük figyelembe.

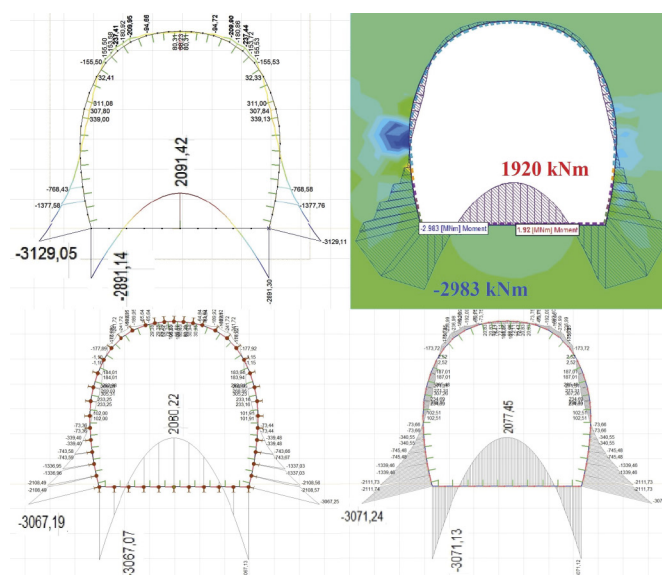
7. Eredmények ismertetése

A terhek számítására használt végeelemes programból (program 1) kapott terhekre a „program 2”-ben is lefutattuk a modelleket, hogy lássuk, megfelelő mértékben egyeznek-e a két szoftverből kapott igénybevételek, illetve az eredmények a síkbeli és a térbeli modell esetén. A különböző számítási módokkal kapott eredmények mind a normálerők mind a nyomatók tekintetében 10-15%-os eltérést mutatnak (4. ábra). Néhány kritikus keresztmetszetekben ébredő igénybevétel, különböző szoftverből vagy modelltypusból származó tüzészet előtti, illetve utáni értékeinek összehasonlítása a 5-6 és 12-13. ábrákon láthatóak. A normál hőmérsékletű, tüzészet előtti alagútfalazat igénybevételeit és ellenállási értékeit egyszerűsített teherbírási görbén ábrázoltuk és így igazoltuk az alagútfalazat teherbírási megfelelőségét a kiindulási állapotban. (7. ábra). Az alagúttervezési gyakorlatban a nyíróerők és azok

felvétele jellemzően nem okoz problémát, ezért a jelen cikk keretein belül ezt nem vizsgáltuk. Ahol értékük jelentősen megnövekszik a falazatban, ott az ellenbolt megtámasztja a falazatot és ahol az ellenboltban növekszik jelentős mértékűre a nyíróerő, ott a falazat kiékelte része támasztja meg az ellenboltozatot.

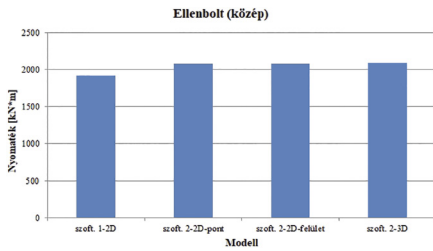
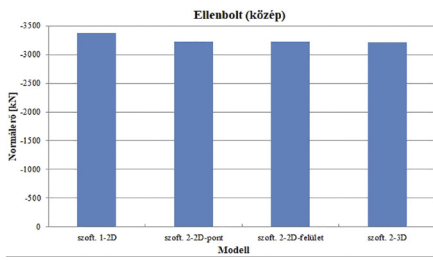


3. ábra A gerenda-rugó modellek felépítése. Síkbeli (fent) térbeli (lent)
Fig. 3 Structure of beam-spring model. 2D (above) 3D (below)



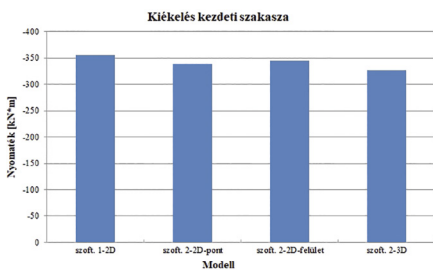
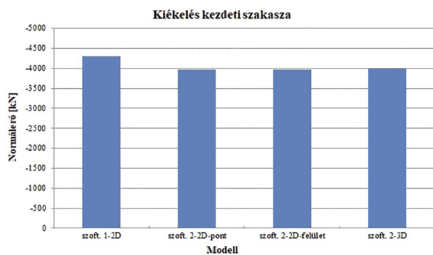
4. ábra A közetnyomásból ébredő nyomatékok összehasonlítása: térbeli modell (bal felső), a terheket számító végeelemes program (jobb felső) csomóponti megtámasztású modell (bal alsó) és vonalmenti megtámasztású modell (jobb alsó)

Fig. 4 Comparison of bending moment calculated by different softwares



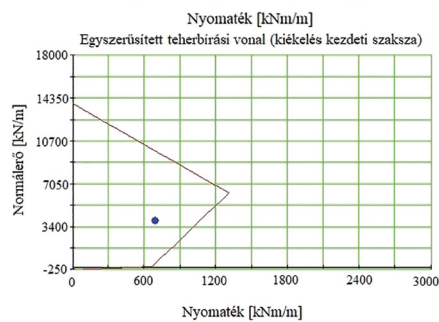
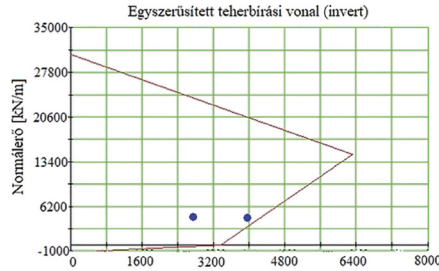
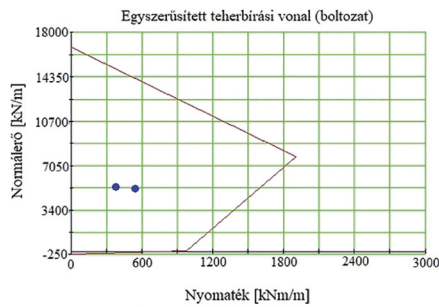
5. ábra Az ellenbolt közepén ébredő, különböző szoftverekből vagy modelltypusból származó normálóerők összehasonlítása (felül). Az ellenbolt közepén ébredő, különböző szoftverekből vagy modelltypusból származó nyomatékok összehasonlítása (alul).

Fig. 5 Comparison of normal force in the middle of the invert from different softwares or modell types (above). Comparison of bending moments in the middle of the invert from different softwares or modell types (below).

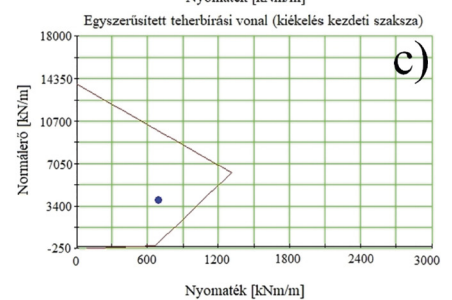
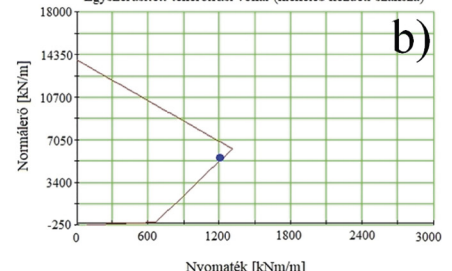
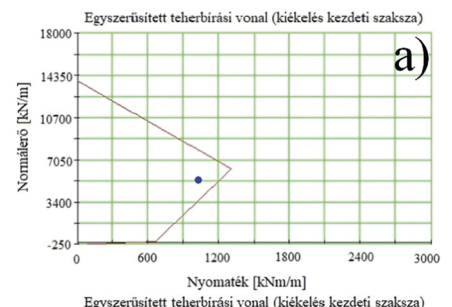


6. ábra A kiekelés kezdeti szakaszánál ébredő, különböző szoftverekből vagy modelltypusból származó normálóerők összehasonlítása (felül). A kiekelés kezdeti szakaszánál ébredő, különböző szoftverekből vagy modelltypusból származó nyomatékok összehasonlítása (alul).

Fig. 6 Comparison of normal force in the joint of the wall and invert from different softwares or modell types (above). Comparison of bending moments in the joint of the wall and invert from different softwares or modell types (below).

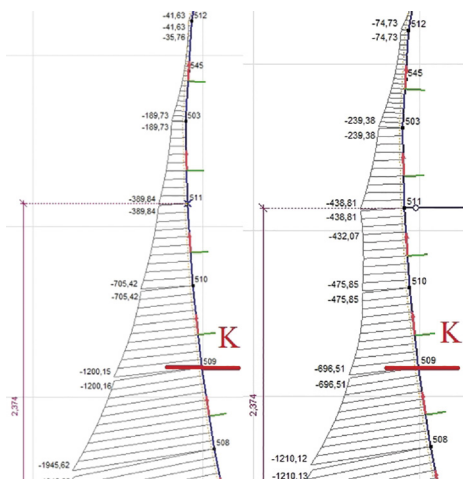


7. ábra Teherbírási görbék hőterhelés előtt
Fig. 7 Load-bearing curves before fire load



8. ábra A kritikus keresztmetszet teherbírási görbéi hőterhelés utáni $T_{max} = 1300^{\circ}C$ nyomatékátrendeződés előtt és után. a: képlékeny csukló nélkül, b: képlékeny csuklókkal, c: dúccal

Fig. 8 Critical cross-section load-bearing curves before and after bending-moment rearrangement after $T_{max} = 1300^{\circ}C$. a: without plastic hinges, b: with plastic hinges, c: with struts

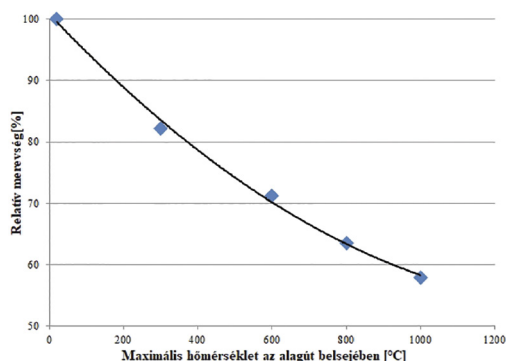


9. ábra A kritikus keresztmetszet tehermentesítése dúc alkalmazásával
Fig. 9 Load reduction of the critical cross-section by using a strut

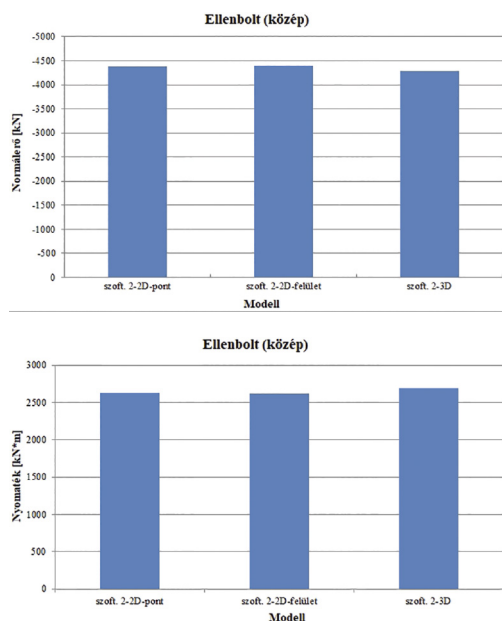
A hőterhelés utáni esetekben az alagútfalazatot két-három mértékadó helyen vizsgáltuk meg, melyek közül a kiekelés kezdeti szakasza volt a kritikus keresztmetszet. Az alagútfalazat belső oldaláról kieső vasak miatt a keresztmetszet nyomási teherbírási pontjának eltolódását nem vettük figyelembe,

mert az eltolódás mértéke elhanyagolhatóan kicsi, a szerkezeti vastagságokhoz képest a falazatban 1,38 mm és az ellenboltban 5,93 mm. A 8. ábra az $1300^{\circ}C$ -os hőterhelés után a kritikus keresztmetszet teherbírási görbéit mutatja eltérő állapotokban. A teherbírási görbéket elkészítettük $1300^{\circ}C$, $1000^{\circ}C$, $800^{\circ}C$,

500 °C, 300 °C-os zónákra is (terjedelmi okok miatt csak a kezdeti és magasabb hőmérsékleti értékeket ábrázoltuk). A tüzeset utáni a hossz tengely mentén változó alagútfal merevséget a 10. ábrán mutatjuk be 20, 800 és 1000 °C-os hőterhelés hatására.



10. ábra Az alagútfalazat merevségének változása a hőmérséklet függvényében
Fig. 10 Change in stiffness of tunnel wall at different temperatures

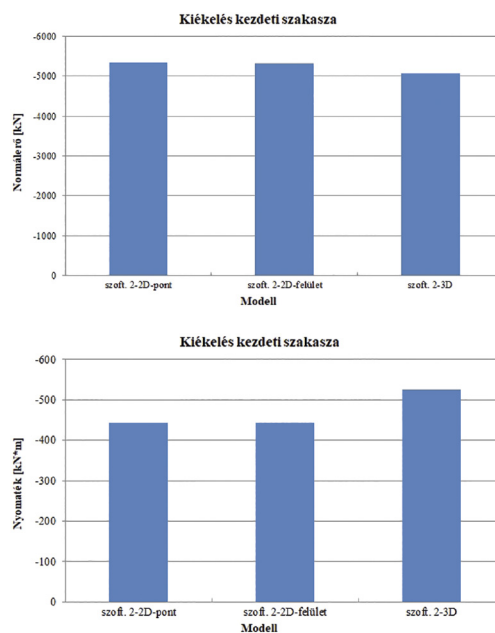


11. ábra Az ellenbolt közepén ébredő, különböző modellekből származó normálereők összehasonlítása, a tüzeset után (felül). Az ellenbolt közepén ébredő, különböző modellekből származó nyomatékok összehasonlítása, a tüzeset után (alul).

Fig. 11 Comparison of normal force after fire in the middle of the invert from different modell types (abowe). Comparison of bending moments after fire in the middle of the invert from different modell types (below).

Ahol a maximális léghőmérséklet elérte az 1300 °C -ot, ott a falazat a belső oldali húzást egyértelműen nem tudta tovább felvenni. A képlékeny nyomatékátrendeződés utáni számítások eredményei alapján kijelenthető, hogy ennek ellenére az alagútfalazat állékony marad. Azonban a kiékelés kezdeti szakaszán, ugyan nem alakul ki képlékeny csukló, mivel a falazat külső oldalon húzott, de keresztmetszet csökkenése és a nyomaték-átrendeződés miatt közel 100%-ban kihasznál (8. ábra). Ezért a tönkremenetelhez közeli keresztmetszet felett (50-100 cm-el) ki kell dúcolni az alagútfalazatot, ekkor az említett keresztmetszetben a nyomaték 60%-ára esik vissza (9. ábra). A 800 °C-ra felmelegedett keresztmetszetekben az előző esettel analóg módon kell cselekedni. Miután a dúcolás

megtörtént megkezdődhetnek a megerősítési munkálatok, minek során el kell távolítani minden olyan sérült betonréteget, amely elérte a 300 °C-ot. A bontási munkálatokat csak kis szélességű, egymástól eltolt zónákban, több ütemben lehet végrehajtani. Ezt követően a felületet meg kell tisztítani és kellően érdesíteni (szükség esetén együttdolgoztató csapokkal ellátni), hogy a megerősítő betonrétegek megfelelően együtt tudjanak dolgozni a régi szerkezettel. A betonréteg felhordása előtt a vasalást rögzíteni kell a falazaton ügyelve arra, hogy a szakaszos megerősítéseknél a vasalás elegendő toldási hosszúságban túlnyúljon a lőtt felületen, hogy a toldások kialakíthatóak legyenek. A megerősítés során célszerű visszaállítani legalább azt a teherbírást, amivel a szerkezet a tüzesetet megelőzően rendelkezett.



12. ábra A kiékelés kezdeti szakaszán ébredő, különböző modellekből származó normálereők összehasonlítása, a tüzeset után (felül). kiékelés kezdeti szakaszán ébredő, különböző modellekből származó nyomatékok összehasonlítása, a tüzeset után (alul).

Fig. 12 Comparison of normal force after fire in the joint of the wall and invert from different modell types (abowe). Comparison of bending moments after fire in the joint of the wall and invert from different modell types (below).

8. Összefoglalás

A modellkísérletek során egy alagútfalazat tűzterhelés előtti és utáni viselkedését vizsgáltuk. A modellek bemenő adatait az „Alagúttüzek hatása az alagútfalazat és környezet teherbírására”, [1] című cikkünk tartalmazza.

1. Ellenőriztük a ható kőzetnyomást „kézi módszerrel” és végeelemes programban. Az eredmények 99 %-ban egyeztek.
2. Vertikálisan terhelt, kör keresztmetszetű ellenőrző alagút modellen igazoltuk a gerenda-rugó modell beállításainak helyességét.
3. Az alagútfalazat igénybevételeit két végeelemes programban is meghatároztuk. Az eredmények megfelelően közel estek egymáshoz, reálisnak tekinthetők. A második programban két gerenda-rugó elven működő síkbeli és egy térbeli modellt készítettünk.

Ép alagútfalazat esetén a modellek eredményeinek eltérése 10-15 %-on belüli (a biztonság javára), tehát elégséges a síkbeli modellek alkalmazása.

4. Kiszámítottuk a hőterhelés utáni alagútfalazat helyettesítő vastagságát. A hőterhelés utáni alagútfalazat két- és háromdimenziós modelljének igénybevétel eloszlásai és maximális értékei közel estek egymáshoz. Sürgős esetben megengedhető az elhanyagolás.
5. A modelleket képlékeny csuklók kialakulása előtt és után is vizsgáltuk. Az alagút igénybevételeit és teherbírását minden állapotban egyszerűsített teherbírasi görbével ábrázoltuk. Az alagútfalazat képlékeny nyomatékatrendeződés után megfelel, de szinte 100%-ban kihasználta, a biztonság csekély. A megerősítési munkálatok csak a falazat dúcolása után kezdődhetnek meg.
6. A megerősítés során a sérült (300°C-nál jobban átmelegedett) betonrétegeket el kell távolítani, a felületet meg kell tisztítani, kellően érdesíteni és nedvesíteni, hogy a megerősítő betonrétegek tapadását biztosítsuk. A megerősítéssel vissza kell állítani az eredeti teherbírását.
7. Az eltérő modell típusok azonos keresztmetszeteinek igénybevételeit oszlopdiagramok segítségével szemléltettük. Az eredmények közel estek egymáshoz, tehát a jelen kutatás eredményei alapján gyors intézkedés szükségessége esetén kellő biztonsággal alkalmazhatók a kétdimenziós modellek is (ennek végleges bizonyítására további nagyszámú vizsgálat szükséges.) (11-12. ábra).
8. Az alagútfalazat hő hatására időben változó merevségét diagramon ábrázoltuk (10. ábra). A falazat teljes vastagságának csak kis része melegszik át, mégis nagymértékű merevségcsökkenést szenved a szerkezet.

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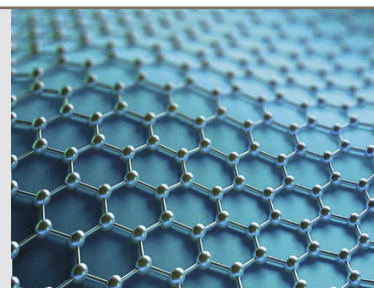
Csanády, Dániel – Fenyvesi, Olivér – Megyeri, Tamás: *Effects of tunnel-fire on load bearing capacity of tunnel-lining and surrounding rock mass. Part 2 (Sectional Calculation)*
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An investigation into practical values of sound transmission loss across natural luffa fibers

Hangátviteli veszteség gyakorlati értékeinek vizsgálata luffa szálakat tartalmazó közegben

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Abstract

Natural fibers could be used as sound insulation due to their advantageous acoustic properties. The main object of this study is to investigate the sound transmission loss (STL) of natural Luffa fibers (LF) due to their availability and sustainability where they would be a good choice instead of synthetic materials that have some health issues. The study has been done experimentally. The work has included a collection of LF from local gardens in Iraq, manufacturing of the specimens and measuring the STL using an impedance tube for selected samples: 20 mm of 970 kg/m³, 30 mm of 880 kg/m³ as well as 30 mm of 600 kg/m³. The effect of both thickness and density of the samples on the values of STL were studied. The results show that the increase of the thickness by adding 10 mm layer improved the STL value by 15-20 %. Also, the increasing of the density enhanced the sound insulation, where the STL value at 880 kg/m³ has improved by 30-40 % comparing to 600 kg/m³ for the same thickness (30 mm).

Keywords: sound transmission loss, acoustic insulation, natural fiber, luffa, sustainability

Kulcsszavak: hangátviteli veszteség, hangszigetelés, természetes szálak, luffa, fenntarthatóság

1. Introduction

Noise has many negative effects on humans including: nervous stress, sleep loss and hearing loss. In addition, acoustic waves may damage sensitive mechanical and electrical systems because of the corresponding vibration and fatigue. For these reasons, sound insulation materials are used to reduce the noise as well as to keep a certain range of calm.

There are two important terms describe the acoustic performance of a material which are the sound absorption and sound transmission loss. The sound absorption is the ability of a material to reduce sound reflections, reverberation, and echo within an enclosed space. While, the sound transmission loss (STL) is the ability of a material, panel, or wall to act as a barrier preventing airborne sound transmission from one space to another [1]. In this study, the sound transmission loss has taken into account where it provides an indication of the sound intensity stopped by a barrier for certain frequency. Insulation materials have the ability to reflect or absorb the sounds nearly at all frequencies [2-3].

Conventional acoustic insulators are evaluated depending on their fibrous construction and sizes of pores for their structure. Thus, most sound insulators are synthetic materials manufactured from combinations of minerals and plastics. Insulators made of synthetic materials, like glass wool, expanded polystyrene and polyurethane foams have many health side effects related to eyes and lungs. Hence, researchers have looked into natural materials and agricultural waste to find alternatives. These types of materials have many benefits as they are cheaper, nonabrasive and renewable. Also, organic substances impose less health and safety issues during processing [4, 5 and 6].

Luffa is a plant grows up in tropical and subtropical regions. It is available locally in Iraq and neighborhood countries, and the fruit is very fibrous so it is used as a scrubbing sponge, as shown in *Fig. 1*. In addition, Luffa usually grows up rapidly and profusely, where it requires 150 to 200 warm days to mature. The fibrous characteristic of Luffa is an encouraging factor of applying it as sound insulation and it would be a contribution to green technology.



Fig. 1 Luffa as a natural material: a) Local plant; b) Sponge shape of Luffa
1. ábra Luffa természetben megtalálható formái: a) termés; b) szivacsnak feldolgozva

2. Literature review

There is currently much interest in developing sustainable insulators, either from natural, biomass or even recycled materials. Natural materials, such as plant fibers could be used to satisfy comfortable environment free of undesired sounds. Many investigations have developed a wide range of natural porous materials, where these materials have shown a bunch of advantages such as availability and no side effects [6].

A study, conducted under the EU HOLIWOOD project a decade ago [7], has tested the performance of several possible absorbers made from natural materials like: cotton, flax and cellulose. Results were compared with those for conventional fiberglass, mineral wool and polymers where the natural materials show encouraged conclusions. The most effective natural absorber was the flax, while cotton fibers have very similar acoustic properties to fiberglass. Cellulose fibers are not attractive where they may be attacked by fungi and dampness.

Nor et al. [8] analyzed the effects of compressing porous layers of Coir fibers on its sound performance, which can be used for automotive applications. Moreover, Nor, et al. [9] investigated the effects of various factors of Coir fiber on acoustic absorption. The results indicated that layer thickness and fiber diameter have important effects on the absorptive behavior of Coir fibers.

Yang et al. [10] studied the acoustic performance of assembled fiber consisting of: cashmere, goose down and kapok. These natural materials had internal structures that influenced the sound absorption as measured against mass, air gap and sound frequency. These fibers showed a good performance at low to medium frequencies, where with low density and tiny diameter, these fibers have good absorption but their performance deteriorated at higher frequencies.

Deveikytė et al. [11] investigated the effectiveness of different configurations of straw and reeds with respect to frequency bands. In order to compare their effectiveness, the specimens of the same density had different thicknesses (5-20 cm). The noise reduction values were between (10-25 dB) within frequency bands range from (100-3150) Hz. The result indicated that thicker specimens have better sound insulation. However, straw and reeds are good at low frequencies, and they could therefore be used to make composite panels of both fibrous and porous panels [12].

Khair et al. [13] used Bamboo as natural material for sound absorption. The result revealed that it is a good sound absorber at high frequency above 3 kHz with a sample of 2 cm long. Improvement of absorption at lower frequency can be achieved by increasing the air gap at the back of the sample.

3. Experimental work

The experimental work included the collecting of LF from a local garden then using spinning machine to rip the fruit and product the raw material yarns. In order to manufacture the composite fibers, the raw material was grinded and peeled it to tiny strings and then mixed with the Urea-formaldehyde resin as a cohesive material. The additional mass due to the resin was 20% of the original mass for each sample. After mixing the fibers with the resin in a mold, the sample has been inserted in the compressing machine, where thermal treatment involving. The

machine was running simultaneously to compact the composite under high temperature. The sample was covered by two plates upper and lower for an approximately 5-7 minutes under pressure of 170 kg/cm². Fig. 2 shows the processes of the manufacturing.



Fig. 2 Processes of manufacturing the composite sample
2. ábra A kompozit anyag előállításának folyamata

Three typical samples have manufactured and tested according to ISO10534-2 in order to determine the effect of both density and thickness on the practical values of STL. The samples were: 20 mm of 970 kg/m³, 30 mm of 880 kg/m³ and 30 mm of 600 kg/m³, as shown in Fig. 3.

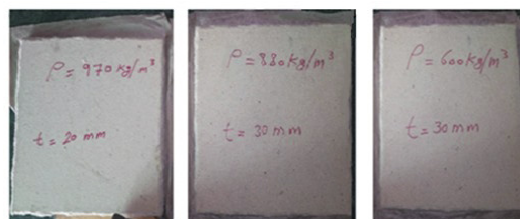


Fig. 3 Samples used in the study
3. ábra A kutatás során használt minták

Measurements of bulk density for the panels have evaluated by taking random set of individual fibers of Luffa and measuring the dimensions and physical properties using electronic microscopy of 50X magnification. Some captured photos of the selected fibers are shown in Fig. 4.

The selected panels have cut into circular shapes (100 mm and 28 mm for each panel) to fit the diameters of the impedance tubes, as shown in Fig. 5.

Measurements were conducted at Noise and Vibration Laboratory, UTHM University, Malaysia. The readings of STL values have obtained using an impedance tube instrument, as shown in Fig. 6. The device allowed the normal incidence acoustic field to flow through the fiber to reach a resonator. Each test was repeated three times to confirm the measurements data where the time that required acquiring the absorber's spectrum by the instrument took approximately 10 s with a resolution of 3.13 Hz. Furthermore, calibration process has been utilized for GRAS-42 AB microphone at calibrations sensitivity of 114 dB at 1 kHz.

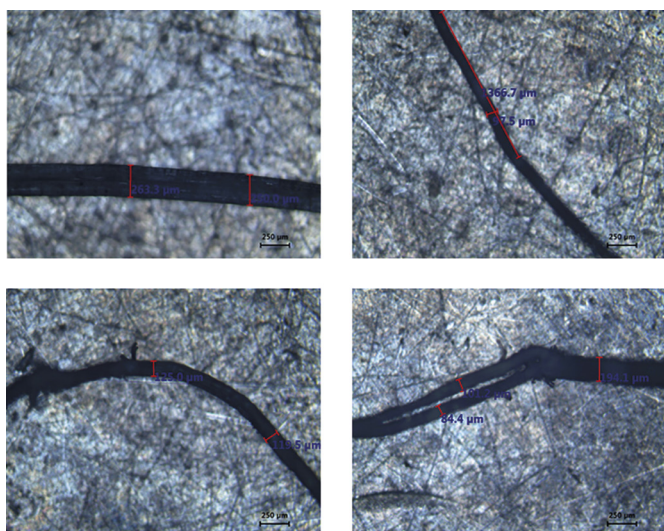


Fig. 4 Photos captured for some selected individual fibers
4. ábra Egyes kiválasztott szálakról készült felvételek



Fig. 5 Samples cut to circular shapes (100, 28 mm)
5. ábra Henger alakúra vágott minták (100 ill. 28 mm átmérő)



Fig. 6 Impedance tube instrument and setup system
6. ábra Impedancia meghatározására használt kísérleti összeállítás

4. Results and discussions

4.1 Effect of thickness

Fig. 7 illustrates the STL values of LF panels treated with Urea Formaldehyde for 20 mm (970 kg/m³) and 30 mm (880 kg/m³) at a range of frequencies from 50 Hz to 5000 Hz. The results show that the STL values of LF panels at 30 mm thickness shifted to up comparing to the 20 mm panel, thus indicated more reliability as a sound barrier. The 20 mm panel reached a maximum value of 24 dB at low frequencies (less than 1500 Hz) and 26 dB at high frequencies. The 30 mm panel (880 kg/m³) reached a maximum value of 28 dB at low frequencies, and 30 dB at high frequencies. So in general, the increasing of the thickness improved the STL value by 15-20 %. A lack of measurement accuracy at frequencies between 1500 Hz and 2000 Hz was apparently marked, due to the combining of the data collected from both tubes in lower and higher frequencies that created unexpected sharp decline in STL curve. However, Luffa fibers (LF) may have less transmission loss in low to medium frequency ranges because the latex applied has not affected on the panel's inelasticity. The well mixing of fibers with sufficient amounts of air gaps may improve this problem to some extent [14].

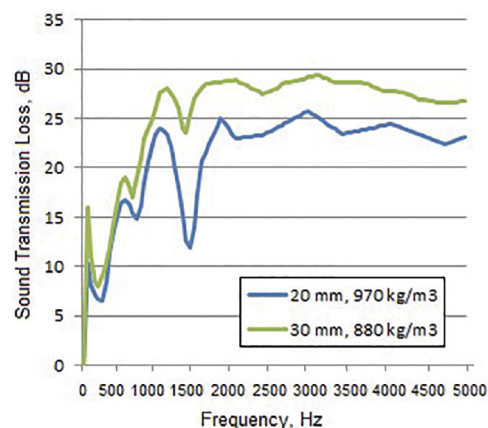


Fig. 7 Comparison of STL values for the effect of thickness
7. ábra Minta vastagság hatása az STL-értékekre

4.2 Effect of density

The STL values from experimental test for the densities (600 and 880 kg/m³) of the same thickness panels (30 mm) are shown in Fig. 8. Maximum STL values at low frequencies were 19 dB and 28 dB for densities of 600 and 880 kg/m³, respectively. Maximum STL values at high frequencies were 22 dB and 30 dB for densities of 600 and 880 kg/m³, respectively. Thus, the STL values have been increased by increasing the value of the density, and in general, the increasing in STL value was 30-40% for current samples. In frequency ranges less than 500 Hz, the difference in STL values between the panels is unrecognized and that is attributed to the high acoustic resistance which leads to diminish sound transmission. Whereas at high frequencies, the improvement was recognized due to lose the ability of dissipation the high sound power.

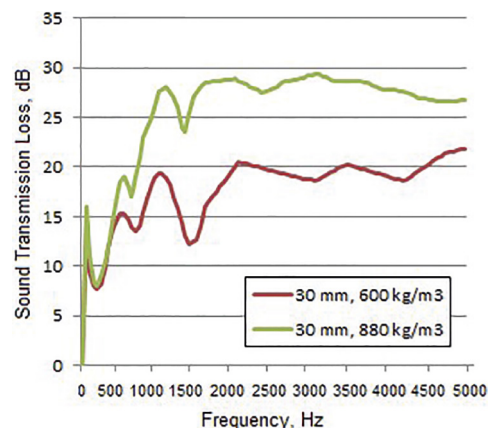


Fig. 8 Comparison of STL values for the effect of density
8. ábra Minta sűrűségének hatása az STL-értékekre

4.3 Sound transmission class

Plots of sound transmission loss are complex and are usually reduced to single number represent the sound transmission class (STC). To determine STC, the values of STL across a barrier could be compared at various frequencies, between 125 to 4000 Hz, to a standard contour. Then a standard curve could be plotted according to ASTM E413 over STL values where the value at 500 Hz is assigned as the STC [15]. The higher STC

value the better sound barrier. Figs. 9, 10 and 11) show the STC values of the selected panels, where the results show that value of STC has increased from 13 dB to 15 dB due to the increasing of the thickness from 20 mm to 30 mm. Evidently, STC value for the higher density of 30 mm panel is increased comparing with the less density one, where it was 11 dB for 600 kg/m³ panel and became 15 dB for 880 kg/m³ panel.

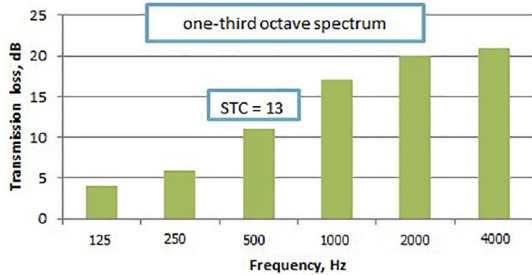


Fig. 9 STC for (20 mm, 970 kg/m³) panel
9. ábra STC értékek a 20 mm vastag, 970 kg/m³ sűrűségű minta esetén

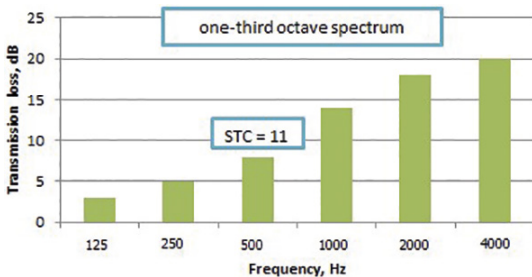


Fig. 10 STC for (30 mm, 880 kg/m³) panel
10. ábra STC értékek a 30 mm vastag, 880 kg/m³ sűrűségű minta esetén

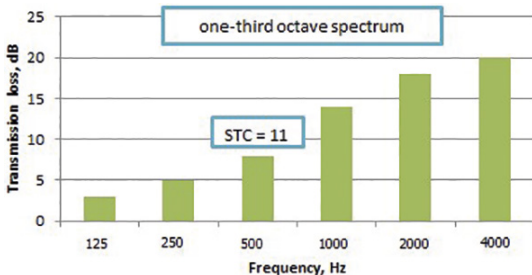


Fig. 11 STC for (30 mm, 600 kg/m³) panel
11. ábra STC értékek a 30 mm vastag, 600 kg/m³ sűrűségű minta esetén

5. Conclusions

The environmental concerns due to the utilization of petroleum resources, called to employ new eco-friendly materials for many applications. Among various natural materials, Luffa fibers (LF) have introduced as a matrix for sound insulation panels, where they have less environmental impacts, more economic advantage and no health side effect. The study has done experimentally by manufacturing Luffa composite panels and testing the sound transmission loss (STL) for selected samples. The effect of both density and thickness of the samples on the values of STL were studied. The results show that by increasing the thickness from 20 to 30 mm, the STL was improved by 15-20%. Also, the increasing of the density increases the STL value, where the STL value for 880 kg/m³ panel improving by 30-40% comparing to 600 kg/m³ panel for the same thickness (30 mm).

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A comparative study of the modified phyllosilicate group of minerals isoprene for a new nanocomposite preparation

Izoprén ásványok módosított rétegszilikát csoportjának összehasonlító vizsgálata új nanokompozit fejlesztéséhez

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Abstract

In this study, new nanocomposites of biopolymers were prepared. Sunflower oil synthesized fatty amides (FA_{SF}), used as an organic compound to change the natural group of mineral clay phyllosilicate, sodium montmorillonite (Na- MMT) and potassium illite (K- ILT). The clay modification was accomplished by stirring the clay particles in an aqueous (FA_{SF}) solution which increases the clay layer distance from 1.28 to 2.79 nm of MMT and 1.18 to 1.33 nm of ILT because the action exchange capacity Na- MMT is much greater than the low cation exchange capacity K-ILT. The improved Na-MMT was then used as a natural rubber (NR) nanocomposite isoprene preparation. The modifier's interaction in the clay layer was defined by X- ray diffraction (XRD). The nanocomposite was synthesized through melt mixing of modified clay (MMT) and NR by a traditional method. Using XRD, transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), the nanocomposite was characterized. The results of XRD and TEM verified nanocomposite growth. Compared to pure NR, NR modified MMT nanocomposites show higher thermal stability. FA_{SF} as a vegetable oil derivative to modify clay will reduce dependence on surfactants based on petroleum. Such nanocomposite is considered environmentally friendly in addition to renewable resources.

Keywords: natural rubber, nanocomposite, fatty amides, phyllosilicate

Kulcsszavak: természetes gumi, nanokompozit, zsírsavamidok, rétegszilikát

1. Introduction

Thermoplastic elastomers are a class of rubber-like polymers, but can be treated as a thermoplastic polymer [1]. When combining rubbers and plastics, the most impressive results were obtained by the thermoplastic elastomers. The most suitable type of rubber for natural rubber producing countries are thermoplastic natural rubber among the different nonplastic rubbers. There have been several studies on processability and rheological properties in this field [2]. Clay (mineral phyllosilicate group) is one of the most commonly used non-black rubber fillers. It is a cheap natural mineral that was an important part of the rubber industry, it is used as an economical filler to adjust the processing and performance of natural and synthetic rubbers, but due to its large particle size and low surface operation, the strengthening ability of clay is small. The clay particles in the polymer matrix could only be spread on the microscale even though the clay consisted of layers of silicate with a planar structure of 1 nm thickness [3-4]. Through general methods of polymer production, the layers can not be isolated from each other. The most recent way to improve clay's enhancement potential is achieved by adjusting clays hydrophilic form to organophilic. This is

achieved by replacing clay interlayer cations with organic cations like alkylammonium. Some researchers have been able to intercalate different polymers in the clay interlayer using modified clay to prepare polymer/clay nanocomposites [5,6]. For modification of Na- MMT and K-ILT, mixed fatty amides (FA_{SF}) synthesized with vegetable (sunflower) oil were used. Modified Na- MMT was used to prepare new nanocomposite rubber/clay and modified K-ILT was used to prepare new traditional composite rubber/clay. In this study, two forms of rubber composite's properties have been explored using the above group of minerals of phyllosilicate. With FA_{SF} as a modifier for production of rubber/MMT nanocomposite and rubber/ILT traditional composite [7], rubber/modified Na-MMT is more thermal stability was observed compared to those used rubber/ modified K-ILT.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Materials

Sunflower was obtained from Ngo Chew Hong Oils and Fats(M) Sdn. Phyllosilicate was from Novo Nordisk, Denmark's. Urea, sodium hydroxide, and hexane were purchased from Merck, Germany. The Malaysian Rubber Board (MRB),

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Malaysia, kindly provided the natural rubber (NR) of SMR (CV60) grade. Both chemicals used were available in the highest purity.

2.2 Preparation of organoclay

Organoclay was made with a method of cationic exchange, where was Na⁺, triacylglyceride synthesized (FA_{SF}) alkylammonium ion was shared in the MMT. The procedure was prepared as mentioned by Al-Mulla et al. [7,8]. In a watery solution, in 600 ml of hot distilled water, sodium montmorillonite (Na-MMT) (4.00 g) was vigorously stirred for 1 hour to form a clay suspension [9,10]. FA_{SF} (4.50 g) was then dissolved in 400 ml of hot water and concentrated hydrochloric acid (16.00 ml). After being vigorously stirred at 80 °C for 1 hour, the organoclay suspension was filtered and washed with distilled water until a 1.0M silver nitrate solution. It was dried for 72 hours at 60 °C. The mixture was ground until the particle size was 100 ml before the nanocomposite was prepared [11-13].

2.3 Preparation of NR/ modified clay

An internal mixer (Haake Poldrive) prepared the planned quality of NR. For the first time, the NR was softened for 1 minute and blended in the second and third minutes with the required amount of modified clay. The compounds were then molded for 10 minutes with a pressure of 150 Kg/cm² in an electrically heated hydraulic press at 130 °C. The compounds were immediately cooled for 5 minutes at the end of the molding cycle [14]. Table 1 lists the quantity of NR and the modified clay used in this analysis.

Sample identity	Weight of NR (g)	Weight of modified clay (g)
NR modif.0	30.00	0.00
NR modif.1	29.70	0.30
NR modif.2	29.40	0.60
NR modif.3	29.10	0.90
NR modif.4	28.80	1.20
NR modif.5	28.50	1.50
NR modif.6	28.20	1.80

Modif.0, modif.1, modif.2, modif.3, modif.4, modif.5 and modif.6 = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 phr, respectively.

Table 1 Weight of modified NR and clay (modified Na-MMT and K-ILT)
1. táblázat Természetes gumi és agyag (módosított Na-MMT és K-ILT) aránya az egyes mintákban

2.4 Characterization

2.4.1 X-Ray diffraction (XRD) analysis

X-ray diffraction study was conducted using Shimadzu XRD 6000 diffractometer with CuK (k= 0.15406 nm) radiation.

2.4.2 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)

A Perkin Elmer model TGA7 Thermogravimetry analyzer was used to test the thermal stability of the samples. The samples were heated from 35 to 800 °C with a 10 °C/min heating rate under the atmosphere of nitrogen with 20 ml/min nitrogen flow rate.

2.4.3 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

The dispersion of clay has been analyzed using electron microscopy (EFTEM) for energy filtering transmission. TEM images were taken in a 120 KeV acceleration voltage LEO 912 AB EFTEM. The specimens were made using a cryomicrotome Ultracut E (Reichert and Jung). With a diamond knife at 120 °C, thin pieces of about 100 nm were sliced [7].

3. Results and discussion

3.1 X-ray diffraction measurements

X-ray diffraction technique was used to measure the distance of the silicate layers from the clay and alkyl ammonium cations from the interlayer. This has also been used to calculate the distribution of modified clays in the NR matrix by the silicate layers. Table 2 indicates the alkylammonium (FA_{SF}-MMT and poorly modified FA_{SF}-ILT) interlayer gap of natural clay (Na-MMT) and modified clays [15]. The interlayer gap of Na-MMT for FA_{SF}-ILT and FA_{SF}-MMT has been extended from 1.18 nm to respectively 1.32 and 1.28 to 2.79 nm.

Type of clay	Exchange cation	2θ (degree)	d-Spacing (nm)
Na-MMT	Na ⁺	6.88	1.28
FA _{SF} -MMT	RCO-NH ₃ ⁺	3.36	2.79
K-ILT	K ⁺	7.80	1.18
FA _{SF} -ILT	RCO-NH ₃ ⁺	6.45	1.32

Table 2 X-ray diffractometer of unmodified MMT, ILT and modified MMT, ILT
2. táblázat Röntgen diffraktométeres mérési eredmények módosított és módosítatlan MMT és ILT esetén

Table 3 summarizes the intercalated silicate layer in NR / unmodified MMT and NR / modified MMT nanocomposites obtained from the XRD study.

Composite/ clay	d-Spacing (nm)					
	1 phr	2 phr	3 phr	4 phr	5 phr	6phr
NR/Na-MMT	1.35	1.37	1.34	1.32	1.30	1.29
NR/ FA _{SF} -MMT	3.05	3.19	3.34	3.21	2.98	2.85
NR/K-ILT	1.22	1.23	1.25	1.21	1.20	1.19
NR/ FA _{SF} -ILT	1.36	1.37	1.38	1.39	1.36	1.33

Table 3 XRD analysis of composites of NR / unmodified MMT, ILT and NR / modified MMT, ILT
3. táblázat Röntgendiffrakciós analízis eredményei: természetes gumi és módosítatlan MMT, ILT kompozitok valamint természetes gumi és módosított MMT, ILT kompozitok

3.2 Thermo gravimetric analysis (TGA)

Fig. 1 shows the weight loss curves for K- ILT, Na- MMT, FA_{SF}-ILT, FA_{SF}-MMT, NR. NR/ 3phr K- ILT, NR/2phr Na- MMT and NR/ 4phr FA_{SF}-ILT microcomposite, NR/ 3phr FS_{SF}-MMT nanocomposite containing water due to hydrated sodium cation (Na⁺) intercalated inside the clay layers. The main difference between the unmodified clay thermogram and the organoclay thermogram is that the organic components in the organoclay decompose between 200 and 500 °C. As temperature rises 165 to 610 °C, the FA_{SF} decomposed. The cycle of decomposition at about 320 °C (Fig. 1c). It can be found that FA_{SF}-MMT decomposition temperatures (Fig. 1e) are higher than K- ILT (Fig. 1a), Na- MMT (Fig. 1b), pure FA_{SF} (Fig. 1c) and FA_{SF}-ILT

(Fig. 1d) temperatures. The increase in FA_{SF} decomposition temperatures in organoclays suggests a strong intermolecular interaction between the cations of alkylammonium and the clay. In other words, their decomposition temperature increases after the FA_{SF} ion is intercalated and bound to the clays silicate layers. Thermo gravimetric analyzes were also performed on the microcomposite NR / 3 phr K-ILT (Fig.1g), NR / 2 phr Na- MMT (Fig. 1h), NR / 4 phr FA_{SF} - ILT (Fig. 1i) and NR / 3 phr FA_{SF} - MMT (Fig. 1j) nanocomposite to assess the effect of unmodified nanocomposite, poorly changed clay (poor organoclay FA_{SF} -ILT) and altered clay material (organoclay FA_{SF} MMT) in the thermal properties rubber matrix, the TGA results are shown in (Fig. 1f, g, h, i, j). The onset of nanocomposite degradation is higher for NR containing FA_{SF} - MMT (Fig. 1j) at 375 °C compared to pure NR (Fig. 1f), NR / 3phr K- ILT (Fig. 1g), NR /2 phr Na- MMT (Fig. 1h), NR / 4 phr FA_{SF} - ILT (Fig. 1i) microcomposite, respectively at 265, 270, 285 and 290 °C.

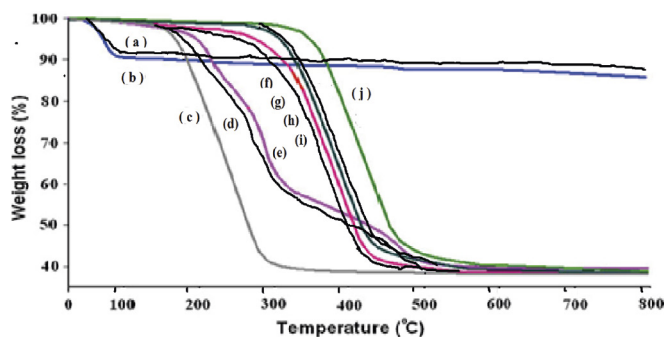


Fig. 1 TGA thermograms of (a): K-ILT, (b): Na-MMT, (c): FA_{SF} , (d): FA_{SF} -ILT, (e): FA_{SF} -MMT, (f):NR, (g): NR/3phr K-ILT, (h): NR/2 phr Na-MMT, (i): NR/4 phr FA_{SF} -ILT, (j):NR/3 phr FA_{SF} -MMT

1. ábra Termogravimetriai vizsgálatok eredményei (TGA): (a): K-ILT, (b): Na-MMT, (c): FA_{SF} , (d): FA_{SF} -ILT, (e): FA_{SF} -MMT, (f):NR, (g): NR/3phr K-ILT, (h): NR/2 phr Na-MMT, (i): NR/4 phr FA_{SF} -ILT, (j):NR/3 phr FA_{SF} -MMT

The results show that the thermal stability improves in (Fig. 1j) with the addition of the FA_{SF} -MMT, up to 3 phr loadings, and an increase above this percentage does not boost thermal stability. The presence of homogeneously dispersed silicate in the polymer surface obstructs the permeability of volatile degradation products from the substrate and helps to prolong nanocomposite degradation [16,17].

3.3 Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

Fig. 2 shows transmission electron microscopy micrographs of NR composites supported by 4 phr FA_{SF} -ILT and 3 phr FA_{SF} -MMT. The FA_{SF} -ILT micrograph of NR/4 phr reveals that stack morphology is completely preserved in the NR matrix due to the incompatibility of both components (Fig. 2a). Dark bundles are the thickness of each layer of clay or agglomerates. Image, Fig. 2b shows TEM images of nanocomposites NR / 3 phr FA_{SF} -MMT showing good properties and composite effects. The dark bundles of the changed clay are scattered with an intercalated state in the NR matrix, which can be seen in the pictures [18]. Table 3 displays the silicate interlayer gap of the clay layer from the XRD study .

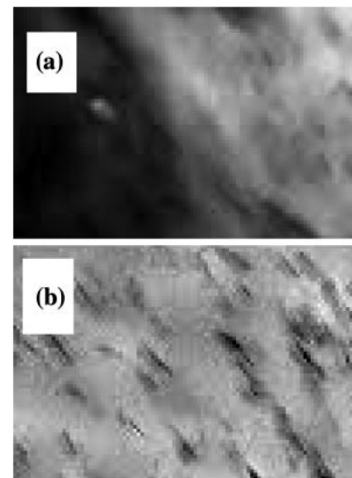


Fig. 2 TEM micrographs of (a): NR/4 phr FA_{SF} -ILT microcomposite and (b): NR/3 phr FA_{SF} -MMT nano-composite

2. ábra Transzmissziós elektronmikroszkóppal készített felvételek: (a): NR/4 phr FA_{SF} -ILT mikrokompozit és (b): NR/3 phr FA_{SF} -MMT nanokompozit

4. Conclusions

Sunflower oil synthesized fatty amides (FASF) have been used as an organic compound to modify the natural group of mineral clay phyllosilicates (Na-MMT & K-ILT). The presence of long chain fatty acids in FASF suggests that they should only be useful as surfactants to modify Na- MMT. Using modified MMT, new rubber / clay nanocomposites (nano- NR) were prepared. Rubber nanocomposites developed using FASF as a modifier display more thermal stability compared to microcomposites produced on the basis of poorly configured ILT with NR, these are considered environmentally friendly nanocomposites.

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*Szomorú szívvel tudatjuk mindazokkal, akik ismerték és szerették,
hogy életének 93. évében elhunyt*

Dr. Boksay Zoltán

kémikus, nyugalmazott egyetemi tanár,
az ELTE Természettudományi Kar egykori oktatási dékánhelyettese.



1927-ben született Budapesten. Középiskolai tanulmányait Kaposvárott és Budapesten végezte, majd 1950-ben szerzett okleveles vegyész diplomát az Eötvös Loránd Tudományegyetemen, ahol 1948-tól már hallgatóként is oktatott. 1971-1997 között egyetemi tanár, közben négy éven át dékánhelyettes az ELTE Természettudományi karán.

1953-tól 1973-ig fizikus hallgatóknak kémia főkéllégiumot tartott, majd 1973-tól 1997-es nyugdíjazásáig vegyész hallgatóknak általános kémiát. Közben 1966-tól több speciális kollégiumi előadáson adta át tudását részben saját kutatási területéről, részben a kémia elvi problémáinak köréből választott témákban. Sok SZTE tagunk emlékezik nagy nosztalgiával a Veszprémi Egyetem 1981-1983. közötti szakmérnöki képzésére, melyen „Az üveg szerkezete és tulajdonságai” című nagyszerű előadássorozatával egy életre elhivatottá tette többségünket az üvegtudomány iránt.

1960-ban az MTA kémiai tudományok kandidátusa, majd 1970-ben az MTA doktora címet szerzett. Behatóan foglalkozott a középiskolai és az egyetemi kémiaoktatás összehangolásával és a permanens egyetemi reformokkal. Nyolc éven át volt az Oktatási Minisztérium Vegyész Szakbizottságának titkára. A hetvenes évektől nyugdíjazásáig az ELTE kémiatanári államvizsga bizottságának elnöke. A középiskolai kémiaoktatást a tanárok továbbképzésével és tankönyvírással segítette. Az Országos Középiskolai Tanulmányi Verseny Kémiai Bizottságának évtizedeken át volt elnöke.

Tudományos munkásságában különösen az üvegelektródokkal és az üveg elektromos vezetésének elméleti és kísérleti tanulmányozásával ért el nemzetközileg is számottevő eredményt.

Kezdetektől tagja volt az MTA Szilikátkémiai és az Elektroanalitikai Munkabizottságának. A tudományos minősítési eljárásokban gyakran szerepelt bíráló bizottsági tagként vagy elnökként, legtöbbször azonban opponensként.

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