

## **THERMAL ANALYSIS IN REACTIVE ATMOSPHERES**

Its practice and applications in high temperature technology

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By using reactive atmospheres, the area of application of thermal analysis is expanded considerably to cover many aspects of high temperature research into fuels, extractive metallurgy, materials and catalysts. This article reviews the design of apparatus and its application in kinetic and thermodynamic studies involving atmospheres such as H<sub>2</sub>, CO, N<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O, SO<sub>2</sub> or <sub>3</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S, S<sub>2</sub>, Cl<sub>2</sub>, HCl, F<sub>2</sub> and HF at low or high pressures and as low pressure plasmas. Apart from gas-solid reactions, the important influence of a controlled product gas atmosphere on decomposition reactions is discussed also. Gas-solid adsorption and solubility studies are not included.

Thermal analysis is usually conducted in atmospheres which do not react chemically with the sample, using apparatus optimised for noncorrosive gases. The most commonly used reactive gas is O<sub>2</sub> (or air) at ambient pressure for monitoring oxidative stability and for quantifying carbonaceous material by combustion. However, as Table 1 shows, thermal analysis has been applied in a great variety of reactive atmospheres – gases, vapours, plasmas, at pressures from micro to kilo bars – largely to research and development problems in high temperature technologies. These technologies utilize gas-solid and decomposition reactions and require kinetic and thermodynamic measurements.

This review describes first the apparatus needed for work in special atmospheres, then the measurement of thermodynamic functions for technologically important gas-solid systems. Next the important effects of a controlled product gas atmosphere on the mechanism of a decomposition reaction are outlined. This leads to a section on kinetic studies of gas-solid and decomposition reactions under the headings of specific atmospheres.

Some remarks made below are also relevant to thermal analysis in self-generated atmospheres, a subject reviewed elsewhere [1].

Table I Areas of application of thermal analysis using reactive atmospheres

ATMOSPHERE	APPLICATIONS
O <sub>2</sub>	Combustion, extractive metallurgy, oxidation stability tests, carbon analysis.
H <sub>2</sub> , CO	Extractive metallurgy, coal hydrogenation, catalysts, materials science, hydrogen storage.
N <sub>2</sub> , NH <sub>3</sub> , NO <sub>2</sub>	Nitriding using N <sub>2</sub> or NH <sub>3</sub> , decomposition of catalysts, and propellants in NH <sub>3</sub> , extractive metallurgy using NO <sub>2</sub> .
CO <sub>2</sub>	Exploitation and analysis of carbonate minerals, processing fuel gases, corrosion.
H <sub>2</sub> O	Coal gasification, materials science, reversible dehydration reaction analysis of plaster.
SO <sub>2</sub> or 3	Cleaning combustion gases, extractive metallurgy.
H <sub>2</sub> S	Cleaning fuel gases, corrosion.
Cl <sub>2</sub> , HCl etc	Extractive metallurgy, analysis of ceramics.
F <sub>2</sub> , HF etc	Nuclear fuel processing.
Plasmas	Materials science

## Experimental

### *Apparatus*

Thermal analysis has been performed in gases and vapours at low and high pressures and in low pressure plasmas. Plasmas and vapours pose specific problems discussed below, but otherwise the apparatus design is dictated by the corrosive nature of the atmosphere, its pressure and its flow arrangement. A flowing atmosphere is preferred at normal and high pressures to facilitate mass transfer but at low pressures the atmosphere is usually static. Below, corrosion problems are discussed for furnaces, thermocouples and thermobalances, and the difficulties in generating and using controlled atmospheres are considered separately for gases, vapours and plasmas.

## 1. Corrosion Problem

### (a) Furnaces

The most corrosive conditions are in the hot zone of the furnace but a suitable ceramic can usually be found (e.g. alumina or mullite). Silica glass is attacked by  $H_2O$  and  $H_2$  near  $1000^\circ$ . Nickel furnace tubes and thermocouple protection sheaths were used by Mitkin *et al.* [2] in TG and DTA apparatus for studying the reactions of solids with  $F_2$  and HF [3–5] at temperatures up to  $600^\circ$ . In high pressure apparatus, a small furnace may be enclosed by a cold pressure vessel [6, 7], or the furnace may surround the pressure vessel [8, 9]. In the latter case, the pressure vessel (usually a tube) is of a suitable alloy; for example, Li and Rogan [10] use Inconel 617 with an alumide coating for work at  $1100^\circ$  and 60 bar of an atmosphere containing  $H_2$  and  $H_2S$ .

In one apparatus [11] for TG in high pressure corrosive gases, the sample holder hangs inside a graphite susceptor which is heated inductively by a cold coil, so minimizing hot corrosion.

DTA or DSC can be performed using a sample holder which is in effect a mini reactor with its own inlet and outlet tubes for a flow of reactive gas at high or normal pressure. This approach is exploited by Setaram in their DSC 111 and C80 calorimeter, which are in a class of their own for versatility in controlled atmosphere work [12].

### (b) Thermocouples

The choice of alloys for exposed thermocouple wires or protection sheaths depends on the atmosphere, its pressure and temperature. Precious metal thermocouples like Pt13%Rh-Pt are suitable for most atmospheres but embrittle in  $H_2$  above  $700^\circ$  and at even lower temperatures in high pressure  $H_2$ . However, chromel-alumel thermocouples have been used for DTA [7] under 600 bar  $H_2$  at  $1000^\circ$  with no reported complications. Chlorine severely attacks all base metal alloys but corrodes Pt13%Rh-Pt more slowly. The combined TG+DTA apparatus of Gimzewski [13] for operation in chlorine and other corrosive atmospheres employs 1 mm id silica sheaths to protect the thermocouples. Ishii [14] uses the same principle in his DTA apparatus for chlorine atmospheres.

### (c) Thermobalance protection

Three approaches to TG in a flowing corrosive gas are shown in Fig. 1 (the additional complications for vapours and plasmas are discussed in the section on atmosphere control). In the simplest apparatus, (a), the corrosive gas flows over a quartz spring balance [15] which may be read

automatically or by a cathetometer. At the other extreme is the ingenious Sartorius magnetic suspension balance [16], (b). Here there is a magnetic rather than solid connection between the balance in its completely sealed chamber and the sample suspension system (TG or simultaneous TG+DTA) in the furnace tube. Furnace tubes are available for work in very corrosive gases (e.g.  $\text{Cl}_2$ ) and at low or high pressures. The third and most popular approach, (c), is to have a stream of inert gas flowing through the balance chamber and leaving through a narrow tube surrounding the suspension wire. The corrosive gas flows upwards over the sample and leaves via the side tube together with the inert stream. However, if the condensation of vapour product on the suspension wire is a problem, this can be prevented by having the corrosive gas enter the side tube and flow downwards, diluted by the inert gas.

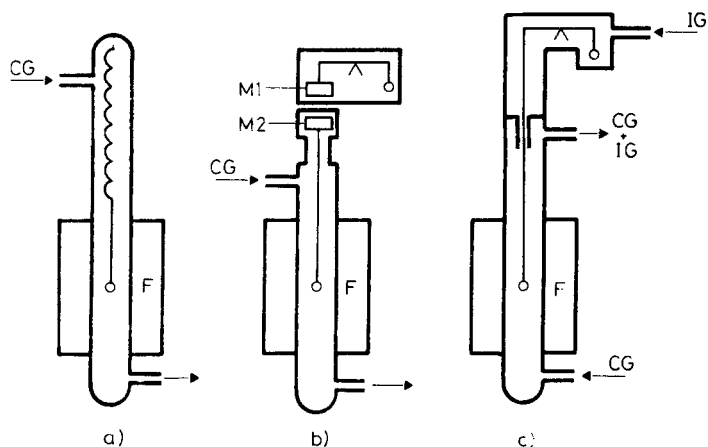


Fig. 1 Three approaches to TG in a flowing corrosive atmosphere: (a) the microbalance is a corrosion-resistant spring; (b) in this Sartorius design, the microbalance is completely isolated in its own chamber and supports the sample suspension rod by attraction between magnets M1 and M2; (c) a chamber containing the microbalance (spring or electronic) is continuously flushed with inert gas.

(Key;  $F$  = furnace;  $CG$  = corrosive gas;  $IG$  = inert gas)

Most commercial TG equipment, whether vertical or horizontal, can be adapted for corrosive gas work at ambient [17–19], and in some cases high pressures [8, 10, 20–22], by using the inert purge principle in Fig. 1(c). For example, the author [13] has used the arrangement in Fig. 1(c) in a combined TG+DTA instrument based on the CI Electronics balance. In Fig. 1, methods (a) and (b) but not (c), are applicable to static low pressures of corrosive gas.

## 2. Atmosphere control

### (a) Gases

The concentration of the reactive gas can be set by dilution with an inert gas or by controlling the pressure of the undiluted gas. The literature on vacuum microbalance techniques [23–25] contains many examples of pressure control systems, therefore only the dilution method will be discussed.

The concentration of a reactive gas in a diluent is set by mixing metered flows of the gases, with special precautions at high pressures. Low concentrations (down to 10 ppm) can be achieved using, for example, a motor-driven syringe pump but the buffer capacity of such mixtures for gas-solid reactions is low. In such cases, it is sometimes possible to use equilibrated mixture of high buffer capacity, such as  $\text{H}_2\text{O}+\text{H}_2$  or  $\text{CO}_2+\text{CO}$  for low  $\text{O}_2$  levels,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}+\text{H}_2$  for low  $\text{S}_2$ , and  $\text{HCl}+\text{H}_2$  for low  $\text{Cl}_2$ .

### (b) Vapours

Problems arise in generating vapours and in preventing their condensation in the apparatus, particularly on the sample suspension rod in TG. Thus it is necessary to maintain all parts of the apparatus above the dew-point of the vapour using, for example, heating tape, small furnaces, jackets of hot water, or by situating all or most of the apparatus in a water bath or fan oven [26–28].

The simplest method of generating a vapour atmosphere is to pass an inert gas (at normal or high pressure) through a thermostatted liquid to achieve the saturated vapour pressure. Another method is to vaporise completely a controlled flow of liquid in, for example, a hot tube packed with metal chips, with a metered stream of diluent inert gas at normal or high pressure. It is also possible to generate the vapour in a flame (e.g.  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  from  $\text{H}_2+\text{O}_2$ ). This is rarely employed, but could be useful for studying the sample in the combustion products of a specific fuel.

All the above methods for generating flowing vapour atmospheres are compatible with the three apparatus designs in Fig. 1 at normal or high pressures.

Danielewski and Mrowec [26] have built apparatus for TG in static low pressures ( $10^{-3}$  to 1 bar) of pure sulphur vapour. The vapour pressure is set by a thermostatted bulb of liquid connected to the type of apparatus in Fig. 1(a), with a vacuum system to evacuate it initially.

A very different method of generating a static vapour atmosphere is shown in Fig. 2 where a controlled inert gas pressure sets the vapour pressure and boiling temperature in a reflux system. The liquid is boiled by a heater

(not a thermostat), and a condenser section dictates the position of the interface between the pure vapour and the pure inert gas. Two versions of the apparatus employ different devices to prevent condensation on the suspension wire in the condenser zone. For example, in Metrot's [29] TG apparatus for studying carbon ( $\sim 10$  g samples) in sodium vapour ( $10^{-4}$  – 0.6 bar), an electric current passed through a looped suspension wire maintains its temperature above the dew-point. On the other hand, in the apparatus of Billing and Balesdent [30] for work in sulphur vapour, the suspension wire is protected by a low pressure purge of inert gas.

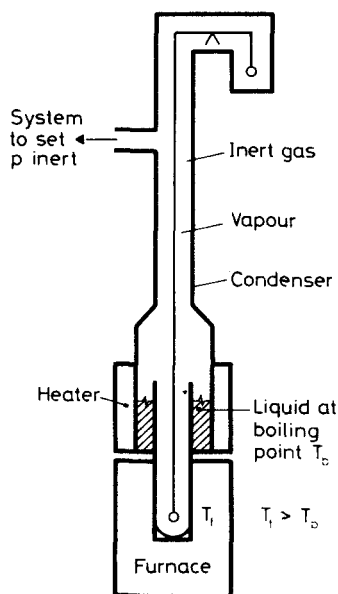


Fig. 2 Thermogravimetry in a refluxing vapour.

A controlled inert gas pressure sets the vapour pressure of the refluxing liquid. The condenser dictates the position of the vapour – inert gas interface. The device for preventing condensation on the suspension rod is not shown (see text).

Setaram and Mettler manufacture accessories for adapting certain of their TG instruments to operate in low pressures of water vapour.

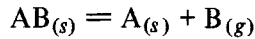
Garn and Kenessy [31] have built an ingenious apparatus for DTA in an undiluted vapour atmosphere (e. g.  $H_2O$  or benzene) which can be static or flowing and at any pressure.

(c) *Plasmas*

The numerous peculiar problems associated with generating a stable low pressure DC plasma in a vertical TG system have been overcome by Veprek and Webb [32]. The system was sufficiently sensitive to measure erosion rates of graphite of one atomic layer per second at 450°C in a hydrogen plasma. Oswald, Veprek and Wirz [33] have also used TG in low pressure radio frequency plasmas.

**Thermodynamic studies**

For equilibria of the type



TG and DTA can be used to measure the equilibrium dissociation temperature  $T_d$  as a function of  $p_B$  [34], from which  $\Delta H$  and  $\Delta S$  are calculated. The method involves heating  $AB_{(s)}$  in an atmosphere with a known value of  $p_B$ . When  $T_{\text{sample}} > T_d$  from the equilibrium  $p_B$  v.  $T$  curve, the sample begins to decompose. Superheating is needed to overcome kinetic barriers to achieve a measurable  $\Delta T$  signal from DTA, but with TG much lower heating rates or isothermal steps can be employed to minimize this error. On cooling the decomposition product,  $A_{(s)}$ , in the same atmosphere, the reverse reaction is detected, with supercooling in DTA experiments. High pressures of  $B_{(g)}$  lead to more accurate results as reaction rates are greater at the higher decomposition temperatures.

When a substance is decomposed in a controlled pressure of product atmosphere, the decomposition events in DTA and TG curves are much sharper and almost always occur at a higher temperature than in an inert gas. This behaviour is exploited in the analysis of decomposable substances in a mixture (see section E).

For gas-solid equilibria involving a non-stoichiometric solid, TG can be used at a fixed temperature and reactive gas pressure to determine the equilibrium composition of the non-stoichiometric solid. For example [35], starting with a sample of  $CeO_{2-x}$  with known Ce content, the value of  $x$  at fixed  $T$  and  $p_{O_2}$  is determined from the final stable weight. Also, the rate of attainment of equilibrium can be used in some cases to calculate the diffusion coefficient and activation energy for the mobile species in the solid.

Where the equilibrium involves more than one gas (e. g.  $MO_{(s)} + H_2(g) = M_{(s)} + H_2O_{(g)}$ ) all pressures must be fixed in an equilibrium study.

Examples of systems studied are given in Table 2.

Table 2 Some thermodynamic studies using thermal analysis with reactive atmospheres

Technique	System	Ref	Atmosphere
TG	CeO <sub>2-x</sub>	(35)	O <sub>2</sub>
	PuO <sub>2-x</sub>	(36)	O <sub>2</sub>
	BaBiO <sub>3-x</sub>	(37)	O <sub>2</sub>
	Fe-S	(26)	S <sub>2</sub> (10 <sup>-3</sup> -0.8 bar)
	Cu-S	(30)	S <sub>2</sub> (10 <sup>-3</sup> -1 bar)
DTA	Mg <sub>2</sub> Ni-H	(22)	H <sub>2</sub> (1-20 bar)
	MgSO <sub>4</sub> = MgO+SO <sub>3</sub>	(34)	SO <sub>3</sub>
	Mg(OH) <sub>2</sub> = MgO+H <sub>2</sub> O	(38)	H <sub>2</sub> O (1-1000 bar)
	U-N	(39)	N <sub>2</sub>
	LiNi <sub>3</sub> -H	(7)	H <sub>2</sub> (1-200 bar)

### The effects of product gas on decomposition mechanisms

Many variables affect decomposition reactions [40] but the focus here is on the chemical effects of a product gas atmosphere.

Many industrial decomposition reactions (e.g. of hydrates, carbonates, sulphates) are reversible; that is, the product gas pressure at the reaction interface is usually high enough to cause a significant reverse reaction [41]. This reverse reaction not only lowers the net decomposition rate, but it can even affect the reaction mechanism [42-46], so influencing the crystallographic nature and microstructure of the product. In that case, atmosphere control becomes a useful new variable for achieving desirable microstructures [47, 48]. However, for the investigator of fundamental chemical kinetics, it is necessary to account accurately for or eliminate the reverse reaction. These points are illustrated very convincingly by Rouquerol and co-workers [42-45], who have exploited the control of product gas pressure, as well as other variables:

- (a) to make very reproducible oxide microstructures with close control of surface area, porosity and pore geometry, and
- (b) to elucidate reaction mechanisms and establish the conditions under which unambiguous fundamental kinetic measurements can be made.

Examples of this work are given in the following section.



## Kinetic studies

Table 1 summarises the areas of application of thermal analysis using reactive atmospheres, and the examples given below illustrate the scope and variety of some of these applications.

### 1. Oxygen

Thermal analysis in  $O_2$  atmospheres is well documented, so only a few topics will be mentioned here.

TG curves are obtained routinely in analytical labs for materials likely to be exposed to air at high temperatures [49], and there have been many fundamental studies [50], especially of metals and alloys. An important recent development is the use of oxygen at high pressures to accelerate long-term oxidation processes. For example [51], the long-term (months) oxidation of lubricating oils can be simulated in about 30 min under 35 bar  $O_2$  at  $180^\circ$  using DSC. TG is widely used to study fossil fuel combustion [52] and sulphide oxidations in extractive metallurgy [53]. In chemical analysis, carbon is determined using TG to follow its complete combustion in  $O_2$ .

### 2. Hydrogen and carbon monoxide

(a) In several industrial processes, natural gas is reacted with steam to give  $H_2 + CO$  for reducing iron ore to sponge iron. TG studies [54, 55] have helped to optimise the process by clarifying the kinetics of the reduction.

(b) Sohn and co-workers [56, 57] have used TG to study the kinetics and mechanism of the reduction of  $CuSO_4(s)$  by  $H_2$  at  $500^\circ$  as part of a proposed new copper extraction process.

(c) Another proposed route for extracting copper and nickel from sulphide ores (MS) uses the reaction  $MS(s) + CaO(s) + H_2$  (or CO) =  $M(s) + CaS(s) + H_2O(g)$ , and TG has been used to screen the reactivity of several sulphide minerals [58] and in a kinetic study [59] of pure  $Cu_2S$ . Won and Sohn [60] have tried to elucidate the mechanism by a TG study of the  $CaO - H_2S$  reaction alone.

(d) TG and DTA have been useful in understanding aspects of coal hydrogenation [61, 126] such as reaction conditions, catalysts and pretreatments. For example, Ghodsi and Neumann-Tilte [8] have built a symmetrical TG apparatus for hydrogenating coal and other carbonaceous substances at temperature up to  $1000^\circ$  and  $H_2$  pressures up to 50 bar. They show the effects of  $T$  and  $p_{H_2}$  on the rate and extent of reduction of an Italian coal.

Cypres *et al.* [9] from the same institute, have built DTA apparatus to study coal hydrogenation under the same conditions to compliment the TG work. By careful calibration, heats of reaction were quantified for the hydrogenation of a Belgian coal at several pressures.

(e) Thermal analysis studies in  $H_2$  and/or CO are important in understanding the preparation, operation and in estimating the activity of catalysts. For example, Soled *et al.* [62] have used TG to follow the reduction and carburizing of the Fischer-Tropsch catalyst  $\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  in CO,  $H_2$  and CO +  $H_2$  with and without thallium and potassium promoters.

(f) An unusual method of assessing the activity of a catalyst for comparative purposes is to use TG [63] to follow its behaviour during repeated cycles of oxidation and reduction in  $O_2$ , He,  $H_2$ , He etc.

(g) Thermal analysis in  $H_2$  has been used to identify different forms of a reducible oxide on a support with which it interacts [64] (e.g. NiO on  $Al_2O_3$ ).

(h) The adoption of hydrogen as a major fuel will require safe and efficient methods of storage, such as the reversible reaction alloy +  $H_2$  = hydride, with alloys like  $Ln_5Ni$ , FeTi and  $Mg_2Ni$ . TG [22] and DTA [7] in high pressure  $H_2$  have been used to study aspects of these reactions, such as phase diagrams (see section C), heats of reaction, kinetics of hydriding and dehydriding, capacity for  $H_2$  storage, and the effects of repeated cycling.

(i) In materials preparation, various compounds are reduced by  $H_2$  to metal powders or metal-metal oxide composites. For some systems, where there are several intermediate oxidation states, the morphology of the final metal is strongly influenced by the reduction mechanism. For example, by using TG in controlled atmospheres of  $H_2$  +  $H_2O$ , it is possible to establish the conditions to produce composites with desired microstructures in the Cu-W-O [65] and Ag-W-O [66] systems much more reproducibly than with  $H_2$  alone.

### 3. Nitrogen-containing atmospheres ( $N_2$ , $NH_3$ , $NO_2$ )

(a) Nitriding reactions are important in materials preparation and in their contamination by atmospheric nitrogen. For example, Pompe has used TG to investigate the nitriding kinetics of an iron alloy in  $N_2$  [67] and the nitriding of a Mn-Si alloy in  $NH_3$  [68]. Mumora and Ouchi [69] have used TG to follow the kinetics of nitriding of  $PuH_3$  in  $NH_3$ .

(b) Uses of ammonium salts include propellants, refrigerants and catalyst precursors, and there have been several thermal analysis studies precursors, and there have been several thermal analysis studies in  $NH_3$  atmospheres

in these areas [70–72, 124]. An example is Stone's [73] use of DTA to demonstrate the strong influence of  $p_{\text{NH}_3}$  on the decomposition mechanism of the solid propellant  $\text{NH}_4\text{ClO}_4$ .

(c) Gimzewski and Hawking [74] have used combined TG + DTA to follow the reactions of several metal oxides with  $\text{NO}_2 + \text{O}_2$ . The aim was to find reactions suitable for extracting metals from oxide ores.

#### 4. Carbon Dioxide

(a) Carbonate decompositions are important in the building, ceramics, glass and chemical industries, in the burning of fossil fuels and in understanding geological processes [75]. In these cases, the minerals decompose in a self-generated atmosphere, so it is important to study them in  $\text{CO}_2$  [76, 77]. As mentioned, this greatly improves the resolution of consecutive reactions, especially at high pressures, a point well illustrated in the DTA study of cerussite ( $\text{PbCO}_3$ ) in 1–50 bar  $\text{CO}_2$  by Yamaguchi *et al.* [78].

(b) Warne [79, 80] has used DTA in  $\text{CO}_2$  to identify and quantify components in carbonate minerals at levels as low as 0.5%, claiming a better accuracy than by x-ray diffraction.

(c) Dobner *et al.* [20] have used TG with  $\text{CO}_2$  pressures up to 4 bar to study the cyclic  $\text{CO}_2$  acceptor reaction  $\text{CaO} \cdot \text{MgO}_{(s)} + \text{CO}_2 = \text{CaCO}_3 \cdot \text{MgO}_{(s)}$  which is used in two coal gasification processes. Their kinetic study investigated variables like decomposition and formation temperatures, partial pressures of  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , number of cycles, and the extent of reaction.

(d) Honkins *et al.* [81] have studied the corrosion of graphite nuclear fuel elements in low pressure  $\text{CO}_2$ . The surface area of the sample was measured gravimetrically in situ before and after the corrosion.

#### 5. Water Vapour

(a) Mühlen *et al.* [82] have followed the kinetics of the steam gasification of char in the presence of  $\text{H}_2$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{CO}$  at temperatures up to  $1000^\circ$  and pressures up to 70 bar.

(b) At the other extreme of pressure, Knudsen-effusion plus mass spectrometry with very low controlled pressures of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  or  $\text{CO}_2$  was used to obtain thermodynamic data for the gasification of graphite-alkali metal systems [83]. This helped to elucidate the role of alkali salts as gasification catalysts.

(c) Rouquerol and co-workers [42–48] pioneered the decomposition of

solids at low, constant rates in controlled pressures of the product gas; the temperature is varied to ensure a constant reaction rate. This technique has shown that the surface area of the alumina obtained by dehydrating gibbsite ( $\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3$ ) is  $430 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  at  $6.5 \times 10^{-3}$  bar  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $40 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  at  $< 2.5 \times 10^{-5}$  bar. Significantly, in each experiment the surface area is a linear function of mass loss, indicating an unchanging reaction mechanism and a well-controlled dehydration. Another interesting effect of  $p_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$  is on the crystallography of the product  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ . A completely amorphous alumina was obtained at  $< 5 \times 10^{-5}$  bar, a slightly crystalline beta alumina at  $< 1 \times 10^{-3}$  bar and a more crystalline chi alumina at  $< 1$  bar. Moves towards the commercialization of this technique have been made by Fierro [48] and Stacey [125].

(d) Reversible dehydration reactions are exploited in some chemical heat pumps, and Anderson *et al.* [84] have used TG in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_{(g)}$  to study the reaction  $\text{BaCl}_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(g)} = \text{BaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . They investigated the dependence of the reaction rate and extent on  $p_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ , temperature, number of cycles, time in the monohydrate form and the extent of dehydration.

(e) Using DTA or TG with an atmosphere containing  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , the dehydrations of  $\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot \frac{1}{2}\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in plaster of Paris [85] are sharp and well-resolved, allowing  $\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  to be quantified at levels usually undetectable by thermal analysis.

(f) The corrosion reaction, important in the nuclear industry,  $\text{Zr}_{(s)} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}_{(g)} = \text{ZrO}_{2(s)} + 2\text{H}_{2(g)}$ , has been studied in TG apparatus which allows simultaneous beta irradiation [86] of the sample to simulate the real corrosion environment.

## 6. Sulphur Oxides

(a) TG has been a major research tool in assessing regenerable absorbents for removing  $\text{SO}_2$  [18, 87–91] and  $\text{SO}_3$  [92] inside fluidized bed coal combustions. For example, O'Neil *et al.* [89] have used TG to follow reactions of limestone, decomposed limestone, dolomite and half-decomposed dolomite under the conditions of a pressurized fluidized bed combustor ( $730\text{--}950^\circ$ , 1–10 bar, 0.1–0.5%  $\text{SO}_2$ , 3–12%  $\text{O}_2$ , 0–1.5 bar  $\text{CO}_2$ ). The  $\text{CO}_2$  suppressed the decomposition of the carbonate, therefore  $\text{SO}_x$ -carbonate reactions could be assessed and were found to be more attractive than  $\text{SO}_x$ -oxide reactions. Ulerich *et al.* [90] followed up this work with a study to compare the TG data with results from the Exxon pressurised miniplant.

(b) In one of the most ambitious uses of TG in this field (or any other) Ruth and Varga [18] assessed a large number of potential  $\text{SO}_2$  ab-

sorbents, with particular attention to absorption capacity after many regeneration cycles.

(c) In extractive metallurgy, oxide and sulphide sulphation reactions occur in fluidized beds [94]. Hocking and Alcock [93] have used TG in a detailed study of the mechanism and kinetics of the reaction of  $\text{Cu}_2\text{O}$  with equilibrated  $\text{SO}_2 + \text{O}_2$  mixtures.

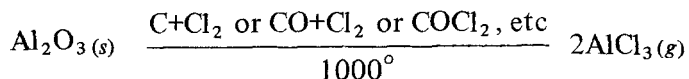
### 7. Hydrogen Sulphide

(a) Dobner *et al.* [20] and others [10, 95] have used high pressure TG to study both directions of the gas-cleaning reaction  $\text{CaCO}_3 \cdot \text{MgO}_{(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{S} = \text{CaS} \cdot \text{MgO}_{(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$  under plant conditions. These were absorption at  $750^\circ\text{C}$ , 21 bar, 0.5%  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , 48%  $\text{H}_2$ , 5%  $\text{CO}_2$ , 46.5%  $\text{N}_2$ , and regeneration at  $750^\circ\text{C}$ , 21 bar, 40%  $\text{CO}_2$ , 50%  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 10%  $\text{H}_2$ . The effects of repeated recycling (up to 30 times) showed that the extent of the forward reaction stabilized at 45% conversion.

(b) Nowak *et al.* [96] have studied the effect of the composition of brass on its sulphidation in  $\text{H}_2\text{S} + \text{H}_2$ , showing that the rate limiting step is cation diffusion through a sulphide layer.

### 8. Chlorine-containing Atmospheres

(a) In extractive metallurgy there have been many thermoanalytical (mostly TG) studies of oxides [97–102], sulphides [103–105] and silicates [14], pure and as minerals, and of metals [97, 98], in atmospheres such as  $\text{Cl}_2$ ,  $\text{Cl}_2 + \text{CO}$ ,  $\text{COCl}_2$ ,  $\text{CCl}_4$ ,  $\text{Cl}_2 + \text{O}_2$ ,  $\text{HCl}$ ,  $\text{FeCl}_3$  and  $\text{S}_2\text{Cl}_2$ . For example, the reaction



has been intensively studied for extracting aluminium from various aluminas [106–111], kaolin [112], plagioclase [113], bauxite [114] and fly ash [114]. Here TG is ideal for assessing the reaction rate, selectivity and yield with various promoters (e. g. S, NaCl or  $\text{BCl}_3$ ), types of carbons or other reducing agents (e. g. CO,  $\text{CCl}_4$ ), or pretreatments.

(b) Nickl and v. Braunmühl [115] and Wiedemann [116] have accurately determined the stoichiometry of ceramic-grade carbides by following the weight loss in  $\text{Cl}_2$  at  $1000^\circ$  (chlorination-vaporization of the metal component), then in  $\text{O}_2$  at  $600^\circ$  (oxidation of the carbon residue).

### 9. Fluorine-containing Atmospheres

Most of the thermoanalytical studies in fluorine-containing atmospheres [3–5, 117–122] are of the actinide compounds used in the nuclear fuels industry. The TG studies include the reaction kinetics of  $F_2$  with  $UO_2$  [117],  $U_3O_8$ ,  $UO_3$  [118],  $PuO_2$ ,  $UF_4$ ,  $PuF_4$  [119] and UC [120], of HF with  $UO_2$  [121], and of  $ClF_3$  with  $UF_4$  [122]. Nikonorov *et al.* [3] have used DTA to follow many reactions of solids with  $F_2$ ,  $ClF_3$  and  $XeF_4$ , including those of the platinum group metals with  $F_2$ .

### 10. Plasmas

Gimzewski *et al.* [123] have compared the DC plasma and neutral gas hydriding of titanium to simulate the interaction of that metal with deuterium and tritium in proposed nuclear fusion reactors. The attainment of the equilibrium hydrogen concentration in the metal was ten times quicker in the DC plasma at the same temperature and hydrogen pressure.

## Conclusions

Thermal analysis in reactive atmospheres is an important tool in research and development programmes in many branches of high temperature technology, particularly fuels (fossil, synthetic and nuclear). It is versatile and cost-effective, capable of obtaining fundamental data and of simulating many aspects of a commercial process quickly and with relatively little manpower. However, although its application to gas-solid reactions is widely appreciated, its role in studying decomposition reactions has only recently attracted attention from technologists despite the excellent pioneering work of Rouquerol and co-workers.

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**Zusammenfassung** – Das Anwendungsgebiet der thermischen Analyse wird durch Arbeiten in reaktiver Atmosphäre beträchtlich erweitert, so dass Hochtemperaturuntersuchungen auf solchen Gebieten wie Brennstoffe, extractive Metallurgie, Material- und Katalysatorforschung möglich werden. Dieser Übersichtsartikel behandelt die Konstruktion der Geräte und ihre Anwendungen bei kinetischen und thermodynamischen Untersuchungen in solchen Gasphasen wie  $H_2$ ,  $CO$ ,  $N_2$ ,  $NH_3$ ,  $CO_2$ ,  $SO_2$  oder  $S$ ,  $H_2S$ ,  $S_2$ ,  $Cl_2$ ,  $HCl$ ,  $F_2$  und  $HF$  sowie im Niederdruckplasma. Ausser Gas-Festkörperumsetzungen wird auch der Einfluss einer geregelten Produktgas-Atmosphäre auf Zersetzungsreaktionen diskutiert. Auf die Adsorption von Gasen an Festkörpern und Löslichkeitsuntersuchungen wird nicht eingegangen.

**РЕЗЮМЕ** — Область применения термического анализа при использовании реакционных газовых атмосфер может быть значительно расширена, включая многие аспекты высокотемпературных исследований топлив, металлургического извлечения, различных веществ и катализаторов. Приведено обозрение соответствующей аппаратуры и ее применения в кинетических и термодинами-

ческих исследованиях с использованием таких газовых атмосфер, как водород, фтор, хлор, окись углерода и двуокись углерода, аммиак, паров воды, двуокиси- и трехокиси серы, сероводорода, серы, фтористого и хлористого водорода при низком или высоком давлении, также как с использованием плазмы низкого давления. Помимо реакций газ — твердое тело, обсуждено также важное влияние на реакции разложения контролируемой образующейся газовой атмосферы. В обсуждение не включены исследования растворимости и адсорбции газ-твердое тело.