

Thermal analysis of a white calcium bentonite

Hale Bayram · Müşerref Önal · Hamza Yılmaz ·
Yüksel Sarıkaya

Received: 10 August 2009 / Accepted: 24 November 2009 / Published online: 5 January 2010
© Akadémiai Kiadó, Budapest, Hungary 2010

Abstract A white calcium bentonite (CaB) taken from Çamlıdere (Ankara, Turkey) region was heated at various temperatures between 100 and 1100 °C for 2 h. The mineralogy of the CaB was determined as calcium smectite (CaS), metahalloysite (MH), opal-A (OA), opal-CT (OCT), quartz (Q), feldspar (F), and calcite (C) using the X-ray diffraction patterns of the natural CaB and its heated samples. Besides the XRD patterns, the thermogravimetry, differential thermal analysis, and low-temperature nitrogen adsorption (N_2 -AD) data show that the CaS lose adsorbed and hydration water up to 300 °C, dehydroxylation takes place between 300 and 750 °C, and then the 2:1 layer structure completely collapses above 900 °C. The activation energies for the dehydration and dehydroxylation were calculated as 7636 and 48838 J mol⁻¹, respectively, from the TG data using Coats and Redfern method. The specific surface area (S) and specific micro–mesopore volume (V) obtained from N_2 -AD data were 44 m² g⁻¹ and 0.100 cm³ g⁻¹ for the natural CaB. S and V reach their maxima of 105 m² g⁻¹ and 0.155 cm³ g⁻¹, respectively, at 300 °C, remain approximately constant as the temperature increases up to 700 °C and then decrease almost in parallel with each other, reaching their minima at 900 °C. This indicates that the S and V values increase gradually during dehydration and dehydroxylation of the CaS.

Keywords Activation energy · Bentonite · Dehydration · Dehydroxylation · Pore volume · Surface area

Introduction

Bentonitic clays, currently in use in over a hundred areas, are among the most important industrial raw materials [1–4]. The color of bentonites may be white, gray, green, blue, yellow, pink, and brown, depending on their mineralogical and chemical compositions. White bentonites are rare and are usually consumed for the production of ceramics, paper, detergents, paint, cosmetics, and clarification of wine [5, 6]. Principal clay minerals of bentonites are smectites such as montmorillonite, beidellite, saponite, nontronite, hectorite, and laponite [7]. Bentonites are predominantly consists of montmorillonite rather than other smectites. Bentonites may also contain other clay minerals and nonclay minerals as impurities [8]. One or more of the other clay minerals such as kaolinite, halloysite, illite, and chlorite may be present as impurities at various extents. The most common nonclay minerals in bentonites are silica polymorphs, zeolites, feldspars, carbonates, gypsum, and pyrite.

A smectite is a 2:1 layer clay mineral and has two silica tetrahedral (T) sheets bonded to a central alumina octahedral (O) sheet [7]. Smectites are described either dioctahedral or trioctahedral depending upon whether the octahedral cations are predominantly trivalent or divalent, respectively. The net negative electric charge of the 2:1 (TOT) layers arising from the natural isomorphic substitution of Al³⁺ with Fe²⁺ and Mg²⁺ in the octahedral sites and Si⁴⁺ with Al³⁺ in tetrahedral sites is balanced by the exchangeable cations such as Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ located between the layers and surrounding the edges. The equivalent amount of exchangeable cations

H. Bayram
Atatürk Faculty on Education, Marmara University,
Göztepe, İstanbul, Turkey

M. Önal (✉) · H. Yılmaz · Y. Sarıkaya
Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Science, Ankara
University, Tandoğan 06100, Ankara, Turkey
e-mail: onal@science.ankara.edu.tr

per kilogram smectite or clay minerals is defined as cation exchange capacity (CEC). The mineral is named Na-smectite (NaS) or Ca-smectite (CaS), as the exchangeable cation switches from Na^+ to Ca^{2+} . A clay which contains NaS or CaS as dominant mineral is called Na-bentonite (NaB) or Ca-bentonite (CaB). The Na^+ and/or Ca^{2+} cations are hydrated between the 2:1 layers of smectite. Generally, NaS has one, and CaS has two water layers in the interlayer space. As the X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns indicate, the basal spacing, $d(001)$, of the air-dried NaS and CaS are 1.26 to 1.54 nm, respectively [9]. This value for the anhydrous NaS and CaS is approximately 1.0 nm.

Each particle in a smectite rock or powder is an agglomerate form by large numbers of 2:1 layers. Relatively large size smectite agglomerates can be turned into smaller particles of sizes below 2 μm by keeping in water for a long time 24 h [10]. Agglomerates in smectite cause voids of different sizes. The voids whose widths are smaller than 2 nm, between 2 and 50 nm, and greater than 50 nm are called micropores, mesopores, and macropores, respectively [11]. Recently, all these pores are called as nanopores [12]. The radius of a pore, assumed to be cylindrical, can be taken as half of the pore width. The volume of pores in 1 g of solid is defined as the specific pore volume. The area of the inner and outer walls of the pores located within and among particles in 1 g solid is taken as specific surface area [13]. The pores within an air-dried natural smectite fill up with water. The content of water in macropores that can be removed by heating up to 100 °C for a long time is called moisture of smectite or bentonite. The remaining water located in mesopores, micropores, and interlayer of smectite evaporates completely when heated up to 300 °C [14].

Bentonites and their major clay minerals smectites may be used both naturally and after some physicochemical treatments such as acid activation, ion exchange, and heating as applicable for the area of use [9, 15]. In some of these areas, the bentonite may experience high temperatures [16–19]. Such thermal treatment can affect properties such as strength, swelling, adsorptivity, CEC, porosity, surface area, surface acidity, and catalytic activity [20–30]. Thermal behaviors of a bentonite vary greatly depending on its mineralogy, smectite content, and crystal structure of smectite. Accordingly, details of the thermal modification of each bentonite may better be investigated separately before deciding its value for a specific application area. The aim of this study is to find the changes in mineralogy, crystal structure, surface area, and porosity of a white bentonite by heat treatments between 25 and 1000 °C. Activation energies for dehydration and dehydroxylation of the smectite, the major clay mineral, are estimated from thermal analysis data.

Experimental

A white calcium bentonite (CaB) taken from Ankara region, Turkey, was used in the experiments after grinding to pass through a 0.074-mm (200 mesh) sieve. The bulk chemical analysis of the dried CaB at 105 °C for 4 h is as mass%: SiO_2 72.08, TiO_2 0.08, Al_2O_3 14.77, Fe_2O_3 0.80, MgO 1.63, CaO 2.15, Na_2O 0.43, K_2O 1.05 and loss on ignition (LOI) 6.98. The CEC (by the methylene blue method) is 0.78 equiv kg^{-1} .

The bentonite samples, each weighing 10 g, were heated to 1100 °C in 100 °C intervals with a rate of 10 K/min and were thermally treated by keeping at each temperature for 2 h in a furnace (Protherm, PLF 12077, Alser). The XRD patterns of natural and thermally treated samples were recorded from random mounts prepared by glass slide method using a Rikagu D-Max 2200 Powder Diffractometer, operating at 40 kV and 30 mA, using N-filtered CuK_α radiation having 0.15418 nm wavelength, at a scanning speed of 2° 20 min^{-1} [8].

The differential thermal analysis (DTA) and thermogravimetry (TG) curves of the air-dried and dried (105 °C, for 4 h) CaS samples were recorded by a Shimadzu Apparatus (DTG-60H). For this purpose, approximately 20 mg of sample was placed in a platinum crucible on the pan of the microbalance and was heated in the range 25–1000 °C using $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ as an inert material. Analysis was performed under flowing nitrogen (with a flow rate of 100 ml min^{-1}) using a heating rate of 10 K/min.

The adsorption and desorption data of N_2 , at liquid N_2 temperature, on the natural and thermally treated samples were obtained by a volumetric adsorption instrument of Pyrex glass connected to a high vacuum system [4, 31]. Before each measurement, the samples were outgassed at 150 °C for 4 h under a vacuum of 10^{-3} mmHg. Gas adsorption monometry was used for the determination of the amount of the nitrogen adsorbed [13, 32].

Results and discussion

Mineralogy of the bentonite

The XRD patterns of the natural and all thermally treated bentonite samples were examined, and representative ones, are given in Fig. 1. The minerals in the bentonite were identified by their characteristic XRD-peaks [8]. Thus, the bentonite contains smectite (S) and metahalloysite (MH) as the major and minor clay minerals, respectively, as indicated on the XRD-pattern of the natural bentonite. The value of the basal spacing, $d(001) = 1.5771$ nm, indicates a calcium-rich smectite (CaS) as major clay minerals in the

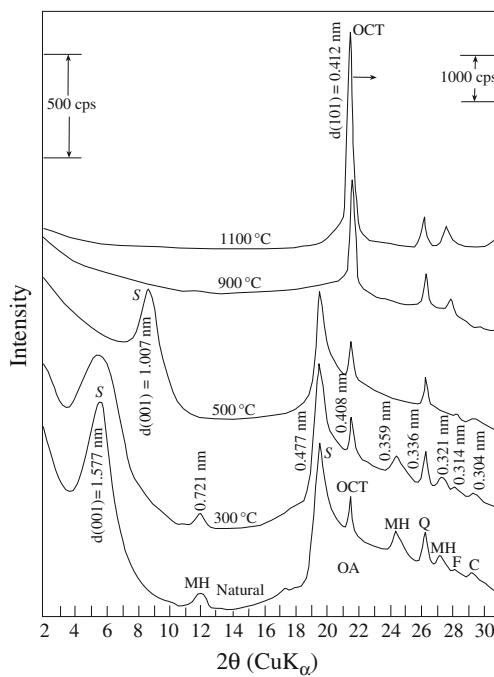


Fig. 1 The XRD patterns of the natural and some acid-activated bentonite samples (*S* smectite, *MH* metahalloysite, *OA* opal-A, *OCT* opal-CT, *Q* quartz, *F* feldspar, *C* calcite)

bentonite and the clay is a calcium bentonite (CaB). The white color of the CaB is originated from the less iron content as seen in chemical analysis. The less amount metahalloysite is a kaolin group mineral and formed after dehydration of the intercalated water of halloysite.

The nonclay minerals in the bentonite are opal-A (OA), opal-CT (OCT), quartz (Q), feldspar (F), and calcite (C). According to the XRD peak intensities, the amount of OCT, Q, F, and Q seem to be too small. The large area of the diffuse XRD-band centered at 2θ of 18–25° indicates the abundance of the OA. The OA and OCT are the amorphous and paracrystalline silicas ($\text{SiO}_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$), respectively, while Q is crystalline silica (SiO_2) [33].

Thermal changes in the CaB

As seen in Fig. 1, the 001 peak of the CaS decreases in intensity and increases in width while maintaining its position after heating from 25 to 300 °C. The position of the 001 peak shifted to right and $d(001)$ value decreased from 1.577 to 1.007 nm after heating between 300 and 500 °C, and then disappeared at 900 °C. The shifting indicates the collapse of the interlayer spaces after the dehydration of water coordinated to the exchangeable cations is complete. The disappearance shows the collapse of the 2:1 (TOT) layer structure of the CaS.

Thermal changes in the OA and OCT

As seen in Fig. 1, while the decrease in the intensity of the 101 XRD-peak for opal-CT is slow up to 900 °C, it diminishes rapidly up to 1100 °C. The position of the 101 peak shifted to left after heating 1100 °C and $d(101)$ value increased from 0.408 to 0.412 nm after heating up to 1100 °C. The increase in the intensity and $d(101)$ value represent the increase in paracrystallinity of the opal-CT [34, 35]. The increase in the intensity of the 101 peak may also be due to the conversion of amorphous OA in bentonite to paracrystalline OCT and creation of new opal-like material from the decomposition of the smectite at the temperatures above 900 °C [36, 37].

Thermal changes of the other minerals in the CaB

The loss of the peaks at 0.721, 0.359, and 0.321 nm shows an irreversible folding of MH structure, while the heating temperature reaches to 500 °C [38]. Absence of the peaks at 0.314 and 0.304 nm indicates the decomposition of the F and calcinations of the C, respectively, up to 900 °C. The unchanged intensity and width of the peak at 0.336 nm represent that the crystallinity of the Q is not affected by the heating process up to 1100 °C.

Thermal analysis

Thermal analysis combined with other techniques such as chemical analysis and XRD is suitable for the examination of clays and their derivatives, as with other materials [39–46]. TG and DTA curves of the natural CaB sample (dried at 105 °C for 4 h) are given in the Fig. 2 for the temperature range of 25–1000 °C. Four endothermic and one exothermic change are seen in the DTA curve. The temperature interval, maximum rate temperature, and mass loss of these changes are shown on the TG and DTA curves in Fig. 2.

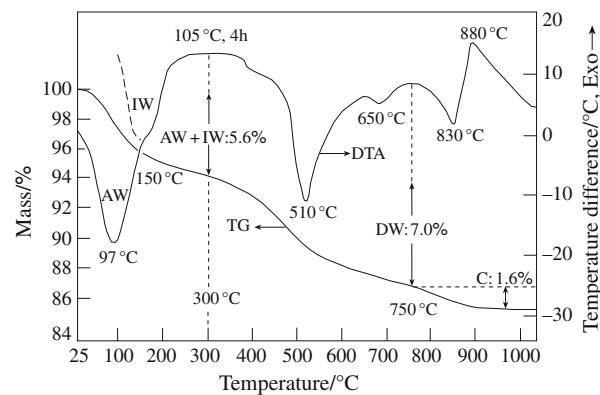


Fig. 2 The TG and DTA curves of the natural bentonite dried at 105 °C for 4 h (AW adsorbed water, IW interlayer water, DW dehydroxylation water)

The first and dominant endothermic peak between 25 and 300 °C is due to the dehydration of adsorbed water (AW) and interlayer water (IW) with the maximum rate at 97 and 150 °C, respectively. The mass loss by the dehydration is 5.6%. This percentage is subject to change depending on preheating temperature and time before thermal analysis. For example, it is 14.6% for air dried natural CaB. The difference $14.6 - 5.6 = 9.0\%$ gives the moisture (W) of the sample. However, the W, AW, and IW cannot be strictly distinguished from each other. The interlayer spaces collapse after complete dehydration. Dehydration causes changes in the porosity, surface area, surface acidity, CEC, and hydrophilic behavior of smectites [29, 30, 47, 48].

The mass loss of 7.0% between 300 and 750 °C is due to the evaporation of dehydroxylation water (DW) from the CaB and MH which are the major and minor clay minerals, respectively. Two endothermic peaks at 510 and 650 °C are due to the dehydroxylation from the *trans*-vacant (tv) and *cis*-vacant (cv) 2:1 layers of the CaS, respectively [49–52]. The peak intensities show that the tv 2:1 layers are more dominant than the cv 2:1 layers. The content of tv and cv 2:1 layers cannot be differentiated exactly. The tv and cv 2:1 layers can be transformed into each other by heating. Dehydroxylation destroys the layer structure of trioctahedral smectites. Inversely, the layer structure of dioctahedral smectites is preserved on dehydroxylation [53, 54]. As seen in the chemical analysis, the low MgO% and high Al₂O₃% show that the CaS in the examined CaB is a dioctahedral smectite. Some physicochemical properties of smectite such as CEC, porosity, surface area, and surface acidity decrease to zero above the dehydroxylation temperature [29, 30].

The endothermic mass loss of 1.6% between 750 and 1000 °C with a maximum rate at 830 °C mainly originates from the calcinations of the trace amount of calcite (CaCO₃) in the CaB. The exothermic change without mass loss with a maximum rate at 880 °C shows the recrystallization of the dehydroxylated CaS.

Activation energies for the dehydration and dehydroxylation

Several methods have been used to evaluate activation energy of solid-state reactions involving mass loss by TG [27, 55, 56]. Some solid-state reaction such as dehydration and dehydroxylation can be shown as, solid (1) → solid (2) + gas. The activation energy (*E*) for this reaction can be calculated from the Coats and Redfern equation as follows [57, 58]:

$$\ln\{[-\ln(1-\alpha)]/T^2\} = -(E/RT) + \ln[(AR/\beta E)(1 - 2RT/E)] \quad (1)$$

here, α is the dehydration or dehydroxylation fraction calculated from TG data, *T* is the temperature (K), *R* is the

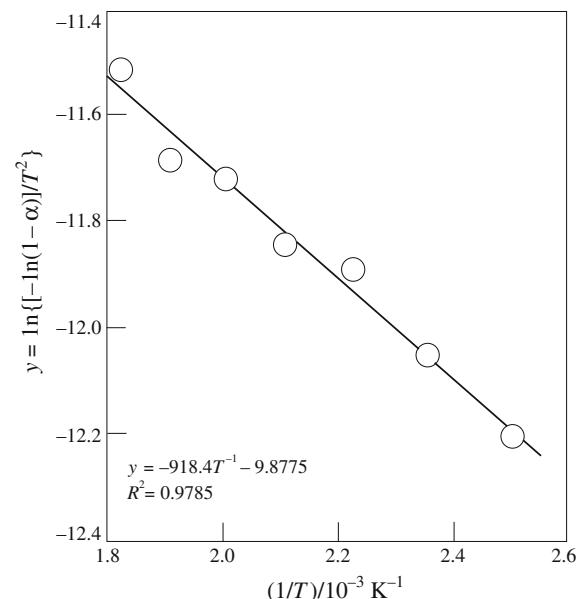


Fig. 3 Coats-Redfern straight line for the dehydration of the smectite

universal gas constant, *A* is the frequency factor, and $\beta = dT/dt = 10 \text{ K s}^{-1}$ is the heating rate. Despite the temperature dependence, the second term in this equation is nearly constant.

The ratio of a mass loss at each temperature below 300 °C to the total mass loss at this temperature is defined as dehydration fraction (α_1). The Coats-Redfern straight line for the dehydration is obtained using the calculated α_1 values and reciprocal of absolute temperatures (*1/T*) and given in Fig. 3. The activation energy for the dehydration is calculated from the slope of this straight line as $E_1 = 7636 \text{ J mol}^{-1}$.

The ratio of a mass loss at each temperature between 300 and 750 °C to the total mass loss at this temperature is defined as dehydroxylation fraction (α_2). The Coats-Redfern straight line for the dehydroxylation is given in Fig. 4. The activation energy for the dehydroxylation is calculated from the slope of this straight line as $E_2 = 48838 \text{ J mol}^{-1}$. The activation energy of the dehydroxylation is found to be higher than that of the dehydration.

Surface area and porosity

The specific areas (*S*) of the natural and heated CaB samples were determined by the Brunauer, Emmett, and Teller (BET) method using the nitrogen adsorption data from the relative equilibrium pressure interval 0.05–0.35 [59]. The specific micro- and mesopore volumes (*V*) of same samples were calculated from the adsorption capacity as liquid nitrogen volume obtained from desorption isotherm at the relative equilibrium pressure 0.96 [11, 13, 60]. The changes in *S* and *V* by the heating temperature are given in Fig. 5. The values

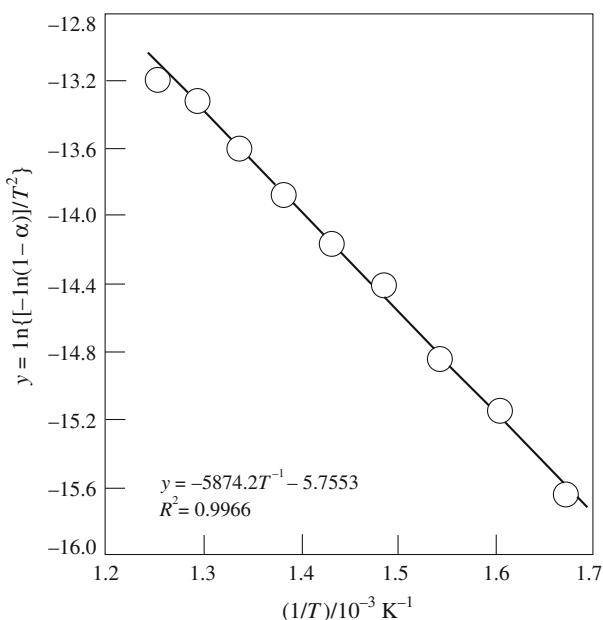


Fig. 4 Coats–Redfern straight line for the dehydroxylation of the smectite

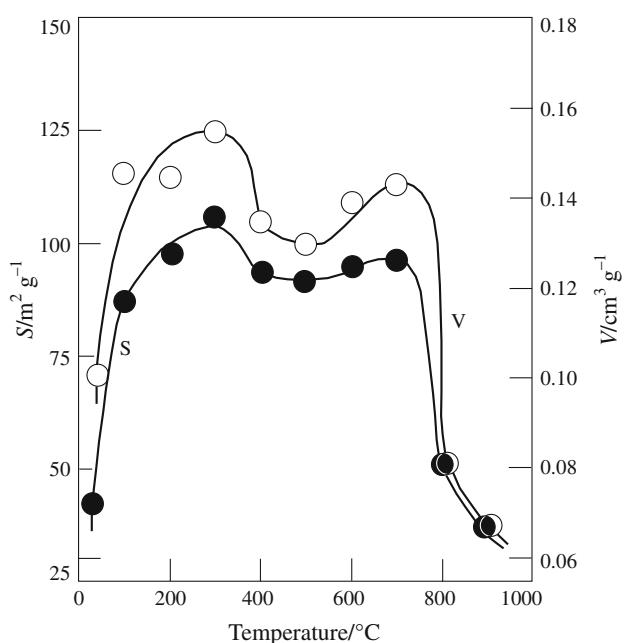


Fig. 5 The changes in specific surface area (S) and specific micro-mesopore volume (V) of the smectite with the heat treatment temperature

of S and V for the natural CaB are $44 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and $0.100 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$, respectively. While the temperature increases at around 300°C , the S and V increase to their maximum values of $105 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and $0.155 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$, respectively. The increases are due to the dehydration of adsorbed and interlayer water of the smectite mineral in the CaB. This result agrees well the XRD, DTA, and TG data. The S and V show a

gradual decrease between 300 and 600°C and their second maxima at 700°C , which is the maximum rate temperature for the dehydroxylation. These maxima originate from the opening new pores during the dehydroxylation. In turn, the rapid decrease in S and V at the temperatures above 700°C is due to the collapse of the 2:1 (TOT) layer structure and thereby closure of the pores of the CaS. This finding is also supported by the XRD, DTA, and TG data.

Conclusions

The crystal structure of the clay and some nonclay minerals are greatly affected by the thermal treatments in the temperature range of 25 – 1100°C . The temperature interval, mass loss, and activation energy for the dehydration and dehydroxylation of smectite, the major clay mineral of bentonite, may be estimated from the TG and DTA data. The best temperature range for the thermal activation of bentonite samples was established to be 300 – 700°C . The changes in porosity of a bentonite upon heating are the most important structural changes for adsorbents, catalyst supports, catalysts in chemical industry. Furthermore, before construction of the foundation may be heat-treated up to 600°C to hinder swelling by water uptake and harden the soil in civil engineering.

Acknowledgements The authors wish to thank to Scientific and Technical Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK) and Ankara University Research Foundation for supporting this work under the project 107T622 and 2003.05.07.083.

References

- Grim RE, Güven N. Bentonites, geology, mineralogy, properties and uses, development in sedimentology, vol. 24. New York: Elsevier; 1978.
- Souza CEC, Nascimento RSV. Adsorption behavior of cationic polymers on bentonite. *J Therm Anal Calorim*. 2008;94:579–83.
- Varma RS. Clay and clay-supported reagents in organic synthesis. *Tetrahedron*. 2002;58:1235–55.
- Noyan H, Önal M, Sarıkaya Y. The effect of sulphuric acid activation on the crystallinity, surface area, porosity, surface acidity, and bleaching power of a bentonite. *Food Chem*. 2007;105:156–63.
- Leite IF, Soares APS, Carvalho LH, Raposo CMO, Malta OML, Silva SML. Characterization of pristine and purified organo-bentonites. *J Therm Anal Calorim*. 2009. doi: [10.1007/s10973-009-0265-3](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10973-009-0265-3).
- Murray HH. Traditional and new applications for kaolin, smectite, and palygorskite; a general overview. *Appl Clay Sci*. 2000;17:207–21.
- Grim RE. Clay mineralogy. 2nd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill; 1968.
- Moore DM, Reynolds RC Jr. X-ray diffraction and the identification and analysis of clay minerals. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 1997.

9. Bergaya F, Theng BKG, Lagaly G. *Handbook of clay science*. Amsterdam: Elsevier; 2006.
10. Önal M, Sarıkaya Y. Preparation and characterization of acid-activated bentonite powders. *Powder Technol*. 2007;172:14–8.
11. Gregg SJ, Sing KSW. *Adsorption, surface area and porosity*. 2nd ed. London: Academic Press; 1982.
12. Lu GQ, Zhao XS. *Nanoporous materials science and engineering. Series on Chemical Engineering*, vol. 4. London: Imperial College Press; 2004.
13. Rouquerol F, Rouquerol J, Sing K. *Adsorption by powder and porous solids*. London: Academic Press; 1999.
14. Önal M, Sarıkaya Y. Thermal behavior of a bentonite. *J Therm Anal Calorim*. 2007;90:167–72.
15. Komadel P. Chemically modified smectites. *Clay Miner*. 2003;38:127–38.
16. Wang MC, Benway JM, Arayssi AM. The effect of heating on engineering properties of clays. In: Hoodinott KB, Lamb RO, Lutenege AJ, editors. *Physicochemical aspects of soil and related materials*. Philadelphia: ASTM STP 1095; 1990. p. 1139–58.
17. Abu-Zreig MM, Al-Akhras NM, Attom MF. Influence of heat treatment on the behavior of clay soils. *Appl Clay Sci*. 2001;20:129–35.
18. Noyan H, Önal M, Sarıkaya Y. A model developed for acid dissolution thermodynamics of a Turkish bentonite. *J Therm Anal Calorim*. 2008;94:591–6.
19. Tan Ö, Yılmaz L, Zaimoğlu S. Variation of some engineering properties of clays with heat treatment. *Mater Lett*. 2004;58:1176–9.
20. Bradley WF, Grim RE. High temperature thermal effects of clay and related materials. *Am Miner*. 1951;36:182–201.
21. Brindley GW. Thermal reactions of clay and clay minerals. *Ceramica*. 1978;24:217–24.
22. Mozas T, Bruque S, Rodriguez A. Effect of thermal treatment on lanthanide montmorillonites: dehydration. *Clay Miner*. 1980;15:421–8.
23. Reicle WT. Catalytic reactions by thermally activated, synthetic, anionic clay minerals. *J Catal*. 1985;94:547–57.
24. Ceylan H, Yıldız A, Sarıkaya Y. Investigation of adsorption fatty acids on two different clays using IR, DTA and TGA techniques. *Turk J Chem*. 1993;17:267–72.
25. Joshi RC, Achari G, Horfield D, Nagaraj TS. Effect of heat treatment on strength of clays. *J Geotech Eng-ASCE*. 1994;120:1080–8.
26. Chorom M, Rengasamy P. Effect of heating on swelling and dispersion of different cationic forms of a smectite. *Clays Clay Miner*. 1996;44:783–90.
27. Sarıkaya Y, Önal M, Baran B, Alemdaroğlu T. The effect of thermal treatment on some of the physicochemical properties of a bentonite. *Clays Clay Miner*. 2000;48:557–62.
28. Neaman A, Pelletier M, Villiéras F. The effect of exchanged cation, compression, heating and hydration on textural properties of bulk bentonite and its corresponding purified montmorillonite. *Appl Clay Sci*. 2003;22:153–68.
29. Önal M. Swelling and cation exchange capacity relationship for the samples obtained from a bentonite by acid activations and heat treatments. *Appl Clay Sci*. 2007;37:74–80.
30. Noyan H, Önal M, Sarıkaya Y. The effect of heating on the surface area, porosity and surface acidity of bentonite. *Clays Clay Miner*. 2006;54:375–81.
31. Sarıkaya Y, Aybar S. The adsorption of NH₃, N₂O and CO₂ gases on the 5A molecular sieve. *Commun Fac Sci Univ Ankara*. 1978;B24:33–9.
32. Sing K. The use of nitrogen adsorption for characterization of porous materials. *Colloid Surf A*. 2001;187–188:3–9.
33. Drees LR, Wilding LP, Smeck NE, Senkayi AL. Silica in soils: quartz and disordered silica polymorphs. In: Dizon JB, Weed SB, editors. *Minerals in soil environment*. Madison: Soil Science Society of America Inc; 1995. p. 914–47.
34. Elzea JM, Odom JE, Miles WJ. Distinguishing well ordered opal-CT and opal-C from high temperature cristobalite by X-ray diffraction. *Anal Chim Acta*. 1994;286:107–16.
35. Kahraman S, Önal M, Sarıkaya Y, Bozdoğan İ. Characterization of silica polymorphs in kaolins by X-ray diffraction before and after phosphoric acid digestion and thermal treatment. *Anal Chim Acta*. 2005;552:201–6.
36. Önal M, Kahraman S, Sarıkaya Y. Differentiation of α -cristobalite from opals in bentonites from Turkey. *Appl Clay Sci*. 2007;35:25–30.
37. Önal M, Sarıkaya Y. The effect of heat treatment on the paracrystallinity of an opal-CT found in a bentonite. *J Non-Cryst Solids*. 2007;533:4195–8.
38. Bayram H, Önal M, Üstünışık G, Sarıkaya Y. Some thermal characteristic of a mineral mixture of palygorskite, metahalloysite, magnesite and dolomite. *J Therm Anal Calorim*. 2007;89:169–74.
39. Balek V, Málek Z, Yariv S, Matuschek G. Characterization of montmorillonite saturated with various cations. *J Therm Anal Calorim*. 1999;56:67–76.
40. Kök MV, Smykatz-Kloss W. Thermal characterization of dolomites. *J Therm Anal Calorim*. 2001;64:1271–5.
41. Frost RL, Ding Z, Ruan HD. Thermal analysis of goethite. *J Therm Anal Calorim*. 2003;71:783–97.
42. Frost RL, Weier ML, Glissold ME, Williams PA, Kloprogge JT. Thermal decomposition of the natural hydrotalcites, carboydite and hydrobonessite. *Thermochim Acta*. 2003;407:1–9.
43. Yariv S. The role of charcoal on DTA curves of organo-clay complexes: an overview. *Appl Clay Sci*. 2004;24:225–36.
44. Yariv S, Lepides I. The use of thermo-XRD-analysis in the study of organo-smectite complexes. *J Therm Anal Calorim*. 2005;80:11–26.
45. Xi Y, Martens W, He H, Frost RL. Thermogravimetric analysis of organoclays intercalated with the surfactant octadecyltrimethylammonium bromide. *J Therm Anal Calorim*. 2005;81:91–7.
46. Yener N, Önal M, Üstünışık G, Sarıkaya Y. Thermal behavior of a mineral mixture of sepiolite and dolomite. *J Therm Anal Calorim*. 2007;88:813–7.
47. Malek Z, Bolek V, Garfinkel-Shweky D, Yariv S. The study of the dehydration of smectites by emanation thermal analysis. *J Therm Anal*. 1997;48:83–92.
48. Heller-Kallai L. Thermally modified clay minerals. In: Bergaya F, Theng BKG, Lagaly G, editors. *Handbook of clay science. Development in Clay Science*, vol. 1. Amsterdam: Elsevier; 2006. p. 289–308.
49. Drits VA, Besson G, Muller F. An improved model for structural transformation of heat-treated aluminous dioctahedral 2:1 layer silicates. *Clays Clay Miner*. 1995;43:718–31.
50. Emmerich K, Madsen FT, Kahr G. Dehydroxylation behavior of heat-treated and steam-treated homoionic cis-vacant montmorillonites. *Clays Clay Miner*. 1999;47:591–604.
51. Emmerich K. Spontaneous rehydroxylation of a dehydroxylated cis-vacant montmorillonite. *Clays Clay Miner*. 2000;48:405–8.
52. Zviagina BB, Sakharow BA, Drits VA. X-ray diffraction criteria for the identification of trans- and cis-vacant varieties of dioctahedral micas. *Clays Clay Miner*. 2007;55:467–80.
53. Ball MC, Taylor HFW. The dehydroxylation of chrysotile in air and under hydrothermal conditions. *Mineral Mag*. 1963;33:467–82.
54. MacKenzie KJD, Mainhold RH. The thermal reactions of synthetic hectorite studies by 29-Si, 25-Mg and 7-Li magic angle spinning nuclear magnetic resonance. *Thermochim Acta*. 1994;232:85–94.

55. Stucki JW, Bish DL. Thermal analysis in clay science. Aurora: The Clay Minerals Society; 1990.
56. Güler Ç, Sarier N. Kinetics of the thermal dehydration of acid activated montmorillonite by the rising temperature technique. *Thermochim Acta*. 1990;159:29–33.
57. Coats AW, Redfern JP. Kinetic parameters from thermogravimetric data. *Nature*. 1964;201:68–9.
58. Önal M, Sarikaya Y. Thermal analysis of some organoclays. *J Therm Anal Calorim*. 2008;91:261–5.
59. Brunauer S, Emmett PH, Teller E. Adsorption of gases in multimolecular layers. *J Am Chem Soc*. 1938;60:308–19.
60. Linsen BG. Physical and chemical aspects of adsorbent and catalysts. London: Academic Press; 1970.