

Model for Predictive Analysis of the Quantity of Water Evaporated during the Primary-Stage Processing of Bioceramic Material Sourced from Kaolin

Chukwuka Ikechukwu Nwoye^{1*}, Kenneth Okeke², Martin Obi³, Uchenna Nwanyanwu¹ and Stanley Ofoegbu⁴

¹Department of Materials and Metallurgical Engineering, Federal University of Technology, Owerri, Nigeria.

²Department of Dental Technology, Federal University of Technology, Owerri, Imo State Nigeria.

³Department of Industrial Mathematics, Federal University of Technology, Owerri, Imo State Nigeria.

⁴Department of Material Science, Aveiro University, Portugal.

chikeyn@yahoo.com

Abstract: Model for predictive analysis of the quantity of water evaporated during the primary-stage processing of a bioceramic material sourced from kaolin has been derived. The model; $\alpha = e^{(\ln t / 2.1992)}$ shows that the quantity of evaporated water during the drying process is dependent on the drying time, the evaporating surface being constant. It was found that the validity of the model is rooted on the expression $(\ln t / \ln \alpha)^N = \text{Log} \beta$ where both sides of the expression are correspondingly approximately equal to 3. The respective deviation of the model-predicted quantity of evaporated water from the corresponding experimental value was found to be less than 22% which is quite within the acceptable deviation range of experimental results, hence depicting the usefulness of the model. [Nature and Science. 2009;7(4):79-84]. (ISSN: 1545-0740).

Keywords: Model, Prediction, Water Evaporation, Bioceramic Material.

1. Introduction

Ceramics have been found [1] to comprise various kinds of non-metallic and inorganic materials. These include naturally occurring clays (kaolin) which is mainly aluminosilicates ($\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) and vary concentrations of carbides, nitrides, and oxides. Ceramic material can exist in the crystalline, amorphous, or glassy states.

Bioceramics and associated biomedical devices are used in so many parts of the human body. Because human life and well being often depend on these devices there are stringent controls and constraints placed upon the application of devices and materials that can be used. It has been found [2] that when a prosthetic device is placed into the body, two aspects must be taken into account:

Biofunctionality:

This concerns the effect of the physiological environment on the material (bioceramics)/device. The material must satisfy its design requirements in service. The varied functions of bioceramics include: load transmission and stress distribution; eg bone replacement, articulation to allow movement; eg artificial knee joint, and space filling; eg cosmetic surgery[2].

Biocompatibility

This is associated with the effect of the prosthetic device/material (and any degradation product) in the body. The material is not expected to degrade in its properties within the environment of the body and must not cause any adverse reactions within the host body.

Nature of the physiological environment:

Studies [2] carried out on the effect of the physiological environment on biomaterials/device show that NaCl aqueous solution (0.9M) containing organic acids, proteins, enzymes, biological macromolecules, electrolytes and dissolved oxygen, nitrogen compounds, and soluble carbonates are environments where biomaterials and devices can operate favourably. It was found [2] that $\text{pH} \approx 7.4$ is normal for physiological extracellular fluid. It has been discovered that cells (eg. inflammatory cells and fibrotic cells) secrete several complex compounds that may significantly affect an implanted biomaterial. Applications of these biomaterials/devices have been found [2] to be also dependent on mechanical environment: static, dynamic, stress, strain and friction.

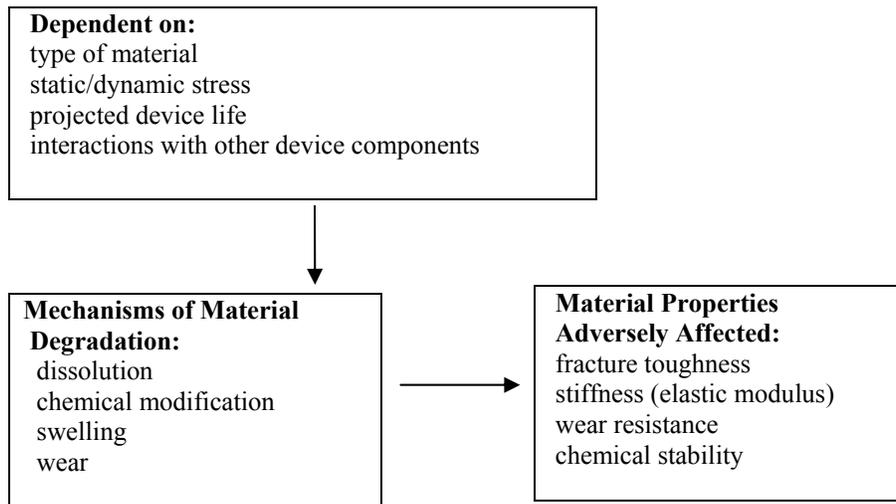


Fig. 1: The effect of the physiological environment on materials/devices [3]

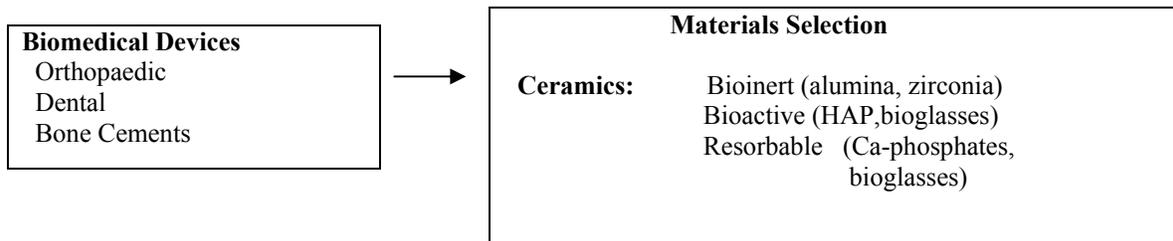


Fig.2: Material selection for functional performance [3]

Bioceramic Materials (Functional Properties)

Ceramics are stiff, hard and chemically stable and are often used in situations where wear resistance is vital. Of the large number of ceramics known, only a few are suitably biocompatible. These ceramics can be grouped according to their relative reactivity in physiological environment. The main problem with ceramic component is that they are brittle and relatively difficult to process.

Studies [4] reveal three types of bioceramics; bioinert, bioactive and resorbable ceramics. Bioinert ceramics includes; alumina (Al_2O_3), partially stabilized zirconia (ZrO_2) and silicone nitride (Si_3N_4). For these materials, foreign body response equals encapsulation. They were found [4] to be extremely stable and elicit minimal response to host tissues. The functional properties of bioinert ceramics were found [3] to include; high compressive strength, excellent wear resistance and excellent bioinertness. Alumina has been found [3] to be a traditional bioinert material being chemically inert and highly stable oxide. It has been discovered that alumina has low fracture toughness and tensile strength implying that it can be used in compression only. Applications of alumina were found [3] to include; femoral head of total hip replacement (polycrystalline) and single crystal (sapphire) in dental implants. It has been found that zirconia combines with a metal oxide dopant (stabilizing oxide-MgO or Y_2O_3) to form a ceramic known as partially stabilized zirconia (PSZ). This ceramic exhibits excellent toughness compared to other ceramics. This was found to be as result of a process known as transformation toughening [5]. This involved an

energy absorbing phase change at the front of propagating crack tip which slows down the advancement of cracks. PSZ has been found to be useful in hip joint prosthesis.

It has been found [5] that bioactive ceramics direct chemical bond with tissue and in particular, bone. They are surface-reactive but has low solubility, allows fixation of implants in the skeletal system. Investigations [4] carried out on the properties of bioactive ceramics reveal that they are hydroxyapatite ($\text{Ca}_{10}(\text{PO}_4)_6(\text{OH})_2$) and bioglasses, having low mechanical strength and fracture toughness. It was reported [3] that bioactive ceramics can find application in: coatings used on stainless steel, Ti and CoCr for tissue on-growth, bone filler for dental and maxillofacial reconstruction.

It has been found [4] that resorbable ceramics are chemically broken down by the body and resorbed. This type of ceramic was also found [3] to control dissolution rate by composition and surface area (density). Investigations [3] indicate that chemicals produced as the ceramic is resorbed, are processed through the normal metabolic pathways of the body without evoking any deleterious effects. Chemically resorbable ceramics is made up of calcium phosphate e.g., tri-calcium phosphate, $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$. This ceramic has found applications in bone repairs such as maxillofacial and periodontal defects, as well as in temporary scaffold or space-filler material [3].

It has been discovered that on drying clays through heating, water is given off. With time, a hard but porous piece forms. A swollen appearance might occur during the release of some gases, but overall shrinkage must occur when verifications set in leading to a strong dense piece [6].

The present work is to derive a model for predicting the quantity of water evaporated during the primary-stage processing of a bioceramic material sourced from kaolin (mined at Ukpok (Nigeria)). Evaporation of water from the kaolinitic clay ($\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) occurred in the course of drying the clay (in the oven) during the extraction of alumina (Al_2O_3). The need for this extraction resulted from the indispensable role played by alumina (in biomedical engineering) as bioinert ceramics for total hip replacement.

2. Model formulation

Experimental data obtained from research work [7] carried out at SynchroWell Research Laboratory, Enugu were used for this work. Results of the experiment used for the model formulation are as shown in Table 1.

Computational analysis of the experimental data [7] shown in Table 1, gave rise to Table 2 which indicate that;

$$(\ln t / \ln \alpha)^N = \text{Log} \beta \quad (\text{approximately}) \quad (1)$$

Introducing the values of N into equation (1)

$$(\ln t / \ln \alpha)^{1.36} = \text{Log} \beta \quad (2)$$

Multiplying the indices of both sides by 1/1.36

$$\ln t / \ln \alpha = (\text{Log} \beta)^{1/1.36} \quad (3)$$

$$\ln t / \ln \alpha = (\text{Log} \beta)^{0.7353} \quad (4)$$

Introducing the value of β into equation (4)

$$\ln t / \ln \alpha = (2.9206)^{0.7353} \quad (5)$$

$$\ln t / \ln \alpha = 2.1992 \quad (6)$$

$$\ln \alpha = \ln t / 2.1992 \quad (7)$$

$$\alpha = e^{(\ln t / 2.1992)} \quad (8)$$

Where

(α) = Weight of evaporated water during the drying process (g)

(β) = Area of evaporating surface (mm^2)

N = 1.36; (Collapsibility coefficient of binder-clay particle boundary at the drying temperature of 110°C) determined in the experiment [7].

t = Drying time (mins.).

Table 1: Variation of quantity of evaporated water with drying time [7]

t (mins.)	(β)	(α)
30	833	6.00
50	833	5.90
70	833	6.90
90	833	7.80
110	833	7.40
130	833	7.60

Table 2: Variation of $(\ln t / \ln \alpha)^N$ with $\text{Log} \beta$

ln t	Log β	ln α	$(\ln t / \ln \alpha)^N$
3.4012	2.9206	1.7918	2.3908
3.9120	2.9206	1.7750	2.9062
4.2485	2.9206	1.9315	2.9214
4.4998	2.9206	2.0541	2.9052
4.7005	2.9206	2.0014	3.1938
4.8675	2.9206	2.0281	3.2892

3. Boundary and Initial Conditions

Consider a rectangular shaped clay product of length 49mm, width 17mm, and breadth 9mm exposed to drying in the furnace while it was in wet condition. Initially, atmospheric levels of oxygen are assumed. Atmospheric pressure was assumed to be acting on the clay samples during the drying process (since the furnace is not air-tight). The grain size of clay particles used is 425 μm , weight of clay and binder (bentonite) used (for each rectangular product); 100g and 10g respectively, quantity of water used for mixing; 2% (of total weight), drying temperature used; 110 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, area of evaporating surface; 833mm 2 and range of drying time used; (30-130)mins. These and other process conditions are detailed in the experimental technique [7].

The boundary conditions are: Atmospheric levels of oxygen at the top and bottom of the clay samples since they are dried under the atmospheric condition. No external force due to compression or tension was applied to the drying clays. The sides of the particles and the rectangular shaped clay products are taken to be symmetries.

4. Model Validation

The formulated model was validated by direct analysis and comparison of the model-predicted α values and those from the experiment for equality or near equality. Analysis and comparison between these α values reveal deviations of model-predicted α from those of the experimental values. This is believed to be due to the fact that the surface properties of the clay and the physiochemical interactions between the clay and binder, which were found to have played vital role during the evaporation process [7] were not considered during the model formulation. This necessitated the introduction of correction factor, to bring the model-predicted α value to that of the corresponding experimental value (Table 3).

Deviation (Dv) (%) of model-predicted α values from the experimental α values is given by

$$Dv = \frac{DP - DE}{DE} \times 100 \quad (9)$$

Where DP = α values predicted by model

DE = α values obtained from experiment

Correction factor (Cf) is the negative of the deviation i.e

$$Cf = -Dv \tag{10}$$

Therefore

$$Cf = -100 \left(\frac{DP - DE}{DE} \right) \tag{11}$$

Introduction of the value of Cf from equation (11) into the model gives exactly the corresponding experimental value of α [7].

5. Results and Discussion

The derived model is equation (8). A comparison of the values of α obtained from the experiment and those from the model shows low deviations hence depicting the reliability and validity of the model, (Table 3). The respective deviation of the model-predicted quantity of evaporated water from the corresponding experimental value is less than 22% which is quite within the acceptable deviation range of experimental results, hence depicting the usefulness of the model. It was found that the validity of the model is rooted in the expression $(\ln t / \ln \alpha)^N = \text{Log} \beta$ where both sides of the expression are correspondingly approximately equal to 3. Table 2 also agrees with equation (1) following the values of $(\ln t / \ln \alpha)^N$ and $\text{Log} \beta$ evaluated from Table 1 as a result of corresponding computational analysis.

Table 3: Comparison between quantities of evaporated water as predicted by model and as obtained from experiment [7]

α_{exp}	α_M	Dv (%)	Cf (%)
6.00	4.6953	-21.75	+21.75
5.90	5.9230	+0.39	-0.39
6.90	6.9022	+0.03	-0.03
7.80	7.7377	-0.80	+0.80
7.40	8.4771	+14.56	-14.56
7.60	9.1459	+20.35	-20.35

Where $\alpha_{\text{exp}} = \alpha$ values obtained from experiment [7]

$\alpha_M = \alpha$ values predicted by model.

6. Conclusion

The model predicts the quantity of water evaporated during the primary-stage processing of a bioceramic material sourced from kaolin. It was found that the validity of the model is rooted in the expression $(\ln t / \ln \alpha)^N = \text{Log} \beta$ where both sides of the expression are correspondingly approximately equal to 3. The respective deviation of the model-predicted quantity of evaporated water from the corresponding experimental value is less than 22% which is quite within the acceptable deviation range of experimental results, hence depicting the usefulness of the model.

Further works should incorporate more process parameters into the model with the aim of reducing the deviations of the model-predicted α values from those of the experimental.

Acknowledgement

The authors thank Dr. Ekeme Udoh, a modelling expert at Linkwell Modelling Centre Calabar for his technical inputs. The management of SynchroWell Nig. Ltd. Enugu is also appreciated for permitting and providing the experimental data used in this work.

References.

- [1] Ijomah, M. N .C., (1992). The Structure and Properties of Engineering Materials, Christon Publishers, Awka, Nigeria, pp.69.
- [2] Hill, D., (1998) Design Engineering of Biomaterials for Medical Devices , John Wiley & Sons, Chichester, pp.70.
- [3] Biomedical Materials (2001) Material Science and Engineering- UNSW, Teachers Reference.
- [4] Schlenker, B. R., (1974) Introduction to Material Science, SI Edition, John Wiley & Sons, Milton, pp. 65.

[5] Almath Crucible Ltd. Website: <http://www.almath.vispa.co.uk/zirconia.htm>

[6] Singer, F. and Singer, S.S., (1963). Industrial Ceramics, University Press Cambridge, pp. 44.

[7] Nwoye, C. I., (2005) SynchroWell Research Work Report, DFM Unit, No 2227136, 21-30.

3/10/2009