

Proceedings of Shenyang Symposium on

**LIME-BASED SLAGFORMERS,
REFINING & ALLOYING POWDERS,
CASTING MOLD FLUXES
IN IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRY**

SEPTEMBER, 15 - 17, 1988.

EDITED BY;

HSIAO TSE CHIANG

Research Institute of Metallurgy
Northeast University of Technology
Shenyang, P. R. of China

**Press of Northeast University of Technology
Shenyang, P. R. of China**

CONTENTS

MANUFACTURE AND APPLICATION OF LIME BASED SLAGFORMERS IN IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRY

1. MODERN CAPTIVE LIMEPLANTS IN THE WORLD STEEL INDUSTRY	I-2
F. Schwarzkopf (U.S.A.), O. Jenne (W. Germany)	
2. PRESENT SITUATION AND PROSPECT OF METALLURGICAL LIME PRODUCTION IN CHINA .	I-31
Liang Xunyu, Tang Chengbin Sun Xisheng (China)	
3. PRODUCTION OF LIME FLUX FOR BOF-STEELMAKING - INDIAN PRACTICE	I-40
R. C. Nandy (India).	
4. EFFECT OF ULTRASOUND ON THE DISSOLUTION OF CaO IN CaO-SiO ₂ -FeO SLAG	I-54
Y. Kita, Z. Morita (Japan)	
5. ACID TITRATION FOR QUALITY ASSESSMENT OF CALCINED LIME AND DOLOMITE	I-67
C. L. Carey, P. Salter (Australia)	
6. PRIMARY STUDY ON THE DISSOLUTION KINETICS OF CaO INTO CONVERTER SLAG	I-75
Li Yuanzhou, Fan Peng, Shen Xinming, Huan Yongxing, Zhang Pin (China)	
7. HIGH QUALITY LIME FOR MODERN STEEL MAKING	I-87
A. Christern (W. Germany)	
8. PREHOMOGENIZATION AND GRADED APPLICATION OF LIMESTONE	I-107
Wang Jianguo (China)	
9. PRODUCTION OF REACTIVE LIME FOR STEEL MAKING PROCESS	I-116
F. Jahn (Switzerland)	
10. PRODUCTION AND APPLICATION OF ACTIVE LIME PRODUCED BY ISCMAS ROTARY KILN .	I-132
Wei Heshi, Liu Jiaying (China)	
11. THE BECKENBACH ANNULAR SHAFT KILN IS PRODUCING QUICKLIME FOR STEEL INDUSTRIES	I-139
U. Beckenbach (W. Germany)	
12. INFLUENCE OF THE CRYSTAL STRUCTURE OF LIMESTONE ON THE ACTIVITY OF LIME ..	I-158
Zhu Guoling, Yuan Chongyang, Xi Changsuo, Zhu Zhuomin, Shan Lingzhen (China)	
13. INVESTIGATION OF MEASUREMENT OF LIME THERMAL - ACTIVITY AND ITS RELATION TO HYDRO - ACTIVITY	I-170
Pu Zhiqun, Liu Shizhou, Yu Jingkun, Li Mingjun, Fu Jingchun (China)	

14. THE APPLICATION OF LOW HEAT VALUE BLAST FURNACE GAS TO PRODUCE ACTIVE LIMEI-180
Nie Erjian (China)
15. APPLICATION OF ACTIVE LIME IN OXYGEN CONVERTER PROCESSESI-191
Li Renzhi, Han Ye, Hanyunyuan,
Liu Shizhou, Zhang Chundong, Yu Jingkun (China)
16. PRODUCTION AND APPLICATION OF ACTIVE LIME TO STEELMAKING IN BAOSHAN IRON AND STEEL WORKSI-211
Wei Zhenzhou, Xu Jinfu (China)
17. NEW KINDS OF SHAFT KILNS & REQUIREMENTS OF FUELI-216
Gu Xinyu (China)
18. THE COMPUTER INTEGRATED MANUFACTURING PROGRAM IN THE LIME PLANTS OPERATION.I-222
G. M. Cella (Italy)

DEVELOPMENT AND APPLICATION OF REFINING AND ALLOYING POWDERS / CORED WIRES IN IRON AND STEEL TREATMENT

1. ON PNEUMATIC LADLE METALLURGY - KINETIC'S AND DEVELOPMENT IN INJECTION TECHNOLOGY II-2
S. Gustafsson (Sweden)
2. EFFECT OF SYNTHETIC SLAGS IN LADLE METALLURGY II-18
G. M. Faulring (U.S.A.)
3. AN INVESTIGATION ABOUT ULTRA LOW SULPHUR STEEL MAKING II-39
Xu Kuangdi, Jiang Guochang, Guo Zhangcheng, Guan Yulong (China)
4. MATHEMATICAL MODELLING OF MELTING PROCESS OF Al WIRE FED INTO STEEL BATH.. II-50
Gui Meiwen, Hsiao Tse-Chiang (China)
5. EFFECT OF SILICON ON HYDROGEN BEHAVIOR IN LIQUID IRON-SILICON ALLOYS II-65
M. I. Abbas, M.A. Shahin (Egypt)
6. STUDY ON REFINING TREATMENT OF LIQUID STEEL WITH THE ADDITION OF MAGNESIUM CONTAINING ALLOYS II-75
Wang Heng, Li Li, Yang Shizhong, Wang Enhui, Zhi Shui (China)
7. IS STRONTIUM A PROMISING REFINER IN STEELMAKING ? II-90
Hu Xin, Huang Wenxian, Liu Fengping (China)
8. THE EFFECT OF CARBON ADDITION IN CaO - BASED DESULPHURIZATION SLAG FOR HOT METAL TREATMENT II-95
Zhu Guoling, Lin Gongwen, Cheng Yongding (China)
9. DEVELOPMENT OF DEGASSING TYPE SYNTHETIC POWDER BASED ON WHITE SLAGII-114
Xing Yulu, Liu Peihuan, Feng Qicheng, Xu Shizheng, Zhong Liangcai,
Cao Yunfeng, Xia Guangmin (China)

10. LIME BASED SLAG FORMING MATERIALS FOR THE TREATMENT OF IRON & STEEL II-129
E. T. R. Jones (UK)
11. THE SURFACE ABSORPTION OF SHIELD LIME AND ITS APPLICATION IN STEEL -
MAKING II-145
Xu Chushao, Yang Junjin, Tao Zainan (China)
12. STUDY ON THE DESULPHURIZATION OF LIQUID STEEL IN LADLES USING REDUCING
SYNTHETIC SLAGS WITH ARGON STIRRING II-157
Li Yongqiu , Liu Shizhou, Li Mingjun, Ma Kejun, Song Mantang,
Ma Chunsheng, Chen Dasheng, Zhao Zixiang, Xu Jiayan (China)
13. PRODUCTION AND APPLICATION OF MOISTURE-PROOF ACTIVATED LIME-POWDERS
AND STABILIZED CaSi POWDERS II-167
Zeng Xianbin, Guo Wenzheng, Dai Wei (China)
14. XIAOLING LIME-BASED POWDERS FOR HOT METAL TREATMENT AND STEEL REFINING ... II-178
Hsiao Tse-Chiang, Zhan Qinglin, Jiao Guohua,
Li Yaodong, Zhang Bo (China)
15. DESULPHURIZATION OF HOT METAL - ENGINEERING AND RESULTS II-193
R. K. Grosz (W. Germany)
16. THE INJECTION TREATMENT OF STEEL IN COMBINATION WITH A LADLE FURNACE II-201
F. T. Eichinger, R. K. Grosz (W. Germany)
17. APPLICATIONS OF THE AFFIVAL CORED WIRE TECHNIQUE TO IN-LADLE TREATMENT
OF LIQUID STEEL II-209
F. Villette, B. Chapeland (French)
18. CORED WIRE APPLICATION BY PRODUCTION OF QUALITY STEELS IN SLOVENIAN
STEELWORKS II-235
V. Presern, M. Kmetec, A. Rozman, P. Bracun (Yugoslavia)
19. PROPERTIES AND MANUFACTURING OF LIME BASED POWDERS FOR EFFICIENT HOT
METAL TREATMENT BY LADLE INJECTION METALLURGY II-250
V. Laakso (Finland)
20. LADLE REFINING OF STEEL BY POWDER INJECTION.....II-269
N.A. Smirnov, V.A. Kudrin, G.A. Isaev (USSR)
21. PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF LADLE REFINING SLAGS.....II-282
A.V. Basov, I.A. Magidson, N.A. Smirnov (USSR)

TECHNOLOGIES OF CASTING MOLD FLUXES IN STEELMAKING

1. MOLD POWDERS TECHNOLOGY III-2
M. K. Koul, S. Sankaranarayanan, D. Apelian, W. L. McCauley (U.S.A.)
2. THE " POINT " AND " VOLUME " FUSION BEHAVIOUR OF PREFUSED TYPE POWDER
FLUXES III-15
Jin Shantong, Zou Mingjin (China)

3. RESEARCH AND APPLICATION OF GL-3 PROTECTING SLAG IN CONTINUOUS CASTING
OF SLAB III-31
Liu Shizhou, Lai Xinnian, Li Yongqiu Li mingjun (China)
4. DETERMINATION OF CARBON CONCENTRATION IN DG 805 MOLD FLUXES AND PICK-UP
MECHANISM OF CARBON IN INGOTS III-42
Li Guangtian, Guo Dongzhang, Cui Naiheng, Kong Qingtang (China)
5. STUDY ON PROPERTIES OF CAST MOLD FLUXES MADE FROM POWER PLANT ASH AND
THEIR APPLICATION IN INDUSTRY III-53
Chen Dasheng, Cui Naiheng, Guo Dongzhang (China)
6. APPLICATION OF MOLD FLUXES OF FG TYPE IN NEW FUSHUN IRON AND STEEL PLANT. III-64
Cao Deren, Liu Shiha, Guan Guangning, Li Guangtian, Li Jin (China)
7. APPLICATION OF SOLID MOLD FLUXES OF HEAT INSULATING TYPE IN STAINLESS
STEEL CONTAINING TITANIUM III-71
Ren Jiang (China)
8. STUDY ON THE SOLUTION ABILITY OF Al_2O_3 INCLUSION INTO MOLD FLUXES OF
STEEL CASTING III-81
Guo Dongzhang (China)
9. BRIEF INTRODUCTION OF FOSECO CAST MOLD FLUXES FOR CONTINUOUS CASTING OF
STEEL III-91
Deng Wenzhong (China)

目 录

I、炼钢石灰的生产和应用

1、世界炼钢工业现代化石灰生产车间·····美国, 施瓦尔茨科普夫等	I — 2
2、中国冶金石灰生产的现状与展望·····中国, 梁训裕等	I — 31
3、印度氧气转炉炼钢冶金石灰的生产现况·····印度, 南迪	I — 40
4、超声波对CaO在CaO-SiO ₂ -FeO渣中溶解过程的影响·····日本, 喜多善史等	I — 54
5、用酸滴定法检测煅烧石灰和白云石的质量·····澳大利亚, 卡雷等	I — 67
6、固体石灰在转炉渣中的溶解动力学初步研究·····中国, 李远洲等	I — 75
7、现代炼钢用优质石灰的生产·····西德, 克里斯坦	I — 87
8、石灰石预处理均化及分级利用·····中国, 王建国	I — 107
9、炼钢用活性石灰的生产(麦尔茨技术)·····瑞士, 扬	I — 116
10、马钢型回转窑活性石灰的生产和应用·····中国, 韦和时等	I — 132
11、贝肯巴赫环形竖窑生产炼钢用活性石灰·····西德, 贝肯巴赫	I — 139
12、石灰石结晶结构对石灰水活性的影响·····中国, 朱果灵等	I — 158
13、石灰热活性测定方法及水热性关系的研究·····中国, 蒲知群等	I — 170
14、利用低热值高炉煤气生产活性冶金石灰·····中国, 聂尔健	I — 180
15、活性石灰在转炉炼钢中的应用·····中国, 李仁智等	I — 191
16、宝钢活性石灰的生产和应用·····中国, 魏振洲等	I — 211
17、新型竖窑与燃料要求·····中国, 顾辛渔	I — 216
18、石灰生产中计算机总体控制程序·····意大利, 塞拉	I — 222

II、铁水和钢水处理用精炼及合金化

粉剂和线剂的开发和应用

1、钢包喷射冶金—反应过程动力学及其工艺技术的发展·····瑞典, 葛斯塔夫森	II — 2
2、钢包冶金中合成渣的应用效果·····美国, 芳奥琳	II — 18
3、超低硫钢生产条件的研究·····中国, 徐匡迪等	II — 39

4、钢中喂铝线熔化过程的数学模化·····	中国, 肖泽强等	I — 50
5、硅对液态硅—铁合金中氢溶解行为的影响·····	埃及, 阿巴斯等	I — 65
6、镁合金精炼钢水的研究·····	中国, 知水等	I — 75
7、Sr是否可能成为钢的一种精炼剂?·····	中国, 胡新等	I — 90
8、铁水预处理CaO基脱硫剂中碳的作用·····	中国, 朱果灵等	I — 95
9、脱气型白渣基合成粉剂的研究·····	中国, 刘沛环等	I — 114
10、铁水和钢水处理石灰基熔剂·····	英国, 琼斯	I — 129
11、钝化石灰的表面吸附特性及其在炼钢中的应用·····	中国, 徐楚韶等	I — 145
12、固体还原合成渣钢包脱硫的研究·····	中国, 李永秋等	I — 157
13、防潮活性石灰粉剂与钝化硅钙粉剂的制备及其应用·····	中国, 曾宪斌等	I — 167
14、铁水预处理和钢水精炼用小岭石灰基粉剂·····	中国, 肖泽强等	I — 178
15、铁水脱硫技术及其应用效果·····	西德, 格罗斯	I — 193
16、钢水喷粉在钢包炉内的复合应用·····	西德, 爱琴格等	II — 201
17、AFFIVAL 喂线技术在钢水炉外精炼中的应用·····	法国, 威莱特等	I — 209
18、芯线技术在斯洛威尼亚钢厂优质钢生产中的应用·····	南斯拉夫, 布雷塞等	I — 235
19、铁水预处理用石灰基粉剂的制备及性能·····	芬兰, 拉克索	I — 250
20 钢包喷粉精炼·····	苏联, 斯米尔诺夫等	I — 269
21、钢包精炼渣剂的物理性能·····	苏联, 巴索夫等	I — 282

II、浇铸保护渣技术

1、浇铸保护渣技术·····	美国, 科尔等	II — 2
2、预熔性保护渣“点”熔和“体”熔行为的研究·····	中国, 金山同等	II — 15
3、GL-3 型板坯连铸颗粒保护渣的研制·····	中国, 刘世洲等	II — 31
4、DG 805 电厂灰保护渣合理碳含量及增碳机理研究·····	中国, 李广田等	II — 42
5、电厂灰保护渣系列的研究和应用·····	中国, 陈达生等	II — 53
6、浇铸保护渣在新抚钢的应用·····	中国, 曹德仁等	II — 64
7、绝热型固体保护渣在含Ti不锈钢中的应用·····	中国, 任健等	II — 71
8、炼钢浇铸用保护渣吸附溶解 Al_2O_3 夹杂物能力的研究·····	中国, 郭东章	II — 81
9、英国福塞克 (FOSECO) 公司连铸保护渣介绍·····	中国, 邓文忠	II — 91

III. TECHNOLOGIES OF CASTING MOLD FLUXES IN STEELMAKING

浇铸保护渣技术

浇铸保护渣技术

中文摘要

M.K. 科尔 W.L. 蒙考雷
(美国, NATCO 公司)

S. 桑卡拉纳耶纳, D. 阿比林
(美国, Drexel 大学)

连铸是炼钢过程的一项重要操作。使用浇铸保护渣的主要目的是为了使得铸件获得较好的表面质量。模内的书流密度是浇铸的函数, 并随着保护渣成分变化(图3、表1)。保护渣的厚度和热导率控制着传热过程。保护渣的熔化速度控制保护渣的供给量, 而液态保护渣的粘度又影响着渣层厚度。液态渣的结晶温度影响着渣层的特性。因此, 本文着重研究了控制熔化速度、粘度和结晶温度的基本参数。

实验过程: 表Ⅰ列出了各种保护渣粉剂的组成。结晶温度和 1300 °C 的粘度值。完成了熔化速度、粘度、差热分析、化学分析和熔化行为等诸方面的实验研究。

图4为测量熔化速度所用设备, 根据熔化渣滴的重量计算熔化速度。图5为粘度测量装置。在 1500 °C 下每下降 50 °C 测量一次, 平衡时间 20 - 30 分钟, 至到 1100 °C 为止。先由低粘度范围粘度计测量, 然后由高粘度范围粘度计测量。差热分析用来确定保护渣体系的凝固温度。

结果和讨论

①熔化速度: 图6表明, 熔化速度是保护渣中自由碳含量的函数。图6-8都说明, 随着自由碳含量的增加, 保护渣的熔化过程受到阻碍。并且随碳粒度的降低熔化速度也降低。

②粘度: 保护渣的粘度取决于渣中各氧化物组分的含量。 Al_2O_3 和 SiO_2 流动性差, 使渣粘度增加; Li_2O 和 Na_2O 流动性好使渣粘度降低。本文用“玻璃体比例”(即碱性氧化物比例)概念来描述氧化物的这种效应: $玻璃体比例 = (Na_2O + Li_2O) / (Al_2O_3 + SiO_2)$ 图9表明, 熔融保护渣粘度是“玻璃体比例”的函数, 增加玻璃体比例粘度降低(1300 °C)。

③差热分析: 用 DTA 检测了 12 个保护渣样, 典型的 DTA 曲线如图 10 所示。表Ⅱ列出了 DTA 检测的结晶温度值。图 11 表明, 结晶温度是“玻璃体比例”的函数, 随着玻璃体比例的增加温度下降。结晶温度是保护渣的重要性能。希望玻璃体状态保持越久越好或结晶温度越低越好。

总结: 对 50 组不同成分的合成渣进行了粘度、结晶温度和熔化速度检测。合成渣的熔化速度受碳含量控制, 二者成反比变化。熔融合成渣的粘度和结晶温度随“玻璃体比例”增加而降低。

文中引入“玻璃体比例”的概念作为解释保护渣性质的化学参数。碱性氧化物含量(即玻璃体比例)对结晶温度、传热速度和拉漏现象的产生有显著影响。

MOLD POWDER TECHNOLOGY

M.K. Koul¹, S. Sankaranarayanan², D. Apelian³, W.L. McCauley⁴

¹ Vice President & General Manager, Netco International, Philadelphia, PA, U.S.A.

² Research Assistant, Materials Engineering, Drexel University, Philadelphia, PA, U.S.A.

³ Howmet Professor of Materials Engineering, Drexel University, Philadelphia, PA, U.S.A.

⁴ Director of Technology, Netco International, Philadelphia, PA, U.S.A.

ABSTRACT

Mold powders are employed in the continuous casting process to optimize lubrication and heat transfer and are therefore an integral part of producing high quality steel in the caster. A series of mold powder compositions were evaluated for fusion rate, viscosity and crystallization temperature. The fusion rate decreased with increasing additions of carbon and decreasing size of the carbon particles. A new chemical parameter, glass ratio, $(\text{Na}_2\text{O} + \text{Li}_2\text{O})/(\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{SiO}_2)$ has been introduced to analyse the combined effect of the different oxides in the mold powder, on viscosity and crystallization temperature. Viscosity and crystallization temperature were found to decrease with increasing glass ratio. These results can be used to develop mold powders that match the casting conditions and produce high quality cast product.

INTRODUCTION

Continuous casting is one of the most important unit operations in the overall scheme of steel production for improving the yield and quality of steel. The percentage of steel continuously cast in the United States has grown from less than 10% to more than 60% in the last decade and is projected to be greater than 75% in the 90's. The concept, as the name implies, is to cast the liquid metal directly into a slab, bloom, billet or strip on a continuous basis. The liquid steel is cast by continuously feeding it into an oscillating water cooled copper mold. The partially solidified slab/bloom/billet exits the mold and is then hot rolled (directly or after cooling and reheating). Technologists realized that the use of a powder which is molten while the steel is solidifying acts as a lubricant in the mold and thus protects the solidifying steel shell. Mold powders were developed to be added onto the liquid steel to provide a liquid glass layer of optimum thermal, chemical, and frictional properties at the meniscus in the mold. The quality of steel produced depends on what happened at the solidifying meniscus.

Much work has been done in studying the behaviour and performance of mold powders[1-5]. During the last few years, new automated manufacturing facilities have been developed to produce synthetic powders with exact chemistries.

The purpose of this work was to study the physical and thermal relationships of synthetic mold powders and to study their behavior[6]. Through knowledge of the characteristics of these powders as a function of powder constituents, blending variables and other independent variables, one can optimize the process. This knowledge will enable one to "design" synthetic mold powders for specific casting conditions and steel grades to be cast. Figure 1 describes the approach adopted in the development of these mold powders.

FUNCTIONS OF THE MOLD POWDER

Figure 2 shows the longitudinal section (parallel to the broad face) of a continuous casting mold. The principal objective of using mold powders in continuous casting is to achieve better surface quality of the product.

The various functions of the mold powders are:

- (a) To protect liquid meniscus from reoxidation;
- (b) To provide thermal insulation for the liquid meniscus, thereby preventing premature solidification or skulling;
- (c) To provide lubrication and facilitate strand withdrawal from the mold;
- (d) To absorb and dissolve high melting point scum, such as deoxidation products, and thereby prevent its entrapment in the solidifying shell;
- (e) To control the heat transfer from the solidifying metal to the mold through the solidified shell;
- (f) To control interfacial tension at the meniscus thereby reducing the severity of oscillation marks.

The liquid glass film formation between the strand and the mold has a critical influence on lubrication and heat transfer. Crack formation in the slab is enhanced as the heat transfer rate is increased, or when the heat removal is nonuniform across the strand. Hence it is essential that the liquid glass infiltrate in a continuous and uniform fashion, and that heat transfer at the shell/mold interface is also uniform.

Average heat flux density in the mold is obtained from measurements of the cooling water in the mold[4]. In Figure 3 heat flux density is plotted as a function of casting speed for 3 different mold powders (Table I). The influence of casting speed and powder chemistry on heat transfer can be seen. Heat transfer through the molten powder layer is controlled by the thermal conductivity and thickness of the molten powder layer. The fusion rate of the mold powder will control the supply of liquid slag. The viscosity of the liquid slag will affect the thickness of the slag layer. The crystallization temperature of the liquid slag will affect the heat transfer characteristics of the slag layer. In this work, an attempt has been made to study the basic parameters that control fusion rate, viscosity and crystallization temperature.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

EXPERIMENTAL MATERIALS

All the powders which were examined in this study were obtained from Netco International. Thirteen basic powder formulations were used as listed in Table II. Varying additions of carbonaceous particles were made to each powder to determine the effect on fusion rate. A total of 56 powders were evaluated.

In the design of mold powders, the oxides are put together to have the desired viscosity, and crystallization temperature. Free carbon, in the form of fine, amorphous graphite or thermal black is added to achieve the desired fusion rate. Within a group, carbon levels varying from 0 to 6% were employed. Powders within each group are compared for fusion rates, whereas powders from different groups are compared for viscosity and crystallization temperature. The chemistry of different powders along with their properties are listed in Table II. In a given group, only one or two powders were analyzed for viscosity and crystallization.

TESTING METHODS

The following tests were performed:

- fusion rate
- viscosity
- differential thermal analysis
- chemical analysis
- fusion behaviour

The first three were performed at Drexel University and the last two tests were conducted at Netco International.

FUSION RATE TEST

Fusion rate is defined as the weight of powder that melts in unit time per unit area at 1500°C. It is usually of the order of 10^{-3} g/sq.cm./s.

The apparatus used to study fusion rate is shown in Figure 4. The setup essentially consists of a graphite susceptor placed inside an induction coil. The susceptor is placed on a graphite base. A graphite ring is placed on the susceptor. The graphite ring and the base are slit so as not to be heated by the induction field. A thermocouple is inserted into the walls of the susceptor and the assembly is placed inside the coil. A graphite stopper rod is placed above the axial hole of the susceptor. The assembly is then heated to 1500°C and mold powder is slowly added from the top. The powder starts melting and the stopper rod is lifted up. The molten powder flows through the axial hole and is collected in a vessel placed below the coil. Fresh powder is periodically added from the top to replace the molten powder. Thus the ring has 3 layers of powder: a fresh layer at the top, a partly sintered layer in the middle, and molten layer at the bottom. The powder is heated by a surface at 1500°C. Thus the setup simulates the actual casting conditions. After about 20 minutes (for equilibrium), a timer is switched on and the molten powder is collected in a different vessel. Molten powder is collected over 15 minutes, and then the stainless steel vessel is replaced. This is repeated 2 or 3 times.

The surface area over which powder melts is known (17.096 cm^2). The time for which it melts is also known (15 minutes). The powder in the stainless vessel is weighed and the fusion rate calculated. The mean value of 3 or 4 runs is then calculated and reported as the fusion rate for that powder.

VISCOSITY

Viscosity of the powder is critical in powder performance. Usually, the powder viscosity has to be matched against the casting speed, through some empirical formulae. The viscosity of the powder at 1300°C in Pascal-seconds or Poise is quoted in the industry.
($1 \text{ Pas} = 10 \text{ Ps} = 1000 \text{ cPs}$)

The apparatus used to study viscosity is shown in Figure 5. It essentially consists of a Molybdenum crucible kept inside a graphite crucible holder, heated by induction. The Molybdenum crucible contains the mold powder. A molybdenum spindle suspended from the viscometer rotates inside the melt.

At the beginning of the viscosity test, the spindle is calibrated using standard oils at different rpm's. Two standard oils (92.5, 4800 cPs) are used with two viscometers (referred to as low and high viscometers- the former capable of measuring viscosities up to few hundred centipoise and the latter capable of measuring viscosities from few hundred to few thousand centipoise). At a given rpm, for an oil of known viscosity, the viscometer reading is noted. The calibration factor is obtained by dividing the oil viscosity by the reading. For both viscometers, the calibration factors are obtained at different rotation speeds.

During the viscosity test, the decarburised mold powder is added to the molybdenum crucible and heated by induction. The temperature is gradually increased to about 1500°C. Then the low viscometer is placed on a wooden plank above the coil and the moly spindle is suspended from it into the melt through the suspension wires. The spindle is set into motion and the readings noted down at different rpm's. At given rpm, the viscosity is obtained by multiplying the reading by the corresponding calibration factor. Then the mean viscosity at that temperature over different rpm's is obtained. Subsequently, the power is adjusted to reduce the temperature by about 50°C. Approximately 20 to 30 minutes is allowed to attain equilibrium and then the viscosity is measured as explained above. The temperature is decreased in successive steps to about 1100°C. If the viscosity value measured became to be outside the range of the viscometer in place, the latter was replaced by the high viscometer (which covers the appropriate range of viscosities of interest). Below the crystallization temperature, the reading is very unsteady and the test is terminated. Viscosities at different

temperatures are then tabulated. Log viscosity is plotted against reciprocal absolute temperature.

DIFFERENTIAL THERMAL ANALYSIS (DTA)

DTA is frequently used to determine the solidus, liquidus temperatures of metallic systems. The analyzer essentially consists of 2 crucibles, one with the sample to be analyzed and the other with the standard, with thermocouples attached to each of them. The 2 crucibles are placed inside a furnace and heated to the temperature range of interest.

For this study, alumina was used as the standard and small platinum cups (5mm dia., 5 mm ht.) as crucibles. The assembly was heated to 1400°C and then cooled to about 300°C, at the rate of 25°C/min. The temperature difference (between sample and standard) is plotted against temperature of sample. For metallic systems, peaks and valleys in the DTA curve indicate solidus and liquidus temperatures. In the case of mold powders, the exothermic peaks on cooling indicate crystallization.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

FUSION RATE

Fusion rate values ($@1500^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\text{mg}/\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$) are listed in the Table II. Figure 6 shows fusion rate for all powders as a function of the free carbon content. Fusion rate values for different powders belonging to groups G and J are plotted as a function of carbon content in Figures 7 and 8, respectively. Carbon present in the powders comes from two sources, free carbon added to the mixture of oxides; and combined carbon present as carbonates in the oxide bearing minerals. The free carbon particles retard the fusion of mold powders by preventing the coalescence of the oxide particles. This is supported by Figure 6; namely, the fusion rate decreases as free carbon content increases. For example, in group G, addition of 1% free carbon to a matrix without any free carbon, decreases the fusion rate from 8.8 to 4.94 $\text{mg}/\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$; and increasing the free carbon content from 1 to 2%, results in a decrease of the fusion rate from 4.94 to 2.34 $\text{mg}/\text{cm}^2/\text{s}$.

Fusion rate of different mold powders can also be interpreted using molten slag pool depth measurements in the caster. The molten pool depth should be higher than the sum of the mold oscillation amplitude and the mold level variation. If the pool depth is smaller than the desired value, then the optimum amount of lubricant will not be available. In that case, the carbon content of the mold powder should be decreased to increase the fusion rate. Quantitative information relating the fusion rate and carbon content is necessary to make such modifications. Graphs relating fusion rate and free carbon content, obtained from this study can be used to design mold powders. A technical report from Nippon steel lists this as a factor in their methodology for design of mold powders[7].

VISCOSITY

The viscosity values at 1300°C were analysed to deduce the influence of the different constituents of those powders. The viscosity of molten powder is determined by the proportion of different oxides such as alumina, silica, sodium oxide.

Alumina and silica form complex ionic structures and therefore have low mobility and high viscosity. On the otherhand, Li_2O and Na_2O form small molecules, with high mobility and low viscosity. Thus, addition of alumina and silica would increase the viscosity of molten mold powder, whereas sodium and lithium oxides would decrease the viscosity. To get an idea of the combined effect of these oxides, a glass ratio was formulated.

$$\text{Glass ratio} = (\text{Na}_2\text{O} + \text{Li}_2\text{O})/(\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{SiO}_2) \quad (\text{all in w/o}) \quad (1)$$

The viscosity of molten powder as a function of glass ratio is given in Figure 9. It can be seen that an increase in glass ratio results in a decrease in the viscosity. The glass ratio gives an indication of the tendency of the mobility of the ionic structure.

DIFFERENTIAL THERMAL ANALYSIS (DTA)

Twelve mold powders were examined using differential thermal analyzer. A typical DTA plot is shown in Figure 10. The DTA results are listed in Table II. The crystallization temperatures were then interpreted in terms of the powder chemistry. Figure 11 shows crystallization temperature as a function of the corresponding glass ratio. From Figure 11, it can clearly be seen that as the glass ratio increases, the crystallization temperature is decreased.

Glass is an inorganic product of fusion which has cooled to a rigid condition without crystallizing. For a substance which can be cooled to the glassy state, no discontinuous volume change is found and there is no exothermic effect corresponding to the change from liquid to solid state.

On cooling, powders which are glassy, will have a glass transition, i.e., no peaks will be found. If the powder forms crystalline precipitates, then it will not show a glass transition; it will have a peak corresponding to crystallization. Table II shows whether the powder is glassy or not. If there is a peak, the peak temperature is also listed. Again, the crystallization temperature is a function of powder chemistry.

To minimize friction in the mold, the molten powder, which is cooling as it flows down the mold, should remain glassy as long as possible or down to as low a temperature as possible. Two factors need to be considered, a) whether the powder will be glassy on cooling or will it form crystalline precipitates, and b) if it forms crystalline precipitates, what is the temperature above which it is completely liquid? Consider a mixture of oxides which forms crystalline precipitates on cooling. Growth of crystalline phases which may differ markedly in thermal expansion coefficient and other thermal properties from the parent glass, can lead to the generation of stresses on cooling. Also, in general, thermal conductivity of pure crystalline oxides are much different from that of glasses[8]. If the mold powder does not completely transform into glass, it would cause locally abnormal thermal properties, resulting in poor performance.

Literature on mold powders [9,10] shows a definite correlation between crystallinity and frequency of breakouts. Thus, crystallization temperature plays a significant role in powder performance, and needs to be studied in more detail to ensure optimum powder performance.

Information such as surface temperature of slab at different points inside the mold, and the ratio of radiative to conductive heat transfer at high temperatures, for different powders, is needed to validate/extend the above interpretation. If radiative heat transfer dominates the overall heat transfer process, then the increased conductive heat transfer due to crystalline precipitates would have very little effect on overall heat transfer.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

56 synthetic blend mold powders were evaluated for viscosity, crystallization temperature and fusion rate and the properties were compared with the composition. Fusion rate of synthetic blends is controlled by the free carbon content. Increasing the carbon content decreases the fusion rate. Fusion rate is of the order of $\text{mg/cm}^2/\text{s}$. Viscosity ranges from 0.1 to 1.1 Pa.s. Viscosity of molten mold powders decreases with increasing glass ratio. Crystallization temperature decreases with increasing glass ratio.

Glass ratio has been introduced as a chemical parameter to interpret the powder properties. Alkaline oxide content (or glass ratio) has a significant effect on the crystallization temperature, and, in turn, influences the heat transfer rate and occurrence of breakouts.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was partially funded by the Ben Franklin Partnership of the State of Pennsylvania through the Advanced Technology Centre in Philadelphia.

REFERENCES

1. R.V. Branton, "Mold fluxes for continuous casting," Steelmaking Proceedings, Vol. 69, ISS-AIME, 1986, pp. 3-14.
2. W.L. McCauley, D. Apelian, "Continuous casting mold fluxes," Iron and Steelmaker, Aug. 1983 to Jan. 1984.
3. W.L. McCauley, "Viscosity characteristics of mold fluxes used in continuous casting of steel," M.S. Thesis, Drexel University, 1979.
4. P.V. Riboud, M. Larrecq, "Lubrication and heat transfer in a continuous casting mold," Steelmaking Proceedings, Vol. 62, ISS-AIME, 1979, pp. 78-92.
5. W.L. McCauley, M.K. Koul, "Mold powder Technology- Bottom Pouring Vs. Continuous casting," Steelmaking Proceedings, Vol. 69, ISS-AIME, 1986, pp. 87-93.
6. S. Sankaranarayanan, "Physical/thermal relationships of synthetic mold powders for continuous casting of steels," M.S. Thesis, Drexel University, June 1988.
7. K. Koyama, K. Nagano, Y. Nagano, T. Nakano, "Design for chemical and physical properties of continuous casting powders," Nippon Steel Technical Report, #34, July 1987, pp. 41-47.
8. P.W. McMillan, Glass Ceramics, Academic Press, London, 1964.
9. H. Kyoden, T. Doihara, O. Nomura, "Development of mold powders for high speed continuous casting of steel," Steelmaking Proceedings, Vol. 69, ISS-AIME, 1986, pp. 153-160.
10. H. Nakato, T. Sekuraya, T. Nozaki, T. Emi, H. Nishikawa, "Physical and chemical properties of casting powders affecting the mold lubrication during continuous casting," Steelmaking Proceedings, Vol. 69, ISS-AIME, 1986, pp. 137-143.

* pyroscope test

slag No.	Liquid Slag Composition, %										Melting range °C *
	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	CaO+ MgO	CaF ₂	Na ₂ O+ K ₂ O	Li ₂ O	MnO	FeO	at 1200°C	at 1500°C	
1	41	10	35.5	9	4	0	0	0.5	2.2	0.24	1195-1210
2	38	7	32	10	11	0	0	2.0	0.5	0.085	1120-1145
3	29	12	20	16	17	0	4	2.0	0.2	0.035	1023-1063
4	36	0.5	12	21	27	2.5	0	0.5	0.04	0.016	840-870
5	30	8	26	14	9	0	12	1.0	0.19	0.038	1100-1140

Table I. Properties of some mold powders evaluated for heat flux density (ref. Figure 3) [4]

MOLD POWDER	Al ₂ O ₃	Na ₂ O	CaO	SiO ₂	VISCOSITY @ 1300°C [Pa.s]	CRYSTALLIZATION TEMPERATURE [°C]
A	2.77	14.20	39.49	36.98	0.14	1010
B	0.89	11.56	37.88	43.22	0.32	1060
C1	8.12	14.49	35.66	32.05	0.18	NA
C2	2.39	13.08	39.96	37.91	0.14	NA
D	8.06	12.20	32.86	36.95	0.40	NA
F	0.74	21.14	32.10	36.28	0.08	900
G	7.80	7.63	33.59	38.96	0.30	1075
J	7.96	3.52	23.56	42.41	0.37	1140
M	6.86	6.16	33.43	44.40	0.83	NA
N	2.49	8.52	40.53	38.29	0.11	1230
P	2.21	8.12	40.45	38.59	0.11	1175
Q	5.66	9.34	31.91	46.69	1.08	NA
R	6.14	9.31	39.23	37.19	NA	1070

Table II. Composition and properties of synthetic mold powders

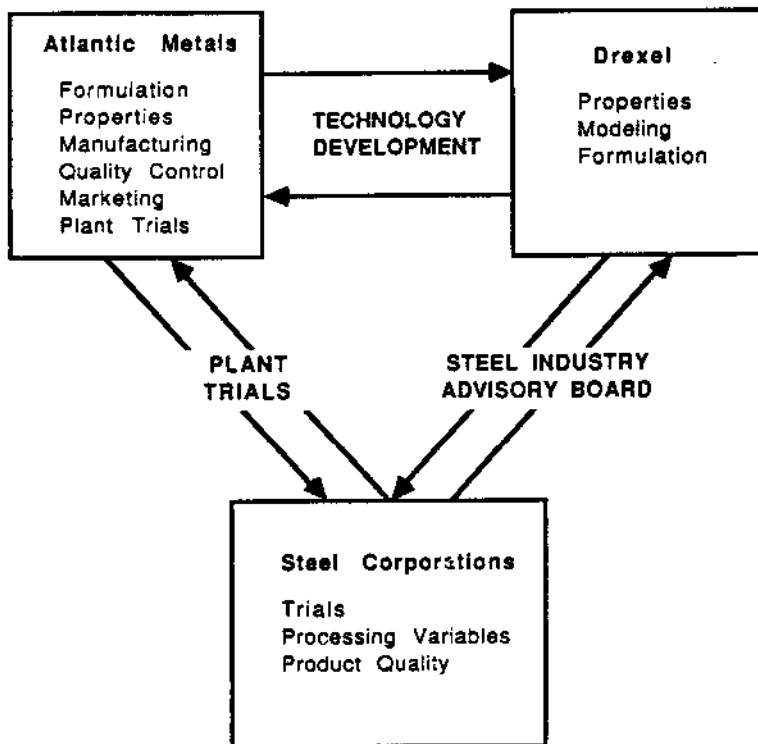


Figure 1. Technology Development and Transfer