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Effect of NaOH content on hydration, mineralogy, porosity and strength in alkali/sulfate-activated binders from ground granulated blast furnace slag and phosphogypsum Peer-reviewed author version

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1	EFFECT OF NaOH CONTENT ON HYDRATION, MINERALOGY,
2	POROSITY AND STRENGTH IN ALKALI/SULFATE-ACTIVATED
3	BINDERS FROM GROUND GRANULATED BLAST FURNACE SLAG
4	AND PHOSPHOGYPSUM
5	
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21	Declarations of interest: none

#### 22 Abstract

This study investigates the effect of NaOH content on alkali/sulfate-activated binders from 90 23 24 wt.% ground granulated blast furnace slag (GGBFS) and 10 wt.% phosphogypsum (PG). 25 Alkali activators were prepared with a NaOH molarity ranging from 0 M to 4 M. The hydration was monitored using in-situ X-ray diffraction (XRD) and isothermal calorimetry. The hydration 26 product assemblage was investigated using XRD, thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), 27 Fourier-transformed infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy, nitrogen adsorption/desorption and 28 29 compressive strength tests. A molarity of 0 M NaOH gave rise to the highest porosity and highest strength, although setting occurred only after 7 days. From a molarity of 2 M NaOH 30 and higher, ettringite disappeared and got replaced by a monosulfate phase (i.e., 31 NaCa<sub>4</sub>Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>1.5</sub>.15H<sub>2</sub>O) and amorphous aluminum-hydroxide. This study shows the 32 potential of using GGBFS and PG for the development of novel by-product based 33 cementitious binders. 34

35

# 36 Keywords

Ground granulated blast furnace slag, phosphogypsum, supersulfated cement, alkali-activated binder

39

#### 40 **1. Introduction**

41 Compared to other conventional construction products, such as steel or aluminum, the

42 average CO<sub>2</sub> emission of ordinary Portland cement (OPC) production is relatively low (0.83

- 43 tonnes/tonne OPC, 3 tonnes/tonne steel and 15 tonnes/tonne aluminum) [1–3]. Due to the
- 44 enormous global production volumes, however, it makes a significant contribution to overall
- 45 global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions [1,2,4], together with the fact it is difficult to recycle. For this reason,
- 46 the construction industry is highly interested in the development of novel cementitious

47 binders, preferably based on secondary industrial by-products, with equivalent performance 48 to OPC but with a lower  $CO_2$  footprint [5–7]. One such alternative is supersulfated cement (SSC), which comprises typically a mixture of 70-90 wt.% ground granulated blast furnace 49 50 slag (GGBFS), 10-20 wt.% calcium sulfate and an alkaline activator (mostly < 5 wt.%), usually OPC or clinker [8]. If the slag has an  $Al_2O_3$  content exceeding 13 wt.%, the hydration 51 could, in fact, occur without the addition of an alkaline activator. However, most GGBFS is 52 characterized by  $Al_2O_3$  contents lower than 13 wt.% [5], which results in a very slow reaction 53 54 rate. Therefore, the addition of an alkaline activator (potentially in combination with adapted 55 curing conditions) is necessary to accelerate the hydration reaction [8-12]. The use of phosphogypsum (PG) [13–15], a by-product generated in the phosphate industry, as calcium 56 sulfate source further decreases the environmental footprint of SSC. Because PG contains 57 58 remnants of phosphoric acid (among other impurities such as fluorine), however, its use 59 might result in a higher alkaline-demand for such matrices [16]. PG might also contain elevated concentrations of naturally occurring radionuclides [17], which can be problematic 60 when considering its use for building purposes. A previous in-depth investigation into this 61 62 aspect [18] concluded that a maximum of 10 wt.% PG could be incorporated from a radiological perspective. It should be kept in mind that the radionuclide content of PG 63 streams [19,20], and industrial by-products in general [21,22], can vary significantly. Also, 64 65 sand and aggregates can either increase or dilute the total radionuclide content of a building 66 material. Each individual case therefore needs careful evaluation.

The proposed system in this investigation differs from SSCs because it includes 10 wt.% PG as calcium sulfate source, and completely excludes the use of OPC by choosing NaOH as alkali activator. Nevertheless, this system might behave in a similar way. Typical hydration products of SSCs are ettringite (AFt, 3CaO.Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.3CaSO<sub>4</sub>.32H<sub>2</sub>O) and monosulfates (AFm, 3CaO.Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.CaSO<sub>4</sub>.nH<sub>2</sub>O where n = 8-14) [23], along with other crystalline or amorphous phases such as e.g. portlandite, aluminum-hydroxide, calcium-aluminosilicate- hydrate

73 (CASH) or calcium-silicate-hydrate (CSH) [24,25]. The NaOH content, however, might

significantly influence the hydration product formation and final assemblage.

75 This study therefore investigates the influence of the NaOH content on the hydration, 76 mineralogy, porosity and compressive strength using in-situ and ex-situ X-ray diffraction (XRD), isothermal calorimetry, thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), Fourier-transformed 77 infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy, nitrogen adsorption/desorption and compressive strength tests. 78 In contrast to previous studies on alkali-activated binders from 90 wt.% GGBFS and 10 wt.% 79 PG [18,26,27], this study aims to decrease the alkali content in view of increased production 80 safety, and lower production costs and environmental footprint imposed by the production of 81 alkalis [28] (while simultaneously obtaining adequate properties). 82

83

### 84 2. Materials and methods

#### 85 2.1 Materials

86 GGBFS was supplied by a Belgian iron and steel production company. PG was collected 87 from a PG processing plant in Gdansk (Poland), and subsequently milled and homogenized by the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) (reference material IAEA 434) [29]. 88 GGBFS was dried in a laboratory oven at 110 °C, and thereafter milled to a Blaine fineness 89 90 of 4050 ± 200 cm<sup>2</sup>/g, measured according to EN 196-6 [30]. The density of GGBFS was 2.9 g/cm<sup>3</sup>, determined according to ASTM C204 [31] with a Quantachrome Multipycnometer 91 MVP-6DC. The particle size distribution of GGBFS and PG was investigated by laser 92 scattering (Mastersizer Micro Plus, Malvern, Worcestershire, UK) using isopropanol to avoid 93 hydration during the measurement, and is presented in Fig. 1. GGBFS showed a bimodal 94 particle size distribution from 0.1  $\mu$ m to 103.6  $\mu$ m and a d<sub>50</sub> of 10  $\mu$ m. PG (used as received) 95 presents an unimodal particle size distribution from 0.2  $\mu$ m to 24  $\mu$ m and a d<sub>50</sub> of 7  $\mu$ m. 96



98

Figure 1: Particle size distribution of GGBFS and PG

99 The chemical composition of GGBFS was investigated by X-ray fluorescence (XRF) analysis

100 (Philips PW 1830), while the chemical composition of PG was provided by the IAEA. The

101 results are summarized in Table 1.

102

# **Table 1**: Chemical composition (in wt.%) of GGBFS and PG

Chemical compound	GGBFS	PG
CaO	44.1	35.2
SiO <sub>2</sub>	32.5	0.9
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	10.5	0.2
MgO	8.6	-
SO <sub>3</sub>	1.8	50.3
TiO <sub>2</sub>	0.8	-
K <sub>2</sub> O	0.5	-
Na <sub>2</sub> O	0.4	-
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	0.3	-
$P_2O_5$	-	1.3
F <sup>.</sup>	-	1.1
LOI at 950 °C	0.1	11.0

XRD analysis was carried out to investigate the mineralogy of GGBFS and PG. As an 104 internal standard, 10 wt.% ZnO (purity 99.9%, Merck) was added [32,33]. The measurements 105 106 were performed using a D2 PHASER (Bruker) automated diffractometer with Cu-Kα-radiation equipped with a Lynx-eye super speed position sensitive detector, operated at 30 kV and 10 107 mA in continuous PSD (position sensitive detector) fast mode. The scan range was from 5° 108 to 70° 20, the step width was 0.02° 20, and the counting time was 0.3 s per step. A beam 109 knife slit was positioned 3 mm above the sample, which was prepared using the back loading 110 111 technique. During acquisition, the sample was rotated at 15 rpm. The diffractograms obtained are shown in Fig. 2 and the peaks from ZnO are indicated with an asterisk. 112



113

114	Figure 2: Diffractograms obtained from XRD of GGBFS and PG (merwinite: M, gypsum: G,

115 bassanite: B, anhydrite: A)

116 Qualitative analysis of the diffractograms was performed with EVA V.3.1 (Bruker AXS)

117 software. For quantitative analysis, MAUD (Material Analysis Using Diffraction) [34] was used

based on the Rietveld method [35–37] and the background was fitted by a 15 coefficient

polynomial function [38]. From the known initial ZnO content, the crystalline and amorphous

120 contents were recalculated, and the results are summarized in Table 2.

121

Table 2: Mineralogy (in wt.%) of GGBFS and PG

Phase	GGBFS	PG

Merwinite (Ca <sub>3</sub> MgSi <sub>2</sub> O <sub>8</sub> )	5.3 ± 0.8	-
Gypsum (CaSO <sub>4</sub> .2H <sub>2</sub> O, $C\bar{S}H_2$ )	-	33.2 ± 0.9
Bassanite (CaSO <sub>4</sub> .0.5H <sub>2</sub> O, $C\bar{S}H_{0.5}$ )	-	27.1 ± 0.9
Anhydrite (CaSO <sub>4</sub> , $C\overline{S}$ )	-	32.1 ± 1.0
Amorphous	94.7 ± 0.8	7.6 ± 2.8

# 123 2.2 Sample mixtures

Based on a previous radiological investigation [18], a maximum of 10 wt.% PG can be 124 125 incorporated in order to comply with the European Union Basic Safety Standards (EU-BSS) for building materials [39]. Therefore, a mixture of 90 wt.% GGBFS and 10 wt.% PG was 126 127 chosen. The GGBFS and PG were mixed for 2 h in a Turbula T2C mixer for homogenization (referred to as 'binder'). Chemical grade NaOH (purity 99%, Chem-Lab) and distilled water 128 (ASTM type II) were used for the synthesis of the alkali activators, which was done 1 day 129 prior to sample preparation. The H<sub>2</sub>O/Na<sub>2</sub>O molar ratios of the alkali activators (taking into 130 account the density of the solutions at 20 °C) were 55.56/0.00 (0 M NaOH), 55.56/0.25 (0.5 131 M NaOH), 55.56/0.50 (1 M NaOH), 55.56/1.00 (2 M NaOH), 55.00/1.50 (3 M NaOH) and 132 55.00/2.00 (4 M NaOH). A total of 6 pastes (P1-P6) and 6 mortars (M1-M6) were prepared. 133 134 The details of the mixtures are summarized in Table 3. Based on previous experimental work [18,26,27], the alkali activator/binder weight ratio (AA/B) was established at 3/5 and was 135 retained for all pastes and mortars for the sake of comparison. For the preparation of the 136 pastes, the alkali activator was manually mixed with the binder for 3 min. Due to the small 137 volumes involved, manual mixing was chosen instead of using a Hobart mixer in order to 138 139 obtain good homogeneity. For the preparation of the mortars, CEN standard sand (DIN EN 196-1) was used with a sand/binder weight ratio (S/B) of 3/1 according to EN 196-1 [40]. The 140 mixing of the mortars was performed in accordance with EN 196-6 [30]. All pastes and 141 mortars were prepared under laboratory conditions (room temperature  $20 \pm 2$  °C, relative 142

humidity about 50%). The SO<sub>3</sub> content of the binder amounts to 6 wt.%, which is consistent

144 with the requirements of the European standard for SSCs (5 wt.%  $\leq$  SO<sub>3</sub>  $\leq$  12 wt.%) [41].

145

	Table	3:	Sample	mixtures
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Sample*	Bin	der	Alkali activator	AA/B	S/B
	wt.% GGBFS	wt.% PG	H <sub>2</sub> O/Na <sub>2</sub> O (NaOH molarity)		
P1, M1	90	10	55.56/0.00 (0 M)	3/5	0/1, 3/1
P2, M2	90	10	55.56/0.25 (0.5 M)	3/5	0/1, 3/1
P3, M3	90	10	55.56/0.50 (1 M)	3/5	0/1, 3/1
P4, M4	90	10	55.56/1.00 (2 M)	3/5	0/1, 3/1
P5, M5	90	10	55.00/1.50 (3 M)	3/5	0/1, 3/1
P6, M6	90	10	55.00/2.00 (4 M)	3/5	0/1, 3/1

146

P1-P6 and M1-M6 refer to pastes and mortars, respectively.

# 147 **2.3 Sample dimensions and curing regimes**

148 For in-situ XRD and isothermal calorimetry on fresh pastes, the measurements were executed immediately after the mixing procedure. For XRD, TGA, FTIR and nitrogen 149 150 adsorption/desorption, fresh pastes were cast in polystyrene cubic molds with dimensions 25 151 mm x 25 mm x 25 mm and covered with plastic film to avoid water evaporation and carbonation. After 24 h, the pastes were demolded and further cured in plastic bags under 152 153 laboratory conditions (temperature  $20 \pm 2$  °C, relative humidity about 50%). For XRD, the 154 curing times were 3, 7, 14 and 28 days. For TGA, FTIR and nitrogen adsorption/desorption, the curing time amounted to 28 days. There was no need to stop the hydration (with e.g. 155 isopropanol) as all measurements were scheduled exactly in time. For compressive strength 156 157 testing, fresh mortars were cast in polymer coated steel molds with dimensions 40 mm x 40 mm x 160 mm and vibrated for 60 s at a frequency of 1 Hz [30]. A plastic film was placed 158 over the opening surface of the molds to prevent water evaporation and carbonation. After 24 159 h, the mortars were demolded and further cured in plastic vessels for 28 days under 160

laboratory conditions (temperature  $20 \pm 2$  °C, relative humidity about 50%). M1 was

demolded after 14 days because it did not gain enough strength during the first 24 h,

163 whereafter the same curing regime was applied as for the other mortars.

164

## 165 2.4 In-situ XRD and isothermal calorimetry

For in-situ XRD measurements, the same D2 PHASER (Bruker) diffractometer was used as 166 for the XRD analysis of the materials. After the mixing procedure, the fresh pastes were 167 poured into the sample holder (25 mm diameter and 1 mm depth), and the surface was 168 169 smoothed. No internal standard was added because of the potential influence on the hydration product formation. The sample holder was sealed with Kapton film to prevent water 170 evaporation and carbonation. A total of 110 diffractograms were recorded in continuous PSD 171 fast mode between 6° and 55° 20 at time intervals of 13 min, with a step width of 0.02° 20 172 and a counting time of 0.3 s per step. The X-ray tube was operated at 30 kV and 10 mA. A 173 beam knife slit was positioned 1 mm above the sample and the temperature inside the 174 diffractometer case was kept constant at 20 °C during acquisition. The diffractograms were 175 qualitatively evaluated with EVA V.3.1 (Bruker AXS) software. 176

A TAM-Air Isothermal Calorimeter (TA Instruments) was used for heat flow calorimetry under isothermal conditions ( $20.0 \pm 0.1 \text{ °C}$ ) during the first 6 days of hydration. After the mixing procedure, the fresh pastes were poured into glass ampoules, which were inserted in the calorimeter. P1 was additionally monitored for 28 days.

181

#### 182 **2.5 XRD**

After their curing period (i.e., 3, 7, 14 and 28 days), the hardened pastes were manually milled in a porcelain mortar. P1 could not be measured after 3 and 7 days because it did not gain enough strength. As an internal standard, 10 wt.% ZnO (purity 99.9%, Merck) was

added [32,33]. The measurements were performed using the same diffractometer, settings
and procedure as for the XRD analysis of the materials. A beam knife slit was positioned 1
mm above the sample. Qualitative and quantitative analysis were performed in the same way
as for the materials.

190

#### 191 **2.6 TGA, FTIR and nitrogen adsorption/desorption**

After their curing period (i.e., 28 days), the hardened pastes were investigated. Prior to TGA 192 and FTIR, the pastes were manually milled in a porcelain mortar. TGA (Q55, TA Instruments) 193 194 was carried out on a sample weight of 20 mg under nitrogen atmosphere from room temperature to 995 °C at a heating rate of 10 °C/min. For FTIR, a Vertex 70 spectrometer 195 196 (Bruker) with an ATR diamond crystal (Pike) was used. Spectra were acquired in wavenumber ranges from 4000 cm<sup>-1</sup> to 600 cm<sup>-1</sup> at a resolution of 4 cm<sup>-1</sup> and with 32 scans 197 198 per measurement, using a DTGS detector. Nitrogen adsorption/desorption tests were carried out using a TRISTAR 3000 Micromeritics device at -196.2 °C. Prior to degassing, the pastes 199 were dried in a laboratory oven at 40 °C for 2-3 days until a constant weight was achieved. 200 201 Thereafter, they were degassed using the vacuum degas method with a Schlenk line at 20 °C for 72 h at a pressure/vacuum of 100 Pa. The specific surface area was obtained from the 202 adsorption data by the BET (Brunauer, Emmett and Teller) method [42] over the  $P/P_0$  range 203 of 0.05-0.30 (where P is the partial vapor pressure of the adsorbate gas in equilibrium and  $P_0$ 204 is the saturated pressure of the adsorbate gas at -196.2 °C). From the desorption data, the 205 mesopore size distribution and the cumulative mesopore volume were found using the BJH 206 207 (Barrett, Joyner and Halenda) method [43]. The micropore volume and micropore surface 208 area were obtained from the adsorption data using the T-plot analysis method [44].

209

#### 210 2.7 Compressive strength testing

After their curing period (i.e., 28 days), the hardened mortars were tested for their

212 compressive strength. An Instron 5985 machine equipped with a 250 kN load cell was

213 employed for testing 5 specimens of each formulation.

214

#### 215 3. Results and discussion

#### 216 **3.1 In-situ XRD and isothermal calorimetry**

In Fig. 3, a selection of the recorded in-situ XRD diffractograms are plotted (at regular time 217 steps of 130 min) for P1-P6. Quantitative analysis of those data is not feasible as no internal 218 219 standard was added. The following phases were recognized: merwinite, gypsum, bassanite, anhydrite, ettringite, CASH [45-47], portlandite, a monosulfate phase, and thenardite. The 220 221 monosulfate phase constitutes NaCa<sub>4</sub>Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>1.5</sub>.15H<sub>2</sub>O (PDF 44-0272 in the PDF1999database). The hump in the diffractograms from approximately 12° to 25° 20 is mainly 222 223 caused by the presence of Kapton film, while the remaining water in the sample contributes to a lesser extent to the broader hump from approximately 12° to 45° 20. From Fig. 3a, it is 224 225 clear that the mineralogy of the paste remains guite similar during the first 24 h upon mixing 226 the binder with a 0 M NaOH solution. The peaks in the diffractograms mainly originate from merwinite, gypsum, bassanite and anhydrite from the binder. When increasing the molarity of 227 228 the NaOH solution from 0.5 M to 4 M (Fig. 3b to Fig. 3f), the dissolution of the binder and the formation of hydration products, simultaneously or in sequence, is recognizable in the 229 diffractograms. For example, the formation of ettringite at around 9° 20 is clearly 230 231 distinguishable in Fig. 3b and Fig. 3c and the intensity of this peak grew slightly over time. The higher the molarity, the faster the peaks from the binder disappear and peaks from the 232 hydration products appear, suggesting a faster setting time. However, even at the highest 233 molarities of 3 M and 4 M, merwinite is still present at 21.9 h, which may be due to an initial 234 235 fast coverage of the binder by the hydration products, hindering proper dissolution of the binder. Gypsum and bassanite appear to dissolve more easily compared to anhydrite, which 236 is still present in P3 after 21.9 h. A similar effect is described in [48–50]. From a molarity of 1 237

M and higher, the formation of CASH is deduced from the hump at around 29° 20 [46,47]. 238 Another peak typical for the CASH phase appears gradually for P6 at around 7° 20 [51]. At a 239 240 molarity of 1 M, portlandite is initially formed and remains present in the paste until 241 approximately 3-4 h after mixing. At a molarity of 2 M, initially formed portlandite remains present in the paste until approximately 4-6 h after mixing. At a molarity of 3 M and 4 M, 242 portlandite is recognized in all diffractograms. The formation of portlandite increases the pH 243 and promotes further slag dissolution [25]. Therefore, from a molarity of 1 M and higher, the 244 245 system behaves as a hybrid one consisting of a cascade of amplifying reactions. As further discussed in section 3.3, P3-P6 showed the lowest porosity. Ettringite is formed in P1-P4. At 246 a molarity of 2 M, ettringite and a rather crystalline monosulfate phase coexist, while at 247 molarities of 3 M and 4 M only the monosulfate phase is present in the sample, and ettringite 248 is absent. Thenardite (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) appears in P6 approximately 10-11 h after mixing. The 249 formation of thenardite, which is a soluble salt, is undesirable from the leaching point of view. 250 For P6, all intensities drop away after 16 h, which is likely to be the consequence of sample 251 252 swelling or shrinkage, obscuring proper diffraction at the sample surface. Volume expansion 253 due to the (partial) dissolution of the monosulfate phase might be a possible explanation [52], which then induces thenardite formation. 254



255



Figure 3: Diffractograms obtained from in-situ XRD for a) P1, b) P2, c) P3, d) P4, e) P5 and
f) P6 (merwinite: M, gypsum: G, bassanite: B, anhydrite: A, ettringite: E, calciumaluminosilicate-hydrate: CASH, portlandite: P, a monosulfate phase: AFm, and thenardite: T)

The heat release and cumulative heat during the first 6 days of hardening are shown in Fig. 261 4a (and during the first 24 h in Fig. 4b and Fig. 4c). For all samples, an initial wetting and 262 dissolution peak is observed after inserting the paste into the calorimeter. For P1, which was 263 264 prepared with a 0 M NaOH solution, no exothermic reactions took place during the first 6 days. The initial exothermic peak between 0 h and 2 h for P2, P3 and P4 (the combination of 265 wetting and dissolution) is followed by an induction period of approximately 3 h, whereafter a 266 second exothermic peak from 5 h to 60 h is presumably caused by the formation of hydration 267 268 products (which is consistent with in-situ XRD where the ettringite peak became clearly visible after 4.6 h). For P5 and P6, no induction period is observed between the first and 269 270 second exothermic peak, indicating that immediately after dissolution a critical concentration

was reached to initiate the hydration product formation (consistent with in-situ XRD, where 271 e.g. portlandite was already recognized in the first diffractogram). The heat release curve of 272 273 P6 is significantly different from the other curves because of its major heat release during the 274 first 10 h, followed later by a sharp increase in heat release after 40 h. A potential cause might be the initial coverage of a portion of the binder due to a fast initial hydration product 275 276 formation (e.g. the fast initial formation of the monosulfate phase during the first 10 h), which gets further hydrated after 40 h. The same phenomenon has been reported in [25,53,54]. 277 278 The cumulative heat of P2, P3 and P4 is comparable, reaching around 80 J/g after 6 days. Comparable values are reported in the literature [55]. The cumulative heat for P5 and P6 is 279 25% (100 J/g) and 50% (124 J/g) higher at that time, respectively. Fig. 4a shows that 280 hydration is an ongoing process that continues even after 6 days. The calorimetric monitoring 281 of P1 was prolonged to 28 days and the curves are presented in Fig. 4d. After the initial 282 wetting and dissolution peak, a very long induction period is observed until approximately 283 160 h, followed by a second exothermic peak that reaches a maximum at 200 h. From these 284 data, it is assumed that the setting of P1 starts only after 7 days. After 28 days, the 285 286 cumulative heat of P1 reached 116 J/g. To be in accordance with the European standard for SSCs, the cumulative heat at 7 days should not exceed 220 J/g [41]. SSCs have the 287 advantage of generating a much lower heat during hydration compared to OPC [56]. The 288 combined effect of OPC's low thermal conductivity and its high heat during hydration might 289 290 induce cracking [57].



Figure 4: a) Heat release and cumulative heat during 6 days for P1-P6, b) heat release during 24 h for P1-P6, c) cumulative heat during 24 h for P1-P6, and d) heat release and cumulative heat during 28 days for P1

#### 297 3.2 XRD

XRD analysis was performed after curing periods of 3, 7, 14 and 28 days. The diffractograms are plotted from 5° to 60° 20 and are presented in Fig. 5. P1 did not gain enough strength after 3 and 7 days and could therefore only be measured after 14 and 28 days of curing. The peaks of ZnO are indicated with an asterisk. Merwinite and gypsum originate from the undissolved GGBFS and PG particles, respectively. It has to be noted here that thenardite and calcite (not indicated in Fig. 5) are considered to be side-products. The main hydration products identified were ettringite, CASH [45–47], a monosulfate phase [47,58], and

portlandite. As with in-situ XRD (section 3.1), the monosulfate phase constitutes 305 NaCa<sub>4</sub>Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>1.5</sub>.15H<sub>2</sub>O. Other minor hydration products (not indicated in Fig. 5) found 306 307 were cuspidine and Mg<sub>2</sub>P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>. An amorphous aluminum-hydroxide phase is also expected to be present (further confirmed by TGA in section 3.3 for P4-P6), yet not recognizable by XRD 308 [48]. The presence of a CSH phase could not be identified due to its highly amorphous 309 nature, yet it is visible for P1-P4 in TGA (section 3.3). Anhydrite and bassanite were not 310 recognized, while merwinite and gypsum peaks gradually disappear upon extended curing 311 312 times. From a molarity of 2 M and higher, neither merwinite nor gypsum peaks were observed. The peaks originating from the hydration products grew slightly over time. Upon 313 increasing the molarity of the alkali activator, CASH development is promoted, as well as the 314 monosulfate phase. As with in-situ XRD, ettringite and monosulfate coexist in P4, while 315 ettringite is absent in P5 and P6. 316





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320 Figure 5: Diffractograms obtained from XRD after 3, 7, 14 and 28 days of curing for a) P1, b) P2, c) P3, d) P4, e) P5 and d) P6 (merwinite: M, gypsum: G, ettringite: E, calcium-321 aluminosilicate-hydrate: CASH, portlandite: P, and a monosulfate phase: AFm) 322 Fig. 6 compares the diffractograms obtained after 28 days of curing for the different samples. 323 From Fig. 6, the shift from ettringite (P1, P2, P3, P4) to the monosulfate phase (i.e., 324 NaCa<sub>4</sub>Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>1.5</sub>.15H<sub>2</sub>O) (P4, P5, P6) is clearly distinguishable at around 8 to 9° 20 and at 325 around 17° to 18° 20 [58]. In most cases monosulfate phases are amorphous and difficult to 326 quantify using XRD [59-61], although in this system this phase appears to be rather 327 crystalline. Portlandite (near 18° and 47° 2θ) is observed for P5 and P6. For all samples, the 328 intensity of the CASH peak at around 29° 20 [46,47] (and at around 7° 20 [51] for P5 and P6) 329 gradually increases when the molarity of the alkali activator is increased, while the full width 330 331 at half maximum (FWHM) gradually decreases. This suggests that the presence and 332 crystallinity of the CASH phase is increasing, when the molarity of the alkali activator is 333 increased.





Fig. 7 gives the quantitative XRD (QXRD) analysis. As mentioned, due to insufficient strength 338 development, P1 was only measured after 14 and 28 days of curing. It should be noted that 339 CASH, CSH and aluminum-hydroxide are ascribed to the amorphous part. Overall, the phase 340 assemblage continues to develop after 3 days of curing. Anhydrite and bassanite are not 341 present, while gypsum and merwinite from the binder gradually disappear with extended 342 curing times, and their dissolution is enhanced by an increased molarity of the alkali 343 activator. Approximately 8 wt.% of ettringite was present for P1-P3, while from a molarity of 2 344 M and above ettringite gradually disappeared and the monosulfate phase showed up. 345 346 Cuspidine and Mg<sub>2</sub>P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> are more favored at higher molarities, their content gradually increased upon increasing the curing time for all samples. Portlandite peaks were clearly 347 distinguishable in the in-situ XRD diffractograms for P3-P6 (section 3.1). For P3 and P4, this 348 phase gradually disappears upon extended curing periods and performs as an intermediate 349 (hydration) product. For P5 and P6, portlandite was recognized during the first 22 h of 350 hydration, whereafter its content slightly increased from 3 days up to 28 days of curing. 351 Thenardite and calcite are, as already mentioned, considered to be side-products. 352 Thenardite was found for all samples, while the calcite content was highest at molarities of 3 353 M and 4 M. 354



Figure 7: QXRD after 3, 7, 14 and 28 days of curing for a) P1, b) P2, c) P3, d) P4, e) P5 and
 d) P6



365 (inversely proportional to the decreasing merwinite content upon increasing the molarity). 366 Gypsum in P5 and P6 might be secondary gypsum [25], which can exert adverse effects on 367 the strength if it is formed after final setting. The potential occurrence of delayed ettringite 368 formation (DEF) [62] at later ages for P4-P6 will be dependent on the Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Al<sup>3+</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> 369 balance in the pore solution and its pH, and should be elucidated.





371

Figure 8: QXRD after 28 days of curing

372

# 373 3.3 TGA, FTIR and nitrogen adsorption/desorption

374	The thermogravimetric (TG) and derivative thermogravimetric (DTG) curves are shown in
375	Fig. 9. The mass loss under 90 $^\circ$ C is caused by the loss of bound water (P5-P6) and the
376	decomposition of ettringite [63] (P1-P4) (see Fig. 9b). Monosulfate is recognized for P4-P6
377	(consistent with XRD and QXRD) from 110-170 °C [48]. Contrary to XRD analysis,
378	amorphous aluminum-hydroxide is detectable due to its water loss at around 270 °C [64],
379	and was only present from a molarity of 2 M and higher. The TG/DTG results revealed the
380	presence of hydrogarnet (3CaO.Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> .6H <sub>2</sub> O) for P4-P6, which decomposes at around 325 $^{\circ}$ C
381	[65]. This phase might be formed due to the higher heat release during curing for those
382	samples, which is in agreement with [60,66–69] where it was observed that hydrogarnet
383	formed under hydrothermal curing conditions (e.g. in [67] hydrogarnet was formed at 90 °C,
384	in [68] formation of hydrogarnet is predicted at temperatures above 50 °C). Hydrogarnet is

thermodynamically stable in the temperature range from 20 to 250 °C [70,71]. Remnants of 385 portlandite were highest for P6, which agrees with QXRD. The condensation of structural 386 387 hydroxyl groups from the CSH phase is recognized at 610-630 °C [72] for P1-P4. As this phase was not found in the XRD diffractograms of P1-P4, this CSH phase is expected to be 388 highly amorphous. The CSH phase is not observed for P5-P6 in the TG/DTG curves, which 389 is also consistent with XRD in section 3.2 where it was found that a semi-amorphous CASH 390 391 showed up when the molarity of the alkali activator was increased, which also caused its 392 crystallinity to increase. A similar observation is presented in [25], where a low alkaline content increased CSH formation and higher alkalinities increased its crystallinity. The weight 393 loss at 750 °C corresponds to the decomposition of CaCO<sub>3</sub> to CaO and CO<sub>2</sub> [73]. Calcite was 394 also confirmed by QXRD after 28 days of curing, where the highest content was found for 395 P6. 396



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400

**Figure 9**: a) TG and DTG curves after 28 days of curing, b) DTG curves from 50 to 100 °C, c) DTG curves from 100 to 500 °C and d) DTG curves from 500 to 950 °C

401 The FTIR spectra are shown in Fig. 10. The bands located between 3750 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 3000 cm<sup>-1</sup> and near 1600 cm<sup>-1</sup> are assigned to O-H vibrations [74,75]. The bands at around 960 cm<sup>-1</sup> 402 and 850 cm<sup>-1</sup> are related to the Al-O-H bond [76], while the S-O bond stretching occurs at 403 1100 cm<sup>-1</sup> (asymmetrical  $v_3$  vibrations) and at 660 cm<sup>-1</sup> (asymmetrical  $v_4$  vibrations) [77,78]. 404 The FTIR spectra provide evidence of the gradual disappearance of ettringite when the 405 molarity of the alkali activator is increased, which is in agreement with XRD and TGA. It 406 407 should be kept in mind, however, that other phases such as the monosulfate phase, 408 aluminum-hydroxide or gypsum may contribute to those bands as well, which is difficult to distinguish in FTIR spectra. The C-O bonding is evident in the band near 1400 cm<sup>-1</sup> [79,80] 409 and molarities of 2 M and higher gave rise to an increased carbonation compared to lower 410 411 molarities, which is also seen in the QXRD and TGA data. The stretching vibrations of the Si-O-T units (where T stands for AI or Si) are clearly distinguishable for P5 and P6 at 940 cm<sup>-1</sup> 412 (typical for Q<sup>2</sup> units) [81–84] and at 800 cm<sup>-1</sup> (typical for Q<sup>1</sup> units) [84,85], while both bands 413 414 are absent for P1-P4. None of the samples contained Q<sup>3</sup> Si-O-T units, which are normally 415 recognized from a band around 1200 cm<sup>-1</sup> [84]. The intensity of the Si-O-T bands was highest for P5, while the intensity for P6 was lower. As confirmed by XRD, those bands 416 originate from a CASH phase (as these bands are not observed for P1-P4). The location and 417 breadth of the Si-O-T bands for P5 and P6 is comparable, indicating similar amorphousness 418 419 and Ca/Si and Al/Si ratios [86].



Figure 10: a) FTIR curves after 28 days of curing, b) FTIR curves from 4000 to 2500 cm<sup>-1</sup>, c)
 FTIR curves from 2500 to 1500 cm<sup>-1</sup> and d) FTIR curves from 1500 to 500 cm<sup>-1</sup>

424 The results from nitrogen adsorption/desorption tests are presented in Fig. 11. The isotherms in Fig. 11a are characterized by a type IIb shape [87] with an H5 (P1, P2 and P3) or an H3 425 (P4, P5 and P6) hysteresis loop [88], indicating that the meso- and macropores in those 426 samples are predominant in addition to fewer slit-shaped micropores. The H5 hysteresis loop 427 is typical for structures containing both open and partially blocked mesopores, while an H3 428 429 hysteresis loop indicates plate-like particles (as in certain clays) [88]. The plateau at high relative pressure suggests that all pores were filled [89]. An increase in the molarity of the 430 alkali activator resulted generally in a decreased maximum amount of nitrogen adsorbed at 431 the maximum relative pressure (a non-linear relation is observed) and a decreased 432 hysteresis loop surface. Fig. 11b presents the pore surface area obtained using the BET and 433 T-plot methods. The surface area of the pores generally decreases when the molarity of the 434

435 alkali activator is increased, although a small increase is noted when moving from a 1 M to a 2 M solution. The decrease in pore surface area is expected to be caused by a higher 436 437 dissolution rate of the precursors and consequently a denser hydration product matrix. OPC 438 typically has a pore surface area (obtained with nitrogen adsorption/desorption and the BET method) of around 50 m<sup>2</sup>/g [90], which is 2-5 times higher than the pore surface area of the 439 440 pastes in this investigation. The mesopore size distribution, obtained using the BJH method (cylindrical pores are hypothesized for the calculation), is plotted in Fig. 11c. As the pore 441 442 shape remains unknown, however, those results are indicative (nevertheless comparative for this series of samples) [89]. It should also be noted that the valid pore size range is from 2-30 443 nm, due to the upper  $P/P_0$  limit of around 0.97 [91,92]. P1 shows a bimodal profile, with a 444 sharp peak from 3-4 nm and a much broader one from 4-25 nm. P2 and P3 are also 445 446 characterized by a bimodal distribution although the peaks occur at lower pore diameters with a maximum at 3 nm and 4 nm. P4, P5 and P6 show a unimodal distribution with a 447 maximum at 4 nm. The pore volume is presented in Fig. 11d, where generally a decrease is 448 449 observed when the molarity of the alkali activator is increased, which is likely to be due to an 450 increasing precursor dissolution grade when moving from P1 to P6 and the effect of carbonation. 451



454 Figure 11: Nitrogen adsorption/desorption data after 28 days of curing: a)
455 adsorption/desorption isotherms, b) pore surface area, c) mesopore size distribution and d)
456 pore volume

# 458 3.4 Compressive strength

The compressive strength (1 $\sigma$  error) of the mortars after 28 days of curing is shown in Fig. 12. Although P1 was characterized by a very long setting time of over 7 days, M1 reaches the highest compressive strength (41.8 ± 1.2 MPa) after 28 days of curing. The strength of M2-M5 is in the same order of magnitude (16.5 ± 1.2 MPa, 14.0 ± 0.7 MPa, 16.2 ± 0.1 MPa and 12.6 ± 0.7 MPa, respectively), while the strength of M6 is slightly higher (23.4 ± 1.5 MPa). A high heat release might confirm the hydration of a significant amount of reaction products. The cumulative heat of P1 was, however, not significantly higher compared to P5

and P6. After 28 days, the cumulative heat of P1 was 116 J/g. The cumulative heat of P5 and 466 P6 reached 100 J/g and 124 J/g, respectively, after 6 days. A denser matrix often leads to a 467 468 higher strength, but P1 was characterized by the highest porosity. A high ettringite content can result in an increased strength. However, the ettringite content of P1 and P2 was 469 comparable (8.6 wt.% and 9.0 wt.%, respectively), while the compressive strength of M2 was 470 less than half of M1. The high compressive strength of M1 might be due to its highest 471 472 amorphous content (87.0 wt.%) and/or lowest cuspidine and Mg<sub>2</sub>P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> content (0.9 wt.% and 473 0.9 wt.%, respectively). Also, the amorphous CSH content was highest for P1 in TGA. The European standard for SSCs [41] includes minimum characteristic values for cement but not 474 for mortars. The minimum compressive strength at 28 days should be 32.5 MPa for pastes 475 476 [41], though it should be kept in mind that mortar strength is often actually lower than pure 477 paste strength [93].



478

479

Figure 12: Compressive strength of mortars after 28 days of curing

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#### 481 **4. Conclusions**

482 This study investigated the effect of the NaOH content on alkali/sulfate-activated binders

483 from 90 wt.% GGBFS and 10 wt.% PG. Alkali activators were prepared with a NaOH molarity

ranging from 0 M to 4 M. The hydration, mineralogy, porosity and compressive strength of

the produced pastes and mortars were investigated. These are the main conclusions:

- A molarity of 0 M gave rise to the highest porosity and highest strength, although the
   setting occurred only after 7 days.
- At molarities of 1 M and higher, portlandite appeared during the first few hours of
   hardening and acted as a catalyst that promoted further slag dissolution.
- The molarity of the alkali activator significantly influenced the phase assemblage, which
   developed continuously during the first 28 days. At lower molarities (from 0 M to 1 M), an
   amorphous CSH phase was present, while molarities of 2 M and higher favored CASH
   development, together with cuspidine and Mg<sub>2</sub>P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>.
- From a molarity of 2 M and higher, ettringite disappeared and was replaced by a
- 495 monosulfate phase (i.e., NaCa<sub>4</sub>Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>1.5</sub>.15H<sub>2</sub>O) and amorphous aluminum-
- 496 hydroxide. Their content gradually increased as the curing time was increased for all497 samples.
- The formation of thenardite, which is a salt, is undesirable from the leaching point of view.
- Carbonation was enhanced when the molarity of the alkali activator was increased. From
- 500 the environmental point of view, however, carbonation should not necessarily be viewed
- as unwanted, as long as it has no negative influence on the properties and durability of
- 502 the material, due to its ability to capture atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>.
- 503 Further investigation of the mineralogy, porosity and strength over extended curing times
- 504 (e.g. over 1-3 years) is advised in order to define appropriate applications.
- 505

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507

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