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Alkali activated composites – An innovative concept using iron and steel slag as both precursor and aggregate

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3 **Alkali activated composites – an innovative concept**
4 **using iron and steel slag as both precursor and**
5 **aggregate**

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ABSTRACT

The present paper addresses the feasibility of using an iron and steel slag aggregate (ISS), resulting from electric arc furnace, as a recycled raw material in the production of a new concept of mortar composite, based on alkaline activation, designated as 'alkali activated composite' (AACO). The original ISS aggregate was used both as a precursor and an aggregate, either as received (aggregate fraction) or after mechanical activation (precursor fraction). In the first stage, to determine its potential as a precursor, it was mixed with fly ash (FA), using weight ratios of 100/00, 75/25, 50/50, 25/75 and 00/100. The most effective results were obtained with the blend 50/50, which was subsequently used to study the performance of the aggregate fraction. The second stage was comprised of tests on the mortar composites, combining some of the previously tested pastes with the ISS or with a normalised sand (for reference). A 8M sodium hydroxide solution was used as the activator for all pastes and mortars tested. The curing developed throughout 2 or 28 days, at 22°C, after an initial 20h period at 85°C. The reaction products were characterised using X-Ray Diffraction and microscopy (scanning electron microscopy, for the pastes, and back-scattering electron microscopy, for the mortars). Results show that, indeed, the ISS can be applied as a precursor and/or as an aggregate in the production of alkaline composites.

Key words: Alkali activated composites, iron and steel slag; waste recycling; sustainability

53 1. Introduction

54

55 The iron and steel making sector is strongly characterised by the fact that it recycles all the
56 available steel, being regarded as an excellent example of circular economy, maintaining,
57 and even increasing, the value of its products. Moreover, steel is capable of adapting to the
58 necessities of modern products, since it can be endlessly recycled without losing any of its
59 properties. However, during the fabrication process, a significant volume of slag is
60 generated, with a significant percentage being landfilled. It is estimated that 400 kg of slag
61 are accumulated per ton of steel manufactured [1].

62

63 Slag is essentially the sum of the impurity content in the raw material, after the extraction
64 of the ore, and the previously added materials (e.g. lime to produce a more fluid slag); or in
65 the molten pig iron, during the steel refining process. The production of iron and steel slag
66 can thus be divided in two main phases, i.e. blast furnace slag and steel-making slag. The
67 first results from the smelting of iron ore in a blast furnace (BF), from which the pig iron
68 (also known as crude iron) is generated. That slag can be air-cooled (resulting in a rock-
69 like material) or water-cooled (resulting in a fine particle or granulated material). The
70 second type of slag results from basic oxygen furnaces (BOF) and electric arc furnaces
71 (EAF), and the EAF slag can be further divided in the oxygen converter process slag and
72 deoxidation process slag [2]. A third type of slag is usually generated when additional
73 impurities are removed from the molten steel, during transportation in a ladle (usually if
74 slag pits, for cooling, are not available near the EAF). The slag produced at this stage is
75 called 'ladle slag' and must be kept separated from the EAF slag, due to significant
76 differences in composition promoted by the several additives applied.

77

78 In 2016, over 1 600 million tons of crude steel were produced worldwide, with 25% (over
79 415 million tons) obtained through EAF [3]. Therefore, it is not surprising that over 400
80 million tons of different types of iron and steel slag are produced, worldwide, per year, and
81 to produce 1 tonne of EAF crude steel, approximately 200 kg of by-products are generated,
82 of which 90% are EAF slag [4], the type used in the present study. These significant values
83 form a sufficiently solid reason to study, in depth, alternative destinations and technologies
84 that can enable the reuse of this industrial by-product.

85
86 The increase in the exploitation of natural resources and of the CO₂eq emissions that are
87 attributed to the construction industry are two factors that keep pushing the boundaries of
88 R&D investment regarding alternative, more sustainable materials. Several examples of
89 this increasing interest can be found in the literature, especially regarding the application of
90 ladle furnace slag (LFS) as a precursor, in the fabrication of alkali activated cements
91 (AAC), and EAF slag as an aggregate, in the fabrication of concrete and mortars.

92
93 Wang *et al.* [5] activated LFS with a 10 M NaOH solution, and concluded that the
94 workability and compressive strength increase with the alkali agent content, while the
95 shrinkage also increases. Bignozzi *et al.* [6] studied the fabrication of AAC with the partial
96 substitution of the metakaolin (precursor) by ladle furnace slag (LFS), using only particles
97 above 0.1 mm. The activating solution was a 1:1 weight combination of sodium silicate
98 and sodium hydroxide (8 M). It was discovered that the LFS, although mainly crystalline,
99 still possess some amorphous content, partially contributing to the formation of the C-(N)-
100 A-S-H binding gel. Additionally, the increasing addition of LFS was responsible for a
101 decrease in the total open porosity, which favoured mechanical strength. Recently, Nguyen
102 *et al.* [7] studied the inclusion of polypropylene fibres in alkali-activated LFS pastes to

103 improve its brittle behaviour. The LFS was previously milled (up to a d_{50} of less than 10
104 μm), and was activated with a combination of Na_2SiO_3 and KOH , in solution form. The
105 flexural and compressive strength of both unreinforced and fibre reinforced pastes clearly
106 showed the reactivity and capacity of the LFS to act as a precursor in alkaline cements (e.g.
107 compressive strength values between 70 and 80 MPa were achieved, always under room-
108 temperature curing).

109

110 The application of EAF slag in concrete, as an aggregate, was tested by several authors
111 who, in general, compared the mechanical, rheological and durability performance of
112 concrete fabricated with natural aggregates and steel slag aggregates. Biskri *et al.* [8]
113 studied the influence of such recycled aggregates on High Performance Concrete, and
114 concluded that the superior mechanical behaviour attained with EAF slag, compared with
115 limestone coarse aggregates, was due to its higher cement-aggregate adhesion. Coppola *et*
116 *al.* [9] partially replaced different types of natural aggregate (fine sand, fine gravel and
117 coarse gravel) with increasing percentages of EAF slag aggregates (with particle sizes
118 similar to those of the natural aggregate) and concluded that the higher the content of
119 recycled slag the higher the density, Young's Modulus and compressive strength of the
120 concrete. However, in this case, the dry shrinkage of the concrete also increased. A similar
121 conclusion was obtained by Khan *et al.* [10], who discovered that the substitution of
122 traditional coarse aggregate (basalt) by EAF slag, in concrete mixtures using fly ash (90%)
123 and ground granulated blast furnace slag (10%) as precursors, produced higher
124 compressive strength. Lee *et al.* [11] studied the structural response of reinforced concrete
125 columns fabricated with varying contents of EAF slag aggregate. The results showed that
126 the ductility of these columns, after reaching their ultimate strength, was superior to that of

127 the columns fabricated with natural aggregates, while also showing less crushing at the
128 ends and delayed plastic hinge formation.

129

130 However, although there are many studies focusing on potential applications of EAF slag
131 in the construction industry, it is noteworthy that most of these studies concern its use as a
132 natural aggregate substitute. This is mostly because EAF slag is generally assumed to be
133 inert and crystalline, and thus is not effective as a supplementary cementitious material in
134 traditional Portland cement or other cement blends. Only a few exceptions can be found in
135 the literature. A recent study, conducted by Ozturk *et al.* [12], focused on the effects of the
136 silicate modulus, sodium concentration, curing conditions and curing time on strength and
137 microstructure of EAF slag (with a very similar chemical composition to the material used
138 in the present study), activated with sodium hydroxide and sodium silicate solutions. The
139 main conclusion was that the EAF slag can be effectively activated, supported on
140 compressive strength values up to 22 MPa, after 12h at 80°C. Another example of the
141 success of EAF slag as a precursor was attained by Nikolic *et al.* [13], who studied the
142 kinetics of dissolution of EAF slag in NaOH and KOH solutions, with a special emphasis
143 on the dissolved Al and Si contents considering the alkaline ion type (NaOH and KOH),
144 the alkali concentration and the temperature during dissolution. Results showed that both
145 Al and Si were dissolved more effectively with an increase in alkali concentration and
146 temperature, and a decrease in the solid/liquid ratio. The NaOH was able to dissolve more
147 Si than the KOH, while the KOH dissolved more Al.

148

149 Despite these examples already pointing towards an effective performance of iron and steel
150 slags (ISS) in a precursor role, its application is still far from being clarified or totally
151 understood, justifying the definition of a more objective framework, addressing the

152 conditions in which the ISS can, and should, be applied as a Portland cement substitute.
153 Furthermore, its simultaneous application as a precursor and an aggregate hasn't, to the
154 best of our knowledge, been proposed. Therefore, the aim of the present paper is to study
155 the feasibility of using a common ISS as the main source of (recycled) raw material for the
156 production of a new concept of mortar, which, since it can be considered an evolution from
157 the alkali activated cements (AAC), was designated by 'alkali activated composite'
158 (AACO). The ISS was either used as received (precursor role) or was mechanically
159 activated (by milling). The first stage focused on the performance of ISS and FA blend
160 pastes, using compressive strength tests, Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) and X-ray
161 Diffraction (XRD). In the second stage, coarse ISS or normalised silica sand were added to
162 the previous pastes, and the resulting materials were submitted to compressive strength
163 tests and Back-scattered Electron Microscopy (BSEM).

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166 **2. Materials and methods**

167

168 *2.1. Materials*

169

170 The slag studied in the present paper (Figure 1) is known, in Portugal, as "Inert Steelwork
171 Aggregate for Construction". It is produced by the Portuguese national ironworks, located
172 in Maia, as a result of scrap melting in an electric arc furnace. The fly ash (FA), also used
173 in this study, was provided by the company PEGOP, responsible for the Portuguese
174 thermo-electric power plant located in the village of *Pego*.

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182 Figure 1: (a) Original slag (ISS, as received in the laboratory, and used as an aggregated) and (b) milled slag
183 (ISS-M, used as a precursor)

184

185 The chemical composition of the two materials, obtained by X-ray fluorescence (XRF), on
186 a PHILIPS PW-1004 X-ray spectrometer, is shown in Table 1, together with the mass loss
187 on ignition (L.O.I.), between 100 and 1000°C, for 1 h, using a platinum crucible. The main
188 elements of the ISS are iron oxide (32%), calcium oxide (27%), and silica (20%). The FA
189 presented mostly silica (60%) and alumina (21%) and, based on its chemical composition
190 and the criteria specified in ASTM C618 [14], it was classified as a Class F.

191

192 Table 1: Chemical composition of the ISS and FA

Element	ISS (wt%)	FA (wt%)
Al ₂ O ₃	8.91	20.82
CaO	26.73	1.84
Cr ₂ O ₃	1.70	0.02
Fe ₂ O ₃	32.33	8.62
K ₂ O	0.23	2.75
MgO	4.27	1.94
MnO	3.25	0.06
Na ₂ O	0.30	1.08
SiO ₂	20.29	60.00
SO ₃	0.29	0.88
Outros	1.64	1.64
L.O.I.	0.07	0.34

193

194 The particle size distribution (PSD) of the original ISS (as received in the laboratory) was
195 obtained by sieving [15] and is presented in Figure 2. In its original state (i.e. as received in
196 the laboratory), this material was used as an aggregate. The PSD of the normalised silica

197 sand (NSS), used here as a reference aggregate, is shown in the same figure. A density of
198 3.54 g/cm^3 and a water absorption of 1.68% were attained for the ISS, (EN 1097-6), while
199 the NSS presented a density of 2.64 g/cm^3 and a water absorption of 0.02 %.

200

201 The ISS was also milled in the laboratory (ISS-M), until a total of 80% of the particles
202 were lower than 80 microns and 62% lower than 45 microns. The milling was obtained
203 using a purposely designed ball mill, with an increased capacity of 5 kg. The fly ash that
204 was used as a reference precursor (FA-M) was previously milled in a RETSCH RS200, for
205 3 minutes, at 1200 rpm. The PSD of both precursors (also included in Figure 2) were
206 determined by laser granulometry, on a Sympatec Helos BF analyser, able to measure
207 particles from 0.9 to 175 μm , and using Fraunhofer diffraction theory. The analyses were
208 conducted after a 5-minute ultra-sonic bath, on a water-ethanol solution, for increased
209 particle dispersion.

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216 Figure 2: Particle size distribution of the precursor (FA-M, ISS-M) and aggregate (NSS, ISS) materials

217

218 With respect to the mineralogical composition, the X-Ray diffractogram of the ISS-M
219 detected the presence of melilite, magnetite and wustite, while the FA-M presented quartz
220 and mullite as the most important crystalline phases. The diffractogram of the FA-M
221 showed the presence of a halo between angles 17 and 33 ($^{\circ}2\theta$), revealing the presence of an
222 important vitreous phase in these materials. A similar indication of the presence of material

223 with a significant amorphisation level was also obtained for the ISS-M, with a halo
224 approximately between 28 and 38 ($^{\circ}2\theta$), although less pronounced than the one registered
225 for the FA-M (see Figure 4).

226

227 A sodium hydroxide solution, with a concentration of 8 M, was used as activator. It was
228 prepared 4 to 6 h before the fabrication of the specimens. Deionised water was used
229 throughout the entire experimental work.

230

231 2.2. *Preparation and mechanical testing*

232

233 Two different types of mixture were tested: paste and mortar (Table 2). The study of the
234 pastes (i.e. with and without fly ash) allowed the comparative study of the reactivity of the
235 ISS-M as a precursor, and to choose the most interesting binder, in terms of mechanical
236 behaviour. Preparation of the pastes started with the dry mixing of the solid precursors
237 (ISS-M and FA-M), for 5 min, in a Hobart counter mixer. The activator was then slowly
238 added, and an additional mixing period of 3 min followed, to guarantee adequate
239 homogenisation. The activator temperature at the time of the mixing was $20^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$. The
240 resulting paste was poured inside stainless-steel moulds, with nominal dimensions of
241 10x10x60 mm.

242

243 An activator / precursor ratio of 0.28 was used with the 100S, 75S25F and 50S50F pastes.
244 This value increased to 0.35 for the pastes 25S75F and 100F, to obtain a similar
245 workability, since the initial tests showed that a 0.28 ratio resulted in excessively dry
246 pastes, which were impossible to homogenise properly. This significant rheological

247 difference was due to the differences in the PSD of the ISS-M and FA-M precursors, i.e. as
 248 the finer FA-M content increased, so did the liquid phase requirements.

249

250 Table 2: Identification and composition of the pastes and mortars (Ac: activator)

Type	Mixture ID	Binder			ISS / Binder (wt.)	NSS / Binder (wt.)
		Precursor (Pr)		Ac / Pr (wt.)		
		ISS-M (wt%)	FA-M (wt%)			
Paste	100S	100	-	0.28	-	-
	75S25F	75	25	0.28	-	-
	50S50F	50	50	0.28	-	-
	25S75F	25	75	0.35	-	-
	100F	-	100	0.35	-	-
Mortar	100F(ISS)	-	100	0.55	-	3
	50S50F(ISS)	50	50	0.55	-	3
	100F(NSS)	-	100	0.55	3	-
	50S50F(NSS)	50	50	0.55	3	-

251

252 The effect of the ISS as an aggregate was determined by testing 40x40x160 mm mortar
 253 specimens [16], with an aggregate / binder ratio of 3/1. Similar mixtures were tested using
 254 NSS as an aggregate, for comparison purposes (Table 2). The liquid / solid ratio (i.e.
 255 activator / precursor ratio) used to fabricate the composite mortars was 0.55, to guarantee
 256 the exact same conditions. This value was established using slump tests [17] on the mortar
 257 with the highest water adsorption, i.e. 100F(ISS), to determine the minimum water content
 258 required to achieve an adequate workability. Therefore, this particular mortar was prepared
 259 with the optimum activator / precursor ratio, but the remaining mortars were prepared with
 260 a water content slightly higher than required, which probably influenced its mechanical
 261 behaviour, as discussed further ahead. It should also be noted that the water absorption of
 262 the original ISS (1.68%) was higher than that of the NSS (0.02%).

263

264 Both pastes and mortars were cured, for the first 20h, inside the moulds, at 85°C and 99%
 265 RH. After that, every specimen was removed from the respective mould and stored, inside
 266 the humidity chamber, for the remainder of the curing period – 2 and 28 days (pastes) and

267 3 and 28 days (mortars). After curing, their compressive strength was determined in an
268 IBERTEST AutoTest-200/10. Each specimen was weighted and measured shortly before
269 being tested. Results showed in this paper represent the average of six tested specimens.

270

271 Some pastes were selected for further microstructural characterization, using SEM and
272 XRD, while the mortars were studied using BSEM. The SEM and BSEM analyses were
273 performed on a Hitachi S-4800 scanning electron microscope (20 kV), in low vacuum
274 mode (1.3 mbar), avoiding the deposition of a conductive layer. The device was fitted with
275 a solid-state BSE detector and a X-ray energy dispersive analyser (EDX) – Oxford LINK-
276 ISIS – using a ZAF correction model for quantitative chemical analysis. The XRD used
277 was a BRUKER D8 Advance diffractometer, with $\text{CuK}\alpha$ radiation and using 40kV, fitted
278 with an X'Celerator detector and secondary monochromator. The scans covered a 2θ range
279 of 5 to 60° , with a nominal step size of 0.017° and 100 s/step.

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281

282 3. Results and discussion

283

284 3.1. Mechanical behaviour

285

286 The uniaxial compressive strength (UCS) of the pastes and mortars, after 2 and 28 days
287 curing, is presented in Figure 3. Regarding the pastes, the 2 and 28-day curing values
288 showed a similar pattern, i.e. the combination of FA-M and ISS-M was more effective than
289 either of these two components alone. The most performing paste was a mixture of 50%
290 FA-M and 50% ISS-M (50S50F). This shows that the milled ISS is, indeed, reactive, and
291 thus can be activated. The fact that the best paste is a combination of both precursors

292 suggests some level of synergy between them, which is confirmed in Section 3.2, when
293 analysing the element composition of the paste/aggregate interfaces.

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300 Figure 3: Uniaxial compressive strength of the pastes (a) and mortars (b)

301

302 The 50S50F and 100F pastes were then chosen to study the behaviour of the ISS as an
303 aggregate. Additionally, reference mortars were also prepared using the NSS aggregate.

304 The first observation is the fact that the ISS aggregate produced higher UCS values than
305 those obtained with the NSS, regardless of the precursor used (50S50F or 100F). These
306 results reinforce the idea that the ISS (as received) can be successfully used as an
307 aggregated, which was previously formulated by other authors [9,10], and could be
308 associated with the development of a good adhesion between the precursor and the ISS
309 particles, as analysed further ahead by BSEM.

310

311 Usually, the paste shows higher compressive strength values than its corresponding
312 mortars. However, the 100F(ISS) mortar showed a strength increase, relatively to the 100F
313 paste, of 40%. At the same time, it showed the highest UCS of all the mortars tested,
314 although the most performing paste was the 50S50F (in fact, the 100F paste presented the
315 second lowest UCS of the lot). Such behaviour is most likely related with the fact that the
316 activator / precursor ratio was not optimised for each mixture. For the preparation of the
317 mortars, it was decided to use a unique activator / solid (precursor+aggregate) ratio, of 0.55

318 (Table 2), to guarantee similar conditions for all the mortars tested. However, this value
319 was established using slump tests [17] on the mortars that showed the highest water
320 adsorption, i.e. 100F(ISS), meaning that while this mortar was prepared with its optimum
321 ratio, the remaining mortars were prepared with a slightly excessive activator content. As a
322 result, 100F(ISS) blends were drier and showed an apparent lower porosity and greater
323 compaction, which probably improved its compressive strength, relatively to the remaining
324 mortars.

325

326 *3.2. Mineralogical and microstructural characterization*

327

328 For a thorough microstructural characterisation of the reaction products, paste 50S50F,
329 after 2 and 28 days curing, was selected and analysed using XRD and SEM/EDX. Figure 4
330 presents the diffractograms of both the paste and the original materials, to allow a direct
331 comparison.

332

333 The diffractogram of the ISS-M slag presented several crystalline phases, namely
334 Kirchsteinite, melilite, magnetite and wustite, while the FA-M showed quartz and mullite
335 as its main crystalline phases. All these peaks are still present in the 2 and 28-day
336 diffractograms, indicating that the corresponding phases are practically inert to the alkaline
337 activation process. The fact that their intensity slightly decreased after activation is only a
338 consequence of the material dilution (given the mixture with the activator).

339

340 The slag presents a slight halo, between 28 and 38°(2 θ), typical of vitreous/amorphous
341 materials, while the fly ash presents a similar halo, although more pronounced, between 20
342 and 35°(2 θ). These halos indicate the existence of a vitreous phase in the precursors,

343 essential for the development of alkaline activation reactions, due to their reactivity. After
344 activation, and curing for 2 and 28 days, these halos presented significant modifications.
345 They are now not only less intense, but also showing a shift in range, which is now
346 between 20 and 38°(2θ). These changes are a consequence of the formation of essentially
347 amorphous phases in the aluminosilicate gel [18,19], which will partially crystallize, in time
348 (zeolitic precursor). Therefore, and to study the composition of these newly developed
349 material, the pastes were submitted to electron microscopy.

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357 Figure 4: XRD patterns of the milled precursors, FA-M and ISS-M, and the paste 50S50F, after 2 and 28
358 days curing [ki-kirschsteinite: $\text{CaFe}^{2+}(\text{SiO}_4)$ PDF 00-034-0098; me-melilite: $\text{Ca}_2(\text{Mg}_{0.5}\text{Al}_{0.5})(\text{Si}_{1.5}\text{Al}_{0.5}\text{O}_7)$
359 PDF 01-079-2423; mg-magnetite: Fe_3O_4 PDF 00-075-1610; mu-mullite: $\text{Al}_6\text{Si}_2\text{O}_{13}$ PDF 01-079-1453; q-
360 quartz: SiO_2 PDF 01-79-1910; w-wustite: Fe^{2+}O PDF 0-034-0098]

361

362 The (50S50F) paste was submitted to SEM observation, after 28 days curing. Figure 5
363 presents some selected images, which aim to yield information regarding the morphology
364 and overall distribution of the different constituents. Base on all the images presented, it is
365 possible to describe the resulting paste as being compacted, homogenous and with reduced
366 porosity. Several un-reacted particles are partially covered with reaction products (point 1
367 in Figure 5b and Figure 5c, although some unreacted and ‘clean’ particles were also found
368 (point 3), implying that the efficiency of the activation promoted during this research work
369 can be further optimised, most likely with a positive impact on mechanical strength.

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Figure 5: SEM images of paste 50S50F, cured for 28 days

A quantitative analysis of the pastes developed in the mortars 50S50F(ISS), 50S50F(NSS) and 100F(ISS), after 28 days curing, was performed using BSEM/EDX. These specific mixtures were chosen to allow the comparison between the effects of the two aggregates on the pastes, as well as to analyse the influence of the ISS-M when used in the precursor composition.

The high compaction and reduced porosity of the 50S50F paste, observed when analysing the corresponding SEM images (Figure 5), was transposed to the mortars 50S50F(ISS) (Figure 6) and 50S50F(NSS) (Figure 7). Thus, it is possible to conclude that the addition of the aggregate didn't disturb the general morphology of the original paste. However, the overall aspect of both mortars is significantly different, with the 50S50F(ISS) mortar showing a less defined transition between the aggregate and the surrounding gel, while the 50S50F(NSS) mortar presented a very clear aggregate/gel interface and perfectly intact sand particles, which appear that did not have any type of interaction with the reaction product surrounding them.

397

398 The element mapping of the 50S50F(ISS), included in Figure 6, shows the presence, on the
399 bulk gel (areas further away from the gel/particle interfaces) of Al, Fe, Na, Si and Ca, with
400 a prevalence of Na, from the activator, and especially Ca, from the ISS-M. The presence of
401 such elements can be associated with the formation of gel type C-A-S-H or C,N-A-S-H
402 [20–22]. The ISS particles also show strong traces of most of these elements, especially
403 calcium and iron (which is not surprising, given the original composition of the ISS
404 residue), but also silicon, aluminium and sodium, thus indicating a reaction between the
405 particle's surface and the activator. A very different situation, regarding the state of the
406 aggregate particles, was found during the element mapping of the 50S50F(NSS) mortar
407 (included in Figure 7), in the sense that the NSS particles are practically pure silica,
408 showing no signs of participating in the formation of the gel (due to the lack of reaction gel
409 forming on their surface). Furthermore, although a mixture of Na and Ca also dominates
410 the composition of this aluminosilicate gel, it appears that there is a predominant presence
411 of Na (red), relatively to the higher apparent equilibrium between the Na (red) and Ca
412 (yellow) ions in the 50S50F(ISS) bulk gel. This conclusion was numerically confirmed
413 during the analysis of the EDX data regarding the gel composition of each mortar.

414

415 Regarding the BSEM images from the mortar 100F(ISS), presented in Figure 8, it is
416 interesting to note that the relation between the aggregate particles and the binding gel is,
417 apparently, more similar to the 50S50F(NSS) mortar than to the 50S50F(ISS) mortar, in
418 the sense that there is a very clear interface between the two areas. Although the interface
419 shows traces of some interconnectivity between the particle's calcium and the sodium and
420 even the silica, from the fly ash-based gel, it is, nevertheless, evident that this gel shows a
421 strong sodium intake, i.e. it is a typical N-A-S-H reaction product [23,24].

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Figure 6: BSEM/EDX analysis of the 50S50F(ISS) mortar cured for 28 days

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Figure 7: BSEM/EDX analysis of the 50S50F(NSS) mortar cured for 28 days

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Figure 8: BSEM/EDX analysis of the 100F(ISS) mortar cured for 28 days

In order to assess the possible influence of the particle/gel interface composition on the mechanical properties of the mortars, the elemental composition of several points located in the interface zone of mortars 50S50F(NSS) (points a1 to a4, Figure 9a) and 100F(ISS) (points b1 to b3, Figure 9b), was quantified and compared with the elemental composition of several points from their respective bulk gel, located on the central areas, away from the aggregate particles (points a5 to a9 and points b4 to b7, respectively). An immediate visual confirmation of the different reactivity levels presented by both aggregates is possible, based on the comparison between the ‘clean’ surface observed on the NSS particle (Figure 9a) and the high-volume of reaction product covering the ISS particle (Figure 9b). The reactivity of the slag particles is confirmed by the fact that the average calcium content (6.8%) in the interface zone of the 100F(ISS) is 3.4x higher than the average calcium content in the gel (2.0%); while the average calcium content in the interface zone (12.0%) of the mortar 50S50F(NSS) is identical to the average calcium content in the gel (11.9%).

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Figure 9: Elemental analysis of the interface zones of the 50S50F(NSS) (a) and 100F(ISS) (b) mortars

To analyse the CaO incorporation in the gel developed in each of the 3 mortars tested, the variation of the CaO/SiO_2 molar ratio with the corresponding $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{SiO}_2$ is presented in Figure 10, and the corresponding averages are shown in Figure 11. Mortar 50S50F(ISS) showed the overall highest CaO content, followed by 50S50F(NSS) and 100FA(ISS), confirming that the slag reacts with the alkaline activator, either as a precursor (finely ground), and as an aggregate.

The reaction of the ISS, in an aggregate role, is clearly observed in mortar 100F(ISS). Based on its Si and Al content, as well as its low Ca content (seen in Figure 8), the binding gel formed in this mortar (resulting exclusively from the alkaline activation of fly ash) is a N-A-S-H gel [18,22]. The presence of higher Ca contents in the gel/particle interface indicates that the slag aggregate provided CaO species, thus creating a transition layer which is almost continuous. On the contrary, the physical separation between the gel and the NSS particles is very clear, even if the gel has a significant supply of Ca (from the ISS-M in the precursor). This difference between the two types of aggregate might have contributed significantly for the overall compressive strength obtained with each one.

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506 Figure 10: Relation between the molar ratios $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{SiO}_2$ and CaO/SiO_2 on the gels developed in mortars
507 50S50F(ISS), 50S50F(NSS) and 100F(ISS)

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512 Figure 11: Average $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{SiO}_2$, CaO/SiO_2 and $\text{Na}_2\text{O}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ molar ratios on the gels developed in mortars
513 50S50F(ISS), 50S50F(NSS) and 100F(ISS)

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515 Regarding the use of ISS-M as a precursor, the results obtained in both pastes and mortars
516 show that this material can be used in the manufacture of alkaline cements, resulting in the
517 development of cementing gels type C-A-S-H or C,N-A-S-H.

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520 4. Conclusions

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522 The present work assessed the suitability of a Portuguese electric arc furnace slag, which
523 has been used as an inert aggregate for the construction of (sub)base layers for road and
524 railway, to be a key constituent in alkali activated cements and mortar composites. It was
525 tested in two distinct roles, namely as a precursor (alone or together with fly ash, after

526 milling) or as an aggregate (used as received). The main conclusions obtained in this paper
527 are:

528

529 • It is possible to use this slag simultaneously as a precursor and as an aggregate. In
530 fact, that duplicity potentiates the mechanical performance of the composite.

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532 • As a precursor, the finely milled slag reacts with alkaline solutions, allowing the
533 development of a cementitious gel, type C-A-S-H or C,N-A-S-H.

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535 • Compressive strength data clearly showed that the slag aggregate produced a
536 superior performance, compared with the normalised silica sand, which is a very
537 significant result, in the sense that it opens the possibility of substituting natural
538 aggregates by recycled aggregates, with an actual improvement in terms of
539 technical behaviour.

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541 • BSEM analysis showed that the more effective performance of the ISS aggregate is
542 due to the absence of a well-defined particle-binder interface and, instead, a well-
543 graduated transition zone was developed, with a very significant calcium content.
544 That Ca was mostly supplied by the aggregate, as showed by the comparison with
545 the BSEM data of the same paste (50S50F) but with silica sand as the aggregate.

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547 In short, the application of iron and steel slag to alkali activated cement mortars is a viable
548 option, both in terms of sustainability, by avoiding the use of cement and natural
549 aggregates, and by creating an additional destination for this by-product; and in terms of
550 technical efficiency. Furthermore, the possible application solely as an aggregate is also

551 commendable, not only because the 100FA paste was the most effective binder, but also
552 because it eliminates the need for milling the ISS. The construction industry can and
553 should benefit from the introduction of this type of alternative raw materials, not only
554 due to environmental reasons (which constitute, in itself, a powerful motivation), but also
555 because there are potential benefits in terms of technical performance and financial costs.
556 The present study is an example of how the confidence in such materials can be raised,
557 although the moment to move on to the next stage of development is rapidly approaching,
558 especially with the longing urgency to effectively mitigate the landfilling of industrial
559 waste in Europe.

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575

576 **Glossary**

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AAC	Alkali activated cement
AACO	Alkali activated composite
BF	Blast furnace
BOF	Basic oxygen furnace
BSEM	Back-scattered Electron Microscopy
EAF	Electric arc furnace
FA	Fly ash
FA-M	Milled fly ash
ISS	Iron and steel slag
ISS-M	Milled iron and steel slag
KOH	Potassium hydroxide
LFS	Ladle furnace slag
NaOH	Sodium hydroxide
NSS	Normalised silica sand
Na ₂ SiO ₃	Sodium silicate
PSD	Particle size distribution
SEM	Scanning Electron Microscopy
UCS	Uniaxial compressive strength
XRD	X-ray Diffraction

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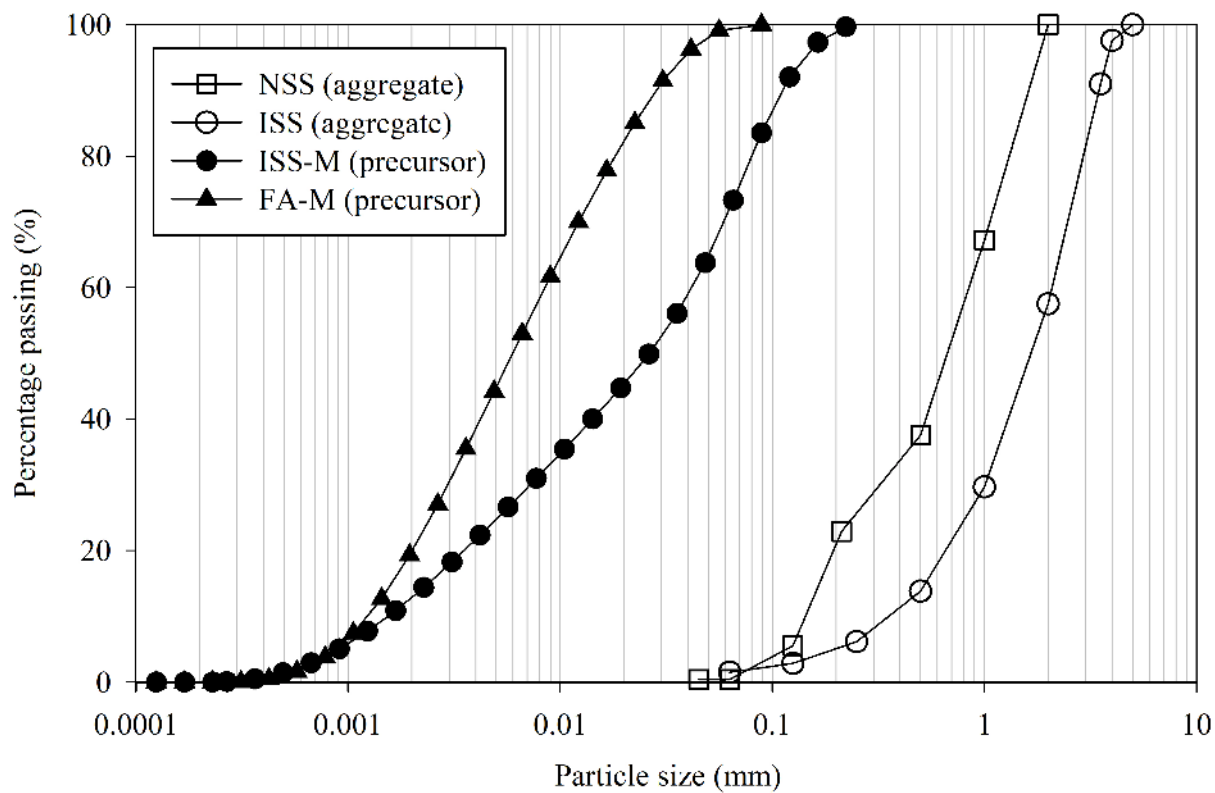
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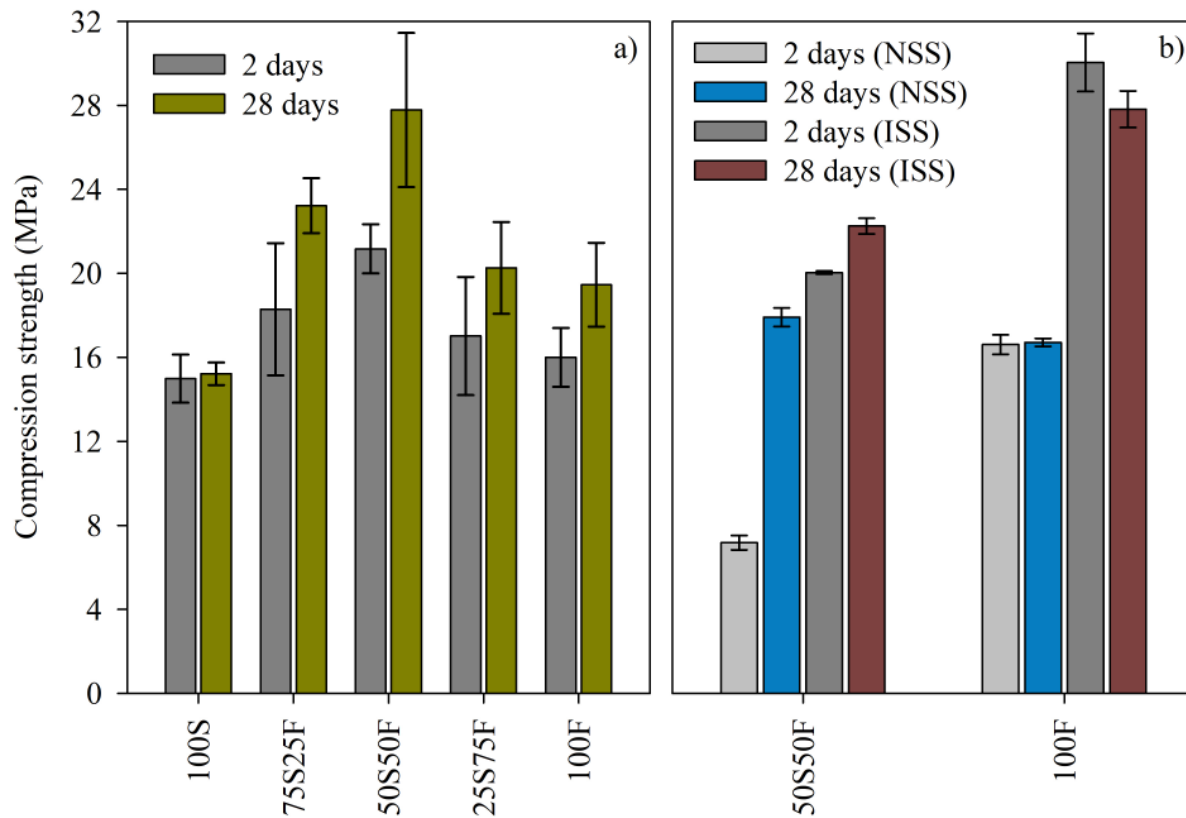
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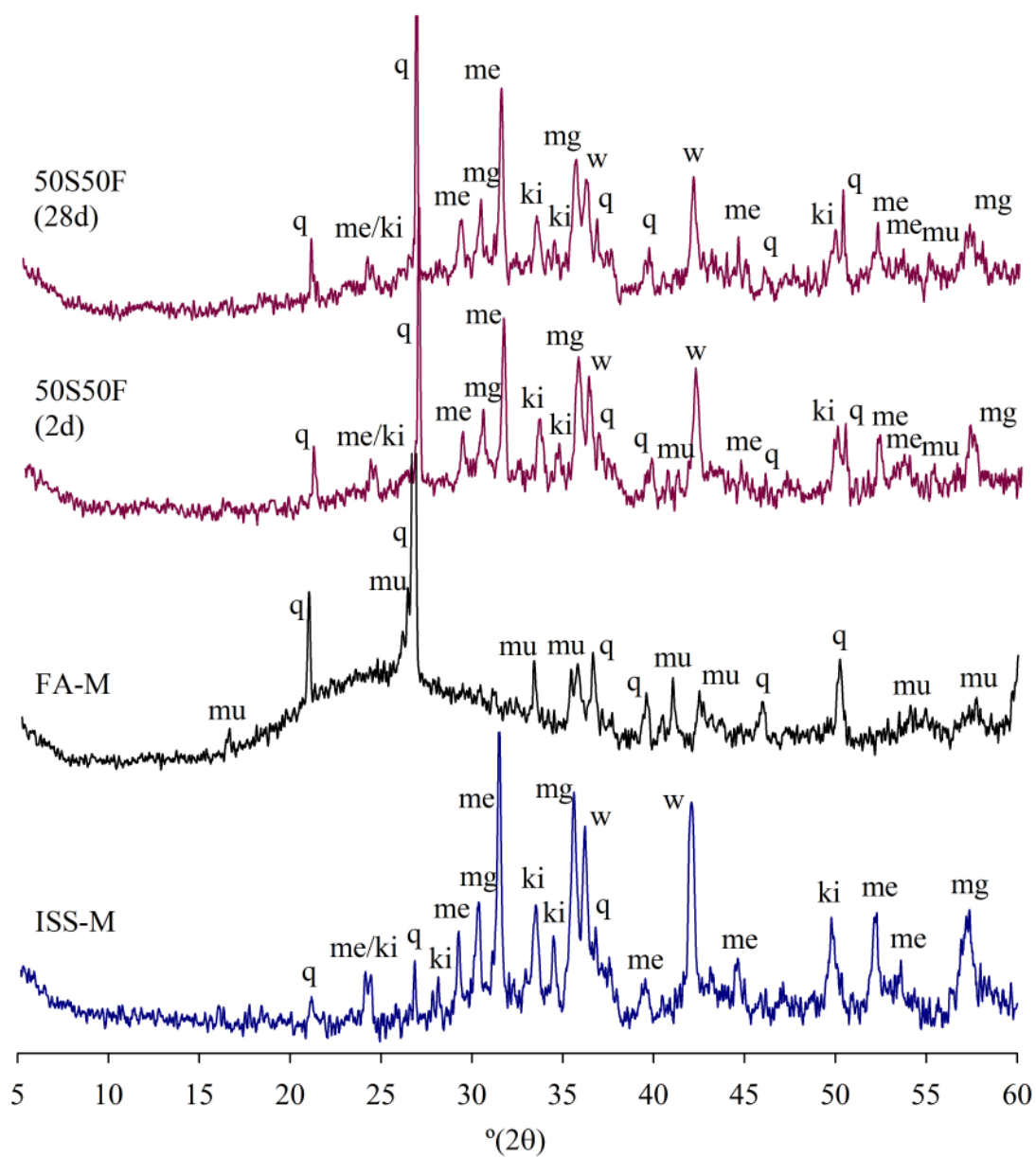
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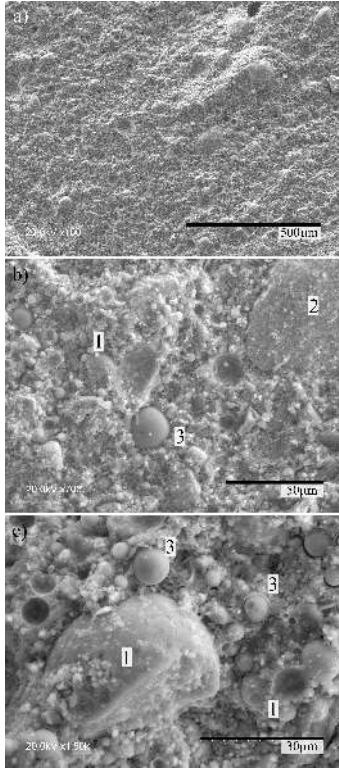
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