

Resistance to thaumasite form of sulphate attack of blended cement mortars

Abstract

This study concerns the resistance against thaumasite form of sulphate attack on Portland cement reference with high volume ground granulated blast-furnace slag, fly ash and ground basaltic pumice exposed to tap water (5% magnesium sulphate) for ten years. The separate and intergrinding methods, two fineness (250m²/kg and 500 m²/kg) and 30% proportions of each of the different additives were employed in equal amounts by weight. The development of the microstructure and the secondary minerals in the plain and blended cements were studied via polarising microscopy on thin sections and on undisturbed lumps of specimens **by** scanning electron microscope (SEM-EDAX) analysis. A series of mechanical tests of cement mortars were undertaken on all specimens. The development of the microstructural features and the formation of the secondary minerals in pores were coherent to the increase in sulphate resistance. The presence of thaumasite together with ettringite in some specimens reflects the incomplete transformation phase of hydration. However, despite the numerous studies conducted on the relation of hydration and hydrolysis with reference to cement hardening, the hydration-bound hardening phenomenon coupled with thaumasite morphology and matrix and/or pore space orientations are recommended for further investigation The use of the pozzolans/ground granulated blast furnace slag and basaltic pumice improved the sulphate resistance of the cement mortars, where specimen E yielded the highest sulphate resistance-highest TSA resistance.

Key words: Microstructure; Magnesium Sulphate Resistance; Thaumasite/Ettringite.

1. Introduction

Recently, there has been a growing demand towards the use of supplementary cementitious materials, **be it** natural, waste, or by-products, **in** the production of composite cements because of ecological, economical, and diversified product quality reasons. Slag, a by-product of the transformation of iron ore into pig-iron in a blast furnace, is one of these materials in use of cement manufacturing dating to as far back as 1880 [1- 3]. Since then, its use has expanded due to its various advantages over other cementitious materials. As a primary advantage, slag has a relatively constant chemical composition compared to fly ash, silica fume and natural pozzolan [4-8].

Durability of concrete in underground structures depends on chemical properties of soil and **groundwater**. A sulphate or an acid environment caused by industrial wastes, or chemical residues in reclaimed ground, is one of the most severe conditions for durability of concrete. Unfortunately, underground or underwater concrete structures can sometimes be exposed to sulphates and acids, since water-soluble sulphate widely exists in soil, **groundwater**, streams, and **seawater** [9-12]. It has been recognised for a long time that sulphate induces damage to concrete. Some researchers have reported that the use of low water/cement ratio and the use of admixtures, such as air entraining **agents** to protect the chemical attack of a rich mixture, additive, or Ground Blast furnace slag (GBFS), would be the most effective treatment in reducing sulphate-inducing damage [13, 14]. Deterioration of concrete by sulphate attack is commonly observed in structures exposed to soils or **groundwater** containing a high concentration of sulphate ions. To mitigate this attack, concrete codes recommend a concrete mixture with low water/cement ratio and sulphate resistant pozzolanic cement [15].

The European Cement Standards and The Turkish standards [16, 17] allow the use of many different mineral admixtures in the production of CEM II, III, IV and V. It is necessary to note that Portland composite and composite cements contain at least two different mineral admixtures besides

the Portland cement clinker. The total amount of these mineral admixtures is allowed up to 50% [18]. The durability of mortars can be greatly affected by environmental conditions, one of the most destructive effects coming from sulphates (soil, groundwater and seawater).

Wearing effects of chemical materials to concrete can be in various ways, acids induce dissolving salts in water to react with calcium hydroxide. Salts in concrete increase permeability and reduce resistance against harmful effects, whereas sulphates cause distensions and cracking in concrete. This damage depends on the cations taking part in building gypsum and ettringite or the decomposition of CSH gels. -The majority of these wearing reactions depend on the increase of the C_3A content in concrete with high negative effects [19]. An example for the negative effects of C_3A . Commonly, 15% silica ash is added together with pumice in order to reduce the amount of C_3A . However, by creating an initial resistance against damage, silica ash and pumice reduce permeability as an operative effect along with highly active calcium hydroxide [20].

The sulphate wearing, concerning increases in volume and cracks of concrete, is reduced by the the use of low ratios of tricalcium aluminate cements or suitable amounts of pumice as additives. Tricalcium aluminate indirectly decreases by the addition of pumice, and fills the pores in concrete as a connective component by joining with lime [21].

Calcium, sodium, magnesium and ammonium sulphate cause significant amounts of expansion in concrete consequently decreasing the strength. Calcium sulphate reacts with calcium aluminate to form ettringite, and in turn, causes expansion in concrete, whereas, ammonium sulphate is responsible for the highest corrosion in concrete bodies [22]. Moreover, sodium sulphate reaction has been reported to cause expansion and cracking in concrete by initial ettringite and gypsum formation followed by the ultimate development of thaumasite [23].

A long-known and major sulphate attack in concretes and mortars is caused by the formation of thaumasite, which forms under low temperatures as well as room temperatures (25 degrees C) and at

wet, alkaline conditions extensively experienced at buried concrete structures [24]. For the development of the thaumasite form of sulphate attack (TSA) in concrete the presence of a carbonate source is indispensable for an alkaline environment [25]. This can be supplied to the concrete structure from the ingredients of the concrete or from outside sources like groundwater, surface water or seawater which is also the source of sulphate [26, 27]. Some recent studies revealed the absence of TSA at 5 and 25 degrees Celcius in blends containing limestone additives treated with sulphate solutions [28, 29]. TSA is also reported to occur in Portland cement-based materials at low temperatures (below 15°C) at the presence of sulfates, carbonates, and moisture. Consequently, the dissolution–precipitation mechanism in concrete concerns most processes and phenomena including the temperature of the reactive environment occurring during the TSA process [30].

We have opted to reveal in this paper the durability/resistance of the separate and intergrinded blended cements with the incorporation of some additives within a 10-years time span under the effect of a MgSO₄ solution at room temperature with special attention on TSA. The fineness of the control cement (clinker + gypsum) was maintained at constant values of approximately 250 and 500 m²/kg. Similar Blaine values were determined for the blended cement (clinker + slag + fly ash + pumice + gypsum) and the control specimen.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

Ground basaltic pumice (GBP), obtained from the widespread Delihalil cinder cone system in Osmaniye, Turkey, is one of the main additives used in this study. It contains glass shards, mineral phases and some volcanic materials [31]. The clinker, ground granulated blast-furnace slag (GGBFS)

100 and the fly ash (FA)-were obtained from the Adana Cement Plant, the Iskenderun cement grinding
101 plant and the Afsin-Elbistan energy plant respectively.

102 2.1.1. *Physical and chemical properties of the additives*

103 Slag and Pumice were the high silica, alumina, magnesium and iron (in pumice only) containing
104 additives of the mortars studied, and the fly ash was the material rich in calcium, and sulphur in
105 particular (Table 1). The physical properties of the materials used varied slightly in specific gravity and
106 for the two fineness ranges. The specific surface areas were the same in each mixture (Table 2). The
107 uniform blended cement mixture was obtained by two different methods. The first was by grinding of
108 the mixture separately for ten minutes. And for the second, blended cement mixture ratios were
109 determined and ground. The B and C group samples were ground separately, whereas the D and E
110 group samples were ground together.

111

112 2.2. *Methods*

113 2.2.1. *Physical and chemical methods*

114 The specific gravity and the specific surface area were determined by a method developed in
115 accordance with ASTM-C204. The ball mill grindability tests were conducted in a standard Ball mill
116 for the 90 micron test sieve. The basaltic pumice, the slag and the clinker were reduced down to the
117 same fineness by crushing in the roll crusher. The 3.36 mm specimens were used as feed materials for
118 the tests. The more grindable gypsum tends to be concentrated in the finer particle size fractions of the
119 product during the grinding process. Particle size distribution was measured by laser diffraction. Blaine
120 fineness values were determined according to the ASTM-C204 [4].

121 Total elemental contents of additives and blends (Table 3) were determined by the wet combustion
122 method. The size fractions of 90 and 200 microns were separated through Standard ASTM. The
123 chemical analyses are put after the physical for consistency with the subtitle which mentions the
124 physical properties first and chemical second.

125

126 2.2.2. *Blended cements preparation, mortar formation and curing*

127 The blended cements were prepared using a clinker, 5% gypsum by weight, GGBS, FA and
128 GBP. Equal amounts of additives (30%, by weight) were incorporated into these blends. Cement paste
129 and mortars were prepared using plain Portland cement (A), GGBS, FA and GBP by two types of
130 grinding processes (intergrinding and separate grinding) at two Blaine values (250 m²/kg and 500
131 m²/kg) (Table 3). The first grinding method was conducted by grinding the mixture separately for ten
132 minutes at a non-marble grinder, and the second included the grinding of triple mixture ratios. The B
133 and C group samples were ground separately, whereas the D and E group samples were ground
134 together.

135 The mortar specimens of the plain Portland cement (A1, A2) and the blended cements (B, C, D and E)
136 were prepared according to the Rilem-Cembureau method at laboratory conditions (20±2°C and 50±5%
137 relative humidity). Following the 24-hour demolding, the specimens were kept in water until they were
138 tested. Six specimens with dimensions 40 mm×40 mm×40 mm, obtained from the specimens used in
139 the flexural strength tests, were tested under the same laboratory conditions as those applied in the
140 flexural strength test. The compressive strength tests were carried out using a 20000 kN capacity
141 automatic compression machine according to EN 196-1[4].

142 2.2.3. *Experimental Setup*

143 Sulphate durability, compressive strength and microstructure studies (by polarising and
144 scanning electron microscopy) were conducted on standard 40 x 40 x 160 mm prismatic mortar
145 specimens treated in a MgSO₄ solution for a 10-year period at stable pH levels. The solution was
146 replaced at regular periods. Compressive strength of the mortar specimens was determined after the 10-
147 year treatment period. Although the sulphate contents of natural or polluted waters may vary in
148 amounts, the sulphate of most stream and lake water systems seldomly exceeds the 100 mg/l limit.

Numerous studies have mentioned the increase in sulphate resistance of cement, and rapid experimental methods were developed to determine the behaviour of additives

Mixtures and control specimens of mortars were tested according to ASTM C 1012 standards for compressive strength. Here mixtures were tested via twelve parallel specimens based on the TS EN 24 Standards after treatment for 24 hours in laboratory conditions. After 24 hours, specimens were kept in lime-rich tap water for 28 days; the durability of mixtures was determined on these specimens, and the remaining specimens were kept in tap water and magnesium sulphate solutions. The pH of the Mg solution was periodically checked by a pH-meter to attain consistency in alkalinity (for the first 6 months varied from pH 8 to 11 after that date it was kept consistent from pH 11.5 to 12). Samples were then stored in boxes and the solution was stirred from time to time to avoid sulphate accumulation on the surface. After the 10-year treatment period, both durability and microstructure of the specimens were determined. The utilization of the pozzolans in mortars can cause cracking and weakening due to expansion by alkali-silica reaction (ASR). In this study, ASR expansion and properties of strength were analysed in terms of pozzolan used, in anticipation of reducing ASR expansion.

2.2.4. Micromorphology (microstructure/fabric) and mineralogy (x-ray diffraction and x-ray fluorescence)

Thin sections were prepared according to FitzPatrick [32] from epoxy resin impregnated blocks. Undisturbed lumps of mortar were studied by sub-microscopy (scanning electron microscopy-SEM) on selected cement prisms, which were exposed to sulphate degradation for 10 years and cut into cubes of approximately 10 mm², one side of which was polished flat. The lumps taken from the specimens were placed in vacuum desiccators for a minimum period of 10 minutes. Sample surfaces were coated with gold using a BIO-RAD Polar Division SEM coating system and the microstructure of the specimens

was studied by a JEOL JEM–8,40 SEM with a TRACTOR–TN 5502 model Energy Dispersion Spectrometer (EDS) used for point and area chemical analyses. A Bruker D8 General Area Detector for diffractometry and copper target with a scanning angle from 38 to 90 2-theta was used for XRD analysis conducted on the same, but ground specimens used for SEM.

X-ray diffraction was conducted on the ground powder samples of all specimens from 5 to 65 2-theta in order to determine the secondary minerals formed in the blends. The powdered specimen E was rescanned from 5 to 65 2-theta and its elemental contents were determined by XRF—primarily to better distinguish the proximate thaumasite and ettringite peaks obtained by XRD analysis. This was also an attempt to explain the nature of the vitrified-like surfaces on the edges of specimen E determined by the SEM.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Compressive strength of mortars immersed in magnesium sulphate

The separately produced blended cement specimens (B and C) were determined to have lower resistance to sulphate than the interground, where specimen C was higher than specimen B in terms of compressive strength (Table 4). The control specimens (A1 and A2) were found to completely crumble at the end of the 10-year period (Fig. 1). The intergrinding process was responsible for the 10-year high sulphate resistance due to different grinding periods and additives [6].

3.2. Expansion of the specimens

The expansion–time history curve that was made by measurements complying with ASTM C 1260 in terms of the specimens of 250 Blaine and of 500 Blaine is shown in Figs. 2 and 3. Fig. 2 shows the variation of expansion of hardened mortars with two Blaine values. The expansion of the mortars made with blended cements with separately ground finer specimens was lower than that of the control

specimens (A1 and A2) at all tested ages. The control cement mortar expanded by more than 4,5% in 10 years. The expansion of the hardened blended cement mortars was affected not only by the finenesses of the cements, but in some cases, also by the grinding method. Specimen group E had the lowest expansion in 10 years and the expansions of samples A2, B and D were 3.4 %, 1,1 and 0.8%, respectively (Fig.2). The Blaine specific surface area is the most significant property causing interground specimens to have lower expansion than their separately ground counterparts.

3.3. *Micromorphology (microstructure/fabric) and Mineralogy*

3.3.1. *Submicroscopy*

The crumbling of the A1 and A2 specimens after the 10-year period was most likely due to the formation of the bladed/tabular minerals along cracks and in micro-pores (Fig. 4 and 5). The presence of high amounts of silica, most likely liberated from the solution of quartz grains under high pH conditions, documents the formation of thaumasite, as bladed and wedge clustered radially oriented fibrous crystals, in specimen A1. However, the low amounts of aluminum with calcium may point out to the formation of ettringite together with the well-defined dominant fibrous thaumasite in specimen A2 (Figs. 4 and 5).

The highest durability determined in the 10-year tap water treated A2 specimen seems to contradict the crumbling of the MgSO₄ treated A2 specimen. Despite the higher contents of calcium and carbonate ions in the tap water (208 mg/l), this phenomenon may be attributed to the more active ionic effects of magnesium and sulphate added to the solution. The sulphate in this context maintains the electroneutrality, due to the counterdiffused OH ions, consequently increasing the pH (33). Calcium, in turn, is most likely widely incorporated into the mineral structure, primarily for calcite formation, during the pH-controlled high alkaline curing process, consequently remaining inert throughout the 10-year period. The well crystallised and oriented rhombohedral calcite crystals of uniform shape with rare rounded vaterite (fine popcorn calcite) on quartz and cracked matrix surfaces

in specimen B and D respectively, most likely indicate the long- period of curing under constant pH conditions (Figs 6 and 9). The fine popcorn calcite along with the unstable vaterite may also be the cause for the low durability of the mixed specimens. The increased durability of specimen C to B and E to D, after treatment, is primarily due to the increased fineness of specimens C and E and the relevant fabric development (Table 5). As reported previous study of Binici [6] Blaine specific surface area is the most significant property causing interground specimens to have longer dormant periods (the period in which sulfates have no important effect) than their separately ground counterparts. Moreover, the higher durability in specimen C may be attributed to the re-oriented fabric due to the presence of the in-situ formed and closely packed/interlocked coarser aggregates of calcite with gypsum, CSH structures and bundles of thaumasite and/or ettringite fibers (Figs. 7 and 8). However, the increased durability of specimen E may be due to the frequently distributed aggregates of calcite, gypsum and CSH structures which also align on micro-topographic edges of the smooth/vitrified-like matrix surfaces as thick domains (Fig. 10).

3.3.2. Polarised microscopy

The thin sections of the selected specimens cured in MgSO_4 at room temperature conditions have revealed the presence of the CSH structures and the particular orientations of co-existing thaumasite and ettringite in the concrete blends. Yellowish domains of CSH structures, high first order bright yellow and low second order red to gray/blue thaumasite and grayish ettringite is frequent throughout the matrix of specimen A2 (Yeni Fig 11 eski Fig. 13). Specimen A2 also reveals the presence of the tabular grains of thaumasite and ettringite that are also lining/forming along quartz grains and sinuous cracks [30] (Fig. yeni fig. 12 eski -fig 11). The flyash spherules of specimen B are also surrounded by in-situ forming thaumasite, ettringite and popcorn calcite as haloes most likely decreasing the strength of the mix as stated by Sibbick et al [24, 30] (Fig. 13).

246 The occurrence of the co-existing frequent thaumasite and ettringite in the matrix of A2 as well
247 as in the pore in-fills reflect the cause of the crumbling of the specimen after the 10-year cure. The
248 presence of the thaumasite crystals and the common very fine popcorn calcite crystal depositions in
249 specimens B and D are most likely responsible for the lower strength compared to specimen E (31).

250 3.3.33. Mineralogy

251 There is an increase in ettringite ($3\text{CaO} \cdot \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 3\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 31\text{H}_2\text{O}$)/thaumasite
252 ($\text{CaSiO}_3 \cdot \text{CaCO}_3 \cdot \text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 15\text{H}_2\text{O}$) (9.8, 5.6 Angstrom-contemporaneous peaks), ettringite (5.2, 4.7, 3.6,
253 Angstrom), calcite/ettringite (3.8, 3.0 Angstrom-overlapping peaks) and thaumasite (3.5, 3.4
254 Angstrom) in specimen B and especially more prominently in specimen E (Fig. 15) compared to the
255 lower contents in other specimens. The presence of higher amounts of silica and calcium compared to
256 lower contents of alumina (Tables 5, 6 and Figs. 6, 7, 9 and 11) confirm the formation of thaumasite
257 together with ettringite. Gypsum ($\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) (7.6 Angstrom) is also simultaneously transformed to
258 ettringite and thaumasite during this process as a sequence of sulphate phase transformation especially
259 in specimen E. The presence of portlandite ($\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$) (4.9 Angstrom) in some specimens, as a mineral
260 forming during the concrete curing process at low temperatures, may contain evidence of incomplete
261 calcination during the concrete production or incomplete hydration on-going before and/or during the
262 curing process.

263 The co-existing peaks of ettringite (9.8 Å) and thaumasite (5.6 Å) after the 10-year curing indicates an
264 on-going and incomplete process of concretisation, which is ultimately anticipated to reach an
265 ettringite-free thaumasite content. The detection of some of the weak and occasionally overlapping
266 peaks of vaterite (popcorn calcite- polymorph of calcite- CaCO_3) (3.55, 2.71, 2.10 Angstrom) which
267 readily alter to calcite may also be the indicators of the beginning of the last-stage reaction as the pH of
268 the cement pore fluids drops from 13 to neutral [30].

269 All these manifest the on-going transformation of the CSH gels and $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ (portlandite) to ettringite
270 and ultimately to thaumasite. Anorthite ($\text{CaAl}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_8$) (4.09 and 3.28 Angstrom) in specimen E is most

likely a secondary formation rather than a flyash ingredient. The absence of quartz may be due to its dissolution in specimen E during the uncontrollable pH process fluctuating between 8 to 13. This may have occurred during the curing process of specimen E that favoured the formation of the calcium and silica rich anorthite and subsequent formation of thaumasite. The vitrified-like surfaces observed by the SEM images of specimen E are most likely part of the quartz grains that resisted dissolution.

4. Conclusions

The study revealed that the,

1. The higher pressure resistance of the C and E specimens compared to the B and D was most likely due to higher CSH gel/aggregate formation together with the co-existing interlocked thaumasite and ettringite crystals.
2. The interground specimen resistance was higher than the separate ground blends, most likely due to the fineness of the material. But the lower resistance of D than E was most probably due to the abundant popcorn calcite distribution and the cracks developed in the former.
3. The use of the ground granulated blast furnace slag and basaltic pumice improved the sulphate resistance of the cement mortars, where specimen E yielded the highest sulphate resistance-highest TSA resistance.
4. The microstructure was modified with the addition of pozzolans. The effect of this was a reduced rate of leaching of the alkali hydroxide from the pore fluid but did not prevent expansion.
5. Despite the numerous studies conducted on the relation of hydration and hydrolysis with reference to cement hardening, the hydration-bound hardening phenomenon coupled with thaumasite morphology and matrix and/or pore space orientations are in need of further investigation. Nevertheless, the presence of thaumasite together with ettringite and portlandite in some specimens reflect the incomplete transformation phase to hydration, i.e., the anticipated complete transformation of ettringite to thaumasite [18- 23] and may indicate the continuity of the TSA process in concrete.

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304

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Figure captions

- Fig.1. The blended cement mortars after ten years
- Fig. 2. Expansion time histories for mortar bars (250 Blaine)
- Fig. 3. Expansion time histories for mortar bars (500 Blaine)
- Fig. 4 A1 control specimen cured in magnesium sulphate solution with bladed-radial acicular thaumasite crystals and CSH-gypsum-calcite aggregates in matrix (SEM) (a) and elemental contents by EDAX (b).
- Fig. 5. A2 control specimen cured in magnesium sulphate solution with tabular minerals (SEM) (a) and elemental contents by EDAX (b).
- Fig. 6 Specimen B cured in magnesium sulphate solution with very fine ‘pop corn’ calcite and gypsum formed on quartz surface (SEM) (a) and elemental contents by EDAX (b).

387 Fig.7 Specimen C cured in magnesium sulphate solution. Bundles of randomly oriented
388 thaumasite/ettringite fibers are closely packed/interlocked with clusters/aggregates of calcite and CSH
389 structures (SEM) (a) and elemental contents by EDAX (b).

390 Fig. 8 Individual Closely packed/interlocked coarser aggregates of calcite with gypsum, CSH structures
391 and bundles of thaumasite and/or ettringite fibers (specimen C).

392 Fig. 9 Specimen D cured in magnesium sulphate solution. Popcorn Calcite on fractured mineral surface
393 (a) and elemental contents by EDAX (b).

394 Fig. 10 Specimen E cured in magnesium sulphate solution. grains of popcorn calcite with aggregates
395 and domains of calcite, gypsum and structures aligning or randomly oriented on fractured and
396 smooth/vitrified-like surfaces (a and b) .

397 Fig. 11. Yellowish domains of CSH structures, tabular thaumasite (yellowish- red to grayish-blue) and
398 ettringite (grayish) grains in matrix.

399 Fig. 12 . Domains of thaumasite and ettringite surrounding larger grains and forming along mineral
400 cracks of quartz

401 Fig. 13 . Thaumasite, ettringite and popcorn calcite surrounding fly ash spherules

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404 Fig. 14. X-ray diffractograms of the cured specimens

405

406 Table1. Total elemental contents of the additive materials

407 Table. 2 Physical properties of the additives

408 Table. 3. The composition of the studied cements

409 Table 4. Compressive strength of mortars (MPa)

410 Table 5. Major chemical components of samples after deterioration

411 Table 6. Total elemental contents of specimen E (XRF)

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Table1. Total elemental contents of the additive materials

Contents	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	Fe ₂ O ₃	CaO	MgO	SO ₃	L.I
Slag	39.65	12.77	1.67	32.91	7.40	1.44	0.01
Fly ash	44.09	22.07	4.40	20,95	1.65	2.56	2.24
Pumice	43.89	14.11	12.10	9.27	8.94	-	0.48
Clinker	20.29	5. 57	3. 85	64.75	1.96	0.89	

Table. 2. Physical properties of the additives

Contents	Specific gravity (kg/cm ³)	Specific surface area (m ² /kg)	200 μm fraction (%)	90 μm fraction (%)
Slag	2.89	250 and 500	0.09	0.3
Fly ash	2.85	250 and 500	0.08	0.2
Pumice	2.97	250 and 500	0.06	0.2
Clinker	3.19	250 and 500	0.09	0.3

Table. 3. The composition of the studied cements

Cement	Composition (% percentages by weight)					Blaine (m ² /kg)
	Clinker	GBFS	FA	GBP	Gypsum	
A ₁	95	0	0	0	5	250
A ₂	95	0	0	0	5	500
B (separate grinding)	65	10	10	10	5	250
C (separate grinding)	65	10	10	10	5	500
D (intergrinding)	65	10	10	10	5	250
E (intergrinding)	65	10	10	10	5	500

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Table 4. Compressive strength of mortars (MPa)

Specimens	28 days	10 years	
		Tap water	%5 MgSO ₄
A ₁	52.1	66.1	Crumbled-
A ₂	58.4	69.4	Crumbled-
B	36.2	56.9	22.1
C	52.3	67.1	27.4
D	37.5	58.1	22.6
E	54.2	69.6	29.4

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Table 5. Major chemical components of samples after detereoration

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Sample	Element	Wt %	Atm %	Error
A1	Na	0.40	0.50	0.0
	Mg	0.26	0.31	0.0
	Al	1.13	1.18	0.1
	Si	94.57	95.21	1.7
	S	1.36	1.20	0.1
	Ca	2.28	1.61	0.1
A2	Mg	1.26	1.60	0.1
	Al	2.26	2.59	0.1
	Si	63.53	69.86	1.2
	S	2.86	2.76	0.1
	Ca	30.09	23.19	0.4
B	Na	0.92	1.41	0.1
	Mg	0.97	1.41	0.1
	Al	2.33	3.05	0.1
	Si	26.06	32.86	0.6
	S	2.28	2.52	0.1
	Ca	64.03	56.58	1.0
	Fe	3.42	2.17	0.1
C	Na	0.58	0.84	0.1
	Mg	1.41	1.94	0.1
	Al	1.90	2.35	0.1
	Si	42.75	50.94	1.0
	Ca	50.67	42.31	0.8
	Fe	2.69	1.61	0.1
D	Na	1.50	2.26	0.1
	Mg	1.03	1.46	0.1
	Al	2.99	3.83	0.1

E	Si	27.77	34.18	0.7
	S	6.84	7.37	0.2
	Ca	56.76	48.97	1.0
	Fe	3.11	1.93	0.1
	Mg	0.39	0.56	0.0
	Al	1.15	1.46	0.1
	Si	38.38	46.97	0.9
	Ca	57.91	49.67	0.9
	Fe	2.18	1.34	0.1

Table 6. Total elemental contents of specimen E (XRF)

Components	(%)	Error (%)
SiO ₂	48.0780	0.1
CaO	28.1820	0.05
Al ₂ O ₃	4.2417	0.02
SO ₃	3.2994	0.02
Fe ₂ O ₃	3.0571	0.02
MgO	1.5575	0.008
TiO ₂	0.3683	0.007
Cl	0.3141	0.006
MnO	0.2031	0.004
Cr ₂ O ₃	0.1664	0.004
K ₂ O	0.1495	0.002
P ₂ O ₅	0,0945	0.002
Na ₂ O	0.0863	0.003
SrO	0.0559	0.001
NiO	0.0165	0.001
ZrO ₂	0.0126	0.001
ZnO	0.0098	0.001
CuO	0.0074	0.001

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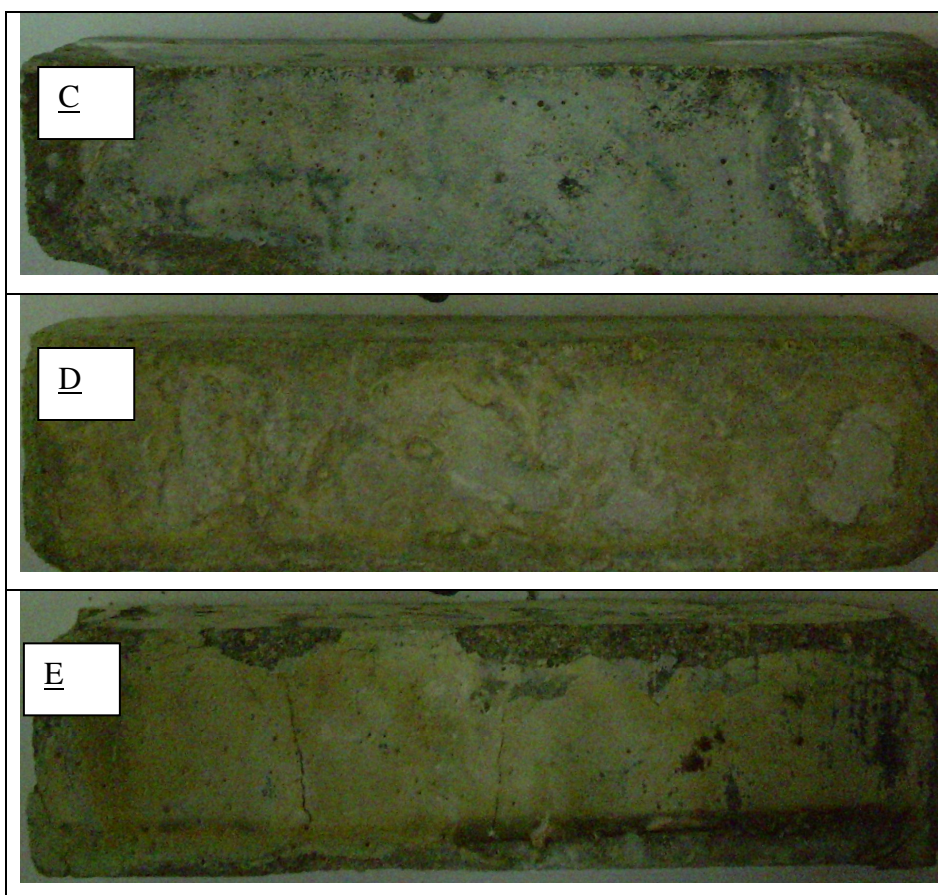


Fig.1. The belended cement mortars after ten years

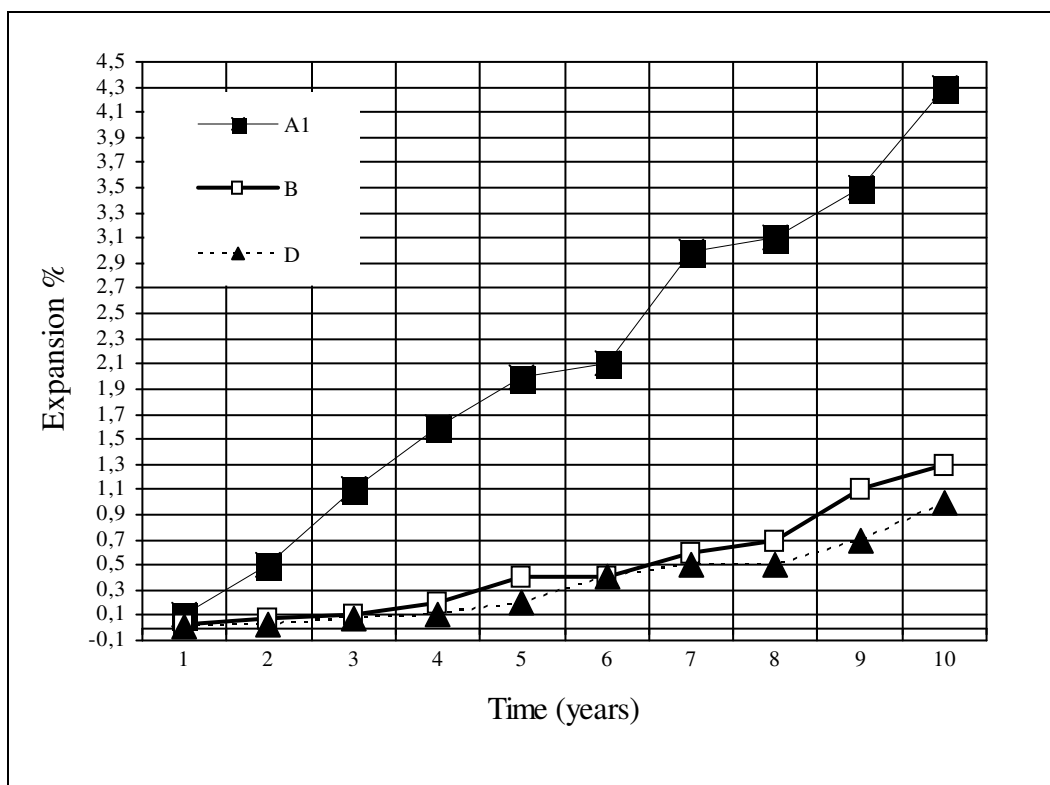


Fig. 2. Expansion time histories for mortar bars (250 Blaine)

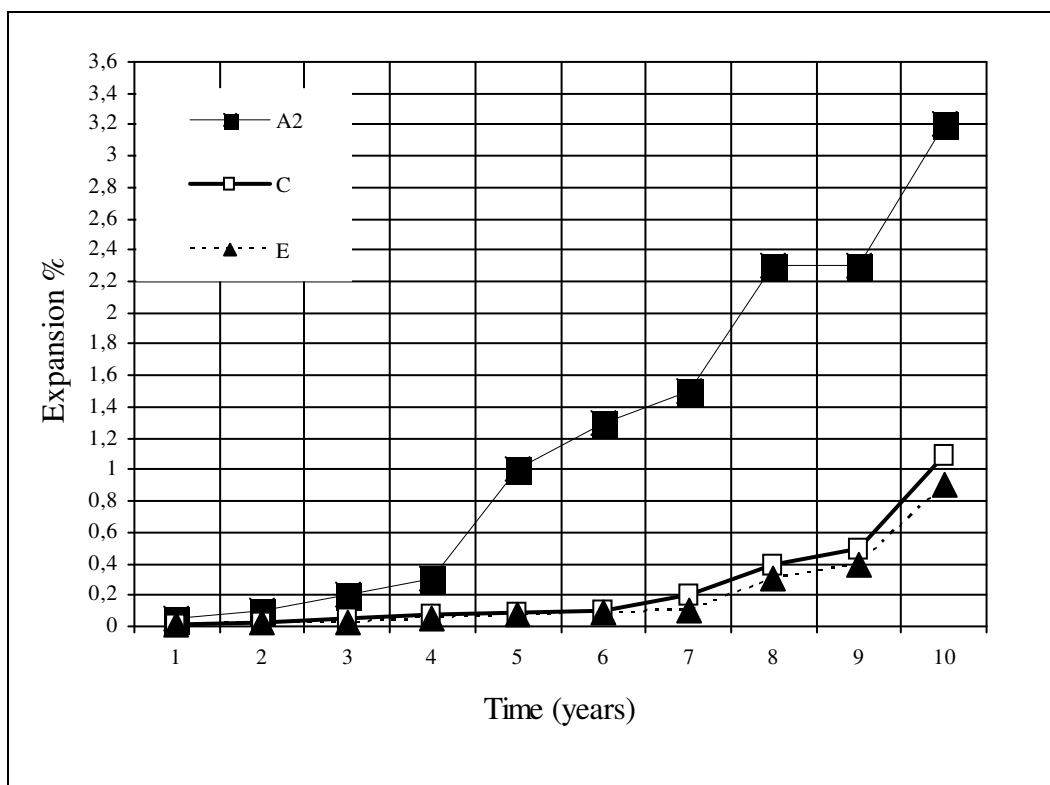
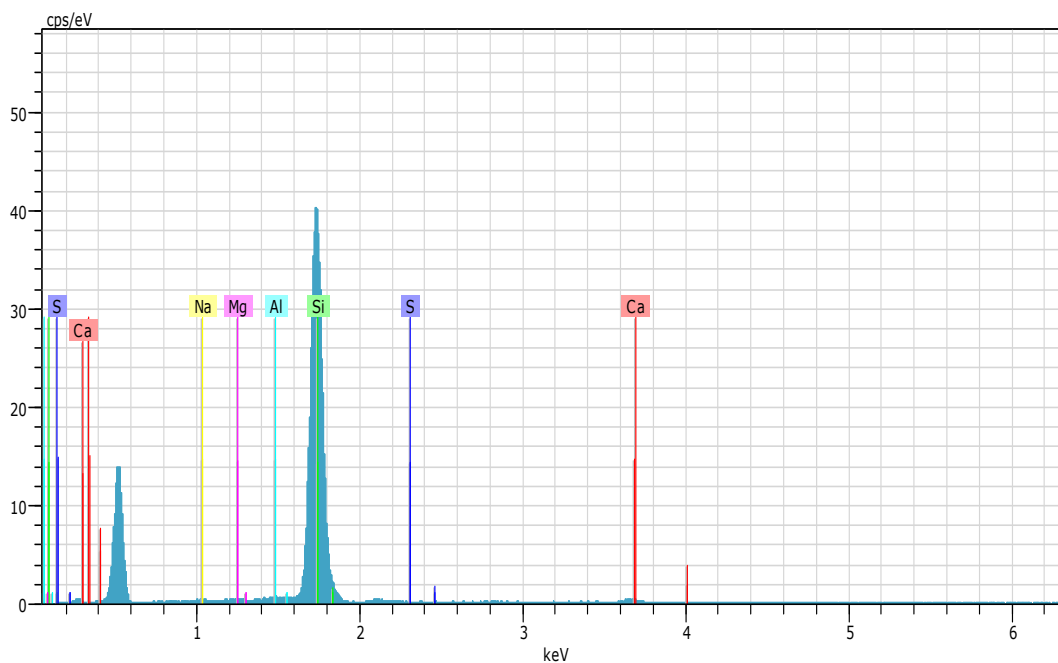
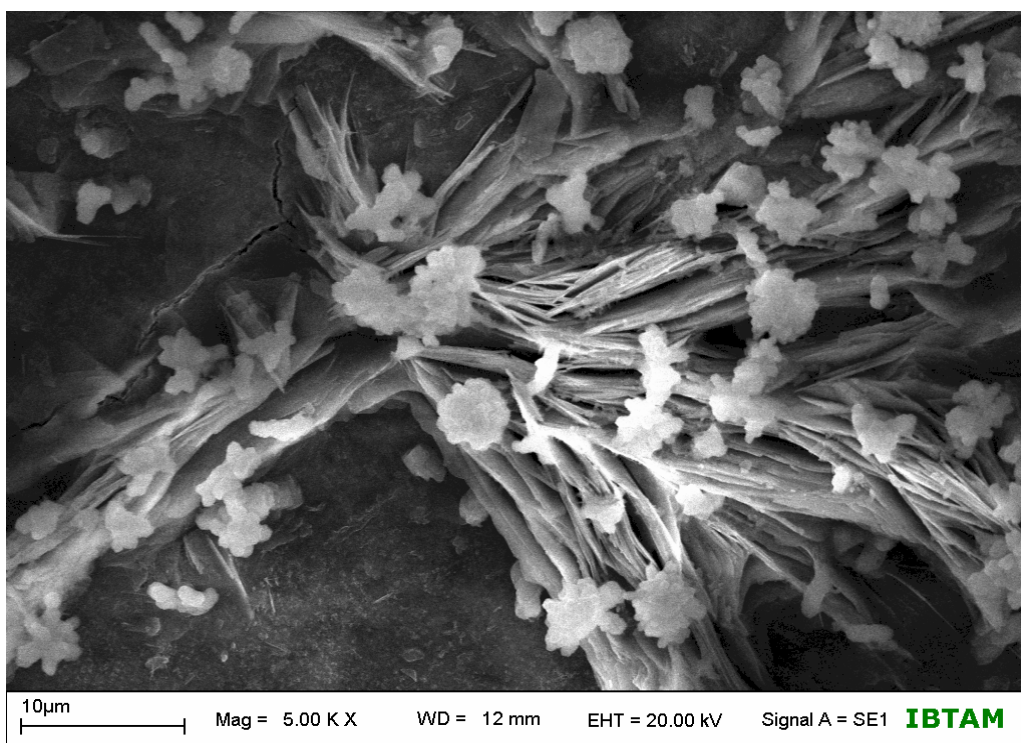


Fig. 3. Expansion time histories for mortar bars (500 Blaine)



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509 Fig. 4 A1 control specimen cured in magnesium sulphate solution with bladed-radial acicular
 510 thaumasite crystals and CSH-gypsum-calcite aggregates in matrix (SEM) (a) and elemental contents by
 511 EDAX (b).

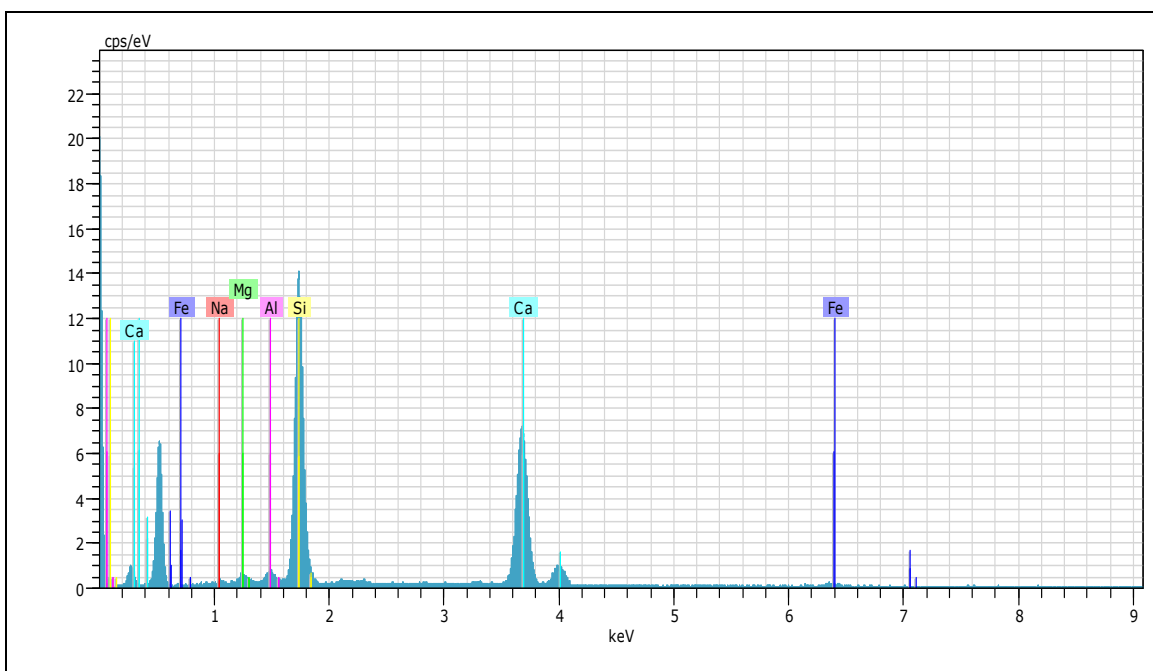
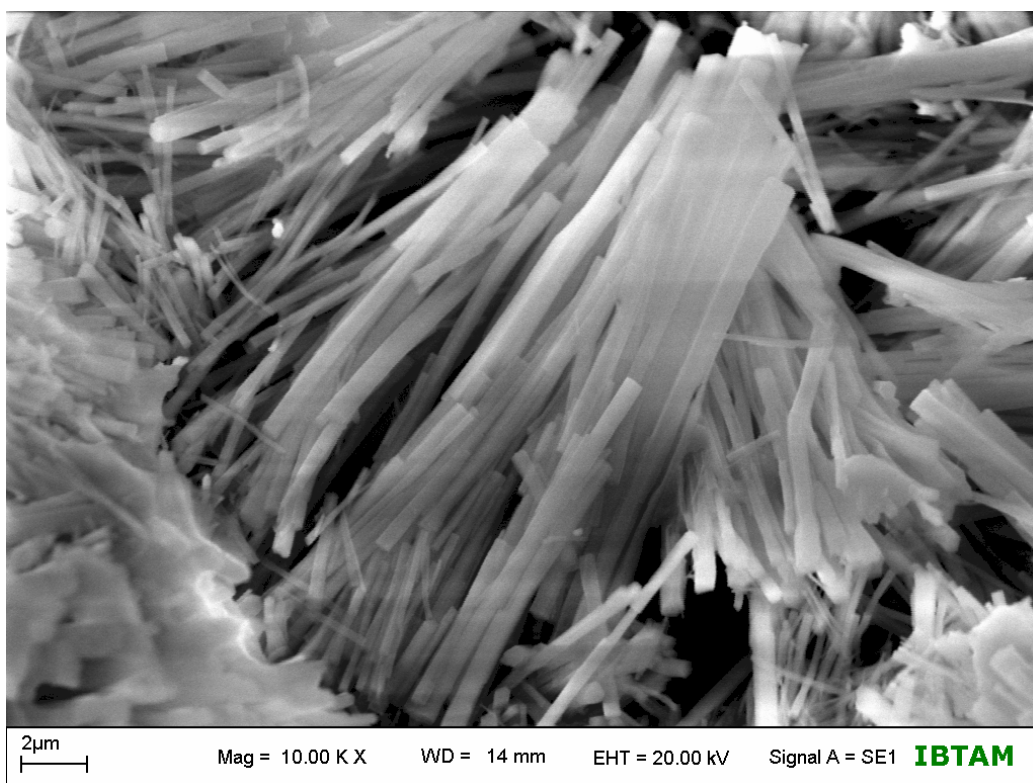
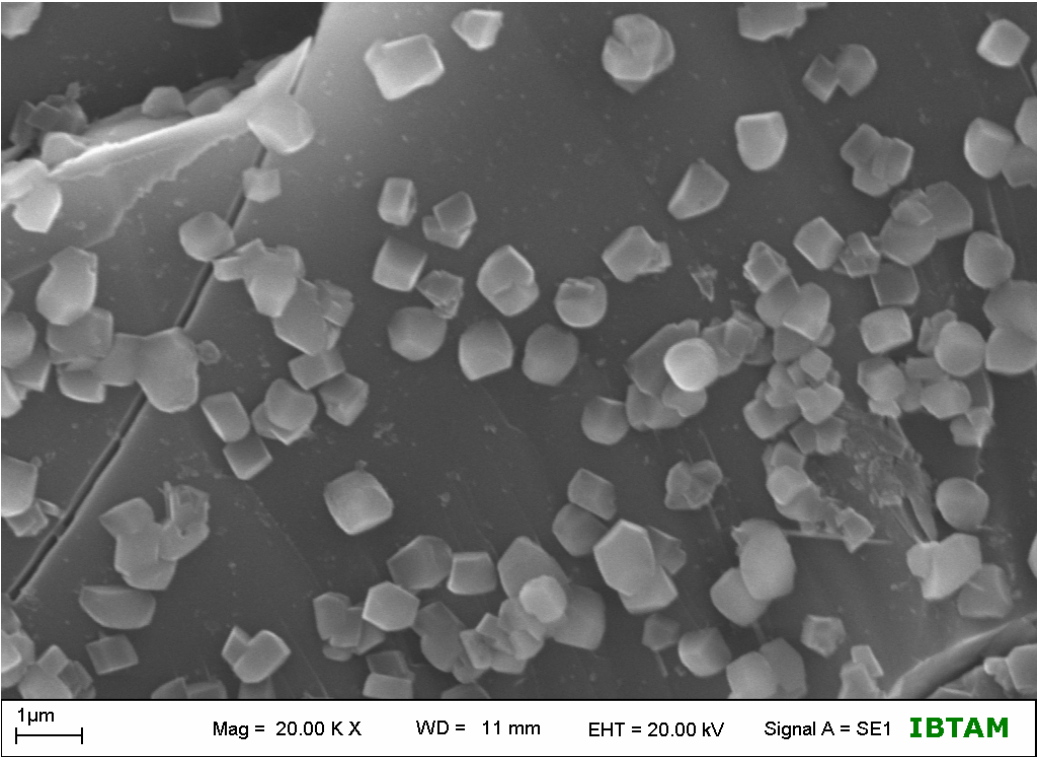
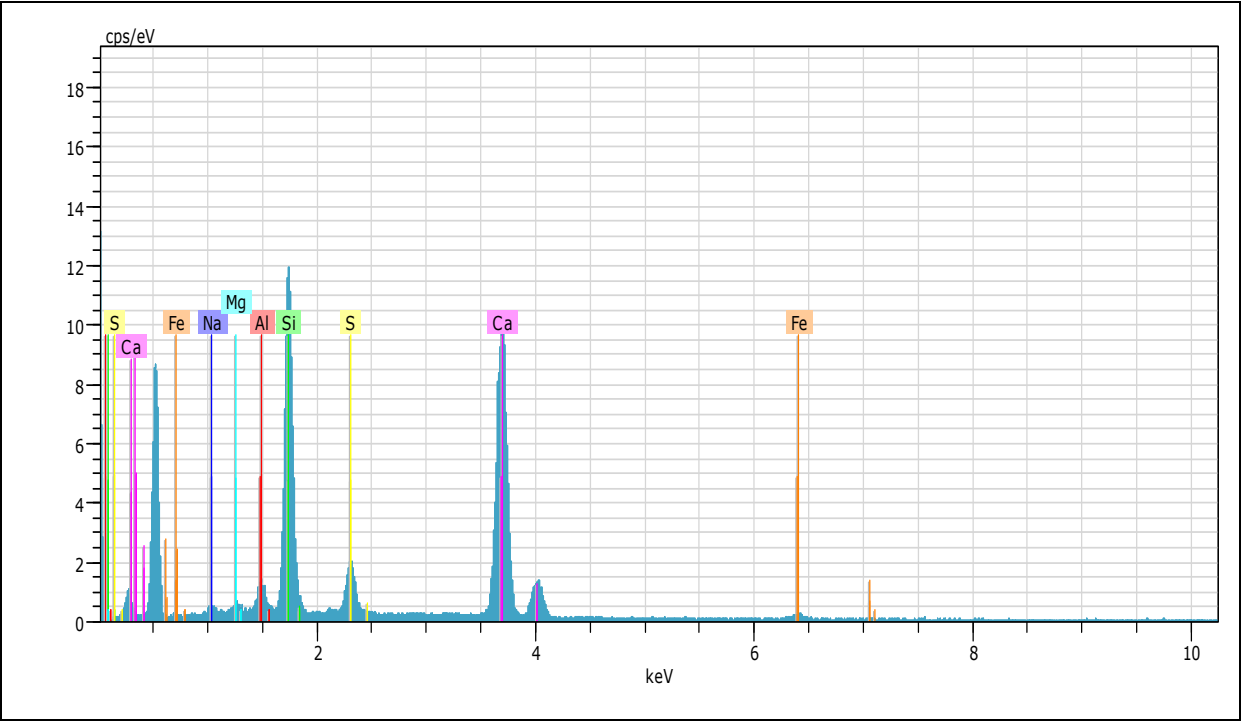


Fig. 5. A2 control specimen cured in magnesium sulphate solution with tabular minerals (SEM) (a) and elemental contents by EDAX (b) .

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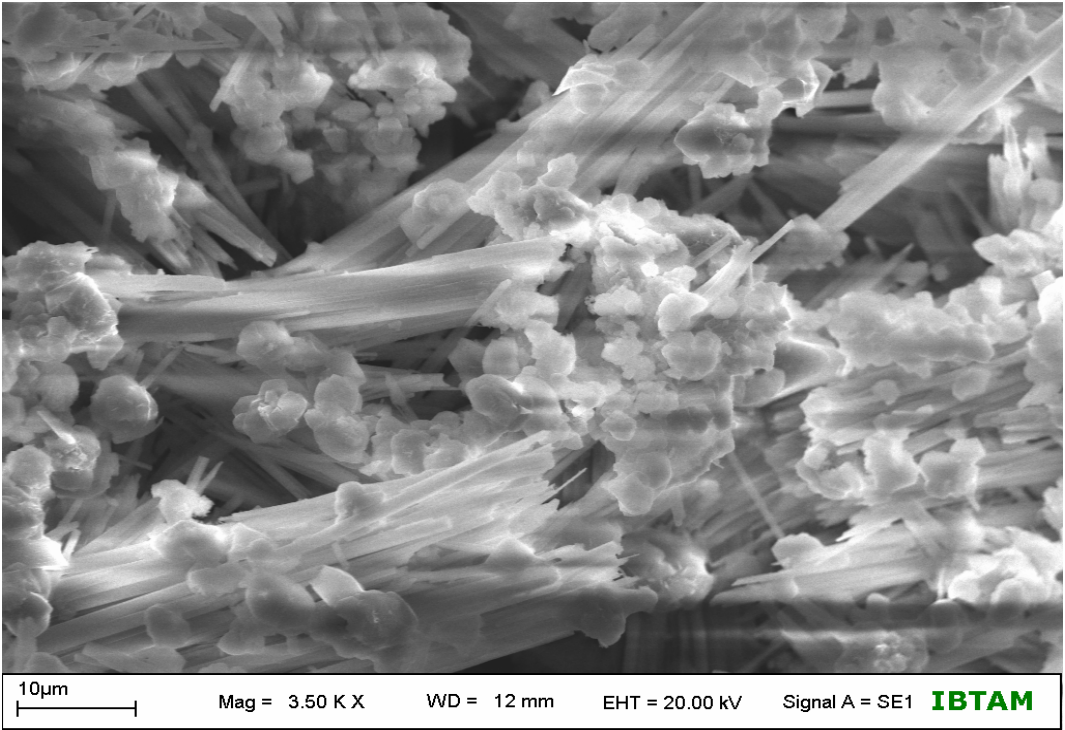


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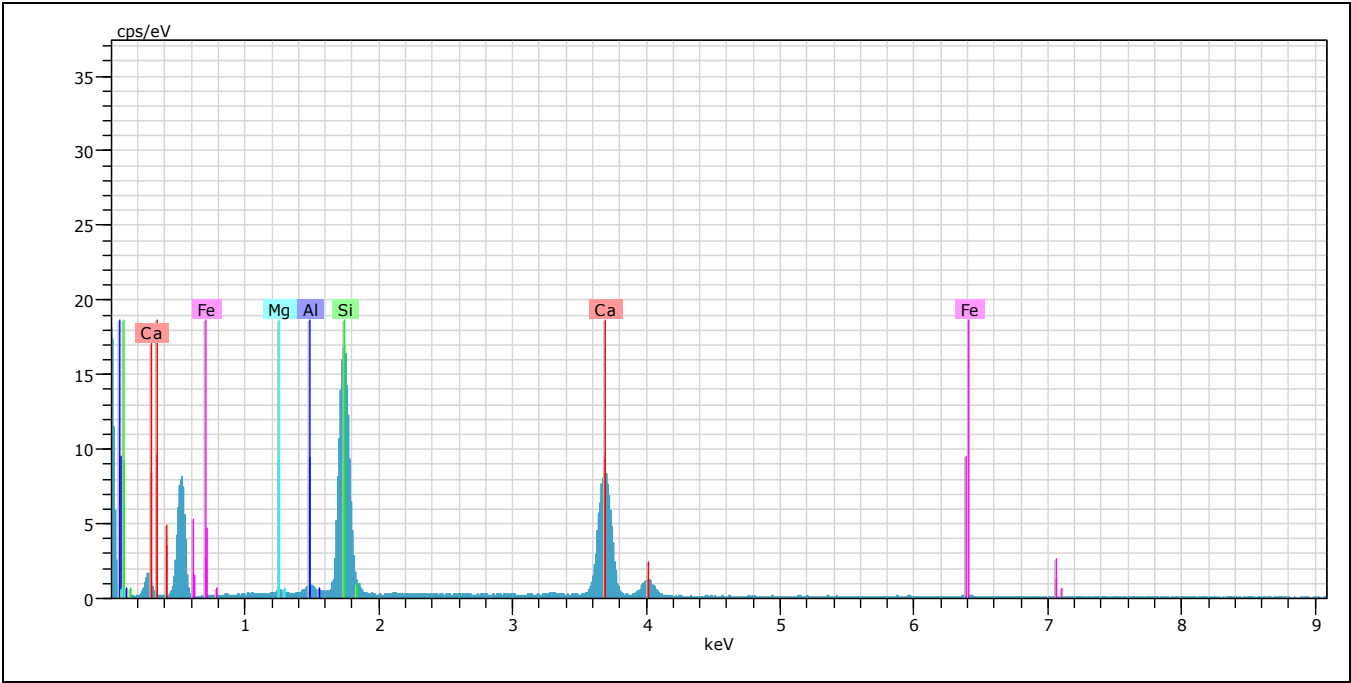
522 Fig. 6 Specimen B cured in magnesium sulphate solution with very fine ‘pop corn’ calcite and gypsum
523 formed on quartz surface (SEM) (a) and elemental contents by EDAX (b).

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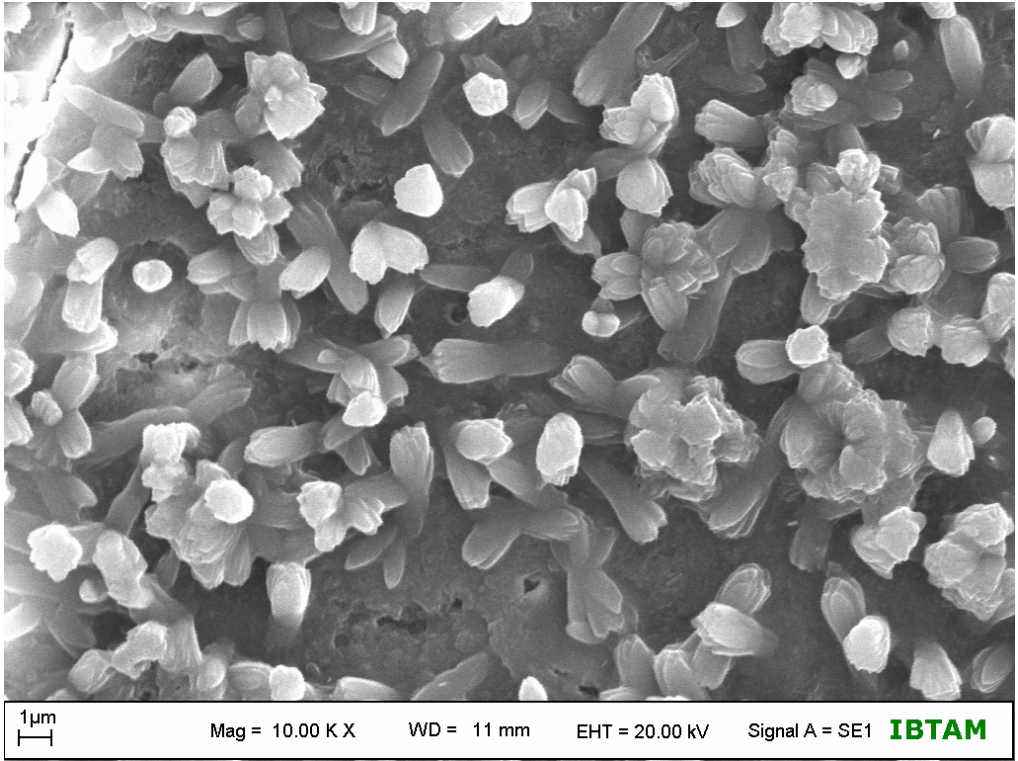


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528 Fig.7 Specimen C cured in magnesium sulphate solution. Bundles of randomly oriented
529 thaumasite/ettringite fibers are closely packed/interlocked with clusters/aggregates of calcite and CSH
530 structures (SEM) (a) and elemental contents by EDAX (b).

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535 Fig. 8 Individual Closely packed/interlocked coarser aggregates of calcite with gypsum, C-S-H
536 structures and bundles of thaumasite and/or ettringite fibers (specimen C).

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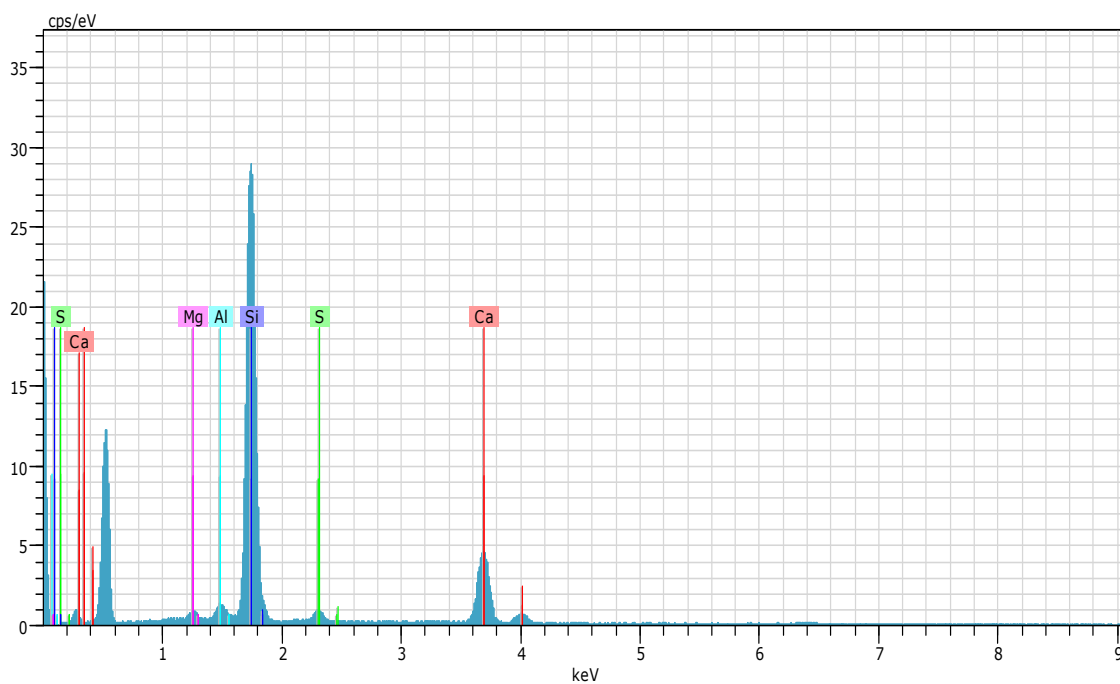
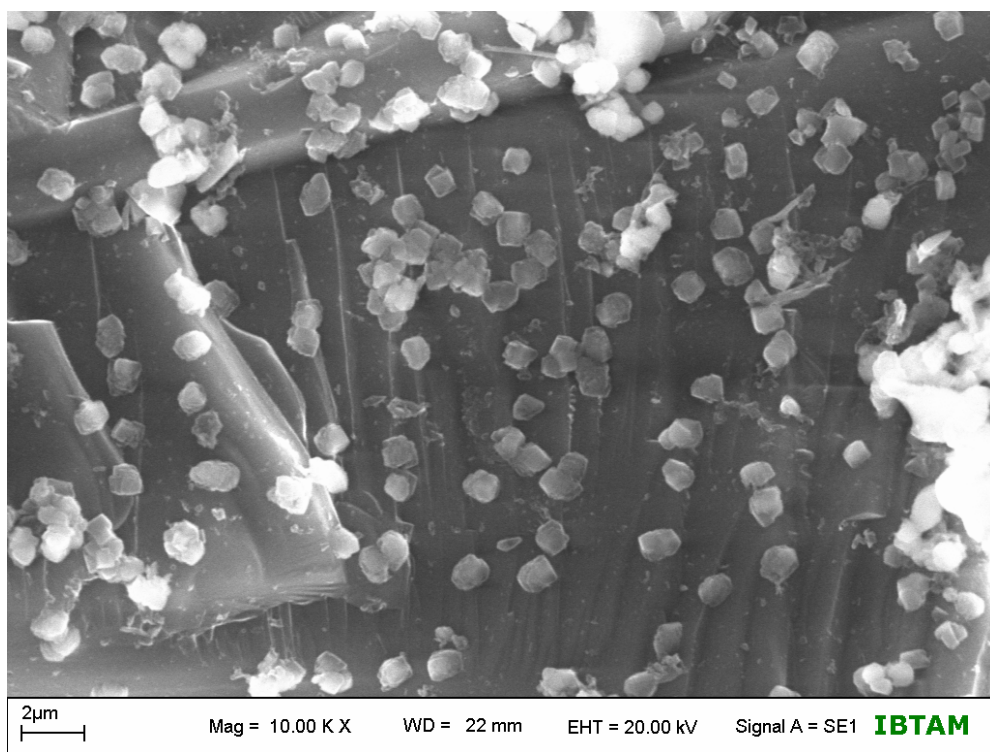


Fig. 9 Specimen D cured in magnesium sulphate solution. Popcorn Calcite on fractured mineral surface (a) and elemental contents by EDAX (b).

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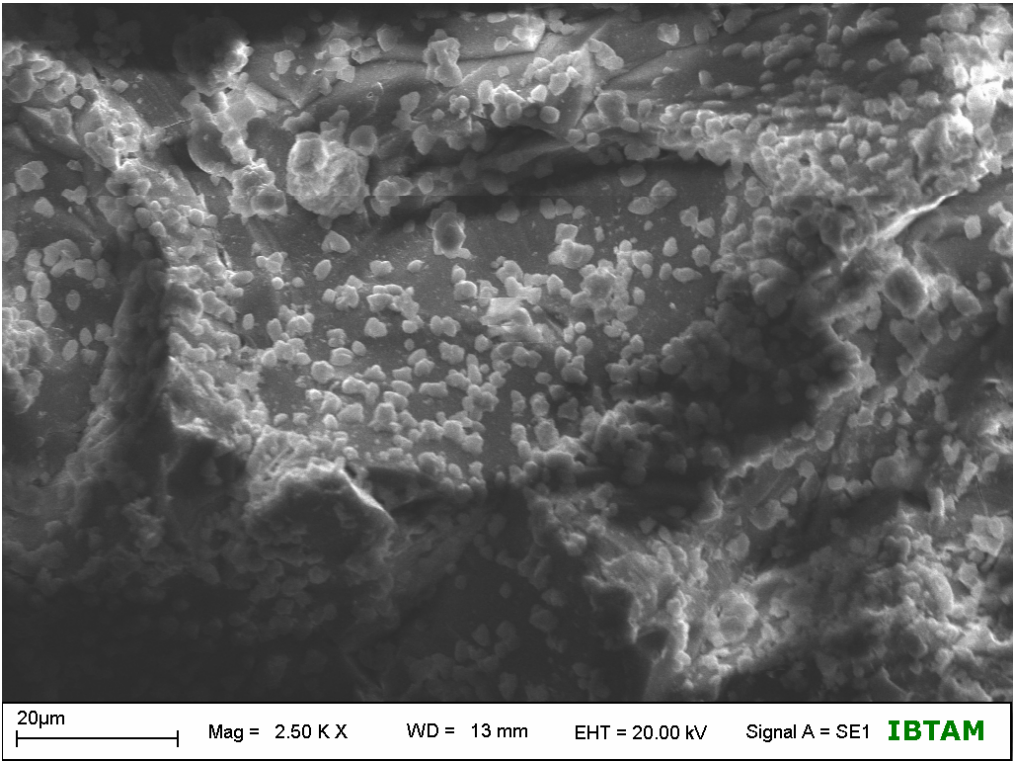
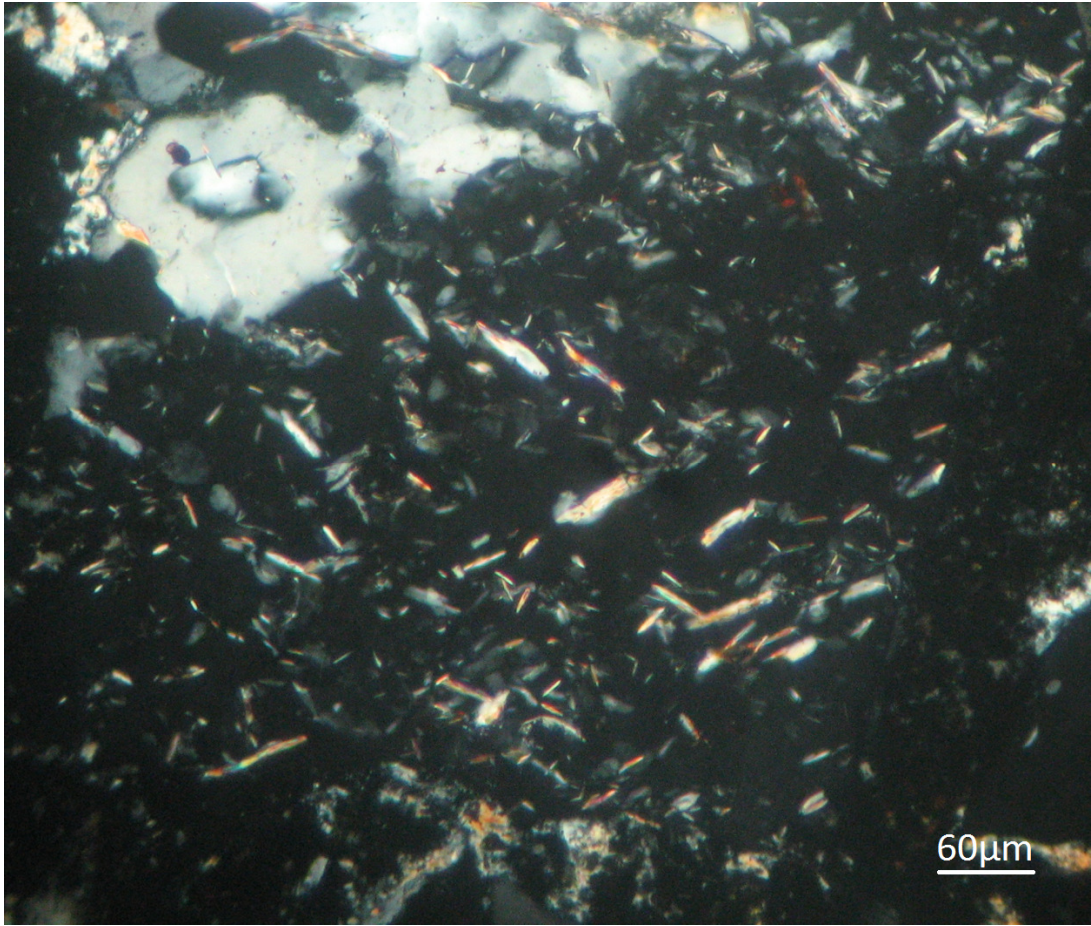


Fig. 10 Specimen E cured in magnesium sulphate solution. grains of popcorn calcite with aggregates and domains of calcite, gypsum and structures alighning or randomly oriented on fractured and smooth/vitrified-like surfaces.

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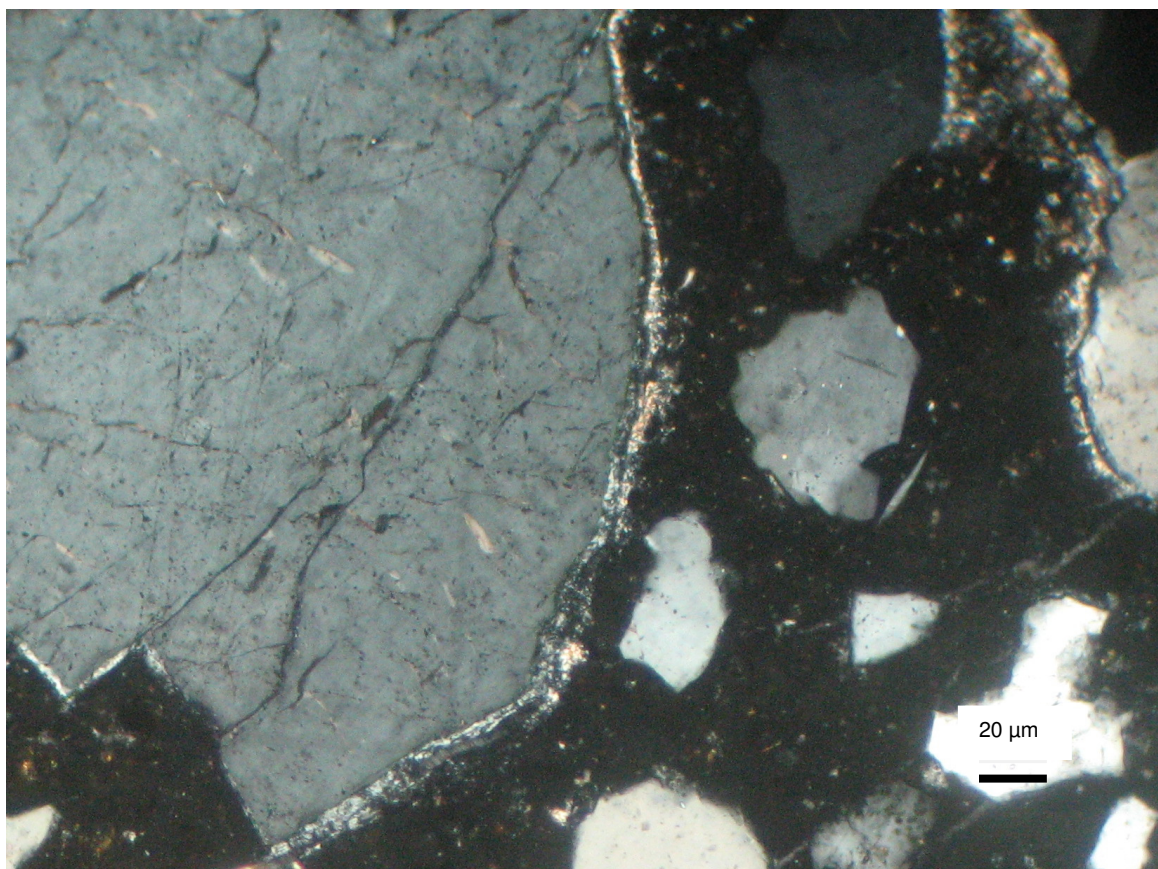
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Fig. 11. Yellowish domains of CSH structures, tabular thaumasite (yellowish- red to grayish-blue) and ettringite (grayish) grains in matrix.

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Fig. 12 . Domains of thaumasite and ettringite surrounding larger grains and forming along mineral cracks of quartz

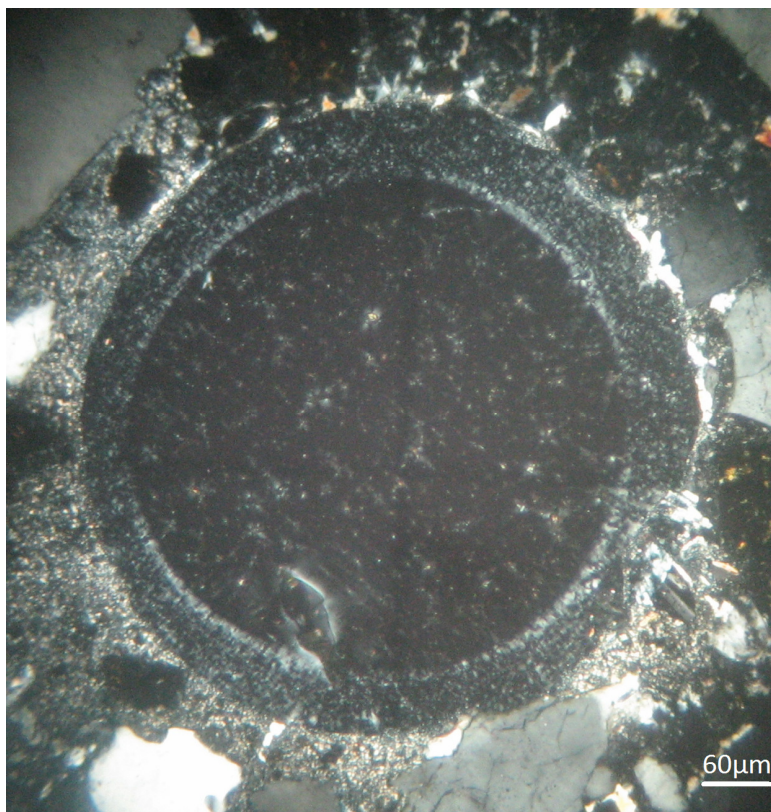
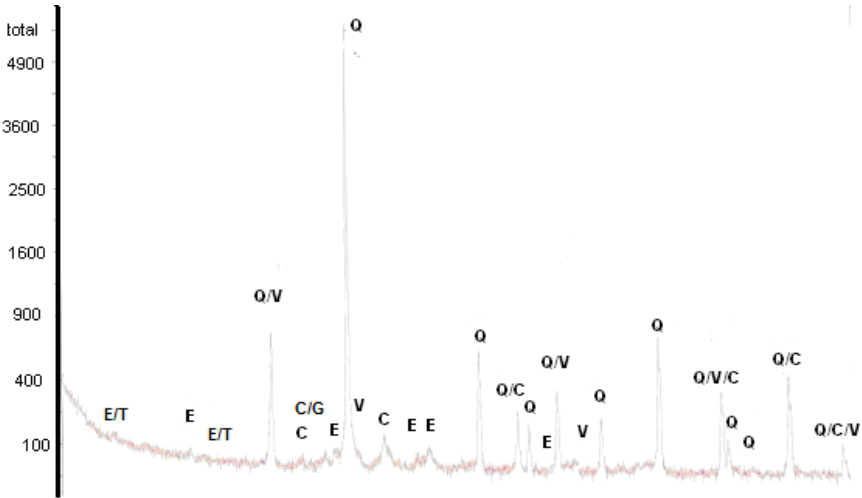
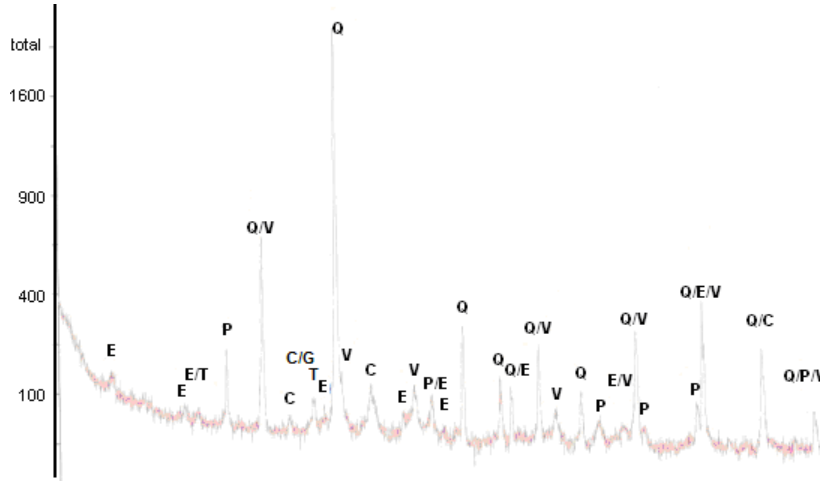


Fig. 13 . Thaumasite, ettringite and popcorn calcite surrounding fly ash spherules

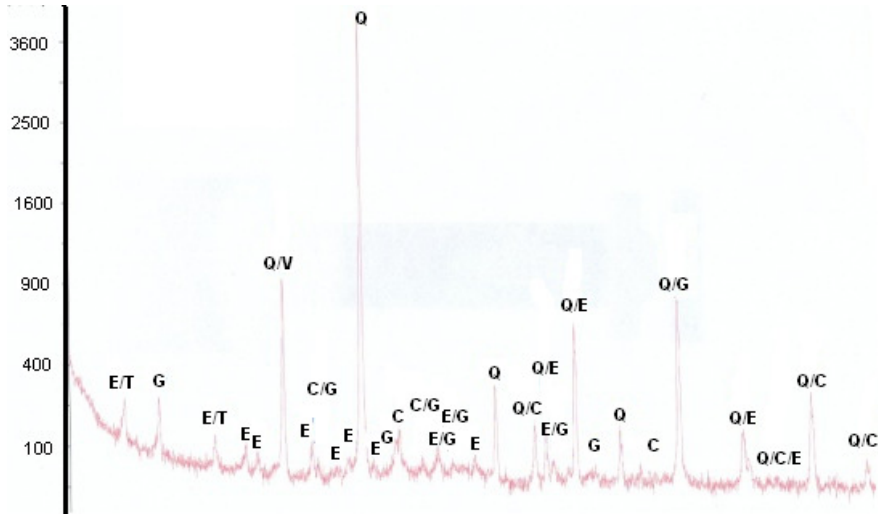
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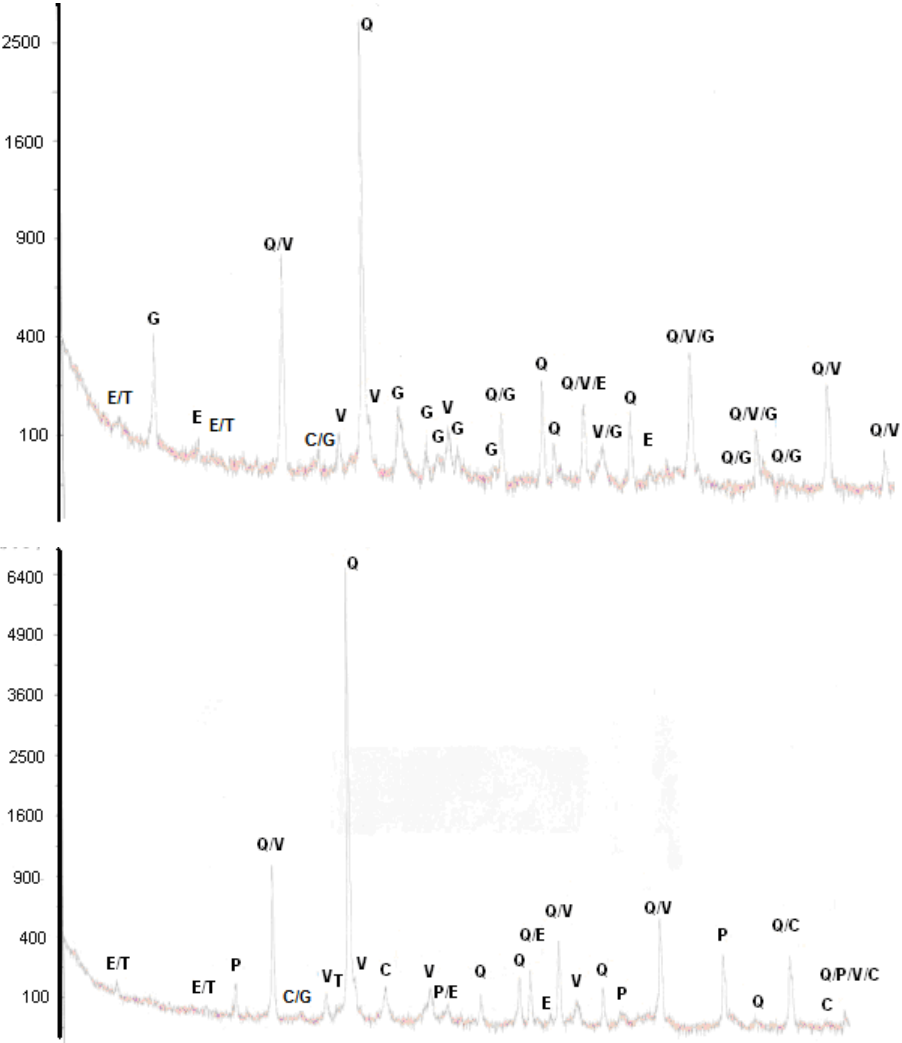


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Fig.14. X-ray diffractograms of the cured specimens
(A:Anorthite; C:Calcite; E:Ettringite; G:Gypsum; P:Portlandite; T:Thaumasite; Q:Quartz; V:Vaterite)

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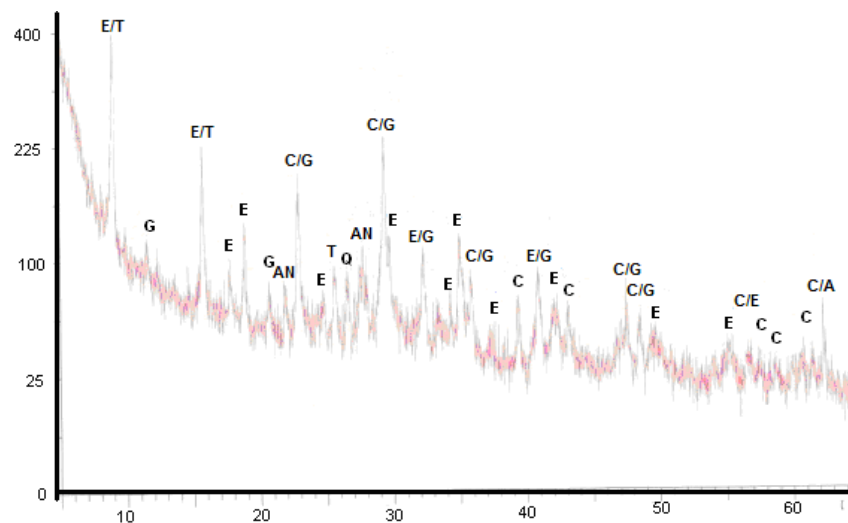


Fig.14. X-ray diffractograms of the cured specimens (contiuni)

(A:Anorthite; C:Calcite; E:Ettringite; G:Gypsum; P:Portlandite; T:Thaumasite; Q:Quartz; V:Vaterite)