

Natural Pozzolans

Da of mixtures with NP is much smaller than that without NP for both NSCC and RSCC mixes.

From: *Waste and Supplementary Cementitious Materials in Concrete*, 2018

Related terms:

- Sustainable Development,
- Geopolymer, Binders,
- Compressive Strength, Silica Fume, Metakaolin, Ordinary Portland Cement, Portland Cement, Pozzolans,
- Supplementary Cementitious Material

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Qiang Yuan, ... Cong Ma, in *Civil Engineering Materials*, 2021

3.3.5.5 Natural pozzolans

Natural pozzolans can be subdivided into two categories as materials of volcanic origin and materials of sedimentary origin. The first category includes materials formed by the quenching of molten magma when it is projected to the atmosphere upon explosive volcanic eruptions. The explosive eruption has two consequences: ① The gases, originally dissolved in the magma are released by the sudden decrease of pressure. This causes a microporous structure in the resulting material. ② Rapid cooling of the molten magma particles when contacted with the atmosphere results in quenching, which is responsible for the glassy state of the solidified material. Pozzolanic materials of volcanic origin may be found in loose (incoherent) or compacted (coherent) forms in nature. The latter results from the postdepositional processes such as weathering, compaction, cementation, and hardening of the originally loose material. These processes may change the original structure into clayey or zeolitic character. Transformation into clayey structure reduces the pozzolanicity, whereas zeolitization improves it. The second category of natural pozzolans includes clays and diatomaceous earth. Clays have very limited pozzolanic reactivity unless they are thermally treated. Diatomaceous earth, which is a sedimentary rock, consists basically of the fossilized remains of diatoms (a type of algae). It has an amorphous siliceous structure but may contain crystalline phases up to 30%, by mass.

The reactive chemical compositions of natural pozzolans are silica (SiO₂), alumina (Al₂O₃), and iron oxide (Fe₂O₃). The sum of these three oxides is required to a minimum value of 70% by mass for a suitable pozzolan.

The chemical compositions of natural pozzolans vary very much from location to location. Similar to the variability in chemical compositions, many different minerals may be present in natural pozzolans. However, the fundamental constituent is always a glassy phase of siliceous nature which can be distinguished by XRD techniques. Glass content of natural pozzolans of volcanic origin generally varies from 50% to 97% and the rest are mostly clay minerals, quartz, and feldspars. Glassy phase in diatomaceous earths may be as low as 25%, and some may be almost totally glassy. The remainder is composed of clay minerals, quartz, and feldspars.

The use of natural pozzolans is now accepted by modern cement and concrete industry as supplementary cementitious materials due to the many advantages they offer apart from the obvious environmental benefit of supplementing clinker or cement which require a lot of energy and emit high quantities of CO₂ during their production. They are responsible for higher compressive strength in later ages of cement hydration which continues to increase for a long period of time; they provide self-healing properties to the concrete and significantly improved durability which is the main reason for their use. Particularly, the use of natural pozzolans demonstrates lower chloride migration and improved sulfate resistance, while in most cases, their addition leads to mitigation of ASR. Moreover, they reduce bleeding and segregation considerably, lower the heat of hydration which is beneficial in large concrete structures, and eliminate microcracking. However, their use can also bring some side effects, such as workability loss, and higher water and SP demands, and higher shrinkage.

It is important to note that each natural pozzolan has different effects on cement and concrete properties and can be used in different ratios in a concrete mix. Overall, the benefits of using pozzolans in concrete are well established in most parts of the world, leading to extensive research and application in construction worldwide.

In summary, SCMs have great effects on the fresh and hardened properties of concrete. Table 3.10 summarize general effects that these materials have on the fresh and hardened properties of concrete. It should be noted that these effects vary considerably and often within classifications of SCMs. Specified performance should be evaluated for specific mixtures.

Table 3.9. The typical chemical compositions of PKC.

Component	By weight/%
SiO ₂	51.5
Al ₂ O ₃	40.2
Fe ₂ O ₃	1.2
CaO	2.0
MgO	0.5
K ₂ O	0.1
SO ₃	0.0
TiO ₂	2.3
Na ₂ O	0.1
LOI	2.0

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Supplementary cementing materials

Daman K. Panesar, in *Developments in the Formulation and Reinforcement of Concrete (Second Edition)*, 2019

3.1.4 Metakaolin

Metakaolin is an amorphous aluminosilicate that is a highly reactive natural pozzolan produced by the calcination and dehydroxylation of kaolinitic clay at temperatures between 500°C and 900°C. Metakaolin is a porous, angular shaped, platy particle with a mean size that can range from 1 to 20 μm (Al-Akhras, 2006; Amroise et al., 1994; Tafraoui et al., 2016). The specific gravity of metakaolin can fall between 2.20 and 2.60 (Mardani-Aghabaglou et al., 2014; Ramezaniipour & Jovein, 2012; Siddique & Klaus, 2009).

As shown in Table 3.1, although the major constituents of metakaolin are silicon dioxide and alumina oxide, its composition varies with different sources of kaolin. Other components are ferric oxide, calcium oxide, magnesium oxide, and potassium oxide. In order for metakaolin to be classified as Class N (raw or calcined natural pozzolan) as defined by ASTM C618 (ASTM-C618-17, 2017), some of the chemical requirements that need to be met are (SiO₂+Al₂O₃+Fe₂O₃)≥70.0%, SO₃≤4.0%, moisture content ≤3.0%, and LOI content ≤10%.

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Methods to control efflorescence in alkali-activated cement-based materials

A. Allahverdi, ... M. Lachemi, in *Handbook of Alkali-Activated Cements, Mortars and Concretes*, 2015

17.2.2 A brief literature survey

In research work on the possibility of utilizing a pumice-type natural pozzolan as the aluminosilicate source material in the production of alkali-activated or geopolymer cement, Allahverdi et al. (2008) considered the extent of efflorescence formation as a soundness determining parameter. To evaluate the extent of efflorescence formation, they placed 28-day cured cubic paste specimens 2 cm³ in size in 5 l water individually and kept them in open-air atmosphere at 25 °C until the water was evaporated completely. Based on a qualitative comparison, they showed that the extent of efflorescence formation is a function of not only the Na₂O concentration of alkali activator, but also the silica modulus of alkali activator and the water-to-binder ratio. The effect of Na₂O concentration, however, was claimed to be more pronounced than the other two factors. Comparing the results of 28-day compressive strength measurements to those of efflorescence tests, they also concluded that a relatively high compressive strength attainable at relatively higher Na₂O concentration does not necessarily indicate soundness and durability.

In their works on material and structural characterization of alkali-activated low-calcium brown coal fly ash and the influence of the temperatures ranging from 20 to 1000 °C on properties of aluminosilicate polymer or alkali-activated binder based on brown coal fly ash, Škvára et al. (2008, 2009b) elaborated the susceptibility of alkali-activated binders to exhibit efflorescence formation. Based on results obtained from ²³Na NMR MAS spectra, they claimed that alkali metals are rather bonded to Al in Si-O-Al chain structure in the form of Na₂K(H₂O)_n⁺ than as Na⁺,K⁺. The bond of alkali metals in the form of Na₂K(H₂O)_n⁺ complex is weaker than the direct bond of Na⁺. This model of bonding of the Na atom helps to explain the ease in leaching of alkali metals out of the alkali-activated binders (regardless of whether prepared from fly ash or metakaolin) and efflorescence formation. They showed that the tendency for efflorescence formation declines substantially by firing the material at temperatures higher than 600 °C. Such a high temperature treatment eliminates the H₂O content of the structure and results in the transformation of alkali metal bonds. They reported the presence of hydrates of the type Na₂CO₃·nH₂O and Na₂(SO₄)·(CO₃)₂·nH₂O in typical efflorescence observed in their studies.

Temuujin et al. (2009) investigated the influence of CaO and Ca(OH)₂ on mechanical properties of geopolymer pastes developed from fly ash. Considering two different curing temperatures including 20 °C (ambient temperature) and 70 °C, they reported that all the samples cured at ambient temperatures exhibited efflorescence formation. They explained that at ambient temperatures the dissolution rates are low and result in the presence of residual excess alkaline solution in the material.

Analytical studies performed on some fragments of efflorescence by SEM-EDS and XRD clarified the nature of the efflorescence as sodium phosphate hydrate (Na₃PO₄·12H₂O) instead of sodium carbonate hydrate (Na₂H(CO₃)₂·2H₂O). They attributed the formation of sodium phosphate hydrate to the presence of 1.3 wt.% P₂O₅ in the fly ash and explained that a strong alkaline medium could readily dissolve the phosphate content of the material and enable it to recrystallize as sodium phosphate efflorescence. This observation, however, is contrary to Davidovits, suggestion (Davidovits, 2008) that phosphates are able to form geopolymer structures such as poly(sialate-siloxo)/phosphate or phospho-siloxonate geopolymer.

Allahverdi et al. (2010) investigated the influence of sodium oxide concentration on different physico-mechanical properties and efflorescence formation of alkali-activated blast furnace slag. They considered mix designs of the same silica modulus (M_s = 0.6) and different sodium oxide concentrations ranging from 1 to 6% by weight of slag. The tendency of the mix designs for efflorescence formation was evaluated qualitatively in a similar way as explained in their earlier work (Škvára et al., 2009a). They reported that, based on observations, mixes with 1 and 2 wt.% sodium oxide concentration showed a relatively slight tendency for efflorescence formation, mixes containing 3 wt.% sodium oxide exhibited a relatively moderate tendency for efflorescence formation, and mixes containing higher concentrations of sodium oxide (4, 5 and 6 wt.%) displayed a relatively severe tendency for efflorescence formation.

Pacheco-Torgal and Jalali (2010) considered the tendency for efflorescence formation as a criterion of structural stability for alkali-activated binder based on calcined tungsten plain waste mud. While alkali-activated binder produced from mine waste mud calcined at different temperatures did not suffer from efflorescence formation, alkali-activated mortars based on mine waste mud calcined with sodium carbonate exhibiting relatively high early compressive strengths presented a high amount of efflorescence formation after water immersion. This indicates that even a relatively high early compressive strength does not always mean a stable structure formation.

Allahverdi et al. (2011) investigated the influence of blast furnace slag on basic engineering properties and efflorescence formation of natural pozzolan-based geopolymer cement. They studied different mix designs of the same silica modulus (M_s = 0.6) and different sodium oxide concentrations ranging from 4 to 6% by weight of binder. The water-to-dry binder ratio (w/c ratio) was adjusted at four different values of 0.26, 0.28, 0.30 and 0.32 and blast furnace slag was used at four different replacement levels of 0, 5, 15 and 25% by weight of binder. The obtained results showed that incorporation of the blast furnace slag did not provide any improvement in strength behavior of the studied natural pozzolan-based geopolymer cement, but an optimum amount of which was beneficial in reducing the efflorescence formation. They claimed that the geopolymer cement mix comprising 5 wt.% blast furnace slag and 8 wt.% Na₂O with a w/c ratio of 0.30 exhibited the highest 28-day compressive strength of 36 MPa with the least tendency for efflorescence formation. They measured the tendency of the mixes for efflorescence formation qualitatively as explained in their earlier work (Škvára et al., 2009a).

Najafi Kani et al. (2012) focused their work on controlling efflorescence formation in a geopolymer binder based on a pumice-type natural pozzolan. They showed that efflorescence formation can be reduced and controlled either by the addition of alumina-rich admixtures or by hydrothermal curing. Each of these techniques provides benefits to the binder structure by enhancing the binder structure formation process.

Škvára et al. (2012) reviewed the existing models for Na(K) bonds in (Na,K)-A-S-H gels and claimed that this bond still is an insufficiently resolved issue with significant consequences for efflorescence in alkali-activated or geopolymer cements. They also obtained interesting results in their studies supported by a series of long-term leaching experiments on alkali-activated fly ash and metakaolin in deionized water. Based on compressive strength measurements, studies by NMR MAS (²⁹Si, ²⁷Al, ²³Na) and SEM, and also modeling the leaching mechanism, they compared the leached and unleached gels and showed that almost all the alkalis can be simply leached out without affecting the gel skeletal structure and without any significant loss in strength.

They further concluded that the main role of alkalis in the process of alkali activation is to create a strong base environment for dissolution of glass phases from precursor materials and after gel formation, alkalis remain in the nanostructure of (N, K)-A-S-H gel weakly as unnecessary load-bearing remnants from activating solution. They used the Barbosa model (Barbosa et al., 2000) to interpret the weak Na(K) bond in (N, K)-A-S-H gels. According to this model, the gel can be considered as randomly oriented Al, Si polymeric chains providing cavities of sufficient size to accommodate the charge-balancing hydrated Na(K) ions in the form of Na(H₂O)_n⁺, K(H₂O)_n⁺. The positively-charged alkali cations can be replaced with other cations present in the system. The most probable is H₃O⁺, but Al(OH)₂⁺ or Al_n(OH)_n⁽³ⁿ⁻⁾⁺ could also compensate the negative charge (Cloos et al., 1969). The presence of other cations (Fe, Mn and Ca) in the precursors can also easily balance the negative charge on Al^{IV}.

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Studies on Ugandan Volcanic ash and Tuff

S.O. Ekolu, ... M.D.A. Thomas, in *Proceedings from the International Conference on Advances in Engineering and Technology*, 2006

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The use of natural pozzolans results in a reduction of CO₂ emissions associated with Portland cement production. A 50% Portland cement replacement by a natural pozzolan would mean a reduction of such greenhouse gas emissions in cement production by one half, which could have enormous positive consequences for the environment. Secondly, depending on the grindability (if necessary) and closeness to the construction site, natural pozzolans can significantly reduce the cost of concrete production, dam construction or production of mass housing units. As found with ancient concrete (Day, 1990; Mehta., 1981), natural pozzolans used in normal proportions typically improve concrete performance and durability. Whereas the benefits of most pozzolans used far outweigh their disadvantages, it is imperative that a thorough study of any particular geological source of natural pozzolan is conducted to understand its performance characteristics. This also helps to define discretionary use of materials where applicable. In this investigation, tuff and volcanic ash quarried from the mountainous regions of Elgon and Rwenzori in Uganda were studied to determine their properties for potential use as pozzolans, appropriate blending proportions for incorporation in cement and concrete, and evaluation of their pozzolanic activities.

Earlier extensive studies by Mills and Hooton (1992) and by Tabaro (2000) found the volcanic ash properties to be satisfactory for use in making lime-pozzolan cements.

The pozzolan materials were blended with ordinary Portland cement in proportions ranging from 15 to 30% and performance related parameters were measured and compared in accordance with ASTM C-311 procedures. The techniques employed include differential thermal analysis (DTA), petrography and scanning electron microscopy (SEM).

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Low clinker cement as a sustainable construction material

L. Black, in *Sustainability of Construction Materials (Second Edition)*, 2016

17.6.5 Emissions associated with metakaolin

Metakaolin, as with natural pozzolans, differs from the other SCMs mentioned in this chapter by not being an industrial by-product. Consequently, its environmental footprint is greater than that of the others. The principle source of carbon emissions associated with metakaolin production is the heating of kaolin to about 750°C. A recent study by Heath et al. (2014) reported a value of 0.423 tonne CO₂eq/tonne, while quoting values from other studies of 0.330 and 0.370 tonne CO₂eq/tonne.

In addition, the replacement of cement with metakaolin does not greatly reduce abiotic depletion. Indeed, Heath et al. (2014) quoted that 1.16 tonnes of kaolin are required to yield 1 tonne of metakaolin compared to 1.6 tonnes of limestone and clay to produce Portland cement. Furthermore, kaolin mining in the United Kingdom produces large quantities of waste and can impact local aquatic environments (Thurlow, 2005, cited in Heath et al., 2014).

As with silica fume, additional environmental benefits may be derived from the use of metakaolin in terms of increased durability and improved strength (albeit greater than for silica fume in the former case and less in the latter). Again, these effects are project-specific, so generalisations cannot be made here.

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Crucial insights on the mix design of alkali-activated cement-based binders

I. Garcia-Lodeiro, ... A. Fernández-Jiménez, in *Handbook of Alkali-Activated Cements, Mortars and Concretes*, 2015

3.2.4 Other aluminosilicate materials

Volcanic ash and certain natural pozzolans are other aluminosilicate materials susceptible to alkaline activation.

Volcanic ash, the origin of natural pozzolans, was initially used by the Romans to make concrete. This ash consists of small particles of pulverised volcanic rock and glass. As a result of rapid post-eruption cooling, volcanic ash exhibits high chemical reactivity. That, together with its large proportion of vitreous phase and high silica and alumina content make it a promising raw material for alkaline activation (Provis and van Deventer, 2014; Leonelli et al., 2007; Kamsseu et al., 2009).

Volcanic ash is normally characterised by high SiO₂, Al₂O₃, Fe₂O₃ and CaO contents, along with smaller proportions of other oxides including MgO, Na₂O, K₂O and TiO₂, as well as traces of many other elements. In addition to a high vitreous phase content, it contains mineral phases such as plagioclases, olivines and pyroxenes (Provis and van Deventer, 2014).

Natural pozzolans have proven to date to be another raw material with high alkaline activation potential (Allahverdi et al., 2008; Najafi Kani and Allahverdi, 2009; Bondar et al., 2011a). In natural pozzolans with a low lime content and pozzolans with sodium-rich zeolites and a high soluble silica content, the optimal SiO₂/Al₂O₃ molar ratio is low but higher than in CaO-rich or pre-calcined pozzolans (Bondar et al., 2011a). High temperature curing has also been shown to improve the mechanical strength of these materials considerably (Najafi Kani and Allahverdi, 2009; Bondar et al., 2011b; Najafi Kani et al., 2012) and lower the risk of efflorescence (Najafi Kani and Allahverdi, 2009).

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Assessing the environmental impact of conventional and 'green' cement production

G. Habert, in *Eco-efficient Construction and Building Materials*, 2014

Main non-renewable natural SCMs

Among SCMs with a natural origin, we can distinguish natural pozzolans which do not need to be treated to react with calcium hydroxide, and those which need an activation to react with calcium hydroxide and that we could call artificial pozzolans. The so-called natural pozzolans, used as SCMs for the production of pozzolanic cements, are pyroclastic rocks rich in siliceous or siliceous and aluminous volcanic glass. The origin of the pozzolanic activity lies in this high content of reactive silica (Massazza, 1993). Common silicate minerals are feldspar, mica, hornblende, pyroxene and quartz or olivine depending on the volcanic rock's chemical composition, but most of these minerals are easily alterable and the high porosity and specific surface area of pyroclastic rock enhance the alteration rate. Therefore, it is very common to find secondary minerals resulting from alteration of primary minerals and devitrification of the volcanic glass. Clays, zeolites, calcite and various amphiboles are classic secondary minerals. The effect of these secondary minerals on the pozzolanic activity of the natural pozzolans has already been studied (Türkmenoğlu and Tankut, 2002; Shi and Day, 2001; Perraki et al., 2003; He et al., 1995a). It is mainly accepted that a good pozzolanic material has low quantities of alteration minerals such as clays and zeolites (Habert et al., 2008). Several techniques have been used to enhance the reactivity of pozzolanic materials and remove unreactive ones, which include calcination (Costa and Massazza, 1977), acid treatment (Alexander, 1955) and prolonged grinding (Alexander, 1960).

Among artificial pozzolans, we can distinguish volcanic rocks with an enhanced pozzolanic activity due to various treatments (Habert et al., 2008) and clays submitted to a calcination process (Habert et al., 2009). The pozzolanic activity of calcined clays is very much dependent on the loss of structural water which favours the creation of an amorphous structure (Amroise et al., 1987). Numerous studies have shown that there exists a specific optimal activation temperature for each clay mineral (Amroise et al., 1987; He et al., 1995a, 1995b, 1996, 2000; Saad Morsy et al., 1997; Kakali et al., 2001. Bich, 2005). Our results confirm the existence of an optimum for each clay mineral: around 700 °C for kaolinite, 750 °C for palygorskite, 800 °C for montmorillonite and 850 °C for illite (Habert et al., 2009). Muscovite and phlogopite show no pozzolanic activity.

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Progress in the Adoption of Geopolymer Cement*

J.S.J. Van Deventer, in *Handbook of Low Carbon Concrete*, 2017

Abstract

If formulated correctly, geopolymer cement made from fly ash, metallurgical slags, and natural pozzolans could reduce the CO₂ emissions associated with the manufacturing of cement by at least 80%. However, almost all standards and design codes governing the use of cementitious binders and concrete in construction are based on the use of Portland cement. The 150+ year track record of in-service application of Portland cement is inherently assumed to validate the protocols used for accelerated durability testing. Moreover, the entire supply chain associated with cementitious materials is based on the production of Portland cement. The geopolymerization of calcium aluminosilicates constitutes a radical change in construction-materials chemistry and synthesis pathways compared with the calcium silicate hydrate chemistry that underpins Portland cement reactions. Consequently, there are regulatory, supply chain, product confidence, and technical barriers that must be overcome before geopolymer cement could be widely adopted. High-profile demonstration projects in Australia have highlighted the complex regulatory, asset management, liability, and industry-stakeholder engagement process required to commercialize geopolymer cement. While the scale-up from the laboratory to the real world is technically challenging, the core challenge is the scale-up of industry participation and acceptance of geopolymer cement. Demand pull by a carbon-conscious market has been the key driver for adoption of geopolymer-cement in Australia, although valorization of waste, improved technical properties, and cost reduction may become drivers for adoption in other markets. In the absence of an in-service track record comparable in scale and longevity to Portland cement, research remains essential to validate durability-testing methodology and improve geopolymer cement technology. Colloid and interface science, gel chemistry, phase formation, reaction kinetics, transport phenomena, particle packing, and rheology are key building blocks in the development of geopolymer knowledge. Analysis of the nanostructure of geopolymer gels has enabled the tailored selection of geopolymer precursors and the design of alkali-activator composition, aiding in establishing the relationship between geopolymer gel microstructure and durability.

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Special considerations for high strength materials

J.Y. Richard Liew, ... Bing-Lin Lai, in *Design of Steel-Concrete Composite Structures Using High-strength Materials*, 2021

7.3.3 Supplementary cementitious materials

Using supplementary cementitious materials (SCMs), such as blast furnace slag, fly ash and natural pozzolans, not only reduces the production cost of concrete, but also has technical advantages. Use of SCMs can reduce the heat of hydration as well as enhance the durability of the UHPC. Specifically, due to its reaction with cement hydration products such as calcium hydroxide, the SCMs can enhance the durability. The SCMs can also improve the particle packing efficiency of UHPC. However, incorporation of SCMs can affect the mechanical properties of UHPC and therefore, it is recommended to use optimal amount of SCMs which do not compromise the mechanical properties of the UHPC

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Porous concrete pavement containing nanosilica from black rice husk ash

Ramadhansyah Putra Jaya, in *New Materials in Civil Engineering*, 2020

14.5.7.3 Compressive strength activity index

As prescribed in Ref. [65], the strength activity index is used to determine whether natural pozzolan results in an acceptable level of strength development when used with hydraulic cement in concrete. This calculation was adapted here in order to determine the different strength values when a different percentage of replacement is used. The strength activity index was calculated following Eq. 14.2.

$$\text{Strength activity index} = \frac{A}{B} (100) \quad (14.2)$$

where A is the compressive strength of the test mixture cube (MPa) and B is the compressive strength of the control mix cube (MPa).

The strength activity index of the compressive strength results for all of the nano-BRHA replacement is shown in Fig. 14.21. At any specimen age, the 10% of nano-BRHA replacement shows an increase in strength activity index. The strength activity index increased by 5.14%, 4.01%, 9.08%, 5.10%, and 3.94% for 7 days, 14 days, 28 days, 56 days, and 90 days, respectively. For the 20%, 30%, and 40% of nano-BRHA replacement a decrease in the strength activity index is observed at all ages. The lowest strength activity index at all ages belongs to specimens with 40% nano-BRHA replacement. The strength activity index decreased to 73.72%, 69.26%, 89.93%, 84.60%, and 86.45% for 7 days, 14 days, 28 days, 56 days, and 90 days, respectively. This may be due to the quantity of NS present in the mixes being higher than the amount required to combine with the liberated lime during the hydration process, consequently leading to excess silica leaching out, causing a deficiency in strength as it replaces part of the cementitious material [66]. Overall, for the strength activity index, all the specimens have a strength activity index of more than 75% for the 28 days age.

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