

## Mineralogical phase analysis of alkali and sulfate bearing belite rich laboratory clinkers

Khadija Morsli<sup>a,b</sup>, Ángeles G. de la Torre<sup>a</sup>, Mohammed Zahir<sup>b</sup>, Miguel A.G. Aranda<sup>a,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> *Departamento de Química Inorgánica, Cristalografía y Mineralogía, Universidad de Málaga, 29071 Málaga, Spain*

<sup>b</sup> *L.P.C.M. Département de Chimie, Faculté des Sciences, Université Chouaib Doukkali, El Jadida 24000, Morocco*

Received 29 May 2006; accepted 26 January 2007

### Abstract

The activation of laboratory belite clinkers has been carried out by adding variable amounts of alkaline salts ( $K_2CO_3$ ,  $Na_2CO_3$ ), and/or  $SO_3$  as gypsum in the raw materials but keeping almost constant the main elements ratios, Ca/Si/Al/Fe. Quantitative phase analyses by the Rietveld method using high resolution synchrotron and strictly monochromatic  $CuK\alpha_1$  laboratory X-ray powder diffraction data has been performed. Quantitative phase analysis results have been compared to validate the protocol using laboratory X-ray data. The agreement in the results is noteworthy, which indicates that good quantitative phase analyses can be obtained from laboratory X-ray powder data. Qualitative studies have confirmed that the addition of alkaline salts to raw mixtures promotes the stabilization, at room temperature, of the highest temperature polymorphs:  $\alpha'_H$ -C<sub>2</sub>S and  $\alpha$ -C<sub>2</sub>S. Quantitative studies gave the phase assemblage for ten different laboratory belite clinkers. As an example, an active belite clinker with 1.0 wt.% of  $K_2O$  and 1.0 wt.% of  $Na_2O$  (amounts added to the raw mixtures) contains 8.5(3) wt.% of  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S, 21.2(3) wt.% of  $\alpha'_H$ -C<sub>2</sub>S, 24.1(2) wt.% of  $\alpha$ -C<sub>2</sub>S, 18.9(3) wt.% of total C<sub>3</sub>S, 17.3(2) wt.% of C<sub>3</sub>A and 10.0(2) wt.% of C<sub>4</sub>AF. A belite clinker with 0.8 wt.%  $SO_3$  (nominal loading) contains 60.7(1) wt.% of  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S, 6.7(2) wt.% of  $\alpha'_H$ -C<sub>2</sub>S, 12.3(7) wt.% of C<sub>3</sub>S, 9.1(2) wt.% of C<sub>3</sub>A and 11.2(2) wt.% of C<sub>4</sub>AF. Overall, quantitative phase analyses have shown that alkaline oxides stabilize  $\alpha'_H$ -C<sub>2</sub>S and  $\alpha$ -C<sub>2</sub>S, sulfur stabilizes  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S, with a large unit cell volume, and the joint presence of alkaline oxides and sulfur promotes mainly the stabilization of the  $\alpha'_H$ -C<sub>2</sub>S polymorph.

© 2007 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

**Keywords:** Activated cements; X-ray diffraction; Characterization

### 1. Introduction

Cement industry requires vast amounts of energy to operate, especially to burn cement clinker and to grind raw and produced materials. This power consumption leads to a concomitant release of  $CO_2$  into atmosphere, up to 0.97 tons of  $CO_2$  per ton of Ordinary Portland cement (OPC) produced. Considering these values, cement industry contributes around 6% of all  $CO_2$  anthropogenic emissions [1,2].

Belite Portland cements (BPCs) contain more than 50 wt.% of  $Ca_2SiO_4$ , belite, as the main mineralogical component, while  $Ca_3SiO_5$ , alite, is the most important phase in OPCs. The increasing interest of BPCs and related systems is mainly due to a lower CaO consumption and therefore the depletion of  $CO_2$  emissions produced in the manufacturing process [3–5]. BPCs

can be produced at a clinkerization temperature approximately 100 °C lower than that for OPC, which reduces  $CO_2$  emissions from fuel burning [6]. BPCs based concretes are considered to be “low heat” ones and more durable than those derived from OPC. These performances make BPCs suitable to the construction of large dams and to the lining of oil wells. However, the massive application of these materials requires overcoming some drawbacks such as the low hydration rate of the belite phase and high resistance to be milled [2,7].

Cement nomenclature will be adopted hereafter, C=CaO, S=SiO<sub>2</sub>, A=Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, F=Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and  $\bar{S}$ =SO<sub>3</sub>, for simplifying the description of cement phases. Stoichiometric C<sub>2</sub>S presents five polymorphs on heating,  $\gamma$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\alpha'_L$ ,  $\alpha'_H$  and  $\alpha$ . One kind of activation of BPCs consists on the stabilization at room temperature of the high temperature polymorphs (i.e.  $\alpha$ -forms), which are more reactive than  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S [8]. The latter is the polymorph that commonly prevails in OPCs but due to its slow hydration kinetic they develop very little mechanical strength at

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +34 952131874; fax: +34 952132000.

E-mail address: [g-aranda@uma.es](mailto:g-aranda@uma.es) (M.A.G. Aranda).

Table 1

Elemental composition of raw mixtures prepared to obtain the different belite clinkers, expressed as oxide in wt.%

	CaO	SiO <sub>2</sub>	Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	SO <sub>3</sub>	K <sub>2</sub> O	Na <sub>2</sub> O	MgO	TiO <sub>2</sub>	SrO	P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>
B_ref	62.81	25.00	6.34	5.23	0.01	0.27	0.13	0.07	0.01	0.09	0.04
B_05NK	62.43	24.85	6.30	5.20	0.01	<b>0.50</b>	<b>0.50</b>	0.07	0.01	0.09	0.04
B_10NK	61.80	24.60	6.24	5.14	0.01	<b>1.00</b>	<b>1.00</b>	0.07	0.01	0.09	0.04
B_08S	62.72	24.74	6.27	5.17	<b>0.81</b>	0.08	0.12	0.00	0.00	0.09	0.00
B_10S05N	62.21	24.48	6.21	5.12	<b>1.01</b>	0.26	<b>0.50</b>	0.07	0.01	0.09	0.04
B_10S15N	61.61	24.23	6.14	5.07	<b>1.01</b>	0.26	<b>1.50</b>	0.06	0.01	0.08	0.03
B_10S10K	62.01	24.39	6.18	5.10	<b>1.01</b>	<b>1.00</b>	0.12	0.06	0.01	0.08	0.04
B_10S20K	61.38	24.14	6.12	5.05	<b>1.01</b>	<b>2.00</b>	0.12	0.06	0.01	0.08	0.03
B_10S05NK	62.12	24.39	6.18	5.10	<b>1.01</b>	<b>0.50</b>	<b>0.50</b>	0.06	0.01	0.09	0.04
B_10S10NK	61.44	24.19	6.13	5.05	<b>1.01</b>	<b>1.00</b>	<b>1.00</b>	0.06	0.01	0.08	0.03

In bold the amount of nominal percentages of activator added is given.

early ages. The activation may be carried out by conventional firing using minor elements (dopants) such as alkalis, sulfur or barium additions [3] or by specific thermal treatments [9,10]. The stabilization of  $\alpha$ -forms using alkalis was reported in previous studies [11]. The presence of an increasing amount of alkaline oxides in the BPCs (active-BPCs) yielded higher compressive strengths after 28 days when compared with alkali-free BPCs. Furthermore, sulfur is also commonly present in clinkers, mainly coming from fuels. This element is mainly dissolved in the melt that appears in the clinkerization process and it has a positive effect on the burnability of the raw mix [12]. On the other hand, sulfur also leads to a lattice modification of  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S with improved hydraulic properties and it has been reported that the stabilization of  $\alpha$ -forms cannot be achieved by this element [13]. In addition to that, SO<sub>3</sub> produces the shrinkage and the final disappearance of the C<sub>3</sub>S primary phase volume in the quaternary phase diagram [14], CaO–SiO<sub>2</sub>–Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>–Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Although C<sub>3</sub>S is a secondary phase in BPCs, its presence may be desirable as its hydration products lead to increase mechanical strength at early ages. Calcium sulfoaluminate cements are systems with high SO<sub>3</sub> contents and contain different amounts of C<sub>4</sub>A<sub>3</sub> $\bar{S}$ , known as Klein's compound, which compensates belite low reactivity [7,15].

Final concrete performances depend on the mineralogical phase composition (and the texture properties). Quantitative phase analysis (QPA) of active-BPCs is very important and X-ray powder diffraction combined with the Rietveld method [16] is the most powerful tool to carry out this type of analysis. However, laboratory X-ray powder diffraction (LXRPD) data may contain systematic errors such as strong preferred orientation, optical aberrations that change with  $2\theta$ , microabsorption and strong peak overlapping of the different phases. High-Resolution Synchrotron X-ray Powder Diffraction (SXRPD) overcomes most of these drawbacks and it is often used to validate QPA obtained by LXRPD [17–21].

As part of our ongoing research about BPCs, laboratory clinkers with C<sub>2</sub>S contents close to 60 wt.% were prepared and analyzed by QPA and LXRPD [22]. In that study,  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S was the main polymorph due to absence of dopants. BPCs were activated [23] using Na<sub>2</sub>O or K<sub>2</sub>O and different amounts of high temperature C<sub>2</sub>S polymorphs,  $\alpha$ -forms, were quantified. The polymorph assignments were carried out by SXRPD data and

selective dissolution of the clinkers to enrich the low content phases [23]. This work presents a continuation in the investigations of active BPCs. Here we show Rietveld QPA of clinkers activated with sulfur, with combinations of alkaline oxides and finally with sulfur and alkaline oxides. Ten BPCs have been analyzed using LXRPD data and also using SXRPD to validate the analyses of these complex materials. The influence of alkaline oxides and sulfur in the mineralogical phase assemblage is discussed.

## 2. Experimental section

### 2.1. Synthesis of belite-rich clinkers

Appropriated amounts of calcite (99% Aldrich), kaolin (Aldrich), quartz (99.59% ABCR) and iron oxide (99.95% AlfaAesar) were mixed in order to obtain a non-active belite clinker (B\_ref) with theoretical mineralogical composition of 60 wt.% of C<sub>2</sub>S, 16 wt.% of C<sub>3</sub>S, 8 wt.% of C<sub>3</sub>A and 16 wt.% C<sub>4</sub>AF [22], according to Bogue's calculations [24]. Nine active belite clinkers have also been prepared by adding different amounts of Na<sub>2</sub>O, K<sub>2</sub>O and SO<sub>3</sub>, to the raw mixture as Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (99.999% Aldrich), K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (99% Aldrich) and gypsum (CaSO<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O), respectively. The samples are labeled according to the amount of activator added, e. i., B\_10S05NK stands for the active belite clinker with nominal composition of 1.0 wt.% of SO<sub>3</sub>, 0.5 wt.% of Na<sub>2</sub>O and 0.5 wt.% of K<sub>2</sub>O. Table 1 gives

Table 2

Final S, K and Na contents in laboratory active belite clinkers

	SO <sub>3</sub>	K <sub>2</sub> O	Na <sub>2</sub> O
B_ref	–	0.04/0.27	0.16/0.13
B_05NK	–	0.18/0.50	0.54/0.50
B_10NK	–	0.38/1.00	1.27/1.00
B_08S	0.71/0.81	0.06/0.08	0.20/0.12
B_10S05N	0.85/1.01	0.19/0.26	0.64/0.50
B_10S15N	0.79/1.01	0.19/0.26	1.28/1.50
B_10S10K	0.87/1.01	0.67/1.00	0.23/0.12
B_10S20K	0.79/1.01	1.10/2.00	0.25/0.12
B_10S05NK	0.96/1.01	0.33/0.50	0.53/0.50
B_10S10NK	0.88/1.01	0.58/1.00	1.06/1.00

Results are expressed as oxides in wt.%. The initial contents are also given in italics.

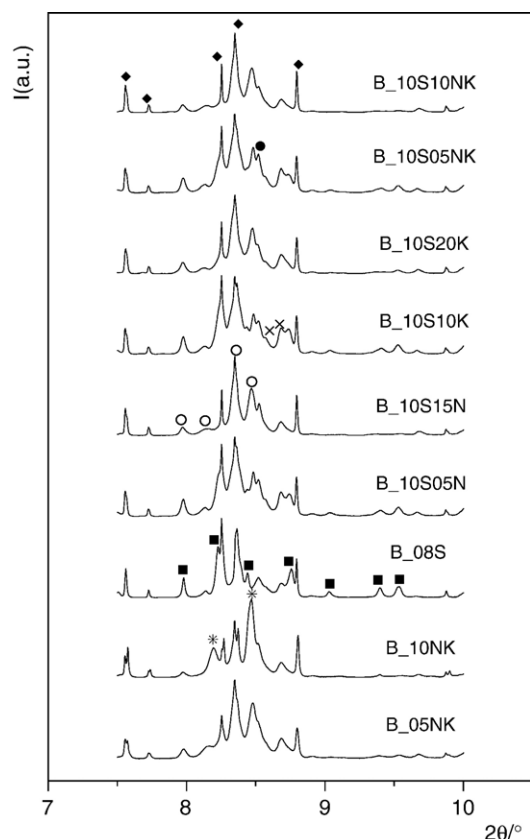


Fig. 1. Selected range of X-ray synchrotron powder diffraction raw data ( $\lambda=0.40$  Å) for all active belite clinkers. Some peaks mainly due to a given phase are labeled:  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S ■;  $\alpha'$ -C<sub>2</sub>S ○;  $\alpha$ -C<sub>2</sub>S \*; C<sub>3</sub>S ◆; C<sub>3</sub>A ●; and C<sub>4</sub>AF ×.

the nominal dosages, expressed as oxide, used to prepare all the clinkers. Raw materials were mixed in an agate mortar with the aid of ethanol and dried in a stove at 60 °C. This treatment was performed three times. The clinkerization was carried out by pressing the raw mixtures into pellets of ~1.8 g with ~16 mm of diameter. The pellets were placed on Pt/Au crucibles and heated at 5 °C/min to 900 °C, which was held for 30 min. The temperature was then raised at a rate of 5 °C/min up to 1365 °C and held for 15 min. Finally, the clinkers were cooled from the highest temperature applying air flow (approximate rate cooling of 2000 °C/min).

## 2.2. Chemical analysis

The elemental composition of calcite was determined by X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy on Phillips PW-1404 spectrophotometer. The elemental composition of kaolin was measured by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES) on an IRIS Advantage instrument from Thermo Jarrel Ash. SiO<sub>2</sub> (quartz—99.5% from ABCR), Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (99.95% from Alfa Aesar), Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (99.99% from Aldrich), K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (99%+ from Aldrich) and gypsum were used as purchased. The final Na and K contents in clinkers were determined by atomic emission spectroscopy in a Perkin-Elmer AAnalyst 800. The final sulfate content was measured by gravimetric method in accordance with EN 196-2.

## 2.3. X-ray powder diffraction

All the clinkers were finely ground to perform powder diffraction measurements. SXRPD patterns were collected on ID31 diffractometer of European Synchrotron Radiation Facility, (Grenoble, France) in Debye–Scherrer (transmission) configuration. The wavelength,  $\lambda=0.40084(5)$  Å (30.94 keV), was selected with a double-crystal Si (111) monochromator and calibrated with Si NIST ( $a=5.431195$  Å). Samples were loaded in borosilicate glass capillaries of diameter of 1.5 mm and rotated during data collection. The data acquisition time was ~45 min to have very good statistics over the angular range 3–30° (in  $2\theta$ ). The data from the multi-analyzer Si(111) stage coupled with the scintillation detectors were normalized and summed up to 0.003° step size with local software to produce the final raw data.

LXRPD data have been recorded with an X'Pert MPD PRO diffractometer (PANalytical) using CuK $\alpha_1$  radiation ( $\lambda=1.54059$  Å), [Ge(111) primary monochromator]. The optics configuration was a fixed divergence slit (1/2°), a fixed incident antiscatter slit (1°), a fixed diffracted anti-scatter slit (1/2°) and an X'Celerator RTMS (Real Time Multiple Strip) detector, working in scanning mode with maximum active length. The data were collected from 10° to 70° ( $2\theta$ ) during ~2 h. The samples were rotated during data collection at 16 rpm in order to enhance particle statistics. The X-ray tube worked at 45 kV and 35 mA.

Powder diffraction patterns were analyzed by the Rietveld method with GSAS software package [25] by using a pseudo-Voigt peak shape function [26] with the asymmetry correction included [27]. The refined overall parameters were: background coefficients, cell parameters, zero-shift error, peak shape parameters and phase fractions. Some phases present anisotropic line shape broadening, which was modeled using the phenomenological multi-dimensional distribution of lattice metrics approach [28] for SXRPD patterns and the ellipsoidal broadening correction for LXRPD patterns. The spherical-harmonic correction [29] was applied when needed in LXRPD patterns to correct texture problems for C<sub>3</sub>S phase.

## 2.4. Scanning electron microscopy

Small pieces of pellets of some clinkers were mounted in epoxy resins and were progressively diamond polished down to 3  $\mu$ m. Finally, a mechanical etching with 0.3  $\mu$ m alumina paste was applied in order to create contrast among different phases. A Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscope (FESEM) (Hitachi-S4700) was used to perform the microstructure study.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Chemical analysis

Some methodologies for the activation of BPCs require the dosage to the raw mixtures of compounds in part volatiles. This provokes a concern of the extent of that liberation during the heating process. To address that issue, Na, K and S contents

Table 3

Rietveld quantitative phase analysis results of all the clinkers in wt.% obtained from SXRPD data (upper values) and from LXRPD data (italics)

w	$\alpha$ -C <sub>2</sub> S	$\alpha'$ <sub>H</sub> -C <sub>2</sub> S	$\beta$ -C <sub>2</sub> S	C <sub>3</sub> S <sub>T</sub>	C <sub>3</sub> S <sub>M3</sub>	C <sub>3</sub> A <sub>CII</sub>	C <sub>3</sub> A <sub>ort</sub>	C <sub>4</sub> AF	C <sub>4</sub> AF-I	K <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	K <sub>3</sub> Na(SO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>
B_ref	–	18.5(2)	46.7(1)	9.3(2)	3.9(2)	10.1(1)	–	11.5(1)	–	–	–
	–	15.5(3)	51.2(2)	9.6(1)	3.70(6)	8.9(2)	–	11.1(2)	–	–	–
B_05NK	8.8(1)	32.3(2)	19.2(2)	7.8(3)	8.1(3)	6.6(2)	5.7(2)	8.4(1)	3.1(1)	–	–
	8.5(2)	31.7(3)	22.7(4)	7.3(7)	8.8(7)	5.2(3)	4.9(3)	10.9(2)	–	–	–
B_10NK	24.1(2)	21.2(3)	8.5(3)	6.2(3)	12.7(3)	–	17.3(2)	6.2(2)	3.8(2)	–	–
	27.3(3)	19.3(4)	10.5(5)	8.6(4)	10.5(5)	–	14.7(4)	9.1(3)	–	–	–
B_08S	–	6.7(2)	60.74(8)	12.26(7)	–	9.1(1)	–	8.4(1)	2.8(1)	–	–
	–	5.8(4)	61.3(2)	12.8(1)	–	9.7(2)	–	10.4(2)	–	–	–
B_10S05N	–	28.0(1)	39.9(1)	11.36(7)	–	9.72(9)	–	8.92(9)	2.10(8)	–	–
	–	24.9(3)	46.8(3)	9.8(2)	–	9.5(2)	–	9.0(2)	–	–	–
B_10S15N	5.0(1)	42.0(2)	12.2(3)	17.00(8)	–	–	13.5(1)	8.1(2)	2.2(1)	–	–
	1.7(2)	52.1(3)	12.0(5)	16.3(2)	–	–	10.8(3)	7.1(2)	–	–	–
B_10S10K	–	23.9(1)	41.7(1)	12.72(7)	–	9.0(1)	–	9.4(1)	2.47(8)	0.29(3)	0.52(4)
	–	20.1(3)	47.3(3)	12.3(2)	–	8.9(2)	–	10.4(2)	–	0.62(9)	0.38(7)
B_10S20K	–	37.7(2)	23.5(2)	15.37(8)	–	8.8(1)	2.1(1)	8.9(1)	2.7(1)	0.93(4)	–
	–	39.2(3)	24.7(4)	15.7(2)	–	5.9(3)	3.2(3)	10.4(2)	–	0.9(1)	–
B_10S05NK	–	32.1(1)	33.3(2)	12.79(7)	–	9.85(9)	–	9.04(9)	2.18(8)	–	0.74(4)
	–	26.8(3)	39.9(3)	14.0(2)	–	8.4(2)	–	10.5(2)	–	–	0.40(1)
B_10S10NK	4.8(1)	41.2(2)	11.8(3)	17.33(8)	–	1.6(1)	11.5(1)	8.0(1)	2.6(1)	–	1.17(6)
	2.4(3)	46.3(3)	12.2(4)	18.2(2)	–	1.5(2)	9.0(4)	9.1(2)	–	–	1.3(2)

have been measured in the final clinkers; see Table 2, where they are expressed as oxides. It can be seen that sodium mainly remains in the clinker with very little volatilization ratio in the used experimental conditions. It must be highlighted that there is a slight overestimation in sodium oxide contents in the final clinkers when compared to the nominal starting compositions, see Table 2. Na<sub>2</sub>O content has been determined by two different techniques, ICP-AES for raw materials and atomic emission spectroscopy for the final clinkers. The different measuring techniques are likely the source of the disagreement in the measured sodium contents. Potassium volatilization extent can be as high as 50% and it is rather variable. On the other hand, sulfur volatilization amount is comparatively smaller ranging between 10–20%. However, it must be highlighted that element volatilization levels strongly depend on the heating experimental conditions including the ratio between gases and raw materials. Hence, further studies are needed to extrapolate these results to industrial applications.

### 3.2. Quantitative phase analysis using SXRPD data

High-belite clinkers are complex materials due to the presence of many crystalline phases. Furthermore, most of these components display polymorphism and active belite clinkers may have more phases than ordinary belite clinkers. In these conditions, the use of high resolution SXRPD data is important to obtain accurate QPA. However, SXRPD is expensive and it is mainly used to validate the quantitative results obtained from LXRPD analyses. Fig. 1 shows a selected range of SXRPD patterns of active belite clinkers where some peaks due to a given phase are labeled. Qualitatively, it can be observed that the addition of minor amounts of activators induces strong modifications in the powder patterns. Prior to the QPA, all crystalline phases were identified as previously reported [23]. Table 3 gives the mineralogical compositions

for all synthesized belite clinkers obtained by Rietveld QPA of SXRPD data.

The first result to be emphasized is the absence in all the clinkers of free lime (CaO) and  $\gamma$ -C<sub>2</sub>S. The absence of the first indicates that thermal treatment was appropriate. On the other hand, the quenching from high temperature has avoided the  $\beta \rightarrow \gamma$  polymorphic transformation of C<sub>2</sub>S.  $\gamma$ -C<sub>2</sub>S is hydraulically inactive and its presence is undesirable in BPCs.

In all laboratory belite clinkers  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S [30] was present. The stabilization of this phase is due to both the rapid cooling rate and the presence of foreign ions into its structure. The addition of alkaline cations and sulfur to the raw mixture has also promoted  $\alpha'$ <sub>H</sub>-C<sub>2</sub>S [31] stabilization in all belite clinkers, Table 3. It has to be noticed that increasing contents of K<sub>2</sub>O and/or Na<sub>2</sub>O, for a fixed SO<sub>3</sub> content, favor  $\alpha'$ <sub>H</sub>-C<sub>2</sub>S stabilization, with the concomitant decrease of  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S percentage. This preferential incorporation of alkaline cations into dicalcium silicate phases

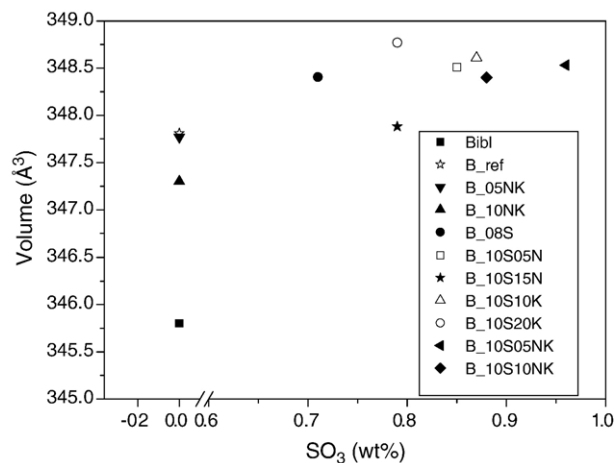


Fig. 2. Variation of  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S unit cell volumes as a function of SO<sub>3</sub> wt.% content of the clinkers. The volume for stoichiometric  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S was taken from [30].



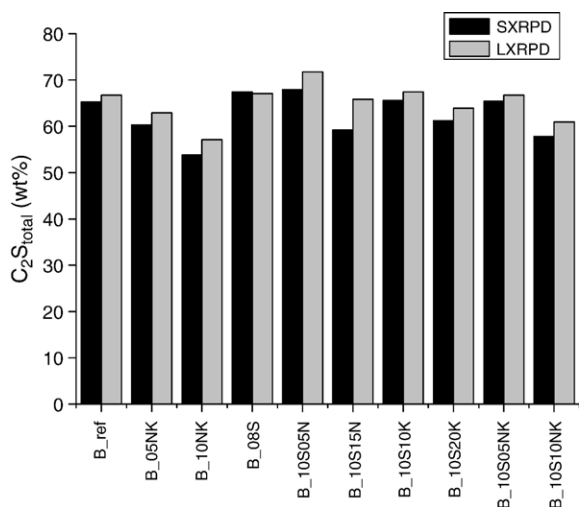


Fig. 3. Comparison of the quantitative phase analysis of total C<sub>2</sub>S using synchrotron and laboratory X-ray diffraction data.

was previously reported [11], although quantitative phase analyses were not reported. High alkali-bearing belite clinkers (B\_05NK, B\_10NK, B\_10S15N and B\_10S10NK) also contain different amounts of  $\alpha$ -C<sub>2</sub>S [30], Table 3. The stabilization of the highest temperature C<sub>2</sub>S polymorphs due to alkaline oxides has been reported in a previous work [23] using selective dissolution methodology and SXRPD. It is known that the role of K<sub>2</sub>O and Na<sub>2</sub>O in phase stabilization is not the same. Na<sub>2</sub>O, in the presence of sulfur, promotes higher amounts of  $\alpha'$ -H-C<sub>2</sub>S and C<sub>3</sub>S than K<sub>2</sub>O does, see Table 3. The formation of alkaline sulfates strongly depends on the manufacturing process. In this study, belite clinkers have been prepared in a static electric furnace, thus the amount of minor phases, i.e. K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and/or K<sub>3</sub>Na(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub> is small, see Table 3. At an industrial stage, the stabilization of sulfate phases may be more important due to the gases and raw materials ratio.

It was reported [13] that the stabilization of  $\alpha$ -forms of C<sub>2</sub>S could not be achieved by SO<sub>3</sub> contents up to 1.5 wt.%. In this work, the stabilization of 6.7(2) wt.% of  $\alpha'$ -H-C<sub>2</sub>S has been accomplished only with 0.71 wt.% of SO<sub>3</sub> in B\_08S, see Table 2, although  $\alpha$ -C<sub>2</sub>S is not present in that sample, see Table 3.  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S rate of hydration is slower than those of C<sub>3</sub>S and  $\alpha$ -forms. However, a lattice-disturbed doped  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S will improve hydraulic activity [32]. Fig. 2 shows the refined  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S cell volume as a function of final SO<sub>3</sub> content. A slight expansion in the cell volume with increasing sulfur content can also be observed.  $\beta$ -C<sub>2</sub>S of sulfur-free belite clinkers (B\_ref, B\_05NK and B\_10NK) also present unit cell volume expansion due to their alkaline content, although the extension of this enlargement is smaller, see Fig. 2.

Belite clinkers synthesized in this work have the dosages to contain more than 15 wt.% of C<sub>3</sub>S in order to provide relative rapid setting and early strength development. It is well known [14] that sulfur induces higher C<sub>2</sub>S formation while C<sub>3</sub>S content is decreased. B\_08S and B\_10S05N contain more than 65.0 wt.% of total C<sub>2</sub>S, the highest ones, and the smallest amount of C<sub>3</sub>S, see Table 3. These effects may produce a reduction in the compressive

strengths at very early ages. On the other hand, active belite clinkers with high amounts of Na<sub>2</sub>O, see Table 2, B\_10NK, B\_10S15N and B\_10S10NK, contain more than 17.0 wt.% of C<sub>3</sub>S, Table 3. The triclinic room temperature polymorph of C<sub>3</sub>S [33] was used to model this phase in all the clinkers except for B\_ref, B\_05NK and B\_10NK, in which a mixture of triclinic and monoclinic M<sub>3</sub> [34] was required to properly fit the patterns. The presence of sulfur avoids/minimizes the stabilization of M<sub>3</sub>-C<sub>3</sub>S [35], see Table 3.

Stoichiometric C<sub>3</sub>A is cubic and does not present polymorphism. Nevertheless, the presence of foreign ions, especially Na<sup>+</sup>, induces some structural modifications [36]. The pseudo-polymorph orthorhombic-C<sub>3</sub>A [37] was only observed in belite clinkers with high amounts of retained alkaline oxides, see Table 2. In the remaining samples, cubic CII-C<sub>3</sub>A [37] or a mixture of CII and orthorhombic C<sub>3</sub>A was used to quantify calcium aluminate phases, see Table 3.

The iron rich perovskite phase, C<sub>4</sub>AF, was quantified with the structural description reported by Colville and G  ller [38]. C<sub>4</sub>AF is a member of the solid solution series Ca<sub>2</sub>(Fe<sub>2-x</sub>Al<sub>x</sub>)O<sub>5</sub>, with  $x=1$  and this phase was suitably fitted the Fe content at the octahedral site fixed to 75% and, therefore, the tetrahedral site was 75% occupied by Al. Another phase of this solid solution was detected in the SXRPD patterns for all active belite clinkers. This second phase was accounted for using an

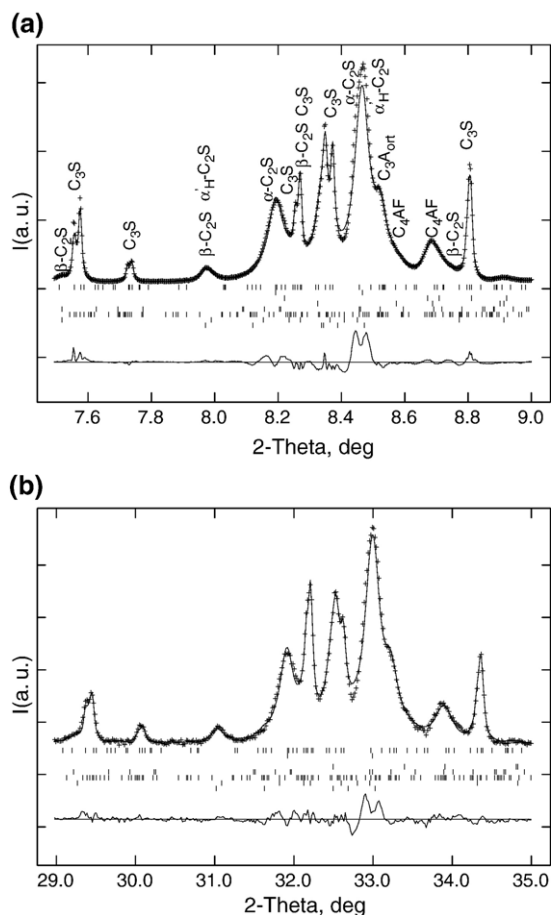


Fig. 4. Selected range of the Rietveld plots for B\_10NK (a) SXRPD pattern and (b) LXRPD pattern. Peaks mainly due to a given phase have been labeled.



shape) are much larger, even bigger than 25  $\mu\text{m}$ . Very large particles give easily texture effects in reflection geometry as shown in Fig. 6, which displays the same region of the SXPDP (a) and LXPDP (b) Rietveld plots for B\_08S. The arrow in Fig. 6 highlights the texture effect in LXPDP Rietveld plot, which was corrected with the spherical harmonic correction [29] using order = 4. The texture index obtained was 1.3, a value of 1 for this parameter represents an ideal random powder whereas  $\infty$  would stand for a single crystal. The SXPDP pattern for B\_08S does not display preferred orientation as expected.

#### 4. Conclusions

The activation of belite clinkers by stabilizing high temperature ( $\alpha'_H$  and  $\alpha$ ) polymorphs of  $C_2S$  has been achieved by adding alkaline cations and/or sulfur. In addition to that, sulfur-bearing clinkers contain  $\beta$ - $C_2S$  with bigger unit cell volumes. The presence of alkaline oxides, Na and K, led to large amounts of  $\alpha$ - $C_2S$  in some cases larger than 25 wt.%. The joint existence of alkaline oxides and  $SO_3$  promotes large quantities of  $\alpha'_H$ - $C_2S$ , but the presence of  $SO_3$  inhibits the crystallization of  $\alpha$ - $C_2S$ . Overall, Rietveld QPA from laboratory X-ray powder diffraction data gave good results, as they are similar to those obtained from high-resolution synchrotron X-ray transmission data.

#### Acknowledgments

The authors acknowledge Prof. S. de Aza, Dra. P. Pena and Dr. A. H. de Aza for their help in the polishing process and with scanning electron microscopy measurements. ESRF (Grenoble, France) is thanked for providing synchrotron beam time on ID31. K. Morsli thanks a studentship from AECI (Spain). Financial support from JA (Spain) FQM-113 grant is acknowledged.

#### References

- [1] R. McCaffrey, Climate change and the cement industry, global cement and lime magazine, Environmental Special Issue, 2002, pp. 15–19.
- [2] E. Gartner, Industrially interesting approaches to “low- $CO_2$ ” cements, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 34 (9) (2004) 1489–1498.
- [3] A.K. Chatterjee, High belite cements. Present status and future technological options: part I, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 26 (8) (1996) 1213–1225.
- [4] P.K. Mehta, Investigation on energy-saving cements, *World Cem. Technol.* 11 (5) (1980) 166–177.
- [5] A.K. Chatterjee, Special cements, in: J. Bensted, P. Barnes (Eds.), *Structure and Performance of Cements*, Spon Spress, London, 2002, pp. 186–236.
- [6] J. Stark, A. Muller, R. Seydel, K. Jost, Conditions of the existence of hydraulically active belite cement, *Proceedings of the 8th International Congress of Cement Chemistry*, Rio de Janeiro, vol. II, 1986, pp. 306–309.
- [7] C.D. Popescu, M. Muntean, J.H. Sharp, Industrial trial production of low energy belite cement, *Cem. Concr. Compos.* 25 (7) (2003) 689–693.
- [8] E.M. Gartner, Hydration of Portland cement, in: J. Bensted, P. Barnes (Eds.), *Structure and Performance of Cements*, Spon Spress, London, 2002, pp. 78–81.
- [9] A.K. Chatterjee, Future technological options: Part, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 26 (8) (1996) 1227–1237.
- [10] K. Fukuda, S. Ito, Improvement in reactivity and grindability of belite-rich cement by remelting reaction, *J. Am. Ceram. Soc.* 82 (8) (1999) 2177–2180.
- [11] A. Gies, D. Knofel, Influence of alkalis on the composition of belite-rich cement clinkers and the technological properties of the resulting cements, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 16 (3) (1986) 411–422.
- [12] K.G. Kolovos, S. Tsivilis, G. Kakali, Study of clinker doped with P and S compounds, *J. Therm. Anal. Calorim.* 77 (2004) 759–766.
- [13] A. Gies, D. Knofel, Influence of sulfur on the composition of belite-rich cement clinkers and the technological properties of the resulting cements, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 17 (2) (1987) 317–328.
- [14] S. Uda, E. Asakura, M. Nagashima, Influence of  $SO_3$  on the phase relationship in the system  $CaO-SiO_2-Al_2O_3-Fe_2O_3$ , *J. Am. Ceram. Soc.* 81 (3) (1998) 725–729.
- [15] I. Odler, H. Zhang, Investigations on high  $SO_3$ , Portland clinkers and cements I. Clinker synthesis and cement preparation, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 26 (9) (1996) 1307–1313.
- [16] H.M. Rietveld, A profile refinement method for nuclear and magnetic structures, *J. Appl. Crystallogr.* 2 (2) (1969) 65–71.
- [17] P.M. Suherman, A.V. Riessen, B. Oconnor, D. Li, D. Bolton, H. Fairhurst, Determination of amorphous phase levels in Portland cement clinker, *Powder Diff.* 17 (2002) 178–185.
- [18] V.K. Peterson, B.A. Hunter, A. Ray, L.P. Aldridge, Rietveld refinement of neutron, synchrotron and combined powder diffraction data of cement clinker, *Appl. Phys., A* 74 (2002) S1409–S1411.
- [19] A.G. de la Torre, M.A.G. Aranda, Accuracy in Rietveld quantitative phase analysis of Portland cements, *J. Appl. Crystallogr.* 36 (5) (2003) 1169–1176.
- [20] A. Emanuelson, A.R. Landa-Cánovas, S. Hansen, A comparative study of ordinary and mineralised Portland cement clinker from two different production units, Part II: characteristics of the calcium silicates, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 33 (2003) 1623–1630.
- [21] V.K. Peterson, A. Ray, B.A. Hunter, A comparative study of Rietveld phase analysis of cement clinker using neutron, laboratory X-ray and synchrotron data, *Powder Diff.* 21 (1) (2006) 12–18.
- [22] A.G. de la Torre, M.A.G. Aranda, A.H. de Aza, P. Pena, S. de Aza, Belite Portland clinker. Synthesis and mineralogical analysis, *Bol. Soc. Esp. Ceram. Vidr.* 44 (3) (2005) 185–191.
- [23] K. Morsli, A.G. de la Torre, S. Stöber, A.J.M. Cuberos, M. Zahir, M.A.G. Aranda, Quantitative Phase Analysis of Laboratory Active Belite Clinkers by Synchrotron Powder Diffraction, *J. Amer. Ceram. Soc.*, (Submitted for publication).
- [24] R.H. Bogue, Calculation of the compounds in Portland cement, *Ind. Eng. Chem., Anal. Ed.* 1 (4) (1929) 192–197.
- [25] A.C. Larson, R.B. Von Dreele, General Structure Analysis System (GSAS), Los Alamos National Laboratory Report LAUR, vol. 86–748, 2000.
- [26] P. Thompson, D.E. Cox, J.B. Hasting, Rietveld refinement of Debye–Scherrer synchrotron X-ray data from  $Al_2O_3$ , *J. Appl. Crystallogr.* 20 (2) (1987) 79–83.
- [27] L.W. Finger, D.E. Cox, A.P. Jephcoat, A correction for powder diffraction peak asymmetry due to diaxial divergence, *J. Appl. Crystallogr.* 27 (1994) 892–900.
- [28] P.W. Stephens, Phenomenological model of anisotropic peak broadening in powder diffraction, *J. Appl. Crystallogr.* 32 (1999) 281–289.
- [29] R.B. Von Dreele, Quantitative texture analysis by Rietveld refinement, *J. Appl. Crystallogr.* 30 (1997) 517–525.
- [30] W.G. Mumme, R.J. Hill, G. Bushnell-Wye, E.R. Segnit, Rietveld structure refinement, crystal chemistry and calculated powder diffraction data for the polymorphs of dicalcium silicate and related phases, *Neues Jahrb. Mineral. Abh.* 169 (1) (1995) 35–68.
- [31] W.G. Mumme, L. Cranswick, B. Chakoumakos, Rietveld crystal structure refinements from high temperature neutron powder diffraction data for the polymorphs of dicalcium silicate, *Neues Jahrb. Mineral. Abh.* 170 (2) (1996) 171–188.
- [32] J.F. Young, H.S. Tong, Microstructure and strength development of beta-dicalcium silicate pastes with and without admixtures, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 7 (1977) 627–636.
- [33] N.I. Golovastikov, R.G. Matveeva, N.V. Belov, Crystal structure of the tricalcium silicate  $3CaO \cdot SiO_2 = C_3S$ , *Sov. Phys. Crystallogr.* 20 (4) (1975) 441–445.
- [34] A.G. de la Torre, S. Bruque, J. Campo, M.A.G. Aranda, The superstructure of  $C_3S$  from synchrotron and neutron powder diffraction and its role in quantitative phase analyses, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 32 (9) (2002) 1347–1356.
- [35] I. Maki, K. Fukuda, H. Yoshida, J. Kumaki, Effect of MgO and  $SO_3$  on the impurity concentration in alite in Portland cement clinker, *J. Am. Ceram. Soc.* 75 (11) (1992) 3163–3165.

- [36] H.F.W. Taylor, Cement Chemistry, Thomas Telford Ltd, London, 1997.
- [37] Y. Takeuchi, F. Nishi, I. Maki, Crystal-chemical characterization of the  $3\text{CaO}\cdot\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{--Na}_2\text{O}$  solid-solution series, *Z. Kristallogr.* 152 (3–4) (1980) 259–307.
- [38] A.A. Colville, S. G  ller, The crystal structure of brownmillerite,  $\text{Ca}_2\text{FeAlO}_5$ , *Acta Crystallogr., B* 27 (12) (1971) 2311–2315.
- [39] G.J. Redhammer, G. Tippelt, G. Roth, G. Amthauer, Structural variations in the brownmillerite series  $\text{Ca}_2(\text{Fe}_{2-x}\text{Al}_x)\text{O}_5$  single-crystal X-ray diffraction at 25 °C and high-temperature X-ray powder diffraction (25 °C <  $T$  < 1000 °C), *Am. Mineral.* 89 (2004) 405–420.