East African Medical Journal Vol. 95 No. 5 May 2018

COMPOSITION AND PARTICLE SIZE OF MINERAL TRIOXIDE AGGREGATE, PORTLAND CEMENT AND SYNTHETIC GEOPOLYMERS

Olivia Awino Osiro, Department of Conservative and Prosthetic Dentistry, School of Dental Sciences, University of Nairobi. P. O. Box 19676 – 00202, Nairobi, Kenya; David Kinuthia Kariuki, Department of Chemistry, School of Physical Sciences, University of Nairobi. P. O. Box 30197 – 00100, Nairobi, Kenya; Loice Warware Gathece, Department of Periodontology, Community and Preventive Dentistry, School of Dental Sciences, University of Nairobi. P. O. Box 19676 – 00202, Nairobi, Kenya.

Corresponding author: Olivia Awino Osiro, Department of Conservative and Prosthetic Dentistry, School of Dental Sciences, University of Nairobi. Email: oaosiro@uonbi.ac.ke

COMPOSITION AND PARTICLE SIZE OF MINERAL TRIOXIDE AGGREGATE, PORTLAND CEMENT AND SYNTHETIC GEOPOLYMERS

O. A. Osiro, D. K. Kariuki and L. W. Gathece

ABSTRACT

Objective: To describe the composition and particle size of Portland cement (PC) and geopolymers in comparison to mineral trioxide aggregate (MTA).

Design: A quantitative, laboratory-based exploratory study.

Setting: Schools of Dental Sciences and Physical Sciences, University of Nairobi; World Agroforestry Centre (ICRAF); Ministry of Mining, all in Nairobi, Kenya.

Study population: Grey PC clinker, Kaolin, Fly ash (FA) and blast furnace (BF) slag, together with alkaline-activated aluminosilicates (AS) or geopolymers derived from them, were evaluated in comparison to two brands of MTA (MTA Cem and ProRoot MTA).

Methods: The materials were characterized by x-ray diffraction (XRD), energy dispersive X-ray fluorescence (EDXRF), graphite furnace atomic absorption spectroscopy (GFAAS) and fluoride ion selective electrode (FISE) for compositional analysis, and laser diffraction for particle size distribution analysis. Continuous data was subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's post hoc test for hypothesis testing at α level of 0.05.

Results: While MTA and PC comprised mainly of dicalcium and tricalcium silicate phases, geopolymers contained aluminosilicate phases such as quartz and mullite. Only FA contained fluoride (43.33 μ g/g, sd 5.77). There was no statistically significant difference in the composition of MTA and PC as determined by EDXRF except in the Bi (F-statistic=44.29, df=2, adjusted p<0.0001, difference=2.47, 95% CI 16.30, 33.14%wt) and Pb content (F-statistic=164.40, df=2, adjusted p=0.000, difference=1.74, 95% CI 1.43, 2.05%wt). There was no statistically significant difference in the mean particle size distribution of MTA, PC and geopolymers (D50 for PC = 12.46 μ m, sd 3.18, MTA = 7.23 μ m, sd 3.43, aluminosilicates = 12.74 μ m, sd 3.79, p>0.05).

Conclusion: Composition of PC was similar to MTA while particle size of PC and geopolymers was similar to MTA.

INTRODUCTION

Portland cement (PC) is the product of grinding clinker to a fine powder. It is hydraulic due to its hydration setting reaction on addition of water. The primary constituents of PC are calcium carbonate or calcite (CaCO₃, 65%), silica (SiO₂, 20%), alumina (Al₂O₃) and ferric oxide (Fe₂O₃, 10%). Other compounds such as heavy metals like lead (Pb) and arsenic (As) constitute the remaining 5%¹. Calcination of these oxides produces physical and chemical changes, resulting in clinker that is finally ground to the desired particle size. For optimum setting reaction and strength, it is desirable that at least 90% of the particles should be 50µm and below; particles larger than this tend to remain unreacted and may compromise the cement properties. Small amounts of gypsum are added during the grinding process to retard the setting reaction and enable adequate working time during construction techniques. The two principal phases in PC are tricalcium silicate (C₃S, 2CaO.SiO₂) or alite and dicalcium silicate (C₂S, 3CaO.SiO₂) or belite¹.

Alkaline-activated aluminosilicates (AS) or geopolymers are cementitious materials synthesized through a low temperature reaction (typically below 100°C) between aluminosilicate precursors and a friendly sodium silicate (Na₂SiO₃) solution. This is a potentially irritant alkaline solution different from the corrosive ones and having a SiO₂:Na₂O ratio >1.45. The aluminosilicate precursors are usually clay-based materials such as calcined clays, metakaolin and volcanic rocks as well as industrial byproducts, commonly fly ash (FA) and blast furnace (BF) slag. These materials are used extensively in the construction industry as a substitute for PC due to the high energy costs and carbon footprint associated with production of clinker. Additionally, they set within a shorter time while gaining considerable strength within the first 24 hours²⁻⁵. Until recently, research on geopolymers has focused on their primary application in the construction industry where they have been found to be comparable to PC. However, there is paucity of data on their biological properties and potential as biomaterials.

Calcium silicate cements (CSCs) are a group of hydraulic or water-setting cements presented as powders comprising mainly C₃S and C₂S⁶⁻⁹. It is well established that these cements are derived from PC which is the main provider of the calcium silicate elements, with the addition of а radiopacifier such as bismuth oxide (Bi₂O₃)^{1,} 9-11. However, the commercial versions are highly purified and manufactured through strict regulatory standards by ethical medical material manufacturers¹². Several categories of calcium-based cements have been utilized in medical and dental restorative techniques for decades. They include those based on calcium phosphate such as bioglasses, calcium aluminate such as glass ionomer cements and calcium silicate⁷. CSC The first for dental applications, mineral trioxide aggregate (MTA), was introduced by Torabinejad in the early 1990s and marketed as an endodontic material in collaboration with Tulsa Dental Products, a branch of Denstply in Tulsa, Oklahoma in 1995^{8, 13}. Several other brands of these cements have since been developed and marketed as rivals to the original MTA. They include Biodentine®, Bioaggregate®, Endosequence®, Calciumenriched mixture cement[®] and TheraCal^{®6}.

Presently, there is a heated debate on whether ordinary PC can be a substitute for commercial CSCs. Earlier reviews discouraged substitution of PC intended for the construction industry for a medical or dental application on ethical grounds as well as the fact that these specific cements were relatively new biomaterials^{10, 12}; however, this presented a dilemma for developing countries because these materials are very expensive. On the other hand, more recent reviews have concluded that there are no compelling reasons not to use PC as a cheaper alternative, going further to state that more clinical trials should be conducted using pure PC¹. Others have emphasized that more studies are required to evaluate the parent compound in order to increase understanding of the same as a precursor for expanded medical and dental applications¹⁴⁻¹⁶.

PCs are classified as Type I to V according to the ASTM standards; CSCs are comparable to Type I PC. Estrella et al. were the first to report the similarity between MTA and PC stating that the only difference was the presence of Bi₂O₃ in MTA and its absence in PC17. Several other studies have compared the two materials, investigating aspects of their composition^{8, 14, 16, 18, 19}, setting reaction^{20, 21} and biocompatibility^{17, 22} and most of these found the two to be quite similar. The particle size of MTA is a little researched area. A few studies have compared the particle size of MTA and PC and how this influences their properties^{16, 23-} ²⁵. On this basis, several reviews have concluded that more studies utilizing PC are required to evaluate the possibility of substituting it for the expensive commercial calcium silicate versions^{1, 15, 16, 26}.

Kenya has a vibrant PC manufacturing industry that also utilizes precursors of geopolymers. However, there is no documented study comparing these products to MTA despite the expense incurred in importing the latter for dental treatment. Therefore, the aim of this study was to describe the composition and particle size of PC manufactured in Kenya, geopolymers synthesized from aluminosilicate precursors obtained in Kenya, and two commercial brands of MTA.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethical approval for this study was obtained from the Kenyatta National Hospital/University of Nairobi Ethical Research Committee. To minimize errors and bias, experiments were conducted in triplicate. R-studio version 3.4.2 (2017) and Microsoft Excel (2016) were used for descriptive data analysis as well as for hypothesis testing. Continuous data was subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's post hoc test at α level of 0.05, to test the hypothesis that there was no difference in the composition and particle size of PC, alkaline activated AS and MTA.

Sampling and sourcing of materials: A descriptive summary of the materials is presented in Table 1. PC clinkers and aluminosilicate materials for clinker production were obtained from three PC manufacturing companies in Kenya: East African Portland Cement (EAPC), Athi River Mining (ARM) and Bamburi. One aluminosilicate material was obtained from a ceramic manufacturing company in Kenya: Saj Ceramics. Two commercial brands of MTA were purchased in Nairobi, Kenya: MTA Cem (NexoBio, Chungcheongbuk-do, Korea) and ProRooT MTA (Dentsply Sirona, York, Pennsylvania, USA). Samples of PC clinker were obtained from random batches within the three identified companies, as specified by ASTM C183 - Standard Practice for sampling and the amount of testing of hydraulic cements. At least 1kg samples were collected from the companies' Nairobi Grinding Plants storage bins prior to packaging, and placed in sealed, labelled, moisture-proof and air-tight containers.

No.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6. 7.

8.

Material description

PC clinker

PC clinker

PC clinker

FA/ Pozzolana

ProRoot MTA

BF Slag

Kaolin

MTA Cem

Summary of study p		
Source	Batch/ lot no. / Expiry	Collection date
	date	
EAPC, Athi River, Kenya	Unavailable	April 2017
ARM, Athi River, Kenya	Unavailable	July 2017
Bamburi, Athi River, Kenya	Unavailable	November 2017
ARM, Athi River, Kenya	Unavailable	July 2017

Unavailable

Unavailable

A040500000400/

1013 MC160516 2019.02

1013 MC150817 2018.05

0000108513/2018.02.02

 Table 1

 Summary of study population

Bamburi, Athi River, Kenya

NexoBio, Chungcheongbuk-

Saj Ceramics, Athi River,

Dentsply Sirona, York,

Kenya

do, Korea

Pennsylvania, USA *Synthesis* of alkaline-activated aluminosilicates (AS) (geopolymers): As 5, described previous studies^{3,} in approximately 100g of various ratios of BF Slag/ FA (0:100, 20:80, 40:60, 60:40, 80:20 and 100:0) and Kaolin/ FA (100:0 and 80:20) were weighed separately. One litre of the alkaline activation solution was prepared by adding 85% 14M NaOH to 15% Na₂SiO₃. Laboratory grade reagents, 98% NaOH pellets and Na₂SiO₃ (both Sigma Aldrich, Gillingham, UK) with a final constitution of 9.1% Na₂O₂ 27.5% SiO2 and 63.4% H2O and SiO2/Na2O ratio of 3.02, were used. Approximately 55ml of the alkaline activation solution was placed in eight 250ml capacity glass beakers and the weighed-out powders added to each corresponding labelled beaker. The powder/ liquid ratio was approximately 0.55. The solutions were stirred vigorously for a few minutes then transferred to an oven set at 85°C for 24 hours. After 24 hours, the dried product was removed from the oven, bench cooled and left at ambient temperature for 90 days. Thereafter, the products were retrieved from the beakers, sprayed with ethanol stop further activation, to labelled, pulverized, stored in sealed, airtight sample bags and characterized.

Composition analysis: The compositional analysis of powder specimens of MTA, PC clinker, raw and alkaline-activated AS (geopolymers) was conducted by X-ray diffraction (XRD) and energy dispersive Xray fluorescence (EDXRF), and filtrates of acid-digested specimens of MTA, PC clinker aluminosilicates by Graphite and raw absorption furnace atomic spectroscopy (GFAAS) and Fluoride ion selective electrode (FISE).

XRD: XRD (XRD; D2 Phaser, Bruker Corporation, Billerica, MA, USA) was used to identify the compositional phases of MTA, PC clinkers as well as the raw and alkaline-activated AS (geopolymers), on the basis of their crystallographic patterns. Approximately 1gm of each powder sample was gently pressed flush into the XRD sample holder using a glass slide to ensure a smooth surface. Excess powder was removed from the edges of the sample holder before it was carefully placed in the appropriate XRD slot. Readings were taken ambient temperature using at CuKα radiation at 40kV voltage and 40mA current, within a scan range of $10-80^{\circ} 2\theta$ and a scan speed of 2° 20 per minute. Diffraction patterns were matched to the International Centre for Diffraction Data database

November 2017

December 2017

September 2017

September 2017

(International Centre for Diffraction Data, Newton Square, PA, USA).

EDXRF: EDXRF (XRF; Rigaku NEX CG, Rigaku Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) was used to identify the pure elemental and simple oxide composition of MTA, PC clinkers as well as the raw and alkalineactivated AS (geopolymers). Approximately 1gm of powder sample was placed in plastic XRF sample holders, suspended on the appropriate slot and readings performed at ambient temperature at 30kV voltage and 1.0mA current.

GFAAS: GFAAS (iCE 3000, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used to identify the pure elemental composition of MTA, PC clinkers as well as the raw and alkaline-activated AS (geopolymers). Acid digestion of approximately 1gm of dry samples was conducted by moistening with 20ml of deionized water, dissolving in 20ml of 1M HCl and heating to evaporation on a hot plate. The residue was then treated with 20ml of hot water and filtered and dried then the process of acid digestion was repeated. The filtrate was topped up to 100ml using hot water and preserved in labelled bottles. At least five standard aqueous solutions of elements of interest were prepared and used to produce calibration plots. Thereafter, sample readings were performed on the GFAAS at ambient temperature, using argon as a purge gas. Flame photometry was used to quantify the major elements.

FISE: FISE (Orion 9609BNWP, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used to determine the F⁻ content of MTA, PC clinkers as well as the raw and alkalineactivated AS (geopolymers). The sample filtrate specimens prepared for GFAAS were analyzed for F⁻ content. Prior to measurement, the electrode tip was flushed with deionised water and then calibrated using standard solutions of 0.5, 1 and 10ppm fluoride and TISAB II. Fluoride concentration in the samples was recorded in ppm with a corresponding RmV, then converted to µg/g.

Particle size analysis: Particle size distribution analysis (PSA) of powder specimens was conducted by laser diffraction (LD).

LD-PSA: Laser diffraction particle analysis (Partica, LA-950, Horiba Scientific, Kyoto, Japan), which can determine particle size between 0.022–2000µm, was used to determine the particle size of MTA, PC clinkers as well as the raw and alkalineactivated AS (geopolymers). Powder samples were dispersed in 200ml of a solution of deionized water and Calgon (refractive index-1.478 n) and sonicated for 10min at ambient temperature to ensure the complete dispersion before running through the LD-PSD analyzer. Tests were performed before and after sieving through a 120µm mesh sieve (Endecotts Ltd, London, UK).

RESULTS

Composition analysis:

XRD: Figure 1A shows the diffraction patterns of PC and MTA, with similar peaks of C₂S and C₃S in both materials. They also show peaks of Bi₂O₃ unique to MTA. Figure 1B shows the diffraction patterns of raw and alkaline-activated AS (geopolymers). The spectra show peaks of quart*z*, calcite and mullite within the various materials. Following alkaline-activation, the quart*z* and mullite peaks were markedly enhanced in 100% BF slag, and mixtures of BF slag and FA (80:20 and 60:40).

Figure 1 *Powder XRD of PC clinker and MTA (A), and raw and alkaline-activated AS (B)*



EDXRF: Table 2 is a descriptive summary as well as results of ANOVA of the major constituents (%wt) of the three groups of materials as analysed using EDXRF. There was a statistically significant difference for CaO, SiO₂, Al₂O₃, P₂O₅, S, Pb and Bi content among all materials. However, Tukey's post hoc test returned no statistically significant difference between PC and MTA except for Pb (p=0.000) and Bi (p<0.0001). For PC and aluminosilicate materials, Tukey's post hoc test returned statistically significant difference for CaO (p=0.006), SiO₂ (p=0.004), Al₂O₃ (p=0.04) and P₂O₅ (p<0.0001) while for MTA and aluminosilicates, Tukey's post hoc test returned statistically significant difference for SiO₂ (p=0.003), Al₂O₃ (p=0.03), P₂O₅ (p=0.003), S (p=0.003), Pb (p=0.000) and Bi (p<0.0001). MTA Cem, ProRoot MTA, ARM and Bamburi clinkers were found to have some levels of Pb; however, none of the materials contained As.

GFAAS and FISE: Table 3 is a descriptive summary as well as results of ANOVA of compositional analysis as determined by GFAAS and FISE (µg/g). F- was detected only in FA ($43.33\mu g/g$, sd 5.77). There was a statistically significant difference for Ca, Zn, Fe, Pb, Mn, PO and F among all materials. However, Tukey's post hoc test returned no statistically significant difference between PC and MTA except for Ca (p=0.004), Zn (p=0.04), Mn (p=0.01) and PO (p<0.001) PC and aluminosilicate content. For materials, Tukey's post hoc test returned statistically significant difference for Ca (p<0.0001), Zn (p=0.02), Pb (p=0.04), PO (p=0.03) and F (p=0.02). For MTA and aluminosilicate materials, Tukey's post hoc test returned statistically significant difference for Ca (p<0.0001) and PO (p<0.001).

Descriptive summary and ANOVA of composition of PC, AS and MTA as determined by EDXRF (%wt)								
Compound	Material category	Mean (SD)	Min, Max	F statistic, df, p-value	Tukey's post hoc adjusted p-value	Diff (95% CI)		
CaO	PC (n=3)	59.50 (7.41)	51.09, 65.04	8.73, 2df	PC:MTA = 1.00			
	MTA (n=2)	46.07 (10.24)	38.83, 53.31	p≤0.01**	PC:AS = 0.006*	-41.16 (-69.30, -13.01)		
	AS (n=10)	18.35 (17.85)	0.61, 45.57	1	MTA:AS = 0.14			
SiO ₂	PC	25.65 (5.68)	21.99, 32.19	14.33, 2df	PC:MTA = 1.00			
	MTA	19.02 (0.91)	18.38, 19.66	p≤0.001**	PC:AS = 0.004*	32.45 (11.29, 53.61)		
	AS	58.10 (13.65)	35.54, 74.65	-	MTA:AS = 0.003*	39.08 (14.19, 63.98)		
Al ₂ O ₃	PC	5.49 (0.49)	4.99, 5.96	6.98, 2df	PC:MTA = 1.00			
	MTA	2.65 (1.07)	1.89, 3.40	p≤0.01*	$PC:AS = 0.04^*$	9.82 (0.30, 19.34)		
	AS	15.31 (6.25)	10.32, 27.69		MTA:AS = 0.03*	12.67 (1.46, 23.87)		
P2O5	PC	0.61 (0.17)	0.42, 0.75	29.5, 2df	PC:MTA = 0.44			
	MTA	0.46 (0.02)	0.44, 0.47	p≤0.0001***	$PC:AS \le 0.0001^{**}$	-0.51 (-0.70, -0.32)		
	AS	0.10 (0.01)	0.00, 0.30		MTA:AS = 0.004*	-0.36 (-0.58, -0.13)		
S	PC	1.53 (1.36)	0.52, 3.08	9.33, 2df	PC:MTA = 0.05			
	MTA	4.27 (2.69)	2.37, 6.17	p=0.003**	PC:AS = 0.68			
	AS	0.61 (0.63)	0.00, 1.82		MTA:AS = 0.003*	-3.66 (-5.93, -1.39)		
C1	PC	0.03 (0.04)	0.00, 0.08	3.12, 2df	PC:MTA = 0.09			
	MTA	0.24 (0.28)	0.40, 0.43	p=0.08	PC:AS = 0.92			
	AS	0.10 (0.04)	0.30, 0.15		MTA:AS = 0.2			
K ₂ O	PC	1.65 (0.75)	1.01, 2.48	3.2, 2df	PC:MTA = 0.86			
	MTA	0.16 (0.02)	0.14, 0.17	p=0.08	PC:AS = 0.68			
	AS	2.88 (1.66)	0.28, 5.18		MTA:AS = 0.1			
MgO	PC	1.22 (2.12)	0.00, 3.67	0.71, 2df	PC:MTA = 1.0			
	MTA	0.00 (0.00)	0.00, 0.00	p=0.5	PC:AS = 1.0			
	AS	1.49 (1.8)	0.00, 4.73		MTA:AS = 0.77			
Fe	PC	3.49 (1.03)	2.67, 4.64	3.12, 2df	PC:MTA = 0.09			
	MTA	0.14 (0.06)	0.10, 0.18	p=0.8	PC:AS = 0.94			
	AS	2.46 (1.65)	0.64, 5.58		MTA:AS = 0.2			
As	PC	0.00 (0.00)	0.00, 0.00	-	-			
	MTA	0.00 (0.00)	0.00, 0.00					
	AS	0.00 (0.00)	0.00, 0.00					
Sr	PC	0.06 (0.04)	0.03, 0.10	3.06, 2df	PC:MTA = 1.0			
	MTA	0.09 (0.09)	0.02, 0.15	p=0.08	PC:AS = 0.4			
	AS	0.03 (0.02)	0.01, 0.07		MTA:AS = 0.16			
Pb	PC	0.01 (0.01)	0.00, 0.01	164.4, 2df	PC:MTA= 0.000***	1.74 (1.43, 2.05)		
	MTA	1.75 (0.44)	1.44, 2.06	p≤0.0001***	MTA:AS=0.000***	-1.75 (-2.01, -1.48)		
	AS	0.01 (0.01)	0.00, 0.01					
Bi	PC	0.00 (0.00)	0.00, 0.00	44.29, 2df	PC:MTA≤0.0001***	2.47 (16.30, 33.14)		
	MTA	24.72 (11.92)	16.25, 33.19	p≤0.0001***	PC:AS = 1.0			
	AS	0.00 (0.00)	0.00, 0.00		MTA:AS≤0.0001***	-2.47 (-31.87, -17.57)		
Others	PC	0.75 (0.26)	0.49, 0.88	1.3, 2df	PC:MTA = 0.44			
	MTA	0.45 (0.18)	0.32, 0.52	p=0.31	PC:AS = 0.73			
	AS	0.58 (0.21)	0.24, 0.73		MTA:AS = 1.0			

Table 2

<u>A5</u> 0.58 (0.21) 0.24 *p<0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.0001

Table 3

Descriptive summary and ANOVA of composition of PC, AS and MTA analysed by GFAAS and FISE ($\mu g/g$)

Element	Material	Mean (SD)	M1n, Max	F statistic,	Tukey's post hoc	Diff (95% CI)
	category			df, p-value	adjusted p-value	
Ca	PC (n=9)	51623.0 (5182.0)	45555.0, 61118.0	39.33, 2df	PC:M1A=0.004**	25460.28 (8480.93, 42439.62)
	MIA (n=4)	77083.0 (4612.0)	70772.0, 81860.0	p≤0.0001***	PC:AS≤0.0001***	-35294.29 (-50186.16, -20402.42)
	AS (n=6)	16328.0 (18110.0)	0.00, 37835.0		M1A:AS≤0.0001***	-60754.57, (-78993.31, -42515.83)
Zn	PC	127 80 (107 50)	0 41, 255,50	6 40. 2df	PC·MTA=0.04*	-124 31 (242 19, -6 43)
	MTA	3.45 (0.27)	3.06, 3.66	p<0.01**	PC:AS=0.02*	-125.35 (-228.74, -21.96)
	AS	2 42 (2 35)	0.25, 4.60	P=0101	MTA:AS=1.0	120000 (2200 1) 2100)
		()				
Fe	PC	1978.00 (258.50)	1709.00, 2472.00	4.17, 2df	PC:MTA=0.24	
	MTA	1185.00 (750.60)	77.26, 1726.00	p=0.04*	PC:AS=0.04*	-1017.03 (-1981.73, -52.33)
	AS	960.80 (1079.00)	0.001, 2245.00		MTA:AS=1.0	
Ni	PC	1 19 (1 54)	0 001 4 25	2 45 2df	PC·MTA=0.5	
111	MTA	0.24(0.15)	0.09.037	p=0.12	$PC \cdot AS = 0.16$	
	AS	0.001 (0.00)	0.001 0.001	P 0.12	$MTA \cdot AS = 1.0$	
	110	0.001 (0.00)	0.001, 0.001		111111110-1.0	
Pb	PC	1.83 (1.74)	0.001, 3.57	3.96, 2df	PC:MTA=1.0	
	MTA	1.57 (0.66)	0.59, 2.02	p=0.04*	PC:AS=0.04*	-1.82 (-3.54, -0.10)
	AS	0.001 (0.00)	0.001, 0.001	1	MTA:AS=0.22	
Cu	PC	57.30 (79.76)	3.63, 166.40	2.19, 2df	PC:MTA=0.36	
	MTA	1.50 (0.03)	1.46, 1.52	p=0.14	PC:AS=0.28	
	AS	4.06 (3.60)	0.47, 7.97		MTA:AS=1.0	
Cd	PC	0.04 (0.04)	0.001_0.10	0.46.2df	PC·MTA=10	
Cu	MTA	0.03(0.04)	0.007.0.09	p=0.64	$PC \cdot AS = 1.0$	
	AS	0.06 (0.08)	0.001.0.20	P 0.01	$MTA \cdot AS = 1.0$	
	10	0.00 (0.00)	0.001, 0.20		101111.110 1.0	
Cr	PC	3.44 (5.84)	0.001, 17.97	0.31, 2df	PC:MTA=1.0	
	MTA	1.61 (1.10)	0.00, 2.43	p=0.74	PC:AS=1.0	
	AS	2.12 (2.32)	0.001, 4.23		MTA:AS=1.0	
Mn	PC	58 15 (33 72)	16 34 99 84	646 2df	PC·MTA=0.01**	-58 15(-100 3 -16 04)
IVIII	MTA	0.00(0.00)	0.00.000	0.40, 201 p<0.01**	$PC \cdot \Delta S = 1.0$	-30.13(-100.3,-10.04)
		46 50 (23 27)	25 10 69 74	p=0.01	$MTA \cdot AS = 0.05$	
	AS	40.30 (23.27)	23.10, 09.74		WITA.A5-0.05	
РО	PC	20.46 (4.23)	13.00, 25.08	23.04, 2df	PC:MTA≤0.001**	26.07 (11.63, 40.51)
	MTA	46.53 (20.23)	17.75, 64.67	p≤0.001***	PC:AS=0.03*	-14.68 (-27.35, -2.01)
	AS	5.78 (1.87)	3.42, 7.58	1	MTA:AS≤0.001**	-40.75(-56.26,-25.24)
		. /				. ,
F	PC	0.00 (0.00)	0.00, 0.00	5.35, 2df	PC:MTA=1.0	
	MTA	0.00 (0.00)	0.00, 0.00	p=0.02*	PC:AS= 0.02*	2.17 (3.41, 39.92)
	AS	21.67 (24.01)	0.00, 50.00		MTA:AS=0.07	

*p<0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.0001

Particle size distribution analysis: LD-PSA:

Table 4 shows a descriptive summary as well as results of ANOVA of particle size

distribution by LD-PSA (μ m). There was no statistically significant difference of the particle size of the materials, both sieved and not sieved (p>0.05).

Table 4	
Descriptive summary and ANOVA of particle size distribution of MTA, PC an	d AS (µm,

Descriptive summary LDPSA (not sievea) (µm)

Percentile	Material	Mean (SD)	Min	Max	F statistic,
	category				df, p-value
D10	PC (n=2)	2.97 (2.74)	0.59	6.86	1.29, 2 df
	MTA (n=2)	1.18 (0.71)	0.67	1.68	p = 0.30
	AS (n=3)	1.94 (0.76)	1.31	3.36	
D50	PC	112.50 (173.30)	10.22	370.70	2.38, 2 df
	AS	7.23 (3.43) 17.15 (13.44)	4.80 8.10	9.65 57.80	p = 0.13
D90	PC	607.70 (676.10)	44.05	1489.00	0.93, 2df
	MTA	74.27 (74.47)	21.61	126.90	p = 0.42
	AS	960.80 (1079.00)	52.45	1424.00	

Descriptive summary LDPSA (sieved) (µm)

Percentile	Material	Mean (SD)	Min	Max	F statistic,
	category				df, p-value
D10	PC (n=2)	1.14 (0.78)	0.59	1.69	1.46, 2 df
	MTA (n=2)	1.18 (0.71)	0.67	1.68	p = 0.28
	AS (n=9)	1.67 (0.44)	1.31	2.60	
D50	PC	12.46 (3.18)	10.22	14.71	1.87, 2 df
	MTA	7.23 (3.43)	4.80	9.65	p = 0.2
	AS	12.74 (3.79)	8.10	19.70	
D90	PC	78.08 (676.10)	44.05	112.10	0.08, 2df
	MTA	74.27 (74.47)	21.61	126.90	p = 0.92
	AS	99.84 (104.60)	52.45	393.80	

DISCUSSION

The composition and particle size of PC and geopolymers synthesized by alkalineactivation of AS for clinker production in Kenya was described in comparison to MTA. The information from this study contributes to the knowledge base on the properties of PC and MTA and the potential of PC as a cheaper substitute in resourcestrained settings common in low- and middle-income countries. Additionally, an aspect of geopolymers is also presented to highlight the properties of these materials that serve as alternatives to PC.

PC and MTA were found to be composed similar constituents of in different proportions but within a similar range. These findings are not surprising given the established fact that MTA is a derivative of PC. Several studies globally have reported the similarity in composition between MTA and PC, with the only difference being presence of radiopacifiers in MTA and their absence in MTA^{1, 6-11, 14-19, 27}. We found only one recent study that employed EDXRF to compare the composition of Kenyan PC and MTA to assess the potential of PC as an alternative material for dental applications²⁸. However, to the best of our knowledge, there is no documentation of a comparison

of MTA and geopolymers. Given that the precursors of geopolymers are aluminosilicate materials²⁻⁵, it is not surprising that these materials were found to be comprised primarily of quartz, mullite and calcite while PC and MTA were mainly comprised of belite (C₂S) and alite (C₃S).

Moreover, the clinker, geopolymers and MTA samples did not contain any detectable amounts of As. Small quantities of Pb were detected in both MTA samples using EDXRF; however, using GFAAS, two clinker samples and both MTA samples were found to contain small amounts of Pb. While the Pb content in three of these samples was below the ASTM recommendation of <2mg/kg for PC, it is noteworthy that one clinker sample (Bamburi) contained Pb levels >2mg/kg (3.57µg/g). Studies that have reported on levels of potentially toxic elements such as As and Pb in MTA and PC had varying results although most of the materials studied were found to have low levels of As²⁹⁻³¹.

Admittedly, the greatest concern in direct substitution of an ethically manufactured biomaterial with a cheap version intended for the construction industry is the potential danger of toxicity from impurities, justly attributed to the fact that PC has not been proven to be clinically safe^{10, 12}. However, a few studies to evaluate the level of such impurities have reported variable results. A study of two grey and one white PC, and two grey MTA cements by Duarte et al. found that all of these materials released similar low amounts of As. The values were below those considered to be harmful; therefore, it was concluded that all the cements tested would be safe for clinical applications³¹. A comparison of the levels of As in some brands of MTA and PC by De-Deus et al. detected negligible amounts of type III As; surprisingly, the highest and lowest values of As were detected in two different brands of MTA while the PC and other two MTA cements contained intermediate values or none³⁰. Yet another study to determine whether the levels of As in MTA and PC complied with the ISO recommended limit for water-based cements of 2mg per kilogram of cement found that all the materials tested contained As; furthermore, one of the MTA cements had levels as high as 5.91mg/kg while one of the white PC contained 0.52mg/kg²⁹. It is difficult to draw plausible conclusions on such few studies with varied results hence further research is necessary to assess the actual effects of these potentially toxic elements.

Among the materials evaluated in this study, only FA was found to contain F-. There is paucity of data on fluoride release in CSCs and related materials such as PC. Considering that the main application of these materials in dentistry is for endodontic applications, it is not surprising that the role of fluoride at this stage of treatment may not crucial. Indeed, topical fluoride is be necessary to enhance remineralization and inhibit demineralization of initial caries lesions, and not advanced disease such as pulpitis³². Nonetheless, the presence of high levels of fluoride in FA is an interesting finding that warrants further research on this material.

distribution of the The particle size materials was also analyzed. Prior to sieving, a variation was observed in the 10th, 50th and 90th percentile in the particle size distribution of the various materials. This finding was consistent with that reported by other studies^{16, 23-25, 33-35} and may be explained by the differences in production methods in relation to the intended application, that is, endodontic material and construction material for MTA and clinker and geopolymers, respectively. However, after sieving, the particle size distribution was found to be comparable among the materials. Moreover, sieving was found to be an effective method of controlling the particle size to that recommended for dental cements (45μ m) as documented in other studies³⁶. Additionally, it has been shown that particle size above 50μ m remained largely unreacted in PC and could compromise the overall quality of the set cement¹.

A few studies have reported on the particle size of MTA and PC but not geopolymers. Khan et al. investigated the chemical composition and particle morphology of white MTA and white PC. They concluded materials were similar that the in composition and that they had irregular particles, although the particles in the MTA were of finer morphology than those of PC¹⁶. Ha et al. assessed the influence of atmospheric moisture on unsealed MTA packages. They found that after two years, there was a 6-fold increase in the particle size of ProRoot MTA left in a folded over open package as compared to a 2-fold increase in MTA Angelus left in a jar with a twistable lid. The increase in particle size attributed to clumping together was absorption atmospheric following of moisture and was thought to affect the material properties negatively hence the manufacturers' recommendation for single use packages²⁴. In a different study, they attempted to deconvolute the distribution of the particles contributed by PC and bismuth oxide in MTA. They found that, generally, PC component contributed larger particle sizes while bismuth oxide contributed smaller particle sizes in MTA²⁵.

In yet another study, Ha et al. assessed the influence of particle size on the setting time of MTA and PC. They concluded that despite variations in particle size between MTA and PC, smaller particle size was with associated faster setting times. However, among the three percentiles of particle sizes (D10, D50 and D90), D90 positive showed highest the linear correlation to setting time in both MTA and PC23. However, a recent in vivo animal study failed to show the influence of reduction in particle size of MTA on dentoalveolar and osseous healing following rootend fillings³⁵. Two earlier studies had attempted to describe the particle shape and aspect ratio of the two materials, speculating that smaller particles may penetrate open dentinal tubules and may be clinically useful in bioactive materials^{33, 34}. Nevertheless, the scope of this study did not extend to assess the specific influence of particle size and shape on the properties of materials under investigation.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study found that the composition of PC clinker manufactured in Kenya and MTA were similar except the presence of Bi₂O₃ in MTA and its absence in PC. However, while PC and MTA comprised primarily of C2S and C3S, geopolymers were aluminosilicate-based and composed of quartz, mullite and calcite. The particle size of the materials was also similar, with most of the materials having a mean of <45µm. Moreover, sieving was found to be effective in controlling the particle size distribution.

ACKNOWLEGEMENTS

supported This research was by the Advanced Consortium for Research Training in Africa (CARTA). CARTA is jointly led by the African Population and Health Research Centre and the University of the Witwatersrand and funded by the Carnegie Corporation of New York (Grant No--B 8606.R02), Sida (Grant No:54100113), the DELTAS Africa Initiative (Grant No: 107768/Z/15/Z) and Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (DAAD). The DELTAS Africa Initiative is independent funding scheme of the African Academy of Sciences (AAS)'s Alliance for Accelerating Excellence in Science in Africa (AESA) and supported by the New

pment 11. Prati, C.; Gandolfi, M. G. Calcium silicate bioactive cements: Biological perspectives and clinical applications, *Dent Mater.* **2015**, *31*, 351-370.

12. Roberts, H. W.; Toth, J. M.; Berzins, D. W.; Charlton, D. G. Mineral trioxide aggregate material use in endodontic treatment: a review of the literature, *Dent Mater.* **2008**, *24*, 149-164.

13. Torabinejad, M.; Hong, C. U.; McDonald, F.; Pitt Ford, T. R. Physical and chemical properties of a new root-end filling material, *J Endod.* **1995**, *21*, 349-353.

14. Islam, I.; Chng, H. K.; Yap, A. U. X-ray diffraction analysis of mineral trioxide aggregate and Portland cement, *Int Endod J.* **2006**, *39*, 220-225.

15. Darvell, B. W.; Wu, R. C. "MTA"-an Hydraulic Silicate Cement: review update and setting reaction, *Dental Mater.* **2011**, **27**, 407-422.

16. Khan, S.; Kaleem, M.; Fareed, M. A., et al. Chemical and morphological characteristics of mineral trioxide aggregate and Portland cements, *Dent Mater J.* **2016**, *35*, 112-117.

17. Estrela, C.; Bammann, L. L.; Estrela, C. R.; Silva, R. S.; Pecora, J. D. Antimicrobial and chemical study of MTA, Portland cement, calcium hydroxide paste, Sealapex and Dycal, *Braz Dent J.* **2000, 11**, 3-9.

18. Asgary, S.; Eghbal, M. J.; Parirokh, M.; Ghoddusi, J.; Kheirieh, S.; Brink, F. Comparison of mineral trioxide aggregate's composition with Portland cements and a new endodontic cement, *J Endod.* **2009**, **35**, 243-250.

19. Hwang, Y. C.; Kim, D. H.; Hwang, I. N., et al. Chemical constitution, physical properties, and biocompatibility of experimentally manufactured Portland cement, *J Endod*. **2011**, *37*, 58-62.

20. Camilleri, J. Characterization and chemical activity of Portland cement and two experimental cements with potential for use in dentistry, *Int Endod J.* **2008**, *41*, 791-799.

21. Bortoluzzi, E. A.; Broon, N. J.; Bramante, C. M.; Felippe, W. T.; Tanomaru Filho, M.; Esberard, R. M. The influence of calcium chloride on the setting time, solubility, disintegration, and pH of mineral trioxide aggregate and white Portland cement with a radiopacifier, *J Endod*. **2009**, *35*, 550-554.

22. Camilleri, J. The biocompatibility of modified experimental Portland cements with

Development Africa's Partnership for Planning and Coordinating Agency (NEPAD Agency) with funding from the Wellcome Trust (UK) and the The statements made and government. views expressed are solely the responsibility of the authors. The authors thank research three assistants at the institutional laboratories for their assistance during data collection.

REFERENCES

1. Steffen, R.; van Waes, H. Understanding mineral trioxide aggregate/Portland-cement: a review of literature and background factors, *Eur Arch Paediatr Dent*. **2009**, *10*, 93-97.

2. Provis, J. L.; Bernal, S. A. Geopolymers and related alkali-activated materials, *Annual Rev Mater Res.* **2014**, **44**, 299-327.

3. Davidovits, J. Geopolymer cement, *A review Geopolymer Institute, Technical papers.* **2013**, **21**, 1-11.

4. Liew, Y.-M.; Heah, C.-Y.; Kamarudin, H. Structure and properties of clay-based geopolymer cements: A review, *Prog Mater Scie.* **2016**, *83*, 595-629.

5. Criado, M.; Aperador, W.; Sobrados, I. Microstructural and mechanical properties of alkali activated Colombian raw materials, *Mater.* **2016**, *9*, 158.

6. Dawood, A. E.; Parashos, P.; Wong, R. H.; Reynolds, E. C.; Manton, D. J. Calcium silicate-based cements: composition, properties, and clinical applications, *J Investig Clin Dent*. **2015**, DOI 10.1111/jicd.12195.

7. Jefferies, S. R. Bioactive and biomimetic restorative materials: a comprehensive review. Part I, *J Esthet Restor Dent*. **2014**, *26*, 14-26.

8. Camilleri, J. The chemical composition of mineral trioxide aggregate, *J Conserv Dent*. **2008**, **11**, 141-143.

9. Chang, S. W. Chemical characteristics of mineral trioxide aggregate and its hydration reaction, *Restor Dent Endod*. **2012**, *37*, 188-193.

10. Camilleri, J.; Pitt Ford, T. R. Mineral trioxide aggregate: a review of the constituents and biological properties of the material, *Int Endod J.* **2006**, *39*, 747-754.

potential for use in dentistry, *Int Endod J.* 2008, 41, 1107-1114.

23. Ha, W. N.; Bentz, D. P.; Kahler, B.; Walsh, L. J. D90: The Strongest Contributor to Setting Time in Mineral Trioxide Aggregate and Portland Cement, *J Endod.* **2015**, *41*, 1146-1150.

24. Ha, W. N.; Kahler, B.; Walsh, L. J. Particle size changes in unsealed mineral trioxide aggregate powder, *J Endod*. **2014**, *40*, 423-426.

25. Ha, W. N.; Shakibaie, F.; Kahler, B.; Walsh, L. J. Deconvolution of the particle size distribution of ProRoot MTA and MTA Angelus, *Acta Biomater Odontol Scandin.* **2016**, *2*, 7-11.

26. Osiro, O. A.; Kariuki, D. K.; Gathece, L. W. The Minamata Convention on Mercury and its implications for management of dental caries in low-and middle-income countries, *Int Dent J.* **2019**. doi: 10.1111/idj.12461.

27. Camilleri, J.; Montesin, F. E.; Brady, K.; Sweeney, R.; Curtis, R. V.; Ford, T. R. The constitution of mineral trioxide aggregate, *Dent Mater.* **2005**, *21*, 297-303.

28. Singh V. H.; Osiro O. A.; Macigo F. G. Comparison of the composition, setting time and solubility of mineral trioxide aggregate and Kenyan Portland cement, *J Kenya Dent Assoc.* **2017**, **8**, 568-574.

29. Monteiro Bramante, C.; Demarchi, A. C.; de Moraes, I. G., et al. Presence of arsenic in different types of MTA and white and gray Portland cement, *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod*. 2008, 106, 909-913.

30. De-Deus, G.; de Souza, M. C.; Sergio Fidel, R. A.; Fidel, S. R.; de Campos, R. C.; Luna, A. S. Negligible expression of arsenic in some commercially available brands of Portland cement and mineral trioxide aggregate, *J Endod*. **2009**, *35*, 887-890.

31. Duarte, M. A.; De Oliveira Demarchi, A. C.; Yamashita, J. C.; Kuga, M. C.; De Campos Fraga, S. Arsenic release provided by MTA and Portland cement, *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod.* **2005**, *99*, 648-650.

32. Featherstone, J. D. Prevention and reversal of dental caries: role of low level fluoride, *Community dentistry and oral epidemiology*. **1999**, **27**, 31-40.

33. Komabayashi, T.; Spangberg, L. S. Particle size and shape analysis of MTA finer fractions using Portland cement, *Journal of endodontics*. **2008**, *34*, 709-711.

34. Komabayashi, T.; Spangberg, L. S. Comparative analysis of the particle size and shape of commercially available mineral trioxide aggregates and Portland cement: a study with a flow particle image analyzer, *Journal of endodontics*. **2008**, *34*, 94-98.

35. Torabinejad, M.; Moazzami, S. M.; Moaddel, H., et al. Effect of MTA particle size on periapical healing, *International endodontic journal*. **2017**, *50 Suppl 2*, e3-e8.

36. Osiro, O.; Hill, R.; Bushby, A. Substitution of strontium for calcium in glass ionomer cements (Part 1): Glass synthesis and characterisation, and the effects on the cement handling variables and setting reaction, *East African Medical Journal*. **2015**, *92*, 473-480.