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31 **1. Introduction**

32

33 Portland cement production is characterised by high energy demands, the consumption of
34 non-renewable prime materials and the emission of greenhouse gases (essentially CO₂) [1, 2].
35 In 1987, the term “sustainable development” was coined to mean the balance between
36 technological development and conservation of the environment. Ever since, in pursuit of such
37 a balance, the cement industry has been seeking ways to minimise the adverse side effects of
38 its activity.

39 Alkali-activated materials constitute a possible alternative to Portland cement. A.O. Purdon [3],
40 V. Glukhovskiy [4, 5] and J. Davidovits [6] pioneered research in this area and developed the
41 earliest alkaline cements. Interest in these materials blossomed in the rest of the world
42 beginning in the nineteen nineties [7-21].

43 Alkaline activation calls for two basic components: preferably amorphous or vitreous
44 aluminosilicates and an alkaline activator. The aluminosilicates may be natural products such
45 as metakaolin or industrial by-products such as blast furnace slag or aluminosiliceous fly ash
46 [17].

47 The alkaline solutions able to interact with aluminosilicates to generate such new binders
48 include: alkaline metal or alkaline-earth hydroxides (ROH, R(OH)₂), weak acid salts (R₂CO₃, R₂S,
49 RF), strong acid salts (Na₂SO₄, CaSO₄·2H₂O) and R₂O(n)SiO₂-type siliceous salts, where R is an
50 alkaline ion such as Na, K or Li. From the standpoint of end product strength and other
51 properties, the most effective of these activators are NaOH, Na₂CO₃ and sodium silicate
52 hydrates [22, 23]. And of these, the solutions that induce the best mechanical behaviour in
53 alkali-activated materials are waterglass-based [12, 24, 25].

54 The cements obtained by alkali-activating aluminosilicates are characterised by high
55 mechanical strength [5], low heat of hydration [6] and high impermeability [27], as well as
56 resistance to high and low temperatures [28, 29] and sulfate, sea spray and acid attack [27, 30-
57 32].

58 A number of materials, including silica fume, pozzolans, rice husk ash [33] and others can be
59 used as a supplementary source of silica in alkali-activated systems. Certain types of waste or
60 industrial by-products can also be valorised to minimise the adverse (energy demand and CO₂
61 emissions) effect of the industrial production of sodium silicate, also known as waterglass,

62 which calls for heating an aqueous solution of the proper proportion of carbonate and silica
63 salts calls to around 1 300 °C [34, 35].

64 The present study aimed to evaluate the feasibility of using glass waste as a source of silica to
65 replace waterglass in the alkaline activation of blast furnace slag. Urban glass waste is an
66 amorphous material with a chemical composition based essentially on SiO₂ (65-75 %), CaO
67 (6-12 %), Na₂O (12-15 %), Al₂O₃ (0.5-5%) and Fe₂O₃ (0.1-3 %) [36-38].

68 One of the most prominent properties of glass, in addition to its transparency, is its high
69 resistance to chemical attack. That notwithstanding, some interaction always takes place
70 between glass and chemical substances. Glass is attacked by both acid and alkaline solutions,
71 although the mechanisms and degree of corrosion differ [39]. Glass is highly soluble at alkaline
72 pH values [40-42]. At values of 9 to 10.7, the solubility of amorphous silica rises due to the
73 formation of silicate ions, along with a monomer in equilibrium with the solid phase. At values
74 higher than 10.7, the amorphous silica in the solid phase dissolves to form a soluble silicate.
75 High temperatures also favour glass solubility [42, 43].

76 Prior studies determined the solubility of different types of glass waste in highly alkaline media
77 [35-37]. This waste has been found to dissolve most effectively (highest amounts of dissolved
78 SiO₂ and Al₂O₃) when a 50/50 Molar solution of NaOH/Na₂CO₃ is heated at 80 °C for 6 h [44].
79 The question that must now be addressed is whether the solutions resulting from the
80 treatment of glass waste can replace traditional waterglass in the preparation of alkaline
81 cements. Consequently, the primary objective of the present research was to explore the
82 feasibility of using urban and industrial glass waste as a potential alkaline activator for blast
83 furnace slag.

84

85 **2. Experimental**

86 **2.1. Materials**

87

88 **Table 1** gives the chemical composition of the Spanish vitreous blast furnace slag and the glass
89 waste used in this study. The vitreous phase accounted for 99 % of the slag content (modified
90 McMaster method) [45] and specific surface of this material was 325 m²/kg (EN 196-6). XRD
91 and FTIR characterisation confirmed the amorphous nature of both types of waste.

92

Table 1. Chemical composition of slag and glass (wt %)

93

94 The following activating solutions, all at a constant 5 % Na₂O by slag mass, were used:

- 95 - 50-per cent mix of NaOH and Na₂CO₃ in molar (Panreac analytical grade 98 % sodium
- 96 hydroxide and 99.8 % sodium carbonate), yielding a solution with a pH of 13.6.
- 97 - commercial waterglass (Merck, 27 % SiO₂; 8 % Na₂O and 65 % H₂O by weight) with a
- 98 SiO₂/Na₂O ratio of 1.2.
- 99 - 50-per cent (wt) NaOH/Na₂CO₃ solutions with different amounts of dissolved glass
- 100 waste (from 1 to 25 grams per 100 mL of solution).

101 The last group was prepared by adding 1, 10, 15, 20 and 25 g of glass waste (with a particle

102 size of under 45 µm) to the sodium hydroxide/sodium carbonate solution, stirring at

103 80 ± 2 °C for 6 h and subsequent filtering, as described in [34]. The ions dissolved in the

104 filtered solutions were analysed by ICP-AES on a VARIAN 725-ES inductively coupled

105 plasma atomic emission spectrometer. **Table 2** lists the weight of oxides dissolving out of

106 the glass and into the activating solution (g/100 mL).

107 **Table 2.** SiO₂, Al₂O₃, CaO and MgO (g) from the glass waste dissolved after treatment in 100 ml
108 of 50-per cent (wt) NaOH / Na₂CO₃
109

110 **2.2 Paste preparation and trials conducted**

111 Paste specimens measuring 1x1x6 cm were prepared to the compositions given in **Table 3**. The

112 liquid/solid ratio was 0.4 or 0.44, depending on the type of activator, to ensure that plasticity

113 was as recommended in European standard EN 196-3 in all cases. The pastes were chamber-

114 cured (99 % relative humidity, 20 ± 2 °C) for 1, 2, 7 or 28 days and the prismatic specimens

115 tested for mechanical strength.

116 The total porosity and pore size distribution were determined on pastes AAS N/C-25, AAS N/C

117 and AAS WG at all ages. All other characterisation trials were conducted on the same pastes,

118 but only on the 7-day specimens. After the mechanical tests, the pastes were immersed in

119 acetone/ethanol to detain the hydration/activation process. The tests conducted on these

120 pastes were Hg intrusion porosimetry, FTIR, XRD, ²⁹Si and ²⁷Al MAS NMR and BSEM/EDX.

121 **Table 3.** Pastes prepared and activation conditions

122

123 Mechanical strength tests were conducted on an Ibertest Autotest 200/10 hydraulic press as

124 specified in European standard EN 196-1 at a rate of 2 400 N/s ± 200 N/s to failure. Total

125 porosity and pore size distribution were found with Hg intrusion porosimetry on a

126 Micromeritics Autopore IV 9500 analyser able to exert pressure of up to 32 000 Psi ($\approx 220\ 608$
127 MPa, equivalent to a pore size as small as $0.0067\ \mu\text{m}$). The FTIR spectra were obtained by
128 analysing KBr pellets containing 1.0 mg of sample in 300 mg of KBr on an ATIMATTSON Genesis
129 Series FTIR-TM spectrometer. The spectra were recorded after running 64 scans in the
130 $4\ 000\text{--}400\ \text{cm}^{-1}$ range. The XRD patterns for the samples were recorded on a Bruker AXS D8
131 Advance diffractometer fitted with a Lynxeye super speed RX detector, a 2.2-kW Cu anode and
132 no monochromator. The scanning range, from 5 to 60° , was covered in a 24-minutes period.
133 The instrument was set at 40 kW and 30 mA and the sample was not rotated during scanning.
134 The ^{29}Si and ^{27}Al solid state nuclear magnetic resonance (MAS NMR) spectra were obtained
135 with a Bruker MSL 400 spectrometer operating at 79.49 and 104.26 MHz. All the spectra were
136 packed into a 4-mm zirconium MAS rotor and spun at 10 000 Hz. For the ^{27}Al spectra, the
137 relaxation time applied was 5 seconds and 360 acquisitions were obtained per scan. For the
138 ^{29}Si spectra, the values were 10 seconds and 1 200 acquisitions. After the spectra were
139 recorded, the curves were deconvoluted with dmfit software, which fits the theoretical to the
140 experimental curves. The 7-day samples were embedded in an epoxy resin and subsequently
141 cut, polished and carbon-coated for back-scattered electron microscopic examination on a
142 JOEL JSM 5400 scanning electron microscope fitted with a solid state back-scattered detector.
143 Microanalyses were conducted using LINK-ISIS energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) techniques.

144

145 **3. Results**

146 **3.1 Mechanical strength and porosity**

147 The mechanical performance of the pastes studied is reflected in **Figure 1**. The figure shows
148 that compressive strength rose with curing time in all the pastes. The lowest strength values
149 were recorded, at all ages, for paste AAS N/C, i.e., the paste prepared with NaOH/Na₂CO₃ as
150 the activator, and the highest for paste AAS WG, prepared with waterglass.

151 The graph also shows that the higher the glass waste content in the activating solution in the
152 AAS N/C family of pastes, the higher was their mechanical strength, although none was as
153 strong as paste AAS WG.

154 **Figure 1.** Compressive strength of AAS pastes prepared with different alkaline activators

155 The total porosity and pore size distribution (in the 100-0.01 μm range) for the pastes are
156 respectively given in **Figure 2**, where the porosity values are shown in percentage of the total
157 sample volume.

158 According to the table, total porosity was greatest in paste AAS N/C at all ages, ranging from
159 18 to 24 %. In the pastes prepared with Si-containing activators, total porosity was significantly
160 lower: 4-9 % in AAS WG and 7-9 % in paste AAS N/C-25.

161 Pore size distribution followed a similar pattern (**Figure 2**), with a greater proportion of micro-
162 and mesopores in the pastes prepared with the activators containing silicon. The paste
163 prepared with 25 g/100 mL glass waste had a larger fraction of pores smaller than 0.01 μm .
164 These total porosity and pore size distribution findings are consistent with the compressive
165 strength found for the materials tested (**Figure 1**).

166 **Figure 2.** Pore size distribution in pastes AAS N/C, AAS WG and AAS N/C-25

167 **3.2 Characterization of reaction products**

168 The FTIR spectra for the anhydrous slag and the 7-day alkali-activated pastes are shown in
169 **Figure 3**. An analysis of these spectra confirmed that reaction products formed as a result of
170 the alkaline activation of the slag. The FTIR spectra for the pastes showed that the Si-O
171 vibration band generated by the SiO_4 groups in the anhydrous slag shifted from 996 cm^{-1} to
172 $961\text{-}969\text{ cm}^{-1}$ due to the formation of a calcium aluminosilicate hydrate, a C-A-S-H-type gel [46-
173 48]. The band at around 460 cm^{-1} was attributed to ν_4 [Si-O-Si] bond vibrations, while the signal
174 at around 669 cm^{-1} was due to the stretching vibrations generated by the Al-O bonds in the
175 AlO_4 groups. The band at 1625 cm^{-1} was the result of the bending vibrations generated by the
176 OH groups in the water. The spectra also contained signals at 1420 cm^{-1} attributed to ν_3 [CO_3^{2-}],
177 while the vibration bands detected between 875 and 711 cm^{-1} were associated with ν_2 [CO_3^{2-}]
178 and ν_4 [CO_3^{2-}], respectively, confirming paste carbonation or weathering.

179 The bands in IR spectra for pastes AAS WG and AAS N/C-25, especially for the Al-O and Si-O
180 vibrations, exhibited similar positions, widths and intensities. The $1300\text{-}1500\text{ cm}^{-1}$ range on the
181 IR spectrum for AAS N/C-25 contained absorptions characteristic of carbonate groups, which
182 were also identified on the IR spectrum for paste AAS N/C. These bands were attributed to the
183 presence of calcium and calcium-sodium carbonates in the samples [49].

184 That finding was confirmed by XRD (see **Figure 3**), along with the formation of a C-S-H-type gel
185 (JCPDS 34-0002) and the formation of calcium carbonates (JCPDS 24-27) according to the

186 reflection lines visible on the diffractograms for all the samples. The hydrotalcite
187 ($\text{Mg}_6\text{Al}_2(\text{CO}_3(\text{OH}))_{16}\cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$) (JCPDS 22-0700) phase was also identified on the XRD patterns for
188 all the pastes at $2\theta = 11.27^\circ$ [50]. These XRD findings afforded further proof of the similarity
189 between pastes AAS WG and AAS N/C-25.

190 **Figure 3.** FTIR spectra for the anhydrous slag and 7-day pastes; b) XRD patterns for the
191 anhydrous slag and 7-day pastes

192

193 **Figure 4** shows the ^{29}Si and ^{27}Al MAS NMR spectra for the anhydrous slag and the three 7-day
194 AAS pastes. The identification of the components on the ^{29}Si NMR spectra was based on prior
195 aluminosilicate studies [51-54]. The spectrum deconvolution data are listed in **Table 4**.

196 The ^{29}Si NMR spectrum for the anhydrous slag exhibited a wide signal at around -75.50 ppm.
197 According to Richardson and Groves [55], that signal is associated with Q^0 units around -69
198 ppm, and to Schilling et al. [56], to Q^1 units around -73 ppm. Attributing the signal to Q^1 units
199 would be a sign that the silicate groups present in the slag were organised primarily as dimers.
200 The ^{27}Al MAS NMR spectrum for the anhydrous slag, in turn, had a signal centred on
201 +59.38 ppm, associated with the presence of tetrahedrally coordinated aluminium
202 ($\text{Al}_\text{T} = 65.33\%$). Two smaller signals at around +33.00 and +10.50 ppm, were respectively
203 attributed to pentahedrally ($\text{Al}_\text{p} = 23.19\%$) and octahedrally ($\text{Al}_\text{o} = 10.98\%$) coordinated Al
204 [47].

205 **Table 4.** Deconvolution data for ^{29}Si and ^{27}Al MAS NMR spectra by the nature of the activator
206 (anhydrous slag and 7-day pastes)
207

208 The ^{29}Si MAS NMR spectrum for paste AAS N/C contained a wide signal with several peaks
209 (**Figure 4a**). Its deconvolution revealed the presence of unreacted Q^0 and Q^1 units from the
210 anhydrous slag. In addition, other signals were detected and attributed to Q^1 (end of chain), Q^2
211 (1Al), (0Al), Q^3 (1Al) and Q^3 (0Al) units [46, 57]. These units were associated with the formation
212 of C-A-S-H gel, the main reaction product in slag alkali-activation [46, 47]. The same signals
213 were visible on the ^{29}Si MAS NMR spectrum for paste AAS WG, although clearly shifted toward
214 more negative values. Lastly, the shape and deconvolution data for the paste AAS N/C-25
215 ^{29}Si MAS NMR spectrum were intermediate to the characteristics of the other two pastes.

216 The ^{27}Al MAS NMR spectra for anhydrous slag and the three pastes (**Figure 4b**) exhibited three
217 clearly identified signals. Two were located in a wide, intense and asymmetrical band at

218 around 60 ppm: one centred on around 59 ppm and associated with tetrahedral aluminium
219 (Al_T) and a smaller signal at around 31 ppm due to the presence of pentahedral aluminium
220 (Al_p). A third, less intense but narrower signal, indicating the presence of octahedral aluminium
221 (Al_o), appeared at 8 ppm [46, 57, 60]. The Al_T signal at 59 ppm was narrower on the spectra for
222 the AAS WG and AAS N/C-25 pastes than on paste AAS N/C. That, together with the greater
223 intensity of the signal, was an indication that part of the Al_T had been taken up into the
224 structure of the C-A-S-H gel.

225 **Figure 4.** a) ^{29}Si and b) ^{27}Al MAS NMR spectra for the anhydrous slag and the 7-day alkali-
226 activated pastes

227 The BSEM/EDX study conducted (see **Figure 5**) revealed microstructural differences in the
228 pastes depending on the activator used in their preparation. Further to its micrograph, paste
229 AAS N/C contained substantial quantities of anhydrous slag particles (see **Figure 5a**), as well as
230 an open and scantily compact structure. Less anhydrous slag and a more compact and uniform
231 C-A-S-H gel were observed in the paste AAS WG micrograph (see **Figure 5b**). The microcracks
232 characteristic of the intense drying shrinkage associated with these pastes were likewise visible
233 [65]. The AAS N/C-25 microstructure (**Figure 5c**) exhibited intermediate features, with smaller
234 amounts of anhydrous slag than paste AAS N/C but a less uniform morphology than AAS WG.
235 **Table 5** gives the results of local analyses in different zones of the C-A-S-H gel to determine
236 their Ca/Si ratios, which were found to be around 1 or less.

237 **Table 5.** EDX determination of atomic ratio

238

239 **Figure 5.** BSEM/EDX images of N/C-, WG- and N/C-25-activated slag pastes

240

241 **4. Discussion**

242 The analytical findings showed that silicon from glass waste dissolved in NaOH/Na₂CO₃
243 solutions can induce much the same effect as the silicon in waterglass.

244 As shown in **Table 2**, which gives glass waste solubility in 100 mL of NaOH/Na₂CO₃, the higher
245 the glass content in the medium, the larger was the amount of dissolved silicon. **Figure 6**, in
246 turn, reproduces the ^{29}Si MAS NMR spectrum for the original glass and the spectrum for the
247 liquid obtained after treating the waste (1 g in 100 mL of alkaline solution) at 80 ± 2 °C for 2, 4
248 or 6 hours. The spectrum for the glass waste contained a single signal at around -93 ppm,
249 indicative of the presence of the Q⁴ Si units that characterise silica glass. The spectrum for the

250 post-treatment liquid, even at short times, exhibited a single signal at around -71 ppm,
251 associated with the presence of Q⁰ units, i.e., dissolved Si monomers. According to the
252 literature [54, 66, 67], the effectiveness of Si in waterglass systems rises with declining
253 condensation and polymerisation of the molecule in the medium.

254 These findings indicated that when glass waste was treated with a NaOH/Na₂CO₃ solution, part
255 of its silicon dissolved into monomeric units, the form best suited for interacting with
256 aluminosilicates liable to be alkali-activated.

257 The strength values found for paste AAS N/C-25 were observed to lie in between the strength
258 developed by pastes AAS NC and AAS WG, although closer to the latter. The 28-day
259 compressive strength in paste AAS N/C was 44 MPa, in paste AAS WG, 83 MPa and in paste
260 AAS N/C-25, 66 MPa. That behaviour is consistent with the known facts that the nature of the
261 alkaline activator is a determinant in alkali-activated slag pastes, mortars and concretes [23,
262 24, 61], and that waterglass-activated materials develop the highest strength. Another
263 determinant in the strength of these materials is the SiO₂/Na₂O ratio in the waterglass solution,
264 whose optimal value stands at around 1.0-1.5 [62]. According to the solubility data recorded
265 (see **Table 2**), treating 25 g of glass waste in a NaOH/Na₂CO₃ solution yielded a solubility of
266 4.53 g/100 mL, from which the silica ratio in the solution used to prepare paste AAS N/C-25
267 was calculated to be 0.86. The ratio in paste AAS WG was 1.2. **Figure 7** shows the relationship
268 between the compressive strength of pastes after 28 days of curing and the modules
269 SiO₂/Na₂O in the activators where used glass wastes and reference waterglass. As it increases
270 the modules SiO₂/Na₂O increases the mechanical strength [62].

271 **Figure 6.** ²⁹Si MAS NMR spectra for a) untreated solid glass waste; and b) liquid obtained after
272 stirring waste in a NaOH/Na₂CO₃ solution for 2, 4 or 6 hours at 80 ± 2 °C

273 **Figure 7.** Relación entre resistencia a compresión a los 28 días de curado y el módulo de
274 SiO₂/Na₂O de los activadores, con y sin residuos vítreos

275

276 The Hg porosimetry findings concurred with the data reported in the literature [63-65],
277 according to which AAS mortars and concretes prepared with waterglass have lower total
278 porosity values and greater microporosity than materials prepared with other activators, such
279 as NaOH or NaOH/Na₂CO₃. The AAS N/C-25 pastes had total porosity and pore size distribution
280 values closer to the values observed in paste AAS WG than in paste AAS N/C. BSEM/EDX
281 microstructural analysis confirmed these differences in porosity (see **Figure 5**). There is a

282 relationship between porosity and compressive strength values that can be observed in **Figure**
283 **8**, whereas the curing time increases the total porosity decrease regardless of the type of
284 solution used is produced [62]. This behavior is similar to Portland cement systems.

285 **Figure 8.** Relationship between the compressive strengths and the total porosity in AAS N/C,
286 AAS WG and AAS N/C-25.

287

288 The characterisation techniques used in this study (FTIR and XRD) confirmed that the main
289 reaction product in paste AAS N/C-25 was a C-A-S-H gel. Various calcium and calcium-sodium
290 carbonates were identified in the pastes prepared with activators having Na_2CO_3 as a
291 component.

292 Further to the present knowledge of the micro- and nanostructure of AAS pastes, the
293 interaction between activating solution and vitreous slag yields C-A-S-H-type gels, whose
294 composition and structure depend on the nature of the alkaline activator [46, 47]. When the
295 activator is waterglass or similar, such as the activator prepared here with glass waste, the gel
296 formed has a more condensed structure (longer mean chain length, more aluminium in its
297 composition, more cross-linked or Q^3 units), which is the reason for the greater microporosity
298 and consequently lower porosity and higher mechanical strength of these systems. In the
299 present study, in terms of composition and structure, the C-A-S-H gel formed in paste
300 AAS N/C-25 was observed to resemble the gel formed in paste AAS WG more closely than the
301 gel in paste AAS N/C. The different $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Na}_2\text{O}$ ratio in the AAS WG and AAS N/C-25 pastes
302 explains the differences observed in the reactivity, structure and composition of the C-A-S-H
303 gels formed (see **Tables 4** and **5**).

304 An analysis of the deconvoluted ^{29}Si and ^{27}Al MAS NMR spectra and the microstructural studies
305 revealed structural and compositional differences among the calcium silicate hydrates formed
306 with the three activators. These differences can be gleaned from **Table 6**, which gives data for
307 the 7-day ^{29}Si MAS NMR spectra. The calcium aluminosilicate hydrate formed in paste AAS WG
308 had a lower $\text{Q}^1/\Sigma\text{Q}^2$ ratio than the same product in the other two pastes. In other words, the
309 former had a greater proportion of Q^2 units and consequently longer tetrahedral silicate chains
310 (around 9 tetrahedra, see **Table 6**). Paste AAS WG also had a higher percentage of Q^3 units,
311 denoting more intense inter-chain cross-linking and the formation of layered structures in
312 some areas [47]. The ^{27}Al MAS NMR spectra, in turn, revealed a higher Al_T content in this gel.

313 More polymerised C-A-S-H gel structures have low Ca/Si ratios, such as obtained in this study
314 (paste AAS WG had a Ca/Si ratio of around 0.9).

315 The mean chain lengths of the C-A-S-H gels, found with the Richardson method [52, 53, 58, 59]
316 (**Table 6**), were shown to follow the pattern:

$$317 \quad \text{AAS Wg} < \text{AAS N/C-25} < \text{AAS N/C}$$

318 The silicon present in the activator has been shown to contribute to the formation of calcium
319 aluminosilicate hydrate in AAS WG paste [47, 48]. The findings for all the trials conducted here
320 showed that the silicon present in glass waste (AAS N/C-25) also favoured the formation of a
321 silicon-rich C-A-S-H gel. The ^{29}Si and ^{27}Al MAS NMR spectra confirmed greater reactivity in
322 these pastes than in paste AAS N/C (from 73.34 % to 70.72 %, see **Table 6**), as well as more
323 densely polymerised structures with higher $Q^1/\Sigma Q^2$ ratios, a larger proportion of Q^3 -type cross-
324 linked units and more Al_T in the gel structure, as deduced from smaller Ca/Si ratios (see **Table**
325 **5**).

326 Again, the differences between the AAS WG and AAS N/C-25 gel structure and composition
327 were due to the difference in the activator $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Na}_2\text{O}$ ratio.

328 **Table 6.** ^{29}Si and ^{27}Al MAS NMR parameters in activated pastes, by the activator used

329

330 **5. Conclusions**

331 The analytical finding showed in this work that silicon from glass waste dissolved in
332 $\text{NaOH}/\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$ solutions can induce much the same effects as the silicon in waterglass, so these
333 waste glasses can be used as activators in alkali activated systems (AAS).

334 The best conditions of solubility of these waste glasses were when we used a treatment with
335 $\text{NaOH}/\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$ (pH=13.6) favoured the partial dissolution of the Si in the glass into its most
336 reactive monomeric form.

337 The solutions resulting from the treatment of glass waste acted as alkaline activators, partially
338 dissolving vitreous blast furnace slag and generating compounds and microstructures similar to
339 the products observed in waterglass-prepared AAS. The behaviour of these pastes in terms of
340 strength and microstructural development was comparable to the performance observed in
341 AAS pastes prepared with conventional activators.

342 The present findings showed that the composition and structure of the C-A-S-H gels formed in
343 two AAS pastes, one prepared with waterglass and another with activators containing glass
344 waste, were similar. The differences observed between their reactivity, mechanical strength
345 and gel nano- and microstructure were due to the difference in the activator $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Na}_2\text{O}$ ratios.

346

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Table 1. Chemical composition of slag and glass (wt %)

wt%	CaO	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	MgO	Fe ₂ O ₃	S ²⁻	SO ₃	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	¹ L.O.I
Slag	41.00	35.54	13.65	4.11	0.39	1.91	0.06	0.01	-	2.72
Glass waste	11.75	70.71	2.05	1.17	0.52	-	-	11.71	1.08	0.83

516 ¹L.O.I = Lost on ignition

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519 **Table 2.** SiO₂, Al₂O₃, CaO and MgO (g) from the glass waste dissolved after treatment in 100 ml
520 of 50-per cent (wt) NaOH / Na₂CO₃

Glass waste	SiO ₂ (g/ 100 ml)	Al ₂ O ₃ (g/ 100 ml)	CaO (g/ 100 ml)	MgO (g/ 100 ml)
1 g	0.42	0.05	1.2 E ⁻⁰³	1.5 E ⁻⁰⁵
10 g	2.82	0.13	5.3 E ⁻⁰⁴	3.0 E ⁻⁰⁵
15 g	3.34	0.16	6.1 E ⁻⁰⁴	4.3 E ⁻⁰⁵
20 g	4.49	0.19	6.9 E ⁻⁰⁴	7.2 E ⁻⁰⁵
25 g	4.54	0.25	8.2 E ⁻⁰⁴	2.0 E ⁻⁰⁴

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Table 3. Pastes prepared and activation conditions

Sample name	Activator type	L/S	Glass content	SiO ₂ /Na ₂ O	pH
*AAS N/C	NaOH/Na ₂ CO ₃	0.4	-	0	13.60
**AAS WG	Waterglass	0.44	-	1.2	13.76
***AAS N/C-1	NaOH/Na ₂ CO ₃	0.4	1 g	0.08	13.79
AAS N/C-10	NaOH/Na ₂ CO ₃	0.4	10 g	0.54	13.70
AAS N/C-15	NaOH/Na ₂ CO ₃	0.4	15 g	0.63	13.63
AAS N/C-20	NaOH/Na ₂ CO ₃	0.4	20 g	0.85	13.60
AAS N/C-25	NaOH/Na ₂ CO ₃	0.4	25 g	0.86	13.48

524 * AAS N/C = slag alkali activated with NaOH/Na₂CO₃

525 ** AAS WG = slag alkali activated with waterglass

526 *** AAS N/C-(1-25) = slag alkali activated with NaOH/Na₂CO₃ and from 1 to 25 g of glass waste

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531 **Table 4.** Deconvolution data for ²⁹Si and ²⁷Al MAS NMR spectra by the nature of the activator
 532 (anhydrous slag and 7-day pastes)

Sample		Q ⁰ (slag)	Q ⁰ /Q ¹ (slag)	Q ¹ (end of chain)	Q ² (1Al)	Q ² (0Al)	Q ³ (1Al)	Q ³ (0Al)
Slag	Pos. (ppm)	-68.60	-75.50					
	Width	7.62	7.62					
	Integral (%)	20.54	79.46					
AAS N/C	Pos. (ppm)	-67.52	-73.40	-78.05	-81.90	-85.91	-91.07	-95.07
	Width	6.22	6.22	6.22	6.22	6.22	6.22	6.22
	Integral (%)	8.23	23.32	19.98	19.56	18.09	5.27	5.55
AAS WG	Pos. (ppm)	-66.92	-73.59	-78.47	-81.82	-85.86	-92.76	-97.47
	Width	7.05	7.05	7.05	7.05	7.05	7.05	7.05
	Integral (%)	6.26	20.08	15.69	18.05	27.80	7.41	4.71
AAS N/C-25	Pos. (ppm)	-66.59	-73.14	-78.17	-81.56	-85.50	-91.20	-96.30
	Width	6.65	6.65	6.65	6.65	6.65	6.65	6.65
	Integral (%)	6.22	23.06	19.25	18.10	23.30	5.59	4.48

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534 **Table 5.** EDX determination of atomic ratio

Sample	Zone	Number of analyses	Ca/Si	Al/Ca	Al/Si
AAS N/C	C-A-S-H gel	20	1.06 ± 0.07	0.35 ± 0.04	0.37 ± 0.05
AAS WG	C-A-S-H gel	20	0.80 ± 0.05	0.30 ± 0.03	0.24 ± 0.02
AAS N/C-25	C-A-S-H gel	20	0.94 ± 0.07	0.34 ± 0.04	0.31 ± 0.02

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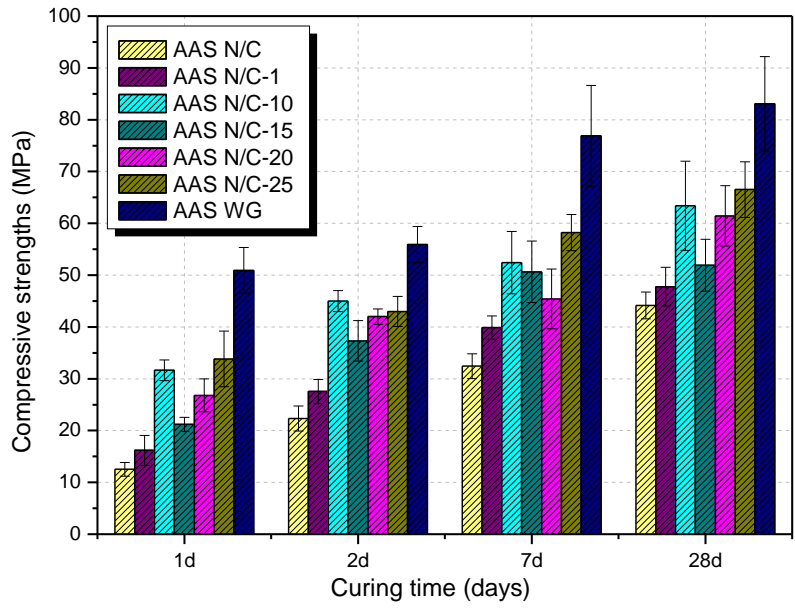
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537 **Table 6.** ²⁹Si and ²⁷Al MAS NMR parameters in activated pastes, by the activator used

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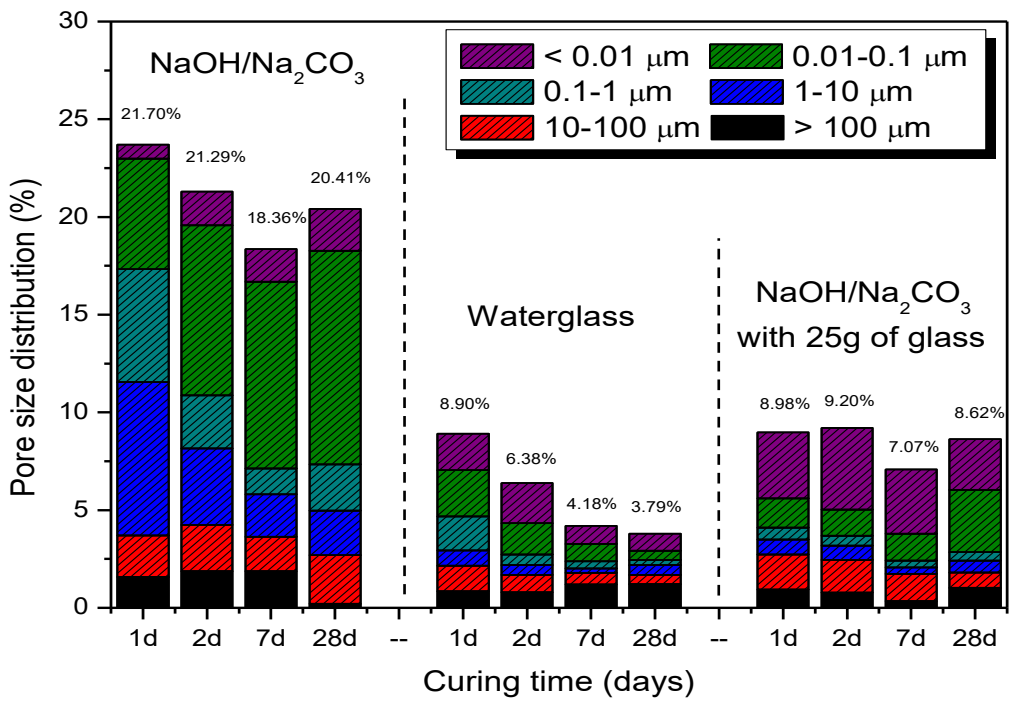
Parameters (%)	AAS N/C	AAS WG	AAS N/C-25
[†] α = Q ⁰ + Q _{slag}	68.45	73.34	70.72
^{††} ΣQ ² /Q _{Total}	0.55	0.62	0.58
Q ² (0Al)/Q ² (1Al)	0.92	1.54	1.28
Q ¹ /ΣQ ²	0.53	0.34	0.46
ΣQ ³ /Q ¹ + ΣQ ²	0.18	0.20	0.16
MCL (main chain length)	6.74	9.00	7.24

[†]Q_{slag} = Q⁰/Q¹slag; ^{††}Q_{Total} = ΣQⁿ where Qⁿ stands for Q¹, Q² and Q³ units



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540 **Figure 1.** Compressive strength of AAS pastes prepared with different alkaline activators



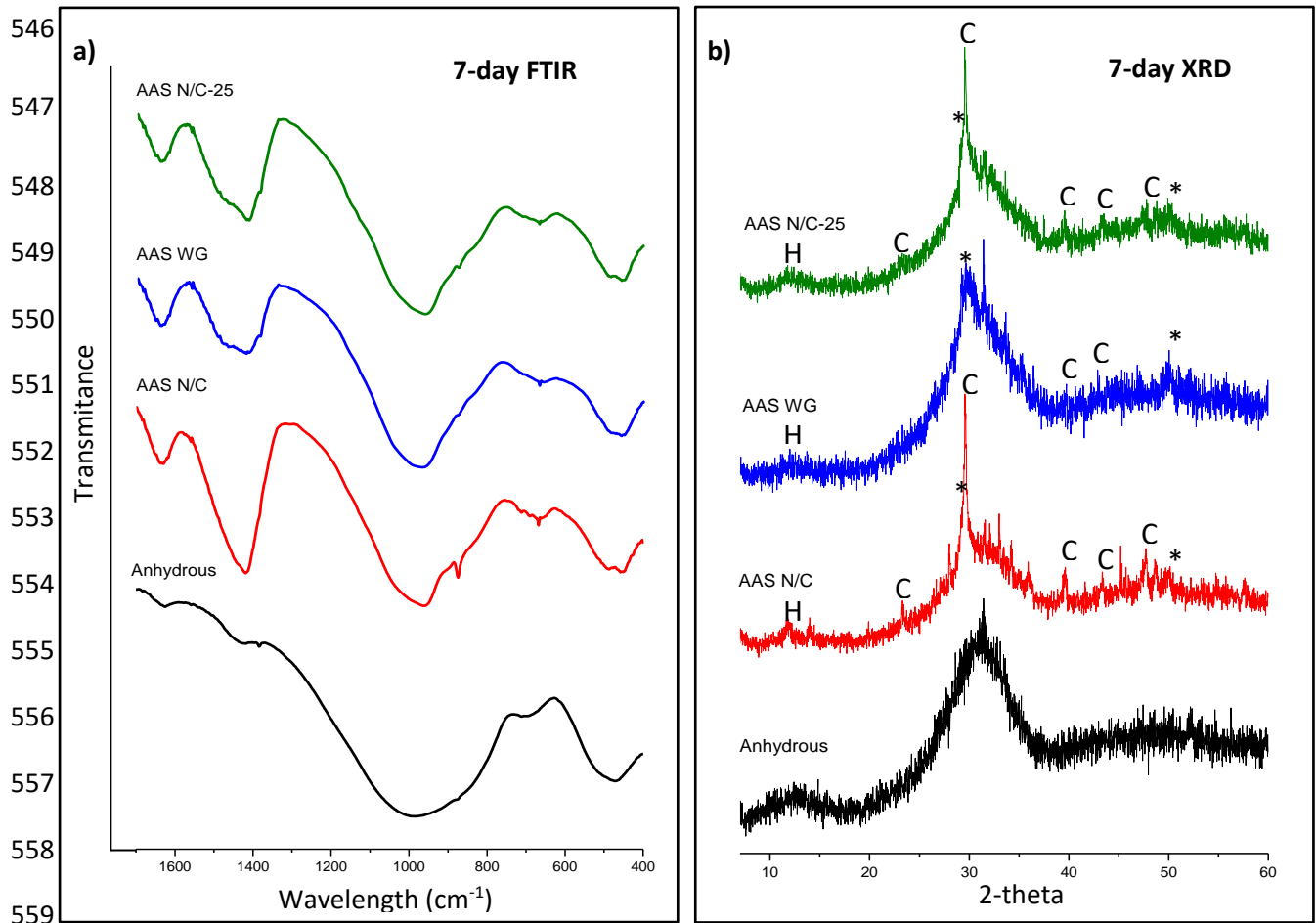
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542 **Figure 2.** Pore size distribution in pastes AAS N/C, AAS WG and AAS N/C-25

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C = calcite, * = C-A-S-H gel, H = hydroxalcalcite

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561 **Figure 3.** FTIR spectra for the anhydrous slag and 7-day pastes; b) XRD patterns for the
 562 anhydrous slag and 7-day pastes

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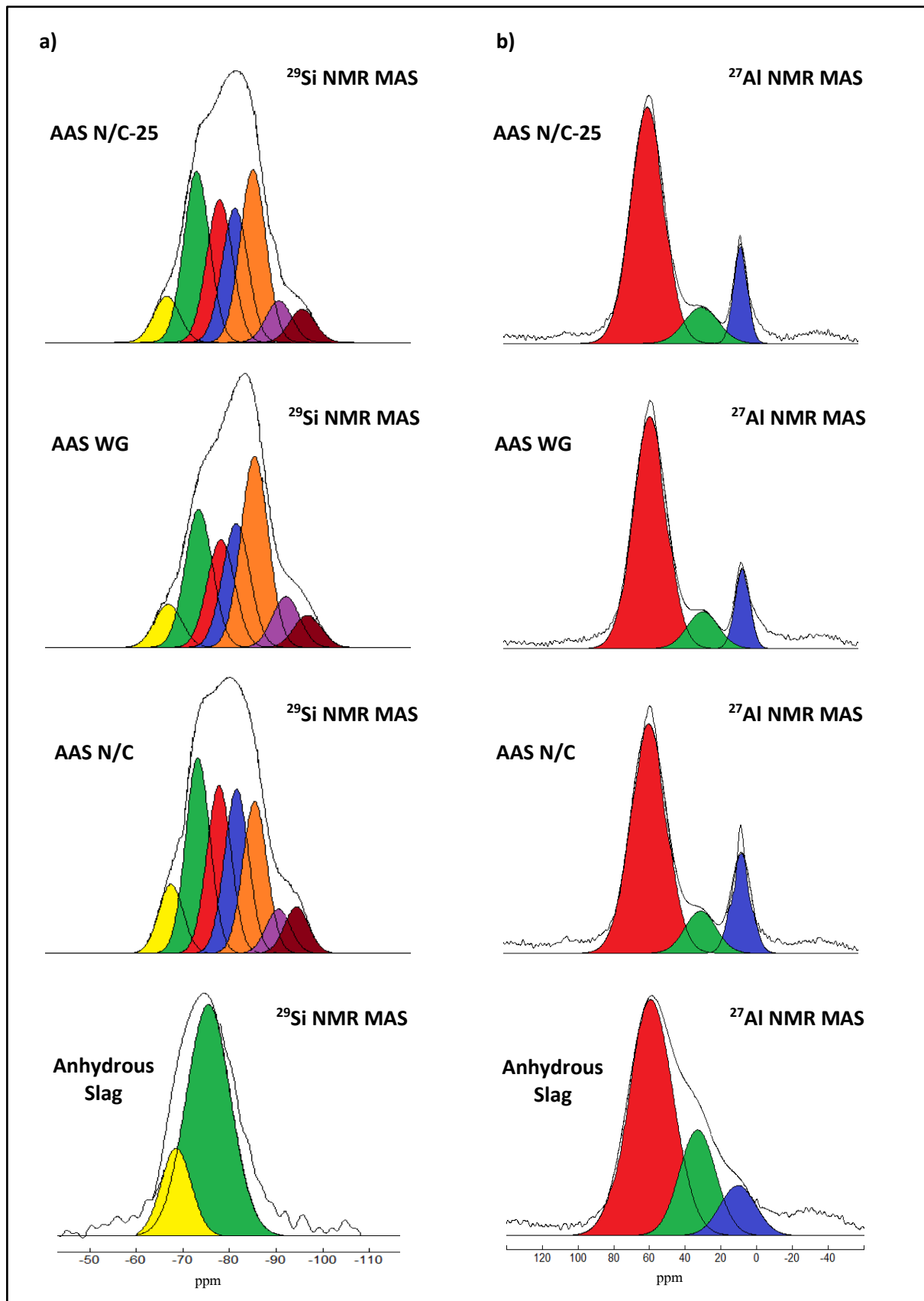


Figure 4. a) ^{29}Si and b) ^{27}Al MAS NMR spectra for the anhydrous slag and the 7-day alkali-activated pastes

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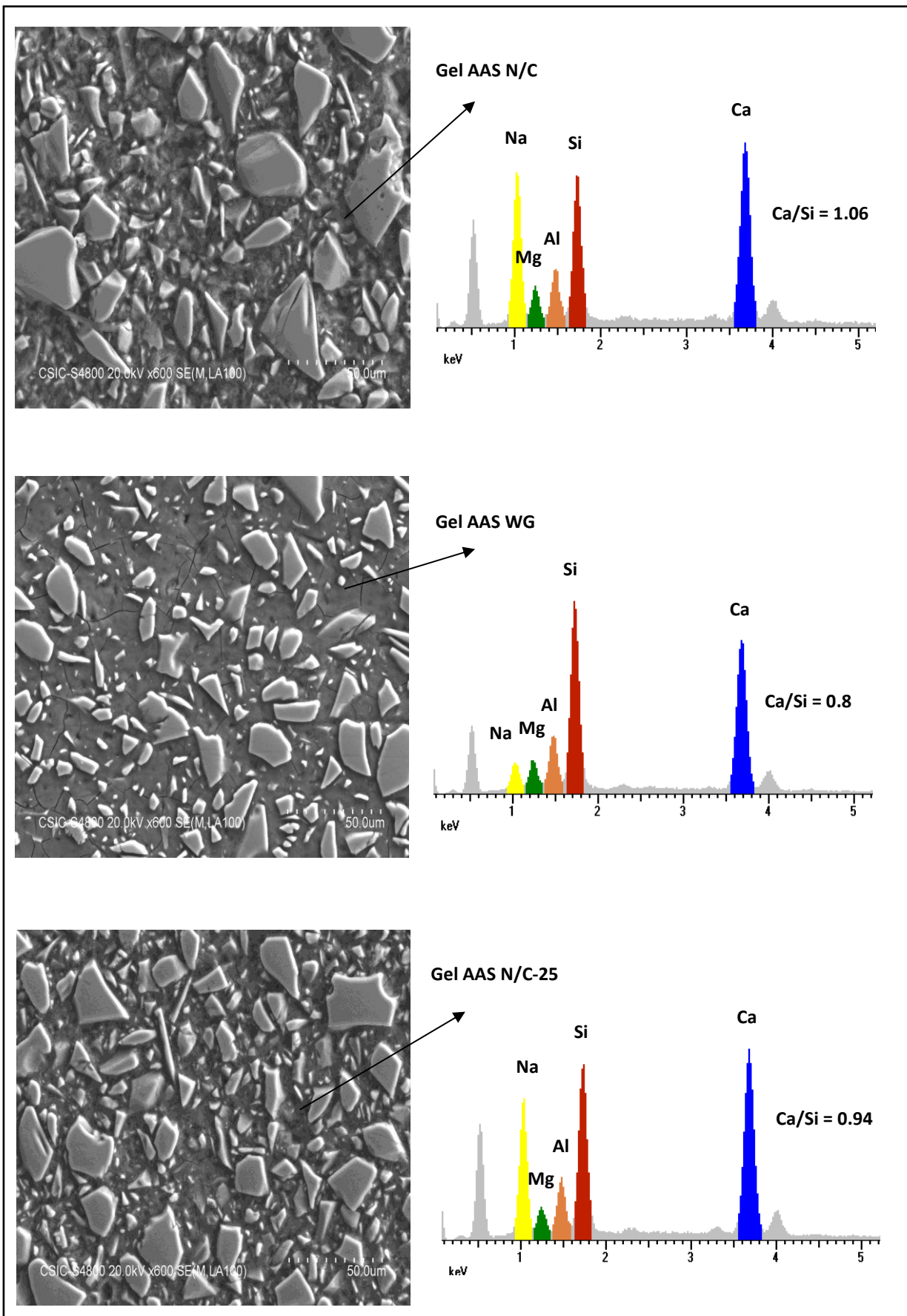
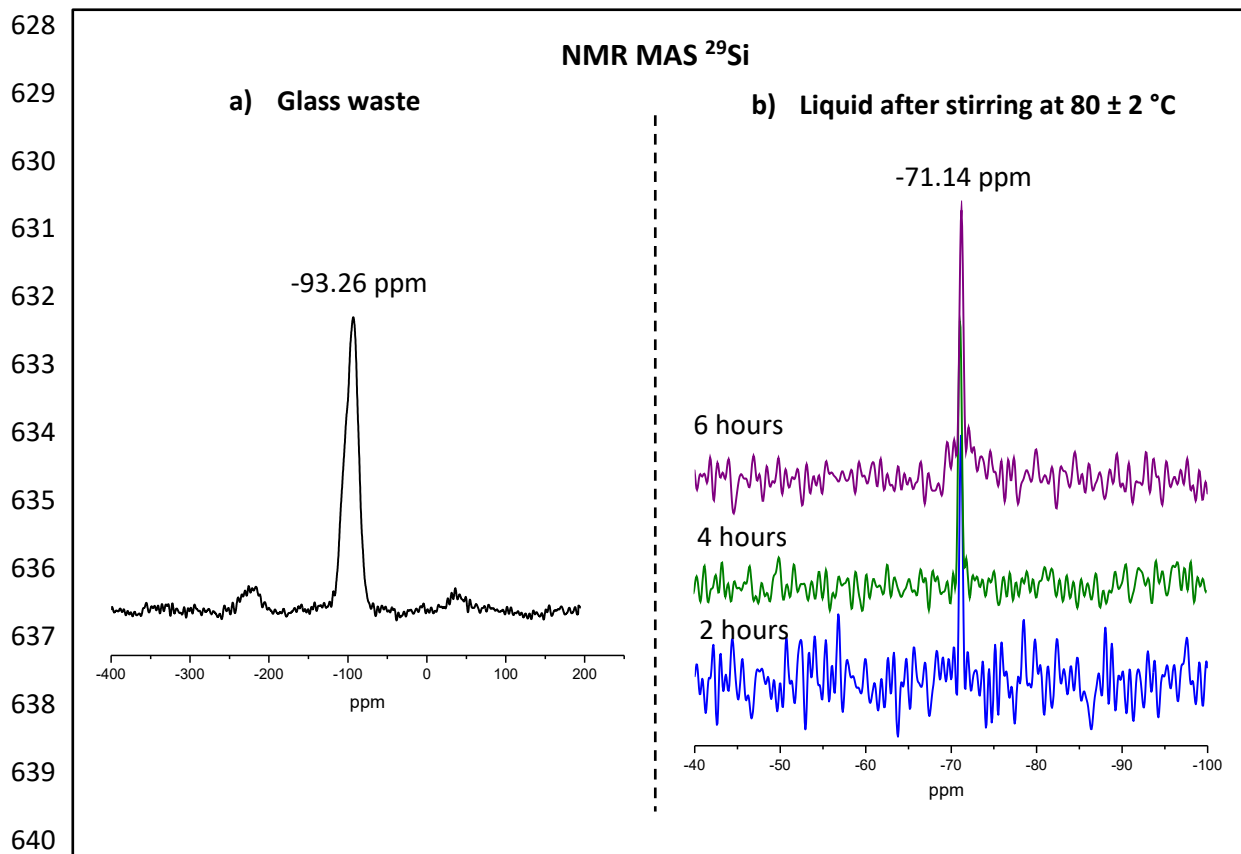
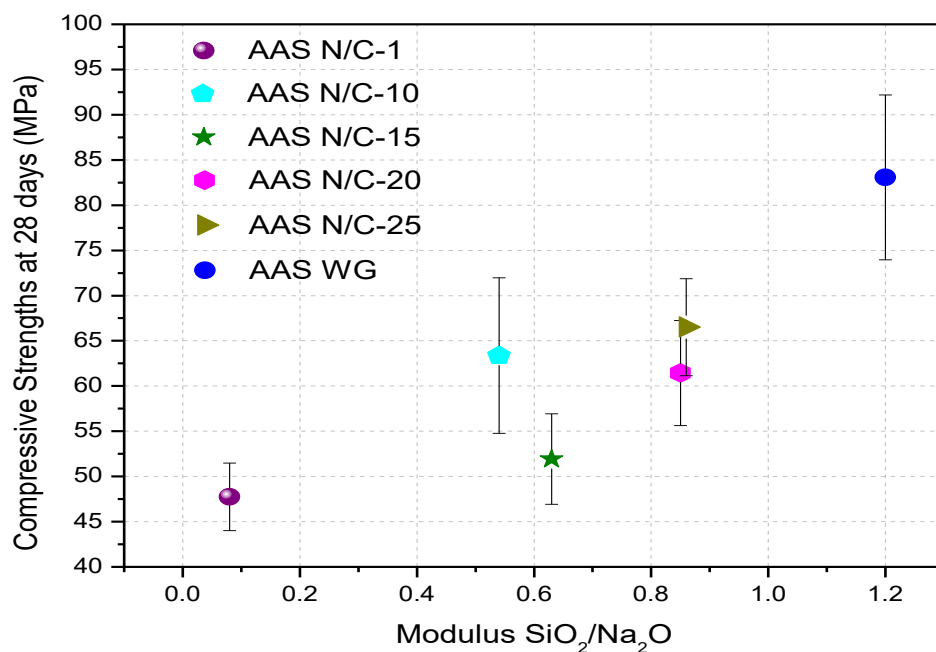


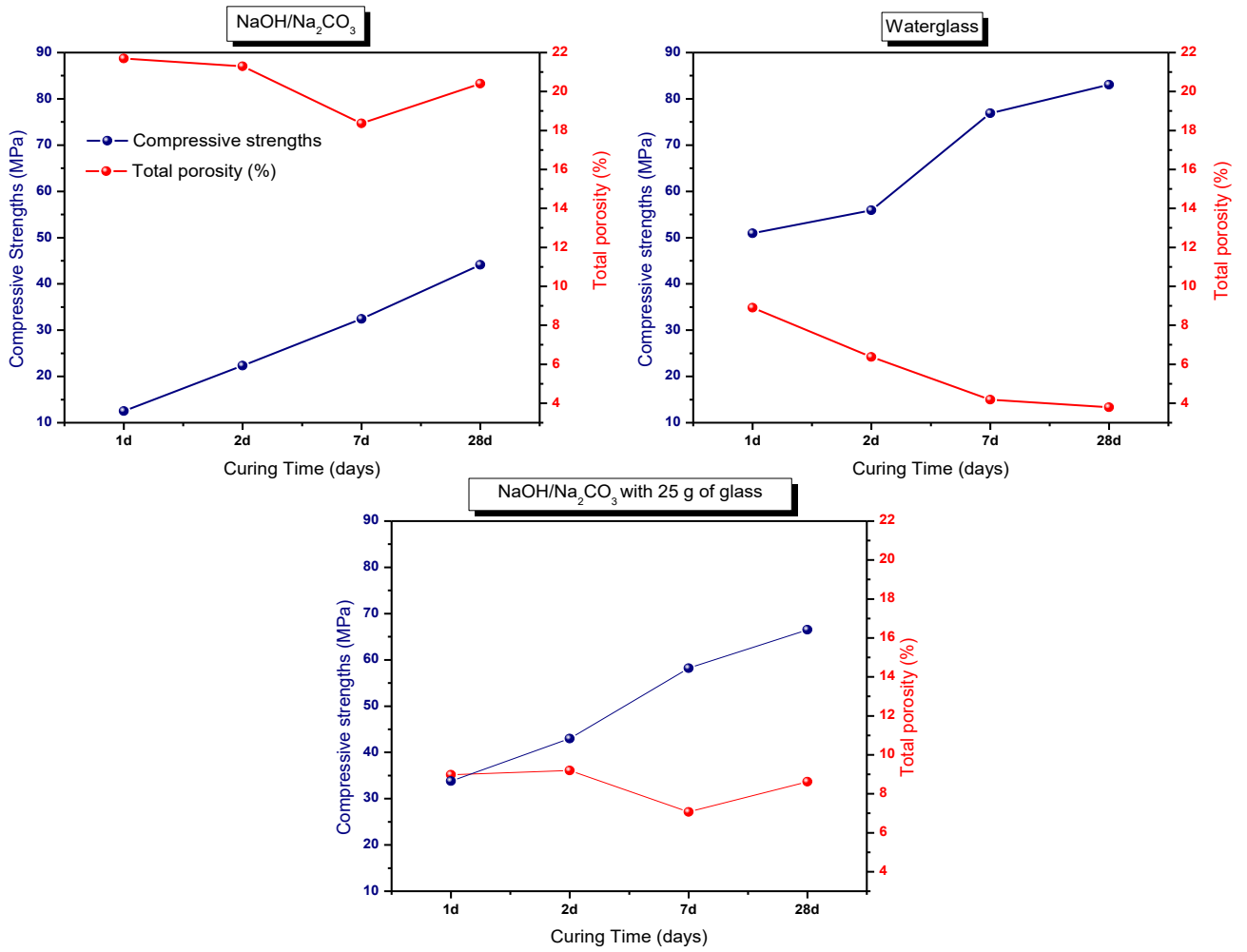
Figure 5. BSEM/EDX images of N/C-, WG- and N/C-25-activated slag pastes



641 **Figure 6.** ^{29}Si MAS NMR spectra for a) untreated solid glass waste; and b) liquid obtained after
 642 stirring waste in a $\text{NaOH}/\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$ solution for 2, 4 or 6 hours at $80 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$



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 644 **Figure 7.** Relación entre resistencia a compresión a los 28 días de curado y el módulo de
 645 $\text{SiO}_2/\text{Na}_2\text{O}$ de los activadores, con y sin residuos vítreos



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647 **Figure 8.** Relationship between the compressive strengths and the total porosity in AAS N/C,
 648 AAS WG and AAS N/C-25.

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