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Simon Blotevogel, Valérie Montouillout, Aurélien Canizares, Patrick Simon, Erwan Chesneau, et al.. Glass structure of industrial ground granulated blast furnace slags (GGBS) investigated by time-resolved Raman and NMR spectroscopies. *Journal of Materials Science*, 2021, 56, pp.17490-17504. 10.1007/s10853-021-06446-4 . hal-03327531

**HAL Id: hal-03327531**

**<https://hal.science/hal-03327531>**

Submitted on 27 Aug 2021

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# **Glass structure of industrial ground granulated blast furnace slags (GGBS) investigated by time-resolved Raman and NMR spectroscopies**

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## **Abstract**

**Ground granulated blast furnace slags (GGBS) are glassy by-products from iron production that are commonly used as supplementary cementitious materials in blended cements. The glass structure of seven industrial GGBS was investigated by Raman and Nuclear Magnetic Resonance spectroscopies. The complex composition of the slags induced multiple analytical challenges. Under usual continuous excitation, the Raman signal was masked by strong luminescence, so that analysis was carried out on a time-resolved Raman (TRR) device. TRR allowed to eliminate luminescence and resulted in exploitable spectra that showed variations in line with theoretical NBO/T values. The analysis of <sup>27</sup>Al and <sup>29</sup>Si NMR spectra was complicated by the presence of paramagnetic nuclei and the wide variety of environments. Nevertheless, <sup>27</sup>Al NMR showed that Al was present as a network former, mainly in 4-fold coordination and careful analyses of <sup>29</sup>Si NMR spectra allowed the comparison of glass network polymerization of industrial GGBS in line with the theoretical NBO/T based on their composition.**

**This manuscript was published in the Journal of Materials Science under doi: [10.1007/s10853-021-06446-4](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10853-021-06446-4)**

## 1. Introduction

Ground granulated blast furnace slag (GGBS) is a glassy by-product of hot metal production and has been used in blended cements for over 140 years [1–4]. GGBS-containing binders and concretes have a lower CO<sub>2</sub> footprint, show a decreased heat development and an increased physical and chemical resistance [1, 3, 5–8]. At high replacement levels, the short term compressive strength of GGBS is below that of ordinary Portland cement (OPC), but there are large differences between different GGBS [1–4, 7, 9–13].

The main source of variation in GGBS reactivity in various cementitious systems are differences in their chemical composition [11, 12, 14–19]. During the hydration reaction of blended cements, the slag glass dissolves in an alkaline aqueous medium (pH ≈12–13, due to the presence of cement or an alkaline activator). Subsequently typical cementitious phases as C-(A)-S-H, hydrotalcite, AFm and ettringite precipitate and give mechanical-strength to the material [1, 3, 12]. Consequently, the observed differences in reactivity are likely due to differences in chemical durability of the slag glass, which in turn is strongly dependent on the polymerization degree of the Si-network [3, 20].

GGBS are calcium aluminosilicate glasses, also containing some MgO and even less TiO<sub>2</sub> in the order of a few wt.%, and a wide variety of other elements in amounts below the wt. % [1, 2, 12]. Generally, GGBS containing higher proportions of CaO and MgO with respect to SiO<sub>2</sub> are more reactive, independently of the activation system [12, 15, 17, 18]. This underlines the link between reactivity and the degree of polymerization of the vitreous network of GGBS. The role of Al is more complex as, in the presence of OPC, high Al containing slags also showed good short term (< 2-days) performances, even though Al is expected to stabilize the glass network [12, 20, 21].

For a wide compositional range of aluminosilicate glasses, both Si and Al are tetrahedrally coordinated with oxygen and considered as network formers. Each of these tetrahedral units can share corners with other tetrahedra through bridging oxygens (BO), thus giving the glass network different degrees of polymerization [21–23]. However, in contrast to SiO<sub>4</sub> units, AlO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>

tetrahedra require a charge-compensation easily achieved in the case of GGBS by the presence of  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ , considered then as charge compensators [24–27]. All of the alkaline and a part of alkaline-earth cations are therefore requisitioned for charge compensation. The remaining alkaline-earth cations are responsible of network depolymerisation by forming non-bridging oxygens (NBO) and are then called network modifiers.

The polymerization of the glass network is conventionally described using the  $Q^n$  notation, i.e., the connectivity of its tetrahedra. In this notation,  $n$  represents the number of BOs per tetrahedron:  $Q^0$  corresponds to an isolated tetrahedron and  $Q^4$  corresponds a fully polymerized tetrahedron. By assuming a certain structural role for each element, it is possible to estimate an average NBO/tetrahedron based on the glass composition and the charge equilibrium of the system. This value gives an overall estimate of the polymerization state of the glass. However it does not take into account the presence of structural heterogeneities, such as lower polymerized domains, which can play essential roles in GGBS dissolution [28, 29]. Therefore, an experimental evaluation of the slag glass structure is necessary.

Conventional Raman spectroscopy was extensively used to investigate the structure of silicate glasses. Initially, it was used to study the effect of different elements on the glass network formation in relatively simple model glasses [30–36]. Recently, some studies attempted to approach GGBS glass compositions using synthesized  $\text{CaO-SiO}_2$  glasses adding various quantities of  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{MgO}$  [37–39]. The latter studies provided insights on modification of the glass structure due to  $\text{CaO}$ ,  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$  content modification. Only one study attempted to approach real slag glass conditions by synthesizing their samples based on the vitrification of air pollution control residues [40]. The absence of Raman studies of real, industrial slag glasses is likely due to luminescence of transition metals in complex glasses [41]. By using the noticeably different emission times of Raman and luminescence after a laser pulse, the use of time-resolved Raman spectroscopy can avoid those difficulties [42, 43].

Similarly, solid state Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) spectroscopy is an essential technique for the structural characterization of vitreous networks. The literature is very abundant in the aluminosilicate domain and the effect of the different modifiers (alkaline, alkaline earth, or rare

earth) has been widely explored [44, 45]. Several isotopes are easily observable as  $^{29}\text{Si}$ ,  $^{27}\text{Al}$ ,  $^{23}\text{Na}$ , others need isotopic enrichment ( $^{17}\text{O}$ ,  $^{43}\text{Ca}$ ,  $^{25}\text{Mg}$ , ...). NMR allows detailed description of the network of glasses with similar main oxide composition as GGBS. However, the study of real GGBS is made very difficult by the presence of numerous atoms and especially paramagnetic elements as  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$ ,  $\text{Cr}^{3+}$ , etc, preventing unambiguous quantitative spectral analyses. Moreover, the isotope enrichment of industrial slags is obviously unachievable, preventing the use of correlation experiments and isotopes with low natural abundance such as  $^{43}\text{Ca}$ .

In the present study, the glass structure of seven industrial GGBS was investigated by  $^{29}\text{Si}$  and  $^{27}\text{Al}$  NMR and time-resolved Raman spectroscopies. Because GGBS are glasses with relatively complex compositions, various analytical problems had to be overcome. By optimizing the spectra acquisition and treatment, and analyzing the results with the necessary perspective on the limitations of each technique, we aimed to gain insights on the local structure of the slag glasses and the topology of network formers.

## **2. Materials and Methods**

### **2.1 Materials**

For the investigation of their glass structure, seven GGBS were selected from the 16 GGBS presented in [12] (Table 1). The sample numbers from the reference were kept to allow identification of the different samples. All seven GGBS are modern industrial slags from Europe and were chosen to represent a wide range of reactivity and composition. In mortar strength tests according to EN 196-1, the 2-day compressive strength was shown to be most dependent on GGBS reactivity [12]. The selected samples showed a 2-day compressive strength between 4.3 MPa and 15.6 MPa, covering almost the entire range of reactivity reported in [12]. All GGBS were considered as almost totally amorphous, with glass content > 99.8%, except for GGBS 14 with a glass content of 98.2% and GGBS13 with 2.6 wt.% of akermanite, detected by Q-XRD [12].

The GGBS composition was determined on fused tabs by XRF (Panalytical Zetium) [12]. CaO contents in our dataset were between 33.9 and 43.2 wt. %, with an average of 40.1 wt.%. SiO<sub>2</sub> contents in our GGBS set range from 34.6 to 39.2 wt. %, a distribution that is on both ends about 2 wt.% smaller than the extreme values for GGBS from different regions of the world reported in Matthes et al. (2018) [1]. For Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> the observed concentration range between 9.6 to 13.7 wt.%. MgO contents in our sample set are between 6.4 and 10.4 wt.%. In the studied GGBS, TiO<sub>2</sub> contents range for 0.43 to 3.02 wt. %. This range corresponds to the full range observed by Matthes et al. (2018) [1]. Comparable data for Na<sub>2</sub>O and K<sub>2</sub>O are not published, mostly due to the use of Na<sub>2</sub>O equivalent measures in cement industry. Na<sub>2</sub>O equivalent values are reported to be between 0.18 and 1.94 wt.% [11].

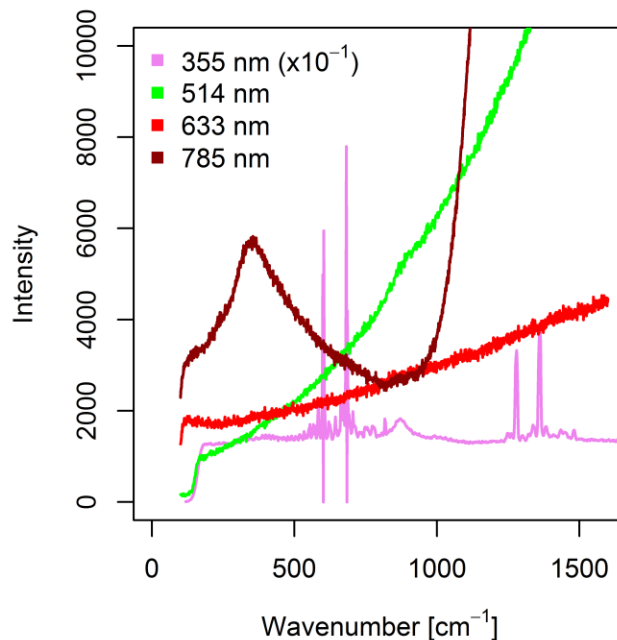
**Table 1. Chemical composition of the studied slags and results of compressive strength tests according to EN 196-1, on 75% GGBS, 25% clinker in standard mortars. This data is part of the data published in [12]. Mean values and relative standard deviation (RSD, in %) are given for all parameters.**

ID	CaO	SiO <sub>2</sub>	Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	MgO	TiO <sub>2</sub>	Na <sub>2</sub> O	K <sub>2</sub> O	2 d	28 d
	wt.-%	wt.-%	wt.-%	wt.-%	wt.-%	wt.-%	wt.-%	MPa	MPa
<b>GGBS 2</b>	42.0	36.6	12.0	6.94	0.74	0.42	0.53	11.2	47.5
<b>GGBS 3</b>	40.9	37.6	9.61	6.40	0.61	0.38	0.36	8.2	48.5
<b>GGBS 9</b>	39.5	37.4	11.0	6.64	3.02	0.41	0.44	4.3	37.9
<b>GGBS 11</b>	43.2	36.3	11.8	6.30	0.43	0.41	0.25	15.6	54.3
<b>GGBS 12</b>	42.0	36.8	11.7	6.60	0.70	0.61	0.57	10.6	50.6
<b>GGBS 13</b>	33.9	39.2	11.2	10.4	0.57	0.45	1.51	5.1	44.6
<b>GGBS 14</b>	38.9	34.6	13.7	8.36	1.16	0.39	0.44	14.8	49.2
<b>Mean</b>	40.1	36.9	11.6	7.4	1.0	0.44	0.59	10.0	47.5
<b>RSD (%)</b>	7.7	3.8	10.6	20.4	87.7	17.8	71.9	44.1	10.9

## **2.2 Methods**

### **2.2.1 Continuous Raman spectroscopy**

First tests were carried out on two conventional Raman spectrometers (InVia Reflex and InVia Qontor Renishaw) using classical continuous lasers for sample excitation at different wavelengths (355, 514, 633 and 785 nm). All spectra showed strong luminescence effects (Figure 1) that completely masked the relevant Raman information. Usually, by using such a large range of excitation lines from IR to UV, at least one of them allows satisfactory acquisition of Raman spectra. Because of the high concentration of impurities such as transition metals in these industrial products, luminescence could not be eliminated by shifting the excitation line out of the absorption bands. The observed effects likely explain why no Raman spectra of industrial GGBS are reported in literature and that the published studies work on model glasses with diluted transition metal content [37]. To avoid luminescence, this study was performed on a time-resolved Raman device, allowing to separate Raman scattering from luminescence owing to their different emission times.



**Figure 1. Raman spectra of a GGBS sample excited by different continuous laser wavelengths. For all wavelengths, high luminescence effects mask Raman scattering.**

### 2.2.2 Time resolved Raman spectroscopy

TRR measurements were carried out on GGBS powders, that were pressed into small pellets (around 3 mm of diameter) using a hand operated pelletizer. Two spectra were measured on two different spots on each pellet.

A Jobin-Yvon T64000 triple spectrometer, with subtractive configuration, equipped with three 1800 grooves  $\text{mm}^{-1}$  gratings, in the backscattering mode, was used. The microscope was an Olympus BX40 (objective 10 $\times$ , NA=0.25). This time-resolved Raman spectrometer was equipped with a frequency-doubled  $\text{Nd}^{3+}$ : YAG pulsed laser (by Spectra-Physics FCBBar T40-X30) to excite samples. Emitted wavelength was 532 nm (linewidth 1  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ), with a pulse width of about 30–50 ns, cycled every millisecond. This spectrometer (CNRS CEMHTI laboratory, Orléans) has been described in detail elsewhere [42, 43, 46].

Raman scattering was detected by an ICCD (Intensified CCD, DH 720, Andor Technology) and its detector gate was triggered by the electronic command of the Q-switch of the laser cavity, through a pulse/delay generator. Thus, every point in time, i.e., before, during and after the



laser pulse, can be measured. The Raman effect is much quicker than the nanosecond range, and is virtually simultaneous to the laser pulse at this time scale. The main part of luminescence is emitted later. In this study, the detector gate was opened simultaneously to the laser pulse (0 delay, same width).

### **2.2.3 Raman data processing**

An average spectrum of five measurements (5s accumulation time each) was computed for each sample. Then, the black current measurement and a quadratic baseline were subtracted from each Raman spectrum. Defect pixels in the range of  $1051\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1083\text{ cm}^{-1}$  were corrected by linear interpolation between these points. Average spectra from the two measurements on each sample are displayed in Figure 2a.

To interpret the Raman spectra, different bands were fitted into the measured envelop. Therefore, spectra were normalized to maximum height = 1 and fitted using six gaussian curves. In a first fitting step, peak positions were set to be in ranges from  $670\text{-}720\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the first Ti-O-Si band,  $770\text{-}810\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the second Ti-O-Si band,  $850\text{-}865\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the  $Q^0$  band,  $900\text{-}912\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the  $Q^1$  band,  $950\text{-}1000\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the  $Q^2$  band and  $1000\text{-}1100\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for the  $Q^3$  band, according to literature [39, 47]. Peak position, height and width were then fitted. In a second fitting step, peak positions were fixed to  $689\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $779\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $854\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $910\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $960\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1010\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . These positions were either derived from discernable shoulders on the fitted spectra or, where not applicable, mean values from the first fitting step. The ratio of the areas of  $Q^0$  and  $Q^2$  units was computed to quantify the degree of polymerization of the glass network. This ratio was chosen to oppose the most and least polymerized structural units that were well resolved in Raman spectra deconvolution.

### **2.2.4 NMR**

For NMR measurements powdered GGBS samples were put into a rotor. The  $^{29}\text{Si}$  MAS NMR spectra were acquired on a Bruker Avance I 400 MHz (static magnetic field  $B_0=9.4\text{ T}$ ) operating

at a Larmor frequency of  $\nu_0 (^{29}\text{Si}) = 79.4$  MHz, using a 4mm probe and with a spinning rate of 10 kHz. Each spectrum necessitated the sum of 2000 to 4000 transients accumulated with a recycling delay of 60 s insuring complete relaxation of the magnetization (total acquisition time between 24 and 48 hours). Chemical shifts are given relative to tetramethylsilane (TMS) at 0 ppm.

$^{27}\text{Al}$  MAS NMR spectra were collected on a Bruker Avance III 850 MHz ( $B_0=20.0$  T) spectrometer operating at  $\nu_0 (^{27}\text{Al}) = 221.6$  MHz equipped with high speed MAS probe heads (spinning rate of 30 kHz using aluminum-free zirconia rotors of 2.5 mm diameter). Each 1D MAS spectra necessitated the sum of 2048 to 4096 transients accumulated using a  $\pi/18$  pulse and a recycle time of 1 s to assure a quantitative signal (total acquisition time of around 1 hour). Chemical shifts were reported to 0 ppm with respect to  $\text{Al}(\text{NO}_3)_3$  1 molar aqueous solution.

### 2.2.5 NMR data processing

All Free Induction Decays (FID) recorded were processed by a homemade Python code using NmrGlue and NumPy libraries [48, 49] and Topspin software. A Gaussian apodization was applied with a broadening 100 Hz for  $^{29}\text{Si}$  and  $^{27}\text{Al}$  data, followed by a fast Fourier transform and zero and first-order phase correction. Special care has been applied to first order phase determination for the broad featureless  $^{29}\text{Si}$  spectra, taking into account in particular the pre scan delay (DE). For both  $^{29}\text{Si}$  and  $^{27}\text{Al}$  spectra, a baseline correction was applied subtracting a polynomial function of degree 4 and 16 for  $^{29}\text{Si}$  and  $^{27}\text{Al}$  spectra, respectively.

The position of the center of gravity of  $^{29}\text{Si}$  spectra was determined as the position of the half of the full integral in the range -40 to -120ppm. Likewise, full width at half maximum is determined as the distance, in ppm, between two points where the intensity is equal the half of the maximum intensity in the same range than for the center of gravity. The deconvolution of

$^{27}\text{Al}$  NMR spectra was carried out using DM-FIT [50] software, using CzSimple model lines deduced from the GIM (Gaussian Isotropic Model) model [51].

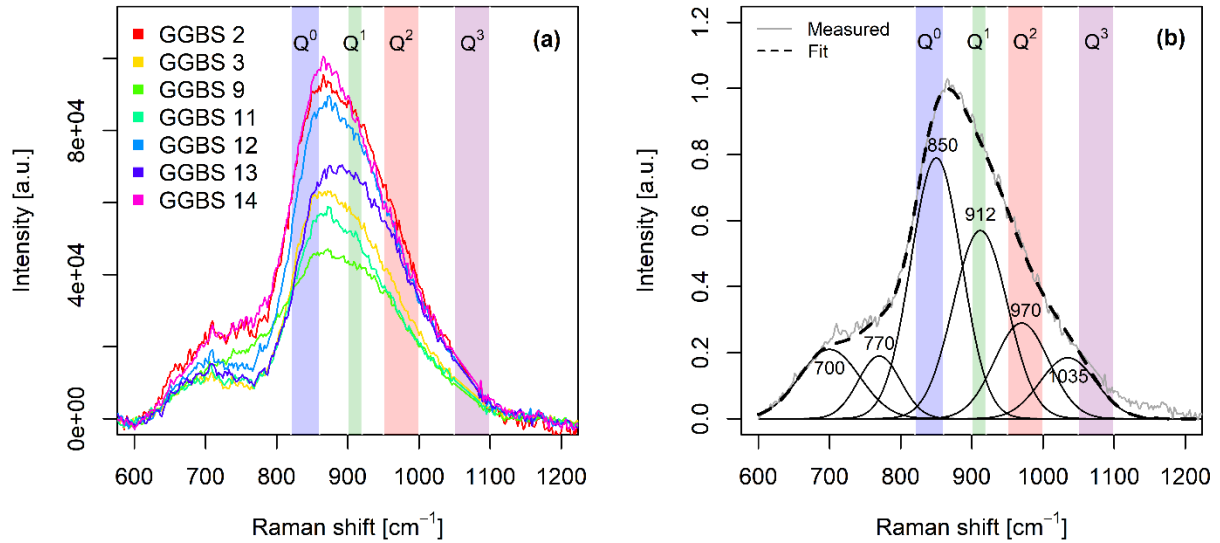
### 3. Results

#### 3.1 Raman spectroscopy

##### 3.1.1 Spectra description

Time-resolved Raman spectra of all slag glasses presented a broad envelop with maximum values around  $880\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Figure 2a). The envelope corresponded to the range of asymmetric and symmetric stretching of Si-O, representing different connectivities of  $\text{SiO}_4$  units in the glass network [30, 47, 52]. Raman bands of  $\text{SiO}_4$  units depend on their connectivity, ranging from  $850\text{ cm}^{-1}$  for isolated  $\text{SiO}_4$  ( $\text{Q}^0$ ) units to fully connected  $\text{Q}^4$  units between  $1060$  and  $1200\text{ cm}^{-1}$  [47]. Typical ranges of the Raman bands are indicated by the colored background in Figure 2 [47, 52]. The main intensity of slag glass spectra in this study was detected between the wavenumbers attributed to  $\text{Q}^0$  and  $\text{Q}^1$  bands.

Besides the main envelop of Si-O vibrations, a broad band just before the typical Si tetrahedron range was detected in all spectra with variable intensity. Several bands in this area were attributed to Ti-O-Si vibrations in  $\text{TiO}_2$ -CaO- $\text{SiO}_2$  glasses and slags [39]. However, other studies attribute peaks in this region to Si-O motions and one study found variation of bands with Al content of  $\text{Na}_2\text{O}$ - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ - $\text{SiO}_2$  glasses [53–56].



**Figure 2. (a) Average time-resolved Raman spectra of the seven investigated GGBS. (b) Fit of GGBS14 spectrum. Colored rectangles indicate Raman bands of Q<sup>0</sup> to Q<sup>4</sup> units of Si tetrahedra (after Mysen et al. 1980 and McMillan 1984 [47, 52]).**

### 3.1.2 Deconvolution of Raman spectra

Deconvolution of the spectra showed changes in the relative intensity of the different bands, thereby indicating differences in the polymerization of the glass network (Figure 2b/Table 2). Some studies derive an actual NBO/T from deconvolution data [39]. This was attempted, but the first results were strongly depending on small changes in Q<sup>3</sup> band. As the position of the Q<sup>3</sup> band is known to shift with differences glass compositions, the calculated NBO/T values were highly dependent on deconvolution parameters [57]. In consequence, the ratio of Q<sup>0</sup>/Q<sup>2</sup> convoluted areas was chosen as a more robust measure of network polymerization.

The highest ratio of the deconvoluted area of Q<sup>0</sup>/Q<sup>2</sup> bands and thus the highest depolymerization of the Si network was calculated for GGBS3 and GGBS14, with a ratio of 2.64 and 2.54, respectively. Lowest ratios were calculated for GGBS13 and GGBS9 (1.45 and 1.90, respectively). Globally, the glass network connectivity, as indicated by the Q<sup>0</sup>/Q<sup>2</sup> ratio, was decreasing in the following order GGBS 13 > GGBS 9 > GGBS 2 > GGBS 12 > GGBS 11 > GGB 14 >

GGBS3 (Table 2). However, keep in mind that those numbers do not correspond to real  $Q^0/Q^2$  structural unit ratios, as vibrational modes of  $Q^0$  and  $Q^2$  units have not the same Raman scattering cross-section owing to their different polarizability [58]. This means that the  $Q^0/Q^2$  values show relative changes in polymerization not absolute abundances.

The attribution of the band at  $770\text{ cm}^{-1}$  to Ti-O-Si vibrations can be confirmed as GGBS 9, with the highest  $\text{TiO}_2$  content (3.02 wt%), had the largest area for this band. The attribution of the  $700\text{ cm}^{-1}$  band to Ti-O-Si vibration suggested in literature, appeared not to be plausible, as only small changes were observed between the samples [59]. In earlier literature on binary glasses, a band at around  $700\text{ cm}^{-1}$  was attributed to  $Q^1$ , pyrosilicate like dimer units [60]. However, deconvoluted band areas between  $Q^1$  and units at  $912\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and the  $700\text{ cm}^{-1}$  band did not vary analogously. Furthermore the variation could not be explained by variations in  $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$  content of the glass as could be expected from [53]. Likely, multiple structural units contribute to this band, so that it was not possible to assign it unambiguously.

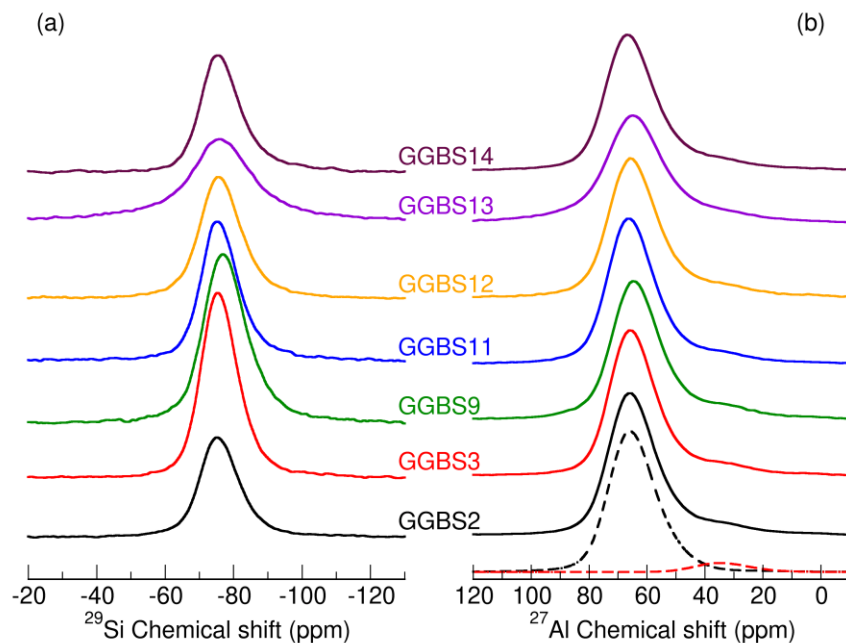
### 3.2 Solid state NMR

The  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR spectra of the different samples, all exhibiting a single broad signal, are shown on Figure 3a. The first obvious observation is that all spectra have a similar lineshape, except GGBS13 one which presents a Lorentzian-like resonance spanning more than 80 ppm : this specific lineshape is due to the presence of paramagnetic nuclei, especially  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$  (1.290.77 wt% of Mn) interacting with  $^{29}\text{Si}$ . In all the other GGBS, the signal was rather Gaussian-like, centered at around 75 ppm, spreading from -65 to -90 ppm. These lineshapes and their width resulted from the chemical shift distribution due to the wide panel of silicon environments in the slag glass network.

**Table 2. Deconvoluted band areas (arbitrary units) assigned to different tetrahedron connectivities and Ti-O-Si vibrations. The  $Q^0/Q^2$  ratio is given as an indicator of glass network polymerization.**

ID	$Q^3$	$Q^2$	$Q^1$	$Q^0$	Ti-O-Si	ND	$Q^0/Q^2$
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	(1035 cm <sup>-1</sup> )	(970 cm <sup>-1</sup> )	(912 cm <sup>-1</sup> )	(850 cm <sup>-1</sup> )	(770 cm <sup>-1</sup> )	(700 cm <sup>-1</sup> )	
<b>GGBS2</b>	18	32	60	69	16	24	2.19
<b>GGBS3</b>	22	26	62	70	6	21	2.64
<b>GGBS9</b>	22	38	59	73	33	27	1.90
<b>GGBS11</b>	17	29	57	66	7	21	2.28
<b>GGBS12</b>	20	30	62	66	7	21	2.21
<b>GGBS13</b>	23	36	74	53	9	21	1.45
<b>GGBS14</b>	18	28	55	71	14	22	2.54



**Figure 3: (a) <sup>29</sup>Si MAS NMR spectra at 9.4 T with a spinning rate of 10 kHz; (b) <sup>27</sup>Al MAS NMR spectra at 20.0 T with a spinning rate of 30 kHz of seven investigated GGBS. All spectra were normalized with full integral equal to 1.**

The position of the center of gravities ( $\delta_{CG}$ ) and the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the different signals are shown in Table 3. The  $\delta_{CG}$  values differ only slightly from one sample to the other, and are located in the range of Q<sup>1</sup> and Q<sup>2</sup> units [61]. Only for GGBS9 and GGBS14,  $\delta_{CG}$  was

more negative. Moreover, FWHM presented only small differences, except for GGBS13. This was due to the presence of a paramagnetic interaction, as previously indicated.

**Table 3 –Position of the center of gravity and FWHM of  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR signals. The uncertainties are estimated to  $\pm 0.1\text{ppm}$ , and  $\pm 5\text{Hz}$  respectively**

	$\delta_{\text{CG}}$ (ppm)	FWHM (Hz)
<b>GGBS2</b>	-76.7	1035
<b>GGBS3</b>	-76.7	998
<b>GGBS9</b>	-78.4	1178
<b>GGBS11</b>	-76.7	1007
<b>GGBS12</b>	-76.9	1117
<b>GGBS13</b>	-76.4	1596
<b>GGBS14</b>	-77.9	1051

$^{27}\text{Al}$  NMR spectra are shown in Figure 3(b). As observed on  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR spectra, the signal of GGBS13 differs from the others by its lineshape and width. This is again due to the paramagnetic interaction with  $\text{Mn}^{4+}$ . All other spectra exhibit very similar features, with a main signal centered at around 65 ppm and a smaller shoulder at 35 ppm. The resonance exhibits a quadrupolar lineshape characteristic of disordered materials, with a broad asymmetric lineshape. The main signal is associated with the presence of aluminum in four-fold coordination and the smaller shoulder is consistent with five-fold coordinated aluminum [36, 62]. In the case of GGBS13, the paramagnetic Lorentzian broadening prevent the clear distinction of  $\text{Al}_{\text{IV}}$  and  $\text{Al}_{\text{V}}$  species.

The NMR parameters, as well as the relative quantity of four-fold and five-fold coordinated aluminum derived from deconvolution of the spectra, are presented in Table 4.

**Table 4 – Isotropic chemical shift, mean quadrupolar coupling constant and proportion of Al species obtained from the  $^{27}\text{Al}$  NMR analysis. The uncertainties are estimated to  $\pm 0.5\text{ppm}$ ,  $\pm 0.1\text{kHz}$  and  $\pm 1\%$  respectively.**

$\text{Al}_{\text{IV}}$			$\text{Al}_{\text{V}}$		
$\delta_{\text{iso}}$ (ppm)	$C_{\text{Q}}$ (MHz)	%	$\delta_{\text{iso}}$ (ppm)	$C_{\text{Q}}$ (MHz)	%

<b>GBS2</b>	73.2	8.0	95	39.1	8.0	5
<b>GBS3</b>	72.4	7.9	93	39.5	7.4	7
<b>GBS9</b>	71.5	7.9	93	38.7	7.9	7
<b>GBS11</b>	73.3	8.0	95	39.2	8.0	5
<b>GBS12</b>	72.4	7.9	94	39.9	7.9	6
<b>GBS13</b>	68.8	6.6	98	38.2	7.4	2
<b>GBS14</b>	72.5	7.4	98	38.2	7.4	2

In all cases, a majority of the intensity (93 to 98 %) was assigned to the tetrahedral environment. The chemical shifts of the corresponding signal range from 71.5 ppm to 73.3 ppm. The difference of values obtained for GGBS13 may be related to the Lorentzian broadening, which renders an accurate simulation difficult. The measured chemical shifts were unexpectedly high compared to literature data for glasses with similar main oxide composition (around 68 ppm) [25-26]. This difference might be due to the presence of NBOs on aluminum tetrahedra. The measured  $C_Q$  values are in good agreement with the presence of alkaline earth cations as charge compensators [25-26]. The five-fold coordinated aluminum quantities appeared very close (and very low) in all samples.

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1 Theoretical description of the GGBS vitreous network

The computation of a theoretical NBO/T needs assumptions on the role of each element in the glass structure. The assignment of Si as a 4-fold coordinated network former and Ca, Mg, K and Na as network modifiers is obvious from literature [21, 63, 64]. In contrast, Al can be present in different coordination environments leading to different roles in the glass network [25, 62].

The  $^{27}\text{Al}$  NMR spectra of all GGBS showed that the vast majority of aluminum of our systems is in tetrahedral coordination to oxygen, playing the role of network former. This observation is in line with former literature on slag like model glasses [21]. The negative charge induced by the presence of these  $\text{AlO}_4^-$  is compensated by the positive charge of either  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  or  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ . In this context, assuming the complete charge compensation in the network, it is possible to



estimate a mean NBO per tetrahedron using Eq 1. Note that in the equation n corresponds to the mole number of each element.

$$\frac{NBO}{T} = \frac{n_{Na} + n_K + 2n_{Ca} + 2n_{Mg} - n_{Al}}{n_{Si} + n_{Al}} \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

**Table 5. Theoretical NBO/T values derived from GGBS compositions using Eq. 1. Al/Si values are molar ratios of the two main network formers.**

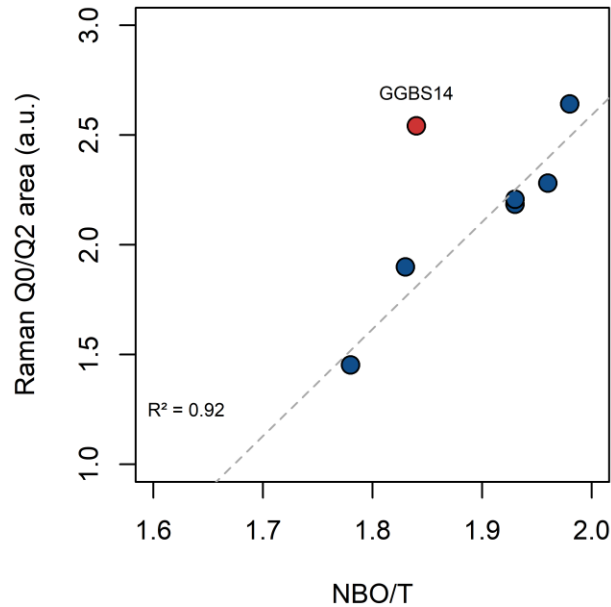
	NBO/T <sub>theor</sub>	Al/Si
<b>GGBS2</b>	1.93	0.39
<b>GGBS3</b>	1.98	0.30
<b>GGBS9</b>	1.83	0.35
<b>GGBS11</b>	1.96	0.38
<b>GGBS12</b>	1.93	0.37
<b>GGBS13</b>	1.78	0.34
<b>GGBS14</b>	1.84	0.47

Applying this equation to the composition of the studied slags yields the theoretical NBO/T values in Table 5. For the seven industrial slags, the theoretical NBO/T ranges from 1.78 to 1.98. Obviously this calculation is simplistic as it neglects all other potential network formers ( $Fe^{3+}$ ,  $Ti^{4+}$ , ...), and assumes an equivalent distribution of NBO on Si and Al tetrahedra. Recently, Le Cornec et al. [65] estimated a slightly different repartition of NBO on Si (on average  $Q^{2.06}$ ) and Al (on average  $Q^{2.67}$ ) on GGBS. Nevertheless, Eq. 1 takes into account the main oxides and gives a good estimate of the polymerization degree of the glass network.

#### 4.2 Evaluation of slag structure by time-resolved Raman spectroscopy

Theoretical NBO/T and  $Q^0/Q^2$  from Raman spectra follow the same trend (Figure 4). Linear regression between NBO/T and  $Q^0/Q^2$  ratios gave an  $R^2$  of 0.50. The only sample significantly deriving from this trend is GGBS14. Exclusion of this sample from the regression leads to an improved  $R^2$  of 0.92. This demonstrates that except for the sample with the highest Al content,

time-resolved Raman spectra deconvolution is sensitive to variations in the Si glass network polymerization in complex slag glasses.



**Figure 4. Experimental Raman Q<sup>0</sup>/Q<sup>2</sup> area ratio plotted against theoretical NBO/T. The dotted line represents a linear regression, excluding GGBS14.**

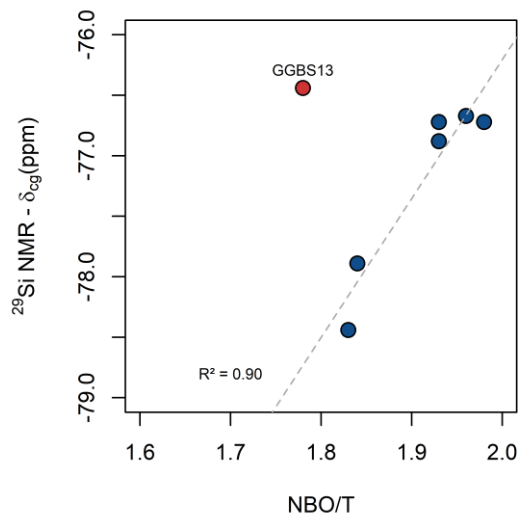
The main difference of GGBS14 with respect to the other samples is an increased Al/Si ratio of 0.47 compared to 0.30 to 0.39 in the other samples. In Raman spectra, Al-O-Si bonds fall in the range of Si-NBO [66, 67]. Aluminate stretching is reported to be weak compared to Si-O stretching so that the presence of aluminate bands is likely masked by silicate bands [30, 31, 60]. However, the presence of a weak Al-O-Si band can lead to an overestimation of NBO. The increased Al/Si ratio in GGBS14 thus might explain the difference from the regression line of the other samples. This illustrates that large variations in the Al/Si ratios of a glass limit the application of Raman spectra to detect variations in the degree of Si network polymerization.

Besides tetrahedron connectivity, the relative intensity of the Si-O bands is also influenced by the field strength of the compensation cation [31]. In slag glasses, the compensating cation are

mainly Ca and Mg. The substitution of Ca by Mg was reported to only slightly change Raman spectra of glasses, so that this influence can be excluded [33].

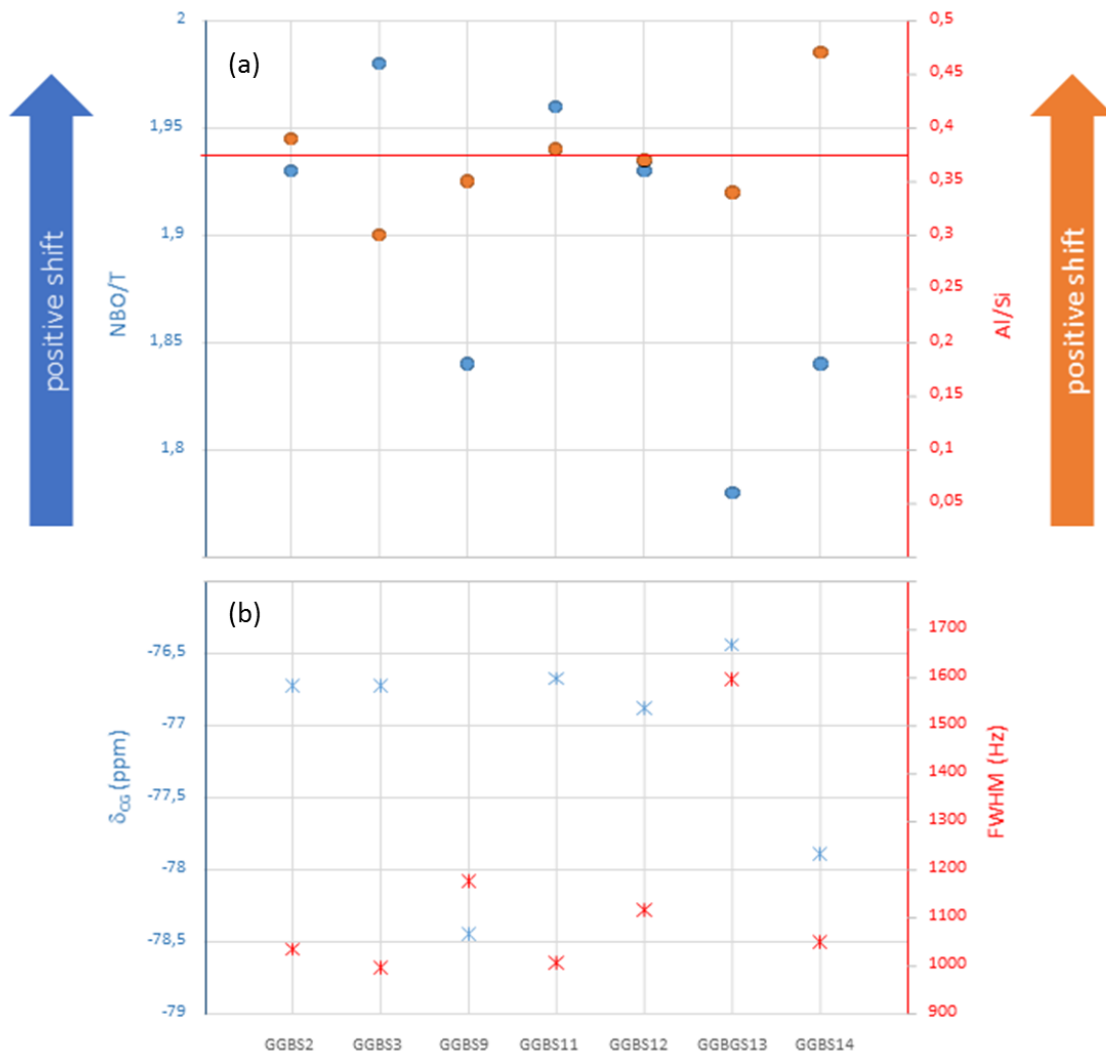
### 4.3 Description of the vitreous network of slag based on NMR data

All  $^{27}\text{Al}$  NMR spectra showed unambiguously that Al atoms are in a large majority four-fold coordinated to oxygen and contribute to the network polymerization. Moreover,  $\text{AlO}_4^-$  tetrahedra bind the alkaline cations and a part of the alkaline earth cations for their charge compensation, as indicated by the value of quadrupolar coupling constants ( $C_Q \approx 8$  kHz) [36, 45]. The quantity of alkaline earth cations responsible of network depolymerisation (NBO formation) is thereby reduced. Finally, the high  $^{27}\text{Al}$  chemical shift indicates the presence of NBO in the Al tetrahedral units, as would be expected for a depolymerized glass structure [30, 36]. The presence of  $\text{Al}_V$ , although weak (between 2 and 8%), could indicate some inhomogeneities in the vitreous network. Five-fold coordinated Al is generally observed in peraluminous glasses, i.e., when the amount of cations is not able to charge-balance all  $\text{AlO}_4^-$  so that electrical neutrality is achieved by a change in Al coordination [36]. Therefore,  $\text{Al}_V$  could be the sign of the presence of rich-aluminum domains.



**Figure 5.  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR  $\delta_{\text{CG}}$  plotted against theoretical NBO/T. The dotted line represents a linear regression, excluding GGBS13.**

In the complex case of industrial slags, the quantitative deconvolution of  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR spectra is impossible because of the wide variety of silicon environments and the absence of discontinuities on the signal. The  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR  $\delta_{\text{CG}}$  and NBO/T follow the same trend (Figure 5). Linear regression between NBO/T and  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR  $\delta_{\text{CG}}$  ratios gave an  $R^2$  of 0.90 if the value measured on GGBS13 is omitted, as it is tainted with paramagnetic effect. However, the  $^{29}\text{Si}$  chemical shift depends on many parameters in our systems. First, the bridging or non-bridging nature of the first coordination sphere oxygen atoms, defining the  $Q^n$  units [68]. All other things being equal, the breaking of an O-Si bond per tetrahedron induces a positive shift of 10 ppm [69]. Second, the substitution of a Si atom by an Al atom in the second sphere of coordination defining the  $Q^n(\text{mAl})$  induces a positive shift of 5 ppm [69], and third there is also an effect depending on the nature of the counter ions (alkaline or alkaline earth). To these main effects are added smaller shifts due to variations in angles and distances present in disordered networks [70]. Based on these considerations, the difference of the center of gravities ( $\delta_{\text{CG}}$ ) will be interpreted with respect to the two most influencing parameters: estimated NBO/T and Al/Si. Figure 6 represents  $\delta_{\text{CG}}$ , FWHM, NBO/T and Al/Si ratio for our GGBS samples.



**Figure 6. (a) Estimated NBO/T values from composition and Al/Si molar ratios of the different GGBS. (b) Gravity center and FWHM values from NMR analysis of the different GGBS. The red line corresponds to the mean effect observed for GGBS2 that was consider here as the reference.**

For our analyses, GGBS2 was arbitrary considered as the reference system.  $\delta_{CG}$  of GGBS3 is almost the same, due to two opposite effects: a negative shift due to lower Al/Si ratio implying a lower probability of the Si-O-Al bond, opposed to a positive shift because of higher estimated NBO/T. As a result, the GGBS3 network is less polymerized than that of GGBS2, contrary to what the position of the peak suggests. In the case of GGBS11 and GGBS12, the two effects are small and do almost completely compensate, it can be assumed that the degree of

polymerization of GGBS2, GGBS11 and GGBS12 are equivalent. In the case of GGBS9, both Al/Si and NBO/T are lower, inducing a negative shift. This explains the low measured  $\delta_{CG}$  and proves the higher degree of polymerization of the glass network. The situation should be the same for GGBS13, however the measured  $\delta_{CG}$  is close to that of GGBS2. This can probably be attributed to the paramagnetic interaction and confirms that NMR is not suitable for analysis of samples that contain > 1 wt.% of paramagnetic metal oxides. Finally, in the case of GGBS14, the higher Al/Si induces a positive shift opposite to the negative shift due to lower NBO/T. The more negative  $\delta_{CG}$  measured for GGBS14 is due to the higher effect of NBO/T and is coherent with a more polymerized network. The samples could then be ordered as followed GGBS3<GGBS2≈GGBS11≈GGBS12<GGBS14<GGBS9 from the less to the more polymerized alumino-silicate network.

#### **4.4 Comparison of Raman and NMR spectroscopic results**

Both spectroscopies gave data in line with theoretic NBO/T calculations. Therefore, we can state that there is no major derivation from known structural behaviors of main components in complex industrial slag glasses. However, the presence of a multitude of elements complicated spectroscopic analysis.

Luminescence effects overprinted traditional Raman signals. Time resolved Raman analysis allowed the acquisition of exploitable spectra, by circumventing luminescence effects, highlighting a potential application of this still rare technique. Spectra deconvolution was straightforward and gave a good first impression of the glass structure, especially as the acquisition time is low, in the order of minutes. However, the Raman signal of Si tetrahedra is superposed with a much weaker Al tetrahedron signal, that can false the interpretation if large variations of Al are present. A major drawback of Raman analysis is that it is complicated to fit the Raman bands of Al, the bands entirely overlap with the Si signals.

$^{27}\text{Al}$  NMR can conveniently investigate the Al environment in complex glasses, except in presence of high amount of paramagnetic nuclei. The coordination state can be determined and quantified from those spectra. Acquisition times for  $^{27}\text{Al}$  spectra was in the order of 1 hour.

Due to the low natural abundance of  $^{29}\text{Si}$  (4.7%), the acquisition of  $^{29}\text{Si}$  MAS spectra of our selected glass takes at least 24 h.  $^{29}\text{Si}$  chemical shift is sensitive to the composition of its second coordination sphere. Each environment induces a specific chemical shift in the range of -70 to -110 ppm. In the case of our slags, the multitude of possible silicon environments and the absence of discontinuities on the signal make spectra deconvolution impossible. Still the center of gravity of  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR spectra can be used to derive a rough impression of the polymerization degree of Si in complex glasses, especially for compositions with Al/Si ratio almost constant. As for  $^{27}\text{Al}$  spectra, the quality of  $^{29}\text{Si}$  spectra might be reduced by paramagnetic effects.

The degree of polymerization of the slag glasses derived from Raman spectroscopy, NMR spectroscopy and theoretical NBO/T calculations, did not directly correlate with the reactivity reported in [12]. This indicates that the glass structure, that is strongly linked to the dissolution rate of glasses, is not the only controlling factor of GGBS reactivity [20]. That is likely due to (1) the influence of the solution composition on dissolution rate [71] and (2) the differences in solution and hydrate stoichiometry that represent a supplementary control reactivity [12].

#### **4. Conclusion**

GGBS are glass by-products from pig iron production commonly used as supplementary cementitious materials in blended cements. In this study, experimental determination of their degree of glass network polymerization was attempted in order to contribute to the understanding of GGBS reactivity in blended cements. Based on composition and electroneutrality considerations, it is possible to estimate the degree of polymerization of vitreous GGBS network (NBO/T). This simplistic calculation gives a rapid, global view of the network, but is based on various hypotheses as the structural role of the different elements, the equivalent repartition of NBO on the tetrahedral and the structural homogeneity of the material.

Raman and NMR spectroscopies are widely used for structural characterization of glasses; however, they face difficulties in the case of industrial slag, containing a multitude of different elements. Traditional continuous Raman spectra of the GGBS are overprinted by strong luminescence effects for exciting wavelength of 355, 514, 633 and 785 nm, likely due to the presence of 3d transition-metals in the slag glasses (Sc to Cu). Time-resolved Raman analysis effectively eliminated the luminescence and allowed very fast acquisition (~1 min) of exploitable spectra for all industrial GGBS. Solid state NMR spectra acquisition are possible for all samples. However,  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR spectra, the most informative data for polymerization description necessitated at least 24h hours of acquisition and a rigorous signal treatment. For both Raman and NMR spectra, the deconvolution is tricky, even if a correlation of NBO/T with Raman  $Q_0/Q_2$  area and  $^{29}\text{Si}$   $\delta_{\text{CG}}$  NMR could follow an acceptable linear regression. However, both techniques underline that a rigorous interpretation of spectral data should take into account the presence of Al-O-Si bounds.

### **Acknowledgements**

This project has received funding from the Research Fund for Coal and Steel under grant agreement No 749809 (Actislag). The Renishaw Invia spectrometers were funded by the EquipeX PlaneX ANR-11-EQPX-36



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