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1 **Effects of curing cycles on developing strength and microstructure of**
2 **goethite-rich aluminosilicate (corroded laterite) based geopolymer**
3 **composites**

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5
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Effects of curing cycles on developing strength and microstructure of goethite-rich aluminosilicate (corroded laterite) based geopolymer composites

Abstract:

The present work carried out the influence of curing cycles on the performance of laterite-based geopolymer composites. To do so, the end products were obtained by altering laterite with 15, 20, and 25 wt.% of rice husk ash (RHA). Alkaline solution in a constant solid/liquid ratio of 0.35 was added together with fine and coarse aggregates (representing equal and double weight of laterite, respectively). The different obtained matrices were treated in the following three curing cycles before characterization: room temperature curing (RTC), oven curing at 80 °C (OTC) and controlled humidity steam curing at 80 °C (STC). The mechanical tests carried out at 28 days give the following maximum values for each curing mode: 16.40, 28.82 and 56.41 MPa for RTC, OTC, and STC modes respectively. This means that when the samples, submitted in a moisture-controlled environment, the end products are more stable, less porous and resistant. Regarding the physical properties, the results show that the maximum value of open porosity is 11.62 % corresponding to a matrix that was cured at room temperature without rice husk ash added, while the minimum value of 7% corresponds to a matrix that was cured under controlled humidity and containing 20% rice husk ash. The optimum and minimum absorption values are 2.70 and 4.60% respectively for the OTC and RTC curing modes. As for bulk densities, the optimum value is 2.64 g.cm⁻³ for the matrix having 15% rice husk ash and the minimum value is 2.33 g.cm⁻³ for a matrix having 20% rice husk ash, for OTC and STC curing modes respectively. The appropriate curing type for laterite-based geopolymer is when the humidity is controlled.

Keywords: laterite, curing cycles, quarry sand dust, rice husk ash, mechanical properties, microstructure, porosity

64 1. Introduction

65 Geopolymers are known as alternate binders and composites are obtained from a mixture
66 between an aluminosilicate material powder and an alkaline solution (NaOH, Na₂SiO₃ etc.) or
67 acid solution (H₃PO₄) at relatively low temperature (≤ 100 °C) [1-4]. Its structure consists of
68 repeating units of the chemical Si-O-Al, Si-O-Al-Fe and Si-O-Al-P bonds depending on the
69 characteristics of the solid precursors, conditions synthesis and reagents type used for their
70 production [5-9]. The current aluminosilicate materials largely used in the synthesis of
71 geopolymers are metakaolin obtained by dehydroxylation of kaolin and halloysite clays
72 heated in the range of 500-750 °C [2, 3, 10-13], fly ashes [14-16] and volcanic ashes [17, 18]
73 etc. Recently laterites have gained more attention and were used as potential solid precursors
74 for the synthesis of geopolymer binders and composites with the final properties correlating
75 with the synthesis conditions, curing process and their chemical and mineralogical
76 composition [1-3, 7, 19-26]. Most of the relevant above-mentioned published works have
77 focussed on calcined laterites between 500 and 700°C and few conducted on raw laterites.
78 From the literature, laterites are reddish and yellowish soils formed in tropical and sub-
79 tropical regions worldwide. They are formed through induration or laterization phenomenon
80 in which the kaolinite is corroded by iron minerals such as goethite, hematite, ilmenite, etc.
81 accompanied by the substitution of Al³⁺ in kaolinite octahedra site by Fe²⁺ or Fe³⁺ atoms
82 release by iron minerals [6, 7, 19, 25, 27]. This structural disorder that occurred in corroded
83 laterites affects their crystallinity and justified why this material does not need highly thermal
84 energy activation for their dehydroxylation compared to standard kaolin clay. Kaze et al. [19,
85 25] and Kamseu et al. [7], using raw corroded laterites without calcination in the presence of
86 amorphous silica from rice husk ash (15, 20, and 25 wt% by weight) in the laterite based
87 geopolymer composites synthesis to make low-cost, eco-friendly and environmentally
88 materials for the so-called synthesis under controlled relative humidity and curing cycles.
89 These authors also showed that the combined actions of reactive silica and fine quartz sand
90 necessary to polymerize free Al-, Si- and Fe- oligomer species within the iron-rich laterite
91 based geopolymer composite matrices by forming Na-poly-ferro-sialate (-Si-O-Al-Fe-) and
92 Na-poly-sialate(-Si-O-Al) binder phases required for the better connectivity or cohesion
93 between different particles or components in the matrix. Kamseu et al. [7] claimed that the
94 densification of laterite based geopolymer composite matrix from corroded laterite altered by
95 rice husk ash at different dosages, oven-cured at 90°C is related to the formation of strong Fe-
96 O-Si bonds leading to new formed phases like hinsingerite. The dense and compact

97 geopolymer matrix exhibited the interconnected pores which found potential application in
98 filtration or encapsulation of heavy metals. Whereas, Kaze et al. [25] claimed that the flexural
99 strength achieved in the range of 6-40 MPa was due to the formation of ferrisilicate that
100 improved the mechanical properties making this new cementitious material as potential
101 building materials.

102 To minimize the energy and calcination temperature of clayey materials, several authors
103 altered metakaolin by fine semi-crystalline materials such as feldspar, granite, sand [7, 28, 29]
104 for the synthesis of geopolymer composites. The resulting products developed high flexural
105 strength and well-densified matrix leading to the increase in amorphous geopolymer binder
106 from dissolution of fine aggregates in alkaline solution. Previously, Tchadjie et al. [30]
107 obtained 41 MPa from alkali-activated waste granite by alkaline fusion method. It is well
108 known that the need of aggregates (basalt, granite, gneiss, etc.) in concretes production
109 increased with infrastructures development especially in low-income as well as developed
110 countries. However, the production of aggregates scraps for the buildings construction release
111 sawdust which can cause silicosis when inhaled by humans or contaminates the soils [31]. On
112 the other hand, there is no efficient use (civil engineering application) of these aggregates'
113 sawdust released from quarry factories. Therefore, it is urgent to valorize these wastes to limit
114 their environmental impact. For environmental protection, this work firstly aimed to mix raw
115 iron-rich laterite/quarry sand dust as solid precursor altering by, 30, 40, and 50 wt% of rice
116 husk ash (RHA) for the production of low-cost materials for buildings purpose by applying
117 geopolymerization process under controlled humidity and curing cycle. In addition, the effects
118 of alkaline solution and curing cycles (room curing temperature (RTC), oven curing
119 temperature (OTC), and steam curing temperature (STC) on microstructural, physicochemical
120 and mechanical properties of laterite-based geopolymer composites samples were
121 investigated. When consider the room temperature curing, the humidity is easily controlled
122 but the temperature seems not to be enough for the efficient reactivity of iron. During oven
123 curing, the earlier evaporation of water is responsible for the development of interconnected
124 pores with limitation of the reactivity of iron. It is expected that, the control of humidity in the
125 range of temperature that favours the reactivity of iron, will improve the densification of
126 mechanical strength. The binder phases in different hardened products were assessed using
127 XRD, FTIR, DTA/TG and ESEM/EDS. The mechanical and physical properties were
128 obtained by means of flexural strength, water absorption, bulk density and apparent porosity.

129 The obtained results are interpreted by correlating the curing cycle types, microstructure and
130 mechanical strength.

131 2. Materials and experimental Technique

132 2.1 Materials and alkaline solution

133 The solid precursors, i.e., laterite and rice husk ash, were crushed and sieved down 63 μm .
134 Quarry sand dust was collected and sieved down 63 μm . The none passing particles of quarry
135 sand having size between 350 μm and 5.00 mm were used as aggregate. The laterite and
136 quarry sand were collected respectively at Emana and Akak in Yaoundé town, Centre Region
137 Cameroon. Whereas rice husk ash was obtained from the rice factory located in Ndop, North
138 West Region, Cameroon.

139 Alkaline solution was obtained by a mixture of a commercial sodium silicate solution
140 ($\%\text{Na}_2\text{O}$: 14.37; $\%\text{SiO}_2$: 29.54 and $\%\text{H}_2\text{O}$: 56.09, supplied by Prolabo Chemicals, France)
141 with an 8 mol/L of sodium hydroxide solution (obtained by diluting the pellets of commercial
142 NaOH with 99 % of purity, supplied by Prolabo Chemicals, France). The weight ratio of
143 sodium silicate to NaOH solution was equal to 2. The prepared alkaline solution was kept in
144 the laboratory for 24 h before used in order to depolymerize the long chain of silica species.

145 2.2 Elaboration of geopolymer composite samples: $\text{GL}_{1-y-z}\text{R}_y\text{F}_z\text{S}$

146 The laterite-based geopolymer composites were labelled $\text{GL}_{1-y-z}\text{R}_y\text{F}_z\text{S}$, where y represents
147 the weight percentage (wt.%) of rice husk ash (RHA) in total powders and 1-y-z the weight
148 percentage (wt.%) of laterite. z stands for the fixed percentage (50 wt.% of total powder) of
149 fine aggregate labelled F. The laterite-based-geopolymer composites were produced by firstly
150 mixing the solid precursors in a Hobert mixer until a homogeneous powder is obtained. The
151 alkaline solution was introduced in a liquid/solid ratio of 0.35 that allowed acceptable
152 workability and mixing for 5 min. Then the coarse quarry sand was added in powder (laterite
153 + rice husk ash + fine aggregates)/coarse aggregates ratio of 1/2 and the mix was once more
154 mixed for another 5min. The resulting geopolymer composite pastes from each formulation
155 poured into parallelepipedal moulds with dimensions of 80 x 20 x 20 mm. The details for the
156 mix design and synthesis of laterite based geopolymer composites are given in Table 1. The
157 obtained samples were subjected to three different types of curing: Room temperature curing
158 (RTC), Oven temperature curing (OTC) at 80°C, and Steam temperature curing (STC) (under
159 controlled relative humidity). For the room temperature curing, the samples were placed at
160 room temperature after demoulding until mechanical test performed. In case of oven curing,

161 48 h keeping at room temperature after moulding, the samples were placed in the oven and
 162 removed 24 hours later before being removed from the moulds. Finally, for hydrothermal
 163 curing, 48 h after moulding, the samples were placed in a steam curing chamber at 80 °C with
 164 controlled humidity (65 %) for about 7 h. All the laterite-based geopolymer composite
 165 samples obtained from different curing regimes were subjected to flexural strength
 166 measurements, porosity, water absorption, bulk density after 28 days.

167 Table 1: Geopolymer composite compositions

Mixture ID	L (g) laterite	RHA (g) Rice husk ash	Fine Quarry Sand(g)	Coarse Aggregates (g)	Alkaline solution (g)
GL _{0.5} R ₀ F _{0.5} S	50	0	50	100	35
GL _{0.35} R _{0.15} F _{0.5} S	35	15	50	100	35
GL _{0.3} R _{0.2} F _{0.5} S	30	20	50	100	35
GL _{0.25} R _{0.25} F _{0.5} S	25	25	50	100	35

168 2.3 Characterization methods

169 2.3.1 Chemical and thermal characterization

170 2.3.1.1 X-ray Fluorescence

171 The X-ray fluorescence is an analysis that permits to find out the chemical
 172 composition of the sample. The chemical compositions of raw materials (laterite, rice husk
 173 ash, quarry sand) were determined using a Zetium PANATICAL apparatus at a power of 1
 174 KW. Before carried out the analysis, each sample powder was mixed with lithium borate salt
 175 and vitrified within a Pt crucible at 1600 °C.

176 2.3.1.1 Thermal and gravimetry analysis

177 Differential Thermal Analysis (DTA) coupled with Thermogravimetry analysis (TG) is an
 178 analytical technique that allows changes in the physicochemical states of compounds
 179 subjected to temperature variations. These changes are manifested by exothermic or
 180 endothermic phenomena. DTA measures the evolution of the temperature difference between
 181 the sample and an inert control body, thus indicating the different thermal phenomena. The
 182 coupling with the TG, which measures mass losses as a function of temperature, makes it
 183 possible to determine the contribution of the different peaks. The thermal analysis was
 184 measured using the "SDT Q600 from TA instruments". The material analyses were carried
 185 out under the following conditions: between 30 and 900 °C at a speed of 5°C/min for 15min;
 186 about 30 mg was introduced into a platinum crucible under air flushing. The sample and the
 187 reference were placed in two identical platinum crucibles.

188 2.3.1.3 X-ray Diffraction

189 The X-ray diffraction is a structural analysis based on the interactions between X-ray
190 and matter. It is consisting of sending a beam of X-ray of wavelength λ on a sample. When
191 the wavelength is the same order of that of magnitude at the inter-reticular distance (d), the
192 beam is diffracted by the crystal plane according to Bragg's equation: $2d_{hkl}\sin\theta = n\lambda$.
193 Scattered rays interfere and lead to the phenomenon. The pieces collected from mechanical
194 testing of each product formed (laterite-based geopolymer composites) were ground and
195 sieved through 63 μm . The obtained powders and the raw materials were subjected to XRD
196 analysis to identify the mineral phases formed and those contained in raw materials and end
197 products. The different diffractograms corresponding to each formulation were obtained on a
198 D8 DAVINCI apparatus using $\text{Cu}\alpha$ radiation ($\lambda = 1.54186\text{\AA}$) and a graphite backside
199 monochromator. The analysis range was between 5° and 50° with a step of 0.02 and an
200 acquisition time of 2s. The crystalline phases present in the raw materials and geopolymers
201 were identified using EVA software.

202 2.3.1.4 Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy FTIR

203 FTIR spectroscopy is an analytical technique based on the absorption phenomenon
204 that occurs when infrared radiation passes through the material. This is then observed
205 selectively, depending on the excited vibrations of the sample. Indeed, each molecule or
206 group constituting the material has vibration levels corresponding to precise energies. When
207 the molecule is excited at its own vibration energy, it absorbs the incident energy, thus
208 allowing the study of the different bonds present in the material. Infrared spectroscopy
209 measurements are carried out in transmittance mode before being processed in absorbance
210 mode by a spectrometer such as the "Thermo Fischer Scientific Nicolet 380". The pellets were
211 obtained by making a well-milled mixture containing 0.1 g of KBr and a fine quantity of
212 material powder, the whole being introduced into a cell and pressed up to 10 tons. The
213 resulting pellet was placed in the apparatus for characterization. Acquisitions were recorded
214 between 500 cm^{-1} and 4000 cm^{-1} . The number of scans was 64 and the resolution 4 cm^{-1} . The
215 OMNIC software is then used for data acquisition and processing. In order to eliminate the
216 contributions of CO_2 from the air present on each spectrum, these are corrected by a straight
217 line between 2400 and 2280 cm^{-1} .

218 2.3.2 Physico-chemical and mechanical properties

219 2.3.2.1 Water absorption, Apparent porosity, and Bulk density

220 Water absorption, apparent density, and apparent porosity are characteristics that permit to
221 evaluated the physical parameters of samples. There have been calculated according to the
222 standard ASTM C373-88. The samples were firstly dried in an oven at 105°C 24h until the
223 mass constant (M_1). After that, the samples have been impregnated in water for another 24h.
224 Then, saturated mass (M_2), and suspended mass (M_3) have been determined. The physical
225 properties are obtained using the following equations (1), (2), (3) respectively for water
226 absorption (WA), apparent porosity (AP), and bulk density (BD). This test was carried out
227 according to ASTM standard [32].

$$228 \quad WA = \frac{M_2 - M_1}{M_1} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

$$229 \quad AP = \frac{M_2 - M_1}{M_2 - M_3} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

$$230 \quad BD = \frac{M_1}{M_2 - M_3} \times \rho(\text{water})$$

231 2.3.2.2 Flexural strength

232 Flexural strength σ represents the ability of a material to bending stress. The different
233 values of strength have been obtained using equation (4).

$$234 \quad \sigma = \frac{3Fd}{2le^2} \quad (4)$$

235 σ (MPa), e (mm), l (mm), F (N)

236 2.3.3 Mercury intrusion porosimetry and Microstructural characteristics

237 After measurements of flexural strength, some fragments were collected for the
238 microstructural observation using an Environmental Scanning Electron Microscope. The
239 others for the (MIP) analysis.

240 2.3.3.1 Mercury intrusion porosimetry

241 Pieces collected from different formulations after the three-point bending test were
242 used to prepare specimens for the MIP (AutoPore IV 9500 V1.09) tests using 1 high-pressure
243 analysis port (33,000 psia maximum pressure) and 2 low-pressure analysis ports. Each
244 specimen was put in a penetrometer with 15 mL sample cup and steam volume of 1.1 mL

245 (The steam volume depends of the penetrometer used for this study used one with steam
 246 volume 1.1). The total pore volume was evaluated using the set-time equilibrium (10 sec)
 247 mode between pressure limits of 345 kPa and 228 MPa covering the pore diameter range from
 248 approximately 0.0055 to 360 μm .

249 2.3.3.2 Environmental Scanning Electron Microscope

250 The Environment Scanning Electron Microscope (ESEM, Quanta200, FEI) was
 251 adopted as the most suitable technique for the study of the morphology of both metakaolin
 252 and meta-halloysite-based geopolymer products with the advantage that the relative humidity
 253 can be controlled by both the water vapor pressure and the temperature in the ESEM-
 254 chamber. This observation approach permits avoiding the influence of cracks from the drying
 255 process necessary when the high vacuum SEM is used.

256 3. Results and discussion

257 3.1 Characterization of raw materials

258 3.1.1 Fluorescence X-ray analysis

259 Table 2: Chemical compositions of raw laterite, rice husk ash, and fine quarry sand.

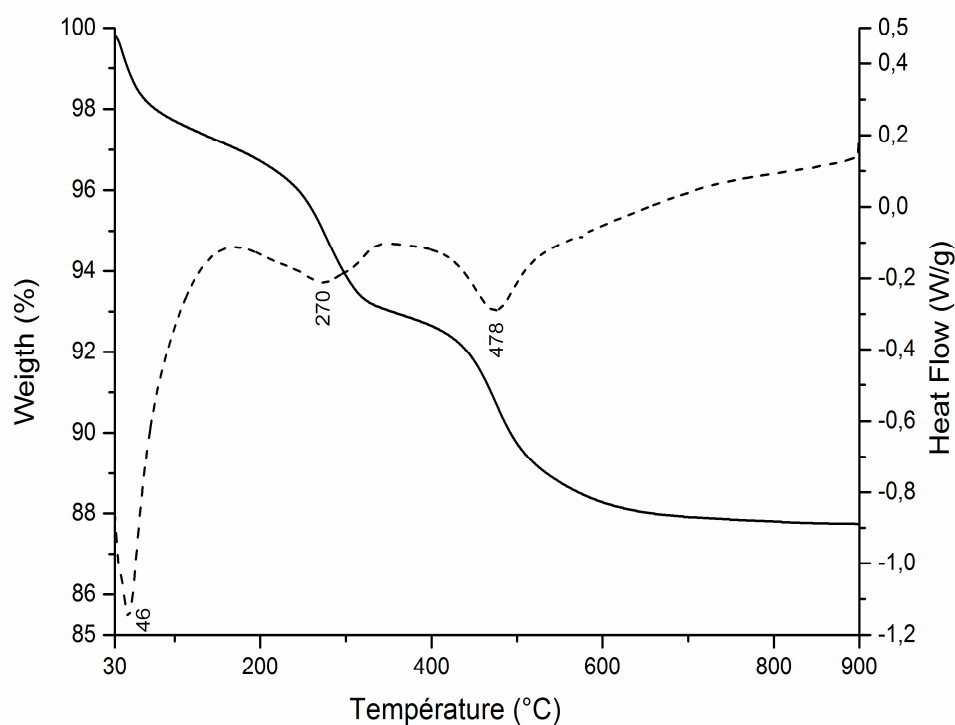
Oxides (wt. %)	Raw Laterite (LAT)	Rice husk ash (RHA)	Fine Quarry sand (QS)
Al ₂ O ₃	17.93	0.52	16.33
SiO ₂	25.30	87.01	53.87
P ₂ O ₅	0.18	1.03	0.25
S ₃ O	0.05	0.18	1.09
K ₂ O	0.12	3.03	2.68
CaO	0.07	0.58	2.18
TiO ₂	1.21	/	1.73
Fe ₂ O ₃	41.28	0.50	15.10
Na ₂ O	/	/	1.17
MgO	/	/	3.81
MnO	/	/	0.27
Others	0.38	0.55	0.12
L.O.I (loss on ignition)	13.48	6.60	1.40
Al/Si	0.83	0.01	0.36

260 The chemical compositions of laterite, fine quarry sand and rice husk ash (RHA) are
 261 tabulated in Table 2. It is observed that laterite is composed of 41.28 % of Fe₂O₃; 25.30 % of
 262 SiO₂ and 17.93 % Al₂O₃ as major oxides. These major oxides are well known as good
 263 precursor of geopolymer binders suggesting that laterite is suitable for the synthesis of
 264 inorganic polymer cements [19]. Fine quarry sand is mainly constituted of 53.90 % of SiO₂,
 265 16.33 % of Al₂O₃ and 15.10 % Fe₂O₃; with low percentages of MgO (3.80%), CaO (2.20 %)
 266 and K₂O (2.70%). Rice husk ash (RHA) used as reactive silica source is mainly composed of

267 87,01 % of SiO₂. The laterite used in this study present a sum of Al₂O₃+Fe₂O₃+SiO₂= 85wt%
268 largely>80wt% recommended for the solid precursor of geopolymers [19]. Moreover, the
269 amount of kaolinite is 36wt% (major fraction with disordered structure due to the corrosion of
270 kaolinite by iron minerals). This clayey material with high potential reactivity in alkaline
271 solution is accompanied with 31 wt% of goethite knowing for their good reactivity in the
272 presence of soluble silica [19, 25, 33, 34]. This justifies the use of rice husk ash which has the
273 role to provide soluble silica into the formulation. Powder sand here is acting as filler for
274 achievement of densified structure.

275 3.1.2 Thermogravimetric analysis

276 The simultaneous thermogravimetric (TG/DTA) curves of the raw laterite are given in
277 Figure 1. The TG curve shows three endothermic peaks which characterize weight losses
278 recorded at 200, 350, and 650 °C, respectively. The first weight loss of 3% located at 46°C
279 can be attributed to the release of free or physisorbed water. At 270 °C the second
280 endothermic peak corresponds to the dehydroxylation of goethite into hematite followed by 3
281 % of mass loss recorded on TG curve. Finally, at 478 °C, the third endothermic peak exhibits
282 5% loss in mass (recorded in TG curve) corresponding to the dehydroxylation of kaolinite
283 into metakaolinite. The peak of the dehydroxylation of kaolinite generally appears in the
284 range of 520-550 °C [19, 35, 36]. This low value recorded on DTA curve can be explained by
285 the fact that the actual laterite is highly corroded by the iron minerals. Therefore, the level of
286 disorder in laterite makes their structure weaker under thermal treatment.



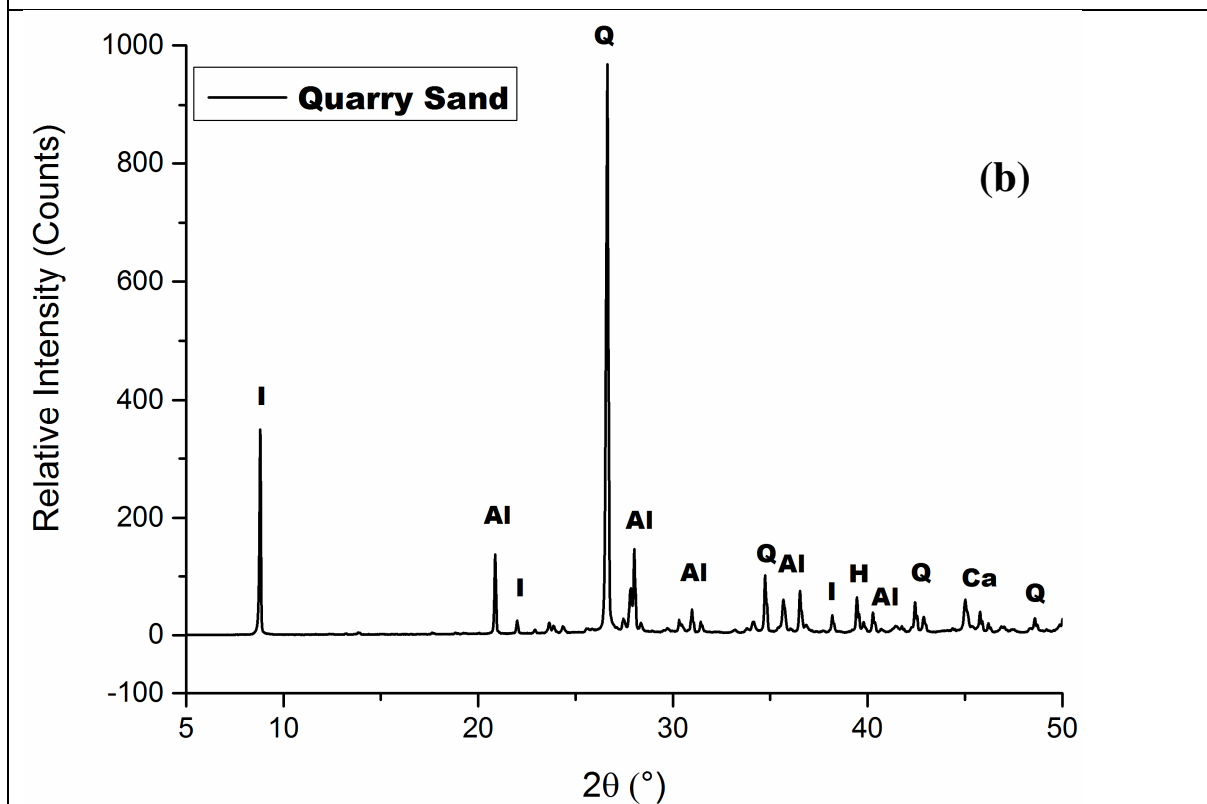
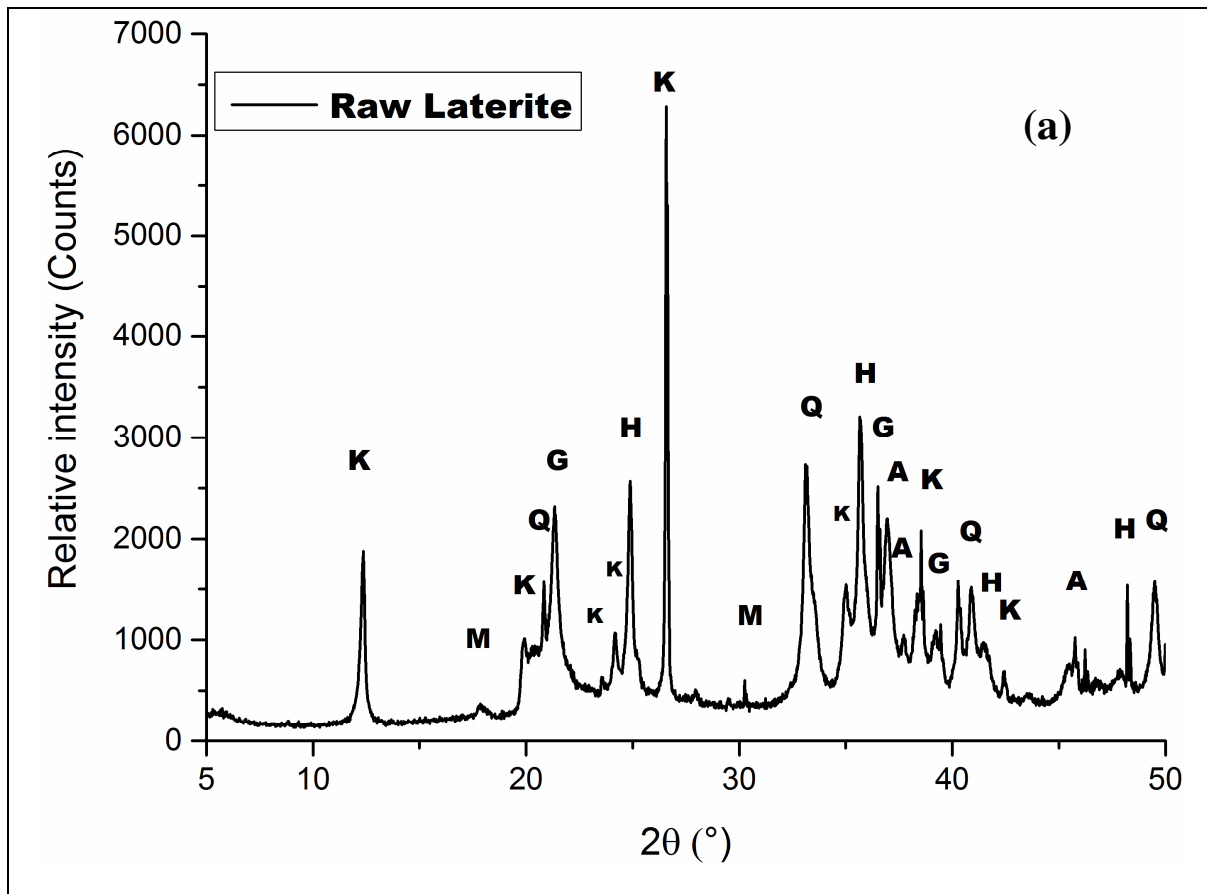
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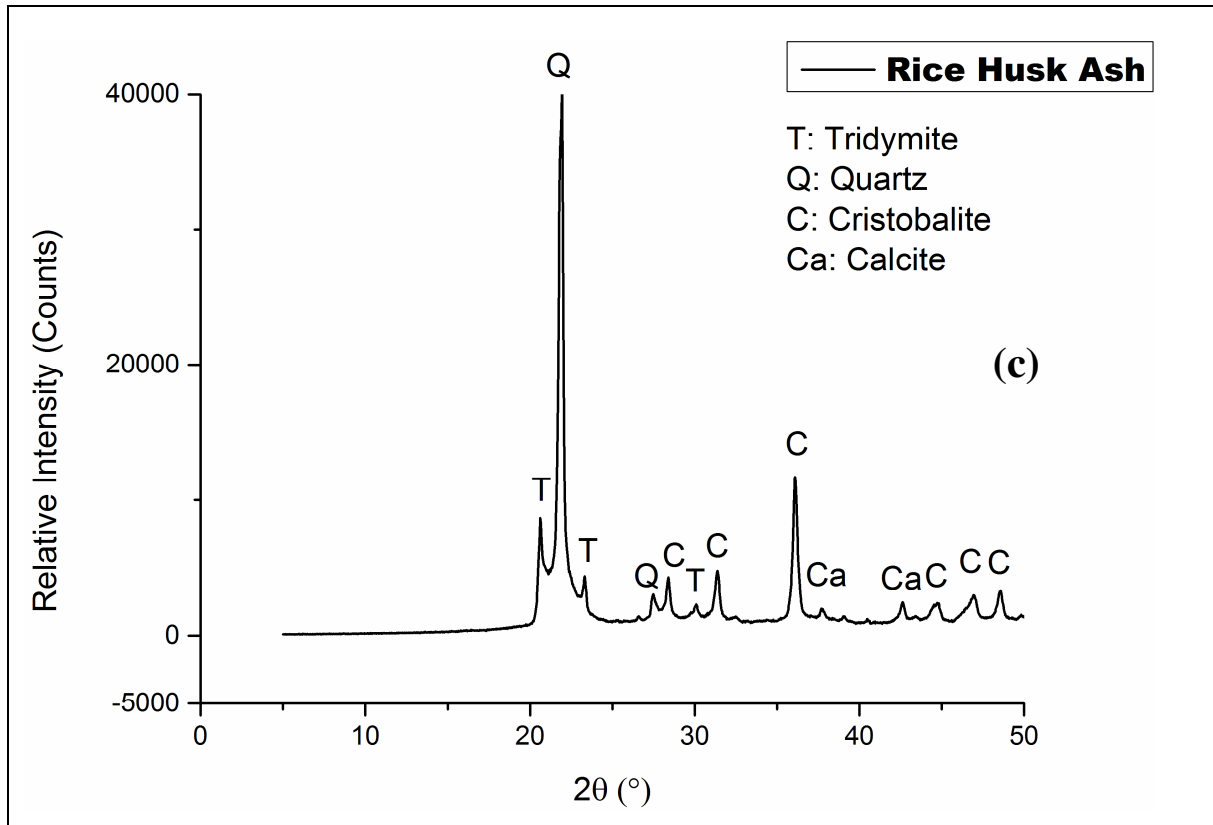
288 Figure 1. Differential thermal and thermogravimetry analysis of raw laterite.

289 3.1.3 X-Ray Diffraction analysis

290 The analysis of the different X-ray patterns illustrates the mineralogical phases
 291 contained in the raw materials. From Figure 2, the main mineral phases present in the raw
 292 laterite are quartz (SiO_2 , (Q) PDF# 04-006-1757), hematite ($\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$, (H) PDF# 04-015-
 293 9569), kaolinite ($\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4$, (K) PDF# 00-005-0143), goethite ($\alpha\text{-FeO}(\text{OH})$, (G) PDF#
 294 04-015-8212), maghemite ($\gamma\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$, (M) PDF# 04-021-3968) and anatase (TiO_2 , (A) PDF#
 295 04-014-0490) (Figure 2a).

296 The quarry sand contains illite ($(\text{K},\text{H}_3\text{O})(\text{Al},\text{Mg},\text{Fe})_2(\text{Si},\text{Al})_4\text{O}_{10}[(\text{OH})_2,(\text{H}_2\text{O})]$, (I)
 297 PDF# 04-021-0353), albite (Al) PDF# 00-020-0548), quartz (SiO_2 , (Q) PDF# 04-006-1757),
 298 hematite ($\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$, (H) PDF# 04-015-9569) and calcite (CaCO_3 (Ca), PDF# 04-020-5889, 04-
 299 008-0212) (Figure 2b). Figure 2c highlights the presence of the following mineral phases
 300 contained in rice husk ash: quartz (SiO_2 , (Q) PDF# 04-006-1757), tridymite (SiO_2 , (T) PDF#
 301 04-012-1133) and cristobalite (SiO_2 , (C) PDF# 04-012-1126).



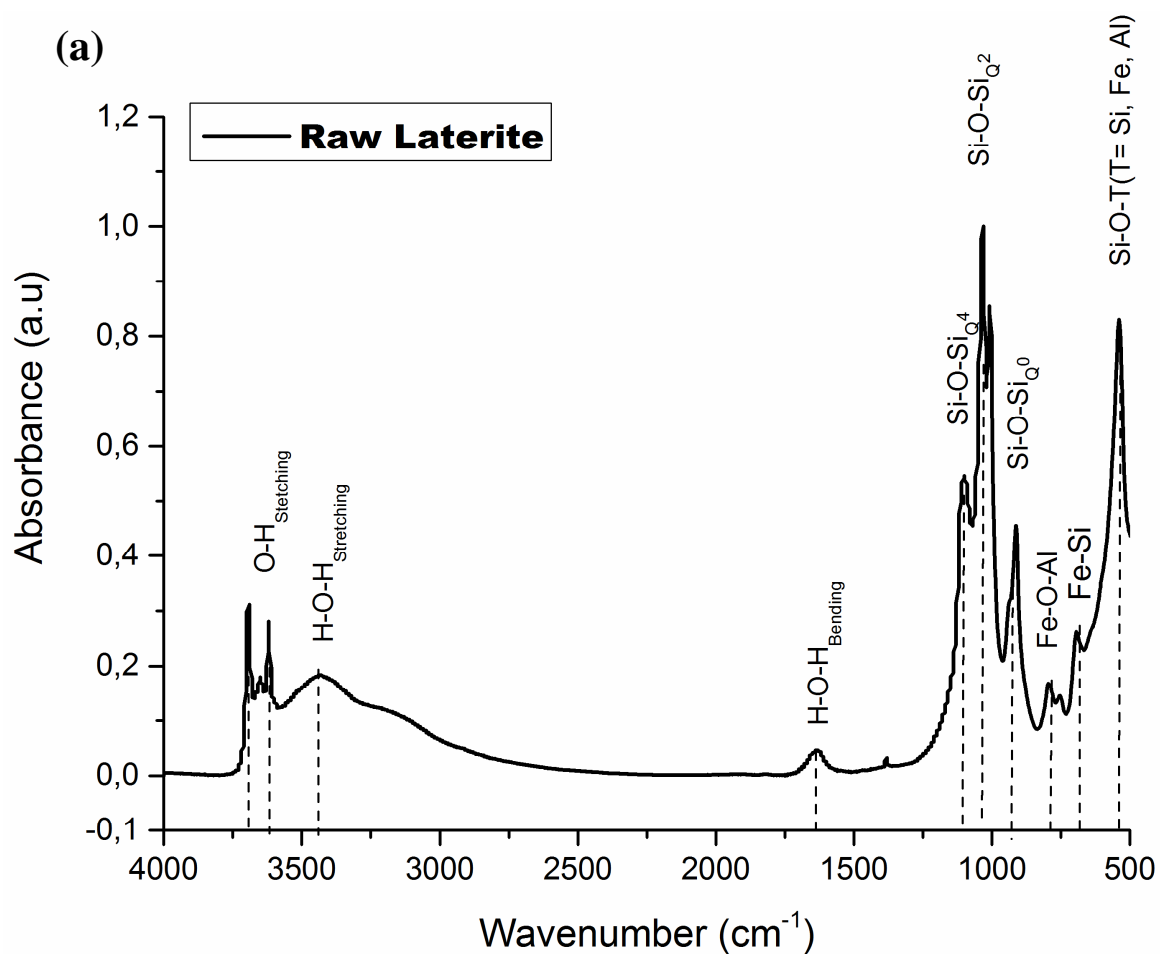


302 Figure 2. X-ray diffractograms of (a) raw laterite, (b) rice husk ash and (c) quarry sand. PDF
 303 files: Q (04-006-1757); H (04-015-9569); G (04-015-8212); K (00-005-0143); M (04-021-
 304 3968); A (04-014-0490); I (04- 021-0353); Ca (04-020-5889); C (04-012-1126); T (04-012-
 305 1133); Al (00-020-0548).

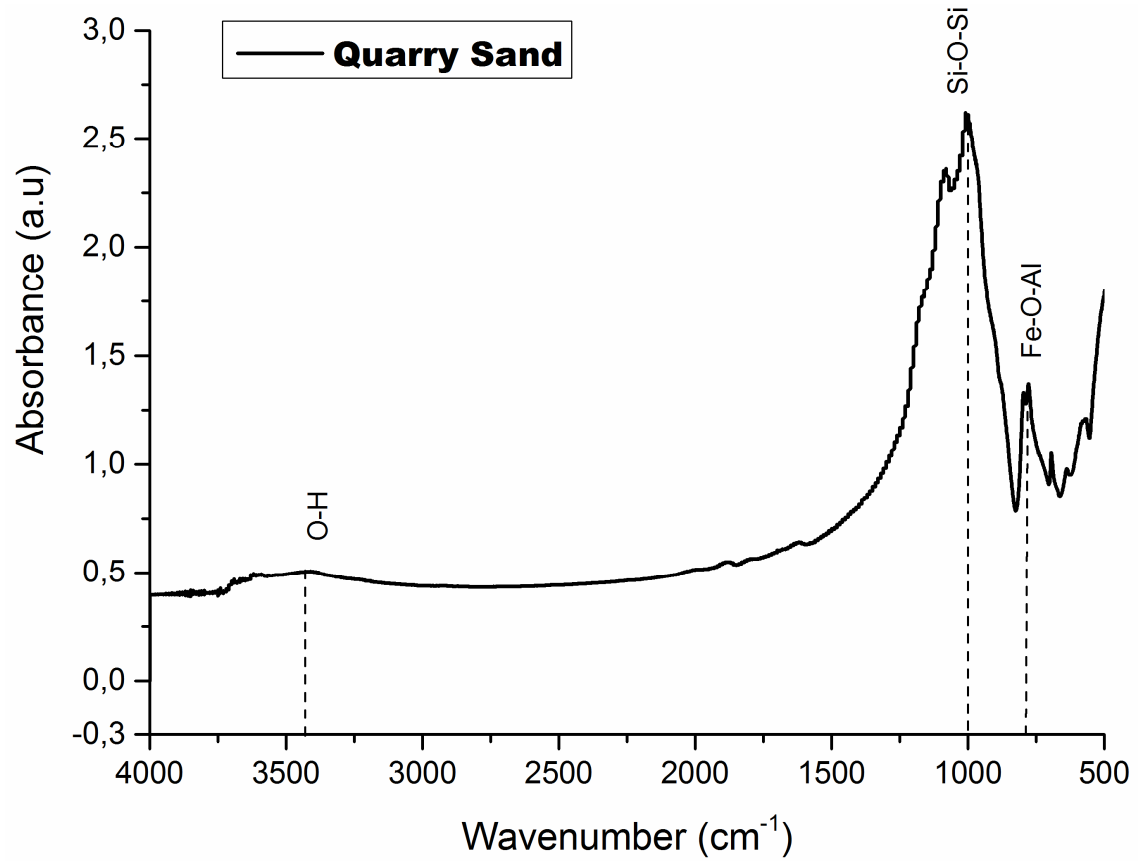
306 3.1.4 Fourier transform infra-red spectroscopy

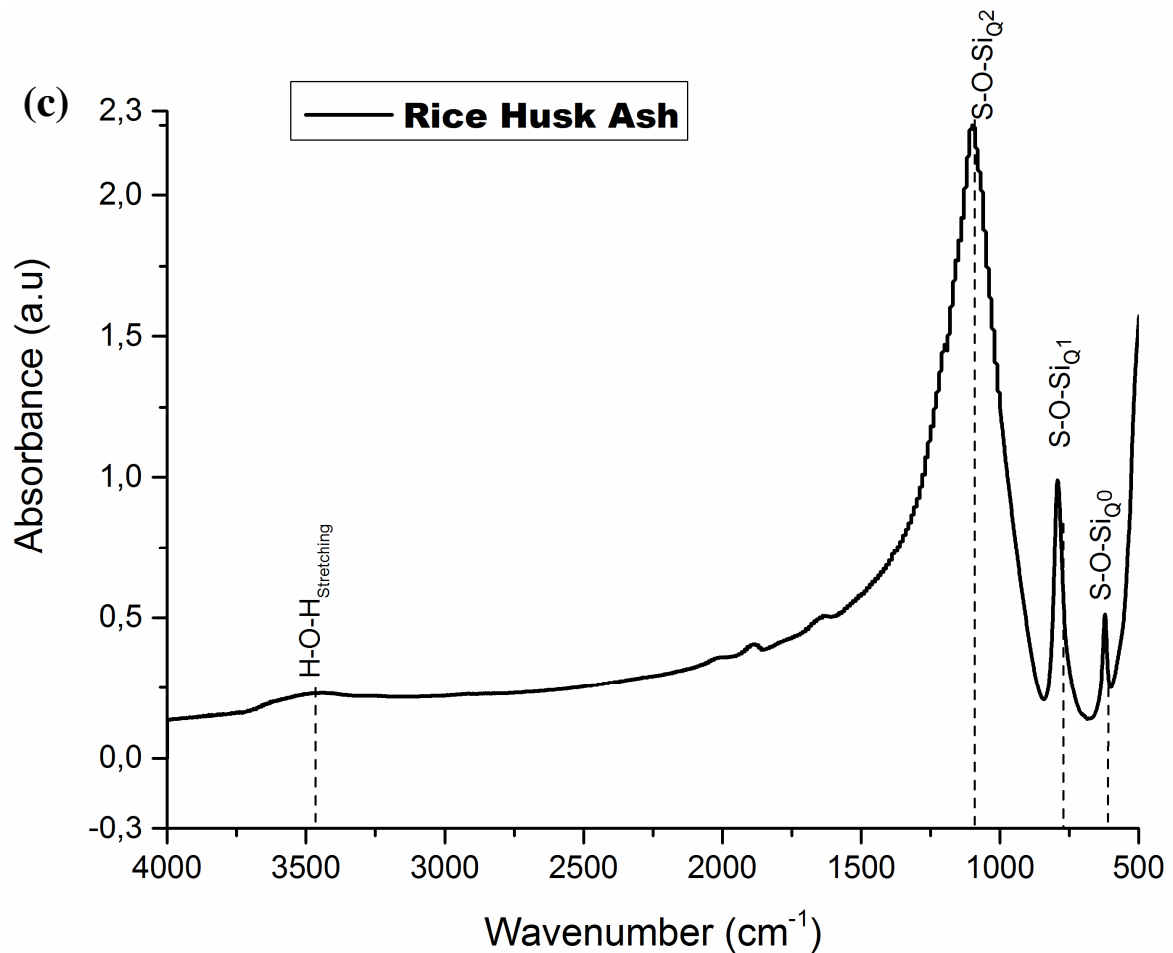
307 Figures 3 exhibits the infrared spectra of laterite, rice husk ash, and quarry sand
 308 respectively. These infrared spectra reveal several important absorption bands. The first bands
 309 between $3700\text{-}3600\text{ cm}^{-1}$ indicates the presence of H-O stretching bonds linked to Al-OH and
 310 Fe-OH belonging to kaolinite and goethite respectively [2, 3, 19]; the second bands at 3450
 311 and 1630 cm^{-1} are attributed to the H-O stretching and bending bonds of water molecules
 312 respectively, the third bands between 1100 and 918 cm^{-1} are attributed to the Si-O-M bonds
 313 (M= Si, Al, and Fe) the fourth band at 794 cm^{-1} is related to the Fe-O-Al bond and the last
 314 band bands between $538\text{-}476\text{ cm}^{-1}$ are assigned to the Fe-O-Si bonds corresponding to the
 315 vibrating bonds of goethite and hematite [19, 23, 25, 35]. The rice husk ash spectrum (Figure
 316 3b) shows the absorption bands at 1101, 985 and 694 cm^{-1} which correspond respectively to
 317 Si-O-Si (Q^3 , Q^2 and Q^0) [37, 38]. Figure 3c describes the infrared spectrum of quarry sand. It
 318 shows three main bands, the first band at 3490 cm^{-1} is attributed to the O-H stretching, the

319 second band located at 1080 cm^{-1} is linked to the vibration mode of Si-O-Si bond. The last
320 band appearing at 796 cm^{-1} is attributed to the Fe-O-Al bonds [3, 7, 20, 35, 39].



(b)





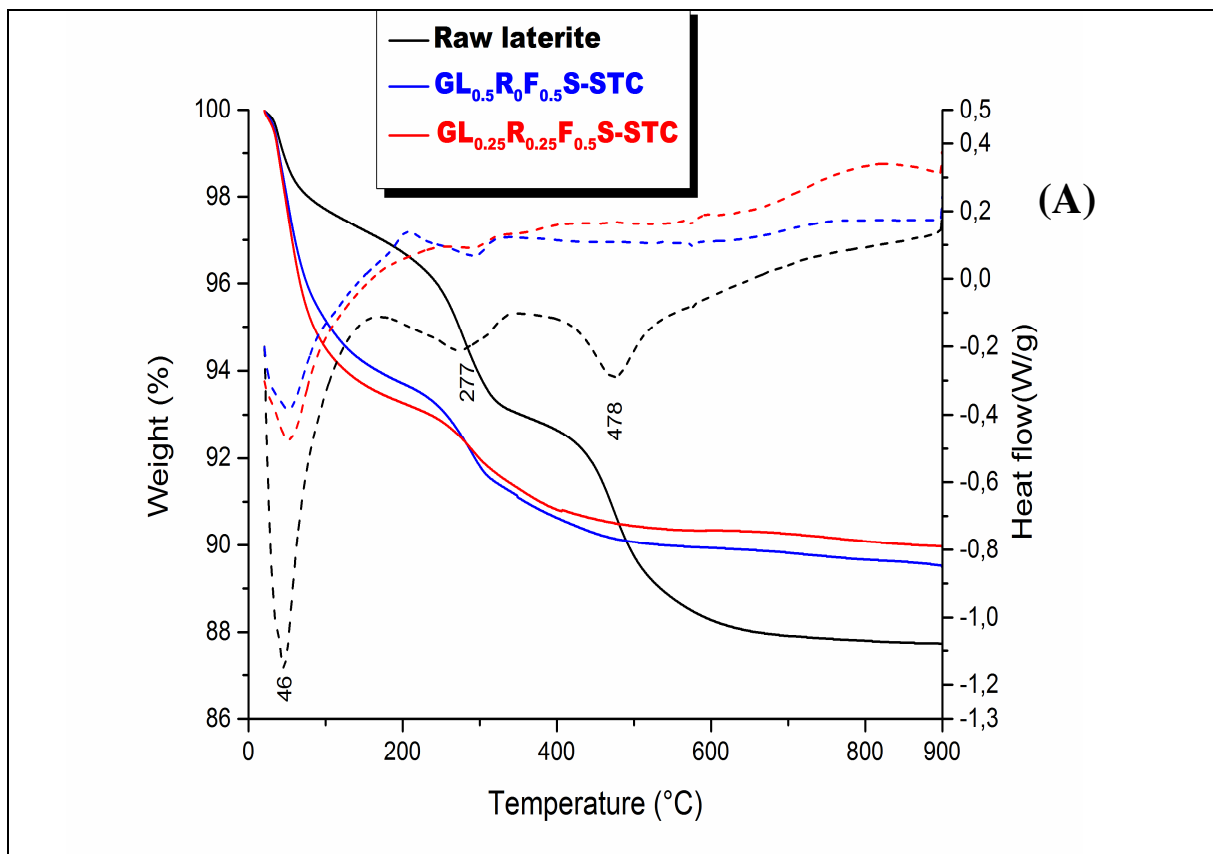
321 Figure 3. FTIR spectra of (a) raw laterite, (b) quarry sand and (c) rice husk ash.

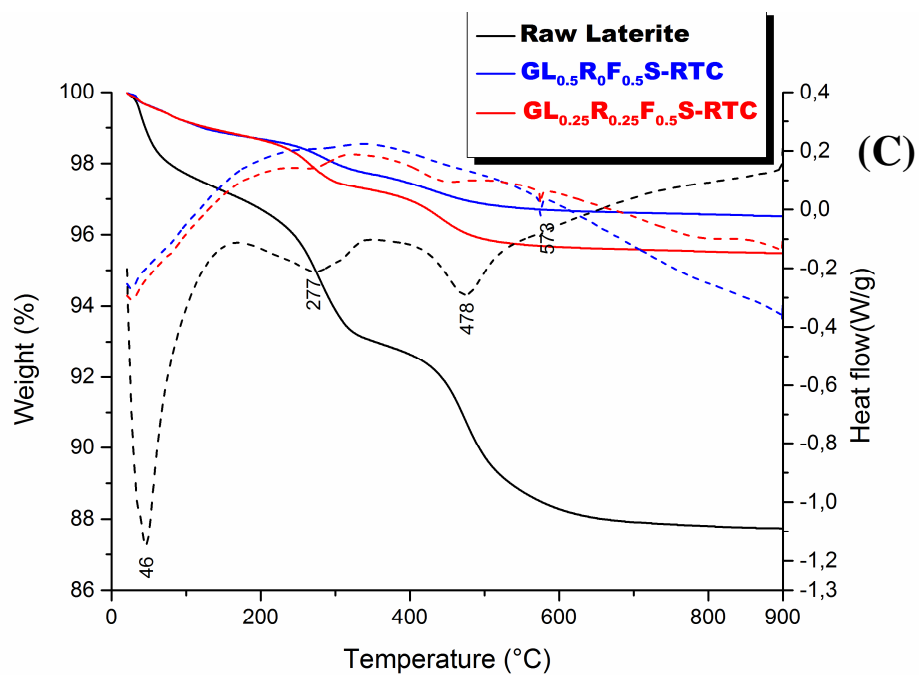
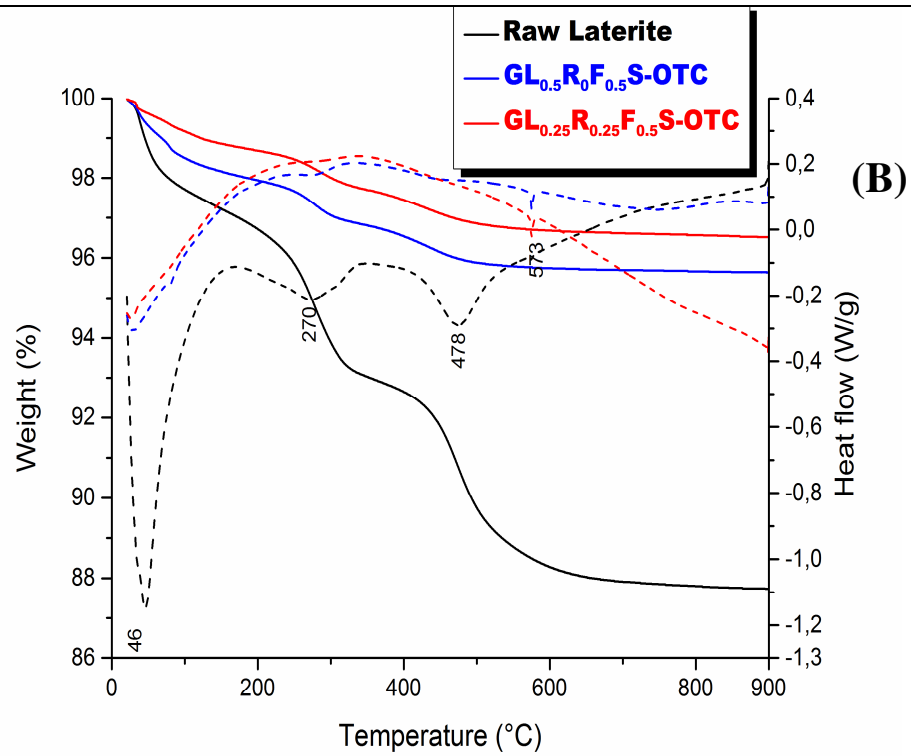
322 3.2 Characterisation of geopolymer composites

323 3.2.1 Phases evolution

324 Figure 4 highlights the simultaneous TG-DTA curves exhibiting the behavior of
 325 geopolymer composites undergone at different curing cycles: (a) steam curing chamber
 326 (STC), (b) room temperature curing (RTC) and (c) outside curing temperature (OTC). From
 327 Figure 4, the TG curves are represented in solid lines and the DTA curves in dashed lines.
 328 These curves of geopolymer composites show a unique important endothermic peak
 329 appearing at 46°C. This endothermic peak is linked to free water present in the geopolymer
 330 matrix. The geopolymer matrix is generally considered as a hydrophobic material with
 331 capacity to fix instantly the humidity. This humidity is removed as soon as the temperature is
 332 higher respecting the standard room temperature. The small endothermic peak presents at 277
 333 °C suggests the residual goethite mineral compound that did not participate to the reaction of
 334 geopolymerization. Conversely, the dehydroxylation peak of kaolinite has completely

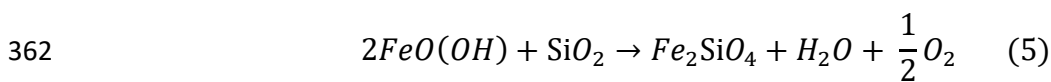
335 disappeared during the reaction, demonstrating the complete reactivity of kaolinite. Apart
 336 from the weight loss due to the physisorbed water (7%) and that of the goethite (2%), the
 337 matrix of geopolymer composites remains stable up to 900°C. This behavior is in agreement
 338 with the finding of the literature [19,25]. When applied oven and ambient temperature curing
 339 (RTC), the geopolymer sample exhibits an endothermic peak at 573 °C which is attributed to
 340 the α , β quartz transformation [37]. In case of RTC or OTC, the final product of
 341 geopolymerization still exhibit quartz grains under thermal treatment (Figure4b, c). While
 342 with steam curing, no evidence of quartz was observed (Figure 4a). The possible
 343 interpretation is to suggest the surface dissolution of quartz occurred when the temperature of
 344 80°C is combined with high level of humidity. Thus, enhancing the chemical bond
 345 development between quartz and geopolymer gel contributing to the densification of
 346 geopolymer composite structures [28, 40].



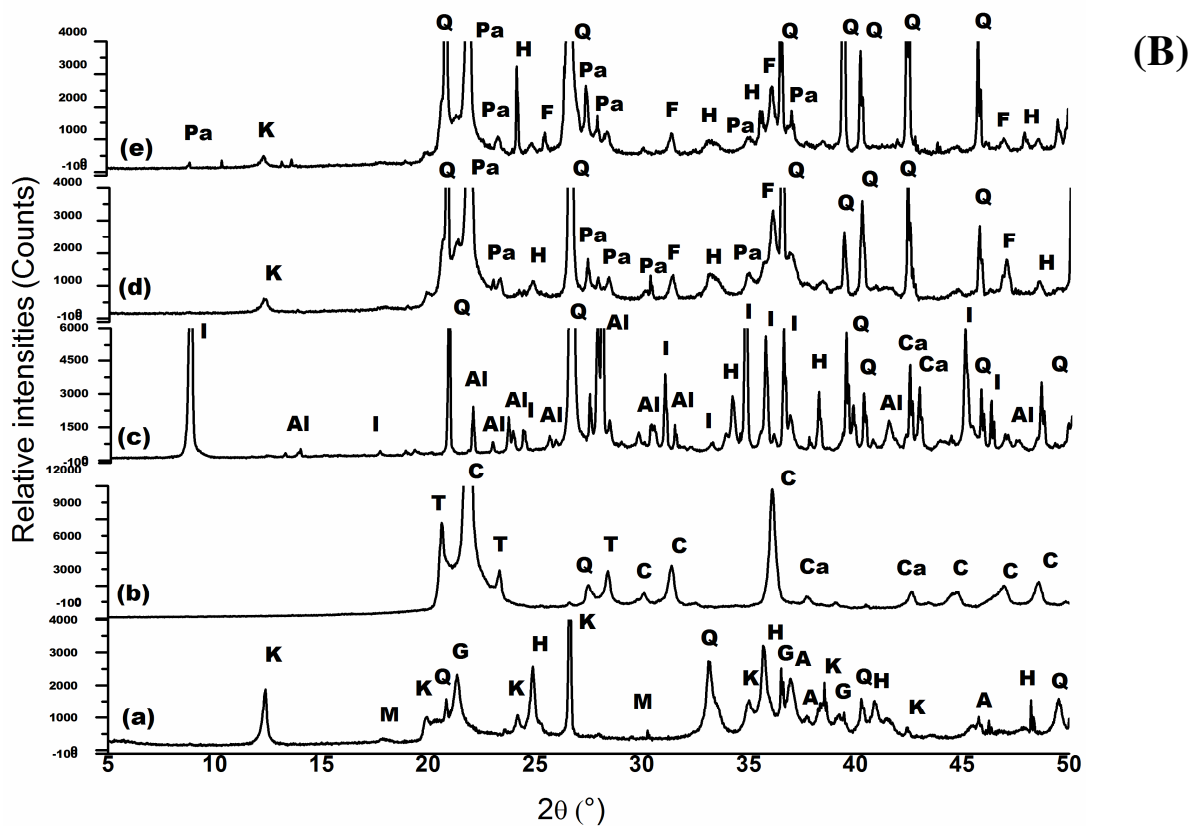
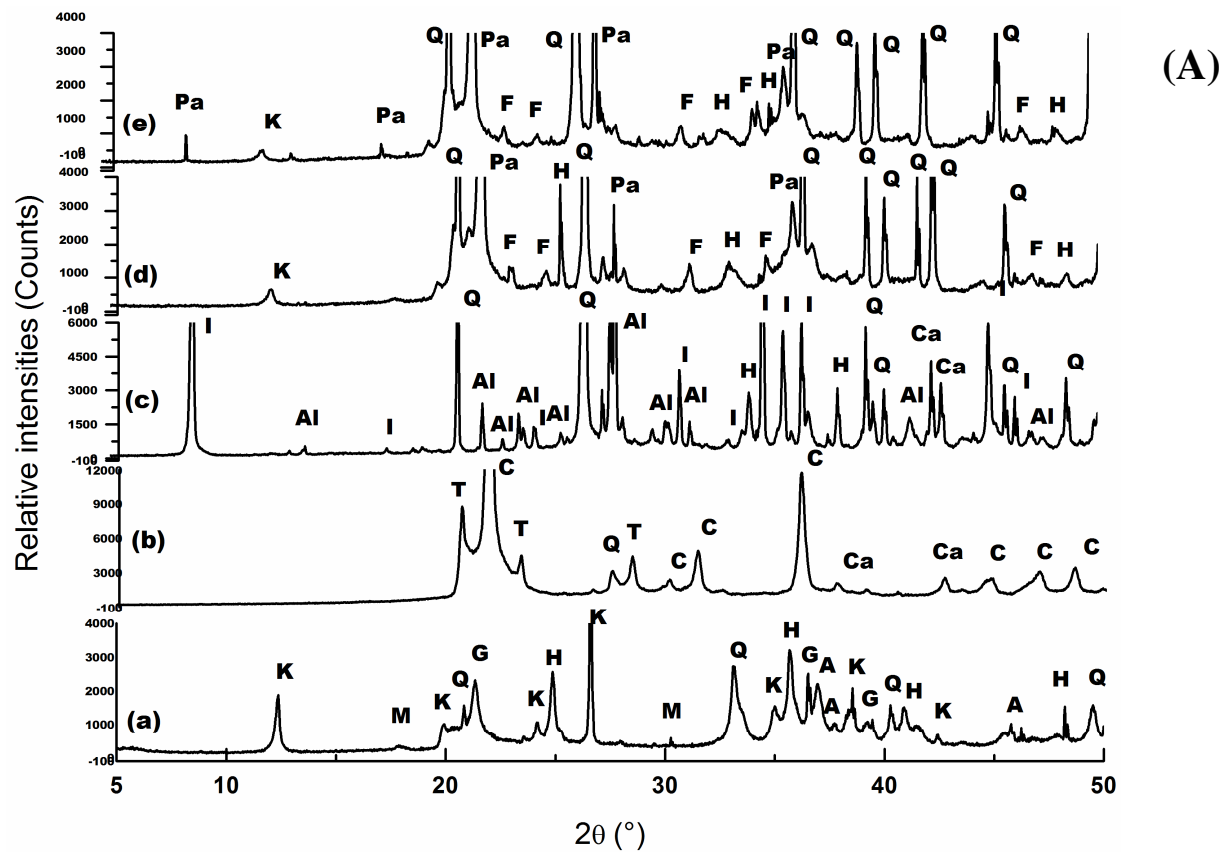


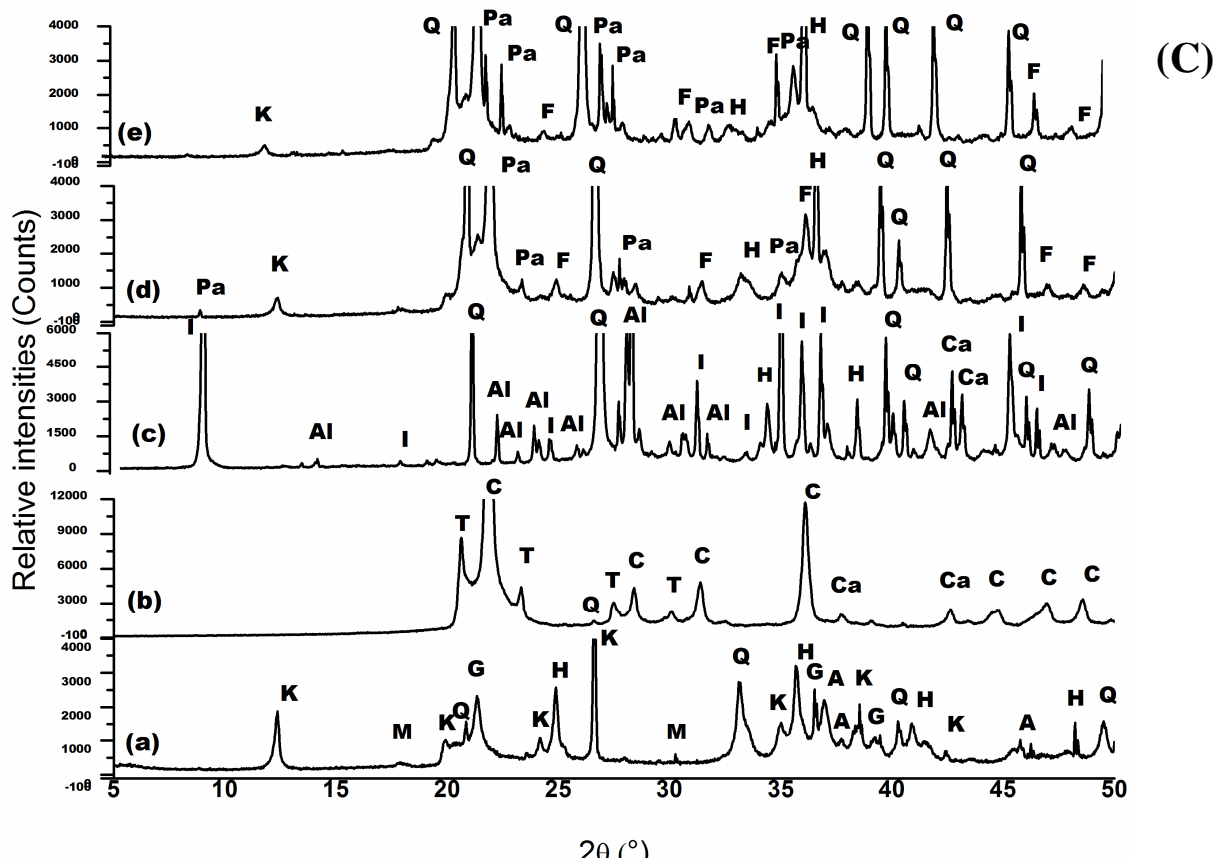
347 Figure 4. Superimposed TG/DTA curves of raw laterite and geopolymer composites under
 348 different curing cycles:(A) STC, (B) OTC, and (C) RTC.

349 Figure 5 presents the X-ray patterns of raw laterite, rice husk ash, quarry sand, and
350 geopolymer composites. It is noticed that the more pronounced reflection peaks of kaolinite
351 and goethite in raw laterite diminished in terms of intensity on the diffractograms of laterite-
352 based geopolymer composites after consolidation with alkaline solution (Figures 5a, 5b, and
353 5c). This reduction clearly shows that the kaolinite mineral in corroded laterite is in
354 disordered state as reported by Kaze et al [25], thus enable to react in contact of alkaline
355 solution. However, the presence of (quartz and hematite) contained in raw laterite also
356 appeared on XRD of formed products, indicating that they were not totally altered during the
357 geopolymerization reaction. The disappearance of goethite mineral after alkaline activation is
358 linked to the reaction that occurs between goethite and silica species during the
359 geopolymerization reaction leading to formation of iron silicate compounds like fayalite and
360 hinsingerite detected on the XRD of geopolymer composites. The formation of fayalite is
361 explained by equation (5).



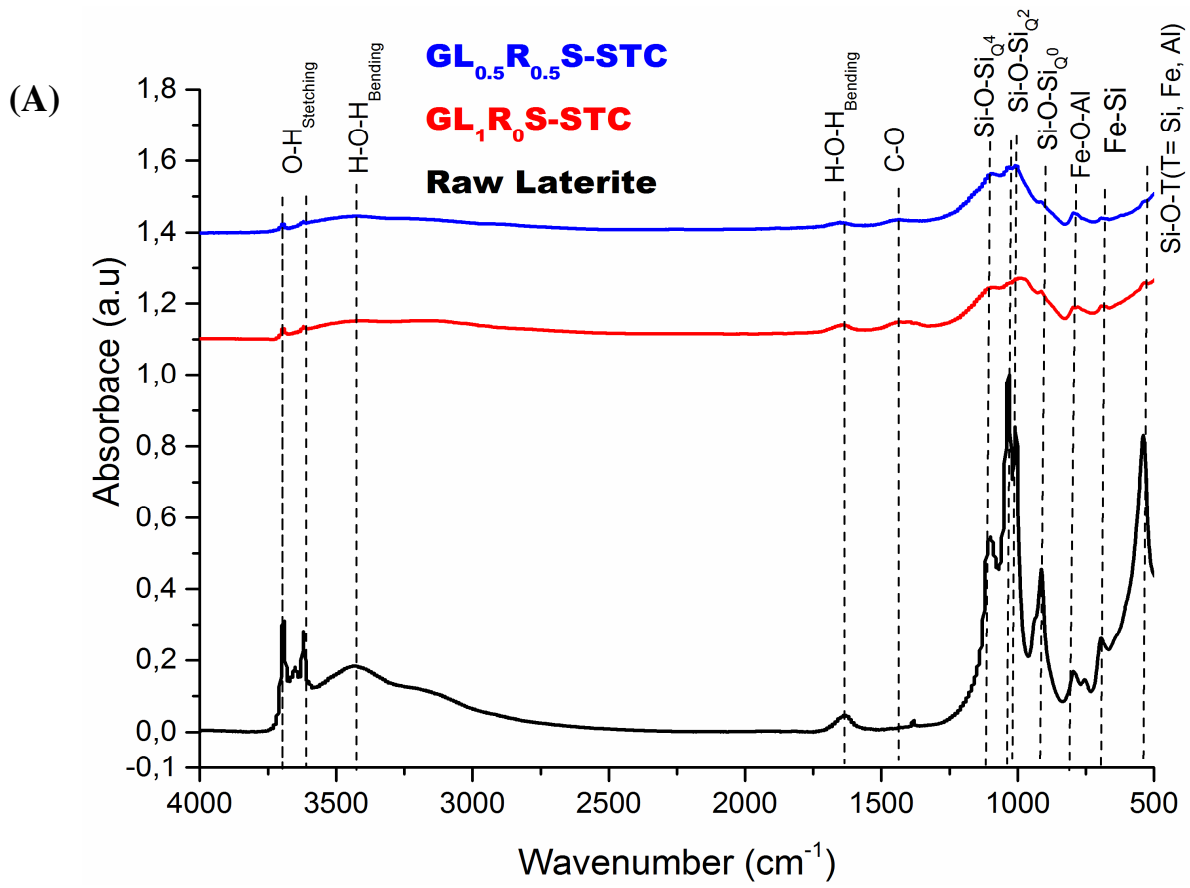
363 Similar observations were done by other researchers [7, 19, 25] who showed that increasing
364 the curing temperature between 25 and 200 °C allows the formation of iron silicate
365 compounds like fayalite, hinsingerite which reinforced the geopolymer structure and
366 improved the strength [7, 25]. As seen on the X-ray patterns of different consolidated
367 specimens, the rise of curing temperature depending on curing cycles did not affect the
368 formation of phases during the geopolymer process.



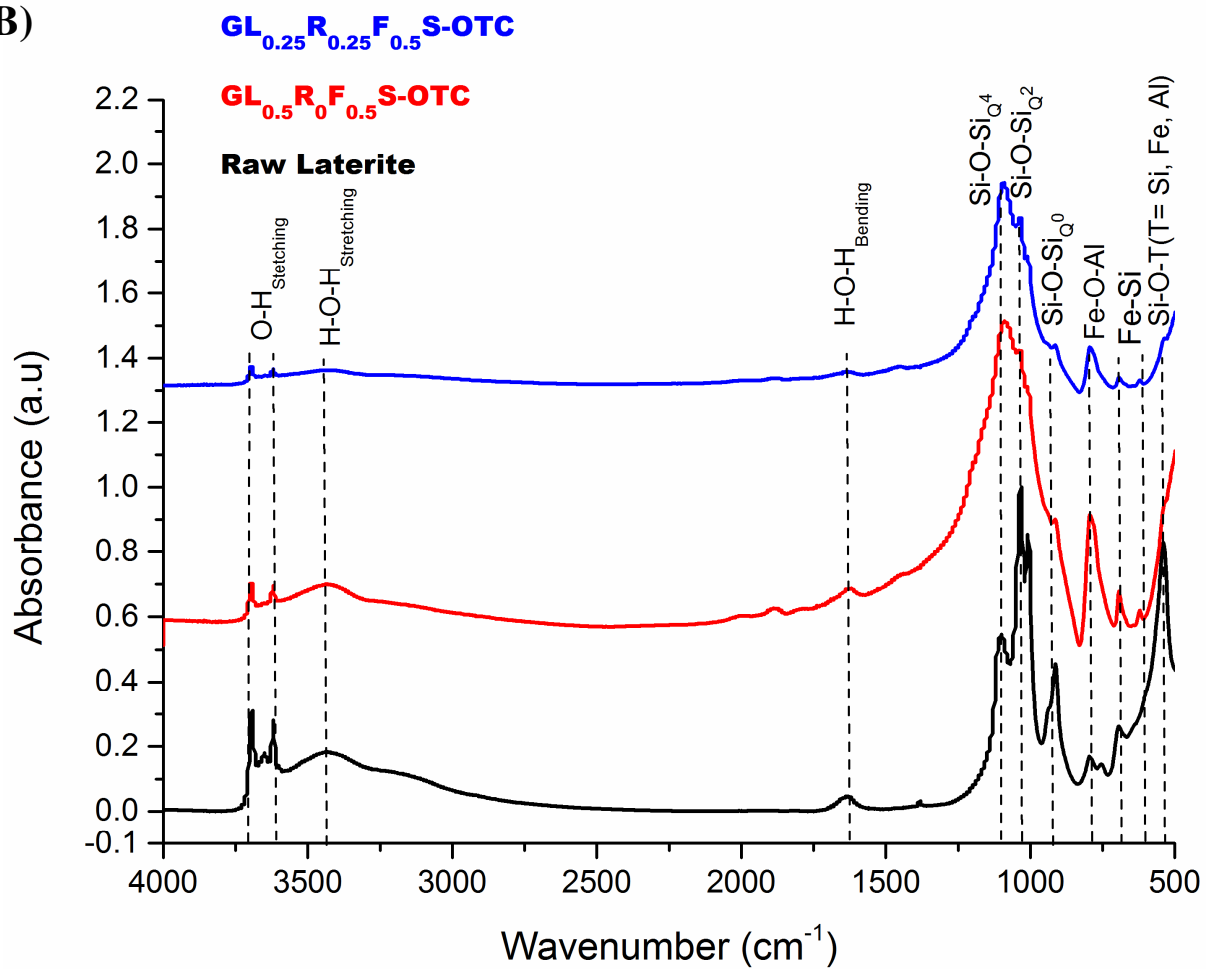


369 Figure 5. X-ray diffractograms of raw laterite, rice husk ash, quarry sand and
 370 $GL_{1-Y-Z}R_{YFz}S$ (A) STC, (B) OTC, and (C) RTC. PDF files: Q (04-006-1757, 04-008-7652,
 371 04-008-2359,04-008-7651); H (04-015-9569, 04-018-0098, 04-010-3230, 04-008-8479); G
 372 (04-015-8212); K (00-005-0143); M (04-021-3968, 04-009-9615, 04-016-4344); A (04-014-
 373 0490, 04-014-8515); I (04-017-0518), F (04-008-8542, 04-007-5852) Pa (04-015-9389).

374 Figure 6 exhibits the superimposed infrared spectra of raw laterite, GL_1R_0S , and
 375 $GL_{0.5}R_{0.5}S$ geopolymer composite specimens. From Figure 6, it can be observed that the
 376 absorption bands located at 3696, 3622, 3423, and 1630 cm^{-1} corresponding respectively to H-
 377 $O_{kaolinite}$, H- $O_{goethite}$ H-O-H_{stretching} and H-O-H_{bending} have considerably decreased on the spectra
 378 of the synthesized laterite-based geopolymer composite materials [19]. This reduction in
 379 absorbance peaks belonging to kaolinite and goethite indicates that these minerals have taken
 380 part in geopolymerization reaction showing the structural disorder of kaolinite in laterite as
 381 reported by Obonyo, et al. [41], Kamseu, et al. [7] and Kaze, et al. [19]. The absorption bands
 382 present at 1442 cm^{-1} on GL_1R_0S -STC and $GL_{0.5}R_{0.5}S$ -STC spectra are attributed to vibrational
 383 mode of C-O bond. This band is formed from the reaction between Fe that migrated out of
 384 geopolymer matrix and CO_2 from the atmosphere as it has been found by Kaze et al. [2] and
 385 Nkwaju et al. [23].

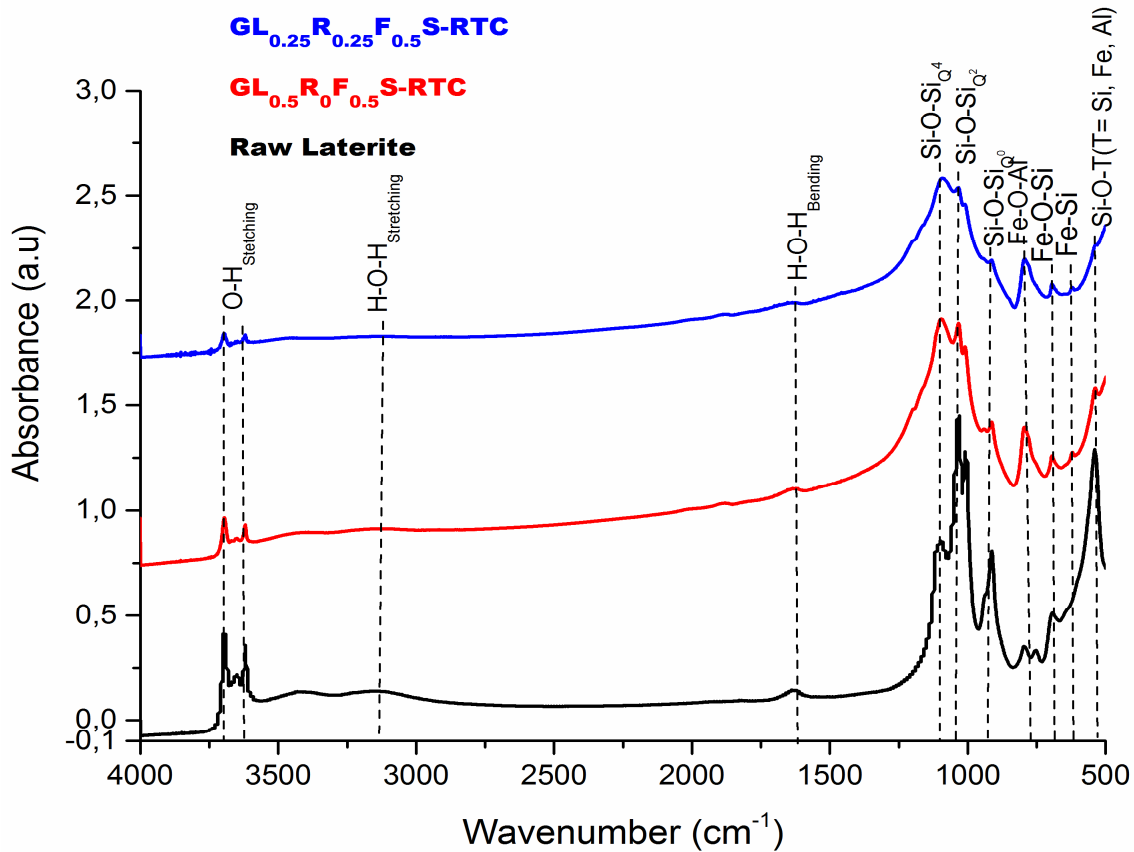


(B)



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(C)



387 Figure 6. Infrared spectra of raw laterite, $GL_{1-y-z}R_yF_zS$ (A) STC, (B) OTC, and (C) RTC.

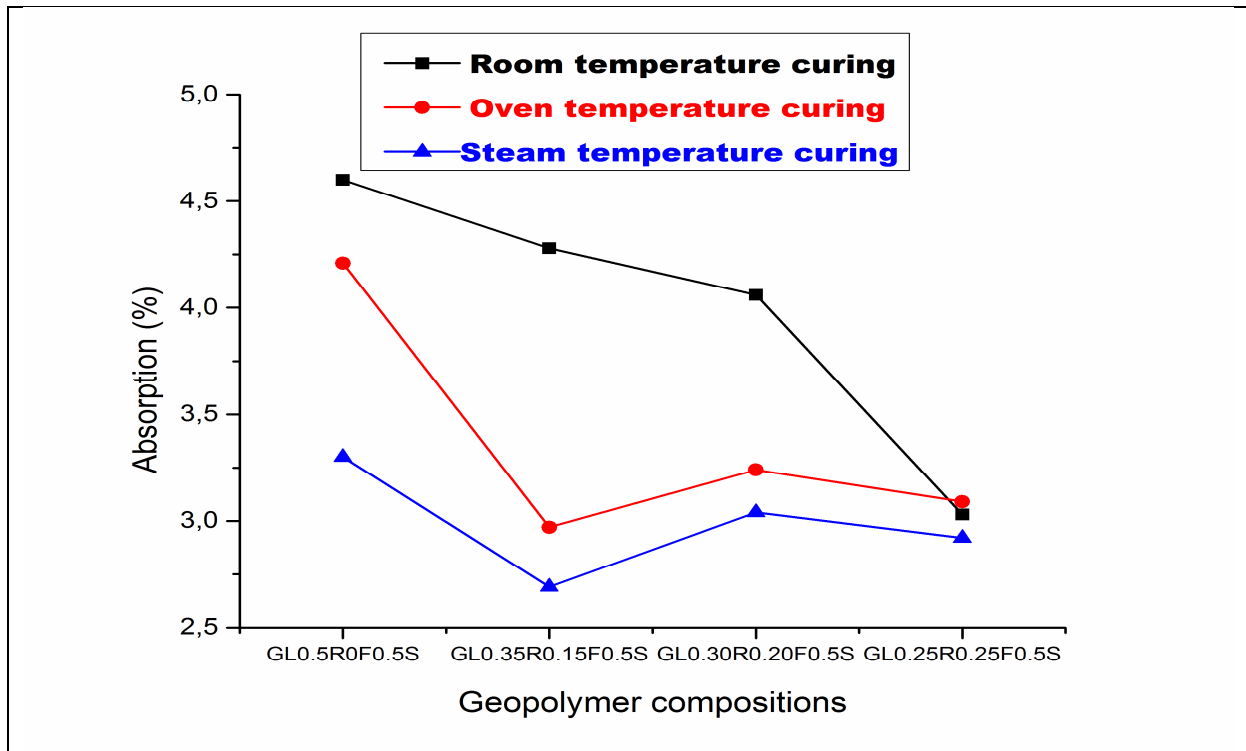
388 3.2.2 Water absorption, apparent porosity, and bulk density

389 The values of water absorption, apparent porosity and bulk density are presented in Figure
390 7, 8 and 9 respectively. The values of water absorption recorded on $GL_{1-y-z}R_yF_zS$ specimens
391 cured at room temperature (RTC), oven curing (OTC) and steam curing (STC) are 4.60, 4.28,
392 4.06 and 3.03%; 2.70, 4.21, 3.24 and 3.09 % and 3.30, 2.70, 3.04 and 2.92 %, respectively for
393 the samples containing 0, 15, 20 and 25% of rice husk ash (Figure 7). It is observed that the
394 curing cycle does not significantly affect the water absorption. The lower values recorded on
395 different specimens independently of the curing modes exhibit the better compact matrix with
396 few accessible pores or voids that could allow the retention in water content when samples are
397 soaked in water for the water absorption test. In addition, the use of reactive silica from rice
398 husk ash in the whole matrix allowed the formation of Si-O-Al and Si-O-Fe bonds leading to
399 the formation of polysialate and polyferrisialite binder phases that improved and made the
400 strong matrices, ensuring the high mechanical performances achieved. In the same approach
401 Kamseu et al. [7] showed that the densification of laterite-based geopolymer composite
402 replaced by rice husk ash up to 25 wt% is due to the formation of iron silicate minerals like
403 hinsingerite.

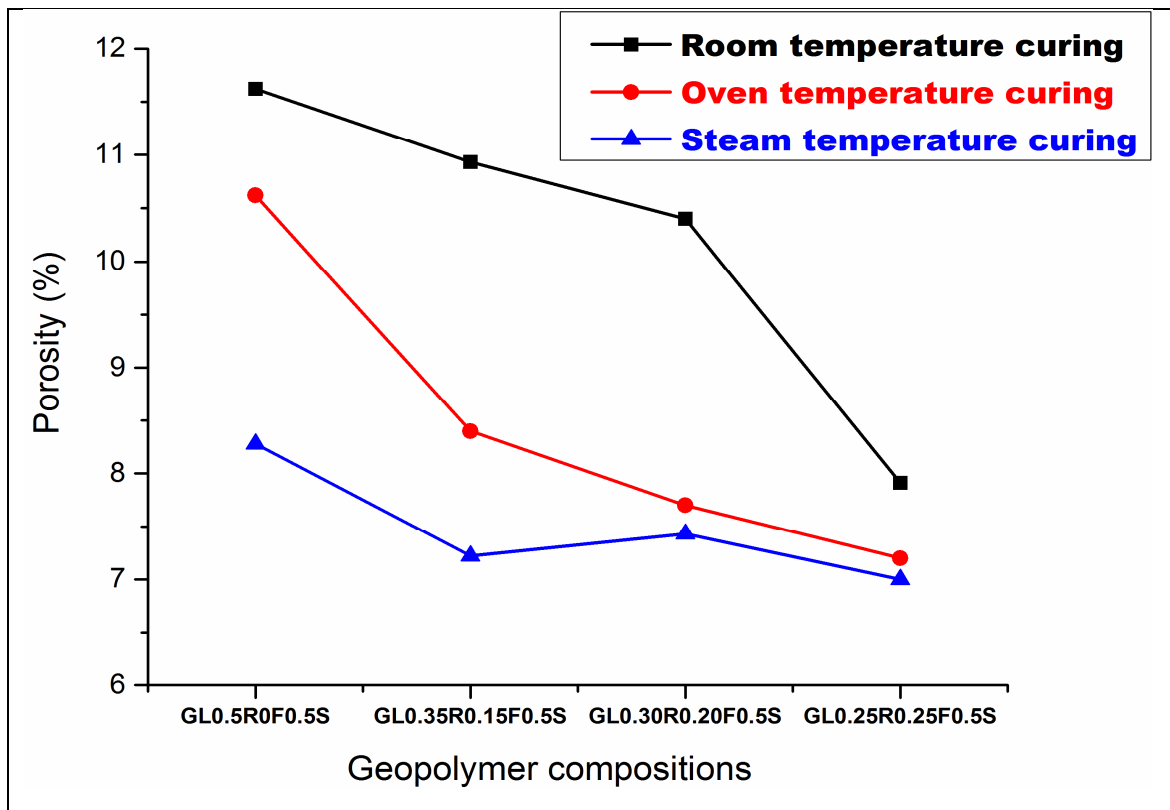
404 For $GL_{1-y-z}R_yF_zS$ geopolymer specimens cured at room temperature (RTC), the decreased
405 values of apparent porosity are 11.62, 10.93, 10.40, and 7.91 %, containing respectively 0, 15,
406 20, and 25 wt% of rice husk ash (Figure 8). When oven curing (OTC) and steam curing (STC)
407 are used, these values are 6.70, 10.62, 8.06, 7.34 %, and 8.28, 7.22, 7.43, and 7.00 %, respectively.
408 The reduction in apparent porosity with increase in rice husk ash content when
409 applying room temperature curing (RTC) could likely due to the high concentration of Si-
410 monomers from dissolution of reactive silica from RHA in alkaline medium that help to
411 reduce the formation of the voids and pores within the geopolymer composite matrices. The
412 lower percentages recorded on other curing types (OTC and STC) could be either due to (i)
413 formation of iron silicate minerals from silica and iron compounds resulting in an
414 improvement of structure or (ii) hydrosodalite formed from residual kaolinite in metastable
415 nature contained in laterite with alkaline solution leading to an extension of binder phase,
416 reinforcing the matrix. This is in accordance with the findings of Kaze et al. [25] where the
417 authors concluded that the reduction in apparent porosity with increase in curing temperature
418 was linked to the formation of iron silicate phases that made the geopolymer matrix dense and
419 compact.

420 In the case of bulk density, the values obtained for $GL_{1-y-z}R_yF_zS$ samples according to the
421 different curing types RTC, OTC and STC were 2.45, 2.52, 2.54, and 2.60 g/cm³; 2.49, 2.54,
422 2.56, and 2.69 g/cm³ and 2.50, 2.61, 2.67 and 2.86 g/cm³ respectively for the samples
423 containing 0, 30, 40, and 50% of rice husk ash (Figure 9). These similar values are linked to
424 the better cohesion between different phases present in the developed geopolymer
425 microstructure. The high values in terms of bulk density compared to that of standard
426 metakaolin-based geopolymers could be linked to the low quantity of kaolinite and hematite
427 that did not react during the geopolymer process and made the samples a bit heavy as reported
428 by Kaze, et al. [25]. Taken into account the physical results, it can be shown that the effect of
429 curing type is more observed with the porosity where the values decrease according in range
430 RTC, OTC, and STC. Finally, the increase in bulk density recorded on all the geopolymer
431 composite samples made with RTC, OTC and STC cycles is likely linked to the progressively
432 formation of strong matrix which occurred with the increase of rice husk ash leading to few
433 accessible voids. The lower values in bulk density recorded on samples made with RTC and
434 OTC curing modes compared to STC one can be explained by the defects such as open voids
435 and micro-fissures occurring in the matrix when the humidity is not controlled. Hence with
436 the lower porosity and water absorption, laterite-based geopolymers made with STC cycle
437 expected to have high bulk density as shown in Figure 9. This could be due to the better

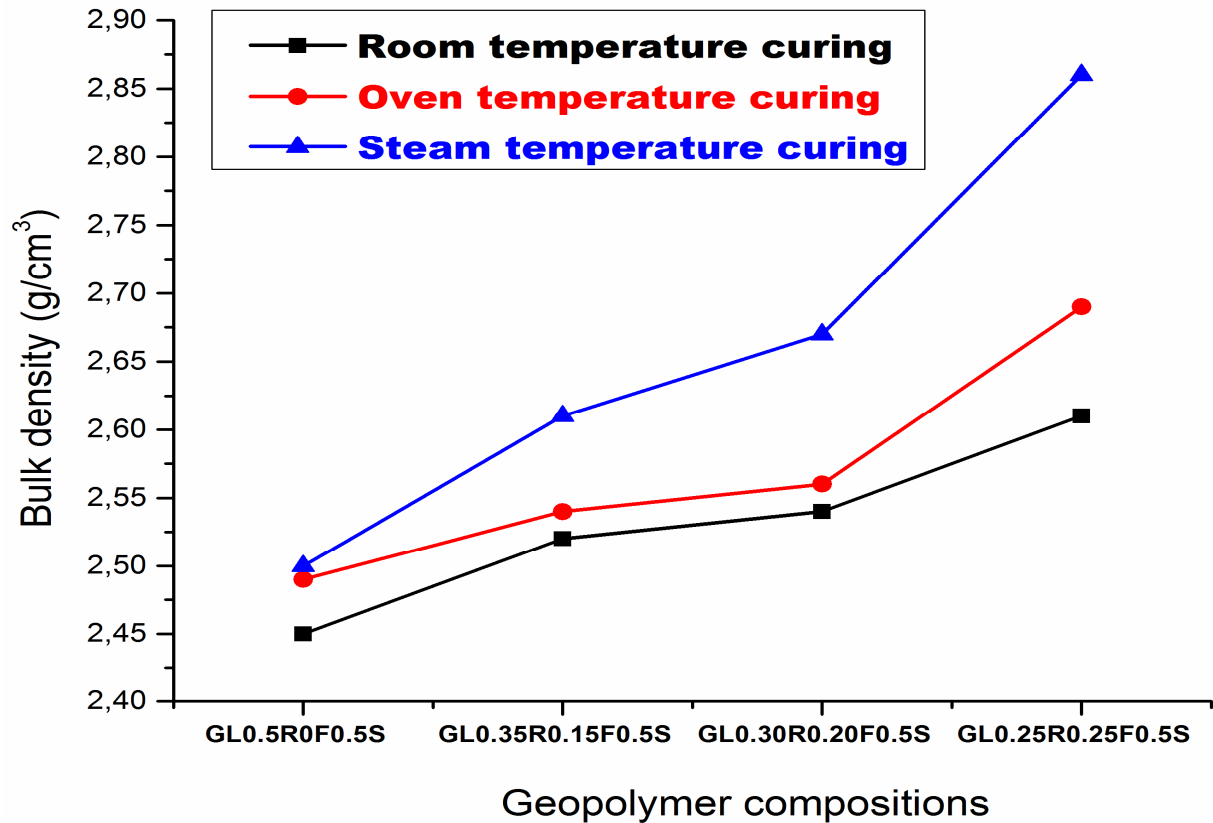
438 cohesion among geopolymer binder and aggregates with lower voids that could retain water
 439 when samples are immersed for water absorption and porosity tests.



440 Figure 7. Water absorption of geopolymer composites subjected in different curing cycles.



441 Figure 8. Apparent porosity of geopolymer composites cured in different curing cycles.



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Figure 9. Bulk density of geopolymer composites cured in different curing cycles.

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3.2.3 Mechanical properties

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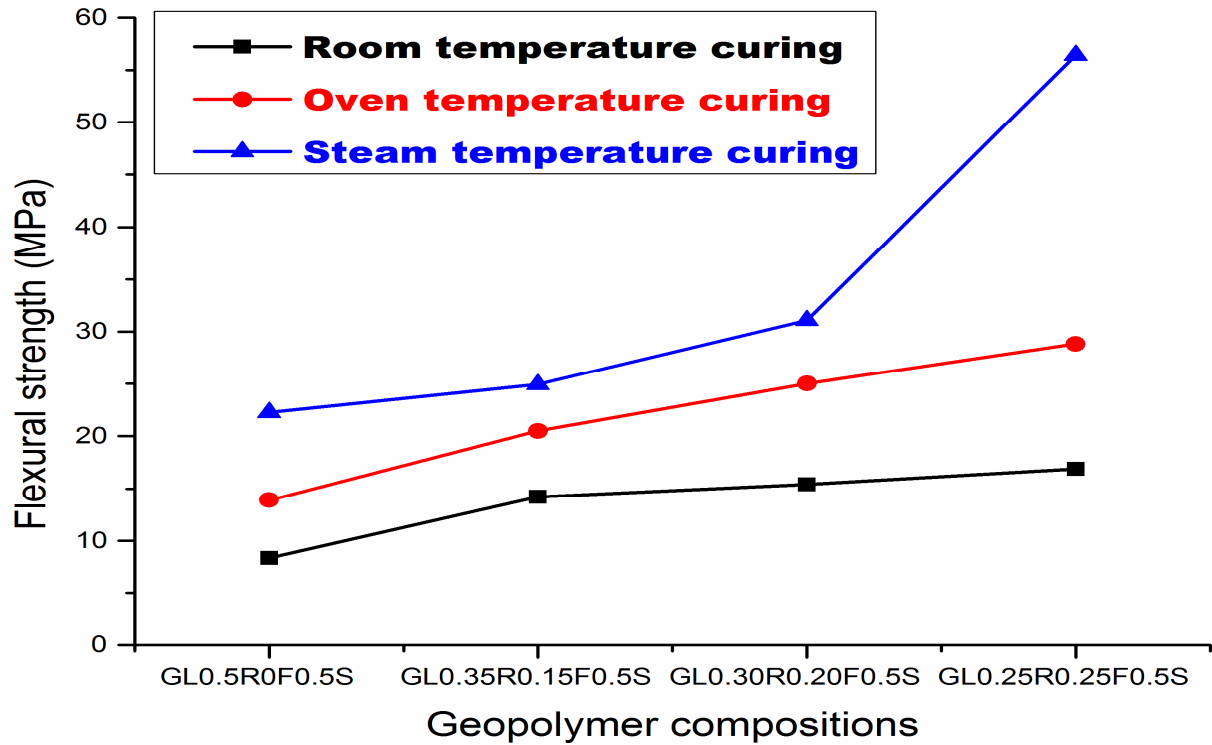
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Figure 10 presents the flexural strength of geopolymer composites namely $GL_{1-y-z}R_yF_zS$. For the samples cured at room temperature (OTC), the 28 days flexural strength are 8.35, 14.23, 15.40, and 16.89 MPa respectively for laterite based geopolymer composites containing 0, 15, 20 and 25 % of rice husk ash (RHA). The increase in flexural strength from 8.35 to 15.40 MPa with increasing of RHA up to 20 %, is linked to the release of Si-oligomers from dissolution of reactive silica from rice husk ash that polymerized with iron and aluminium resulting in good polycondensation. The low increase of strength from 15.40 to 16.89 MPa observed after adding 20 and 25 % of RHA is likely due to the fact that the whole system became richer in Si-oligomers. It is well known in the literature that when geopolymer matrix is saturated with Si-O-Si instead of Si-O-Al bonds, lower strength development is expected. In addition, this strength development recorded on samples cured at room temperature once more helps to show that kaolinite within iron-rich laterite is not in pure crystalline nature, thus has partially dissolved in alkaline solution. When consider the room temperature curing, the humidity is easily controlled but the temperature seems not to be enough for the efficient reactivity of iron minerals. In case of oven curing, the earlier

460 evaporation of water is responsible for the development of interconnected pores with the
 461 limitation of the reactivity of iron minerals. It is expected that, the control of the humidity at
 462 80°C favouring the reactivity of iron minerals, will improve the dissolution motivated by
 463 disordered nature of kaolinite present in raw laterite. This results in densification of the
 464 geopolymer matrices and high mechanical strength achieved.



465 Figure 10. Flexural strengths of geopolymer composites cured in different curing cycles.

466 When the laterite-based geopolymer composites were oven cured at 80 °C without
 467 humidity control, the flexural strength of samples labelled $GL_{1-y}R_yS$ are 13.9, 20.5, 25.01, and
 468 28.81 MPa, with 0, 15, 20, and 25 % of RHA, respectively, Figure10. The increase in
 469 mechanical performance recorded on these samples could be due to the formation of
 470 ferrisilicates compounds. This extends the binder phases and reinforces that laterite-based
 471 geopolymer composite matrices with compact and dense structure that justify the high
 472 strength achieved. The formation of this iron silicate phase in the geopolymer composite
 473 matrix is expected to densify the latter, making it stronger as observed in Figure10.

474 It seems that the temperature of 80 °C applied in the presence of high relative humidity
 475 (Steam curing) enhances both the dissolution of the solid precursors and the formation of
 476 ferrisilicates as shown in Figures 5, 6, and 10. Steam curing at 80 °C with 65 % of relative
 477 humidity the following values of flexural strength recorded on geopolymer composites
 478 samples: 22.25, 23.92, 31.06, and 56.41 MPa for the samples with 0, 15, 20, and 25 % of
 479 RHA added. This trend shows the importance of water through in controlled humidity in this

480 curing type that contributed in optimization of geopolymerization reaction. The abrupt release
481 of water molecules in oven curing mode (room temperature and oven curing) affects the
482 strength development in the same formulations justifying the difference observed. This
483 observation matches with those of Dimas, et al. [42], El-nagga, et al. [43], and Park et al. [44]
484 who claimed that the presence of water strongly contained in small voids and pores on the
485 geopolymer binder. Thus, this water is necessary for the stability or equilibrium of
486 geopolymer network leading to non-appearance of microcracks or fissures which could limit
487 the strength development. This behavior matches with the findings of Gallup, et al. [33, 34],
488 Kaze, et al. [25] and Kamseu, et al. [7] who claimed that the iron silicate compounds are
489 formed when combined reactive iron minerals such as goethite and reactive silicate in alkaline
490 media cured between 50 and 200 °C. The hypothesis of the improvement of the dissolution of
491 solid precursor at high relative humidity as well as the important formation of ferrisilicate are
492 in line with the finding of Gallup [33]. The good polycondensation justifies the development
493 of a strong matrix (Figure 10),

494 3.2.4 Microstructure

495 Figure 11 presents the microstructure of geopolymer composites containing 0, 15 and 25%
496 of rice husk ash that have undergone OTC curing cycle. From Figure 11a, the micrographs of
497 geopolymer composites without rice husk ash exhibit an inhomogeneous structure with
498 microcracks and porosity along their matrices. The presence of the open voids and porosity
499 could be due to the low value of Si/Al=1.20 and Si/Fe=0.82 ratios [25]. In general the Si/Al=2
500 and Si/Fe>1 are required for the high polycondensation favouring the development of a strong
501 and compact matrix as reported by the findings of Kaze, et al. [19, 25] and Kamseu, et al. [7].
502 Hence in these matrices with lower value of Si/Al and Si/Fe ratios, the released Fe, Si and Al
503 species in alkaline medium are not enough to form strong chemical bonds like polysialate (N-
504 A-S-H), ferrosialate (N-A-F-S-H) and ferrisilicate (N-S-F-H) responsible for the development
505 of dense structures that could ensure the better strength. This trend quite matches with the
506 porosity and water absorption values observed in Figures 8 and 9. The geopolymer samples
507 without rice husk ash developed more porosity allowing the retention of water compared to
508 those containing rice husk ash at different dosages which reduces the open voids rendering the
509 matrix more compact and denser. The poor matrices developed by the geopolymer composites
510 without rice husk ash (Figure 11a) are consistent with the XRD and FTIR which revealed that
511 after the reaction, crystalline phases such as kaolinite and goethite initially present in the raw
512 laterite were also found in the XRD of geopolymer products justifying their partial alteration

513 in alkaline medium. Moreover, the micrographs also show the presence of sheet shapes that
514 might be related to none reacted kaolinite or illite from laterite and sand used as aggregates,
515 respectively. In comparison with mechanical results, it is obvious that the more pronounced
516 microcracks, the lower flexural strengths are recorded (i.e. 13.9, 20.5, 25.01, and 28.81 MPa
517 respectively for geopolymers containing 0; 15 and 25% rice husk ash). When 15 and 25 wt.%
518 of reactive silica is added, it is observed the reduction of open voids and microcracks
519 compared to that of $GL_{0.5}R_0F_{0.5}S$ -OTC (used as reference without rice husk ash).

520 The ESEM micrographs of the STC-cured geopolymer composites are shown in Figure
521 12. In comparison with those of OTC, it can be observed that the structures are denser and
522 homogeneous. This is due to the fact that the presence of water in form of humidity in the
523 system during the reaction is controlled and participates to the reaction, making iron more
524 able to form strong polymers (ferrisilicates). This compactness of structure is linked to the
525 reaction between Si and Fe compounds resulting in formation of covalent Fe-Si bonds. The
526 micrographs also revealed that as the amount of rice husk ash increases, the structure became
527 denser; as observed in OTC curing as shown in Figures 11a-c. The bending strength values
528 increased as the microcracks decreased, justifying the high strengths achieved on samples
529 when applying steam curing (22.30, 24.92, and 56.41 MPa respectively for the geopolymer
530 products having 15 and 25% of rice husk ash). Thus, adding rice husk ash in the whole system
531 provided more Si-oligomers in contact of alkaline solution when steam chamber curing is
532 applied. This released more Si species favored the polymerization with other constituents like
533 Al and Fe that ensured the strong structure and high mechanical performances (Figure 10).
534 However, it is necessary to note that, applying steam chamber curing cycle under controlled
535 humidity is the main parameter that permitted high strength development and more
536 compacted structure. This is the consequence of the reactions of dissolution and
537 polycondensation under controlled humidity. At high magnification (x1000) the sheets are
538 furthermore represented. At lower scales (x250) the presence of few pores and open voids are
539 not uniformly distributed in the matrices.

540 The curing mode affects the densification of the geopolymer composites: when the curing
541 mode is OTC (characterized by the quickly departure of water) the structure is less dense
542 compared to STC (controlled moisture). Results in agreement with the mechanical strength
543 which gave higher values for STC with dense structures than OTC (Figure 10). This quite
544 matches with the findings of Kamseu et al. [7] who's demonstrated that using steam curing in

545 the synthesis of geopolymer composites from iron-rich laterite allows the formation of
546 ferrosialate and ferrisilicates.

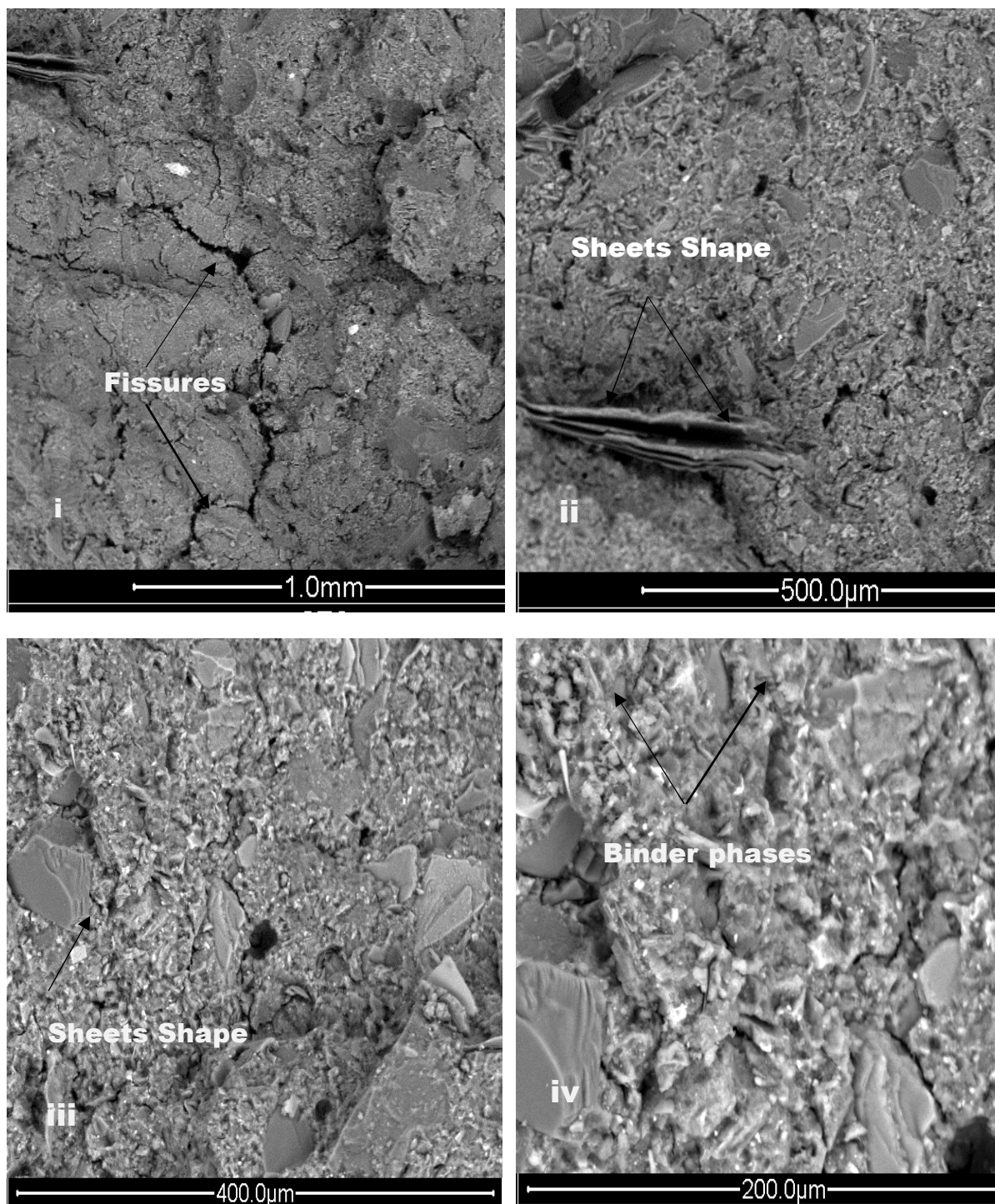


Figure11a: ESEM image of $GL_{0.5}R_0F_{0.5}S$ geopolymer cured at oven curing temperature (OTC).

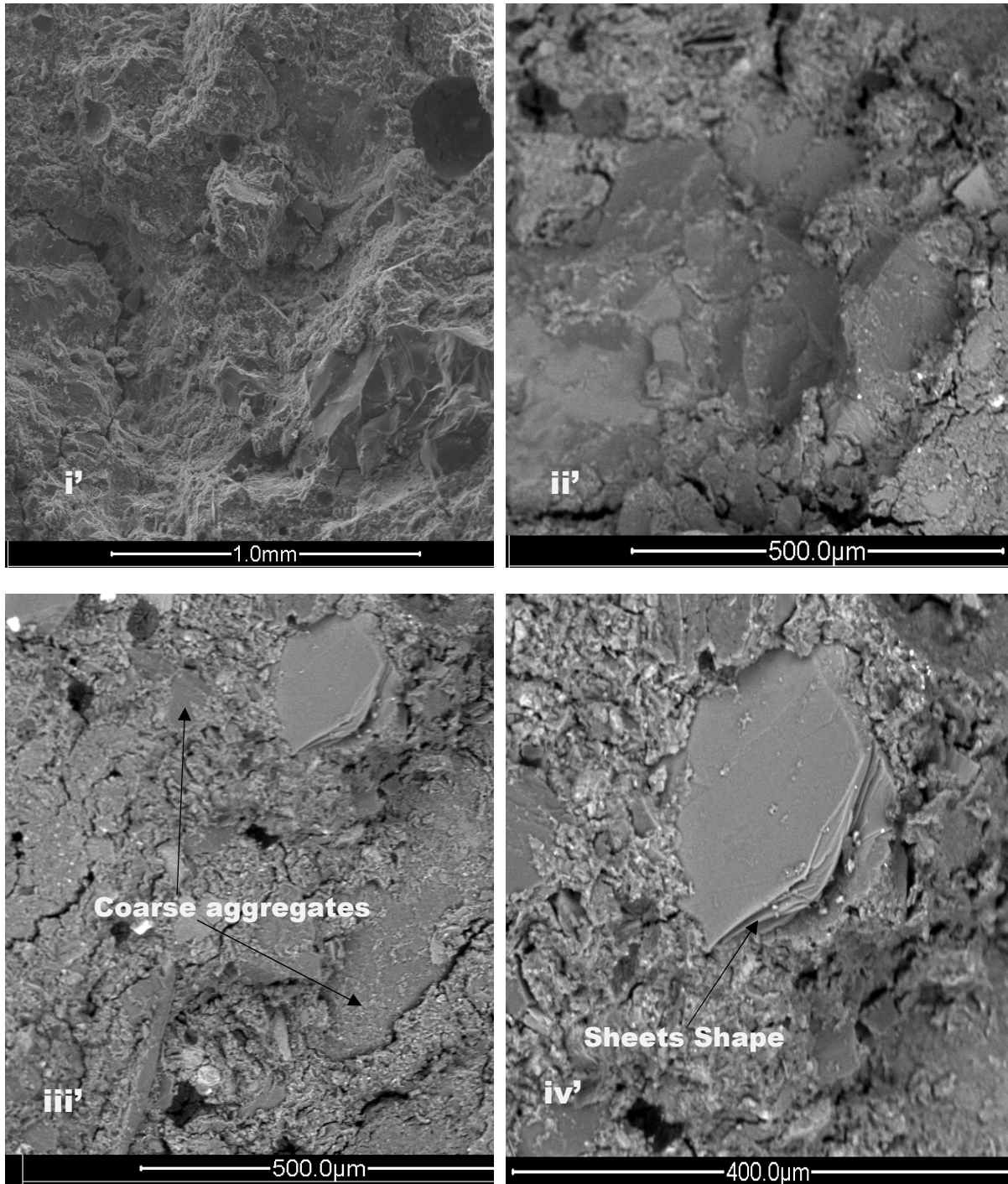
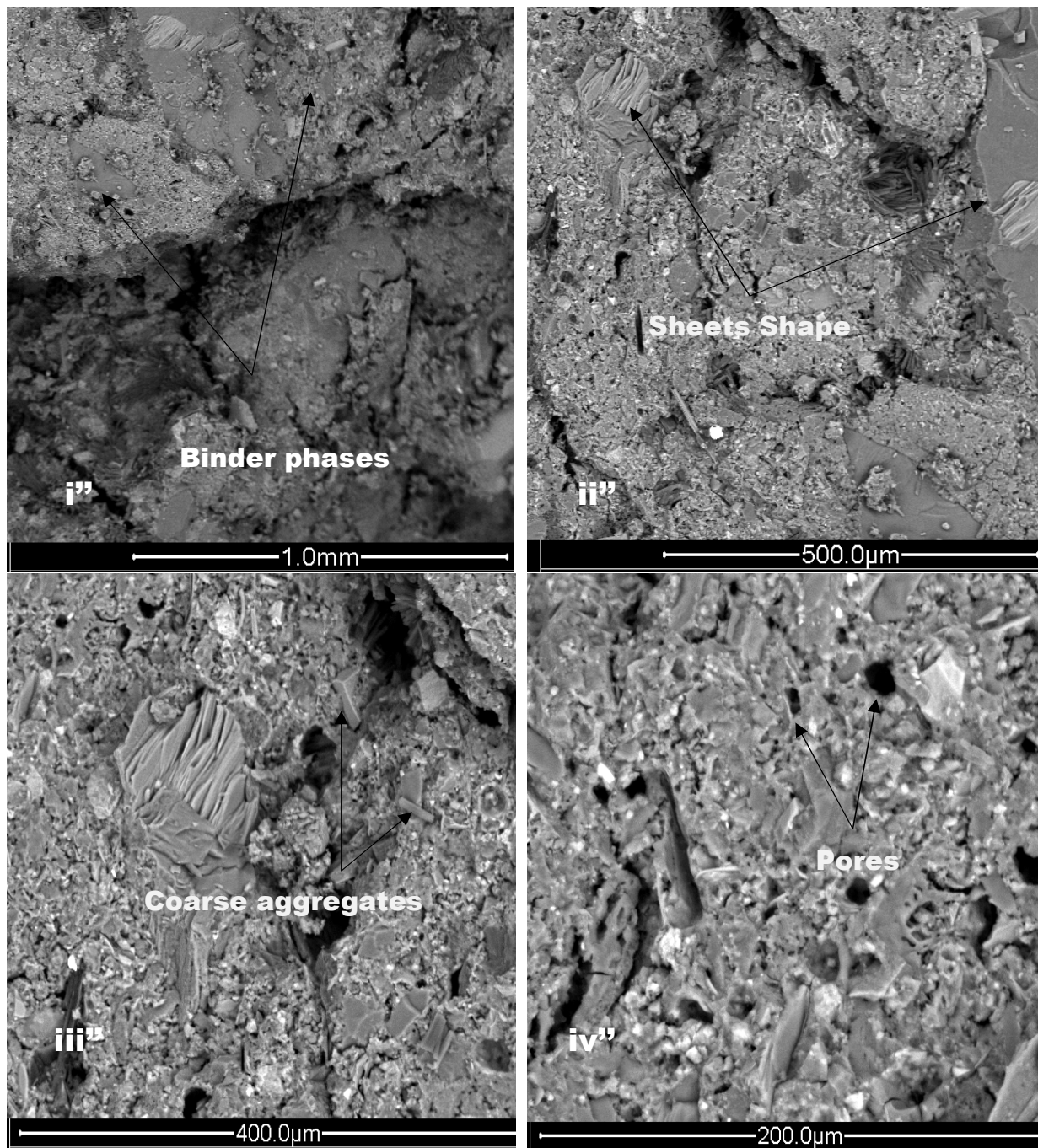


Figure11b: ESEM image of $GL_{0.35}R_{0.15}F_{0.5}S$ geopolymer cured at oven curing temperature (OTC).



548 Figure11c: ESEM image of $GL_{0.25}R_{0.25}F_{0.5}S$ geopolymer cured at oven curing temperature
 549 (OTC).

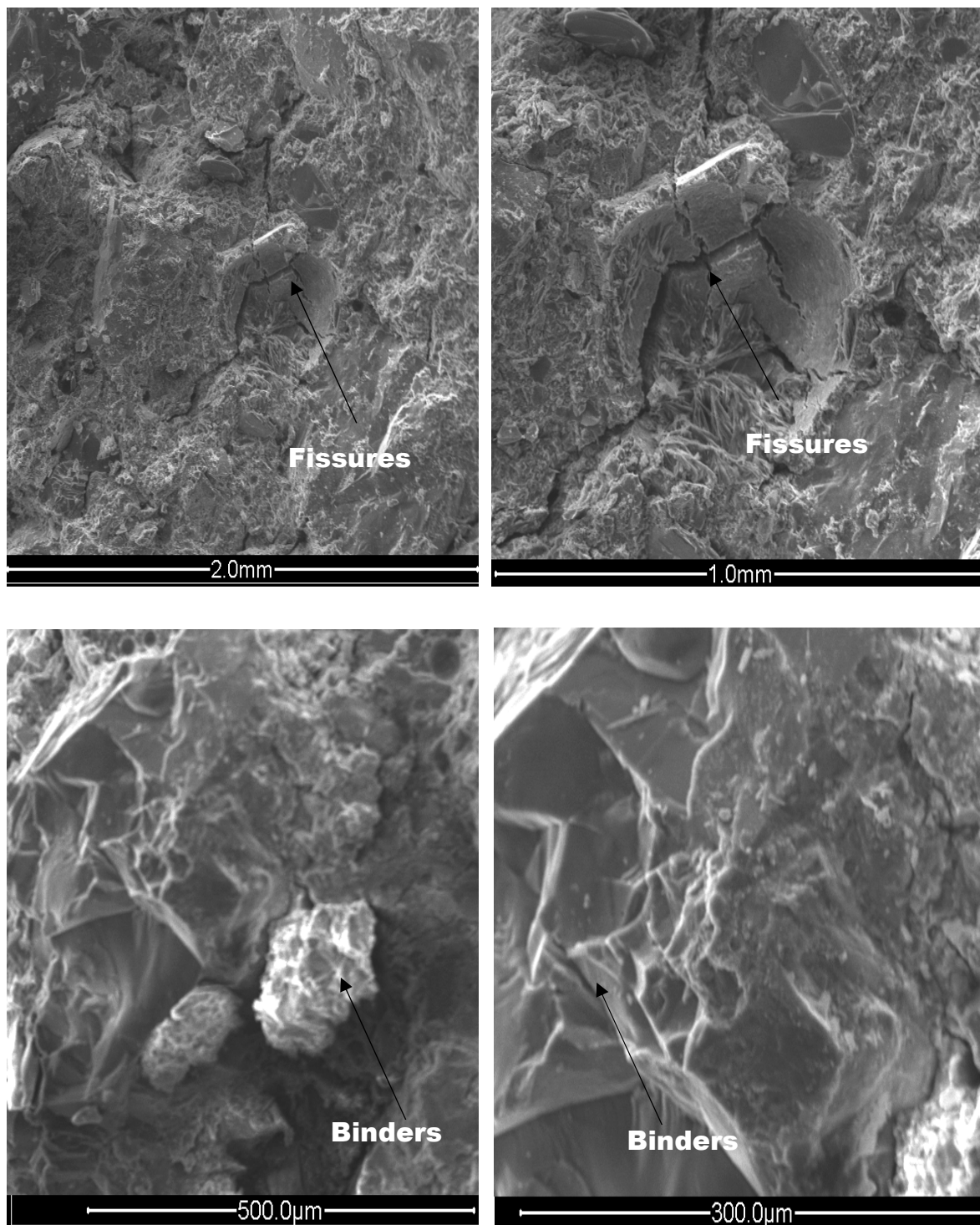
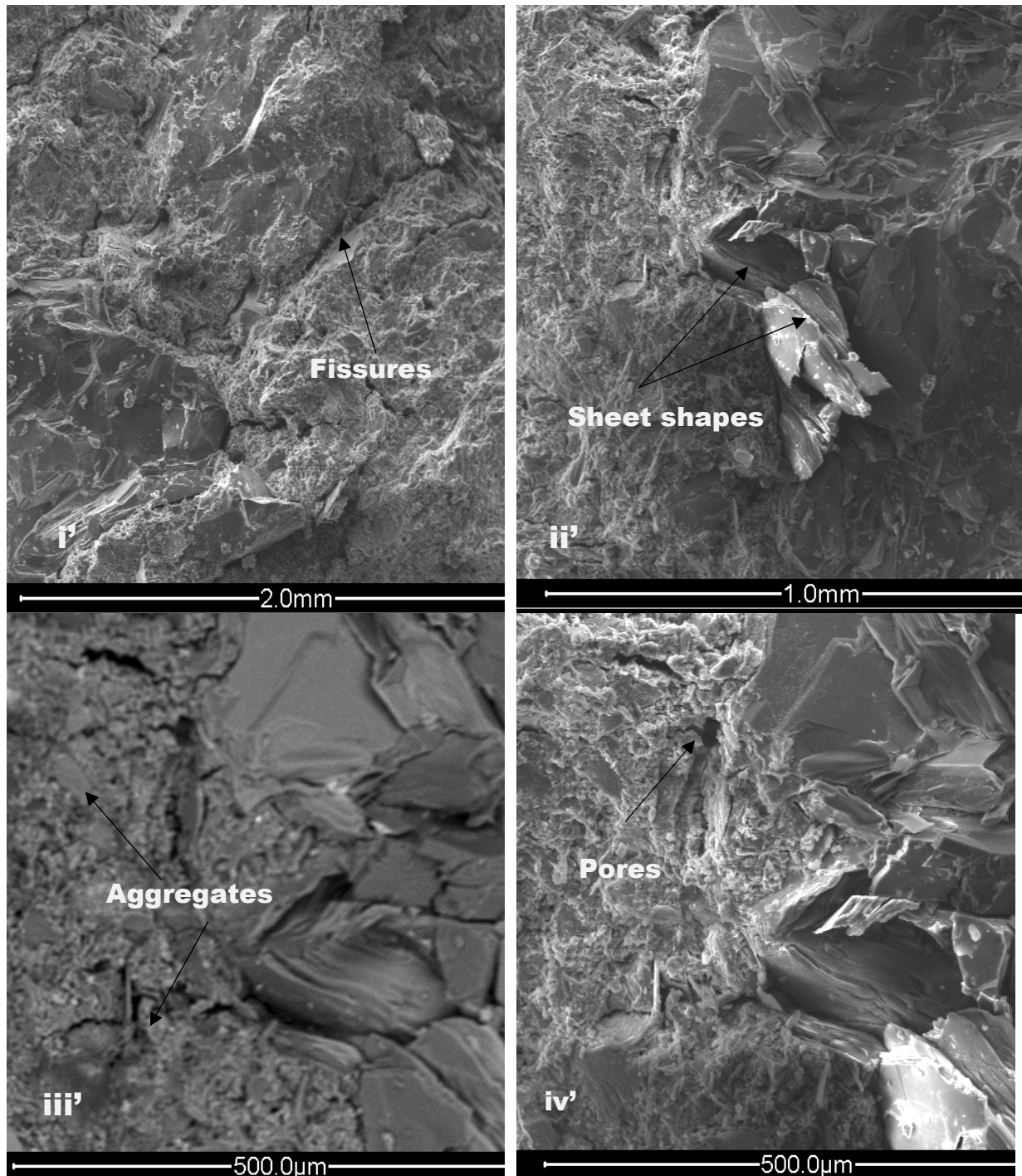
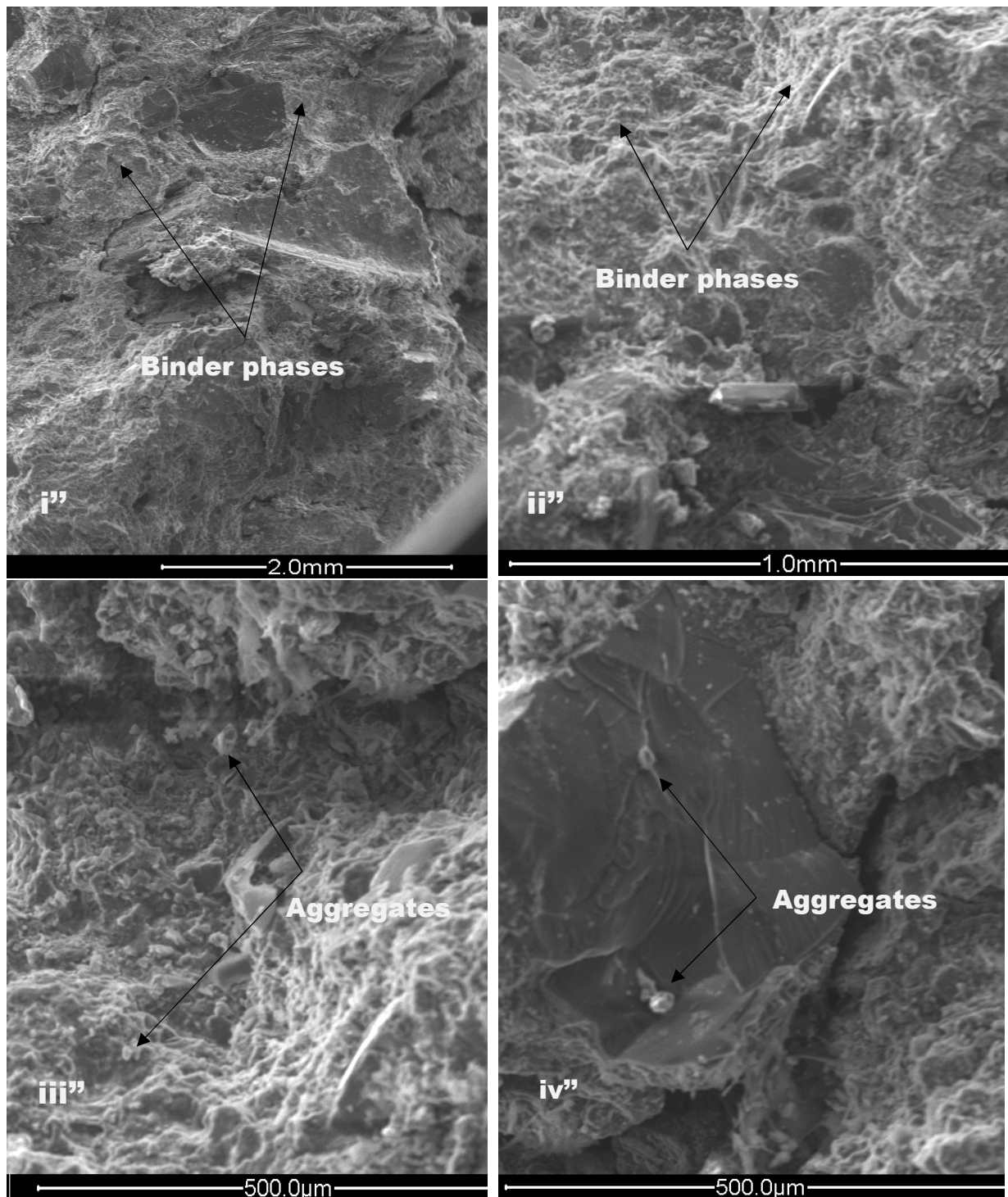


Figure12a: ESEM image of GLo.5RoF0.5S geopolymer cured at steam curing temperature (STC).



551 Figure12b: ESEM image of $GL_{0.35}R_{0.15}F_{0.5}S$ geopolymer cured at steam curing temperature
 552 (STC).

553 .



554 Figure12c: ESEM image of $GL_{0.25}R_{0.25}F_{0.5}S$ geopolymer cured at steam curing temperature
 555 (STC).

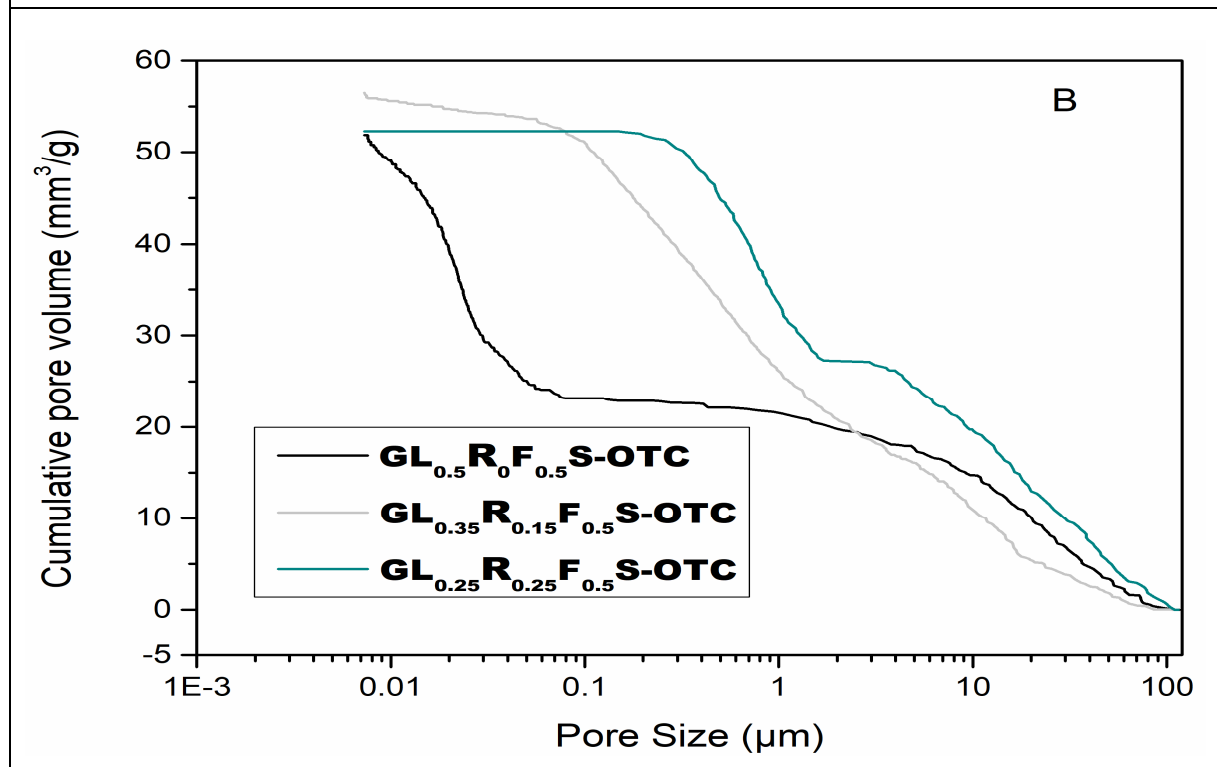
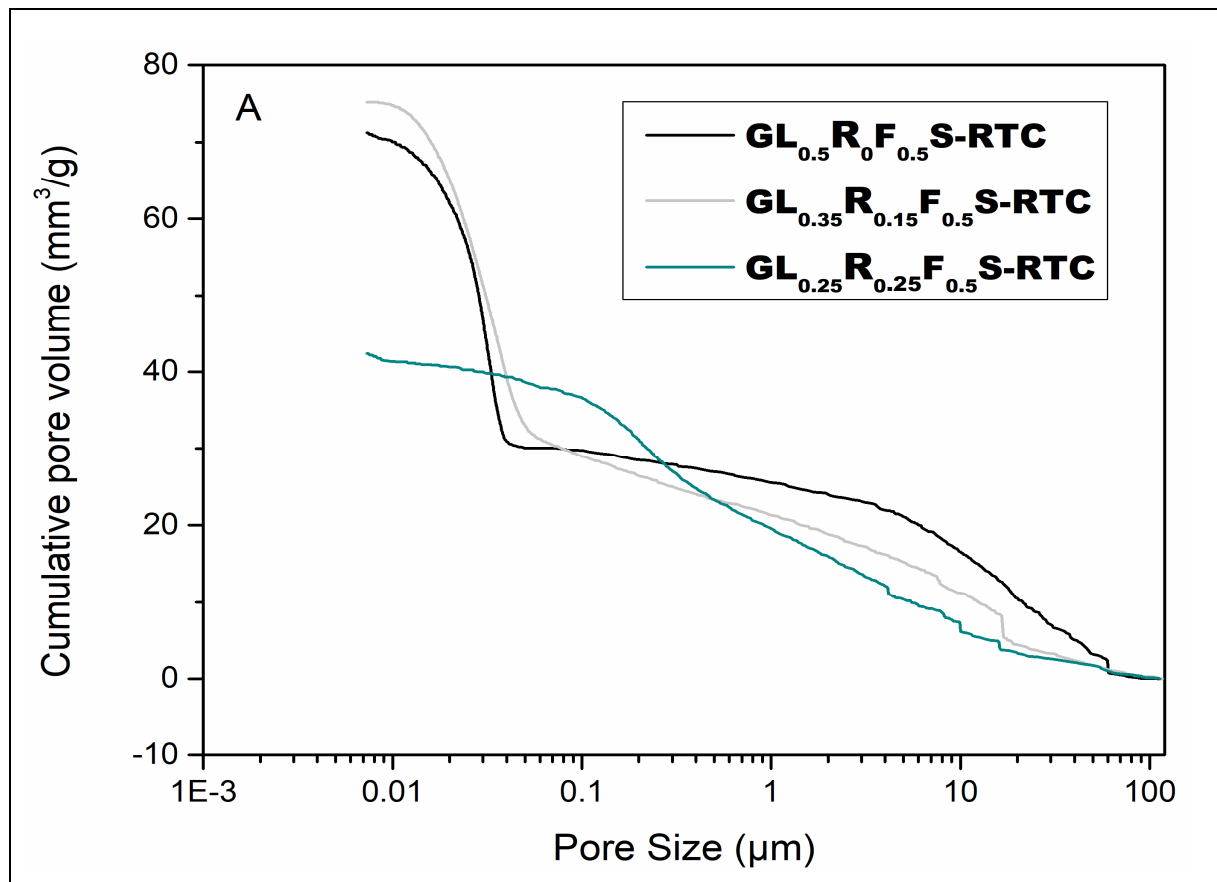
556 3.2.5 Mercury intrusion porosimetry (MIP)

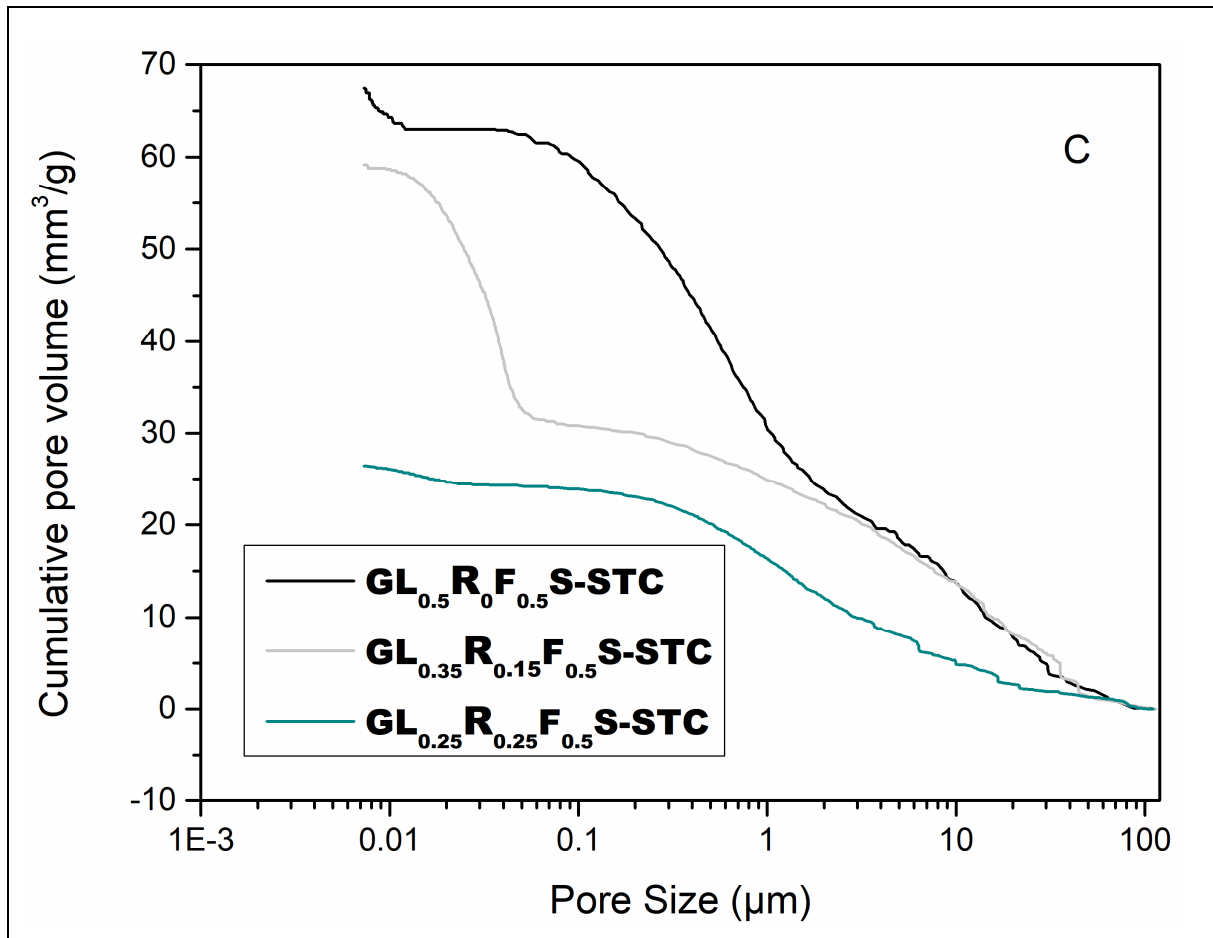
557 The variation of cumulative pore volume of selected geopolymer composites namely
 558 $GL_{0.5}R_0F_{0.5}S$, $GL_{0.35}R_{0.15}F_{0.5}S$, and $GL_{0.25}R_{0.25}F_{0.5}S$, are presented in Figure 13. It is observed

559 that curing cycles significantly affect the cumulative pore volume recorded in all the
560 geopolymer composites. For the geopolymer composites $GL_{0.5}R_0F_{0.5}S$, $GL_{0.35}R_{0.15}F_{0.5}S$, and
561 $GL_{0.25}R_{0.25}F_{0.5}S$, the values of cumulative pore volume are 71.30, 75.24, and 42.41 mm^3/g ,
562 respectively, when applied the room temperature curing (RTC). This reduction is linked to the
563 soluble action of Si species from rice husk ash that reacts with Al and Fe species then fills the
564 pore spaces.

565 In case of the following use of oven curing (OTC) and steam curing (STC) cycles, these
566 values are 51.90, 56.53, and 52.30 mm^3/g ; 67.50, 59.20, and 26.44 mm^3/g , respectively, for
567 $GL_{0.5}R_0F_{0.5}S$, $GL_{0.35}R_{0.15}F_{0.5}S$, and $GL_{0.25}R_{0.25}F_{0.5}S$ geopolymer specimens. The reduction in
568 specific pore volume with the incorporation of rice husk ash as well as the use of OTC and
569 STC curing modes is linked to the densification of structure resulting in few accessible pores
570 within the matrices. In addition, this reduction more pronounced in sample $GL_{0.25}R_{0.25}F_{0.5}S$
571 containing 25 wt% of rice husk ash, could be explained by the fact applying the STC mode
572 under controlled humidity optimized the geopolymerization reaction. This is followed by the
573 good polycondensation and polymerization between Si, Al and Fe species rendering the
574 matrix more homogeneous with few available open voids, micro-voids and capillary pores.
575 Hence adding rice husk ash positively improves the reactivity of laterite based geopolymer
576 composites when applying a steam curing at 80 °C under controlled humidity (65%) leading
577 to the formation of iron silicate compounds which contributed in reinforcement of the
578 structures. The high values of specific pore volume recorded on $GL_{0.5}R_0F_{0.5}S$ sample (51.90,
579 67.50 and 71.30 mm^3/g ; when applying OTC, STC and RTC curing modes, respectively)
580 without rice husk ash quite matches with its microstructure which exhibited some open voids
581 and micro-fissures compared to others. This is likely due to the poor cohesion between
582 different components caused by the low Si/Al ratio in corroded laterite from the alteration of
583 kaolinite by iron minerals as reported by others [7]. Therefore, the combined action of fine
584 aggregates and rice husk ash filled the voids and established the good bonding strength or
585 cross-linking between different constituents with less pores in the laterite based geopolymer
586 composite matrices when applied OTC and STC curing modes than RTC (Figures 13b and
587 13c). Similar trend was noticed by others who replaced metakaolin with fine aggregates
588 (granite, sand, pegmatite, feldspar, etc.) and found that the geopolymer matrix became denser
589 and compact with lower porosity [29, 45, 46].

590

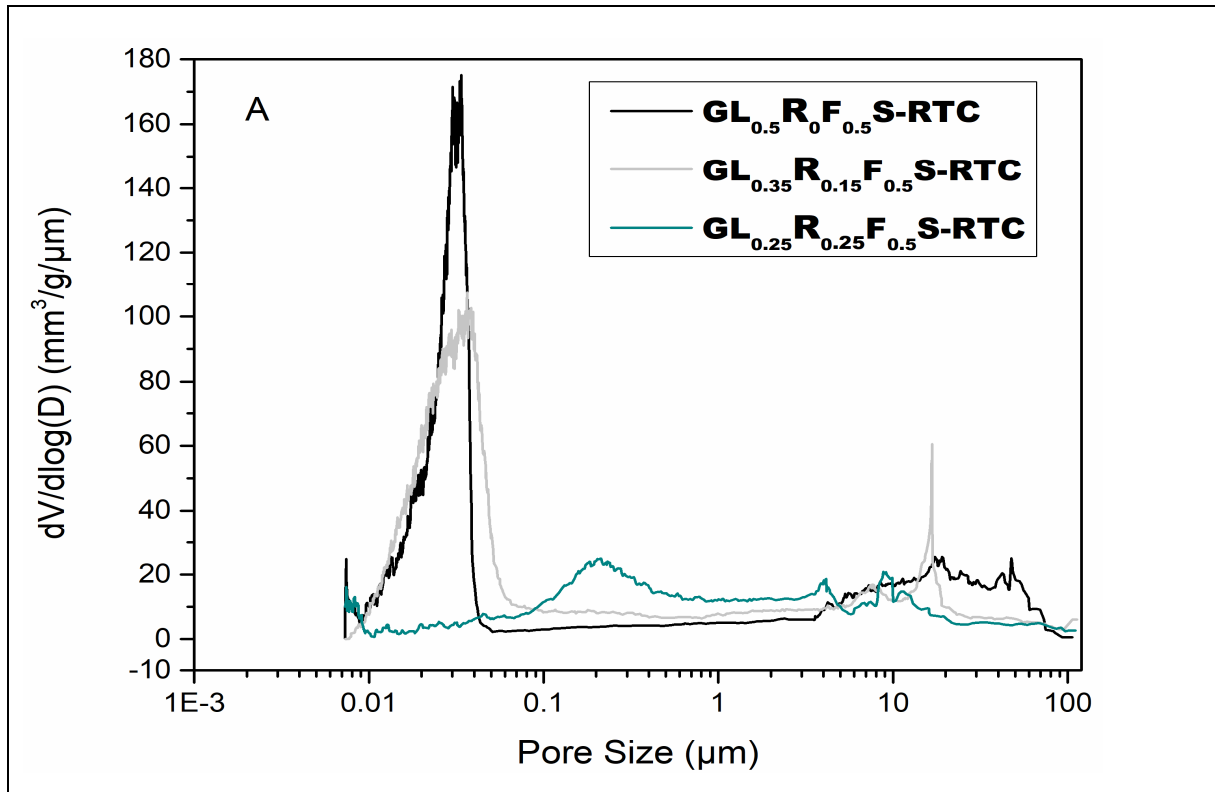


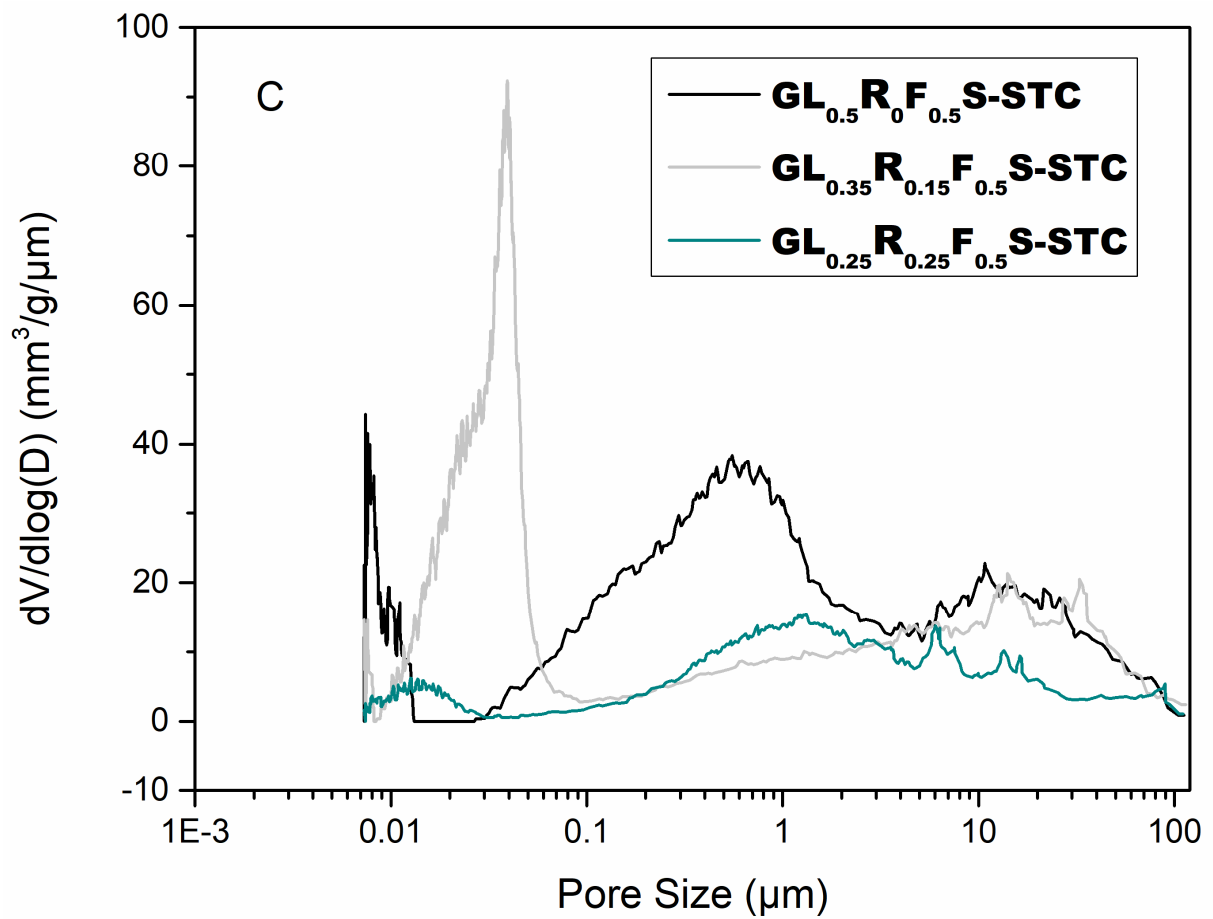
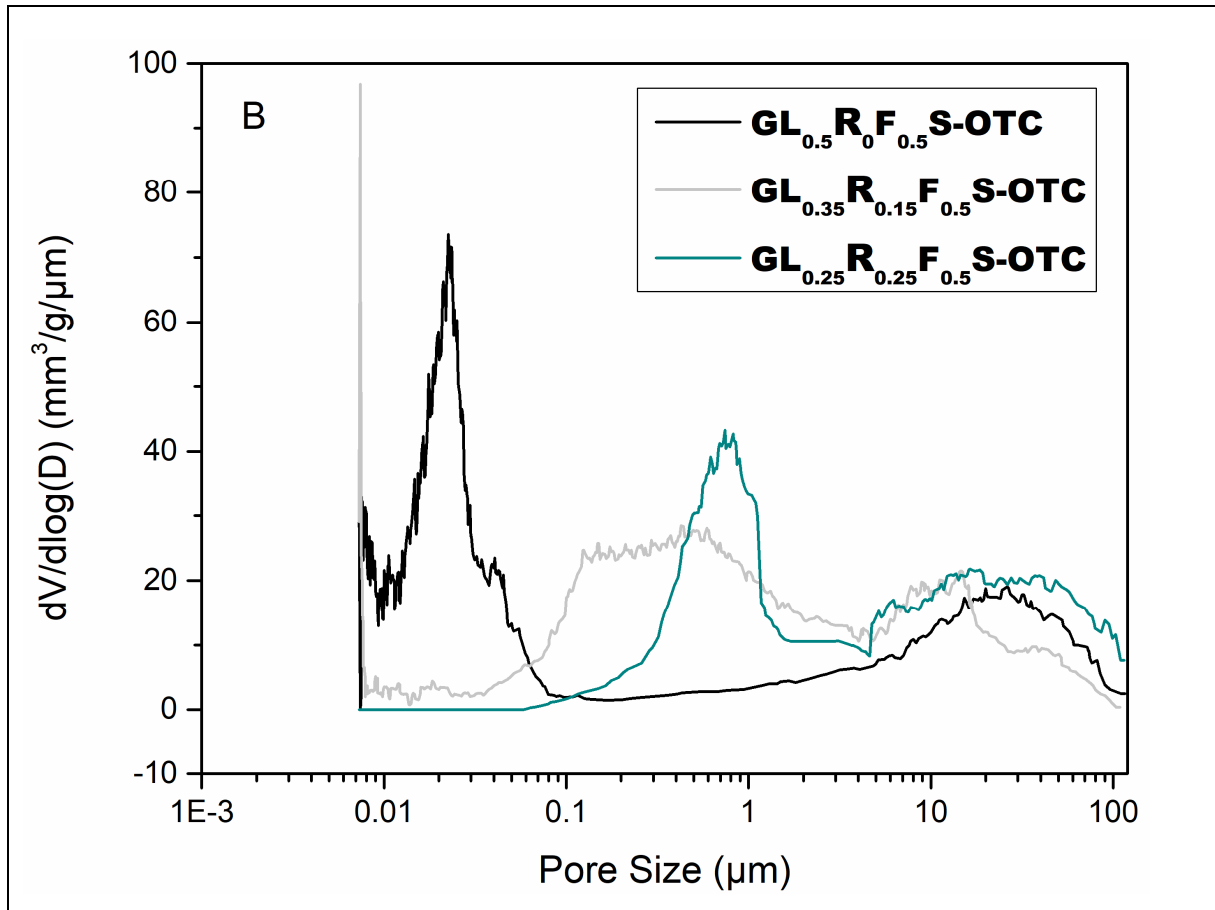


594 Figure 13. Cumulative pore volume distribution of laterite based geopolymer composites
 595 applied RTC (A), OTC (B), and STC (C) curing cycles.

596 Figure 14 displays the pore size distribution within the microstructure of selected
 597 $GL_{0.5}R_0F_{0.5}S$, $GL_{0.35}R_{0.15}F_{0.5}S$, and $GL_{0.25}R_{0.25}F_{0.5}S$, geopolymer composites, respectively
 598 (Figure 14a, 14b and 14c). From Figure 14, it observed that in the samples $GL_{0.5}R_0F_{0.5}S$ the
 599 distribution of pores is bimodal and ranged between 0.01-0.1 μ m and 5-100 μ m, 0.01-0.1 μ m
 600 and 1-100 μ m, when applied RTC and OTC curing modes. Except in STC curing mode where
 601 it is noticed a trimodal pore size distribution ranged at 0.009-0.0015 μ m, 0.1-7.0 μ m and 8.0-
 602 100 μ m. The incorporation of reactive silica (contained in rice husk ash) into laterite based
 603 geopolymer composites shifted the pores band towards lower values (Figure 14). Thus, using
 604 reactive silica and fine aggregates contributes to reduce the macropores either by parking
 605 particles effect or establishment of Si-O-Fe and Si-O-Al leading to formation of ferrisilicate
 606 that densifies the matrix. However, the last interval of pore size distribution in all the
 607 geopolymer samples is likely due to presence of open voids and microfissures that could not

608 be taken into account from MIP measurements. According to Kamseu, et al. [7] and Kaze, et
609 al. [25] these large voids or pores are either attributed to the air bubbles released from the
610 corrosion of iron minerals in alkaline activator or sudden evaporation of water molecules
611 when applying oven curing without controlled humidity.

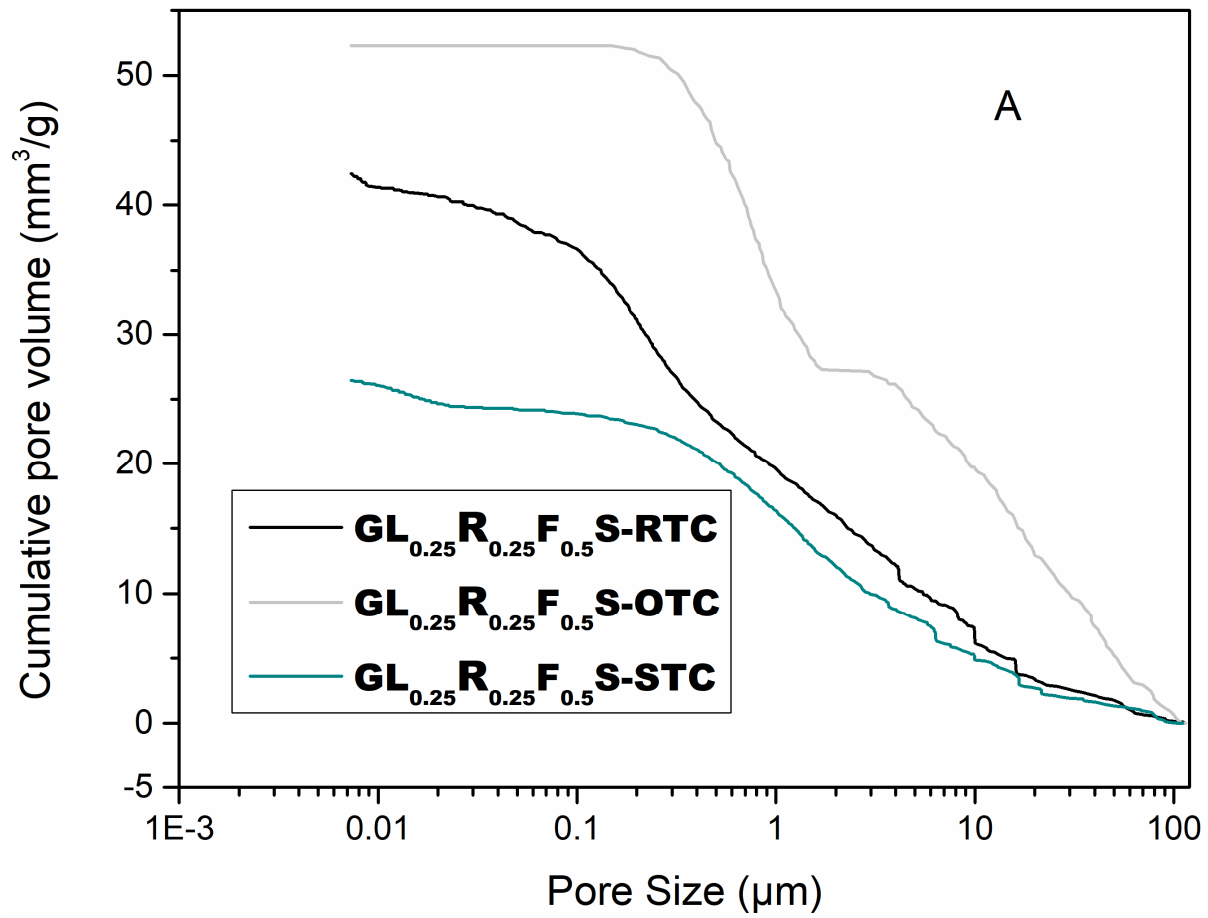




613 Figure 14. Pore size distribution of laterite based geopolymer composites applied RTC (A),
614 OTC (B), and STC (C) curing cycles.

615 Figure 15 highlights the superimposed variations of specific pore volume (Figure 15a) and
616 pore size distribution (Figure 15b) of the selected formulation $GL_{0.25}R_{0.25}F_{0.5}S$ (geopolymer
617 composite which ensured high strength) at different applied curing cycles. From Figure 15a,
618 the specific volume is $42.41 \text{ mm}^3/\text{g}$ when applied RTC mode, this value increases up to 52.30
619 mm^3/g in OTC mode. This increase when applied the oven curing cycle (OTC) mode is due to
620 the accessible voids and pores that are formed within the geopolymer matrix. It is well known
621 in the literature that increase the curing temperature yields better cohesion, densification and
622 strength development of the end geopolymer products [9, 47, 48]. In the case studied, using an
623 oven curing mode (OTC) at $80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, favors at the same time the dissolution of raw materials
624 and the sudden departure of water molecules leading to the formation of open voids observed
625 on the micrographs. This is related due to none equilibrium between the different constituents
626 to form a stable matrix compared to that of fly ash and metakaolin. With this curing mode
627 (OTC) even the end products were dense and strong but they exhibited porous matrix with
628 sponge-like structure [7]. Similar structure has been observed in the finding of Kaze, et al.
629 [25] and Kamseu, et al. [7] when combined laterite with reactive silica at different dosages
630 followed by the oven curing at $90 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ without controlled humidity. When the steam curing
631 cycle (STC) under controlled humidity ($80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, 65%) is used, the specific pore volume
632 decreases and reaches $26.44 \text{ mm}^3/\text{g}$. hence in the steam curing mode (STC) increasing the
633 curing temperature ($80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) accompanied with controlled humidity optimized the
634 geopolymerization process that helped to form rigid and homogeneous matrix with the gel
635 interconnected pores. This curing mode allows a process that produces the laterite geopolymer
636 composites with dense structures that could resist in extreme conditions compared to the
637 porous matrices of Kaze, et al. [25] and Kamseu, et al. [7]. This is well explained in Figure
638 15b, in which the STC exhibits lower porosity followed by OTC and RTC, respectively. This
639 result is in agreement with SEM analysis and mechanical properties. Thus, applying the steam
640 curing mode in the synthesis of laterite based geopolymer composites is the best way for the
641 development of performant and sustainable materials.

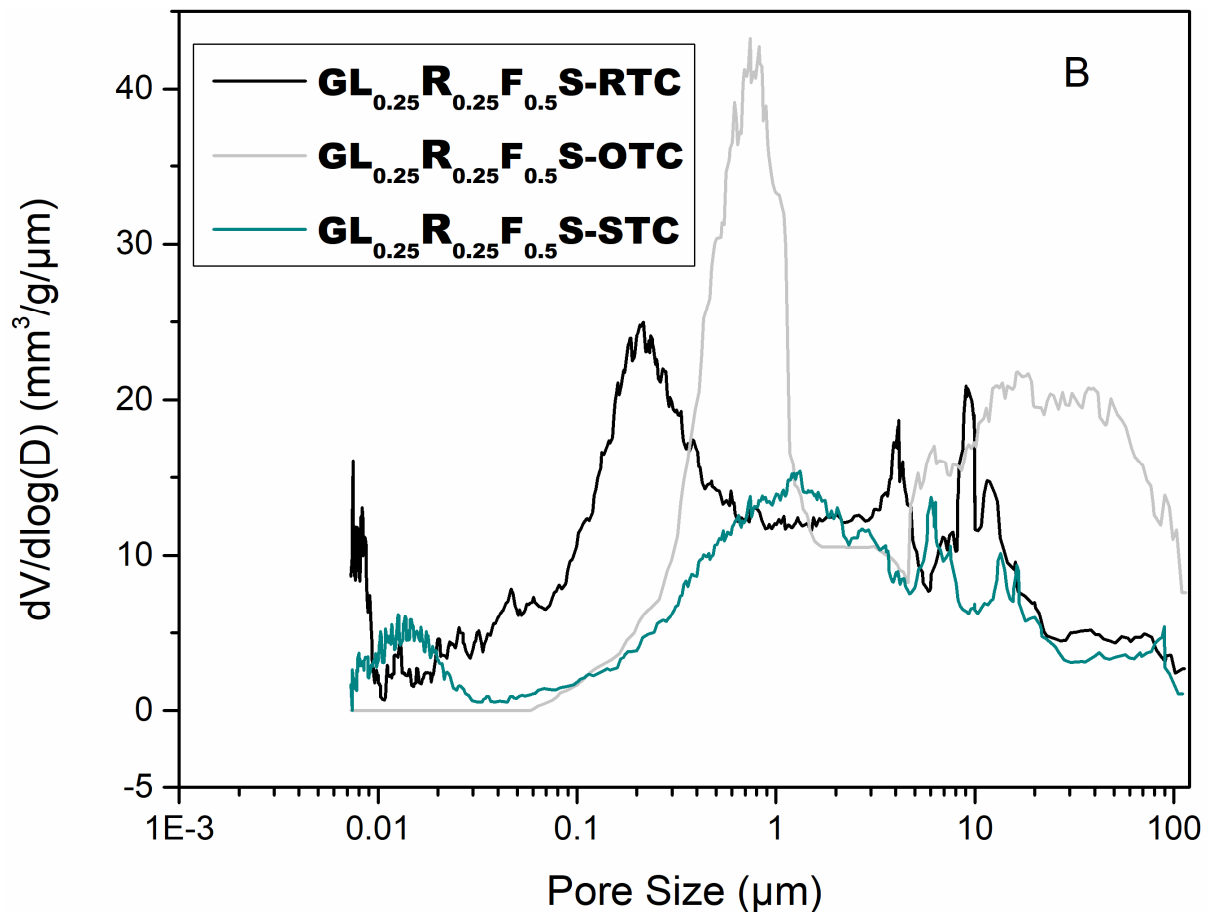
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647 Figure 15. Cumulative pore volume (A) and pore size distribution (B) of laterite based
 648 geopolymer composite $GL_{0.25}R_{0.25}F_{0.5}S$ sample applying RTC (A), OTC (B), and STC (C)
 649 curing cycles.

650 4. Conclusion

651 This work deals with the elaboration and characterization of laterite based geopolymer
 652 composites applying the different curing cycles as follows; room curing temperature (RTC),
 653 oven curing temperature (OTC) and steam chamber curing temperature (STC) with controlled
 654 humidity. The main objective of this work is to identify the most appropriate curing cycle for
 655 the achievement of high strength matrices with reduced porosity. After investigation the
 656 following conclusions can be drawn.

- 657 • Room Temperature curing (RTC) does not allow the efficient participation of reactive
 658 iron ions present in goethite, hematite and others oxyhydrates.
- 659 • Oven Curing (OTC) successfully activates iron ions; however, the earlier evaporation
 660 of water affects the complete dissolution and the hinder, the efficiency of the
 661 polycondensation of the final matrices.
- 662 • Applying the steam curing (STC) under controlled humidity (> 65%) optimized the
 663 geopolymerization reaction, improved the polymerization/polycondensation, reduced
 664 the porosity within the matrices resulting in high mechanical strength;

665 • The low flexural strength recorded on the samples applying OTC and RTC curing
666 cycles is linked to the none controlled of the release water during the drying step that
667 led the formation of cracks, fissures and open voids within the matrices that weakened
668 the characteristic performances;

669 • Adding the reactive silica in the whole system allowed the newly formed phase like
670 iron silicate compounds (according to XRD analysis) next to amorphous sodium
671 polysialate, polyferrosialate and ferrisilicate binders that extend the geopolymer
672 network and contribute to the densification of matrix; it also promoted the more
673 release of Si-oligomers that polymerize with other constituents (Al- and Fe- species)
674 and make the matrix stronger and compact;

675 The end products obtained in the present study are sustainable, green and could be found
676 application in buildings and construction, particularly where high performances are required.

677

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839 **Figures and Tables caption**