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Use of highly reactive rice husk ash in the production of cement matrix reinforced with green coconut fiber

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Abstract

This study evaluated the influence of partial replacement of Portland cement by rice husk ash (RHA) to enable the use of green coconut husk fiber as reinforcement for cementitious matrix. The use of highly reactive pozzolanic ash contributes for decreasing the alkaline attack on the vegetable fiber, originated from waste materials. The slurry dewatering technique was used for dispersion of the raw materials in aqueous solution, followed by vacuum drainage of water and pressing for the production of pad composites, as a simplified simulation of the Hatschek process for industrial manufacture. Five formulations were evaluated, two of them without any mineral additions. One of the mixtures served as a reference (without green coconut fibers) and the remaining ones were reinforced with the green coconut fibers (5% by weight of binder) and with the content of Portland cement replacement by RHA equal to 0, 30, 40 and 50%. The composites were analyzed at 28 days of age and after ageing by immersion in warm water (65°C), which lasted for 28 additional days. Physical and mechanical tests were applied for assessment of the performance of composites. Thermogravimetric analysis was used to observe the consumption of portlandite and chemically combined water content in the hydrated products for pastes presenting the same levels of Portland cement replacement by RHA (i.e., 0-50%) and with the water/binder ratio kept constant and equal to 0.5. The mechanical performance

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1 evaluated by bending test after 28 days reached the MOR of 15.7 MPa after the
2 accelerate ageing, for the composites reinforced with the green coconut fiber and with
3 high levels of Portland cement replacement by RHA demonstrating that the use of green
4 coconut fiber for reinforcement can be very promising for the production of binary
5 cement based matrix. The thermogravimetry showed that the replacement of Portland
6 cement by the RHA helped in maintaining the mechanical behavior of the green coconut
7 fiber in the composite subjected to the accelerated ageing tests, and resulted in improved
8 mechanical performance, providing a lightweight composite.

9
10 **Keywords:** cement based composite; vegetable fiber; rice husk ash; cellulosic pulp;
11 thermogravimetry.

12 13 14 **Introduction**

15
16 In the coming years, the construction industry has the challenge of incorporating
17 sustainability in their production processes, either by searching for new raw materials
18 and products more environmentally friendly and/or contributing for the reduction of
19 CO₂ into the atmosphere. The possibility of incorporating waste from other industrial
20 activities in their production processes can help with this goal, reducing the generation
21 of CO₂ emissions during the conventional construction. Ramakrishna and Sundararajan
22 (2005) discussed composites based on lignocellulosic fibers used in building
23 construction. Particleboards can be produced from any lignocellulosic materials in
24 principle, which confer high mechanical strength and specific predetermined weight
25 (Ashori et al 2012, Ashori et al. 2011). Vegetable fibers are also widely available in
26 most developing countries, which make them convenient materials for brittle cement
27 matrix reinforcement, even though they present relatively poor durability performance
28 (Agopyan et al., 2005).

29 The world production of coconut (*Cocos nucifera L.*) was around 60 million tons
30 in 2008 - 85% in Asia, 8.5% in America, 2.9% in Africa and 3.2% in Oceania. Brazil is
31 the fourth largest producer of coconut in the world, with production of about 2.8 million
32 tons per year, accounting for more than 80% of the coconut production in South
33 America. It is estimated that 350 million liters of green coconut water are consumed in
34 Brazil every year (Martins & Jesus Jr., 2011, Pietro et al., 2011). After the consumption

1 of the coconut water, the resulting waste generate significant and increasing volumes of
2 useless material, since 80-85% of the gross weight of the green coconut are nominated
3 as residues. 70% of the waste generated in Brazilian coastal urban centers is green
4 coconut husk (Rosa et al., 2001; Pietro et al., 2011). Although being an organic
5 material, the residue degradation is slow and can take more than eight years to fully
6 degrade (Carrijo et al., 2002). Estimates indicate that the volume of waste generated
7 from the green coconut is equivalent to 6.7 million tons of husks/year, becoming a
8 serious environmental problem (Machado et al., 2009).

9 The green coconut fibers in cement composites can be used as reinforcement in
10 the early ages. The adhesion between the matrix and the reinforcing component has a
11 strong influence on the characteristics of the composite, contributing to an adequate
12 stress transfer between the fibers and the matrix. These fibers increased the impact
13 resistance by 3-18 times, respectively, compared to plain cement specimens. The main
14 drawback for the use of vegetable fibers is the durability of these fibers in a
15 cementitious matrix and also the compatibility between both phases (Agopyan et al.,
16 2005).

17 The recycling of various types of cellulose pulps for the production of fiber
18 cement has shown a significant effect on the mechanical properties and absorption.
19 Yadollahi et al. (2013) found that relatively denser, stronger, and stiffer composites
20 were obtained from the boards made with 40% pulp and paper sludge.

21 To use alternative binders by the inclusion of pozzolanic additions are necessary
22 to reduce the alkalinity of the matrix and the content of calcium hydroxide (portlandite),
23 avoiding the long-term degradation in non-conventional fiber cement material
24 employing vegetable fibers as reinforcement.

25 The hydration process depends on the type and the fineness of the cement, the
26 water/cement ratio, curing temperature and the presence of chemical admixtures and
27 mineral additions. When mineral additions with high pozzolanic activity are
28 incorporated into the cement matrix, can chemically react with calcium hydroxide,
29 resulting from cement hydration to form an additional amount of hydration product in
30 cement matrix. Results showed that RHA can be applied as a pozzolanic material to
31 cement and also can improved resistance to water absorption (Hamzeh et al., 2013). The
32 amount of this hydration product can reduce the porosity of the matrix and the porosity
33 of the fiber-matrix transition zone and the permeability of binder materials, contributing
34 to an increase in durability.

1 The ash production is generated by the burning process of rice husk as sources
2 of energy and cogeneration for power. If adequately processed, the ash becomes a
3 pozzolan predominantly amorphous, which is soluble in an alkaline medium and reacts
4 in an aqueous solution with Ca^{2+} and OH^- ions. The final result of the reaction is the
5 calcium silicate hydrate (CSH), the main product of hydration of the ordinary Portland
6 cement.

7 The rice husk ash and active silica are highly reactive pozzolan, as they are
8 essentially composed of pure silica in non-crystalline form. The non-crystalline rice
9 husk ash (RHA) is obtained by burning at temperatures below 700°C , and consists of a
10 disordered structure of silicon (Si) and oxygen (O) resulting from the decomposition
11 and sintering without fusion of the amorphous silica (Payá et al., 2001).

12 The techniques of differential thermal analysis (DTA) and thermogravimetry
13 (TG and DTG) have been frequently used by different researchers, to determine the
14 amount of chemically combined water proportional to the hydrates (Dweck et al., 2000;
15 Marsh and Day, 1998; Vedalakshmi et al., 2003). Using thermogravimetry it can be
16 observed that the hydration products in the matrix release the chemically combined
17 water in characteristic peaks that may occur in specific temperature ranges, as follows:
18 calcium silicate hydrate (CSH), ettringite and calcium aluminate hydrate - 100 and
19 300°C and calcium hydroxide - 425 and 550°C (Taylor, 1997). Studies carried out by
20 Roszczynialski (2002) and Giergiczny (2006), using thermal analysis (DTA / DTG),
21 showed the influence of the fly ash in the chemically combined water content of
22 hydrates in the cementitious matrix. Payá et al (2003) used TG techniques for
23 monitoring the pozzolanic reaction of spent FCC catalyst. Rodríguez (2012) determined
24 by TG the consumed portlandite by different types of silica fume.

25 The use of supplementary materials in non-conventional fiber cement can
26 provide increments in performance, both in fresh and hardened state, improving its
27 mechanical properties and durability. The use of pozzolan like rice husk ash as a partial
28 substitute to ordinary Portland cement allows enabling the production of non-
29 conventional fiber cement reinforced with natural fibers, once it acts to reduce the
30 alkalinity of the matrix and in the preservation of vegetable fibers, if compared to a
31 matrix composed exclusively of cement Portland (Bezerra et al., 2006).

32 The present study evaluated the use of cementitious matrix modified by partial
33 replacement of the ordinary Portland cement by rice husk ash for the production of non-

1 conventional fiber cement reinforced with cellulose pulp generated from the cement
2 Kraft bags and fiber extracted from the green coconut fruit shell.

3 4 5 **Materials and Methods**

6 7 8 *Characterization of the green coconut fiber*

9
10 The green coconut fibers were mechanically extracted from the husks with an
11 initial length of 14.8 cm and passed through the cutting process in a knife mill, brand
12 JFS[®], JF5 model, with a 4 mm screening separation. The characterization of the fibers
13 included the determination of the aspect (length/diameter) ratio, the real density and
14 water absorption. To evaluate the water absorption, the fibers were initially dried at $65 \pm$
15 5°C and stood in a climatic chamber (Thermotron, model SM-3.5s) at $25 \pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$, with
16 the relative humidity varying in the range of 30, 50, 70 and 90%. The different samples
17 were weighed every 12 h until constant mass for each humidity level assessed. Table 1
18 depicts the dimensional and physical characteristics of the green coconut fibers. Figure
19 1 shows that the cutting process in a knife mill promoted a distribution of length of
20 green coconut fibers.

21
22
23 Table 1. Dimensional and physical characteristics of the green coconut fibers.

24
25
26
27 Fig 1. Distribution of length for green coconut fiber.

28 29 30 *Characterization of the cellulosic pulp*

31
32 The use of cellulosic pulp in cement based composites is important because of
33 the retention of cement particles in the slurry dewatering technique and some
34 reinforcement effect in the early ages. It was decided to use a residual cellulose pulp

1 obtained from the disintegration of cement bags produced with unbleached Kraft paper.
2 The chopped cement bags remained immersed in water for three days. For the
3 preparation of the pulp a blender was used adjusted (with blunt knives) with the
4 addition of 1 L of water to 12 g of the previously chopped bags. In the following step,
5 the materials passed through the process of disintegration for 1 min at maximum speed
6 and the excess water was removed by filtration. The produced pulp was then kept under
7 refrigeration in sealed plastic bags. The morphological characteristics of fiber length
8 and diameter, fiber deformation (curl and kink) and fines content (length under 0.2 mm)
9 of the cement bag pulp were analyzed using the equipment TM Pulptec MFA-500 Fiber
10 Morphology and Shive Analyser - MorFiTrac.

13 *Characterization of the rice husk ash*

14
15 The binder used was the ordinary Portland cement CEM I 52.5 R, CEMEX
16 brand (Spain), with specific surface area (BET) of 1.74 m²/g. Rice husk ash (RHA) was
17 provided by Maicerías Españolas DACSA S.A. They were obtained in a high
18 temperature furnace (T > 1000°C), in which the husks remained only for few seconds at
19 this temperature. In these conditions, some unburned carbon was produced in the ash
20 and no crystallization of amorphous silica was reached. Before being used it was milled
21 for 20 minutes in a Gabrielli-2 jar mill with 18mm diameter-alumina balls, to increase
22 its reactivity. For the granulometric studies, a laser diffraction granulometer (LDG) was
23 used, it was the Mastersizer 2000 produced by Malvern Instruments. This equipment
24 allows the measurement of particles of a size between 0.02 and 2000 micrometers,
25 defining for this case a refraction index of 1.54 and an absorption index of 1. Mean
26 particle diameter of ground RHA was 10µm.

29 *Preparation and characterization of the composites*

30
31 The content of both green coconut fiber and cellulose pulp was up to 5% of the
32 total weight of the binder (ordinary Portland cement – OPC – and rice husk ash – RHA)
33 as shown in Table 2. The mixture of raw materials formed with approximately 20% of
34 solids in a mixer was stirred at 1,000 rpm for 15 min. The slurry was transferred to the

1 evacuable casting box and the vacuum was applied until a solid surface formed. The
2 pads of each formulation were pressed at 6.4 MPa for 10 min and wet curing of the pads
3 for 28 days, as described below.

4
5
6 Table 2. Proportions between binder materials (OPC x RHA) and between reinforcing
7 fiber / binder materials.
8
9

10 For the production and characterization of the composites, flat pads were molded
11 with dimensions of 200 x 200 mm and 5 mm thick. The test pads were submitted to the
12 wet curing for two days in sealed plastic bags and then kept in a climatic chamber at 20
13 °C and 90% relative humidity until they completed the 28 day period. The pads were
14 then cut into the test specimens (200 x 40 mm) using a diamond disk cooled by water in
15 order to be prepared to the physical and mechanical tests. Half of the specimens passed
16 the physical-mechanical tests after the initial curing period (28 days) and the other half
17 remained in thermal bath at 65°C (ageing process) for another 28 days before the tests,
18 totaling 56 days of curing + degradation.

19 Eight specimens (test repetitions) were used to determine the physical and
20 mechanical properties for each of the mixtures or curing conditions under evaluation.
21 The physical properties were bulk density, water absorption, apparent porosity and
22 permeability (ASTM, 1981). The four-point bending tests (equidistant distances
23 between the supports) were carried out in the universal testing Instron model 3382 using
24 a 5 kN cell machine Instron model 2714-010[®], with the cross-head speed of 1.5
25 mm/min, for the calculation of the following mechanical properties: modulus of rupture
26 (MOR) and specific energy (SE). The completion of the tests was achieved after to be
27 observed a 70% reduction in relation to the maximum load (Savastano Jr., 2000).

28 The analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey test were applied to
29 compare the mean results between groups at a significance level of 5%.

30 For the thermogravimetric analysis (TG), it was used a simultaneous thermal
31 analyzer Mettler Toledo brand, model 850 TGA, to determine the reactivity of the RHA
32 and the amount of calcium hydroxide fixed by pozzolanic reaction in the cementitious
33 pastes produced. Cement pastes were prepared according to the levels of replacement of
34 ordinary Portland cement by the RHA, and the water/binder ratio was constant and

1 equal to 0.5. The evaluation ages were chosen at 7 and 28 days for wet curing, and after
2 different periods of ageing in warm water bath at 65°C for 28 and 90 days. The samples
3 to be analyzed by TG were previously prepared from small fragments of the pastes
4 which have been ground in acetone at the age of analysis. The powder obtained was
5 separated through a sieve n° 120 (125 µm) and the residual moisture of the sample was
6 removed using acetone followed by filtration and drying at 65°C. The TG analyses were
7 performed under an atmosphere of dry air with gas flow equal to 75 mL/min, heating
8 rate of 10°C/min and a temperature range between 35°C and 600°C. Aluminium
9 crucibles with 100 µL capacity having a sealable lid with a pin hole to obtain water
10 vapour self-generated atmosphere were used.

13 **Results and Discussion**

15 *Characterization of the green coconut fibers*

17 The determination of the humidity absorption in a climatic chamber was adopted
18 to be considered more appropriate for evaluating the fiber behavior under storage before
19 the composite preparation (Fig. 2). However, the experimental test adopting water
20 immersion resulted in 93.8% absorption, due to the high incidence of permeable pores,
21 including the central gap and lumens of the individual cells that are commonly present
22 in the structure of the green coconut fiber (Fig. 3).

26 Fig 2. Evolution of the average water absorption of the green coconut fiber for different
27 relative humidity set at 30, 50, 70 and 90% and temperature set at 25°C.

30 When increasing the relative humidity, the absorption also increases. With this
31 behavior, cement composite bulk density may decrease when the amount of vegetable
32 fiber is higher. Another important aspect directly connected to the moisture absorption
33 of the fibers is the ability to absorb water rich in hydration products of the cement at
34 high pH and highly aggressive solution to the fibers over the time exposition.

1
2
3 Fig 3. Cross sectional (A) and longitudinal surface (B) of the virgin green coconut fiber,
4 by scanning electron microscopy (SEM).
5
6

7 The green coconut fibers have an approximately cylindrical shape and surface
8 with roughness and protuberances, which can assist in anchoring the fibers in the
9 cementitious matrix. Figure 3A depicts the various unitary cells that compose the fiber
10 and which are agglomerated by intercellular lamellae (middle lamella) and also the
11 lumens (cavities) of the unitary cells. Figure 3B shows an outer layer that involves and
12 protects the unitary cells of the green coconut fiber, improving the protection against the
13 alkaline attack caused by the cement matrix.

14 The effectiveness of fibers in enhancing the mechanical performance of the
15 brittle matrix is dependent to a large extent on the fiber–matrix interactions. Three types
16 of interactions are particularly important: physical and chemical adhesion; friction;
17 mechanical anchorage induced by deformations on the fiber surface or by overall
18 complex geometry. The efficiency of fiber reinforcement can be judged on the basis of
19 two criteria: the enhancement in strength and the enhancement in toughness of the
20 composite, compared with the brittle matrix. These effects depend upon the fiber length,
21 the orientation of the fibers and the fiber–matrix shear bond strength. A critical length
22 parameter can be defined as the minimum fiber length required for the build-up of a
23 stress in the fiber which is equal to its strength (Bentur, Mindess, 2007).
24
25

26 *Characterization of the cellulose pulp*

27

28 The use of short fibers allowed higher fiber density by mass or volume in
29 relation to the long fibers, which reduces the magnitude of spaces without reinforcement
30 in the matrix. Figure 4 shows the distributions of length and width of the cellulosic pulp
31 from cement Kraft bags.
32
33

1 Fig 4. Distribution of the length (A) and width (B) of the cellulosic fibers obtained from
2 the recycling of the cement Kraft bag.

3
4
5 The shortening of the cellulosic fibers originating from the cement bag through
6 the recycling process of the cellulose pulp generated an expressive amount of small
7 particles (length smaller than 200 μm), known as fines. Table 3 describes the
8 morphological parameters of the cellulose pulp obtained from the recycling of the
9 cement bag. Broken ends increase the surface area of fibers, which turns them more
10 reactive with the cement particles. Curls (curvature of the fiber) and kinks (sudden
11 change in direction of the axis of the fiber) are deformations that occur during the
12 pulping process and affect the resistance and energy to break the fiber. The use of curly
13 fibers can lead to low tensile index, but may also lead to high shear-index (Wathén,
14 2006).

15
16
17 Table 3. Morphological parameters of the cellulose pulp generated from the cement
18 Kraft bags.

19
20
21 The disintegration process adopted for recycling the cellulose pulp probably
22 contributed to the mechanical damage suffered by the fibers. Those damages can be
23 associated to the incidence of continuous and gradual deformation of the fiber (curl) and
24 the twisted curvature of the fiber (kink), influencing the length of fiber and creating
25 weak points that can be favorable to the rupture of the fiber (Tonoli et al, 2010; Tonoli
26 et al., 2012).

27
28
29 *Characterization of the rice husk ash (RHA)*

30
31 The rice husk ash is a material with two completely distinct phases, the outer
32 layer formed of a denser structure (external epidermis, Figure 5A) and the internal layer,
33 that is formed by an extremely porous structure (parenchyma and sclerenchyma, Fig

1 5B). Ground particles do not show internal porosity and are irregular in shape (Figures
2 5C and 5D).

3
4
5 Fig 5. SEM micrographs: the external (A) and internal (B) structures of the RHA before
6 the milling process; ground RHA particles (C) and (D).

7
8
9 Because of this internal structure the RHA should preferably be ground before
10 being used as a pozzolanic material, which increases the fineness and consequently the
11 specific surface area of the material (Payá, 2012) (Fig. 6).

12
13
14 Fig 6. Particle size distribution curves of rice husk ash before (---) and after (—) the
15 milling process.

16
17
18 The loss on ignition (LOI) of the RHA was significant (11.67%) and it was
19 attributed to the incomplete combustion of organic compounds in the flash combustion
20 process of the husks. The organic matter decomposed being transformed into carbon.
21 The most relevant inorganic compound was SiO₂ (81.1%), having a high importance
22 because it is one of the reactants in the pozzolanic reaction (Eq. 1). This silica reacts
23 with calcium hydroxide in aqueous environment, yielding calcium silicate hydrates in
24 gel form ((CaO)_x.(SiO₂)_y (H₂O)_n , abbreviated as C-S-H) (Ordóñez et al., 2002),
25 according to the following reaction:



28
29 Where CSH has a stoichiometry similar to jennite (CaO)₉.(SiO₂)₆.(H₂O)₁₁
30 (Taylor, 1986).

31
32 C-S-H produced in the pozzolanic reaction is a very poor crystalline product,
33 similar to those found from hydration of calcium silicates from OPC and presents

1 stability, insolubility and cementing properties (Qijun et al., 1999; James et al., 1986).
2 Al_2O_3 and Fe_2O_3 contents in RHA were very low, and consequently, no noticeable
3 contribution on pozzolanic reaction may be taken into account.

4
5
6 *Physical and mechanical properties of the composites*

7
8 Table 4 shows the mean values of the physical properties of fiber reinforced
9 matrices produced with ordinary Portland cement (OPC) and with the blended binder
10 (OPC and RHA) at two different ages, after 28 days of wet curing and after the same
11 period of ageing in heated thermal bath at 65°C.

12
13
14 Table 4. Mean values and their respective standard errors of the physical properties of
15 the composites in two different ages.

16
17
18 With the exception of the composite without green coconut fiber, all the
19 remaining ones showed higher values for the water absorption, apparent porosity and
20 lower values for the bulk density, indicating that the inclusion of green coconut fiber
21 and the increase in the total fiber content resulted in a composite with greater capillary
22 porosity by incorporation of air in the matrix. Another factor that explains the high
23 values of the apparent porosity of the blended binder composite reinforced with the
24 green coconut fiber was the observed values of the w/b (water/binder) ratio, being
25 binder the sum of OPC and RHA (see Table 2). This parameter increased from 0.4 for
26 the matrix with 100% OPC to 0.57-0.63 for the different composites prepared by
27 replacement of cement by RHA. This fact was attributed to the water absorption, the
28 high fineness and morphology of RHA particles.

29 Fig. 7 presents the typical stress-specific deformation curves obtained from four-
30 point bending tests. In Fig 7A mechanical behavior of the formulation 1 without
31 macrofiber (green coconut fiber) before thermal curing can be observed, showing an
32 abrupt drop of stress after rupture. The improved mechanical performance of the
33 formulations 2 to 5 as compared to composite without macrofiber indicates the effect of

1 green coconut fibers on the toughness of the composite and its capacity of crack control
2 (Bentur, Mindess, 2007). Different mechanical behavior was found in the ageing
3 composites, after the thermal bath (Fig. 7B). A clear difference was observed in the area
4 under curves between composites before and after the thermal bath, especially for those
5 reinforced with green coconut fibers. The highest values for stress and specific energy
6 of the formulation 5, if compared to other formulations after the thermal bath, suggests
7 a decrease of degradation mechanisms of the fibers with less alkaline matrix promoted
8 by RHA.

9
10
11 Fig 7. Typical stress-specific deformation curves at different ages ((A) 28 days and (B)
12 28 days in thermal bath) for specific composites.

13
14
15 Fig 8. Correlation between modulus of rupture (MOR) and specific energy (SE) of the
16 composites.

17
18
19 In Figure 8, the average values of MOR at 28 days show that the formulation 5
20 (15.7 MPa) has significantly higher strength than the composite without green coconut
21 fibers (12.5 MPa), as well as specific energy. In general, the MOR and specific energy
22 were partially maintained in the formulation 5 after the thermal bath, which may be
23 associated with the fiber-matrix interfacial bond. The substitution of 50% of OPC by
24 RHA provided the refinement of the pores and did not prejudice the mechanical
25 resistance of the composite. It may also have assisted the preservation of the green
26 coconut fiber due to the reduction of alkalinity in comparison with the OPC matrix. The
27 results also show that the ageing period of 28 days in a water bath at 65°C was
28 important to complement the curing process. The pozzolanic reaction between silica
29 from RHA and portlandite from hydration of OPC produced an appropriate environment
30 for the chemical stabilization of green coconut fibers.

31 The specific energy is related to the toughening mechanisms provided by de-
32 bonding, pull out, bridging and fracture of the fibers, playing a role in the process of
33 cracking of the composites. Even after the period of ageing in thermal bath, the

1 composite with 50% RHA (formulation 5) presented a average specific energy
2 significantly higher than the others, which support the statement that the high amount of
3 RHA was very effective in preserving the green coconut fibers in the cementitious
4 matrix. The fibers positively work in the post-stage cracking of the composite,
5 dissipating the energy applied during the mechanical test. This high absorption of
6 energy can be explained by the variation of the fiber diameter along its length, surface
7 roughness and good adhesion regions distributed along the porous transition zone,
8 which behave as anchoring points of the fiber.

9 Savastano Jr. (2000) evaluated the influence of the microstructure on the
10 mechanical properties of cement based composites, concluding that the mechanism of
11 fiber pullout is more important than the fracture of the fiber in order to improve
12 toughness. It is possible to attest an improvement in the performance of the fiber-matrix
13 transition zone through the incorporation of the RHA, causing the two phases to be
14 better connected to each other, given the results in the Figure 8.

15 16 17 *Thermogravimetry of the cement pastes*

18
19 Table 5 shows the values of calcium hydroxide (CH) fixation corresponding to
20 the different amounts of RHA replacement. The CH fixation was calculated according
21 to Payá et al. (2003). This method takes into account the amount of portlandite formed
22 from OPC in RHA/OPC mixtures for calculating the percentage of calcium hydroxide
23 reacted. For calculating the values of CH fixation, the mass loss corresponding to the
24 thermal decomposition of calcium hydroxide was evaluated (Eq. 2):



26
27
28 The decomposition process took place in the 520-600°C temperature range,
29 according to the thermal analysis parameters (sealed aluminum crucible, with a pinholed
30 lid).

31
32
33 Table 5. Fixation of calcium hydroxide (CH) and combined water according to the
34 amount of cement replacement by rice husk ash and the age of the pastes.

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One should notice the influence of the amount of cement replaced by RHA on the fixation of portlandite (CH). The greater the amount of RHA, the higher the fixation of calcium hydroxide (CH), confirming the pozzolanic behavior of this material. Higher amounts of water combined to RHA in the cement pastes are directly connected to the additional formation of hydration products (mainly CSH).

The DTG curves related to the pastes produced in accordance with the different levels of Portland cement replacement by RHA provide information about the weight loss as a function of heating temperature. The mass losses related to the different ages are always obtained at the same temperature, only varying the quantity of water lost. The smaller the peak the lower content of portlandite, and consequently the higher fixed portlandite by RHA. The counting numbers (1, 2 and 3) next to the curves of the graphs are intended to facilitate the discussion (Fig 9).

Fig 9. DTG curves for the different formulations with partial replacement of ordinary Portland cement by the RHA at different ages and different conditions.

From the DTG curves corresponding to the cementitious pastes in both ages evaluated, it is possible to visualize the peaks as follows: the first peak 1 is the dehydration of ettringite (100-180°C) with an overlap with the dehydration of the phase CSH (calcium silicate hydrate), the second peak corresponds to the dehydration of calcium aluminosilicate hydrate (180-240°C). Finally, the peak 3 shows the dehydroxylation of portlandite (CH) (520-600°C).

By comparing the curves of the reference paste with the paste with the addition of 50% RHA, after the thermal bath treatment, it is observed the total reaction of portlandite during the pozzolanic process: the peak 3 in pastes cured in thermal bath for 28 and 90 days was not identified or was extremely small, for OPC/RHA pastes of 60/40 and 50/50. The pozzolanic reaction did not exhaust the total amount of portlandite in OPC/RHA paste of 70/30, probably because the amount of RHA was not enough for reacting completely with the portlandite generated in the hydration of OPC. The peak 3 on the curves corresponding to control paste (100% OPC) did not change significantly

1 with the thermal treatment. It should be noticed the influence of the amount of cement
2 replaced by RHA on the consumption of portlandite. The increased level of substitution
3 resulted in a higher fixation of calcium hydroxide (CH), confirming the pozzolanic
4 character of the mineral addition. The test results obtained by thermogravimetric
5 analysis show that the replacement of Portland cement by RHA helped with the
6 conservation of green coconut fiber in the matrix and therefore resulted in the improved
7 mechanical performance, providing a lighter composite.

10 **Conclusions**

12 The mechanical performance after 28 days, with MOR of 15.7 MPa, for the
13 composites reinforced with the green coconut fiber and with high levels of Portland
14 cement replacement by RHA (50%) demonstrates that the use of the fiber as
15 reinforcement can be very promising for the production of fiber cement with blended
16 binder.

17 All composites showed higher values for the water absorption and apparent
18 porosity and lower values for the bulk density, with the exception of the composite
19 without green coconut fiber, indicating that the inclusion of green coconut fiber and the
20 increase in the total fiber content resulted in a composite with greater capillary porosity
21 by incorporation of air in the matrix.

22 Thermogravimetry allowed identifying the larger portlandite consumption in the
23 RHA formulations. The obtained results show that highly reactive rice husk ash presents
24 suitable characteristics for their use as pozzolanic material in Portland cement products,
25 with very high portlandite consumption, finding 93.4% of portlandite fixation at 28 days
26 when the replacement of ordinary Portland cement by RHA was 50% and 100% of
27 fixation after thermal treatment. These results demonstrate the low alkalinity medium
28 which was reached using high proportion of RHA.

29 The presence of RHA generates benefits related with the reduction in clinker
30 consumption as through the decrease of matrix alkalinity and consequently reducing
31 vegetable fibers degradation.

32 The results are promising for the potential use of composites in applications with
33 higher risk of degradation, such as outdoor panels exposed to weathering.

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