



**UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS**

This is a repository copy of *Expansion of CEM I and slag-blended cement mortars exposed to combined chloride-sulphate environments*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:  
<http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/147641/>

Version: Accepted Version

---

**Article:**

Ukpata, JO, Basheer, PAM and Black, L [orcid.org/0000-0001-8531-4989](https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8531-4989) (2019) Expansion of CEM I and slag-blended cement mortars exposed to combined chloride-sulphate environments. *Cement and Concrete Research*, 123. 105794. ISSN 0008-8846

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cemconres.2019.105794>

---

© 2019, Elsevier. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>.

**Reuse**

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs (CC BY-NC-ND) licence. This licence only allows you to download this work and share it with others as long as you credit the authors, but you can't change the article in any way or use it commercially. More information and the full terms of the licence here: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

**Takedown**

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing [eprints@whiterose.ac.uk](mailto:eprints@whiterose.ac.uk) including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



[eprints@whiterose.ac.uk](mailto:eprints@whiterose.ac.uk)  
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>

1 **Expansion of CEM I and slag-blended cement mortars exposed to combined chloride-**  
2 **sulphate environments**

3  
4 Joseph O. Ukpata<sup>1,2</sup>, P. A. M. Basheer<sup>2</sup> and Leon Black<sup>2</sup>

5 <sup>1</sup>. Department of Civil Engineering, Cross River University of Technology, Calabar,  
6 Nigeria

7 <sup>2</sup>. School of Civil Engineering, University of Leeds, Leeds, United Kingdom

8  
9 **Abstract**

10 This study investigates the effects of specimen curing duration, temperature, and slag  
11 composition on expansion of CEM I and composite slag-cement mortars exposed to a  
12 combined NaCl and Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution for up to 664 days. Test prisms prepared at 0.5 w/b ratio,  
13 were wet-cured for either 7 or 28 days prior to submersion in a combined salt solution at  
14 temperatures of 20 or 38°C, to simulate temperate or warm tropical climates respectively.  
15 Equivalent reference specimens were stored in saturated limewater at 20°C and tested in  
16 parallel. Mortar samples were used to investigate expansion and sorptivity, while  
17 corresponding paste specimens were prepared, cured and exposed under similar conditions  
18 for chemical and microstructural investigation. Such characterisation was performed on  
19 specimens immediately prior to exposure to salt solution and after the onset of expansion. The  
20 results show significant resistance to sulphate-induced expansion for specimens cured and  
21 exposed at 38°C. For slag blends, the influence of exposure temperature was found to be  
22 more pronounced than curing duration. Differences in slag composition and curing duration  
23 also played key roles on the expansion resistance of mortar specimens. Expansion was  
24 attributed to the formation of ettringite crystals due to the reaction of aluminates phases of the  
25 binders with sulphate ions, although Friedel's salt and Kuzel's salt were also formed. The  
26 presence of chloride mitigated sulphate expansion of CEM I. For slag blends, it was shown  
27 that sulphate expansion was significantly reduced with increasing slag contents.

28 **Keywords:** slag, cement, expansion. Chloride, sulphate

29  
30 **1.0 Introduction**

31 Sulphate attack is a concern for concrete durability wherever concrete may come into contact  
32 with sulphate ions, potentially leading to expansion, cracking and spalling of mortars and  
33 concretes. A number of hypotheses have been given to explain the mechanisms of expansion  
34 of cement systems due to sulphate attack [1, 2]. The most acceptable hypothesis is related to  
35 crystallization pressure theory [3-7]. This relates expansion to pressures due to the formation  
36 of ettringite crystals from pore solutions which have been supersaturated with respect to  
37 ettringite, following continuous ingress of sulphate ions. Such crystals growing in confined  
38 pore spaces exert expansive forces on the pore walls leading to expansion. Yu et al. [5]  
39 explained that the penetrated sulphate ions first react with monosulphate, buffering any  
40 increase of sulphate ions in the pore solution until all transformable alumina had been used.  
41 Then, the concentration of sulphate in the pore solution would increase and become  
42 oversaturated, which triggers its reaction with monosulphate, leading to ettringite precipitation  
43 within the hardened cement paste. According to Müllauer et al. [8], expansion and degradation  
44 in mortar specimens occurred when the stresses generated (approximately 8 MPa) due to

45 ettringite formation in small pores (10-50 nm) had exceeded the tensile strength of the binder  
46 matrix (3-4 MPa).

47 Further work by Yu et al. [9] differentiated sulphate-oriented degradation between CEM I and  
48 slag-blended cement mortars. It was reported that CEM I showed initial generalised slow  
49 expansion, followed by rapid increase in expansion up to failure. For the slag blends, however,  
50 expansion was not generalised due to limited penetration of sulphate solution. Hence, damage  
51 was localized and occurred in stages from the surface region and increasing to greater depths,  
52 as damage in the outer region allowed further ingress of sulphate ions into deeper sections.  
53 Slag blends are generally known to be more resistant to sulphate attack than plain CEM I due  
54 to the buffering role of their more refined pore structure [10-15]. It has also been reported that  
55 the formation of both monocarboaluminate and ettringite due to the addition of limestone  
56 reduced sulphate attack in slag blends [13]. Also, Kunther et al. [16] found that sulphate  
57 expansion in mortar specimens was reduced in blends with lower Ca/Si ratios of the C-S-H,  
58 such as is observed in slag blends. This behaviour was attributed to decreased  
59 supersaturation of the pore solution with respect to ettringite caused by leaching and  
60 decalcification of C-S-H and portlandite. Furthermore, decreased C<sub>3</sub>A content in cement is  
61 known to lessen the effects of sulphate attack [17, 18]. No significant difference in expansion  
62 was observed due to changes in attacking sulphate concentration, although damage was  
63 found to increase as sulphate concentration was increased from 3 to 30g/l [9].

64 In addition to their presence in groundwater, sulphates present in seawater are a major  
65 concern for concrete durability [19]. In seawater, sulphate ions are naturally present along with  
66 other anions, typically, chlorides and the investigation of sulphate attack is thus more plausible  
67 using combined solutions. The influence of chloride on sulphate attack is still controversial and  
68 depends on many factors, including the nature of attacking sulphate ions and environmental  
69 conditions. Many researchers have reported on the mitigating role of chlorides on sulphate  
70 attack [19-22]. However, others have found neither positive nor negative effects of chlorides  
71 when sodium is the cation [10], but an aggravating effect when magnesium is the cation [23].  
72 Also, there are indications that the mitigating effect of chloride on sulphate attack could be  
73 more significant in CEM I than slag cements [24, 25], because the alumina in slags do not  
74 react directly with incoming sulphate ions to form ettringite but are bound in C-S-H,  
75 monosulphate and hydrotalcite during the hydration of slag [1].

76 The dependence of sulphate attack on temperature and binder type has also been studied  
77 [23]. However, differences in cement materials and the investigated temperature ranges in the  
78 literature have left gaps and conflicting findings, necessitating further investigation. Hossack  
79 and Thomas [26] studied the effect of temperatures between 1 and 23°C on Portland cement  
80 blended cements, with resistance to external sulphate attack of the blended cements  
81 improving with increasing temperature. Similarly, Maes and de Belle [23] looked at CEM I,  
82 sulphate resisting cement and a 50% cement-PC slag blend and found that chlorides did not  
83 affect magnesium sulphate damage for CEM I and sulphate resistant cement at 20°C, but that  
84 there was increased degradation for the slag blend at 5°C. There appears to have been more  
85 emphasis on the effects of low temperatures, likely due to concerns over the thaumasite form  
86 of sulphate attack, where temperatures below 15°C are associated with thaumasite formation  
87 [12, 23, 27-31]. Investigations into performance at higher temperatures are less common.  
88 Although, it was reported that raising temperature of exposure solution from 20 to 40°C did  
89 not accelerate sulphate attack [32]. Conversely, Santhanam et al. [33] found that expansion  
90 of PC mortars increased with increasing temperature and sulphate concentration. Given the  
91 contradictory nature of the literature, the present study investigates the influence of elevated  
92 temperature, curing duration and binder type or slag composition, on external sulphate attack  
93 from combined chloride-sulphate solutions.

94 **2.0 Experimental details**

95 **2.1 Materials and specimen preparations**

96 Two slags of different basicity ratios ( $(\text{CaO} + \text{MgO})/\text{SiO}_2 = 1.28 \text{ \& } 1.18$ ), designated as slags  
97 1 and 2, were each blended with CEM I 52.5 R to produce 30 wt.% slag blends. These slag  
98 blends were used in this study, together with a plain CEM I 42.5 R. This approach reflects  
99 industrial practice where composite cements can often be blended with a slightly finer clinker.  
100 The chemical and physical properties of the cements and slag are as previously reported [34],  
101 but are presented in Tables 1 and 2 for completeness. The particle size distributions were  
102 similar for the binders. Fine aggregate used for mortar specimens was natural siliceous sand  
103 sieved to 2.0mm maximum particle size. Mortar prisms (25x25x200mm) for expansion tests  
104 were cast in steel moulds at 0.5 w/b ratio (Table 3) and cured at either 20°C or 38°C for 7 or  
105 28 days. The natural water content of the fine aggregate prior to mixing was 0.81%, while the  
106 water absorption was 2.26%, giving an effective w/b ratio of 0.493. The specimens were then  
107 soaked for 24 hours in deionised water before immersion in a combined NaCl (30g/l) and  
108  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  (3g/l) solution at either 20°C or 38°C for up to 66 4 days. The concentrations of chloride  
109 and sulphate were similar to those in typical seawater, and also chosen to replicate those used  
110 in similar earlier studies looking at chloride [35] and sulphate [11] attack. The liquid to solid  
111 ratio was approximately 4. The test solution was renewed monthly. Parallel specimens were  
112 immersed in lime water for reference measurements.

113 Microstructural development and the development of the phase assemblages were followed  
114 by preparing paste specimens of identical binder composition to the mortar samples. Pastes  
115 were mixed by hand for 3 minutes before being poured into  $\varnothing 14 \times 50$  mm plastic vials. The  
116 lids were closed and sealed before the vials were rotated for 24 hours to prevent bleeding.  
117 Samples were then placed in plastic bags, vacuum sealed and placed in water baths at either  
118 20 or 38°C for either 7 or 28 days before demoulding and exposure to the salt solution.  
119 Specimens were then taken from the centre of the paste specimens at different ages (i.e. 7,  
120 28 and 180 days), to mark the periods just before exposure to the combined salt solution and  
121 after the onset of significant expansion.

122

123 **Table 1: Chemical compositions of cementitious materials (As received)**

Component	Unit	CEM I 42.5R (C1)	CEM I 52.5R (C2)	Slag 1 (S1)	Slag 2 (S2)
$\text{SiO}_2$	%	20.17	20.50	36.58	40.14
$\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$	%	5.33	5.43	12.23	7.77
$\text{TiO}_2$	%	0.29	0.29	0.83	0.30
MnO	%	0.05	0.05	0.64	0.64
$\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$	%	2.65	2.51	0.48	0.78
CaO	%	63.01	63.43	38.24	37.90
MgO	%	1.45	1.51	8.55	9.51
$\text{K}_2\text{O}$	%	0.76	0.79	0.65	0.55
$\text{Na}_2\text{O}$	%	0.14	0.17	0.27	0.36
$\text{SO}_3$	%	3.33	3.43	1.00	1.47
$\text{P}_2\text{O}_5$	%	0.12	0.14	0.06	0.02
LOI 950°C	%	2.12	1.37	1.66	0.40
Total at 950°C	%	99.42	99.62	99.88	99.43
Glass content	%	na	na	99.3	97.1

124

125 **Table 2: Physical properties of cementitious materials**

Property	Unit	CEM I 42.5R (C1)	CEM I 52.5R (C2)	Slag 1 (S1)	Slag 2 (S2)
Blaine	cm <sup>2</sup> /g	3490	7357	5995	5540
Density	g/cm <sup>3</sup>	3.14	3.16	2.93	2.91
D10	µm	3.54	2.94	2.27	2.87
D50	µm	16.29	9.43	11.56	12.91

126

127 **Table 3: Mix design for mortar specimens**

Binder	W/B ratio	CEM I (g)		GGBS (g)		Water (g)	Sand (g)
		42.5 R	52.5R	S1	S2		
C1	0.5	450	0	0	0	225	1350
C2S1	0.5	0	315	135	0	225	1350
C2S2	0.5	0	315	0	135	225	1350

128

## 129 **2.2 X-ray diffraction**

130 X-ray diffraction (XRD) was performed on bulk powder specimens, using a Bruker D2 phaser  
 131 diffractometer with a Cu K $\alpha$  source and 1D mode Lynxeye detector, operating at 30 KV and  
 132 10 mA. Prior to XRD analysis, specimens were hydration stopped using the isopropanol  
 133 solvent replacement method. Scanning was performed from 5° to 70° 2 $\theta$ , at 0.034° increment  
 134 with a scan time of 2 s and specimen rotation of 15 rpm. BRUKER XRD DIFFRAC.SUITE V3.0  
 135 software was used for phase identification in conjunction with published data in the literature.

136

## 137 **2.3 Chemically bound water from thermal analysis**

138 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed on hydrated paste powder specimens using  
 139 a Stanton Redcroft 780 series thermal analyser. Specimens were heated at temperatures of  
 140 20°C to 1000°C at a constant heating rate of 20°C/min, under nitrogen gas at a flow rate of 50  
 141 ml/min. The initial specimen weights were kept fairly uniform at 16±1 mg. Bound water was  
 142 taken as the mass loss between 50°C and 550°C [35]. Within this range of temperatures, it  
 143 was assumed that all water-containing phases would have been decomposed. Bound water  
 144 content ( $W_b$ ) was calculated according to Equation 1.

145

$$W_b = \frac{(W_{50} - W_{550})}{W_{550}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

146

147 Where

148  $W_b$  is the bound water (%);

149  $W_{50}$  is the residual mass at 50°C; and

150  $W_{550}$  is the residual mass at 550°C.

151

## 152 **2.4 Degrees of hydration and capillary porosity from SEM image analysis**

153 In order to follow the hydration of CEM I clinkers and slag blends, polished, resin-embedded  
154 paste specimens were examined by scanning electron microscopy. Thirty backscattered  
155 electron images (BSE) were randomly obtained per specimen using a Carl Zeis EVO MA 15  
156 scanning electron microscope (SEM) at 800x magnification at working distance of 8.0-9.0mm  
157 and accelerating voltage of 20KeV. According to Scrivener et al. [36], 10-20 images were  
158 adequate for reasonable statistical accuracy, at moderate (30-40%) replacement levels. BSE  
159 images for the slag-blended paste specimens were supplemented with energy dispersive x-  
160 ray spectroscopy (EDX) The lack of magnesium mobility during hydration was exploited to  
161 determine the degree of slag hydration. Mg elemental maps were used to locate the original  
162 location of unhydrated slag, and ImageJ software was used to overlay this over BSE maps  
163 identifying slag [37]. The degree of clinker hydration at any given age was calculated according  
164 to Equation 2.

165

$$\alpha_{PC} = \frac{V_{anh.PC}(t=0) - V_{anh.PC}(t)}{V_{anh.PC}(t=0)} \quad (2)$$

166 Where:

167  $\alpha_{PC}$  = degree of hydration of CEM I (PC)

168  $V_{anh.PC}(t=0)$  = volume fraction of initial anhydrous PC

169  $V_{anh.PC}(t)$  = volume fraction of unreacted PC remaining at time t (in days).

170

171 Also, the degree of slag hydration at any given time was calculated from Equation 3, in line  
172 with [38].

173

$$\alpha_{slag} = \frac{V_{anh.slag}(t=0) - V_{anh.slag}(t)}{V_{anh.slag}(t=0)} \quad (3)$$

174 Where:

175  $\alpha_{slag}$  = degree of slag hydration

176  $V_{anh.slag}(t=0)$  = volume fraction of initial anhydrous slag

177  $V_{anh.slag}(t)$  = volume fraction of unreacted slag remaining at time t (in days).

178

179 BSE images were also analysed using ImageJ to quantify the coarse capillary porosity at 7  
180 and 28 days. On a BSE image the pores can be identified as the darkest regions and a  
181 threshold was implemented following the method suggested by Scrivener [39] and adopted by  
182 many researchers [35, 40].

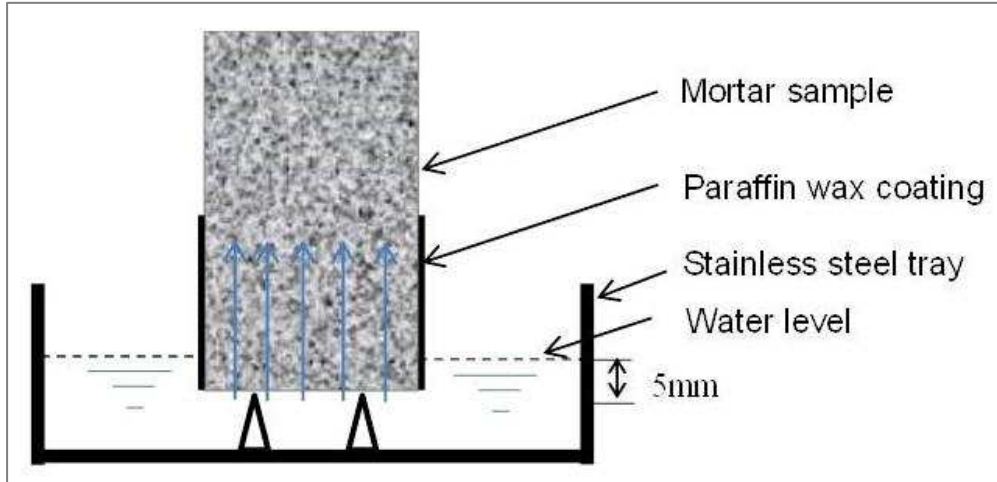
183

## 184 **2.5 Mortar sorptivity**

185 Sorptivity was measured using 28 mm  $\phi$  x 50 mm cylindrical mortar specimens. The schematic  
186 of the test set-up is shown in Figure 1. The mortar specimens were conditioned to constant  
187 weight in an oven at  $(40 \pm 2)$  °C, according to BS EN 13057 [41] and later cooled to ambient

188 temperature (ca. 20°C). The near bottom perimeter of each specimen was coated in paraffin  
189 wax to allow only unidirectional uptake of water. Each specimen was then suspended on a  
190 stainless steel wire mesh in a tray containing deionised water at ca. 20°C, such that only about  
191 5 mm of the specimen was submerged in water.

192



193

194 **Figure 1.** Schematic set-up for measuring the rate of water absorption in mortar specimens.

195

196 The mortar masses were measured at 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49 and 64 minutes, similar to the  
197 procedure used by other researchers [42, 43]. The sorptivity coefficient was obtained from the  
198 slope of the plot of cumulative water absorption ( $\text{g}/\text{mm}^2$ ) against the square root of time  
199 ( $\text{min}^{0.5}$ ), in line with Equation 4.

200

$$201 \quad i = K\sqrt{t} \quad (4)$$

202

203 Where:

204  $i$  = cumulative water absorption ( $\text{g}/\text{mm}^2$ ),

205  $t$  = time (minutes), and

206  $k$  = sorptivity ( $\text{g}/\text{mm}^2/\text{min}^{0.5}$ ).

207

## 208 **2.6 Expansion measurements**

209 Expansion of mortar prisms (25 x 25 x 200 mm) was measured regularly, in triplicate, using a  
210 length comparator test rig equipped with a digital dial gauge. Details of the exposure conditions  
211 are given in Table 4. Expansion measurements were made weekly for the first month, then  
212 after weeks: 8, 13, 15, 24, 36, 45, and 52, for the first year. Subsequently, regular monthly  
213 measurements were taken, up to a total exposure period of 664 days. Expansion was  
214 calculated in line with Equation 5. This approach is consistent with the literature for length  
215 change measurements in cement systems [40, 44].

216

$$\delta_l = \frac{(L_x - L_i)}{L_i} \times 100\% \quad (5)$$

217

218 Where  $\delta_L$  = length-change or expansion (%),  $L_x$  = measured length (mm) at a given period of  
 219 exposure (in weeks),  $L_i$  = initial baseline measurement for the same specimen.

220

221 **Table 4.** Exposure conditions.

Exposure type	Initial curing	Exposure environment	Exposure temperature
X1	7 or 28 days in water	immersed in saturated lime water	20°C or 38°C
X2	7 days in water	immersed in combined chloride-sulphate solution	20°C or 38°C

222

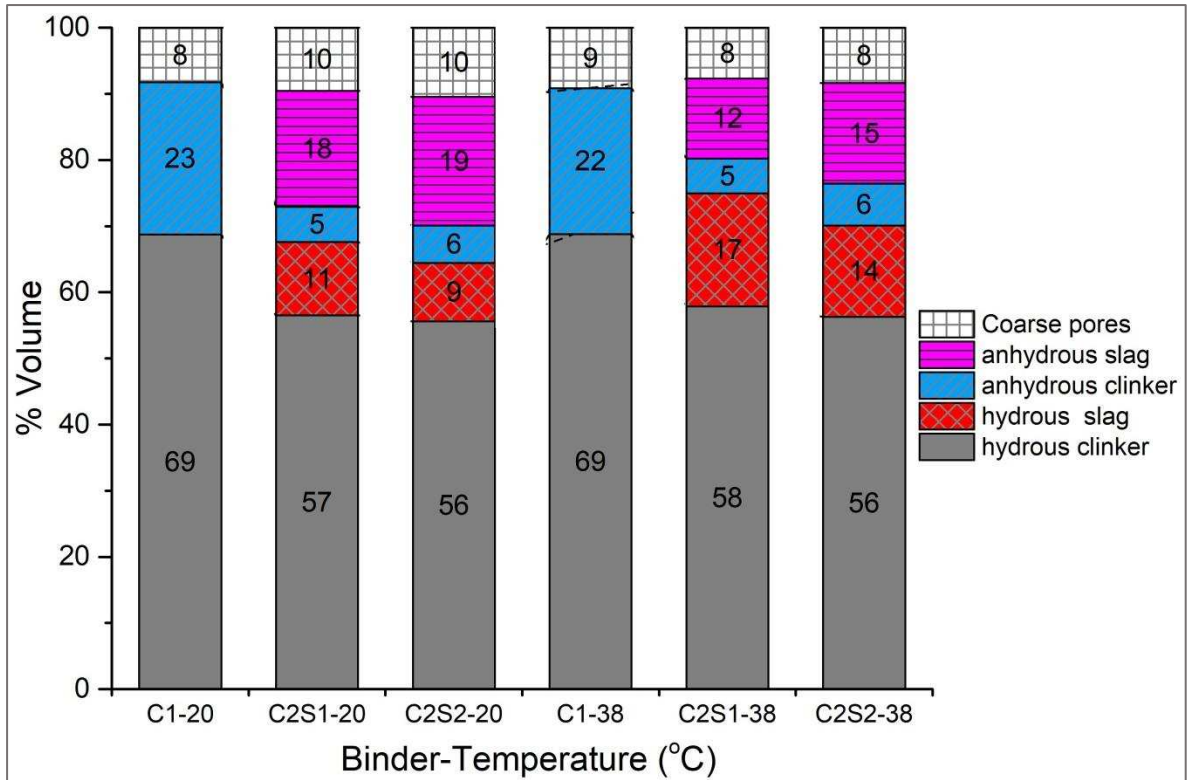
### 223 3.0 Results and discussion

#### 224 3.1 Hydration and characterisation before and after exposure to salt solution

225 The relative volumes of anhydrous and hydrated slag and clinker, together with the coarse  
 226 capillary porosity, are presented in Figures 2 and 3, following hydration of each binder for 7  
 227 and 28 days respectively. The volumes in Figures 2 and 3 were based on the degrees of  
 228 hydration (Table 5) and coarse porosities (Table 6) derived from scanning electron  
 229 microscopy-image analysis (SEM-IA)). This was a slight simplification and did not account for  
 230 bound water and porosity less than  $\sim 2 \mu\text{m}$  [37]. After 7 days' hydration at 20°C, the total  
 231 volume of hydrated products in plain CEM I was greater than that in either of the 2 slag blends.  
 232 However, this trend was reversed at 38°C due to accelerated slag hydration. This change also  
 233 led to lower coarse porosity in the slag blends. By 28 days, the volumes of hydration products  
 234 in the slag blends were greater than those of plain CEM I irrespective of temperature. This is  
 235 due to the more gradual hydration of slag, which continues over longer periods than CEM I.  
 236 The coarse porosity of the specimens cured at 38°C were still lower for slag blends than CEM  
 237 I, while at 20°C, it was the CEM I specimen which showed slightly lower porosity. The trends  
 238 are consistent with the weighted degrees of hydration shown in Table 5, and the coarse  
 239 porosity in Table 6.

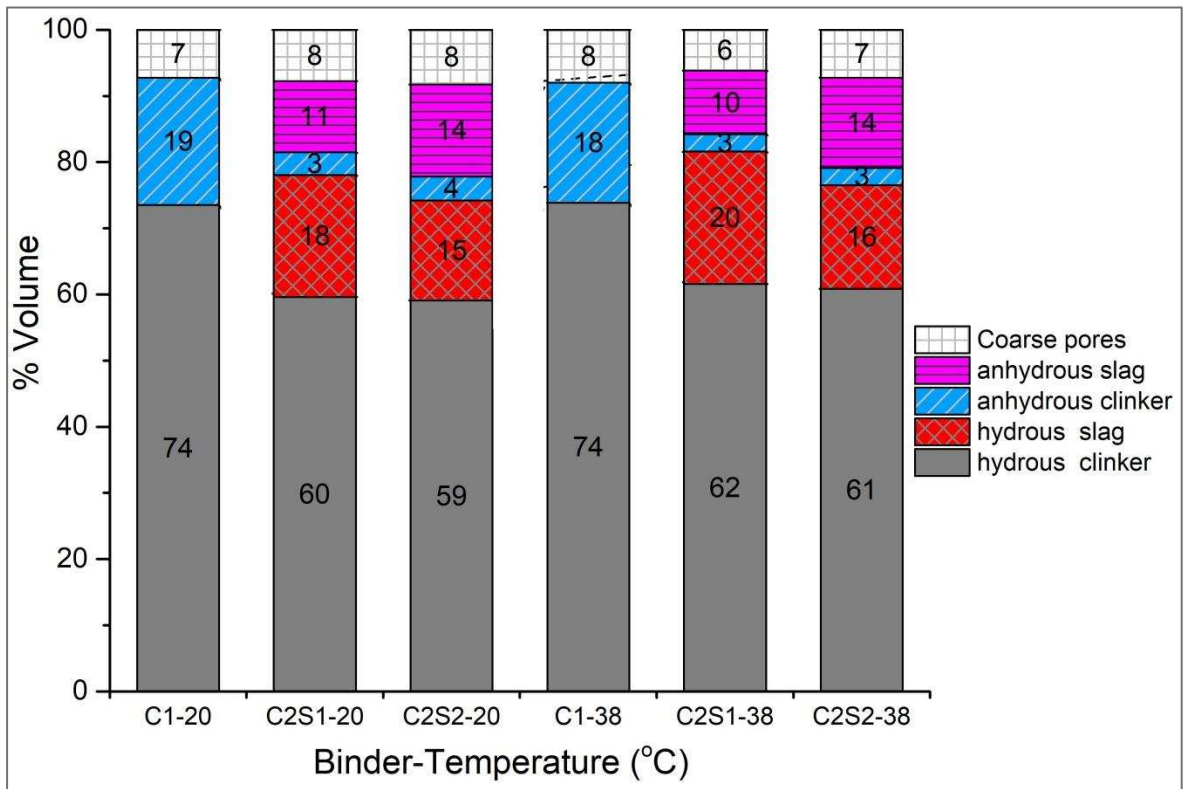
240 It is worth comparing the data from the specimens cured for 28 days and those from the  
 241 specimens cured for 7 days and then immersed in the combined salt solution for 21 days, i.e.  
 242 specimens 28X2 in Tables 5 and 6. The weighted degrees of hydration were always slightly  
 243 greater following immersion in the combined chloride-sulphate solution. This reflects the  
 244 common knowledge that chlorides accelerate hydration of the silicate phases in clinker [45,  
 245 46] and also that sulphates can accelerate slag hydration [37, 47]. This resulted in more  
 246 hydration products, thereby reducing coarse porosity as shown in Table 6.





247

248 Figure 2: Hydrous and anhydrous clinker and slag contents for each binder at 7 days



249

250 Figure 3: Hydrous and anhydrous clinker and slag contents for each binder at 28 days

251

252 **Table 5:** Weighted degrees of hydration as determined by SEM-IA

Age (day)	Mix	Degree of hydration (%) at 20°C				Degree of hydration (%) at 38°C			
		Slag	Clinker	Weighted	Error	Slag	Clinker	Weighted	Error
7	C1	-	74.9	74.9	0.74	-	75.8	75.8	1.02
	C2S1	38.7	91.3	75.6	0.80	58.6	91.7	81.8	0.50
	C2S2	31.3	90.8	73.0	0.99	47.6	89.9	77.2	0.79
28	C1	-	79.3	79.3	0.70	-	80.3	80.3	0.65
	C2S1	63.2	94.5	85.2	0.60	67.6	96.0	87.5	0.52
	C2S2	52.1	94.3	81.6	0.76	53.5	95.9	83.2	0.49
28X2	C1	0.0	79.5	79.5	0.40	0.0	82.6	82.6	0.87
	C2S1	64.3	95.0	85.8	0.44	69.4	96.4	88.3	0.58
	C2S2	54.5	95.6	83.3	0.60	57.2	97.1	85.2	0.49

253

254 **Table 6:** Capillary porosity (%) as determined by SEM-IA

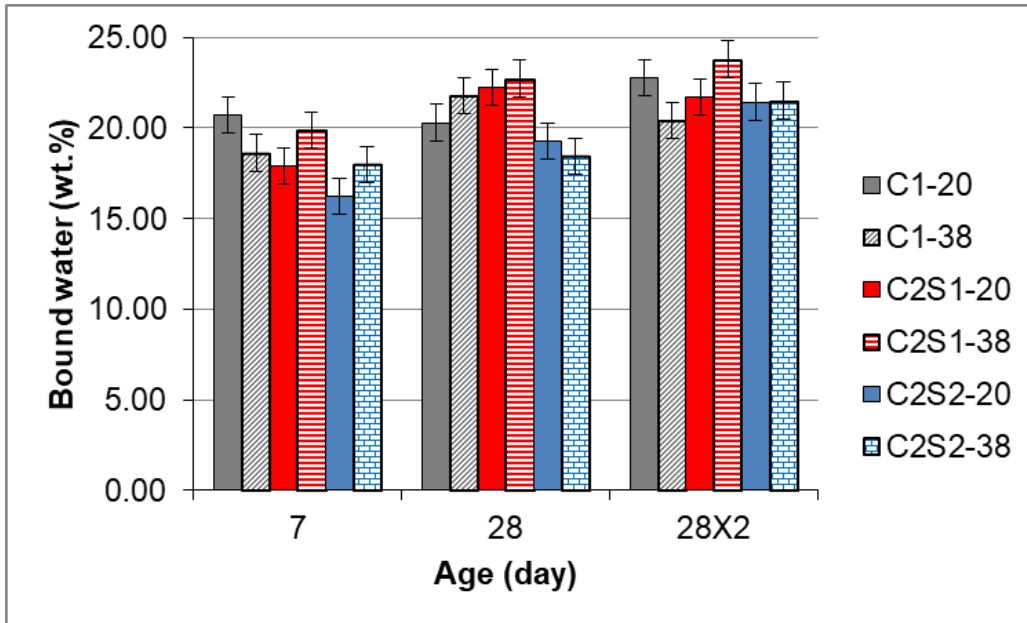
Age (day)	Mix	20°C	Error	38°C	Error
7	C1	9.0	0.41	10.1	0.21
	C2S1	10.5	0.20	8.3	0.15
	C2S2	11.7	0.23	9.1	0.21
28	C1	7.8	0.09	8.7	0.11
	C2S1	8.4	0.20	6.6	0.12
	C2S2	9.0	0.13	7.8	0.14
28X2	C1	7.7	0.10	8.5	0.13
	30S1	8.2	0.13	7.1	0.14
	30S2	8.0	0.20	7.2	0.18

255

256 The extent of hydration was also probed by examining bound water contents, obtained from  
 257 thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and shown in Figure 4. Bound water contents increased  
 258 generally from 7 to 28 days, indicating increasing hydration, consistent with SEM data  
 259 presented earlier. Furthermore, there was generally an increased degree of hydration  
 260 following exposure to the salt solution.

261

262



263

264 Figure 4: Bound water content from TGA (X2: specimens exposed to salt solution from 7 days,  
 265 i.e. 28X2 refers to test age of 28days for specimens exposed to salt solution).

266

### 267 3.1.1 Evolution of hydration products from XRD

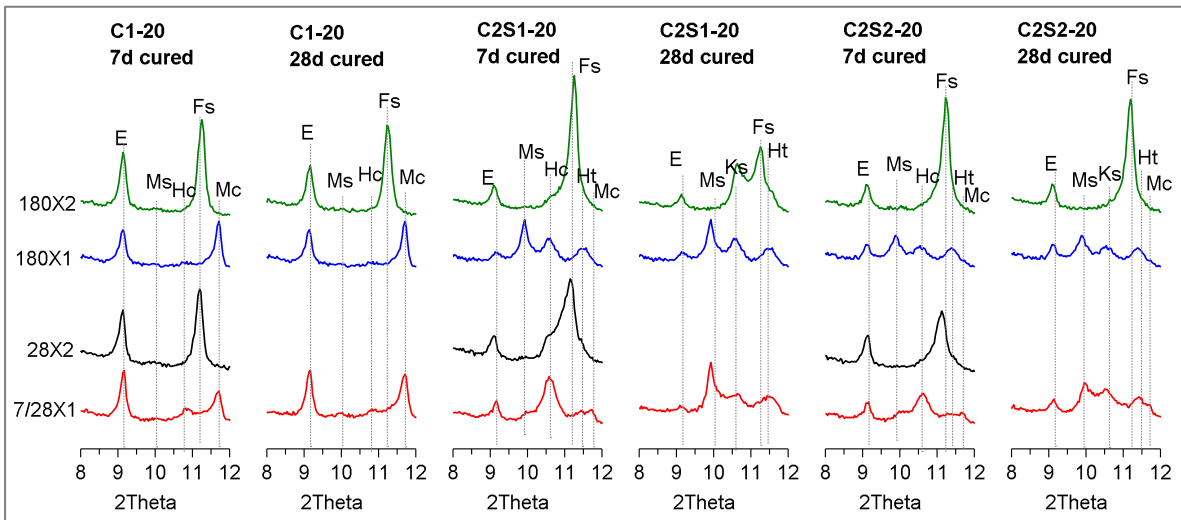
268 Figures 5 and 6 show XRD patterns obtained from specimens cured for 7 or 28 days at 20  
 269 and 38°C respectively. The figures focus on the reflections due to AFt and AFm phases.  
 270 Before exposure to the salt solution, the main phases present in the CEM I pastes cured at  
 271 20°C were ettringite and monocarboaluminate [48, 49]. The monocarboaluminate reflection  
 272 increased from 7 to 28 days, while ettringite slightly converted to monosulfoaluminate.

273 Slag blends cured at 20°C revealed lower ettringite levels than did CEM I specimens, because  
 274 higher aluminate contents led to increased monosulfoaluminate levels. Slag hydration also led  
 275 to hydrotalcite formation [50, 51]. The monosulfoaluminate and hydrotalcite reflections  
 276 increased with curing. Monosulfoaluminate and hydrotalcite reflections were more intense still  
 277 for slag blends cured at 38°C. Furthermore, while differences between the 2 slag blends were  
 278 slight at 7 days, by 28 days when slag hydration had advanced significantly, monosulphate  
 279 reflections were clearly more intense in the blend containing slag 1 than that containing slag  
 280 2, confirming the increased reactivity of slag 1, as shown by SEM data and bound water  
 281 contents.

282 On exposure to salt solution, ettringite levels in the CEM I specimen increased, while  
 283 monocarboaluminate converted to Friedel's salt (FS) [10, 21, 52]. Ettringite reflections were  
 284 lower in the specimens cured for 28 days prior to exposure than for specimens cured for 7  
 285 days. This indicates reduced sulphate penetration due to a more refined microstructure, and  
 286 reflects the reduced expansion observed (see later). Comparing 28 day old CEM I specimens  
 287 between specimens cured in water and those exposed to the salt solution from 7 days shows  
 288 intense reflections due to ettringite and Friedel's salt from the specimens exposed to salt  
 289 solution. The reflections were also more intense at 38°C than 20°C. Hydration of CEM I is  
 290 known to be activated at elevated temperature, but leads to a more porous microstructure [53,  
 291 54], allowing increased salt penetration. Hence, the higher levels of ettringite and Friedel's salt  
 292 observed at 38°C.

293 Exposure of the slag blends to salt solution led to ettringite formation alongside the formation  
 294 of Friedel's and Kuzel's salt. Kuzel's salt reflections were more intense at 38°C than 20°C.  
 295 Monosulfoaluminate levels increased more significantly between 7 and 28 days for the more  
 296 reactive, alumina-rich slag 1 than slag 2. This highlights the importance of slag composition  
 297 on performance of blended cements, as shown by the different behaviours of slag 1 and 2  
 298 blends regarding the effects of curing duration at 20°C. As slag hydration was activated at the  
 299 elevated temperature of 38°C, the 2 slag blends exposed to salt solutions displayed much  
 300 more similar hydrate assemblages than at 20°C. Ettringite reflections decreased due to  
 301 prolonged curing before exposure to salt solution, while reflections due to Friedel's salt were  
 302 slightly diminished compared with specimens cured for only 7 days before exposure. These  
 303 behaviours are consistent with the expansion behaviours of mortar prisms.

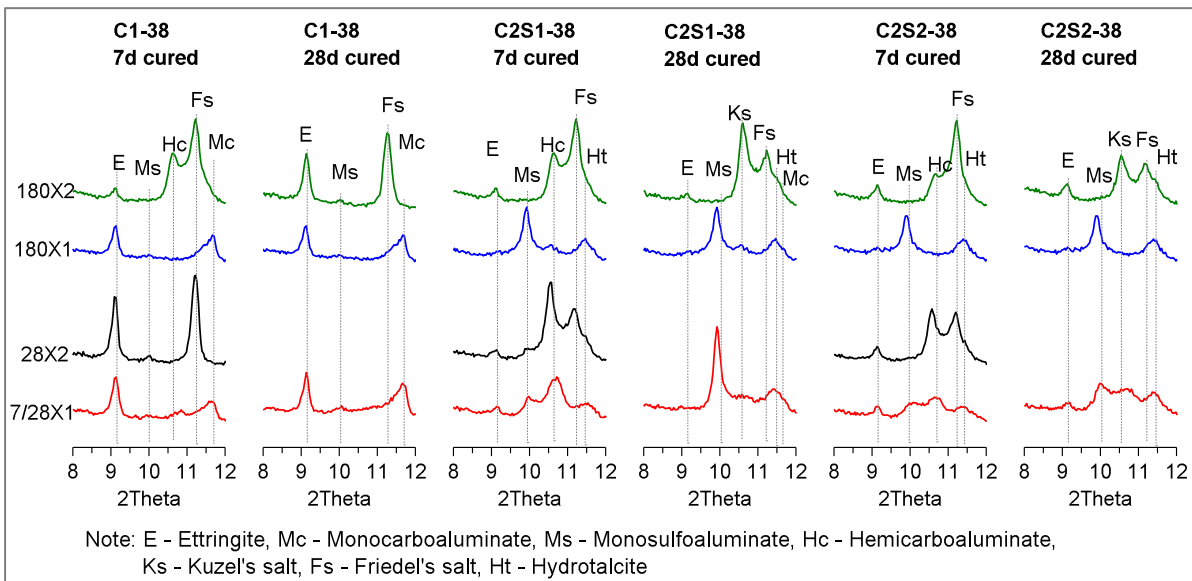
304



305

306 Figure 5: XRD patterns showing evolution AFt/AFm hydration products at 20°C.

307



308

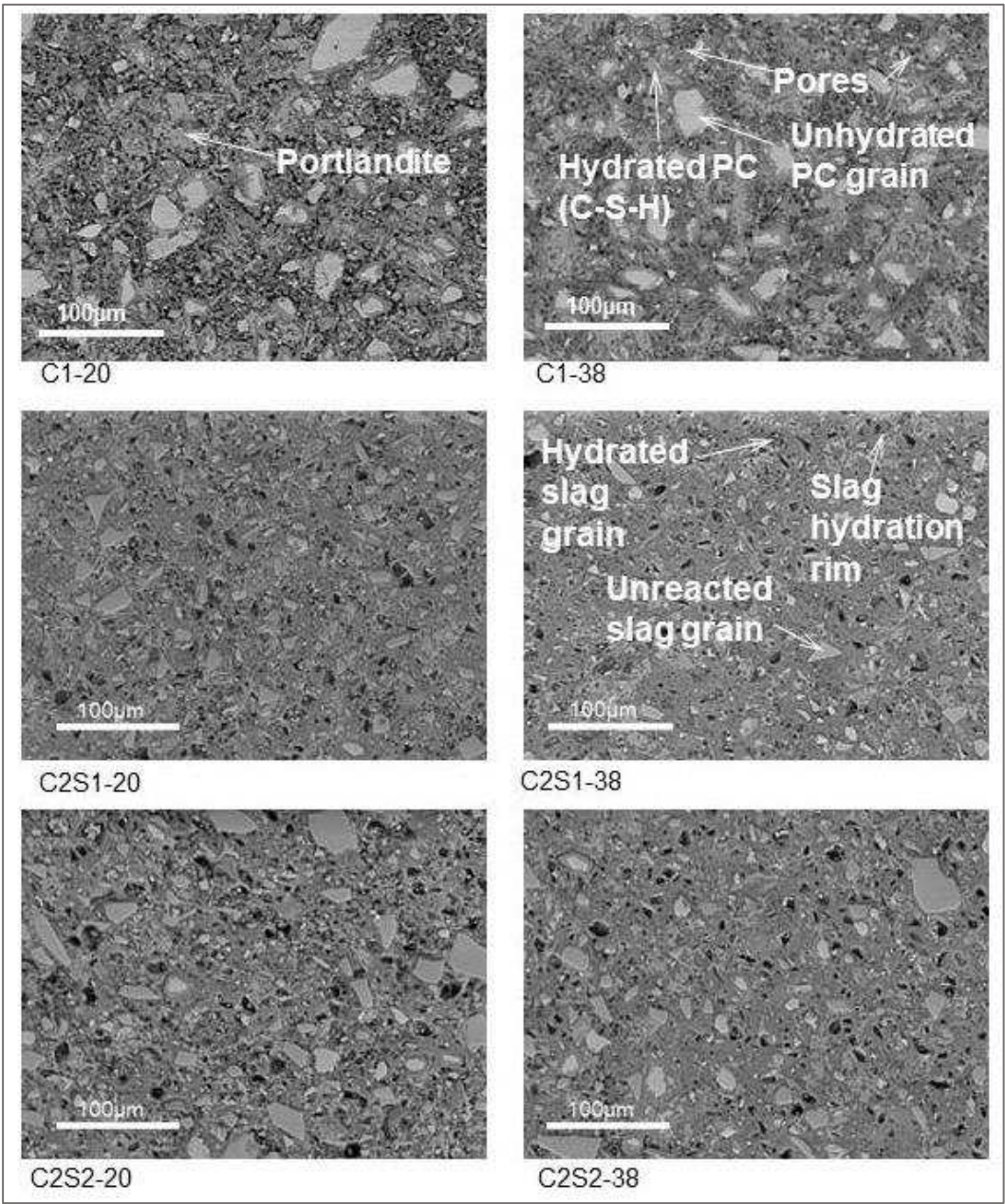
309 Figure 6: XRD patterns showing evolution AFt/AFm hydration products at 38°C.

310

311 **3.1.2 Microstructure**

312 Backscattered electron images are presented in Figures 7 and 8, showing the microstructures  
313 of binders hydrated for 7 and 28 days respectively. The diminished presence of bright,  
314 anhydrous particles confirmed that hydration was accelerated at elevated temperature for both  
315 slags and CEM I systems. This difference between the two curing temperatures was more  
316 noticeable at 7 days than at 28 days. With reference to the degrees of hydration reported in  
317 Table 5, each of the slag blends had hydrated faster than CEM I (C1), despite the retarding  
318 effects of slags on hydration of blends. This is due to the different cement used in the different  
319 mixes. The slag blends were prepared with CEM I 52.5R, as is common practice in industry.  
320 Increasing cement fineness is known to increase the rate of hydration [39, 55].

321 The micrographs showed increased presence of C-S-H from 7 to 28 days. The positive  
322 influence of elevated temperatures on slag hydration was marked by finer microstructures.  
323 Coarse porosity decreased upon hydration at 38°C for the slag blends, in line with their more  
324 refined microstructures. Elevated temperature accelerated slag hydration, thus reducing the  
325 porosity by more than the increase in porosity induced by curing cement at higher  
326 temperatures. Conversely, coarse porosity increased for the CEM I specimens at elevated  
327 temperature, resulting in a more porous microstructure. This confirms earlier findings in the  
328 literature [53, 54], such that while hydration was accelerated, densification of the hydration  
329 products leads to increased porosity.



331

332 Figure 7: SEM-BSE micrographs of pastes hydrated for 7 days.

333

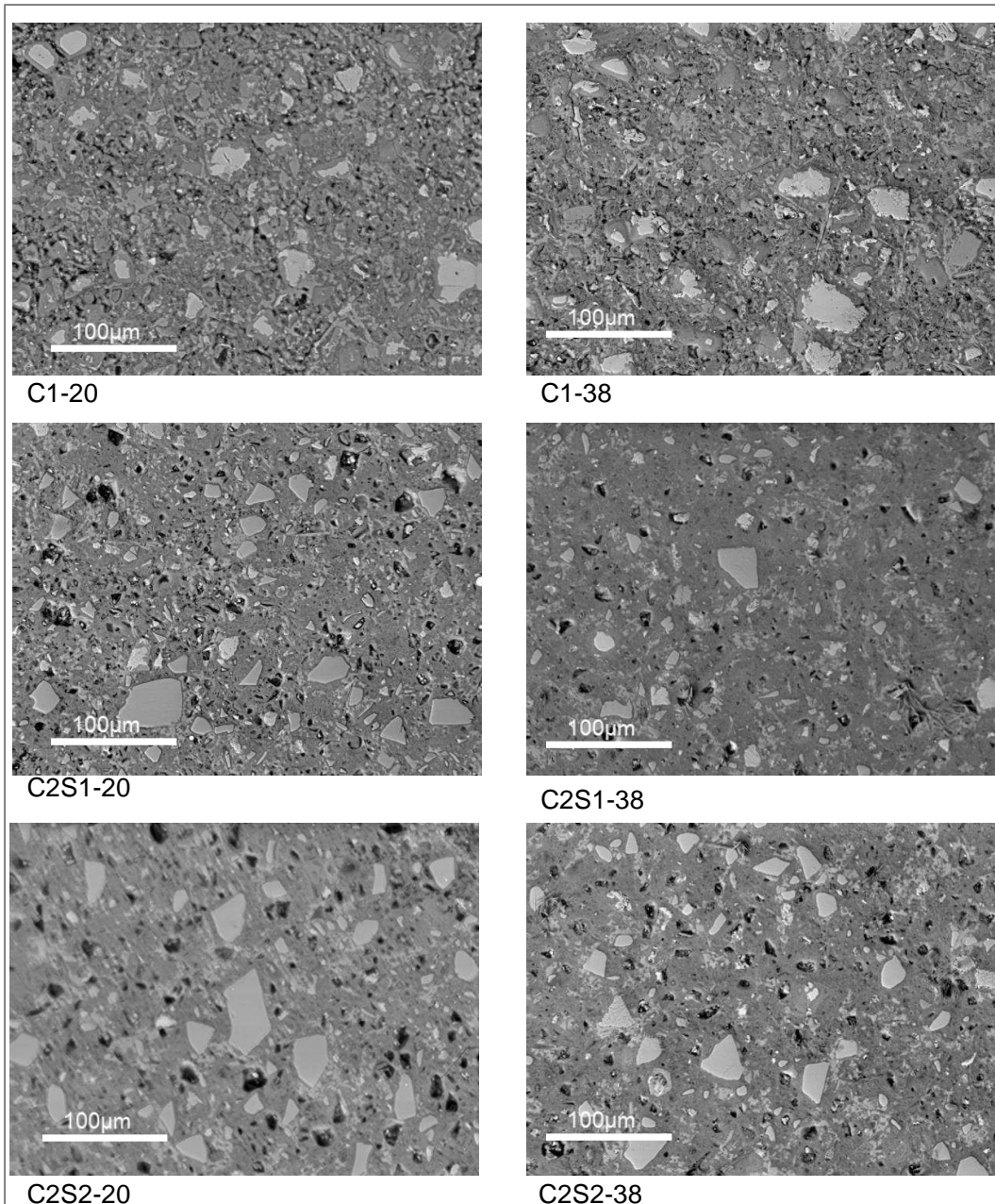
334

335

336

337

338



339

340 Figure 8: SEM-BSE micrographs of pastes hydrated for 28 days.

341

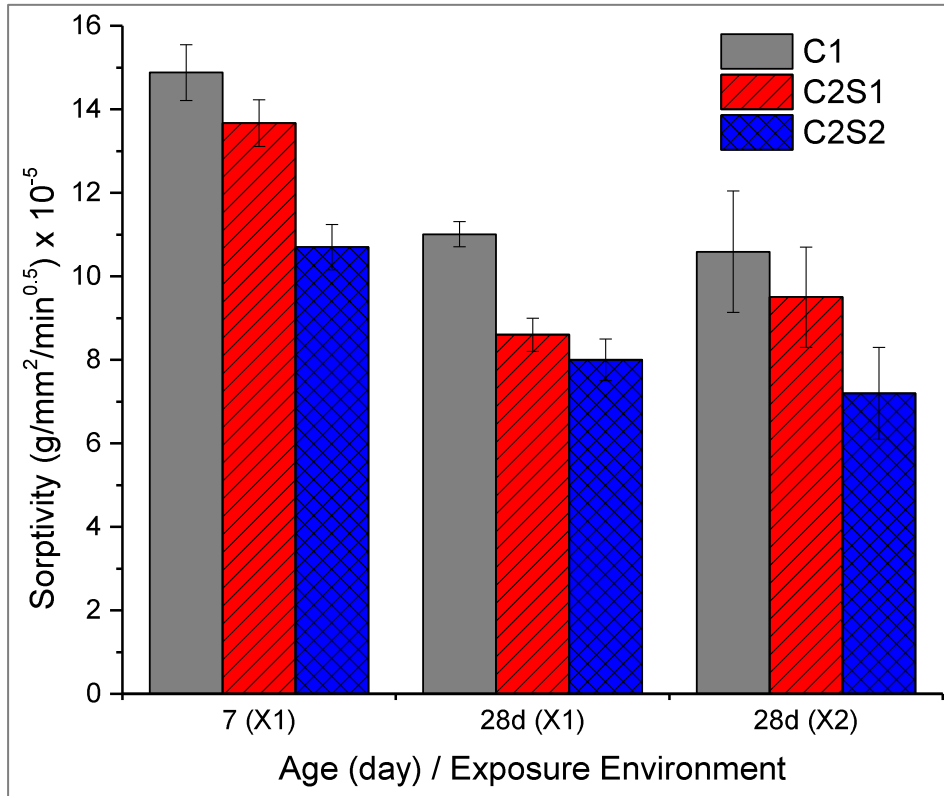
### 342 3.1.3 Sorptivity

343 Sorptivity coefficients were determined after 7 and 28 days, before exposure to salt solutions.  
 344 The results are presented in Figures 9 and 10 for exposure at 20 and 38°C respectively . In all  
 345 cases, there was a reduction in sorptivity, in line with the reduction in coarse porosity as  
 346 measured by image analysis, with prolonged hydration, irrespective of temperature. Similarly,  
 347 sorptivity decreased when curing temperature was increased. Prolonged curing appeared  
 348 more beneficial at 20°C than at 38°C, particularly for the slag blends. This was to be expected,  
 349 where the degree of hydration showed similar behaviour (Table 5).

350 Sorptivity was also determined at 28 days for specimens that had been cured for 7 days prior  
 351 to exposure to a salt solution. In all cases bar one, exposure to the salt solution led to a lower

352 sorptivity than curing alone. This can be attributed to increased silicate hydration in the  
353 presence of chlorides and the formation of Friedel's salt, Kuzel's salt and ettringite upon  
354 reaction of chloride and sulphate with hydrated aluminate phases (Figures 5 & 6). These new  
355 products tend to fill-up pore spaces, leading to reduced sorptivity as observed.

356

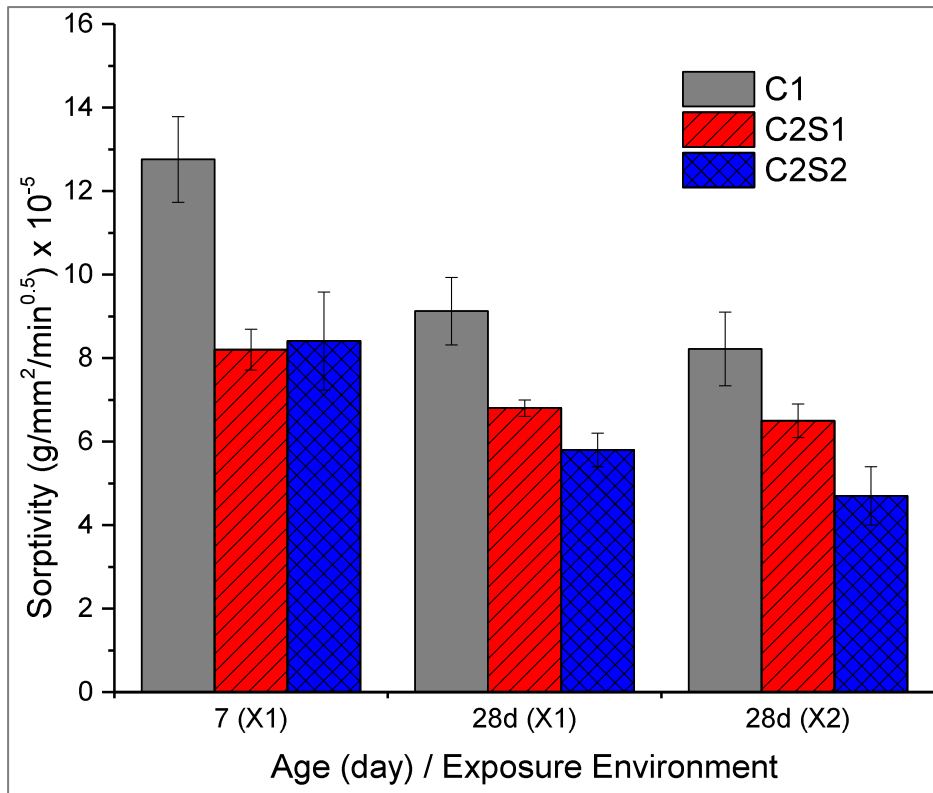


357

358 Figure 9: Sorptivity of specimens cured at 20°C.

359





360

361 Figure 10: Sorptivity of specimens cured at 38°C.

362

### 363 3.2 Expansion of mortar prisms

364 Expansion results for each binder under different exposure conditions are presented in Figures  
 365 11, 12 and 13 for CEM I, slag 1 blend and slag 2 blend respectively.

366 Reference specimens submerged in limewater showed minimal dimensional change upon  
 367 exposure for up to 664 days, suggesting that any expansion was due to salt ingress. It is now  
 368 well accepted that expansion occurs in cement systems based on crystallisation pressure  
 369 theory [5, 7, 8]. The nucleation and growth of ettringite crystals in small pore spaces can exert  
 370 crystallisation pressures on the pore walls, leading to expansion.

371 In this study, temperature was the dominant factor, with expansion being significantly less for  
 372 all mortars cured and exposed to salt solutions at 38°C than at 20°C. This was the case for  
 373 the CEM I systems, but was especially so for slag blends. Indeed, both slag blends, when  
 374 cured at 38°C showed no expansion for the entire duration of the study whether cured for 7 or  
 375 28 days before exposure. This behaviour can be attributed to changes in the microstructure.  
 376 The foregoing discussion also agrees with increase in flexural strengths reported for similar  
 377 samples elsewhere [34], as increase in flexural strength will tend to improve the resistance  
 378 towards internal stress development and reduce micro cracking. Ettringite decomposes at  
 379 elevated temperatures greater than 50°C [64, 65], the temperature used in this study is below  
 380 this, and should not have any significant effect. As shown earlier, CEM I was more porous  
 381 than the slag systems at elevated temperature, with the composite systems showing a dense,  
 382 well-developed microstructure. Hence, there would have been greater ingress of the salts into  
 383 the CEM I specimens. As expansion occurs due to the formation of ettringite exerting crystal  
 384 pressures in confined pore spaces [5, 8], any increase in penetration of sulphate laden solution

385 can cause increased ettringite formation in the presence of hydrated aluminates, leading to  
386 more expansion.

387 For other situations, the situation was less clear cut. Generally, expansion was reduced in  
388 mortars which were cured for 28 days before exposure, irrespective of temperature. This is  
389 due to more refined microstructure after 28 days of hydration compared with 7 days. The only  
390 exception was the more reactive, alumina-rich slag 1 blend exposed at 20°C, which rather  
391 showed greater expansion after curing for 28 days than 7 days before exposure. This is  
392 contrary to the known positive influence of prolonged curing and the common practice of  
393 allocating longer curing durations for SCMs due to their slow hydration [46, 56-59]. However,  
394 it underscores the importance of considering the influence of slag composition in determining  
395 curing duration to prevent expansion in combined chloride-sulphate environments.

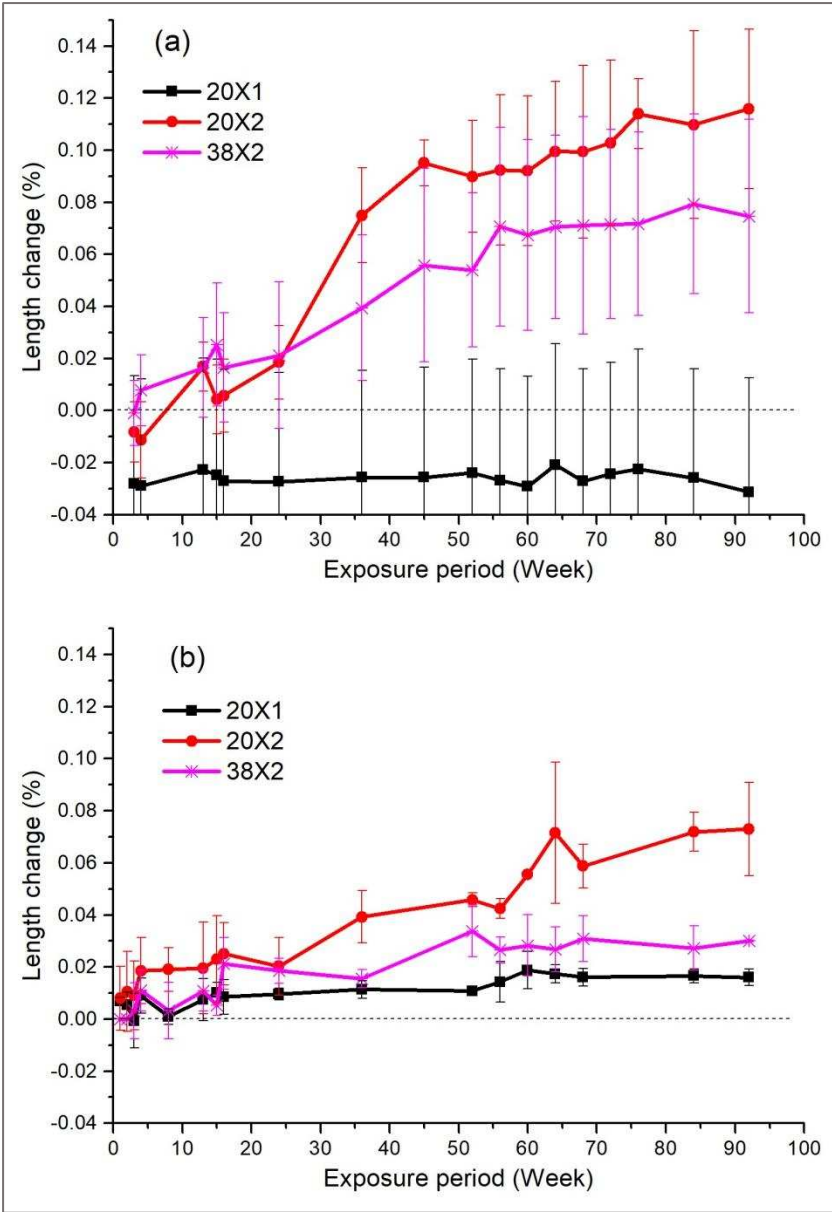
396 The above expansion behaviour of slag 1 blend may be explained by the slag's higher degree  
397 of hydration and the role of slag alumina content. Increasing slag alumina contents may cause  
398 slag blends to be more susceptible to sulphate attack. However, the alumina in slag is not  
399 readily available to react with the penetrating sulphate to form ettringite [11], but is  
400 incorporated in C-S-H and hydrotalcite-like phases during slag hydration, while the remainder  
401 converts slowly to monosulfoaluminate, which may subsequently react with the penetrating  
402 sulphate ions to form ettringite. However, expansion requires that the pore solution be  
403 supersaturated [1, 60-62]. Hence, at 7 days when the degree of slag hydration was still  
404 relatively low, there would be less alumina available to form monosulfoaluminate, compared  
405 with hydration at 28 days. The higher levels of monosulfoaluminate present after prolonged  
406 hydration, possibly, favoured more rapid ettringite formation, which led to the greater  
407 expansion observed. This is confirmed by the increasing level of monosulfoaluminate formed  
408 between 7 and 28 days, as observed by XRD analysis (Figure 5). Slag 2 behaved slightly  
409 differently due to microstructural changes and slag composition. Both the CEM I and slag 2  
410 specimens showed greater expansion after curing for 7 days before exposure. This can be  
411 attributed to their more porous microstructure compared with the slag 1 blend, as shown by  
412 the capillary porosity discussed earlier.

413

414

415

416



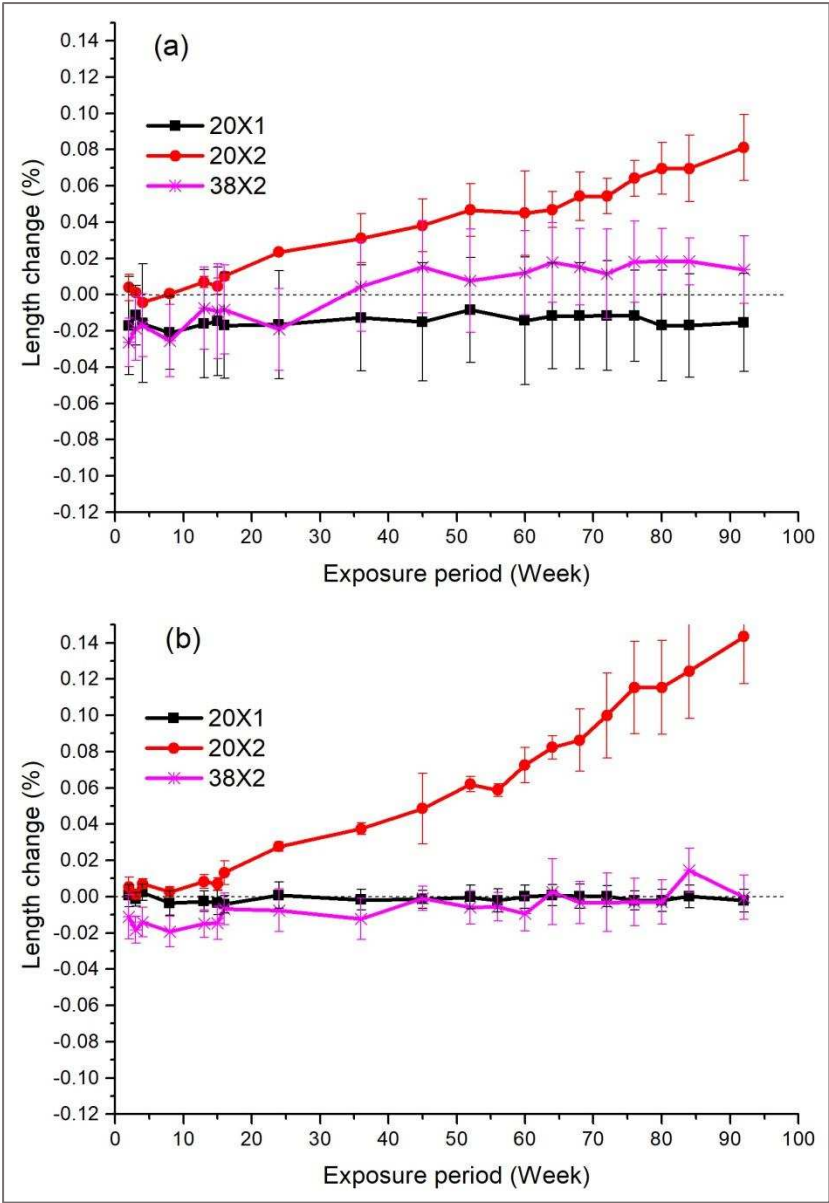
417

418 Figure 11: Length-change/expansion of CEM I: (a) cured for 7 days, (b) cured for 28 days,  
 419 before exposure.

420

421

422



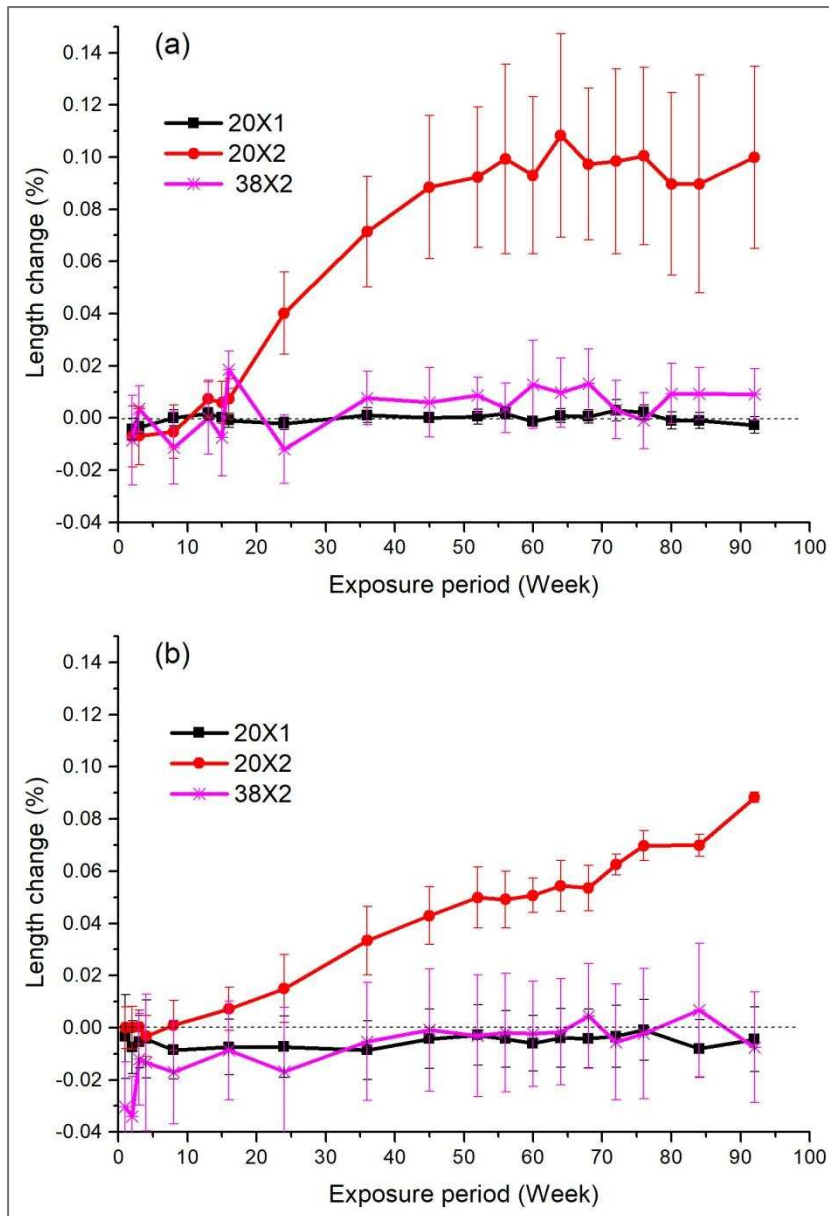
423

424 Figure 12: Length-change/expansion of slag 1 blend: (a) cured for 7 days, (b) cured for 28  
 425 days, before exposure.

426

427

428



429

430 Figure 13: Length-change/expansion of slag 2 blend: (a) cured for 7 days, (b) cured for 28  
 431 days, before exposure.

432

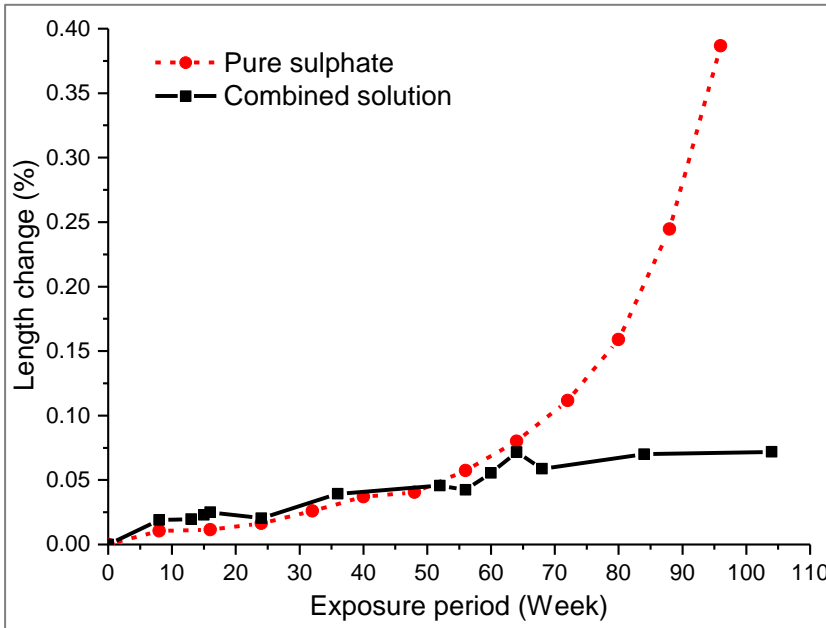
### 433 3.2.1 Influence of chloride presence and slag contents on expansion

434 The influence of the presence of chloride on sulphate expansion is observed in Figure 14,  
 435 showing comparison between expansion of CEM I in pure sulphate [40] and a combined  
 436 chloride-sulphate solution. Expansion was similar in the 2 media until about 55 weeks, where  
 437 the mitigating role of chloride on sulphate attack became evident. This is consistent with the  
 438 literature [20, 21, 63]. It must be noted that similar specimens, sulphate concentrations and  
 439 conditions were used in the present study as in [40].

440 Generally, the interactions of ions in complex solutions seem to reduce the effects of attack in  
 441 comparison to single salt solution [7, 10]. This is due to increased solubility of ettringite in  
 442 chloride solution [66, 67] with reduced impact on crystallization pressure.

443

444



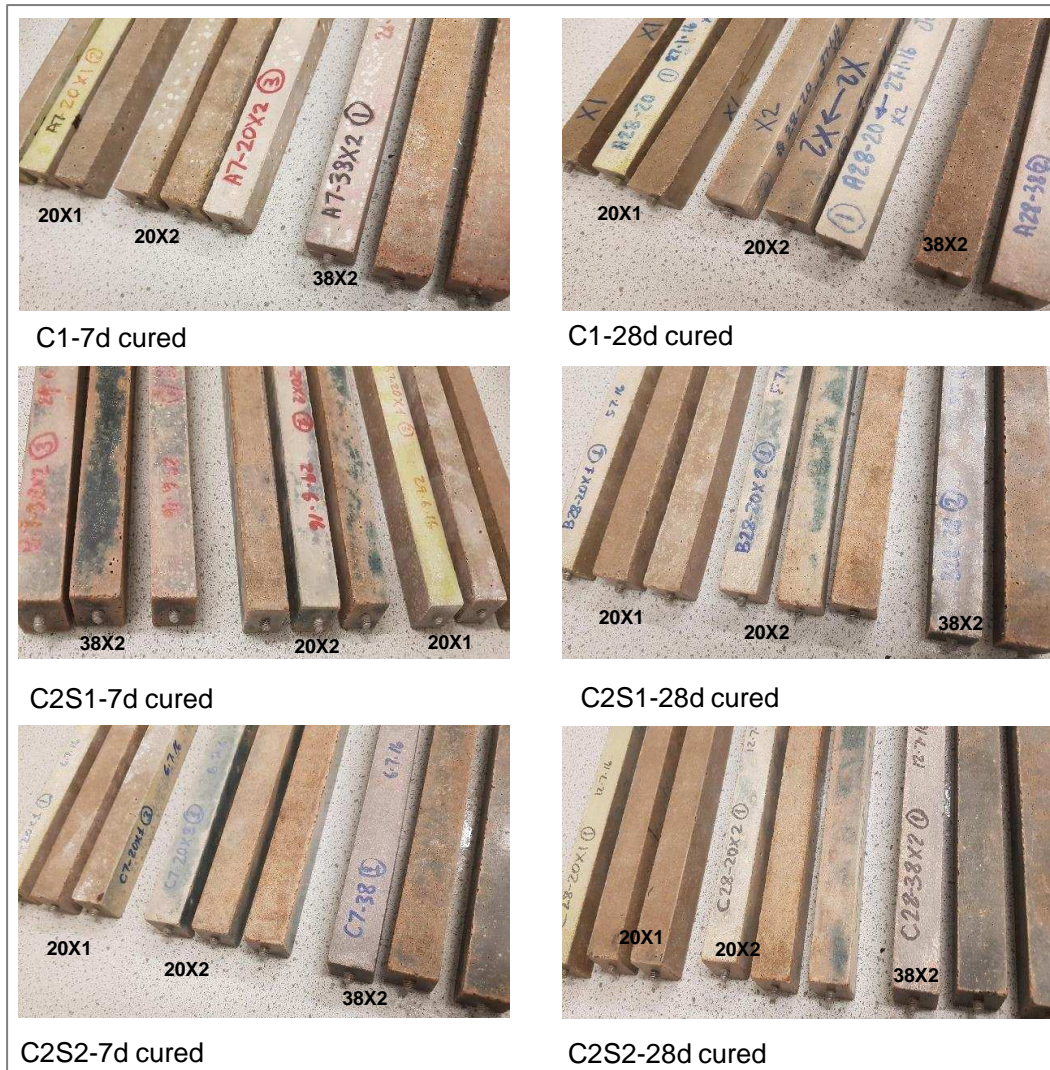
445

446 Figure 14: Comparison between expansion of CEM I in pure sulphate and combined chloride-  
447 sulphate solutions (Pure sulphate data taken from Whittaker [40]).

448

### 449 3.3 Visual observation

450 Specimens were examined visually, with Figure 15 showing mortar prisms immersed in  
451 saturated lime water (X1) and combined chloride-sulphate solution (X2) pre-cured for 7 and  
452 28 days. No significant macro cracks were visible within the period of this study. However,  
453 slight surface loss was observed in both reference and test specimens, which may be related  
454 to the activity of water continuously present in the specimens, rather than sulphate attack. This  
455 is particularly so since similar observations were made on reference specimens which were  
456 stored in saturated lime water. No trend could yet be established linking expansion with the  
457 surface losses or popouts observed in various test specimens subjected to different  
458 conditions. At a similar exposure period, Whittaker [40] observed significant macro cracks in  
459 similar CEM I mortar prisms immersed in a pure sulphate solution. This difference further  
460 confirms the mitigating role of chloride on sulphate-oriented expansion and damage in  
461 cementitious materials, consistent with the literature [20-22].



462

463 Figure 15: Visual appearance of CEM I and slag blends exposed to lime water (X1) and salt  
 464 water (X2) after 664 days.

465

#### 466 4.0 Conclusions

467 The expansion and sulphate-oriented damage of CEM I and slag-blended cement mortars  
 468 exposed to combined chloride-sulphate solutions has been investigated under various  
 469 conditions, supplemented by microstructural characterisation and determination of specimen  
 470 transport properties prior to exposure. The results highlight important effects of temperature,  
 471 curing duration and slag composition on sulphate attack of CEM I and slag blends, including  
 472 the influence of chloride presence on sulphate attack of CEM I.

473 Resistance to sulphate attack was significantly improved by curing and exposing slag blend  
 474 mortar prisms at 38°C. This behaviour was attributed to accelerated slag hydration at elevated  
 475 temperature, leading to more refined microstructures and greatly decreased penetration of the  
 476 salt solution. The slag specimens showed approximately no expansion irrespective of curing  
 477 duration, indicating that prolonged curing beyond 7 days, when specimens are exposed within  
 478 climates having such elevated temperature seemed unnecessary. Hence, the costs and time  
 479 losses associated with prolonged curing when these slags are used may thus be saved. This

480 finding is significant for the practical application of these slag blends to control combined  
481 chloride-sulphate attack in warm tropical climates.

482 At 20°C, however, prolonged curing becomes important, although the influence of slag  
483 composition must be considered carefully. This study has shown that shorter curing periods  
484 are not too problematic in terms of expansion, but there is increased chloride penetration.  
485 Nevertheless, the less reactive slag 2, with lower alumina content, showed improved  
486 resistance to sulphate expansion as a result of prolonged curing duration, consistent with the  
487 behaviour of CEM I. This finding has highlighted the importance of considering slag  
488 composition and curing/exposure conditions if the desired performance of slag blends must  
489 be achieved. This study has highlighted the influence of slag composition, and particularly, the  
490 role of alumina contents of slags, regarding curing duration in combined chloride-sulphate  
491 aggressive environments to enhance proper application and durability of structures  
492 incorporating slag blends.

493

#### 494 **Acknowledgements**

495 The authors gratefully acknowledge the support of Niger Delta Development Commission  
496 (NDDC), Nigeria for providing the PhD scholarship for this research.

497

#### 498 **References**

499

- 500 [1] J. Skalny, J. Marchand, I. Odler, Sulfate Attack on Concrete, 1st ed., Spon Press, London, 2002.  
501 [2] M. Whittaker, L. Black, Current knowledge of external sulfate attack, *Adv. Cem. Res.* 27(9) (2015)  
502 532-545.  
503 [3] G.W. Scherer, Stress from crystallization of salt, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 34(9) (2004) 1613-1624.  
504 [4] R.J. Flatt, G.W. Scherer, Thermodynamics of crystallization stresses in DEF, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 38(3)  
505 (2008) 325-336.  
506 [5] C. Yu, W. Sun, K. Scrivener, Mechanism of expansion of mortars immersed in sodium sulfate  
507 solutions, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 43 (2013) 105-111.  
508 [6] G.W. Scherer, Crystallization in pores, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 29(8) (1999) 1347-1358.  
509 [7] W. Kunther, B. Lothenbach, K.L. Scrivener, On the relevance of volume increase for the length  
510 changes of mortar bars in sulfate solutions, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 46 (2013) 23-29.  
511 [8] W. Müllauer, R.E. Beddoe, D. Heinz, Sulfate attack expansion mechanisms, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 52  
512 (2013) 208-215.  
513 [9] C. Yu, W. Sun, K. Scrivener, Degradation mechanism of slag blended mortars immersed in sodium  
514 sulfate solution, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 72 (2015) 37-47.  
515 [10] M. Maes, N. De Belie, Resistance of concrete and mortar against combined attack of chloride and  
516 sodium sulphate, *Cem. Concr. Compos.* 53 (2014) 59-72.  
517 [11] M. Whittaker, M. Zajac, M. Ben Haha, L. Black, The impact of alumina availability on sulfate  
518 resistance of slag composite cements, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 119 (2016) 356-369.  
519 [12] A.M. Hossack, M.D.A. Thomas, Varying fly ash and slag contents in Portland limestone cement  
520 mortars exposed to external sulfates, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 78(0) (2015) 333-341.  
521 [13] S. Ogawa, T. Nozaki, K. Yamada, H. Hirao, R.D. Hooton, Improvement on sulfate resistance of  
522 blended cement with high alumina slag, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 42(2) (2012) 244-251.  
523 [14] M. Santhanam, M.D. Cohen, J. Olek, Mechanism of sulfate attack: a fresh look: Part 2. Proposed  
524 mechanisms, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 33(3) (2003) 341-346.



525 [15] A. Fatemeh, R.D. Hooton, Sulfate Resistance of Portland and Slag Cement Concretes Exposed to  
526 Sodium Sulfate for 38 Years, *Materials Journal* 114(3) (2017) 477-490.

527 [16] W. Kunther, B. Lothenbach, J. Skibsted, Influence of the Ca/Si ratio of the C–S–H phase on the  
528 interaction with sulfate ions and its impact on the ettringite crystallization pressure, *Cem. Concr. Res.*  
529 69 (2015) 37-49.

530 [17] A.M. Hossack, M.D.A. Thomas, Evaluation of the effect of tricalcium aluminate content on the  
531 severity of sulfate attack in Portland cement and Portland limestone cement mortars, *Cem. Concr.*  
532 *Compos.* 56(0) (2015) 115-120.

533 [18] C. Ouyang, A. Nanni, W.F. Chang, Internal and external sources of sulfate ions in portland cement  
534 mortar: two types of chemical attack, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 18(5) (1988) 699-709.

535 [19] M. Santhanam, M. Cohen, J. Olek, Differentiating seawater and groundwater sulfate attack in  
536 Portland cement mortars, *cement & Concrete Research* 36(2006) (2006) 2132-2137.

537 [20] G. Li, A. Zhang, Z. Song, S. Liu, J. Zhang, Ground granulated blast furnace slag effect on the  
538 durability of ternary cementitious system exposed to combined attack of chloride and sulfate, *Constr.*  
539 *Build. Mater.* 158 (2018) 640-648.

540 [21] S.-T. Lee, D.-W. Park, K.-Y. Ann, Mitigating effect of chloride ions on sulfate attack of cement  
541 mortars with or without silica fume, *Canadian Journal of Civil Engineering* 35(1) (2008) 1210-1220.

542 [22] M. Zhang, J. Chen, Y. Lv, D. Wang, J. Ye, Study on the expansion of concrete under attack of sulfate  
543 and sulfate–chloride ions, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 39 (2013) 26-32.

544 [23] M. Maes, N. De Belie, Influence of chlorides on magnesium sulphate attack for mortars with  
545 Portland cement and slag based binders, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 155 (2017) 630-642.

546 [24] O.S.B. Al-Amoudi, Mechanisms of Sulfate Attack in Plain and Blended Cements- A Review,  
547 Extending performance of concrete structures, International congress "creating with concrete",  
548 Dundee, 1999, pp. 247-260.

549 [25] O.S.B. Al-Amoudi, Attack on plain and blended cements exposed to aggressive sulphate  
550 environments, *Cement & Concrete Composites* 24(1) (2002) 305-316.

551 [26] A.M. Hossack, M.D.A. Thomas, The effect of temperature on the rate of sulfate attack of Portland  
552 cement blended mortars in Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 73 (2015) 136-142.

553 [27] K. Sotiriadis, E. Nikolopoulou, S. Tsvivilis, A. Pavlou, E. Chaniotakis, R.N. Swamy, The effect of  
554 chlorides on the thaumasite form of sulfate attack of limestone cement concrete containing mineral  
555 admixtures at low temperature, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 43(0) (2013) 156-164.

556 [28] A. Abdalkader, C. Lynsdale, J. Cripps, Corrosion behaviour of steel rebar in mortars subjected to  
557 magnesium sulfate and sodium chloride mixtures at 5 and 20°C, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 153 (2017) 358-  
558 363.

559 [29] A.H.M. Abdalkader, C.J. Lynsdale, J.C. Cripps, The effect of chloride on cement mortar subjected  
560 to sulfate exposure at low temperature, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 78(0) (2015) 102-111.

561 [30] F. Abubaker, C. Lynsdale, J. Cripps, Investigation of concrete–clay interaction with regards to the  
562 thaumasite form of sulfate attack, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 67, Part A(0) (2014) 88-94.

563 [31] C. Shi, D. Wang, A. Behnood, Review of Thaumasite Sulfate Attack on Cement Mortar and  
564 Concrete, *J. Mater. Civ. Eng.* 24(12) (2012) 1450-1460.

565 [32] F. Aköz, F. Türker, S. Koral, N. Yüzer, Effects of raised temperature of sulfate solutions on the  
566 sulfate resistance of mortars with and without silica fume, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 29(4) (1999) 537-544.

567 [33] M. Santhanam, M.D. Cohen, J. Olek, Modeling the effects of solution temperature and  
568 concentration during sulfate attack on cement mortars, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 32(4) (2002) 585-592.

569 [34] J.O. Ukpata, P.A.M. Basheer, L. Black, Performance of plain and slag-blended cements and mortars  
570 exposed to combined chloride–sulfate solution, *Adv. Cem. Res.* 30(8) (2018) 371-386.

571 [35] O.R. Ogirigbo, Influence of Slag Composition and Temperature on the Hydration and Performance  
572 of Slag Blends in Chloride Environments, School of Civil Engineering, The University of Leeds, 2016.

573 [36] K.L. Scrivener, B. Lothenbach, N. De Belie, E. Gruyaert, J. Skibsted, R. Snellings, A. Vollpracht, TC  
574 238-SCM: hydration and microstructure of concrete with SCMs, *Mater. Struct.* 48(4) (2015) 835-862.

575 [37] M. Whittaker, M. Zajac, M. Ben Haha, F. Bullerjahn, L. Black, The role of the alumina content of  
576 slag, plus the presence of additional sulfate on the hydration and microstructure of Portland cement-  
577 slag blends, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 66 (2014) 91-101.

578 [38] V. Kocaba, E. Galluci, K.L. Scrivener, Methods for the determination of degree of reaction of slag  
579 in blended cement pastes, *Cement & Concrete Research* 42 (2012) 511-525.

580 [39] K.L. Scrivener, Backscattered electron imaging of cementitious microstructures: understanding  
581 and quantification, *Cem. Concr. Compos.* 26(8) (2004) 935-945.

582 [40] M.J. Whittaker, The Impact of Slag Composition on the Microstructure of Composite Slag Cements  
583 Exposed to Sulfate Attack, School of Civil Engineering, University of Leeds, Leeds, 2014, p. 253.

584 [41] BS EN 13057, Products and systems for the protection and repair of concrete structures — Test  
585 methods — Determination of resistance of capillary absorption, BSI, 2002.

586 [42] E. Guneyisi, M. Gesoglu, A study on durability properties of high-performance concretes  
587 incorporating high replacement levels of slag, *Mater. Struct.* 41 (2008) 479-493.

588 [43] B.B. Sabir, S. Wild, M. O'Farrell, A water sorptivity test for mortar and concrete, *Materials and*  
589 *Structures/Materiaux et Constructions* 31(1) (1998) 568-574.

590 [44] ASTM C1012, Annual Book of the ASTM standards, Standard test method for length change of  
591 hydraulic-cement mortars exposed to sulfate solution, ASTM International, United States, 2013, pp.  
592 539-543.

593 [45] I. Galan, F.P. Glasser, Chloride in cement, *Adv. Cem. Res.* 27(2) (2015) 63-97.

594 [46] O.R. Ogirigbo, J.O. Ukpata, Effect of Chlorides and Curing Duration on the Hydration and Strength  
595 Development of Plain and Slag Blended Cements, *Journal of Civil Engineering Research* 7(1) (2017) 9-  
596 16.

597 [47] S. Adu-Amankwah, L. Black, J. Skocek, M. Ben Haha, M. Zajac, Effect of sulfate additions on  
598 hydration and performance of ternary slag-limestone composite cements, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 164  
599 (2018) 451-462.

600 [48] T. Matschei, B. Lothenbach, F.P. Glasser, The AFm phase in Portland cement, *Cem. Concr. Res.*  
601 37(2) (2007) 118-130.

602 [49] A. Ipavec, R. Gabrovgek, T. Vuk, V. KauWiW, J. MaWek, A. Medenz, Carboaluminate Phases  
603 Formation During the Hydration of Calcite-Containing Portland Cement, *J. Am. Ceram. Soc.* 94(4)  
604 (2011) 1238-1242.

605 [50] Y. Elakneswaran, E. Owaki, S. Miyahara, M. Ogino, T. Maruya, T. Nawa, Hydration study of slag-  
606 blended cement based on thermodynamic considerations, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 124 (2016) 615-625.

607 [51] P.T. Durdziński, M. Ben Haha, M. Zajac, K.L. Scrivener, Phase assemblage of composite cements,  
608 *Cem. Concr. Res.* 99 (2017) 172-182.

609 [52] J. Stroh, B. Meng, F. Emmerling, Deterioration of hardened cement paste under combined  
610 sulphate-chloride attack investigated by synchrotron XRD, *Solid State Sciences* 56 (2016) 29-44.

611 [53] J.I. Escalante-García, J.H. Sharp, Effect of temperature on the hydration of the main clinker phases  
612 in portland cements: part i, neat cements, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 28(9) (1998) 1245-1257.

613 [54] B. Lothenbach, F. Winnefeld, C. Alder, E. Wieland, P. Lunk, Effect of temperature on the pore  
614 solution, microstructure and hydration products of Portland cement pastes, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 37  
615 (2007) 483-491.

616 [55] M.M.C. Fernandez, Effect of Particle Size on the Hydration Kinetics and Microstructural  
617 Development of Tricalcium Silicate, *Laboratoire des Matériaux de Construction, École Polytechnique*  
618 *Fédérale de Lausanne, Suisse*, 2008, p. 199.

619 [56] BS 6349-4, Maritime works, Part 1-4: General – Code of practice for materials, British Standard  
620 Institution, London, 2013.

621 [57] N. Gowripalan, J.G. Cabrera, A.R. Cusens, P.J. Wainwright, Effect of Curing on Durability, *Concr.*  
622 *Int.* 12(2) (1990).

623 [58] O. Idowu, L. Black, The effect of improper curing on properties that may affect concrete durability,  
624 *Magazine of Concrete Research* 70(12) (2018) 633-647.

- 625 [59] O.R. Ogirigbo, L. Black, The effect of slag composition and curing duration on the chloride ingress  
626 resistance of slag blended cements, *Adv. Cem. Res.* [31\(5\), 2019, 243-250](#).
- 627 [60] R.S. Gollop, H.F.W. Taylor, Microstructural and microanalytical studies of sulfate attack. II. Sulfate-  
628 resisting Portland cement: Ferrite composition and hydration chemistry, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 24(7) (1994)  
629 1347-1358.
- 630 [61] R.S. Gollop, H.F.W. Taylor, Microstructural and microanalytical studies of sulfate attack. I.  
631 Ordinary portland cement paste, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 22(6) (1992) 1027-1038.
- 632 [62] R.S. Gollop, H.F.W. Taylor, Microstructural and microanalytical studies of sulfate attack. IV.  
633 Reactions of a slag cement paste with sodium and magnesium sulfate solutions, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 26(7)  
634 (1996) 1013-1028.
- 635 [63] F. Shaheen, B. Pradhan, Influence of sulfate ion and associated cation type on steel reinforcement  
636 corrosion in concrete powder aqueous solution in the presence of chloride ions, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 91  
637 (2017) 73-86.
- 638 [64] A. Jimenez, M. Prieto, Thermal Stability of Ettringite Exposed to Atmosphere: Implications for the  
639 Uptake of Harmful Ions by Cement, *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 49(13) (2015) 7957-7964.
- 640 [65] B. Lothenbach, P. Durdziński, K.D. Weerdt, Thermogravimetric analysis, in: K. Scrivener, R.  
641 Snellings, B. Lothenbach (Eds.), *A practical Guide to Microstructural Analysis of Cementitious*  
642 *Materials*, CRC Press, Taylor and Francis Group, London, 2016, pp. 177-212.
- 643 [66] K.M.A. Hossain, Performance of volcanic ash and pumice-based blended cements in sulphate and  
644 sulphate - chloride environments, *Adv. Cem. Res.* 18 (2006) 71-82.
- 645 [67] S. Mindess, J.F. Young, D. Darwin, *Concrete*, 2 ed., Prentice Hall, United States, 2002.