

**Delft University of Technology** 

GeoMicro3D

## A novel numerical model for simulating the reaction process and microstructure formation of alkali-activated slag

Zuo, Yibing; Ye, Guang

DOI 10.1016/j.cemconres.2020.106328

Publication date 2021

**Document Version** Accepted author manuscript

Published in Cement and Concrete Research

Citation (APA) Zuo, Y., & Ye, G. (2021). GeoMicro3D: A novel numerical model for simulating the reaction process and microstructure formation of alkali-activated slag. Cement and Concrete Research, 141, 1-21. Article 106328. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cemconres.2020.106328

#### Important note

To cite this publication, please use the final published version (if applicable). Please check the document version above.

Copyright

Other than for strictly personal use, it is not permitted to download, forward or distribute the text or part of it, without the consent of the author(s) and/or copyright holder(s), unless the work is under an open content license such as Creative Commons.

Takedown policy

Please contact us and provide details if you believe this document breaches copyrights. We will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

# **1 GeoMicro3D: A novel numerical model for simulating the reaction**

# 2 process and microstructure formation of alkali-activated slag

3

4 Yibing Zuo<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, Guang Ye<sup>b</sup>

5

<sup>a</sup>School of Civil and Hydraulic Engineering, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan 430074,
China

<sup>b</sup>Faculty of Civil Engineering and Geosciences, Delft University of Technology, Stevinweg 1, 2628 CN Delft, The
Netherlands

10

Abstract: For the first time, this study developed a novel model, named GeoMicro3D, to 11 simulate the reaction process and microstructure formation of alkali-activated slag. The 12 GeoMicro3D model consists of four modules that are designed to simulate, respectively: (i) the 13 initial spatial distribution of real-shape slag particles in alkaline activator, (ii) the dissolution of 14 slag and diffusion of ions via the transition state theory and lattice Boltzmann method, 15 respectively, (iii) the spatial distribution of reaction products using a nucleation probability 16 theory, and (iv) the chemical reactions with thermodynamic modelling. Afterwards the 17 18 GeoMicro3D model was implemented and verified. The simulation results were discussed and compared with the relevant experimental data and thermodynamic calculation results using 19 20 GEMS. A good agreement was found in the comparisons, showing the strong simulation 21 capability of GeoMicro3D.

22

Keywords: Numerical simulation; Alkali-activated slag; Reaction process; Microstructure
 formation; GeoMicro3D

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author: zuoyibing@hust.edu.cn

#### 25 **1. Introduction**

26

The alkali activation of vitreous ground granulated blast furnace slag (GGBFS) produces a kind of clinker-free cement, which is supposed to efficiently improve the sustainability of concrete production [1-4]. Compared with ordinary Portland cement (OPC), alkali-activated slag (AAS) cement has lower equivalent emissions of  $CO_2$  [5-7] and exhibits similar or even better mechanical properties and durability performance [8, 9]. Most of these excellent properties are largely relied on the reaction process and microstructure formation of AAS.

33

34 With the rapid development of computer technology, numerical models have been well 35 developed and widely used in the studies of OPC based materials, providing an important numerical study route besides the experimental study route [10, 11]. With the numerical models 36 it is possible to simulate the hydration process and microstructure development, in particular of 37 the pore structure in hardening OPC based materials. Table 1 lists four main numerical models 38 39 and their characteristics for studying OPC based materials [12]. The reaction process and microstructure evolution of OPC based materials can be simulated through either of the 40 41 three-dimensional cement hydration and microstructure development model (CEMHYD3D) [13], Navi's model [14] and three-dimensional hydration, morphology and structure formation 42 model (HYMOSTRUC) [12, 15]. Furthermore, the durability of concrete model (DuCOM) and 43 HYMOSTRUC can be used to investigate and predict not only the transport properties of water 44 45 and ions in OPC concrete but also the corrosion and degradation of OPC concrete in the erosion 46 environment [12, 16, 17].

47

48

	CEMHYD3D	Navi's model	DuCOM	HYMOSTRUC
Particle size distribution	1~40 μm	6~60 μm	mono-size particles	no limitation
Particle shape	real-shape	sphere	sphere	sphere
Composition of cement	C <sub>3</sub> S,C <sub>2</sub> S,C <sub>3</sub> A, C <sub>4</sub> AF,gypsum	$C_3S$	$C_3S$	$C_3S, C_2S$
Type of cement	OPC, blended cement	×	OPC, medium heat cement, high belite cement	OPC, blended cement
Mixture proportion		×	$\checkmark$	V
Kinetics	×		$\checkmark$	
Curing condition	temperature, moisture	×	temperature	temperature
Mineral admixture	filler	filler (mono-size)	filler	filler
Dimensions	3D	3D	3D	3D
Pore scale	capillary pore	capillary pore	capillary pore, gel pore	capillary pore
Reference	[13]	[14, 22]	[16]	[15]

#### 50 **Table 1** Comparison of the main features between four numerical models (after [12])

51 Note: C<sub>3</sub>S, C<sub>2</sub>S, C<sub>3</sub>A, C<sub>4</sub>AF and OPC represent tricalcium silicate, dicalcium silicate, tricalcium aluminate, calcium

ferroaluminate and ordinary Portland cement, respectively. "√" and "×" mean that the model considers and does not consider,
 respectively.

54

It is noted that the numerical models that are designed for OPC based materials, however, are not capable of simulating the reaction process and microstructure formation of AAS. In the literature the numerical studies of AAS mainly concentrate on the following two aspects:

58

Modelling the chemistry and structure of the C-(N-)A-S-H gels. The alkali 59 60 calcium-aluminosilicate hydrate, i.e. the C-(N-)A-S-H gel, is the primary reaction product in AAS [18]. Puertas et al. defined a tobermorite structure based model for describing the 61 C-(N-)A-S-H gels and found that the structure of the C-(N-)A-S-H gels largely depended 62 on the nature of the alkaline activator [19]. In another study, a generalized model named 63 the cross-linked substituted tobermorite model (CSTM) was derived [20]. In this model a 64 65 blend of cross-linked and non-cross-linked tobermorite-based structures were employed to simulate the C-(N-)A-S-H gels. Compared with the models that were based on the 66 non-cross-linked tobermorite-based structure, the CSTM model was found to be more 67

capable of simulating the composition and structure of the C-(N-)A-S-H gels. By coupling
the numerical simulation and experimental study, the Al in cross-linking of the
C-(N-)A-S-H gel was investigated in [21]. The numerical simulation was carried out by
using the CSTM model and in the experimental study the <sup>29</sup>Si and <sup>27</sup>Al NMR spectroscopy
was used. It was found that a longer reaction time resulted in a reduction of the Al/Si ratio
in the C-(N-)A-S-H gels.

74

75 Thermodynamic modelling of the chemical reactions: Myers et al. derived a calcium-alkali 76 aluminosilicate hydrate ideal solid solution model, named CNASH ss, and simulated the 77 chemical reactions in AAS [23] (more details on the CNASH ss model can be referred to 78 Section 2.4). The simulation results showed that the calculated C-(N-)A-S-H gel densities and molar volumes agreed with their corresponding experimental values reported in the 79 literature [24]. With the CNASH ss model, the solid phase assemblage of AAS was 80 simulated and a good consistency was found between the simulation results and the 81 82 experimental data [25]. Based on the thermodynamic modelling results, Myers et al. determined the phase diagrams of AAS [26]. In another study, the CNASH ss model was 83 84 employed to simulate the solid phase composition and chemical shrinkage of AAS [27].

85

So far, however, there is a dearth of information on the numerical models that are capable of simulating the reaction process and microstructure formation of AAS. Nowadays it is still a big subject and problem for researchers to have a numerical model with which it is possible to numerically investigate the microstructure development of AAS. Due to the lack of a numerical model to obtain the microstructure, the researchers find it very difficult to numerically investigate many microstructure-related-physical-properties of AAS, such as tensile strength, permeability and diffusivity of chloride. Cement and Concrete Research, 141 (2021) 106328

In this background, a novel numerical model, i.e. GeoMicro3D abbreviated from Geopolymer 93 94 Microstructure 3 Dimensions, was developed for the first time in this study to simulate the 95 reaction process and microstructure formation of AAS. The GeoMicro3D model was developed by strictly following the simulations of the initial spatial distribution of real-shape slag particles 96 97 in alkaline activator, dissolution of slag, diffusion of ions, chemical reactions of ions and nucleation and growth of reaction products in AAS. After build-up of the GeoMicro3D model, 98 it was implemented and then verified by the relevant experimental data and thermodynamic 99 calculation results using GEMS. The GeoMicro3D model proposed in this study may serve as 100 101 a numerical simulation tool, with which it is possible for researchers to numerically study and 102 forecast many microstructure-related-physical-properties of AAS.

103

#### 104 **2. Methodology**

105

The GeoMicro3D model consists of four modules as displayed in Fig. 1. The first module (1)106 generates the initial spatial distribution of real-shape slag particles in alkaline activator prior to 107 the onset of reactions. The second module (2) simulates the dissolution of slag. The third 108 module (③) simulates the spatial distribution of reaction products, in which a novel strategy is 109 proposed to improve the computation efficiency. In the last module (4) the chemical reactions 110 are described and the amounts of reaction products are determined via the thermodynamic 111 modelling. The modules (2), (3) and (4) make up a loop in which the lattice Boltzmann method 112 (LBM) is applied to describe the diffusion of ions. 113



Fig. 1. Modules of the GeoMicro3D model. LBM represents lattice Boltzmann method.

115 2.1. Simulation of the initial spatial distribution of slag particles in alkaline activator

116

The initial spatial distribution of slag particles in alkaline activator is the starting point for 117 performing numerical simulations of the reaction process and microstructure formation of AAS. 118 119 Here the initial spatial distribution of slag particles in alkaline activator solution is defined as 120 the state of slag particles in alkaline activator before the onset of reactions. In this study, a geometrical model, named Anm material model [28], was employed to simulate the initial 121 spatial distribution of slag particles in alkaline activator using real-shape particles of slag. 122 123 124 In the Anm material model, particle shapes are described with spherical harmonic expansion coefficients *a<sub>nm</sub>*, as expressed with Eq. (1) in a 3D spherical polar coordinate system. 125 126  $r(\theta, \varphi) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-n}^{n} a_{nm} Y_{nm}(\theta, \varphi)$ 127 (1)128

129 
$$Y_{nm}(\theta,\varphi) = \sqrt{\frac{(2n+1)(n-m)!}{4\pi(n+m)!}} P_{nm}(\cos\theta) e^{im\varphi}$$
 (2)

131	where:
132	
133	• $r(\theta, \varphi)$ – the distance from the particle center of mass to the surface point
134	
135	• $Y_{nm}(\theta, \varphi)$ – the spherical harmonic function
136	
137	• $\theta$ – the polar angle
138	
139	• $\varphi$ – the azimuthal angle
140	
141	• $n, m$ – the indices $(-n \le m \le n)$
142	
143	• $P_{nm}(\cos \theta)$ – the associated Legendre polynomial [29]
144	
145	• $i$ – the square root of -1
146	
147	The spherical harmonic expansion coefficients, i.e. $a_{nm}$ , can be determined analytically from
148	digital micro X-ray computed tomography images of slag particles [30]. Once $a_{nm}$ is determined,
149	then the particle shape can be described with Eqs. (1) and (2). As an example, Fig. 2 shows a
150	real-shape particle of slag that is described by $a_{nm}$ . The spherical harmonic expansion
151	coefficients of different slag particles make up the particle shape database for slag.



Fig. 2. A real-shape particle of slag described by the spherical harmonic coefficients. The particle width is 15.56  $\mu$ m. (In this study, the particle width was used as the measure of particle size, see details in the text)

153 Once the spherical harmonic coefficients are known, many geometric properties can be calculated, such as the particle volume, surface area, length, width, and thickness [31]. Length 154 is the longest surface-surface distance in the particle; width is the longest surface-surface 155 156 distance in the particle such that width is perpendicular to length; and thickness is the longest surface-surface distance in the particle such that thickness is perpendicular to both length and 157 158 width [31]. Since the particle width is thought to match best with the usual standard experimental sieve classification of particles [32, 33], it is preferentially used for computational 159 160 sieve analysis [30]. In this study, the particle width was used as the measure of particle size.

161

In the simulation process, the particles are placed one after another into the cubic box. The cubic box, also noted as simulation box, represents the representative elementary volume (REV) for simulation and its size should not be smaller than 2.5 times of the largest slag particle [34]. The larger particles are processed before the smaller ones. So before the simulation, the particles are grouped into different particle size ranges. The particles within a larger particle size range are processed before the ones within a smaller particle size range. For placing the particles from a certain particle size range into the simulation box, the particle size is picked up stochastically 169 within this particle size range and the particle shape is taken from the shape database of slag. In order to avoid overlapping with the particles that are already placed in the simulation box, 170 171 stochastic trials are usually needed to look for the particle position and orientation. Full details 172 on the modelling procedures and algorithms can be found in [28, 34, 35]. Fig. 3 shows one example of the simulated initial spatial distribution of real-shape slag particles in sodium 173 174 hydroxide solution using the Anm material model. Ref. [36] provides more information about using the Anm material model to simulate the initial spatial distribution of real-shape slag 175 176 particles in sodium hydroxide solution.



Fig. 3. Simulated initial spatial distribution of real-shape slag particles in sodium hydroxide solution using the Anm material model. The size of the simulation box was 125  $\mu$ m × 125  $\mu$ m × 125  $\mu$ m. The liquid to binder ratio was 0.59. More information can be found in [36].

177

### 178 2.2. Simulation of the dissolution of slag

- 179
- 180 When slag is brought into contact with the alkaline activator solution, the dissolution of element
- 181 constituents in slag starts and the transport of the released ions starts by diffusion. In this study,
- therefore, the simulation of the dissolution of slag can be divided into two main aspects: one is

183 to simulate the dissolution of the element constituents in slag by using the transition state theory 184 (see the following subsection 2.2.1), and the other is to simulate the diffusion of the released 185 ions by using the lattice Boltzmann (LB) method (see the following subsection 2.2.2). Based on these two steps, the dissolved amount of element at each LB simulation step can be obtained 186 187 (see the following subsection 2.2.3). The amount of the dissolved elements then serve as source terms and participate in the LB simulation in the next LB simulation step. As a demonstration 188 189 example, Fig. 4 shows the simulated progressing dissolution of one real-shape slag particle in 190 alkaline solution by the dissolution module.



Fig. 4. Progressing dissolution of one real-shape slag particle in alkaline solution. LBS refers to lattice Boltzmann simulation.

191



193

In aluminosilicate materials including slag, Si and Al build up the framework while alkali and alkali-earth metals like Ca and Mg modify the framework [37, 38]. So the alkali and alkali-earth metals are also called modifying elements. The framework refers to the glass network in aluminosilicate materials. In the framework Si and Al are tetrahedrally coordinated. As

- schematically shown in Fig. 5, the dissolution of slag can be described via the following four
- 199 consecutive steps [39-41].



**Fig. 5.** Schematic illustration of the dissolution of slag (after [41]). For clarity, additional bonds between Si and O as well as between Al and O are not shown.

201	(i) First,	the	modifying	elements	are	initially	released	through	the	metal/proton	exchange
202	reaction	ons,	as shown ii	n Fig. 5(A	).						

203

204 (ii) Then, hydrolysis of the bonds between Al and O starts, as shown in Fig. 5(B).

205

206 (iii) Afterwards, the bonds between Si and O start to break, as shown in Fig. 5(C).

207

(iv)Finally, Al and Si are released, as a result of which the framework is gradually dissolved,
as shown in Fig. 5(D).

210

211 Due to the smaller bonding energy of Al-O than Si-O, Al dissolves more easily than Si in the

dissolution of slag [47]. The initially dissolved Al changes the adjoined Si coordination condition from fully coordinated to partially coordinated (Fig. 5(C)). Compared with the fully coordinated Si, the partially coordinated Si dissolves faster. So the dissolution of framework can be divided into the following two steps: initial dissolution of a small amount of Al (Fig. 5(B)) and then followed by the dissolution of Si that coordinates to the initially dissolved Al through O (Fig. 5(C)).

It is reported that the relative dissolution rate of each oxide within a multioxide phase equals to 219 the dissolution rate of the single oxide [42, 43]. This is mostly due to the fact that the dissolution 220 221 of glass is actually through the break of bonds between oxygen and other elements, such as Si-222 O, Al-O and Ca-O bonds, as shown in Fig. 5. That is to say, the simulation of the dissolution of 223 the element constituents in slag can be carried out by simulating the dissolution of single element oxide. It should be noted that simulating the dissolution of glass in view of its 224 individual oxide component is based on the assumption that the effect of mixing of multioxide 225 226 on the Gibbs energy is negligible. How the mixing affects the Gibbs energy and how much the effect are in need of further research. The dissolution reactions of silica, aluminum and calcium 227 228 oxide in alkaline solution can be described as follows:

229

230 
$$SiO_2 + 20H^- \to H_2O + SiO_3^{-2-}$$
 (3)

231

232 
$$Al_2O_3 + 2OH^- \rightarrow H_2O + 2AlO_2^-$$
 (4)  
233

234 
$$CaO + H_2O \rightarrow 2OH^- + Ca^{2+}$$
 (5)

235

236 According to the transition state theory, the dissolution rates of silica, aluminum and calcium

oxide, i.e.  $r_{Si}$ ,  $r_{Al}$  and  $r_{Ca}$ , can be obtained as expressed in the following equations. More details on the transition state theory and derivation of the following equations can be found in Appendix A.

(6)

(7)

240

241 
$$r_{Si} = r_{+,Si} \left( 1 - \left( \frac{IAP_{Si}}{K_{sp,Si}} \right)^{1/\sigma} \right)$$

1 /

242

243 
$$r_{Al} = r_{+,Al} \left( 1 - \left( \frac{IAP_{Al}}{K_{sp,Al}} \right)^{1/\sigma} \right)$$

244

245 
$$r_{Ca} = r_{+,Ca} \left( 1 - \left( \frac{IAP_{Ca}}{K_{sp,Ca}} \right)^{1/\sigma} \right)$$
(8)

246

where  $r_{+,X}$ ,  $K_{sp,X}$ , and  $IAP_X$  are forward dissolution rate, solubility product and ion activity product of *X*, respectively. *X* can be silica, alumina or calcium oxide.  $IAP_X$  can be determined as follows according to Eqs. (3-5):

250

251 
$$IAP_{Si} = \frac{a_{SiO_3}^2 - * a_{H_2O}}{a_{OH} - * a_{OH} - }$$
 (9)

252

253 
$$IAP_{Al} = \frac{a_{AlO_2} - * a_{AlO_2} - * a_{H_2O}}{a_{OH} - * a_{OH} -}$$
(10)

254

255 
$$IAP_{Ca} = \frac{a_{Ca^{2+}} * a_{OH^{-}} * a_{OH^{-}}}{a_{H_2O}}$$
 (11)

256

257 where  $a_i$  represents the ion activity. *i* can be SiO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>, AlO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O or OH<sup>-</sup>.

- According to the stoichiometric dissolution of Al and Si in aluminosilicate materials [44, 45],
- the log forward dissolution rates of Si and Al can be correlated as follows:
- 261

262 
$$Log r_{+,Al} = Log\left(\frac{v_{Al}}{v_{Si}}r_{+,Si}\right) = Log\left(\frac{v_{Al}}{v_{Si}}\right) + Log r_{+,Si}$$
 (12)

- 263
- where  $v_{Si}$  and  $v_{Al}$  are the molar fractions of Si and Al in slag, respectively.
- 265

In slag the contents of Mg, Na, K and S are small. Similar to Ca, these modifying elements also dissolve relatively fast in comparison with the tetrahedrally coordinated Si and Al in the framework. Therefore, the dissolution rates of Mg, Na, K and S can be determined as follows, by taking  $r_{Ca}$  as the reference.

(14)

(15)

271 
$$r_{Mg} = f_{Mg} \cdot \frac{v_{Mg}}{v_{Ca}} \cdot r_{Ca}$$
(13)

272

273 
$$r_{Na} = f_{Na} \cdot \frac{v_{Na}}{v_{Ca}} \cdot r_{Ca}$$

274

275 
$$r_K = f_K \cdot \frac{\sigma_K}{\sigma_{Ca}} \cdot r_{Ca}$$

277 
$$r_S = f_S \cdot \frac{v_S}{v_{Ca}} \cdot r_{Ca}$$
 (16)

278

276

where  $r_{Mg}$ ,  $r_{Na}$ ,  $r_K$  and  $r_S$  are the dissolution rates of Mg, Na, K and S, respectively.  $f_{Mg}$ ,  $f_{Na}$ ,  $f_K$ and  $f_S$  are ratios of  $r_{Mg}$ ,  $r_{Na}$ ,  $r_K$  and  $r_S$  relative to  $r_{Ca}$ , respectively.  $v_{Ca}$ ,  $v_{Mg}$ ,  $v_{Na}$ ,  $v_K$  and  $v_S$  are molar fractions of Ca, Mg, Na, K and S in slag, respectively.

- 283 2.2.2. Simulation of the diffusion of ions
- 284

285 As originated from the lattice gas automata, LB method is considered as a simplified version of molecular dynamics method, utilizing a discrete space, discrete time and discrete velocities [46]. 286 287 It has been found that the LB method is a powerful method for solving fluid dynamics and ionic transport problems [46-48]. In this study, the LB method was employed to describe the diffusion 288 of ions. The ions that are accounted for in the GeoMicro3D model are  $SiO_3^{2-}$ ,  $AIO_2^{-}$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ , 289  $K^+$ , Na<sup>+</sup>, S<sup>2-</sup> and OH<sup>-</sup>. For modelling the mass transport in 3D, the D3Q19 model is commonly 290 291 applied. DdQq refers to a lattice structure with q lattice directions in d dimensions. The lattice 292 structure defines the path for streaming of distribution function from current lattice cell to the 293 neighboring lattice cell. When simulating the entirely diffusive mass transport, however, it is possible to decrease the velocity directions from 19 (D3Q19) to 7 (D3Q7) without affecting the 294 simulation quality very much [49]. It is known that there is no convection in the reaction process 295 296 of cement-based materials. So the transport of ions can be described as entirely diffusive mass 297 transport [46]. For the purpose of decreasing the computation efforts and increasing the computation efficiency, the D3Q7 model was applied in the GeoMicro3D model to describe the 298 299 diffusion of ions in AAS. The LB equation below describes the development of particle 300 distribution function [47]:

301

302 
$$f_i(x+e_i\delta_t,t+\delta_t) = f_i(x,t) - \frac{\delta_t}{\tau} [f_i(x,t) - f_i^{eq}(x,t)] + \omega_i \delta_t S$$
(1)

303

304 where:

305

 $f_i$  – the non-equilibrium particle distribution function

307

7)

308	• $f_i^{eq}$ – the equilibrium particle distribution function
309	
310	• $x$ – the location
311	
312	• $t$ – the time
313	
314	• $i$ – the velocity $i$ (in this study $i = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$ )
315	
316	• $\tau$ – the relaxation time
317	
318	• $\delta_t$ – the time step
319	
320	• $e_i$ – the microscopic velocity
321	
322	• $w_i$ – the weighting factor
323	
324	• $S$ – the source term
325	
326	Without convection, $f_i^{eq}$ can be determined via the equation below, in which F is the ion
327	concentration in the lattice cell:
328	
329	$f_i^{eq}(x,t) = \omega_i F(x,t) \tag{18}$
330	
331	$F(x + e_i\delta_t, t + \delta_t) = \sum_{i=0}^6 f_i \left( x + e_i\delta_t, t + \delta_t \right) $ (19)
332	

333 Fig. 6 shows a flow diagram of the LB simulation. After initialization, the LB simulation begins with the determination of  $f_i^{eq}$  using Eq. (18). Then the source term (S) is determined according 334 to Eq. (21). With  $f_i^{eq}$  and S, the collision process is executed to obtain  $(f_i(x+e_i\delta_t, t+\delta_t))$  by using 335 Eq. (17). Then  $f_i(x+e_i\delta_t, t+\delta_t)$  streams in each direction of velocity. Afterwards, periodic 336 337 boundary conditions are applied to determine the  $f_i(x+e_i\delta_i, t+\delta_i)$  of the lattice cells on the boundaries of the simulation box. Finally, ion concentrations are renewed according to Eq. (19). 338 339 If the current time (T) exceeds the target reaction period ( $T_{target}$ ) or the source terms are zero (S=0), then the data are quantified as output and the loop will stop; otherwise, the loop goes to 340 341 the next LB simulation iteration.



Fig. 6. Flow diagram of LB simulation of the dissolution of slag.

342

343 2.2.3. Dissolved amount of elements at each LB simulation step

In the digitization process, the voxels that are outside the slag particles are regarded as alkaline

activator voxels and the rest voxels are taken as slag voxels. After digitization the simulation
box becomes a box of voxels (or lattice cells). Therefore, the slag particles in the digitized
simulation box actually consist of voxels. Due to the amorphous nature of slag, it is reasonable
to assume an even distribution of element constituents in slag. That is to say, the element
constituents in each slag voxel can be supposed identical to the chemical composition of slag.
To simulate the dissolution of slag is actually to simulate the dissolution of element constituents
in slag voxels.

353

354 For each slag voxel, there are six interfaces on which dissolution may take place. On each 355 interface, the amount of elements that are released at one LB time step can be determined 356 according to Eq. (20). The parameter *f\_dissolving-area* represents the area fraction of the interface that is being dissolved. In determining the dissolution rates using Eqs. (6-8) for the dissolving 357 358 interface, the *IAP* is obtained based on the contacting neighbor voxel. With the amount of 359 elements that are released on each interface, the total released amount of elements on six 360 interfaces can be determined via Eq. (21). The dissolved amount of elements at one LB time step will participate in the collision step through the source term in Eq. (17) in the next LB 361 362 simulation step.

363

365

$$\Delta N_Y = \sum_{i=1}^6 \Delta n_{Y,i}$$

 $\Delta n_{Y,i} = f_{dissolving-area} \cdot r_{Y,i} \cdot t_0 \cdot {l_0}^2$ 

367

368 where:

369

370 •  $\Delta n_{Y,i}$  – the released amount of element Y on interface i

(20)

(21)

371	
372	• $\Delta N_Y$ – the released amount of element <i>Y</i> on six interfaces
373	
374	• $t_0$ – one LB step time
375	
376	• <i>Y</i> – an element that can be Si, Al, Ca, Mg, S or K
377	
378	• $r_{Y,i}$ – the dissolution rate of element <i>Y</i> on the interface <i>i</i>
379	
380	• $l_0$ – the side length of voxel
381	
382	2.3. Simulation of the nucleation and growth of reaction products
383	
384	With dissolution of slag, the concentrations of ions in the solution increase continuously. When
385	the pore solution of AAS reaches saturation or oversaturation, reaction products are likely to
386	precipitate. Whether the precipitation will occur or not depends on the nucleation condition in
387	the pore solution. Nucleation is the statistical process of appearance of nanoscopically small
388	clusters of molecules of a new phase in a supersaturated solution [50], which is the key step for
38 <b>9</b>	the growth of reaction products. Eq. (22) is used to calculate the probability $P(t)$ that at least
390	one critical nucleus exists in the solution [51]. Once at least one critical nucleus exists in the
391	solution, the reaction product of this kind of nucleus begins to deposit and grow.
392	
393	$P(\Delta t) = 1 - \exp(-J \cdot V \cdot \Delta t) $ <sup>(22)</sup>
394	
395	where V is the solution volume, $\Delta t$ is the time interval and J is the nucleation rate that can be

396	determined as follows [50, 51]:	
397		
398	$J(S) = A \cdot S \cdot \exp(-\frac{B}{\ln^2 S}) $ (23)	
399		
400	where $A$ and $S$ are the kinetic parameter and supersaturation ratio, respectively, and $B$ is the	
401	thermodynamic parameter that can be obtained for heterogeneous nucleation, as follows:	
402		
403	$B = \frac{4}{27} \frac{c^3 \cdot v^2 \cdot \gamma_{ef}^3}{k_B^3 \cdot T^3} $ (24)	
404		
405	Where:	
406		
407	• $c - a$ shape factor ( $(36\pi)^{1/3}$ for spheres and 6 for cubes)	
408		
409	• $v$ – the molecular volume of the phase	
410		
411	• $k_B$ – the Boltzmann constant	
412		
413	• $T$ – the absolute temperature	
414		
415	• $\gamma_{ef}$ - the effective interfacial energy, where $\gamma_{ef} = \psi \gamma$ with interfacial energy $\gamma$ and activity	
416	factor $0 < \psi < 1$ , and $\psi = 1$ for homogeneous nucleation	
417		
418	The $\gamma$ can be determined with Eq. (25) below [50, 51]:	
419		

420 
$$\gamma = \beta_N \cdot k_B \cdot T \cdot \frac{1}{\nu^{2/3}} \cdot \ln(\frac{1}{N_a \cdot \nu \cdot c^*})$$
(25)

422 where  $\beta_N$  is a numerical factor ( $\beta_N = 0.514$  for spherical nuclei),  $N_a$  is Avogadro's number and 423  $c^*$  (mol/L) is the molar solubility.

424

425 In a voxel without reaction products, it is possible for each reaction product to precipitate. In other words the nucleation probability should be calculated for each reaction product via Eq. 426 427 (22) and the corresponding reaction should be simulated if the reaction product is predicted to 428 precipitate. This, however, would result in a huge rise of the computation efforts and inevitably 429 and dramatically reduce the computation efficiency. In fact the reaction products are actually finely mixed up with each other at the micro level according to experimental observation from 430 431 the scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images [52-54]. Therefore it is not wise and necessary 432 to simulate the precipitation and reaction of each reaction product separately at the micro level. 433 For the purpose of limiting the computational load and respecting the experimental insights, a novel strategy was conceived and implemented in this study. The details of this novel strategy 434 are described as follows. 435

436

The reaction products in AAS are classified into primary reaction products (C-(N-)A-S-H gel) and secondary reaction products (see details in Section 2.4). The deposit of reaction products is controlled to take place only when at least one of the eight CNASH\_ss end-members and at least one of secondary reaction products are simulated to precipitate. For the voxels where reaction products will deposit, the *thermodynamic modelling module* is applied to simulate the reactions and calculate the amount of reaction products. The full procedure consists of four steps below and is displayed in Fig. 7.

- 445 a. Calculate the nucleation probabilities,  $P_X$ ,  $P_Y$  and  $P_Z$  for primary reaction products and  $P_A$ ,
- 446  $P_B$  and  $P_C$  for secondary reaction products, using Eq. (22).
- 447
- 448 b. Generate a random probability  $0 \le P_{random} \le 1$ .
- 449
- 450 c. Calculate the numbers (i.e.  $N_p$  and  $N_s$ ) of primary reaction products and secondary reaction

451 products that are predicted to nucleate, respectively.

452





Fig. 7. Flowchart of nucleation probability module.

- 455 For a voxel that already has reaction products, the *thermodynamic modelling module* is applied
- 456 directly without calling the *nucleation probability module*.
- 457

458 2.4. Thermodynamic modelling module

460	This module is applied to model the chemical reactions and determine the amounts of reaction
461	products in AAS through thermodynamic modelling. The reaction products in AAS consist of
462	primary reaction products, i.e. C-(N-)A-S-H gels [18], and secondary reaction products, such
463	as hydrotalcite [55], tetracalcium aluminate hydrate (C4AH13) [55], katoite (C3AH6) [25],
464	stratlingite (C <sub>2</sub> ASH <sub>8</sub> ) [56] and portlandite (CH) [57] etc. Once the thermodynamic data of these
465	reaction products are known, thermodynamic modelling of the reactions can be performed by
466	using the thermodynamic program.
467	
468	2.4.1. Thermodynamic data of the reaction products
469	
470	(1) For the primary reaction products (C-(N-)A-S-H gels)
471	
472	In this study the CNASH_ss model was used to describe the C-(N-)A-S-H gels. The CNASH_ss
473	model contains eight CNASH_ss end-members. The dissociation reactions and thermodynamic
474	data of these end-members are listed in Tables 2 and 3, respectively. More information on the
475	derivation of the CNASH_ss model can be referred to [23].
476	
477	
478	
479	
480	
481	
482	

483 Table 2 Dissociation reactions and solubility products (Log K<sub>sp</sub>) for C-(N-)A-S-H and hydrotalcite-like phases at

## 484 25 °C and 1 bar.

Solids	Dissociation reactions	Log K <sub>sp</sub>
CNASH ss mo	del [23]	
5CA	$(CaO)_{1.25} \cdot (Al_2O_3)_{0.125} \cdot (SiO_2) \cdot (H_2O)_{1.625}$	-10.75
	$\leftrightarrow 1.25 \text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{SiO}_3^{2-} + 0.25 \text{AlO}_2^{-} + 0.250 \text{H}^{-} + 1.5 \text{H}_2 \text{O}$	
INFCA	$(CaO) \cdot (Al_2O_3)_{0.15625} \cdot (SiO_2)_{1.1875} \cdot (H_2O)_{1.65625} + 0.68750H^-$	-8.90
	$\leftrightarrow  Ca^{2+} + 1.1875SiO_3^{2-} + 0.3125AlO_2^{-} + 2H_2O$	
5CNA	$(CaO)_{1.25} \cdot (Na_2O)_{0.25} \cdot (Al_2O_3)_{0.125} \cdot (SiO_2) \cdot (H_2O)_{1.25}$	-10.40
	$\leftrightarrow 1.25 \text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{SiO}_3^{2-} + 0.25 \text{AlO}_2^{-} + 0.5 \text{Na}^{+} + 0.750 \text{H}^{-} + \text{H}_2 \text{O}$	
INFCNA	$(CaO) \cdot (Na_2O)_{0.34375} \cdot (Al_2O_3)_{0.15625} \cdot (SiO_2)_{1.1875} \cdot (H_2O)_{1.3}$	-10.00
	$\leftrightarrow  \text{Ca}^{2+} + 1.1875 \text{Si}0_3^{2-} + 0.3125 \text{Al}0_2^{-} + 0.6875 \text{Na}^+ + 1.3125 \text{H}_2 \text{O}$	
INFCN	$(CaO) \cdot (Na_2O)_{0.3125} \cdot (SiO_2)_{1.5} \cdot (H_2O)_{1.1875} + 0.3750H^-$	-10.70
	$\leftrightarrow \ \mathrm{Ca}^{2+} + 1.5\mathrm{SiO}_3^{2-} + 0.625\mathrm{Na}^+ + 1.375\mathrm{H}_2\mathrm{O}$	
T2C*	$(CaO)_{1.5} \cdot (SiO_2) \cdot (H_2O)_{2.5}  \leftrightarrow  1.5Ca^{2+} + SiO_3^{2-} + OH^- + 2H_2O$	-11.60
T5C*	$(CaO)_{1.25} \cdot (SiO_2)_{1.25} \cdot (H_2O)_{2.5} \leftrightarrow 1.25Ca^{2+} + 1.25SiO_3^{2-} + 2.5H_2O$	-10.50
TobH*	$(CaO) \cdot (SiO_2)_{1.5} \cdot (H_2O)_{2.5} + OH^- \leftrightarrow Ca^{2+} + 1.5SiO_3^{2-} + 3H_2O$	-7.90
MA-OH-LDH	ss model [25]	
$M_4AH_{10}$	$(MgO)_4 \cdot (Al_2O_3) \cdot (H_2O)_{10} \leftrightarrow 4Mg^{2+} + 2AlO_2^- + 60H^- + 7H_2O$	-49.70
$M_6AH_{12}$	$(MgO)_{6} \cdot (Al_2O_3) \cdot (H_2O)_{12} \leftrightarrow 6Mg^{2+} + 2AlO_2^{-} + 100H^{-} + 7H_2O$	-72.02
M <sub>8</sub> AH <sub>14</sub>	$(MgO)_{8} \cdot (Al_2O_3) \cdot (H_2O)_{14}  \leftrightarrow  8Mg^{2+} + 2AlO_2^- + 140H^- + 7H_2O$	<b>-</b> 94.34

485

486 Table 3 Thermodynamic properties of the C(N)ASH\_ss end-members at 25 °C and 1 bar.

Phase	$V^0$	$\Delta_f H^0$	$\Delta_f G^{ heta}$	S <sup>0</sup>	$C_p{}^{0}$	Ref.
	(cm <sup>3</sup> /mol)	(kJ/mol)	(kJ/mol)	(J/mol.K)	(J/mol.K)	
5CA	57.3	-2491	-2293	163	177	[23]
INFCA	59.3	-2551	-2343	154	181	[23]
5CNA	64.5	-2569	-2382	195	176	[23]
INFCNA	69.3	-2667	-2474	198	180	[23]
INFCN	71.1	-2642	-2452	186	184	[23]
T2C*	80.6	-2721	-2465	167	237	[23]
T5C*	79.3	-2780	-2517	160	234	[23]
TobH*	85.0	-2831	-2560	153	231	[23]

487

488 (2) For secondary reaction products

489

It is reported that the mackinawite (FeS) with unstable structure precipitates first and then it transforms to the mackinawite with stable structure and finally to pyrite or pyrrhotite [58]. Compared with other Fe-based phases, such as Fe-ettringite or Fe(OH)<sub>3</sub>, mackinawite has higher stability in AAS [59]. In this study, the stable mackinawite is accounted for in the thermodynamic modelling of the reactions in AAS.

- 496 It is noted that the  $K_{sp}$  of hydrotalcite in [60, 61] are not in line with the values in [62]. This
- 497 inconsistency has been found by Myers et al. [25]. In this situation, a thermodynamic model,
- 498 i.e. MA-OH-LDH ss, was derived for the hydrotalcite-like phases [25]. The MA-OH-LDH ss
- 499 model contains three solid phases (M<sub>4</sub>AH<sub>10</sub>, M<sub>6</sub>AH<sub>12</sub> and M<sub>8</sub>AH<sub>14</sub>) and their dissociation
- 500 reactions are shown in Table 2.
- 501
- 502 Furthermore, CH, C<sub>3</sub>AH<sub>6</sub>, NAS<sub>3</sub>H<sub>2</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>ASH<sub>8</sub> are also accounted for in the thermodynamic
- 503 modelling of the reactions in AAS. The thermodynamic data of all the considered secondary
- reaction products are presented in Table 4.
- 505 Table 4 Thermodynamic data of the considered secondary reaction products at 25 °C and 1 bar.

Phase	$V^0$	$\Delta_f H^0$	$\Delta_f G^{\theta}$	$S^0$	$C_p^0$	Ref.
	(cm <sup>3</sup> /mol)	(kJ/mol)	(kJ/mol)	(J/mol.K)	(J/mol.K)	
Mackinawite, FeS	20.5	-92.0	-93.6	64.68	50.4	[63]
$M_4AH_{10}$	219	-7160	-6358	549	648	[25]
$M_6AH_{12}$	305	-9007	-8023	675	803	[25]
$M_8AH_{14}$	392	-10853	-9687	801	958	[25]
Portlandite, CH	33.1	-984.7	<b>-897</b> .0	83.4	87.5	[23]
Katoite, C <sub>3</sub> AH <sub>6</sub>	150	-5537	-5008	422	446	[64]
Natrolite, NAS <sub>3</sub> H <sub>2</sub>	169	-5728	-5325.7	360	359	[65]
Stratlingite, C <sub>2</sub> ASH <sub>8</sub>	216	-6360	-5705	546	603	[66]

507

508 2.4.2. Thermodynamic modelling program

509

Thermodynamic simulation was carried out using GEM-Selektor V3 (http://gems.web.psi.ch/) [67, 68]. GEM-Selektor V3 is a popularly employed thermodynamic program for doing thermodynamic calculations [23, 25, 26, 59, 61, 68-70]. The thermodynamic data used in this study consists of the basis thermodynamic database, i.e. the CEMDATA07 database reported in [70] and the thermodynamic data for reaction products reported in [23]. It is noted that the thermodynamic data for the primary reaction products, i.e. the C-(N-)A-S-H gel, and secondary reaction products in AAS are reproduced in Tables 3 and 4, respectively. The effectiveness of

517	these thermodynamic data have been widely validated in the literature for CEMDATA07 [59,
518	61, 70] and for reaction products in AAS [23, 25-27, 57, 69].
519	
520	In order to determine the ion activity coefficients, the GEM-Selektor employed the extended
521	Debye-Huckel equation [67, 68].
522	
523	$Log_{10}\gamma_j = \frac{-A_{\gamma}z_j^2\sqrt{l}}{1+\dot{a}B_{\gamma}\sqrt{l}} + b_{\gamma}l + log_{10}\frac{x_{jw}}{x_w} $ (26)
524	
525	where:
526	
527	• $\gamma_j$ – the activity coefficient
528	
529	• $z_j$ – the charge
530	
531	• $j$ – the aqueous species
532	
533	• $A_{\gamma}, B_{\gamma}$ – the electrostatic parameters
534	
535	• $I$ – the ionic strength
536	
537	• $x_{jw}$ – the mole quantity of water
538	
539	• $X_w$ – the total mole amount of the aqueous phase
540	
541	• $\dot{a}$ – the average ion size

- 542
- 543  $b_{\gamma}$  the parameter for common short-range interactions of the charged species
- 544

It is reported that the accuracy of the calculation results by the extended Debye-Huckel equation 545 546 depends on the ionic strength (I). The degree of accuracy is great when I is from  $\sim 1$  to 2 mol/L [71]. For the pore solutions in AAS, I is about  $\sim$ 1-3 mol/L [72], slightly exceeding the range of 547  $\sim$ 1-2 mol/L. Although the ion activity coefficients can be determined via the Pitzer model for 548 549 solutions with high values of I [73], the Pitzer model is not applicable currently in 550 GEM-Selektor. This is because the database of GEM-Selektor only considers monomeric and 551 dimeric aqueous species [23]. In fact many researchers have employed GEM-Selektor to 552 simulate the reactions in AAS, and a good fit was found between the simulation results and the experimental data [25, 26, 69]. So, a small increase of I > 2 mol/L is not supposed to affect 553 554 the thermodynamic modelling results very much.

555

In GeoMicro3D the quantified reaction products, via the *thermodynamic modelling module*, were assumed to deposit *directly* into the lattice cell until it is totally full. The growth rate of reaction products in the current GeoMicro3D was not considered. Regarding this issue further research is needed in the future. In order to consider the influence of reactions of ions on the diffusion of ions, the amount of the consumed ions are deducted from the source terms in the *dissolution module*. In the meanwhile the solid phase and pore solution composition in each lattice cell are renewed.

563

564 2.5. Influence of temperature

565

566 The diffusion of ions and the rate of dissolution are seriously affected by temperature. In

567	GeoMicro3D the temperature effects are considered according to the Arrhenius equation.
568	
569	$D_{new} = D_{ref} exp\left[\frac{E_{diff}}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T_{ref}} - \frac{1}{T_{new}}\right)\right] $ (27)
570	
571	$r_{D,new} = r_{D,ref} exp\left[\frac{E_a}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T_{ref}} - \frac{1}{T_{new}}\right)\right] $ (28)
572	
573	where:
574	
575	• $D_{new}$ – the new diffusion coefficient
576	
577	• $D_{ref}$ – the reference diffusion coefficient
578	
579	• $r_{D,new}$ – the new rate of dissolution
580	
581	• $r_{D,ref}$ – the reference rate of dissolution
582	
583	• $T_{new}$ – the new Kelvin temperature
584	
585	• $T_{ref}$ – the reference Kelvin temperature
586	
587	• $R$ – the gas constant
588	
589	• $E_{diff}$ – the activation energy of diffusion
590	

591 •  $E_a$  – the activation energy

592

593	Besides the diffusion of ions and the rate of dissolution, temperature also affects the
594	thermodynamic data of phases in thermodynamic modelling. In the thermodynamic modelling
595	module, the thermodynamic data for phases other than 25 °C are obtained based on the data at
596	25 °C. Here 25 °C is the reference temperature. More information on this point can be referred
597	to [74].
598	
599	2.6. Water retention of the C-(N-)A-S-H gel
600	

The C(N)ASH\_ss model is a thermodynamic model. The H<sub>2</sub>O content of the C(N)ASH\_ss end-members refers to the water content in the solid nano-scale C-S-H. It only considers hydroxyl groups and the H<sub>2</sub>O retained in the interlayer space of the C-(N-)A-S-H gel. In other words it does not include any adsorbed or gel pore water (see Fig. 8). In order to calculate the capillary porosity of AAS, the amounts of absorbed water and gel pore water retained by C-(N-)A-S-H must be determined additionally. In GeoMicro3D the adsorbed water and gel pore water are considered via the methods below:



Fig. 8. Schematic representation of the adsorbed water and gel pore water retained by the C-(N-)A-S-H gel.

## 609 2.6.1 Adsorbed water

610

611	For considering the adsorbed water, 0.3 moles of water is added to each mole of C-(N-)A-S-H
612	gels in GeoMicro3D. The density of the added water is 1.1 g/cm <sup>3</sup> . It is noted that this method
613	has been already employed in calculation of the chemical shrinkage of alkali-activated slag [24].
614	The density of the absorbed water is slightly larger than that of the bulk water (1.0 g/cm <sup>3</sup> ). This
615	is because the absorbed water increases its effective density during the reaction of AAS.
616	
617	2.6.2 Gel pore water
618	
619	In the literature there is a death of information regarding the amount of gel pore water retained
620	in C-(N-)A-S-H. To authors' knowledge so far, the amount of gel pore water retained in
621	C-(N-)A-S-H is still unknown. On the contrary, Thomas et al. used $H_2O/SiO_2 = 4$ to consider
622	the water that is retained in the gel pores of C-S-H during the hydration of C <sub>3</sub> S or C <sub>2</sub> S [75]. In
623	the C(N)ASH_ss model, the molar $H_2O/SiO_2$ ratio of the C(N)ASH_ss end-members in Table
624	2 varies from 0.792 to 2.5, which is much smaller than 4. In order to make the GeoMicro3D
625	model implementable, additional water is added to make the C-(N-)A-S-H gel meet the
626	condition $H_2O/SiO_2 = 4$ . The density of the added water is 1 g/cm <sup>3</sup> . This amount of additional
627	water represents the gel pore water retained by the C-(N-)A-S-H gel in GeoMicro3D. This
628	method is sensible because the C-(N-)A-S-H gel is structurally similar to the C-S-H gel [20],
629	indicating comparable amounts of gel pore water. In the future, the GeoMicro3D model can be
630	improved in view of the amount of gel pore water retained in the C-(N-)A-S-H gel, once more

631 information is known about the gel pore water in the C-(N-)A-S-H gel.



- Fig. 9 displays the overall flowchart of the GeoMicro3D model. It contains three parts. The first
- 635 part is about the input data. The input data from slag are the chemical composition, particle size
- 636 distribution, amorphous content, and density of slag. Regarding the input data from alkaline
- activator, the chemical composition as well as the density are required. Besides these input data,
- the liquid-to-slag mass ratio and reaction temperature are also needed.



Fig. 9. The overall flowchart of the GeoMicro3D model.

640 The second part describes the simulation of the initial spatial distribution of real-shape slag 641 particles in alkaline activator before the onset of reactions. First the Anm material model described in Section 2.1 is used to simulate the initial spatial distribution of slag particles in a 642 643 simulation box, within which the space other than the space occupied by slag particles are regarded as alkaline activator solution. Then the simulation box is digitized into a box of voxels. 644 Afterwards the element composition in each voxel is determined based on the mixture 645 composition. The composition of alkaline activator is used to initialize the element constituents 646 647 in the voxels that contain alkaline activator solution. In the same way, the element constituents 648 in each slag voxel is determined based on the element composition of slag.

649

The main part of the GeoMicro3D model is described in the third part. The main program 650 651 includes the dissolution module, nucleation and growth module and thermodynamic modelling 652 *module*. These three modules make up the main loop in which the LB method is used to simulate 653 the diffusion of ions. In the *dissolution module*, the dissolution of slag is simulated via the transit state theory and the diffusion of ions is described by the LB method (see Section 2.2). 654 655 The LB method in simulating the diffusion of ions includes three steps: collision process, streaming process and applying boundary condition. After simulating the diffusion of ions, the 656 657 element composition in each voxel are renewed. Then the voxels within which reaction products 658 will deposit are determined via the nucleation and growth module. Once the voxels where 659 reaction products will deposit are known, the *thermodynamic modelling module* is called to 660 model the reactions and determine the amount of reaction products in these voxels. Afterwards, 661 the solid phase and liquid phase are renewed. The consumed ions (minus) and the ones released from slag (plus) will make up the source terms for the next LB simulation iteration. Whether 662 moving to the next iteration step or not is determined by one judgement. If the current reaction 663

Cement and Concrete Research, 141 (2021) 106328

664	time exceeds the target reaction time or the source terms $(S)$ are zero, then the main loop will
665	stop and simulation results are output. Otherwise another iteration will start. The output data
666	comprise but not limited to the solid phase assemblage and 3D microstructure evolution. Since
667	the dissolution of slag and reactions of ions are fundamentally described in the unit of voxel,
668	the interactions between different slag particles can be intrinsically dealt with.
669	
670	3. Implementation and verification of the GeoMicro3D model
671	
672	3.1. Materials and mixtures
673	
674	Three mixtures of AAS were used in the simulation. In these mixtures sodium hydroxide
675	solution and sodium silicate solution were the alkaline activators. The mix compositions of
676	these mixtures are given in Table 5. In the codes for these samples, N and S mean the mass
677	percentages of Na <sub>2</sub> O and SiO <sub>2</sub> relative to slag, respectively. The chemical composition and
678	particle size distribution of slag can be found in [54]. The density of slag was determined as
679	2.97 g/cm <sup>3</sup> by pycnometer. The surface area of slag was measured as $2.38 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ by BET-nitrogen
680	adsorption.
681	Table 5 Mix composition of the alkali-activated slag for simulation

Mixture	Slag (g)	Na <sub>2</sub> O (g)	$SiO_2(g)$	Water (g)	
N4S0	100	4	0	40	
N6S0	100	6	0	40	
N6S5.4	100	6	5.4	40	

682

683 3.2. Simulation parameters

684

With the Anm material model (see Section 2.1) and mixture composition in Table 5, the initial
spatial distribution of slag particles in alkaline activator was generated and the simulation box
was digitized as shown in Fig. 10. Since the maximum particle size of slag is 45 μm, the

dimension size of REV in this study was selected as 125 µm. It should be noted that this selected 688 dimension size of REV is larger than that usually used in the numerical studies of OPC based 689 690 materials, for instance in HYMOSTRUC (100  $\mu$ m) [12, 15]. The digitized simulation box was initialized in terms of element compositions for liquid voxels and slag voxels. Then the 691 692 simulation box was used as the input for simulating the reaction process and microstructure formation of AAS with GeoMicro3D. It should be pointed out that the current GeoMicro3D 693 model does not consider the effect of chemical shrinkage on the diffusion of ions and 694 695 precipitation of reaction products. Instead additional water with density of 1 g/cm<sup>3</sup> is assumed 696 to automatically fill up the empty space that is caused by chemical shrinkage.



Fig. 10. Simulated initial spatial distribution of slag in alkaline activator using the Anm model in Section 2.1. In the graph, blue and gray represent activator and slag, respectively. The size of the simulation box is  $125 \ \mu\text{m} \times 125 \ \mu\text{m} \times 125 \ \mu\text{m}$ . The digitization resolution is  $1 \ \mu\text{m} \times 1 \ \mu\text{m} \times 1 \ \mu\text{m}$  per voxel.

697

In accord with [76, 77], the  $E_a$  of Si and Al for dissolution are taken as  $8.3 \times 10^4$  J/mol and 8.0×10<sup>4</sup> J/mol, respectively. The  $E_a$  of Ca for dissolution is  $1.36 \times 10^4$  J/mol [78]. The parameters  $f_{Mg}$ ,  $f_S$ ,  $f_K$  and  $f_{Na}$  are 1.1, 1.1, 1.2 and 1.2, respectively. In consistent with [79],  $\sigma = 1$ . In order to account for the effect of precipitation of reaction products on dissolution, the  $K_{sp}$  of SiO<sub>2</sub>, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and CaO are  $1.89 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $2.47 \times 10^{-4}$  and  $5.31 \times 10^{-2}$ , respectively. The log forward

- dissolution rates of silica and calcium oxide are calculated according to [80]. The parameter
- $f_{dissolving-area}$  is assumed to be 1.1 times of the volume fraction of solution phase in the voxel that
- is in contact with the dissolving interface. The diffusion coefficients and the activation energy
- of diffusion of ions are presented in Table 6.
- 707 **Table 6** Diffusivities of aqueous ions at 25 °C [81, 82]

Ions	SiO <sub>3</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	AlO <sub>2</sub>	Ca <sup>2+</sup>	$Mg^{2+}$	S <sup>2-</sup>	$\mathrm{K}^+$	Na <sup>+</sup>	OH-
$D_{\rm ref} (\times 10^{-9} {\rm m^{2/s}})$	0.7ª	0.6 <sup>b</sup>	0.72	0.71	1.01°	1.96	1.33	5.28
$E_{diff}$ (×10 <sup>4</sup> J/mol) <sup>d</sup>	2.46	2.04	2.32	1.26	1.43	1.60	1.67	1.80

708 a. This value was taken from the diffusivity of  $H_2SiO_4^{2-}$ ;

709 b. This value was taken from the diffusivity of  $Al^{3+}$ ;

710 c. This value was taken from the diffusivity of  $SO_4^{2-}$ ;

d. The activation energy of diffusion of aqueous ions were calculated based on [83-85].

713

714	Table 7 presents the kinetic parameter A. It is noted that this parameter was determined through
715	the parameter study in the current GeoMicro3D. This is because the kinetic parameter (A) of
716	nucleation for reaction products have not been reported in the current literature. In the future
717	this parameter is recommended to be determined by other techniques, for example by
718	experimental techniques [51]. The activity factor $\psi$ is 0.27. The thermodynamic data presented
719	in Section 2.4 for thermodynamic modelling of the chemical reactions in AAS are also used in
720	GeoMicro3D.
721	Table 7 Kinetic parameter 4

	C(N)ASH_ss	M <sub>4</sub> AH <sub>10</sub>	M <sub>6</sub> AH <sub>12</sub>	$M_8AH_{14}$	$C_3AH_6$	$C_2ASH_8$	СН	Natrolite
$A (m^{-3} \cdot s^{-1})$	4.24×10 <sup>7</sup>	5.01×10 <sup>-26</sup>	<b>4.71</b> ×10 <sup>-51</sup>	2.51×10 <sup>-71</sup>	27.6	0.101	4.71×10 <sup>9</sup>	9.62×10 <sup>3</sup>

722

723 3.3. Simulation results

724

In the following sections the modelling output from GeoMicro3D are reported and examined mainly in terms of the volume evolution of phases, 3D microstructure evolution, pore structure and in particular of the output data for sample N4S0 at an age of 28 days. In the meantime, relevant experimental data and calculation results with GEMS are also presented to verify the

729 GeoMicro3D model.

730 3.3.1 Volume evolution of phases

Fig. 11 presents the simulated volume proportion of phases with GeoMicro3D as a function of time, in comparison with the calculated results using GEMS. It is noted that Fe is not included in GeoMicro3D. This is because the amount of Fe in slag is very small and also for the purpose of decreasing the computation load. Furthermore the calculated results by GEMS (see Fig. 11(right column)) show that AAS did not produce much mackinawite (FeS) and brucite (Mg(OH)<sub>2</sub>). Therefore, the GeoMicro3D model did not take mackinawite and brucite into account.

738 An overall fit can be found between the simulated phase assemblage by GeoMicro3D and the calculated results by GEMS. The C-(N-)A-S-H gel by GeoMicro3D, including the adsorbed 739 water and gel pore water accounted for more than 60 % of the total volume of reaction products. 740 741 On the contrary, the C-(N-)A-S-H gel alone accounted for more than 60 % of the total volume 742 of reaction products as calculated using GEMS. This is because the adsorbed water and gel pore water were not considered in the thermodynamic modelling using GEMS. Other than the 743 744 C-(N-)A-S-H gel, the hydrotalcite-like phase (MA-OH-LDH) accounted for the largest volume proportion. Fig. 11(left column) shows the formation of natrolite in all samples and the sample 745 746 with a higher Na<sub>2</sub>O content had a larger amount of natrolite. According to Fig. 11(right column), 747 however, natrolite only appeared in sample N6S5.4. This difference may result from the fact 748 that concurrent dissolution of slag was assumed in the calculations with GEMS. Fig. 11(left 749 column) also reveals that portlandite appeared in all samples. The sample with a higher  $Na_2O$ 750 content had a larger amount of portlandite, while the sample with an addition of  $SiO_2$  had a 751 lower amount of portlandite. This simulation result by GeoMicro3D agrees well with the calculated volume proportion by GEMS. In addition to the solid reaction products, the volume 752

- proportion of the adsorbed water and gel pore water were also obtained as a function of time
- 754 by GeoMicro3D.



**Fig. 11.** Simulated volume proportion of phases with GeoMicro3D in comparison with the calculation results using GEMS.

### 756 3.3.2. Microstructure development

757

Fig. 12 displays the simulated microstructure for sample N4S0 at four different reaction periods. The results for samples N6S0 and N6S5.4 can be found in Appendix B (see Figs. B.1 and B.2). The blue and gray voxels refer to liquid and slag, respectively. The yellow voxels are the reaction front where the dissolution of element constituents in slag may take place and in the meantime reaction products may also deposit. The red and green voxels indicate partially and completely filled with reaction products, respectively. The graphs in Fig.12 show the continuous growth of reaction products with elapse of time.



Fig. 12. Simulated 3D microstructures of sample N4S0 at 0, 3 hours, 1 day and 7 days. The simulated microstructures for samples N6S0 and N6S5.4 can be found in Appendix B (see Figs. B.1 and B.2). The size of the simulation box is 125  $\mu$ m × 125  $\mu$ m × 125  $\mu$ m. The digitization resolution is 1  $\mu$ m × 1  $\mu$ m × 1  $\mu$ m per voxel.

It is reported that SiO<sub>2</sub> in the alkaline activator obviously altered the microstructure formation of AAS [27, 52, 53]. For the purpose of convenient comparisons, the cross sections of the simulated 3D microstructures are presented for the samples N6S5.4 and N6S0 in Fig. 13. These two samples had similar degrees of reaction of slag, i.e.  $\alpha = 0.335$  for N6S5.4 and  $\alpha = 0.317$  for N6S0. Compared with the sample with no SiO<sub>2</sub> (N6S0), the reaction products were more evenly dispersed in the sample with SiO<sub>2</sub> (N6S5.4). This result agrees well with the SEM-image based observations in the literature [27, 52, 53].



Fig. 13. Cross sections of samples N6S0 and N6S5.4 at similar degrees of reaction of slag.

Furthermore the GeoMicro3D model is also able to output the spatial distribution of reaction products in the sample. Fig. 14 displays the spatial distributions of primary reaction products for N4S0 at three different reaction periods. It is noted that the adsorbed water and gel pore water are also contained in the primary reaction products. The simulated spatial distributions of the primary reaction products for samples N6S0 and N6S5.4 can be found in Appendix B (see Figs. B.3 and B.4). It can be seen that the primary reaction products were more likely to grow on the surface of slag particles in the samples without SiO<sub>2</sub>, i.e. N4S0 and N6S0. In contrast,

- the primary reaction products were evenly dispersed not only around the slag particles but
- also in the interspace in the sample with SiO<sub>2</sub>, i.e. N6S5.4. These results are in line with the
- observations found from the SEM-images [27, 52, 53].



Fig. 14. Spatial distribution of the primary reaction products (including adsorbed water and gel pore water) for sample N4S0 at 3 hours, 1 day and 7 days. Volume fraction of nodes means the volume fraction of the primary reaction products in the node voxel. The results for samples N6S0 and N6S5.4 can be found in Appendix B (see Figs. C.3 and C.4). The size of the simulation box is 125  $\mu$ m × 125  $\mu$ m × 125  $\mu$ m. The digitization resolution is 1  $\mu$ m × 1  $\mu$ m × 1  $\mu$ m per voxel.

#### 785 3.3.3. Porosity and pore size distribution

- Fig. 15 displays the simulated capillary porosity. In GeoMicro3D, the volume fraction of liquid
- voxels was calculated as the capillary porosity. The capillary porosity decreased when the Na<sub>2</sub>O

789 content in the sample increased. For the samples at the same content of Na<sub>2</sub>O, i.e. N6S0 and N6S5.4, the sample N6S5.4 with SiO<sub>2</sub> had a smaller capillary porosity than the sample N6S0 790 791 without SiO<sub>2</sub>. The reduction of porosity due to the increase of Na<sub>2</sub>O and SiO<sub>2</sub> contents are in 792 line with the observations in [52-54]. Since the porosity data determined by SEM image 793 analysis (SEM-IA) and mercury intrusion porosimetry (MIP) in [52-54] are not exactly corresponding to the capillary porosity simulated by GeoMicro3D, it is not very sensible to 794 directly compare the simulation results and experimental data. Therefore, these experimental 795 796 data are not presented here.



Fig. 15. Simulated capillary porosity with GeoMicro3D.

The calculated pore size distribution curve is presented in Fig. 16. It can be seen that a longer reaction time resulted in a smaller porosity and a left shift of the distribution curve. The decrease of porosity and left shift of distribution curve were also found for the samples with higher Na<sub>2</sub>O content and SiO<sub>2</sub> content. The decrease of porosity and left shift of distribution curve indicate that the microstructure became denser with increasing contents of Na<sub>2</sub>O and SiO<sub>2</sub> in the sample and with a longer reaction time. These simulation findings agree with the SEM observations reported in [52, 53].



Fig. 16. Calculated pore size distribution from the simulated 3D microstructure with GeoMicro3D.

3.3.4 Simulation results of sample N4S0 at an age of 28 days

807

The simulation output by GeoMicro3D and the corresponding measured data are listed in Table 808 8 for sample N4S0 at 28 days. Overall a reasonable fit was found between the simulation output 809 810 and the corresponding measured data. Compared with the measured data, the degree of reaction of slag and capillary porosity of AAS were a little underestimated and overestimated, 811 812 respectively, by GeoMicro3D. This difference may be due to the assumption that water is supposed to automatically fill up the empty space that is caused by the chemical shrinkage. As 813 814 a result the OH<sup>-</sup> ions around slag particles was diluted, which decreased the alkalinity and thus 815 retarded the dissolution of element constituents in slag. Due to the retarded dissolution of 816 element constituents in slag, the degree of reaction of slag became smaller as opposed to the

- 817 measured data. A smaller degree of reaction of slag then led to a smaller amount of reaction
- 818 products. This, consequently, caused the simulated capillary porosity to be larger than the
- 819 measured data. Compared with the measured element concentrations, the data output from
- B20 GeoMicro3D were found to be within  $\pm 1$  order of magnitude. This discrepancy is close to the
- error of the measured data by experimental techniques [23].
- 822 **Table 8** Simulation results of sample N4S0 at an age of 28 days in comparison with experimental results

Item		GeoMicro3D	Experiment
Degree of reaction		0.485	0.573(0.051) <sup>a</sup>
Capillary porosity		0.274	0.194 <sup>b</sup>
Element concentration	[6:]	11.6	2 726
	[51]	11.0	5.75
(mmol/L)	[Al]	16.3	7.46
	[Ca]	6.93	0.756
	[K]	61.8	81.2
	[Na]	$1.52 \times 10^{3}$	1.75×10 <sup>3</sup>
	[OH <sup>-</sup> ]	1.21×10 <sup>3</sup>	1.29×10 <sup>3</sup>

823	a.	Obtained by	y SEM-image	analysis.	The number in	the bra	cket is the	deviation [	[54]	ŀ
		-		~					<u>.</u>	

b. Obtained by MIP [54].

c. The measured concentrations of Si, Al, Ca, K and Na were obtained by inductively coupled plasma optical
 emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES), while the measured concentration of OH<sup>-</sup> was obtained by titration against
 hydrochloride acid (0.1 mol/L) [86].

828

829 4. Conclusions and perspectives

831	For the first time the GeoMicro3D model was developed to simulate the reaction process and
832	microstructure formation of AAS in this study. The GeoMicro3D model was built up based on
833	four modules: (i) the simulation of the initial spatial distribution of real-shape slag particles in
834	alkaline activator; (ii) the simulation of the dissolution of element constituents in slag and the
835	diffusion of ions; (iii) the simulation of the spatial distribution of reaction products, in which an
836	innovative strategy was proposed to improve the computation efficiency; and (iv)
837	thermodynamic modelling of the chemical reactions. The GeoMicro3D model was
838	implemented and verified by relevant experimental data and calculation results using GEMS.
839	The solid phase assemblage output from GeoMicro3D agreed with the results obtained by
840	GEMS. The modelling results demonstrated a decrease of porosity and a left shift of the pore

Cement and Concrete Research, 141 (2021) 106328

841	size distribution	curve for the sam	ple with higher	contents of Na <sub>2</sub> C	and SiO <sub>2</sub> and	with a longer
					_	

- reaction time. Particularly the modelling output for sample N4S0 at an age of 28 days indicated
- a good fit with the experimental data in the literature [54, 86].
- 844
- 845 The developed GeoMicro3D in this study shows promising potentials for studying AAS. In
- 846 future more mixtures with different sources of slag and alkaline activator composition are going
- to be used to further verify the GeoMicro3D model. Particularly the simulation parameters and
- their effects would be considered in deep details. The GeoMicro3D model may serve as a
- numerical simulation tool, based on which it could be feasible for researchers to numerically
- study and predict many microstructure-related-physical-properties of AAS.
- 851
- 852 **Declaration of competing interest**
- 853
- The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
- 855

#### 856 Acknowledgements

857

The first author would like to gratefully acknowledge the China Scholarship Council (the Grant 858 859 Number 201406160086) for the financial support in this work. A special note of appreciation 860 goes to Prof. Klaas van Breugel (Delft University of Technology, Netherlands) for his insightful 861 comments and valuable suggestions. Many thanks go to Prof. Edward Garboczi (National 862 Institute of Standards and Technology, USA) for providing the spherical harmonic database of 863 slag, to Dr. Zhiwei Qian (Delft University of Technology, Netherlands) for his support and help 864 with calculations using the Anm material model, and Mr. Jiayi Chen (Delft University of 865 Technology, Netherlands) for the helpful discussion regarding LBM and products nucleation.

#### 867 Appendix A

869 Transition state theory is the theory that explains the reaction rate of elementary chemical 870 reactions. Within the framework of transition state theory, the overall dissolution rate can be 871 written as Eq. (A.1) [87]. This equation is capable of accurately describing different dissolution 872 behaviors of glass [38-40, 42, 79]. Since slag is a kind of aluminosilicate glass [41], transition 873 state theory should be also applicable to describe the dissolution of slag. This point has been 874 confirmed in the literature [44]. 875  $r = r_{+} \left( 1 - exp\left( - \frac{A^{*}}{\sigma_{RT}} \right) \right)$ 876 (A.1)877 878 where: 879 r – the overall dissolution rate 880 881  $r_+$  – the forward dissolution rate 882 883  $\sigma$  – the ratio of the rate of dissolution of the activated complex relative to the overall 884 885 reaction rate 886 887 R – the gas constant 888 T – the absolute temperature 889 890

891 •  $A^*$  – the chemical affinity that can be calculated as:

893 
$$A^* = -RT ln\left(\frac{lAP}{K_{sp}}\right) \tag{A.2}$$

895 where *IAP* and  $K_{sp}$  are the ion activity product and solubility product, respectively. With Eqs. 896 (A.2) and (A.1) the equation below can be obtained:

$$898 r = r_+ \left( 1 - \left( \frac{IAP}{K_{Sp}} \right)^{1/\sigma} \right)$$

900 Based on Eq. (A.3), the dissolution rates of silica, aluminum and calcium oxides can be obtained

(A.3)

## 915 Appendix B

- 916
- 917



Fig. B.1. Simulated 3D microstructures of sample N6S0 at 0, 3 hours, 1 day and 7 days. The size of the simulation box is 125  $\mu$ m × 125  $\mu$ m × 125  $\mu$ m. The digitization resolution is 1  $\mu$ m × 1  $\mu$ m × 1  $\mu$ m per voxel.



Fig. B.2. Simulated 3D microstructures of sample N6S5.4 at 0, 3 hours, 1 day and 7 days. The size of the simulation box is 125  $\mu$ m × 125  $\mu$ m × 125  $\mu$ m. The digitization resolution is 1  $\mu$ m × 1  $\mu$ m × 1  $\mu$ m per voxel.



Fig. B.3. Distribution of the C-(N-)A-S-H gel (including adsorbed water and gel pore water) for sample N6S0 at 3 hours, 1 day and 7 days. Volume fraction of nodes means the volume fraction of the C-(N-)A-S-H gel in the node voxel. The size of the simulation box is  $125 \ \mu m \times 125 \ \mu m \times 125 \ \mu m$ . The digitization resolution is  $1 \ \mu m \times 1 \ \mu m \times 1 \ \mu m$  per voxel.



Fig. B.4. Distribution of the C-(N-)A-S-H gel (including adsorbed water and gel pore water) for sample N6S5.4 at 3 hours, 1 day and 7 days. Volume fraction of nodes means the volume fraction of the C-(N-)A-S-H gel in the node voxel. The size of the simulation box is  $125 \,\mu\text{m} \times 125 \,\mu\text{m} \times 125 \,\mu\text{m}$ . The digitization resolution is  $1 \,\mu\text{m} \times 1 \,\mu\text{m} \times 1 \,\mu\text{m}$  per voxel.

927

### 928 References

929

```
930 [1] S.-D. Wang, X.-C. Pu, K. Scrivener, P. Pratt, Alkali-activated slag cement and concrete: a review of properties
```

931 and problems, Adv. Cem. Res. 7 (1995) 93-102.

932

```
933 [2] D. M. Roy, Alkali-activated cements opportunities and challenges, Cem. Concr. Res. 29 (1999) 249-254.
```

934

935 [3] J. S. J. van Deventer, J. L. Provis, P. Duxson, Technical and commercial progress in the adoption of geopolymer

- 936 cement, Miner Eng 29 (2012) 89-104.
- 937
- 938 [4] F. Pacheco-Torgal, J. Castro-Gomes, S. Jalali, Alkali-activated binders: A review: Part 1. Historical background,
- terminology, reaction mechanisms and hydration products, Constr. Build. Mater. 22 (2008) 1305-1314.
- 940
- 941 [5] L. K. Turner, F. G. Collins, Carbon dioxide equivalent (CO2-e) emissions: a comparison between geopolymer
- and OPC cement concrete, Constr. Build. Mater. 43 (2013) 125-130.
- 943
- 944 [6] P. Duxson, J. L. Provis, G. C. Lukey, J. S. Van Deventer, The role of inorganic polymer technology in the

- 946
- 947 [7] K.-H. Yang, J.-K. Song, K.-I. Song, Assessment of CO2 reduction of alkali-activated concrete, Journal of
- 948 Cleaner Production 39 (2013) 265-272.
- 949
- 950 [8] F. Pacheco-Torgal, Z. Abdollahnejad, A. F. Camões, M. Jamshidi, Y. Ding, Durability of alkali-activated binders:
- 951 A clear advantage over Portland cement or an unproven issue?, Constr. Build, Mater. 30 (2012) 400-405.
- 952
- [9] S. A. Bernal, J. L. Provis, Durability of alkali-activated materials: progress and perspectives, J. Am. Ceram.
  Soc. 97 (2014) 997-1008.
- 955
- [10] J. S. Dolado, K. van Breugel, Recent advances in modeling for cementitious materials, Cem. Concr. Res. 41
  (2011) 711-726.
- 958
- [11] J. J. Thomas, J. J. Biernacki, J. W. Bullard, S. Bishnoi, J. S. Dolado, G. W. Scherer, A. Luttge, Modeling and
  simulation of cement hydration kinetics and microstructure development, Cem. Concr. Res. 41 (2011) 1257-1278.
- 961
- 962 [12] G. Ye, Experimental Study and Numerical Simulation of the Development of the Microstructure and
  963 Permeability of Cementitious Materials, PhD thesis, Delft University of Technology, 2003.
- 964
- 965 [13] D. P. Bentz, Three-Dimensional Computer Simulation of Portland Cement Hydration and Microstructure

<sup>945</sup> development of 'green concrete', Cem. Concr. Res. 37 (2007) 1590-1597.

966	Development, J. Am. Ceram. Soc. 80 (1997) 3-21.
967	
968	[14] P. Navi, C. Pignat, Simulation of cement hydration and the connectivity of the capillary pore space, Advanced
969	Cement Based Materials 4 (1996) 58-67.
970	
971	[15] K. v. Breugel, Simulation of hydration and formation of structure in hardening cement-based materials, PhD,
972	Delft University of Technology, 1991.
973	
974	[16] K. Maekawa, R. Chaube, T. Kishi, Modeling of concrete performance: hydration, microstructure formation
975	and mass transport, E and FN SPON, London (1999)
976	
977	[17] L. Liu, G. Ye, E. Schlangen, H. Chen, Z. Qian, W. Sun, K. van Breugel, Modeling of the internal damage of
978	saturated cement paste due to ice crystallization pressure during freezing, Cem. Concr. Comp. 33 (2011) 562-571.
979	
980	[18] J. L. Provis, S. A. Bernal, Geopolymers and related alkali-activated materials, Annu. Rev. Mater. Res. 44
981	(2014) 299-327.
982	
983	[19] F. Puertas, M. Palacios, H. Manzano, J. S. Dolado, A. Rico, J. Rodríguez, A model for the C-A-S-H gel formed
984	in alkali-activated slag cements, J. Eur. Ceram. Soc. 31 (2011) 2043-2056.
985	
986	[20] R. J. Myers, S. A. Bernal, R. San Nicolas, J. L. Provis, Generalized structural description of calcium-sodium
987	aluminosilicate hydrate gels: the cross-linked substituted tobermorite model, Langmuir 29 (2013) 5294-5306.
988	
989	[21] R. J. Myers, S. A. Bernal, J. D. Gehman, J. S. Deventer, J. L. Provis, The role of Al in cross-linking of alkali-
<b>9</b> 90	activated slag cements, J. Am. Ceram. Soc. (2015) 996-1004.
991	
992	[22] P. Navi, C. Pignat, Three-dimensional characterization of the pore structure of a simulated cement paste, Cem.
993	Concr. Res. 29 (1999) 507-514.
994	
995	[23] R. J. Myers, S. A. Bernal, J. L. Provis, A thermodynamic model for C-(N-)A-S-H gel: CNASH_ss. Derivation

- 996 and validation, Cem. Concr. Res. 66 (2014) 27-47.
- 997
- 998 [24] J. J. Thomas, A. J. Allen, H. M. Jennings, Density and water content of nanoscale solid C-S-H formed in
- alkali-activated slag (AAS) paste and implications for chemical shrinkage, Cem. Concr. Res. 42 (2012) 377-383.
- 1000
- [25] R. J. Myers, B. Lothenbach, S. A. Bernal, J. L. Provis, Thermodynamic modelling of alkali-activated slag
  cements, Appl. Geochem. 61 (2015) 233-247.
- 1003
- [26] R. J. Myers, S. A. Bernal, J. L. Provis, Phase diagrams for alkali-activated slag binders, Cem. Concr. Res. 95
  (2017) 30-38.
- 1006
- 1007 [27] H. Ye, A. Radlińska, Quantitative analysis of phase assemblage and chemical shrinkage of alkali-activated
- 1008 slag, J. Adv. Concr. Technol. 14 (2016) 245-260.
- 1009
- 1010 [28] Z. Qian, E. Garboczi, G. Ye, E. Schlangen, Anm: a geometrical model for the composite structure of mortar
- 1011 and concrete using real-shape particles, Mater. Struct. 49 (2016) 149-158.
- 1012
- 1013 [29] G. Arfken, Mathematical Methods for Physicists, 2nd, Academic Press, New York, 1970, pp.
- 1014
- 1015 [30] E. J. Garboczi, Three-dimensional mathematical analysis of particle shape using X-ray tomography and
- 1016 spherical harmonics: Application to aggregates used in concrete, Cem. Concr. Res. 32 (2002) 1621-1638.
- 1017
- [31] M. A. Taylor, E. J. Garboczi, S. Erdogan, D. Fowler, Some properties of irregular 3-D particles, Powder
   Technol. 162 (2006) 1-15.
- 1020
- 1021 [32] S. Erdoğan, E. J. Garboczi, D. Fowler, Shape and size of microfine aggregates: X-ray microcomputed
   1022 tomography vs. laser diffraction, Powder Technol. 177 (2007) 53-63.
- 1023
- [33] J. M. Fernlund, The effect of particle form on sieve analysis: a test by image analysis, Engineering Geology
  50 (1998) 111-124.

1026	
1027	[34] Z. Qian, E. Schlangen, G. Ye, K. van Breugel, Modeling Framework for Fracture in Multiscale Cement-Based
1028	Material Structures, Materials 10 (2017) 587.
1029	
1030	[35] Z. Qian, Multiscale modeling of fracture processes in cementitious materials, Delft University of Technology,
1031	2012.
1032	
1033	[36] Y. Zuo, Z. Qian, E. J. Garboczi, G. Ye, Numerical simulation of the initial particle parking structure of
1034	cement/geopolymer paste and the dissolution of amorphous silica using real-shape particles, Constr. Build. Mater.
1035	185 (2018) 206-219.
1036	
1037	[37] E. H. Oelkers, S. R. Gislason, The mechanism, rates and consequences of basaltic glass dissolution: I. An
1038	experimental study of the dissolution rates of basaltic glass as a function of aqueous Al, Si and oxalic acid
1039	concentration at 25 C and pH= 3 and 11, Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 65 (2001) 3671-3681.
1040	
1041	[38] E. H. Oelkers, General kinetic description of multioxide silicate mineral and glass dissolution, Geochim.
1042	Cosmochim. Acta 65 (2001) 3703-3719.
1043	
1044	[39] S. R. Gislason, E. H. Oelkers, Mechanism, rates, and consequences of basaltic glass dissolution: II. An
1045	experimental study of the dissolution rates of basaltic glass as a function of pH and temperature, Geochim.
1046	Cosmochim. Acta 67 (2003) 3817-3832.
1047	
1048	[40] E. H. Oelkers, J. Schott, JL. Devidal, The effect of aluminum, pH, and chemical affinity on the rates of
1049	aluminosilicate dissolution reactions, Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 58 (1994) 2011-2024.
1 <b>0</b> 50	
1051	[41] P. Duxson, J. L. Provis, Designing precursors for geopolymer cements, J. Am. Ceram. Soc. 91 (2008) 3864-
1052	3869.
1053	
1054	[42] G. Berger, C. Claparols, C. Guy, V. Daux, Dissolution rate of a basalt glass in silica-rich solutions: implications
1055	for long-term alteration, Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 58 (1994) 4875-4886.

1056	
1057	[43] C. Guy, J. Schott, Multisite surface reaction versus transport control during the hydrolysis of a complex oxide,
1058	Chem. Geol. 78 (1989) 181-204.
1059	
1060	[44] R. Snellings, Solution-controlled dissolution of supplementary cementitious material glasses at pH 13: The
1061	Effect of Solution Composition on Glass Dissolution Rates, J. Am. Ceram. Soc. 96 (2013) 2467-2475.
1062	
1063	[45] D. Wolff-Boenisch, S. R. Gislason, E. H. Oelkers, C. V. Putnis, The dissolution rates of natural glasses as a
1064	function of their composition at pH 4 and 10.6, and temperatures from 25 to 74 degrees C, Geochim. Cosmochim.
1065	Acta 68 (2004) 4843-4858.
1066	
1067	[46] M. Zhang, Multiscale lattice Boltzmann-finite element modelling of transport properties in cement-based
1068	materials, Delft University of Technology, 2013.
1069	
1070	[47] A. A. Mohamad, Lattice Boltzmann method: fundamentals and engineering applications with computer codes,
1071	Springer Science & Business Media,, 2011, pp.
1072	
1073	[48] M. Zhang, G. Ye, K. van Breugel, Modeling of ionic diffusivity in non-saturated cement-based materials using
1074	lattice Boltzmann method, Cem. Concr. Res. 42 (2012) 1524-1533.
1075	
1076	[49] N. Jeong, D. H. Choi, CL. Lin, Estimation of thermal and mass diffusivity in a porous medium of complex
1077	structure using a lattice Boltzmann method, Int. J. Heat Mass Transfer 51 (2008) 3913-3923.
1078	
1079	[50] D. Kashchiev, G. Van Rosmalen, Nucleation in solutions revisited, Cryst. Res. Technol. 38 (2003) 555-574.
1080	
1081	[51] S. Jiang, J. H. ter Horst, Crystal nucleation rates from probability distributions of induction times, Cryst.
1082	Growth Des. 11 (2010) 256-261.
1083	
1084	[52] M. Ben Haha, G. Le Saout, F. Winnefeld, B. Lothenbach, Influence of activator type on hydration kinetics,
1085	hydrate assemblage and microstructural development of alkali activated blast-furnace slags, Cem. Concr. Res. 41

1086	(2011) 301-310.
1087	
1088	[53] M. B. Haha, B. Lothenbach, G. Le Saout, F. Winnefeld, Influence of slag chemistry on the hydration of alkali-
1089	activated blast-furnace slag — Part I: Effect of MgO, Cem. Concr. Res. 41 (2011) 955-963.
1090	
1091	[54] Y. Zuo, G. Ye, Pore Structure Characterization of Sodium Hydroxide Activated Slag Using Mercury Intrusion
1092	Porosimetry, Nitrogen Adsorption, and Image Analysis, Materials 11 (2018) 1035.
1093	
1094	[55] SD. Wang, K. L. Scrivener, Hydration products of alkali activated slag cement, Cem. Concr. Res. 25 (1995)
1095	561-571.
1096	
1097	[56] I. G. Richardson, A. R. Brough, G. W. Groves, C. M. Dobson, The characterization of hardened alkali-
1098	activated blast-furnace slag pastes and the nature of the calcium silicate hydrate (C-S-H) phase, Cem. Concr. Res.
1099	24 (1994) 813-829.
1100	
1101	[57] Y. Zuo, M. Nedeljković, G. Ye, Coupled thermodynamic modelling and experimental study of sodium
1102	hydroxide activated slag, Constr. Build. Mater. 188 (2018) 262-279.
1103	
1104	[58] M. Wolthers, L. Charlet, P. R. van Der Linde, D. Rickard, C. H. van Der Weijden, Surface chemistry of
1105	disordered mackinawite (FeS), Geochim. Cosmochim. Acta 69 (2005) 3469-3481.
1106	
1107	[59] B. Lothenbach, A. Gruskovnjak, Hydration of alkali-activated slag: thermodynamic modelling, Adv. Cem.
1108	Res. 19 (2007) 81-92.
1109	
1110	[60] D. Bennett, D. Read, M. Atkins, F. Glasser, A thermodynamic model for blended cements. II: Cement hydrate
1111	phases; thermodynamic values and modelling studies, J. Nucl. Mater. 190 (1992) 315-325.
1112	
1113	[61] B. Lothenbach, F. Winnefeld, Thermodynamic modelling of the hydration of Portland cement, Cem. Concr.
1114	Res. 36 (2006) 209-226.
1115	

1116 [62] W. Gao, Z. Li, Solubility and KSP of Mg4Al2 (OH) 14. 3H2O at the various ionic strengths, Hydrometallurgy

1117 117 (2012) 36-46.

1118

- 1119 [63] A. Anderko, P. J. Shuler, A computational approach to predicting the formation of iron sulfide species using
- 1120 stability diagrams, Comput. Geosci. 23 (1997) 647-658.
- 1121
- 1122 [64] B. Lothenbach, L. Pelletier-Chaignat, F. Winnefeld, Stability in the system CaO–Al2O3–H2O, Cem. Concr.
- 1123 Res. 42 (2012) 1621-1634.

1124

- 1125 [65] B. Lothenbach, E. Bernard, U. Mäder, Zeolite formation in the presence of cement hydrates and albite, Physics
- and Chemistry of the Earth, Parts A/B/C 99 (2017) 77-94.

1127

- 1128 [66] T. Matschei, B. Lothenbach, F. P. Glasser, Thermodynamic properties of Portland cement hydrates in the
- 1129 system CaO-Al2O3-SiO2-CaSO4-CaCO3-H2O, Cem. Concr. Res. 37 (2007) 1379-1410.
- 1130
- 1131 [67] D. A. Kulik, T. Wagner, S. V. Dmytrieva, G. Kosakowski, F. F. Hingerl, K. V. Chudnenko, U. R. Berner, GEM-
- 1132 Selektor geochemical modeling package: revised algorithm and GEMS3K numerical kernel for coupled simulation
- 1133 codes, Comput. Geosci. 17 (2013) 1-24.
- 1134
- 1135 [68] T. Wagner, D. A. Kulik, F. F. Hingerl, S. V. Dmytrieva, GEM-Selektor geochemical modeling package:
- 1136 TSolMod library and data interface for multicomponent phase models, Can. Mineral. 50 (2012) 1173-1195.

- [69] R. J. Myers, Thermodynamic Modelling of CaO-Al2O3-SiO2-H2O-Based Cements, University of Sheffield,
  2015.
- 1140
- 1141 [70] B. Lothenbach, T. Matschei, G. Möschner, F. P. Glasser, Thermodynamic modelling of the effect of 1142 temperature on the hydration and porosity of Portland cement, Cem. Concr. Res. 38 (2008) 1-18.
- 1143
- 1144 [71] H. C. Helgeson, D. H. Kirkham, G. C. Flowers, Theoretical prediction of the thermodynamic behavior of 1145 aqueous electrolytes by high pressures and temperatures; IV, Calculation of activity coefficients, osmotic

1146 coefficients, and apparent molal and standard and relative partial molal properties to 600 degrees C and 5kb, Am. 1147 J. Sci. 281 (1981) 1249-1516. 1148 1149 [72] A. Gruskovnjak, B. Lothenbach, L. Holzer, R. Figi, F. Winnefeld, Hydration of alkali-activated slag: 1150 comparison with ordinary Portland cement, Adv. Cem. Res. (2006) 119-128. 1151 1152 [73] K. S. Pitzer, Ion interaction approach: theory and data correlation, Activity coefficients in electrolyte solutions, 1153 CRC Press, Roca Raton, 1991, pp. 75-153. 1154 1155 [74] D. A. Kulik, Minimising uncertainty induced by temperature extrapolations of thermodynamic data: a 1156 pragmatic view on the integration of thermodynamic databases into geochemical computer codes, in: F. Monpean, 1157 Proceedings of The use of thermodynamic databases in performance assessment, Barcelona, Spain, 2002, pp. 125-1158 137. 1159 1160 [75] J. J. Thomas, H. M. Jennings, A. J. Allen, Relationships between composition and density of tobermorite, 1161 jennite, and nanoscale CaO- SiO2- H2O, J. Phys. Chem. C 114 (2010) 7594-7601. 1162 1163 [76] Y. Niibori, M. Kunita, O. Tochiyama, T. Chida, Dissolution rates of amorphous silica in highly alkaline 1164 solution, J. Nucl. Sci. Technol. 37 (2000) 349-357. 1165 1166 [77] A. Packter, H. Dhillon, Studies on recrystallised aluminium hydroxide precipitates, Colloid. Polym. Sci. 252 1167 (1974) 249-256. 1168 1169 [78] T. Stamatis, M. Aggeliki, Hydration of CaO present in fly ashes, National Technical University of Athens, 1170 2015 1-74. 1171 1172 [79] V. Daux, C. Guy, T. Advocat, J.-L. Crovisier, P. Stille, Kinetic aspects of basaltic glass dissolution at 90°C: 1173 role of aqueous silicon and aluminium, Chem. Geol. 142 (1997) 109-126. 1174 1175 [80] Y. Zuo, G. Ye, Lattice Boltzmann simulation of the dissolution of slag in alkaline solution using real-shape

- 1176 particles, Cement and Concrete Research, 140 (2021) 106313.
- 1177
- 1178 [81] H. Huang, Thermodynamics of autogenous self-healing in cementitious materials, PhD, Delft University of
- 1179 Technology, 2014.
- 1180
- 1181 [82] E. L. Cussler, Diffusion: mass transfer in fluid systems, Cambridge university press, , 2009, pp.
- 1182
- 1183 [83] C. J. Fell, H. P. Hutchison, Diffusion coefficients for sodium and potassium chlorides in water at elevated
- 1184 temperatures, Journal of Chemical & Engineering Data 16 (1971) 427-429.
- 1185
- 1186 [84] S. A. Socolofsky, G. H. Jirka, Environmental Fluid Mechanics Part I: Mass Transfer and Diffusion, Class
- 1187 notes, Karlsruhe Institute of Technology,, 2002, pp.
- 1188
- 1189 [85] E. Goli, T. Hiemstra, W. H. Van Riemsdijk, R. Rahnemaie, M. J. Malakouti, Diffusion of neutral and ionic
- species in charged membranes: boric acid, arsenite, and water, Anal. Chem. 82 (2010) 8438-8445.
- 1191
- [86] Y. Zuo, M. Nedeljković, G. Ye, Pore solution composition of alkali-activated slag/fly ash pastes, Cem. Concr.
- 1193 Res. 115 (2019) 230-250.
- 1194
- 1195 [87] P. Aagaard, H. C. Helgeson, Thermodynamic and kinetic constraints on reaction rates among minerals and
- aqueous solutions: I, Theoretical considerations, Am. J. Sci. 282 (1982) 237-285.