



## Study on Key Factors of Mix Design and Properties of SelfConsolidating Geo-polymer Concrete Using Artificial NeuralNetwork–AReview

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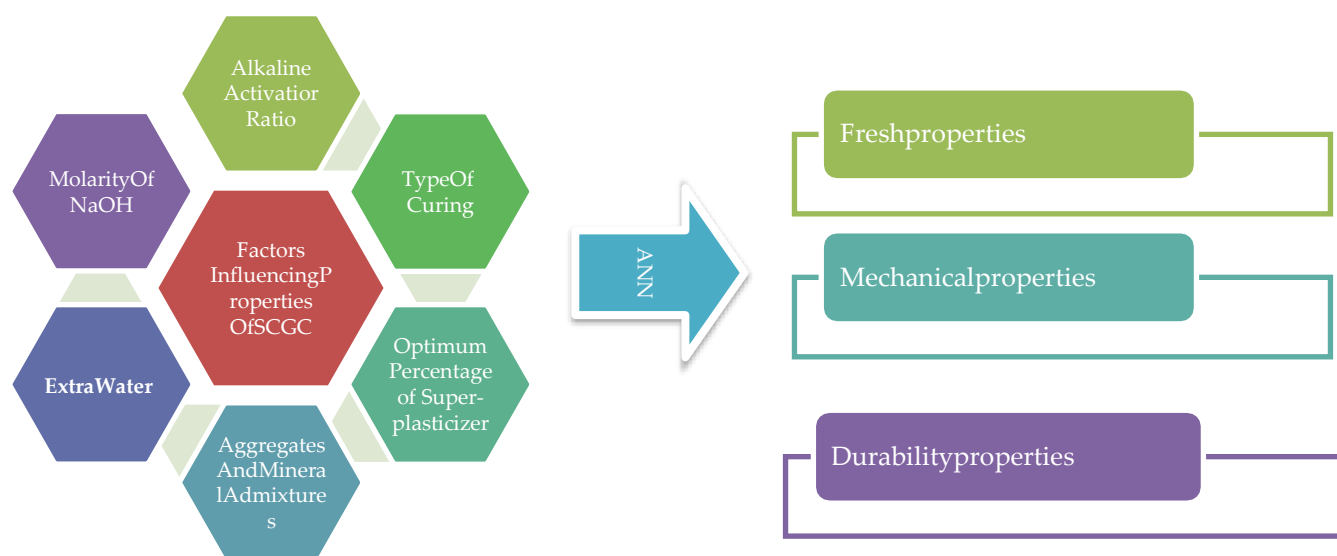
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### Abstract

To overcome the challenge of compaction of geopolymer concrete caused by its high viscous nature, Self-consolidating Geopolymer Concrete (SCGC) has developed those flows and compacts by its own weight, avoiding the requirement for additional compaction. The base materials used in SCGC are wastes like pulverized fuel ash, Ground Granulated Blast Furnace Slag (GGBFS), micro silica, limestone fines, rice husk ash, etc. produced from various industries, which reacts with an alkaline activator solution. This article reviews various factors and conditions that affect the properties of SCGC that are based on different combinations of material bases. To determine variables like the ideal temperature, percentage of super plasticizers, extra water, aggregate size, molarity of NaOH, ratio of alkaline activator, and quantity of binder material to be worked, a thorough analysis of the mechanical and durability characteristics of SCGC is conducted. The results obtained from these experiments conducted to find out the mechanical and durability characteristics are compared as to establish inferences and effectively comprehend the behaviour of concrete. In addition to the assessment based on experiments, the possibility of using an artificial neural network in order to arrive at the design mix and predict the properties of SCGC is also discussed in this paper.

**Keywords:** Artificial Neural Network; Design mix; Durability properties; Mechanical properties; Self Consolidating Geopolymer concrete



## 1. Introduction

In many fields, India is still in the development stage. India's infrastructure is expanding quickly across all of these industries to meet the demands of other sectors. Cement concrete usage has surged as a result of the building industry's rapid expansion in response to the demand for urban growth. Many groups concerned with environmental conservation have frequently opposed the usage of cement as a binding material in concrete mixtures for many years. This is related to the recent focus on global warming and the considerable depletion of non-renewable resources added in the making of Ordinary Portland Cement. The manufacture of cement sets free some harmful gases like carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) that can contribute to the triple planetary crisis: pollution, biodiversity loss, and climate change [1]. One of the main industries emitting CO<sub>2</sub> is the steel and concrete sector, which is determined to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by 2030. According to statistics, a person consumes 1 cubic meter of concrete annually, making it the most widely utilized substance. By 2030, 4800 million metric tonnes of cement may be produced worldwide, with India producing 290 million metric tonnes of cement in 2018 [2]. Concrete is an essential component of infrastructure construction, and due to its many uses, it is second only to water in terms of usage worldwide. During the manufacture of cement, one ton of CO<sub>2</sub> is discharged into the environment, making up 5% of all CO<sub>2</sub> emissions worldwide. It is stated that approximately 1.35 billion metric tonnes of greenhouse gas emissions are produced each year on account of cement manufacturing worldwide. The CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from cement production are anticipated to virtually double from current levels by 2020. Therefore, using an alternative binding material that can lessen land pollution, air pollution, and the deterioration of precious natural resources is vital for a sustainable environment [3]. There are many waste products from industry and agriculture that are easily accessible in India and throughout the world. These wastes include Fly Ash (FA), Meta Kaolinite, Ground Granulated Blast Furnace Slag (GGBFS), Rice Hull Ash (RHA), and Micro Silica. When disposed of on the ground, these pollutants cause land contamination. These waste materials have pozzolanic qualities and have been added to cement for ages to improve the workability, mechanical strength, and durability of concrete. This has prompted researchers to look for more environmentally friendly alternatives to OPC.

One such area of research involves the use of geopolymers, which are created when different materials, including natural pozzolanas and wastes from various industries, such as fly ash, GGBS, rice hull ash, sugarcane bagasse, react. Using binders that have been alkali activated, such as lead smelter slag, powdered GGBS, and palm oil fuel ash, a material called geopolymer concrete has been created. By using these wastes as cementitious materials, significant problems about the storage and discarding of waste from the mining and processing industries can be addressed by geopolymers [4]. Prior to their widespread use in commercial applications, it is necessary to have a good grasp of this new type of binder's durability properties. Up till now, only few studies have examined the selective sulphuration of lead smelter slag. Numerous research has examined the corrosion, sulphate attack, and acid attack action that induces deterioration of fly ash geopolymer concrete. Vibration is necessary for optimal compactability while compacting regular geopolymer concrete. Concrete vibrations encourage noise pollution. The alternative is self-compacting concrete (SCC), which fills the formwork with its self-weight and does not require any way of compacting. SCC provides easy filling of concrete in tight spaces, greater compaction, reduced maintenance, reasonable construction rates, higher concrete quality, cheaper overall building costs and good bond strength with reinforcement. The benefit of geopolymer technology and the growing preference for SCC in the building sector powers the production of novel concrete which combines the interests of both the concretes. Portland cement is not used in the manufacturing of SCGC, nor is any type of compaction necessary. The properties of SCGC have not been extensively researched. As amorphous materials by nature, fly ash, GGBFS, and silica fumes are activated by alkaline solutions namely sodium hydroxide and sodium silicate to produce geopolymer gel, which is then used to make concrete known as geopolymer concrete. SCGC was produced by a series of studies utilizing fly ash as the base material and altering the sodium hydroxide molarity, ratio of alkaline solutions, curing temperature, curing time, dosage of the superplasticizer, and amount of the alkaline activator during oven-curing. According to one publication, compressive strength on the 56-day of GGBFS-based SCGC at room temperature was 40 MPa, compared to just 16 MPa for FA-based SCGC. Researchers who replaced FA with GGBFS between 10 and 100% found that temperature curing was eliminated while compressive strength increased [5]. Utilizing GGBFS shortens the time needed for correct placement and compaction of geopolymer paste by hastening the material's setting process. Furthermore, increased slag content results in decreased concrete slump and mortar flow. Microsilica, fly ash, and GGBS are frequently included for the creation of high-strength, high-performance concrete due to its great engineering characteristics.

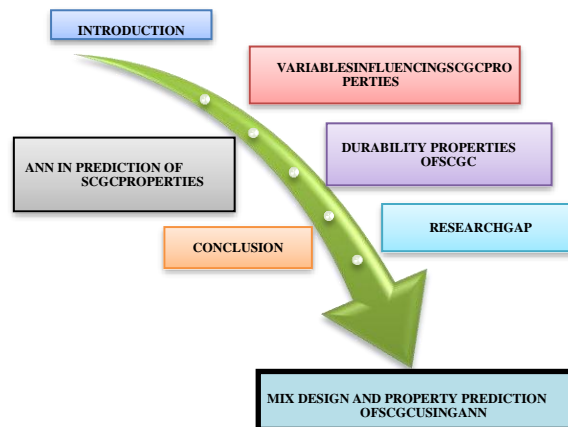


Fig.1. Overview of Contents of the paper

## 2. Artificial Neural Network in Prediction of SCGC Properties

There is no commonly approved method for determining the proportion to be mixed in concrete, despite previous studies on the performance and design mix variables of self-consolidating geopolymer concrete. **Lim C.H. et al.** investigated how to optimize the design mix of cement concrete using various algorithms and artificial intelligence tools [6]. **Topcu I.B. and co.** have found that, when applied to alkali-activated concrete, the artificial neural networks (ANN) method revealed that compressive strength can be estimated with the least amount of error compared to the experimental data [7]. As defined by **Yaprak H. et al.**, an ANN is a tool for training statistical data modeling by changing the weights on the available data in order to model a difficult connection between the inputs and the desired result [8]. **Lahoti and co.** used ANN to find the strength of alkali-activated metakaolin based concrete and looked at the consequence of some important ratios: Silicon/Aluminum molar, water/solid, Aluminum/Sodium molar, and water/sodium oxide molarity [9]. In another study, **Nazari, A., and co-authors** examined and predicted the mechanical strength of geopolymer concrete that depends on curing time, Calcium oxide content, Sodium Hydroxide concentration, and the water/sodium oxide molar ratio study. These models included ANNs having different counts of neurons in the covert layers [10]. **Bondar, D.** researched how scientists used a variety of functions for the different layers to try and optimize them. Ling and others demonstrated a strong correlation linking the experimental mechanical properties and setting time results of high-calcium fly ash based geopolymer concrete and the ANN model predictions [11].

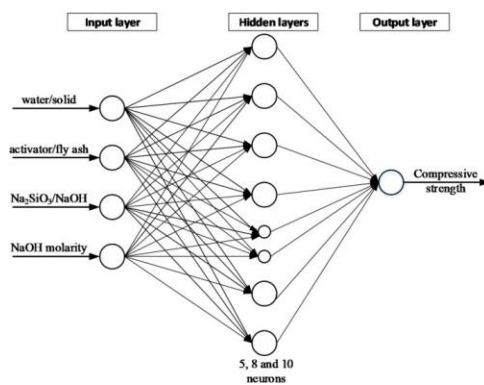


Fig.2. Schematic model of the prediction process through ANN [28]

### 3. Variables Influencing the Properties of SCGC

There are some factors that influence the properties and behavior, like workability, compressive strength, ITZ formation at the microstructural level, etc., of self-consolidating geopolymer concrete that need to be studied in detail in order to arrive at a better mix design.

#### 3.1. Molarity of NaOH and Ratio of Alkaline Solutions

A mixture of sodium silicate ( $\text{Na}_2\text{SiO}_3$ ) and sodium hydroxide (NaOH) has been a common pair of alkaline activators to be added to the binder materials. The manufacture of high-strength geopolymers is significantly changed by the molarity of the NaOH solution. It should be noticed that compressive strength rises as NaOH molarity raises. The ratio of fly ash to alkaline solutions and the relationship between Sodium silicate and Sodium hydroxide are additional facets that influence the geopolymer strength.

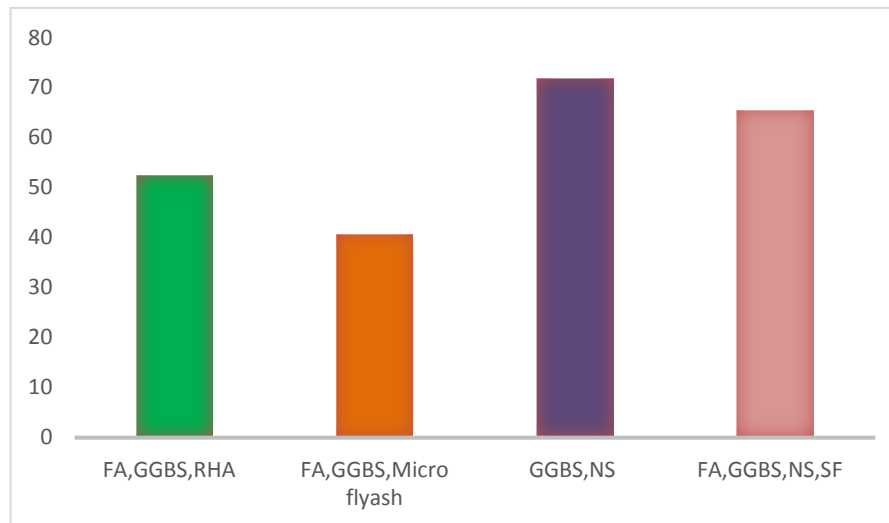
**B.R. Arun and others** researched the mechanical characteristics and flowability of fly ash and metakaolin SCGC at various NaOH molarities by changing the fly ash to metakaolin mass fraction by 0, 10, 20, and 30% by mass for all molarities, including 8, 10, and 12 M, while keeping the binder content constant. Workability parameters and various strength tests such as compression, split tensile, and flexural strengths were found to increase with rising molarities while decreasing when metakaolin was incorporated with fly ash content [12]. **Guohao Fang and others** used alkali-activated fly ash slag (AAFS) concrete cured at controlled temperature in a study that was similar to the one that was done in the previous paper. They found that an ideal mixture of AAFS concrete with a slag percentage of 20–30%, an alkaline activator to binder ratio of 0.4, a NaOH concentration of 10 M, and a  $\text{Na}_2\text{SiO}_3$  ratio of 1.5–2.5 met the performance parameters of workability, setting time, and compressive strength [13].

**Guneet Sainia and others** studied GGBS to try to create alkali-activated SCGC by inducing 2% nano silica by weight into six mix designs with binder contents of 450 - 500 kg/m<sup>3</sup>, respectively, and varying molarities of 10, 12, and 16 M of alkaline solution. The performance and properties of geopolymer concrete are significantly impacted by the ratios of sodium silicate to sodium hydroxide (SS/SH), alkaline activator liquid to binder (AAL/B), and water to binder (W/B), all of which were set at 2.5, 0.45, and 0.27, respectively, in a GPC mix design. At 90 days, they found that the sample of 16 M alkaline solution, with a binder content of 500 kg/m<sup>3</sup>, had the highest compressive, flexural, and split tensile strengths—81.33 MPa, 7.875 MPa, and 6.398 MPa, respectively [14].

#### 3.2. Curing Temperature of Concrete

In most cementitious systems, mechanical strength development is also significantly influenced by curing conditions. According to a number of studies, the specimen's mechanical strength can change while it is cured at room temperature, ambient temperature, or heat. **Yamini J. Patel and others** studied how the mechanical properties of SCGC blended with GGBS and Rice Husk Ash (RHA) changed when RHA was replaced at different percentages (five, fifteen, and twenty-five percent) and at different temperatures. At 70 °C temperature of curing and ambient type of curing, the ideal replacement rate for RHA with GGBS is 5% and 15%, respectively. When compared to curing at room temperature, the strength is greater at 70 °C. The dense microstructure of 5% RHA at room temperature and 15% RHA at 70 °C produces a stronger material, according to SEM imaging [4].

**Sherin Khadeeja Rahman and the others** described how they used a single alkali activator as a building block to create a unique, ambient-cured SCGC. The workability, mechanical, and microstructural characteristics of the eight distinct concrete mixtures were investigated. After 28 days, they reached the ideal combination along with a unit weight of 2200 kg/m<sup>3</sup> and an average compressive strength of 40 MPa using a binder of 960 kg/m<sup>3</sup> and sodium metasilicate alkali of 96 kg/m<sup>3</sup>. A few more studies investigated the qualities of SCGC by ambient curing the specimens until the right days for assessing the concrete's increased compressive strength and microstructure. The specimens were first cured in a hot air oven at 60 °C or 70 °C for a period of 24 hours [3].



**Fig.3. Hardened properties of SCGC with heat curing for various combinations of materials**

### 3.3. Super-plasticizers and Extra Water

**Shin Hau Bong and others** reported on the impacts of several water reducers and retarders on the characteristics of freshly formed and hardened geopolymers made with a mixture of fly ash, slag, and solid activators. Anhydrous sodium metasilicate powder value of 0.9 and GD Grade sodium silicate powder value of 2.0 were the two different grades of sodium silicate that made up the solid activators. Two naphthalene-based superplasticizer (designated as N1 and N2), different retarders, and some modified polycarboxylate-based superplasticizers (designated as PC1, PC2, and PC3) were all tested. All the admixtures of GD-grade sodium silicate with solid activator not only reduced the compressive strength but had no beneficial impact on workability or setting time either. Anhydrous sodium metasilicate powder (PC1) and sucrose were found to be the better superplasticizers as well as retarders. They increased workability by up to 72% and set time by up to 111%, respectively, but had a weak effect on compressive strength. The "combined" admixtures also improved the mixture's flowability up to 39% and setting time up to 141%, although they somewhat decreased its compressive strength (16%) [15].

**Samuel Demie and others** studied the microstructure and compressive strength of an interfacial transition zone (ITZ) made of SCGC based on fly ash. Additionally, correlations between the ITZ's microstructure and the surge in compressive strength were examined. The requisite workability qualities were supplied by mixes with superplasticizer dosages of 6% and 7%, which were also within the SCC range of EFNARC standards. Different SP dosages—3%, 4%, 5%, 6%, and 7%—were used to prepare concrete examples, which were then cured for 48 hours at 70 °C. When tested at 28 days with a 6% SP dosage, SCGC's compressive strength may reach 51.52 MPa. The concrete specimen with 7% Sp had the maximum compressive strength at all ages, and by just improving the ITZ of SCGC, the microstructure attributes were also enhanced. The varying ITZ thickness brought on by the various SP dosages had an impact on the microstructural alterations and the mechanical strength of the concrete. A rise in SP usage enhances the compressive strength of SCGC, whereas a decline in ITZ thickness strengthened the microstructure [16]. Some articles published the findings of an experiment to determine how much extra water and superplasticizer affect the strength and flowability of fly ash-based SCGC. Nine different combinations with superplasticizer levels ranging from 3 to 7% and additional water contents between 10% and 20% of the fly ash bulk were recreated and tested. It was found that the workability was improved by adding more additional water and superplasticizer. However, adding more water than 15% caused bleeding, segregation, and lowered the concrete's compressive strength. When the additional water content in self-compacting geopolymer concrete topped 12% by mass of fly ash, its compressive strength considerably fell [16].

### 3.4. Aggregates and Mineral Admixtures

Selçuk Türk and others in a series of laboratory tests, on both fresh and hardened properties of SCC, the impacts of mineral admixtures namely—fly ash (FA) and limestone powder (LP)—as well as two types of coarse aggregates—limestone and olivine basalt—were investigated. Compared to M2's mixture of FA and basalt aggregate, M3's mixture of LP and limestone aggregate had a 21 percent positive impact on slump flow. In addition, when in contrast to the other SCC combinations, the one developed with fly ash and limestone aggregates has a compressive strength at 28 days that is approximately 15–27% higher, whereas basalt aggregate combinations have the lowest flexural strength at 28 days. Segregation was not caused by basalt aggregates that have a high relative specific gravity. The average air content of SCC, which includes FA M1 and M2, is higher than that of other compounds. The ability of SCC to withstand frost is also enhanced by usage of FA and raising their content [17]. Uysal Mucteba et al. worked on the characteristics of SCC. Portland cement (PC) was substituted with different amounts of fly ash (FA), granulated blast furnace slag (GBFS), limestone powder (LP), basalt powder (BP), and marble powder (MP). The mineral admixtures FA and GBFS greatly improved the workability and compressive strength of the SCC mixtures, based on test results. After 400 days, by substituting 25% of the PC with FA, the strength reached more than 105 MPa. Moreover, the addition of mineral admixtures had the positive impact of reducing the strength loss brought on by attacks by sodium and magnesium sulphate. The strongest resistance to attacks by sodium and magnesium sulphate, however, was achieved by the mixture of 40% GBFS and 60% PC [18]. Mehmet Gesoglu and others evaluated 22 concrete mixtures with 450 kg/m<sup>3</sup> of total binder content and persistent water to binder ratio of 0.44. In contrast to the control mixture, which simply comprised regular Portland cement, the rest of mixtures' binders were binary (PC and FA). Portland cement was replaced with fly ash, powdered granulated blast furnace slag, and silica fume to create cementitious blends such as PC + S, PC + SF, ternary (PC + FA + S, PC + FA + SF, and PC + FA + S + SF), and quaternary (PC + FA + S + SF). By weight of cement, the replacement levels for SF were 5%, 10%, and 15%, while those for FA and S were 20%, 40%, and 60%, respectively. When the durability characteristics of the concrete were taken into consideration, their findings indicated that the ternary use of S and SF offered the supreme performance [19]. I.M. Nikbin and others examined 12 SCC mixes' most crucial mechanical qualities under different conditions, including ageing, coarse aggregate volume, and maximum coarse aggregate size. As the coarse aggregate size increases from 9.5 mm to 19 mm, the compressive strength for w/c ratios of 0.38 and 0.53 rises by 5% and 25%, respectively, while the tensile strength falls by 14% and 6%. As the volume of coarse aggregate grows from 30% of the aggregate volume to 60% of the aggregate volume, the compressive strength does not rise linearly. As the concrete age increases from 3 to 90 days for both w/c ratios of 0.45 and 0.65, the compressive strength rises by 180%. The tensile strength improves by 100% as the concrete age rises from 3 to 90 days for both w/c ratios of 0.45 and 0.65 [20].

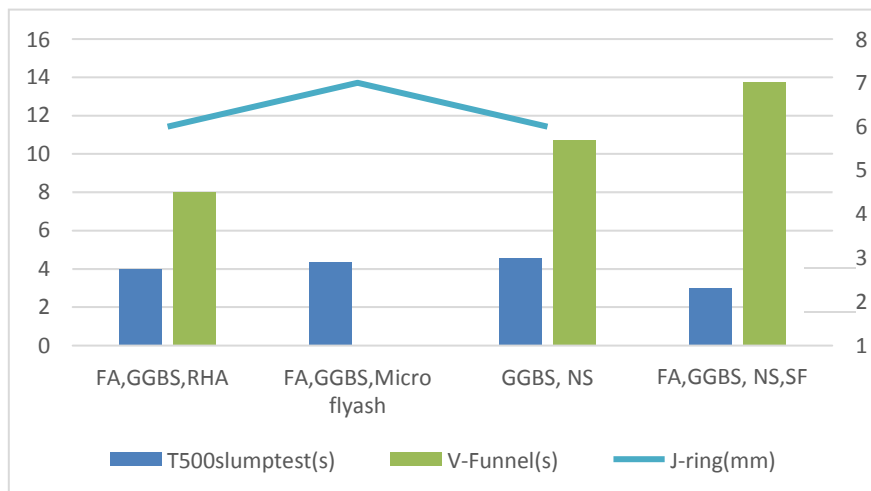


Fig.4. Comparison of various flowability test results

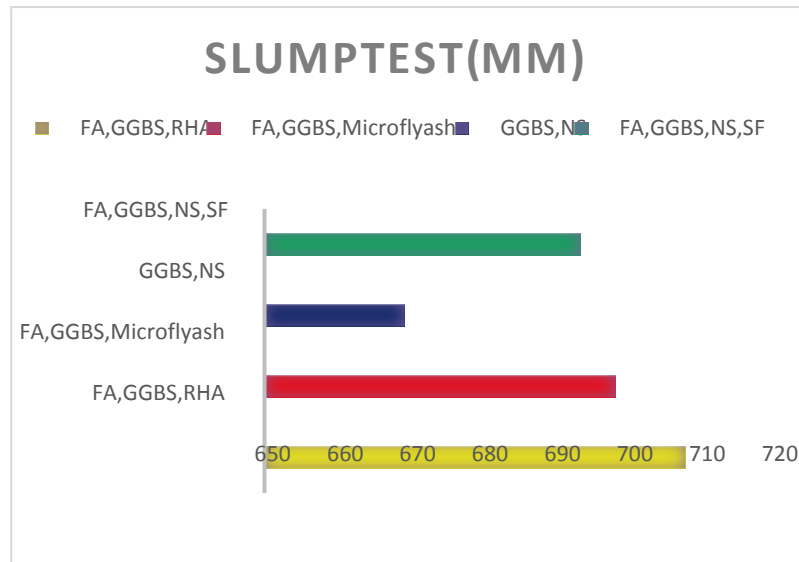


Fig. 5 Slump flow test

Dibyendu Adak and co-authors studied that in comparison to the standard geopolymer concrete with the control concrete, the modified geopolymer concrete shows a notable improvement in mechanical strength as well as durability. An 8M NaOH solution and Na<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>3</sub> were combined in a ratio of 1:1.75 to create the activator fluid for both process-modified geopolymer concrete (GPC I) and traditional heat-cured geopolymer concrete (GPC II) (by weight). Results on acid attack resistance and water absorption tests for the GPC I, II, and CC mixes after 28 days of casting. In comparison to the GPC I, II mixes, the CC mix absorbed more water. Additionally, compared to the GPC II mix, the GPC I mix contained smaller water content. The findings of the chloride permeability test on the three mixes are reported after one, and three-month period of curing. Because the activator solution concentration is the same for GPC I, II, the RCPT values of these concrete mixtures can be looked upon for a durability study. It was discovered that GPC I, II have different charge transfer rates [21]. Albitar and others examined the effectiveness of geopolymer concretes prepared with class-F fly ash and granulated lead smelter slag (GLSS). The effect of incorporating regular Portland cement (OPC) concrete is also examined as a benchmark for figuring out how durable geopolymer concretes are. All samples were submerged in four chemical solutions up to nine months: 3% sulfuric acid, 5% sodium chloride, 5% sodium sulphate, and 5% magnesium sulphate. Additionally, the effects of additional cycles, such as heating-cooling and wetting-drying, on compressive strength and mass loss were investigated. The results showed that the microstructure can be made better by adding graphene nanoplatelets to geopolymer binders. OPC concrete degrades more quickly than geopolymer concretes when exposed to sodium sulphate, with a reduction magnitude of 15.4% as opposed to 13.4% and 12.3% for fly ash and GLSS geopolymer concretes, respectively. The detrimental effect of Sulfuric acid on OPC concrete than fly ash or GLSS geopolymer concrete, whose compressive strengths are reduced by 10.9% and 7.3%, respectively [22].

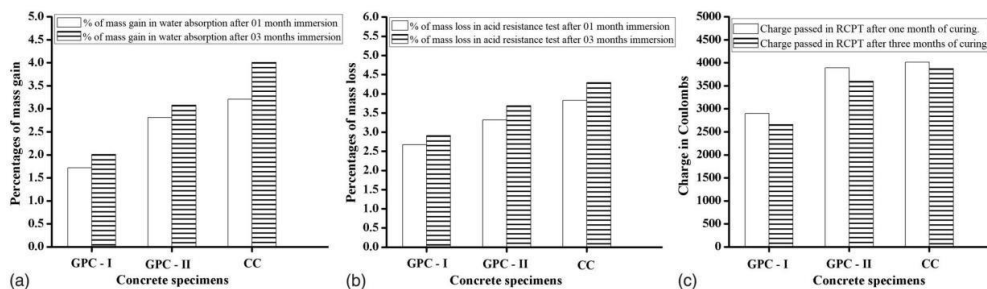


Fig.6. Graph on (a) Water absorption; (b) Acid attack resistance; (c) RCPT on various mix proportions [21]



#### **4. Conclusion**

The following inferences can be made from the examination and discussion of previous research's studies and experiments:

- Self-compacting geopolymer concrete with fly ash as a binder can help concrete emit less CO<sub>2</sub> than regular Portland cement does.
- The compressive strength of SCGC was improved when fly ash content was mixed in range from 400 kg/m<sup>3</sup> to 500 kg/m<sup>3</sup>, particularly as superplasticizer dosages were increased.
- It is evident that superplasticizers with low contents of 3, 4, and 5% lacked the capacity for the workability results that fell below the SCC EFNARC limitations for filling and passing. Due to the absence of a significant contribution from the SP dosage of 7%, the optimal superplasticizer dosage is 6%.
- Geopolymer concrete's compressive strength increased as NaOH solution concentration increased from 8 M to 12 M. However, the compressive strength decreases as the concentration rises from 12 M to 14 M, with 12 M producing the highest compressive strength across all testing days.
- At 70°C, along curing time of 24 to 72 hours improves the geo-polymerization, resulting in a higher compressive strength than a nearly age.
- Compared to SCC produced using ordinary Portland cement, heat-cured SCGC experiences very little drying shrinkage.
- With increasing compressive strength, the hardened SCGC loses its permeability and ability to absorb water.
- In acid and sulphate solutions, geopolymer and OPC concretes lose weight and strength. Compared to OPC concrete, GPC is more resistant to acid and sulphate attacks.
- GPC that is made by combining kaolin and FA has excellent durability and can resist chemical attack by up to 40% more.
- GPC specimens had higher abrasion resistance than CC specimens. GPC specimens had an average wear rate that was 27.5 percent lower than that of CC specimens.
- The chloride diffusion coefficients of GPC and CC were nearly identical. When subjected to a 3% H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution for six months, GPC specimens experienced less than 2% weight loss and demonstrated very good defense against acid and sulphate attack.

#### **5. Research Gap**

A great number of literatures have been previously discussed about the optimum mix designs for self-compacting geopolymer concrete with various mineral admixture combinations. Most of the research was carried out to arrive at a better compressive strength of the concrete while its durability properties are not investigated on a large scale. More knowledge needs to be acquired regarding the durability characteristics and the resistance to weathering and various chemical attacks. Researches have also been made by incorporating the use of Artificial Neural Network with trials of different types of algorithms. There is still a gap to determine as to which algorithm gives the better and most accurate results for the given type and amount of inputs.

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