

# Properties of high density silica fume-based gel and its potential use in high temperature lubricants and geopolymer binders

Ndigui Billong<sup>1</sup> · Jonathan Oti<sup>2</sup> · John Kinuthia<sup>2</sup> · Rukshane Navaratne<sup>2</sup> · Jiping Bai<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Laboratory of Materials Analyses, Local Materials Promotion Authority, P.O. Box 2396, Yaounde, Cameroon.

<sup>2</sup>Faculty of Computing, Engineering and Science, University of South Wales, Pontypridd, UK, CF 37 1DL.

## Abstract

In the present study, undensified silica fume reacted with a 10M sodium hydroxide solution to produce the sodium silicate gel having a pH of 14. The calorimetry of the reaction was evaluated. The gel was dried to increase its density by almost 35%. Thereafter, the thermogravimetry of the gel was performed at temperatures up to 1000°C. Except the loss in mass caused by the departure of physical and chemical water at temperatures below 200°C, no other mass loss process was identified in the gel. The potential applications of the gel as high temperature lubricants for automotive and metallurgical engineering and as alkaline activator in geopolymer binder was discussed. Since silica fume is a by-product material that do not require heating or grinding, and can react with sodium hydroxide solution at ambient temperature, the results suggested potential for enhanced sustainability in the reduction of embodied energy for the production of the materials like high temperature inorganic lubricant and alkaline activator for geopolymer binder.

**Key words:** Silica fume · Sodium silicate · Thermal properties · High temperature lubricants · Geopolymer · Sustainability

## Introduction

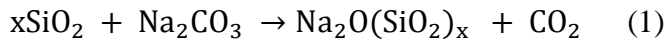
Following the Kyoto Protocol aimed at tackling the problem of global climate change, the year 2020 was set as a target for several countries to lower considerably their anthropogenic Green House Gas (GHS) emissions. Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) is the major GHG. The better use of existing technologies and the promotion of those that reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions is critical [1]. Soluble silicate glasses, liquids and solids are among the largest volume synthetic chemicals, surpassed in volume only by commodity acids and bases [2]. Sodium silicate (Na<sub>2</sub>O(SiO<sub>2</sub>)<sub>x</sub>),

1 where x is the molar ratio, defining the number moles of silica ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ) per mole of sodium oxide  
2 ( $\text{Na}_2\text{O}$ ), also called water glass is one of those silicates. The product has a wide variety of uses,  
3 including the formulation of special cements for concrete, passive fire protection, textile and  
4 lumber processing, manufacture of refractory ceramics, adhesives and inorganic lubricants [2,  
5 3]. In industry, the manufacture of sodium silicate is based on 4 steps: (i) the firing of a mixture  
6 of sodium carbonate ( $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$ ) and natural quartz sand ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ) in an appropriate furnace at  
7 temperatures between 1400 and 1500°C according to equation 1, where a “solid glass” is  
8 obtained, (ii) the dissolution in water of the “solid glass” in a reactive vessel under high  
9 pressure and temperature, (iii) the filtration of the solution depending on the desired purity and  
10 (iv) the evaporation of the water to obtain the desired density of the solution [4]. This process  
11 is considered costly and energy intensive. It is also leads to air pollution by the emission of  
12 greenhouse gases such as carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ) [4]. As an alternative to this process, other  
13 production methods were developed, based on the reaction of amorphous silica from various  
14 sources (rice husk ash, corncob, sugar cane bagasse ash) with aqueous sodium hydroxide [5-  
15 7]. But, less attention has been paid to silica fume which is known as one of the best source of  
16 amorphous silica with excellent results in concrete technology as a supplementary cementitious  
17 material (SCM) [8, 9].

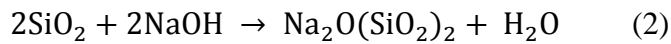
18 Silica fume (SF) is a by-product of the silicon and ferrosilicon industry. The reduction of high  
19 purity quartz to silicon at temperatures up to 2000°C produces  $\text{SiO}$  vapour, which oxidizes and  
20 condenses in the low temperature zone to ultra-fine particles consisting of 85 to 98.5% non-  
21 crystalline silica, also known as un-densified silica fume [10, 11]. The surface area of the  
22 particles varies from 13,000 to 30,000  $\text{kg m}^{-2}$ . Silica fume is a high reactive pozzolanic material  
23 having particles that are 100 times smaller than the average cement particles [11]. When the  
24 un-densified silica fume is collected, it is very light with a bulk density in the range of 120 to  
25 220  $\text{kg m}^{-3}$ . For stocking space, the reduction of transport cost and dust pollution reasons, the  
26 un-densified silica fume is treated to increase its density within the range of 400 to 720  $\text{kg m}^{-3}$   
27 [12]. This treatment of bulk density is usually accomplished by tumbling silica fume particles  
28 in a silo, which causes surface charges to build up. These charges draw the particles together  
29 to form agglomerates, which not only increase the density but also increase of embodied energy  
30 of the final material [13].

31 The main objective of the present study is to produce and characterize a high-density sodium  
32 silicate gel having a high pH with potential applications as high temperature lubricants for  
33 automotive and metallurgical engineering and as alkaline activator in geopolymer binders. Un-  
34 densified silica fume was used to produce a sodium silicate gel based on equation 2. Chemical

1 and mineralogical analyses, pH and density measurements, isothermal calorimetry and TG-  
2 DTG analyses were the tests performed on the raw material and products. The potential  
3 applications of the gel as high temperature lubricants for automotive and metallurgical  
4 engineering and as alkaline activator in geopolymer binder was discussed  
5  
6  
7



9 where “x” can be a fractional number.  
10  
11  
12



## 14 **Materials and methods**

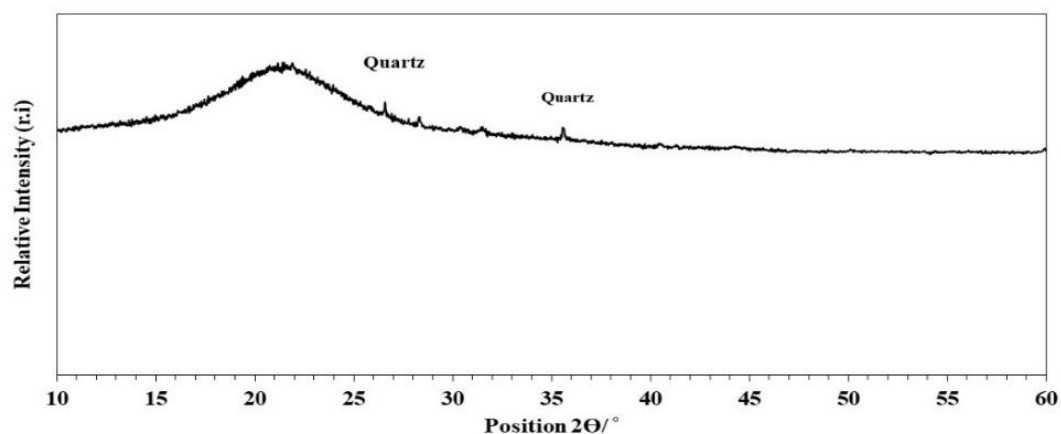
### 15 **Materials and their characteristics**

16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26 The raw materials used in the study consisted of 97.1% purity un-densified silica fume (USF)  
27 supplied by Elkem Silicon Materials in Norway and a 10M sodium hydroxide (NaOH) solution  
28 obtained by dissolving 400 grams of laboratory grade 97 % purity NaOH pellets in de-ionized  
29 water. The NaOH solution was prepared 24 hours before its use and kept in a container with a  
30 lid. The chemical composition of the silica fume sample was determined by X-Ray  
31 Fluorescence (XRF) spectrometry, using a Bruker S4 Pioneer wavelengths dispersive (WD-  
32 XRF) spectrometer. The mineralogy by X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis of that sample was  
33 carried out under room temperature using a STOE company Powder Diffraction System with  
34 operating conditions of CuK $\alpha$  sealed tube and radiation wavelength of 1.54060 nm.  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42

43 Characteristics of USF in Table 1 revealed that, SiO<sub>2</sub> was the major constituent oxide; with  
44 minor other oxides such as Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, MgO and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. The XRD pattern in Fig. 1 showed that  
45 USF was essentially in an amorphous state with some quartz impurities.  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

**Table 1** Chemical composition and specific gravity of USF

Oxide (%)	USF
CaO	–
SiO <sub>2</sub>	97.1
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	0.1
MgO	0.15
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	0.2
MnO	-
S <sup>2-</sup>	-
SO <sub>3</sub>	0.06
K <sub>2</sub> O	-
N <sub>2</sub> O	-
L.O.I.	-
Specific gravity (g cm <sup>-3</sup> )	2.20



**Fig. 1** XRD pattern of USF

## Methods

### Preparation of the USF gel

The chemical equation 2 was used as the basis for the calculation to obtain the sodium silicate gel with SiO<sub>2</sub>/Na<sub>2</sub>O ratio = 2. According to equation 2 and considering the purity of USF which was 97.1 % SiO<sub>2</sub>, an equivalent of 123.58 grams of USF was mixed per 200 mL of the 10M

1 NaOH solution. The proportion of the constituents in the mixture was multiplied by 10 to obtain  
2 the desired quantity of the gel, which was thereafter left to react for 48 hours in a closed  
3 container at a room temperature of  $20 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  before use. After the reaction period, the density  
4 of the gel was measured by determining the mass of a given volume (40 to 60 mL) of the gel.  
5 Its pH was measured using a digital pHmeter. The gel was thereafter left to dry for 24 hours in  
6 an oven at  $105^\circ\text{C}$  using a flat container. Its density was measured once more. Fig. 2 shows the  
7 aspect of the dried gel.  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12



13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34 **Fig. 2** The dried USF gel

### 35 36 37 38 **Characterization techniques**

39  
40  
41  
42 The calorimetry of the reaction between USF and the 10M sodium hydroxide solution was  
43 investigated for 24 hours using the isothermal calorimetry by a Tonitechnik device. Thereafter,  
44 test specimens of USF and its based gel were submitted to thermogravimetric analysis (TG-  
45 DTG) at up to  $1000^\circ\text{C}$  to study their behaviour at elevated temperatures using a TA Instruments  
46 TGA 55 equipment operating with the argon gas at  $10^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$  heating rate. The mass of the  
47 testing sample for TG ranged from 4 to 10 mg.  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53

### 54 55 **Results and discussions**

#### 56 57 58 **PH and densities of the gel**

59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

The pH and the density values of the gel are presented in Table 2.

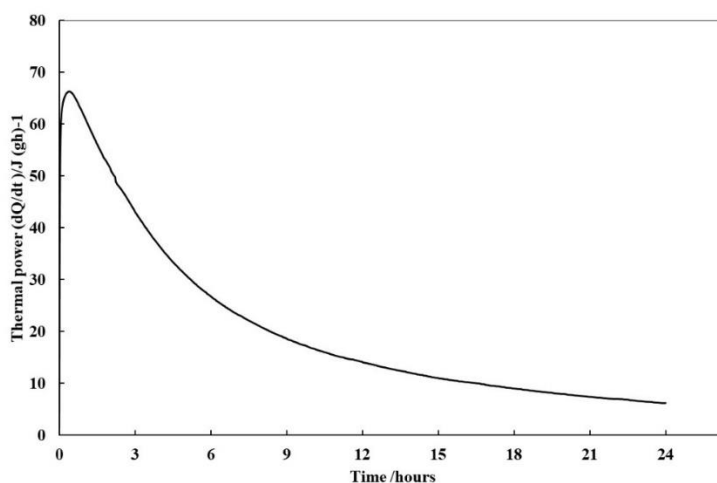
**Table 2** PH and density values of the USF based gel

Designation	pH	Density before drying ( $\text{g mL}^{-1}$ )	Density after drying ( $\text{g mL}^{-1}$ )
USF based gel	14	$1.52 \pm 0.01$	$2.05 \pm 0.02$

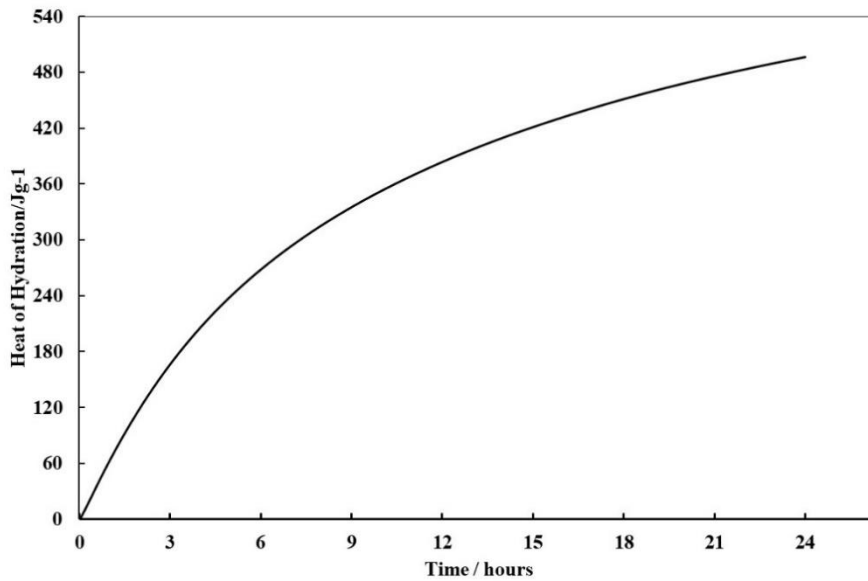
The pH values of the gels are higher than that of commercial sodium silicate solutions, which ranges between 10 and 13. This could be due to un-reacted sodium hydroxide solution present in the medium. The higher pH of the gel could contribute positively to its stability, since lowering the pH leads to condensation reactions, thus a change in the silica speciation [14]. The increase in the density of the gel during the drying process is a result of the evaporation of part of the water in the gel, which also increased its viscosity. The increase in the density of the gel by almost 35% could contribute to ease the transportation of the material.

### Isothermal calorimetry of the reaction between silica fume and sodium hydroxide

The isothermal calorimetry was used to evaluate the kinetic of the dissolution of silica fume in the 10M sodium hydroxide solution during 24 hours. According to equation 2, 5.5 mL of the 10M sodium hydroxide solution reacted with 3.40 g of USF. Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 present the recorded data for 24 hours of reaction.



**Fig. 3** Thermal power generated during the exothermic reaction of USF and sodium hydroxide

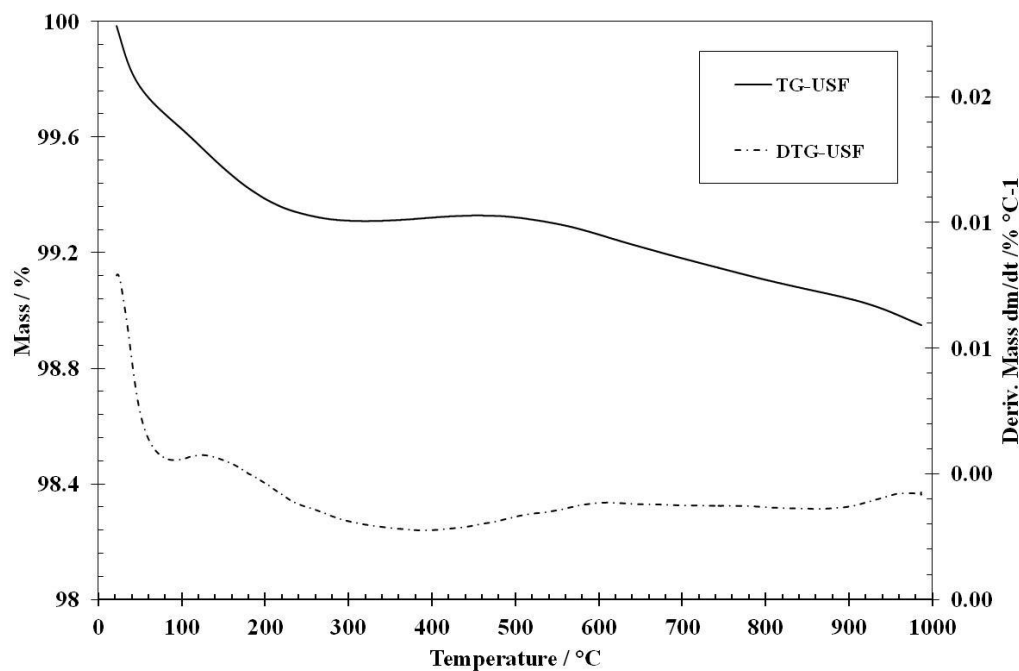


**Fig. 4** Cumulative heat flow during the reaction of USF and sodium hydroxide

It was shown that the dissolution reaction, which is exothermic, started just after silica fume and sodium hydroxide were in contact. The maximum thermal power was achieved at about 20 minutes after the beginning of the reaction. The maximum heat flow was not reached after 24 hours of reaction, suggesting that although most of silica species are rapidly dissolved at the beginning of the reaction, a residual dissolution of silica species continued. In fact, during the reaction of silica in the presence of a basic solution, depending on its concentration, there is formation of  $\text{SiO}^-$  ions in the silica framework, which facilitate the detachment of Si in the network. The dissolution rate of silica is extremely high when silica is in an amorphous state and pH higher than 9 [15, 16, 17]. The high pH of the medium contributed the formation of silicate species and to the rapid dissolution of silica.

### Thermogravimetric analyses of USF and its based gel

The thermogravimetric analysis measures the mass change of sample due to the increase in temperature, because of the decomposition reactions producing gaseous compounds. USF was subjected to the analysis as indicated in Fig. 5.



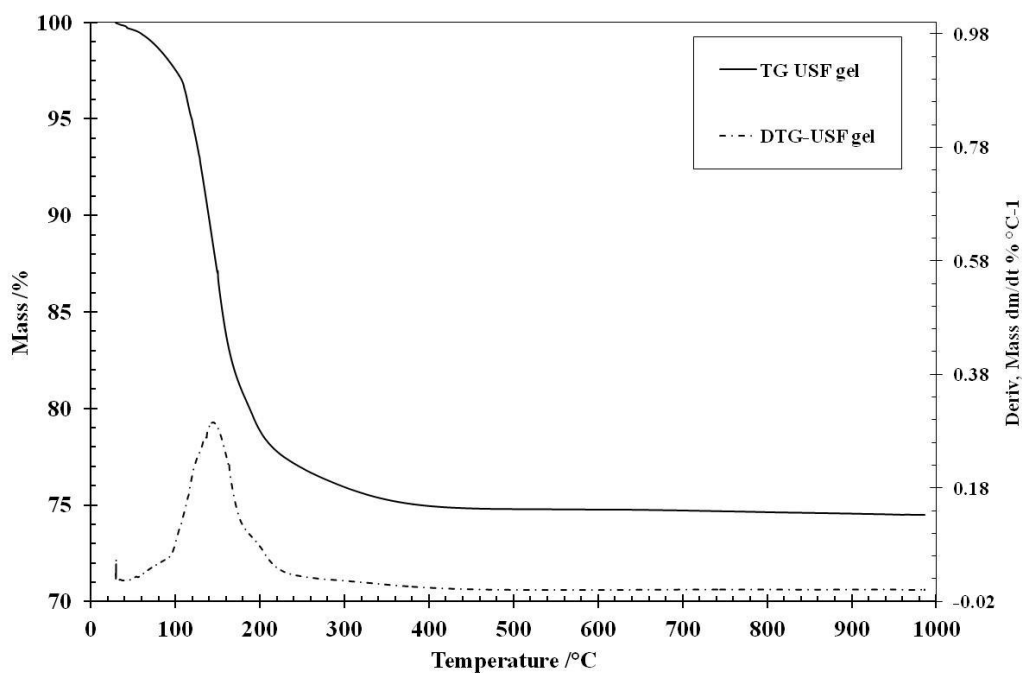
**Fig. 5** TG-DTG curves of USF

As the heat increased from ambient temperature to 1000°C, USF exhibited slight mass loss of 0.96 % essentially due to loss of the remaining water in the sample. A stable trend during the heating at temperatures higher than 100°C was presented by the sample, showing that, except for the loss of evaporable water, no other decomposition and hence no further associated mass losses occurred in the sample.

When the USF gel was subjected to TG-DTG measurements, the result in Fig. 6 showed that, except for the loss of evaporable, physical and chemical absorbed water which happens at temperature below 200°C, no mass loss was detected in the sample at up to 1000°C. Subasri and Naife [18], who studied the phase evolution on heat treatment of sodium water glass with SiO<sub>2</sub>/Na<sub>2</sub>O ratio of three, stated that, phase change might happen in the sample. They reported that the water glass, initially in an amorphous solid state, starts to form crystals of β-Na<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> as layered sodium silicate at about 400°C and crystallizes the SiO<sub>2</sub> modification cristobalite at 600°C that co-exist along with β-Na<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> up to 700°C. At 750°C, Na<sub>6</sub>Si<sub>8</sub>O<sub>19</sub> appears as a separate phase and beyond that temperature, the system turns into liquid.

Layered sodium silicates among which β-Na<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> were reported to be useful as high temperature inorganic lubricants [19]. Consequently, the elaborated gel could serve as raw material for high temperature inorganic lubricants used in automotive and metallurgical engineering.





**Fig. 6** TG-DTG curves of USF based gel

Organic materials such as fats, oils and soaps are generally used as lubricants. However, in the aerospace and power generation sectors and the automotive engineering and metal processing industries, key frictional components in machineries are required to operate at temperatures above 300°C, where organic lubricants cannot perform. It was reported that friction can cause wear and energy dissipation directly or indirectly responsible for about one-third of the world energy resource consumption [19]. Several inorganic polymers have shown good performances in high temperature friction operations [20]. Among them, silicate glasses which have been suggested in several tribology applications. Layered sodium silicates were reported to provide effective wear protection because of their layers characteristics, similar to standard inorganic lubricants like MoS<sub>2</sub> and graphite [19, 21, 22]. Ordinary sodium silicate is water soluble and less stable at high temperatures compared to layered sodium silicates, which are water insoluble [19], and more stable at high temperature after wear. They are a group of materials with complex polymorphism. Depending on the temperature, pressure and synthesis composition, the most well-known layered sodium silicates are  $\alpha$ -Na<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>,  $\delta$ -Na<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>,  $\beta$ -Na<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and kemanite (NaHSi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>·3H<sub>2</sub>O). They can be used as solid lubricants or dispersed in oils like oleic acids and liquid paraffin. When  $\alpha$ -Na<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> was used as additive in liquid paraffin and 150SN base oil (mineral base oil), it considerably improved maximum non-seizure load (P<sub>B</sub>) from 392N to 470N and from 392N to 647N respectively [19]. In practice, standard  $\alpha$ -Na<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>,  $\delta$ -

1 Na<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, and β-Na<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> are obtained by roasting ordinary sodium silicate at temperatures  
2 between 600°C and 780°C [19]. Further investigations could consider the study of the  
3 tribological properties at high temperatures, of the fired product of the elaborated silica fume  
4 based gel. From the thermogravimetry information, further synthesis of layered sodium  
5 silicates could be obtained by thermal treatment of the elaborated gel within the temperature  
6 range of 200°C to 800°C, with the aim of lowering the synthesis temperature and studying the  
7 wear and friction characteristics of the elaborated materials.

8 Sodium silicate was also reported as a major constituent of alkaline activators for geopolymer  
9 binders [23]. The geopolymer binder, which derives from the polycondensation of amorphous  
10 and three-dimensional aluminosilicate precursors in the presence of alkaline activator solutions  
11 [24, 25], was presented in numerous studies as a prominent Portland cement substitute in some  
12 applications with additional benefits in thermal insulation and fire resistance [26-28]. The  
13 concern was about the high level of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) emission during Portland cement  
14 production, which was estimated at about 5 to 7% of the global anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emission.  
15 Although some studies stated that geopolymer binders could lower the amount of greenhouse  
16 gases emission by 20 to 80 % compared to Portland cement [29-33], others indicated that the  
17 CO<sub>2</sub> emission could be reduced by 9% [34]. In all the cases, lower reduction figures were  
18 obtained when waste and by-products were used in the production process involving less  
19 energy demand. The alkaline activator solution commonly used in the geopolymer binder  
20 production was a mixture of sodium silicate and sodium hydroxide [35]. The major component  
21 responsible to CO<sub>2</sub> emission in the geopolymer production was sodium silicate production and  
22 its treatment, which accounted for 50% in volume of the environmental impact [5]. The  
23 elaborated sodium silicate gel was produced from silica fume and densified at 105°C. It has the  
24 potential to contribute significantly to the reduction the embodied energy and greenhouse gas  
25 emission of the resulted geopolymer binder made with the activator solution utilizing the  
26 elaborated gel. Consequently, the sustainability of geopolymer binders could be improve.  
27 While industrial waste ashes are re-utilized to produce geopolymer at ambient temperatures,  
28 the amount of greenhouse gas emitted to the environment might be lowered by 26 to 80 %  
29 compared to Portland cement [36-40]. Further study could determine the dissolution  
30 mechanism of the densified silica fume-based sodium silicate gel in water and the properties  
31 of geopolymer paste and concrete made with this solution.

## 32 Conclusions

1  
2 This study focussed on the determination of thermal, physical and chemical characteristics of  
3 a high-density sodium silicate gel obtained by the reaction of silica fume and 10M sodium  
4 hydroxide solution. Potential applications of the elaborated gel were provided. From the  
5 findings, it was concluded that:  
6  
7

- 8  
9 1. The density of the gel increased by almost 35% after drying at 105°C for 24 hours. This  
10 could significantly contribute to reduce the volume of the material during  
11 transportation;  
12
- 13 2. The dissolution of silica fume in 10M sodium hydroxide solution **was** a rapid process  
14 attaining **which** its maximum dissolution rate at about 20 minutes after the reactants  
15 were in contact, yielding a solution with pH of 14;  
16
- 17 3. Except for the mass loss due to the evaporation of different types of water in the gel,  
18 no other mass **loss** were observed in the material at up to 1000°C;  
19
- 20 4. The gel possesses potential for use as raw material for layered sodium silicate for high  
21 temperature tribological application in automotive and metallurgical engineering, and  
22 as alkaline activator for geopolymer binders;  
23
- 24 5. Since the silica fume is a by-product material that did not require to be heated or ground,  
25 and could be reacted with the sodium hydroxide solution at ambient temperature, the  
26 results **suggested** potential for enhanced sustainability in the reduction of embodied  
27 energy **when applied in automotive and metallurgical engineering, or as alkaline**  
28 **activator for geopolymer binders.**  
29

30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

Further research will concern the determination of the wear and friction properties at temperature higher than 300°C of the product of thermal treatment of the gel between 20 and 800°C. Investigation will also done on the degree of conversion of reactants, the amount of free water, the viscosity of the gel, its dissolution mechanism in water and properties of geopolymer binders made with the gel as based alkaline activator.

## Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank the University of South Wales, UK, for their internal financing through the Faculty of Computing, Engineering and Science Research Investment Strategy (CESRIS) funding programme.

## References

1. Saikku L, Rautiainen A, Kamp PE. The sustainability challenge of meeting carbon dioxide in Europe by 2020. *Energy policy*. 2008;36(2):730-742.
2. Fawer M, Concannon M, Rieber W. Life Cycle Inventories for the Production of Sodium Silicates. *Int. J. LCA*. 1999;4 (4):207-212.
3. Chen Z, Wang Y, Zhang X, Xu H, Dong J. Tribological investigation of layered sodium silicate as lubricant additives prepared by freezing titration ion exchange. *Tribology International*. 2011;44:1055–1060.
4. Foletto EL, Gratieri E, de Oliviera LH, Jahn SL. Conversion of rice hull ash into soluble sodium silicate. *Materials Research*. 2006;9(3):335-338.
5. Kamseu E, Beleuk a Mounsam LM, Cannio M, Ndigui Billong, Chaysuwan D, Chinje Melo U, Leonelli C. Substitution of sodium silicate with rice husk ash-NaOH solution in metakaolin based geopolymer cement concerning reduction in global warming. *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 2017;142:3050-3060.
6. Tchakouté HK, Rüscher CH, Kong S, Kamseu E, Leonelli C. Geopolymer binders from metakaolin using sodium waterglass from waste glass and rice husk ash as alternative activators: A comparative study. *Construction and Building Materials*. 2016;114:276–289.
7. Moraes JCB, Font A, Soriano L, Akasaki JL, Tashima MM, Monzó J, Borrachero MV, Payá J. New use of sugar cane straw ash in alkali-activated materials: A silicasource for the preparation of the alkaline activator. *Construction and Building Materials*. 2018;171:611–621.
8. Mohr BJ, Biernacki JJ, Kurtis KE. Supplementary cementitious material for mitigating degradation of kraft pulp fiber-cement composites. *Cement and Concrete Research*. 2007;37: 1531–1543.
9. Chung SY, Kim JS, Lehmann C, Stephan D. Investigation of phase composition and microstructure of foamed cement paste with different supplementary cementing materials. *Cement and Concrete*. 2020;103560.
10. Siddique R. Utilization of silica fume in concrete: Review of hardened properties. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*. 2011;55:923– 932.
11. Mehta A, Ashish DK. Silica fume and waste glass in cement concrete, production: A review. *Journal of Building Engineering*. 2019; <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2019.100888>
12. American Concrete Institute (ACI) 234R-96. Guide for the Use of Silica Fume in Concrete. 2000.
13. Zhang Z, Zhang B, Yan P. Comparative study of effect of raw and densified silica fume in the paste, mortar and concrete. *Construction and Building Materials*. 2016;105:82–93.

14. Nordstrom J, Nilson E., Jarvol P, Nayeri M, Palmqvist A, Bergenholtz J, Matik A. Concentration and pH dependence of highly alkaline sodium silicate. *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*. 2011;356:37-45.
15. Fertani-Gmati M, Jemal M.. Thermochemical and kinetic investigations of amorphous silica dissolution in NaOH solutions. *Journal of Thermal Analysis and Calorimetry*. 2015; doi 10.1007/s10973-015-4980-7.
16. Niibori Y, Kunita M, Tochiyama O, Chida T. Dissolution rate of amorphous silica in highly alkaline solution. *Journal of Nuclear Science and Technology*. 2012; 37(4):349-357.
17. Report of the 7th international congress on the chemistry of cement.1980;01(I-1/VII-2),p 48.
18. Subasri R, Naife H. Phase evolution on heat treatment of sodium silicate waterglass. *Journal of non-crystalline solids*. 2008;354(10-11):896-900.
19. Zhang X, Sun W, Ma H, Xu H, Dong J. Investigation of the tribological properties of two different layered sodium silicates utilized as solid lubrication additives in lithium grease. *Industrial engineering chemistry research*. 2014);53:182-188.
20. Wan S, Tieu AK, Xia Y, Zhu H, Tran BH, Cui S. An overview of inorganic polymer as potential lubricant additive for high temperature tribology. *Tribology international*. 2016; 102:620-635.
21. Singh D, Thakre GD, Sivakumar Konathala LN, Prasad VVDN. Friction reduction capabilities of silicate compounds used in an engine lubricant on worn surfaces. *Advances in Tribology*. 2016;doi.org/10.1155/2016/1901493.
22. Matsumoto K, Izawa M, Nakanishi T, Tsubouchi K. Tribological properties of water glass lubricant for hot metal working. *Tribology transactions*. 2009;52(4):553-559.
23. Kamseu E, Beleuk à Mougam LM, Cannio M, Billong N, Chaysuwan D, Chinje Melo U, Leonelli C. Substitution of sodium silicate with rice husk ash-NaOH solution in metakaolin based geopolymer cement concerning reduction in global warming *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 2017;142(4):3050-3060.
24. Ngwem BB, Billong N, Yamb E, Kaze RC, Nzengwa R. Effect of limestone dosages on some properties of geopolymer from thermally activated halloysite. *Construction and Building Materials*. 2019;217:28–35.
25. Abdel-Gawwad HA, Abo-El-Enein SA. A novel method to produce dry geopolymer cement powder. *HBRC Journal*. 2016;12:13–24.

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65
26. Maddalena R, Roberts JJ, Hamilton A. Can Portland cement be replaced by low-carbon alternative materials? A study on the thermal properties and carbon emissions of innovative cements. *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 2018;186:933-942.
  27. Singh NB, Middendorf B. Geopolymers as an alternative to Portland cement: An overview. *Construction and Building Materials*. 2020; 237:117455.
  28. Rashad AM. Insulating and fire resistant behaviour of metakaolin and fly ash geopolymer. *Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers, Construction Materials*. 2019;172(1):97-44.
  29. Hassan A, Arif M, Shariq M. Use of geopolymer concrete for a cleaner and sustainable environment: A review of mechanical properties and microstructure, *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 2019;223:704-728.
  30. McLellan BC, Williams RP, Lay J, van Riessen A, Corder GD. Costs and carbon emissions for geopolymer pastes in comparison to ordinary Portland cement. *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 2011;19:1080–1090.
  31. Mehta A, Siddique R. Sustainable geopolymer concrete using ground granulated blast furnace slag and rice husk ash: Strength and permeability properties. *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 2018;205:49-57.
  32. Duxson P, Provis JL, Lukey GC, van Deventer JSJ. The role of inorganic polymer technology in the development of ‘green concrete’. *Cement and Concrete Research*. 2007;37:1590-1597.
  33. van Deventer JSJ, Provis JL, Duxson P, Brice DG. Chemical research and climate change as drivers in the commercial adoption of alkali activated materials. *Waste Biomass Valor* 1. 2010;145–55.
  34. Turner LK, Collins FG. Carbon dioxide equivalent (CO<sub>2</sub>-e) emissions: A comparison between geopolymer and OPC cement concrete. *Construction and Building Materials*. 2013;43:125–130.
  35. Rodriguez ED, Bernal SA, Provis JL, Paya J, Monzo JM, Borrachero MV. Effect of nanosilica-based activators on the performance of an alkali-activated fly ash binder, *Cement and Concrete Composites*. 2013;35:1–11.
  36. Hassan A, Arif M, Shariq M. Use of geopolymer concrete for a cleaner and sustainable environment: A review of mechanical properties and microstructure, *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 2019;223:704 -728.
  37. McLellan BC, Williams RP, Lay J, van Riessen A, Corder GD. Costs and carbon emissions for geopolymer pastes in comparison to ordinary Portland cement, *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 19 (2011)1080–1090.

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

38. Mehta A, Siddique R. Sustainable geopolymer concrete using ground granulated blast furnace slag and rice husk ash: Strength and permeability properties. *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 2018;205:49-57.

39. Duxson P, Provis JL, Lukey GC, van Deventer JSJ. The role of inorganic polymer technology in the development of ‘green concrete’ *Cement and Concrete Research*. 2007;37: 1590-1597.

40. van Deventer JSJ, Provis JL, Duxson P, Brice DG. Chemical research and climate change as drivers in the commercial adoption of alkali activated materials. *Waste Biomass Valor* 1. 2010;145–55.

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

## **Authors contribution**

Ndigui Billong: Conceptualization, investigation, methodology, writing of original draft;

Jonathan Oti: Conceptualization, project administration, funding acquisition, writing, review and editing;

John Kinuthia: Conceptualization, Supervision, review and editing;

Rukshane Navaratne: Conceptualization, review and editing;

Jiping Bai: Conceptualization, review and editing.



1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
61  
62  
63  
64  
65

**Funding:**

No funds, grants, or other support was received.

**Conflict of interest:**

There is no conflict of interest about this research