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Dedications

Thanks to "ALLAH" the most powerful, for giving me the will and guidance to follow the right path.

I dedicate this work:

To my parents who sacrificed everything for me; it is thanks to you that I am here and thanks to you that I will be away. You will always remain in my heart.

To my beloved family, my beloved brothers and sisters "Mahbouba, Souad, Daoud, Haroun, Said, Nafaa, Mouhcene and Merieme" who supported me during my studies.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table list

Figure list

List of abbreviation

General introduction

1.	LITER	ATURE REVIEW
1.1	Ba	ckground to the literature review6
1.2	Int	roduction6
1.3	The	e main classes of ceramics7
	1.3.1	Traditional ceramics (Aliminosilicates)8
	1.3.2	Technical ceramics10
1.4	Sai	nitary œramic bodies10
1.5	Cla	assification of sanitary ceramic bodies11
	1.5.1	Vitreous china
	1.5.2	Fine fire clay11
1.6	Ra	w materials for sanitary ceramic bodies12
	1.6.1	Plastic raw materials12
	1.6.2	Non-plastic raw materials14
1.7	Th	e manufacturing steps of sanitary ceramics18
	1.7.1	Slip Preparation19
	1.7.2	Drying of green bodies21
	1.7.3	Glazing22
	1.7.4	Sintering
	1.7.5	Decoration23
1.8	Ph	ysical-chemical changes during the sintering process23
1.9	Inc	dustrial solid wastes generation in Algeria24
1.10	Bla	ast furnace slag, soda-lime glass waste and sanitary ceramic waste in the ceramic
industr	ry. 27	
	1.10.1	Blast fumace slag (BFS)27
	1.10.2	Soda-lime glass waste (SLGW)
	1.10.3	Sanitary œramic waste (SCW)
1.11	Со	nclusion

2.	METH	ODOLOGY AND CHARACTERISATION OF RAW MATER	ALS 45
2.1	Int	roduction	46
2.2	Ch	aracterisation techniques	46
	2.2.1	X-ray fluoresœnœ spectrometry (XFS)	46
	2.2.2	Particle size analysis	46
	2.2.3	Thermal analyses	47
	2.2.4	X-ray diffraction (XRD)	
	2.2.5	Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)	49
	2.2.6	Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)	50
	2.2.7	Measurement of the humidity content of raw materials	51
	2.2.8	Measurement of the loss of ignition in raw materials	52
	2.2.9	Rheological properties of slips	52
	2.2.10	Drying Shrinkage	56
	2.2.11	Physical-mechanical characterisation after sintering	56
2.3	Rav	w materials and industrial wastes characterisation	60
	2.3.1	Raw materials characterisation	60
	2.3.2	Solid wastes characterisation	70
2.4	Со	nclusion	76
3. CERAN	EFFEC	T OF BLAST FURNACE SLAG ON THE QUALITY OF SAN	ITARY
3.1	Int	roduction	
3.2	Pro	oduction of sanitary ceramic bodies containing solid industrial wastes	
	3.2.1	Preparation of the slip	78
	3.2.2	Slip casting in plaster moulds	
	3.2.3	Drving.	
	3.2.4	Firing	
3.3	Eff	ect of blast fumace slag on the rheological parameters of the slip	
3.4	TD	A/TGA analysis of green ceramics	
3.5	Eff	ect of blast fumace slag on the physical properties of fired samples	
3.6	Fle	exural strength of fired samples	
3.7	X-r	ray Diffraction analysis	
3.8	SEI	M Analysis	
3.9	Inf	rared spectroscopic study	
3.10	Co	nclusion	

4. EFFECT OF SODA-LIME GLASS WASTE ON SANITARY CERAMIC BODIES 0

4.1	Introduction	96
4.2	Preparation of sanitary bodies from Soda-lime glass waste	
4.3	The melting behavior of feldspar and SLGW	97
4.4	SLGW effect on the rheological bahaviour of sanitary slip	
4.5	Effect of soda-lime glass waste on the physical properties of fired ceramic	s99
4.6	Effect of SLGW on the flexural strength of fired ceramics	
4.7	X-ray Diffraction analysis	
4.8	SEM Analysis	
4.9	Thermal analysis	
4.10	FTIR Spectroscopy	
4.11	Conclusion	
5. H	EFFECT OF SANITARY CERAMIC WASTE ON THE PROPERTI	ES OF
THEIR UN	GLAZED BODIES	110
5.1	Introduction	110
5.2		
	Preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies using their glazed waste	
5.3	Preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies using their glazed waste The effect of SCW on rheological properties of slip	
5.3 5.4	Preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies using their glazed waste The effect of SCW on rheological properties of slip Effect of SCW on the physical properties of the fired œramics	110 112 113
5.3 5.4 5.5	Preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies using their glazed waste The effect of SCW on rheological properties of slip Effect of SCW on the physical properties of the fired œramics Effect of SCW on the flexural strength of fired œramics	
5.3 5.4 5.5 5.6	Preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies using their glazed waste The effect of SCW on rheological properties of slip Effect of SCW on the physical properties of the fired œramics Effect of SCW on the flexural strength of fired œramics X-ray analysis of fired œramics	
5.3 5.4 5.5 5.6 5.7	Preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies using their glazed waste The effect of SCW on rheological properties of slip Effect of SCW on the physical properties of the fired œramics Effect of SCW on the flexural strength of fired œramics X-ray analysis of fired œramics SEM Analysis	
5.3 5.4 5.5 5.6 5.7 5.8	Preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies using their glazed waste The effect of SCW on rheological properties of slip Effect of SCW on the physical properties of the fired œramics Effect of SCW on the flexural strength of fired œramics X-ray analysis of fired œramics SEM Analysis FTIR Spectroscopy	110 112 113 113 114 115 116 118
5.3 5.4 5.5 5.6 5.7 5.8 5.9	Preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies using their glazed waste The effect of SCW on rheological properties of slip Effect of SCW on the physical properties of the fired œramics Effect of SCW on the flexural strength of fired œramics X-ray analysis of fired œramics SEM Analysis FTIR Spectroscopy Conclusion	110 112 113 113 114 115 116 118 120

<u>Tables list</u>

. 8
15
26
60
62
65
66
68
69
71
73
79
79
80
ed
84
96
97
98
11
11
12

Figures list

Figure 1: Example of traditional ceramics: (a)-Porcelain, (b)- wall tile, (c)- pottery, (d)-sanitary
ware9
Figure 2: Diagram with different ceramic compositions from the system clay or kaolin-feldspar-
quartz of the dependence on the temperature9
Figure 3: Some examples of technical ceramics10
Figure 4: Orientated layer of water in halloysite12
Figure 5: Order and disorder in kaolinite group minerals13
Figure 6: tetrahedral arrangement of feldspar14
Figure 7: Two crystal structures of SiO_4 tetrahedra drawn with the same unit cells
Figure 8: Phase transformation of SiO ₂ with temperature
Figure 9: Dependence of the specific volume on the temperature for quartz, cristobalite and
tridymite
Figure 10:Manufacturing steps of sanitary ceramics19
Figure 11: Milling of the mixture of the raw materials in the jars20
Figure 12: slip casting in plaster molds20
Figure 13: The slip casting process21
Figure 14: Industrial drying of sanitary bodies21
Figure 15: Glazing methods
Figure 16: Diagram illustrating densifying sintering22
Figure 17: Decoration technics
Figure 18: Landfill of Ouled Fayet (Algiers)25
Figure 19: Generation of iron and slag in blast furnace
Figure 20: Blast furnace slag, crystalized and vitrified
Figure 21: Soda lime glass, container glass and flat glass
Figure 22: Soda lime glass waste
Figure 23: Sanitary ceramic waste
Figure 24: Granulometer (HORIBA, model Analyzer LA- 960)
Figure 25: TA Instruments SDT-Q600 Simultaneous TGA / TDA
Figure 26: Empyrean Alpha 1 X-ray Diffractometer
Figure 27: Scanning Electron Microscope (JEOL JSM-7600F)
Figure 28: Spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV1800)
Figure 29: Sodium carbonate used in slip preparation
Figure 30: Sodium silicate used in slip preparation
Figure 31: Torsion viscometer (Gallenkamp type)
Figure 32 : Viscometer (Ford cup)
Figure 33: Example of green and fired ceramic bars for shrinkage and flexural testing
Figure 34: The firing curve for sanitary ceramics
Figure 35: Clay raw material
Figure 36: XRD patterns of Hycast VC Clay
Figure 37: RMB Kaolin raw material
Figure 38: XRD patterns of RMB Kaolin
Figure 39: IR spectrum of RMB kaolin
Figure 40: ParKaolin raw material

Figure 41: XRD patterns of ParKaolin	65
Figure 42: Sodium feldspar raw material.	66
Figure 43: XRD patterns of sodium feldspar.	67
Figure 44: Potassium feldspar raw material.	67
Figure 46: Sand of Bir El-Ater raw material	69
Figure 48: Milled blast furnace slag.	71
Figure 49: SEM micrographs of milled blast furnace slag with EDX microanalysis	72
Figure 50: Milled soda-lime glass waste	72
Figure 51: SEM micrographs of milled soda-lime glass waste with EDX microanalysis	73
Figure 52: Milled sanitary ceramic waste	74
Figure 53: SEM micrographs of sanitary ceramic waste with EDX microanalysis	75
Figure 54: Manufacturing steps of sanitary VC bodies	78
Figure 55: Schematic of a jar milling system using alumina balls.	81
Figure 56: Casting slip into the plaster mould and re-emptying the slip	81
Figure 57: samples drying at 105°C	82
Figure 58: Firing at 1230°C in an industrial tunnel kiln.	82
Figure 59: Variation of the fluidity for different mixtures depending on the ratio between	
electrolytes (Na ₂ CO ₃ / Na ₂ SiO ₃)	83
Figure 61: TDA analysis of the mixtures E1.E2.E3.E4 and E5.	84
Figure 63: Variation of water absorption and firing shrinkage for a ceramic heated at 1230°C	86
Figure 64: Variation of water absorption and firing shrinkage for a ceramic heated at 1230°C	87
Figure 65: Evolution of the flexural strength in the case of a ceramic heated at 1230°C	88
Figure 66: XRD patterns for heated samples containing BFS at 1230 °C	90
Figure 67: SEM-EDS analysis for E1 sample at 1230 °C	91
Figure 68: SEM-EDS analysis for E3 sample at 1230 °C	92
Figure 69: SEM-EDS analysis for E5 sample at 1230 °C	92
Figure 70: FTIR spectra of the ceramics E1.E2.E3.E4 and E5	93
Figure 71: Melting of feldspar and SLGW at 1230°C.	98
Figure 72: Bulk density and total porosity of the sintered samples	100
Figure 73: Water absorption and firing shrinkage of the sintered samples.	100
Figure 74: Evolution of the flexural strength of samples fired at 1230°C	101
Figure 75: XRD patterns for heated samples containing SLGW at 1230 °C	102
Figure 76: SEM analysis for VC sample at 1230 °C	103
Figure 77: SEM analysis for C2 sample at 1230 °C	103
Figure 78: SEM analysis for C3 sample at 1230 °C	104
Figure 79: SEM analysis for C4 sample at 1230 °C	104
Figure 80: SEM analysis for C5 sample at 1230 °C	105
Figure 81: TGA/DTG analysis of the mixture, with 0% of SLGW	106
Figure 83 : TGA/DTG analysis of the mixture, with 15% of SLGW	107
Figure 84: FTIR analysis of the mixtures with 0, 5, 10, 15and 20 % SLGW	108
Figure 85 : Variation of bulk density and total porosity with SCW content, for a ceramic heated	lat
1230°C	114
Figure 87 : Variation of flexural strength with SCW content for the samples heated at 1230°C	115
Figure 89 : SEM micrographs of VC, VC5, VC10, VC15 and VC20 samples	118
Figure 90: FTIR analysis of the ceramics with 0, 5, 10, 15 and 20 wt. % SCW	119

List of abbreviations

- **XFS:** X-ray fluorescence spectrometry
- **TDA:** Differential thermal analysis
- **TGA:** Thermogravimetric analysis
- **XRD:** X-ray diffraction
- **θ:** Bragg diffraction angle
- SEM: Scanning electron microscope
- FTIR: Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy
- H (%): Humidity content
- L.O.I (%): loss of ignition
- d: Rheological density
- **R** (%): Residue on a sieve
- Sh_d: Drying Shrinkage
- WA: water absorption
- **D**_A: apparent density
- **P**_t (%): Total porosity
- **D**_T: True density
- Sh_f: Firing shrinkage
- Fs: Flexural strength
- **BFS:** Blast furnace slag
- SLGW: Soda-lime glass waste
- SCW: Sanitary ceramic waste
- E1, VC: Sanitary ceramic body with 0 wt. % industrial waste
- E2: Sanitary ceramic body with 5 wt. % blast furnace slag
- E3: Sanitary ceramic body with 10 wt. % blast furnace slag
- E4: Sanitary ceramic body with 15 wt. % blast furnace slag
- E5: Sanitary ceramic body with 20 wt. % blast furnace slag

C2: Sanitary ceramic body with 5 wt. % soda-lime glass waste
C3: Sanitary ceramic body with 10 wt. % soda-lime glass waste
C4: Sanitary ceramic body with 15 wt. % soda-lime glass waste
C5: Sanitary ceramic body with 20 wt. % soda-lime glass waste
VC5: Sanitary ceramic body with 5 wt. % sanitary ceramic waste
VC10: Sanitary ceramic body with 10 wt. % sanitary ceramic waste
VC15: Sanitary ceramic body with 15 wt. % sanitary ceramic waste
VC15: Sanitary ceramic body with 15 wt. % sanitary ceramic waste
VC20: Sanitary ceramic body with 20 wt. % sanitary ceramic waste

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Background of the study

Ceramics may be defined as non-metallic and inorganic material produced by a firing process that gives them both rigidity and aesthetic properties. A high-temperature treatment is important to link all types of ceramic materials. Other factors, such as peak temperature, particles size distribution in addition to raw material properties, characterize the features of different ceramic products and their final applications. Generally, ceramics have some unique characteristics, which do not have metals or other solids; we can include a high melting point, good chemical inertness, high-temperature stability and electrical insulation ability [1].

Ceramics have a vast range of applications in modern technology and expect the demand for ceramics, is expected to increase strongly. They are grouped according to their mineralogical nature such as silicate, oxide, non-oxide, nitride and carbide. Besides, ceramics can also be categorized into traditional and advanced ceramics. Traditional ceramics are based on clay and silica, such as bricks, glass, tiles, table wares and sanitary wares. Advanced ceramics were developed to use in various fields such as biomedical (artificial bones and teeth), electrical and electronic devices. All these ceramic products are mostly manufactured by consuming a massive amount of raw materials. The oldest and most used raw material of traditional ceramic is a natural clay [2].

Sanitary ceramic ware are one of the most important applications of ceramic materials; they can be used as bathroom furniture in all kinds of buildings. They consist of two distinct parts: the ceramic body and the glazed surface. They are generally fired at about 1230°C to accelerate phase reactions, which are affected by the mineral composition of the raw materials, thus controlling the microstructure, technical and aesthetic properties of the final product [3].

The increase in production of ceramic materials over time, causes a depletion in natural resources. For this reason, recent studies are trying to find alternative materials to replace some of the natural raw materials to reduce their consumption. Recently, recycling and integrating industrial by-products into the ceramic industry is one of the proposed solutions to reduce environmental problems and make economical gains.

Problem statement

Ceramics are considered a high-quality material with excellent technical characteristics; World demand for its products is considerable. The production of sanitary ceramic bodies consumes large quantities of clay-kaolin, feldspar and quartz. The improvement of physical and mechanical properties by the incorporation of industrial wastes, is very important to save natural raw materials resources.

A huge volume of solid wastes is produced worldwide according to international statistics. For this reason, the integration of these wastes in various ceramic formulations, has been the subject of several studies. The most used are: red mud [4], fly ash[5], solid ceramic waste [6], glass waste[7] and blast furnace slag [8].

The clay-kaolin mixture is the principal raw material in sanitary ceramic bodies providing the plasticity necessary for the forming process. Feldspar helps to improve vitrification. Meanwhile, quartz works as a filler to reduce shrinkage during firing.

Generally, Feldspar is the next most significant raw material which acts as a flux agent that provides high vitrification by decreasing the melting temperature. Calcium, potassium and sodium feldspar are the most common fluxes used in ceramic composition; feldspars are useful for industries due to their alkali and alumina content [9].

The rich contents in blast furnace slag (BFS) of CaO, SiO₂ and Al₂O₃, in addition to Na₂O in soda-lime glass waste (SLGW) and sanitary ceramic waste (SCW), has motivated us to investigate these three wastes as substitutes raw materials to feldspar from 5 up to 20 wt. % in manufacturing new sanitary ware body

The work of this thesis falls within the framework of proposing solutions for the development and improvement of the quality of sanitary ceramic bodies produced in the sanitary ceramics factory of El-Milia-Jijel. Among the questions raised in the industry of sanitary ceramics, to develop it further, we have:

What is the optimum amount of industrial waste (BFS, SLGW and SCW) that can replace a raw material (feldspar) without affecting the technological properties of sanitary ceramic bodies?

- How to improve the physical-mechanical and structural properties, by using the adequate composition and how to control the glass-body interaction mechanism as it determines the quality of the final product?
- How do take into account possible changes in rheology, thermal cycle effects and chemical compatibility to enable an easy recovery of industrial waste in the sanitary ceramic industry?

Objectives of the study

This study aims to develop a new sanitary ceramic body by substituting feldspar with industrial wastes, such as: blast furnace slag (BFS), Soda-lime glass waste (SLGW) and sanitary ceramic waste (SCW) in the ceramic material composition. In order to achieve this goal, we must deal with the following problems :

- ✤ To control the rheological behaviour of the sanitary slip using Na-electrolytes. The combination of Na₂SiO₃ and Na₂CO₃ allows the understanding of the rheological properties when the addition of the industrial wastes.
- To define the optimum composition for obtaining good physical-mechanical and structural properties of fired ceramics.
- To evaluate the phase changes, thermal behavior and microstructure of ceramic bodies during the substitution of feldspar by these industrial wastes.

This investigation aims to reduce the depletion of natural raw materials; it also, leads to significant economic benefits by getting a less expensive ceramic body and reducing environmental pollution; we can added some technical benefits (improving the physical-mechanical properties and reducing the firing temperature) [10]. By the way, reducing the firing temperature allows us to make energy saving.

Scope of the study

This study consists of the following stages and areas of investigation:

> Industrial ceramic body composition: 52 wt. % of clay-Kaolin, 25 wt. % of quartz and 23 wt. % of feldspar (feldspar in replaced by various proportions of industrial wastes from 0 wt. % up to 20 wt. %).

 \succ First, the raw materials were prepared by measuring the humidity to obtain an adequate slip mixture. Then, the clay is diluted in parallel with the milling of the sand in a jar mill. After that, the feldspar and sand are added with the appropriate amount of water. Deflocculating agents are added to the slip mixture to improve the rheological slip properties; the agents are mainly Na-electrolytes.

> The effect of partial substitution of feldspar by blast furnace slag, soda-lime glass waste and sanitary ceramic waste, on the rheological behaviour of sanitary slip, requires measuring and controlling its various properties (density, fluidity, viscosity, thixotropy, thickness and the amount of electrolytes).

> The thermal behaviour of green ceramic bodies, assessed by differential thermal analysis and thermal weight (TDA/TG) using (TGA-DSC, Universal V4.5A TA Instruments) equipment for temperatures up to 1300 °C, with a heating rate of 5° C / min, in an atmosphere of air.

> The sintering temperature of sanitary ceramic bodies is 1230°C.

> The physical properties of fired ceramics investigated are: water absorption, linear shrinkage, apparent porosity and bulk density.

 \succ The mechanical property of fired samples and which interests us, is the flexural strength.

➢ Phase change, microstructure evolution and chemical bond variation of sanitary bodies are characterized using DRX, SEM and FTIR technics.

Following a general introduction, the thesis is structured as follows:

The first chapter includes an overview of the bibliographic research concerned with the study of sanitary ceramic bodies and their classifications as well as their manufacturing process. Then, this chapter gives a short synthesis of the transformations of sanitary ceramic bodies during the firing stage, a brief description of the chemical composition of ceramic bodies, the manufacturing steps, the rheological and the physicalmechanical properties of the sanitary bodies.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The second chapter is aimed at study of rheological properties of slip and various method of characterization of green and fired ceramics; in particular, we have the diffraction of X-rays (XRD), scanning electron microscope (SEM), Fourier transforms infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), differential thermal analysis (DTA), thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and derivative thermogravimetry (DTG). Then, follows the evaluation of the physical-mechanical properties of fired ceramic bodies, which are: bulk density, porosity, water absorption, shrinkage and flexural strength. In this chapter, we have given information on all the raw materials and industrial wastes used in this work. Among these materials are: Hycast VC clay, RMB kaolin, Parkaolin, quartz, sodium and potassium feldspar. The industrial wastes used are: the blast furnace slag which comes from El-Hadjar Iron-steel Factory, Algeria. While the soda-lime glass waste powder is from the factory of the African Glass Company (Jijel, Algeria).

The third chapter presents the experimental results and discussion of the effect of partial substitution of feldspar by blast furnace slag on the rheological behaviour of slip using Na-electrolytes. Moreover, this chapter aims to determine the optimum composition for obtaining better physical-mechanical, thermal and structural properties of fired ceramics.

The fourth chapter looks at the potential use of soda-lime glass waste, in the preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies as a partial substitute for feldspar from 5 up to 20 wt. % . Then, we have carried out various characterization analyses on our samples: rheological behavior, physical-mechanical properties, DRX, IRTF, SEM and thermal analysis ATG/DTG.

The fifth chapter studies various effects of sanitary ceramic waste on rheological, physical-mechanical and structural properties of vitreous china bodies.

We hope that this technical approach results will be applied in our ceramic factories. Indeed, this study opens new horizons for the use of these industrial wastes in the formulation of sanitary ceramic bodies with many environmental, economical and technical benefits; thus, the modest contribution to the sustainable development of our country.

Finally, the general conclusion summarizes the main results obtained and presents possible topics for future research work.

1.LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1 Background to the literature review

The literature review for this thesis will focus on the published research results concerning the properties of the raw materials used in the manufacture of sanitary bodies, the slip casting method and the manufacturing steps. In addition, the literature review will include a basic discussion on the properties of sanitary bodies during their firing. Furthermore, the use of two industrial wastes (blast furnace slag, soda-lime glass waste and sanitary ceramic waste) in the composition of sanitary ceramic bodies requires also a discussion about the required properties and the selection criteria that allow their incorporation as alternative materials.

1.2 Introduction

The principle of ceramic manufacturing is based on the properties of the mixture of clay and raw materials with water, in appropriate and accurate proportions; ceramic bodies can be formed and fired to obtain final products without deformation. The ceramic body is partially white few-porous, it was first produced in china centuries ago [11].

Today, ceramic materials are produced in many countries, using modern technologies. The improvement of ceramic products is still in progress and many research works are discussed and published continuously [12].

Traditional ceramics consist mainly of plastic raw materials (clay-kaolin), and nonplastic materials: feldspar and quartz. Plastic minerals are the main components of ceramics, they have an important function in imparting plasticity and malleability to the material during firing [13].

sanitary ceramic bodies are well known types of traditional ceramics. Their production is based on the raw materials which are relatively available and inexpensive. They are not very dense and they resist very high temperatures, where most metals lose their strength. Finally, they have physical, mechanical, chemical and thermal properties, which make them irreplaceable in many industries [14]. The approved method for the production of sanitary bodies is the casting process where the slip is poured into a plaster mold, which will absorb water via capillarity; a solid ceramic body is formed before the molds are removed. Following the casting process completion, the bodies are dried and glazed by spraying, to

improve physical-chemical resistance. Then, the ceramic wares are fired in a tunnel kiln. To finish, the products are colored according to the desired decoration [15].

Generally, the principal phases in sanitary bodies are the glassy phase, mullite and residual quartz. Mullite is the main constituent. It has a low expansion coefficient with high strength; this allows improvement in the technical characteristics of ceramic products [16].

Our study aims to recycle three industrial wastes (blast furnace slag, soda-lime glass waste and sanitary ceramic waste) to find the optimal composition for a new sanitary ceramic body, which is a vitrified product of good quality and which contains the following raw materials: Hycast VC clay, RMB kaolin, Parkaolin, sodium and potassium feldspar and quartz. In addition, we want to assess the effect of industrial waste on the behavior and durability of ceramic bodies subjected to high temperatures. We chose this study to achieve ceramic materials that contain industrial waste to help reduce the depletion of raw materials and to reduce pollution problems. This work aims also to improve the quality of the final sanitary ceramic bodies.

1.3 The main classes of ceramics

Originally, the most ceramic materials produced in the industry, are: sanitary ware, floors, wall tiles, tableware and building materials. From the beginning of the 20th century onwards, through research work in the field of materials, it has been possible to develop innovations in processes, compositions and structures to develop new ceramics. with very specific physical properties (electrical, thermomechanical, optical). These new materials are grouped under the generic term of technical ceramics. Innovative high-potential companies have been created from technology transfers from research laboratories, for the development of new applications [2].

The production of ceramics products from clay raw materials, is different from other materials by the method of preparation, which involves the following four steps:

1. Milling

- 2. Homogenization of raw materials.
- 3. Shaping of raw materials.
- 4. Densification by heat treatment [17].

The following table shows the major classes of ceramics:



Table 1 : The major classes of ceramics[18]

1.3.1 Traditional ceramics (Aliminosilicates)

Traditional ceramics are derived from natural raw materials (clay, feldspar, kaolin, quartz) and are generally produced by the casting slip method. "Traditional" ceramics are present in many fields of activity, such as building materials (bricks, tiles, etc.), sanitary ware, culinary products, cladding (tiles, earthenware, etc.) and refractories (kilns, etc.), they are made from natural silicate minerals [19].

Clay minerals are the main component in almost-all ceramic materials. Their specific properties, due to their colloidal nature in the presence of water, allow the shaping of ceramic products and ensure the cohesion of the raw materials.

Before the firing of the ceramics, it is necessary to eliminate the water that was used for forming, particularly when the quantity is large (in the case of slip). The drying cycle causes a significant or minor shrinkage according to the composition of the mixture. The firing is the final and decisive phase in the manufacturing process. Firing temperatures vary greatly depending on the product. From 800 to 1000°C for fired-clay and common pottery,

from 1100 to 1350°C for sanitary ware, wall tile and porcelain, 1500 to 2000°C and more for refractories and technical ceramics. Firing times are also very variable, depending on the type of product and kiln [2].



Figure 1: Example of traditional ceramics: (a)-Porcelain, (b)- wall tile, (c)- pottery, (d)sanitary ware.

Another overview of the various ceramics can be seen from the three-phase diagram of clay-kaolin, quartz and feldspar (Figure. 2).



Figure 2: Diagram with different ceramic compositions from the system clay or kaolinfeldspar-quartz in dependence of the temperature [20].

1.3.2 Technical ceramics

Technical ceramics are present in new fields and are in full expansion in areas such as electronics, aerospace, automotive and biomedical. Their compounds are essentially non-silicated and the raw materials used are synthetic (oxides, carbides, nitrides, etc.)

Products are most often obtained by sintering (thermo mechanical treatment which, in the first step, causes the cohesion of powder granules with an "agglomerate" prepared by cold compression, this blank being then heated in special furnaces) or electro fusion, the oxides are them poured directly into a mold [19].



Figure 3: Some examples of technical ceramics..

1.4 Sanitary ceramic bodies

Ceramic sanitary ware consists of an inner body, often covered by a glaze; they are usually fired in a tunnel kiln at high temperatures. This results in a high level of hardness, providing durability, even in public sanitation facilities. The hygienic smooth glaze makes the product resistant to abrasion and scratching and also, easy to clean.

Clay, feldspar, kaolin, chamote and quartz are the main raw materials for various sanitary ware bodies' composition. After vitrification, the process of sintering sanitary ware bodies is performed at temperatures up to 1230 °C. The firing process is important because it controls all properties such as microstructural, physical and mechanical are related to the densification degree and kinetics of sintering [21].

1.5 Classification of sanitary ceramic bodies

In general, sanitary ware can be divided into two classes:

1.5.1 Vitreous china

Vitreous china (sanitary porcelain) is the most common type used in sanitary-ware industry. It has a high amount of glassy phase which increases the body strength; this is the main cause for its use in the manufacture of toilet bowls. Vitreous china has less than 0.5% water absorption and a shrinkage with an average of 11.2%. As an industry standard, this high shrinkage means that vitreous china has a greater tendency to warp and distort. In other words, maintaining the shape particularly long or flat panels, is much harder to achieve [22, 23].

The raw mass contains plastic, melting and degreasing materials. The plastic materials represent 45 to 60 % of the composition. It consists of a combination of clay and kaolin. The clays confer plasticity and cohesion to the green body; it may also participate in the formation of the glassy phase during the thermal treatment. Kaolin improves the casting behaviour and enhances the over-fired whiteness of the body. The role of the melting feldspars (sodium and potassium), is to reduce the melting temperature. The vitreous phase results from the solid-phase reaction of melting feldspar with amorphous silica, at around 1050°C. A vitrification aid such as talc, is often used to improve vitrification kinetics and lower the firing temperature [23, 24].

1.5.2 Fine fire clay.

Fine fireclay contains chamotte (calcined clay) which reduces the glassy phase in the body. The low amount of liquid phase causes an increase in the porosity of the body; that makes fine fireclay absorb between 6% and 11% of water. The shrinkage of Fine Fireclay is much lower compared to Vitreous China (usually between 4% and 6%). Also, fine fireclay can maintain a flat and straight surface more easily [23, 25].

Generally, fine fire clay consist of a mixture of fired clay/kaolin (chamotte), white clay, kaolin and quartz. Thermal expansion is controlled by changing the amount of quartz used. Fine fire clay material is one of the best solution for manufacturing trendy sanitary-wares. Chamotte reduces deformation of large ceramic bodies such as bathtubs, large sinks (generally greater than 100 cm) and kitchen sinks, etc [22].

1.6 Raw materials for sanitary ceramic bodies

1.6.1 Plastic raw materials

1.6.1.1 Clay

Clays are the most important raw materials for the manufacture of ceramic products, which have a fine-grained type of natural soil material containing clay minerals that develop plasticity when wet, due to a molecular layer of water around the clay particles. They have a secondary geological origin; they were formed by the degradation of volcanic rocks, caused by erosion and chemical alteration, under the action of atmospheric agents [26].

Clays are more or less hydrated alumino-silicates. The majority of clay minerals belong to the group of phyllite silico-aluminates. They are arranged in planes, consisting of tetrahedral and octahedral structural units connected by their peaks; this type of structure is very specific and has particular physicochemical characteristics. This explains the capacity of clays to allow many exchanges of cations and anions in the lattice.

The structure of clays is formed from elementary structural elements: silica tetrahedra (SiO_4) and aluminium octahedra $(Al(OH)_6)$. Water layers are often interposed between the sheets, which is the reason for the plastic properties of the clays. This characteristic is particularly exploited in the moulding of traditional ceramics from slip [27].



Figure 4: Orientated layer of water in halloysite. Bottom: Tetrahedra layer; top: Octahedra layer from the further unit [28].

1.6.1.2 Kaolin

Kaolins are basically rocks composed, principally, of the kaolin group of minerals, namely: kaolinite, halloysite, dickite and nacrite. The main constituent of kaolin is kaolinite having as structural formulae Al₂O₃.2SiO₂.2H₂O or Si₂Al₂O₅ (OH) 4.

Kaolin is primarily used in domestic ceramics, as it is the main source for the production of most refractory materials. The typical chemical species of interest for refractories, is aluminous kaolinite, which is the basic element of most clays used in the ceramic industry [29, 30]. This rock is in the form of hexagonal tablets (Figure. 5).



Figure 5: Order and disorder in minerals of kaolinite group [28].

Several studies have been made on the behaviour of kaolin during the firing stage. The first reaction in this series of transformations, is the endothermic reaction in the temperature range 450-600 °C; it is due to the liberation of all the constitutive water contained in the kaolinite with the formation of dehydroxylated kaolinite. defined as meta-kaolinite (Al₂O₃.2SiO₂).

Al₂O₃.2SiO₂.2H₂O
$$450-600$$
 °C Al₂O₃ .2SiO₂ + 2H₂O (g)(1) (méta-kaolinite)

The start of the structural reorganization of meta-kaolinite is at a temperature of about 980 °C, with an exothermic reaction resulting in a spinel structure.

$$\begin{array}{cccc} Ab_2O_3.2SiO_2 & \underline{980 \ ^\circ C} & 3Ab_2O_3.2SiO_2 + \gamma - Ab_2O_3 & + & SiO_2 \dots \dots \dots (2) \\ (meta-kaolinite) & (primary mullite) (spinel) (amorphous silica) \end{array}$$

The transformation above at 1100 °C, is due to the formation of cristobalite according to the following reaction:

 $(3Al_2O_3.2SiO_2) + 4SiO_2 \qquad 1100 \text{ °C} \qquad (3Al_2O_3.2SiO_2) + 4SiO_2....(3) \\ (mullite) \qquad (cristobalite)$

Above 1500°C cristobalite is transformed to amorphous glass by the following reaction [24]:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (3Al_2O_3 .2SiO_2) + 4SiO_2 & \underline{1500^{\circ}C} \\ (mullite) & (cristobalite) \end{array} \qquad (3Al_2O_3 .2SiO_2) + 4SiO_2 \dots \dots (4) \\ (mullite) & (amorphous glass) \end{array}$$

1.6.2 Non-plastic raw materials

1.6.2.1 Melting materials

1.6.2.1.1 Feldspars:

These are minerals consisting of sodium, potassium or calcium silico-aluminates. Their vitrifying action varies according to the nature of the melting element. The purest feldspars bake white and melt at various temperatures, generally above 1200°C, into a viscous glass [31].

Potassium feldspar (orthoclase): 6SiO₂Al₂O₃ K₂O
Sodium feldspar (Albite): 6SiO₂Al₂O₃ Na₂O
Calcium feldspar (anorthite): 2SiO₂Al₂O₃ CaO

Feldspars are groups of two, four or six silica molecules connected to an alumina molecule and an alkali metal oxide (potassium, sodium, calcium or lithium).



Figure 6: tetrahedral arrangement of feldspar [32].

Feldspar is the most important material in the manufacture of ceramics, after clay. As it does not have a specific melting point, it melts gradually as the temperature changes. This property facilitates the melting of quartz and clays. Feldspars are used as fluxes to form a glassy phase at low temperatures. They increase the strength, toughness and solidity of the ceramic core and also, cement the crystalline phase and the other ingredients, while softening, melting and liquefying the other constituents [24, 33].

A selection of feldspars found in nature is summarized in Table 2.

			Lattice	constants	Density	Refractive	
Mineral	Chemical	Crystal			(20 °C)	nuex	Annotations
ivincerui	formula	system	а	α	(20 C)	п	Amotations
	lonnulu	system	D a [Å]	β	[g/cm-]	a n	
			C[A]	γ		в	
						nγ	
Microcline	K[AlSi ₃ O ₈]	triclinic	8,57	90° 41'	2,57	1,514	Stable low-temperature
			12.98	115° 59'		1.518	modification. ordered
			,			_,	,
			7,22	87° 30'		1,521	Stable high-temperature
Sanidine	K[AlSi₃O ₈]	monoclinic	8,56	-	2,57	1,521	modification,
			13,03	115° 59'		1,527	disordered
			7,18	-		1,527	
Albite	Na[AlSi₃O ₈]	triclinic	8,14	94° 19'	2,62	1,528	Stable low-temperature
			12,79	116° 34'		1,532	modification,
			7,16	87° 39'		1,538	ordered
Analbite	Na[AlSi ₃ O ₈]	triclinic	8,23	94° 03'	2,62	1,527	Instable
			13,00	116° 20'		1,532	modification,
			7,25	88° 09'		1,534	unordered
Monalbite	Na[AlSi₃O ₈]	monoclinic	7,25	-		1,523	stable high-
			12,98	116° 07'		1,528	temperature
			6,41	-		1,529	modification,
							unordered
Anorthite	$Ca[Al_2Si_2O_8]$	triclinic	8,18	93° 10'	2,77	1,576	ordered
			12,88	115° 51'		1,583	
			14,17	91° 13'		1,589	
Celsian	Ba[Al ₂ Si ₂ O ₈]	monoclinic	8,65	-	3,8	1,587	
			13,13	115° 02'		1,593	
			14,60	-		1,600	

Table 2: Pro	perties	of some	feldspars	[28].
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1.6.2.1.2 Chalk

These rocks consist of calcium carbonate or calcite; they are found in a large proportion in the main exploitation of sediments in the Paris and Aquitaine basin. Their formula is CaCO₃[31].

1.6.2.1.3 Mica

Micas are a group of minerals whose outstanding physical characteristics; individual mica crystals can easily be split into extremely thin elastic plates. This characteristic is described as perfect basal cleavage. Mica is common in igneous and metamorphic rock and is occasionally found as small flakes in sedimentary rock.

Formula in oxides (muscovite): 6 SiO₂, 3Al₂O₃, K₂O, 2H₂O.

1.6.2.1.4 Talc

It enhances clays crystallizations, which confer to the shard a good resistance to thermal shock with a low expansion [31].

Formula of talc in oxides : 4 SiO₂, 3MgO H₂O.

1.6.2.2 Degreasing materials

The role of these materials is to reduce shrinkage caused by the plasticity of the clay. The addition of these agents to clays, generally, has the effect of improving some properties of the raw body, facilitating the drying of the products by facilitating the diffusion of water, during the drying process.

1.6.2.2.1 Quartz

Silica is the most abundant compound on the earth's surface, in its free state; it is, mainly, found in the crystallized form as α -quartz (in quartzite), but it is also found in the composition of a large number of natural and artificial substances. Thus, it is an essential component of kaolin, mica and feldspar in their natural state. It is also, a basic constituent of natural materials transformed by firing to give refractory materials.

Quartz originates from a three-dimensional linkage of SiO_4 tetrahedra. The figures shown in figure. 7 describe again the distance from the base level.



Figure 7: Two crystal structures of SiO₄ tetrahedra drawn with the same unit cells, viewed down a common [001] direction [34].

SiO₂ can be found in different crystallographic structures (Figure. 8). Low temperature transformation of quartz (β -quartz) into α -quartz takes place at a temperature of 573° C; there is just a marginal shift of silicon and oxygen ions. At the high temperature of 870°C we have the transformation of quartz to tridymite. In this case, new bonds are formed. Therefore, this process does not happen very quickly, while the transformation from α -quartz into β -quartz is quick and unavoidable. Reconversion of tridymite into quartz can be prevented, if it is cooled very quickly, leaving no time for the structure to reconvert. Further transformations are related to α -cristobalite at 1,470°C, and SiO₂ melting at 1,713°C. Such transformations cause tremendous problems for the sintering of ceramic products, because they are partly combined with major volume changes. Quartz inversion at 573°C, leads to a volume expansion of 0.8 %. This may, indeed, cause cracks in the porcelain during the cooling stages, after sintering. This problem is accentuated during the quartz transformation into cristobalite or tridymite, with a volume expansion of more than 15 % (figure. 9); after sintering, this causes stresses in the structure and destroys the components during cooling [20].



Figure 8: Phase transformation of SiO₂ with temperature [28].



Temperature (°C)

Figure 9: Dependence of the specific volume on the temperature for quartz, cristobalite and tridymite [28].

1.6.2.2.2 Chamotte

Chamotte, also known as fire-clay and Grog, is a raw material for making ceramics. It has a high percentage of silica and alumina. It can be produced by firing selected fire clays or recycled production residues, at high temperature before grinding and screening to specific particle sizes. It is added to clay, in a defined percentage to make a limitation of shrinkage, improvement of drying and stability during the firing stage [35].

1.7 The manufacturing steps of sanitary ceramics

The necessity of obtaining a product with a homogeneous structure, means using raw materials with a small particle size. Thus, grinding and mixing operations are essential in the manufacturing process of ceramics. Figure 10 illustrates the manufacturing steps of sanitary ceramics.



Figure 10:Manufacturing steps of sanitary ceramics [36].

Generally. The steps of sanitary ceramic production can be summarized as follows:

1.7.1 Slip Preparation

The sanitary ceramics production is generally based on the preparation of the slip from a mixture of clay-kaolin plastic (kaolin 15-20 wt. % and clay 30-35 wt. %) and others non-plastics 25 wt. % quartz and 25 wt. % feldspar, with a suitable amount of water.

For the ceramic raw materials to react homogeneously and quickly throughout the manufacturing process, they must have a very fine and regular particle size. There are several grinding systems; the most common in the ceramic industry is the so-called "alsing" or ball mill.

The raw material is introduced, with a grinding charge represented by (alumina balls of different diameters), into a cylinder rotating on its horizontal axis. The friction caused by the movement of the balls mass on the raw material, ensures its fragmentation, which depends on the speed and time of grinding.



Figure 11: Milling of the mixture of the raw materials in the jars.

The rheology of slip is affected by the composition and properties of raw materials. Besides, several types of electrolytes such as sodium silicate and sodium carbonate are added to improve various rheological properties. Afterwards, the slip is poured into a plaster mold, which will absorb water via capillarity; a solid ceramic body is formed before the molds are removed [37, 38].



Figure 12: slip casting in plaster molds.



Figure 13: The slip casting process (schematic)[28].

1.7.2 Drying of green bodies

After the green ceramic bodies are formed, the drying process is started, the evaporation of water leads to the convergence of the particles, causing shrinkage. The choice of drying technique is important, as it is energy intensive (to provide the latent heat of evaporation). Today, industrial drying with hot air is most common method. Generally, drying is done at temperatures between 90° and 130°C, with the possibility of recovering the hot air from the kiln.



Figure 14: Industrial drying of sanitary bodies.

1.7.3 Glazing

Sanitary ceramic bodies surfaces are relatively mat and rough. Therefore, they need to be glazed is glazed to seal the surface. After glazing, the bodies are often decorated and color prints are applied. During glazing, the ceramic bodies are dipped in a glass powder suspension; the glaze can be applied either by immersion or by spraying. For small amounts of bodies, glazing is performed manually while for large amounts, automatically (Figure.15) [24].



Figure 15: Glazing methods.

1.7.4 Sintering

Sintering is the last phase of the production cycle of sanitary ceramics; the most critical operation during which the materials are heated to high temperatures (up to 1250°C), so that a series of complex chemical and physical transformations can occur. As a result of these changes, ceramic sanitary ware achieve their final characteristics: - hardness and mechanical strength - abrasion resistance - fusion of the glazes - non-absorbency of the body (at least for that of vitreous china).

Sintering can be considered as an operation, which consists in transforming a shaped material into a ceramic product (dense or porous) with a certain mechanical strength. It is a process of consolidation without total fusion, as shown in figure 16. The consolidation due to the development of links (or necks) between the grains, is often accompanied by a densification (elimination of the pores) and a coarsening of the grains (decrease of the number of grains).



Figure 16: Diagram illustrating densifying sintering [19].

1.7.5 Decoration

Various techniques can be used to apply the colors to sanitary ceramic products. Direct techniques, include manually or by direct or indirect printing on the surfaces of sanitary ware.



Figure 17: Decoration techniques.

1.8 Physical-chemical changes during the sintering process

The raw materials used in ceramic bodies, are usually complex mixtures of clay minerals with other mineral materials such as quartz, feldspars, carbonates, gypsum, iron oxides and sometimes-organic materials.

➢ 30°C - 150 °C

When clay-based ceramics products are fired in a kiln, the residual humidity is removed at this temperatures range. After this step, the body should not contain more than 1% humidity.

➢ 150°C - 550°C

This temperature leads to the loss of chemical water, and the transformation of the crystal structure of kaolin, thus the phase transformation into a new phase with high reaction capacity, which is the metakaolin Al₂O₃ .2SiO₂.

In ceramic bodies which have a composition (50% mass of kaolinite clay, 25% mass of feldspar and 25% mass of quartz), Metakaolin is formed by dehydroxilation of kaolin clay in the temperature range 450-550 °C [39].

 $Al_2O_3.2SiO_2.2H_2O$ (kaolinite) $Al_2O_3.2SiO_2$ (méta-kaolinite) $+ 2H_2O$ (g)
> 550°C - 700°C

Then at 573°C, α quartz transforms to β quartz. The decomposition of biotic carbonates and micas in the clay, also begins at this stage.

➢ 700°C - 1050°C

Calcium carbonate and magnesium in ceramic bodies begins to decompose.

> 950°C − 1100°C

At this temperature, the vitreous phase formation and the shrinkage of bodies start.

➤ 1100°C - 1250°C

At this high temperature, the silica melts and forms glass and a strong shrinkage occurs. At the same temperature, the spinel phase transforms to form mullite. The cristobalite and the amorphous silica form the residual quartz. A sufficient soak time is given to even out the temperature in all areas of the sanitary ware body [40, 41].

1.9 Industrial solid wastes

Sanitary ceramics are the most common in daily life; they are used everywhere. The population growth in the world requires an increase in the production of these products. All this may cause a depletion of raw materials over time. For these reasons, more research is needed among the scientific community, to find new resources or alternative materials that meet the standards and needs [42].

In general, the increase of solid wastes produced by various industries requires ecological management and forward vision. Solid wastes are produced by chemical, metallurgical, cement, ceramic, glass, food processing, paint, pharmaceutical, textile and petroleum industries. Solid waste can be classified into two broad categories: organic and inorganic. Mostly, organic waste comes from food processing plants, paper mills and textile industries. Moreover, inorganic wastes include wastes resulting from metals, ceramics, glasses and some chemicals manufacturing [43]. The volume of inorganic waste (from construction and demolition activities and from mining and quarrying) across Europe, exceeds 1500 million tons [44].Inorganic waste does not decompose, usually taking more than 500 years to decompose [45].

The growth in industrial activities has increased the amount of solid waste generated in Algeria, particularly in the capital and major cities. From the national register of industrial and hazardous waste, the total industrial waste generation, including both non-hazardous and inert industrial waste, is 2,547,000 tons annually[46]. The source of these wastes can be assumed to be as follows:

- 50 % Steel, metallurgical, mechanical and electrical industry.
- 5 % Construction materials industry.
- 2 % Chemical and plastics industry.
- 29 % Food and tobacco industry.
- 14 % Textiles, confection, leather, shoes and paper industry [46].

The National Waste Agency (AND) reports that each inhabitant produces 0.9 kg/day of solid waste for urban areas and 0.6 kg/day for rural areas. The production of solid wastes in the capital is close to 1.2 kg/day [47].



Figure 18: Landfill of Ouled Fayet (Algiers)[48].

Considering the most densely populated wilaya's, their current and future waste generation can be approximated as summarized in following table:

	2016			2028	
	population (mln)	waste production (ton/year)	population (mln)	waste production (ton/year)	
Algiers	3,600	1.314.000	5,542	2.256.821	
Oran	1,752	639.480	2,697	1.098.320	
Blida	1,208	440.920	1,860	757.289	
Constantine	1,130	412.450	1,740	708.391	
Boumerdès	0,966	352.590	1,487	605.580	
Annaba	0,734	267.910	1,130	460.141	
Total	9,390	3.427.350	14,455	5.886.543	

Table 3 : Waste generation in 6 wilaya's with the most dense population [49].

Industrial waste is dealt with through laws and orders; technical backfill centers are established locally in all wilaya's. Their role is to receive, sort and landfill these wastes. The operation of such a center is as follows: the wastes are transferred to a separation line after the process of weight, storing and verification. PET, metals and other recyclables are sorted, mainly by hand. Finally, the organic wastes are carefully buried [49].

Until now, the recycling and valorisation of building materials wastes and glass wastes in Algeria, is not engaged by any factory. This is a source of concern and a motivation to study the mechanisms of recovery of these wastes [49].

In this thesis, we have investigated the recycling and valorization of 3 industrial wastes as partial substitutes for feldspar in the composition of sanitary ceramic bodies. These wastes are the blast furnace slags (from the El-Hadjar factory, Annaba, Algeria). Soda-lime glass wastes (from the African glass factory, Jijel, Algeria) and sanitary ceramic wastes (from the sanitary ceramic factory, Jijel, Algeria).

1.10 Blast furnace slag, soda-lime glass waste and sanitary ceramic waste in the ceramic industry.

The chemical and mineral compositions of certain inorganic industrial wastes are similar to those of some raw materials; this is what guides us in selecting which waste as a partial substitute material in the composition of various types of ceramics. Blast furnace slags, Soda-lime glass wastes and sanitary ceramic wastes have a chemical composition rich in various elementswhich enhance the performance of the products, when they are incorporated in ceramic slip composition. In this way, many types of ceramics have been prepared from these wastes.

1.10.1 Blast furnace slag (BFS)

Blast furnace slag is a by-product of the iron production. The annual worldwide production is around 390. 000 million tons [50]. In the north-east of Algeria in particular, the El-Hadjar Iron Factorie produces over 700 million Kg/year of BFS [51]. Each ton of steel can produce about 300 to 900 kg of blast furnace slag. In blast furnaces, iron ore is transformed into coke between 1350°C and 1550°C to form raw iron while the combination of silica and alumina with lime and magnesium, form molten slag (Figure. 19). Afterwards, the raw iron settles in the lower part of the furnace, due to its high density of about 7, while the molten slag floats in the higher part, because of its low density compared to the raw iron which is 3. Finally, the molten slag is separated from the cast iron and cooled [52].



Figure 19: Generation of iron and slag in blast furnace.

According to the cooling process, the slag can be divided into two parts: crystalline and vitrified (granular) (Fig 26). Slag slowly crystallizes, in open air, into a hard rock after

solidification begins, then crumbles crushes and sifts. It can then be used as aggregate (used in sub-road piles for example). However, a slag is said to be vitrified, if it is cooled or quenched suddenly (water sprayed abundantly at a high pressure of 0.6 MPa); more than 80% of amorphous structure is formed. Therefore it has an internal energy higher than that of the crystalline state, which makes it more reactive chemically and having latent hydraulic properties [53].



Figure 20: Blast furnace slag, crystalized and vitrified [54].

The main constituents of blast furnace slag include CaO (30-50 %), SiO₂ (28-38 %), Al_2O_3 (8-24 %) and MgO (1-18 %). Usually, the increase of CaO content in the slag leads to an increase in basicity and compressive strength of the slag. MgO and Al_2O_3 contents show the same effect up to 10-12 % and 14 % respectively [55, 56].

The rich content in CaO, SiO_2 and Al_2O_3 of blast furnace slag and its low cost as industrial waste, motivated researchers to conduct studies on its incorporation and valorization in the formulation of various ceramics. In this respect, many scientists have demonstrated that the use of BFS as a substitute material enhances the microstructure and physical properties and therefore, the success of the product.

1.10.1.1 Blast furnace slag in glass-ceramic

In 2004, A.A. Francis found that blast furnace slag (BFS), with its varied chemical and crystalline composition, could transform into a glass-ceramic material. Barium aluminium silicate, diopside pyroxene and gehlenite, were identified as the main crystalline phases. The level of crystallisation was estimated according to the evaluation of density changes at different temperatures; a maximum density was reached at 900 C [57].

In 2009, Liu et al incorporated blast furnace slag with 5 wt.% potassium feldspar in the composition of the glass-ceramic, this enhanced the sintering properties and contributed to the formation of gehlenite (2CaO. Al_2O_3 . SiO₂) as the main phase. This combination also leads to a high flexural strength of 85 MPa, a high hardness of 5.2 GPa and a water absorption smaller than 0.14% [52].

In 2011, glass-ceramics were also produced using molten BFS up to 90 wt. % with about 10 wt. % silica sand by Zhao et al. The sensible heat of the molten BFS reduces significantly energy consumption. The crystallisation process happens at 960°C, where the main crystalline phases were akermanite and diopside. The strength of glass-ceramic obtained with the mixture (84 wt. % BFS-8.48 wt. % SiO₂) was also improved, up to 120 MPa using 7.6% CaF₂ addition [58].

In 2021, CaO-MgO-Al₂O₃-SiO₂ glass-ceramic has been produced from BFS, which was used as starting material. The findings indicate an early crystallisation at 980°C with high corrosion resistance and have acid and alkaline resistance of 96.64% and 99.41%, respectively. Moreover, this incorporation of BFS as a raw material leads to preparing ceramic-glass using one-step method, which is extremely important for saving energy and waste valorisation [59].

1.10.1.2 Blast furnace slag in traditional porcelain

Dana et al proved that the partial substitution of feldspar by BFS, in a triaxial porcelain formulation (45 wt.% Clay-Kaolin, 30 wt.% feldspar and 25 wt.% quartz) enhances strength up to 60 Mpa by 5 wt.% BFS addition. that is due to the stronger pre-stress from the difference in the coefficient of thermal expansion between the glassy phase, quartz and the formed anorthite. The density was also improved by the early glazing [60].

New low-cost porcelain, with no traditional fluxes and containing 30, 50 and 70 wt. % BFS, was produced at 1200 °C. A high crystallinity material was formed by the presence of pyroxene and anorthite solid solutions. Flexural strength and hardness increase with the BFS incorporation amount. Ceramic with 70 wt. %, achieved the most positive results, which could be attributed to its fine crystalline structure and the additional crystallisation upon the cooling process[8].

Mixed BFS-kaolin was used to prepare new ceramic by the traditional firing process. Combination of BFS with 10wt. % kaolin gives gehlenite ($Ca_2Al_2SiO_7$) as the main phase with a gradual appearance of anorthite with increasing kaolin contents. The melting of BFS is at a low temperature of 800–900 °C; this affects the sintering process such as the formation of the early glassy phase, which enhances the densification of the ceramic. The mixture BFS- 10 wt.% kaolin was found to be the optimal ceramic composition with high physical-mechanical and structural properties [61].

In 2014, Siddiqui et al produced traditional porcelain with a ceramics composition: (45 wt. % kaolin, 25 wt. % fly ash and 30 wt. % feldspar), then feldspar was substituted by BFS up to 20 wt. % which enhanced various physical properties. The ceramic body containing a combination of BFS and feldspar has the maximum strength (90 MPa) caused by the existence of mullite particles and a reduced number of fractures resulting from the high difference in the coefficient of thermal expansion between the formed anorthite, quartz and glassy matrix during the cooling process [62].

1.10.1.3 Blast furnace slag in ceramic tiles and wall tiles

The ceramic tiles were produced from a mixture of granulated BFS and ordinary clay. The optimal physical-mechanical properties were obtained when the lime/silica ratio is in the interval of 0.1–0.3. Tiles containing 50 wt. % granulated BFS recorded a high mechanical strength by the formation of a great number of fine grains embedded in the vitreous matrix. The use of kaolin with BFS helps to enhance the formation of the liquid phase, which is reduced when using BFS alone [63]. 2002

Unglazed ceramic tiles based on granulated BFS and clay mixture have been prepared with 0 to 100 wt. % BFS. The crystalline phases of the standard unglazed tile was mullite with the formation of anorthite, gehlenite and wollastonite during the addition of BFS. Ceramic with 60 to 100 wt. % BFS, can be used in tile formulations as they meet the requirements of standard tile properties, such as water absorption, thermal shock (Harcourt), the freeze-thawand efflorescence[64].2007

In 2005, Dana et al substituted feldspar-quartz by including BFS-fly ash wastes in the same composition of traditional porcelain tiles (45 wt. % Clay-Kaolin, 30 wt.% feldspar and 25 wt.% quartz); this substitution enhances anorthite phase formation and improves the mechanical strength by the effect of stronger pre-stress between glassy phase, mullite and

the formed anorthite. The addition of two combined wastes in porcelain composition, provokes the early vitrification process at 1175°C by the effect of mixed quartz-mullite in fly ash with alkaline earth oxides in BFS. This early vitrification reduces the thermal energy without affecting the physical-mechanical properties [65].

In 2015, Ozturk et al showed that ceramic wall tiles can be produced using 33 wt. % BFS instead of a kaolin-limestone mixture, which reduces water absorption and increases bending strength by 25%. BFS is considered a source of anorthite phase, formed by its high content in CaO. The anorthite crystallisation enhances the strength and chemical stability of the ceramic body and reduces the thermal expansion coefficient [66].

1.10.1.4 Blast furnace slag in porcelain stoneware, refractory ceramic and sanitary ware bodies.

In 2016, Pal et al synthetized a porcelain stoneware using the composition mass (45% kaolin, 40% feldspar and 15% quartz) with a progressive substitution of feldspar by BFS up to 30%. The peaks of kaolin dehydroxylation and mullite crystallisation were not affected by BFS addition. The thermal expansion rate of porcelain containing BFS was lower (0.35–0.37 %) than that of standard porcelain (0.437 %) attributed to the formation of anorthite crystals. Moreover, a high flexural strength (81 MPa) was recorded from samples containing 30 wt. % BFS; this results from the difference in thermal expansion coefficient between mullite, glassy phase and the formed anorthite [39].

In 2021, conventional ceramic refractory was prepared by replacing fine clay with BFS up to 20 wt.%. The incorporation of 10 wt.% BFS, was found to be the optimal composition that enhances various physical-mechanical properties, including a bulk density of 2.61 g/cm³, an apparent porosity of 10.64%, a water absorption of 4.08% and a mechanical strength of 94.5 MPa. CaO-rich BFS provides a denser ceramic matrix by reducing the porosity through the crystallization of anorthite with the silica-rich liquid phase, thus improving mechanical resistance by about 74% [67].

Sanitary ceramic bodies were synthetized by the substitution of sodium feldspar with 15 wt. % of BFS and 4 wt. % % spodumene. The flexural strength increased approximately by 67% and the thermal expansion coefficient values were reduced approximately by 17%. This is significant for the stability of the final product. BFS with spodumene decrease both

raw material and energy costs by reducing the firing temperature by about 60°C and improves physical-mechanical properties [21].

1.10.2 Soda-lime glass waste (SLGW)

Waste glass is generally considered as a highly recyclable material in the manufacture of the same product. As a very high proportion, without affecting the technical characteristics and the quality. It has been evaluated by the Glass Packaging Institute (2015), that about one ton of natural raw material can be saved by the use of ton of recycled glass, in the manufacture of new glass products [68].

Soda lime glass is the most common and most used in daily life; thus, it is available at a low cost. It is manufactured by melting limestone (CaCO₃), silica sand (SiO₂), sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃). Soda-lime glass is technically classified as: flat glass for windows, glass for containers or container glass. These two types of glass are different in their applications and their manufacturing methods (float glass for windows, blowing and pressing glass for containers) [68].



Figure 21: Soda lime glass, container glass and flat glass.

The increase in the production over time, is accompanied by an increase in waste production. According to statistics, the volume of glass waste generated in the European Union in 2014, is nearly 18.5 million tons [68]. The continuous increase in the generation of waste glass worldwide, requires its use in various fields of recycling. In addition to its use in construction, recent studies have shown promising results for using waste glass in the manufacture of various types of ceramics.

CHAPTER I

Soda-lime glass waste is one of the most common glass wastes, generally, coming from containers and flat glass. However, although they have similar chemical compositions, the different sizes, colors and shapes of packaging containers, make the recycling of waste glass containers more difficult than recycling flat glass waste.



Figure 22: Soda lime glass waste.

The composition of soda lime glass waste is very rich in SiO₂, alkali-alkaline earth oxides (CaO and Na₂O). In the ceramic industry, the amount of alkali–alkaline earth oxides is very significant in improving the glassy phase and reduce firing temperature. For these reasons, many researchers have investigated the recycling and incorporation of soda-lime glass waste in various ceramics.

1.10.2.1 Soda-lime glass waste in glass-ceramic

Glass-ceramic was prepared from coal ash and SLGW in the range 20 to 60 wt. %. The XRD analyses of the glass with 100 wt. % ash, revealed cristobalite as the main phase with small quantities of mullite, Ca(Al, Fe)₁₂O₁₉ and hematite. Glass-ceramic with 20 wt. % SLGW reduced cristobalite phase and replaced it by the main phase Al₂SiO₅, forming the solid solution of albite (NaAlSi₃O₈)-anorthite (CaAl₂Si₂O₈) with a small amorphous phase at 25°. With 40 wt. % SLGW addition, the solid solution albite-anorthite is the main element with a small formation of pyroxene. The solid solution albite-anorthite is well developed with augite Ca(Mg,Fe)Si₂O₈ as the secondary crystalline phase (augite peak intensity is~20% of albite-anorthite peak) in glass containing 60 wt. % SLGW. The formation of solid solution albite-anorthite increases with soda-line glass waste addition [69].

Wollastonite glass-ceramics were produced by mixing SLGW powder from the waste of window glass with a synthetic crystallisation promoter. The promoter has a chemical composition of 30 wt. % kaolin, 50 wt. % CaCO₃, 10 wt.% BaCO₃ and 10 wt.% ZnO. SLGW was combined with 12, 15, 20 and 25 wt. % crystallization promoter, to prepare four glass-ceramics. The optimal composition is 85 wt. % SLGW with 15 wt. % crystallization promoter at 850°C; this improved the compressive strength 247 MPa, bending strength 119 MPa, hardness 5.32 GPa and reduced water absorption to 0.27%, This process is very effective in reducing energy consumption and is also environmentally friendly; So, it can be valued in the building materials industry [70].

Moreover, SLGW was used to prepare sintered glass-ceramic, in the range 50 to 65 wt. % with clay and fly ash. Low water absorption was recorded at 1050° C in glass-ceramic with 65 wt. % SLGW, we noted a bending strength of 38.2 ± 5.4 MPa. The main crystalline phases are wollastonite and anorthite, with traces of albite which increased during the SLGW addition [71].

High CaO glass-ceramic was prepared using 79 wt. % SLGW and 21 wt. % CaO with a ratio of SiO₂: CaO set at 51:44; measurement were made at various temperatures. The density values increased with temperature; the highest bulk density reached (2.82 g/cm³) at 1100°C. Wollastonite (CaSiO₃) was the major phase in the fired glasses at 1100°C, with a small amount of nepheline (NaAlSiO₄) phases appearing at 900°C. The high mechanical chemical strength of the nepheline phase maked it suitable for use in microwave ovens and dental applications. The energy band values acquired band were increased from 3.87 to 4.83 eV with the increasing sintering temperature. The existence of Si-O-Ca vibrational bands in the FTIR spectra, confirms the formation of the wollastonite phase [72].

Fluoride glass-ceramics were produced using 25 wt. % SLGW, and heated at different sintering temperatures. The samples sintered at 1000 °C showed the best properties: the highest density was 2.81g/cm³ and shrinkage was about 5.3%. XRD analysis indicates fluorapatite, mullite and anorthite were the main phases at 1000 °C. SEM showed an increase of porosity values at higher temperatures, due to the growth of crystals resulting from the transformation glass phase. FTIR spectra were consistent with XRD, SEM and physical properties [73].

Turquoise jewelry glass-ceramic was prepared by mixing 90 wt. % SLGW- 10 wt. % kaolin with progressive addition of coloring oxides by 1 wt. %. Synthetic turquoise based on recycled waste glass has ideal properties compared to natural turquoise. It can be made

into all desired shapes for jewelry items. The production of this turquoise was low cost because of the sole heat treatment at 1000°C without the consumption of high-quality raw materials. The final results show that one-step sintering is the most beneficial method for producing jewelry imitation glass ceramics from waste materials [74].

1.10.2.2 Soda-lime glass waste in tiles

The porcelain stoneware tile body was manufactured by incorporating soda-lime glass waste as a substitute for feldspar flux by 6 wt. %. Mullite and quartz were the main phases with the glassy phase. Mullite and glassy phase formation increased, while quartz was reduced by the addition of SLGW; this change in microstructural evolution is attributed to the presence of mixed alkali-alkaline earth oxides (Na2O and CaO) in SLGW, which leads to the early glassy phase formation. There was a slight improvement in the physical properties and a decrease in the deformation of pyroplastics at all temperatures [75].

Soda-line glass waste was added to a mixture composed of orthoclase feldspar, quartz, grog and three types of kaolin to produce floor tiles. The glazed floor tile containing 23 wt. % SLGW, which is the optimal composition resulting in high mechanical strength at 1100°C. The sample containing 33,3 wt.% SLGW with a fast-fired time of 1 h at 1100°C, has the best physical-mechanical properties for unglazed floor tiles. SLGW speeds up the sintering process by the early glassy phase formation, which makes it a very economical additive by reducing the firing time and raw material consumption [76].

SLGW could replace traditional fluxes, such as sodium feldspar in the composition of stoneware tile bodies. Its presence does not significantly affect the technological properties during the milling, pressing and drying process. However, it has important effects on the properties of the final product. During the firing cycle, SLGW speeded the densification procedure, with positive effects (reduced open porosity) combined with some negative effects (increased shrinkage values and closed porosity...). Although these differences are minor and acceptable with the addition of 5 wt. % waste, they were evident when 10 wt. % waste added. SLGW improved the sintering kinetics by balancing the low viscosity glass phase with the mullite and quartz crystalline phases [77].

Substitution of various amounts of feldspar with glass waste in a stoneware tile mixture changes the alkali contents in the composition. Calcium and magnesium amounts increase by SLGW addition with alumina decreasing, thus affecting the viscosity of the formed

glassy phase. 20 wt. % SLGW– 80 wt. % clay is the optimal formulation for stoneware tile in terms of water absorption and abrasion resistance at 1150°C. The composition: 60 wt. % clay– 20 wt. % feldspar- 10 wt. % quartz– 10 wt. % SLGW, gives the best flexural strength and Weibull's modulus, with a clear reduction in total porosity. From XRD analysis mullite and quartz are the main crystalline, with a gradual formation of the anorthite phase by increasing the SLGW. The 25 wt. % feldspar– 5 wt. % SLGW was the only product which could be considered convenient as a porcelain tile due to its optimal physical-mechanical and structural properties [78].

As the firing temperature increased, the properties of floor tiles containing SLGW changed: water absorption reduced to 2.54% and bulk density increased to $2.02g/cm^3$ when 25 wt. % SLGW added. The flexural strength of the floor tiles increased and reached a maximum; the highest value recorded in tiles containing 25 wt. % glass waste, is up to 21.64 MPa. This composition could be applied as wall or floor tiles using soda-lime glass waste content 25 wt. % at 1200 °C [10].

1.10.2.3 Soda-lime glass waste in traditional porcelain

Traditional porcelain made of from clay-kaolin, flux and quartz, is one of the most common ceramic types. Soda-lime glass waste was introduced in the porcelain composition as raw material. Water absorption decreased below 1%, while the porosity dropped below 4% for samples fired at 1200°C, which was according to the standard requirement. Bulk density increased with temperature and glass phase formation increased by the SLGW addition, while shrinkage reduced at 1200°C. Low wear loss was recorded for ceramics subjected to 1200°C. Flexural strength values were not consistent with physical-structural properties, although it was within the requirements of the porcelain industry. The optimal sintering temperature for soft porcelain, is 1200°C, better properties are obtained. These results are supported by the literature [79].

Feldspar was substituted by Soda-lime glass waste to prepare triaxial porcelain 50 wt. % kaolin 25 wt. % quartz and 25 wt. % SLGW. The prepared porcelain had excellent properties, SLGW reduced the firing temperature to1240°C compared to the traditional porcelain 1340°C, thus reducing production costs. SLGW worked as a strong flux and reduced water absorption to 0.39 % at 1240 °C and 0.15 % at 1260°C, while its value was 2.55 for traditional porcelain (containing feldspar), at the same temperatures. XRD analysis

showed that mullite and quartz were the main phases, while the presence of calcium oxide CaO within the soda-lime glass waste, caused a casualization of the anorthite phase in the matrix. The mechanical properties including fracture toughness and flexural strength were responsive to the requirements of porcelain industry [80].

The effect of SLGW incorporations, on the sintering properties of fly ash -based porcelain was investigated. The addition of 10-25 wt. % SLGW to the porcelain, lowered the activation energy necessary to initiate the sintering process. Therefore, the level of densification could be higher by the lower activation energy and glassy phase formation. SLGW accelerated the condensation process, increased shrinkage and reduced open porosity. Porcelain production may be possible at 1200C instead of 1350C. Moreover, it is possible to substitute quartz and potassium feldspar with soda-lime glass waste and fly ash as raw materials for porcelain production [81].

1.10.2.4 Soda-lime glass waste in sanitary ceramic bodies

The effect of firing time, the particle size of soda-lime glass waste and quartz on sanitary ceramic reactions and their macroscopic properties, has been investigated. The mullite/glass formation, the activation energy evolution and macroscopic properties (linear shrinking linear thermal expansion and water absorption), were affected by SLGW addition and its particle size. The mullite phase formation was accelerated when Na-feldspar was substituted by SLGW and also by the decreasing of quartz d₅₀, which increases the reactivity of slip and reduces the vitrification grade, while mullite increased with a decrease of SLGW d50. SLGW reduced the firing temperature of the sanitary-ware body (30–90 K); in the same interval values (1500–1530 K); this reduces fuel consumption and CO₂ emissions. Sanitary bodies based on soda-lime glass waste recycling have multiple advantages, including accelerating the reactions of the mullite and glassy phase, as well as meeting the technological characteristics and the requirements of the sanitary ceramic industry [82].

Reducing the firing temperature for the sanitary ceramic bodies (from 1250 to 1170 °C) was the subject of a study by "Sanitser" Life European project. Quartz and feldspar were substituted by recycled blend materials (soda-lime glass waste 9.5 wt. % + pitcher +granite) with a small amount of flux (2.38 wt. %) in the production of new vitreous china body (sanitser ceramic). The total amount of introduced recycled blend materials was 43.62wt. %. Tests on the sanitser composition, indicated that it has the same final physical-

chemical properties as the industrial vitreous china (VC) body. Sanitser's dilatometric coefficient had values consistent with traditional sanitary ware bodies. The main phase found after firing, was the glassy phase (58% to 63%), quartz (14-18%) and mullite (11-18%). Small quantities of feldspar (plagioclase) and cristobalite also were present. The raw materials (feldspar and quartz) were substituted with recycled (materials containing low-free silica. This facility obtains a ceramic body less hazardous to employees' health. Finally, regarding technology, the possibility of firing the VC body at a lower temperature of about 80°C, could leads to energy saving [83].

The kinetics of mullite formation in vitreous ceramics containing soda-lime glass waste and its effect on microstructure development was studied. The substitution of 30-50 wt. % feldspar with SLGW accelerates the kinetics of the mullite growth reaction and provides macroscopic characteristics of the ceramic produced, that satisfy the latest technological requirements (significant flexural strength and very low water absorption values). The incorporation of SLGW lowered the firing temperature by 70-100 °C in the same traditional process, which leads to less fuel consumption and reduced CO_2 emissions during the firing cycle. This work has many good results and perspectives including, the conservation of mineral materials in terms of feldspars, a reduction in production costs, recommendation for the rational management of used glass waste by its recycling in other ceramic materials [84].

1.10.3 Sanitary ceramic waste (SCW)

Sanitary ceramic waste (SCW) comes from defective pieces, which have deformation in their technical characteristics such as shrinkage, cracks or glaze imperfections. Every month about 20-30 tons of SCW are disposed of, from sanitary ware factories [85]. Sanitary ceramic waste represents 8% of the seven million pieces manufactured each year in Spain, due to a variety of deformations. Sanitary ceramic waste (SCW) has environmental benefits because it can be easily separated and recycled. Generally, SCW does not contain impurities such as cement, gypsum or bonded mineral reinforcements [86].

In general, sanitary ceramic waste has a chemical composition rich in SiO_2 and Al_2O_3 with some alkaline oxides, which include: Na_2O , K_2O and CaO, in addition to Fe_2O_3 and some traces of various oxides used in the preparation of the glaze. This ideal composition makes SCW worth recycling.

CHAPTER I



Figure 23: Sanitary ceramic waste.

1.10.3.1 Sanitary ceramic waste in glass- ceramic production

The low-cost ceramic glass was prepared from sanitary ceramic waste and basalt glass crystal. Sanitary ceramic waste was incorporated into the glass-ceramic composition in amounts ranging from 10 to 50 wt. % of the batch components. XRD analysis shows that the samples containing 0 to 20 wt. % sanitary ceramic waste, have anorthite (CaAl₂Si₂O₈), olivine (Fe, Mg)2SiO₄, magnetite (Fe₃O₄) and augite Ca (Fe, Mg)Si₂O₆ as the major crystalline phases. In glasses with 30 to 50 wt. % SCW, the augite was more developed with the appearance of quartz resulting from high SiO₂ content in SCW. The final glasses are characterized by very low water absorption, a low-cost production cycle, also, the mechanical properties were significantly superior to those of conventional ceramics including, hardness values in the range 9624 and 10074 MPa and flexural strength values between 92 and 135 MPa. The physical-mechanical properties showed that the best-tested glass was the glass with a mixture of 40 wt. % ceramic waste and 60 wt. % basaltic rock. These glass ceramics could be used for various purposes including floor, wall tiles and other products[87].

1.10.3.2 Sanitary ceramic waste in tiles production

Porcelain stoneware tiles were prepared using ceramic waste as an alternative raw material to feldspar in the range 0-32 wt. %. Partial substitution of feldspar by SCW, improved various physical-mechanical properties. XRD analysis showed that Quartz and mullite as major phases with some traces of corundum and albite. Quartz is a result of the siliceous nature of the ceramic waste, in addition to the undissolved quartz present in the compositions of the raw materials. The mullite phase results from the agglomeration of pure

clay residues infiltrated with feldspar. Secondary mullite is formed from the feldspar-rich melt in the firing process. Bulk density was increased (2.35-2.42 g/cm³) which can be attributed to high mullite formation with SCW addition as well as reduction of the glassy phase; the latter has a lower density than other crystalline phases. The addition of ceramic waste up to 16 wt.%, decreases the water absorption by about 1%, which is attributed to the lower viscosity of SiO₂-rich melts of the SCW. The modulus of rupture achieved: 50-70 MPa may be related to the high crystalline phase's content in the matrix. Small colour darkening (Δ E around 0.25-1 for 4-16wt. % SCW addition; Δ E around 1-2% for 16-32 wt. % SCW addition) was recorded; it may be the result of the presence of colouring oxides as TiO₂ and Fe₂O₃ in ceramic waste. Sanitary ceramic waste can be introduced into the porcelain stoneware industry as an economic, technological and environmentally correct solution. In conclusion, the addition of sanitary ceramic waste to stoneware tiles, reduces the sintering range and results in better mechanical properties [6].

Fired sanitary ceramic waste was introduced in floor tile compositions, by partially substituting potassium feldspar and albite, with up to 15 mass-%. The standard mass composition was: 50 wt.% ball clay, 25 wt.% albite, 20 wt.% potassium feldspar and 5 wt.% talc. The experimental findings showed that a suitable introduction of sanitary ceramic waste resulted in floor tiles with better physical-mechanical properties. 1200°C was the optimal firing temperature, the water absorption of tiles containing SCW-albite was decreased by SCW addition. The same behaviour was observed for tiles containing SCWpotassium feldspar. While the best water absorption value was recorded in the tile mass 20 wt.% albite, 15 wt.% potassium feldspar and 10 wt.% SCW; this can be explained by the reduction of $(RO+R_2O)$ oxides by increasing waste and decreasing albite, thus leading to a low glassy phase and the presence of the highly viscous SiO₂-rich melt from the waste. Bulk density values increased with the increasing firing temperature and tiles containing SCW reached a bulk density in the range of values suitable for the manufacture of sanitary ware bodies. Flexural strength was in the range of (40 - 50 MPa), which is controlled the crystalline nature of the newly formed phases in the samples. SCW addition increased the coefficient of thermal expansion. More addition of SCW, reduced the dissolution of quartz and resulted in the development of the glassy phase, which has a lower coefficient of thermal expansion, favouring the presence of stable crystalline quartz having a high thermal expansion coefficient. The SCW addition to floor tile productions does not induce

CHAPTER I

significant changes in the technological properties. The optimal amount for albite substitution in 5 - 10 wt. % and 10 - 15 wt. % potassium feldspar respectively [88].

Kaolin was substituted by sanitary ceramic waste (max. 15 wt. %) in the formulation of ceramic wall tiles products. All compositions were sintered at 1145°C. The apparent density and flexural strength increased with the increasing amount of sanitary ceramic waste, while the firing shrinkage was reduced. Lower shrinkage values and larger open porosity values (30.77-31.46%) resulted from CaCO₃ decomposition to CaO. The interaction of calcium oxide with the amorphous phase of the kaolin, led to the fractionation of the mixture and the formation of a low-viscosity liquid phase, which allowed the formation of high porosity and the crystalline phases of anorthite and gehlenite in the ceramic. Flexural strength increased (202.5-205.5 kg/cm²) with the increase of the content of the ceramic waste. Flexural strength has a direct relationship with the amount of mullite present in SCW, strength increases with mullite content. There was the no-significant effect on the mass loss of tiles; a slight increase appeared in the samples containing SCW due to the dehydration of crystal water and calcite decomposition. Quartz and anorthite were the main phases, with the appearance of mullite and cristobalite, brought by SCW addition. First, gehlenite was crystallised from calcium oxide and meta kaolinite. Next, anorthite was produced from gehlenite, meta kaolinite and fine-grained quartz. The addition of sanitary ceramic waste reduced the moisture expansion from the formed crystalline phases, including anorthite, gehlenite and mullite [89].

Glazed porcelain tiles were produced using sanitary ceramic waste as an alternative material to feldspar and pegmatite. The technological properties of glazed tiles were affected by the amount of ceramic waste added and the type of material replaced. Flexural strength increased with the increase of SCW amount as a replacement for pegmatite. The tile bodies were affected by the mullite content in ceramic waste, while thermal shrinkage remained almost constant. The density increased above 900 °C; this directly related to the increase in the glassy phase amount. In addition, the crystallization of primary mullite crystals from the spinel phase, produced greater densification. There was an increase in water absorption and thermal shrinkage values for the samples containing ceramic waste as an alternative to sodium feldspar, while flexural strength was reduced; therefore, replacement of feldspar with ceramic waste is only appropriate with the addition of less than 5 wt. %. The crystalline phases in glazed tile bodies, include a glassy phase, mullite,

quartz, albite and a small amount of cristobalite. Quartz in fired tiles is a residual phase and mullite showed up during the firing process, while the cristobalite crystals, originates from SCW. The sintering process is mainly controlled by the viscosity of the liquid phase. The incorporation of alkali and alkaline earth oxides into SiO₂ glass, leads to a reduction in the glass phase viscosity due to a greater number of non-bridging oxygen sites. Thermal expansion is a significant factor in determining the dimensional stability of tile bodies. The difference between the coefficients of thermal expansion of the quartz and the matrix, results in stress during the cooling process. This stress lead to cracks around the quartz particles and lead to increased microstructural damage. The most important finding of this study about the substitution of pegmatite and feldspar by sanitary ceramic waste is the reduction in the coefficients of thermal expansion, indicating that final products with dimensional stability and suitable deformation properties can be obtained [90].

1.10.3.3 Sanitary ceramic waste in its bodies production

Sanitary ceramic waste was utilised to substitute granite in ceramic slip compositions, Recycled sanitary ceramic formulations of 5, 10, 25, 50 and 100 wt.% SCW, were considered. The rheological behaviour of slips containing SCW show that the drying time and residue percentage, are similar to the standard slip. In addition, the rheology results showed that the addition of SCW enhanced the rheological performance with a lower thixotropy index. The dry shrinkage stayed the same for all samples, while the total shrinkage increased for the formulations containing SCW, due to a greater firing shrinkage. This confirms SCW action as a flux material, which develop the liquid phase during sintering and fill open pores, leading to decreased porosity. The granite is also used as a fluxing agent in the industry, the milled particles of SCW may be responsible for the liquid formation. The results of pyroplastic deformation meet sanitary phase industry requirements for samples containing 5 and 10 wt. % SCW, while the ceramics containing 25 wt. % SCW and above reduce the deformation. However, water absorption results did not show a clear correlation to SCW contents. All samples had a water absorption below 0.5%, which is recommended by the industry. Flexural strength was slightly reduced during SCW addition, the sample containing 5 wt. % SCW had a flexural strength equal to that of the standard ceramic (4.5 MPa); the ceramic industry adopts 2 MPa as the minimum flexural strength for raw bodies. For this reason, regardless of the reduction in strength, all bodies containing SCW satisfy the minimum requirement for flexural strength. Replacing granite

with ceramic waste by 100 % is considered a successful solution in the manufacture of ceramic bodies because it respects the industry requirements. However. The use of ceramic waste as a substitute for granite within 5 % the obtention of a good ceramic body with excellent properties. This process would reduce damage to the environment as well as reduce production costs [91].

Feldspathic flux was replaced by sanitary ceramic sludge waste (SCSW) in the rate 5, 10, 25, 50, 75, and 100 wt. % in the production of sanitary ceramic bodies. Rheological behavior was affected by pH and SCSW content. All proportions gave a rheological behaviour similar to the standard slip. The total substitution of granite by sanitary sludge waste showed promising results in all tests. Porosity was reduced by SCSW addition via the effect of liquid phase formation, which filled the open pores. Water absorption was reduced after SCSW addition; this was related to the high fluxing of SCSW, so that granite formed in high liquid phase amount. The evolution of water absorption values was very consistent with the results of linear shrinkage because increased pore filling leads to increased ceramics shrinkage. The flexural strength was decreased initially with replacement granite in mixtures, after which it regained its strength, but was not stray far from the ceramic industry requirements. The potential application of SCSW has been proved by the development of large hollow ceramic blocks, with higher wall thicknesses than without waste [92].

Sanitary ceramic bodies were produced using their glazed waste, as an alternative raw material for feldspar by amounts of 5 and 10 wt. % under three different sintering temperatures (1150 °C, 1175 °C, and 1200 °C). The incorporation of 5 wt. % SCW in the composition reduced the water absorption, while 10 wt. % SCW increased it. Generally, feldspar's role is to improve the liquid phase formation, which fills pores and enhances densification. 10 wt. % SCW reduced the fluxing reaction, as a result of the composition rich in Na₂O, K₂O, CaO and Fe₂O₃ which act on the sintering properties including crystallization, densification and eutectic point. A high density was recorded for ceramic containing 5 wt. % SCW at 1150°C, with a lower porosity of 2.8 %. All samples had a linear shrinkage of less than 12 %, which is very consistent with the sanitary ceramic requirement. Mass loss was reduced at all temperatures for ceramic containing 5 wt. % SCW, which enhanced mullite formation which is the main phase in the sanitary ceramic, that improve

the strength of the material. Post-sintering sanitary ceramic waste of 0-5 wt. %, could be used in the composition of commercial products. It is preferable to keep the firing temperature at about $1150 \,^{\circ}$ C or below [85].

1.11 Conclusion

The enhancement of the properties of sanitary ceramic bodies has been the subject of many studies. Generally, sanitary ceramic bodies are constituted of a vitreous matrix including different crystalline phases, which are mullite, quartz and the vitreous phase. The mullite confers to the ceramic body, the necessary mechanical resistance aluminosilicate oxides existing in clay-kaolin mixture. Quartz regulates the softness of the clay, the expansion of the quartz volume, which can partially compensate for the shrinking effect of the glassy body when a large amount of vitreous phase appears during the firing process. The glassy phase is the most important constituent in the vitreous china bodies. Feldspar is the main source of glassy phase because of the rich alkali oxides content. This glassy phase helps to improve the physical-mechanical properties and contributes to reducing the firing temperature.

The incorporation of solid industrial wastes containing alkali oxides in ceramic formulations, has been the subject of recent research by the scientific community. This thesis investigates the incorporation of three industrial wastes in the composition of industrial sanitary ceramic bodies, as substitute materials to feldspar. These wastes include blast furnace slag from the El Hadjar Iron and Steel Factory (Annaba, Algeria), soda-lime glass waste from the factory of the African Glass Company (Jijel, Algeria) and sanitary ceramic waste from te factory of sanitary ceramic (Jijel, Algeria).

2.METHODOLOGY AND CHARACTERISATION OF RAW MATERIALS

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is focused on the presentation of different techniques to characterize the raw materials, the behavior of ceramic slips and sanitary ceramic bodies before and after firing. To carry out an in-depth study, we have taken into account the microscopic and macroscopic analyses, i.e the follow-up of the evolution of the rheological, the physical-chemical, thermal, mechanical and structural properties.

2.2 Characterisation techniques

2.2.1 X-ray fluorescence spectrometry (XFS)

X-ray fluorescence spectrometry is used to determine the elemental composition of the sample in a quantitative and qualitative way. The principle of the analysis is the excitation of a sample with standard radiation (X-ray tube stress) by ionising it, then analysing the clean radiation re-emitted by each sample.

We used this analytical technique to identify the chemical composition i.e the major elements (> 0.5 wt. %) in the raw materials used in our study. The instrument used is KLA Tencor D500 and Rigaku ZSX Primus IV. It is capable to analyse the chemical composition containing heavy elements (Al,Fe, Cu...) as well as lighter elements (Si, Mg ...), it also, allows to analyse the chemical composition of oxides[24].

2.2.2 Particle size analysis

The purpose of granulometry, is to measure the particle size distribution and the separation of different classes of elements by weight. For industrial wastes (blast furnace slag, Soda-lime glass waste and sanitary ceramic waste) a laser granulometer was used: the powder dust is conveyed by water or air and passes through a laser beam, which diffracts on the particles. The particle diameter measurement is between 0.02 and 2000 microns. The obtained suspension is introduced into a granulometer (HORIBA, model Analyzer LA-960).

The dispersion mechanism is achieved by the acceleration of the particles in a compressed air stream flow of compressed air, plus the collision of the particles with each other and with the walls. The control of the air pressure is done by increments of 0.02 bar in the range of 0 to 4 bar.





2.2.3 Thermal analyses

Thermal analysis is used to observe changes in a parameter as a function of temperature. The techniques used include differential thermal analysis (DTA), thermogravimetric analysis (TGA).

2.2.3.1 Differential thermal analysis (DTA)

Differential thermal analysis is based on the measurement of the temperature difference between the sample and a reference body, as a function of time or temperature of the sample. Thus, it allows to identify endothermic transformations, exothermic transformations and invariant phenomena (occurring at fixed temperatures)[93].

2.2.3.2 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)

This characterisation technique makes it possible to follow the variations in the mass of a sample during a heat treatment. It is suitable for the study of reactions involving the volatilisation of certain constituents, or the combination with a gas phase. It is also simple to apply; the information given is very often complementary to that of the DTA. For this reason, the development of coupled DTA/TGA set-ups have increased in recent years [94].

In our work, the differential thermal and gravimetric analysis measurements were made using a DSC/ATD/ATG device (SDT Q 600 - TA instrument) with alumina- α as reference material. We placed about 40 mg of green powder mixture in an alumina crucible. The capsules are subjected to a nitrogen flow at a rate of 10 ml/min, to avoid any degradation process facilitated by the presence of oxygen. Heating is carried out from 0 to 1300 °C at a rate of 5 °C/min. The calibration of the equipment, is checked daily by the temperature (± 0.5 °C), and the enthalpy of fusion (± 0.5 J/g) under nitrogen flow.

METHODOLOGY AND CHARACTERISATION OF RAW MATERIAL



Figure 25: TA Instruments SDT-Q600 Simultaneous TGA / TDA.

2.2.4 X-ray diffraction (XRD)

XRD is an analytical technique that allows for studying the different phases of crystalline materials and their crystallographic structures. This method consists of sending a beam of X-rays of wavelength λ , onto the sample than, the diffracted signal is analysed. For each incident (diffraction) wave of the beam, corresponds an intensity of the diffracted signal which appears as an X-ray diffraction peak. When an X-ray of wavelength λ is incident at an angle θ on all the reticular planes of the crystalline body of the clay, separated by a distance d, a diffraction phenomenon appears, given by the relation called Bragg's law:

 $\lambda = 2 dsin \theta$(1)

Where:

 λ : wavelength of the beam used

d: reticular distance (distance between diffraction planes)

 θ : angle of the incident ray

X-ray diffraction studies were conducted using an Empyrean Alpha-1 X-ray diffractometer at 65kV tension, using Cu K α 1 radiation (λ =1.5406 Å) in the Bragg-Brentano configuration. All experiments were carried out using powder samples. Wide-angle X-ray spectra were recorded with a PIXcel 1D detector to treat the results and plot their spectra. The identification of the phases, was carried out using PDF-ICDD (Powder Diffraction File-International Centre for Diffraction Data).



Figure 26: Empyrean Alpha 1 X-ray Diffractometer.

2.2.5 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

Electron microscopy is an essential method for investigating the evolution of a material's microstructure. This technique is based on the strong interaction between electrons and matter. In scanning electron microscopy, the secondary electrons are emitted and reflected to reconstruct the image of the object. The working voltages (between 10 and 30kV) are generally lower than in a transmission electron microscope (100kV and more) which allows for greater resolution, almost to the atomic scale for high-resolution microscopes.

The morphology of the ceramic bodies was identified by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) using a reference microscope (JEOL- JSM- 7600 F). The maximum resolution is 1nm at 15 kV. The acceleration voltage can vary from 100V to 30 kV. An electron beam is projected onto the sample to be analysed. The interaction between the electrons and the sample generates low-energy secondary electrons, which are accelerated towards a secondary electron detector to amplify the signal.



Figure 27: Scanning Electron Microscope (JEOL JSM-7600F).

2.2.6 Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)

Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy is based on the absorption of polychromatic infrared radiation by the material being analysed. It allows, using the detection of the characteristic vibrations of chemical bonds, to carry out the analysis of the chemical functions present in the material. The interaction between electromagnetic waves and matter allows a wide variety of studies depending on the wavelength. If matter is subjected to infrared radiation, energy is absorbed whenever there is a resonance between the frequency of the incident wave and that of the possible vibratory movements of the atoms (oscillator) constituting the substance. The latter, initially in the quantum state E, can change to an excited state, if the resonance condition is respected, the relation will be:

$\Delta E = E_2 - E_1 = h v....(2)$

Where:

- E1: Initial quantum state.
- E2: Excited quantum state.
- h v : Energy absorption quantity.

The intensity of the absorption, is determined by the probable transition from the basic to the excited level. These transitions are only allowed if they are associated with vibrational modes that are accompanied by a change in the dipole moment [2].

CHAPTER II METHODOLOGY AND CHARACTERISATION OF RAW MATERIAL

A pellet of 16 mm diameter and 2cm^2 of surface area (mass 20 mg) is hydraulically pressed under a pressure of 4.10^8 Pa. In this way, 150 mg of pure, dry KBr (purity: 99.9%, Spectral quality) is intimately crushed. This mixture will be fixed to a cell and must be placed in the trajectory of the beam. The data was registered by a spectrophotometer of Shimadzu, in the interval 4000-500 cm⁻¹.



Figure 28: Spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV1800).

2.2.7 Measurement of the humidity content of raw materials

Each 100 g of raw material M_0 (initial wet mass) is weighed into a capsule. The capsule is placed in a Memmert-type oven at 110 °C for 15 minutes to dry the sample. We weigh regularly to obtain a constant mass, M_1 the mass of the dry matter (evaporation of free water).

The humidity content is calculated according to the following formula:

Where:

H is the humidity content (%).

 \mathbf{M}_0 is the mass of the wet sample (g).

 M_1 is the mass of the dry sample (g).

CHAPTER II METHODOLOGY AND CHARACTERISATION OF RAW MATERIAL

2.2.8 Measurement of the loss of ignition in raw materials

The loss of ignition allows the measurement of volatile gases such as (CO_2, H_2O) during the calcination of raw materials. The protocol followed in our thesis is:

All raw materials are dried in the oven at 100 °C, and an initial mass \mathbf{m}_1 is introduced into the oven. The temperature is gradually increased to 1000 °C, and maintained for 1 hour. The sample is then allowed to cool down, then it is weighed again after firing; its mass is noted \mathbf{m}_2 . The loss of ignition L.O.I. is given by the following formula:

L.O.I (%) = 100
$$\left(\frac{m_1 - m_2}{m_1}\right)$$
.....(4)

Where:

L.O.I is the loss on ignition.

 m_1 is the mass after drying.

 m_2 is the mass after calcination at 1000 °C.

2.2.9 Rheological properties of slip

2.2.9.1 Deflocculent electolytes

Sodium salts are generally used to adjust the pH of the aqueous medium of the slip. The optimal fluidity of the slip is between pH 9 and pH 10; it starts to manifest itself at pH 7. The most common electrolytes used in sanitary ceramic ware, are sodium silicate (Na₂SiO₄) and sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃). These two deflocculants have been used for a very long time to adjust the slip. Some people prefer synthetic polyelectrolytes on their own, to adjust casting parameters, to suit their needs; these products really do offer many possibilities.

2.2.9.1.1 Sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃)

Sodium carbonate is a white powder with a molecular weight of 105.99 g. It is not very soluble in water; to introduce it into a slip composition, it must therefore be dissolved in hot water (50-60°C). This salt has a very slow deflocculating action, but it does act on the thixotropy by giving a certain rigidity to the suspension at rest. The carbonate will therefore be used in small quantities (0.04 to 0.10% of the dry mass to be deflocculated) to regulate the slip thixotropy. It should be introduced in its entirety, at the beginning of the preparation by adding it dissolved to the diluting water, before adding the materials [95].

METHODOLOGY AND CHARACTERISATION OF RAW MATERIAL

To the	O DISTRIM, S. p. s.	CARBONATE DE SOUDE LEGER
1	+ CARACTERISTIQUES - Nom chimique - degrés de pureté - insolubilité dans l'eau	Na2CO3 98 & 100% après dessicution 0.62%
	+ COMPOSITION CHIMIQUE Na ₂ CC ₃ Na ₂ CC Na ₂	99,3% 0,28 a 0,38% 0,03% 0,00% 0,01% 0,01% 0,3%
August 1	+ ANALYSES GRANULOMETR	IQUES
1.	>0.250mm 0.250 a 0.125mm 0.125 a 0.062mm <0.062 mm	5 å 10% en polds 303 203 204
	Distrim Annaba : Lone ind Tel.038.52.47.47 og 038.5	Introelle de Malondia 2141 Amar -Annabe 2.49.49 Pax.039.52.49.00

Figure 29: Sodium carbonate used in slip preparation and its technical card.

2.2.9.1.2 Sodium silicate (Na₂SiO₄)

Sodium silicate is a liquid, translucent and colourless substance. Its density is often expressed in degrees Baumé. The most common grade is 37-38 °Baumé, which corresponds to a density of 1.34 to 1.35 to water. The action of the silicate is very fast, it fluidizes the slip and its effect persists for a long time, so that thixotropy does not appear much with this electrolyte used alone. The quantities used are less than 1% of the dry mass, usually around 0.20 to 0.60%. When the dose necessary to deflocculate a paste is known approximately, 50 to 75% of the silicate, is introduced into the dilution water with all the carbonate [95].

	FI	CHE TECHNIQUE SILICATE	DE SOUDIUM LIC	QUIDE	
		de produit · Silicate de sodiu	m liquide		
	Nom	Nom be product - Sincere at an and a second and a second at the second a			
	-Forn	The prote choros, when the			
1111111					
	Card	Caractéristiques physiques :			
	N	Caractéristiques	Spécifications	colore à	
	01	Aspect	pàie		
and the second	02	Odeur	Inodore		
	03	Pression de vapeur à 20°C	23 hPa		
	04	Densité à 20 °C	1,467 à 1.509 q/cm ³ Entièrement miscible Env. 100 mPas Spécifications		
	05	Solubilité dans/miscibilité avec l'eau			
	06	Viscosité à 20°C			
	Care	ctéristiques chimiques : Caractéristiques			
			(MIN%)	(MAX%	
	01	Matlère sèche	40	43	
	03	Rannort pandéral Sin2/No2	0 1.90	2.10	

Figure 30: Sodium silicate used in slip preparation and its technical card.

CHAPTER II

2.2.9.2 Density control

The density of the resulting slip, was determined by hydrostatic weighing. The slips were weighed into a 100ml pycnometer (\mathbf{m}_{f}); then, the empty pycnometer (\mathbf{m}_{e}) was weighed using an automatic balance. We determine the density by the formula [96]:

d (g/ml) = 100
$$\left(\frac{m_f - m_e}{v}\right)$$
.....(5)

Where:

 $\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{f}}$ is the mass of the beaker full of slip (g).

 $\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{e}}$ is the mass of the empty pycnometer (g).

 \mathbf{V} is the volume of the pycnometer (100ml).

2.2.9.3 Viscosity and thixotropy control

The universal torsion viscometer Gallenkamp is one of the most used instruments in the ceramic field, for rapid measurements of slip viscosity and thixotropy. Manually operated and with the lifting system of the sample cup, it comprises a wire with vertical torsion, a disk mounted on a graduated scale, and a cylinder suspended under the scale. During the test, the disk is rotated by 360°; and then released, the braking effect of the sample on the outer part of the cylinder is used to measure viscosity. The thixotropy value is determined by making a second measurement after 1, 5 or 15 minutes (in which the sample remains in a static condition), then calculating the difference with respect to the first measurement.





CHAPTER II METHODOLOGY AND CHARACTERISATION OF RAW MATERIAL

2.2.9.4 Fluidity control

Fluidity is the time required for a certain volume of slip to flow through an orifice with a given diameter. The purpose of this procedure is to determine the flow speed of the slip. The fluidity of the slips was determined by using a measuring device called a LEHMAN Ford cup with a 2.6 mm diameter orifice. The ford cup is filled with the slip, closing the opening, to fill the 100 ml flask then measuring the flow time with a chronometer.



Figure 32 : Viscometer (Ford cup).

2.2.9.5 Residue on a sieve, pH and thicknesses control

The determination of the percentage of residue on a sieve of the slips, after the density calculation, is very important and should be carried out. We weigh 100g of the slip of each mixture (\mathbf{m}_w), and then pass it through the 63µm sieve (wet sieving). The residue is dried in the oven (T=110°C); we weigh the mass of residue \mathbf{m}_r . The percentage of the residue on a sieve is calculated by the formula:

R (%) =
$$(\frac{m_h - m_r}{m_h})$$
.....(6)

Where :

 \mathbf{R} is the percentage of the residue on a sieve (%).

 $\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{w}}$ is the mass of wet slip (g).

 $\mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{r}}$ is the mass of the dry residue (g).

The pH of the slips was determined after each agitation of the suspensions to eliminate the phenomenon of thixotropy, by using a portable digital pH meter (PH-S2).

CHAPTER II METHODOLOGY AND CHARACTERISATION OF RAW MATERIAL

The thicknesses during casting, were measured according to time steps of 10, 30, and 60 minutes.

2.2.10 Drying Shrinkage

The rectangular samples $(120 \times 20 \times 20 \text{mm})$ were dried at room temperature (in the ambient air) for 48 hours, then at 105°C for 24 hours in an oven. The dried specimens were then weighed and measured to determine the variation in their dimensions (shrinkage).



Figure 33: Example of green and fired ceramic bars for shrinkage and flexural testing.

The determination of the shrinkage value is done by estimating the variation of the line lengths (10cm) recorded on the specimens after drying at 105°C. The following formula is used to calculate the drying shrinkage:

Sh_d (%) =
$$\left(\frac{L_0 - L_1}{L_0}\right) \times 100\%$$
.....(6)

Where:

 L_0 is the initial length (cm).

 L_1 is the length after drying (cm).

 $\mathbf{Sh}_{\mathbf{d}}$ is the drying shrinkage (%).

2.2.11 Physical-mechanical characterisation after sintering

2.2.11.1 Firing of sanitary ceramic bodies

The ceramic bodies are fired in the tunnel kiln of the sanitary ceramics production unit of El Milia (Jijel, Algeria) at 1230 °C during 21 hours, as showen in the firing curve in figure 34.



Figure 34: The firing curve for sanitary ceramics.

Water absorption, bulk density and total porosity were measured according to ASTM C373-88 [97]. While, the drying and firing shrinkage of ceramic bodies were determined according to ASTM C326 [98]. The flexural strength was measured according to ASTM C1161[99].

2.2.11.2 Water absorption

The amount of water absorption (WA) of fired sanitary ceramic bodies at 1230 °C, is determined according to ASTM C373-88. 2006, by measuring the difference in weight between the dried samples (m_d), size $70 \times 20 \times 10$ mm. These were immersed for 2 hours in boiling water, the wet samples were cooled for 12 hours and the surface was dried with a wet towel (m_w). The water absorption is determined by Eq.7

WA (%) =
$$\frac{(M_w - M_d)}{M_d} * 100.....(7)$$

Where:

 $\mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{w}}$ is the mass of wet sample (g).

 M_d is the mass of the dry sample (g).

CHAPTER II METHODOLOGY AND CHARACTERISATION OF RAW MATERIAL

2.2.11.3 Apparent density

To determine the apparent density of the test samples (70 x 20 x 10 mm), we follow this procedure: We fill a graduated cylinder with water to a specified point. Then, we put the samples in the water bath at 60-80 $^{\circ}$ C; they are removed after two hours, wiped with a tissue and finally, we put the samples in the graduated cylinder. We record the volume change. The apparent density is determined according to the following relationship

$$D_A(g/cm^3) = \frac{(M_{wm} - M_w)}{V}$$
.....(8)

Where:

 M_{wm} : Mass of the cylinder filled with water and the material (g).

 $\mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{w}}$: Mass of the cylinder filled with water (g).

V: Volume change (cm^3).

2.2.11.4 Total porosity

To determine the total porosity of test samples (70 x 20 x 10 mm), we use the following relationship:

$$P_t(\%) = 1 - \frac{D_A}{D_T} * 100....(9)$$

Where:

 D_T : True density (g/cm³). This mass is determined by a densimeter according to the following method:

*Grind 50 to 70g of ceramic powder and sieve it through the 80µm sieve.

*Dry the powder until a constant mass is obtained and leave it to cool down in a desiccator.

*Weigh the water densimeter to the lower mark.

*Fill with the powder the densimeter and weigh it

*To calculate the true density we used the following formula:

$$D_{\rm T} (g/cm^3) = \frac{(M_{wp} - M_w)}{V}$$
.....(10)
Where:

 M_{wp} : Mass of the densimeter filled with water and powder (g).

 $\mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{w}}$: Mass of the densimetre filled with water (g).

V: Volume change (cm^3).

2.2.11.5 Firing shrinkage

The sintering process shrinks the samples, due to physical and chemical changes, at high temperatures. The firing shrinkage value is calculated by measuring the variation of the line lengths recorded on the specimens after firing at 1230°C. Firing shrinkage is determined according to the following formula [2]:

Shf (%) =
$$\frac{(L_1 - L_2)}{L_1} * 100.....(11)$$

Where:

 L_1 is the dry length (cm).

 L_2 is the length after firing (cm).

 $\mathbf{Sh}_{\mathbf{f}}$ is the firing shrinkage (%).

2.2.11.6 Flexural strength

We have investigated the mechanical properties (bending strength) by applying threepoint bending to $120 \times 20 \times 20$ mm ceramic bars. A NASSETTI type device measures the applied force. The flexural strength is given by the formula:

 F_{S} (kgf/cm²)= $\frac{3Fw}{2th^{2}}$(12)

F is the force that causes the bar to break (Kg.f).

w is the width of the bar (12 cm).

t is the thickness of the bar (2 cm).

h is the height of the bar (2 cm).

2.3 Raw materials and industrial wastes characterisation

2.3.1 Raw materials characterisation

2.3.1.1 Clay (Hycast VC)

Ball clay is a fine-grained plastic, mainly kaolinous sedimentary clay, which plays a significant role in the composition of the ceramic bodies slip. They consist of varying proportions of kaolin, mica, and quartz, with small amounts of organic matter and other minerals. They have commercial values since they increase the workability and strength of various ceramic bodies.

The clay used in this work is named Hycast VC; Imerys Minerals Ltd. UK supplies this material.



Figure 35: Clay raw material.

2.3.1.1.1 Quantitative XFS analysis of Hycast VC clay

The chemical composition of Hycast VC Clay is presented in Table 3:

Oxides (%)	SiO ₂	AbO3	TiO ₂	Fe ₂ O ₃	K ₂ O	Na ₂ O	CaO	MgO	Loss on ignition at 1000°C
Hycast VC Clay	52	31	1	1	2.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	12

Table 4: Chemical composition of Hycast VC clay

The results of this table show that the major oxides in the chemical composition of Hycast VC Clay are SiO_2 , Al_2O_3 and K_2O , this clay has a high humidity rate (13%). This confirms that it is a natural rock material based on hydrated silicate or aluminum silicate with a laminar structure.

2.3.1.1.2 XRD analysis of Hycast VC clay

The XRD analysis of Hycast VC clay is carried out using an X-ray diffractometer over a range of 0 to 75° (Figure. 36).



Figure 36: XRD patterns of Hycast VC Clay.

The XRD pattern of the Hycast VC Clay shows the presence of illite and kaolinite as the main phases, with quartz appearing as minor phase. The formation of illite as the main phase, is due to the small amounts of iron, potassium and titanium present in the clay[100].

2.3.1.2 Remblend Kaolin (RMB)

This type of kaolin used in this study was supplied by Imerys Minerals Ltd. It originates from a large open pit mine near St Austell, Cornwall, UK, Remblend kaolin is a white, friable, heat-resistant clay composed mainly of Kaolinite and aluminosilicates.



Figure 37: RMB Kaolin raw material.

2.3.1.2.1 Quantitative XFS analysis of RMB Kaolin

The chemical composition of RMB Kaolin is presented in Table 5:

Table 5: Chemical composition of RMB Kaolin

Oxides (%)	SiO ₂	AbO3	TiO ₂	Fe ₂ O ₃	K ₂ O	Na ₂ O	CaO	MgO	Loss on ignition at 1000°C
RMB Kaolin	48	37	0.05	0.8	1.5	0.1	0.07	0.3	12.1

The chemical composition of RMB kaolin shows high SiO_2 and Al_2O_3 contents; while Fe_2O_3 content is not negligible. The loss on ignition and the humidity rate are relatively low, close to the theoretical value of pure kaolinite.

2.3.1.2.2 XRD analysis of RMB Kaolin

The XRD analysis of RMB kaolin is carried out using an X-ray diffractometer over a range of 0 to 75° (see Figure 38).



Figure 38: XRD patterns of RMB Kaolin.

The XRD spectrum in figure 38 shows a predominance of kaolinite with small quantities of crystalline impurities (non-clay minerals); besides, also the presence of illite, increases the plasticity of the mixture.

2.3.1.2.3 FTIR analysis of RMB kaolin

The infrared spectrum of RMB kaolin, is shown in figure 41. This spectrum is divided into 2 main zones.

-The first zone corresponds to the high frequency bands between 3700-3400 cm⁻¹.

-The second zone corresponds to the lower frequencies in the 1500-400 cm⁻¹ range.

In the first zone, we have the valence vibrations of the OH groups. The absorption bands are centred on frequencies in the range $3693 - 3697 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (external OH); in the range 3618- 3622 cm^{-1} (internal OH), there is a broad absorption band of low intensity centred around the range $1630-1656 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ which is attributed to water molecules (H₂O).

-The absorption band in the range 1005-1020 cm⁻¹, corresponds to the elongation of the Si-O bond and the antisymmetric stretching of the Si-O-Si bond.

-The deformation vibrations of the Al-OH bond, are located at 913 and 915 cm⁻¹.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY AND CHARACTERISATION OF RAW MATERIAL

-The two bands of low and almost equal intensity, located between 800 cm⁻¹ and 750 cm⁻¹ indicate the presence of kaolinite [24].



Figure 39: IR spectrum of RMB kaolin [24].

2.3.1.3 Parkaolin

Parkaolin is used in the sanitary ware industry. IMERYS Minerals Ltd. UK also supplies Parkaolin, which is composed mainly of aluminosilicates and Kaolinite. Parkaolin offers a good combination of plasticity, fluidity and casting speed suitable for the production of large series of sanitary parts.



Figure 40: ParKaolin raw material.

2.3.1.3.1 Quantitative XFS analysis of ParKaolin

The chemical composition of parkaolin is presented in Table 5:

Oxides (%)	SiO ₂	AbO3	TiO ₂	Fe ₂ O ₃	K ₂ O	Na ₂ O	CaO	MgO	Loss on ignition at 1000°C
Parkaolin	48	37	0.06	0.19	1.9	0.1	0.07	0.3	11.8

Table 6: Chemical composition of parkaolin

Parkaolin has a similar composition to RMB kaolin, except a slight difference in the content of iron and potassium oxides. In addition, it has a lower ignition loss than RMB and a higher amount of humidity.

2.3.1.3.2 XRD analysis of ParKaolin

The XRD analysis of RMB kaolin is carried out using an X-ray diffractometer over a range from 0 to 75° (see Figure 41).



Figure 41: XRD patterns of ParKaolin.

Parkaolin contains a significant amount of kaolinite and small quantities of illite and quartz. The high content in kaolinite and illite, increases the plasticity of the mixture, while the presence of a large amount of quartz can reduce the plasticity[2].

2.3.1.4 Sodium feldspar

In this work, feldspar is the main component for the formation of the vitreous phase of sanitary ceramic bodies. It is introduced into the ceramic body to avoid defects and ensure the cleanliness of the final product. The sodium feldspar used in our work, is imported from the Çine-Aydin- Turkey.



Figure 42: Sodium feldspar raw material.

2.3.1.4.1 Quantitative XFS analysis of sodium feldspar

The chemical composition of sodium feldspar is presented in Table 7:

Oxides (%)	SiO ₂	AbO3	TiO ₂	Fe ₂ O ₃	K ₂ O	Na ₂ O	CaO	MgO	Loss on ignition at 1000°C
Sodi u m feldspar	70.44	17.92	0.26	0.08	0.4	9.6	0.5	0.2	0.5

 Table 7: Chemical composition of sodium feldspar

The results in this table, show that the major oxides in the chemical composition of soda feldspar are SiO_2 , Al_2O_3 and Na_2O . It should be noted that the humidity content of soda feldspar, is of the order of 0.10% with a lower loss on ignition of 0.5% compared to that of kaolin.

2.3.1.4.2 XRD analysis of sodium feldspar

The XRD analysis of sodium feldspar is carried out using an X-ray diffractometer over a range of 0 to 75° (see Figure 43).



Figure 43: XRD patterns of sodium feldspar.

The most intense ray $(2\theta = 28.10)$ characterises the Albite NaAlSi₃O₈, which is presented as the principal phase. The others less intense peaks represent quartz. The sodium feldspar tends to lower the fusion temperature[101]. The presence of quartz in sufficient quantity, limits the plasticity of the mixture[2].

2.3.1.5 Potassium feldspar

In general, sodium feldspar is used for soft porcelain, whereas potassium feldspar is used for hard porcelain [102, 103]. Feldspar forms the glassy matrix of ceramics; it has a melting temperature = 1050 to 1300° C. Potassium feldspar (orthoclase) has the chemical formula KAlSi₃O₈.



Figure 44: Potassium feldspar raw material.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY AND CHARACTERISATION OF RAW MATERIAL

2.3.1.5.1 Quantitative XFS analysis of potassium feldspar

The chemical composition of potassium feldspar is presented in Table 8:

Oxides (%)	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	TiO ₂	Fe ₂ O ₃	K ₂ O	Na ₂ O	CaO	MgO	Loss on ignition at 1000°C
Sodium feldspar	69.5	17.3	0	0.1	9	3.1	0.4	0.2	0.4

 Table 8: Chemical composition of potassium feldspar

When the K_2O concentration is high, we obtain the so-called new-generation ceramics (rich in leucite), they have better mechanical properties [104, 105]. Table 7 shows the chemical composition of potassium feldspar at different percentages of metal oxides. In this table, we notice a high percentage of K_2O and the humidity content in the order of 0.35% with a low loss on ignition of 0.4%.

2.3.1.5.2 XRD analysis of potassium feldspar

The XRD analysis of potassium feldspar, is carried out using an X-ray diffractometer over a range of 0 to 75° (see Figure 45).



Figure 45: XRD patterns of potassium feldspar.

The most intense peaks ($2\theta = 27.22$ and 28.34°), characterize the orthoclase KAlSi₃O₃. Other small peaks characterize quartz. The main role of potassium feldspar, is to increase the viscosity of molten glass[101].

2.3.1.6 Sand of Bir El-Ater

Silica is usually introduced in the compositions of as milled quartz, and also as aluminosilicates in various clay-kaolin materials. The quartz is melted at various temperatures by the addition of a melting agent, or a mixture of melting agents. The quartz used in this study is of local origin, from the Bir El-Attar area in Tebessa, eastern Algeria. The quartz used is of natural siliceous origin, especially in its finest fractions. It is wet-milled in alumina jars, until a residue is obtained on a 63μ m sieve between 4 and 6%.



Figure 46: Sand of Bir El-Ater raw material.

2.3.1.6.1 Quantitative XFS analysis of the sand of Bir El-Ater

 Table 9: Chemical composition of the sand of Bir El-Ater

Oxides (%)	SiO ₂	AbO3	TiO ₂	Fe ₂ O ₃	K ₂ O	Na2O	CaO	MgO	Loss on ignition at 1000°C
Sand of Bir El-Ater	96.35	0.52	0.05	0.24	0.17	0.08	1.19	0.08	1.2

The results of this table show that silica is the main oxide in the chemical composition of Bir El Ater sand. It should be noted that the humidity level of this sand, is null with a low loss on ignition of 1.5%.

2.3.1.6.2 XRD analysis of the sand of Bir El-Ater

The XRD analysis of the sand of Bir El-Ater is carried out using an X-ray diffractometer over a range of 0 to 75° (Figure. 47).



Figure 47: XRD patterns of sand of Bir Al-Ater.

The major non-swelling phase found in these materials, is quartz. The most intense peak $(2\theta=27^{\circ})$, is characterised by quartz SiO₂, with the appearance of other peaks such as: calcite and hematite. The presence of quartz in large quantities, reduces the plasticity of the mixture; the presence of calcite acts as a flux in the ceramic material during firing[2].

2.3.2 Solid wastes characterisation

2.3.2.1 Blast furnace slag (BFS)

In the first part of this study, Algerian blast furnace slag (BFS) from the El Hadjar steel factory (Annaba-Algeria) was used. The BFS was repeatedly ground until the particles got a size below $150 \,\mu$ m.



Figure 48: Milled blast furnace slag.

2.3.2.1.1 Quantitative XFS analysis of the Algerian blast furnace slag

Table 10: Chemica	l composition of the sand	d of Algerian blast furnace slag
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Oxides (%)	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	TiO ₂	Fe ₂ O ₃	K ₂ O	Na ₂ O	CaO	MgO	SO ₃	MnO	SrO	BaO	Loss on ignition at 1000°C
Algerian blast furnace slag	33	6.18	0.29	1.43	0.68	0.19	44.1	3.7	1.3	2	0.28	1.01	1.2

The above table shows that the Algerian blast furnace slag is rich in SiO_2 , CaO, Al_2O_3 and MgO in smaller quantities. BFS is characterised by having a null humidity, as it is originally the result of volatilisation after passing through a high temperature. It also has a low loss on ignition. This composition makes it suitable for use as an alternative raw material in ceramic production.

2.3.2.1.2 SEM analysis of the Algerian blast furnace slag

The SEM analysis of the Algerian blast furnace slag is presented in the following figure.

METHODOLOGY AND CHARACTERISATION OF RAW MATERIAL





SEM micrographs of the milled blast furnace slag sample, show different grain shapes and irregular particle texture with clear porosity, as shown in Figure 49. In addition, the EDX spectrum indicates the presence of silicon (Si), oxygen (O) and calcium (Ca) which appeared with a high peak at 3.7 keV as the main constituent in the sample; we also have a small amount of aluminium (Al) and magnesium (Mg). These results are in agreement with the chemical composition analysis (XFS) of the starting materials mentioned in Table 9.

2.3.2.2 Soda-lime glass waste (SLGW)

Soda-lime glass waste is one of the most known industrial solid waste in the world. In the second part of this thesis, the effect of SLGW on various technical properties of sanitary ceramic bodies is studied. SLGW pieces has been brought from the factory of the African Glass Company (Jijel, Algeria). They were milled to obtain a particle size of about 100µm.



Figure 50: Milled soda-lime glass waste.

72

2.3.2.2.1 Quantitative XFS analysis of milled soda-lime glass waste

Tabl	e 1.	<i>l</i> :	Chen	nical	compos	sition	of s	oda	lime	glass	waste
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Oxides (%)	SiO ₂	Ab ₂ O ₃	TiO ₂	Fe ₂ O ₃	K ₂ O	Na ₂ O	CaO	MgO	Loss on ignition at 1000°C
soda-lime glass waste	70.25	1.71	0	0.33	0.28	13.43	13.43	0.52	0.1

Table 11 shows the chemical composition of soda-lime glass waste, which contains mainly silica oxide, sodium and calcium. This composition rich in alkali-oxides makes it an important proposed alternative to feldspar in the composition of sanitary ceramic bodies.

2.3.2.2.2 SEM analysis of the Soda-lime glass waste

The SEM analysis of the soda-lime glass waste is presented in the figure 51.





Figure 51 shows the SEM-EDX analysis of SLGW. From the figure, it is shown that the particles have an irregular geometry with sizes around 50 µm; the quartz particles and the vitreous phase can be seen with a significant porosity appearing in dark colour. The EDX analysis also shows the same chemical compositions as the XFS analysis included in table 10, where it shows large proportions of oxygen, silicon, calcium, sodium and a lower amount of aluminum. They which are the predominant elements in Industrial soda-lime glass.

2.3.2.3 Sanitary ceramic waste (SCW)

Sanitary ceramic waste is produced in huge quantities worldwide. Sanitary ceramic waste can be used as chamotte in the composition of (fine) fireclay bodies for sanitary wares. SCW pieces have been brought from the factory of the sanitary ceramic (El Milia - Jijel, Algeria) and then ground up to obtain a particle size smaller than 100µm.



Figure 52: Milled sanitary ceramic waste.

2.3.2.3.1 Quantitative XFS analysis of the sanitary ceramic waste

Table 11: Chemical	composition	of sanitary	ceramic	waste

Oxides (%)	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	TiO ₂	Fe ₂ O ₃	K ₂ O	Na2O	CaO	MgO	ZnO	ZrO ₂	Loss on ignition at 1000°C
soda-lime glass waste	69.2	22	0.43	1.42	3.17	1.64	1.14	0.27	0.18	0.4	0.8

Sanitary ceramic waste has a chemical composition rich in SiO_2 and Al_2O_3 oxides with less content of alkali oxides (Na₂O and K₂O), in addition to CaO and Fe₂O₃ oxides. It should be noted that the humidity rate of SCW, is null with a low loss on ignition of 0.8%.

2.3.2.3.2 SEM analysis of sanitary ceramic waste

The SEM analysis of the sanitary ceramic waste is presented in figure 53.

METHODOLOGY AND CHARACTERISATION OF RAW MATERIAL



Figure 53: SEM micrographs of sanitary ceramic waste with EDX microanalysis.

SEM micrographs of the milled sanitary ceramic waste sample, the bulk appears as a vitrified matrix with different particles of different shapes and sizes; these are are mostly quartz, mullite particles and melted feldspar-penetrated clay. Besides, we have a significant presence of porosity that appears in dark. The EDX spectrum of the sample indicates the presence of oxygen (O), and silicon (Si) which appeared at a significant peak at 1.7 keV with a small amount of aluminium (Al), calcium (Ca), sodium (Na) and magnesium (Mg).

2.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, we presented different characterisation techniques and preparation methods of our sanitary ceramic bodies, including rheological, chemical, structural, microstructural, thermal and mechanical characterisation. This methodology allow us to control the quality of the raw material used, via the study of its properties. All this in order to manufacture a good quality final product.

3.EFFECT OF BLAST FURNACE SLAG ON THE QUALITY OF SANITARY CERAMIC BODIES

3.1 Introduction

In sanitary-ware bodies' production, the most important factor is the selection of raw materials which are rich in aluminosilicate oxides. The chemical composition, particle size distribution and humidity content of the raw materials must be investigated to obtain the right dosage.

Blast furnace slag is one of the most important industrial wastes; it is rich in aluminosilicates (SiO₂, Al₂O₃) and calcium oxide (CaO). Recently, there has been a growing interest in the idea of incorporation of blast furnace slag in various traditional ceramics formulations, as an alternative to some raw materials. The high calcium oxide content may cause the blast furnace slag to affect the rheological properties of slip casting. Therefore, different types of electrolytes are usually used to allow it to be homogeneous in composition without affecting the technical properties.

In this chapter, we first present the method of preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies, starting from the preparation of the slip until the heat treatment. Then, we will show the rheological and physical-mechanical results obtained by different experimental techniques. In addition, the thermal, structural and micro structural characterisation techniques will be used to identify the effect of the blast furnace slag on the quality of the products.

3.2 Production of sanitary ceramic bodies containing solid industrial wastes

The process of producing sanitary ceramic bodies can be divided into three steps. In the first step, a mixture of oxides is prepared resulting in a ceramic liquid (slip). In the second step, the slip is poured into gypsum moulds to obtain shapes suitable for various applications. Finally, the third step, sintering, produces a dense ceramic body with the desired properties.

The following figure shows the steps for the preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies:



Figure 54: Manufacturing steps of sanitary VC bodies.

3.2.1 Preparation of the slip

The selection of the raw materials is mainly based on purity and grain size characteristics. The materials are weighed, taking into account the loss on ignition and the humidity content. The chemical composition of the raw materials and blast furnace slag is presented in table12.

The proposed formulations of the slips are summarised in table 13, while the composition of each batch is presented in table 14. The reference formulation represents the composition of the slip of the sanitary ceramic factory of El-Milia - Jijel. Algeria.

Oxides	Clay Hyperst	PAR	Kaolin	Sodium	Potassium	Quartz	BFS
	VC	KAOLIN	RMB	feldspar	feldspar		
SiO ₂	52	48	48	70.44	69.5	96.35	33
<i>Al</i> ₂ <i>O</i> ₃	31	37	37	17.92	17.3	0.52	6.18
TiO ₂	1	0.06	0.05	0.26	0	0.05	0.294
CaO	0,2	0.07	0.07	0.5	0.5	1.19	44.1
MgO	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.08	3.7
K ₂ O	2.1	1.9	1.5	0.4	9	0.17	0.681
Na ₂ O	0.2	0.1	0.1	9.6	3.1	0.08	0.196
Fe_2O_3	1	0.19	0.8	0.08	0.1	0.24	1.43
SO ₃	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.38
MnO	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
SrO	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.28
BaO	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.01
L. O. I	12	11.8	12.1	0.5	0.4	1.2	0.83

Table 12: Chemical compositions of the raw materials.

Table 13: Formula	tions (in wt.	%) of cer	amic comp	ositions E.	1, E2, E3	, E4 and E5.
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Raw materials	E1	E2	E3	E4	E5
Clay (Hycast VC)	28	28	28	28	28
PARKAOLIN	12	12	12	12	12
kaolin RMB	12	12	12	12	12
Sodium feldspar	12	9.5	7	4.5	2
Potasium feldspar	11	8.5	6	3.5	1
Quartz	25	25	25	25	25
BF Slag	0	5	10	15	20

Oxides	E1	E2	E3	<i>E4</i>	<i>E5</i>
SiO ₂	68.21	66.45	64.63	62.94	62.18
Al_2O_3	21.1	22.53	22.04	21.43	20.86
TiO2	0.26	0.38	0.39	0.4	0.41
CaO	0.55	2.81	5.12	7.44	9.75
MgO	0.27	0.46	0.64	0.83	1.02
K ₂ O	2.24	2.04	1.84	1.65	1.45
Na ₂ O	1.77	1.45	1.13	0.82	0.5
Fe_2O_3	0.61	0.68	0.75	0.82	0.89
SO3	0	0.07	0.14	0.21	0.29
MnO	0	0.1	0.21	0.31	0.42
SrO	0	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.05
BaO	0	0.01	0.1	0.16	0.21

Table 14: Chemical analysis of slip modified by BFS.

After the selection of raw materials and the calculation of formulations, we prepare the slip as follows:

First, we grind the quartz having added a small quantity of sodium silicate and 30 wt. % water, in conjunction with the diluting of the clay with 30 wt. % water by adding sodium electrolytes Na₂SiO₃ and Na₂CO₃ (high purity: 99.9%, ACS grade). The crushed sand and the diluted clay are milled in a ceramic jar (containing an Al₂O₃ ball mill). We use a mixture of balls of three different diameters (5, 10 and 20 mm). These balls are distributed according to the following proportions, expressed as a mass percentage: 25% of small particles, 50% medium and 25% large. Grinding reduces the particle size as well as the space between the particles. The jar is rotated for 4 hours at 120 rpm. Then, we add feldspar, kaolin, and another amount of water. The milling must be continued until we obtain a residue on a 63 To improve the milling efficiency, small amounts of µm (less than 2%) sieve. deflocculating agents: Na₂SiO₃ and Na₂CO₃ are added to the slip mixture. Water and electrolytes are added to slip according to the rheological behaviour by repeated controlling slip properties for specific periods (we add water in case of high density, electrolytes in case of high fluidity (viscosity). We extend the grinding time of the mixture if the residue above the 63 μ m sieve is higher than 2%). The jar milling system is presented in figure 55.



Figure 55: Schematic of a jar milling system using alumina balls.

Two rotating rotors turn the raw materials and balls. The grinding is carried out by cutting the powder grains between the balls. The advantage of this method it is speed, in other words, it is time saving.

3.2.2 Slip casting in plaster moulds

After milling, the slip is poured into plaster moulds, which will absorb water via capillarity; a solid ceramic body is formed before the molds are removed. The obtained slip was poured into rectangular moulds, at room temperature. For each mixture 8 test pieces $(70\times20\times10\text{mm})$, were prepared to measure water absorption; while rectangular samples $(120\times20\times20\text{mm})$ were prepared to measure both linear shrinkage and flexural strength. Figure 56 shows the casting of the slip into a plaster mould and the final piece.



Figure 56: Casting slip into the plaster mould and re-emptying the slip.

81

3.2.3 Drying

The samples were then dried at room temperature for 48 hours, then, at 105°C for 8 hours.



Figure 57: samples drying at 105 °C.

3.2.4 Firing

The green bodies were fired in a tunnel kiln, for 21 h, at a maximum temperature of 1230°C, under industrial conditions.



Figure 58: Firing at 1230 °C in an industrial tunnel kiln.

3.3 Effect of blast furnace slag on the rheological parameters of the slip

The incorporation of blast furnace slag within the composition of the sanitary ceramic bodies caused an increase in the viscosity of the slip and slowed its rheological behaviour. For this reason, the addition of electrolytes was necessary. Accordingly, specific amounts of sodium silicate and sodium carbonate were mixed. Figure 59 shows the effect of the electrolyte ratio on the fluidity of different slips. According to the results, the optimum liquidity isobtained at the ratio Na₂CO₃ / Na₂SiO₃ = 1.5. While Figure 60 shows the effect of the combined amount of the ideal electrolyte mixture on the fluidity of different slips. It

can be seen that fluidity decreases with the added amount of the electrolyte mixture up to 0.375 wt. %. The higher amount of sodium cations Na+ in the mixture reduces the thickness of the diffusion layer and contributes to this rheological behaviour [37].



Figure 59: Variation of the fluidity for different mixtures depending on the ratio between electrolytes (Na2CO3 / Na2SiO3).



Figure 60: Variation of the fluidity for different mixtures depending on the content of electrolytes (Na2CO3 / Na2SiO3 = 1.5).

Some other rheological properties of slip are summarized in Table 15. It may be noted that the pH and density goes up with the reduced residue on sieve, resulting from the BFS additions. The viscosity of the slip significantly influences the surface charge of the ceramic particles, which leads to a modification of the slip pH [106]. In such manner, according to the findings in the table, it is also clear that the use of sodium silicate alone is not sufficient to improve the rheological properties. For that, polyelectrolytes should be used with the addition of sodium carbonate, as they are more effective. Several authors in previous studies have obtained the same observations [107].

Table 15: Evolution of the density, residue on sieve and pH of slip as a function of addedBFS concentration.

	E1	E 2	E3	<i>E4</i>	<i>E5</i>
Density (g/cm ³)	1.771	1.802	1.807	1.817	1.822
Residue on sieve (63 μm) (%)	1.6	1.2	0.9	0.9	0.7
рН	8.3	9.5	10.2	10.4	10.5

3.4 TDA/TGA analysis of green ceramics

TDA and TGA analyses of E1, E2, E3, E4 and E5 ceramics are shown in figures 61 and 62.



Figure 61: TDA analysis of the mixtures E1.E2.E3.E4 and E5.



Figure 62: TGA analysis of the mixtures E1.E2.E3.E4 and E5.

From TDA curves, significant endothermic peaks appear at ~470 °C; they are attributed to the dehydroxylation of hydroxyl groups in kaolin leading to the formation of metakaolin $(A1_2O_3.2SiO_2)[39, 108]$ and the dehydroxylation of montmorillonite [2].

Exothermic peaks appeared at ~970 °C for (0, 5, 10, 15 and 20 wt. % BFS), which are mainly assigned to the transformation of metakaolin into mullite crystals [109].

Al₂O₃.2SiO₂ \rightarrow 3Al₂O₃.2SiO₂ (metakaolin) (primary mullite)

Along with these microstructural transformations, there is a loss of mass, as seen in the TGA curves in figure 63. The values of the total mass loss in the 0, 5, 10, 15 and 20 wt.% BFS ceramics are: 8.83, 9.31, 9.66, 10.06 and 10.18%, respectively. These losses are generally attributed to the removal of water from plastic materials such as kaolin and clay.

$$2OH + O^{-2}$$
 \rightarrow H_2O (as vapour)

DTA analysis indicates that a considerable liquid phase is formed, which contributes to the melting of the blast furnace slag in the ceramic matrix [110]. So, the sintering process must be carried out by other mechanisms. These changes can be seen as a liquid phase sintering mechanism. This mechanism involves the dissolution of solids in the liquid phase and the growth of crystalline phases [2]. The trapped gas generates the closed pores, while the crystallization process generates the micro pores [111]. Blast furnace slag has no major influence on the thermal properties of sanitary ceramics bodies.

3.5 Effect of blast furnace slag on the physical properties of fired samples

The partial substitution of feldspar by blast furnace slag affects the physical properties of fired sanitary ware bodies. Figure 63 shows the results of changes of total porosity and bulk density of the ceramic bodies. The porosity is reduced by the addition of 10 wt.% of blast furnace slag, while the density increases; this is mainly due to the formation of a liquid phase resulting from the mixing of alkali oxides (Na₂O + K₂O) in the feldspar with the alkaline earth oxides (CaO + MgO), present in the blast furnace slag. The formation of the liquid phase enhances condensation, accelerates the sintering reaction and closes the space between the crystalline phases. Subsequently, the density of the samples decreased as the total porosity increased when the addition of blast furnace slag is more than 10% wt. %. The increase in porosity may be due to the low alkali content of the BFS containing samples, which prevents the formation of the liquid phase [64, 65, 112].



Figure 63: Variation of bulk density and total porosity for a ceramic heated at 1230°C.

Generally, all physical properties of sanitary ceramic bodies are related to each other, such as the inverse correlation between density and total porosity on the one hand, and firing shrinkage to water absorption on the other.

Furthermore, shrinkage values are related to the amount of liquid phase produced, as shrinkage increases in the presence of a large amount of liquid phase filling the spaces between the crystalline phases and closing the pores. This leads to a decrease in the total porosity and consequently the percentage of water absorption in the samples [83]. Figure 64 shows the changes in firing shrinkage and water absorption with the increasing of blast furnace slag in the composition. The decrease in the water absorption in the case of less than10 wt. % of the slag addition, is attributed to the formation of the liquid phase in sufficient quantity to fill the pores due to the presence of alkali feldspar oxides. However, when the substitution of feldspar by blast furnace slag exceeds 10 wt. % in the composition, the amount of alkali oxides decreases as the amount of alkaline earth oxides in the slag is increased. The decrease in alkali oxides, directly affects the formation of the liquid phase. The lower amount of liquid phase in the composition leads to an increase the formation of pores and the opening of voids between the crystalline phases; this which increases water absorption and reduces shrinkage [113]. According to the production requirements of sanitary ware bodies and (ASTM C: 326-82), the maximum value of final shrinkage is usually less than 12%, thus, improving the properties of the final products. In addition, according to ASTM C 373-88, low water absorption, below 0.5% is a significant requirement to ensure hygiene throughout the lifetime of the product [83, 98, 114].



Figure 64: Variation of water absorption and firing shrinkage for a ceramic heated at 1230°C.

3.6 Flexural strength of fired samples

Flexural strength is a mechanical property of the material and represents the maximum value of the flexural stress before the rupture of the sample. Ceramic bodies are affected by the flexural strength applied to them according to their chemical composition and their physical and thermal properties acquired during firing. The effect of the addition of blast furnace slag to the composition of sanitary bodies, on the flexural strength, is illustrated in Figure 65. An increase in flexural strength was observed for ceramic bodies containing 10 wt.% blast furnace slag (41MPa) compared to standard ceramics (33 MPa), This can be attributed to the higher pre-stress resulting from the difference in thermal expansion coefficients between the formed anorthite grains, the vitreous matrix and other crystalline phases (mullite and quartz) during the cooling process. Many authors in earlier studies have reported similar findings [39, 60].



Figure 65: Evolution of the flexural strength in the case of a ceramic heated at 1230°C.

3.7 X-ray Diffraction analysis

The substitution process in the chemical composition affects directly the different crystalline phases within the ceramic matrix. The presence of mullite, increases mechanical resistance due to its high strength, as it has a bending strength of up to 400 MPa, in addition to its low thermal expansion coefficient. This one, contributes to the chemical stability of the ceramic body [115]. Quartz's role is to adapt the plasticity of the clay slip and to reduce the firing shrinkage of the ceramic body during the firing stage. The vitreous phase is formed by the solid phase reaction of amorphous silica with molten feldspar at high temperature; its role is to increase the densification and reduces the water absorption rate[116]. Figure 66 shows the X-ray diffraction analysis of the ceramic bodies fired at 1230 °C. From the XRD peaks, mullite and quartz are the main phases in the reference sample E1. The gradual addition of blast furnace slag, leads to a decrease in the mullite peaks intensity; while the quartz peaks remains constant. This is consistent with the gradual appearance of the anorthite phase, which becomes the dominant phase, with that of quartz, in the samples containing 20 wt. % slag. The source of the formation of anorthite phase is the high calcium oxide content in blast furnace slag, compared to feldspar. The growth of the anorthite phase in ceramics E4 and E5 could be the cause of the reduced density of the fired samples, resulting from the low theoretical density of the anorthite phase $\sim 2.7 \text{g/cm}^3$ compared to the mullite phase $\sim 3.2 \text{g/cm}^3$ [65, 117, 118].



Figure 66: XRD patterns for heated samples contained BFS at 1230 °C (m: mullite,Q: quartz, A: anorthite).

3.8 SEM Analysis

The microstructure of ceramic bodies controls physical and mechanical properties of the body. Therefore, scanning electron microscopy analysis is usually used to characterise the material that make up the body: the glass matrices, and the various types of pores. Figures 67, 68 and 69 show the microstructure obtained for different blast furnace slag mixtures (0, 10 and wt. 20%) treated at 1230°C. In the reference (commercial) sanitary porcelain body sample, it is clear that there is a glassy matrix containing a mass of crystals of different shapes and sizes [119]. Quartz represents the predominant component, as appears in the EDS analysis. The reference sample, also shows some pure clay particles in addition to dissolved clay infiltrated with feldspar, inside the glass matrix. Besides, a small amount of pores appears in the ceramic matrix [120].

In sample E3 (10 wt. % BFS), the addition of blast furnace slag instead of feldspar leads to an increase in the percentage of calcium oxide within the ceramic body, which leads to

the formation of the anorthite phase; this appears clearly with quartz grains, as confirmed by EDS analysis. The presence of alkaline earth oxides in feldspar, in combination with earth oxides present in feldspar, leads to the formation of the early glassy phase. We have also the beginning of the formation of open pores inside the matrix.

In E5 samples (20wt. % BFS), anorthite becomes the predominant phase within the ceramic matrix, as confirmed by EDS analysis. There are also quartz grains and some scattered mullite crystals with a clear porosity on the surface of the crystals; these results are very consistent with the XRD analyses[121].



Figure 67: SEM-EDS analysis for E1 sample at 1230 °C. (M: mullite,Q: quartz, C: pure clay, C+F: clay+ melted feldspar, L-P: liquid phase).



Figure 68: SEM-EDS analysis for E3 sample at 1230 °C. (M: mullite,Q: quartz, C: pure clay, A:anorthite, C+F: clay+ melted feldspar, L-P: liquid phase, p: pores).



Figure 69: SEM-EDS analysis for E5 sample at 1230 °C. (M: mullite,Q: quartz, C: pure clay, A:anorthite, C+F: clay+ melted feldspar, L-P: liquid phase, p: pores).

3.9 Infrared spectroscopic study

To provide a comprehensive characterisation of clay minerals, it is useful to examine a sample measured with the KBr. Figure 70 shows the absorption bands in the range 500-4000 cm-1. Infrared spectrometry analyses allow the identification of the chemical bonds present in the ceramic body. The spectra of ceramics (0, 5, 10, 15 and 20wt. % blast furnace slag) corresponding to the main chemical bonds after firing at 1230°C.





The bending vibrations Si-O located at 673cm⁻¹ in all specimens, indicate the presence of quartz and assert its stability after firing of the clay; this band may also be created by the stretching effect of the Al-O vibration in the octahedral distribution [122, 123]. The 900 cm-1 absorption bands identified in samples containing slag are attributed to the asymmetric stretching of the AlO₄ groups in the vitreous phases [116, 124, 125]. The bands at 1079 cm-1 can be assigned to Si-O and (Si-O-Si) vibrations of siloxane bonds [126, 127]. The wavenumbers located at 1444 cm⁻¹ are attributed to the Si-O-Ca bands, which signals the anorthite phase formation from the CaO oxide in the BFS-containing samples; they can also be related to the formation of calcite [128, 129]. Absorption bands at 2352 cm⁻¹ are
CHAPTER III EFFECT OF BLAST FURNACE SLAG ON THE SANITARY CERAMIC BODIES

assigned to the presence of –OH group in the ceramics [130]. Further peaks at 3747 cm⁻¹ are attributed to OH stretching vibrations originating from Si-OH groups, which indicate the transformation of kaolinite to metakaolinite [122, 125].

CHAPTER III EFFECT OF BLAST FURNACE SLAG ON THE SANITARY CERAMIC BODIES

3.10 Conclusion

We investigated the effect of the substitution of feldspar by Algerian blast furnace slag from the El-Hadjar steel factory, on the properties of commercial sanitary ceramic bodies. This experimental work aimed to find the optimal combination. We can summarise the results obtained as follows:

- The rheological behaviour of the slip containing BFS can be improved by using Na-electrolytes at a ratio Na₂CO₃/Na₂SiO₃=1.5 and a combined amount of 0.375 wt.% to get optimized results.
- According to TDA/TGA analysis, there is no significant effect on loss mass and kaolinite dehydroxylation and mullite crystallisation peaks.
- The use of BFS increases the formation of anorthite according to the XRD, SEM and FTIR analyses.
- The addition of BFS (10 wt. %) in sanitary ceramic bodies composition, improves flexural strength (33 to 38 MPa) and reduces water absorption (0.35 to 0.10%).

Sanitary ceramic bodies can be produced by incorporating 10 wt. % of the blast furnace slag (BFS), while they gain in quality and allow waste recycling.

4.EFFECT OF SODA-LIME GLASS WASTE ON SANITARY CERAMIC BODIES

4.1 Introduction

Glass waste has been the subject of many technical studies in the near past. The aim is the valorisation and recycling of this solid waste into various construction materials. The use of glass waste in industrial applications is based on the knowledge of Physical, chemical and technological properties [68].

Algeria has a large production of glass waste, particularly soda-lime glass waste (SLGW). Recent studies have focused on its integration as an alternative material in the formulation of various ceramic materials. The importance of SLGW in the ceramic industry results from their chemical composition rich in SiO₂, Na₂O and CaO. In addition, it has alow melting temperature [51, 68].

This chapter is devoted to study of the integration of SLGW in the preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies to test the effect of these wastes on the rheological, thermal, physical-mechanical and structural properties.

4.2 Preparation of sanitary bodies from Soda-lime glass waste

The preparation of our sanitary bodies from SLGW, is based on the same process described in chapter III; we replace feldspar (Na and K) with SLGW. The different formulations are summarised in the Table 16, while the chemical composition of raw materials are presented in table 17. As in the chapter III, the reference formulation represents the composition of the slip of the sanitary ceramic factory of El-Milia - Jijel. Algeria.

Raw material	VC	C2	C3	C4	C5
Clay (Hycast	28	28	28	28	28
VC)					
Par Kaolin	12	12	12	12	12
kaolin RMB	12	12	12	12	12
Sodium feldspar	12	9.5	7	4.5	2
Potassium feldspar	11	8.5	6	3.5	1
Quartz	25	25	25	25	25
SLGW	0	5	10	15	20

Table 16: Formulations (in wt. %) of batch compositions VC, C2, C3, C4 and C5.

Oxides	clay	Par	Kaolin	Sodium	Potassium	Quartz	SLGW
	Hycast						
	VC	Kaolin	RMB	feldspar	feldspar		
SiO ₂	52	48	48	70.44	69.5	96.35	70.25
Al ₂ O ₃	31	37	37	17.92	17.3	0.52	1.71
TiO ₂	1	0.06	0.05	0.26	0	0.05	0
CaO	0,2	0.07	0.07	0.5	0.5	1.19	13.43
MgO	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.08	0.52
K ₂ O	2.1	1.9	1.5	0.4	9	0.17	0.28
Na ₂ O	0.2	0.1	0.1	9.6	3.1	0.08	13.43
Fe ₂ O ₃	1	0.19	0.8	0.08	0.1	0.24	0.33
L. O. I	12	11.8	12.1	0.5	0.4	1.29	0.1

Table 17: Chemical composition of raw materials

4.3 The melting behavior of feldspar and SLGW

A better understanding of the properties of glass waste added to the composition, can help explain its effect on the different behaviours of the ceramic body during sintering. Melting behaviour is one of the most important factors in the identification of raw materials for the traditional ceramic industry, especially the raw materials that act as fluxes within the ceramic composition [131]. The partial replacement of feldspar by the SLGW in the composition of sanitary ceramics makes the study of the melting behaviour of these materials very important. The cones are made of different types of feldspar, on the one hand, and SLGW on the other. The samples are fired in a tunnel kiln at 1230°C, as shown in figure 71. SLGW has a fast melting behaviour compared to the two types of feldspar; this is due to the presence of the mixed effect of the alkaline Na₂O and the alkaline earth CaO, which helps reduce the firing temperature and accelerate the growth kinetics of the mullite phase [21, 84, 132].



Figure 71: Melting of feldspar and SLGW at 1230°C.

4.4 SLGW effect on the rheological bahaviour of sanitary slip

The rheological properties of each slip are shown in the following table:

	VC	C2	C3	C4	C5	
Slip density (g/cm ³)	1.77	1.78	1.78	1.77	1.78	
fluidity (s)	16	14	11	12	11	
residue on sieve (63µm)	1.7	1.9	1.8	1.5	1.9	
Viscosity (°G)	300	305	309	299	300	
Drying shrinkage (%)	4.11	7.19	7.87	7.98	8.30	
Thixotropy after 5 min (°G)	52	32	9	15	10	
Thixotropy after 15 min (°G)	87	55	22	19	17	
Thickness after 1 h (mm)	6.7	7.8	6.50	6.80	6.10	
Sodium silicate deflocculated (%)	0.1					
Sodium carbonate deflocculated (%)	0.075					

Table 18: Rheological properties of slip compositions.

The results listed in table 18, show that all the slips have very similar values for residue on the sieve, density and viscosity; also, the values for thixotropy and thickness are within the specified range. The chemical composition of SLGW, rich in silica and sodium oxides, acts as a defflocculant agent to accelerate slip fluidity. Therefore, the use of SLGW does not require the use of sodium silicate. The slip viscosity significantly affects the superficial charge of particles, thus creating a change in the pH of the material [106]. However, the integration of SLGW leads to the formation of calcium and sodium hydroxides, because of the excessive amount of Ca^+ and Na^+ cations in the mixture, causing a decrease of the diffusion layer thickness [37, 132].

4.5 Effect of soda-lime glass waste on the physical properties of fired ceramics

Figures 72 and 73, show the findings for total porosity, bulk density, firing shrinkage and water absorption of fired samples. The integration of SLGW in the composition of the sanitary bodies, reduces significantly the porosity of the industrial ceramic VC. The ceramic containing 20 wt.% SLGW, has a total porosity of 2.8%; whereas the industrial ceramic VC body has a porosity of more than 10%. The characteristic composition of waste glass, rich in alkali and alkaline earth oxides (Na₂O and CaO), makes it play the role of a classic flux (Albite and Anorthite feldspar). The presence of these oxides, contributes to the extensive formation of the liquid phase that fills the pores and voids between the crystals of the ceramic material; this leads to an increase in density and a decrease in the total porosity. It also transforms open porosity into closed porosity, which decreases the total volume of the body (increase in shrinkage); it also, reduces water absorption [113]. Generally. The linear shrinkage values do not exceed 12% and the amount of water absorption does not exceed 0.5% in all fired samples. All these results are consistent with the requirements of sanitary ware production according to (ASTM C: 326-82 and ASTM C 373-88) [97, 98, 132].



Figure 72: Bulk density and total porosity of the sintered samples.



Figure 73: Water absorption and firing shrinkage of the sintered samples.

4.6 Effect of SLGW on the flexural strength of fired ceramics

Figure 74 shows the effect of SLGW on the flexural strength of sanitary ceramic samples. As mentioned before, all the ceramic bodies of different compositions have a good degree of densification, as crystalline phases such as mullite and quartz are dispersed in the glassy phase; we may add that with a low porosity, the flexural strength values go up. The flexural strength of sample C5 (20 wt.% SLGW) is the highest (51 MPa), compared to the standard VC ceramics (33 MPa). A small increase in the flexural strength of ceramics C2,

C3 and C4, can also, be observed. The presence of calcium oxide in the composition of SLGW, contributes to the formation of the anorthite phase inside the glassy matrix. The difference in the coefficient of thermal expansion between the formed anorthite crystals, mullite, quartz and the liquid phase increases the prestressing during the cooling process, thus, enhancing the flexural strength of the ceramic body [39, 60]. It is interesting to note that the flexural strength of all samples range from 33 to 51 MPa. These values are satisfactory for unglazed sanitary wares [113, 133].



Figure 74: Evolution of the flexural strength of samples fired at 1230°C.

4.7 X-ray Diffraction analysis

Traditional triaxial ceramics (kaolinite, feldspar and quartz) generally have a heterogeneous structure. The crystalline phases (mainly quartz and mullite) and a certain level of porosity are dispersed in the glass matrix [60]. Figure 75 shows the X-ray diffractograms corresponding to the fired samples. Quartz and mullite are the main phases in the standard ceramic sample. The partial replacement of the feldspar by soda-lime glass waste leads to the gradual formation of the anorthite phase, which is mainly caused by the high calcium oxide content (CaO >13 %) in the SLGW [134]. In addition, the mixed alkali and alkaline earth, result in the formation of a glassy phase and mullite; while, the sharp quartz peaks can be attributed to the strong presence in all samples of (SiO₂ > 70%) [132, 135].



Figure 75: XRD patterns for heated samples contained SLGW at 1230 °C (m: mullite,Q: quartz, A: anorthite).

4.8 SEM Analysis

Microstructural observations of VC, C2, C3, C4 and C5 ceramics with different SLGW incorporation ratios are presented in figures 76, 77, 78, 79 and 80. All samples have a similar morphology. The ceramic matrix contains agglomerations of feldspar-infiltrated clay residues, as well as agglomerations of pure clay in addition to quartz. The pure clay residues are the main source of primary mullite, while the feldspar-infiltrated clay residues are the source of secondary mullite [120, 136]. The gradual emergence of the anorthite phase, results from the incorporation of SLGW, which is rich in calcium oxide. The porosity decreases significantly in sample C5 (20wt. % SLGW) [132].



Figure 76: SEM analysis for VC sample at 1230 °C (M: mullite,Q: quartz, C: pure clay, C+F: clay+ melted feldspar, L-P: liquid phase, P: pores).



Figure 77: SEM analysis for C2 sample at 1230 °C (Q: quartz, C: pure clay, C+F: clay+ melted feldspar, L-P: liquid phase, P: pores).

CHAPTER IV

EFFECT OF SODA-LIME GLASS WASTE ON SANITARY CERAMIC BODIES



Figure 78: SEM analysis for C3 sample at 1230 °C (M: mullite,Q: quartz, C: pure clay, C+F: clay+ melted feldspar, L-P: liquid phase, P: pores).



Figure 79: SEM analysis for C4 sample at 1230 °C (Q: quartz, C: pure clay, C+F: clay+ melted feldspar, L-P: liquid phase, P: pores).



Figure 80: SEM analysis for C5 sample at 1230 °C (Q: quartz, C: pure clay, C+F: clay+ melted feldspar, L-P: liquid phase, P: pores).

4.9 Thermal analysis

Figures 81, 82 and 83 present the TGA/DTG curves of samples VC, C2 and C4, which contain 0, 5 and 15 wt. % SLGW. In the three ceramic samples, we note the first loss of mass in the interval 20°C - 100°C; it is attributed to the elimination of the water present in the raw materials. The second mass loss from 400 to 600°C is attributed to kaolin dehydroxylation to form metakaolin (A1₂O₃.2SiO₂); this is consistent with the peaks seen in the DTG analysis curves as they appear at 480 °C for the VC sample and 500 °C for ceramic bodies containing 5 and 15 wt. %SLGW [115]. As the temperature increases, the mass loss continues; in fact, DTG analysis indicates three minor peaks at 1099, 1047 and 1107 °C, for samples with 0, 5 and 15 wt.% of SLGW, respectively. These small peaks are attributed to the crystallisation of the mullite phase [39, 137]. The values of total mass loss in the ceramics 0, 5, and 15 wt. % SLGW are: 8.83, 8.12 and 8.56%, respectively. The addition of SLGW reduces mass loss in sanitary ceramic bodies, it could be related to the

lower ignition loss that SLGW has (0.1 wt. %), compared to potassium feldspar (0.4 wt. %) and sodium feldspar (0.5 wt. %) [84, 132].



Figure 81: TGA/DTG analysis of the mixture, with 0% of SLGW.



Figure 82 : TGA/DTG analysis of the mixture, with 5% of SLGW.



Figure 83 : TGA/DTG analysis of the mixture, with 15% of SLGW.

4.10 FTIR Spectroscopy

Figure 84 shows the FTIR spectra of the studied ceramic samples. Most of the bands are narrow and sharp, which indicates the regular structure of the ceramic body. The peak that appears at 715cm⁻¹ can be assigned to the (Al-O-Si) bending vibration bond [138]. A band at 1079cm⁻¹ may be related to (Si-O-Si) stretching vibrations of the siloxane bonds and Si-O vibrations [127]. The weak bands appearing at 1580cm⁻¹ in samples containing SLGW indicates the presence of bound water in the cordierite-mullite structure[139-141]. The sharp band that appears in all samples at 2352cm⁻¹ are to be assigned to –OH group in the ceramics [127, 130]. Moreover, very small bands appear at 3232cm⁻¹, indicating the absorption of calcium-silicate hydrate (Ca-Si-H) compounds [142].



Figure 84: FTIR analysis of the mixtures with 0, 5, 10, 15and 20 % SLGW.

4.11 Conclusion

We studied the effect of replacing feldspar with soda-lime glass waste originating from the factory of the African Glass Company (Jijel, Algeria), on the properties of commercial sanitary-ware bodies. The findings can be resumed as follows:

- SLGW powder has improved many slip properties without needing a large amount of Na-electrolytes (0.075 wt. % Na₂CO₃ and 0.1 wt. % Na₂SiO₃).
- From the TGA/DTG curves, SLGW reduces mass loss in sanitary bodies as a result of its lower ignition loss, compared to both types of feldspar.
- The addition of SLGW (20 wt. %) improves physical-mechanical properties, including bulk density (2-2.52 g/cm³), flexural strength (33-51 MPa) and reduced water absorption (0.35 to 0.02 %).
- According to XRD, SEM and FTIR analyses, quartz and mullite are the main crystalline phases present, with a gradual appearance of anorthite due to SLGW additions.

To conclude, satisfactory sanitary ceramics products can be prepared with the incorporation of 20wt. % of soda-lime glass waste (SLGW).

5.1 Introduction

Sanitary ceramic is a necessary material commonly used in buildings. The increase in the production of various sanitary ware automatically leads to an increase in their waste production resulting from various deformations such as shrinkage, as it generates from 20 to 30 tons every month from each sanitary factories [85, 143].

Sanitary ceramic waste (SCW) is of much important, since it can be incorporated into various construction materials. The growing interest in the valorisation of this waste means more research on its physical, chemical and technological properties [89].

Many recent studies have been conducted to include SCW in the preparation of various ceramic materials, for industrial applications. The rich chemical composition of Al_2O_3 and SiO_2 in SCW makes it a good and material in the ceramic industry. This chapter focuses on the effect of partial replacement of feldspar with SCW on the different properties of sanitary ceramic bodies [144].

5.2 Preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies using their glazed waste

This preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies from SCW follows the same steps as in chapter III; we substituted the feldspar (K and Na) with SCW. We present in table 19 the different compositions of the ceramic samples, while table 20 shows the chemical composition of the SCW and raw materials.

Raw materials	VC	VC5	VC10	VC15	VC20
Clay (Hycast VC)	28	28	28	28	28
Parkaolin	12	12	12	12	12
kaolin RMB	12	12	12	12	12
Sodium feldspar	12	9.5	7	4.5	2
Potasium feldspar	11	8.5	6	3.5	1
Silica Sand	25	25	25	25	25
SCW	0	5	10	15	20

Table 19: Formulations (in wt.	%) of ceramic compositions for VC	, VC5, VC10,	VC15
	and VC20 samples.		

Table 20: Chemical analysis of SCW and raw materials.

Oxides	Clay Hycast	PAR	Kaolin	Sodium	Potassium	Quartz	SCW
(/0)	VC	KAOLIN	RMB	feldspar	feldspar	Quartz	SCW
SiO ₂	52	48	48	70.44	69.5	96.35	69.2
Al_2O_3	31	37	37	17.92	17.3	0.52	22
TiO ₂	1	0.06	0.05	0.26	0	0.05	0.439
CaO	0,2	0.07	0.07	0.5	0.5	1.19	1.14
MgO	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.08	0.279
<i>K</i> ₂ <i>O</i>	2.1	1.9	1.5	0.4	9	0.17	3.17
Na ₂ O	0.2	0.1	0.1	9.6	3.1	0.08	1.64
Fe_2O_3	1	0.19	0.8	0.08	0.1	0.24	1.42
ZnO	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.,181
ZrO ₂	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.406
L. O. I	12	11.8	12.1	0.5	0.4	1.29	0.8

5.3 The effect of SCW on rheological properties of slip

The SCW is found to be undamaging the slip properties. To improve rheological behaviour of the slip, the addition of some electrolytes is necessary. Indeed, a combined amount of sodium silicate and sodium carbonate was added, with a ratio $\frac{Na_2CO_3}{Na_2SiO_3} = 0.25$ and with a total combined quantity of 0.375 wt. %; we found that it positively affect the fluidity of the various slips; this combination quantity of electrolytes is stable in all preparations as shown in table 21[144].

The addition of SCW powder with a small amount of sodium electrolytes reduces the liquidity time (fluidity). The added amount of sodium contributes to the formation of an excessive amount of Na⁺ cations in the slip mixture, which reduces the diffusion layer thickness [37]. The particles size affects the slip properties; especially the residue on the sieve (63 μ m) (%), which reduced by adding SCW. This is mainly due to the small size of the SCW particles compared to feldspar particles [88, 145].

	VC	VC5	VC10	VC15	VC20
$\frac{Na_2CO_3}{Na_2SiO_3}$			0.25		
$\frac{Na_2CO_3}{Na_2SiO_3}(wt.\%)$			0.375		
Density (g/cm ³)	1.771	1.780	1.773	1.776	1.775
Residue on sieve (63 μm) (%)	1.6	0.6	0.9	0.6	0.5
fluidity(s)	30	25	24	24	20
Drying shrinkage (%)	5.7	8.56	7.59	8.44	8.97

Table 21: Evolution of the fluidity, residue on sieve and density of slip as a function ofadded SCW concentration.

5.4 Effect of SCW on the physical properties of the fired ceramics

Figure 85 presents the results of bulk density and total porosity measurements of the ceramic samples. The higher density was observed in specimen VC5 where the feldspar is substituted by 5 wt.% SCW. Similarly, the addition of 10 wt.% SCW makes the VC10 ceramic body most dense than the standard VC body; this may be attributed mainly to the formation of the liquid phase from the mixing of alkali oxides ($K_2O + Na_2O$) in the feldspar with the alkaline earth oxide (CaO) from SCW. The increase of SCW in the ceramic mixture leads to a reduced liquid phase because of the decrease of alkaline oxides $(K_2O + Na_2O)$ in the feldspar, while the content of viscous molten SiO₂ in the SCW increases. For this reason, the porosity values are higher in VC15 and VC20 [64, 65, 112]. Figure 86 shows the change in water absorption and shrinkage values of the fired ceramics. Typically, the decrease in alkali content in the ceramic body, leads to a decrease in the liquid phase, which increases porosity and water absorption while reducing the shrinkage values [83, 144]. SCW has a lower coefficient of thermal expansion than both types of feldspar, as it contains a lower percentage of quartz. Thus, the addition of SCW to the composition of ceramic bodies contributes to the stability of the dimensions (shrinkage and deformation) of the final ceramic body [90]. Besides, water absorption values are less than 0.5%; linear shrinkage has values smaller than 12% in all fired ceramics; this makes these findings compliant with the recommendations for sanitary ware manufacturing (ASTM C 373-88 and ASTM C: 326-82) [97, 98].

CHAPTER V EFFECT OF SANITARY CERAMIC WASTE ON THE PROPERTIES OF THEIR UNGLAZED BODIES



Figure 85 : Variation of bulk density and total porosity with SCW content, for a ceramic heated at 1230°C.



Figure 86 : Variation of water absorption and total shrinkage with SCW content, for a ceramic heated at 1230°C.

5.5 Effect of SCW on the flexural strength of fired ceramics

Figure 87 shows the effect of SCW on the flexural strength of ceramic bodies; a clear improvement is found with the addition of 5 wt.% SCW. The VC10 samples have a higher flexural strength (44 MPa) than the standard ceramics (33 MPa). This is mainly due to the

formation of the liquid phase as well as the increased growth of the mullite phase; this is the source of strength resulting from the high content of SiO_2 and Al_2O_3 in the SCW[89]. However, as the replacement of feldspar with SCW exceeds 10 wt%, the flexural strength reduces as the amount of alkali oxides (K₂O + Na₂O) is lower, which reduces the liquid phase and increases porosity [90, 144].



Figure 87 : Variation of flexural strength with SCW content for the samples heated at 1230°C.

5.6 X-ray analysis of fired ceramics

Figure 88 presents the X-ray diffraction analysis of the ceramic bodies, heated at 1230 °C. All samples contain mullite and quartz as the main crystal phases with the liquid phase. The high Al_2O_3 content in the SCW, with the presence of alkali oxides (K₂O + Na₂O) from feldspar, favour the formation of the mullite phase, while the high SiO₂ content leads to a higher peak intensity of the quartz. Albite is mostly invisible due to its dissolution to form a liquid phase above 1100°C [90, 146]. The mullite phase obtained, increases the flexural strength of ceramic bodies when the SCW amount does not exceed 10 wt. % [144].



Figure 88 : XRD patterns for heated samples at 1230 °C (M: mullite, Q: quartz , Ab: albite).

5.7 SEM Analysis

To study the relation between physical-mechanical properties and microstructural characterizations, SEM analyses were carried out. Figure 89 shows the SEM micrographs of the fired samples at 1230°C. The ceramic bodies contain a heterogeneous group of crystals within the glass matrix; it consists in mullite and quartz. The pure clay forms the primary mullite, while the clay penetrated by dissolved feldspar forms the secondary mullite. The rich content of SiO2 in SCW and all raw materials used leads to the formation of the quartz phase. The glassy phase is attributed to feldspar melting. The combination of SCW with feldspar leads to presence of more alkali oxides ($K_2O + Na_2O$) with a smaller amount of alkaline earth oxides (CaO+MgO), enhancing the formation of the liquid phase. The latter closes the pores and spaces between the crystals, thus giving a higher density to sample VC5. We can note that, the morphology of VC10 is more dense than that of the standard body [121, 147]. The increase in SCW content reduces the amount of alkali oxides in the VC15 and VC20 compositions. This reduces the generation of the liquid phase and causes the opening of the pores, as shown clearly on the surface of the grains. These

findings are well confirmed by the physical-mechanical measurements and the XRD analyses.



CHAPTER V EFFECT OF SANITARY CERAMIC WASTE ON THE PROPERTIES OF THEIR UNGLAZED BODIES



Figure 89 : SEM micrographs of VC, VC5, VC10, VC15 and VC20 samples.

5.8 FTIR Spectroscopy

FTIR analysis of the samples is shown in figure 90. As appear in chapters three and four, all ceramic samples have the same structure with small new bands formed by SCW addition. The bands at 781 cm⁻¹, in all samples, are attributed to Si-O-Al vibrations [148]. The Si-O-Si asymmetric stretching vibration is found at 1084 cm⁻¹; which is attributed to the quartz-rich content due to SCW addition [126, 127]. At 1620 and 3460 cm⁻¹, the absorption bands make their appearance, they are specific to the H-O- H bending vibrations from the H₂O adsorbed molecules [149, 150]. The located bands that show up in VC and VC5 ceramics, at 2853 and 2918 cm⁻¹ can be ascribed to the symmetrical Si-O and Al-O stretching

vibrations, which means the formation of mullite and thus, improves the strength of VC5 [123, 151].



Figure 90: FTIR analysis of the ceramics with 0, 5, 10, 15 and 20 wt. % SCW.

5.9 Conclusion

We have studied the effect of the integration of sanitary ceramic waste (SCW) (from the sanitary ceramic factory of El-milia-Jijel) on the properties of their unglazed sanitary ware. The results obtained can be summarized as follows:

- The combination ratio $\frac{Na_2CO_3}{Na_2SiO_3} = 0.25$, with a combined total amount of 0.375 wt. % has a positive effect on the rheological behaviour of the different slips containing SCW.
- According to XRD, SEM and FTIR analyses, the use of SCW increases the peaks intensities of the mullite and quartz phases.
- A high density was recorded in sample VC5 containing 5 wt. % SCW (2.24 g/cm³) with a lower water absorption (0.18 %).
- The flexural strength is improved (33 to 44 MPa) while total porosity is reduced (18 to 12 %) in the ceramics containing 5 wt. % SCW.

Although the VC5 ceramic samples shows the best physical-mechanical results, the use of 10 wt. % SCW give better results than the standard ceramic. This makes us conclude that the incorporation of 10 wt. % SCW in the unglazed sanitary ceramic composition provides technical, economical and environmental benefits.

GENERAL CONCLUSION AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

GENERAL CONCLUSION AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

The choice of a composition for the preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies must take into account various characteristics, including: rheological behaviour, physical-mechanical properties, structural properties (evolution of crystalline phases) and economic considerations (quality and production cost).

In this context, we carried out this experimental work in the sanitary ceramic company (SCS) of El-Milia, Jijel-Algeria. The aim is to propose solutions for developing and improving the quality of sanitary ceramic products based on the valorization of industrial solid wastes.

For the realisation of this thesis, we have divided our research work in three main parts:

The first part is based on the effect of blast furnace slag (from Al-Hadjar steel factory, Annaba-Algeria) on the properties of sanitary ceramic bodies. The conclusions to be drawn are as follows:

- The rheological study of the ceramic slip showed a slow rheological behaviour following the incorporation of slag. The idea of using some electrolytes, Na-electrolytes in the optimum ratio Na₂CO₃/Na₂SiO₃=1.5 and a combined amount of 0.375 wt. %, was effective in improving the rheological behaviour of the slip.
- Differential thermal analysis (DTA) of green ceramics, has provided a lot of information on the physical-chemical reactions during the firing cycle.
- XRD and SEM analyses identified quartz and mullite as the main phases, with the gradual appearance of the anorthite phase. In order to confirm these phases, the FTIR spectrum was used; it revealed vibrational bands attributed to quartz, mullite and anorthite.
- The experimental results showed that replacing the feldspar mixture (sodium and potassium) with blast furnace slag 10 wt. %, was the optimal composition, as it results in a flexural strength of 38 MPa and a water absorption of 0.1%.

GENERAL CONCLUSION AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

The second part is also focused on the valorisation of solid wastes, through the evaluation of the integration of soda-lime glass waste in the preparation of sanitary ceramic bodies. We can conclude with the following points:

- 0.075 wt. % Na₂CO₃ and 0.1 wt. % Na₂SiO₃ electrolytes were sufficient to incorporate SLGW in the slip composition with many improvements in various properties.
- The TGA thermal analysis allowed us to know the amount of mass loss when firing sanitary ceramic bodies; we observed a reduced mass loss by SLGW addition.
- XRD and SEM analysis, identified the presence of quartz and mullite with a slight gradual appearance of anorthite, this was confirmed using FTIR spectroscopy, where vibrational bands of mullite quartz and, to a lesser extent, anorthite were detected.
- The incorporation of soda-lime glass waste instead of feldspar (sodium and potassium) by 20 wt. % result in many technical improvements in various properties of sanitary ceramic bodies. In addition, enhanced rheological behaviour of the slip by using a very small amount of electrolytes, leads to a significant increase in flexural strength (33 to 51MPa) and a considerable reduction in water absorption (0.35 to 0.02%).

The third part deals with the general topic of this thesis, which is the recycling of the sanitary ceramic waste in the formulation of unglazed bodies; we can conclude with the following:

• The different slips containing sanitary ceramic waste have optimal properties when using the combination ratio $Na_2CO_3/Na_2SiO_3=0.25$, with a total amount of 0.375 wt. %.

- XRD and FTIR analyses proved the high intensity of quartz and mullite peaks in samples containing SCW.
- The VC5 body (5 wt. % SCW) has the best physical-mechanical results as it has a flexural strength of 44 MPa and water absorption of 0.18 %. Moreover, the VC10 body sample has better physical-mechanical properties than the standard ceramic sample. Therefore, we can say that sanitary waste can be recycled in the manufacture of their unglazed ceramic bodies with up to 10 wt. % contribution.

According to the results of these three studies, we can consider that the success of the integration of these solid industrial wastes in the compositions of sanitary ceramic bodies is mainly related to the chemical composition controlling the rheological properties and their effect on the behaviour of the slip and the physical-mechanical properties after sintering. Based on this consideration, soda-lime glass waste was found that with an integration of waste by an amount of 20 wt. %, it gives the best results; followed by sanitary ceramic waste and blast furnace slag with a proportion of 10 wt. %, we optimize the product.

The work carried out has provided some answers to the problem of exploitationas of industrial solid waste rich in aluminosilicate and its incorporation in the composition of sanitary ceramic bodies. Some interesting points are to be proposed for future research work:

- In order to save energy and protect the environment, it will be interesting to study the effect of the reduction of the firing temperature from 1200, 1150, 1050 to 1100 °C, on the properties of the sanitary body, as this waste has been pre-fired. Its incorporation may lead to a lower melting point.
- To consider the option of new sanitary ceramics based on the mixture of specific proportions of these wastes according to stoichiometry parameters.
- Valorise these wastes in the production of sanitary ceramic glaze and use them as alternative materials to feldspar, dolomite or calcium carbonate according to the appropriate chemical composition of the mixture.

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ANNEXES

A.1 Data files of raw materials and electrolytes

A.1 .1 Technical file for Hycast VC clay

BALL CLAY

Hycast VC

APPLICATION

Sanitaryware

PRODUCT SPECIFICATION

CHEMICAL ANALYSIS (%)	Min.	Value	Max.
SiO ₂	50	53	55
Al ₂ O ₃	28	30	32
Fe ₂ O ₃	1.0	1.2	1.4
TiO ₂	0.9	1.0	1.3
K ₂ O	1.8	2.0	2.3
L.O.I.	11.0	12.2	13.5
PHYSICAL PROPERTIES			
M.B.I. (mg.g ⁻¹)	20	25	30
CASTING DATA			
Casting concentration (mass % solids)	65.5	66.5	68.0
M75 sodium silicate + Na ₂ CO ₃ demand (mass %) 7 poise	0.60	0.75	0.90
M75 sodium silicate + Na ₂ CO ₃ demand (mass %) 5 poise	0.90	1.05	1.20
Thixotropy V60 @ 7 poise	1	100	200
TYPICAL PROPERTIES			
CHEMICAL ANALYSIS (%)		Value	
Na ₂ O		0.2	
CaO		0.2	
MgO		0.3	
Carbon		2.2	
PARTICLE SIZE ANALYSIS (%)			
> 125 µm		1.5	
> 53 µm		2.5	
< 5 µm		91	
< 2 μm		77	
< 1 µm		67	
< 0.5 μm		54	
CHEMICAL PROPERTIES (%)			
Water soluble salts		0.15	
MODULUS OF RUPTURE (MN.m ⁻²)			
Dried at 110 °C		5.5	
FIRED PROPERTIES (%)	1120°C	1180°C	1240°C
Brightness	70	62	56
Water absorption	9.0	5.5	3.0

Big bag, 25-50 kg bags, bulk

December 2014 © Imerys Ceramics 2014

Tenth Edition

This version supersedes the version dated October 2014

Production Site

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Typical data values do not represent a specification. The data quoted are determined by the use of Imerys Standard Test Methods, copies of which will be supplied on request. Every precaution is taken in production to ensure the products conform to our published data. Since the products are based on naturally occurring materials, we reserve the right to change these data should it become necessary. Sales are in accordance with our "Conditions of Sale", copies of which will be supplied on request.



A.1 .2 Technical file for Remblend kaolin

Kaolin

Remblend

	Min	Value	b 4
HEMICAL ANALYSIS (%)	Min.	value	1 20
0	3.05	2.25	1.2.9
.0	2.05	2.25	2.45
ARTICLE SIZE ANALYSIS (%)			
53 μm	200	-	0.25
8 µm	14	19	24
2 µm	34	39	44
STING DATA			
sting concentration (mass % solids)	64.5	66.5	68.5
sting rate (mm ² .min ⁻¹)	0.90	1.90	2.90
HEMICAL ANALYSIS (%)		Value	
D_2		48.0	
O3		36.5	
2		0.05	
0		0.10	
)		0.07	
C		0.30	
).I.		12.0	
DUILUS OF RUPTURE (MN.m ⁻²)			
80 % RH		0.50	
A demand		0.48	
ruemanu		0.40	
ED PROPERTIES (%)	AT 1180°C		AT 1280°C
ghtness	82.0	-51	83.0
ter absorption	16.5		9.5
ear contraction	7.0		10.5

Powder, lumps

Big bag, 25-50 kg bags, bulk

Typical data values do not represent a specification. The data quoted are determined by the use of Imerys Standard Test Methods, copies of which will be supplied on request. Every precaution is taken in production to ensure the products conform to our published data. Since the products are based on naturally occurring materials, we reserve the right to change these data should it become necessary. Sales are in accordance with our "Conditions of Sale", copies of which will be supplied on request.

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A.1 .3 Technical file for Parkaolin

KAOLIN

Parkaolin

APPLICATION(S) Sanitaryware

TYPICAL PROPERTIES

Big bag, 25-50 kg bags, bulk

CHEMICAL ANALYSIS (%)	Value
SiO ₂	49
Al ₂ O ₃	36
Fe ₂ O ₃	1.1
TiO ₂	0.05
K ₂ O	2.3
Na ₂ O	0.15
CaO	0.06
MgO	0.29
L.O.I.	11.62
PARTICLE SIZE ANALYSIS (%)	
> 8 µm	17
< 2 µm	44
PHYSICAL PROPERTIES (%)	
Moisture	12
CASTING DATA (mm ² .min ⁻¹)	
Casting rate	1.3
PRODUCT FORM & STANDARD PACKAGING	
Powder, lumps	

October 2014 © Imerys Ceramics 2014

Third Edition This version supersedes the version dated September 2011

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A.1 .4 Technical file for Sodium feldspar



KALTUN IBERICA, S.L. Muelle de la Ceramica s/n 12100 Grac - CASTELLON ESPAÑA Tel. 00 34 964 73 70 50 Fax 00 34 964 28 62 65 E-mail: mangel@kaltun.com

FELDESPATO SODICO STD 63

Origen producto	; Çine – AYDIN - Turquía			
Materia	; Feldespato sódico de alta pureza, con bajo contenido en Fe ₂ O ₃ y TiO ₂ , procedente de los depósitos de la región de Çine. Material no flotado.			
Embalaje	; Granel / cisterna			
Analisis Químico	; Elemento	<u>%</u>	Tipico	
	SiO ₂	69,00		
	Al ₂ O ₃	17,00 - 19,00	17,80	
	Fe ₂ O ₃	< 0,15	0,10	
	TIO ₂	< 0,35	0,31	
	CaO	0,75		
	MgO	0,10		
	Na ₂ O	9,5 - 10,50	10,10	
	K ₂ O	0,25		
	P ₂ O ₅	0,20		
	L.O.I	0,32		
	Humedad	< 1,00		
Tamaño partícula	; Residuo sobre tamiz Método: Tamiz vía se	: 63 micras < 1,0 % eca	0,5 %	

These figures are average values from numerous measurements.

A.1 .4 Technical file for Potassium feldspar



A.1 .4 Technical file for Quartz of Bir El Ater



Fiche Technique

* Sable blanc brut pour Céramique :

Elément	Formule	%
Silice Totale	SiO ₂	97.60
Oxyde d'Aluminium	Al2O3	0.83
Oxyde de fer	Fe2O3	0.30
Oxyde de calcium	CaO	0.60
Oxyde de Maghésium	MgO	0.70
Oxyde de potassium	K2O	0.50
Oxyde de sodium	Na ₂ O	0.10
Oxyde de titane	TiO ₂	0.049
Oxyde de chrome	Cr2O3	0.037
Oxyde de manganèse	MnO	0.011
Anhydride	P2O5	0.086
Anhydride sulfurique	SO3	0.26
Perte au feu	1	0.38

Granulométries disponibles :

- 0.8 à 1.25 mm : silex de filtration
- 0.8 à 1.80 mm : silex de filtration
- 1.5 à 2.60 mm : support de filtration
- 3 à 5.6 mm : support de filtration

Conditionnement :

- Big Bags de 2 tonnes.

- Sacs de 25 et 50 Kg.

A.1 .5 Technical file for Sodium carbonate

DISTRIM, S.P. a.	CARBONATE DE SOUDE LEGER
+ CARACTERISTIQUES	
- Nom chimique - degrés de pureté - insolubilité dans l'eau	Na2CO3 98 & 100% après dessicution 0.02%
+ COMPOSITION CHIMIQUE	
Na ₂ CO ₃ Na CI Na ₂ SO ₄ Fe ₂ O ₃ CaO MgO Perte de dessiccation	99.3% 0.25 a 0.35% 0.03% 0.02% 0.01% 0.01% 0.3%
+ ANALYSES GRANULOMETR	IQUES
>0.250mm 0.250 A 0.125mm 0.125 A 0.962mm <0.062 mm	5 à 10% en poids 30% 40% 20%

A.1 .6 Technical file for Sodium silicate

	CHINN	CALS		
FI	CHE TECHNIQUE SILICATE	DE SOUL	DIUM LIC	QUIDE
Vom	de produit : Silicate de sodiu	m liquide		
Forn	nule brute : nSiO2, Na2O.x H2	0 (avec n	⇒Z)	
-	- A first sugar a burelessar (
Caro	cteristiques physiques .	- (.11) -	stions	
N	Caractéristiques	Spécifications		
01	Aspect	pâle		
02	Odeur	Inodore		
03	Pression de vapeur à 20°C	23 hPa		
04	Densité à 20 °C	1,467 à 1.509 g/cm³		
05	Solubilité dans/miscibilité avec l'eau	Entièrement miscible		
05	Viscosité à 20°C	Env. 10	0 mPas	
Caro	ctéristiques chimiques : Caractéristiques		Spécifi	ications
		- (MIN%)	(MAX9
	Matiere serne		40	43
01	THURLE AS STA			

A.2 HighScore files of the crystalline phases

A.2. 1 HighScore file of Mullite

Name and formula

Reference code:	98-009-9327		
Mineral name: Compound name: Common name:	Mullite Mullite Mullite		
Chemical formula:	Al _{4.44} O _{9.78} Si _{1.56}		

Crystallographic parameters

Crystal system:	Orthorhombic
Space group:	P b a m
Space group number:	55
a (Å):	7.5350
b (Å):	7.6830
c (Å):	2.8830
Alpha (°):	90.0000
Beta (°):	90.0000
Gamma (°):	90.0000
Calculated density (g/cm^3):	3.18
Volume of cell (10^6 pm^3):	166.90
Z:	1.00
RIR:	0.78

Subfiles and quality

Subfiles:	User Inorganic
	User Mineral
Quality:	User From Structure (=)

Comments

Creation Date:	01/04/2005
Modification Date:	30/12/1899
Original ICSD space group:	PBAM. Surface layer of Al-based ceramic. X-ray diffraction (powder)
Structure type:	Äl4.8Si1.2O9+x. Temperature factors available. Rietveld profile refinement applied
The structure has been assigned	a PDF number (calculated powder diffraction data): 01-074-4143
Compound with mineral name:	Mullite
Structure type:	Al4.8Si1.2O9+x
Recording date:	4/1/2005
Mineral origin:	synthetic
ANX formula:	A3X5

Z: 1 Calculated density: 3.18 R value: 0.08 Pearson code: oP16 Wyckoff code: h4 g d a Structure TIDY: TRANS Origin 1/2 0 1/2 Publication title: Crystallographical analysis of surface layers of refractory ceramics formed using combined flame spray and simultaneous laser treatment ICSD collection code: 99327 Structure: Al4.8Si1.2O9+x Chemical Name: Aluminium Silicon Oxide (4.44/1.56/9.78) Second Chemical Formula: Al4.44 Si1.56 O9.78

References

Structure:

Stott, F.H.;Li, L.;Li, J.F., *Journal of the European Ceramic Society*, **24**, 3129 - 3138, (2004)

Peak list

No.	h	k	1	d [A]	2Theta[deg]] I [%]
1	1	1	0	5.37961	16.465	40.7
2	0	2	0	3.84150	23.135	0.0
3	2	0	0	3.76750	23.596	2.0
4	1	2	0	3.42239	26.015	84.1
5	2	1	0	3.38269	26.326	100.0
6	0	0	1	2.88300	30.994	18.0
7	2	2	0	2.68981	33.282	31.8
8	1	1	1	2.54110	35.292	43.7
9	1	3	0	2.42477	37.045	24.3
10	3	1	0	2.38734	37.648	2.0
11	0	2	1	2.30586	39.031	0.3
12	2	0	1	2.28956	39.320	18.2
13	1	2	1	2.20493	40.896	48.9
14	2	1	1	2.19420	41.105	0.9
15	2	3	0	2.11799	42.654	15.4
16	3	2	0	2.10221	42.990	1.7
17	2	2	1	1.96674	46.116	1.6
18	0	4	0	1.92075	47.287	1.6
19	4	0	0	1.88375	48.274	4.7
20	1	4	0	1.86123	48.896	0.1
21	1	3	1	1.85569	49.051	0.1
22	3	1	1	1.83875	49.534	8.2
23	4	1	0	1.82956	49.799	1.0
24	3	3	0	1.79320	50.880	2.5
25	2	4	0	1.71120	53.507	4.4
26	2	3	1	1.70689	53.653	0.4
27	3	2	1	1.69859	53.936	2.9
28	4	2	0	1.69134	54.186	9.1
29	0	4	1	1.59848	57.619	12.5
30	4	0	1	1.57696	58.480	4.6
31	1	4	1	1.56368	59.026	0.5
32	4	1	1	1.54476	59.822	0.7
33	3	4	0	1.52574	60.645	0.0
34	3	3	1	1.52269	60.780	27.6
35	4	3	0	1.51746	61.012	0.0
36	1	5	0	1.50561	61.543	0.3
37	5	1	0	1.47882	62.784	0.4
38	2	4	1	1.47151	63.131	0.8

2.0	4	0	1	1 45000	CO 744	E 4	
39	4	2	Ţ	1.45883	63./44	5.4	
40	0	0	2	1.44150	64.603	11.9	
41	2	5	0	1.42281	65.557	2.0	
42	5	2	0	1.40291	66.607	4.1	
43	1	1	2	1.39238	67.177	0.7	
44	0	2	2	1.34961	69.606	0.0	
45	3	4	1	1.34854	69.669	0.3	
46	2	0	2	1.34632	69.801	0.0	
47	4	4	0	1.34490	69.885	1.9	
48	4	3	1	1.34281	70.010	0.0	
49	1	5	1	1.33458	70.506	5.3	
50	1	2	2	1.32847	70.879	2.9	
51	2	1	2	1.32611	71.024	3.4	
52	5	1	1	1.31581	71.665	2.0	
53	3	5	0	1 31076	71 984	1 5	
54	5	3	0	1 29882	72 751	0 7	
55	0	6	0	1 28050	73 961	0.5	
56	2	5	1	1 27589	74 276	8.0	
57	2	2	1 2	1 27055	74.270	2.5	
50	2 1	6	2	1 26240	75.206	2.5	
50	Г Г	0	1	1.20240	75.200	0.2	
59	5	2	T	1.20140	75.270	0.0	
60	6	1	0	1.25583	75.008	2.3	
61	6	Ţ	0	1.23939	/6.854	1.2	
62	1	3	2	1.23908	76.877	2.9	
63	3	1	2	1.23400	77.252	0.9	
64	4	4	1	1.21881	78.397	0.7	
65	2	6	0	1.21239	78.893	0.4	
66	6	2	0	1.19367	80.380	0.4	
67	3	5	1	1.19322	80.416	0.0	
68	2	3	2	1.19168	80.541	0.7	
69	4	5	0	1.19070	80.621	0.7	
70	3	2	2	1.18885	80.772	0.2	
71	5	4	0	1.18563	81.038	0.1	
72	5	3	1	1.18419	81.156	0.9	
73	0	6	1	1.17026	82.330	0.1	
74	1	6	1	1.15640	83.537	0.0	
75	0	4	2	1.15293	83.845	0.1	
76	6	0	1	1.15134	83.987	0.2	
77	4	0	2	1.14478	84.580	0.4	
78	3	6	0	1.14080	84.944	0.0	
79	1	4	2	1.13967	85.048	0.0	
80	6	1	1	1.13863	85.144	0.0	
81	4	1	2	1.13228	85.736	0.2	
82	6	3	0	1.12756	86.181	0.3	
83	3	3	2	1.12350	86.570	0.3	
84	2	6	1	1.11759	87.142	0.6	
85	6	2	1	1.10287	88.605	0.4	
86	2	4	2	1.10246	88.647	0.8	
87	4	5	1	1,10053	88.843	1 0	
88	4	2	2	1,09710	89,195	1 5	
89	5	4	1	1.09652	89.255	0 4	
0.0	0	-	-	1.00002	0.2.00	· · 1	

<u>Structure</u>

No.	Name	Elem.	Х	Y	Z	Biso	sof	Wyck.
1	01	0	0.45300	0.37600	0.00000	4.4000	0.1120	4g
2	02	0	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	5.5000	0.6600	2a
3	03	0	0.12700	0.26600	0.50000	4.4000	1.0000	4h
4	04	0	0.35190	0.07100	0.00000	4.4000	1.0000	4g

5	AL1	Al	0.28300	0.28000	0.00000	1.5000	0.1120	4g
6	SI1	Si	0.15090	0.15860	0.00000	3.7000	0.3870	4g
7	AL2	Al	0.15090	0.15860	0.00000	3.7000	0.5000	4g
8	AL3	Al	0.00000	0.50000	0.50000	3.1000	1.0000	2d

Stick Pattern



A.2. 2 HighScore file of Quartz

Name and formula

Reference code:	98-015-6196
Mineral name: Compound name: Common name:	Quartz Quartz Quartz
Chemical formula:	O ₂ Si ₁

Crystallographic parameters

Crystal system:	Hexagonal
Space group:	P 31 2 1
Space group number:	152
a (Å):	4.9230
b (Å):	4.9230
c (Å):	5.4090
Alpha (°):	90.0000
Beta (°):	90.0000

Gamma (°):	120.0000
Calculated density (g/cm^3): Volume of cell (10^6 pm^3): Z:	2.64 113.53 3.00
RIR:	3.10

Subfiles and quality

Subfiles:	User Inorganic
	User Mineral
Quality:	User From Structure (=)

Comments

Creation Date:	01/08/2007
Modification Date:	30/12/1899
Original ICSD space group:	P3221. z-coordinate of Si corrected from 0 into 0.6667 to fit positions The coordinates given in the paper contain an error. The values in the database have been corrected X-ray diffraction from single crystal
Structure type:	Quartz, low. Temperature factors available
Compound with mineral name:	Quartz
Structure type:	Quartz,low
Recording date:	8/1/2007
Mineral origin:	Yangkou meta-igneous complex, Sulu UHP terrain, eastern China
ANX formula:	AX2
Z:	3
Calculated density:	2.64
R value:	0.0866
Pearson code:	hP9
Wyckoff code:	ca
Structure TIDY: TRANS -a,-b,-c	
Structure TIDY: REMARK Transfor	rmed from enantiomorphic space group.
Publication title: First in situ X-ray	v identification of coesite and retrograde quartz on a glass thin section of an ultrahigh-pressure metamorphic rock and their crystal structure details
ICSD collection code: 156196	
Structure: Quartz, low	
Chemical Name: Silicon Oxide	
Second Chemical Formula: Si O2	

<u>References</u>

Structure:	Tamada, O.;Downs, R.T.;Rakovan, J.F.;Ito, K.;Hirajima,
	T.;Banno, S.;Kawame, N.;Ikuta, D., American Mineralogist, 92,
	57 - 63, (2007)

<u>Peak list</u>

No.	h	k	1	d [A]	2Theta[deg]	I [%]
1	0	1	0	4.26344	20.818	13.4
2	0	1	1	3.34836	26.600	100.0

3	1	1	0	2,46150	36.473	9.1	
4	1	0	2	2.28377	39.424	8.7	
5	1	1	1	2.24042	40.219	4.3	
6	0	2	0	2.13172	42.366	3.2	
7	2	0	1	1.98326	45.710	2.4	
8	1	1	2	1.82040	50.067	15.7	
9	0	0	3	1.80300	50.584	0.4	
10	0	2	2	1.67418	54.788	4.4	
11	0	1	3	1.66061	55.274	1.6	
12	2	1	0	1.61143	57.113	0.2	
13	1	2	1	1.54435	59.839	5.8	
14	1	1	3	1.45454	63.955	2.3	
15	3	0	0	1.42115	65.643	0.2	
16	1	2	2	1.38433	67.620	4.2	
17	2	0	3	1.37663	68.050	5.7	
18	0	3	1	1.37450	68.170	4.4	
19	1	0	4	1.28897	73.398	1.5	
20	3	0	2	1.25803	75.513	1.8	
21	2	2	0	1.23075	77.493	1.7	
22	2	1	3	1.20149	79.751	1.9	
23	2	2	1	1.20008	79.864	0.8	
24	1	1	4	1.18518	81.074	2.2	
25	1	3	0	1.18247	81.300	1.5	
26	1	3	1	1.15518	83.644	1.2	
27	2	0	4	1.14188	84.844	0.3	
28	2	2	2	1.12021	86.887	0.0	
29	3	0	3	1.11612	87.286	0.3	

<u>Structure</u>

No.	Name	Elem.	Х	Y	Z	Biso	sof	Wyck.
1	01	0	0.41400	0.15000	0.12133	2.2108	1.0000	бc
2	SI1	Si	0.53200	0.00000	0.33333	1.7370	1.0000	3a

Stick Pattern



A.2. 3 HighScore file of Anorthite

Name and formula

Reference code:	98-000-9330
Mineral name: Compound name: Common name:	Anorthite Anorthite Anorthite
Chemical formula:	Al ₂ Ca ₁ O ₈ Si ₂

Crystallographic parameters

Crystal system:	Monoclinic
Space group:	P 1 21 1
Space group number:	4
a (Å):	4.8270
b (Å):	8.6210
c (Å):	8.2280
Alpha (°):	90.0000
Beta (°):	90.0000
Gamma (°):	90.0000
Calculated density (g/cm^3):	2.70
Measured density (g/cm^3):	2.69
Volume of cell (10^6 pm^3):	342.40
Z:	2.00

RIR:

1.23

Subfiles and quality

Subfiles:	User Inorganic User Mineral
Quality:	User From Structure (=)
<u>Comments</u>	
Creation Date: Modification Date: Original ICSD space group: av.T-O:	01/01/1980 01/04/2003 P1211. Only minor deviation from P21/n (~ 1/2+x 1/2-y 1/2+z) 1.733, 1.732, 1.640, 1.619. The coordinates are those given in the paper but the atomic distances do not agree with those calculated during testing.The coordinates are probably correct Deviation of the charge sum from zero tolerable X-ray diffraction from single crystal. Temperature factors available
Temperature in Kelvin: The structure has been assigned The structure has been assigned Compound with mineral name: Recording date: Modification date: Mineral origin: ANX formula: Z: Authors density: Calculated density: R value: Pearson code: Wyckoff code: PDF code: Structure TIDY: TRANS c,-b,a Publication title: The crystal struc ICSD collection code: 9330 Chemical Name: Calcium Tecto-di Second Chemical Formula: Ca (Al	291 a PDF number (experimental powder diffraction data): 46-1266 a PDF number (calculated powder diffraction data): 01-071-0788 Anorthite 1/1/1980 4/1/2003 synthetic AB2C2X8 2 2.69 2.7 0.05 mP26 a14 00-046-1266 origin 1/2 .12860 1/2 ture of monoclinic Ca Al2 Si2 O8. A case of monoclinic structure closely simulating orthorhombic symmetry ialumodisilicate 2 Si2 O8)

References

Structure:

Ito, J.;Haga, N.;Takeuchi, Y., *Zeitschrift fuer Kristallographie, Kristallgeometrie, Kristallphysik, Kristallchemie (-144,1977)*, **137**, 380 - 398, (1973)

Peak list

No.	h	k	l	d [A]	2Theta[deg]	Ι	[8]
1	0	0	1	8.22800	10.744		0.0
2	0	1	-1	5.95216	14.872		1.5

2	1	0	0	1 02700	10 265	0.2	
4	1	2	0	4.82700	20 588	37	
5	1	1	0	4 21175	21 077	49	
6	1	0	-1	4 16343	21 324	41 6	
0 7	0	0	2	1.10010	21.521	19 0	
2 2	0	2	1	3 81826	21.000	40.0	
G	1	1	1	3 7/912	23.270	24 9	
10	0	1	2	3 71290	23.948	0 1	
11	1	2	0	3 21514	23.540	100 0	
12	1	0	-2	3 13108	28 181	100.0	
13	1	2	1	2 99463	29 811	0.2	
11	0	2	-2	2 97608	30 001	13 5	
15	1	1	2	2.97000	30.347	24 5	
16			2	2.74267	32 623	0 1	
17	0	2	_1	2.74207	32.025	14 5	
10	0	1	-1	2.71290	24 202	14.5	
10	1	1 2	с С	2.01339	25 405	2.2	
19	1 1	2	2	2.33329	33.40J 26.255	0.2	
20	1	0	0	2.40922	27 225	0.0	
21	ے 1	0	2	2.41330	37.223		
22	1	0	- 5	2.30402	37.092	4./	
23	1	с С	1	2.30302	30.UI/ 30.170	3.2	
24	0	1	2	2.50000	30.1/U 20 712	0.0	
25	2	T	1	2.32414	30.712	0.5	
26	2	0	-1	2.31592	38.855	0.1	
27	1	2	3	2.31397	38.889	0.0	
28	1	1	3	2.29832	39.164	2.3	
29	2	1	-1	2.23662	40.291	5.0	
30	1	4	0	2.15525	41.882	1.0	
31	1	3	2	2.11/15	42.672	4.0	
32	1	2	0	2.10587	42.912	1.2	
33	1	2	-3	2.08660	43.328	20.3	
34	0	4	1	2.08491	43.365	0.0	
35	2	0	2	2.081/1	43.435	2.4	
36	0	0	4	2.05/00	43.984	8.5	
3/	2	2	-1	2.04011	44.367	3.5	
38	2	1	2	2.02356	44.750	1.2	
39	0	1	4	2.00083	45.286	0.0	
40	1	3	-3	1.98405	45.691	U.1 12 4	
41	1	4	1	1.96/99	46.085	13.4	
42	1	4	-1	1.91400	47.403	0.1	
45	1	4	-2	1.90913	47.592	1.0	
44	1	2	-4	1 07/56	40.041	0.0	
40	2	2	-2	1 05645	40.020	1 1	
40	1	1	-4	1 04024	49.030		
4 /	1	2 1	4	1 04034	49.200	2 1	
40	ے 1	ン っ	2	1 02500	49.200	J.I 0 1	
49	1	0	2	1 01106	49.039 50 210	0.1	
50	2	2	-3	1 00222	50.519	0.0	
51	ے 1	3		1.0U3ZZ 1.77522	50.577		
52 53	1	4	-2	1 77313	51 /08	0.2	
57	ے 1	1 2	Л	1 73272	JI.490 52 701	1.0	
54	⊥ ⊥	∠ л	4 2	1 60/60	JZ.191 51 072	T.U	
55	0	4	3	1.0940Z	54.U/3	0.0	
50	0	с С	⊥ 2	1.00/33 1.00005	04.310 57 277	τ.ο	
57	2	3	∠	1.00J0J 1.67064	54.3//	0.4	
50 50	0	3 2	4 2	1.0/204 1.67020	J4.04Z	U.1 10 0	
59	∠	∠	3 5	1 64560	J4.9∠0 55 000	TO'Q	
0U 61	1	U E	C A	1 60370 1 60070	JJ.022 56 6/1	0.0	
62	∩ ⊥	J 1	5	1 61610	56 920	1.0	
02	0	Ť	J	1.01042	50.720	0.0	

		â		4 60000			
63	3	0	0	1.60900	57.207	0.0	
64	2	4	0	1.60757	57.262	4.3	
65	1	4	3	1.59895	57.600	4.2	
66	1	5	-1	1.59300	57.835	1.2	
67	0	5	-2	1.59019	57.947	0.0	
68	3	1	0	1.58169	58.289	0.4	
69	1	3	-4	1.58045	58.339	0.2	
70	3	0	-1	1.57909	58.394	1.0	
71	2	4	-1	1.57774	58.449	2.8	
72	2	0	4	1.56554	58.949	0.1	
73	1	0	-5	1.55757	59.280	5.9	
74	3	1	-1	1.55325	59.462	0.3	
75	2	1	-4	1.54035	60.011	0.2	
76	0	2	5	1.53738	60.139	0.3	
77	1	1	5	1,53276	60.339	4.0	
78	1	-5	2	1.51034	61.330	0.5	
79	3	2	0	1 50741	61 462	1 0	
80	3	0	-2	1 49847	61 869	0 0	
81	2	4	2	1 49732	61 922	0.2	
82	0	4	_ 4	1 48804	62 351	0.2	
83	3	2	_ 1	1 /8273	62 599	0.2	
9.1	3	1	2	1 17631	62.001	0.1	
04	2	1	_ 1	1 47140	62.301	0.0	
00	1	2	-4	1.4/149	03.132	0.0	
86	1 O		-5	1.4648/	63.451	1.3	
8 /	0	5	3	1.459/1	63.701	0.0	
88	0	6	0	1.43683	64.838	7.9	
89	0	3	-5	1.42803	65.288	3./	
90	Ţ	4	-4	1.42200	65.599	0.5	
91	3	2	2	1.41539	65.945	2.7	
92	3	3	0	1.40391	66.553	8.8	
93	2	5	0	1.40296	66.604	2.9	
94	1	5	3	1.39722	66.914	1.9	
95	3	0	3	1.38781	67.428	1.5	
96	2	4	-3	1.38689	67.479	4.0	
97	3	3	1	1.38391	67.643	0.2	
98	2	5	1	1.38300	67.694	0.3	
99	1	6	0	1.37712	68.023	0.8	
100	2	3	-4	1.37477	68.155	0.1	
101	0	0	6	1.37133	68.349	3.5	
102	3	1	-3	1.37017	68.415	0.1	
103	1	3	5	1.36936	68.461	0.8	
104	2	0	-5	1.35963	69.020	0.0	
105	1	6	-1	1.35823	69.102	1.4	
106	0	6	-2	1.35648	69.203	1.1	
107	0	1	6	1.35431	69.330	0.2	
108	2	1	5	1.34303	69.997	2.4	
109	3	3	2	1.32868	70.866	2.9	
110	2	5	-2	1.32787	70.915	2.6	
111	0	5	-4	1.32139	71.316	0.0	
112	3	2	3	1.32103	71.339	0.4	
113	1	0	-6	1.31913	71.457	0.0	
114	0	4	5	1.30794	72.164	0.0	
115	0	2	-6	1.30680	72.237	0.0	
116	1	6	-2	1.30590	72.295	0.2	
117	1	1	6	1.30396	72.419	0.5	
118	2	2	-5	1.29666	72.892	5.0	
119	3	4	0	1.28933	73.374	2.0	
120	1	5	- 4	1.27450	74.371	0.3	
121	3	4	-1	1.27379	74.419	0.1	
122	0	6	3	1.27275	74.490	0.0	
	÷	Ŭ	0	2.2/2/0		J.	

123	3	0	-4	1.26734	74.862	0.0	
124	2	1	Л	1 26664	7/ 011	0 9	
124	~	7	-	1.20004	74.911	0.9	
125	1	4	-5	1.26241	75.205	0.9	
126	1	2	6	1.26139	75.277	1.6	
107	2	1	1	1 25207	75 000	0 2	
127	3	T	4	1.25507	15.000	0.2	
128	3	3	3	1.24971	76.105	0.3	
129	2	5	З	1 24903	76 153	06	
120	_	2	с С	1 00760	70.100	0.0	
130	0	3	6	1.23/63	/6.983	0.0	
131	2	6	0	1.23461	77.206	0.0	
132	1	6	- 3	1 23069	77 498	0 7	
102	- -	0	0	1.23009	77.490	0.7	
133	3	4	2	1.23033	//.525	0.8	
134	2	3	5	1.22901	77.624	1.0	
135	2	6	_1	1 22094	78 231	0 2	
100	2	-	-	1.01000	70.234	0.2	
136	0	/	-⊥	1.21800	/8.459	0.1	
137	3	2	-4	1.21588	78.623	0.1	
120	1	0	0	1 20675	70 221	1 1	
130	4	0	0	1.20075	19.334	1.1	
139	1	3	-6	1.19885	79.961	1.4	
140	4	1	0	1,19510	80.264	1.7	
1 4 1	-	-	1	1 10200	00.255	2 • <i>i</i>	
141	4	0	-1	1.19398	80.355	0.0	
142	1	7	0	1.19334	80.406	1.2	
143	2	0	6	1.19231	80.490	0.2	
1 4 4	~	- -	-	1 10040	00.190	0.2	
⊥44	U	С	-5	1.19043	80.643	0.0	
145	4	1	1	1.18269	81.281	0.1	
146	2	6	2	1 18251	81 296	0 0	
140	2	-	2	1 1 0 1 0 5	01.200	0.0	
14/	2	T	-6	1.1810/	81.416	0.5	
148	1	7	1	1.18099	81.423	0.4	
1/9	0	7	-2	1 1798/	81 519	0 0	
150	0	, ,	~	1.17504	01.515	0.0	
150	0	6	-4	1.1//92	81.680	0.4	
151	3	5	0	1.17635	81.812	0.0	
152	\cap	0	7	1 175/13	81 890	0 0	
152	0	0	,	1.1.6.00	01.090	0.0	
153	3	4	3	1.16683	82.625	1.0	
154	0	1	-7	1.16465	82.813	0.1	
155	З	5	1	1 16451	82 825	0 1	
TJJ	5	5		1.10451	02.025	0.1	
156	4	2	0	1.16207	83.038	0.3	
157	3	3	-4	1.15958	83.256	0.4	
150	2	5		1 15005	02 202	0 1	
100	2	5	4	1.13903	03.303	0.1	
159	4	0	-2	1.15796	83.399	0.3	
160	0	4	-6	1.15699	83.485	0.1	
161	1	5	5	1 15500	02 500	1 7	
TOT	1	5	5	1.13380	03.309	1.7	
162	4	2	1	1.15065	84.049	0.1	
163	3	0	-5	1.15046	84.066	1.7	
161	2	1	- 5	1 1/003	Q/ 113	3 0	
1 6 5	2	-	5	1 1 4 0 1 6	04.100	0.0	
165	2	2	-6	1.14916	84.183	0.1	
166	4	1	2	1.14766	84.319	1.0	
167	1	7	-2	1 14610	81 160	1 9	
107	1	/	- 2	1.14010	04.400	1.9	
168	1	6	4	1.14434	84.619	0.2	
169	1	0	7	1.14206	84.828	0.0	
170	3	1	5	1 1/035	81 985	0 2	
170	5	1	J	1.14035	04.905	0.2	
171	0	2	-7	1.13402	85.572	0.0	
172	1	1	7	1.13216	85.746	0.1	
170	- 2	5	_ ?	1 1 2 1 0 2	05 051	0 1	
1 / J	с -	J	- 2	1.13103	00.004	0.1	
174	2	6	-3	1.12580	86.349	0.0	
175	1	4	6	1,12512	86.414	0.9	
170	~			1 10050	06 570	1 1	
ТΙЮ	U	1	- 3	1.12350	00.3/0	⊥.⊥	
177	4	2	2	1.11831	87.071	1.3	
178	4	3	0	1.11263	87.629	0.0	
170	- 2	2	F	1 11155	07 700	0 0	
1/9	3	2	- 5	CCTTT.T	01.130	0.0	
180	4	0	-3	1.10456	88.435	0.0	
181	1	2	7	1,10397	88,495	1.2	
100	<u>л</u>	2	, 1	1 10050	00 601	0.2	
ΤQς	4	3	T	1.10259	00.034	0.3	

183	2	3	-6	1.10128	88.767	0.3
184	2	7	0	1.09700	89.205	0.4
185	4	1	-3	1.09560	89.350	1.7
186	1	7	3	1.09425	89.490	0.4
187	3	4	4	1.09247	89.676	0.2

<u>Structure</u>

No.	Name	Elem.	Х	Y	Z	Biso	sof	Wyck.
1	01	0	0.31050	0.19520	0.05920	1.1100	1.0000	2a
2	02	0	0.02110	0.00000	0.23360	0.8100	1.0000	2a
3	03	0	0.74860	0.39070	0.02540	1.3000	1.0000	2a
4	04	0	0.16040	0.57840	0.06190	0.6000	1.0000	2a
5	05	0	0.18630	0.57400	0.45400	0.5000	1.0000	2a
6	06	0	0.49790	0.23360	0.73860	1.4700	1.0000	2a
7	07	0	0.76190	0.36930	0.46200	0.8800	1.0000	2a
8	08	0	0.32630	0.18950	0.43910	1.0500	1.0000	2a
9	SI1	Si	0.10480	0.04380	0.05460	0.4500	1.0000	2a
10	SI2	Si	0.60550	0.22160	0.54970	0.2500	1.0000	2a
11	AL1	Al	0.39410	0.73410	0.06760	0.6200	1.0000	2a
12	AL2	Al	0.10240	0.03540	0.43500	0.7000	1.0000	2a
13	CA1	Ca	0.15600	0.37140	0.25020	1.4200	0.5640	2a
14	CA2	Ca	0.36420	0.39760	0.24700	0.4700	0.4030	2a

Stick Pattern



A.3. Data on particle size distribution of industrial solid wastes used

A.3. 1 particle size distribution of blast furnace slag

2018.11.18 10:45:09



1/1

A.3. 2 particle size distribution of soda-lime glass waste

0.296

25

0.000 50

0.00

8,816

4,120

18,174

262,376

72,125

1.313

HORIBA Laser Scattering Particle Size Distribution Analyzer LA-960 SLGW Diamètre médian 38.83410Microns Nom échantillon 264.28214Microns 407.7260Microns 57.7441Microns ID# 201811181024346 Diamètre moyen Nom des données 201811181024346 Ecart-type Transmission(R) 88.6 (%) Moyenne géo. diamétre 6.6857Microns Transmission(B) 89.3 (%) Ecart type géo. Vitesse circulation Diamètre Mode 10.8097Microns Vitesse agitation 5 Span Non-actif Ultra-sons 00:34 (7) Diamètre pour % cumulé (1)5.000 (%)-4.9996Microns Type de distribution (2)10.00 (%)-6.5726Microns Auto Base de distribution Volume (3)20.00 (%)-9.3158Microns (4)30.00 (%)- 12.5242Microns Indice réfraction(R) Silice (5)40.00 (%)- 18.0288Microns (6)60.00 (%)- 93.6769Microns [Silice(2.000 - 0.000i),water(1.333)] Indice réfraction(B) Silice (7)70.00 (%)- 212.0749Microns (8)80.00 (%)- 573.5127Microns [Silice(2.000 - 0.000i),water(1.333)] Matériau Poudre Source (9)90.00 (%)- 939.7905Microns Numéro de lot 10 -100 Passant(%) 8 5--50 0--0 1.000 100.0 0.100 10.00 5000 1000 Diamètre(Micro_m) ssan assant(%) 0.011 0.000 0.000 26 0.339 0.00 0.000 51 10.097 4.49 22,665 300 518 1.218 73.342 0.013 0.00 0.000 27 0.389 0.00 0.000 52 11.565 4.68 27.350 344.206 1,188 74.529 2 0.015 0.00 0.000 28 0.445 0.000 0.000 53 13.246 4.51 31.864 394.244 1.239 75.763 3 0.000 0.000 35.889 77.114 4 0.01 0.0 29 0.510 0.0 54 15,172 4.02 451.556 0.02 0.000 30 0.584 0.000 55 17.37 3.37 39.262 517.20 1.52 78.637 5 0.0 0.0 0.022 0.000 31 0.669 0.000 19.904 41.983 592.387 80.427 6 0.0 2.72 1.79 0.000 0.000 22.797 44.163 678.504 82.616 0.026 32 0.766 2.17 2.18 0.0 0.00 8 0.029 0.000 33 0.877 0.000 26.111 45.944 777.141 85.314 0.00 58 1.78 83 2.69 0.0 0.000 0.000 47.460 0.034 1.005 29.907 890.116 88.602 9 0.0 34 0.00 55 1.51 3.28 84 0.039 0.00 0.000 35 1.151 0.00 0.000 60 34.255 1.354 48.814 85 1019.515 3,499 92.097 0.044 0.00 0.000 36 1.318 0.00 0.000 61 39.234 1.28 50.097 1167.725 2.94 95.036 26 0.051 0.0 0.000 37 1.510 0.00 0.000 62 44.938 1.30 51,400 1337.481 2.13 97.170 0.058 0.00 0.000 38 1.729 0.00 0.000 63 51,471 1.36 52,768 1531.914 1.43 98,605 43 22 0.067 0.00 0.000 39 1.981 0.12 0.125 64 58.953 1.46 54.236 1754.613 0.89 99.499 14 0.076 0.00 0.000 40 2.269 0.18 0.314 67.523 1.58 55.820 2009.687 0.50 100.000 15 65 90 0.087 0.000 41 2.599 0.27 0.591 77.339 57.500 2301.841 100.000 16 0.0 66 1.68 91 0.00 0.000 2.976 0.996 88.583 59.260 2636.467 100.000 0.100 0.0 42 0.40 67 92 0.00 61.057 0.115 0.000 43 3.409 0.58 1.582 68 101.460 1.79 3019.738 0.0 100.000 0.131 0.000 44 3.905 2.426 116.210 62.818 3458.727 100.000 19 0.84 0.0 0.000 3.626 64.545 3961.532 100.000 45 4.472 133.103 0.150 0.0 1.20 1.72 95 0.00 21 0.172 0.000 46 5.122 5.299 152.453 66.232 4537.433 1.67 1.68 0.00 100.000 7.557 67.850 0.000 47 5.867 174.616 22 0.197 0.00 2.258 1.61 97 5000.000 0.000 100.000 48 23 0.226 0.00 0.000 6.720 2.920 10.476 200.000 1.533 69.383 24 0.259 0.000 0.000 49 7.697 3.571 14.053 229.075 1.423 70.811

A.3. 3 particle size distribution of sanitary ceramic waste

2018.11.18 10:34:14



THESIS RESEARCH WORKS

A. International publications

The research works in the thesis has been published in three international publications:

- Boulaiche, K., Boudeghdegh, K., Haddad, S., Roula, A., Alioui, H. Valorisation of Industrial Soda-Lime Glass Waste and Its Effect on the Rheological Behavior, Physical-Mechanical and Structural Properties of Sanitary Ceramic Vitreous Bodies. In : Annales de Chimie-Science des Matériaux, 2022, Vol. 46, pp. 147-54. doi : <u>https://doi.org/10.18280/acsm.460306</u>
- Boulaiche, K., Boudeghdegh, K., Roula, A., Alioui, H., Hamdi, O.M. Potential use of Algerian metallurgical slag in the manufacture of sanitary ceramic bodies and its effect on the physical-mechanical and structural properties. Iranian Journal of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering (IJCCE). 2022. doi: https://ijcce.ac.ir/article_252534.html
- Khaled, B., kamel, b., Abdelmalek, R., hichem, A., Oussama, M. Reuse of sanitary ceramic waste in the production of vitreous china bodies. Iranian Journal of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering. 2022. doi: https://ijcce.ac.ir/article_696934.html

B. National and international communication

- K. Boulaiche, K. Boudeghdegh. The effect of deffloculant type on the rheological parameters of a casting slip contains El-Hadjar blast furnace slag for sanitary ceramics. 4th international symposium on materials and sustainable development. Boumerdes, 2019.
- K. Boulaiche, K. Boudeghdegh. The effects of industrials waste (blast furnace slag, glass waste, and ceramic waste) on the rheological parameters of the pouring slip for sanitary ceramics. 2nd International Symposium on Materials Chemistry. Boumerdes, 2021.
- K. Boulaiche. Glass waste and blast furnace slag effect on the rheological behaviour of the slip casting for sanitary ceramic body. First National Virtual Conference on Chemical Process and Environmental Engineering (NVCPEE2021). Biskra, 2021.
- K. Boulaiche. Soda-lime glass waste effect on the thermal properties of sanitary ceramic body. The First national Seminar on Green Chemistry and Natural Products (GCNP'22). El-Oued, 2022.

- K. Boulaiche. Valorisation of industrial waste and its impact on energy economy in the manufacture of sanitary ceramic products. Colloque National « Ressources naturelles et développement durable : gestion, valorisation et responsabilité sociétale ». Oran, 2022.
- K. Boulaiche, H. Alioui. Valorization and effect of Algerian blast furnace slag on the thermal properties of sanitary ceramic bodies. 1 er Séminaire National des Sciences du Génie des Procédés : Applications et Innovations. USTHB Alger, 2022.
- K. Boulaiche, H. Alioui. Ceramic waste effect on the rheological behaviour and structural properties of the slip casting for anitary ceramic body. 1st International Conference on Chemical matters and Environment Preservation (IC-CMEP'22). Ouargla, 2022.
- K. Boulaiche, H. Alioui. Physical-mechanical properties of sanitary ceramic bodies contained Algerian blast furnace slag. 4th International Conference on Applied Engineering and Natural Sciences. Konya-Turkey, 2022.

ABSTRACT

The research work conducted aims at the valorisation of solid industrial waste by its incorporation in the composition of sanitary ceramic bodies. This thesis is divided into three sections:

In the first, we investigate the effect of the substitution of feldspar by blast furnace slag (BFS), on the properties of sanitary ceramic bodies. The use of Na-electrolytes at the optimum ratio $Na_2CO_3/Na_2SiO_3=1.5$ with a combined amount of 0.375 wt. %, is found effective to improve the rheological behaviour of the slip. The structural and morphological characterisation of these ceramic bodies were identified by XRD, SEM and FTIR spectroscopy analyses. Mullite and quartz are the main phases in the ceramic matrix with the gradual appearance of the anorthite phase. TGA/DTA analyses prove that there is no significant effect on the peaks of kaolin dehydroxylation and mullite crystallization. It was concluded that the inclusion of 10 wt. % BFS in the ceramic mixture represents the optimum composition as it increases the flexural strength from 33 to 38 MPa and reduces the water absorption from 0. 35 to 0.10%.

In the second section, we study the effect of the substitution of feldspar by soda-lime glass waste (SLGW) on the properties of sanitary ceramic bodies. The rheological behaviour of the slip is improved by SLGW addition using a small amount of electrolytes (0.075 wt. % Na₂CO₃ and 0.1 wt. % Na₂SiO₃). XRD, SEM and FTIR spectroscopy analyses show that mullite and quartz are the main phases in all ceramic bodies with a slight appearance of the anorthite phase. TGA/DTG analyses prove that there is a reduction of mass loss during the addition of SLGW. It was found that the addition of 20 wt. % SLGW in the ceramic composition increases the Bulk density (2 to 2.52 g/cm³) and reduces water absorption (0.35 to 0.02%).

In the last, we focused on the recycling of the sanitary ceramic waste (SCW) in the formation of its unglazed bodies. The different slips containing SCW, have optimal properties when adding a combination of electrolytes at ratio Na₂CO₃ / Na₂SiO₃=0.25, with a total combined amount of 0.375 wt. %. XRD and FTIR analyses show the high intensity of quartz and mullite in bodies containing SCW. The VC5 body (5 wt. % SCW) has the best physical-mechanical results as it has a flexural strength of 44 MPa and a water absorption of 0.18 %. Moreover, the VC10 body sample has better physical-mechanical properties than the standard ceramic sample. Therefore, SCW can be recycled and incorporated in the manufacture of their unglazed bodies up to 10 wt. %.

Keywords: Sanitary ceramic body; valorisation; flexural strength; water absorption; industrial waste; BFS; SLGW: SCW.

RÉSUMÉ

Les travaux menés au cours de la réalisation de cette thèse sont basés sur la valorisation des déchets industriels solides dans la formulation de tesson de la céramique sanitaire. Pour atteindre les objectifs visés, nous avons ciblé trois parties :

La première partie a permis d'étudier l'effet de la substitution du feldspath par le laitier de haut fourneau (LHF) sur les propriétés des tessons de céramique sanitaire. L'utilisation d'électrolytes de sodium avec le rapport optimal Na₂CO₃/Na₂SiO₃=1.5 et ensuite on prend une quantité 0.375 wt. % de mélange afin d'améliorer le comportement rhéologique de la barbotine. La caractérisation structurelle et morphologique de ces corps céramiques a été identifiée par des analyses de DRX, MEB et spectroscopie FTIR. La mullite et le quartz sont les principales phases de la matrice céramique avec l'apparition progressive de la phase anorthite. Les analyses ATD/TG révèlent qu'il n'y a pas d'effet significatif sur les pics de déshydroxylation du kaolin et de cristallisation de la mullite. Il a été conclu que l'ajout de 10 wt.% de LHF dans le mélange de la céramique possède la composition optimale car il augmente la résistance à la flexion de 33 à 38 MPa et réduit l'absorption d'eau de 0.35 à 0.10 %.

La deuxième partie a été étudiée l'effet de la substitution du feldspath par des déchets de verre sodo-calcique (DVSC) sur les propriétés des tessons de céramiques sanitaires. Le comportement rhéologique de la barbotine a été amélioré par l'ajout de DVSC en utilisant une petite quantité d'électrolytes (0.075 wt. % Na₂CO₃ et 0.1 wt. % Na₂SiO₃). Les analyses par DRX, MEB et spectroscopie FTIR montrent que la mullite et le quartz sont les phases principales de tous les corps céramiques, avec une légère apparition de la phase anorthite. Les analyses ATD/TG montrent qu'il y a une réduction de perte masse pendant l'addition de DVSC. Il a été constaté que l'ajout de 20 wt. % DVSC dans la composition de tesson céramique conduit à l'augmentation de la densité apparente (2 à 2.52 g/cm³) et réduit l'absorption d'eau (0.35 à 0.02 %).

La troisième partie, nous nous sommes concentrés sur le recyclage des déchets céramiques sanitaires (DCS) dans la formulation de tesson céramique. Les différentes barbotines contenant des déchets céramiques sanitaires ont des propriétés optimales de la barbotine en utilisant le rapport d'électrolytes Na₂CO₃ / Na₂SiO₃=0.25, ensuite on prend une quantité 0.375 wt.% du mélange. Les analyses DRX et FTIR ont montré une forte intensité de quartz et de mullite dans les corps contenant du DCS. Le tesson VC5 (5 % en poids de DCS) donne les meilleurs résultats physico-mécaniques avec une résistance à la flexion de 44 MPa et une absorption d'eau de 0.18 %. De plus, l'échantillon VC10 présente de meilleures propriétés physico-mécaniques que l'échantillon de la céramique commerciale. Par conséquent, les DCS peuvent être recyclés et incorporés dans la fabrication de leurs tessons jusqu'à 10 wt. % .

Mots-clés : Tesson de la céramique sanitaire ; valorisation ; résistance à la flexion ; absorption d'eau ; déchets industriels ; LHF ; DVSC ; DCS.

ملخص

ركَز هذا العمل على تثمين و استعادة المخلفات الصناعية الصلبة في تكوين اجسام السير اميك الصحي، حيث تم تقسيم هذا العمل إلى ثلاثة أقسام:

أتاح القسم الأول دراسة تأثير استبدال الفلسبار بخبث الفرن العالي على خصائص أجسام السيراميك الصحية. تم تحسين ريولوجيا الانز لاق بواسطة الكثروليات الصوديوم. تم تحديد الخصائص الهيكلية والمور فولوجية لهذه الأجسام الخزفية بواسطة حيود الأشعة السينية، المجهر الالكتروني الماسح ومطيافية الأشعة تحت الحمراء. الموليت والكوار تز هما المراحل الرئيسية لمصفوفة السيراميك مع الظهور التدريجي لمرحلة الأنور ثيت. تثبت التحليلات الحرارية أنه لا يوجد تأثير كبير على قمم إز الة هيدروكسية لهذه الأجسام المزاعي على قمم إز الة هيدروكسيل الكالي مع الطهور التدريجي لمرحلة الأنور ثيت. تثبت التحليلات الحرارية أنه لا يوجد تأثير كبير على قمم إز الة هيدروكسيل الكاولين وتبلور الموليت. تم الاستنتاج أن إضافة 10% بالوزن من خبث الفرن العالي في خليط الميراميك يمثل التركيبة المامي مع الظهور الموليت. تم الاستنتاج أن إضافة 10% بالوزن من خبث الفرن العالي في خليط السير اميك يمثل الكاولين وتبلور الموليت. تم الاستنتاج أن إضافة 10% بالوزن من خبث الفرن العالي في خليط الماسير اميك يمثل التركيبة المامي مع الظهور الموليت. تم الاستنتاج أن إضافة 10% بالوزن من خبث الفرن العالي في خليط الماسير اميك يمثل التركيبة المامي من قوة الاستنتاج أن إضافة 10% بالوزن من خبث الفرن العالي في خليط السير اميك يمثل التركيبة المائي لأنه يزيد من قوة الانحناء من 33 إلى 30% ميجا باسكال ويقلل امتصاص الماء من 30%.

درس القسم الثاني تأثير استبدال الفلسبار بنفايات زجاج الصودا والجير على خواص أجسام السيراميك الصحي. تم تحسين السلوك الانسيابي للانز لاق بإضافة نفايات زجاج الصودا والجير باستخدام كمية صغيرة من إلكتر وليات الصوديوم. أثبتت تحليلات حيود الأشعة السينية، المجهر الالكتروني الماسح ومطيافية الأشعة تحت الحمراء أن الموليت والكوارتز هما المرحلتان الرئيسيتان لجميع الأجسام الخزفية، مع ظهور طفيف لمرحلة الأنور ثيت. تظهر التحاليل الحرارية أن هناك المرحلة الأنور ثيت. تضمر الكتروني الماسح ومطيافية الأسعة تحت الحمراء أن الموليت والكوارتز هما المرحلتان الرئيسيتان لجميع الأجسام الخزفية، مع ظهور طفيف لمرحلة الأنور ثيت. تظهر التحاليل الحرارية أن هناك المرحلتان الرئيسيتان لجميع الأجسام الخزفية، مع ظهور والي وجد أن إضافة 200 براوز من نفايات زجاج الصودا والجير. وجد أن إضافة 200 براوزن من نفايات زجاج الصودا والجير تمثل تركيبة مثلى في تركيبة الأجسام الخزفية تزيد الكثافة الظاهرية (2 إلى 2.52 غ/سم 3) ويقلل من امتصاص الماء تمثل تركيبة مثلى في تركيبة الأجسام الخزفية تزيد الكثافة الظاهرية (2 إلى 2.52 غ/سم 3) ويقلل من امتصاص الماء والما الماء الماء الخافية الخافية الخافية الخافين الماماء الموايية الماء الخرفية تزيد الكثافة الظاهرية (2 إلى 2.52 غ/سم 3) ويقلل من امتصاص الماء تمثل تركيبة مثلى في تركيبة الأجسام الخزفية تزيد الكثافة الظاهرية (2 إلى 2.52 غ/سم 3) ويقلل من امتصاص الماء تمثل الى 20.0%).

في القسم الثالث، ركزنا على إعادة تدوير مخلفات السير اميك الصحية في تشكيل أجسامها غير المزججة. كان للزلة الخزفية المحتوية على مخلفات السير اميك الصحية خصائص زلة مثالية باستخدام نسبة من الإلكتر وليات (سيليكات وكربونات الصوديوم). أثبتت تحليلات حيود الأشعة السينية والمجهر الالكتروني الماسح الكثافة العالية للكوار تز والموليت في الأجسام التي تحتوي على مخلفات السير اميك الصحية. يقدم جسم VC5 أفضل النتائج الفيزيائية الميكانيكية مع قوة انحناء تبلغ 44 ميجا باسكال وامتصاص ماء بنسبة 81.0%. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، تُظهر عينة الجسم VC10 خصائص فيزيائية ميكانيكية أفضل من عينة السير اميك القياسية. لذلك، يمكن إعادة تدوير مخلفات السير اميك الصحية ويراميه عنه تروير مع قوم الم أفضل من عينة السير اميك القياسية. لذلك، يمكن إعادة تدوير مخلفات السير اميك الصحية ودمجها في تصنيع أجسامها غير

الكلمات المفتاحية: أجسام الخزف الصحي; خصائص فيزيو ميكانيكية ; قوة الانحناء; امتصاص الماء; خبث الفرن العالي; نفايات زجاج الصودا والجير ; نفايات الخزف الصحي.