

1 **Identifying improved standardized tests for measuring cement**
2 **particle size and surface area**

3
4 Submission: August 1, 2012
5 Revised per reviewers comments: November 9, 2012

6
7 Word count: 6561

8
9 Corresponding Author: Chiara Ferraris
10 National Institute of Standards and Technology
11 100 Bureau Dr., Gaithersburg, MD 20899-8615
12 E-Mail: Clarissa@nist.gov
13 Phone: 301-975-6711
14 Fax: 301-990-6891

15
16 Co-Author: Edward Garboczi
17 National Institute of Standards and Technology
18 100 Bureau Dr., Gaithersburg, MD 20899-8615
19 E-Mail: edward.garboczi@nist.gov
20 Phone: 301-975-6708
21 Fax: 301-990-6891

22
23 Published Version Available here: http://onlinepubs.trb.org/onlinepubs/nchrp/nchrp_rrd_382.pdf
24

1 ABSTRACT

2 The Blaine fineness (Blaine) of a cement powder is a single parameter that is meant to
3 characterize the specific surface area of a cement, and is assumed to be linked to physical and
4 mechanical properties of the hydrated cement such as strength, setting time, and rheology. A
5 single parameter cannot characterize the particle size distribution of a cement particle size
6 distribution, upon which the hydration kinetics and solid properties depend. And as the cement
7 industry continues to develop more sophisticated blended cements, it will be even more clearly
8 seen that a single parameter fails to capture the true complexity of the cement. The laser
9 diffraction (LD) measurement of the entire particle size distribution is currently being used by
10 cement producers for quality control of their cements while still measuring the Blaine, which is
11 based on surface area measurement. Despite its wide use by the cement industry, LD is not a
12 standardized test. This project's goal is to examine various tests, such as laser diffraction and
13 Blaine, which measure the particle size distribution and total surface area of cement powder, and
14 then determine the most appropriate test based on correlation with macro-properties of the
15 cement paste or mortar. In addition, the shape of the cement particles, for a partial particle size
16 range, was determined using X-ray computed micro-tomography (X-Ray CT) and the
17 relationship between X-ray CT, the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller surface area method (BET) (surface
18 area), laser diffraction, and Blaine measurements was explored. The more fundamental and
19 sophisticated experiments, nitrogen BET and X-ray CT, were used as "ground truth" to critically
20 evaluate the laser particle size distribution and Blaine fineness measurements. The
21 standardization of the laser diffraction test method is proposed.

22

23

1 INTRODUCTION

2 The Blaine fineness (standard test method ASTM C204, denoted “Blaine”) of a cement
3 powder is a single parameter that is meant to characterize the specific surface area and therefore
4 the fineness of a cement, and is assumed to be linked to physical and mechanical properties, such
5 as rheology, setting time, and strength of the fluid and hardened cement paste. However, a single
6 parameter cannot characterize the particle size distribution of even an uniform composition
7 cement. As the cement industry continues to develop more sophisticated blended cements, a
8 single parameter will even more fail to capture a blended cement’s true complexity. The laser
9 diffraction measurement of the entire cement particle size distribution (PSD) is currently being
10 used by most cement producers for quality control of their cements while still measuring the
11 Blaine fineness. The laser diffraction test is less time consuming than the Blaine test and can be
12 automated for efficient measurement. The information from laser diffraction particle size
13 distribution (LD) measurement can also provide an estimate of powder surface area by assuming
14 a specific geometry for the particles. Despite its extensive use by the cement industry, laser
15 diffraction (LD) measurement of cement particle size distribution is not a standardized test. This
16 project examines the results of the LD and Blaine tests, measuring the particle size distribution
17 (laser diffraction only) and estimated total surface area (both tests) of various cement powders
18 and then determine the most appropriate correlation of the results of both tests with some macro-
19 properties, such as setting time and compressive strength, of cement paste and/or mortar made
20 with those powders.

21 Since both the Blaine and laser diffraction tests assume that the cement particles are
22 spheres, which is manifestly not the case, and thus only estimate the surface area, two more
23 fundamental tests are carried out to aid in understanding the results of both tests. The surface
24 area of the cement particles is measured using the nitrogen Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) test,
25 and the true 3-D shape of the particles is determined from X-ray computed micro-tomography
26 (X-ray CT). The more sophisticated experiments, nitrogen BET and X-ray CT, will be used as
27 “ground truth” to evaluate the LD-PSD and Blaine fineness measurements. Cement and Concrete
28 Reference Laboratory (CCRL) cements are used in this project, taking advantage of the database
29 of properties measured during the “CCRL - Proficiency Sample Program” (www.ccril.us).
30 Recommendations for how the LD test can be standardized and applied are provided.

31

32 TECHNIQUES USED

33 Fineness measurements

34 *Overview*

35 Cement is a reactive powder and thus one of its most important characteristics is its PSD,
36 which in turn determines the total surface area. Since the Blaine measurement is related to a
37 specific surface area (area per mass) and is referred to as a fineness measure, total specific
38 surface area is often referred to as the fineness. The smaller the size of the particles, the larger is
39 the specific surface area. There are several methods to measure or estimate the surface area. The
40 most widely used method in the cement industry is the Blaine measurement (ASTM C204) [1].
41 A method that is not standardized but is widely used in the cement industry for quality control is
42 the LD-PSD. Both of these tests assume that the particles are spherical. By comparison, methods
43 such as nitrogen BET and X-Ray CT allow the measurement of the specific surface area at the

1 scale of gas molecules (BET) and provide an assessment of the true shape of the particles (X-ray
2 CT). In this section, all the tests will be described.

3

4 *Fineness standard tests*

5 In the cement industry, there are three standard tests to measure the specific surface area:
6 Blaine in ASTM C 204 [1], Wagner in ASTM C115 [2], and sieve residue (45 μm sieve) in
7 ASTM C430 [3]. The Wagner test is also referred as the turbidimeter fineness test because it
8 measures the turbidity of a cement suspension in kerosene [4]. This test is seldom used today,
9 and thus will not be discussed further in this paper.

10 The Blaine measurement described in ASTM C 204 was adopted by ASTM in 1946.
11 R.L. Blaine published the test in 1943 [5]. The principle of operation is that the permeability of a
12 bed of fine particles is proportional to the fineness of the particles. Therefore, the test is a
13 measurement of the flow rate of air through a bed of cement particles with vacuum on one side
14 and atmospheric pressure on the other. Using an air permeability measurement of a powder to
15 estimate surface area comes directly from the Kozeny-Carman approximate theory [6], which
16 assumes a packing of monosize spherical particles. From the beginning, it was stated that this is a
17 relative test as it depends on the shape of the particles, and the compaction level or porosity of
18 the bed. For this reason, ASTM C 204 section 4.1 states that the calibration of the instrument
19 needs to be done by using a Standard Reference Material, such as SRM 114 [7,8].

20 The sieve residue test (45 μm) is used to measure the residue or retained amount of
21 cement on a calibrated sieve as an estimate of what fraction of the particles are greater than a
22 certain size. The sieve was selected as having a 45 μm opening (No. 325¹). Since a direct
23 certification of sieve openings is impractical and expensive for production-scale work, sieves are
24 calibrated by using a reference material, such as SRM 114. A sieve correction factor is
25 calculated by measuring SRM 114 on the selected sieve and correcting the result with the
26 certified value of the SRM 114.

27 In all these standard tests, there is a need for a standard reference material (SRM), which
28 is a material that has been well characterized with regard to its chemical composition, physical
29 properties, or both. At the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), every SRM is
30 provided with a certificate of analysis that gives the official characterization of the material's
31 properties. SRM 114 is related to the fineness of cement, as measured by various standard
32 methods and has been available since 1934. Different lots of SRM 114 are designated by a
33 unique letter suffix appended to the SRM number. A certificate that gives the values obtained
34 using ASTM C 204 (Blaine), C 115 (Wagner) and C 430 (45- μm residue) and also LD-PSD is
35 included with each lot of the material.

36

37 *Laser Diffraction method*

38 The LD method involves the detection and analysis of the angular distribution of
39 scattered light produced by a laser beam passing through a dilute dispersion of particles [9]. The
40 total scattering or diffracted light pattern is mathematically inverted to give the particle size
41 distribution of spheres that would give the equivalent scattering pattern. The surface area is
42 calculated from the diameter distribution of the spherical particles. In general, the LD method

¹ Sieve number follow the USA definition given in ASTM E11

1 requires that the particles be dispersed, either in liquid (suspension) or in air (aerosol). The
2 former is commonly referred to as the “wet” method (LD-W) while the latter is termed the “dry”
3 method (LD-D). For cement, there is no difference between the two methods if there has been
4 no initiation of hydration due to previous exposure to moist air, so that both methods adequately
5 disperse the particles. As the cements used had been stored in the laboratory for some time and
6 transported in simple plastic bags, in this report only data using the LD-W is used to ensure
7 complete dispersion of the particles. The LD method is not only widely used in the cement
8 industry [10], but is used for many different kinds of particles across many different industries
9 [11]. SRM 114 is used in this case only to determine whether the instrument is functioning
10 properly and if the dispersion method is adequate, not to calibrate the instrument as it is done for
11 the Blaine test.

12

13 *BET Surface Area*

14 The BET technique is based on the adsorption of a monolayer of gas, in our case
15 nitrogen, on the surface of particles. The total surface area of a powder can be calculated using
16 the Langmuir theory and the BET generalization [12]. This approach is considered to be the most
17 fundamental bulk measurement of surface area, since it can explore surface feature sizes down to
18 the size of the nitrogen molecules. Generally, surface area is a length-scale dependent quantity,
19 with the surface area increasing as finer and finer surface length scales are explored [13].

20

21 *X-ray CT scan*

22 The X-ray CT is used to provide particle shape determination, since cement particles are
23 not spheres. Knowing the true shape of each type of cement particles will help in the comparison
24 of different surface area measures. The X-ray CT measurements also measure the surface area at
25 the voxel length scale at which the shape has been captured. A sub-set of the CCRL cements
26 considered for LD-PSD and Blaine have been chosen for study using X-ray CT. After X-ray CT
27 scanning, computer programs are used to analyze the particles in terms of their shape and other
28 geometric factors [14,15].

29

30 **Macro-Properties**

31 The macroproperties considered here enable the characterization of the behavior of a
32 paste or mortar prepared with the cement studied. The properties considered are compressive
33 strength at 3 d, 14 d and 28 d, and the initial and final set times determined by the Vicat needle
34 test (ASTM C191). The compressive strength and the set time were obtained from the reports
35 prepared by CCRL [16].

36

37 **MATERIALS USED**

38 The Cement and Concrete Reference Laboratory (CCRL, www.ccril.us) is sponsored by
39 ASTM and administers the Proficiency Sample Program bi-annually [16]. As part of the
40 program, participant laboratories receive two samples of cement upon which they conduct
41 standard tests and report the results back to CCRL for statistical analysis. With all the data
42 collected, CCRL prepares a report that contains the average values and their standard deviations.
43 For this study, 32 cements from the CCRL database were selected, and the following properties
44 were chosen to provide a statistical picture of the cements:

- 1 • Fineness by 45- μm Sieve – ASTM C430
- 2 • Fineness by Air-Permeability Apparatus or Blaine – ASTM C204
- 3 • Compressive strength of mortar cubes at 3 d, 7 d and 28 d
- 4 • Initial and final set by Vicat needle (ASTM C191)

5
6 The same properties were also collected for three cements (labeled in this report Non-
7 CCRL) that were produced from one clinker, but ground to different finenesses. These cements
8 were used in a previous study to determine the relationship between fineness and
9 macroproperties [17]. The other non-CCRL cements were the two SRMs used for fineness:
10 SRM 114q and SRM46h. SRM 46h was issued because the SRM 114q was too fine to be useful
11 when calibrating the 45 μm sieve to conduct the sieve residue test – too much material passed the
12 45 μm sieve so not enough was left to analyze and give good statistics. The only certified value
13 for this SRM is the 45 μm sieve residue, but other values measured at NIST are provided for
14 information only.

15

16 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

17 The main goal of this study was to determine the best method to measure the fineness of
18 cement in light of correlation to macroproperties. Therefore, the first step was to compare the
19 various fineness methods and determine the correlation between test method results. Then we
20 examined the shape of the particles to determine how the shape could influence the measurement
21 of fineness. Finally, the impact of the fineness on macroproperties is discussed.

22

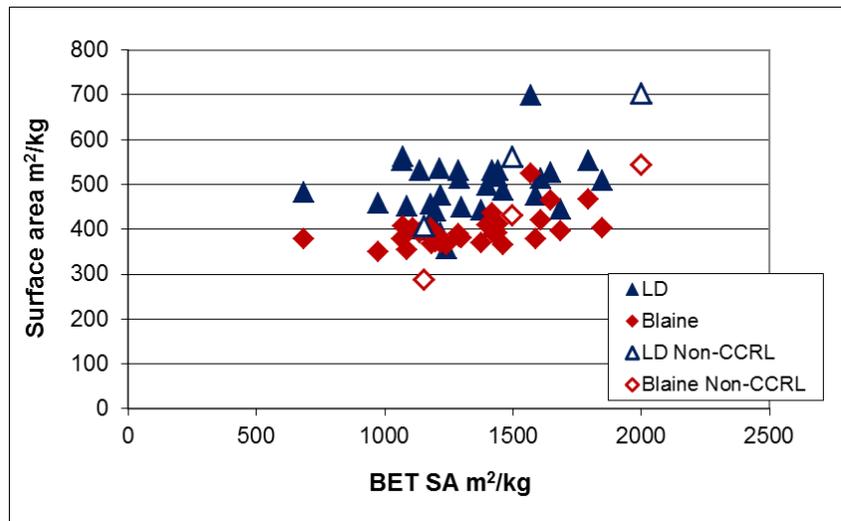
23 **Fineness measurements comparison**

24 In this paper, there were four methods used to determine fineness: BET, Blaine, sieve
25 residue, and LD-PSD. The BET is the most direct and finest length-scale measurement of
26 specific surface area as it makes no assumption about the shape of the particles. Figure 1 shows
27 the relationship between the BET surface and the surface obtained either by Blaine or by LD-
28 PSD. The following observations can be made: 1) the range of surface area measured with BET
29 is the widest (686 m^2/kg to 2000 m^2/kg), emphasizing the differences between the cements; 2)
30 the narrowest distribution is provided by the results of the Blaine method (349 m^2/kg to
31 545 m^2/kg).

32 The difference between the Blaine and the BET results is interesting since similar gases
33 (pure nitrogen in the BET test and air, which is 80 % nitrogen, in the Blaine test) are being used
34 to interrogate the surface area. Since it is known that the BET test measures a monolayer of
35 nitrogen molecules covering the surface, the implication is that in the Blaine test, not all parts of
36 the surface are interrogated. Since the air velocity goes to zero at the particle surface for non-
37 turbulent air flow, there are probably many “dead zones” on the surface that the flowing air in
38 the Blaine test does not see. This implies that the Blaine is not a true measure of the particle
39 surface area, since these small regions, while not important for air flow, are probably important
40 for reaction during hydration. So while BET showed clear differences between cement surface
41 areas for these materials, the Blaine results were less sensitive. Therefore, there is no clear
42 relationship between the surface area by Blaine and BET.

43 A clearer trend is observed with the three Non-CCRL cements that were ground from the
44 same clinker. They were ground to have different Blaine values, so they show a clearer trend

1 between BET and Blaine/LD. This could be also explained by the fact that these three cements
 2 had the same composition (one clinker and gypsum) and were prepared by the same ball mill. On
 3 the other hand, the CCRL cements do not have the same composition and were prepared by
 4 different manufacturers over several years. More data must be obtained to confirm the
 5 correlation between BET, LD and Blaine for cements with the same composition.
 6

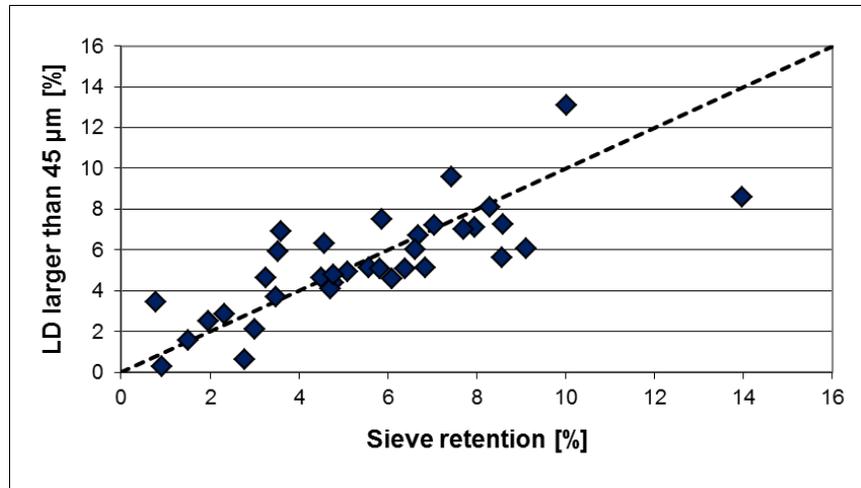


7
 8 **Figure 1: Blaine and LD-PSD surface area vs. BET surface area.**
 9

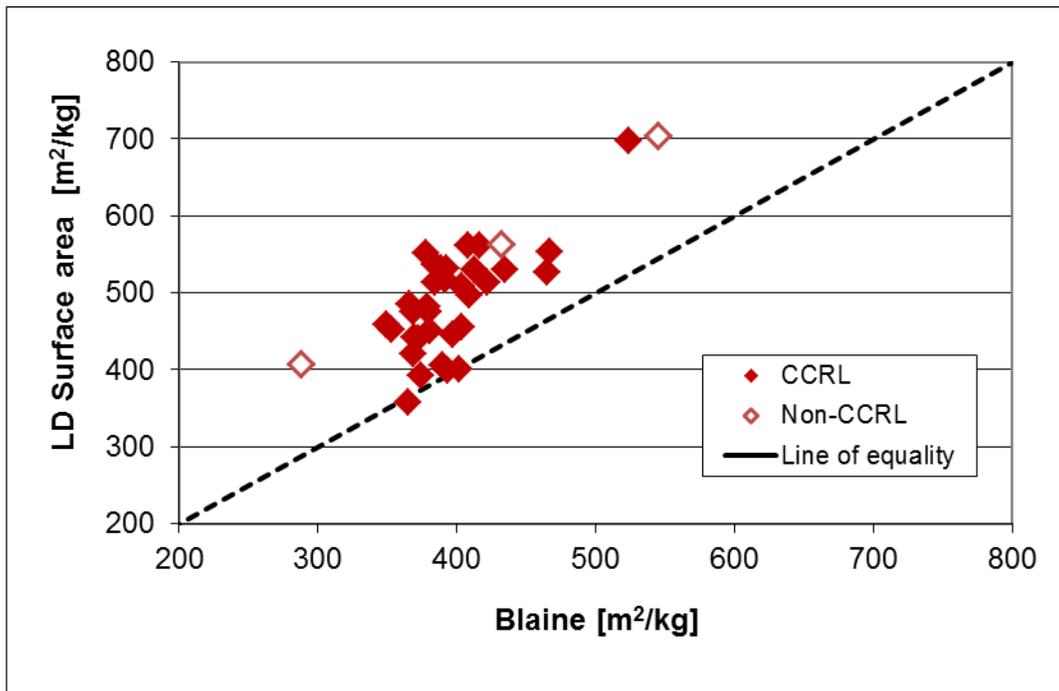
10 The last technique is the 45- μm sieve test. As this method only measures the percentage
 11 of material retained on a sieve and not a specific surface area, there is no correlation with the
 12 various surface area results. But from the LD distribution curve of PSD, the percentage of
 13 particles larger than 45 μm can be calculated. There is some scatter, but the data points are
 14 closely grouped around the line of equality (slope = 1) (Figure 2), indicating that the LD results
 15 could substitute for the 45 μm sieve results.

16 So far, it has been established that both the Blaine and the LD provide a surface area that is
 17 weakly correlated with the BET, the most direct and fundamental method. So, in an ideal world,
 18 the BET should be adopted as the measurement of the surface area, but it is an expensive device
 19 that requires at least half a day to measure one cement sample. So the Blaine and the LD tests are
 20 more practical surface area measurement methods for cement industry production. Figure 3
 21 shows the correlation between the Blaine and the surface area measured by LD. There is
 22 significant scatter of the data points for the CCRL cements, but in all cases the value of the
 23 surface area by LD is larger than the Blaine result. For the Non-CCRL cements, a linear
 24 relationship between LD and Blaine was observed having a value of $R^2 = 0.98$. The CCRL
 25 cements were not included in the correlation because the data points were too narrowly
 26 dispersed, i.e., the cements had similar values of Blaine or LD specific surface areas.

27 In summary, it could be stated that BET is the most direct method for specific surface
 28 area measurement. On the other hand, BET is also too expensive a test, in terms of both cost and
 29 time to perform a measurement, to be adopted by industry. Although neither LD nor Blaine
 30
 31



1
2 **Figure 2: Relationship between the percentage of particles larger than 45 μm by LD**
3 **and by the sieve method (ASTM C430). The dashed line is the line of equality (slope =**
4 **1).**
5



6
7 **Figure 3: Relationship between Blaine and LD surface area. The dashed line is the line of**
8 **equality (slope = 1).**
9

10 provides a perfect measurement of cement surface area, LD also provides an excellent
11 measurement of the particle size distribution and the correct 45 μm sieve residue, which are not
12 provided by the Blaine measurement. The instrument is more expensive than the Blaine
13 apparatus but the measurement takes less than 30 min and can be automated, thus saving labor
14 cost vs. the Blaine measurement. It also does not require calibration using a reference material

1 such as SRM 114q. The SRM is useful for the LD test only to verify that the device being used is
 2 operating as expected.

3 **Fineness and the shape of the particles**

4 The X-ray CT is being used to provide particle shape determination, since cement
 5 particles are not really spheres. Knowing the true particle shape for each kind of cement will help
 6 in the comparison of different surface area measures. The X-ray CT measurements also give a
 7 measure of surface area for each particle measured. A sub-set of the CCRL cements considered
 8 for LD-PSD and Blaine have been chosen to be examined with X-ray CT, along with the three
 9 Non-CCRL cements listed in Table 1. Samples were made, consisting of cement particles
 10 dispersed in low viscosity-epoxy and contained in 3 mm diameter plastic tubes [18]. After X-ray
 11 CT scanning, computer programs were used to analyze the particles found in terms of shape and
 12 other geometric factors [17]. The number of particles computationally extracted from the
 13 samples for each cement type ranged from about 20,000 to 450,000. For the cement with the
 14 highest particle number, a total particle volume of about 1.2 mm³ was examined. Using a
 15 spherical harmonic function expansion for each particle [17], different particle geometry
 16 parameters were computed for each particle, including their *volume equivalent spherical*
 17 *diameter* (VESD), which is the diameter of the (imaginary) sphere with the same volume as a
 18 given particle, and length (L), width (W), and thickness (T) of a particle, as defined in ASTM
 19 D4791 [19]. If the particles were truly spherical, then VESD = L = W = T.

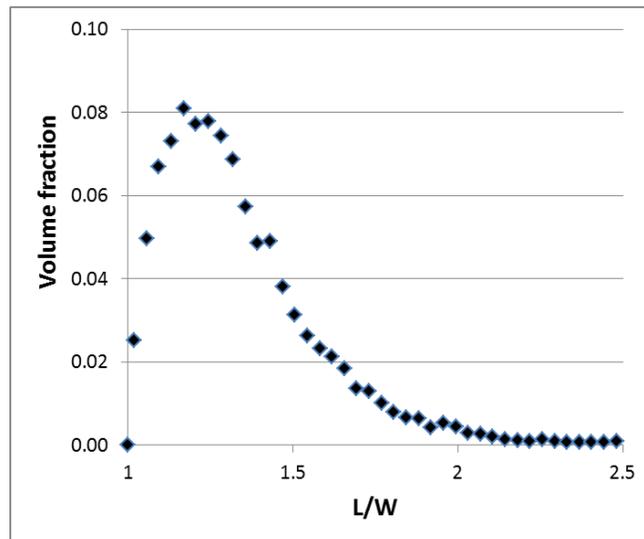
20 **Table 1: Properties of Non-CCRL cements [17]**

Surface area			LD data				Setting time		Strength
LD	Blaine	BET	% > 45 μm	d ₁₀ ,	d ₅₀ ,	d ₉₀ ,	Initial	Final	28D
m ² /kg	m ² /kg	m ² /kg		μm	μm	μm	min	min	MPa (psi)
408	288	1152.2	12.89	1.85	17.8	49.9	226	298	52.6 (7936)
563	432	1497.9	2.83	1.25	11.2	39.9	130	191	66.2 (9604)
704	545	1998.3	0.00	0.98	6.8	17.4	115	160	86.8 (12593)

23 Using VESD as a rough measure of particle “size,” the cement particles processed had VESD
 24 ranges of about 10 μm to 100 μm. The particles smaller than this size were not able to be imaged
 25 by the X-ray CT apparatus available at NIST, so that a complete PSD and specific surface area
 26 could not be computed to directly compare with the other techniques.

27 The ratios of the “size” quantities serve as shape parameters (aspect ratios): L/W, W/T,
 28 and L/VESD. Again, for spheres these ratios would all be unity. Figure 4 shows how the values
 29 of L/W are distributed for CCRL cement 163, in terms of the volume fraction of the particles
 30 having a certain value of L/W. We see that there is a range of values for L/W for the CCRL 163
 31 particles, with almost all of the particles having a value of L/W of less than 2.5. To create Figure
 32 4, the symbols correspond to each bin in L/W used. The y-axis in Fig. 4 is exact. The uncertainty
 33

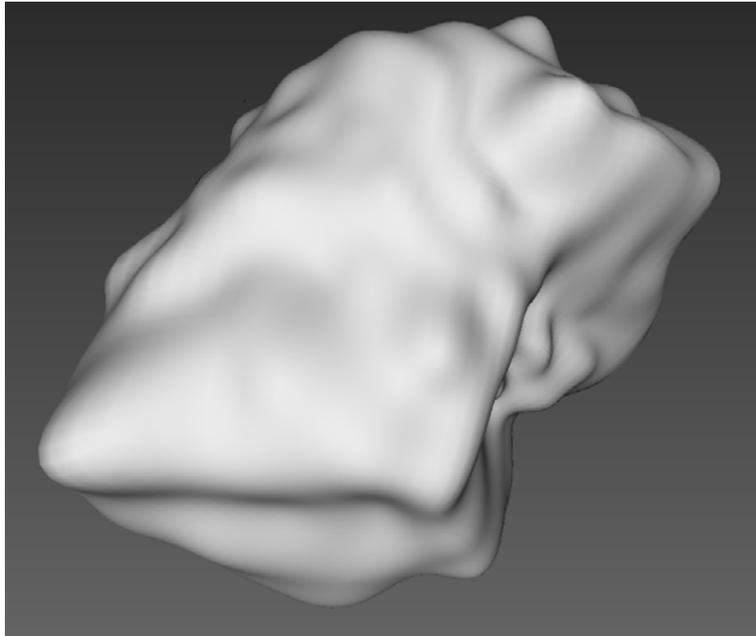
1 in determining the value of L, W, and T for each particle is estimated to be about 2 %, so that the
 2 uncertainty in the aspect ratios are about 5 %.



4 **Figure 4: The distribution of the L/W aspect ratio for CCRL cement 163, in terms of**
 5 **volume fraction (the same as mass fraction in this case), as computed from X-ray CT**
 6 **measurements and spherical harmonic expansions.**

8
 9 The values of these parameters, averaged over all the particles of a given cement, serve as
 10 a simple way to compare the shape of the cement particles against each other and against the
 11 spherical assumption. For the cements considered, CCRL 115, 116, 133, 135, 146, 140, 141, 152,
 12 161, 162, 163, and the three cements in Table 1, it was found that the average value of L/W
 13 ranged from 1.32 to 1.43 among the 14 cements, with a standard deviation for each cement,
 14 reflecting the distribution functions like that shown in Figure 4, of about 0.27. For the W/T
 15 parameter, the range was from 1.32 to 1.49, with a standard deviation for each cement of about
 16 0.32. For the L/VESD parameter, the range was 1.45 to 1.61, with a standard deviation for each
 17 cement of about 0.20. The standard deviations in this case are only calculated for the purpose of
 18 giving an idea of the width of the distributions, and their near equality for each aspect ratio
 19 among cements implies that their aspect ratio distributions are similar to the CCRL 163
 20 distribution shown in Fig. 4. Based on these values, these cements do not exhibit the properties
 21 of spherical particles, and one must keep that in mind when interpreting the Blaine and LD
 22 measurements for specific surface area and particle size, since both measurements assume
 23 spherical particles. One can also compute the ratio of the surface area of each particle, as
 24 measured by X-ray CT, to the surface area of the volume-equivalent sphere. This ratio, averaged
 25 over all particles, is about 1.2 for each cement. One might guess, then, that the LD results should
 26 be increased by a factor of about 20 % to get a better value for the surface area. However, a
 27 blended cement made with fly ash might not need the full 20 % correction, since fly ash particles
 28 tend to be more spherical than cement particles. Also, it seems, at least as judged by these three
 29 shape parameters and surface area ratios, that all these cements have particles of similar shapes.
 30 However, if we knew the detailed mineralogy of the individual cement types (actual clinker

1 minerals, not just oxide abundances as given in the CCRL reports and mill sheets), some
2 correlation of shape and mineralogy probably could be made (see reference [18]). Figure 5
3 shows an image of a typical particle from the cement in the second line of Table 1, taken directly
4 from the X-ray CT measurement and spherical harmonic expansion. In this case, the non-
5 sphericity is quite marked.
6



7
8 **Figure 5: A typical particle from the cement in the second line of Table 1, as imaged by**
9 **X-ray CT and reconstructed using spherical harmonics. At a VESD value of 81 μm , this**
10 **is one of the largest particles in this cement type.**

11 12 **Fineness and macroproperties**

13 The compressive strength measured at 3 d, 7 d and 28 d were collected from the CCRL
14 database. Unfortunately, due to the type of cement used, the values of compressive strength were
15 all very similar and the range of values was almost contained within the measurement
16 uncertainty:

- 17 • 3 d: 25.2 MPa \pm 3.6 MPa (3660 psi \pm 528 psi). The average uncertainty as determined by
18 CCRL is 1.7 MPa (252 psi)
- 19 • 7 d: 32.2 MPa \pm 3.1 MPa (4677 psi \pm 444 psi). The average uncertainty as determined by
20 CCRL is 2.1 MPa (309 psi)
- 21 • 28 d: 41.4 MPa \pm 3.9 MPa (6007 psi \pm 529 psi). The average uncertainty as determined
22 by CCRL is 2.7 MPa (396 psi)

23
24 Therefore, it would be difficult to establish correlations between surface area, LD-PSD,
25 and compressive strength using the CCRL cements. However, when the properties of three of the
26 Non-CCRL cements (no strength data were collected for the SRMs) were examined, clear

1 correlations between strength at 28 days, initial and final set and the fineness were clearly seen,
2 as have been noted previously [17].
3
4

5 **PROPOSED LASER DIFFRACTION STANDARD**

6 From the discussion in this paper, it is clear that the most comprehensive test, providing
7 both surface area and sieve residue, is the measurement by LD of the cement PSD. As of today,
8 there is no standard for measuring PSD by LD in the US. There is a general ISO standard and
9 ASTM standards that are not specific to cements. Thus, a standard test method is proposed that
10 would be presented to AASHTO for adoption. The method could be used to measure particles
11 from 0.4 μm to 2000 μm largely covering the range of a typical cement PSD.

12 The summary of the method is as follows. The wet method involves a sample of cement
13 powder dispersed in isopropyl alcohol (IPA) and recirculated through the path of the light beam.
14 A dry sample can be pushed under air pressure or pulled under vacuum so that it flows through
15 the light beam. The particles pass through the beam and scatter light. Photodetector arrays collect
16 the scattered light, which is then converted to electrical signals and analyzed by a computer. The
17 signals are converted to a particle size distribution (PSD) using an optical model based on
18 Fraunhofer diffraction or Mie scattering. Scattering information is analyzed assuming spherical
19 particles. Calculated particle sizes are therefore presented as equivalent spherical diameters.

20 Typically the specimen is introduced in the device (less than 1 g for the LD-W and about
21 5g to 10 g for the LD-D). The rest of the process is automated and depends on the
22 manufacturer's design. The SRM 114q could be used to establish the best standard operating
23 procedure as the results obtained should match the curve provided by the SRM certificate. Other
24 details of the method will be in the actual draft standard.

25 Some key parameters should be reported:

- 26 • The 10 %, 50 % and 90 %, (d_{10} , d_{50} and d_{90} respectively) diameters, which are the mass
27 fraction with measured diameters less than these values. These values can be used to
28 calculate the span $\equiv (d_{90}-d_{10})/d_{50}$ to give a measure of the width of the differential PSD.
- 29 • The cumulative (volume % versus diameter) PSD.
- 30 • The calculated specific surface area in m^2/kg based on an user-provided specific gravity
31 for cement powder. This is usually a function built into most instruments.

32 The inter-laboratory study performed to certify SRM 114q provides the precision
33 statement for both within-laboratory precision and multi-laboratory precision [8].
34

35 **CONCLUSION**

36 The most practical and comprehensive method of cement specific surface area is the laser
37 diffraction (LD) test, and it also provides the particle size distribution (PSD), the specific surface
38 area, and a good approximation of the 45 μm sieve residue. Over 30 cements were analyzed to
39 compare fineness measured by Blaine, LD, 45 μm sieve residue and BET. The BET provides the
40 most fundamental and direct surface area measurement, not based on the assumption that the
41 particles are spherical. Correlation between BET and the other tests methods was not found to be
42 excellent. This is not surprising, as cement particles are not spherical. Although in an ideal world
43 nitrogen BET should be selected as the standard test, the method is slow to execute and is

1 expensive in terms of time and labor. On the other hand, the LD-PSD provides a good correlation
2 with 45 μm sieve residue and results in a wider range of values for the surface area than the
3 Blaine, thus better distinguishing cements that perform differently. Thus, this study proposes the
4 standardization of the LD-PSD method for cement powders. During an inter-laboratory study
5 [10] it was determined that about 93% of the laboratories accredited by CCRL use LD for PSD.
6 The test has been proposed to AASHTO for standardization.

7 The particles in cement powders are not spherical, and one must keep that in mind when
8 interpreting the Blaine and LD measurements for specific surface area and particle size, since
9 both measurements assume spherical particles. The cements studied here seem to have similar
10 shapes, as least as measured by the three shape parameters and the surface area parameter
11 considered. This is perhaps not so surprising, considering the ball-mill grinding process that
12 likely produced all these cements.

13 It was found to be difficult to establish correlations between surface area, LD-PSD, and
14 compressive strength using the CCRL cements, since the compressive strengths were tightly
15 clustered and almost fell within the measurement uncertainty. However, when the properties of
16 three of the Non-CCRL cements (no strength data were collected for the SRMs) were examined,
17 clear correlations between strength at 28 days, initial and final set and the fineness were clearly
18 seen.

19
20

21 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

22 The authors would like to thank Dr. Haleh Azari for her support in obtaining financial
23 support from National Cooperative Highway Research Program (NCHRP project
24 20-7/Task 301). Also, the data could not have been collected without the help of M. Peltz, NIST.
25 Dale Bentz and Dr. Kenneth Snyder should be thanked for their valuable comments on the paper.

26
27

27 REFERENCES

- 1 “Standard Test Method for Fineness of Hydraulic Cement by Air Permeability
Apparatus”, ASTM C204-00 Volume: 04.01
- 2 “Standard Test Method for Fineness of Portland Cement by the Turbidimeter”, ASTM
C115-96a (2003) Volume: 04.01
- 3 “Standard Test Method for Fineness of Hydraulic Cement by the 45- μm (No. 325)
Sieve”, ASTM C430-96 (2003) Volume: 04.01
- 4 Wagner, L. A., “A Rapid Method for the Determination of the Specific Surface of
Portland Cement,” Proceedings, ASTM, ASTEA, Vol 33, Part II, 1933, p. 553
- 5 Blaine R L, Bull.Am.Soc.Test.Mater., 123, p 51 (1943)
- 6 Carman, P. C. (1937). Fluid flow through granular beds. *Transactions of the Institution of
Chemical Engineers (London)*, 15, 150-166; Kozeny, J. (1927). UG ber kapillare Leitung
des Wassers im Boden. *Sitzungsberichte der Akademie der Wissenschaften Wien,
Mathematisch-naturwissenschaftlichen Klasse (Abt. IIa)*, 136, 271- 306.

- 7 Ferraris, C.F., Guthrie W., Avilés A.I., Haupt, R., B. McDonald “Certification of SRM 114q; Part I”, NIST SP260-161, July 2005
- 8 Ferraris C.F., Guthrie W., Ivelisse Avilés A., Peltz M., Haupt R., MacDonald B. S. “Certification of SRM 114q; Part II (Particle Size distribution)”, NIST SP260-166, November 2006
- 9 Hackley V., Lum L-S., Gintautas V., Ferraris C., “Particle Size Analysis by Laser Diffraction Spectrometry: Applications to Cementitious Powders”, NISTIR 7097, March 2004
- 10 C.F. Ferraris, V.A. Hackley, and A.I. Avilés, Measurement of Particle Size Distribution in Portland Cement Powder: Analysis of ASTM Round Robin Studies, *Cem. Conc. Agg.* **26**, 71-81 (2004).
- 11 P. Bowen, Particle Size Distribution Measurement from Millimeters to Nanometers and from Rods to Platelets, *Journal of Dispersion Science and Technology*, Volume 23, Issue 5, 2002, pp. 631-662
- 12 S. Brunauer, P. H. Emmett and E. Teller, Adsorption of Gases in Multimolecular Layers, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 1938, vol. 60, pp 309-319
- 13 Mandelbrot, B.B. *The Fractal Geometry of Nature* (W.H.Freeman, San Francisco, 1967).
- 14 E.J. Garboczi, Three-dimensional mathematical analysis of particle shape using x-ray tomography and spherical harmonics: Application to aggregates used in concrete, *Cem. Conc. Res.* **32**, 1621-1638 (2002).
- 15 S.T. Erdoğan, X. Nie, P.E. Stutzman, and E.J. Garboczi, Micrometer-scale 3-D imaging of eight cements: Particle shape, cement chemistry, and the effect of particle shape on laser diffraction size analysis, *Cement and Concrete Research* 40, 731–739 (2010).
- 16 CCRL reports on the Proficiency Sample Program: <http://www.ccril.us/Psp/Reports.htm>
- 17 Bentz D.P., “Blending Different Fineness Cements to Engineer the Properties of Cement-Based Materials”, *Mag. Of Cement Research* **62**, #5, pp. 327-338, May 2010
- 18 S.T. Erdoğan, P.N. Quiroga, D.W. Fowler, H.A. Saleh, R.A. Livingston, E.J. Garboczi, P.M. Ketcham, J. G. Hagedorn, and S.G. Satterfield, “Three-dimensional shape analysis of coarse aggregates: New techniques for and preliminary results on several different coarse aggregates and reference rocks,” *Cement and Concrete Research* 36, 1619-1627 (2006).
- 19 “Standard Test Method for Flat Particles, Elongated Particles, or Flat and Elongated Particles in Coarse Aggregate”, ASTM D-4791-10, volume 04-03