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3 1 **USE OF CELLULOSE FIBERS FROM HEMP CORE IN FIBER-CEMENT**
4 2 **PRODUCTION. EFFECT ON FLOCCULATION, RETENTION, DRAINAGE**
5 3 **AND PRODUCT PROPERTIES**

6
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17
18 11 **ABSTRACT**

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20 12 The aim of this paper is to study the feasibility of using cellulose fibers obtained from an
21 13 agricultural waste, hemp core (*Cannabis Sativa L.*), through different new environmental
22 14 friendly cooking processes for fiber-cement production. The physical and mechanical
23 15 properties of the fiber reinforced concrete, which depend on the nature and morphology
24 16 of the fibers, matrix properties and the interactions between them, must be kept between
25 17 the limits required for its application. Therefore, the morphology of the fibers and how its
26 18 use affects the flocculation, retention and drainage processes in the fiber-cement
27 19 manufacture, and the mechanical and physical properties of the fiber-cement product
28 20 have been studied.

29
30 21 The use of pulp obtained by means of the hemp core cooking in ethanolamine at 60%
31 22 concentration at 180 °C during 90 minutes resulted in the highest solids retention and the
32 23 best mechanical properties among the studied hemp core pulps.

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35 24 **Keywords:**

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38 25 Fiber-cement; Pulping conditions; Hemp core; Agricultural wastes; Flocculation.

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1 31 **1. INTRODUCTION**

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3 32 The use of agricultural wastes as reinforcement of composite materials is one of
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5 33 the most important targets in today's materials research (Ahankari et al., 2011;
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7 34 Ashori and Nourbakhsh, 2010; Rabi et al., 2009). The present research is
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9 35 concerned with the use of the wastes from the industrial hemp, *Cannabis Sativa L.*,
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11 36 to obtain useful cellulose fibers to manufacture fiber-cement products for roofing.
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13 37 Industrial hemp is one of the crops having a highest yield among those of
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15 38 temperate zones, being at the same time one of and less intensive ones. It is highly
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17 39 self-compatible what means that it requires crop rotation. Similar to other
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19 40 lignocellulosic fibers, hemp is biodegradable and environmentally friendly (Mutjé
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21 41 et al., 2007). This, together with its high strength and durability and low density,
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23 42 explains the increase in the use of hemp fibers in the manufacture of composite
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25 43 materials (Carver, 1941; Hayo, 2004). The most common material obtained from
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27 44 hemp is its fibers, especially the coarse ones which are extremely strong and
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29 45 durable. As the most valuable fibers are located in the phloem, they must often be
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31 46 separated from the xylem material ("hemp core"), which is considered a waste in
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33 47 the hemp industry (Sedan et al., 2008; Troëdec et al., 2011).

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35 48 The use of cellulose fibers as reinforcing agents in composite building materials
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37 49 offers many advantages over glass fibers, such as the possibility to manufacture
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39 50 products with low density and good biodegradability (Joshi et al., 2004; Li et al.,
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41 51 2006; Mwaikambo and Ansell, 2003). However, cellulose fibers also have some
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43 52 disadvantages, for instance, they present low modulus of elasticity, high moisture
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45 53 absorption, they decompose in alkaline environments and are susceptible to
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47 54 biological attack, and they have variable mechanical and physical properties
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49 55 (Swamy, 1990). Some of these disadvantages could be overcome by using fibers
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1 56 from hemp core with a higher durability than the traditional cellulose fibers from
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3 57 pine and with a specific tensile strength of 0.750 GPa, and specific modulus of
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5 58 elasticity of 60 GPa. These properties make hemp fibers a candidate material with
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8 59 potential as reinforcement fiber (Li et al., 2004).
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10 60 Many authors have studied the use of hemp fibers as reinforcement for building
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12 61 materials based on cement (Dalmay et al., 2010; Placet, 2009; Sedan et al., 2008;
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14 62 Troëdec et al., 2011). However, the use of hemp core fibers for this purpose has
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17 63 not been yet reported. This research aims to contribute to fill this lack of
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20 64 knowledge.
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22 65 In general, cell wall polymers and their matrices determine the mechanical and
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24 66 physical properties of natural fibers. In view of this, a number of researchers have
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27 67 reported the chemical composition of natural cellulose fibers and some of them
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29 68 have recommended improving the natural cellulose fiber properties by modifying
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31 69 the cell wall polymers (Golbabaie, 2006; Wielage et al., 2003; Young, 1997).
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34 70 Furthermore, the incorporation of cellulose fibers in a polymer or mineral matrix
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37 71 can involve an interface incompatibility between fibers and matrix, which may be
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39 72 overcome through the chemical pretreatment of fibers, with the aim of modifying
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42 73 either the chemical nature of the fiber surface or the surface properties (e.g.,
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44 74 electrostatic charge, conformation of adsorbed polymers). The effect of this
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46 75 treatment is probably a modification of the interactions between the mineral matrix
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49 76 and fibers, which increases the efficiency with which stress is transferred from the
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51 77 matrix to the fiber (Negro et al., 2005; Ouajai and Shanks, 2005).
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54 78 The process through which fibers are obtained from natural sources determines the
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56 79 properties of the fibers surface and, therefore, it affects the interface matrix-fiber
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59 80 surface. To study the effect of this stage on the final product two different
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1 81 treatments, namely a semi-chemical pulping process and a chemical pulping
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3 82 process, both at different cooking conditions have been applied to obtain the
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5 83 cellulose fibers from the hemp core.
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7 84 First, a comprehensive study of the morphology of the fibers was carried out
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9 85 (Jarabo et al., 2012); then, the effect of using these fibers on the fiber-cement
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11 86 manufacture process was determined through the study of the flocculation,
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13 87 retention and drainage of the fiber-cement suspensions prepared with the different
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15 88 fibers. Finally, the effect of using the obtained fibers on the physical and
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17 89 mechanical properties of fiber-cement probes was determined.
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22 90 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

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25 91 **2.1. Materials**

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27 92 The raw material used for this study was the hemp core, waste from the culture of
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29 93 *Cannabis Sativa L.* grown in Spain and supply by the LEPAMAP Group.
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32 94 The hemp fiber is constituted by 43% cellulose, 16% hemicellulose and 8% lignin.
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34 95 Hemp straw is a sub-product in the process to obtain hemp strands from stalk of
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36 96 the plant. This stalk can be separated, or decorticated, into two main components:
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38 97 fibers and core fibers. The initial length of these core fibers lies between 5 and 10
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40 98 mm (Mutjé et al., 2007; Barberà et al., 2011).
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44 99 Tables 1 and 2 show the cooking conditions used to obtain hemp pulp by a semi-
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46 100 chemical process and a chemical (organosolv) process employing NaOH and
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48 101 ethanolamine as solvents, respectively and the yield obtained in each case.
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51 102 The ethanolamine PA-ACS solution was supplied as a commercial product by
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53 103 Panreac.

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56 104 Organosolv pulping were performed in a 25-L stainless steel rotator digester with a
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58 105 heat exchanger system and pressure control. The pulping conditions were
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1 106 maintained constant as follows: liquor to solid ratio: 6:1 and digester pressure 5–7
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3 107 bars. Selected experimental conditions were: solvent concentration, temperature
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5 108 and pulping time.

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8 109 The pulping with NaOH was carried out in the same digester but with a solution of
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10 110 NaOH having 1.4 g/L of anthraquinone as a catalyzer of the chemical reaction.

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12 111 The cooked pulps were defibred in a hydrapulper and screened through a

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15 112 Somerville vibratory flat screen with 0.15 mm slot size; the screened pulp was

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17 113 washed, pressed, crumbled and stored at 4 °C.

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20 114 The conditions chosen in these tables are the result best from a previous study

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22 115 carried out to optimize these cooking processes for hemp core fibers (Barberà et

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24
25 116 al., 2011).

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27 117 Refined unbleached pine Kraft pulps (35 °SR) were used as reference since this

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29 118 pulp is commonly used to provide cellulose fibers in the manufacture of fiber-

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32 119 cement through the Hatschek process.

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35 120 A Portland cement (type II / AV 42.5) containing 12% fly ash was used for the

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37 121 probes. It is a fine powder with a wide distribution of particle sizes, being the 80%

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40 122 of the particles in the interval from 2 µm to 50 µm.

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42 123 Microsilica was also used to manufacture of the test probes. The type of

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44 124 microsilica employed was composed of ultra-thin amorphous spheres of SiO₂ with

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46 125 a particle size around 0.5 µm containing small amounts of crystalline quartz (less

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49 126 than 0.5%) as impurities.

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52 127 The flocculant employed to study the behavior of fiber-cement suspensions and to

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54 128 prepare the fiber-cement probes was an anionic polyacrylamide (APAM)

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57 129 commonly used in the industrial Hatschek process (Negro et al., 2006) with a

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59 130 molecular weight of $7.4 \cdot 10^6$ g/mol and a charge density of 13.4%. The flocculant

1 131 was dissolved in distilled water to prepare solutions of APAM with a

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3 132 concentration of 1.5 g/L.

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5 133 The composition of the prepared fiber-reinforced cement slurries is summarized in

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7
8 134 Table 3. Five fiber-cement slurries were prepared, being the source of cellulose the

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10 135 only difference between them: M1 was prepared using pulp P1 as a source of

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12 136 cellulose fibers, M2 was prepared with P2, M3 with P3, M4 with P4 and the pine

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15 137 Kraft pulp was used to prepare the fiber-cement slurry MR, which was used as a

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17 138 reference.

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20 139 Although in air curing fiber-cements synthetic fibers (PVA) are normally used due

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22 140 to their capacity to withstand degradation due to environmental conditions, in the

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24 141 present research, no synthetic fibers were used to prepare the probes so as to avoid

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26 142 interferences in the determination of the fiber-cement properties that can be

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29 143 ascribed to the use of cellulose fibers.

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32 144 **2.2. Methods**

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34 145 **2.2.1. Density of the fibers**

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37 146 The fiber density was measured by using a gas pycnometer (Multipycnometer).

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39 147 Helium was the gas employed because its small atomic radius enables it to enter

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42 148 into crevices and pores approaching one Angstrom (10^{-10} m).

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44 149 Before the measurement, the samples were dried in an oven at 60 °C for 24 h. The

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46 150 volume of each sample was determined five times applying Equations 1-2 to the

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49 151 pressure and volume values measured:

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54 153 $V_p \text{ (cm}^3\text{)} = V_c - V_r ((P_1/P_2) - 1)$ [1]

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56 154 $\text{Density (g/cm}^3\text{)} = W/V_p$ [2]

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1 156 Where: V_p is the sample volume, V_c is the volume of the sample holder (16.163
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3 157 cm^3), V_r is the reference volume (8.068 cm^3), P_1 is the pressure measurement after
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5 158 pressurizing the reference volume (PSI), P_2 is the pressure measurement after
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7 159 including V_c (PSI) and the W is the dry weight of sample.

10 160 ***2.2.2. Morphological characterization of fibers***

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12 161 The morphological characterization of the fibers was carried out by using a fiber
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14 162 and pulp morphological analyzer, Morfi, V7.9.13.E (Techpap, France).

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16 163 This characterization is based on an image analysis system, consisting of a diode
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18 164 that emits unpolarized light and a microcamera. Imaging is performed until the
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20 165 equipment counts 5000 fibers, which is the optimum value for subsequent
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22 166 statistical analysis, which is performed using a computer software. The images
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24 167 were analyzed using a specific program to determine different parameters of the
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26 168 fibers and pulps: fibers, arithmetic length, length weighted in length, average
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28 169 length weighted in area, average width, coarseness, number of microfibrils and
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30 170 fines length.

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32 171 Fines are generated mainly during the beating stage when the pulps were defibred.

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34 172 There are differentiated from the fibers by their dimensions. The equipment was
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36 173 programmed to consider fiber length values between 100 and 10000 μm , width
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38 174 between 5 and 75 μm , fines length below 100 μm and width below 5 μm (Jarabo,
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40 175 et al., 2012; Moral et al., 2010).

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42 176 The samples for morphological characterization were prepared by adding 1 g of
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44 177 dry fibers to 600 mL of water and homogenizing the suspension in a laboratory
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46 178 disintegrator ENJO- 692. The characterization was done in duplicates.

47 179 ***2.2.3. Flocculation of fiber-cement suspension***

1 180 A commercial focused beam reflectance measurement probe (FBRM) M500L,
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3 181 manufactured by Mettler Toledo, USA, was employed to monitor the flocculation
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5 182 process and to determine the properties of the flocs. The FBRM device measures
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7 183 the chord length distribution on real time over a wide interval of solid
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10 184 concentrations. A laser beam is generated by a diode and focused on a focal point
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12 185 in the plane next to the external surface of the probe window, which is inside the
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14 186 suspension. The focal point describes a circular path at a constant speed of 2000
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17 187 m/s due to the rotation of the focusing lens. When a particle intercepts the focal
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20 188 point path, the reflected light reaches the detector through the probe and the optical
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22 189 fiber. The detector receives light pulses. A chord length of the intercepting particle
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25 190 is determined as the product of the time duration of the light pulse by the linear
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27 191 speed of the focal point movement. Thousands of particles can be measured each
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30 192 second. In this way, a chord length distribution is obtained from the light pulses
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32 193 received during the measurement time (set in 5 s in this case). Each distribution is
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34 194 a function of the size and shape of particles in suspension. The evolution of the
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37 195 chord size distribution reflects the aggregation or dispersion of particles. Many
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39 196 statistical parameters can be calculated from the distribution to follow its
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42 197 evolution, e.g., the mean chord size and the total number of counts measured per
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44 198 second (Blanco et al., 2002; Hubbe, 2007; Kerekes and Schell, 1992; Negro et al.,
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46 199 2007).

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49 200 In the present study, the flocculation trials were carried out immersing the probe in
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51 201 a 400 mL fiber–cement suspension, prepared with water saturated in $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, and
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53 202 stirred at 800 rpm. After 10 min, stirring intensity was reduced to 400 rpm. 100
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55 203 ppm of APAM was added 5 min later, to induce flocculation, and the evolution of
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58 204 the flocs was studied at 400 rpm for 4 min. After that, the stirring intensity was

1 205 increased to 800 rpm to break down the flocs formed (deflocculation) for 2 min
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3 206 and, finally, stirring intensity was reduced again to 400 rpm to induce the
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5 207 reflocculation of the system (Jarabo et al., 2010).
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7 208 ***2.2.4. Retention and drainage of fiber-cement suspension***

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10 209 The equipment used for measuring the retention and drainage was a vacuum
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12 210 drainage tester (VDT). It has two jars separated by a barrier: the upper jar keeps
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14 211 the fiber–cement suspensions stirred up to the addition of the flocculant dosage.
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16 212 The second jar contains a mesh in the bottom to carry out the dewatering of the
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18 213 suspension and it is connected to a vacuum pump and to a probe in which the
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20 214 filtrate is stored and weighted in real time. The final volume of filtrate is
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22 215 measured. In a typical trial, 400 mL of fiber–cement suspension, prepared with
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24 216 water saturated in $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, were stirred at 600 rpm during 6 min in the upper jar.
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26 217 Then, stirring intensity was decreased to 300 rpm and, 5 min later 100 ppm of
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28 218 APAM were added. After 15 s of contact time between flocculant and mixture, the
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30 219 stirring was stopped, the barrier was removed and the suspension was drained to
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32 220 the second jar in which an 18 mesh wire was placed. The suspension was drained
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34 221 under vacuum (0.2 atm) through the filter and a computerized balance recorded the
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36 222 mass of drained water over time. The drainage curve was analyzed in order to
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38 223 obtain the drainage rate for the different flocculants. Retention and cake humidity
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40 224 were determined gravimetrically after the analysis of the formed cake (Fuente et
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42 225 al., 2010).
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51 226 ***2.2.5. Preparation of fiber-cement probes***

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54 227 Fiber reinforced cement probes were prepared in the laboratory through a slurry
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56 228 vacuum de-watering technique. The matrix materials were added and dispersed in
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58 229 $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ saturated water with a solids concentration of 20%. The slurry was
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1 230 transferred to an evacuable 200 x 200 mm² casting box and a vacuum (~60 KPa
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 3 231 gauge) was exerted until excess water was removed and a solid cake was formed.
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 5 232 The pad was pressed at 3.2 MPa, so that the rest of the water was removed. After
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 7 233 pressing, the plates were sealed in a plastic bag at room temperature. Three pads
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 9 234 were prepared in this way for each formulation. After two days; the pads were
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 11 235 removed from the bags and placed in water. Twenty-six days later, the pads were
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 13 236 removed from the water and four 200 x 50 mm² flexural test specimens were
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 15 237 diamond wet-sawn from each pad. Eight pads were prepared to provide sufficient
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 17 238 specimens for the determination of mechanical properties and four pads were
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 19 239 prepared for the determination of physicals properties.
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25 240 **2.2.6. Mechanical properties of fiber-cement probes**

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 27 241 Mechanical tests were performed in the universal testing machine Emic DL-30,000
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 29 242 equipped with 1 KN load cell. A four point bending configuration was employed
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 31 243 in the determination of modulus of rupture (*MOR*), limit of proportionality (*LOP*),
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 33 244 modulus of elasticity (*MOE*) and specific energy (*SE*) of the specimens following
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 35 245 calculations specified in Equations 3-6.
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 37 246 A span of 100 mm and a deflection rate of 0.5 mm/min were used in the bending
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 39 247 test (Savastano et al., 2000). Test data were digitally recorded and reduced using
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 41 248 automatic data collection and processing facilities. Eight flexural specimens were
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 43 249 tested for each composite formulation.
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$$51 \quad 251 \quad MOR \text{ (MPa)} = (L_{MAX} / (b \cdot h^2)) \cdot (S_{down} - S_{up}) \quad [3]$$

$$52 \quad 252 \quad LOP \text{ (MPa)} = (L_{LOP} / (b \cdot h^2)) \cdot (S_{down} - S_{up}) \quad [4]$$

$$53 \quad 253 \quad MOE \text{ (kPa)} = tg \alpha (L_{MAX} / \delta) \cdot (S_{down} - S_{up})^3 / (b \cdot h^3) \quad [5]$$

$$54 \quad 254 \quad SE \text{ (kJ/m}^2\text{)} = Absorbed \text{ energy} / (b \cdot h) \quad [6]$$

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Where L_{MAX} is the maximum stress, L_{LOP} is the stress at the upper point of the

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linear portion of the stress-strain curve, $(S_{down} - S_{up})$ is the major span, b and h are

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the specimen width and thickness respectively, $tg\alpha$ is the initial slope of the stress-

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strain curve and δ is the deflection of the composite.

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The absorbed energy is the area under the stress-strain curve to the point

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corresponding to a reduction in carrying capacity to the maximum stress (Tonoli et

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al., 2010).

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The mechanical properties of the probes were measured 28 days after the

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construction of the sheet.

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2.2.7. Physical properties of fiber-cement suspension

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Water absorption, bulk density and porosity values at 28 days were obtained from

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the tested flexural specimens following the procedures specified in ASTM C 948-

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81 (ASTM C 948-81).

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Four specimens were used to determine these properties.

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3. RESULTS

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3.1. Morphological characterization of pulps

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The results of the morphological characterization of hemp core fibers and pulps

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obtained by both semi-chemical and organosolv process are shown in Table 4.

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Kraft pine pulp was also characterized for comparison.

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It is noticeable that the length of the fibers and fines obtained from the hemp core

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is much shorter than that of the pine fibers. Therefore, the number the fibers per

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gram on hemp pulps are higher than that on pine pulp. This could improve their

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dispersion in the matrix.

1 279 P1 and P3, presented lower values of fibers arithmetic length, length weighted in
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3 280 length, average width and coarseness along which lower fines length than those for
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5 281 the pulps P2 and P4. This can be due to the more aggressive cooking conditions
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7 282 used to obtain pulps P1 and P3, which increase the probability of fibers
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9 283 degradation during the process.

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12 284 Regarding the effect of the process (semi-chemical or organosolv), the organosolv
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14 285 pulps (P3 and P4) had slightly shorter fibers and with lower coarseness than the
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16 286 semi-chemical pulps.

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18 287 NaOH used in semi-chemical process is well-known to remove amorphous
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20 288 materials, such as hemicelluloses and pectins, from the surface of hemp fibers
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22 289 (Troëdec et al., 2009); this reduces the coarseness of the fibers, which is lower for
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24 290 P1. However, the coarseness of the organosolv fibers is even lower than that of P1.
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26 291 Organosolv process consists of dissolving lignin, extractives, hemicelluloses and
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28 292 pectin in ethanolamine but in such way that they can be used to obtain valuable
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30 293 chemical products. The efficiency of the organosolv process in removing these
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32 294 compounds from the fiber surface is high even when soft cooking conditions is
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34 295 applied.

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36 296 The percentage of microfibrills is similar in pulps P2, P3 and PR and higher than
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38 297 in the two other pulps. This could increase the interaction among the fibers and the
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40 298 matrix and, consequently, improve the properties of the fiber-cement.

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42 299 It has been demonstrated that a fiber analyzer (MorFi) can gain quick and reliable
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44 300 results (Bartl and Pico, 2009; Pico and Bartl, 2011).

54 301 **3.2. Flocculation of fiber-cement mixtures**

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56 302 Fig. 1 shows the evolution of the mean chord size of particles and flocs in cement
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58 303 suspensions.

1 304 After 600 s of stirring at 400 rpm, the value of the mean chord size was constant.
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3 305 900 s after starting the trial, the addition of flocculant to the suspension caused a
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5 306 fast increase in the mean chord size due to the aggregation of particles to form
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7 307 larger flocs. A maximum value of this parameter was reached at ten or fifteen
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9 308 seconds and then it started decreasing with different rate depending on the stability
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11 309 and strength of the flocs in such hydrodynamic conditions (evolution of flocs).
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13 310 When the stirring was increased to 800 rpm, part of the remaining flocs was
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15 311 broken, thus decreasing the mean chord size (deflocculation). The reflocculation
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17 312 ability of the system is shown by the increase in the mean chord size when the
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19 313 stirring was decreased to 400 rpm again.
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21 314 It can be observed that the largest maximum mean chord size was reached in the
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23 315 MR suspension. This value, however, is not too different from those reached in
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25 316 suspensions M2 and M4 and the evolution of the mean chord size in these two
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27 317 cases indicates that the flocs formed were more stable than those formed from MR.
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29 318 Moreover, after the deflocculation and reflocculation stages, the mean chord size
30
31 319 in M2 and M4 remained larger than in the case of the MR suspension. The
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33 320 maximum mean chord size values reached in M1 and M3 were lower than those
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35 321 reached in the other cases, but after the evolution stage the values obtained were
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37 322 slightly lower than those in MR.
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39 323 The results indicate that the flocculation process and floc properties are more
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41 324 affected by the cooking conditions than by the cooking reagent used, and that the
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43 325 use of soft cooking conditions favored the formation of larger and more stable
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45 326 flocs when APAM was added to the fiber-cement pulp.
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56 327 **3.3. Retention and drainage of fiber-cement suspensions**

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1 328 Fig. 2 shows the drainage curves of the fiber-cement suspensions considered in
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3 329 this research.
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5 330 Drainage took place in two steps: first, the suspension was filtrated and a cake was
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8 331 formed with a fast water removal, which corresponds to the first part of the
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10 332 drainage curves (linear part with a high slope); secondly, the cake was compressed
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13 333 and thickened and water removal rate decreases towards zero. During the first
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15 334 stage, only the water between flocs was removed, while part of the water inside the
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17 335 flocs was removed during the compression stage. Most of the solids loss with the
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19 336 filtrate takes place during the first stage while the second stage determines the final
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21 337 humidity and the formation properties of the cake. Drainage time can be obtained
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23 338 as the time required to reduce the drainage curve slope to zero.
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27 339 There are notable differences between the drainage curves of the fiber-cement
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29 340 suspensions containing hemp core fibers and the one for MR. The initial drainage
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31 341 rate was notably affected by the intensity of cooking conditions of the pulp and it
32
33 342 took the lowest values for M1 and M3 suspensions. There was no appreciable
34
35 343 compression stage in the drainage curves of M2 and M4. The final weight of
36
37 344 recovered filtrate was also higher in these cases and in the case of M1.
38
39
40 345 Table 5 shows that the solids retention was very low when the cake was formed
41
42 346 from suspensions M2 and M4, taking its maximum value in the case of
43
44 347 suspensions M1 and M3. These values, together with the drainage curves, indicate
45
46 348 that most of the mineral solids, were lost with the water drained during the first
47
48 349 drainage stage in the case of M2 and M4 with only some of the mineral solids
49
50 350 remaining in the cake and the majority of fibers, whose high hygroscopicity
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52 351 explains the high humidity of the cakes formed in these two cases.
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1 352 These differences can be explained from the chord size distribution of particles in
2
3 353 suspension after the flocculation process (Fig. 3) and from the floc properties.
4
5 354 Fig. 3 shows that the chord size distributions of flocculated suspensions M2, M4
6
7
8 355 and MR were similar, and that the flocs formed were much larger than in the case
9
10 356 of M1 and M3. Therefore, the spaces among the flocs are also larger and water can
11
12
13 357 drain very fast. This explains the high initial drainage rate observed by M2, M4
14
15 358 and MR. However, the flocs formed from MR are much weaker than those formed
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17 359 from M2 and M4 and, therefore, they were broken, deformed and compressed by
18
19
20 360 the vacuum forces causing the spaces among the flocs to diminish, which implies a
21
22 361 decrease in the drainage rate (compression stage) and a higher retention of mineral
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24
25 362 solids.

26
27 363 The chord size distributions of M1 and M3 show that there were numerous small
28
29
30 364 flocs and particles present in these suspensions. The spaces among the flocs were,
31
32 365 therefore, smaller, what contributes to an increase in the retention of solids, but
33
34
35 366 causes a decrease in the drainage rate. The humidity of the cake decreases when
36
37 367 retention increases, and this is due to the higher mineral content of the cake (water
38
39 368 absorbed by the mineral particles is much less than water absorbed by the fibers).

40 41 42 369 **3.4. Mechanical and physical properties of the probes**

43
44 370 Fig. 4 shows the stress-strain curves of the specimens at 28 days. The curve
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46
47 371 obtained with M3 resulted to be the most similar one to that obtained with MR is,
48
49 372 although it is worth noticing that the maximum elongation before the failure of the
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51 373 probe was higher in the case of M3, while the maximum stress was lower. This
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54 374 mechanical behavior, high elongation and stress reached, and the large area under
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56 375 the curves can be associated with a good array of the fibers and solid particles into
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1 376 the composite. The other probes were more rigid than M3 and MR, as shown by
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3 377 their low strain values.
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5 378 Therefore, the probes prepared from M3 may be the ones with the best mechanical
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7 379 properties among the fiber-cement probes prepared with hemp core fibers.
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9
10 380 Fig. 5 shows the results of the mechanical properties: modulus of rupture, limit of
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12 381 proportionality, elastic modulus and specific energy of the probes of fiber-cement
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14 382 made of hemp pulps with the two applied processes.
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16
17 383 These figures show that, among the mixtures with hemp core fibers, M3 yielded
18
19 384 the probes with the highest modulus of rupture, limit of proportionality and
20
21 385 specific energy, although these values were lower than the values obtained with
22
23 386 the reference MR. It is worth pointing out that the fibers used in the preparation of
24
25 387 MR were refined fibers. Refining increases the presence of microfibrils and
26
27 388 degrade fiber surface, which enhances the interaction among fibers and matrix.
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30 389 Pine fibers and fines lengths are notably greater than those of hemp core fibers and
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32 390 these parameters also have a significant effect on the mechanical properties of the
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34 391 probes. Fines do not contribute significantly to fiber-cement strength but act more
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36 392 as filler and, in most cases, influence negatively the drainage of the suspension
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38 393 (Tonoli et al., 2009).
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40 394 Furthermore, Fig. 5 shows that the elastic modulus of the probes prepared from
41
42 395 M4 were the highest, even higher than the values obtained for the reference
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44 396 probes. This is due to the high value of $tg\alpha$.
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46
47 397 A larger number of fibers per gram could be associated with a better distribution of
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49 398 fibers in the matrix and thus fewer loads bearing capability. However, this was not
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51 399 the case when hemp core fiber was used. Despite on the lower number of fibers
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53 400 per gram, the use of pine improved the mechanical properties of the final product
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1 401 and it may be attributed to both the superior fiber quality and the beating process,
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3 402 which produces fibrillation and consequently improved fiber matrix bonding
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5 403 (Savastano et al., 2000).
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7
8 404 Despite of the large differences observed in mechanical properties, the physical
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10 405 properties (water absorption, bulk density and porosity of the probes) are similar
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12 406 (Fig. 6) between the composites considered. Therefore, they do not explain the
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15 407 effect of the use of fibers from hemp core on the mechanical properties. These
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17 408 effects are probably related to the interaction between the fibers and the matrix.

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19
20 409 One of the drawbacks of the use of cellulose in fiber-cement is its ability to absorb
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22 410 moisture from the environment. Due to the hydroxyl and oxygen-containing
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24
25 411 groups, moisture is retained through hydrogen bonding. This causes a swelling and
26
27 412 dimensional change of the fibers affecting the composites.

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29
30 413 The water absorption of the probes prepared from M3 and M4 was slightly lower
31
32 414 than those from M1, M2 and MR. The main reason for moisture absorption is
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35 415 attributed to hemicelluloses (Golbabaie, 2006), whose removal through the
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37 416 organosolv process was more efficient than those for semi-chemical and Kraft
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39 417 processes.

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42 418 The results obtained with hemp core and pine fibers fall within the limits of
43
44 419 physical and mechanical properties according to the Chilean Standard and the
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46
47 420 Decreto N° 21341-MEIC.

48 49 421 **4. DISCUSSION**

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52 422 The effect of using hemp core fibers in the Hatschek process for fiber-cement
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54 423 suspensions and probes is closely related to the fibers morphology and to the
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56 424 flocculation process, which themselves depend on the cooking conditions. The
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59 425 addition of APAM to the fiber-cement suspensions prepared with the pulps
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1 426 obtained at hard cooking conditions (M1 and M3) induced the formation of small
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3 427 flocs (Fig. 1 and 3), which slowed down the drainage process (Fig. 2) and an
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5 428 enhancement of the compression stage due to the lower strength of the flocs. This
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7
8 429 increased the retention of solids (Table 5), part of them by means of their
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10 430 interaction with the fiber and the other part through blocking the small voids
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12 431 among flocs. This indicates a better performance in mechanical properties of M1
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14 432 and M3 fiber-cement probes comparing with the fiber-cement suspensions M2 and
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16
17 433 M4; however, the drainage is affected.

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20 434 Albeit a high retention solid was obtained for both M1 and M3, the mechanical
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22 435 properties of the probes obtained from M3 were better than those for M1. This can
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24
25 436 be explained considering the fibers morphology. Although the main effect on the
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27 437 process is related to the cooking conditions, the pulping process affects the
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29
30 438 percentage of microfibrills, the length, and the coarseness; therefore, it affects the
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32 439 interaction between fibers and matrix and the dispersion of fibers in the matrix.

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34 440 The increase in the number of microfibrills, and the slight decrease in the length
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37 441 and coarseness increase the surface area, which is available for chemical bonding
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39 442 between the fibers and the matrix. This leads to a more homogeneous surface
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42 443 made of cellulose, which will enhance the adhesion between the fibers and the
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44 444 matrix making this fiber-cement probe be better formed.

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46 445 In addition, there are other mechanisms and phenomena that may explain the
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49 446 higher modulus of rupture of M3 probes induced by the increase in the
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51 447 microfibrills:

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54 448 - At the level of the microfibrils, the longitudinal tension in the fibers could
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56 449 involve not only tensional stresses, but also torsion effects as well. This
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1 450 torsion stress, which initially impedes the tension, could subside or relax as
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3 451 a result of the repeated stress.

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5 452 - It is also probable that rearrangements and re-orientations of the cellulose
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8 453 microfibrils and/or changes in the crystalline fraction occur in the fibers
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10 454 (Placet, 2009).

11 12 455 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

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15 456 The novelty of this paper lies in the use of agricultural waste materials,
16
17 457 particularly, industrial hemp straw (*Cannabis Sativa L.*), as eco-friendly and
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19
20 458 renewable source of cellulose fibers in the manufacture of fiber-cement through
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22 459 new environmentally friendly cooking processes.

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24
25 460 The cooking process and cooking conditions used to prepare the pulp from the
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27 461 hemp core determined the feasibility of the use of the pulps obtained as source of
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30 462 fibers for fiber-cement manufacture. Cooking the hemp core in ethanolamine at
31
32 463 60% at 180 °C during 90 minutes was the optimal pulping process among the
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34 464 options studied for hemp core pulping. These conditions provided the best
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36
37 465 mechanical properties for hemp core fiber fiber-cement probes. However, a more
38
39 466 thorough optimization of the pulping process and pulp conditioning (e.g. refining)
40
41
42 467 based on the effect of fibers on the fiber-cement mechanical properties would be
43
44 468 required.

45 46 469 **Acknowledgements**

47
48
49 470 The authors are grateful to the Ministry of Science and Innovation of Spain for the
50
51 471 financial support to the Project CTM2007-66793-C03-03 and for funding the
52
53
54 472 scholarship of Rocío Jarabo to accomplish her PhD Thesis. This research is part of
55
56 473 a collaborative work between the Universidad Complutense de Madrid and the
57
58
59 474 University of Sao Paulo; the authors would like to acknowledge all assistance
60
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1 475 offered by Mr. Gustavo H.D. Tonoli and Mr. Zaqueu Dias de Freitas at the
2
3 476 Laboratory of Rural Construction of University of Sao Paulo, Brazil. Finally, the
4
5 477 authors would like to acknowledge the contribution of the LEPAMAP group of the
6
7
8 478 University of Girona in supplying hemp pulps.
9

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Table 1. Cooking conditions of hemp core using semi-chemical process.

<i>Pulps</i>	<i>T (°C)</i>	<i>Time (min.)</i>	<i>NaOH (%)</i>	<i>Yield (%)</i>
P1	180	90	25	49.1
P2	140	30	15	68.8

Table 2. Cooking conditions of hemp core using organosolv (chemical) process.

<i>Pulps</i>	<i>T (°C)</i>	<i>Time (min.)</i>	<i>Ethanolamine (%)</i>	<i>Yield (%)</i>
P3	180	90	60	28.2
P4	155	30	40	53.6

Table 3. Composition of the fiber–cement suspensions studied.

<i>Raw materials</i>	<i>Dry weight (%)</i>
Cellulose	5%
ASTM II cement	91%
Microsilica	4%

Table 4. Morphological characterization of pulps.

PROCESS	Semi-chemical		Organosolv		Kraft
PULPS	P1	P2	P3	P4	PR
FIBERS					
Fibers (10⁶/g)	32.0	61.2	45.2	28.5	10.8
Arithm length (µm)	356	389	345	352	456
Length weighted in length (µm)	539	574	459	497	1129
Average length weighted in area (µm²)	583	617	472	526	1344
Average width (µm)	19.2	29.0	24.0	27.3	25.5
Coarseness (mg/m)	0.08	0.40	0.06	0.10	0.18
Microfibrills (%)	1.38	1.66	1.68	1.48	1.62
FINES					
Fines number	13149	30470	8947	15474	49192
Fines length (%)	25.4	32.7	19.5	25.1	40.3

Table 5. Retention and humidity of fiber-cement suspensions.

<i>Fiber-cement suspension</i>	<i>Source of fibers</i>	<i>Retention (%)</i>	<i>Humidity (%)</i>
M1	P1	66.5 ± 1.87	46.8 ± 2.05
M2	P2	29.1 ± 4.90	63.7 ± 0.80
M3	P3	64.7 ± 1.57	50.5 ± 0.90
M4	P4	18.5 ± 5.70	64.7 ± 1.33
MR	Unbleached Kraft pine	57.3 ± 2.30	57.9 ± 1.20

Figure 1

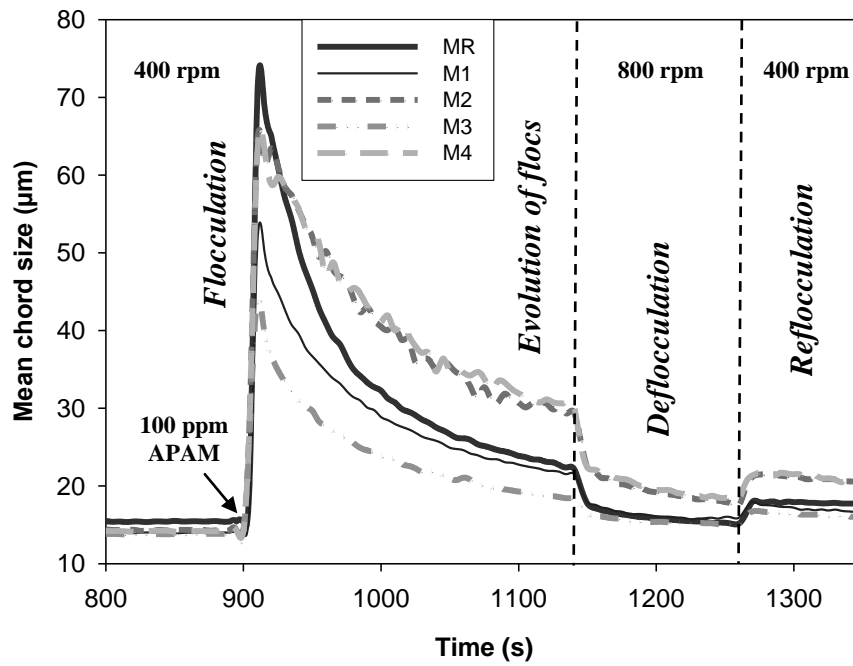


Fig. 1. Evolution of the mean chord size during the flocculation, deflocculation and reflocculation of the fiber-cement suspensions.

Figure 2

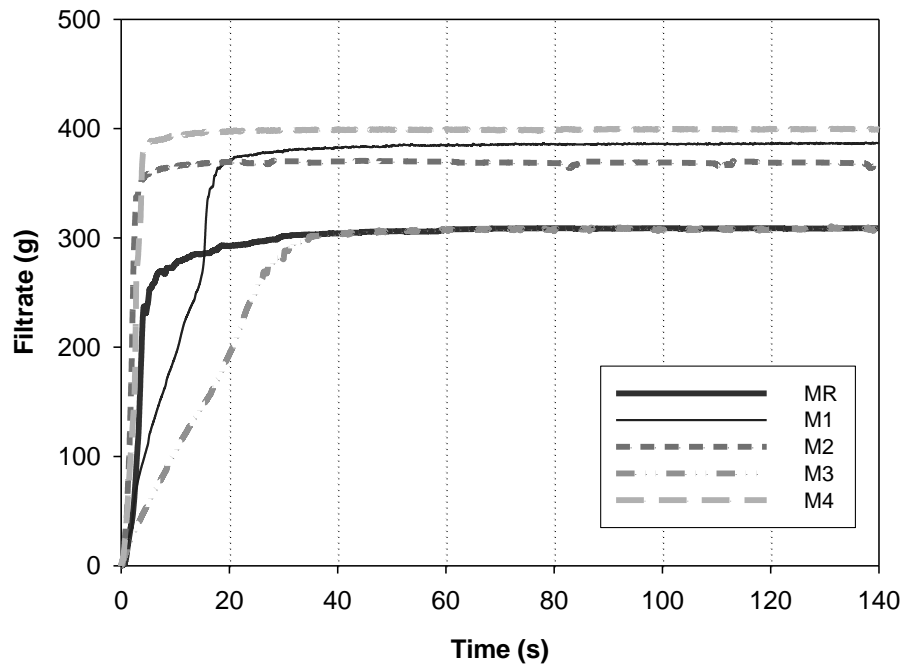


Fig. 2. Drainage curves of the fiber-cement suspensions.

Figure 3

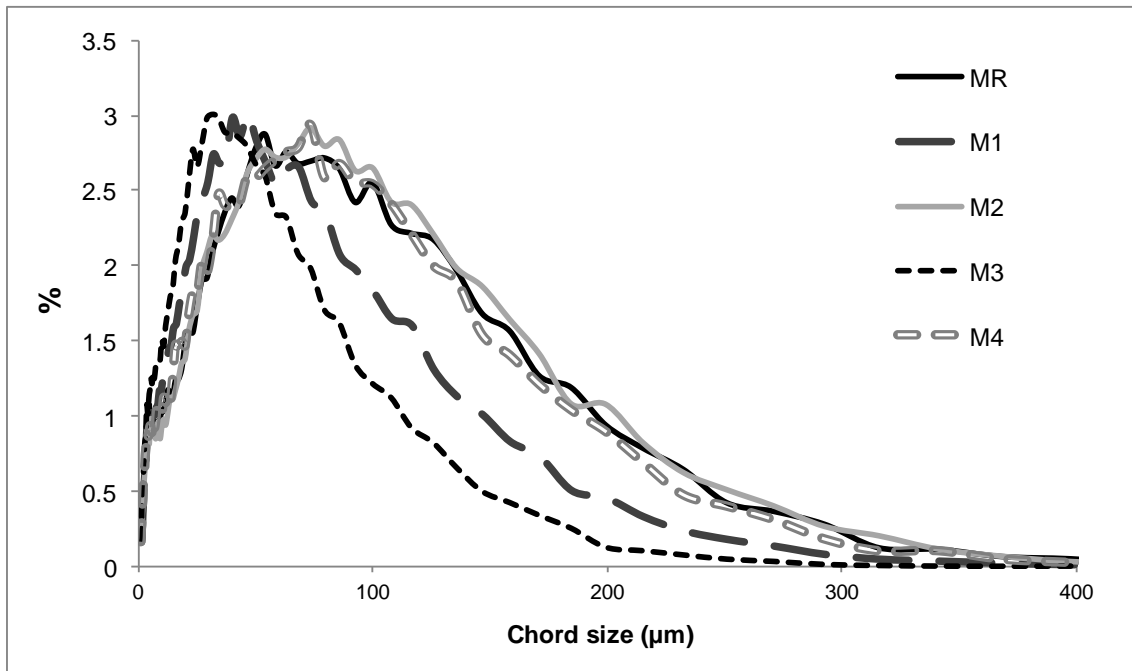


Fig. 3. Chord lengths distribution of the fiber-cement suspensions after the addition of the APAM.

Figure 4

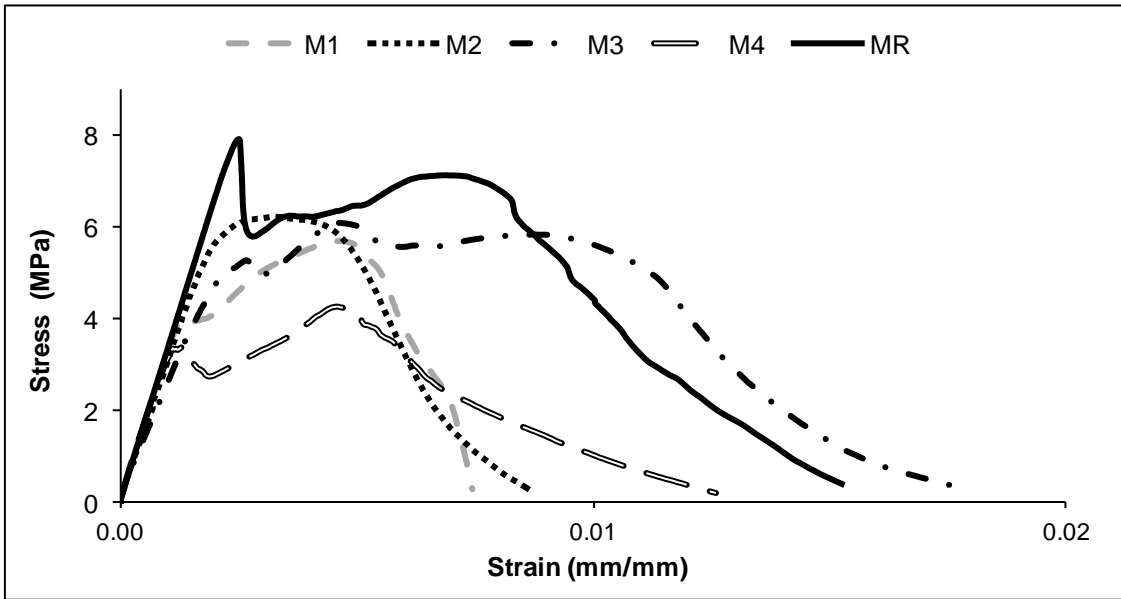


Fig. 4. Stress-Strain curves of the composite reinforced with hemp.

Figure 5

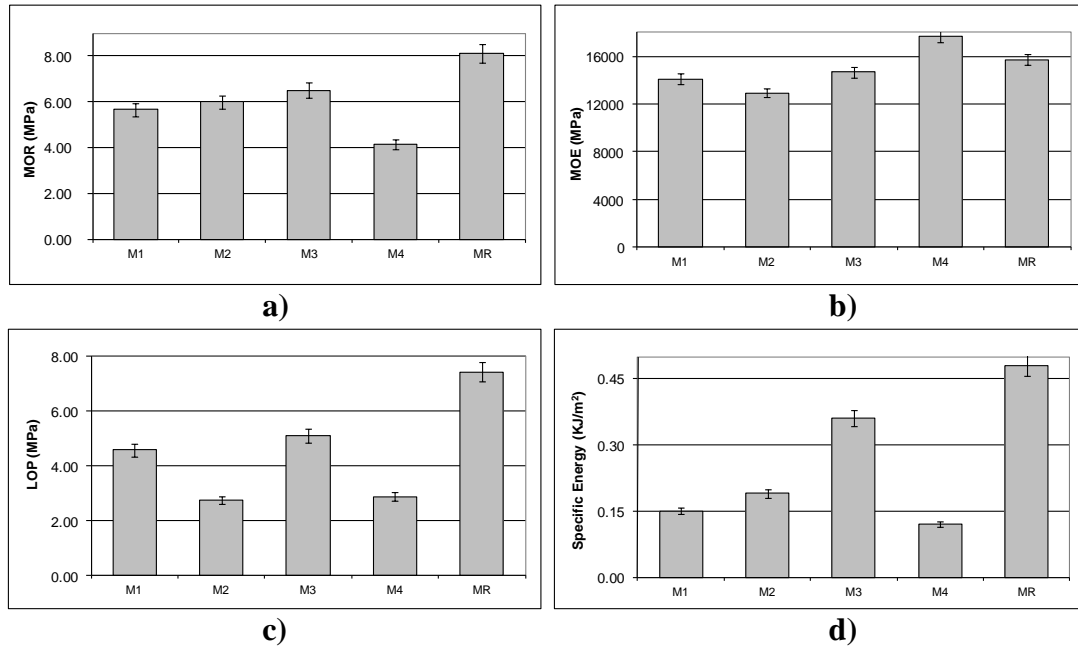
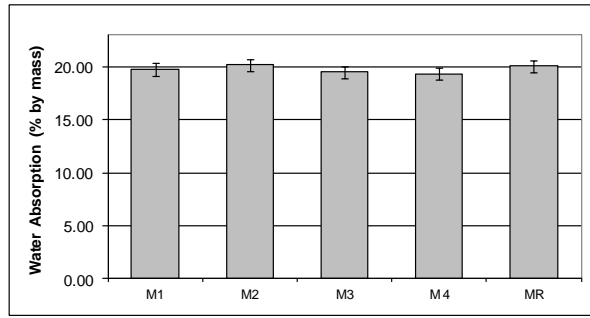
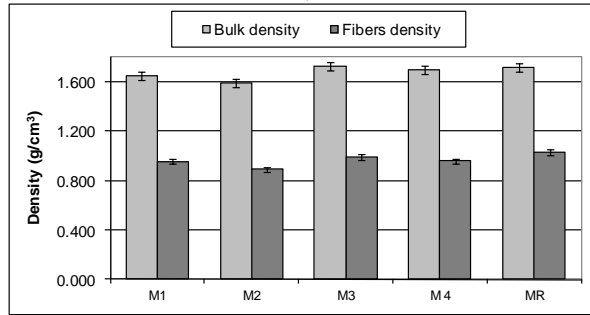


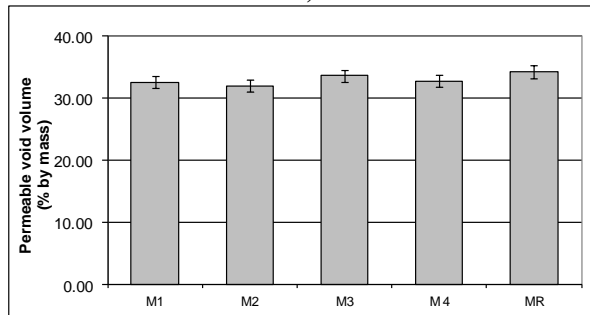
Fig. 5. Effect of the hemp on the mechanical properties: a) modulus of rupture, b) modulus of elasticity, c) limit of proportionality and d) specific energy.



a)



b)



c)

Fig. 6. Effect of the hemp on the physical properties: a) water absorption, b) bulk density and c) permeable void volume.