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2 **1** **CORN STALK FROM AGRICULTURAL RESIDUE USED AS**
3 **2** **REINFORCEMENT FIBER IN FIBER-CEMENT PRODUCTION.**

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16 **10** **ABSTRACT**

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19 **11** In the last few years an increasing high interest has been drawn to the
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21 **12** potential use of agricultural waste as raw material to produce structural
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23 **13** reinforcement fibers for building materials, due to environmental and
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25 **14** economical aspects. Corn is the world's most produced cereal in terms of
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27 **15** quantity, what entails the generation of large quantities of waste. Despite
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29 **16** this fact, only a few research works concerned with the use of fibers from
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31 **17** waste corn stalks in the production of fiber-cement have been published and
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33 **18** there is a complete lack of data on the characterization of these fibers.
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35 **19** The objective of this research is to study the feasibility of using fibers
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37 **20** obtained from corn stalk as reinforcement fibers in the production of fiber-
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39 **21** cement through new environmentally friendly cooking methods. This study
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41 **22** encompasses the morphological characterization of the fibers and the study
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43 **23** of the effects that the use of these fibers has on the flocculation, retention
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45 **24** and drainage of the fiber-cement suspensions and on the mechanical and
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47 **25** physical properties of the final product.

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26 The results obtained in the tests confirmed the high potential of the corn
27 stalk as a source of fibers for the manufacture of a fiber-cement capable of
28 meeting the requirements of demanding applications.

29 **Keywords:**

30 Drainage; Flocculation; Mechanical properties; Physical properties; *Zea*
31 *Mays L.*

32 **1. Introduction**

33 The commercial use of asbestos fibers in cement paste matrixes began with
34 the invention of the Hatschek process in 1898 (A.C.I.544.1R., 1996).

35 However due to health hazards associated with asbestos, the use of
36 alternative fibers have been investigated in the past years. Natural fibers are
37 considered the most promising replacements for asbestos since they offer
38 distinct advantages such as availability, renewability and low cost (Segetin
39 et al., 2007; Tadas et al., 2011). In line with this argument it is worth
40 mentioning that pine fibers are currently the most common fibers used in the
41 manufacture of fiber-cement for roofing (Bart et al., 2004; Coutts, 2005;
42 Isamail, 2007). As a result, in the last few years, the knowledge on the use
43 of natural fibers as reinforcement in composites has made a relatively great
44 progress (Savastano et al., 2009; Silva et al., 2010). On the other hand, there
45 has never been such a large demand for fiber resources as the one
46 experienced nowadays (Pappua et al., 2007).

47 Worldwide development growth has generated unprecedented needs for
48 converted forest products, constituting also the cause of the generation of
49 agricultural wastes from cereal crops in quantities never seen before. In
50 view of this, it is clear that the use of these crops wastes as sources of fibers

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could be a way to reduce cost and increase the sustainability of many processes (Juárez et al., 2007). The composition and properties of agricultural waste fibers have a significant effect on the properties of cement e.g. hydration and stiffening of (Li et al., 2004). Fiber-cement is mainly used in three major application areas: siding, roofing, and tile backerboard. Cereal straw is used in production of cement-bonded particleboard, which generally incorporates milled wood particles (Wu et al., 2005). Recent research efforts aimed at reinforcing fiber-cement boards with agricultural residues have been focused on preventing the adverse effects of the water soluble constituents of such residues on the hydration and the strength development of cement (Soroushian et al., 2004). *Zea mays L.*, commonly known as corn, maize and millet is an annual grass plant. Corn is the most produced cereal worldwide (FAOSTAT, 2012), surpassing wheat and rice (Fig. 1). Furthermore, the production of this cereal increases almost every year. The large amounts of wastes generated in the production of this crop, justify the study of this material in different applications. Corn stalks consist of a pithy core with an outer layer of long fibers. Currently, corn stalks are chopped and used for forage, left on the field, or baled for animal bedding (Youngquist et al., 1993). Research shows that corn stalks can be used in many applications including human consumption and as a source of industrial raw material for the production of oil, alcohol and starch (Muoneke et al., 2007; Yang et al., 2001). It can also be used to make reasonably good particleboard and fiberboard (Chow, 1974; Wu et al., 2005).

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76 There is, however, a remarkable lack of knowledge on the use of wastes
77 from corn stalk in the reinforced fiber-cement. With the purpose of
78 contributing to building up this knowledge, the work described in this paper
79 was aimed to study the effect of the use of the corn stalk as reinforcement
80 fiber in the manufacture of fiber-cement for roofing and on the product
81 properties taking into account the morphology of the fibers and their
82 interactions with the cement suspensions.

83 **2. Materials and methods**

84 **2.1. Materials**

85 The corn stalk used for this study was coming from a culture of *Zea Mays L.*
86 grown in Spain and supplied by the LEPAMAP group. The corn stalk was
87 cooked to obtain corn pulp through two different methods, a semi-chemical
88 process with NaOH and anthraquinone, and a chemical one (organosolv),
89 employing ethanolamine as solvent. The cooking conditions are summarized
90 in Table 1. The conditions applied are the ones resulting from a previous
91 optimization study carry out by LEPAMAP group from University of
92 Gerona.

93 Refined unbleached pine Kraft pulps (35 °SR) (PR) were used as reference
94 since these pulps are commonly used to provide cellulose fibers in the
95 manufacture of fiber-cement by the Hatschek process.

96 The flocculant used to study the behavior of fiber-cement suspensions and to
97 prepare the fiber-cement probes was an anionic polyacrylamide (APAM)
98 with a molecular weight of $7.4 \cdot 10^6$ g/mol and a charge density of 13.4 %,
99 commonly used in the industrial Hatschek process (Negro et al., 2006).

100 Flocculant was dissolved in distilled water to prepare solutions of APAM
101 with a concentration of 1.5 g/L.

102 A Portland cement (type II / AV 42.5) containing 12% fly ash was used for
103 the probes. It is a fine powder with a wide distribution of particle sizes,
104 being the 80% of the particles in the interval from 2 μm to 50 μm .

105 Microsilica was also used to manufacture of the test probes. The type of
106 microsilica employed was composed of ultra-thin amorphous spheres of
107 SiO_2 with a particle size around 0.5 μm containing small amounts of
108 crystalline quartz (less than 0.5%) as impurities.

109 The compositions of the fiber-cement slurries prepared in this study are
110 summarized in Table 2.

111 Although the air curing process was used to prepare the probes, no synthetic
112 fibers (PVA) were used in order to enhance the effect of the cellulose fibers
113 in the properties of fiber-cement.

114 **2.2. Methods**

115 ***2.2.1. Canadian Standard Freeness (CSF)***

116 The degree of corn stalks pulps refining was measured using a Canadian
117 Standard Freeness (CSF), according to ISO 5267/2.

118 ***2.2.2. Characterization by a scanning electron microscopy***

119 The morphological characterization of the fibers was carried out by a
120 scanning electron microscope (SEM), JEOL, mod. JM-6400. Each sample
121 was placed on a cylindrical slide and placed in a vacuum oven for 24 h to be
122 dried. After drying the sample was coated with gold. Then, it was introduced
123 in the SEM and was visualized with a magnification 500.

124 ***2.2.3. Morphological characterization of fibers***

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125 The fiber and pulp morphology analyzer, Morfi, V7.9.13.E (Techpap,
126 France) was used for the morphological characterization of the different
127 pulps considered in this research according to Jarabo et al., 2012a.
128 The images are analyzed using a specific program to determine different
129 parameters of the fibers and pulps: length weighted in length, average width,
130 coarseness, microfibrills, fines number, etc (Jarabo et al., 2012b; Moral et
131 al., 2010).

132 The samples for morphological characterization were prepared by adding 1
133 g of dry fibers to 600 mL of water and homogenizing the suspension in a lab
134 disintegrator ENJO- 692. The characterization was done in duplicates.

135 The variability of the morphological parameters (RSD) was determined by
136 Equation 1.

$$137 \quad RSD (\%) = [(X_i - X_{average}) / X_{average}] \cdot 100 \quad [1]$$

138 Where, RSD is the variability of the parameter (%); X_i represents the
139 measured value; and $X_{average}$ represents the mean value of the two
140 measurements.

141 **2.2.4. Flocculation of fiber-cement suspension**

142 A focused beam reflectance measurement (FBRM) M500L probe supplied
143 by Mettler Toledo, USA, was used to monitor the flocculation process and
144 to determine the floc properties.

145 The FBRM monitors the chord length distribution of the particles in
146 suspensions in situ and on real time. The principle of the measurement and
147 the details of the applied methodology have been described by the authors in
148 previous references (Blanco et al., 2002; Hubbe, 2007; Jarabo et al., 2012a;
149 Kerekes et al., 1992; Negro et al., 2006; 2007).

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150 In a typical trial, the probe was immersed in to a 400 mL of fiber–cement
151 suspension, prepared with water saturated in $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, stirred at 800 rpm.
152 After 10 min, stirring intensity was reduced to 400 rpm. 100 ppm of APAM
153 was added 5 min later, to induce flocculation and the evolution of the flocs
154 was studied at 400 rpm during 4 min. Then, the stirring intensity was
155 increased to 800 rpm to break down the formed flocs (deflocculation) for 2
156 min, after which it was reduced again to 400 rpm to induce the
157 reflocculation of the system (Jarabo et al., 2010).

158 ***2.2.5. Retention and drainage of fiber-cement suspension***

159 A vacuum drainage tester (VDT) was used to perform the retention and
160 drainage tests. This equipment has two jars separated by a barrier: the upper
161 jar keeps the fiber–cement suspensions stirred up to the addition of the
162 flocculant dosage. The second jar contains a mesh at the bottom to carry out
163 the dewatering of the suspension and it is connected to a vacuum pump and
164 to a probe where filtrate is stored and weighted on real time and the final
165 volume of filtrate is measured (Negro et al., 2005; 2006). In a typical trial,
166 400 mL of fiber–cement suspension, prepared with water saturated in
167 $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, were stirred at 600 rpm during 6 min in the upper jar. Then,
168 stirring intensity was decreased to 300 rpm and after 5 minutes 100 ppm of
169 APAM was added. After 15 s contact time between flocculant and mixture,
170 the stirring was stopped, the barrier was removed and the suspension was
171 drained to the second jar in which an 18 mesh wire was placed. The
172 suspension was drained under vacuum (0.2 atm) through the filter and a
173 computerized balance recorded the mass of drained water over time
174 (drainage curve). Solids retention and cake humidity were determined by

175 means of the gravimetric analysis of the formed cake (Fuente et al., 2010;
176 Jarabo et al., 2012a).

177 **2.2.6. Preparation of fiber-cement probes**

178 Fiber reinforced cement probes were prepared in the laboratory through a
179 slurry vacuum dewatering technique followed by the pressing technique
180 described in details by Savastano Jr. et al., 2000. The cement based
181 composites were molded in plates measuring 200 mm×200 mm and around
182 6 mm thick. The matrix materials were added and dispersed in Ca(OH)₂
183 saturated water with a solids concentration of 20%.

184 Three pads were prepared for each formulation. After two days the pads
185 were removed from the bags and placed in water. Twenty-six days later, the
186 pads were removed from the water and four 200 x 50 mm² flexural test
187 specimens were wet diamond sawn from each pad. Eight pads were
188 prepared to provide sufficient specimens for the determination of
189 mechanical properties and four pads were prepared for the determination of
190 physicals properties (Jarabo et al., 2012a).

191 **2.2.7. Mechanical properties of fiber-cement probes**

192 The mechanical tests were performed in the universal testing machine Emic
193 DL-30,000 equipped with 1 kN load cell. A four point bending
194 configuration was employed in the determination of modulus of rupture
195 (MOR), limit of proportionality (LOP), modulus of elasticity (MOE) and
196 specific energy (SE) of the specimens which were obtained by following the
197 calculations specified in Equations 2-5.

$$198 \quad MOR (MPa) = (L_{max} / (b \cdot h^2)) \cdot (S_{down} - S_{up}) \quad [2]$$

$$199 \quad LOP (MPa) = (L_{LOP} / (b \cdot h^2)) \cdot (S_{down} - S_{up}) \quad [3]$$

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200 $MOE (MPa) = tg \alpha \cdot (S_{down} - S_{up})^3 / (b \cdot h^3)$ [4]

201 $SE (kJ/m^2) = Absorbed \ energy / (b \cdot h)$ [5]

202 Where L_{max} is the yield strength, L_{LOP} is the stress at the upper point of the
203 linear portion of the stress-strain curve, $(S_{down} - S_{up})$ is the support major
204 span, b and h are the specimen width and thickness respectively measured at
205 the nearest undisturbed location to the region of failure, $tg\alpha$ is the initial
206 slope of the stress-strain curve corresponding to L_{max} .

207 A span of 100 mm and a deflection rate of 0.5 mm/min were used in the
208 bending test (Savastano et al., 2000). Test data were digitally recorded and
209 reduced using automatic data collection and processing facilities. Eight
210 flexural specimens were tested for each composite formulation.

211 The absorbed energy is the area under the stress-strain curve to the point
212 corresponding to a reduction in carrying capacity to the maximum stress
213 (Tonoli et al., 2010). The mechanical properties of the probes were
214 measured 28 days after the construction of the sheet (Jarabo et al., 2012a).

215 **2.2.8. Physical properties of fiber-cement suspension**

216 Water absorption, bulk density and porosity values at 28 days were obtained
217 from the tested flexural specimens following the procedures specified in
218 ASTM C 948-81. Four specimens were used to determine these properties.

219 **3. Results and Discussion**

220 **3.1. Effect of cooking condition on morphological characteristic of pulps**

221 The results of the morphological characterization and the refining degree of
222 corn stalk and pine pulps are shown in Table 3.

223 The fibers obtained by means of the semi-chemical process were longer than
224 those obtained by means of chemical process compared with the same

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225 cooking conditions. In both process, a slight decrease in the value of length,
226 width and coarseness was observed when cooking conditions were harsher
227 (PA, PC).

228 The average width of the fiber in PB, PC and PD was higher than those in
229 PA, and even higher than those in pine pulp. The low width of fibers in PA
230 could indicate a chemical degradation of cellulose at harsher cooking
231 conditions. This could also explain the value for PR. This chemical
232 degradation seemed to be less significant when organosolv cooking process
233 is used.

234 The use of organosolv process resulted in a higher percentage of
235 microfibrills and fines number higher compared with the semi-chemical
236 process. The percentages of microfibrills in the organosolv pulps (PC, PD)
237 were similar to those in the pine pulps. The presence of microfibrills is a key
238 for the interaction between fibers and matrix, while the high percentage of
239 fines and the low length of fibers can result in a more homogeneous
240 dispersion of the cellulose in the matrix.

241 A higher number of fines improves the retention of solids in the formation
242 of fiber-cement but reduces the strength of the product (Fuente et al., 2010).
243 The increase in the fines number and in the percentage of microfibrills may
244 be due to the attrition experienced by fibers during the chemical process,
245 and consequently, after the pulping a higher percentage of broken ends were
246 measured and a higher refining degree volume CSF (less refined pulp).
247 Pulp refining produce an external fibrillation of the cells, what increases the
248 flexibility and allows the formation of bridges with other fibers. In the case
249 of PC and PD the refining stage could not be necessary, because the

1 250 organosolv cooking combined with the defibrillation in the hydropulper
2 251 produced the same percentage of microfibrills than that in the pine fibers.
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4 252 This high percentage of microfibrills and broken ends very probably
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7 253 enhanced the cross linking of fibers, forming a more stable network for the
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9 254 formation of fiber-cement.

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11 255 Fig. 2 shows photographs of corn stalk fibers obtained by image SEM with
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14 256 an increase of 500.

16 257 **3.2. Flocculation of fiber-cement mixtures**

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19 258 Fig. 3 shows the evolution of the mean chord size of particles and flocs in
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21 259 cement suspensions.

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24 260 After 600 s of stirring at 800 rpm, the value of the mean chord size was
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26 261 constant and the stirring was reduced at 400rpm. 900 s after starting the trial,
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28 262 the addition of 100 ppm of flocculant to the suspension caused a fast
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30 263 increase in the mean chord size due to the aggregation of particles to form
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32 264 larger flocs. A maximum value of this statistics was reached between ten
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34 265 and fifteen seconds after the addition of APAM. Then, the value of the mean
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36 266 chord size started to decrease due to the erosion and breakage of the flocs
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38 267 under the hydrodynamic conditions. The evolution of flocs during this stage
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40 268 depends on their stability and strength.

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43 269 When the stirring increased to 800 rpm, part of the remaining flocs were
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45 270 broken decreasing the mean chord size due to the deflocculation process
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47 271 induced by the hydrodynamic forces. The reflocculation ability of the
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49 272 system is shown by the increase in the mean chord size when the stirring
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51 273 decreased to 400 rpm again.
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274 The addition of APAM to cellulose fibers did not induce their flocculation;
275 this is owing to the fact that fibers also present anionic character, thus
276 indicating that APAM did not interact with fibers, or that its interaction did
277 not induce flocculation (Jarabo et al., 2010). In this paper, however, it was
278 possible to observe how the flocculation of the fiber-cement mixtures with
279 different corn stalk fibers was affected by the morphology of the latter.
280 The largest maximum mean chord size was reached in the MR suspension,
281 although the flocs formed in the suspensions containing corn stalk fibers
282 were more stable than those formed from MR (the decrease in mean chord
283 size during the evolution of fibers and during deflocculation stage was
284 lower). Large flocs are more sensitive to hydrodynamic forces and, thus,
285 they broke easily. Moreover, after the deflocculation and reflocculation
286 stages, the mean chord size in MA, MB and MC remained larger than in
287 MR.
288 The results indicate that the flocculation process and floc properties are
289 affected by the morphology of the fibers and by the cooking process. The
290 low maximum mean chord size in corn based pulps can be due to the shorter
291 length of the fibers from corn stalk compared to those from pine pulps.
292 The pulps cooked with ethanolamine presented a relatively low maximum
293 size of the flocs formed when APAM was added to the fiber-cement pulp,
294 but had an increased stability compared with the rest of suspensions. This is
295 related to the higher percentage of microfibrills and fines which increase the
296 area surface favoring the interaction of pulp with the cement particles to
297 form more stable flocs.

298 **3.3. Retention and drainage of fiber-cement suspensions**

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299 Fig. 4 shows the drainage curves of the fiber-cement suspensions considered
300 in this research. Drainage took place in two steps: first, the suspension was
301 filtrated and a cake was formed with a fast water removal, which
302 corresponds to the first part of the drainage curves (linear part with a high
303 slope); secondly, the cake was compressed and thickened and water removal
304 rate decreases towards zero. During the first stage, only water among flocs
305 was removed, while part of the water inside the flocs was removed during
306 the compression stage. The loss of solids with the filtrate takes place mainly
307 during the first stage, while the second stage determined the final humidity
308 and the properties of the cake. Drainage time can be obtained as the time
309 required to reduce the slope of the drainage curve to zero.

310 There are notable differences among the drainage curves of the fiber-cement
311 suspensions containing corn stalk fibers and those of MR. During the first
312 stage, all drainages curves have similar slopes. There is not an appreciable
313 compression stage in the drainage curve of MC. The final weight of the
314 recovered filtrate was higher in the case of MA, MB and MD. This weight
315 was due to the mineral solids that were washed down and the drained water,
316 not being therefore directly related with the humidity of the cake.

317 The deviation of the MC drainage curve in the compression stage with
318 respect to the curves of the rest of mixtures can be owed to the morphology
319 of the corn stalk PC. PC has the highest percentage of microfibrills, broken
320 end and the lowest coarseness; these factors make the fiber interlock better
321 than in the others cases, making the compression stage more efficient.

322 Table 4 shows that solids retention is very low in all suspensions containing
323 corn stalk fibers in comparison to the pine suspension (MR). The lowest

1 324 value observed when the cake was formed from MD, being appreciable the
2 325 difference with respect to the other cakes. The addition of APAM to this
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4 326 fiber-cement suspension induced the formation of the smallest flocs (Fig. 3),
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7 327 with a poor interaction between them and with the fibers. Therefore, these
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9 328 flocs passed through the wire, as shown by the low retention of solids (Table
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11 329 4). This is in accordance with the relationship between the solid retention
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13 330 and the maximum mean chord size reached in presence of APAM: Larger
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15 331 values of maximum mean chord size are related to higher solid retentions,
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17 332 because of the lower probability of large flocs to pass through the wire. This
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19 333 is the case in the flocculation of MA and MB, both mixtures reaching very
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21 334 similar maximum mean chord size and solid retention. The highest mean
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23 335 chord size and solid retention was reached with MR and the lowest values of
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25 336 mean chord size and solid retention were reached with MD.
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27 337 The humidity of the cakes from MA and MB was higher than that of MR
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29 338 due to the higher cellulose content of these cakes and the high
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31 339 higroscopicity of this species.
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33 340 Due to the high percentage of fines and microfibrills in PD pulp, the solid
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35 341 retention should be higher, consequently should have higher interaction
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37 342 between fibers and minerals in the case of MD. But the humidity of the MD
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39 343 cake was the lowest although most of mineral particles of the suspension
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41 344 were not retained. This is probably due to the high contents in lignin of PD,
42
43 345 which is covering the cellulose surface and it affects its interaction with the
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45 346 APAM and minerals. Values of kappa number in PA, PB and PC were very
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47 347 similar and between 4 and 6 mL/g; the value for PD was 17 mL/g, three
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49 348 times higher (Table 2).
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349 Fibers must interact with the mineral particles in the fiber-cement
350 suspension to make possible the manufacture of a composite sheet with the
351 required properties.

352 **3.4. Mechanical and physical properties of the probes**

353 Fig. 5 shows the stress-strain curves of the specimens after 28 days. All the
354 curves have similar tendency to that for MR, except the curve MC. The
355 probes obtained from MR presented highest values of yield strength and
356 ultimate strength. This mechanical behavior, high strain and stress reached,
357 and the large area under the curves can be associated with a good array of
358 fibers and solid particles inside the composite (Roma et al., 2008). Among
359 the probes prepared from the corn stalk pulps, MB presented the highest
360 ultimate strength, but all of them, except probes prepared from MA
361 presented similar yield strengths. The probes MC were the most rigid, as
362 their short strain hardening regions indicate. The area under the curve for
363 MB was higher than that for MA, MC and MD. The probes prepared from
364 MB can therefore be considered the ones with the best mechanical
365 properties among the fiber-cement probes prepared with corn stalk fibers.

366 Fig. 6 shows the results of the following mechanical properties: modulus of
367 rupture, limit of proportionality, elastic modulus and specific energy of the
368 probes of fiber-cement made of corn stalk pulps with the two applied
369 processes.

370 These figures show that, among the mixtures prepared with corn stalk fibers,
371 MB yielded the probes with the highest modulus of rupture and specific
372 energy, although these values were lower than those obtained with MR. It is
373 worth noticing that the fibers used in MR are refined fibers. Refining

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374 increases the presence of microfibrills and degrade fiber surface, which
375 enhances the interaction among fibers and matrix. Furthermore, pine fibers
376 are notably longer than the fibers obtained from corn stalk and this also
377 affects to the mechanical properties of the probes.

378 MA and MC were the probes with the lowest MOR. PA and PC were
379 obtained applying the harshest cooking conditions (Table 1) and these have
380 the lowest values of microfibrills and coarseness.

381 Although the pulps PA and PB were cooked by using the semi-chemical
382 process, MOR of MB was better than those for MA. Therefore, the low
383 values of MOR for MA and MC could be related to the strenght of the
384 cooking conditions which damaged the cellulose, decreasing the reinforcing
385 ability of fibers.

386 Fig. 6 shows that the elastic modulus of the probes prepared with corn stalk
387 fibers had similar values to those obtained for the reference probes (MR);
388 the figure also shows that the values of LOP of the probes containing corn
389 stalks fibers were similar too, but lower than the value of this parameter in
390 MR probes.

391 Fibers are keys for an adequate ductile performance of fiber-cement. In this
392 case, the larger length and high percentage of microfibrills of the pine fibers
393 increased their effect on the ductility as shown by the larger values of the
394 specific energy and the larger value of the strain at the ultimate strength.

395 Therefore, the use of corn stalks as a source of cellulose did not have a
396 significant effect on the elasticity of the material, but it reduced the stress
397 required to cause its permanent deformation. This is related to the effect on
398 the yield strength.

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399 Fig. 7 shows physical properties of the probes, namely water absorption,
400 bulk density and porosity. The bulk densities measured in corn fibers
401 prepared through the semi-chemical process presented the same values as
402 those measured in MR probes.

403 The probes made of MA presented the lowest water absorption, what can be
404 related to the lowest value of permeable void volume of the probes. These
405 effects are related to the low value of the average width of the fibers in PA
406 (Table 3). This value is notably lower than that for the other corn stalk
407 fibers, which indicates that the lumen could collapse during the pulping and
408 defibrillation processes. This affected the absorption of water.

409 One of the drawbacks of using cellulose in fiber-cement is the ability of this
410 polysaccharide to absorb moisture from the environment through hydrogen
411 bonding. This causes a dimensional change of the fibers through swelling
412 that has a negative effect on the composite durability. From this point of
413 view the reduction of water absorption by cellulosic from corn stalks fibers
414 would be an advantage.

415 **4. Conclusions**

416 The effect of using corn stalk pulps in fiber-cement manufacture and
417 properties is directly related to the fibers morphology and chemical
418 composition which depends on the cooking conditions.

419 Mechanical and physical tests confirmed the feasibility of the use of corn
420 stalk as a source fibers as reinforcement fibers for fiber-cement production
421 to obtain a product capable of meeting stringent requirements in demanding
422 applications. However, in order to reach the same mechanicals properties as
423 those achieved when the product is manufactured with pine pulps, the

1
2 424 combination of corn stalk fibers and with pine or synthetic fibers would be
3 required.

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5 426 Although it seems that the best results were obtained using the semi-
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7 427 chemical process, specifically the MB mixture, cooking the corn stalk in
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9 428 NaOH at 10% at 140°C during 30 minutes was the optimal pulping process
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11 429 among the studied options for corn stalk pulping.

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13 430 Mild cooking conditions in the semi-chemical process favor the obtaining of
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15 431 longer fibers, which result in a final product with better mechanical,
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17 432 physical and solid retention properties.

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Table 1. Cooking conditions of corn stalks using semi-chemical and chemical processes.

Semi-Chemical Process			
Pulps	T (°C)	Time (min.)	NaOH (%)
PA	180	90	20
PB	140	30	10

Chemical Process (Organosolv)			
Pulps	T (°C)	Time (min.)	Ethanolamine (%)
PC	185	90	60
PD	155	30	40

Table 2. Composition of fiber-cement slurries, yield and kappa number.

Slurries	MA	MB	MC	MD	MR
Source of fibers	PA	PB	PC	PD	PR
Cellulose (%)	5	5	5	5	5
ASTM II cement (%)	91	91	91	91	91
Microsilica (%)	4	4	4	4	4
Yield (%)	43	69	54	75	--
Kappa (mL/g)	5.2	4.4	4.4	16.8	25.4

Table 3. Morphological characterization and CSF of corn stalks and pine pulps.

PROCESS	NaOH		Ethanolamine		Kraft
PULPS	PA	PB	PC	PD	PR
Canadian standard freeness (CSF) (mL)	456±2	476±4	687±8	696±10	192±1
FIBERS					
Length weighted in length (µm)	677±3	777±8	650±4	705±5	1130±7
Average width (µm)	22.8±0.1	29.1±0.3	29.4±0.2	30.8±0.5	25.5±0.02
Coarseness (mg/m)	0.17±0.01	0.19±0.02	0.14±0.01	0.18±0.03	0.19±0.02
Microfibrills (%)	1.04±0.03	1.18±0.05	1.66±0.02	1.64±0.6	1.63±0.09
Break end (%)	37.9±0.5	44.5±0.8	47.2±0.9	46.3±0.7	39.3±0.6
FINES					
Fines number	17903±895	28278±1414	30081±1504	30574±1529	49192±2460

Table 4. Solid retention and humidity of cake.

Fiber-cement suspension	Source of fibers	Retention (%)	Humidity (%)
MA	PA	38.4 ± 3.6	65.2 ± 0.6
MB	PB	40.1 ± 2.5	60.1 ± 1.3
MC	PC	34.9 ± 1.7	57.8 ± 3.0
MD	PD	16.6 ± 1.5	54.4 ± 1.3
MR	PR	57.3 ± 2.3	57.9 ± 1.2

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Fig. 1. Mundial production of main cereals.

Fig. 2. Corn stalk image by SEM with magnification 500. Fibers from: (a) pulp A, (b) pulp B, (c) pulp C, and (d) pulp D.

Fig. 3. Evolution of the mean chord size during the flocculation, deflocculation and reflocculation of the fiber-cement suspensions.

Fig. 4. Drainage curves of the fiber-cement suspensions.

Fig. 5. Stress-Strain curves of the composite reinforced with corn stalk.

Fig. 6. Effect of the corn stalk on: a) modulus of rupture, b) limit of proportionality, c) modulus of elasticity and d) specific energy.

Fig. 7. Effect of the corn stalk on: a) water absorption, b) bulk density and c) permeable void volume.

Figure 1

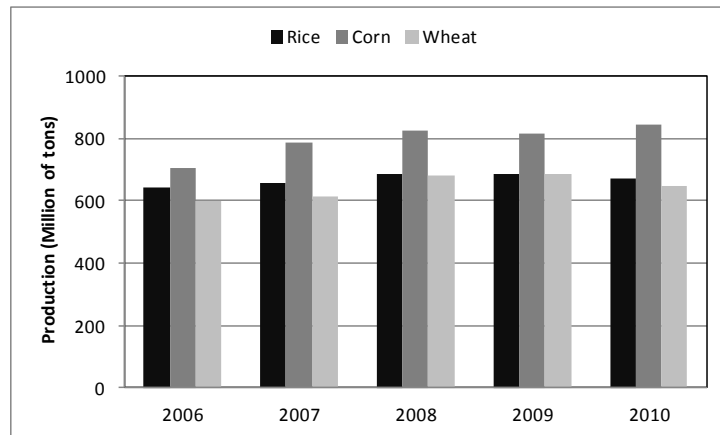


Fig.1. Mundial production of main cereals.

Figure 2

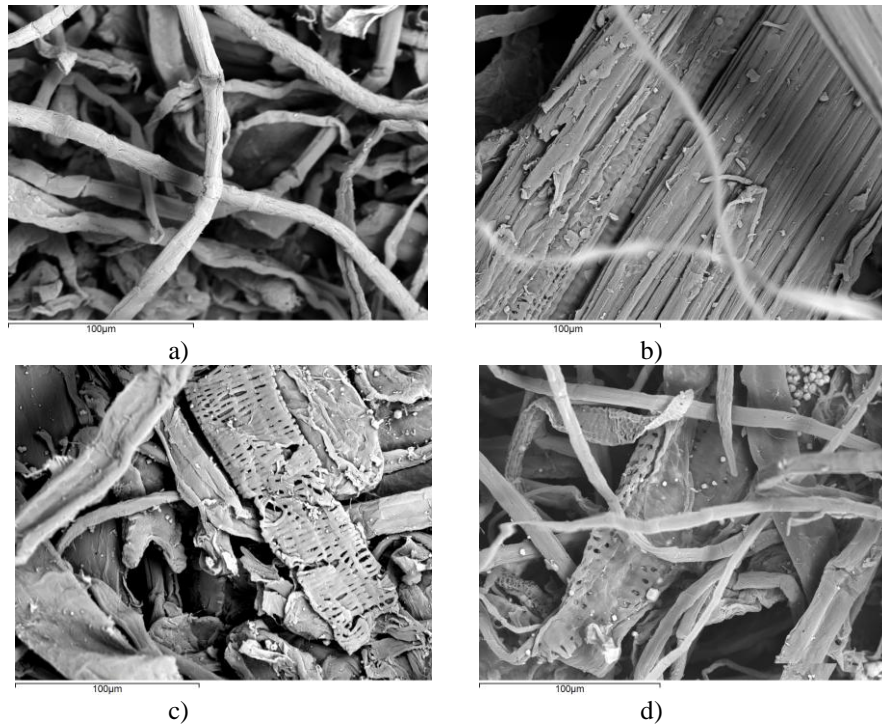


Fig. 2. Corn stalk image by SEM with magnification 500. Fibers from: (a) pulp A, (b) pulp B, (c) pulp C, and (d) pulp D.

Figure 3

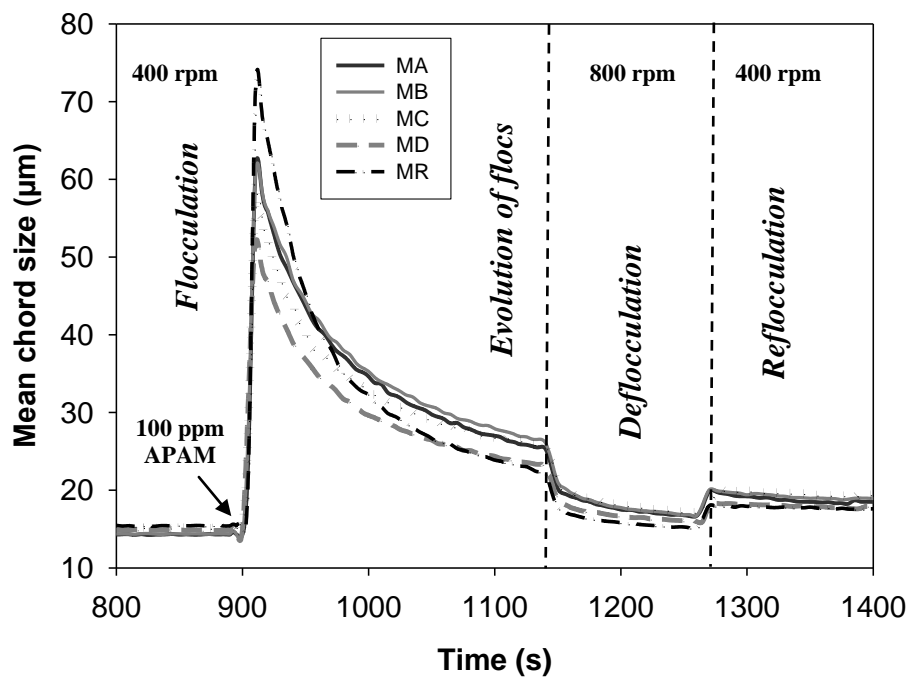


Fig.3. Evolution of the mean chord size during the flocculation, deflocculation and reflocculation of the fiber-cement suspensions.

Figure 4

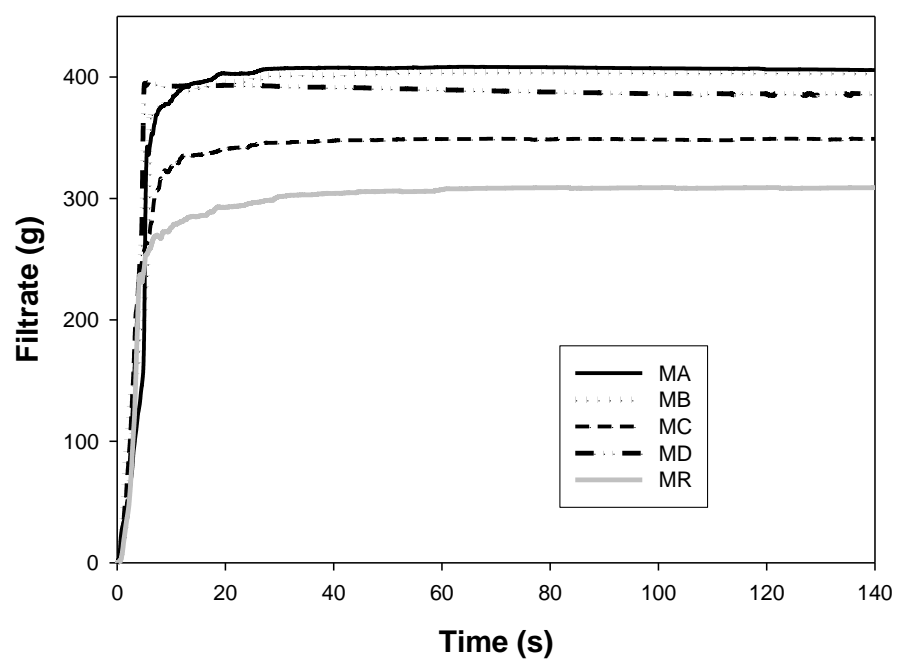


Fig.4. Drainage curves of the fiber-cement suspensions.

Figure 5

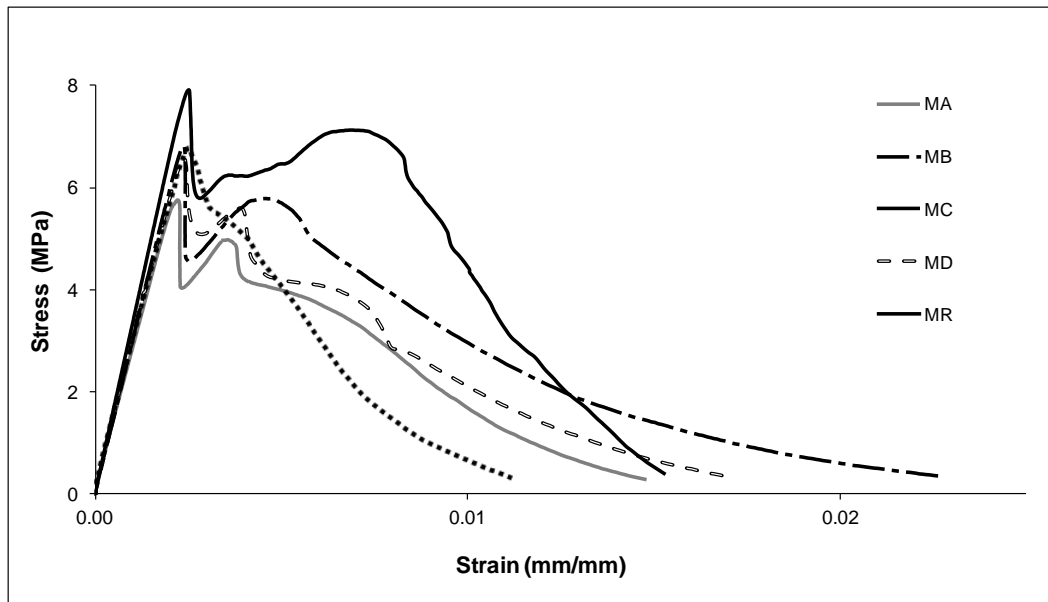


Fig.5. Stress-Strain curves of the composite reinforced with corn stalk.

Figure 6

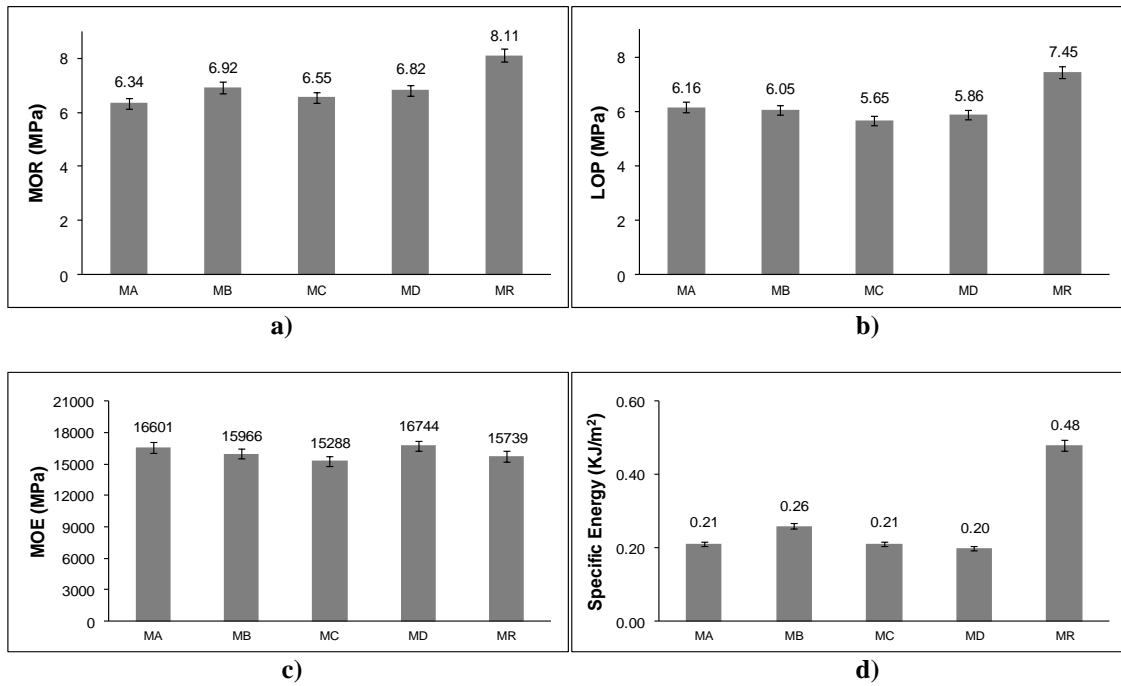
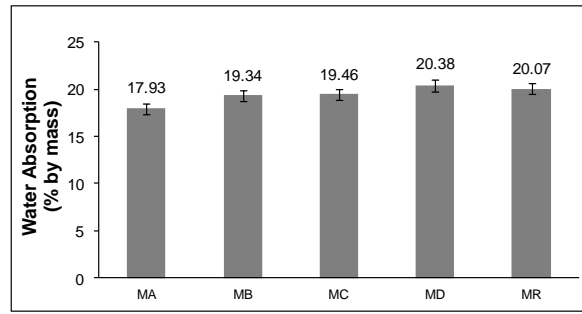
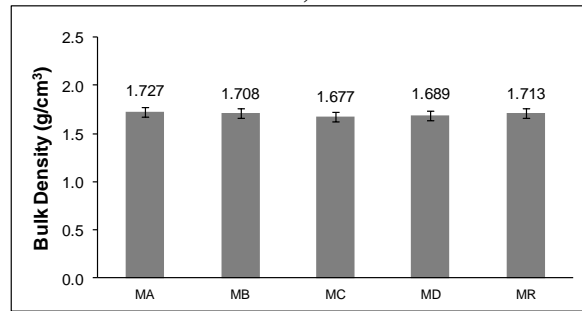


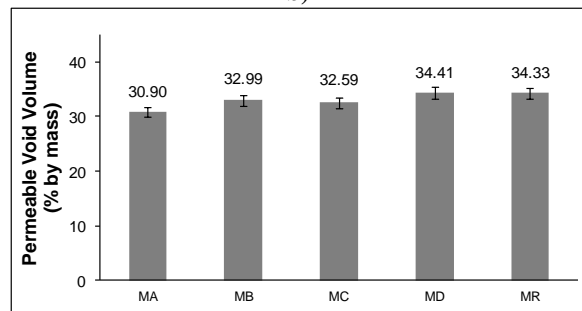
Fig.6. Effect of the corn stalk on: a) modulus of rupture, b) limit of proportionality, c) modulus of elasticity and d) specific energy.



a)



b)



c)

Fig.7. Effect of the corn stalk on: a) water absorption, b) bulk density and c) permeable void volume.