

"Lightweight Total Cement: Properties and Microstructure With and Without Filaments"

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ABSTRACT

Lightweight aggregate concrete's mechanical properties were studied experimentally using a wide range of factors, including its dry apparent density, water to binder ratio, expanded shale aggregate characteristics, and fiber volume percent (LWAC). To find out how well LWAC holds up under compression, splitting tensile, and bending loads, we put it to the test. When it comes to the interfacial transition zone (ITZ), scanning electron microscopy has shown two distinct types (SEM). For dry apparent densities ranging from 1720–1940 kg/m³, more than 40 distinct LWAC combinations were developed and manufactured.

These mixtures demonstrated 28-day compressive strengths ranging from 47 to 86 MPa. LWAC's water-to-binder ratio and lightweight aggregate qualities were shown to have significant influence on the outcomes of the tests. Aggregate with low absorption and thick shell was recommended. Only a little influence on compressive strength was made by adding fibre, which led in large increases in splitting and flexural strengths. At a volume percentage of carbon fibres of 0.9 percent, the highest improvement in strength was realised. In addition to revealing a minor wall effect, an ITZ microstructure investigation of lightweight aggregate revealed a thick shell and low water absorption.

1. Introduction

Large-span bridges, skyscrapers and offshore oil platforms may all benefit greatly from using lightweight concrete due to its reduced density, increased strength-to-weight ratio (SWR), improved durability and greater specific strength (SSP) [1,2]. Blast furnace slag, expanded shale, fly ash and other artificial lightweight aggregates (LWA) are often used to produce lightweight aggregate concrete (LWAC) [3]. There can be no doubt that the brittleness of concrete increases inexorably as concrete strength increases [4,5], and this is particularly true when NWC (normal weight concrete) is used as a comparison [6].

When it comes to increasing ductility, fibres like NWC and LWAC have been shown to be a beneficial addition to concrete. Because of fibres' crack-resistant properties, reinforced concrete is able to withstand higher loads, which in turn increases its ability to dissipate heat, resist stress and

resist deformation. Because LWAC is so much more brittle, the influence of fibres on it is more visible than it is on nonwoven fabrics like NWC.

A wide variety of fibers may be classified as metallic, synthetic, or natural based on their properties. In order to improve the mechanical qualities of LWAC, steel fiber (SF) is the most often used fiber due to its reinforcing benefits, environmental resilience, and economic features. LWAC's splitting tensile strength and toughness, as well as its ability to dissipate energy, were enhanced by the addition of steel fibers. Due carbon fibers are both light and strong, they have been anticipated to be a fiber alternative to steel because of their unique qualities. Adding carbon fiber to lightweight concrete increased its flexural and tensile strength, but it also reduced its drying shrinkage, according to Tany-ilsiz.

While fibres may improve the strength and workability of new

concrete, there are certain drawbacks, such as a decrease in strength and workability. A high specific gravity like SF may increase the weight of a building, which is notably different from LWAC's low weight. In addition, the high cost and anisotropy of CF mean that it is often overlooked.

The majority of published fibre reinforced concrete research has focused on NWC, while very little attention has been paid to the effects of fibre reinforced concrete on the behaviour of long-wall acoustic concrete (LWAC).

Aggregate, cement paste, and the interfacial transition zone all have a substantial impact on the mechanical characteristics of concrete when seen at the micro-scale (ITZ). With larger pores (2 to 3) and smaller cement grains, NWC's ITZ is regarded the weakest link since it is more vulnerable than other sections. Unlike NWC, LWAC's ITZ is more powerful than NWC's Cement paste and traditional

aggregate. LWAC's ITZ is still debated on whether it should no longer be regarded the weakest component. Although it has been suggested by Kong et al. and Zhang and Gjørsv that high-strength LWA with a thick outer shell may have the same effect on ITZ between aggregate and cement paste as ordinary aggregate, our investigation found no evidence to support this theory. A phenomenon known as the "wall effect" occurs when high strength LWA is utilized, resulting in an aggregate-cement paste contact with high porosity. As Zhang and Gjørsv have shown, the ITZ surrounding LWA is influenced by LWA's surface roughness as well as its ability to absorb water. It is clear from the studies above that the study of LWAC's ITZ is still up for controversy and that considerable work on the analysis of LWAC's microstructure remains necessary.

LWAC microstructures and mechanical characteristics, the strength of a material's ability to

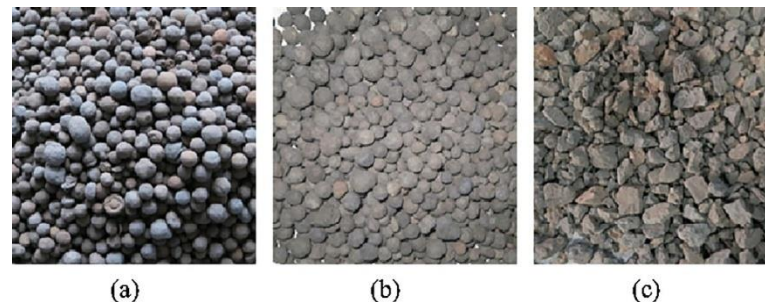
compress, bend, and split under tension, have been studied in this work, and the results are summarized. Analysis of microstructures and their impact on micromechanical properties follows.

Lightweight aggregates

To create LWAC, five distinct kinds of LWAs were chosen, each with a different geometries (Y1, Y2, S1, S2, and S3) expanded shale cement is used in its production (Fig. 1). Chinese standard GB/T 17431.2-2010 specifies a set of physical characteristics for the selected LWAs in Table 1. Instead of Y1, Y2, and S1 through S3, which all have irregular forms, S3 is perfectly round, the quasi-spherical shapes of Y2 and Y1. Despite the fact that S1 and S2 were made from the same aggregate, they had differing maximum sizes.

Fibers

Figure 2 (a) shows SF and CF fibre reinforcement materials used to produce fibre reinforced concrete. The fibres were employed as reinforcement materials. Table 2 contains information on fiber qualities provided by manufacturers. As opposed to CFs, which dispersed into separate filaments as they worked their way through the concrete-making process, SFs were single monofilament fibers. One thing to keep in mind is the fact that SFs are more dense as well as bigger in diameter than CFs.



Numbers with a thin border:
Figure 1. partly round shale
ceramist S1 (a), squished shale
ceramist S1 (b), squashed shale
ceramist S1. Compressive strength
as a function of wall thickness

Cement's strength is greatly
influenced by its dry clear
thickness, which is also known as
its "dry stove thickness". As
compared to LWAC samples
supported by fiber, which had
densities ranging from 1720 to
1940 kg/m³ and 1846 to 1897
kg/m³ respectively, fiber-built up
LWAC examples exhibited 28-day
compressive characteristics
ranging from 47.1 to 76.1 KN.
CEB/RILEM categorized primary
lightweight concrete as having a
stove dry thickness of somewhere
between 1600 and 2000 kg/m³ and
a compressive strength of more
than 15 MPa, which is feasible
given this examination's findings.
A better approach to think about it
is to think about the dry clear
thickness as being reduced when
CF expands, while SF expands.
The thickness of LWAC was

decreased by 0.3 and 0.6 percent
when SF was added. The
compressive strength of LWAC
increased about immediately as the
clear dry thickness decreased in
the 28-day test, as shown in Fig. 4.
Various direct correlations
between thickness and
compressive strength have been
postulated based on the total being
utilized.

Effect of coarse aggregate on compressive strength

Figure 6 shows that the
compressive strength of specimens
S1-1, S3-1, and Y2-1 were all
higher than that of specimens S1-2
and Y3-2 in comparison, as can be
seen there. Compressive strength
of concrete created from crushed
shale aggregates S1 and S3 is
higher than that of concrete
manufactured from quasi-spherical
shale aggregate Y2 for various
reasons. Shale aggregate in the
form of quasi-spheres has been
shown to enhance cement paste-
aggregate bonding by increasing
the surface area of the aggregate.

A strong connection between the cement paste and the coarse surface of the crushed shale aggregates is achieved.

These specimens had greater compressive strengths than specimens S1-1 and S1-2, which were shown to be the case. Since the aggregate size fell somewhat, LWAC's overall strength rose. Because of the bonding area between aggregates and the cement paste, smaller aggregates may have a higher specific surface area than larger aggregates. Larger aggregates have a substantial influence on structural integrity because to their high porosity and internal defects, making it advantageous to reduce aggregate size. Each of the two aggregates Y1 and Y2 has two aggregates with particle sizes between 5 and 16 millimeters: There was no difference in the W/B values of the compressive strengths of the specimens made with the two different types of aggregate, but the W/B value of the specimens made from the two different types

of aggregate was lower in the case of specimen Y1- than in the case of the two different types of aggregate combined to make specimen Y2-2. Structural damage was more apparent in specimens built with aggregates that had 29 percent more compressive strength, than with specimens manufactured with those that had 29 percent less compressive strength. There's a possibility that the smoother surface of the quasi-spherical shale aggregates with decreasing diameters is attributable to the weakening of the aggregate-paste contact as aggregate diameters drop. LWAC's compressive strength may be increased by adjusting the particle diameter of crushed aggregates made from crushed shale, thus Particle size reduction may, however, lower the hardness of LWAC with quasi-spherical shale aggregates, although this may not be sufficient.

It is known as the "specific strength" when a material's 28-day cubic compressive strength is

divided by its oven-dry density. Its "specific strength," on the other hand, increases with LWAC's weight and power output. To put it another way, the shale aggregate S3-2 specimen had the greatest specific strength of all crushed shale aggregate samples tested, whereas specimen S1-1 had the second-lowest specific strength. According to our findings, the shape and size of LWA particles have a significant impact on the strength of LWACs, in addition to the concentration of LWA. When it comes to LWAC, the optimum material is crushed shale aggregate S3 with a minimum compressive strength of 60 MPa.

Type and volume of fibers, as well as % measures of impact compressive strength As shown in Figure 8, there is no difference in compressive strength in early adolescents whether SFs and CFs are included or excluded from the equation. As a result, the compressive strengths of specimens 4 (0.9 S) and 7 (0.0 S) were greater than the normal

LWAC specimen 1-0.0S-0.0C after 28 days. Stronger ties between cement matrix and fibers may have developed over time, resulting in increased compressive strength during the curing process. SFs added to LWAC assist increase final compressive strength by limiting crack development because to the strong interaction between SFs and cement paste. A similar conclusion may be derived from Wang and Wang's research results. Fig. 8(b) shows a little reduction in compressive strength for LWAC-reinforced structures To put it another way, the hydration products in LWAC may penetrate deeper into the outer layer of LWA than in NWC. Bentz advised that LWA be used as internal reservoirs for masonry curing inside to the structure. Succeeded in gaining approval for Bentz's idea In spite of the lower internal curing capacity due to the pre-wetted low-water absorption LWA's low water content, it offers a superior late-stage curing environment than standard

aggregate. ITZ of LWAC with low water absorption and thick shell may reasonably be predicted to produce a minor wall effect, like that of conventional aggregate.

Unlike cement paste, traditional aggregate prevented tiny fractures in NWC from spreading. On the other hand, LWAC micro fractures begin in the cement paste, migrate through the ITZ, and finally reach the aggregate. Our failing processes can be better understood by seeing how the micro-cracks develop.

Effect of silica fume on the ITZ between aggregate and paste.

For example, the mechanical characteristics of LWAC might be improved by adding silica fume and cement paste, as shown in Section 3.1.2. Water products such as C-S-H crystal plates and ettringite (AF) crystal plates were found in the interfacial zone to explain the adhesive and strengthening properties of the aggregate-paste interface zone. Microstructures in sample MD were more dense than

in sample MPC at the same magnification. Addition of silica fume enhances interfacial strength between aggregate and paste, as seen by the increased ITZ strength found in sample MD compared to sample MPC. An aggregate-cement paste reaction may be taking place due to excessive silica in the paste's composition. LWAs and cement paste are expected to generate a pozzolanic reaction in the ITZ, which is characterized by mechanical interlocking as well as chemical interactions.

Conclusions

These concrete combinations were tested for mix characteristics as well as mechanical capabilities. Expanded clay ceramicists and two types of fibre are used in the concrete. The shape and microstructure of LWAs and two

distinct types of ITZs were studied using SEM. This study's findings allow us to make the following inferences:

It was found that the LWAC developed and fabricated in this work met the structural LWAC requirements, as measured by its 28-day compressive strength of 47 to 86 MPa and its dry apparent density of 1720–1940 kg/m³. The density, W/B, and other parameters of LWA influence LWAC's strength.

A larger growth rate may be accomplished by using silica fume to raise the compressive strength of LWAC, but LWA strength restricted the ultimate strength of the material, as shown by this study. As the dry apparent density of LWAC changed, its strength rose roughly linearly. Compared to LWAC produced with spherical shale aggregates, crushed shale aggregates may readily achieve high strength.

Only a little amount of compressive strength was

impacted by the insertion of fibres, but the flexural and splitting tensile strength of LWAC were greatly boosted. Flexural and splitting tensile strength increased the most in SFLWAC and CFLWAC at a fibre percentage of 0.9 percent.

Ceramicist S3's vitreous outer layer and independent internal pores work together to account for its minimal water absorption and robust strength.

LWA with a thick shell and low water absorption generated a wall effect at an ITZ level between conventional aggregate and LWA at high water absorption, it was discovered. Silica fume addition somewhat reduced the pore diameters and improved ITZ density.

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