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Flexural Behaviour of Reinforced Low Calcium Fly Ash based Geopolymer Concrete Beam

By S. Kumaravel & S. Thirugnanasambandam

Annamalai University, India

Abstract- The production of Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC) causes pollution to the environment, due to the emission of CO₂. Geopolymer Concrete, an alternate material is introduced to replace OPC. Low Calcium Fly ash, a by-product from the coal industry, is widely available in the world. Silicate and Alumina are rich in Fly ash. Hence it reacts with alkaline solution to produce Alumina silicate gel that binds the aggregate to produce a good concrete. The compressive strength increases with the increasing of fly ash fineness and thus the reduction in porosity can be obtained. The flexural behavior of Geopolymer concrete (GPC) beams and control cement concrete beams are examined. The designed compressive strength of concrete is 50N/mm². A total of four beams is cast over an effective span of 3000 mm and tested up to failure under static loads. The load-displacement response of the geopolymer concrete beams and control beams are obtained and compared with the theoretical results. The results show that the geopolymer concrete beams exhibit increased flexural strength. The deflections at different stages including service load and peak load stage are higher for GPC beams.

Keywords: *flexural behaviour, reinforced concrete, geopolymer concrete, beams.*

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S. Kumaravel ^α & S. Thirugnanasambandam ^σ

Abstract- The production of Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC) causes pollution to the environment, due to the emission of CO₂. Geopolymer Concrete, an alternate material is introduced to replace OPC. Low Calcium Fly ash, a by-product from the coal industry, is widely available in the world. Silicate and Alumina are rich in Fly ash. Hence it reacts with alkaline solution to produce Alumina silicate gel that binds the aggregate to produce a good concrete. The compressive strength increases with the increasing of fly ash fineness and thus the reduction in porosity can be obtained. The flexural behaviour of Geopolymer concrete (GPC) beams and control cement concrete beams are examined. The designed compressive strength of concrete is 50N/mm². A total of four beams is cast over an effective span of 3000 mm and tested up to failure under static loads. The load-displacement response of the geopolymer concrete beams and control beams are obtained and compared with the theoretical results. The results show that the geopolymer concrete beams exhibit increased flexural strength. The deflections at different stages including service load and peak load stage are higher for GPC beams.

Keywords: flexural behaviour, reinforced concrete, geopolymer concrete, beams.

I. INTRODUCTION

Concrete is widely used as one of the important construction material. Portland cement is the main component of making concrete. The Cement Industries are responsible for the emissions CO₂. The production of one ton Portland cement produces approximately one ton of CO₂ to the atmosphere¹. Many efforts are being made in order to reduce the use of Portland cement in Concrete. In order to finding an alternative cementing materials such as fly ash, silica fume, ground granulated blast furnace slag, rice husk ash etc. The proposed an alkaline liquid that could be used to react with the Silicon (Si) and Aluminium (Al) to produce binders. Because of the chemical reaction that takes place in the polymerization process, Davidovits coined the term "Geopolymer" to represent these binders². The Geopolymer technology shows considerable promise for application in concrete industry as an alternative binder to the Portland cement³.

II. GEOPOLYMER CONCRETE

The main constituents of geopolymers are the source materials and the alkaline liquids. The source

materials for geopolymers based alumino-silicate should be rich in Silicon and Aluminium. Silicon and Aluminium are found in natural minerals such as kaolinite, clays, micas, and alousite, spinel, etc⁴. And also alternatively found in by-product materials such as fly ash, silica fume, slag, rice husk ash, red mud, etc. The alkaline liquids are formed from soluble alkali metals that are usually sodium or potassium based. The combination of sodium hydroxide with sodium silicate is known as alkaline liquids. The liquids ratios are 2.5.

III. EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAMME

a) Materials

Low-calcium (ASTM Class F) fly ash obtained from Mettur Thermal Power Station, Tamilnadu is used in this research⁵. A coarse and fine aggregates used by the concrete industry are suitable to manufacture geopolymer concrete. The aggregate grading curves currently used in concrete practice are applicable in the case of geopolymer concrete⁶. The properties of aggregate used Specific gravity of fine and coarse aggregate -2.66 and 2.70, Fineness modulus of fine and coarse aggregate - 2.43 and 6.71.

b) Alkaline Liquid

It is recommended that the alkaline liquid is prepared by mixing sodium silicate and sodium hydroxide solutions allowing the mix for a minimum period of 24 hours to the reaction of polymerization. The sodium silicate solution is commercially available in different grades. The sodium silicate solution (Na₂SiO₃) with Sodium Hydroxide (NaOH) ratio by mass of 2.5 is used. The sodium hydroxide with 97-98% purity in pellet form is commercially available. The solids are dissolved in water to make a solution with the required concentration. The 14 Molar (14 M) solutions are used⁷. Since the molecular weight of Sodium Hydroxide is 40, the mass of NaOH solids in a solution varies depending on the concentration of the solution. The materials required for making geopolymer concrete is shown in figure 1. The M 50 grade 1:1.25:2.45 is tried in this research⁸. The same ratio of mix is tried in the geopolymer concrete also. The constituents of geopolymer concrete of 14 Molarity Sodium Hydroxide for M50 grade concrete (1:1.25:2.45) is shown in Table 1.

c) Mixing, Casting and Curing

The geopolymer concrete is manufactured by adopting the conventional techniques used in the

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manufacture of Portland cement concrete. The fly ash and the fine aggregate which are dry mixed together in 50-litre capacity Pan Mixer for three minutes. The saturated surface dry (SSD) coarse aggregate is mixed with the fly ash and fine aggregate until the coarse aggregate is uniformly distributed throughout the batch. The alkaline solution with 'naphthalene sulphonate' super plaster is added and the entire batch mix for four minutes⁹. The fresh concrete is cast and compacted by the usual methods used in the case of Portland cement concrete. The workability of fresh concrete is measured by means of the conventional slump test. The slump measured is 110mm shown in figure 2. The prepared concrete is kept in moulds of specimen cubes, cylinder, prisms and beams shown in figure 3.

Table 1 : Constituents of Geopolymer Concrete

DESCRIPTION	QUANTITY
FLYASH	510 kg / m ³
Na ₂ SiO ₃ / NaOH	2.5
(Na ₂ SiO ₃ + NaOH) / FLYASH	0.45
NaOHsolid	36.80 kg / m ³
WATER (added with NaOHsolid)	28.91 kg / m ³
Na ₂ SiO ₃ Solution	164.30 kg / m ³
Fineaggregate	637.50 kg / m ³
Coarseaggregate(<10mm)	1249.50 kg / m ³
Super plaster	4 Lit./ m ³
24 Hours Curing (Hot air)	75° C



Figure 1 : Materials for Geopolymer Concrete



Figure 2: Slump Test

After casting the specimens, they are kept in rest period in room temperature for one day. The term

'Rest Period' is coined to indicate the time taken from completion of casting of test specimen to the start of curing at an elevated temperature¹⁰. The geopolymer concrete specimens are placed in an autoclave for 24 hours, hot curing at a temperature of 75°C before it is demoulded (figure 4). The compressive strength of geopolymer concrete cubes increases with the increase in age. The density of geopolymer concrete is around 2350 kg/m³.



Figure 3 : Casting of Specimens



Figure 4 : Specimens in Cured Beam

IV. EXPERIMENTAL INVESTIGATION

The test program consists of casting and testing four beams given size 125 X 250 X 3200 mm out of which two are control cement concrete beams and other two are geopolymer concrete beams. The beams designed as under reinforced section¹¹. It is reinforced with 2-16 # and 1-12 # at bottom, 2-12 # at top using 6mm diameter stirrups @ 150 mm c/c. The control cement concrete beams cast using M50 grade (1:1.25:2.45) with water cement ratio of 0.32 and Fe415 grade steel^{12, 13}. Ordinary Portland cement, natural river sand and the crushed granite of maximum size 12.5 mm are used for control concrete. High yield strength deformed (HYSD) bars of 16 and 12 mm diameter with mean strength of 485 N/mm² is used. The elastic modulus of the concrete is found as 2.53x10⁴N/mm² and the Poisson ratio found on 0.14. The control beams and geopolymer concrete beams are designated as RCC-I, RCC-II and GPC-I, GPC-II respectively. The companion cubes 100 x100 x100mm size and cylinders 100mm

diameter x 200mm height are also cast along with the beams and tested.

V. TEST SETUP

The test setup for flexural test is shown in figure 5. The test specimen is mounted in a beam testing frame of 200kN capacity. The beams are simply supported over a span of 3000mm, and subjected to two concentrated loads placed symmetrically on the span. The distance between the loads is 1000mm. The load is applied on two points each 500mm away from the centre of the beam towards the support. Dial gauges of 0.001mm least count is used for measuring the deflections under the load points and at mid span for measuring the deflection. The dial gauge readings are recorded at different loads. The strain in concrete is measured using a Demec gauge. An automatic data acquisition unit is used to collect the data during test. Linear Variable Displacement Transformers (LVDTs) is placed at mid span and under the load points of beam. The load is applied at intervals of 2.5 kN. The first crack loads are obtained by visual examination. The crack patterns of the geopolymer concrete beam (GPC-I) is shown in figure 6.



Figure 5 : Test Setup



Figure 6 : Crack Pattern GPC-I Beam

Table 2 : Summary of Test Results

Sl. No.	Beam Code	Ist Crack Load (kN)	Service Load (kN)	Yield Load (kN)	Ultimate load(kN)		Max. Deflection (mm)	
					Experimental	Numerical (ANSYS)	Experimental	Numerical (ANSYS)
1	RCC – I	20.00	64.67	95.00	97.00	96.00	55.00	53.00
2	RCC – II	17.50	62.34	92.50	93.50	96.00	52.00	53.00
3	GPC – I	20.00	68.34	100.00	102.50	100.00	60.00	55.00
4	GPC – II	20.00	65.00	97.50	98.50	100.00	57.00	55.00

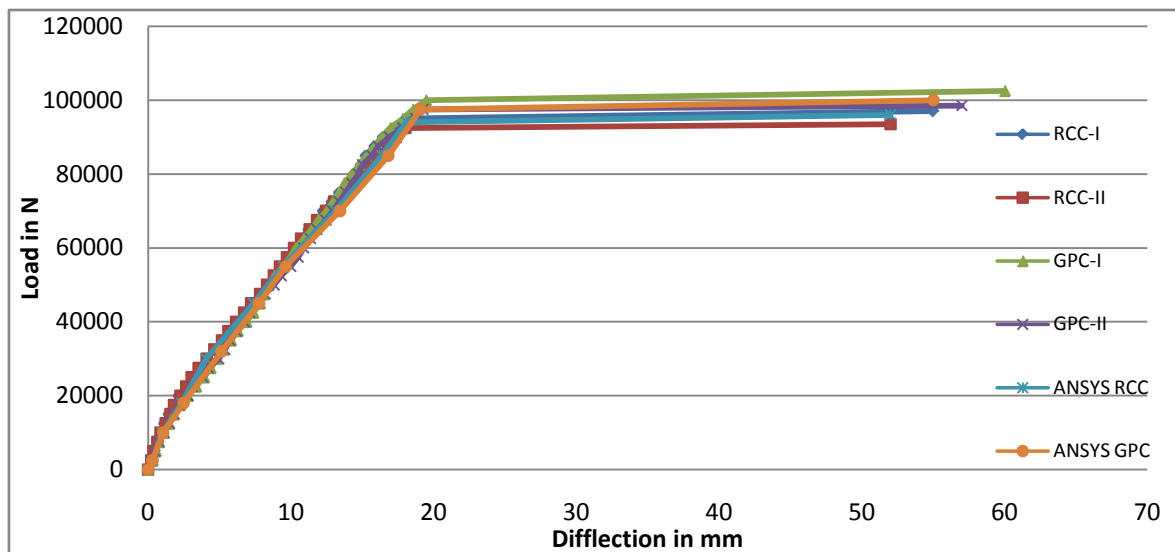


Figure 7 : Load - Deflection Relationships for RCC and GPC Beam

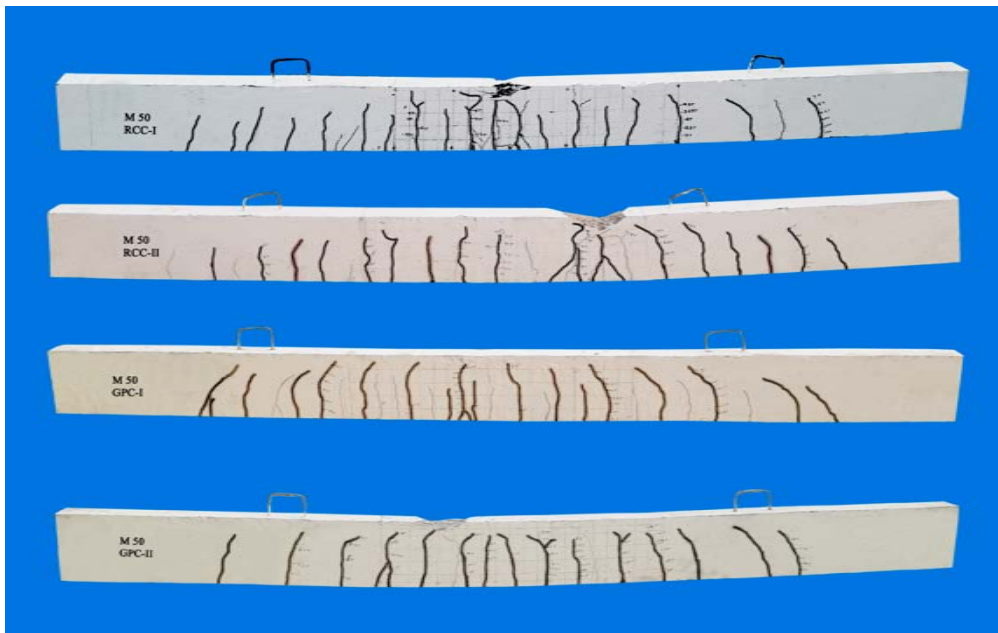


Figure 8 : Crack pattern of RCC and GPC beams

VI. NUMERICAL CALCULATION

Use of FEA software ANSYS is adopted for predicting the load-displacement response from the control beams and geopolymer concrete beams numerically. The mesh model defined 733 nodes and 700 elements. The programme offers solid65 for beam element (figure 9), and link8 for steel element (figure 10). The generated model for beams are RCC-I, RCC-II and GPC-I, GPC-II. A typical deflected shape at ultimate stage of GPC-I is shown in figure 11. The experimental and numerical (ANSYS) load-deflection curves are compared for both control beam RCC-I, RCC-II and GPC-I, GPC-II are shown in figure 8. It can be seen that the predicted deflections are in close agreement with the experimental results¹⁴. Comparisons of ultimate loads for experimental and numerical (ANSYS) results are shown in Table 2.

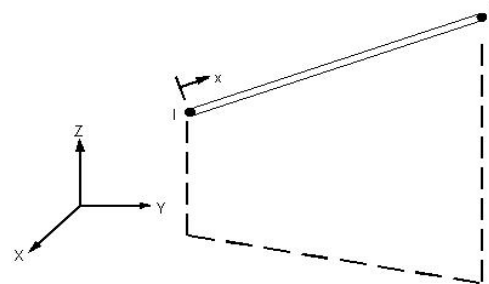


Figure 10 : Link 8 Geometry

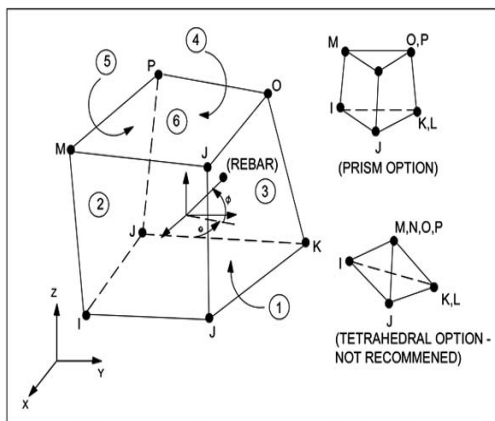


Figure 9 : Solid65 Geometry

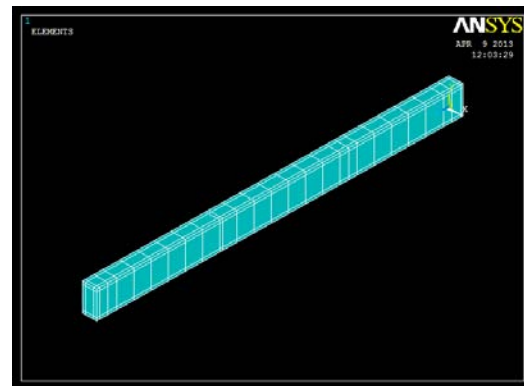


Figure 11 : Mesh Modelling

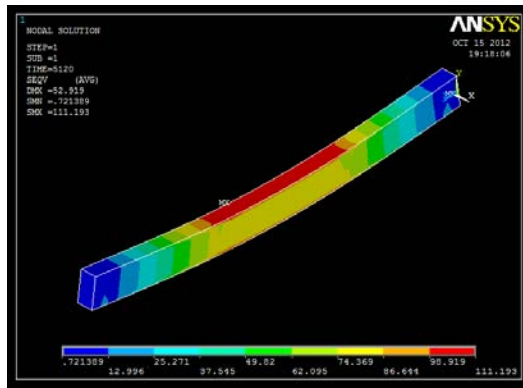


Figure 12 : A Typical Deflected Shapes

VII. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The average compressive strength of cement concrete cubes and geopolymer cubes are obtained as 57.5 N/mm² and 59.0 N/mm² respectively. The test results of strength, deformation properties of control beams and geopolymer beams are reported in Table 2. The load-deflection relationship is obtained using deflection measurements from LVDTs and strain data collected from Demec gauges for control beams and geopolymer concrete beams under static monotonic loading are presented. From the load deflection it is clear that the geopolymer beams exhibit similar behaviour with respect to the control beams, and crack pattern of all the beams are shown in figure 8.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

The research investigations carried out on the reinforced geopolymer concrete beams and conventional Portland cement concrete beams are concluded that:

- The compressive strength of cement concrete and geopolymer concrete cubes are obtained as 57.5 N/mm² and 59.0 N/mm². The slump of geopolymer concrete is obtained as 110 mm even without any addition of water.
- The load deflection characteristics obtained for the cement concrete beams and geopolymer concrete beams are almost similar curvature. The first cracking load of geopolymer concrete beams shows slightly higher when compared to cement concrete beams.
- The average service load of geopolymer concrete beams shows 7.9% higher than the cement concrete beams.
- The average ultimate load carrying capacity of geopolymer concrete beams shows 5.68% higher than cement concrete beams.
- The crack patterns and failure modes observed for geopolymer concrete beams are found to be similar to the cement concrete beams. The beams failed initially by yielding of the tensile steel followed by the crushing of concrete in the compression face.

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Deep Foundations in Formations with Thick Layers of Intermediate Geomaterials and Deep Stable Strata

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Keywords: *foundations, bearing capacity, intermediate geomaterial, fresh rock, piles, stable strata.*

GJRE-E Classification : FOR Code: 090599



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Deep Foundations in Formations with Thick Layers of Intermediate Geomaterials and Deep Stable Strata

Medubi, A. ^α & Bankole, G.M. ^σ

Abstract- This work entails the foundation studies, analysis and design that was conducted for a proposed development in the central area of the federal capital of Nigeria. The work encompasses extensive field work, experimental regime, laboratory testing and analyses of the deduced data. The work entails boring of twenty (20 Nos.) rotary drillings with rock coring as well as fifty (50 Nos.) mechanised percussion drilling with standard penetration tests (SPT). The latter gave refusal at between 8.15 and 9.65m while the rotary drilling depths were between 21 – 40m. These revealed sandy silt, silty sand, laterite, lateritic clay and concretionary laterite as the overburden material. Weathered and fresh basement rock were proved between 15 and 40m. Geophysical survey, by the use of vertical electrical sounding predicted weathered and fresh basement rock at varying depth of 18 -50m. The bearing capacity of the overburden material range from 28 – 400kN/m² (Factor of safety of 2.5) and >1000kN/m² for fresh basement rock. 600mm and 900mm ϕ bored and cased piles were recommended as foundation for the facility up to depth of 50m below the ground level. This is to take care of the depth to the stable strata resulting from the thickness of the intermediate geomaterial.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Deep foundation, that necessitates the use of piles to carry loads from heavy superstructure to stable underlying structure are preceded by an extensive region of foundation investigation. This is done to characterize the underlying soil and rock formation and their attendant engineering parameter vis-à-vis their ability to offer adequate support to the facility. Expectedly, characterization of the underlying soils would be done taking cognizance of the expected load from superstructure and all external loading elements.

This work is premised on the investigation carried out for an extensive building development that includes a 150m tower, in the central area of Abuja, the Federal Capital Territory of Nigeria in the North central geopolitical zone. The work entails field investigations, laboratory test analysis, foundation analysis and design.

The underlying characteristics of the area, that elicit special interest, is the occurrence of a thick layer of intermediate geomaterials, ranging from 18 – 40m in

some of the deep borings carried out for the studies. This was also shown by geophysical survey carried out which revealed deep layers of weathered/fractured rock. The depth to firm strata, indicated by fresh basement rock was up to 50m at some of the locations.

- Location, Description and Geomorphology of the Area

The location for the study, from which the data for this studies are deduced, is in Abuja, the Federal Capital of Nigeria within the north central region of Nigeria. This is located within longitude 70 and 80E and latitude 8030' and 9030' N.

The area is in a typical basement complex formation and comprises of granite rock of the gneiss migmatite complex which are granite rocks of the Precambrian era.

The data were obtained as output from the extensive geotechnical investigations for a facility that comprises of a cocktail of different buildings. This includes a 150m tower.

The area is in a built up area with relatively level terrain and sparse vegetation.

a) Stratigraphy

The formation that underlies this area is predominantly lateritic soils which were proved between 15 – 36m. These are underlain by thick layers of intermediate geomaterial (weathered rock) which were further underlain by fresh basement/fractured rock. These were observed from 15 – 50m.

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The work entailed field investigation as well as laboratory test and analysis. These data formed basic inputs into the analysis design of foundations for infrastructural developments. These are to precede the construction of this facility.

a) Field Investigation

The field work was facilitated by a combination of geophysical and geotechnical investigation to characterize the underlying strata.

A geophysical investigation was done with the use of a terameter to measure the resistivity of the ground and delineate the lithology as a function of their respective resistivities. ABEM Terrameter SAS 300c was used to conduct resistivity surveys. These were done at

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designated vertical electrical sounding (VES) points chosen to coincide with points where geotechnical borings were conducted. Geotechnical investigations entailed carrying out a total of fifty seven (57 Nos) mechanized percussion drilling with standard penetration test (SPT) and rotary drilling with rock coring at twenty seven (27) points. These tests were in accordance with BS 1377 (1990) and ASTM D 420, D 1586-08a, D 1587 – 08 and D 2113 – 08(2009); further guides were provided by Kulhawy and Mayne (1990) as well as Mitchel (1978). Mayne (2001) and Meyerhof (1956) have highlighted the use of various penetration testing techniques (including SPT) for site characterization.

The prescribed U-tube (Acker, 1974 and ASTM D 1587 – 08, 2009) was used to recover undisturbed samples while the split barrel sampler as presented by BS 1377 (1990) and ASTM D 1586 – 08a (2009) was used for disturbed spoon samples. The results of the standard penetration test (SPT) N-values are shown in Table 1 and the plot are shown in figure 1.

Table 1 : N-values from penetration test

Depth (m)	N - values
0 -0.6	16 - 100
1.5 – 2.1	7 - 100
3.0 – 3.6	20 – 100
4.5 – 5.1	35 – 100
6.0 – 6.6	52 - 100
7.5 – 8.1	58 - 100
9 – 9.6	>100

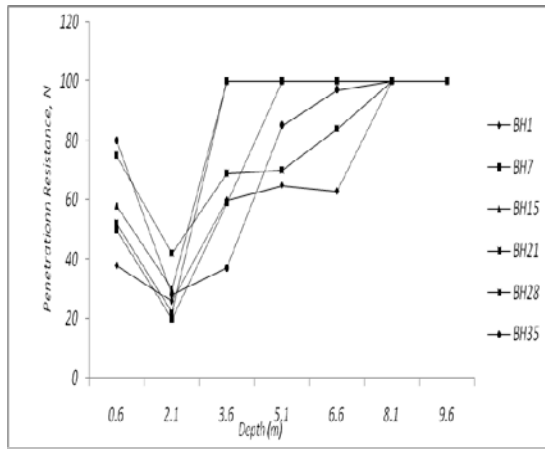


Figure 1 : Plot of Penetration Resistance (N-value) against Depth

- Laboratory Testing
- The tests conducted for this work include:
- a) Particle size distribution (PSD) test;
 - b) Atterberg's limits test;
 - c) Direct shear tests;
 - d) Consolidation/oedometer test.

All of these tests were done in accordance with specification laid out in BS 1377 (1990) and ASTM D

2850 – 03a(2007), D 2435 – 04, D 3080 – 04, D 1486 – 04, D 4767 – 06, D 6528 – 07 and D 2487 – 06e1 (2009).

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 2 show a summary of the results of laboratory tests on recovered disturbed and undisturbed samples.

The index property tests reveals a proportion of fines, as shown by the percentage passing the #200 test sieve to be between 2 and 63.2% and liquid limit (LL) ranging between 19.7 and 45 % as well as plasticity index (PI) of between 1.3 and 25.4 %. The strength properties of the soils gives cohesion ranging from 0 – 47 kN/m2 and friction angle ranging from 14 -430. There properties are plotted in figures 2 – 5.

Table 2 : Geotechnical properties of recovered samples from test borings

Property	Range of test values
Natural moisture content, NMC (%)	3 - 38
Liquid limit, LL (%)	19.7 – 45
Plastic limit, PL (%)	9 - 30
Plasticity index, PI (%)	1.3 – 25.4
Percentage passing No. 200 test sieve	2 – 63.2
Specific gravity	2.3 – 2.81
Unit weight (kN/m ³)	16.28 – 83
Angle of internal friction (°)	14 - 43
Cohesion (kN/m ²)	0 - 47

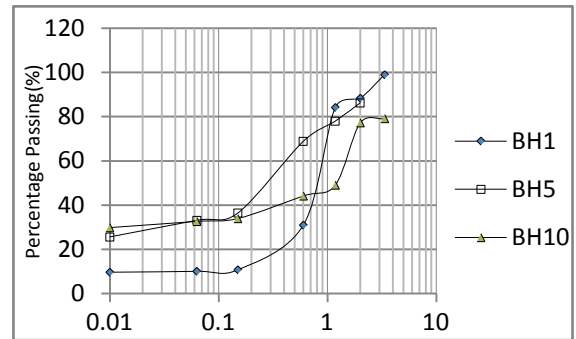


Figure 2 : Particle size distribution curve (PSD) for selected samples

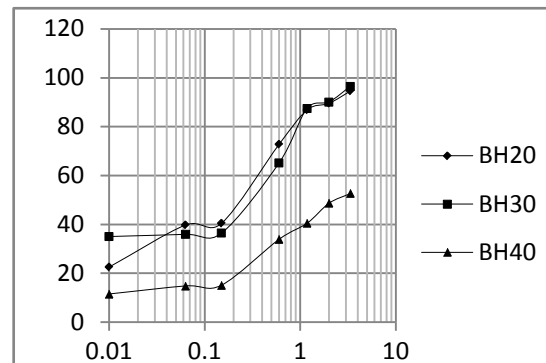


Figure 3 : Particle size distribution curve (PSD) for selected samples

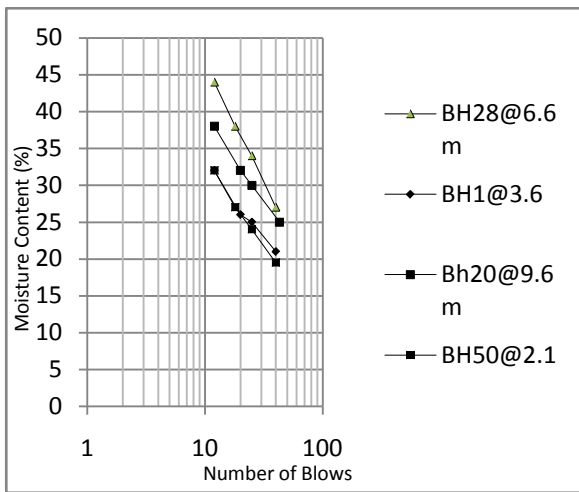


Figure 4 : Plot of liquid limit test result for recovered cohesive samples

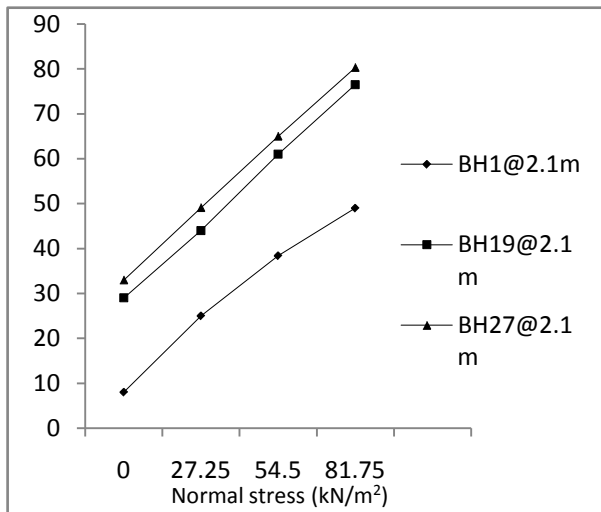


Figure 5 : Plot of shear strength properties for selected recovered samples

a) Stratification of the Lithologies

The stratigraphy of the location is as deduced from geophysical survey, percussion drilling and rotary drilling with rock coring. This is specifically with the purpose of delineating the various lithologies in the location. For this location, the stratigraphy comprises of a dense layer of laterite and lateritic clays up to 18m. These are further underlain by a dense layer of weathered/fracture basement rock with the fresh dense granite rock up to depth of 28.5-50.0m.

Oliver (1996), Kinnicut et al (1996) and Smith (1989) used various techniques to model ground conditions for development of stratigraphies.

The various stratigraphies are shown in table 3 and in the plot of the geophysical survey result shown in figure 6.

Table 3 : Lithology from percussion and rotary drilling

Depth (m)	Description of soil and rock formation
0 – 3	Silty sand, sandy silt, sandy clay, clayey sand, clayey silt, laterite, lateritic clay and concretionary laterite
3 – 6	Laterite, lateritic clay and concretionary laterite
6 – 9	Laterite, lateritic clay and concretionary laterite
9 – 12	Laterite, lateritic clay and sand
12 – 15	Sand, clayey sand, silty clay and lateritic clay
15 – 18	Sand and silty clay
18 – 21	Sand and highly weathered rock
21 – 24	Sand, sandy clay and weathered rock
24 – 27	Sand, sandy clay, clayey sand and weathered rock
27 – 30	Sand, weathered rock and fresh rock
30 – 33	Sand, weathered rock and fresh rock
33 – 36	Sand, weathered rock and fresh rock
36 -39	Weathered rock and fresh rock

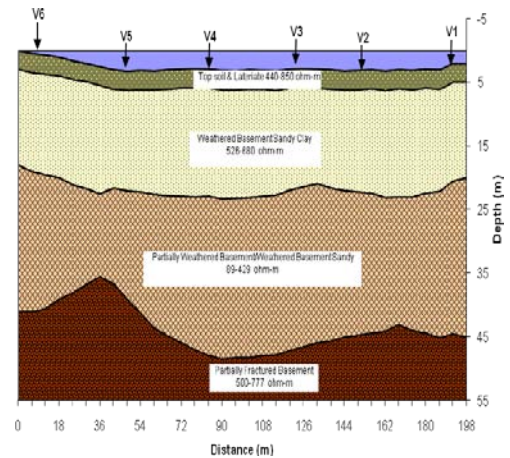


Figure 6 : Geoelectric section obtained from resistivity survey

b) Foundation Analysis and Recommended Design

Preliminary ground characterization by percussion drilling with penetration testing shows overburden depth of between 0 and 33m comprising predominantly of laterites and lateritic clays with bearing pressures of between 70 and 1000 kN/m². The layers of weathered/fractured basement between 18 – 39m have bearing capacities of >1000kN/m². Fresh basement rock lies between 28.5-50m. However, fresh rock was encountered at 28.5m only in one of the borings, while most of the basement formation was observed near 50m depth.

The combined factors of the type of facilities to be constructed at this development (which include a 150m high tower) and the characteristics of the underlying foundation necessitates the use of deep foundation. This specifically entails the use of long piles

to transmit the load from the superstructure to the depth of fresh basement rock strata.

The capacity of the piles was deduced using the soil parameters derived from the characterization and testing to analyse the soil-pile interaction. The capacity of the piles were deduced as a combination of end bearing and frictional resistance. Shoda (2007)

Sahadja (2011), Medubi et al (2012) and Mason (2012) have all analysed various techniques of pile capacity evaluation in various lithologies and for various types of facilities. The Meyerhof's method was used for this work.

The capacities of piles deduced for this work are shown in Table4.

Table 4 : Pile capacity results for 900mm ϕ

Boring No.	Pile Diameter (m)	Pile length (m)	End Resistance (kN/m ²)	Friction Resistance (kN/m ²)	Total pile capacity (kN)	Safe Pile Capacity, kN (FOS=2.5)
BH1	0.900	50.0	1825.179	1291.4	3116.579	1247
BH2	0.900	50.0	2445.067	1730	4175.067	1670
BH3	0.900	50.0	2295.253	1624	3919.253	1568
BH6	0.900	50.0	1913.936	1354.2	3268.136	1307
BH7	0.900	50.0	2136.112	1511.4	3647.512	1459
BH8	0.900	50.0	1405.136	994.2	2399.336	960
BH9	0.900	50.0	1772.603	1254.2	3026.803	1211
BH10	0.900	50.0	1833.376	1297.2	3130.576	1252
BH40	0.900	50.0	1599.045	1131.4	2730.445	1092
BH41	0.900	50.0	1700.24	1203	2903.24	1161
BH42	0.900	50.0	1990.821	1408.6	3399.421	1360
BH45	0.900	50.0	1837.333	1300	3137.333	1255
BH46	0.900	50.0	2128.197	1505.8	3633.997	1454
BH49	0.900	50.0	2285.643	1617.2	3902.843	1561
BH50	0.900	50.0	2483.509	1757.2	4240.709	1696

IV. CONCLUSION

The work entailed a detailed study of ground condition, analysis of derived parameters with respect to foundation design and evaluation of foundation type appropriate for the stated condition. The investigations of the ground condition were facilitated by the use of geotechnical and geophysical studies to characterize the area.

The materials encountered were predominantly laterites with bearing pressures ranging from 70 – 1000kN/m². Weathered/fractured basement underlay the overburdens layers at between 15 – 50m with bearing pressures of >1000kN/m². Fresh basement granites rock were observed between 18.5-50m Deep foundation, specifically end bearing piles were deduced as the appropriate means of transferring the structural loads to the underlying formation. The piles have pile capacity of between 960 – 1931 kN as deduced from the soil parameters obtained from all the relevant test.

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Integrated Approach to Investigation of Effect of Salt on Bitumen Properties and Stability of Flexible Pavement in Coastal Areas

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Abstract- Demand for modifications is increasing throughout the world parallel to develop the existing highway materials to fulfill the increasing demand of vehicles. Some materials produce good effect and enhance the strength as well as qualities of bitumen. On the other hand, some materials are responsible for adverse effect on the bitumen. In saline areas like coastal regions, the salt plays a significant role on the bituminous pavement. In this area, the most of the highways come to contact with salts content materials. In present study, the focus was given to find the various effects of salts on bitumen and bituminous mixers. A number of samples were prepared with addition of sodium chloride with respect to 2%, 4%, 6%, 8%, and 10% weight of bitumen. To determine its behavior and suitability, a variety of tests such as penetration test, softening point test, flash point and fire point test, ductility test, specific gravity test, solubility test etc. were conducted by standard ASTM method. It was observed from laboratory test that the penetration and specific gravity value are gradually increased and ductility, flash point, fire point, and softening point was gradually decreased due to the increase of salts content in a bituminous mix. To observe the effect of salt on stability of flexible pavement Marshall Mix design method was used with varying percentage of salt content. The stability value of bituminous mixes was decreased with increase the salt content in bitumen.

Index Terms: sodium chloride, bitumen, bituminous mix, stability, aashto.

GJRE-E Classification : FOR Code: 090599, 290899



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Integrated Approach to Investigation of Effect of Salt on Bitumen Properties and Stability of Flexible Pavement in Coastal Areas

A. Chowdhury ^α, K. M. Islam ^σ, M. Z. Rahaman ^ρ, & M. A. Sobhan ^ω

Abstract-Demand for modifications is increasing throughout the world parallel to develop the existing highway materials to fulfill the increasing demand of vehicles. Some materials produce good effect and enhance the strength as well as qualities of bitumen. On the other hand, some materials are responsible for adverse effect on the bitumen. In saline areas like coastal regions, the salt plays a significant role on the bituminous pavement. In this area, the most of the highways come to contact with salts content materials. In present study, the focus was given to find the various effects of salts on bitumen and bituminous mixers. A number of samples were prepared with addition of sodium chloride with respect to 2%, 4%, 6%, 8%, and 10% weight of bitumen. To determine its behavior and suitability, a variety of tests such as penetration test, softening point test, flash point and fire point test, ductility test, specific gravity test, solubility test etc. were conducted by standard ASTM method. It was observed from laboratory test that the penetration and specific gravity value are gradually increased and ductility, flash point, fire point, and softening point was gradually decreased due to the increase of salts content in a bituminous mix. To observe the effect of salt on stability of flexible pavement Marshall Mix design method was used with varying percentage of salt content. The stability value of bituminous mixes was decreased with increase the salt content in bitumen. From the consideration of stability, maximum 2% salt in bitumen can be allowed for road construction.

Index Terms: sodium chloride, bitumen, bituminous mix, stability, aashto.

I. INTRODUCTION

Bituminous mixes are most commonly used all over the world in pavement construction. Under normal circumstances, conventional bituminous materials if designed and executed properly perform quite satisfactory. But special applications like roundabouts or where traffic is extremely heavy, stiffer mixes are required which can have larger fatigue life and more resistance to permanent deformation. It has been found from many researches that the strength of the paving mixes can be enhanced by use of a binder formed by

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modifying available bitumen with certain additives like Sulphur [1], [2], rubber [3], [4], neoprene [5], polyethylene [6], [7] and organic polymer [8], [9]. In coastal area, pavement are quite often comes across with saline water. In this areas, the salt particularly sodium chloride plays an important role in the stability as well as durability of the road. In such a situation, the effects of salts on properties on the bitumen are vital for proper design and maintenance of the pavements. In this project, an attempt was taken to determine and compare the properties of salt mixed bitumen and pure bitumen and to investigate the behavior of bituminous mixes on stability with modified bitumen by increasing the percentage of salt in bitumen.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

a) Sample Collection

The materials were used for specimen to compare the behavior of salt on engineering properties of bitumen are bitumen and sodium chloride. Sodium chloride salt originated from sea water was collected from the market of Rajshahi. The sodium chloride was tested for engineering properties related to flexible pavement. 80/100 grade bitumen without debris and adulterants was collected by eastern refinery company. The collected samples were modified with different percentage of salt content in laboratory and modified bitumen was used in the laboratory test.

b) Preparation of Samples

The samples were prepared by adding sodium chloride with pure bitumen. The amounts of salt were added by weight of percentage of pure bitumen separately. Five bowls was weighted for preparing sample. Hot bitumen was poured into those bowls. The weight of the bitumen was taken. The salt was weighted with respect to 0%, 2%, 4%, 6%, 8% and 10% weight of pure bitumen. The samples were prepared one after another. Thus five samples were prepared with variable salt contents for each test.

c) Tests on Bitumen

To judge the effect of salt on properties of bitumen as binders, a variety of tests (e.g. Penetration test, Ductility test, Softening point test, Specific gravity test, Flash point and fire point test, Float test, Viscosity test, Loss on heating test, Solubility test) have been

specified by Institutions like ASTM, I.S.I., Asphalt Institute and B.S.I [10]. Here ASTM was followed and prepared samples were tested to determine above engineering properties of bitumen [10].

d) *Bituminous Mix Design*

Bituminous mix is a type of mix in which the aggregates are bounded together by bituminous material. A good bituminous paving mix should exhibit stability, durability, workability and skid resistance properties besides economy. The overall objective for the design of bituminous mixes, to determine the economical blend and grading of aggregates and corresponding bitumen content which would yield a mix [11].

e) *Marshall Method*

Bruce Marshall, formerly Bituminous Engineer with Mississippi State Highway Department, USA formulated Marshall Method for designing bituminous mixes. Marshall's test procedure was later modified and improved upon by U.S. Corps of Engineer through their extensive research and correlation studies. ASTM and other agencies have standardized the test procedure. Generally, this stability test is applicable to hot-mix design of bitumen aggregates with maximum size 2.5 cm. In Bangladesh, bituminous concrete mix is commonly designed by Marshall Method [10].

In this method, the resistance to plastic deformation of cylindrical specimen of bituminous mixer is measured when the same is loaded at the periphery at a rate of 5 cm per minute. The test procedure is used in the design and evaluation of bituminous paving mixes. There are two major features of the Marshall method of designing mixes namely; Density-void Analysis and Stability-flow Test [10]. The stability of the mix is defined as a maximum load carried by a compacted specimen at a standard temperature of 60°C. The flow is measured as the deformation in units of 0.25mm between no load and maximum load carried by the specimen during stability test. In this test an attempt was made to obtain optimum binder content for the aggregate mix type and traffic intensity.

i. *Sample Collection*

The materials was used for Marshall test specimen to evaluate the characteristics of bituminous mixes in addition to the stability of flexible pavement are coarse aggregate, fine aggregate, mineral filler and bitumen. Boulders of 100-300 mm size were collected from Panchagar. These boulders were broken manually to the size of 25 mm and less. The aggregates passing through 25 mm sieve and other sieves where retained aggregates were collected are 20 mm, 12.5 mm, 9.5 mm, 4.75 mm and 2.36 mm [11]. The white stone aggregate was used with rather mix of black stone. Specific gravity of coarse aggregate was 2.64. Combination of Domar sand and Padma river sand was

used as the main source of fine aggregate. The aggregates passing through 2.36mm sieve and other sieves where retained aggregates were collected are 600µm, 300µm, 150µm and 75µm [11]. It was collected from the Transportation Lab in RUET. Specific gravity of fine aggregate was 2.35. Mix of fine sand and stone dust finer than 0.075mm (No. 200) was used as filler in all mixes. It was the residuals received after sieving the fine aggregate by mechanical shaker. It was passed through 75µm sieve. Specific gravity of mineral filler was 2.30. The engineering properties of materials were justified according to the procedure specified by AASHTO T19 [12] and AASHTO T85 [13] standards. In order to study the effect of sodium chloride on the behavior of bituminous mix, Marshall Test specimens were prepared with four modified bitumen content (e.g. 0%, 2%, 4%, 6% weight of pure bitumen) with 50 blows for medium traffic road according to the standard procedure specified by AASHTO.

ii. *Preparation of Marshall Test Specimen*

The coarse aggregates, fine aggregates and the filler materials were proportioned and mixed specified gradation of mineral aggregates and bitumen binder as per IRG.29-1968 [14].The aggregates and filler was mixed together in the desired proportion as per the design requirements and fulfilling the specified gradation. The required quantity of the mix was taken so as to produce a compacted bituminous mix specimen of thickness 63.5mm approximately. Approximately 1100g of aggregates and filler was taken and heated to a temperature of 170°C to 190°C. The compaction mould assembly and rammer was cleaned and kept pre-heated to a temperature of 100°C to 145°C. The bitumen was heated to a temperature of 121°C to 138°C and the required quantity of first trial % of bitumen say, 5% by weight of mineral aggregate was added to the heated aggregate and thoroughly mixed using a mechanical mixer. The mixing temperature for 80/100 grade bitumen was around 154C. The mix was placed in a mould and compacted by rammer, with 50 blows on either side (Figure 1). The compacting temperature was about 138°C. The compacted specimen thickness was 63.5mm. The weight of aggregate was taken may be suitably altered to obtain a thickness of 63.5±3.0mm. Three specimens were prepared at each trail bitumen content which may be varied at 0.5% increments up to about 4.0 to 6.0 percent [11]. Marshall Stability test was performed under loading range 10N to maximum 40KN (Figure 2).



Figure 1 : Photographic views of pedestal hammer and mould used in preparing Marshall Test Specimen



Figure 2 : Photographic view of Marshall Stability Testing

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

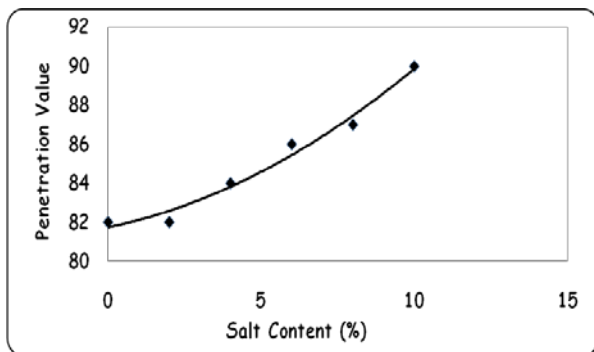


Figure 3 : Variation of penetration value with respect to salt content

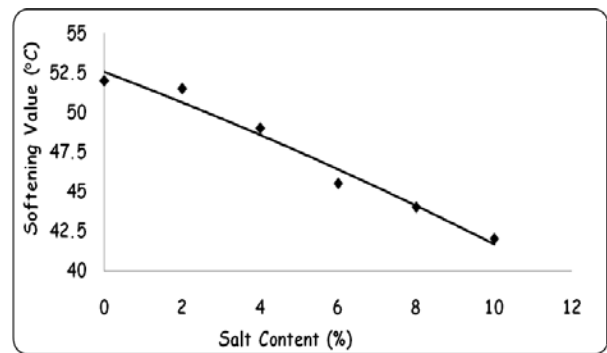


Figure 4 : Variation of softening value with respect to salt content

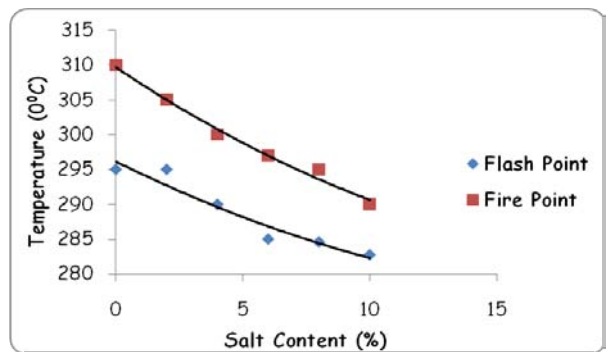


Figure 5 : Variation of flush and fire point value with respect to salt content

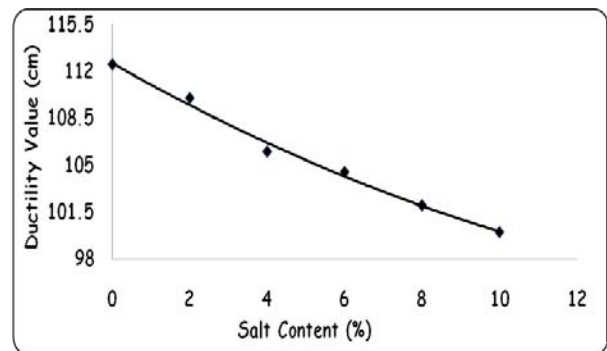


Figure 6 : Variation of ductility value with respect to salt content

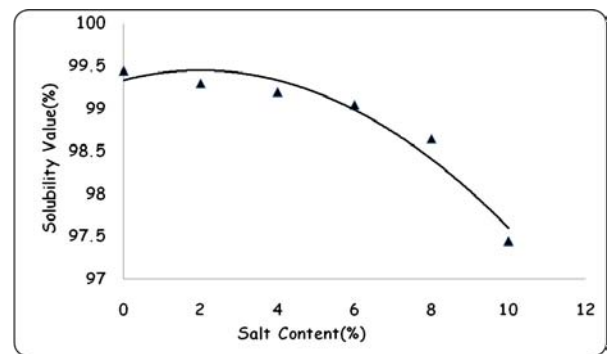


Figure 7 : Variation of solubility value with respect to salt content

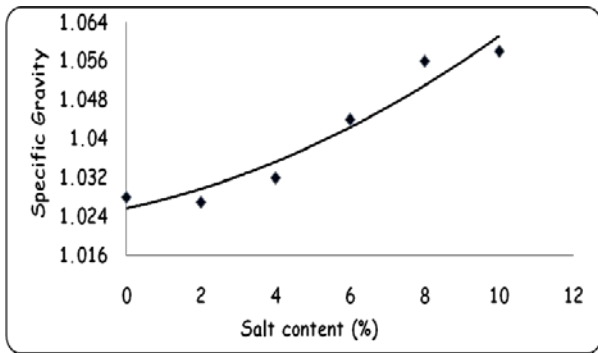


Figure 8 : Variation of Specific Gravity with respect to Salt Content

Figure3 indicates that the penetration value was increased after mixing of Salt content. Generally the penetration value of bitumen used for road construction in Bangladesh varies from 80 to 100. In warmer region lower penetration grades are preferred and in colder regions bitumen with higher penetration values are used [10]. So, bitumen with higher content of sodium chloride is suitable for colder region. Figure 4 shows that the variation of softening point with respect to salt content. The softening point of bitumen was decreased gradually with increasing the percentage of salt content. Limiting value of softening point of bitumen varies from 45oC to 50oC [10]. Bitumen with lower softening value may be preferred in colder regions. Another vital point on the test was flash point and fire point. It was seen from Figure 5 that fire point and flash point of bitumen was decreased. For lower flash point and fire point the worker has to be careful while heating the bitumen. A certain minimum ductility value is necessary for a bitumen binder. This is because the temperature changes in the bituminous mixes and the repeated deformation that occurs in flexible pavements due to traffic loads [10]. Bitumen with lower ductility value may cause crack especially in cold weather. The ductility value may vary from 15 to 100+, generally greater than 95. Figure6 shows that ductility value of bitumen was decreased with increasing the percentage of Salt content. Generally bitumen should be soluble in carbon disulfide (CS₂) at least 99.5% [10]. But Figure7 shows that solubility value was decreased with the increase in Salt content. Figure8 indicates that specific gravity of bitumen was increased gradually with increase percentage of Salt content. This is due to the higher value of specific gravity of salt. Specific gravity of fresh bitumen varies from 1.022 to 1.06 [10].

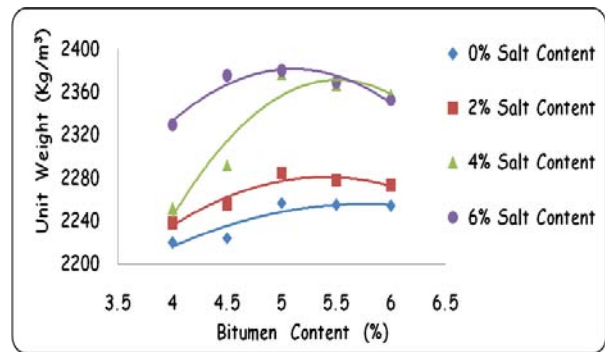


Figure 9 : Variation of unit weight with respect to modified bitumen content in percent

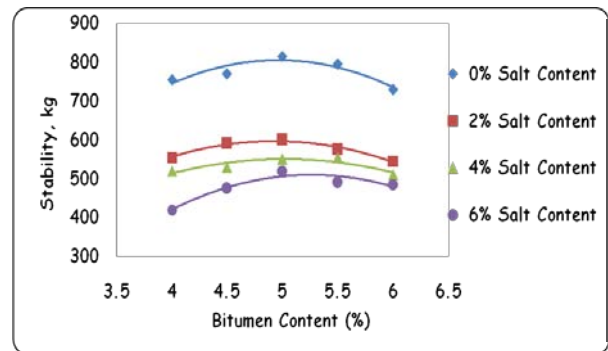


Figure 10 : Variation of stability value with respect to modified bitumen content in percent

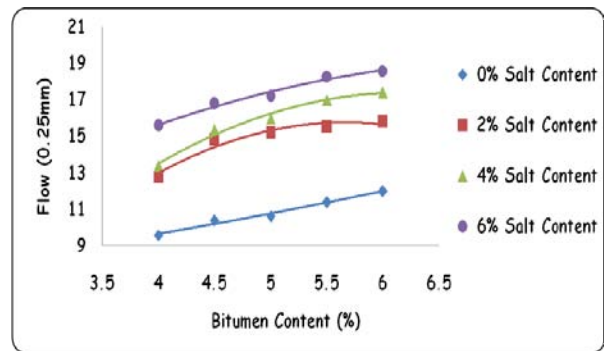


Figure 11 : Variation of flow (0.25mm) value with respect to modified bitumen content in percent

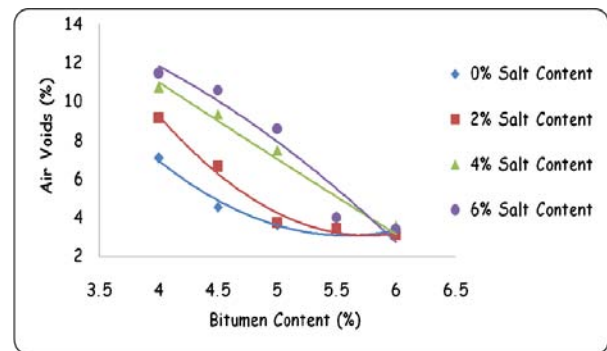


Figure 12 : Variation of percent air voids with respect to modified bitumen content in percent

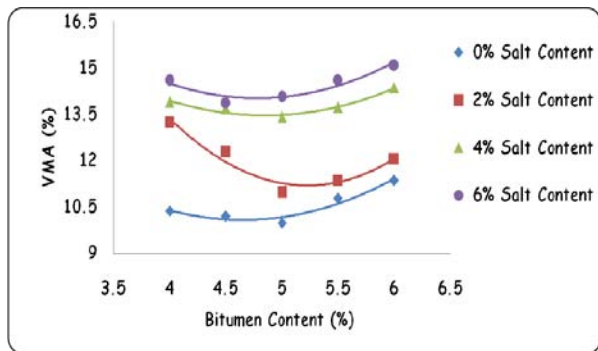


Figure 13 : Variation of % VMA with respect to modified bitumen content in percent

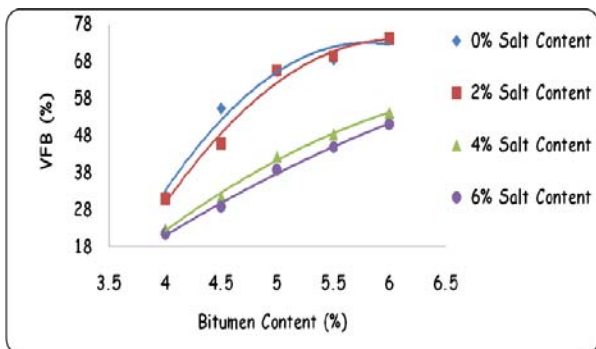


Figure 14 : Variation of % VFB with respect to modified bitumen content in percent

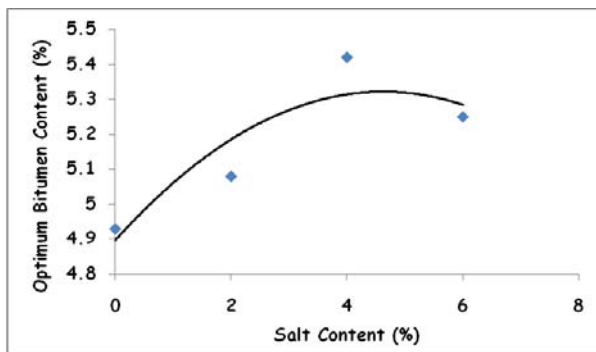


Figure 15 : Variation of optimum bitumen content at different percentage of salt content

From figure9, initially salt content in bitumen was less and voids in bituminous mix were filled with low dense particle. When salt percent in bitumen was increased then density also gradually increased reached a maximum value and after then it was goes downward because the aggregate particles was replaced with bitumen and hence density as well as unit weight was decreased. From figure10, initially percentage of salt content in bitumen was less and hence interlocking property remains good and stability was gradually increased reached a maximum value. Due to increment of salt content in bitumen the friction between bitumen and aggregate was less and aggregate try to be slide and hence stability was decreased. Deformation for max

load is called flow value (figure11). Initially percent of salt content in bitumen was less as a result bonding between aggregate and bitumen is good, so flow value was also less. When salt content was increased gradually bond goes to weak due to friction between them and deformation was increased and flow value also increased. Percent Va means the air voids in compacted mix (figure12). Initially salt content in bitumen was less hence the maximum voids filled with air so %Va was high. When salt content was increased with bitumen then maximum voids filled with bitumen and less by air hence curve was gone downward. %VMA means volume occupied by the air and bitumen in compacted mix (figure13). Initially salt content in bitumen was less so maximum voids filled with air but total quantity was high. Due to the increase of salt content with bitumen voids filled with air and bitumen was equal hence curves gone to lowest point. Further increase of bitumen maximum voids filled with bitumen but lee by air then total quantity was high so %VMA again rises. The percentage of bitumen occupied the voids in VMA is called VFB (figure14). Initially salt content with bitumen was less hence %VFB also less and gradually increase the bitumen content and %VFB also increase. The optimum bitumen content was determined from figures of Marshall Test properties curves by taking the average of three bitumen contents at maximum unit weight, at maximum stability and at 4 percent (median of 3-5 percent range) air voids in total mix. From figure15 it was observed that the optimum bitumen content increases with the increase of salt content and was found maximum at 4% salt content in bituminous mix.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Sodium chloride was played an important role in enhancement of the different properties of bitumen and bituminous mix design, as it is clear from test results and discussions. On the basis of the test results and subsequent discussions, it was concluded that the penetration value and specific gravity increases and softening point, flush & fire point, solubility and ductility of bitumen decreases with increasing salt in pure bitumen which indicated that the adhesion and cohesion properties of bitumen were reduced with increasing the percentage of salt in bitumen. The optimum bitumen content was also increased with increment of percentage of salt content and was found higher at 4% salt content. From Marshall Test, regarding the consideration of stability and durability of flexible pavement, maximum 2% salt in pure bitumen could be allowed for road construction.

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Effect of Size on Compressive Strength of Concrete Cylinder Specimens using Sand and Sulfur Cap

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Abstract- In the majority of structural concrete design, the compressive strength is obtained from testing of 150x300 mm concrete cylinders under standard laboratory controlled conditions with different capping system. Some testing machines are unable to produce the force needed to break high-strength 150x300 mm concrete cylinders. If 100x200 mm cylinders are to be used in quality assurance testing, the relationship between f_{c4} and f_{c6} needs to be understood in order to ensure that concrete with sufficient strength is provided. 100x200 mm cylinders are lighter and can easily be handled, collection of quality control and assurance specimens would be easier for contractors and inspectors. This research work was born from the need to determine a correlation between the strength of the standard size 150x300 mm and 100x200 mm cylindrical specimen. A total 72 no. of 100x200 mm and 150x300 mm cylinders were tested according to ASTM. Cylinders prepared by sand and sulfur capping reveals a little difference in the strength level, 150x300 mm and 100x200 mm sulfur capped cylinders shows 23% and 21% higher strength than sand capped cylinders and 100x200 mm cylinder gives 39% higher strength than 150x300 mm cylinder.

Index Terms: size, compressive strength, sand cap, sulfur cap.

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Effect of Size on Compressive Strength of Concrete Cylinder Specimens using Sand and Sulfur Cap

A. Chowdhury^α, A. S. M. Z. Hasan^σ, M. Z. Alam^ρ & A. A. Masum^ω

Abstract- In the majority of structural concrete design, the compressive strength is obtained from testing of 150x300 mm concrete cylinders under standard laboratory controlled conditions with different capping system. Some testing machines are unable to produce the force needed to break high-strength 150x300 mm concrete cylinders. If 100x200 mm cylinders are to be used in quality assurance testing, the relationship between f_{c4} and f_{c6} needs to be understood in order to ensure that concrete with sufficient strength is provided. 100x200 mm cylinders are lighter and can easily be handled, collection of quality control and assurance specimens would be easier for contractors and inspectors. This research work was born from the need to determine a correlation between the strength of the standard size 150x300 mm and 100x200 mm cylindrical specimen. A total 72 no. of 100x200 mm and 150x300 mm cylinders were tested according to ASTM. Cylinders prepared by sand and sulfur capping reveals a little difference in the strength level, 150x300 mm and 100x200 mm sulfur capped cylinders shows 23% and 21% higher strength than sand capped cylinders and 100x200 mm cylinder gives 39% higher strength than 150x300 mm cylinder.

Index Terms: size, compressive strength, sand cap, sulfur cap.

I. INTRODUCTION

Concrete is a versatile material with tremendous applications in civil engineering construction. Here test of compressive strength of concrete cylinder is done by two methods. One is sulfur capping method and another method is sand capping. Thus, capping at the end of concrete cylinder should satisfy the specific standards set forth in American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM) in order to obtain accurate test results for the compressive strength of concrete. Sand-capping method, which is introduced in this study, uses a simpler device compared to other complicated sand-box system. It is to be shown that this new capping system is not only more economical in terms of the test time and process but more reliable in the test results than any other unbounded methods. These results are verified by the average compressive strength of concrete as compared to sand capping methods pursuant to ASTM C1231. The new trend of using high-strength concrete in construction has caused a need for

100 x 200 mm cylinders for assurance testing. Some testing machines are not able to produce the force needed to break high-strength 150 x 300 mm. concrete cylinders. As laboratories and testing agencies are very often equipped with testing machines having full load capacities no greater than 300,000 lb, the maximum compressive strength of concrete that can be tested on 150 x 300 mm. specimens is just over 10,000 psi when operating at full load, which is not safe on a routine basis [2]. The required force to break a 100 x 200 mm cylinder is 44% of that required to break a 150 x 300 mm cylinder of the same strength solely based on a ratio of the two circular cross-sectional areas [3]. This would allow machines that could not break 150 x 300 mm cylinders with strengths over 10,000 psi to break 100 x 200 mm cylinders with strengths in excess of 20,000 psi. A 100 x 200 mm cylinder weighs about 9 lb compared to a 150 x 300 mm. cylinder, which weighs about 30 lb, almost three times as much. This might suggest that because 100 x 200 mm cylinders are lighter and can easily be handled, collection and storage of quality control and assurance specimens would be easier for contractors and inspectors. One aspect of concern when using 100 x 200 mm cylinders is the size of maximum coarse aggregate used in concrete. Mixes containing a nominal maximum coarse aggregate size of 1.5 inches, or greater in some instances, are used in today's concrete industry. AASHTO T 126 states that, "the size of a cylinder mold shall not be smaller than 3 times the nominal maximum coarse aggregate size." This limits 100 x 200 mm cylinders to having a 1-inch nominal Maximum coarse aggregate size. Also there is no standard aggregate size between 1 inch and 1.5inches, leaving a #57 coarse aggregate the largest possible gradation for a 100 x 200 mm cylinder. The obvious advantages of using smaller specimens are: a) ease in handling and transportation; b) smaller required storage space; c) lower capacity required of testing machines; and d) the economic advantages of reduced costs for molds, capping materials, and concrete [3].

$$f_{csul} = k_s \times f_{csand} \quad (1)$$

$$f_{c4} = k_{si} \times f_{c6} \quad (2)$$

where,

f_{csul} = Compressive strength of a sulfur capped cylinder,

f_{csand} = Compressive strength of a sand capped cylinder,

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k_s = The strength conversion factor, correlating the sulfur and sand capped cylinder strength,
 f_{c4} = Compressive strength of a 100 x 200 mm cylinder,
 f_{c6} = Compressive strength of a 150 x 300 mm. cylinder,
 k_{st} = The strength conversion factor, correlating the 100 x200 mm cylinder to the 150 x 300 mm cylinder strength.

II. EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM

a) Mix Design Procedure

The use of locally available materials from different sources was emphasized in this work. Scan cement (Portland composite cement) and locally available brick chips were used for coarse aggregates. The mix proportion was 1:2:4 with a water-cement ratio of 0.4 [5]. At first sand and brick chips were screened by the sieve according to AASHTO T 22. Concrete constructions (Sand, Brick chips) were measured to dry separately by weight according to required proportions. The Brick chips were soaked thoroughly 24 hours and then made them surface dry saturated before use. Sand and cement were mix to dry on a clean platform until the mix was uniform. The coarse aggregate then added to mix of cement and sand admixture and the whole were mixed thoroughly. The moulds were lubricated by lubricating oil, before placing concrete in the mould.

b) Casting and Curing

All specimens were made and cured according to ASTM C192. All 150 x 300 mm cylinders were tamping with a rod for 25 times per layer for three layers of equal height and for 100 x 200 mm cylinders 25 times per layer for two layers of equal height. After strike-off, all specimens were moved from mixing room to curing room. The 36 cylinders were cured for 7 days and rest 36 cylinders for 28 days. All the specimens were carefully cured by immersing in clean water on the water bath of the laboratory.

c) Capping Material and Method

Two kind of capping methods were used to compare the compressive strength of each specimen in this study. Sulfur and locally available white natural silica sand were used for capping the cylinder specimens. Molten sulfur compound capping was formed by a vertical capping apparatus as specified in ASTM C617. In sand capping method as suggested in this project the sand was placed at top of cylinder as simple capping devices. All of the dry fine sand was passed through NO.20 sieve for its use as a sand capping material.

d) Testing

In testing program the specimens were maintained in a moist condition up to the time of compression testing. Compression test are made as soon as practicable after removal from moist storage.

The specimens were tetsed in this cured moist condition. Applying load was 13.8 N/cm² to 34.5N/cm² and maintained the rate once adjusted until failure according to ASTM C 39.

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

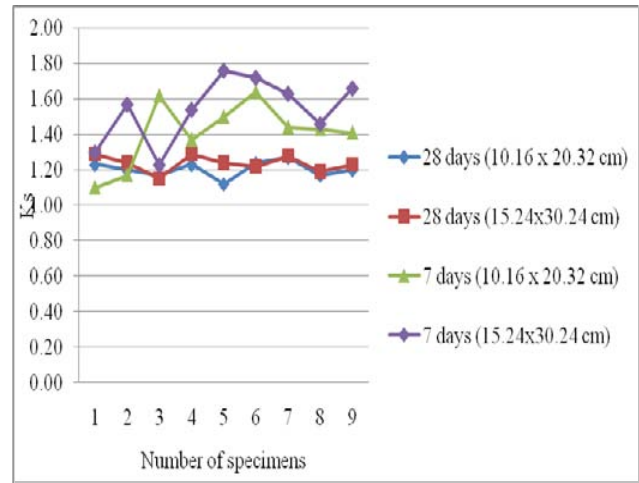


Figure 1 : Comparison of Ks with all ages

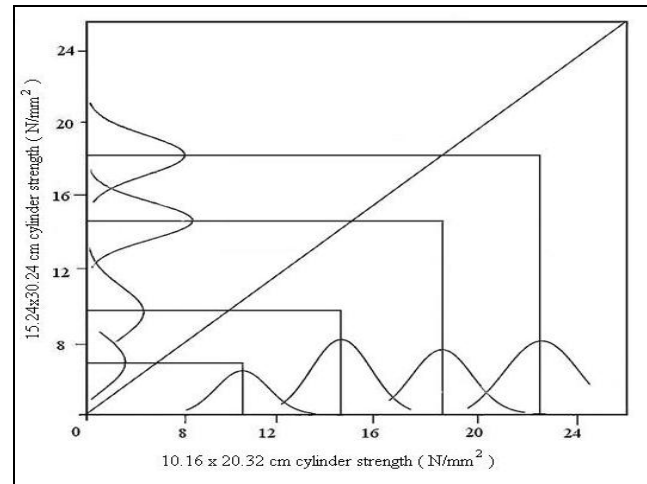


Figure 2 : Normal distributions of test results

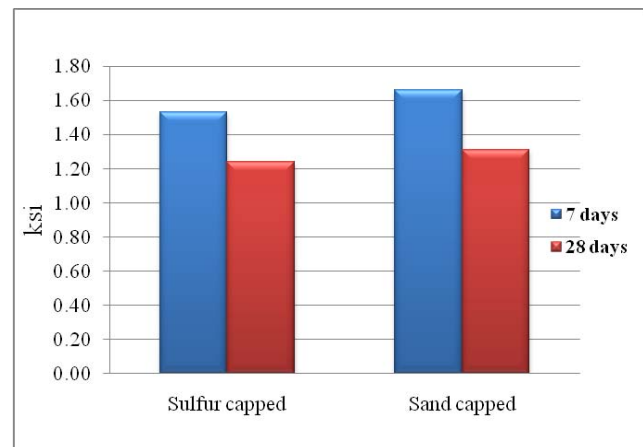


Figure 3 : Strength conversion factor Ksi

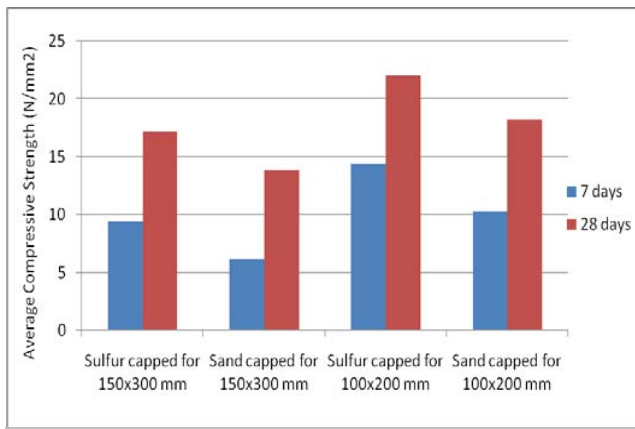


Figure 4 : Average Compressive Strength (N/mm²)

From the test results by using individual frequency distribution the standard deviation of Sand capping vs. sulfur capping for 7 days and 28 days were calculated and analyzed in the Table 2 and Table 3. From figure 1, the value of ks is more consistent for 28 days of 150 x 300 mm cylinders and it also gives more consistence results then the 100 x 200 mm cylinders. Figure 2 shows the normal distributions for the two types of cylinders. For 100 x 200 mm cylinder normal distributions was plotted on the horizontal axis and for 150 x 300 mm cylinder on the vertical axis. Lines representing the mean of each distribution extend outward until they intersect with the mean line of the opposite cylinder size for the same strength range. This was done to plot the intersections of the means of each distribution against a 450 line of equality. It was seen that the mean compressive strengths for each strength range increased with age. The intersection of the means is an indicator of the magnitude of ksi. If the intersection is below the line of equality, then the strength is in favor of the 100 x 200 mm cylinders and ksi is greater than 1.0. If the intersection is on the line of equality, then the strengths are equal and ksi is equal to 1.0. If the intersection is above the line of equality, then the strength is in favor of the 150 x 300 mm. cylinders and ksi is less than 1.0. From figure 2, ksi is greater than 1 for each type cases. Figure 3 represent the strength conversion factor ksi which is the ratio of 100 x 200 mm to the 150 x 300 mm concrete cylinders. From the test results the sulfur capped specimen's was given higher strength for 28 days and in average the compressive strength of 100 x 200 mm cylinder is 39% to 48% higher than 150 x 300 mm cylinders.

IV. VERIFICATION OF TEST RESULT

The test results from figure 4 were sampled to investigate the average compressive strength of the test cylinders except underrated (outlier) data to excessive cap-thickness, imperfect capping or failure caused by electric loading. The statistical confidence level of 95% was set so that the results are to be statistically acceptable at $\alpha=0.050$. The average compressive

strength obtained by bonded capping should not be less than 98% of that obtained by unbonded capping methods. The calculation process for verifying the unbonded capping system involved the following. For every strength group, the difference in strength of cylinders (sulfur capped vs. sand capped cylinders) was computed. Next, it was verified that the average strengths of the two kinds of bonded capping cylinders were over 98% of those unbonded capping cylinders.

$$d_i = X_{sulfur\ i} - X_{sand\ i}$$

$$X_{sulfur} = (X_{s1} + X_{s2} + X_{s3} + X_{s4} + \dots + X_{sn})/n$$

$$X_{sand} = (X_{s1} + X_{s2} + X_{s3} + X_{s4} + \dots + X_{sn})/n$$

where,

- d_i = Difference in strength of cylinders
- $X_{sulfur\ i}$ = Cylinder strength using sulfur capping
- $X_{sand\ i}$ = Cylinder strength using unbonded capping
- n = Number of combination of cylinder
- X_{sulfur} = Average strength of sulfur capped cylinders.
- X_{sand} = Average strength of sand capped cylinders
- Average difference, $d = (d_1 + d_2 + d_3 + \dots + d_4)/n$
- Standard deviation, $S_d = [\sum(d_i-d)^2/(n-1)]^{1/2}$

In order to comply the practice for ASTM C 617^[11], the following relationship must be satisfied,

$$X_{sulfur} \geq 0.98 X_{sand} + (t.S_d)/(n)^{1/2} \text{ for 7 days}$$

$$X_{sulfur} \geq 0.98 X_{sand} + (t.S_d)/(n)^{1/2} \text{ for 28 days}$$

Where, t is the value of 'student's t -test for $(n-1)$ pairs at significant level of $\alpha=0.050$ as shown in the Table 1.

Use linear interpolation for other values of $(n-1)$ or refer to appropriate statistical tables. The calculation process and results was shown in table below for the verification of test results. All the compressive strength of cylinders by bonded capping methods exhibit greater than 98% of the reference values of all specimens.

Table 1 : The value of t

(n-1)	t ($\alpha=.050$)
9	1.83
14	1.76
19	1.72
100	1.66

Table 2 : Statistical analyses of test results for 150 x 300 mm cylinders

Capping types	Calculation (N/mm ²)	Values
Sand capping vs. sulfur capping For 7 days	(1) X_{sulfur}	9.41
	X_{sand}	6.18
	d	3.25
	S_d	0.83
	(2) $0.98X_{sand} + (t S_d)/(n)^{1/2}$	6.4
	System qualifies (1) > (2)	ok

Sand capping vs. sulfur capping For 28 days	$(1) X_{\text{sulfur}}$	17.17
	X_{sand}	13.89
	d	3.3
	S_d	0.55
	$(2)0.98X_{\text{sand}} + (t S_d)/(n)^{1/2}$	13.84
	System qualifies (1) > (2)	ok
n=18,t=1.7418		

Table 3 : Statistical analyses of test results for 100 x 200 mm cylinders

Capping types	Calculation (N/mm ²)	Values
Sand capping vs. sulfur capping For 7 days	$(1) X_{\text{sulfur}}$	14.4
	X_{sand}	10.28
	D	4.12
	S_d	1.63
	$(2)0.98X_{\text{sand}} + (t S_d)/(n)^{1/2}$	10.74
	System qualifies (1) > (2)	ok
Sand capping vs. sulfur capping For 28 days	$(1) X_{\text{sulfur}}$	22.01
	X_{sand}	18.24
	D	3.77
	S_d	0.78
	$(2)0.98X_{\text{sand}} + (t S_d)/(n)^{1/2}$	18.12
	System qualifies (1) > (2)	ok
n=18,t=1.7418		

V. CONCLUSIONS

Strength of concrete cylinder was obviously affected by capping method. Strength variation due to various methods exhibited a different tendency for normal and high strength level. The standard deviation of sand capped was less than sulfur capped cylinders. The comparison of compressive strength of cylinders prepared by sand capping and sulfur capping reveals a little difference in the strength level. In the 150 x 300 mm sulfur capped cylinders the difference in strength was 19% higher than those prepared by sand capping for 28 days and 34% higher than those prepared by sand capping for 7 days, and for 100 x 200 mm cylinders these values were 17% and 29% higher respectively. The 100 x 200 mm cylinder was given 38% to 48% higher strength than 150 x 300 mm cylinder. It was found that each strength range had its own range of ksi values and that ksi decreased with increasing compressive strength ranges.

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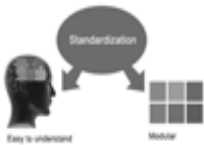
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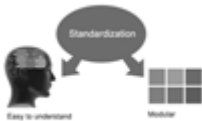
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<i>References</i>	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring



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