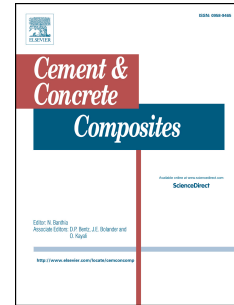


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1 **Influence of steam curing on the pore structures and mechanical**
2 **properties of fly-ash High Performance Concrete prepared with**
3 **recycled aggregates**

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 In this research work, High Performance Concrete (HPC) was produced employing 30% of fly ash and
15 70% of Portland cement as binder materials. Three types of coarse recycled concrete aggregates (RCA)
16 sourced from medium to high strength concretes were employed as 100% replacement of natural
17 aggregates for recycled aggregate concrete (RAC) production. The specimens of four types of concretes
18 (natural aggregate concrete (NAC) and three RACs) were subjected to initial steam curing besides the
19 conventional curing process. The use of high quality RCA (>100MPa) in HPC produced RAC with
20 similar or improved pore structures, compressive and splitting tensile strengths, and modulus of elasticity
21 to those of NAC. It was determined that the mechanical and physical behaviour of HPC decreased with
22 the reduction of RCA quality. Nonetheless steam-cured RACs had greater reductions of porosity up to 90
23 days than NAC, which led to lower capillary pore volume.

24

25 **1. INTRODUCTION**

26 Construction and demolition waste (C&DW) is one of the most voluminous and heaviest waste streams
27 generated in the European Union. C&DW accounts for approximately 33% of all waste generated in the
28 EU [1] and it consists of several materials, including concrete, bricks, gypsum or metals, many of which
29 can be recycled. European Union countries encourage reusing and recycling in construction by publishing
30 C&DW recycling targets. According to the Waste framework Directive 2008/98/EC [2], the minimum
31 recycling percentage of C&DW by the year 2020 should be at least 70% by weight. In spite of the
32 variability on recycled aggregate properties, proper treatment and categorization of the C&DW allow
33 recycled aggregates to be more efficiently employed [3].

34 Over the past twenty years, many studies concerning the effects of using recycled coarse aggregates as a
35 replacement of natural aggregates in concrete have been published [3–8]. Generally, recycled aggregates
36 have higher porosity, water absorption capacity and contaminant content and also lower density and
37 abrasion or impact resistance than natural aggregates. The use of RCA for the production of low and
38 medium strength concretes (up to 50-60 MPa according to ACI [9] and BS EN 206-1) decreases the
39 compressive strength and modulus of elasticity of the concrete. Recycled aggregate concretes show
40 increased shrinkage, creep and water sorptivity in comparison with those of natural aggregate concrete
41 (NAC). Nevertheless, the use of appropriate mix design methods with the addition of mineral admixtures
42 can mitigate the negative influence of recycled aggregates [10,11].

43 But relatively few investigations [11–18] have been published about using recycled aggregates for High
44 Performance Concrete (HPC) production. Some studies [11,14,18] revealed that the quality of the parent
45 concrete, from which source the recycled aggregates are derived, is a crucial factor affecting the
46 properties of the resulting HPC produced. It has been reported that the use of RCA, sourced from
47 crushing original HPC, for the production of new HPC can improve mechanical and durability properties
48 even at high replacing ratios [14]. Limbachiya [13] concluded that only 30% of coarse RCA could be
49 used to produce HPC. Tu et al. [16] and Pacheco-Torgal et al. [17] affirmed that recycled aggregates were
50 not suitable for high strength concrete applications due to compressive strength reduction and poorer
51 long-term durability.

52 Fly ash represents a beneficial mineral admixture, especially when incorporated in Recycled Aggregate
53 Concrete (RAC). Certain studies [14,19,20] have reported three possible mechanisms which could cause
54 an enhancement in the RAC 's behaviour: part of the mineral admixtures penetrates into the RCA's pores

55 causing a subsequently improvement in the interfacial transition zone (ITZ) bonding between the paste
56 and the aggregates; the cracks originally present in the aggregates being filled by hydration products;
57 RCA would have a residual binding ability which could be activated by using Fly-Ash (FA).

58 The use of fly ash has been widely accepted in recent years and its influence on many properties of
59 concrete in both fresh and hardened states have been studied [21–24]. Equally, fly ash ensures economic
60 benefits through saving cement, environmental benefits by using industrial wastes, and technical
61 improvements because of the higher concrete durability [22]. Certain authors [21,24] attempted to
62 produce concrete with high volumes of fly ash, but the most common replacement ratios used in low
63 water/binder ratio concretes are 25-30% [25,26]. On the whole, the long term mechanical and durability
64 properties of fly ash concretes are higher than those of ordinary Portland cement concretes. However, the
65 extended hydration period required for fly ash concrete intensifies dependence on curing conditions.
66 Moreover, for fly ash concrete, at early ages, the heat generation is reduced but the setting and hardening
67 time are increased.

68 Steam curing at ambient pressure is the most common technique among the accelerated curing methods of
69 concrete. In applications, such as pre-cast concretes and pre-stressed reinforced concretes, which require
70 high mechanical performances at very early ages, the steam curing enables concretes which normally
71 have slower strength gain, such as fly ash concretes, to achieve faster strength gain at the required levels
72 [21]. A typical steam curing cycle consists of a pre-curing treatment of up to 4 hours and a heating and
73 cooling rate of 10-45°C/h. The maximum temperature reached in steam curing is usually limited to
74 $60\pm 5^{\circ}\text{C}$ and this temperature is kept constant at the maximum value for 6-18h [21–23,26,27].

75 When concrete is subjected to steam curing, the hydration of cement proceeds quickly, the speed of CSH
76 gel formation also increases and the gel wraps round the cement or fly ash particles [22]. The acceleration
77 of compressive strength gain eases the production of pre-cast and pre-stressed concrete elements in the
78 pre-casting plants. The required early compressive strength for formworks demolding and bar stress
79 transmission is in general at more than 30 and 50 MPa respectively [27,28]. Nevertheless, heat and
80 moisture treatment of the concrete also increases the proportion of large pores in the cement paste [29].
81 Inadequate steam curing regimes can lead to detrimental changes in porosity and pore size distribution of
82 concrete which can significantly reduce mechanical and durability properties, especially over the long
83 term [26].

84 The total pore volume, pore size distribution and pore interconnection are the main properties influencing
85 the mechanical and durability behaviour of concretes. Several investigations [30,31] have inferred that the
86 mechanical properties and permeability of concrete are principally dependent on the meso and
87 macrocapillary pores. Porous structures in cementitious materials have been widely investigated by using
88 the Mercury Intrusion Porosimetry (MIP) technique [26,32–34]. Nevertheless, this technique has been
89 criticized due to the fact that the pore structures characterized by the MIP method are based on improper
90 assumptions. These assumptions on pore connectivity and pore dimensions can produce differences in the
91 measured MIP values to those of the real pore network [34]. Besides these limitations, MIP is still
92 considered as an appropriate technique used to compare the pore structures of cementitious systems.

93 This paper details research on the influence of initial steam curing on the pore structures and mechanical
94 properties (compressive strength, splitting tensile strength and modulus of elasticity) of Portland-Fly Ash
95 HPCs containing recycled concrete aggregates. Three different qualities of original concretes (40, 60 and
96 100MPa of characteristic compressive strength) were crushed to obtain coarse recycled aggregates which
97 were used to replace 100% of the natural coarse aggregates. After concrete casting, the specimens of each
98 type of concrete were exposed for the first 24 hours to two different initial curing regimes, air curing and
99 steam curing, in order to assess the influence of steam curing on the pore structures and the mechanical
100 behaviour.

101

102 2. EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

103 2.1. Materials

104 2.1.1. Binders and admixture

105 The cement used was a commercially available Portland cement (CEM I 52.5R) equivalent to ASTM
106 Type I cement. The Portland cement had a Blaine's specific surface of $495 \text{ m}^2/\text{kg}$ and a density of 3150
107 kg/m^3 . A rapid-hardening Portland cement was used in order to achieve concretes of 1-day compressive
108 strength which were higher than 50 MPa, thus meeting the requirements for precast and prestressed
109 concrete [27,28]. The FA used had a specific surface of $336 \text{ m}^2/\text{kg}$ and a density of $2320 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^3$, was
110 equivalent to ASTM class F. The chemical compositions of the Portland cement and the FA are given in
111 Table 1.

112 A high performance superplasticizer based on polycarboxylate ether (PCE) with a specific gravity of 1.08
113 was used for concrete production. The dosage used was at a constant percentage of binder weight (1.5%)
114 following the manufacturer's recommendations.

115 **2.1.2. Aggregates**

116 Two types of 4-10 mm coarse natural aggregates (rounded siliceous and crushed dolomitic) and two
117 siliceous river sands (size fractions of 0-2 mm and 0-4 mm) were used for the production of the natural
118 aggregate concrete (NAC). The natural aggregates were those used in previous research [18] and selected
119 for being those used in HPC to produce commercially-available prestressed concrete elements from a
120 Spanish factory.

121 The recycled aggregates, RCA100, RCA60 and RCA40, which were used in complete replacement by
122 volume of the natural coarse aggregates, were obtained from crushing three parent concretes of different
123 qualities (of 100, 60 and 40MPa of characteristic compressive strength). The three recycled aggregates
124 mentioned were employed in a previous research [18] with maximum sizes of 10 mm. The RCA100 were
125 sourced from rejected 100 MPa compressive strength concrete specimens obtained from the same Spanish
126 prestressed concrete manufacturer. The parent concrete used to produce RCA100 was the same as the
127 NAC of this study. The 60 MPa parent concrete was especially produced in the laboratory to achieve 60
128 MPa at 28 days, after which it was crushed for RCA60 production and stored for a minimum of 180 days
129 before using in concrete fabrication. The RCA40 were sourced from crushing 3-year old precast beams
130 with a compressive strength of 40MPa at 28 days. The parent concretes of 60 MPa and 40 MPa were
131 composed of crushed fine (0-4 mm) and coarse limestone aggregates (4-10 mm and 10-20 mm) and
132 Ordinary Portland cement (CEM I 42.5, type I according to ASTM specifications).

133 The particle size distributions are shown in Fig. 1 and their physical properties are shown in Table 2. The
134 natural aggregate had better physical properties than those of the recycled concrete aggregates.
135 Nonetheless, the physical and mechanical properties of the RCA improve as the original concrete quality
136 increases.

137 According to Jennings [31], pore structure is the most important feature which may act as flaws in cement
138 based materials. The porosity of recycled aggregates was determined by Mercury Intrusion Porosimetry
139 (MIP) using a 'Micromeritics Poresizer 9320' in samples taken from the RCAs of approximately a total

140 weight of 5.5 g. Each mean value was calculated from testing three RCA samples and each sample was
141 composed by three \emptyset 1 cm RCA particles. The pore size diameter can be divided into four pore size
142 ranges, following Mindess [35] classification; $>10\mu\text{m}$ (air), $10\text{-}0.05\ \mu\text{m}$ (macropores), $0.05\text{-}0.01\mu\text{m}$
143 (mesopores) and $<0.01\mu\text{m}$ (micropores). As can be seen in Fig. 2, some differences in the range of 0.01 to
144 $10\ \mu\text{m}$ were found, RCA-60 showed the lowest percentage of pore volumes in the range of $0.05\text{-}10\ \mu\text{m}$,
145 while RCA-100 contained the lowest percentage of pore volumes of smaller than $0.05\ \mu\text{m}$. RCA-40
146 showed significantly higher pore volumes than those RCA-100 and RCA-60 at all the pore size ranges.
147 The total porosity results from the MIP of the RCA100, 60 and 40 were 4.88, 5.73 and 8.63%
148 respectively (see Table 2). The detailing of the standard deviations were 0.31, 0.25 and 0.40%. The
149 reduction on the quality of the parent concrete led to higher total porosity of the RCAs.

150 **2.2. Concrete mixtures**

151 All concrete mixtures were prepared and produced in the laboratory. The NAC proportioning was
152 provided by a Spanish HPC manufacturer and followed the Fuller's dosage method [36]. Following
153 previous research [12,18], the three types of recycled coarse aggregate were used to substitute (by
154 volume) 100% of the natural aggregates in each RAC series (RAC were referenced as 100, 60 and 40,
155 according to the strength of the parent concrete). The concrete proportioning parabola correctly fitted the
156 Gessner parabola provided by the Fuller's method in both cases, when using NA and RCA.

157 The moisture content of the fine and coarse aggregates was reproduced following the moisture conditions
158 defined in previous studies [12,18]. The fine aggregates were over-saturated (3-4% of moisture content).
159 In order to control the concrete production, the recycled coarse aggregates were nearly saturated, at 80-90
160 % of their water absorption capacity. In general the higher water absorption of the RCAs reduces the
161 workability of the concrete mixtures, however in this case the moisture content in the RCAs neutralized
162 such effect. In addition, the high moisture states enabled higher control on the reacting water with the
163 binder and avoided problems derived from water on the RCAs surface or bleeding [37].

164 As shown in Table 3, 380 kg of binder (266 kg of cement and 114 kg of fly ash) and a constant effective
165 water - binder ratio of 0.285 were used in all concrete productions (considering as being effective water
166 that water which reacted with the binder). The volume of mixing water was determined before concrete
167 production, in order to maintain constant the water amount reacting with the binders (effective water).
168 The volume of mixing water was compose of the effective water and the water absorbed by the

169 aggregates at concrete production (effective absorption capacity). The effective absorption capacity of
170 aggregates was determined by submerging the aggregates in water for 20 minutes.

171 The total water amount of the concrete was considered as the total amount of effective water, effective
172 absorption capacity of aggregates and moisture water (water inside the aggregates) [38]. The total water
173 amount in the RAC studied was found to be higher as a result of its higher absorption capacity which
174 initially provided the same cement paste conditions to NAC and RAC.

175 The amount of chemical admixture added was kept constant at 1.5% of the cement weight in all concrete
176 mixtures. The mix proportioning and the admixture amount produced dry consistencies of fresh concrete,
177 between 0-20 mm in the concrete slump test (S1 class following the EN 206-1:2000 standard).

178 **2.3. Specimens casting and curing**

179 For each concrete mixture, 100 mm cubic specimens were used to determine the compressive strength at
180 the age of 1, 28 and 90 days and 200 x Ø100 mm cylindrical specimens were used for the splitting tensile
181 strength and the modulus of elasticity tested at 28 days. Samples extracted from 100mm concrete cubic
182 specimens were used for the Mercury Intrusion Porosimetry (MIP) test. The specimens were compacted
183 using a vibrating table during two stages of 30 seconds each.

184 The concrete specimens were divided into two series, air-cured (AC) and steam-cured (SC). The air-cured
185 specimens were stored in the laboratory at ambient conditions for 24 hours. A wet burlap and a plastic
186 sheet being used to cover the specimens to ensure a reduction in water evaporation. The other concrete
187 series was cured in a steam bath 4 hrs after casting (without demolding). Both the steam curing
188 temperature and its duration have important effects on the progress of the hydration reaction and product
189 formation [38]. The steam curing cycle used, which followed the method of Poon and Kou [39] and
190 Ramezaniyanpour et al. [27], is shown in Fig. 3. After the initial curing stage of 24 hours, the specimens
191 from both series were demolded and three cubes of each series were tested for the 1-day compressive
192 strength. The rest of the specimens were further cured in a curing chamber at constant conditions of 23°C
193 and 95% humidity until the other test ages were reached.

194 **2.4. Tests of hardened properties of concrete**

195 The compressive strength and the porosity and pore size distribution analysis were determined at the ages
196 1, 28 and 90 days after the concrete casting. The splitting tensile strength and the modulus of elasticity
197 were tested at the age of 28 days.

198 **2.4.1. Pore structure**

199 The testing of porosity and pore structure was performed by Mercury Intrusion Porosimetry (MIP) with a
200 'Micromeritics Poresizer 9320' mercury intrusion porosimeter according to BS7591 Part 1. This test was
201 carried out on small concrete pieces, weighing approximately 5.5 g. The crushed samples were obtained
202 from the 100 x 100 x 100 mm cubic specimens. The samples were first immersed in acetone for 4 days to
203 stop the cement hydration and then introduced in a vacuum drier for 2 hours to extract the remaining
204 acetone. Before testing, the samples were dried in an oven at 50°C for 4 days. Using the MIP technique, a
205 measure of the total porosity of the sample as well as the surface area of the pore network was also
206 obtained. The MIP test was conducted on the concrete samples cured at ages 1, 28 and 90 days and each
207 result represents the average of three tested samples.

208 **2.4.2. Compressive strength, splitting tensile strength and modulus of elasticity**

209 The mechanical properties of concretes were determined using a compression machine with a loading
210 capacity of 3000 kN. The compressive strength was measured using 100 mm cubic specimens following
211 the UNE-EN 12390-3. The splitting tensile strength and the modulus of elasticity were tested at 28 days
212 employing 200 x Ø100 mm cylindrical specimens in accordance with UNE-EN 12390-6 and UNE 83-
213 316-96 specifications, respectively. Each presented value is the average value taken from 3 specimens.

214

215 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

216 **3.1. Pore structure**

217 The porosity, average pore diameter and threshold diameter obtained by the MIP test at the ages of 1, 28
218 and 90 days are presented in Table 4. The standard deviations, which are also reported, were lower than
219 0.6%. The variability of results between NAC and RACs was similar, however the steam cured concretes'
220 results showed slightly higher variability than those of conventional air curing.

221 Fig. 4 shows the cumulative mercury intrusion volume after 1, 28 and 90 days of curing employing both
222 curing methods (AC and SC). The pore size distributions of all the samples followed a similar pattern,
223 each curve having three distinct regions: one with a gentle increase of pore volume of pore sizes of up to
224 0.1 μm ; the second within the pore size range between 0.1-0.01 with a significant increase in pore
225 volume; and the last being between pore size of 0.01–0.005 μm with a gentle slope. The majority of the
226 intrusion volume in the first range is due to macropores and macrocracks and the filling of the non-
227 wetting liquid (mercury) into the rough texture of the exterior surface of the crushed sample [32,40]. The
228 majority of the intrusion in the second range is due to capillary pores and the last one due to some parts of
229 gel pores [35].

230 3.1.1. Effect of original quality of RCA on pore structure

231 After 1 day of curing, the RAC-100 had significant lower average pore diameters than those of the NAC,
232 in both curing methods. Likewise Fig. 4a show that the RAC-100-AC had slightly lower cumulative
233 intrusion (pore volume) at any pore size than the NAC-AC. In steam curing concretes (Fig. 4b), the RAC-
234 100-SC and the RAC-60-SC had finer pore distributions from 1 to 0.05 μm , but the total cumulative
235 intrusions were similar to those of the NAC-SC.

236 The porosity reduction observed in RAC, containing recycled aggregates sourced from high quality
237 parent concrete (> 60 MPa), when compared to the results of the NAC can be explained by an ITZ
238 improvement. Such early-age improvements in recycled aggregate concretes were attributed by Poon et
239 al. [41] to the reduction of the water-cement ratio in the ITZ at early hydration, a similar behaviour
240 pattern also observed in lightweight aggregates[42,43]. The partially saturated aggregates absorb a certain
241 amount of water, lowering the w-c ratio in the ITZ at early age, and the newly formed hydrates gradually
242 fill the pores in the ITZ.

243 Nevertheless the RAC-40 concretes had the highest pore volume at all pore sizes. The RAC-40-AC and
244 the RAC-40-SC had total intrusions of 0.053 and 0.048 mL/g, respectively and capillary pore intrusions
245 (between 10-0.01 μm) of 0.046 and 0.042 mL/g, respectively. Park et al. [44] and Igarashi et al. [30]
246 measured the total pore intrusion of cement pastes and capillary pore intrusion of concretes, respectively,
247 using OPC also at early ages (1 day) by the MIP method. According to their results, the total porosity of
248 OPC mixtures with a low water/cement ratio was approximately 0.080 mL/g [44] and the capillary pore
249 volume was in the region of 0.100 mL/g at 24 h [30]. The early-age total pore volume and the capillary

250 pore volume of all the concretes produced in this study, even those RAC containing the RCA-40MPa,
251 were lower than those reported by Park et al. [44] and Igarashi et al. [30] due to the refinement of the
252 porous structure on account of the 30% fly ash replacement of rapid-hardening Portland cement [45,46].

253 At 28 and 90 days of curing, the RAC-100 generally had similar or lower average pore diameters and
254 threshold pore diameters to those of the NAC at 28 and 90 days of curing (for both curing methods). The
255 pore size distributions of the RAC-100 at 28 days of curing were lower than those of the NAC in all pore
256 sizes (see Fig. 4c) for air-cured concretes. The NAC-SC and the RAC-100-SC also showed similar pore
257 volumes (0.025 mL/g) in the steam curing concretes (see Fig. 4d). Fig. 4e and 4f show the results of the
258 90-day cured samples in which the RAC-100 showed a finer pore structure and lower pore volumes to
259 those of the NAC. The RCA100 had similar pore size distribution (see Fig. 2) to that of NAC due to the
260 similar quality of the mortar paste. The finer pore structures of the RAC-100 could be explained by an
261 improvement of the ITZ and the new mortar paste through internal curing [15,47].

262 The total porosities and threshold values of the RAC-60 were higher than those of the NAC, whose
263 average pore diameters were generally very similar at the ages of 28 and 90 days. The RAC-60-AC had
264 slightly lower large macrocapillary pores (10-0.1 μm) than the NAC-AC, but the amount of mesocapillary
265 pores (0.05-0.01 μm) rapidly increased (Fig. 4c and 4e). The RAC-60-SC had slightly higher pore volume
266 (0.028 mL/g) despite showing lower macrocapillary pore (10-0.05 μm) volume than that of NAC-SC
267 (Fig. 4d and 4f).

268 The porosity, the average pore diameter and the threshold diameter at 28 and 90 day were increased with
269 the reduction of the RCA quality, irrespective of the curing method used (see Table 4), due to the
270 influence of the aggregate type used. Also the concretes produced employing the lowest quality RCA had
271 a coarser pore size distribution (Fig. 4d and 4f).

272 It must be noted that the steam-cured RAC showed higher reduction (between 16 and 36%) of the total
273 cumulative intrusion volume from 28 to 90 days in comparison with the NAC (5%). Such higher
274 reductions are more than likely caused by the original higher porosity of the RCA which permitted a time-
275 extension of hydration and a more effective water transport through the pore structure in steam curing
276 concretes [15,48]. The RAC showed similar or lower macrocapillary pore volumes to those of the NAC-
277 SC but their meso and microcapillary pore size volumes were similar or slightly higher than those of the
278 NAC-SC.

279 3.1.2 *Effect of steam curing on pore structure*

280 Despite the fact that steam curing generally produces larger capillary pores in NAC [49], the pore
281 structure of the steam-cured concretes with 1 day of curing (Fig. 4b) was improved by the use of recycled
282 aggregates due to a denser ITZ [41]. The use of RCA mitigated the increase of macrocapillary pores due
283 to steam curing, which had been typically observed in steam-cured natural aggregate concretes [29]. After
284 1 day of curing, the steam-cured concretes obtained lower porosity, average pore diameter and threshold
285 pore diameter than those concretes cured in air for a given aggregate type (Table 4 and Fig. 5). The
286 influence of steam curing was especially positive in the reduction of the average pore size, which was
287 between 12-34% lower in comparison to those of the air-cured concretes.

288 The steam curing process enhanced the pozzolanic reactions which led to refinements of the pore
289 structure of the RAC [50]. This reaction was clearly observed in the higher reduction of the average pore
290 diameter of the RAC-60-SC when compared with the same concrete subjected to air curing. Several
291 studies [14,39] have confirmed that the use of RAC can improve the binder's hydration by containing
292 higher amount of portlandite and unreacted cement particles. The parent concrete from RCA60 was the
293 youngest concrete used in recycled aggregates production, consequently having more portlandite, due to a
294 lower carbonation ratio, reacting with the pozzolans from FA and increasing CSH formation.

295 The MIP results at 28 and 90 days still showed lower average pore diameter for steam-cured concretes
296 (Fig. 5). In addition it must be noted that the RAC-60 and the RAC-40 had lower relative average pore
297 diameters, when comparing steam-cured and air-cured concretes, than NAC after 90 days of curing.
298 Moreover the porosity increase, which was due to the use of lower quality aggregates, was lower when
299 they were exposed to steam curing than when they were air-cured. The porosities of the RAC-60-SC and
300 the RAC-40-SC were 10 and 21% higher, respectively, than that of the NAC-SC; while the porosity of the
301 RAC-60-AC and the RAC-40-AC was 17 and 34% higher, respectively, than that of the NAC-AC after
302 90 days of curing. Also pore size distributions revealed that steam cured concretes had similar
303 distributions even when using medium quality RCA (RCA-40) and that the RAC-100 and the RAC-60
304 kept lower capillary pore volumes than the NAC after 90 days of curing (Fig. 4f).

305 3.2.2 *Effect of concrete's age on pore structures*

306 Fig. 6 shows the porosity reduction according to three pore size ranges from ages 1 to 90 days of the
307 concretes. When using steam curing, the RAC experienced higher reductions of pore volumes than the
308 NAC from 1 to 90 days age, with respect to all the pore size ranges. Typically, steam-curing produces
309 diminished hydrations of binders due to the isolation of the unreacted binder particles and disruption of
310 the water circulation [22]. The use of porous RCA may permit an enlarged and continuous hydration of
311 binders which led to higher refinement of the pore structure. The highest reductions, especially with
312 respect to the capillary pores (10-0.01 μ m) were observed in the RAC-40-SC. The RCA40 had the highest
313 porosity which could act as internal curing reservoir and enlarge the binder hydration. A fact that has
314 been reported in other studies using recycled aggregates and lightweight aggregates [15,47,51].

315 **3.2. Compressive strength**

316 The compressive strength test results at the ages of 1, 28 and 90 days are presented in Table 5. The
317 employment of steam curing proved to be essential in the production of concrete for prestressed concrete
318 elements. The use of fly ash diminished the early-age compressive strength, which was detrimental for
319 concrete mixtures containing RCA60 and RCA40. However, the concrete mixtures containing these two
320 lower-quality aggregates could only reach the minimum of compressive strength at 1 day of curing (50
321 MPa [27,28]) by undergoing the steam curing regime. The standard deviations indicated in Table 5 were
322 lower than 7.5 MPa and the compressive strength results fulfilled the tolerance values required by the
323 Spanish technical specification on prestressed concrete sleepers [28]. The only concrete mixture showing
324 higher standard deviations than NAC was RAC60. RAC60 had been prepared with the youngest parent
325 concrete which appeared to be more influential on the variability of compressive strength due to the
326 remaining reactivity of the RCAs [14,52].

327 *3.2.1. Effect of original quality of RCA on compressive strength*

328 The compressive strength results show that the use of lower quality RCA reduced the compressive
329 strength of the RAC when compared with the NAC. However, with respect to the high quality RCA, after
330 1 day of curing, the study determined that the RAC-100-SC produced with RCA sourced from 100MPa
331 recycled concrete and steam-cured, obtained the highest compressive strength. These values being similar
332 to that of the NAC-SC, steam-cured concrete prepared with natural aggregates. Furthermore, with respect
333 to air-cured concretes, the RAC-100-AC attained a higher 1-day compressive strength than the NAC-AC.

334 After 28 and 90 days of curing, the RAC-100-AC achieved the highest compressive strengths which were
335 slightly higher than those of the NAC for both ages (see Table 5). The results revealed that the use of the
336 RCA-100 increased the mechanical behaviour. The improvement of the compressive strength of HPC by
337 using high quality have been previously reported by other studies [11,14,18].

338 Despite the fact that the 28-day compressive strength of the RAC-60 was slightly lower than that of the
339 NAC, this small decrease was in line with the values determined in other studies [14]. However, it should
340 be noted that the RAC-60-AC achieved similar compressive strengths to those of the NAC-AC at 90 days,
341 highlighting the higher potential of the recycled aggregates in reacting with fly ash due to the higher
342 pozzolanic enhancement [53].

343 A severe decrease on the RCA quality caused notable reductions on compressive strength, the RAC-40
344 compressive strengths were, on average, 13 and 15% lower in comparison with the NAC-AC at the ages
345 of 28 and 90 days respectively. In line with those findings from Etxeberria et al [8] and Tabsh and
346 Abdelfatah [6], the compressive strengths from RAC60 and RAC40 were lower than NAC due to the
347 poorer mechanical properties of RCAs than those of natural aggregates. In all probability the mechanical
348 properties of RCAs were due to the lower quality of the old adhered mortar in comparison to the new
349 mortar paste [54]. The old ITZ between the aged mortar paste and the raw aggregates from RCA60 and
350 RCA40 is expected to be weaker than the new ITZ between the new mortar and the RCA. The old ITZ
351 could be the first surface in which the crack develops [8,54].

352 3.2.2. *Effect of steam curing on compressive strength*

353 The steam-cured concretes showed 4 to 15% higher 1-day compressive strength than their air-cured
354 counterparts due to the acceleration of the CSH gel formation (Fig. 7). The obtained compressive strength
355 was higher than that required in pre-cast and pre-stressed reinforced concrete [27,28], even using the
356 lowest RCA quality (aggregates sourced from 40MPa concretes). Concrete mixtures subjected to steam
357 curing suffered an acceleration of binder hydration and CSH gel formation [22,26,29] a fact which is in
358 accordance with the porosity reduction at very early age mentioned previously. But amongst the air-cured
359 concretes, the RAC-40-AC could not be used in pre-stressed concrete due to the negative influence on
360 compressive strength of the poorer quality RCA.

361 The 28 and 90-day compressive strengths of the steam-cured concretes were similar to those of air-cured
362 concretes when using the same type of aggregate (Fig. 7). For a given quality of RCA, steam-cured
363 concretes achieved 1-9% and 4-11% lower compressive strength to those of the air-cured concretes at 28
364 and 90 days of curing, respectively. The negative influence of steam curing was increased at long term, in
365 accord with the results reported by various researchers [39,55].

366 In this research work, the reduction of compressive strength due to the use of steam-curing for recycled
367 aggregate concrete was lower than that reported by Kou et al. [39] in all probability to the high-medium
368 quality of the RCA used in this study. However Kou et al. [39] found slight improvements in compressive
369 strength when using RCA in steam curing as opposed to standard curing. In this study such improvements
370 were not observed as a consequence of the different cement type used, as in this case, a rapid hardening
371 cement was used and Kou et al. [39] employed a normal hardening cement.

372 3.2.3. *Effect of concrete's age on compressive strength*

373 Fig. 8 shows the increase of compressive strength (in percentage) with respect to the 1-day compressive
374 strength for each concrete mixture produced. It must be noted that the RAC-60-AC and the RAC-40-AC
375 showed the lowest compressive strength at 1 day (see Table 5) but they attained the highest evolutions at
376 28 and 90 days. The compressive strength increase revealed the positive influence of using FA in RAC as
377 pointed out by other studies [39,56].

378 A comparison between the steam cured concretes and the air cured concretes revealed that the steam
379 curing regime reduced the long term compressive strength gain. These detrimental effects of steam curing
380 on the long term concrete properties had been reported for natural aggregates concretes [39,55].
381 Nevertheless for steam-cured concretes, the highest compressive strength gain was achieved by the RCA-
382 40, which signifies that the use of higher porous RCA could contribute to a better binder hydration
383 [15,48]. The compressive strength evolution is in correlation with the pore structure improvements from
384 ages 28-90 days, and also the higher average pore diameter reduction of RCA40 compared to all other
385 steam-cured concrete prepared with the higher quality recycled aggregates. The higher reduction of RAC
386 pore volume compared to that of the NAC could confirm the improvement of the ITZ between the cement
387 matrix and the recycled aggregates, as well as the densification of the binder matrix by internal curing.

388

389 **3.3. Splitting tensile strength**

390 Table 5 shows the results of the splitting tensile strength of all the concretes at 28 days. The concrete
391 mixtures produced with RCA100 aggregates obtained the highest splitting tensile strength results. This
392 was due to the influence of the high-quality ITZ between the cement paste and the coarse RCA which is
393 especially influential on this property [8]. Certain researchers found that when compared with NAC, the
394 RCAs in fact improved the ITZ quality. This found improvement was due to both the surface
395 irregularities of the recycled aggregates and a certain amount of remaining water absorption which had
396 the effect of reducing the water-cement ration of the ITZ [8,54].

397 A comparative study between NAC concretes and those of lower quality RCA, revealed that there was a
398 drop in the splitting tensile strength of 0.5-5% in RCA60 and 12-16% in RCA40 with respect to NAC
399 concretes. In these cases, the effect of the lower quality of the old mortar attached to the RCA could be
400 responsible for the splitting tensile strength decrease [54]. Moreover, the standard deviations were
401 proportionally higher than those found in other mechanical tests. The reason could be the higher influence
402 of the old ITZ in the splitting tensile strength results [57].

403 The steam curing process proved to be beneficial with respect to concrete produced with RCAs. The
404 splitting tensile strengths of steam-cured RACs were approximately 7-5% higher than those concretes
405 which were exposed to conventional curing. However, steam-cured NAC achieved lower results than
406 those of the same concrete cured under conventional conditions. Consequently, it was observed that the
407 RAC concrete proved to have better performance than the NAC concrete when submitted to the steam
408 curing process.

409 According to Spanish technical specification for prestressed concrete sleepers, the concrete needs to have
410 a minimum of 4.5MPa splitting tensile strength [28]. The air cured concrete had to be produced with
411 RCA100 in order to obtain that value. However, the beneficial effects of using steam curing signify that
412 the quality of RCA could be reduced to RCA60, thus keeping the satisfactory results of splitting tensile
413 strength.

414 **3.4. Modulus of elasticity**

415 The modulus of elasticity test results at the age of 28 days are presented in Table 5. The concrete mixtures
416 designed with RAC obtained lower elastic modulus than that of the NAC mixtures for both curing

417 methods. As certain studies pointed out [12,18], the loss of elastic modulus is especially significant in
418 RAC with replacement levels of 100%. According to Lydon and Balendran [58], the modulus of elasticity
419 of aggregate is proportional to the square of its density. Since RCA have lower density, the density of
420 RAC particles is reduced and its modulus of elasticity is reduced. Concretes with RCA100, RCA60 and
421 RCA40 had on average 5, 13 and 20%, respectively lower modulus of elasticity than that of NAC.
422 However, the drops of elastic modulus as a result of using lower RCA quality were less severe than those
423 registered from studies of Portland cement HPCs [18]. The higher reactivity of fly-ash with RCA and
424 improved ITZ are beneficial factors with respect to binder hydration and cement paste densification in
425 RACs mixtures and certainly influenced the modulus of elasticity results.

426 The steam curing method had the effect of slightly improving the modulus of elasticity of concrete
427 mixtures. The modulus of elasticity results from steam-cured concretes were up to 7% higher than those
428 of conventional-cured concrete mixtures for the same RCA quality. Kou et al. [39] observed that the use
429 of RCA had a positive influences on the modulus of elasticity in steam-cured mixtures. It should be noted
430 that the use of lower quality aggregates (RCA40) subjected to steam curing obtained the highest
431 improvements (7%).

432 The modulus of elasticity from all the concrete mixtures proved to be within the range considered by the
433 ACI as the typical values of elastic modulus for HPCs [9]. Nonetheless, the maximum modulus of
434 elasticity were those from NAC (44 – 47 GPa), while the RAC mixtures achieved moduli of elasticity
435 between 35 – 44 GPa. The standard deviations (between 0.1 – 2.5 GPa) did not reveal any relation
436 between the use of RCA and the variability on the modulus of elasticity.

437

438 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

439 The following conclusions can be made based on the results of this study:

- 440 1. The total porosity of RAC is higher than that of the NAC concretes due to the porosity of the
441 RCA. However RAC exhibited a greater refinement of the porous structure after the steam
442 curing process. The difference of porosity between RAC and NAC in steam-cured concrete
443 mixtures is lower than that employing air curing.

- 444 2. The use of RCA mitigated the macrocapillary pore increase generated by the use of steam
445 curing, which is typically observed in steam-cured conventional concretes. The influence of
446 steam curing was especially beneficial in the reduction of the average pore size of RAC in
447 comparison to those concrete mixtures which only underwent air curing. This reduction was
448 higher in concretes produced with lower quality RCA (RCA40 and RCA60).
- 449 3. The RCA prepared from lower original concrete quality (up to 40 MPa) resulted in significant
450 losses on the mechanical properties of RAC. However, the concrete mixtures with RCA,
451 especially those sourced from medium-low quality RCA, were less affected by the long-term
452 compressive strength reduction due to steam curing in comparison with NAC mixtures. It must
453 be noted that compressive strength evolution usually diminishes by the use of steam curing.
- 454 4. The steam curing process improved the splitting tensile strength of RAC with respect to that of
455 air curing, though in NAC mixtures the steam curing had negative effects on splitting tensile
456 strength.
- 457 5. The modulus of elasticity of the RAC mixtures was considerably lower than that from NAC.
458 However, the modulus of elasticity results from steam-cured RCA mixtures were up to 7%
459 higher than those from conventional-cured concrete mixtures for the same RCA quality.

460 According to the results, it is observed that RAC mixtures have a more suitable behaviour when
461 undergoing the steam curing process than that of NAC mixtures.

462

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466

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Table 1. Chemical compositions of binders.

Table 2. Physical and mechanical properties of coarse and fine aggregates.

Table 3. Proportioning of the concrete mixtures (Coded: Natural Aggregate Concrete: NAC; Recycled Aggregate Concrete mixtures, RAC-x-y (x = compressive strength of original concretes reused as aggregates, 100, 60 or 40MPa; y =: initial curing method, air curing (AC) or steam curing (SC)) and the results from the slump cone test.

Table 4. Mercury Intrusion Porosimetry tests results of concrete mixtures at the ages of 1, 28 and 90 days (in brackets, standard deviations).

Table 5. Mechanical properties tests results of concrete mixtures at the ages of 1, 28 and 90 days (in brackets, standard deviations).

Table 1. Chemical compositions of binders.

Composition (%)	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	Fe ₂ O ₃	CaO	MgO	K ₂ O	TiO ₂	P ₂ O ₅	Na ₂ O	LOI
Cement	21.91	3.57	4.67	64.98	1.45	0.57	0.18	0.18	0.12	1.05
Fly Ash	55.46	26.94	5.86	5.70	1.50	1.51	1.41	0.83	0.62	3.70

Table 2. Physical and mechanical properties of coarse and fine aggregates.

Physical and mechanical properties	Dried particle density (kg/dm ³)	Water absorption (%)	Flakiness index (%)	Crushing value (%)	LA Index (%)	Sand equivalent test (%)	MIP Porosity (%)
River Gravel	2.61	1.29	17.71	18.92	19.61	-	-
Dolomitic Coarse Aggregate	2.68	2.13	7.81	20.15	24.77	-	-
RCA100	2.47	3.74	16.53	22.59	24.01	-	4.88
RCA60	2.39	4.90	13.57	23.36	25.24	-	5.73
RCA40	2.30	5.91	9.59	25.55	24.31	-	8.63
River Sand 1	2.50	1.02	-	-	-	87.88	-
River Sand 2	2.57	1.93	-	-	-	75.00	-

Table 3. Proportioning of the concrete mixtures (Coded: Natural Aggregate Concrete: NAC; Recycled Aggregate Concrete mixtures, RAC-x-y (x = compressive strength of original concretes reused as aggregates, 100, 60 or 40MPa; y =: initial curing method, air curing (AC) or steam curing (SC)) and the results from the slump cone test.

Concrete reference	Cement (kg)	Fly Ash (kg)	Admixture (kg)	River Sand 1 (kg)	River Sand 2 (kg)	River Gravel (kg)	Dolomitic Coarse Aggregate (kg)	Recycled Concrete Aggregate (kg)	Total Water (kg)	Effective W/B	Slump (mm)
NAC-(AC/SC)	266	114	5.7	711.8	182.5	302.1	784.5	---	135.4	0.285	16
RAC-100-(AC/SC)	266	114	5.7	711.8	182.5	---	---	1010.2	162.3	0.285	10
RAC-60-(AC/SC)	266	114	5.7	711.8	182.5	---	---	975.1	170.4	0.285	11
RAC-40-(AC/SC)	266	114	5.7	711.8	182.5	---	---	938.8	175.3	0.285	20

Table 4. Mercury Intrusion Porosimetry tests results of concrete mixtures at the ages of 1, 28 and 90 days (in brackets, standard deviations).

Mix notation		Air cured mixtures				Steam cured mixtures			
		NAC-AC	RAC-100-AC	RAC-60-AC	RAC-40-AC	NAC-SC	RAC-100-SC	RAC-60-SC	RAC-40-SC
Total Porosity (%)	1 day	8.58 (0.11)	7.54 (0.10)	9.36 (0.08)	11.81 (0.07)	7.27 (0.13)	7.36 (0.54)	7.74 (0.32)	10.45 (0.24)
	28 days	4.88 (0.38)	4.85 (0.22)	6.270 (0.15)	8.170 (0.2)	5.810 (0.56)	6.02 (0.55)	6.63 (0.53)	8.85 (0.45)
	90 days	6.46 (0.09)	5.60 (0.11)	7.540 (0.01)	8.690 (0.43)	5.160 (0.46)	4.71 (0.19)	5.69 (0.24)	6.24 (0.36)
Average pore diameter (μm)	1 day	0.05 (0.004)	0.04 (0.004)	0.054 (0.002)	0.063 (0.001)	0.046 (0.001)	0.04 (0.003)	0.04 (0.003)	0.06 (0.002)
	28 days	0.04 (0.002)	0.04 (0.003)	0.040 (0.002)	0.044 (0.001)	0.028 (0.002)	0.03 (0.003)	0.03 (0.002)	0.04 (0.000)
	90 days	0.028 (0.000)	0.022 (0.000)	0.035 (0.001)	0.034 (0.003)	0.026 (0.000)	0.023 (0.000)	0.027 (0.000)	0.029 (0.000)
Threshold pore diameter (μm)	1 day	111.78 (2.17)	116.98 (5.80)	113.65 (4.69)	218.01 (8.35)	103.95 (1.32)	109.65 (5.06)	113.66 (1.96)	180.04 (4.45)
	28 days	54.48 (2.39)	74.51 (4.78)	91.88 (6.89)	180.13 (10.75)	62.46 (0.89)	68.57 (1.08)	93.62 (1.26)	113.65 (7.43)
	90 days	48.01 (0.55)	36.58 (2.85)	86.53 (1.50)	104.89 (9.56)	38.35 (3.02)	36.7 (2.76)	83.18 (8.06)	91.9 (7.37)

Table 5. Mechanical properties tests results of concrete mixtures at the ages of 1, 28 and 90 days (in brackets, standard deviations).

Mix notation		Air cured mixtures				Steam cured mixtures			
		NAC-AC	RAC-100-AC	RAC-60-AC	RAC-40-AC	NAC-SC	RAC-100-SC	RAC-60-SC	RAC-40-SC
Compressive strength (MPa)	1 day	54.11 (0.80)	56.81 (1.12)	46.88 (0.77)	44.23 (1.06)	65.42 (3.48)	66.18 (3.00)	63.03 (2.52)	52.44 (1.66)
	28 days	87.75 (5.38)	91.61 (3.93)	84.06 (4.85)	76.90 (1.07)	86.59 (5.67)	83.69 (2.25)	82.98 (7.42)	75.63 (1.71)
	90 days	102.84 (4.31)	110.88 (3.91)	104.16 (5.89)	88.18 (4.64)	98.05 (4.63)	99.62 (2.76)	93.87 (4.75)	83.18 (1.64)
Splitting tensile strength (MPa)	28 days	4.71 (0.31)	4.78 (0.39)	4.47 (0.43)	3.95 (0.35)	4.60 (0.13)	4.97 (0.37)	4.58 (0.10)	4.07 (0.10)
Modulus of elasticity (GPa)	28 days	44.43 (2.43)	42.55 (0.26)	39.49 (1.94)	35.34 (1.49)	46.58 (0.38)	43.90 (1.51)	39.80 (1.31)	37.70 (0.11)

Fig. 1. Particle size distributions of fine and coarse aggregates.

Fig. 2. Distribution of pore diameters of recycled concrete aggregates.

Fig. 3. One-day steam curing cycle.

Fig. 4. Pore size cumulative distribution of initially air-cured concretes (left) and initially steam-cured concretes (right) at the ages of 1, 28 and 90 days.

Fig. 5. Relative average pore diameter of steam-cured concretes in comparison with air-cured concretes at the ages of 1, 28 and 90 days.

Fig. 6. Pores volume reduction of concretes produced with 30% FA from 1 to 90 days according to three different pore size ranges; (a) initially air-cured concretes and (b) initially steam-cured concretes.

Fig. 7. Relative compressive strength of steam-cured concretes in comparison with air-cured concretes at the ages of 1, 28 and 90 days.

Fig. 8. Compressive strength increase from 1 to 90 days, highlighting gain ranges from 1 to 28 days and from 28 to 90 days.

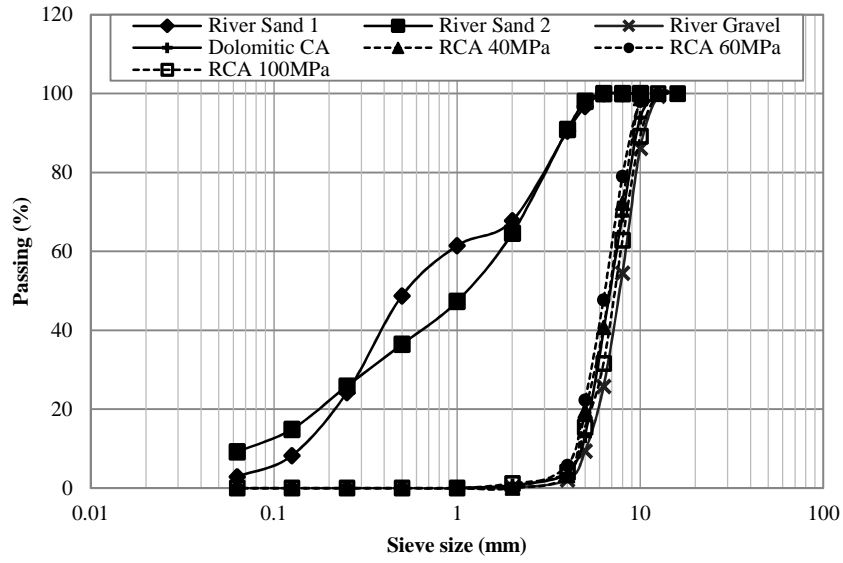


Fig. 1. Particle size distributions of fine and coarse aggregates.

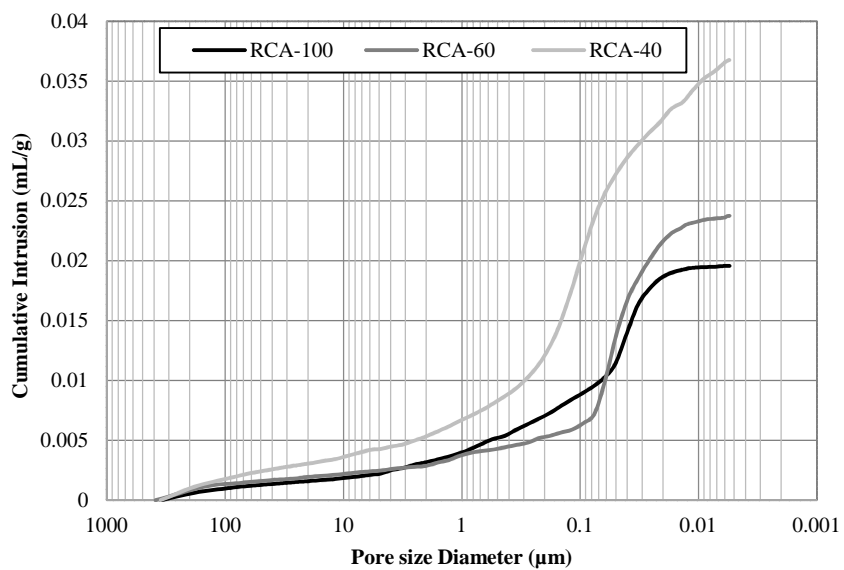


Fig. 2. Distribution of pore diameters of recycled concrete aggregates.

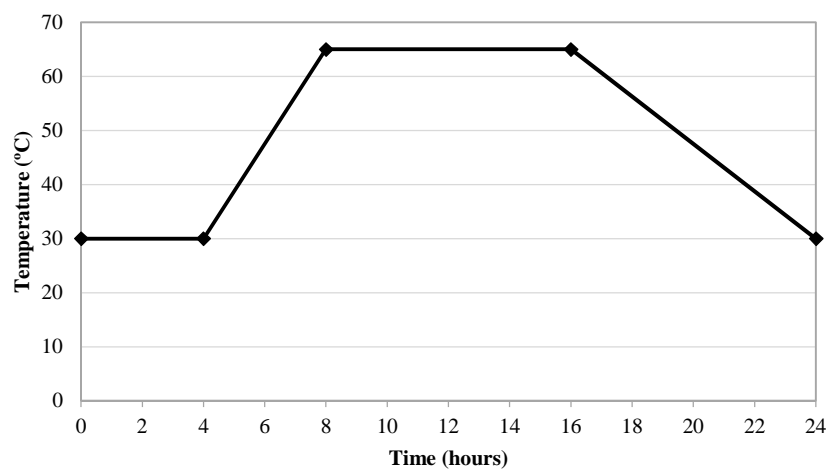


Fig. 3. One-day steam curing cycle.

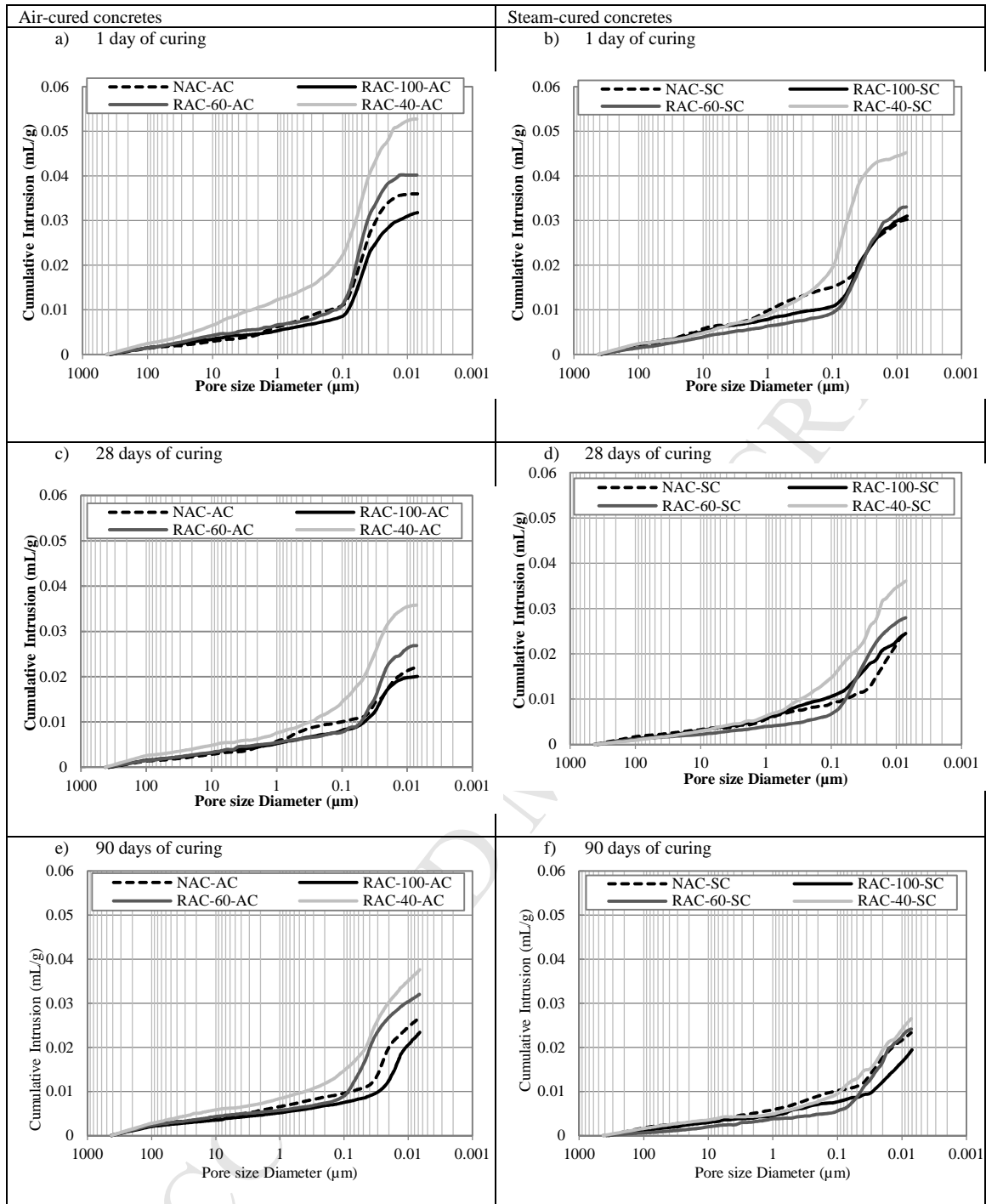


Fig. 4. Pore size cumulative distribution of initially air-cured concretes (left) and initially steam-cured concretes (right) at the ages of 1, 28 and 90 days.

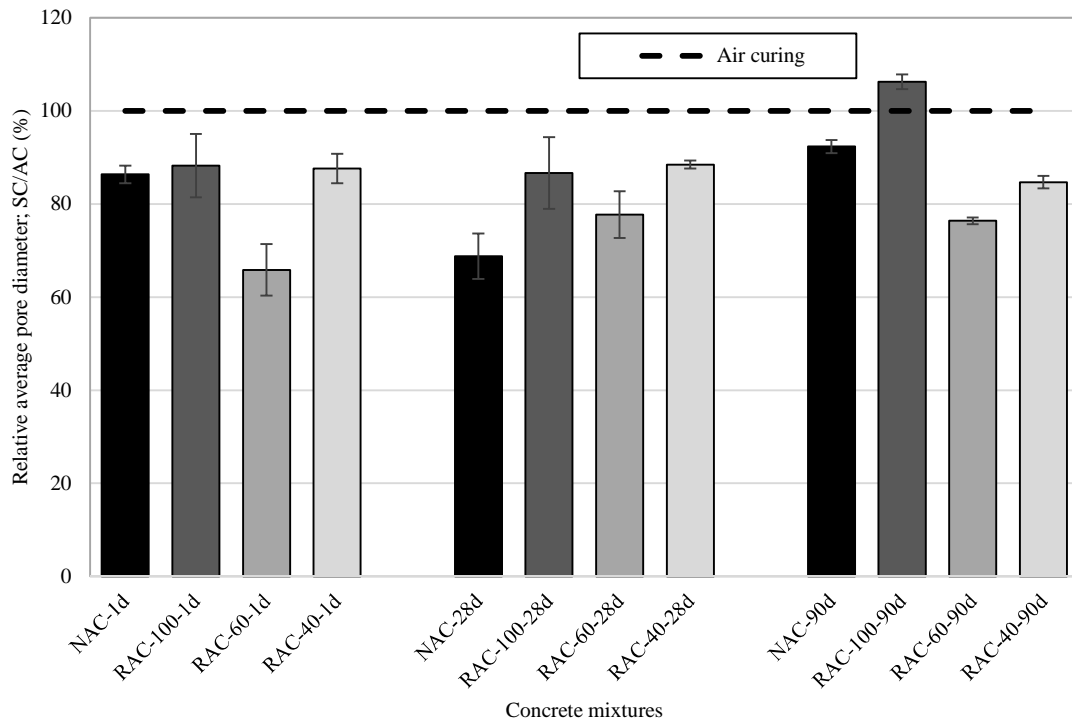


Fig. 5. Relative average pore diameter of steam-cured concretes in comparison with air-cured concretes at the ages of 1, 28 and 90 days.

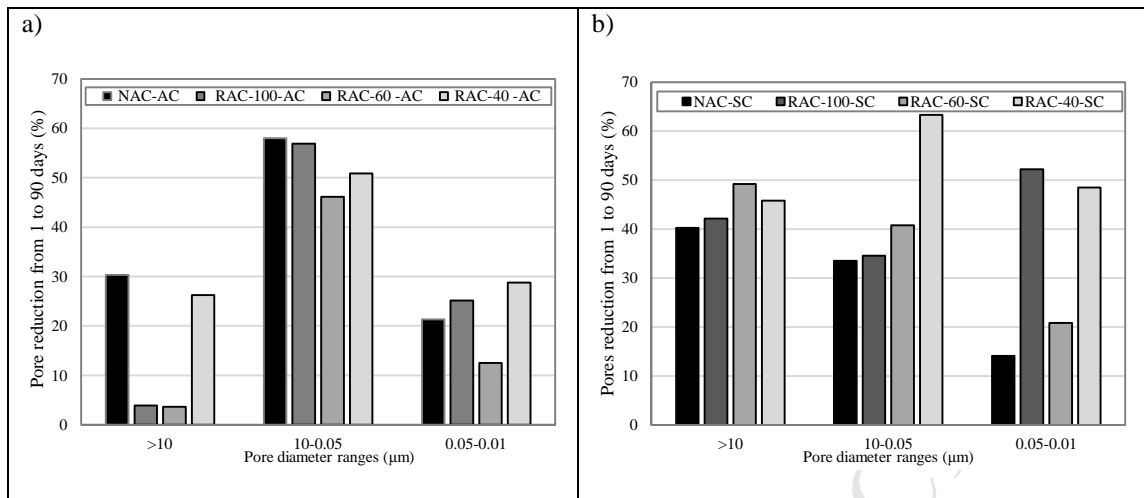


Fig. 6. Pores volume reduction of concretes produced with 30% FA from 1 to 90 days according to three different pore size ranges; (a) initially air-cured concretes and (b) initially steam-cured concretes.

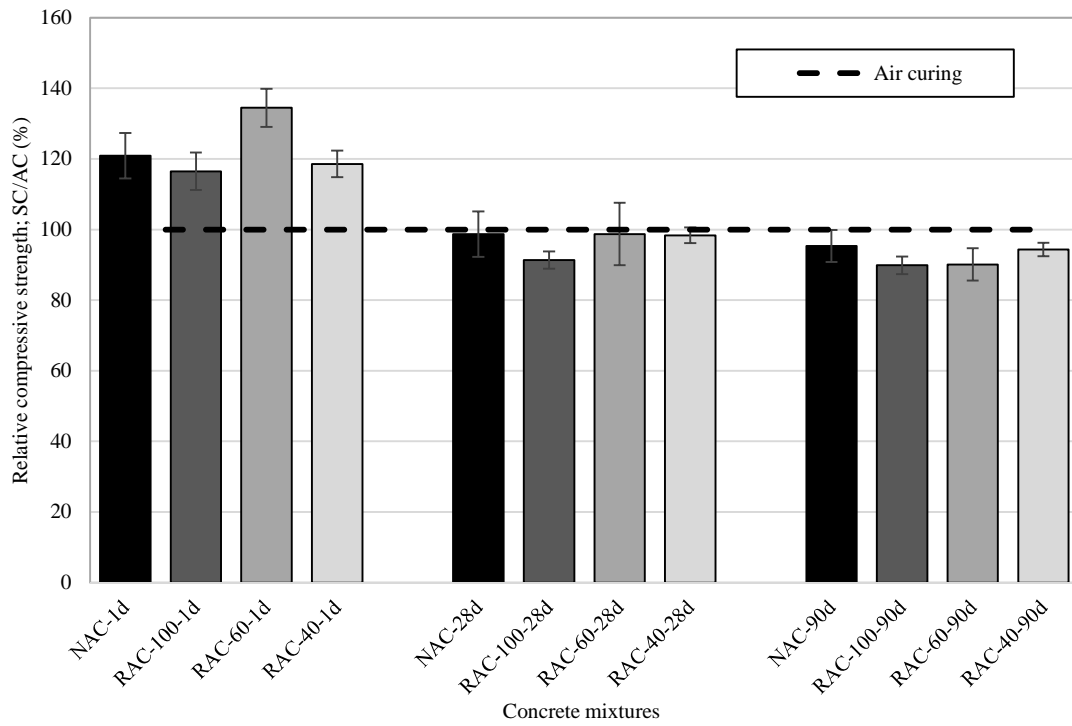


Fig. 7. Relative compressive strength of steam-cured concretes in comparison with air-cured concretes at the ages of 1, 28 and 90 days.

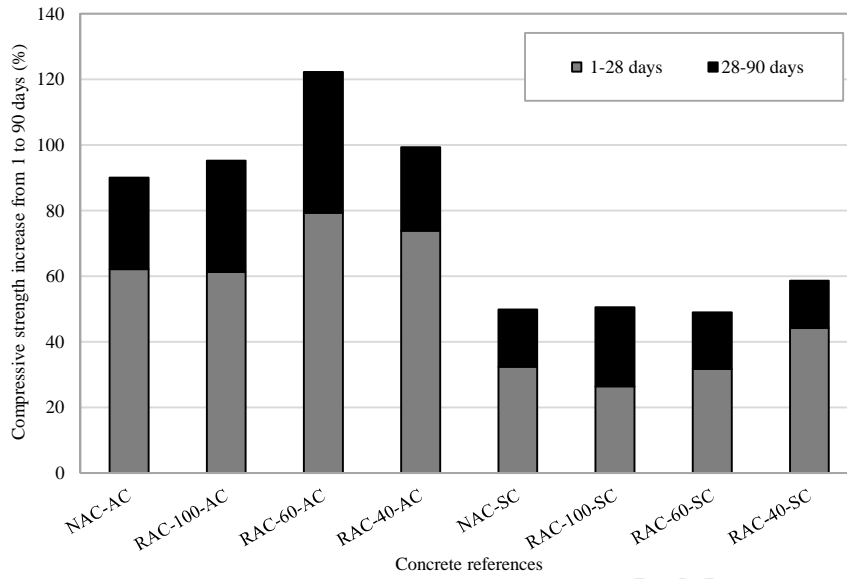


Fig. 8. Compressive strength increase from 1 to 90 days, highlighting gain ranges from 1 to 28 days and from 28 to 90 days.