

Novel lightweight concrete containing manufactured plastic aggregate

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1 **Novel Lightweight Concrete Containing Manufactured Plastic Aggregate**

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26 **Novel Lightweight Concrete Containing Manufactured Plastic Aggregate**

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31 **ABSTRACT**

32 Plastic waste and its low recycling rate make a significant contribution towards the pollution
33 of the environment. It is therefore essential that plastic waste is utilised in different
34 applications, such as aggregates in concrete. In this paper, an investigation of a manufactured
35 plastic aggregate as a replacement for pumice lightweight aggregate and Lytag aggregate in
36 concrete is presented. The influence of replacement level on the fresh, hardened and
37 microstructure properties of concrete was investigated. The slump, compressive strength,
38 flexural strength, splitting tensile strength and elastic modulus decreased with the increase in
39 replacement level. Neither the fresh density nor the hardened density was significantly affected
40 by replacement level. The Lytag and conventional lightweight concrete mixes had a brittle
41 failure; whereas the concrete mixes incorporating the manufactured plastic aggregate had a
42 ductile post-peak behaviour. The results suggest that the concrete mix containing the
43 manufactured plastic aggregate at a replacement level of 25% can be used in structural and
44 non-structural applications requiring moderate strength and ductility. Predictive models were
45 proposed and demonstrated to be in good agreement with the experimental results for the
46 mechanical properties of the concrete mixes incorporating the manufactured plastic aggregate.

47 **Keywords:** plastic waste; recycled plastic aggregate; lightweight aggregate; lightweight
48 concrete; mechanical properties; SEM; correlations

49 **Abbreviations**

CA	Coarse aggregate
E_c	Modulus of elasticity
FA	Fine aggregate
ITZ	Interfacial transition zone
LAC	Concrete made using Lytag aggregate
LWA	Conventional pumice volcanic lightweight aggregate
LWC	Concrete made using conventional lightweight aggregate (LWA)
LYA	Lytag aggregate
RP2F1A	Recycled plastic aggregate made using 30% LLDPE and 70% red or dune sand
RP2F1C	Concrete made using recycled plastic aggregate (RP2F1A)
RP2F1C25	The concrete mix containing RP2F1A at a replacement level of 25%
RP2F1C50	The concrete mix containing RP2F1A at a replacement level of 50%
RP2F1C75	The concrete mix containing RP2F1A at a replacement level of 75%
RP2F1C100	The concrete mix containing RP2F1A at a replacement level of 100%
RPA _s	Recycled plastic aggregates
SLA	Synthetic lightweight aggregate
W/C	Water to cement ratio
WPLA	Waste PET lightweight aggregate
f_c	Cylinder compressive strength
f_r	Flexural strength
f_t	Splitting tensile strength
γ_w	Dry density

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57 **1.0 Introduction**

58 The use of plastic is consistently growing because of its versatility. The total plastic produced
59 worldwide in 2014 was estimated at 313 million tonnes (Mt) [1]; in 2015 it increased to 322
60 Mt, which is about 3% rise in two years [2]. According to the Plastic Association, the European
61 consumption of plastic in 2014 was 59 Mt, with almost half of this amount (i.e. 25.8 Mt) being
62 disposed of as waste [2]. Unfortunately, the recycling rate is not encouraging, since only 29.7%
63 of the plastic waste was recycled in Europe in 2014 and only 8.8% in the USA in 2012 [2, 3].

64 The bulk quantity of waste plastic is usually sent to landfill or dumped into the oceans, which
65 are the terminus in the lifecycle of plastic, causing polluting effects over long periods of time.
66 For instance, it has been reported that around 28.95 Mt of plastic waste was disposed of in the
67 USA in 2012 [2, 3]. Moreover, Jambeck et al. [4] reported that every year, from 4.8 to 12.7
68 million metric tonnes of plastic waste are disposed of in the oceans. Alternatively, plastic waste
69 is incinerated; however, this generates a significant amount of carbon and other toxic
70 emissions, as well as the generation of residue which also presents toxicity issues [5].

71 For these reasons, the possibility of using plastic waste in different industries, such as the
72 construction sector was explored. One of the potential applications is implementing plastic as
73 replacement for aggregates in concrete, since the consumption of aggregates reached 48.3
74 billion metric tonnes in 2015 [6]. Several studies [7-26] were conducted on the effect of
75 replacing coarse (CA) and/or fine aggregate (FA) in concrete with plastic. However, few
76 studies have reported on the influence of manufactured plastic aggregate on the performance
77 of concrete, when it is used as a replacement for aggregate [27-34].

78 The use of plastic to manufacture plastic aggregate has the potential to mitigate the
79 aforementioned problems and reduce the rapid consumption of non-renewable materials such
80 as natural aggregate. Additionally, it could overcome the drawbacks associated with existing

81 lightweight concrete made from either natural or manufactured lightweight aggregates. For
82 example, concrete containing natural lightweight aggregate (i.e. pumice or scoria) has high
83 mining and hauling costs, excessive drying shrinkage and high water absorption. In the same
84 context, incorporating a manufactured aggregate, such as Lytag, in concrete can adversely
85 affect the durability performance due to its high permeability; along with consuming high
86 levels of energy, supplementary materials and chemical additives during its manufacture [27-
87 28].

88 The main findings of the research studies [8, 10, 21-22, 24] conducted on concrete containing
89 shredded or plastic aggregate particles indicate that the concrete workability, density and
90 mechanical properties; such as compressive strength, splitting tensile strength, flexural strength
91 and modulus of elasticity; significantly decrease with the increase in plastic content. For
92 example, the density of concrete and cement mortar was reduced by 7 to 50% due to the
93 increase in the ratio of plastic particles from 20 to 100% [7, 9, 16, 18, 20, 22]. Other researchers
94 [11, 19] observed a marginal decrease in density, varying from 6 to 10%, at high replacement
95 levels (from 75 to 100%) of CA or FA with plastic. Furthermore, studies [8, 9, 11, 18, 20, 22,
96 25] reported a significant reduction, ranging from 34 to 70%, in the 28-day concrete
97 compressive strength when 20 to 100% of the conventional FA was substituted directly with
98 plastic. Similarly, replacing 30 to 80% of the conventional CA directly with plastic resulted in
99 a substantial reduction (ranging from 65 to 78%) in the 28-day concrete compressive strength
100 [14, 16-17, 26].

101 Other studies [27-34] have showed a similar decreasing trend in the mechanical properties of
102 concrete with an increase in synthetic lightweight aggregate content; while workability
103 increased in some instances and in others it is decreased. For instance, Choi et al. [27, 28]
104 reported that the slump of concrete made with waste PET lightweight aggregate (WPLA), at a
105 75% replacement level of FA, was 46% higher compared to conventional concrete. This

106 increase was attributed to the spherical shape and smooth surface texture of the WPLA
107 particles. Conversely, a reduction in slump (ranging from 7 to 28%) was also observed by other
108 researchers [30, 31, 33] when lightweight CA was fully replaced with synthetic lightweight
109 aggregate (SLA). However, the plastic-based aggregates developed in these studies [27-34]
110 were of the same shape and size. Additionally, these aggregates were either a composite made
111 from plastic and fly ash, or plastic coated with either river sand or granulated blast furnace slag
112 (GBFS). Moreover, the extrusion process used for the production of these aggregates restricted
113 the scope of their practical utilization.

114 The extant literature suggests that widely available fillers (e.g. red sand and quarry fines) need
115 to be utilized for the manufacture of well graded plastic-based aggregates. Recently, Alqahtani
116 et al. [34, 35] manufactured recycled plastic aggregates (RPAs) using different types of plastic
117 and fillers by means of a novel technique (compression moulding press). Tests carried out on
118 concrete samples showed that slump, fresh density and 28-day compressive strength results
119 ranging from 40 to 220 mm, 1827 to 2055 kg/m³ and 14 to 18 MPa, respectively, were achieved
120 with the total replacement of CA in concrete.

121 The novel contribution of the present study is to implement one of the previously manufactured
122 RPAs (i.e. RP2F1A) [34, 35] as a replacement for pumice lightweight coarse aggregate (LWA).
123 The effect of various replacement levels (i.e. 25, 50, 75 and 100%), on a volumetric basis, on
124 the fresh, hardened and microstructure properties was investigated. Moreover, the influence of
125 fully replacing Lytag aggregate (LYA) with RP2F1A on the same properties was examined.
126 Furthermore, predictive models were proposed for the mechanical properties of the concrete
127 mixes containing RP2F1A.

128 **2.0 Materials and methods**

129 **2.1 Materials**

130 Portland cement from a local manufacturer, with a specific gravity of 3.15, was used
131 throughout this study; which satisfied the requirements of ASTM C150/C150M. Various types
132 of coarse aggregates; which included RP2F1A, LWA and LYA (see Fig. 1); were used together
133 with normal-weight fine aggregate for the preparation of concrete mixes. In this study, LWA
134 was the locally available, naturally occurring pumice lightweight aggregate. The LYA, a
135 commercially available lightweight aggregate, was supplied by Lytag Limited (manufacturer
136 of LYA in the UK). The RP2F1A, which is the key material in this study, was manufactured
137 by the authors by mixing recycled plastic (LLDPE) and red dune sand filler at proportions of
138 30 and 70%, respectively, to form a homogeneous mix [34, 35]. This was followed by
139 compressing and heating the mix using a compression moulding press technique to turn it into
140 solid sheets or slabs, which were then cooled and finally crushed to form the aggregate. The
141 LWA and LYA were used for the preparation of the control mixes; whereas the RP2F1A was
142 used for investigating the effect of replacement level on concrete performance.



143 Figure 1: Various types of coarse aggregate used in this study (RP2F1A, LWA and LYA)

144 The particle shape and surface texture of RP2F1A, LWA and LYA were qualitatively
145 examined using an optical microscope. The RP2F1A, LWA and LYA had sub-angular, angular

146 and rounded particle shapes, respectively; while their textures were partially rough (fibrous),
 147 porous and smooth, respectively.

148 The physical properties of the aggregates are listed in Table 1. The specific gravity and
 149 absorption tests for the coarse aggregates were performed according to ASTM C127 [36];
 150 while unit weight and void content were measured in accordance to ASTM C330/C330M [37].

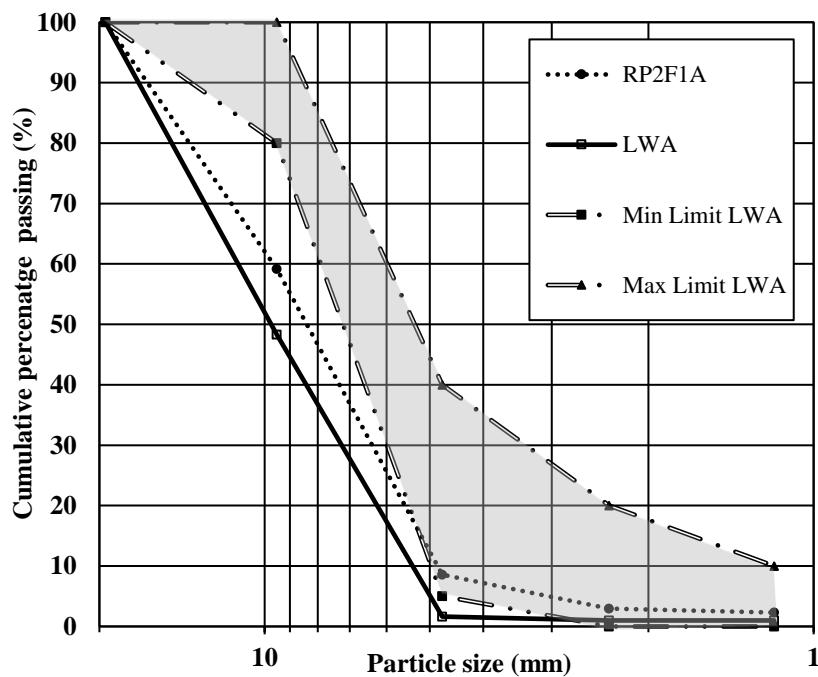
151 Table 1: Physical properties of coarse and fine aggregates used in this study

Test	Coarse Aggregate			Fine Aggregate	
	LWA	LYA	RP2F1A	Crushed sand	Red sand
Bulk Specific Gravity (OD Basis)	1.41	1.44	1.48	2.59	2.62
Bulk Specific Gravity (SSD Basis)	1.67	1.69	1.52	2.69	2.63
Apparent Specific Gravity	1.41	1.91	1.54	2.77	2.64
Dry Unit Weight (kg/m ³)	697	889	750	1599	1589.6
Void Content (%)	50	39.02	51.8	38.14	39.2
Absorption (%)	18.6	16.82	2.75	1.67	0.28
Fineness Modulus	6.5	-	6.32	3.89	1.54
Type	Uncrushed	Pelletising	Crushed	Crushed	Uncrushed
Particle Shape	Angular	Rounded	Sub angular	-	-
Surface Texture	Porous	Smooth	Partially rough/ Fibrous	-	-
Nominal Maximum Size (mm)	10	10	10	4.75	1.18

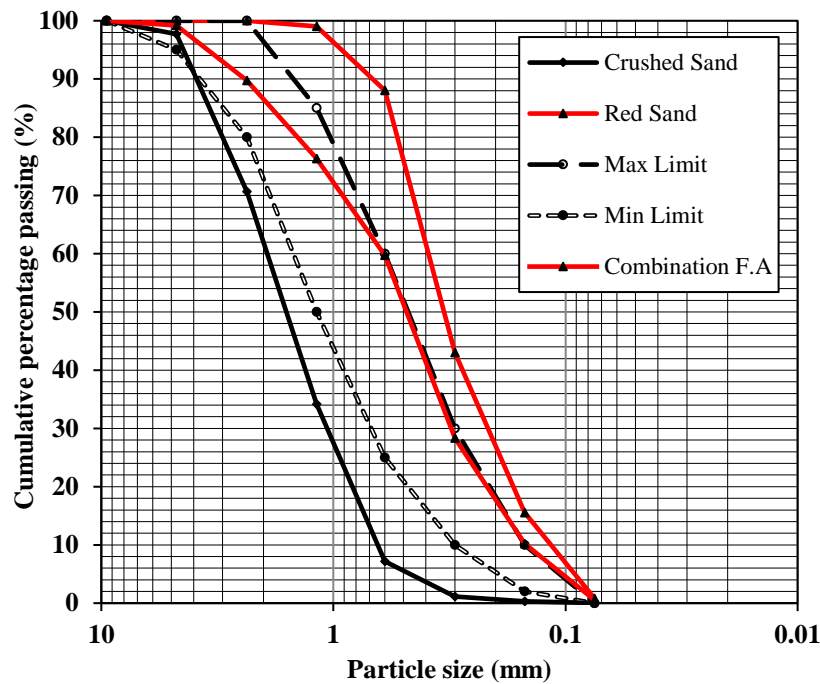
152
 153 As shown in Table 1, the unit weight of RP2F1A, LWA and LYA was 750, 697 and 889 kg/m³
 154 respectively; whereas water absorption was 2.75, 18.6 and 16.82%, respectively. These results
 155 indicate that the unit weights are comparable; while the water absorption of RP2F1A was 85

156 and 84% lesser compared to those of LWA and LYA, respectively. In the case of the normal-
 157 weight fine aggregate, the unit weight, specific gravity and water absorption were measured
 158 based on ASTM C29/C29M [38] and ASTM C128 [39]. The test results are also presented in
 159 Table 1.

160 The particle size distribution curves for RP2F1A and LWA were obtained in line with ASTM
 161 C330/C330M [37] as shown in Figure 2. It is worth noting that the grading of LYA was
 162 prepared in the lab to match that of LWA because the former aggregate was supplied in single
 163 grades by the manufacturer. The fine aggregate used was a combination of 65% red sand and
 164 35% crushed sand (see Table 1) in order to satisfy the requirements of ASTM C136/C136M
 165 [40] as shown in Figure 3.



166
 167 Figure 2: Particle size distribution curves for RP2F1A and LWA together with the grading
 168 limits for lightweight aggregate



169

170 Figure 3: Particle size distribution curves for red sand, crushed sand and the combination of
 171 red and crushed sand

172 **2.2 Mix proportions**

173 A total of six mixes were considered in this study. The reference mix (LWC) was designed
 174 using LWA according to ACI 211.2 [41] to give a minimum slump of 100 mm and a minimum
 175 compressive strength of 30 MPa at 28 days for non-air entrained concrete. For comparison
 176 purposes, a second mix (LAC) was designed using LYA. The remaining four mixes included
 177 RP2F1A as replacement for LWA on a volumetric basis at 25, 50, 75 and 100% replacement
 178 levels.

179 The concrete mixes containing LYA and RP2F1A were designed relative to LWC by keeping
 180 the amount of cement and free water constant. For a given mix, the quantities of LWA, RP2F1A
 181 or LYA were calculated, as explained below, using the replacement level; unit weight of LWA,
 182 RP2F1A or LYA; and the quantity of LWA used in the reference mix (i.e. LWC).

- 183 • Amount of RP2F1A or LYA (kg/m^3) = (replacement level/100) \times [(unit weight of
 184 RP2F1A or LYA/unit weight of LWA) \times (quantity of LWA)]

185 • Amount of LWA (kg/m^3) = $[1 - (\text{replacement level}/100)] \times (\text{quantity of LWA})$

186 The volume (and subsequently weight) of the normal-weight fine aggregate was calculated by
 187 subtracting the total volume of the aforementioned ingredients from 1 m^3 . Finally, the total
 188 water amount was adjusted according to the absorption and moisture content of the aggregates.
 189 All mixes were prepared, cast and cured in accordance with ASTM C192/C192M [42]. Table
 190 2 details the proportions per 1 m^3 of each concrete mix. In this Table, LWC and LAC refer to
 191 the concrete mixes including 100% LWA and LYA, respectively. The designation “RP2F1CX”
 192 refers to a concrete mix containing RP2F1A at a replacement level of X% on a volumetric
 193 basis. For example, RP2F1C25 is the concrete mix containing RP2F1A at a replacement level
 194 of 25% on a volumetric basis.

195 Table 2: Proportions of the investigated mixes per cubic metre

Concrete type	Water / cement ratio	Total water (kg/m^3)	Free water (kg/m^3)	Cement (kg/m^3)	Fine aggregate (kg/m^3)	Coarse aggregate		
						LWA (kg/m^3)	RP2F1A (kg/m^3)	LYA (kg/m^3)
LWC	0.5	296.2	225	450	922	352	-	-
LAC		302.3			759	-	-	452
RP2F1C25		282.4			918	264	95	-
RP2F1C50		269.6			913	176	189	-
RP2F1C75		255.6			909	88	284	-
RP2F1C100		241.1			906	-	378	-

196

197 2.3 Testing

198 The fresh concrete properties considered in this study were slump and fresh density. In addition
 199 to characterising the stress-strain relationships, tests were carried out to examine hardened
 200 concrete properties; namely dry density, compressive strength, splitting tensile strength,
 201 flexural strength and modulus of elasticity. Furthermore, a microscopic investigation of the
 202 concrete samples was performed using an FE-SEM (field emission scanning electron

203 microscope), Versa 3D, and an optical microscope to explore the microstructure and interfaces
204 between aggregate and cement mortar.

205 The mechanical tests were conducted at 28 days in accordance with the test standards given in
206 Table 3. The results of the hardened properties were calculated as the average of three
207 measurements.

208 Table 3: Testing standards

Test type	Standard used
Slump	ASTM C143/C143M [43]
Fresh density	ASTM C138/C138M [44]
Dry density	BS EN12390-7 [45]
Compressive strength	ASTM C39/C39M [46]
Flexural strength	ASTM C580-02 [47]
Splitting tensile strength	BS EN 12390-6 [48]
Modulus of elasticity and stress-strain curve	ASTM C469/C469M [49]

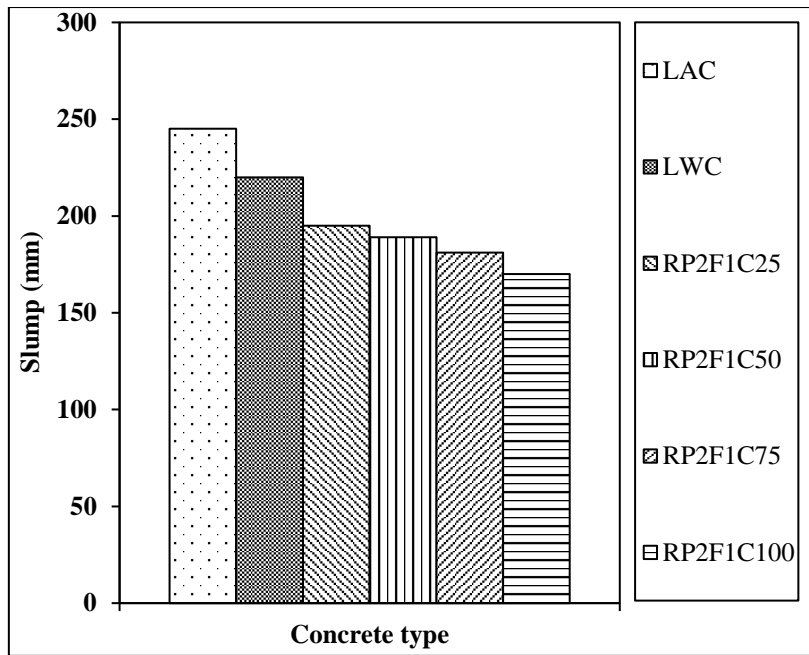
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210 3.0 Results and discussion

211 3.1 Fresh properties

212 3.1.1 Slump

213 Workability and flow characteristics of fresh concrete are normally measured using slump. The
214 effect of replacing LWA with RP2F1A on slump is shown in Figure 4.



215

216

Figure 4: Slump results

217 The decrease in the slump of the RP2F1C mixes compared with that of LWC ranged from 11
 218 to 23% (25 to 50 mm) as the replacement level was increased from 25 to 100%. This result is
 219 comparable to those of Jansen et al. [30] and Slabaugh et al. [33] who reported slump reduction
 220 of 7 to 16% due to replacing CA with SLA. The decrease in the slump of the RP2F1C mixes
 221 is due to the sub-angular shape and fibrous surface texture of the RP2F1A particles. The sub-
 222 angular shape increases the surface area of the aggregate particles covered by the cement paste
 223 and thereby reduces the flow ability of the mix, as observed by Rahmani et al. [10].
 224 Additionally, the fibrous surface texture increases the friction between aggregate particles.

225 LAC had the highest slump (245 mm) which was 11% (25 mm) higher than that of LWC. The
 226 reduction in the slump of RP2F1C100 compared with that of LAC was 31% (75 mm). The
 227 higher slump of LAC is not only due to the relatively high water absorption of LYA (see Table
 228 1), that might not be absorbed totally during the mix and can lead to segregation but also can
 229 be ascribed to the shape and texture of the spherical and smooth particles. To verify the
 230 homogeneity of the mix, a sample of LAC was cut 24 hours after casting and, as can be seen
 231 in Figure 5, no segregation could be detected.



Figure 5: Section of a LAC sample

232

233

234 Although the RP2F1C concrete mixes had relatively high slump values, this could still be
235 beneficial in the casting and pumping of this type of concrete over a long distance and/or in
236 congested reinforcement areas.

237 **3.1.2 Fresh density**

238 Figure 6 compares the fresh density of the concrete mixes containing RP2F1A with that of
239 LWC and LAC. In some cases, the actual fresh density of a lightweight concrete could be
240 significantly different from the theoretical fresh density. Such a variation would necessitate
241 altering the mix proportions. This was not the case in this study where the actual and theoretical
242 fresh density results were quite comparable for a given concrete mix. For example, the
243 theoretical and experimental fresh density results for LAC (1963 and 1935 kg/m³, respectively)
244 differed by less than 2%.

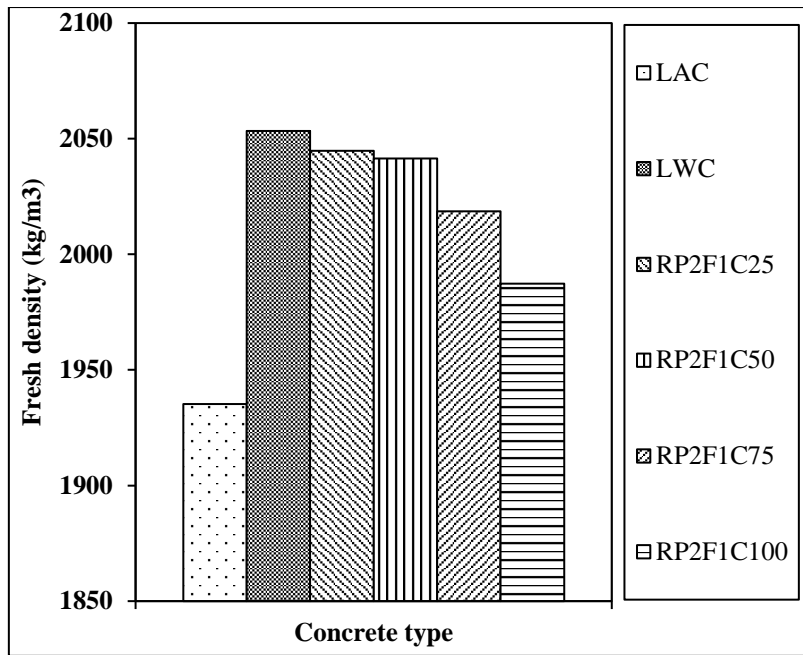


Figure 6: Fresh density results

245

246

247 LWC had a marginally (i.e. less than 4%) higher fresh density (2053 kg/m^3) than any RP2F1C
 248 mix. Additionally, there was marginal difference (i.e. less than 3%) between the fresh density
 249 of LAC (1935 kg/m^3) and RP2F1C100 (1987 kg/m^3) which both included manufactured
 250 lightweight aggregate only as CA. These results are consistent with those of other studies [9-
 251 10, 12, 18, 22] where substituting normal-weight FA or CA directly with plastic at replacement
 252 levels ranging from 15 to 50% decreased the fresh density by 3 to 18%.

253 Overall, the results confirm that RP2F1A can be used to totally replace LWA or LYA
 254 aggregates without significantly affecting fresh density.

255 3.2 Hardened properties

256 The following sections present the hardened properties of the concrete mixes considered in this
 257 study and compare their mechanical properties with the requirements of ASTM C330/C330M
 258 [37] (see Table 4).

259

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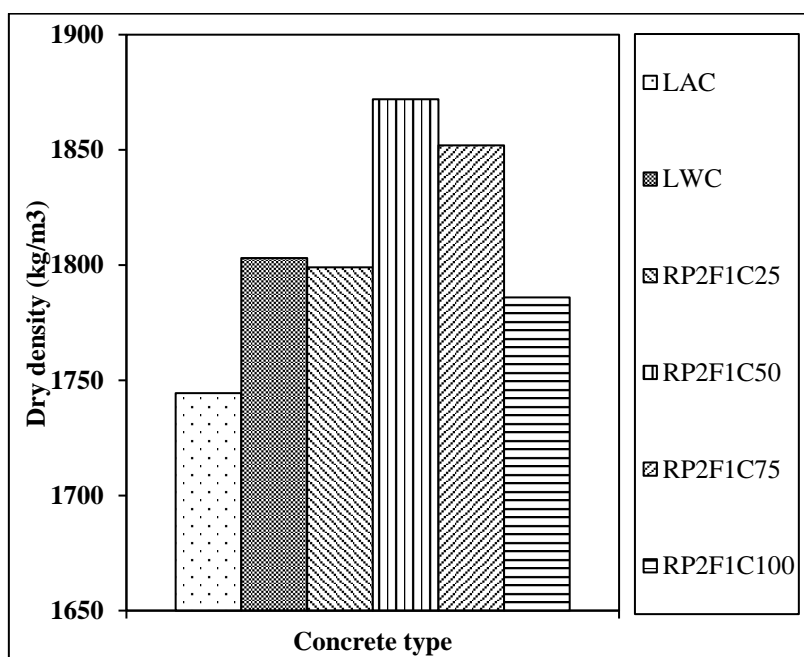
Table 4: Lightweight concrete properties according to ASTM C330/C330M [37]

Average 28-day density, max (kg/m ³)	Average 28-day splitting tensile strength, min (MPa)	Average 28-day compressive strength, min (MPa)
1840	2.3	28
1760	2.1	21
1680	2.1	17

262

263 3.2.1 Dry density

264 Figure 7 presents the dry density results for the concrete mixes considered in this study. LAC
 265 and LWC had a dry density of 1744 and 1803 kg/m³, respectively; whereas the RP2F1C
 266 concrete mixes had dry density results ranging from 1786 to 1872 kg/m³.



267

268 Figure 7: Dry density results

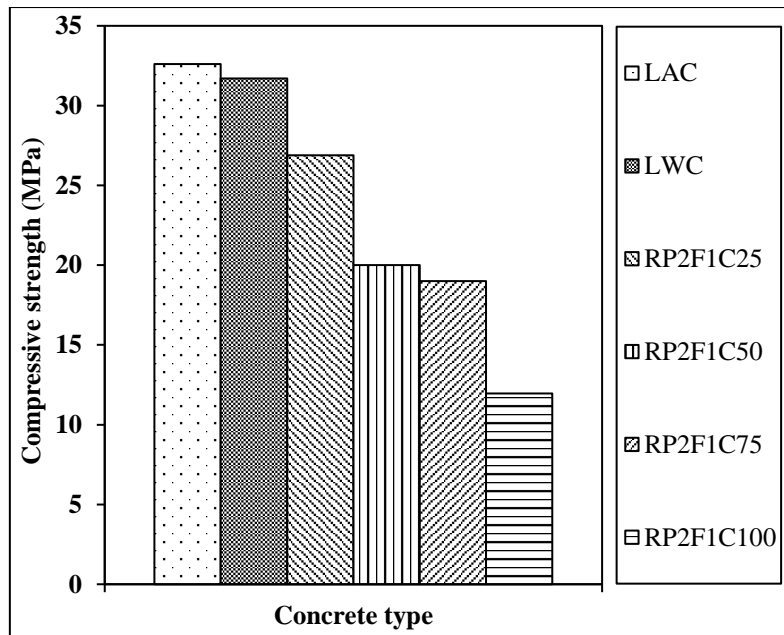
269 Similar to the case of fresh density, there was a marginal difference (less than 4%) in dry
 270 density between any of the RP2F1C mixes and LWC. This is attributable to the comparable
 271 dry unit weights of RP2F1A and LWA (see Table 1). Moreover, RP2F1C100 and LYA, which
 272 both included manufactured lightweight aggregate only as CA, had dry density results that

273 differed by less than 3%. These findings are in good agreement with studies [11, 19] where
274 high replacement levels (i.e. 75 to 100%) of normal-weight CA or FA with plastic resulted in
275 a marginal decrease (i.e. 6 to 10%) in dry density. On the other hand, the RP2F1C concrete
276 mixes were less sensitive to the reduction in dry density (i.e. 15 to 23%) reported elsewhere
277 [27, 30, 33] due to replacing normal-weight CA or FA with SLA or WPLA at levels varying
278 from 75 to 100%.

279 The dry density results of the PR2F1C concrete mixes were either within or slightly (i.e. less
280 than 2%) higher than the uppermost limit (1840 kg/m^3) given by ASTM C330/C330M [37] (see
281 Table 4). This suggests that the produced lightweight concrete mixes, with up to 100%
282 replacement level, could be useful in applications where low density is required. This result is
283 important as the use of lightweight concrete can help reduce element size and consequently
284 reduce the cost of materials, handling and transporting, and ultimately the overall cost.

285 **3.2.2 Compressive strength**

286 Figure 8 shows the 28-day compressive strength results for the concrete mixes considered in
287 this study. The LAC and LWC had a 28 day compressive strength of 32.6 and 31.7 MPa,
288 respectively; whereas the RP2F1C concrete mixes had compressive strength results ranging
289 from 12.0 to 26.9 MPa.



290

291

Figure 8: 28 day compressive strength results

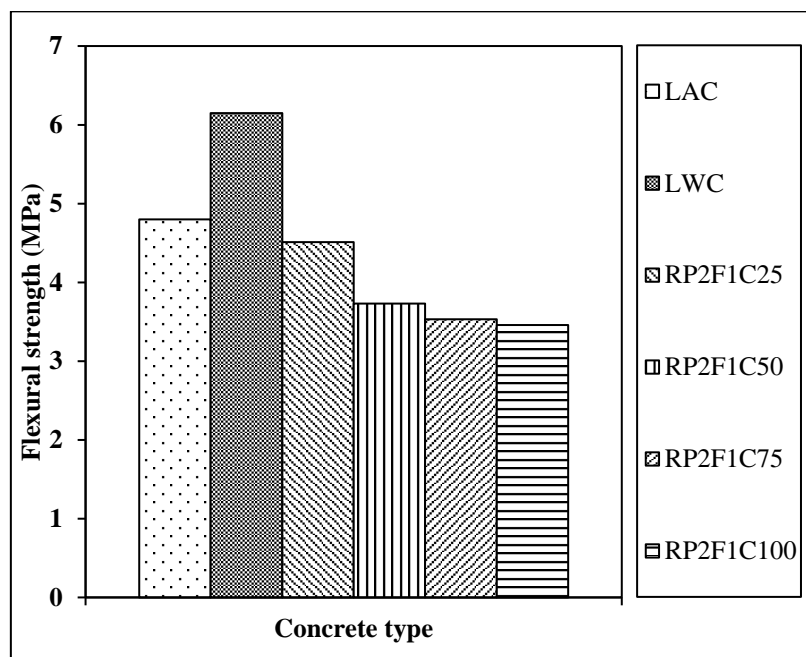
292 The decrease in the compressive strength of the RP2F1C mixes compared with that of LWC
 293 ranged from 15 to 62% (4.8 to 19.7 MPa) as the replacement level was increased from 25 to
 294 100%. Similarly, RP2F1C100 had a 28 day compressive strength that was 63% (20.6 MPa)
 295 less than that of LAC. These results are in agreement with those reductions (ranging from 32
 296 to 81%) reported in the literature [27, 29-31, 33] where 75 to 100% of normal-weight CA or
 297 FA was replaced with plastic-based aggregates (i.e. SLA or WPLA).

298 The reduction in the compressive strength of the RP2F1C mixes is related to the weak
 299 resistance of the interfacial transition zone (ITZ) between the RP2F1A and the cement paste
 300 matrix. This weak resistance results from the weak bonding between RP2F1A and the cement
 301 matrix as further explained in Section 3.2.7. The deterioration in the compressive strength can
 302 also be related to the hydrophobic nature of the plastic existing in the RP2F1A matrix, which
 303 prevents good bonding and generates a wall effect as explained in Section 3.2.7. This
 304 observation is consistent with those reported elsewhere [18, 22].

305 The RP2F1C mixes with 25, 50 and 75% replacement levels had compressive strength results
306 higher than 17 MPa as required by ASTM C330/C330M [37]. However, of these mixes, only
307 RP2F1C25 meets both the density and the compressive strength requirements listed in Table
308 4. Thus, the results suggest that RP2F1C25 could potentially be used in structural applications
309 where low density and moderate strength are required.

310 3.2.3 Flexural strength

311 Figure 9 shows the flexural strength results for the concrete mixes considered in this study.
312 LAC and LWC had a flexural strength of 4.8 and 6.2 MPa, respectively; whereas the RP2F1C
313 concrete mixes had flexural strength results ranging from 3.5 to 4.5 MPa.



314

315 Figure 9: Flexural strength results

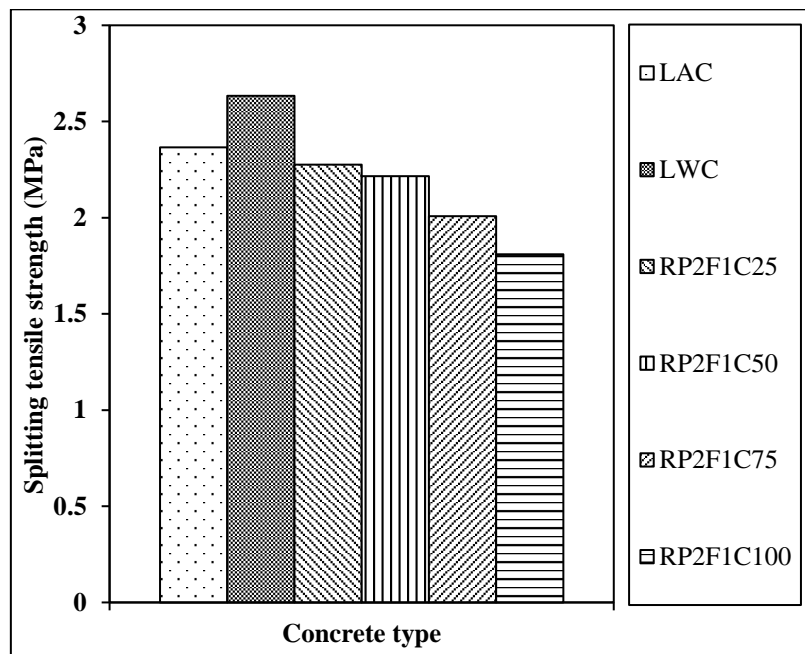
316 The reduction in the flexural strength of the RP2F1C mixes compared with that of LWC ranged
317 from 27 to 44% (1.7 to 2.7 MPa) as the replacement level was increased from 25 to 100%.
318 Additionally, RP2F1C100 had a flexural strength that was 27% (1.3 MPa) less than that of
319 LAC. These results are in broad agreement with the findings of Saikia and de Brito [12] and

320 Rai et al. [24] who observed a reduction of 40 to 50% due to the increase in plastic replacement
321 from 15 to 75%.

322 Similar to the case of compressive strength, the decrease in flexural strength may be explained
323 by the weak adhesion between the RP2F1A and the cement paste due to the hydrophobic nature
324 of plastic [22, 24]. It can also be ascribed to the reduction in the amount of rigid natural
325 aggregate that was replaced by lightweight aggregate [9].

326 3.2.4 Splitting tensile strength

327 Figure 10 presents the splitting tensile strength results for all concrete mixes. LAC and LWC
328 had a splitting tensile strength of 2.4 and 2.6 MPa, respectively. The splitting tensile strength
329 of the RP2F1C concrete mixes ranged from 1.8 to 2.3 MPa.



330

331

Figure 10: Splitting tensile strength results

332 The decrease in the splitting tensile strength of the RP2F1C mixes compared with that of LWC
333 ranged from 12 to 31% (0.3 to 0.8 MPa) as the replacement level was increased from 25 to
334 100%. Moreover, RP2F1C100 had a splitting tensile strength that was 25% (0.6 MPa) less than
335 that of LAC. These results are in line with the findings of Choi et al. [27] and Jansen et al. [30]

336 who reported splitting tensile strength reductions of 33 and 26% as a result of substituting 75
337 and 100% of normal-weight CA and FA with synthetic plastic aggregates, respectively.
338 Additionally, the percentage reduction in the splitting tensile strength of the RP2F1C concrete
339 mixes is less than that reported in the extant literature. For example, reductions of 47 and 60%
340 were reported due to replacing 50 and 80% of normal-weight CA with plastic, respectively [16,
341 17].

342 Similar to the explanation given for the reduction in compressive and flexural strengths, the
343 splitting tensile strength of the RP2F1C concrete mixes decreases due to the weak bond
344 between the RP2F1A and the cement paste. This is supported by the SEM and optical images
345 depicted in Figures 13 and 14, respectively (see Section 3.2.7).

346 The splitting tensile strength of the RP2F1C mixes with 25 and 50% replacement levels was
347 higher than 2.1 MPa as required by ASTM C330/C330M [37]. However, similar to the case of
348 compressive strength, only RP2F1C25 meets both the density and the splitting tensile strength
349 requirements listed in Table 4. This result further confirms the potential of RP2F1C25 as a
350 sustainable lightweight structural concrete mix.

351 **3.2.5 Modulus of elasticity**

352 Figure 11 shows the static modulus of elasticity results for all concrete mixes. LAC and LWC
353 had an elastic modulus of 18.9 and 17.3 GPa, respectively. The elastic modulus of the RP2F1C
354 concrete mixes ranged from 7.9 to 15.4 GPa.

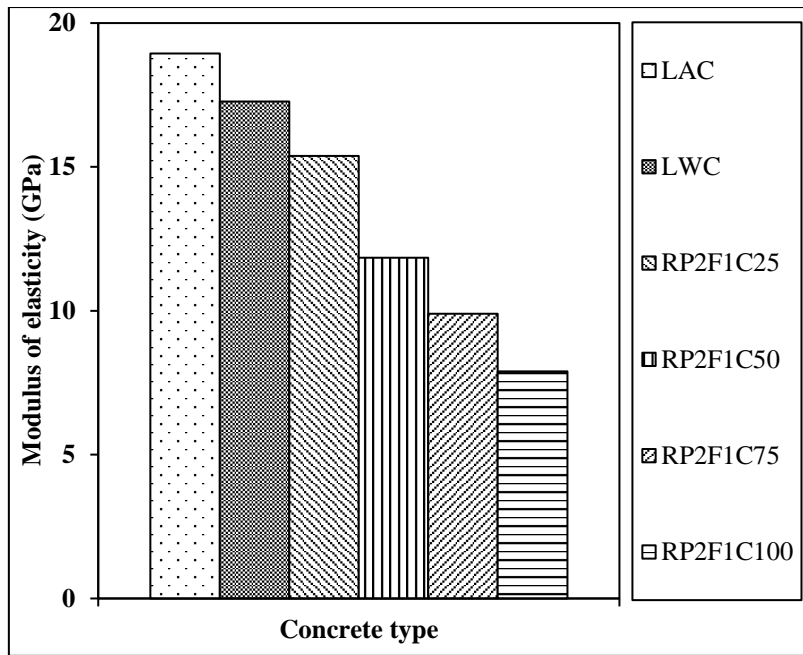


Figure 11: Elastic modulus results

355

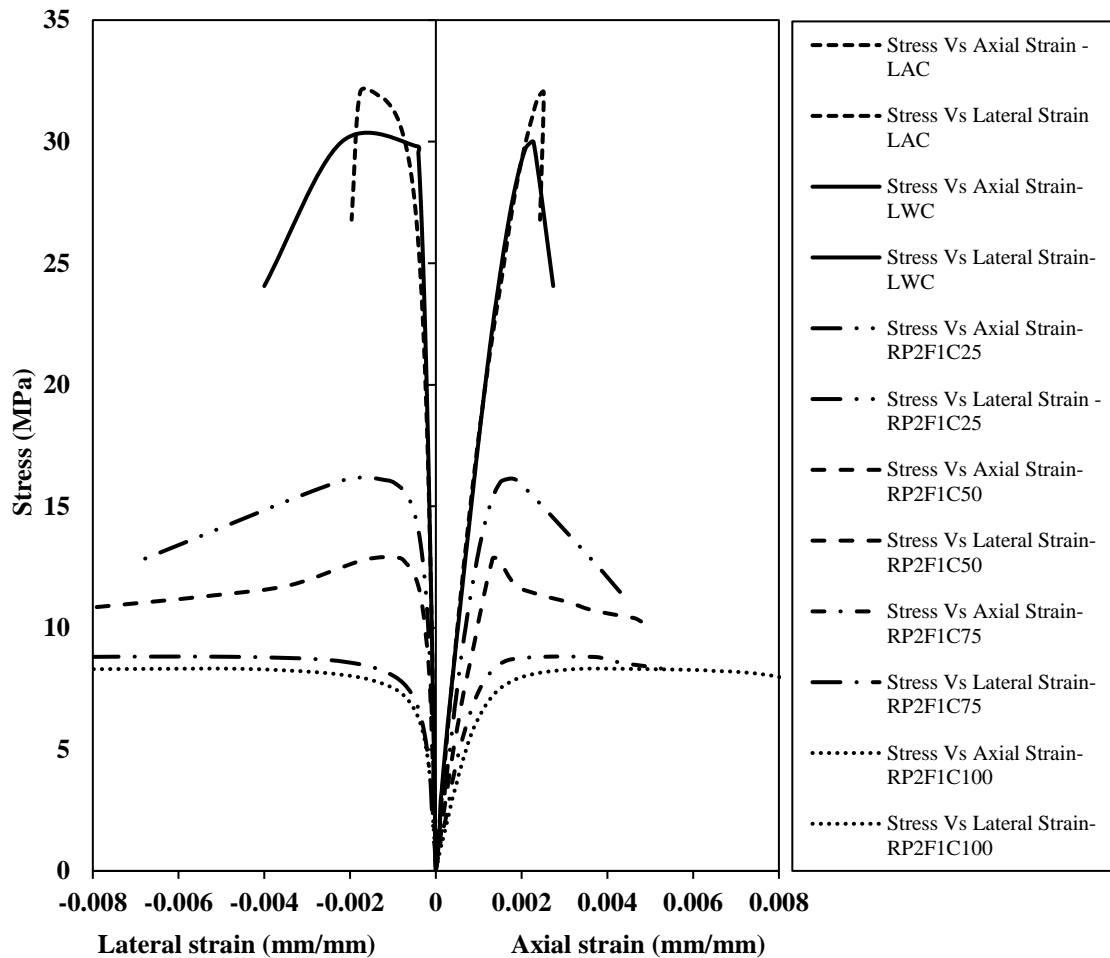
356

357 The addition of RP2F1A negatively impacts the elastic modulus of concrete. The decrease in
 358 the elastic modulus of the RP2F1C mixes compared with that of LWC ranged from 11 to 54%
 359 (1.9 to 9.4 GPa) as the replacement level was increased from 25 to 100%. Furthermore,
 360 RP2F1C100 had an elastic modulus that was 58% (11 GPa) less than that of LAC. Nonetheless,
 361 the reduction in the elastic modulus of the RP2F1C concrete mixes is still lower than that
 362 reported in previous studies where plastic particles were used as direct replacement for CA.
 363 For example, reductions ranging from 57 to 73% were reported as a result of substituting 50 to
 364 80% of normal-weight CA with plastic [13, 16, 17]. The reduction in the elastic modulus of
 365 the RP2F1C concrete mixes can be explained by the relatively lower elastic modulus of
 366 RP2F1A compared to that of LYA and LWA. The low elastic modulus of RP2F1A is attributed
 367 to the low modulus of elasticity of the plastic present in its matrix.

368 Of the RP2F1C concrete mixes, RP2F1C25 has potential for use in structural applications. This
 369 is based on the relatively small difference in elastic modulus (i.e. 11% (1.9 GPa)) between
 370 LWC and RP2F1C25.

371 **3.2.6 Stress-strain behaviour**

372 Figure 12 depicts the stress-strain behaviour of the concrete mixes considered in this study.



373

374

Figure 12: Stress-strain curves

375 It can be seen that both LWC and LAC had comparable behaviour where the stress-axial strain

376 response is quasilinear up to the peak stress. The sharp drop in stress is a characteristic of brittle

377 failure. This behaviour is significantly affected by the addition of RP2F1A. For the RP2F1C

378 mixes, the peak stress decreased whereas the stress-strain response became more ductile as the

379 replacement level was increased from 25 to 100%. This finding is consistent with the results

380 of Babu et al. [15] who observed an increase in the steepness of the stress–strain response with

381 the reduction of plastic replacement in the mix. As can be seen in Figure 12, RP2F1C100 had

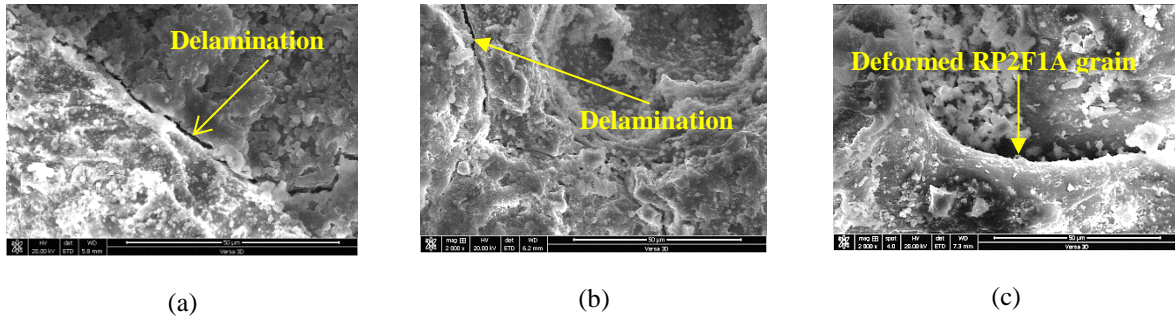
382 the most ductile behaviour. A similar finding was reported by Kashi et al. [29], Jansen et al.

383 [30] and Malloy et al. [31]; who all observed that concrete made with SLA kept deforming at
384 the peak load before fully disintegrating. The ductility, or reduced brittleness, of the RP2F1C
385 mixes is a unique feature not shared by conventional lightweight concrete. This feature would
386 prove useful in applications where failure occurs due to dynamic and/or repeated loads, e.g.
387 pavements.

388 **3.2.7 Microscopic investigation**

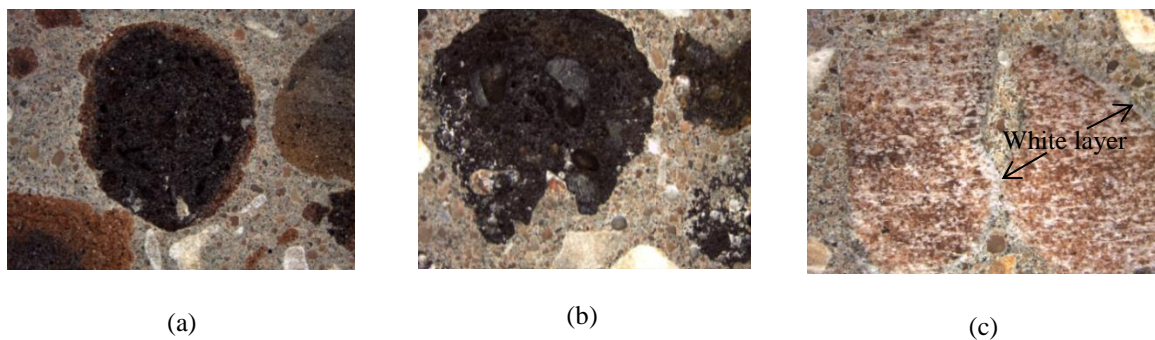
389 A detailed analysis of the microstructure of LAC, LWC and RP2F1C100 was performed using
390 SEM imaging and an optical microscope, as shown in Figures 13 and 14 respectively. The
391 microscopic investigation was performed on small thin sections of concrete samples. These
392 samples were taken from the un-fractured side of the flexural strength specimens using a
393 diamond cutter under running water without applying mechanical force.

394 As can be seen in Figure 13, the SEM images show delamination and a major crack formation
395 in LAC and LWC due to a weak interfacial transition zone (ITZ). In the case of RP2F1C100,
396 the fibrous structure of the aggregate surface, which works as cross-linking bridges, changes
397 the mode of failure where any major crack formation disappears due to the relatively high
398 deformability of the RP2F1A particles compared with that of LYA and LWA. Therefore,
399 during load application, stress transfer from the cement matrix to the RP2F1A particles, which
400 have a low modulus of elasticity, results in the relatively higher deformation of the RP2F1A
401 particles. This ultimately leads to the collapse of the RP2F1A composite. This may explain the
402 reason behind the strength deterioration of the RP2F1C mixes compared with that of LWC and
403 LAC.



404 Figure 13: SEM images of (a) LAC, (b) LWC and (c) RP2F1C100 (28 days, enlargement:
 405 2000×)

406 The microscopic images shown in Figure 14 indicate that the LWA and LYA have a porous
 407 structure. In addition, LWA and LYA have sharp boundaries which refine the ITZ and make it
 408 stronger than the ITZ formed in RP2F1C100. Diffused boundaries were observed in RP2F1A
 409 due to its fibrous structure which affects the mode of failure of RP2F1A and explains its ductile
 410 behaviour. Moreover, in the case of RP2F1C100, there is a thin white layer between the
 411 RP2F1A and the cement matrix. This phenomenon can be explained by the fact that the
 412 impervious nature of RP2F1A hinders the water-cement reaction around the surface of the
 413 aggregate, which eventually creates a wall or layer at this interface. Therefore, this layer
 414 prevents good bonding, which can also be taken as another justification for the lower strength
 415 achieved by the RP2F1C mixes.



416 Figure 14: Optical microscopic images of (a) LAC, (b) LWC and (c) RP2F1C100

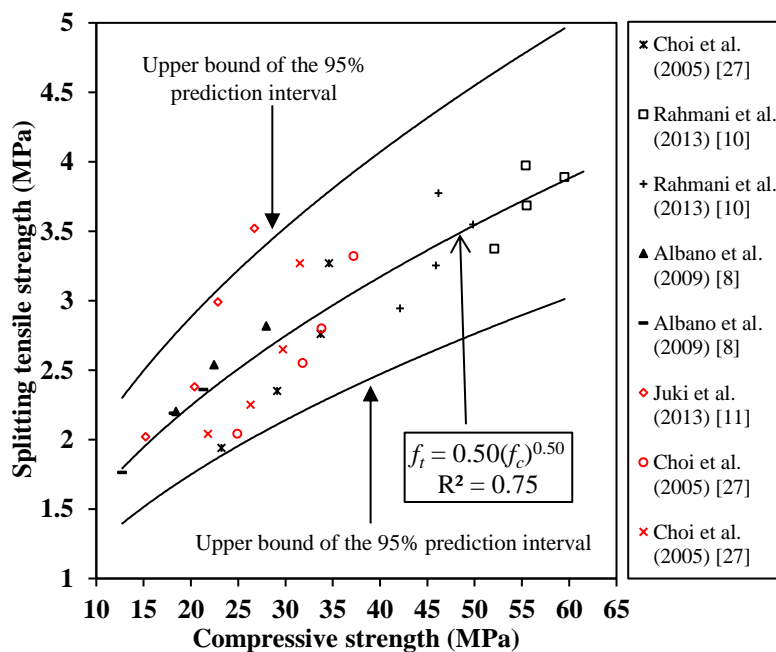
417

418 **4.0 Correlation between mechanical properties**

419 **4.1 Correlation between splitting tensile strength and compressive strength**

420 Experimental results from the extant literature [8, 10-11, 27] were used to examine the
 421 correlation between the 28-day splitting tensile strength (f_t) and the 28-day cylinder
 422 compressive strength (f_c). Figure 15 presents the variation of f_t with f_c for lightweight concrete
 423 containing plastic aggregate. Using regression analysis, the relationship between f_t and f_c may
 424 be expressed as follows.

425
$$f_t = 0.50(f_c)^{0.50} \tag{Eq. 1}$$



426

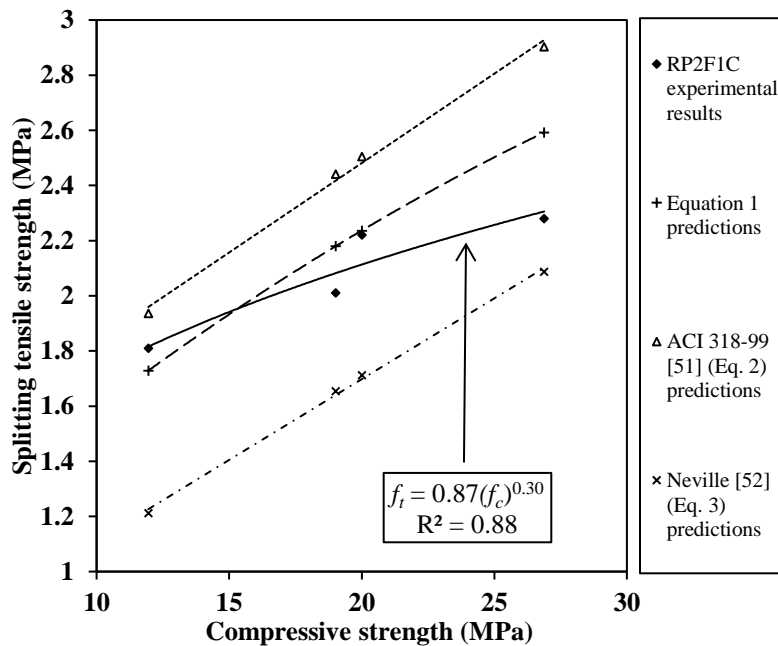
427 Figure 15: Correlation between splitting tensile strength and compressive strength

428 As can be seen in Figure 15, Equation 1 shows that f_t is a power function of f_c . This implies
 429 that the ratio of f_t to f_c decreases with increasing strength.

430 Figure 16 compares the predictions of Equation 1 as well as those of empirical models from
 431 the published literature, i.e. ACI 318-99 [51] (Eq. 2) and Neville [52] (Eq. 3), with the splitting
 432 tensile strength results of this study.

433 $f_t = 0.56(f_c)^{0.50}$ (Eq. 2)

434 $f_t = 0.23(f_c)^{0.67}$ (Eq. 3)



435
 436 Figure 16: Comparison between the experimental results and the predictions of the analytical
 437 models relating splitting tensile strength to compressive strength

438 As can be seen in Figure 16, the predictions of Equation 1 are more accurate compared to those
 439 of ACI 318-99 and Neville models. ACI 318-99 [51] empirical model overestimates the
 440 splitting tensile strength results by 7 to 27.3%; whereas Neville’s model [52] underestimates
 441 the experimental results by 8.5 to 33%. This is not surprising given that, unlike Equation 1,
 442 ACI 318-99 and Neville models were not developed specifically for lightweight concrete
 443 containing plastic aggregate. Figure 16 shows also that the difference between the predictions
 444 of Equation 1 and the experimental results increases with increasing strength. This reflects the
 445 need for a more accurate model. Equation 4 is therefore proposed for predicting the splitting
 446 tensile strength of the RP2F1C concrete mixes.

447 $f_t = 0.87(f_c)^{0.30}$ (Eq. 4)

448 Table 5 presents the percentage difference between the predictions of Equations 1 to 4 and the
 449 experimental results. Table 5 clearly shows that Equation 4 provides excellent estimates, i.e.
 450 within $\pm 5\%$, for the splitting tensile strength of the RP2F1C concrete mixes.

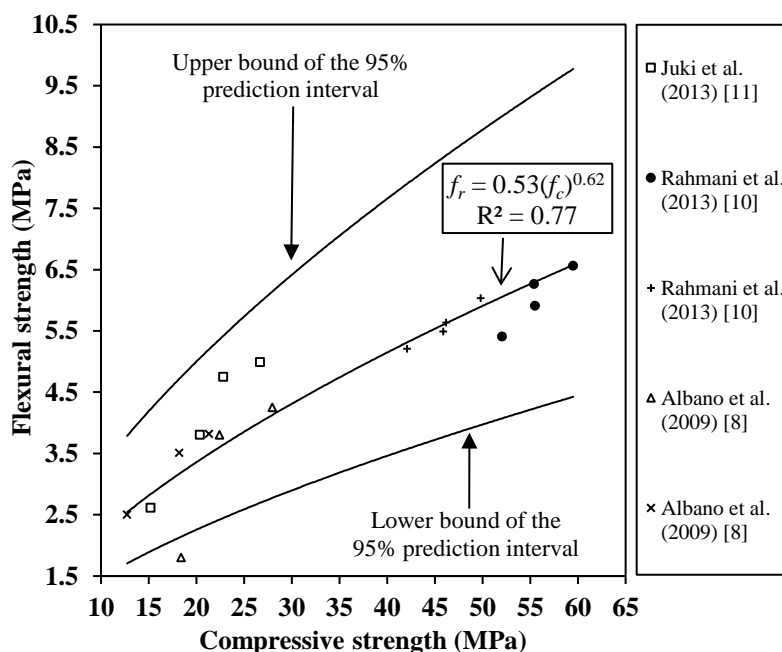
451 Table 5: Percentage difference in model predictions for the splitting tensile strength

Concrete type	Percentage difference between the predicted and experimental results			
	Eq. 1	Eq. 2	Eq. 3	Eq. 4
RP2F1C25	13.7	27.3	-8.5	2.4
RP2F1C50	0.7	12.8	-22.9	-3.7
RP2F1C75	8.4	21.5	-17.7	4.7
RP2F1C100	-4.5	7.0	-33.0	-1.2

452

453 4.2 Correlation between flexural strength and compressive strength

454 The experimental results described in Section 4.1 were also used to examine the relationship
 455 between the 28-day flexural strength (f_r) and f_c . Figure 17 shows the correlation between f_r and
 456 f_c for lightweight concrete containing plastic aggregate.



457

458 Figure 17: Correlation between flexural strength and compressive strength

459 Equation 5, which is based on regression analysis, gives the relationship between f_r and f_c .

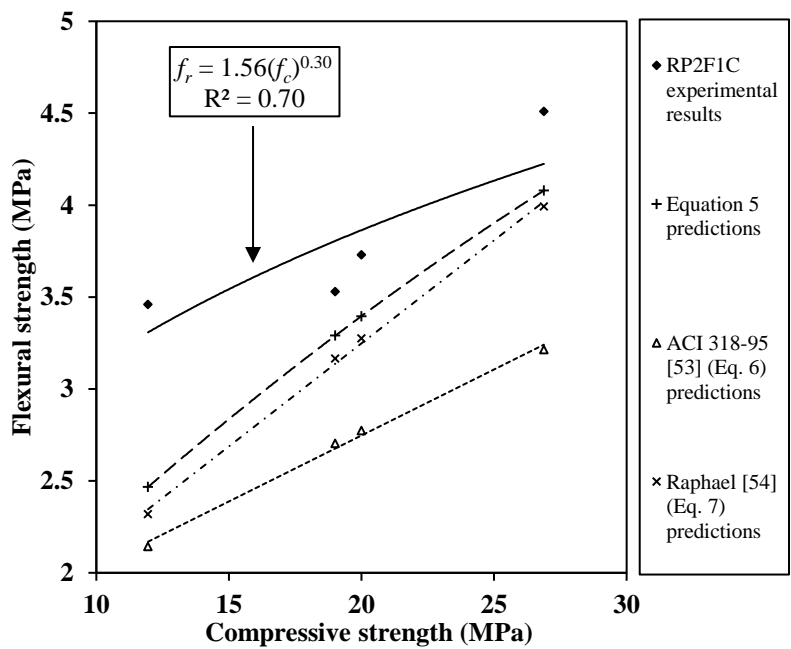
460 $f_r = 0.53(f_c)^{0.62}$ (Eq. 5)

461 Equation 5 as well as the empirical models proposed by ACI 318-95 [53] (Eq. 6) and Raphael
 462 [54] (Eq. 7) were used to predict the flexural strength of the RP2F1C concrete mixes.

463 $f_r = 0.62(f_c)^{0.50}$ (Eq. 6)

464 $f_r = 0.44(f_c)^{0.67}$ (Eq. 7)

465 As can be seen in Figure 18, both Equation 5 and Raphael's [54] empirical model underestimate
 466 the flexural strength of the RP2F1C concrete mixes by 6.8 to 13.1% for f_c values ranging from
 467 19.0 to 26.9 MPa. Additionally, both models significantly underestimate the flexural strength
 468 at $f_c = 12.0$ MPa. The ACI 318-95 [53] empirical model significantly underestimates the
 469 flexural strength, by 23.4 to 38.1%, throughout the tested strength range. This was to be
 470 expected because, as explained previously, the ACI 318-95 [53] empirical model was not
 471 developed specifically for lightweight concrete containing plastic aggregate.



472
 473 Figure 18: Comparison between the experimental results and the predictions of the analytical
 474 models relating flexural strength to compressive strength

475 The results shown in Figure 18 demonstrate the need for an improved model. Thus, Equation
 476 8 is suggested for predicting the flexural strength of the RP2F1C concrete mixes.

$$477 \quad f_r = 1.56(f_c)^{0.30} \quad (\text{Eq. 8})$$

478 Table 6 compares the percentage difference between the predictions of Equations 5, 6, 7 and 8
 479 and the experimental results. As can be seen in Table 6, Equation 8 gives the best predictions,
 480 i.e. within $\pm 7.2\%$, for the flexural strength of the RP2F1C concrete mixes.

481 Table 6: Percentage difference in model predictions for the flexural strength

Concrete type	Percentage difference between the predicted and experimental results			
	Eq. 5	Eq. 6	Eq. 7	Eq. 8
RP2F1C25	-9.6	-28.7	-12.5	-7.2
RP2F1C50	-9.0	-25.7	-13.1	2.7
RP2F1C75	-6.8	-23.4	-11.2	6.9
RP2F1C100	-28.7	-38.1	-33.5	-5.1

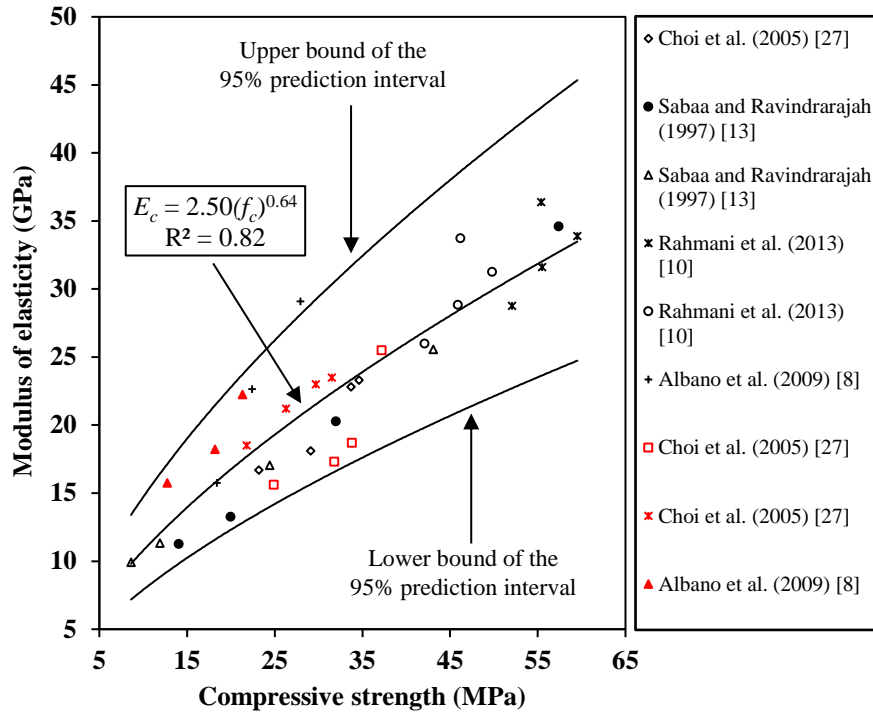
482

483 4.3 Correlation between modulus of elasticity and compressive strength

484 Similar to the cases of the splitting tensile strength and flexural strength, a relationship between
 485 the modulus of elasticity (E_c) and f_c was deduced using experimental results from the extant
 486 literature [8, 10, 13, 27]. Figure 19 illustrates the variation between E_c and f_c for lightweight
 487 concrete containing plastic aggregate. Based on regression analysis, the relationship between
 488 E_c and f_c may be expressed as follows.

$$489 \quad E_c = 2.50(f_c)^{0.64} \quad (\text{Eq. 9})$$

490



491

492

Figure 19: Correlation between elastic modulus and compressive strength

493

Equation 9 together with empirical models from the published literature; i.e. ACI 318-05 [55]

494

(Eq. 10), BS 8110 [56] (Eq. 11), and Perry et al. [57] (Eq. 12); were used to predict the elastic

495

modulus of the RP2F1C concrete mixes.

496

$$E_c = (\gamma_w)^{1.5} \times (43 \times (10^{-6})) \times (f_c)^{0.50} \quad (\text{Eq. 10})$$

497

$$E_c = (\gamma_w)^{2.0} \times (17 \times (10^{-7})) \times (f_c)^{0.33} \quad (\text{Eq. 11})$$

498

$$E_c = (\gamma_w)^{1.53} \times (7 \times (10^{-5})) \times (f_c)^{0.25} \quad (\text{Eq. 12})$$

499

In Equations 10-12, γ_w is the dry density of concrete in kg/m^3 .

500

Figure 20 depicts the comparison between the predictions of Equations 9 to 12 and the

501

experimental results for the elastic modulus of the RP2F1C concrete mixes. All models

502

overestimate the elastic modulus of the RP2F1C concrete mixes. The predictions of Equation

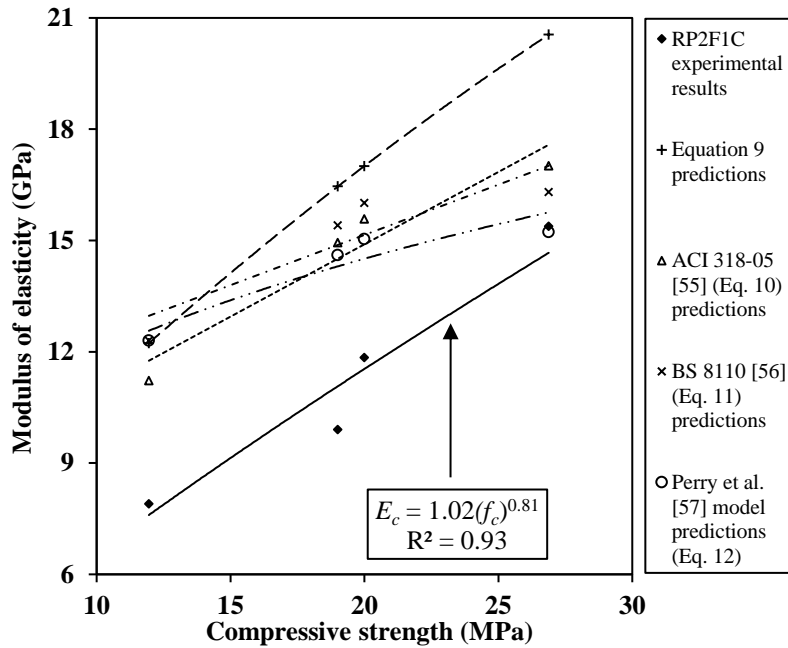
503

9 are 33.6 to 66.4% higher than the corresponding experimental results. The remaining three

504

models predicted the elastic modulus of RP2F1C25 with an error of 10.6, 6 and -1.0% for

505 Equations 10, 11 and 12, respectively. However, the three models overestimated the elastic
 506 modulus of the remaining RP2F1C mixes by 26.9 to 55.9%. Hence it can be concluded that
 507 none of the investigated models can be used to accurately predict the elastic modulus of the
 508 RP2F1C concrete mixes.



509
 510 Figure 20: Comparison between the experimental results and the predictions of the analytical
 511 models relating elastic modulus to compressive strength

512 As can be seen in Figure 20, regression analysis suggests that the elastic modulus of the
 513 RP2F1C concrete mixes is best given by Equation 13.

514
$$E_c = 1.02(f_c)^{0.81} \tag{Eq. 13}$$

515 Table 7 gives the percentage difference between the predictions of Equations 9 to 13 and the
 516 experimental results. As can be seen in Table 7, Equation 13 offers the best predictions for the
 517 elastic modulus of the RP2F1C concrete mixes with an error ranging from -2.5 to 11.9%.

518
 519
 520

521 Table 7: Percentage difference in model predictions for the elastic modulus

Concrete type	Percentage difference between the predicted and experimental results				
	Eq. 9	Eq. 10	Eq. 11	Eq. 12	Eq. 13
RP2F1C25	33.6	10.6	6.0	-1.0	-4.6
RP2F1C50	43.6	31.5	35.2	26.9	-2.5
RP2F1C75	66.4	51.1	55.8	47.6	11.9
RP2F1C100	55	42.2	55.8	55.9	-3.6

522
 523 Equations 4, 8 and 13 provide excellent predictions for the experimental results of this study.
 524 However, further research is required to confirm their applicability to concrete mixes with
 525 different manufactured plastic aggregates, W/C ratios and cement contents.

526 **5.0 Conclusions**

527 This paper examines the effect of RP2F1A, a manufactured plastic aggregate, on the fresh,
 528 hardened and microstructure properties of lightweight concrete. The manufactured plastic
 529 aggregate was used as replacement for pumice lightweight aggregate between 25-100%, on a
 530 volumetric basis, at intervals of 25%. It was also used as full replacement for Lytag aggregate.
 531 This paper also presents predictive models for the mechanical properties of the concrete mixes
 532 incorporating RP2F1A. The main conclusions of this study are detailed below.

- 533 • The slump of the RP2F1C concrete mixes decreased, by 11-23% (25-50 mm) compared
 534 to that of LWC, with the increase in replacement level from 25 to 100%. However, the
 535 difference in fresh and hardened density between the RP2F1C concrete mixes and the
 536 control mixes was insignificant (i.e. less than 4%).
- 537 • The control mixes had better mechanical properties than the RP2F1C concrete mixes.
 538 The compressive strength, flexural strength, splitting tensile strength and elastic
 539 modulus of the RP2F1C concrete mixes decreased by 15-62%, 27-44%, 12-31% and
 540 11-54%, respectively, with the increase in replacement level from 25-100%. Totally

541 replacing LYA with RP2F1A had a similar detrimental effect on the mechanical
542 properties.

543 • The results demonstrate that RP2F1C25, the concrete mix containing RP2F1A at a
544 replacement level of 25%, meets the requirements of ASTM C330/C330M; which
545 increases its potential for use as a sustainable lightweight structural concrete mix.

546 • The control mixes had a quasilinear stress-strain response up to the peak stress followed
547 by sudden failure. In contrast, the RP2F1C concrete mixes had a ductile post-peak
548 behaviour that was enhanced by the increase in replacement level. Therefore, the
549 RP2F1C mixes can potentially be used in those applications subjected to dynamic
550 and/or repeated loads, such as pavements.

551 • SEM images showed that the brittle failure of the control mixes is attributable to a
552 major crack formation due to a weak interfacial transition zone. On the other hand, the
553 ductile failure of RP2F1C100 can be ascribed to the high deformability of the RP2F1A
554 particles. Optical microscope images indicated sharp boundaries between LWA/LYA
555 and the cement matrix, contrary to the diffused boundaries observed between RP2F1A
556 and the cement matrix.

557 • The predictions of the proposed models were in good agreement with the experimental
558 results for the mechanical properties of the RP2F1C concrete mixes. Until further
559 research is carried out, the proposed models should only be used for the studied type
560 of concrete at a W/C of 0.50.

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