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**Workability and compressive strength development of self-consolidating concrete incorporating rice husk ash and foundry sand waste – A preliminary experimental study**

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1 **Workability and compressive strength development of self-consolidating**  
2 **concrete incorporating rice husk ash and foundry sand waste — A**  
3 **preliminary experimental study**

4  
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6  
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15  
16 **Abstract**

17 The combined advantages of wastes in high-performance concrete production are  
18 currently popular topics of investigation. This study aims to examine the effect of foundry sand  
19 waste (FDW) as a fine aggregate replacement (30 and 50% wt) on the properties of self-  
20 consolidating concrete (SCC) mixed with untreated rice husk ash (RHA) as a cement  
21 replacement (10 and 20% wt) with controlling water-binder materials ratios (w/b) of 0.35 and  
22 0.45. The workability and strength characteristics of SCC are considered. The results indicate  
23 that the increase in FDW amount affects the SCC with RHA, increases the required  
24 superplasticizer and setting times compared to the control SCC, and decreases the density and  
25 slump flow loss. The incorporation of RHA and FDW decreases the filling and passing ability

26 of the SCC. Based on the workability requirements specified by EFNARC guidelines, SCC  
27 mixtures exhibited acceptable V-funnel performance at replacement levels of RHA and FDW  
28 not more than 10 and 30 wt% and achieved the highest compressive and splitting strengths.

29

30 **Keywords:** Self-consolidating concrete; Foundry sand waste; Rice husk ash; Workability  
31 Compressive strength

32

### 33 **1. Introduction**

34 Almost 30 years ago, in 1993, at the University of Tokyo, Japan, self-consolidating  
35 concrete (SCC) was proven to have the advanced potential for applications in modern  
36 construction [1]. SCC has high-performance characteristics such as high flowing when the  
37 fluid fills into complicated moulds and passes congested reinforcing steel without excessive  
38 segregation [2], channel, and normal bleedings. SCC can also develop highly early- and long-  
39 term mechanical properties and durability [3]. These numerous potentials resulted in the  
40 continuously increasing demand for concrete construction materials and related concrete  
41 composites in the present [4,5]. However, a small disadvantage of SCC, particularly powder-  
42 type SCC, is the requirement for a high powder content to overcome the lubrication and fluid  
43 nature of SCC, which causes autogenous shrinkages. Moreover, the high pure-cement content  
44 (control SCC) increases the high temperature from hydration and causes thermal cracking in  
45 the concrete structure, which affects long-term durability [6,7]. One of these negative effects  
46 can be resolved by using pozzolan materials such as fly ash, silica fume, meta-kaolin, etc. In  
47 addition to reducing the cement content, pozzolan materials such as rice husk ash (RHA) can  
48 improve the early- and later-stage compressive strength and decrease the water permeability of  
49 SCC [8].

50           Currently, RHA is a valued by-product from the burning process of rice husk/hull to  
51 produce electricity worldwide [9]. Because RHA has a similar intrinsic heating value to coal,  
52 rice-based agricultural countries can produce a reasonable amount of electricity using rice  
53 husk/hull; the by-product is RHA with 20–25% wt remnants from burning, which can be used  
54 as cement replacement material. Originally, RHA was disposed into landfills and induced high  
55 costs of environmental management because of the long-term treatment [10,11]. Thus, the use  
56 of RHA as cement replacement materials is a sustainable method but must be investigated for  
57 characterization and practical applications.

58           RHA can be used to produce concrete and affects numerous properties, such as the  
59 internal pore structure, setting time, and compressive strength development [4,9]. However, the  
60 high porosity of RHA particles requires a high dosage of superplasticizer and makes it harder  
61 to mix, compact, and finish the concrete. Therefore, the optimal RHA content to produce high-  
62 strength and high-performance concrete is 20% wt [11,12].

63           Apart from the use of RHA as an OPC replacement material, the effects of fine and  
64 coarse aggregates on the properties of SCC should be considered; in particular, in most SCC  
65 production, the quality and quantity of fine aggregate are dominant factors to control SCC  
66 behaviour. Because of the shortage of fine aggregate, e.g., natural sand, this study examines the  
67 possibility of recycling foundry sand waste (FDW) as a fine aggregate (river sand)  
68 replacement.

69           FDW is the main by-product of the casting process in the production of internal and  
70 external engine parts [13,14]. Currently, numerous studies are investigating the effect of this  
71 waste on concrete properties for use as filler, embankments, etc. [15,16]. FDW has been  
72 suggested as a fine aggregate replacement [17-21]. For example, Pathak and Siddique [3] used  
73 spent foundry sand at 10% wt replacement in sand and heated the concrete specimen at a high  
74 temperature. The results show that there is a little enhancement in compressive strength, but the

75 viscosity-modifying admixture dosage decreases. However, most studies focused on this point  
76 and no study examined the use of FDW in SCC production.

77           With highly porous RHA particles, RHA-mixed SCC exhibits limitations in practical  
78 production and usage. The FDW incorporation may affect the properties of SCC in both fresh  
79 and hardened states, which has not been thoroughly investigated and will be the novelty of this  
80 study. Combining the advantages of the materials is significant for improving the SCC and  
81 elimination of waste, which is a selection point for environmentally friendly SCC and the  
82 combined benefit of these materials. Due to the valuable combined advantages of the materials,  
83 the objective of this study is to incorporate the use of untreated RHA as the cement  
84 replacement material and of FDW as the fine aggregate replacement in the SCC production. As  
85 mentioned, RHA is used in ordinary Portland cement (OPC) at limited contents of 20% wt and  
86 FDW is used to fill the voids within RHA particles.

87

## 88 **2. Materials and methods**

89           To achieve the objective of this study, specific mixtures of RHA and FDW were  
90 developed. First, the water-binder materials (OPC and/or RHA) with w/b ratios of 0.35 and  
91 0.45 were controlled while maintaining the binder materials of 650 kg/m<sup>3</sup>. The RHA  
92 replacement in the OPC content was 10 and 20% wt, whereas the FDW replacement of fine  
93 aggregate (river sand) was 30 and 50% wt. In total, 14 SCC mixtures were designed and  
94 experimentally investigated as shown in Table 1. The standard OPC was produced in Thailand  
95 with a specific gravity of  $3.14 \pm 0.02$ . Its properties were in accordance with ASTM  
96 C150/C150M–12 [22]. Here, the properties of the control SCC and RHA-containing SCC were  
97 compared. The local coarse aggregate was crushed limestone rock, whose gradation complied  
98 with ASTM C33/C33M–18 [23]. The properties of river sand were specified in  
99 ASTM C33/C33M–18 [23]. The specific gravities of the crushed rock and river sand were 2.64

100 and 2.72, respectively. The chemical admixture as superplasticizer (Type G) was specified in  
101 ASTM C494/C494–17 [24] with a constant dosage of 1,200 cc. / 100 kg of binder materials  
102 (OPC and RHA) and had a solid content of 42.5% wt. This admixture was used to control the  
103 target slump range at  $70.0 \pm 2.5$  cm. Every SCC specimen was demoulded at  $23.5 \pm 0.5$  hours  
104 after mixing and continuously cured in lime-saturated water at a controlled temperature of  $25 \pm$   
105  $2$  °C until the test time. The test properties are the workability (filling and passing properties),  
106 slump flow loss, setting time, and strength characteristics (compressive strength, splitting  
107 tensile strengths, and their relationships).

108

## 109 **2.1 Materials**

110 The RHA in this study was collected by dust collectors, which were similar in size and  
111 working mechanism to a local electric power plant in Thailand. This plant used rice husk as the  
112 main fuel to burn boilers at a burning temperature of  $870 \pm 20$  °C and drive generators to  
113 produce electricity. In the SCC mixtures with RHA, RHA was untreated and used as received.  
114 RHA had a high SiO<sub>2</sub> content ( $91.45 \pm 1.34\%$  by mass) as detected by X-ray fluorescent (XRF)  
115 as shown in Table 2. Moreover, the RHA particle size, represented with a 50% cumulative  
116 passing, was  $22.31 \pm 0.88$  μm, larger than the OPC particles  $13.50 \pm 0.39$  μm. The specific  
117 surface area was measured using the Brunauer, Emmett and Teller (BET) method; RHA had a  
118 smaller specific surface area ( $364 \pm 9.04$  m<sup>2</sup>/kg) than OPC particles ( $382 \pm 5.02$  m<sup>2</sup>/kg).

119 FDW was obtained from the casting process of the production unit of an engine-part  
120 factory in Thailand. It was directly used as a fine aggregate (river sand) replacement in 30 and  
121 50 wt% with no improving treatment method. The specific surface area of FDW, which was  
122 calculated as mentioned, was  $341 \pm 8.25$  m<sup>2</sup>/kg.

123 As shown in Fig. 1, the percentage cumulative passing distributions of OPC, RHA, and  
124 FDW were calculated and analysed using a laser diffraction particle size analyzer. The results

125 show that the sizes of OPC, RHA, and FDW particles are 0.1–403.2  $\mu\text{m}$ , 0.7–91.1  $\mu\text{m}$ , and  
126 0.2–190.1  $\mu\text{m}$ , respectively. When FDW replaces river sand, it can act as a filler compared to  
127 the particle size of river sand. In other words, the smallest size of sand particles from sieving in  
128 accordance with ASTM C33/C33M–18 [23] was  $1.49 \times 10^{-2}$  cm, which was rather larger than  
129 that of the mixture with 50% cumulative passing of FDW ( $0.239 \times 10^{-2}$  cm) (the preliminary  
130 sieve analysis of river sand in percentage passing in this study was:  $9.51 \times 10^{-1}$  cm) = 100%,  
131 No. 4 ( $4.76 \times 10^{-1}$  cm) = 97.3, No. 8 ( $2.28 \times 10^{-1}$  cm) = 86.10, No. 16 ( $1.19 \times 10^{-1}$  cm) = 66.03,  
132 No. 30 ( $5.95 \times 10^{-2}$  cm = 31.91), No. 50 ( $2.97 \times 10^{-2}$  cm) = 5.66, and No. 100 ( $1.49 \times 10^{-2}$  cm)  
133 = 0.72).

134 The morphologies of OPC, RHA, and FDW are shown in Fig. 2. Compared to OPC  
135 particles, RHA particles are larger and more porous but have smooth surfaces and slightly  
136 irregular shapes. The high porosity of RHA increases the superplasticizer demand to achieve  
137 the targeted slump flow. Compared to OPC particles, FDW particles have more irregular  
138 shapes, similar to sand particles, and are mostly larger in size. Some larger particles of FDW  
139 are accumulations of smaller particles.

140

## 141 **2.2 Items of investigation**

### 142 **2.2.1 Fresh-state properties of SCC**

143 To achieve the targeted slump flow in SCC production (the measured slump flow must  
144 be at least in the range of  $70.0 \pm 2.5$  cm), the properties of SCC can be mainly classified into  
145 filling and passing abilities. The filling ability is the ability to fill the mould under its  
146 gravitational weight and can be determined by ASTM C1611/C1611M–14 [25]. The passing  
147 ability can be evaluated according to ASTM C1621/C1621M–17 [26]. Moreover, we evaluate  
148 the V-funnel flow time [27], unit weight compliance with ASTM C138/C138M–17a [28], and  
149 setting time in accordance with ASTM C403/C403M–16, standard [29].

## 150 **2.2.2 Hardened-state properties of SCC**

151 The methods to test the compressive and splitting tensile strengths of SCC are in  
152 accordance with ASTM C39/C39M–18 [30] and ASTM C496/C496M–17 [31], respectively.

153 Three-hundred and seventy-eight-SCC specimens with a diameter of 15.2 cm and height of  
154 30.4 cm were cast and continuously cured until the test time at 3, 7, 14, 28, 56, 90, 120, 150,  
155 and 180 days. The strengths were evaluated by averaging three values. Moreover, the  
156 relationships of the compressive-splitting tensile strengths were calculated.

157

## 158 **3. Results and discussion**

### 159 **3.1 Properties of fresh SCC**

#### 160 **3.1.1 Superplasticizer requirement to achieve the targeted flow slump of SCC**

161 To achieve the targeted flow slump of SCC ( $70.0 \pm 2.5$  cm), the superplasticizer  
162 requirement of each SCC mixture was determined and is presented in Fig. 3. Compared to the  
163 control SCC (65R0FDW0), an increase in OPC content increases the water requirement from  
164 0.92 to 1.20% per 100 kg binder materials, which implies that a higher surface area requires  
165 more superplasticizer to overcome the internal particle friction and create flowability. This  
166 behaviour is similar for RHA-containing SCC at w/b ratios of 0.35 and 0.45 because the high  
167 porosity of RHA particles increases the superplasticizer doses. The requirements of 0.35-w/b  
168 SCC 65R10FDW0 mixture increased of 1.82%, whereas that of 65R20FDW0 increased of  
169 2.10%. However, when w/b increased from 0.35 to 0.45, the superplasticizer demand of the  
170 65R10FDW0 mix decreased of 0.27%. The mixture of 65R20FDW0 had an identical tendency.

171 Regarding the effect of FDW in the superplasticizer requirement, it was observed that  
172 the FDW replacement increases superplasticizer requirement compared to the control SCC and  
173 RHA-mixed SCC. The increase is more significant when the replacing ratio is 50% wt because  
174 the SCC mix has more FDW, which are finer particles than sand. Therefore, the SCC mixed



175 with FDW requires a higher dosage of superplasticizer. The requirement of the SCC mixed  
176 with FDW was higher than that with w/b ratios of 0.35 and 0.45 because the increase in  
177 amount of finer particles of FDW requires more water.

178

### 179 **3.1.2 Fresh density**

180 Table 3 shows the densities of fresh SCC mixed with RHA, or RHA and FDW. The  
181 increasing amount of RHA results in a lighter fresh density compared to the control SCC  
182 because of the lower specific gravity of RHA compared to cement particles: the densities of  
183 65R10FDW0 and 65R20FDW0 are 0.60 and 1.24% that of SCC, respectively. Moreover, when  
184 FDW replaced sand, the 0.35 w/b-SCC was lighter than the control SCC and RHA-mixed SCC,  
185 e.g., 65R10FDW30 has a decrease of 1.20%, and 65R10FDW50 has a decrease of 1.60%.

186 For the SCC containing RHA and FDW, the fresh density decreases with more FDW.  
187 Thus, the mixture of FDW and fine (river sand) aggregate has a stronger effect than the sand  
188 replacement by FDW and RHA replacement in OPC. For the RHA replacement in OPC, the  
189 fresh density is lower than that of the control SCC.

190

### 191 **3.1.3 Filling ability**

192 As mentioned, the SCC was set to have a slump flow value of  $70.0 \pm 2.5$  cm. The filling  
193 ability can be evaluated using the V-funnel flow time in accordance with EFNARC [27]. As  
194 shown in Table 3, the control SCC mixture of 65R0FDW0 took 7 s to decrease their viscosity.

195 When RHA is included in SCC, the V-funnel flow time increases with more absorption  
196 of RHA particles, as shown in Fig. 4. For example, the flow time increased from 7 s to 9 s  
197 (65R10FDW0) and 10 s (65R20FDW0). Although there was more RHA, OPC had a higher  
198 content to overcome the friction between OPC-OPC, OPC-RHA, and RHA-RHA particles.

199 The replacement addition of FDW significantly affected the flow time. In detail, the  
200 RHA-SCC mixture containing FDW increased the flow time by approximately 1.5 times on  
201 average, respectively, because the high content of FDW increased the viscosity of SCC  
202 compared to the control SCC mixed sand, which makes the SCC mixture form agglomerates  
203 and makes it difficult to flow across the small V-shaped opening.

204 Fig. 5 shows the slump flow loss at 120 minutes after mixing the SCC. The slump flow  
205 loss of the control 0.35-w/b SCC decreased by 21.4% because of the OPC absorption and  
206 increase in hydration reaction. The 0.45-w/b SCC had less slump flow loss than the 0.35-w/b  
207 SCC mixtures because of the higher water content in the mix. When RHA was replaced in the  
208 OPC, the SCC had lower slump flow loss than the control SCC because of the lower  
209 flowability of water absorbed by RHA particles. The SCC mixed with FDW also had a lower  
210 slump flow loss than the control SCC and SCC containing RHA. Moreover, the SCC at 0.45-  
211 w/b had a lower slump flow loss than the 0.35-w/b SCC because of the high free-water content.  
212 Thus, when a high amount of water is absorbed at the saturated point, we can maintain the  
213 fresh state of SCC and limit the low reactivity of the OPC's hydration reaction, which reduces  
214 the slump flow loss.

215 Based on the workability requirements specified by The European Federation of  
216 Specialist Construction Chemicals and Concrete Systems (EFNARC) guidelines for V-funnel  
217 flow times to be 8–12 s [27], SCC mixtures exhibited acceptable V-funnel performance when  
218 they made RHA and FDW at replacement levels of RHA and FDW not more than 10 and 30  
219 wt%.

220

### 221 **3.1.4 Passing ability**

222 To evaluate the passing ability of SCC, as specified in the ASTM C1621/C1621M-17  
223 [26], the results from the J-ring test are shown in Table 3. As expected, the control SCC had no

224 visible blocking. However, there was no occurrence for the SCC mixture with 10 and 20% wt  
225 RHA because of the increasing OPC content, as observed from the remaining amounts of  
226 65R20FDW0 OPC, which was 520 kg/m<sup>3</sup>. This result can imply that when using RHA to  
227 produce SCC, the OPC content at 520 kg/m<sup>3</sup> or more should be specified.

228

### 229 **3.1.5 Setting time**

230 Fig. 6 shows the initial and final setting times of SCC with/without RHA or FDW for  
231 (a) 0.35-w/b and (b) 0.45-w/b. For the control SCC (Fig. 6 (a)), the setting times of SCC  
232 decreased with increasing OPC content according to the high hydration reaction rate of OPC.  
233 Nevertheless, when RHA is used in OPC, the setting times of SCC were extended (increased)  
234 due to the low pozzolan reaction of RHA in the early setting stage. The setting times of SCC  
235 with FDW also increased because of the low reaction of FDW. In addition, the water  
236 absorption of finer FDW particles may affect the internal structure formation of calcium-  
237 silicate-hydrate (C-S-H) of OPC. This phenomenon similarly occurred for SCC with 0.45-w/b  
238 as shown in Fig. 6 (b).

239

## 240 **3.2 Properties of SCC in hardened state**

### 241 **3.2.1 Compressive and splitting tensile strengths**

242 Fig. 7 shows the results of the averaging compressive strength test of SCC. Throughout  
243 the 180 days of testing, the compressive strength of the control SCC, SCC containing RHA,  
244 and RHA containing FDW continuously increased; the developing rate was high in the early  
245 stage and decreased after 90 days.

246 The SCC with RHA (without FDW) has a higher strength development after the final  
247 setting time than the control 0.35- and 0.45- w/b because untreated (unprocessed) RHA has a  
248 constant pozzolan reaction, which increases the compressive strength development. On

249 average, at 180 days of curing, the compressive strength of 10%wt RHA-SCC is 6.64 and  
250 6.71% higher than 0.35-w/b and 0.45-w/b, respectively (Figs. 7 (a) and 7(b)). Moreover, when  
251 FDW is added in the SCC with RHA, the compressive strength is 4.05 and 3.81% higher than  
252 that of the control SCC and 10% wt RHA-SCC, respectively, because after the setting time,  
253 some finer parts of FDW can fill and create a dense internal structure of SCC, particularly the  
254 interfacial transition zone between OPC and river sand particles.

255 As shown in Figs. 7 and 8, the splitting tensile strength ( $y$ ) and compressive strength ( $x$ )  
256 increase and can be plotted with the w/b (Fig. 9) in Eqs. (1) - (2) as follows:

257

$$258 \quad y = 0.126x - 0.246; R^2 = 0.9930 \text{ for } w/b = 0.35 \quad (1)$$

$$259 \quad y = 0.125x - 0.216; R^2 = 0.9916 \text{ for } w/b = 0.45 \quad (2)$$

260

#### 261 4. Conclusions

262 Based on the results of this investigation, the following conclusions are drawn:

- 263 • To achieve the targeted flow slump of SCC ( $70.0 \pm 2.5$  cm), the FDW replacement  
264 of up to 50%wt increases the superplasticizer requirement more than the control  
265 SCC and SCC mixed with RHA while decreasing the fresh density compared to the  
266 control SCC.
- 267 • The use of FDW considerably increases the V-funnel flow time. The RHA-SCC  
268 mixture containing FDW increases the flow time. In addition, SCC mixtures  
269 prepared with 10 and 20% wt RHA have no noticeable blocking.
- 270 • Based on the workability requirements specified by EFNARC guidelines, SCC  
271 mixtures exhibited acceptable V-funnel performance when they made RHA and  
272 FDW at replacement levels of RHA and FDW not more than 10 and 30 wt%.

273           • SCC containing RHA and FDW has higher compressive and splitting tensile  
274           strengths than the control SCC. The 10% RHA-SCC with 30%wt FDW achieved  
275           the highest strength.

276           • It is possible to use RHA and FDW as materials in the production of economically  
277           friendly SCC. Not only can the replacement of OPC reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by  
278           decreasing the OPC but the recycling of fine aggregate as partial replacement in  
279           river sand can also develop sustainability of SCC production.

280

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286

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372 **Figure captions**

373 **Fig. 1** Particle size distributions of OPC, FDW, and RHA in the semilogarithmic scale.

374 **Fig. 2** SEM micrographs (5000×) of (a) OPC, (b) RHA, and (c) FDW.

375 **Fig. 3** Required superplasticizer of the SCC mixtures.

376 **Fig. 4** V-funnel flow time of the SCC mixtures.

377 **Fig. 5** Slump flow loss at 120 min for the SCC mixtures.

378 **Fig. 6** Setting times of the SCC mixtures.

379 **Fig. 7** Compressive strengths of concrete prepared with (a)  $w/b = 0.35$  and (b)  $w/b = 0.45$  and a  
380 binder material content of  $650 \text{ kg/m}^3$ .

381 **Fig. 8** Splitting tensile strengths of concrete prepared with (a)  $w/b = 0.35$  and (b)  $w/b = 0.45$   
382 and a binder material content of  $650 \text{ kg/m}^3$ .

383 **Fig. 9** Relationship between the compressive strength and splitting tensile strength and the (a)  
384 binder material content and (b)  $w/b$  ratios of the SCC mixture.

**Table 1** Mixture proportions of SCC.

SCC Type	w/b ratio	Powder materials (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	OPC (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	RHA (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Sand (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	FDW (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Crushed limestone rock (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Water (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )
65R0FDW0	0.35	650	650	0	961	0	828	227.5
65R10FDW0	0.35	650	585	65	961	0	828	227.5
65R20FDW0	0.35	650	520	130	961	0	828	227.5
65R10FDW30	0.35	650	585	65	673	288	828	227.5
65R10FDW50	0.35	650	585	65	481	481	828	227.5
65R20FDW30	0.35	650	520	130	673	288	828	227.5
65R20FDW50	0.35	650	520	130	481	481	828	227.5
65R0FDW0	0.45	650	650	0	961	0	828	292.5
65R10FDW0	0.45	650	585	65	961	0	828	292.5
65R20FDW0	0.45	650	520	130	961	0	828	292.5
65R10FDW30	0.45	650	585	65	673	288	828	292.5
65R10FDW50	0.45	650	585	65	481	481	828	292.5
65R20FDW30	0.45	650	520	130	673	288	828	292.5
65R20FDW50	0.45	650	520	130	481	481	828	292.5

Remarks: <sup>[1]</sup> **XRYUZ** denotes the following: **X** is the powder material content (OPC + RHA) (650 kg/m<sup>3</sup>), **RY** is the percentage OPC replacement of the rice husk ash (RHA) content (0%, 10%, and 20% wt.), and **FDWZ** is the percentage sand replacement of the foundry sand (FS) content (0%, 30%, and 50% wt.).

**Table 2** Chemical composition and physical properties of OPC, RHA, and FDW.

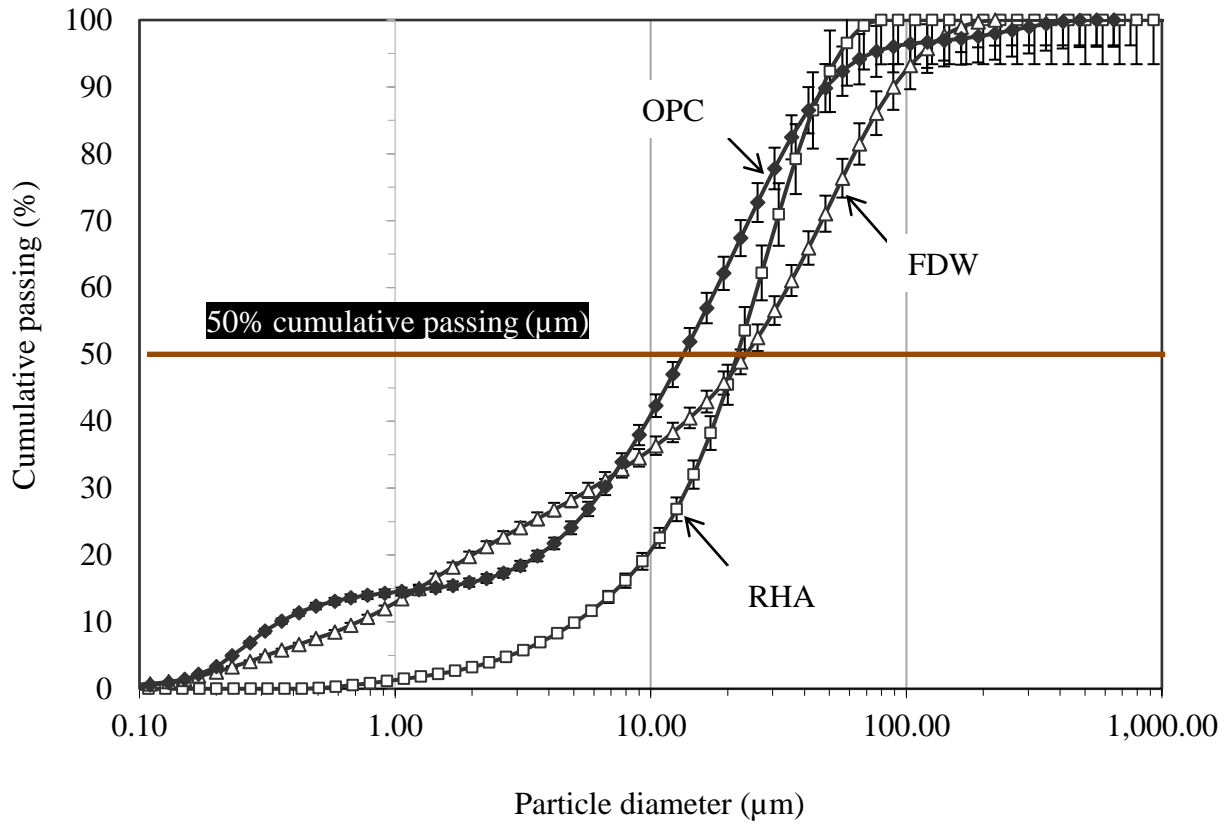
Chemical composition (Percentage by mass, %)	OPC (Mean + SD)	RHA (Mean + SD)	FDW (Mean + SD)
SiO <sub>2</sub>	19.84 ± 0.52	91.45 ± 1.34	82.19 ± 1.24
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	4.21 ± 0.28	0.44 ± 0.06	4.76 ± 0.31
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	3.19 ± 0.09	0.18 ± 0.02	2.63 ± 0.28
MgO	1.25 ± 0.02	0.36 ± 0.20	0.77 ± 0.08
CaO	68.02 ± 1.06	0.99 ± 0.07	1.34 ± 0.42
Na <sub>2</sub> O	0.18 ± 0.03	0.11 ± 0.02	0.75 ± 0.04
K <sub>2</sub> O	0.33 ± 0.06	1.39 ± 0.03	0.59 ± 0.09
SO <sub>3</sub>	3.57 ± 0.19	0.14 ± 0.02	0.22 ± 0.04
Loss on ignition	0.92 ± 0.04	1.39 ± 0.03	3.63 ± 0.19
Particle size at 50% cumulative passing (µm)	13.50 ± 0.39	22.31 ± 0.88	23.85 ± 0.42
Specific gravity	3.14 ± 0.02	2.32 ± 0.05	2.42 ± 0.01
Specific surface area (m <sup>2</sup> /kg) BET-method	382 ± 5.02	364 ± 9.04	341 ± 8.25

**Table 3** Fresh state properties of the SCC mixtures.

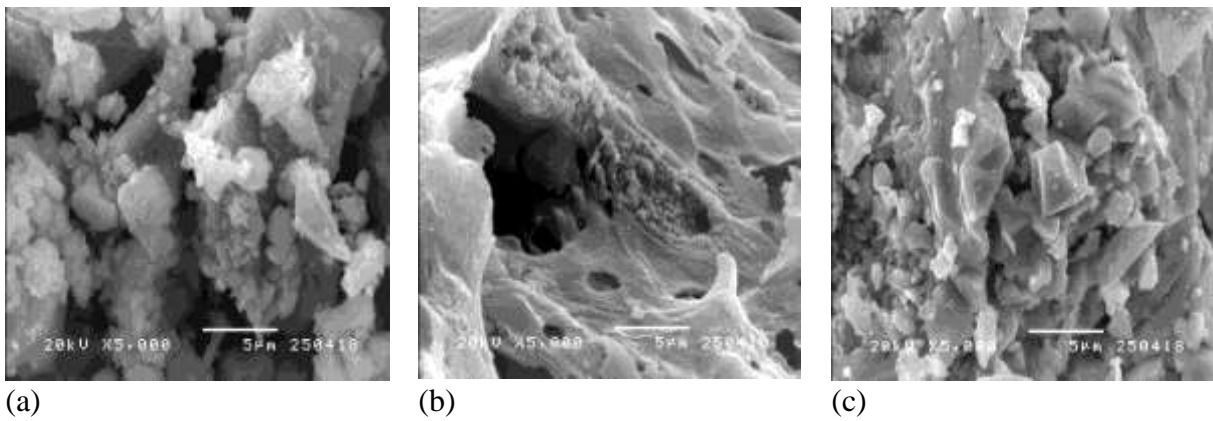
Mixture labels	w/b ratio	Targeted	J-ring test	Difference	Blocking assessment <sup>[1]</sup>	V-funnel	Fresh density	
		flow slump (cm)	(initial) (cm)	(initial) (cm)		flow time (s)	value (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	% control
65R0FDW0	0.35	72	70	2	No visible blocking	7	2,454	100
65R10FDW0	0.35	72	70	2	No visible blocking	9	2,439	-0.60
65R20FDW0	0.35	72	60	10	No visible blocking	10	2,424	-1.24
65R10FDW30	0.35	71	68	3	Noticeable blocking	12	2,425	-1.20
65R10FDW50	0.35	72	68	4	Noticeable blocking	14	2,415	-1.60
65R20FDW30	0.35	71	66	5	Noticeable blocking	16	2,410	-1.80
65R20FDW50	0.35	70	65	5	Noticeable blocking	20	2,400	-2.20
65R0FDW0	0.45	72	71	1	No visible blocking	6	2,402	-2.12
65R10FDW0	0.45	71	70	1	No visible blocking	7	2,386	-2.76
65R20FDW0	0.45	70	69	1	No visible blocking	8	2,372	-3.36
65R10FDW30	0.45	72	70	2	No visible blocking	9	2,373	-3.32
65R10FDW50	0.45	72	69	3	Noticeable blocking	10	2,363	-3.72
65R20FDW30	0.45	71	67	4	Noticeable blocking	13	2,357	-3.96
65R20FDW50	0.45	71	66	5	Noticeable blocking	14	2,348	-4.32

**Remark:** <sup>[1]</sup> For the blocking assessment, the differences in slump flow and J-ring flow diameters were determined. In this assessment, 0–2.5 cm is defined as no visible blocking, 2.5–5.0 cm) is defined as minimal to noticeable blocking, and greater than 5.0 cm is defined as noticeable to extreme blocking.

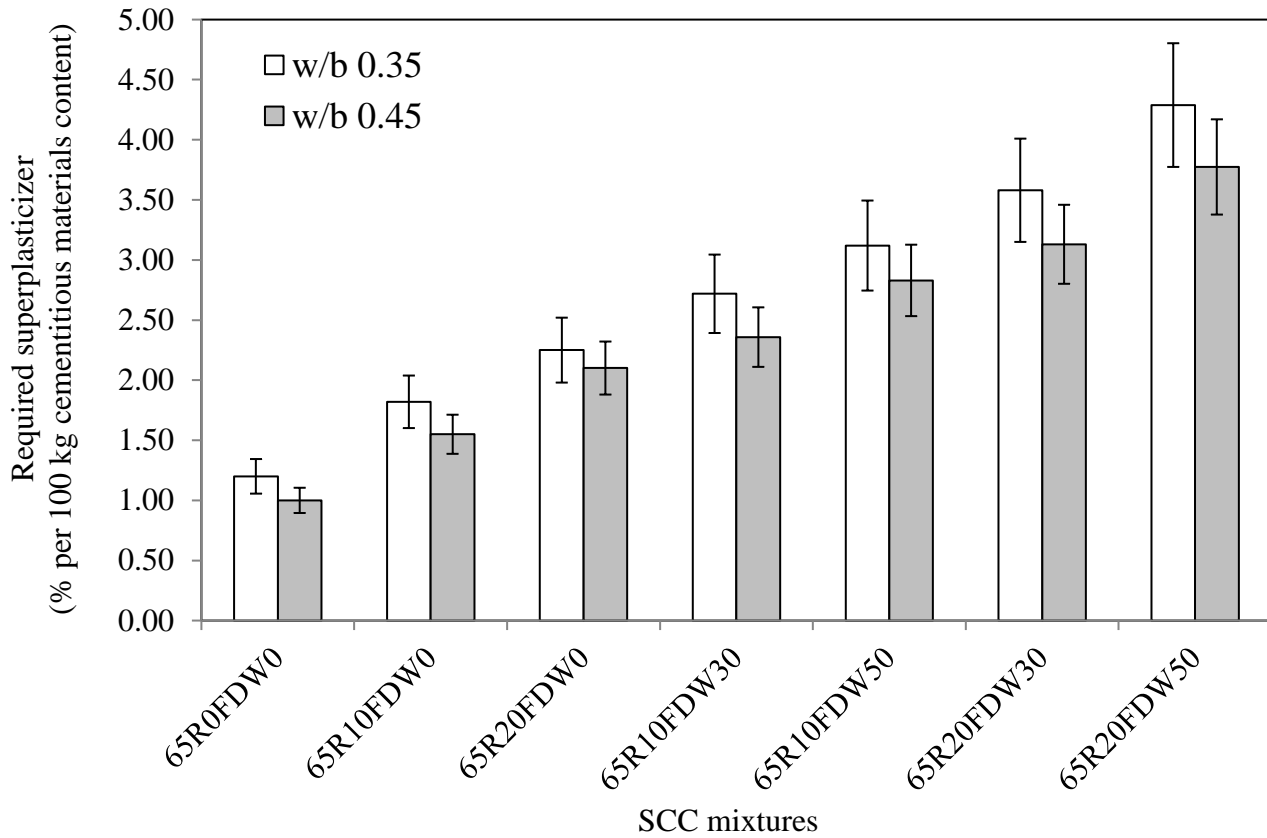
## Figures



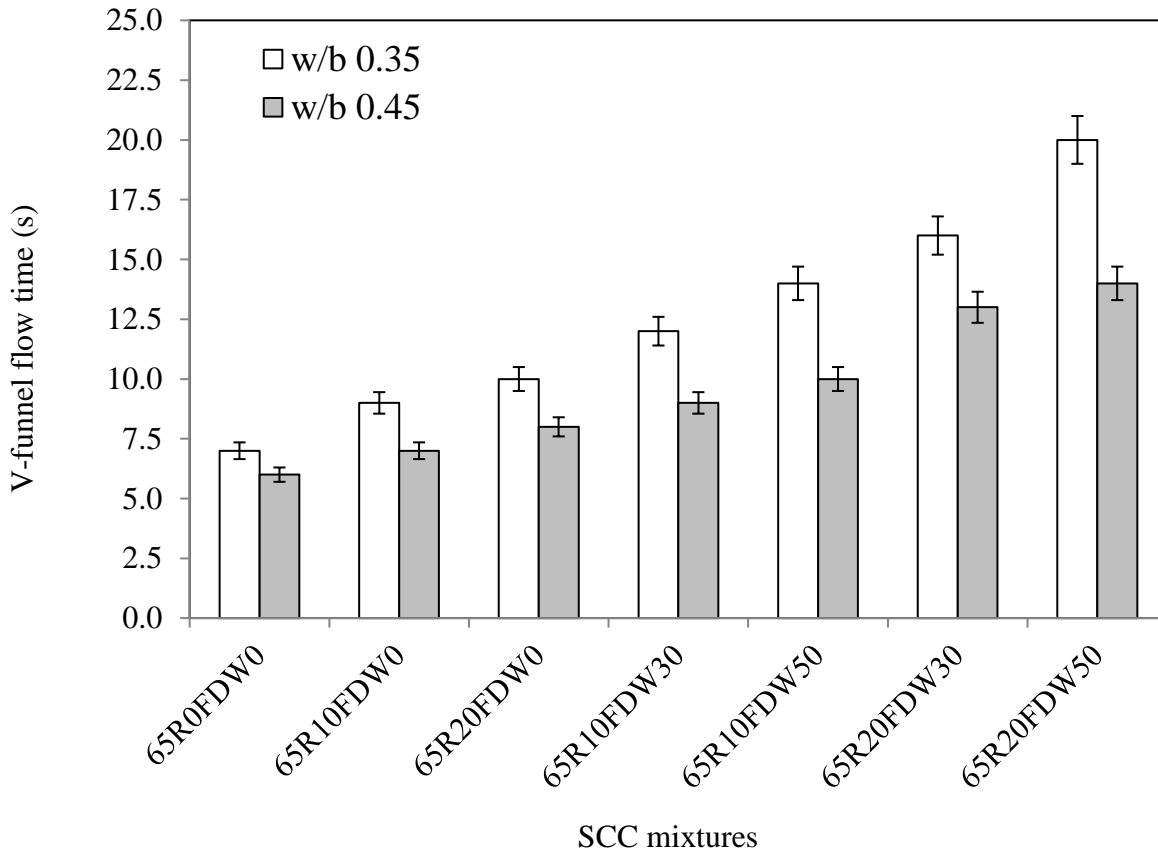
**Fig. 1** Particle size distributions of OPC, FDW, and RHA in the semilogarithmic scale.



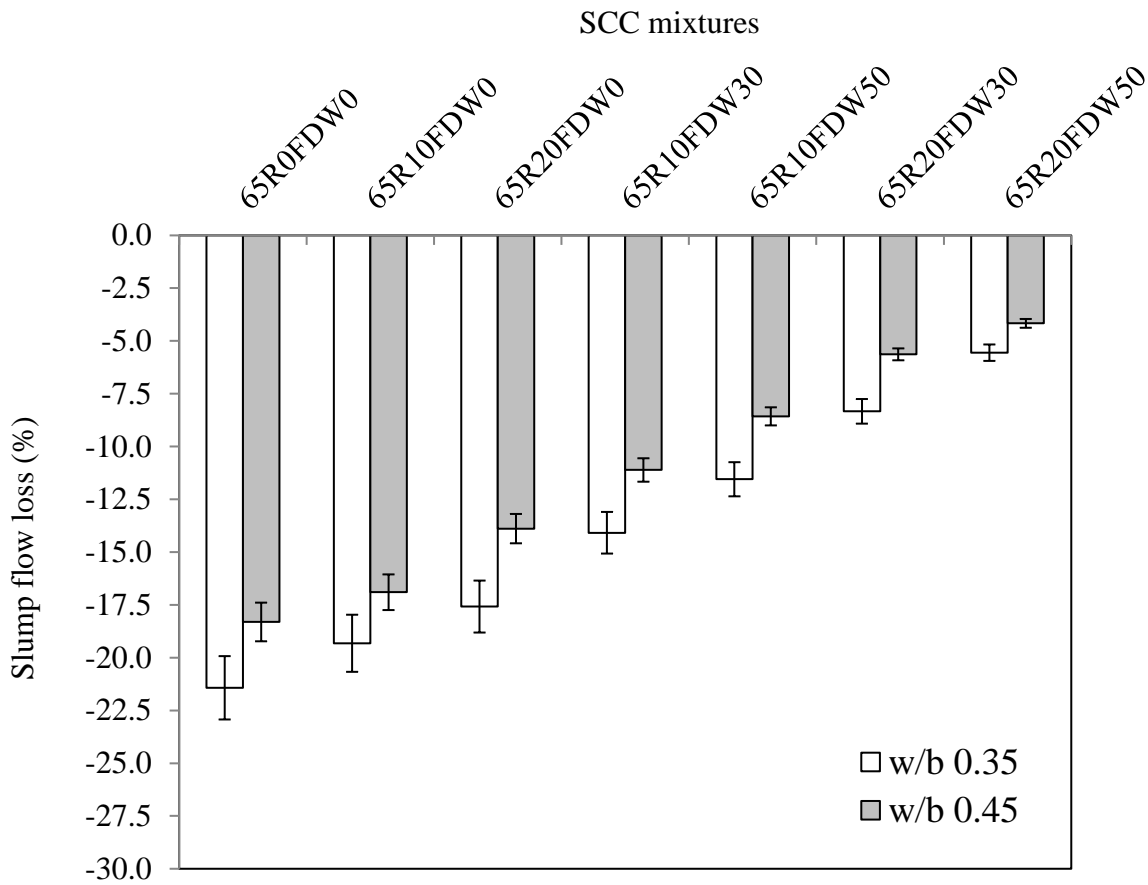
**Fig. 2** SEM micrographs (5000 $\times$ ) of (a) OPC, (b) RHA, and (c) FDW.



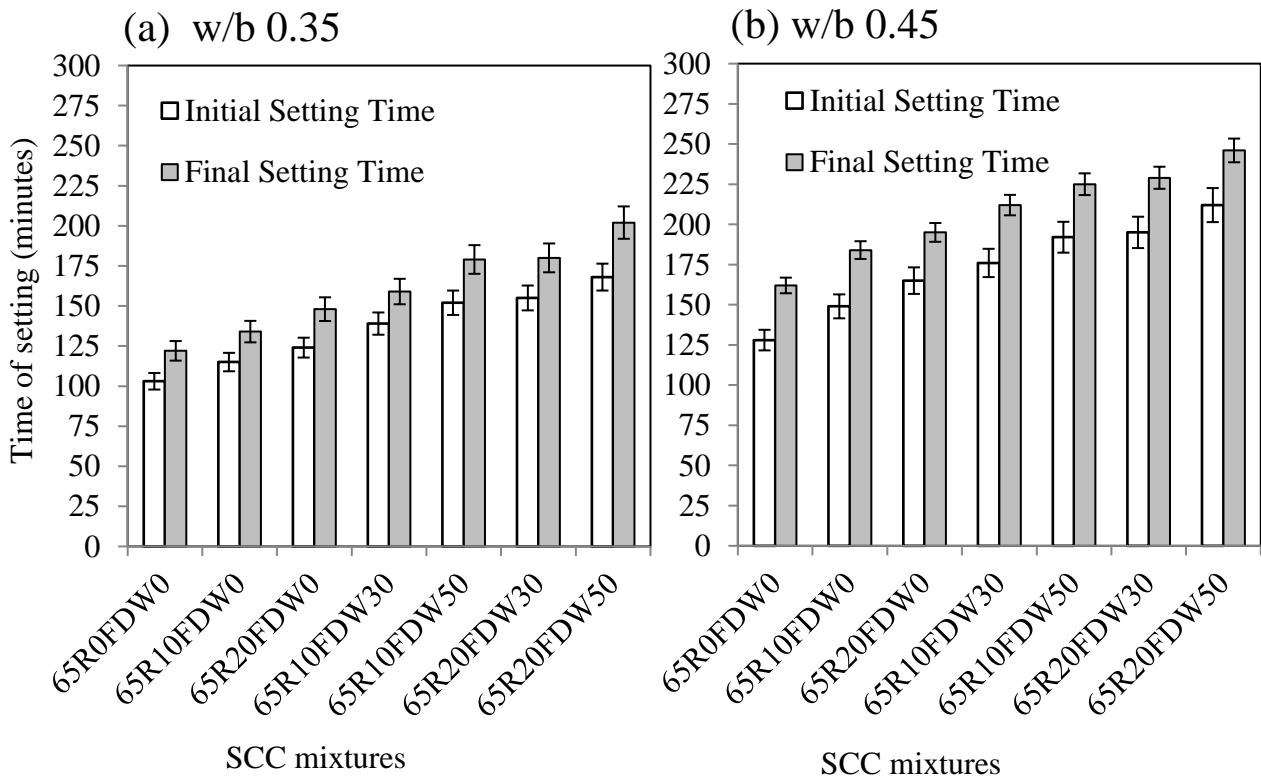
**Fig. 3** Required superplasticizer of the SCC mixtures.



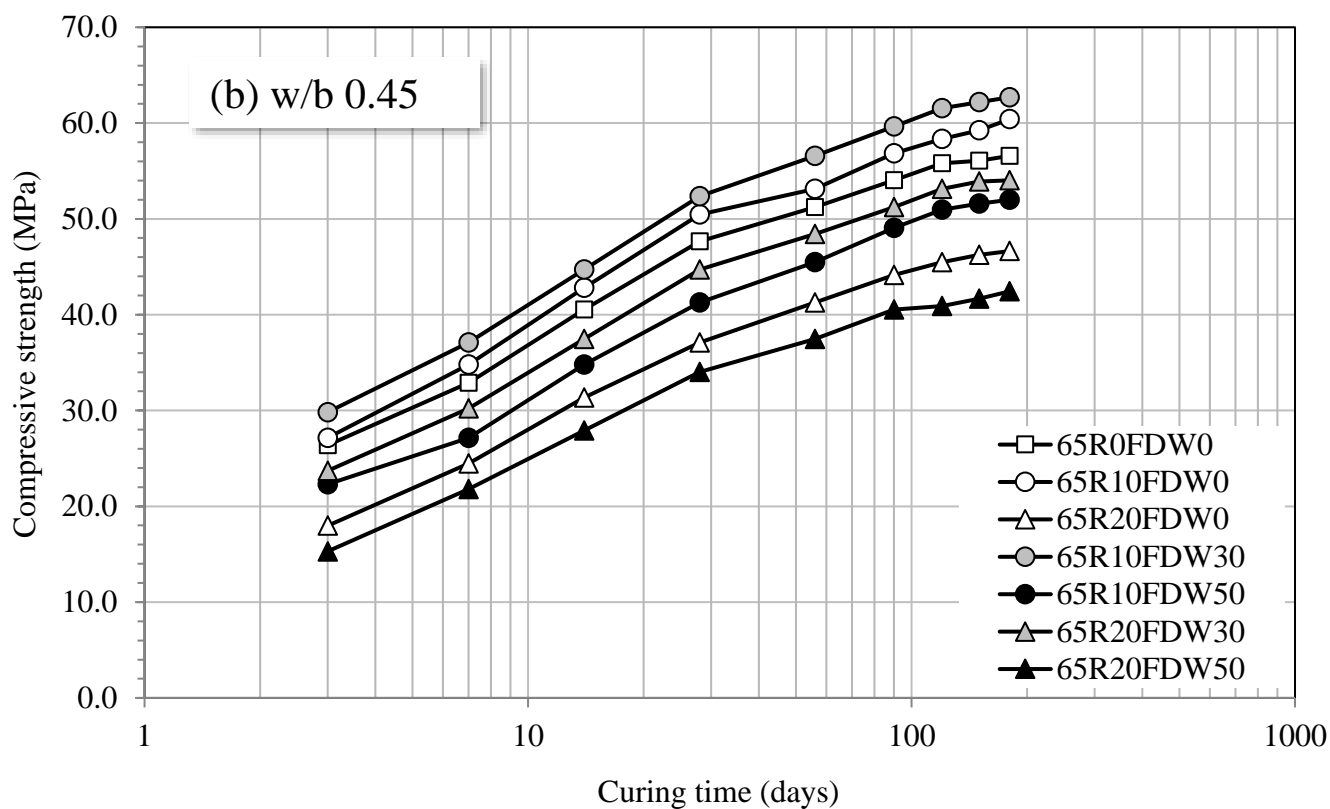
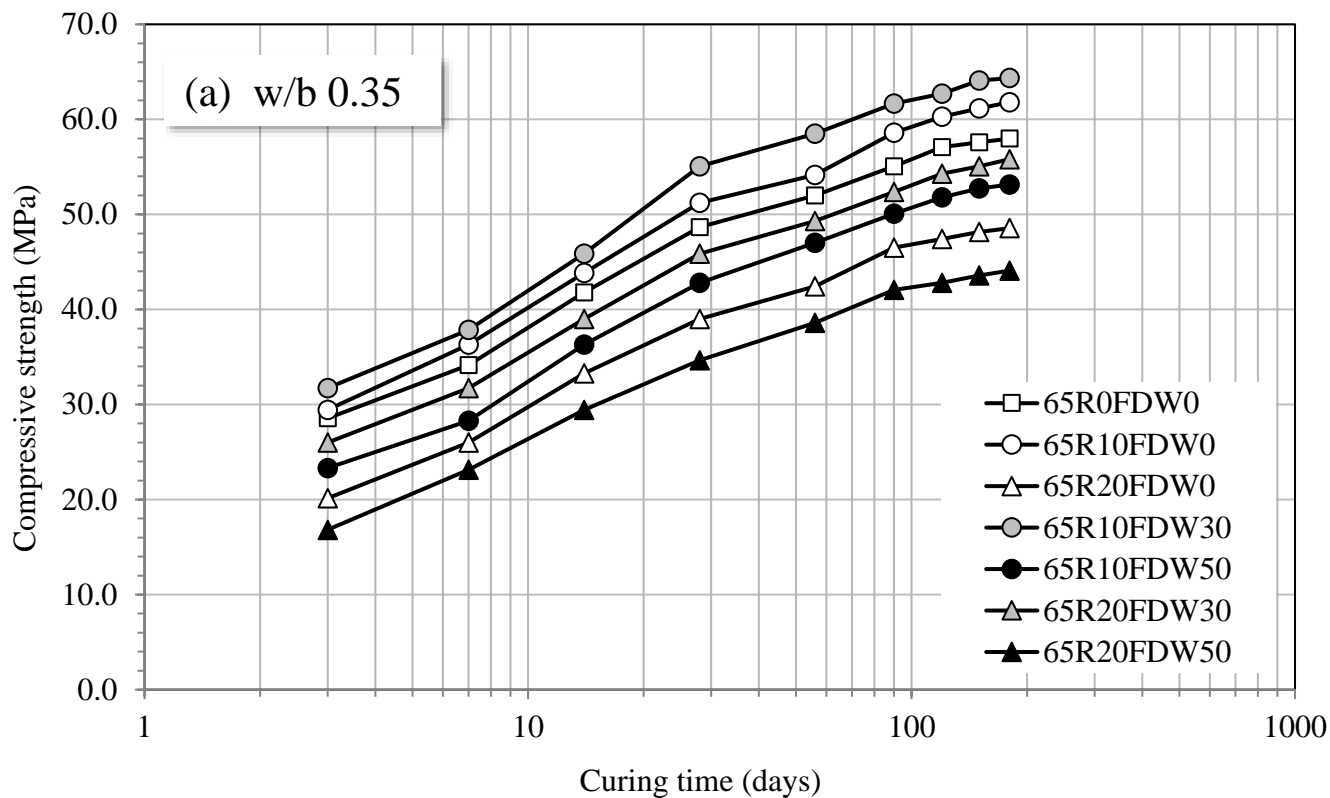
**Fig. 4** V-funnel flow time of the SCC mixtures.



**Fig. 5** Slump flow loss at 120 min for the SCC mixtures.

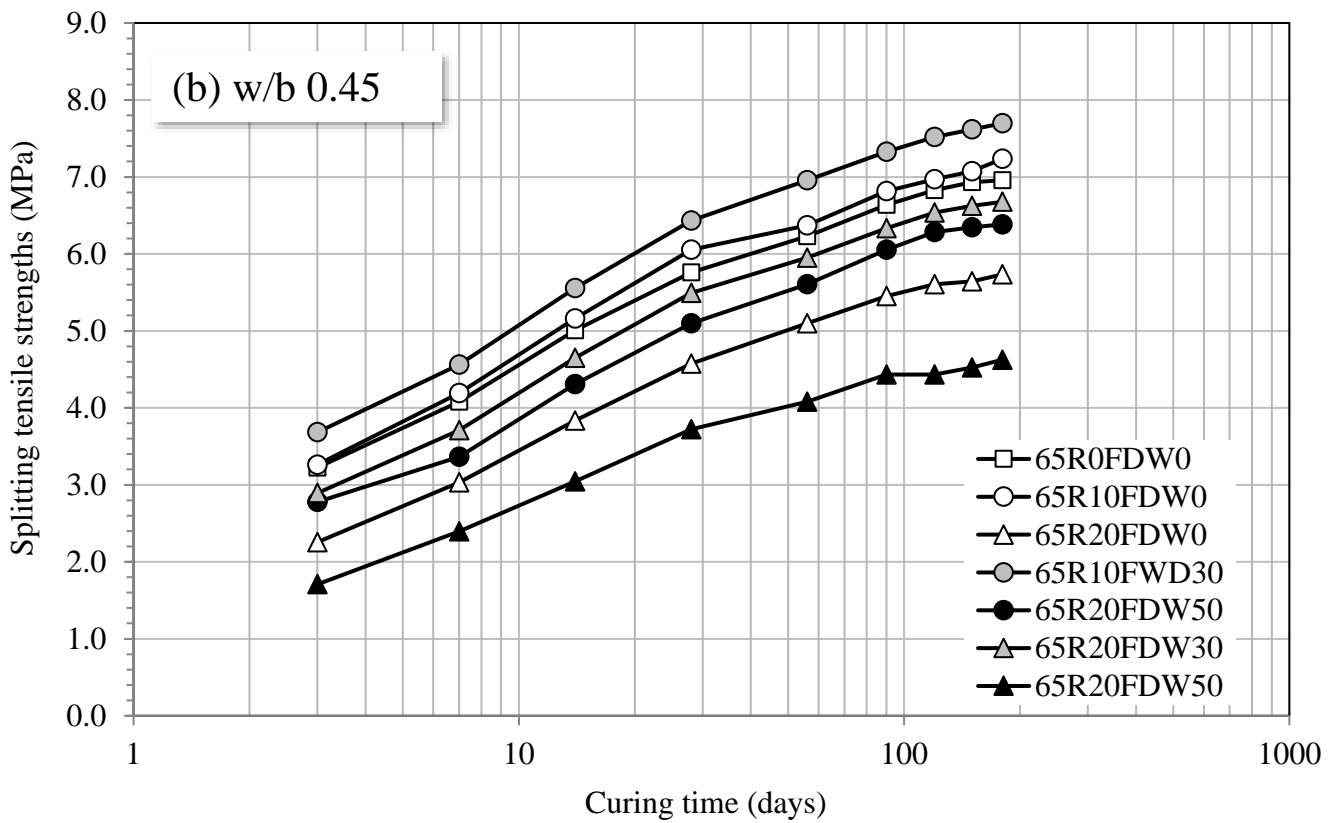
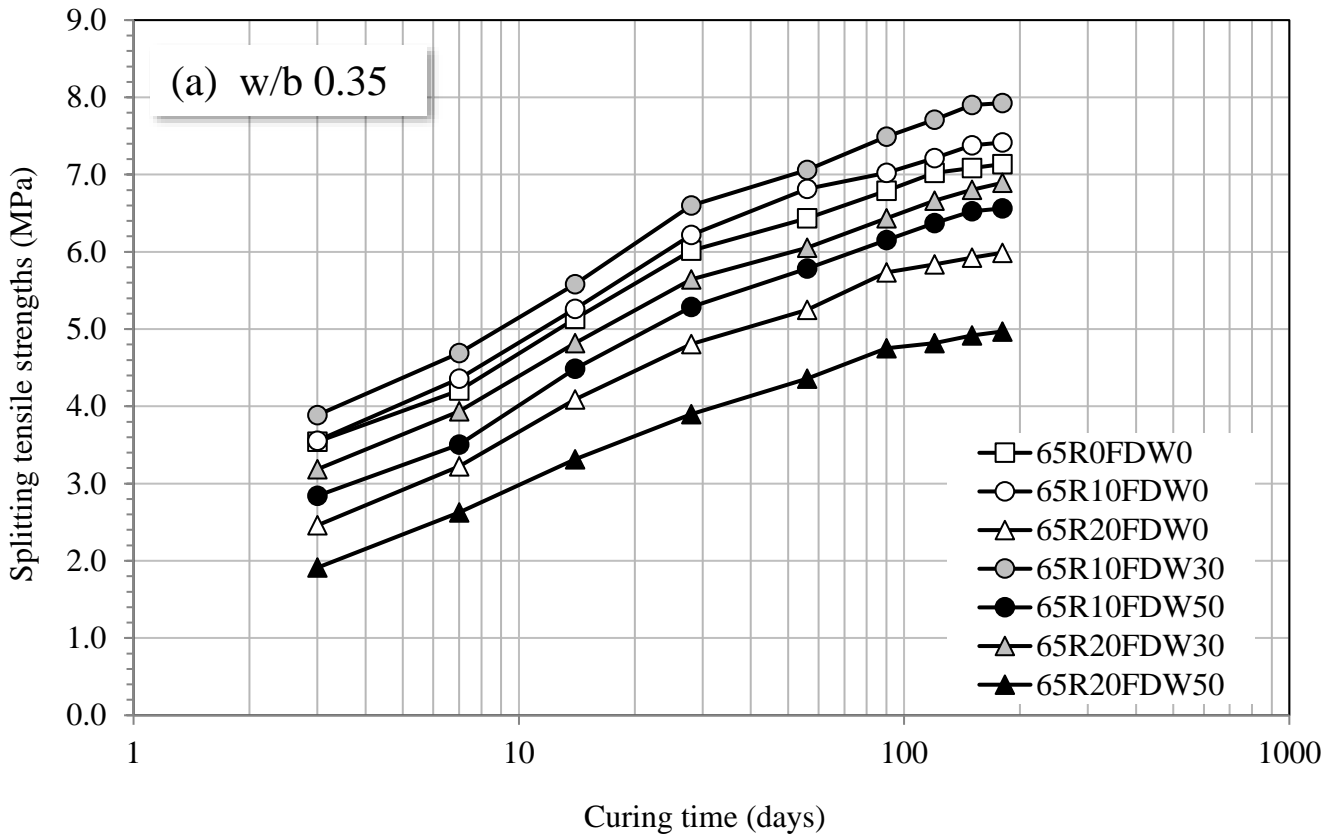


**Fig. 6** Setting times of the SCC mixtures.

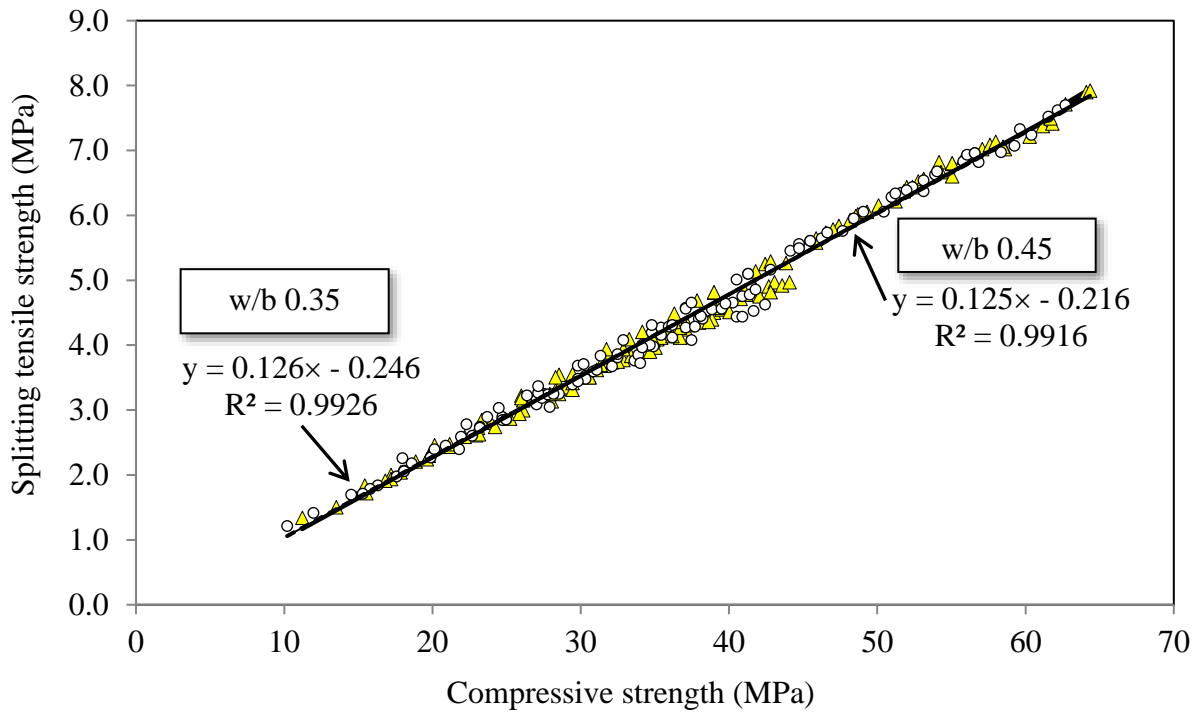


**Fig. 7** Compressive strengths of concrete prepared with (a) w/b = 0.35 and (b) w/b = 0.45 and a binder material content of 650 kg/m<sup>3</sup>.





**Fig. 8** Splitting tensile strengths of concrete prepared with (a) w/b = 0.35 and (b) w/b = 0.45 and a binder material content of 650 kg/m<sup>3</sup>.



**Fig. 9** Relationship between the compressive strength and splitting tensile strength and the w/b of the SCC mixture.