

1 Recycled aggregate concretes – a state-of-the-art from the microstructure 2 to the structural performance

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11 Abstract

12 In the context of a circular economy, the recycling becomes more than more important. In the
13 construction industry, the wastes from the destructions of old structures are significant. The
14 recycling of the old concretes can contribute to reduce the extraction of the new natural
15 resources (gravel, sand) and to reduce the waste deposit areas. Numerous studies have already
16 been performed to investigate different aspects of recycled aggregate concretes (RAC). Several
17 publications have also done the detailed reviews on certain topics of RAC (such as mechanical
18 properties, mix proportioning); however, still few articles have done the global synthesis on
19 different aspects of RAC. This paper presents a rapid state-of-the-art of numerous topics related
20 to RAC: from the recycling techniques of old-concrete-aggregates, the mix proportioning, the
21 mechanical properties, the durability, the structural behavior and the fire resistance. The number
22 of existing studies synthesized is relatively important (about 170 publications). The aim of the
23 present paper is to provide a rapid overview about existing scientific investigations on RAC,
24 which can offer a good guidance to researchers and engineers who are entering to this area.

25 **Keywords:** recycled aggregate concrete (RAC); mechanical properties; reinforced RAC
26 columns; reinforced RAC beams; durability; fire resistance.

27 1. Introduction

28 Until now, the demolished concrete is usually destined for the construction of the roads.
29 However, the necessity to incorporate the recycled aggregates in other applications is rising
30 because in numerous countries, the number of buildings which have been constructed in the
31 1950s and 1960s is high (especially in Europe, after the 2nd World War) which will touch the
32 end of their life; the destruction of these buildings are likely probable because the demand about
33 the energy performance in the actual norms increased, but the energetic renovation on these old
34 buildings are complicated. Furthermore, in developed countries and in many developing
35 countries, there are less than less new roads to be constructed, so the use of recycled aggregates
36 in the roads will be reduced. Another reason is that other materials or wastes (such as natural
37 aggregates of low quality, mix of construction wastes, non-toxic wastes, ...) which have less
38 quality than recycled aggregates from old concretes can also be used for the road sub-layers; so
39 the recycled aggregates from the old concretes which have better quality than such wasted
40 materials, should be used for structural applications [1]. The recycling of destructed concretes
41 can on one hand, reduce the exploitation of new natural resources, and on the other hand, reduce
42 the waste deposit areas, which become an environmental, economic and societal problem [2],
43 [3].

44 The recycling old-concrete to produce recycled aggregates and use them to manufacture new
45 concretes (called “recycled aggregate concrete” – RAC) is an approach which has already been
46 investigated since numerous years. However, one of the most important points which slows
47 down the development of this approach in practice is the cost. Until now, when the natural

48 resources for concrete manufacturing (gravel, sand) is still available for the most of countries
49 on the world, the use of RAC has not yet presented considerable economic advantages.
50 Nevertheless, in the new context of a circular economy, where the environmental aspect is
51 highlighted, the exploitation of natural resources and generate wastes must be reduced, RAC
52 takes more than more place in the construction industry [1]. The number of studies existing in
53 literature on the topic of RAC is high. There have been already several interesting review papers
54 or books on this topic [1], [4]-[7]; these publications presented carefully in details for one or
55 several aspects relative to RAC. The aim of the present paper is to propose a global synthesis
56 on different aspects relative to RAC: from the recycling techniques of old-concrete-aggregates,
57 the mix proportioning, the mechanical properties, the durability, the structural behavior and the
58 fire resistance. For each aspect, only the fused results obtained from different studies is
59 presented, which enables to the readers to rapidly have a global overview about RAC. It is
60 worth noting that this synthesis work is not easy because the results obtained in each study
61 depend to numerous parameters such as: type and quality of parent-old-concrete, recycling
62 method, replacement ratios of recycle aggregates, strategy for the mix proportioning
63 (considering the water absorption by the recycled aggregates or not), type and amount of binder
64 used, using admixture or not,... So, for further detailed information, the readers can refer to the
65 cited references.

66

67 **2. Aggregates obtained from the recycling**

68 The wastes of constructions and demolitions are divided into two categories: dangerous and
69 non-dangerous wastes. The dangerous wastes are such as asbestos or old concretes from the
70 nuclear plants. The current investigations concentrate on non-dangerous wastes [8].

71 2.1. Main techniques of demolition

72 Different techniques of demolition exist, but there are three most current ones. The first
73 technique is the demolition with hand tools such as hammer, mallet, pickaxe which can be
74 electric, pneumatic or hydraulic [9], [10]; this technique is used for small volumes, or in the
75 preparation phases of demolition (for example remove the dangerous elements such as asbestos,
76 plomb, ...); this technique is slow and expensive, but enables a better sorting than other
77 techniques.

78 The second current technique is the demolition with mechanical engines, such as balls, pliers,
79 cutters. For high-rise buildings, mini-engines can also be used to destruct the highest stories
80 first, and then other larger engines demolish the structure from the ground.

81 The third technique is the use of blasting, which is a robust technique. This technique is applied
82 when the above classical techniques are not applicable in reason of the building size or the risk,
83 or the low-efficacy of other techniques. This technique is rapid but the sorting of wastes after
84 the demolition is more complex than other techniques.

85 2.2. Main techniques of recycling

86 There are different techniques for the recycling of wastes from construction and demolition, but
87 the current processes generally compose of the following operations [11]:

- 88 - Elimination of light elements (plaster, wood, plastic etc.) by the sorting systems
89 (manual/pneumatic/hydraulic separators)
- 90 - Extraction of metal elements by using the magnetic separators
- 91 - Crushing, screening to produce compatible desirable materials
- 92 - Flocculation of clays, for example by floatation technique.

93 A typical recycling platform of recycled aggregates for RAC is following [12]: at the entrance,
94 the wastes are visually inspected, sorted by hydraulic excavators and then stocked. The large
95 concrete blocks are reduced by appropriate equipment such as hydraulic clamps; the material
96 is then crushed. The metal elements are retired by a magnetic separator. Finally, the material is
97 screened in several times to obtain the desirable sizes of aggregates. Some practice platforms
98 may apply simpler processing, however several publications proposed different more complex
99 techniques to improve the recycling process, which can be cited: aeraulic sorting for
100 contaminants such as paper, plastic, wood [13], [14]; rotative sieving for large blocks and large
101 size contaminants [15], [16]; until three steps of crushing [17]; compressed air for the dust
102 liberation [18]; washing for dust liberation [19]; water jig [20], [21]; air jig [22]; sorting by
103 sensors [14][23]; systems for separation of mortar from recycled aggregates [24]; magnetic
104 separation of mortar and clay bricks [25], [26]; manual separation on the treatment carpet to
105 eliminate the grand size impurities after the first crushing [27]. The thermal treatment was also
106 investigated, however this technique is only efficient for temperature from 600°C, which can
107 cause damages for aggregates treated [21].

108 The recycled aggregate is usually a mix of natural aggregate, hardened cement paste which is
109 generally bonded to natural aggregate. Therefore, the properties of the recycled aggregate
110 depend on the properties of these two components and their proportion in the original concrete.
111 The recycled aggregate's porosity is generally higher than that of natural aggregate, which
112 changes significantly the characteristics of recycled aggregates when compared to natural
113 aggregate. Indeed, the recycled aggregates have a higher water absorption and a lower specific
114 density than natural aggregates. The chemical composition of the combination of natural
115 aggregate and hardened cement paste bonded may cause later some pathologies for the RAC,
116 such as the alkali-silice reaction [28].

117 After the crushing, numerous hardened cement paste fall into the fine aggregate fraction which
118 causes the important heterogeneities in the fine recycled aggregate and increases the water
119 adsorption of the fine fraction (recycled sand). The water absorption of fine recycle aggregate
120 is about 6-9% while for natural sand, this value is only about 0.5-2% [28]. Due to the low
121 quality of the recycled fine aggregate, it is not recommended to replace totally natural sand by
122 recycled fine aggregate; several authors proposed to mix the natural sand with the recycled fine
123 aggregate which has a proportion less than 30% [28], [29].

124

125 **3. Applications of recycled fine aggregates**

126 The recycled fine aggregate obtained is about 50% after the crushing of concrete recycled,
127 however as mentioned in the previous section, the use of recycled fine aggregate directly in a
128 new concrete is limited, due to its low quality. That is why other alternative ways should be
129 found to use the recycled fine aggregate. Three main solutions are found in the practice:

- 130 - Recycled fine aggregate is used as alternative raw material in fabrication of Portland
131 clinker. It was shown that the recycled sand principally constitutes of quartz and calcite,
132 with a minor presence of feldspars and mica [30]. The experimental tests from this study
133 also showed that the recycled sand could be an alternative raw material to produce
134 clinker, with a maximum substitution ratio of 25% (in mass) and an optimum
135 substitution ratio of 15%. The obtained clinker had very similar mineral and chemical
136 characteristics to that of the reference clinker.
- 137 - Recycled fine aggregate is used as a complementary material in the fabrication of
138 Portland cement (other than clinker). Recycled fine aggregate can be used to successfully
139 replace the limestone fillers in the fabrication of cement [31].

140 - Recycled fine aggregate is grinded and used as a filler in concrete. The results in Cyr et
141 al. (2018) [31] showed that the recycled fine aggregate behaved as inert charge or with
142 very low pozzolanic effects (due to the presence of elements from the hardened cement
143 paste). When compared to two above options for the use of recycled fine aggregate, this
144 third option is generally less interesting. However, for each context, an economical
145 study should be done to choose the best solution among these three options.

146

147 **4. Recycled aggregate concretes (RAC)**

148 4.1. Pre-treatment of recycled aggregates and mixing processing

149 One of the difficulties in the application of recycled aggregate concrete in practice is the
150 control of recycled aggregate's water content. A high water absorption and heterogeneity of
151 recycled aggregate causes difficulties to determine the accurate water from the formulas [32],
152 [33]. Moreover, the water absorption, between the end of mixing and the casting on site, can
153 modify the concrete workability during the transport. Indeed, it was shown that recycled
154 aggregates could absorb between 100 seconds and 1h until 5% of water of the mixture [34]. To
155 avoid variation of concrete consistency, several studies proposed to immerse recycled
156 aggregates in water during 10 minutes to obtain a complete saturation state [35], [36], which
157 enables to avoid the water transfer into the recycled aggregates. Effects of the pre-saturation on
158 the recycled coarse aggregate were diverse in different studies; it was noted in several studies
159 that the pre-saturation had few importance on the slump values [37]. Kadri et al. (2018) [38]
160 observed that the concrete having admixture (superplasticizer or retarder) had better fluidity
161 when the recycled aggregates were pre-saturated. The pre-saturation is primordial for the case
162 of recycled fine aggregate which enables to reduce several risks of cracking [39].

163 It is worth noting that the pre-humidification of recycled aggregates, by fixing a constant
164 water amount added, increases the concrete workability but decreases the concrete compressive
165 strength [40], [41]. However, Kurowa et al. (1999) [42] showed that the water absorbed by the
166 recycled aggregates, before or during the mixing, could improve the concrete strength. From
167 these results, the Two-Stage Mixing Approach (TSMA) was proposed: 50% of total water was
168 introduced first to the aggregates, then the cement was introduced. This two-stage mixing
169 approach enables to increase about 15% of the compressive strength, about 20-25% of the
170 tensile strength, and also the durability of concrete (penetration of chloride ions and
171 carbonation) when compared to one-stage mixing. The positive effect is explained by an
172 improvement of the new interfacial transition zone around the recycled aggregate grains [43],
173 [44]. This two-stage mixing approach could limit several negative aspects for concretes using
174 recycled fine aggregates [45]. Brand et al. (2015) [46] tested the performance of TSMA on three
175 types of recycled aggregates: oven-dried, partially saturated and completely-saturated; the
176 results showed that partially-saturated was the most adapted for TSMA.

177 Other mixing procedures were also tested. Liu et al (2016) [47] mixed firstly the cement
178 paste, then incorporate the sand and the gravels, to envelop the aggregates by cement paste; this
179 technique had an intermediary effect on the mechanical properties, between the normal mixing
180 and two-stage mixing approach. Liang et al. (2015) [48] investigated the Sand Enveloped
181 Mixing Approach (SEMA), by mixing first the natural sand, cement and $\frac{3}{4}$ total water, then the
182 aggregate coarse aggregates were added; this technique enabled to mix easily the sand with
183 cement and water, before that recycled coarse aggregates absorbed water. The results with sand
184 enveloped mixing technique were better than that with two-stage mixing.

185 The process to envelop the recycled aggregates with cement grout in TSMA improved the
186 compressive strength of concrete, that was why some other treatment techniques were tested. It
187 was observed that immersing recycled aggregates in a pozzolanic liquid could increase the
188 concrete compressive strength, but this technique had also a negative effect on the workability

189 of fresh concrete [42]. Other studies combined the use of mineral additives with the mixing
190 processing, for example the addition of fly ash or slag have the positive effects on the
191 compressive strength and the penetration of chloride ions when the three-stage mixing
192 technique is used [49]. Tam & Tam (2008) [50] showed that the combination of adding silica
193 fume and the two-stage mixing approach developed a thick interfacial zone around the recycled
194 aggregate, therefore increased the compressive strength. Liang et al. (2015) [48] proposed a
195 pre-treatment to create new cement layers enveloping the recycled aggregates, at 7-days before
196 the concrete casting, but this technique seems difficult to apply in practice. Zhan et al. (2015)
197 [51] proposed to pre-treat the recycled aggregates with accelerated CO₂ curing and limewater
198 soaking process to strengthen the attached old cement mortar on recycled aggregates. The
199 results showed that after the treatment, the density of the cement mortar slightly increased by
200 5.7%, while the water absorption decreased by over a half, which enabled to increase
201 significantly the mechanical properties of RAC (compressive strength and flexural strength).

202

203 4.2. Effects of recycled aggregates on early-age RAC

204 The recycled aggregates have specific properties due to the presence of the old cement paste,
205 porous mortar, impurities such as plaster, gypsum. When compared to natural aggregates, the
206 recycled aggregates are lighter, more angular, lower compacity; more porous, more brittle, a
207 higher water absorption; potentially reducing efficacy of superplasticizer due to the interaction
208 with sulfates and impurities. That is why influences of the recycled aggregates on the behaviour
209 of concrete at early age are important to be investigated. However, there are less studies on the
210 behavior of RAC at early-age (especially at plastic state) than at hardened state.

211 One of the important phenomena of the early-age concrete is the cracking. There are different
212 reasons which can generate the early-age cracking, but the main following reasons can be listed.
213 The first reason is related to the water evaporation, at very early time after the casting [52]. The
214 water layers around the particles disappears progressively with the evaporation; the water
215 meniscuses are formed between the particles which create the bonding between the particles
216 which is a weak force from the capillarity pressure, because at the very early state, other
217 bonding forces (such as covalent force in the cement matrix) have not yet been developed. As
218 this capillarity force is weak, it is unstable and the air can start to penetrate in the pores, creating
219 some “local drilling” of the capillarity pressure. When the air starts to fill the big pores, there
220 is a rearrangement of the particles due to the capillarity pressure – equivalent to a decrease of
221 the volume [53]. When the volume diminution is not equal to the volume of water evaporated,
222 the cracking appears. Therefore, the air penetration is correlated to the cracking [54]. The
223 second phenomenon play the role on the early-age-cracking is the plastic shrinkage. The elastic
224 modulus of concrete increases rapidly during the early-age while the tensile strength increases
225 slowly, which reduces the capacity of deformation [55]. The cracking starts when the tensile
226 stresses exceed the tensile strength [56]. The recycled aggregates are well known as promote
227 the shrinkage and creep of concrete, reduce the compressive strength and the elastic modulus
228 (with a given binder). That is why it is not easy to predict the cracking for recycled aggregate
229 concrete.

230 Roziere et al. (2018) [57] tested two sequences of curing: the first one is a “moderate curing”
231 with 50% RH and the wind velocity less than 0.3 m/s; the second one is a “severe curing” with
232 45% RH and 8 m/s of wind velocity. The results showed that due to a relatively high porosity,
233 recycled aggregates absorbed the water which could be released to the cement paste during the
234 curing. With the moderate curing, the plastic shrinkage could be reduced, thanks to the “internal
235 curing” with water released from recycled aggregates [58]. However, under the severe curing,
236 the high evaporation increased the shrinkage. It was also observed that the initial saturation

237 ratio had a low influence when the total water (water existing in the recycled aggregates + water
238 added) was constant. That is why a suitable curing is recommended.

239

240 4.3. Microstructure of hardened RAC

241 The recycled aggregates are composed of natural aggregates covered by cement paste (or
242 hardened mortar). The presence of these old carbonated and porous pastes can modify the
243 formation of the interfacial transition zones between the aggregates and the cement matrix. To
244 understand these mechanisms, several studies have been performed to investigate the
245 microstructure of hardened RAC [59],[60]. The interfacial transition zone is located at the
246 interface between the aggregate and the cement paste [61], [62]. In this zone, a gradient of
247 porosity is observed: the porosity increases from the cement paste to the aggregate surface. The
248 reason of this microstructure is that: at the boundary of the aggregates, in the cement paste, the
249 water content increases and so the cement content decreases. The initial thickness of this zone
250 is several dozens of microns. During the curing, the porosity decreases because the hydration
251 products are created, so the thickness of the interfacial transition zone decreases also. During
252 this period, there is the transfers of hydrated product (mainly Portlandites) between the rich
253 cement zones and poor cement zones.

254 With porous aggregates (such as recycled aggregates) which have a high water absorption, the
255 mechanisms for the formation of interfacial transition zones are strongly influenced by the
256 water exchanges between the aggregates and the fresh cement paste. For light aggregates having
257 macropore networks (from several hundreds of micron to several millimeters), an initial dry
258 state of aggregates causes an absorption of water during the mixing and casting, this water
259 absorption leads to a more compact and more “bonding” interfacial transition zone [59], [60],
260 [63], [64]. For non-porous aggregates, the similar porosities were observed for oversaturated
261 aggregates and dry aggregates; however, for the interfacial transition zones between the old
262 cement and the new one, an improvement was observed when the humid aggregates were used
263 [65].

264 Garcia-Diaz et al. (2018) [66] investigated also the interfacial transition zones for RAC, but for
265 normal concretes (grades from C25 to C35) and higher strength concrete (C45). The results
266 confirmed that the interfacial transition zones obtained for humid aggregates were more porous
267 than that of dry aggregates, due to the release of water from the humid aggregates. However, for
268 higher strength concrete, where the water/cement ratio was decreased, the water released from
269 the humid aggregates participated to the hydration of cement (like a “internal curing”) which
270 could reduce also the porosity of the interfacial transition zone.

271

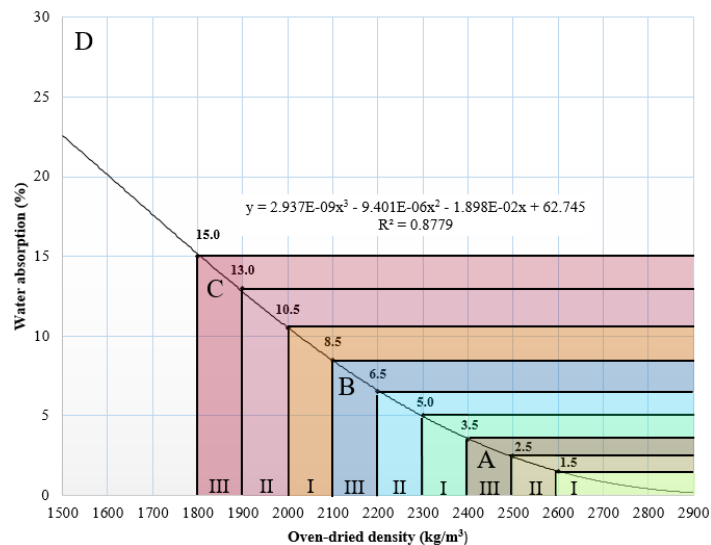
272 4.4. Mechanical properties of RAC

273 4.4.1. Compressive strength

274 The most important parameter characterising a concrete is its compressive strength. Numerous
275 studies in the literature investigated about influences of the recycled aggregates on the
276 compressive strength of RAC. Silva et al. (2014) [67] mentioned 236 articles on the topic of
277 RAC, among which there were 119 articles investigating on the compressive strength. It was
278 difficult to have the univocal conclusions, due to different reasons: First, RAC is usually
279 compared to reference concretes using natural aggregates, but the quality of natural aggregates
280 strongly influenced the conclusions because the same recycled aggregate can have different
281 impacts if the natural aggregate substituted possesses excellent or poor mechanical properties.
282 Second, different strategies were adopted to compare the RAC with different substitution ratios:

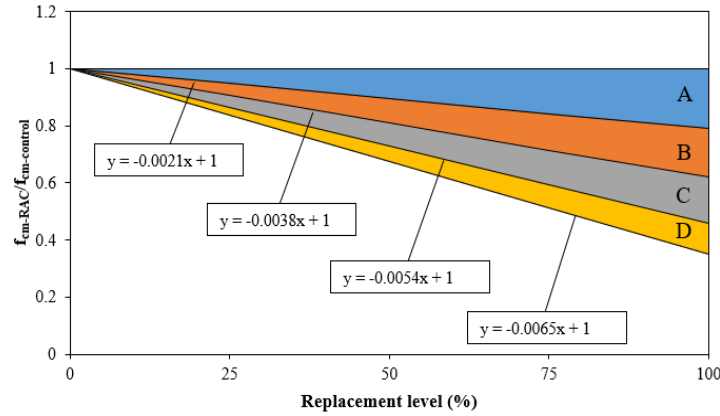
283 the same total water/cement ratio, or the same effective water/ cement ratio, or the same
 284 workability which cause the different effective water/ cement ratio. Finally, the conclusions
 285 depend also on the characteristics of recycled aggregates used: form, size, mechanical
 286 properties etc.

287 From 119 articles published in the literature, Silva et al. (2014) [67] performed a statistic study
 288 and proposed a classification of recycled aggregates in function of the water absorption and the
 289 dry density (Figure 1). The recycled coarse aggregates are usually located in the zones A and B,
 290 while the recycled fine aggregates are usually located in the zones C and D, due to their
 291 higher content of cement paste. Then, the authors proposed also a very interesting figure which
 292 was a synthesis about relationship between the relative compressive strength and the
 293 replacement level of recycled aggregates (Figure 2). This figure shows a general trend when
 294 the replacement level of recycled aggregate increases, the compressive strength decreases, for
 295 a same water/cement ratio. This diminution can be amplified if the same cement amount or the
 296 same workability is demanded, because the use of recycled aggregates generally increases the
 297 necessary water. The decrease of compressive strength is explained also because the general
 298 mechanical properties of recycled aggregates are lower than that of natural aggregates. Indeed,
 299 the natural aggregates are generally obtained from the rocks having compressive strength higher
 300 than 50MPa, while the recycled aggregates are obtained by the crushing of concretes which
 301 have compressive strength lower than 50MPa. Therefore, for a same replacement level, if the
 302 recycled aggregates are obtained from a high performance concrete, no significant difference is
 303 observed when compared to the natural aggregates [68]. The figure confirms that the recycled
 304 fine aggregates have lower mechanical qualities than the recycled coarse aggregates, so the
 305 recycled fine aggregates reduced the compressive strength of RAC.



306
 307

Figure 1. Classification of aggregates based on the water absorption and the oven-dried density [67]



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Figure 2. Statistic result on the influence of replacement level of recycled aggregates on the relative compressive strength, for a same effective water/cement ratio; $f_{cm-control}$ is the mean compressive strength of referent concrete which uses natural aggregates; f_{cm-RAC} is the mean compressive strength of RAC [67].

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Although the figures above are very interesting, they are only the results of a statistic study, the models with more scientific considerations about different parameters are still necessary for the mix proportioning. Several studies proposed different approaches for the mix design and the prediction of compressive strength for RAC [69]-[75]. Among these studies, the model proposed by De Larrard (1999)[75] which is a modified version of the classical Feret's model for ordinary concrete had been adopted for RAC and showed its robustness, for the accuracy, the simplicity and the scientific significance [74], [76], [77]. In this model, the mean compressive strength of concrete f_{cm} is determined by:

320

$$f_{cm} = K_g \cdot R_{c28} \cdot [V_C / (V_C + V_W + 0.5V_A)]^2 \cdot EMP^{-0.13}$$

321

where

322

- R_{c28} is the characteristic compressive strength of cement paste at 28 days old.

323

- V_C , V_W and V_A are the volume of cement, water and air, respectively. The volume of air in the current concretes is about 1-3% of the total volume.

324

325

- EMP is the maximum thickness of the paste (distance between two big gravels), which is calculated by:

326

327

$$EMP = D_{max} (g^*/g)^{1/3} - 1$$

328

- D_{max} is the maximum diameter of aggregates, defined as diameter of 90% passing.

329

- g^* is the compacity of the aggregate skeleton, which can be determined by the ratio of the dry density of aggregate skeleton on the solid density.

330

331

- g is the ratio of volume of aggregate skeleton on volume of concrete,

332

- K_g is the aggregate coefficient which depend on the mechanical properties of aggregates, following their proper strength and the quality of the bonding between aggregates and cement paste. K_g can be separately calculated for different aggregates in the mix (natural aggregates, recycled aggregates, fine aggregates, coarse aggregates):

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$$K_g = \Sigma(VF_j \cdot K_{g,j})$$

338

Where VF_j is the volumic fraction of the aggregate j considered; $K_{g,j}$ is the aggregate coefficient of the aggregate j considered

339

340 Following Dao et al. (2014) [78], the aggregate coefficient of recycled sand can
 341 be approximately estimated by a constant value $K_{g,s} = 4.42$; the aggregate
 342 coefficient of recycled gravel can be estimated by the formula:

$$343 \quad K_{g,g} = -0.0952 MDE + 8.3927$$

344 Where MDE is the micro-Deval coefficient which specifies the attrition properties
 345 of aggregate, can be determined following micro-Deval test (NF EN 1097-1 [79]).

346 For example, K_g presented in Ghorbel et al. (2018) [76] for natural sand, natural
 347 gravels (4/10 and 6/20) is 5.767; for recycled gravels (4/10 and 10/20) is 5.173.

348 This approach is very interesting, not only because it separates the influence of the aggregates,
 349 the cement strength, the water/cement ratio, but also because one can easily estimate the
 350 compressive strength of RAC when know the compressive strength of the reference concrete
 351 (using natural aggregates). Indeed, by assuming that EMP is the same for RAC and reference
 352 concrete [76], from the de Larrard's formula, the ratio of $K_{g-recycled\ aggregate} / K_{g-natural\ aggregate}$ is
 353 also the ratio of $f_{cm-RAC} / f_{cm-control}$, which is in the intervals of [0.46-0.62], [0.62-0.79] and [0.79-
 354 1] for the aggregates of classes C, B and A, respectively, so one re-obtains the values in Figure
 355 2.

356 4.4.2. Tensile strength

357 Several studies showed that the tensile strength of RAC decreased when the substitution level
 358 (of natural aggregates by recycled aggregate) increased. This diminution could reach 13% in
 359 function of the substitution level [80], [81].

360 A formula to obtain the tensile strength f_{ctm} from the compressive strength f_{cm} was proposed by
 361 de Larrard (1999) [75] and have been validated by numerous studies which showed the good
 362 accuracy of this formula [76], [80]:

$$363 \quad f_{ctm} = k_t \cdot f_{cm}^{0.57}$$

364 where k_t is the coefficient which is determined by: $k_t = \Sigma(VF_j \cdot k_{t,j})$

365 Several studies [67], [82] showed that the above relationship between the tensile strength and
 366 the compressive strength is independent to the replacement level of recycled aggregates.

367 The values of $k_{t,j}$ presented in Ghorbel et al. (2018) [76], Ajdukiewicz & Kliszczewicz (2007)
 368 [80], were of 0.373-0.471 for natural aggregates (in function of the type of aggregate where
 369 higher quality provides higher value of k_t) and 0.312-0.446 for recycled aggregate, respectively.
 370 So the values of k_t can vary case by case, however, for the studies cited, the value of k_t for
 371 recycled aggregate was generally 7-13% less than that of the corresponding natural aggregate.

372 To avoid characterizing the values of k_t , other empirical formulas were also proposed for the
 373 simplified relationship between the tensile strength of RAC and its compressive strength.
 374 Ghorbel et al. (2018) [76] did a comparative study to verify the performance of these formula,
 375 then these authors have proposed a modified version of Omary et al. (2016) [83] formula to
 376 obtain the most suitable formula:

$$377 \quad f_{ctm} = 0.364 (1 - \alpha_{f_{ctm}} \Gamma_m) (f_{cm})^{0.608}$$

378 Where $\alpha_{f_{ctm}} = 0.142$; Γ_m is the replacement level (in mass), which is the ratio (in mass) between
 379 the recycled aggregates on the total aggregates (natural aggregates + recycled aggregates).

380

381 4.4.3. Elastic modulus

382 As mentioned earlier, the recycled aggregates contain the cement paste and therefore their
 383 elastic modulus is generally less than that of natural aggregates. That is why the elastic modulus
 384 of RAC is generally less than that of ordinary concrete.

385 De Larrard (1999) [75] proposed a tri-spheres based model for the determination of elastic
 386 modulus of ordinary concrete which could be adapted for RAC [76]. The mean elastic modulus
 387 of concret E_{cm} is determined by:

$$388 \quad E_{cm} = \{1 + 2g (E_g^2 - E_m^2) / [(g - g^*)E_g^2 + 2(2-g^*)E_g.E_m + (g+g^*)E_m^2]\} E_m$$

389 where

- 390 - g^* is the compacity of the aggregate skeleton, which can be determined by the ratio
 391 of the dry density of aggregate skeleton on the solid density.
- 392 - g is the ratio of volume of aggregate skeleton on volume of concrete,
- 393 - E_m is the elastic modulus of cement paste, which can be estimated from the
 394 compressive strength of cement: $E_m = 226 R_c$
- 395 - E_g is the elastic modulus of the aggregate skeleton; E_g can be separately calculated
 396 for different aggregates in the mix:

$$397 \quad E_g = \Sigma(VF_j.E_{g,j})$$

398 Where VF_j is the volumic fraction of the aggregate j considered; $E_{g,j}$ is the elastic
 399 modulus of the aggregate j considered

400 For recycled aggregates, Dao et al. (2014) [78] noted that the elastic modulus of
 401 recycled fine aggregates and recycled coarse aggregates was close (the difference
 402 less than 7%) and proposed a formula to calculate the elastic modulus of recycle
 403 aggregates ($E_{g,RA}$) from that of the source concrete (E_s) and that of the source gravels
 404 (E_{gs}):

$$405 \quad E_{g,RA} = 0.65 E_s + 0.35 E_{gs}$$

406 The usual values obtained for $E_{g,RA}$ were of 35-60 GPa, which is less than the most
 407 of natural aggregates. This observation explains why when the replacement level
 408 increases, the elastic modulus of concrete decreases.

409 The above model is interesting and provide high accuracies, however, for the structure design,
 410 simpler formulas should be proposed for a rapid calculation (with an acceptable higher error).
 411 Numerous empirical formulas were proposed by simplifying the relationship between the
 412 elastic modulus and the compressive strength, but most of them are for ordinary concrete.
 413 Ghorbel et al. (2018) [76] verified the validity of these existing formulas by using the data with
 414 441 values obtained by the authors and from the literature. The authors showed that the existing
 415 formulas proposed for ordinary concretes were not suitable for RAC; they proposed a
 416 modification to take into account the recycled aggregates and showed that the modified version
 417 of the Wardeh et al. (2015) [84] formula was the most suitable:

$$418 \quad E_c = 17\,553 (1 - \alpha_{Ec} \Gamma_m) (f_{cm} / 10)^{0.42}$$

419 Where $\alpha_{Ec} = 0.131$

420 Γ_m is the mass replacement level, which is the mass ratio between the recycled
 421 aggregates on the total aggregates (natural aggregates + recycled aggregates).

422

423 4.4.4. Evolution of compressive strength following the time

424 The results from Omary et al. (2016) [83] shows that evolution of the compressive strength is
 425 independent on the replacement level and the formula proposed in Eurocode 2 for ordinary
 426 concretes can also be applied for RAC:

$$427 \quad f_{cm}(t) / f_{cm}(28 \text{ days}) = \beta_{cc}(t)$$

$$428 \quad \beta_{cc}(t) = \exp\{s[1-(28/t)^{1/2}]\}$$

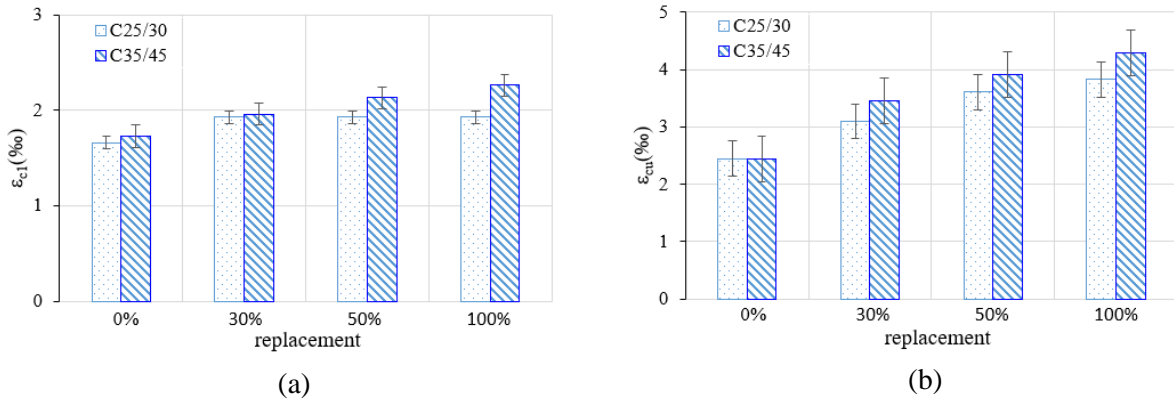
429 where s is a coefficient depending to cement type, for example for CEM II, $s = 0.2$.

430

431 4.4.5. Peak strain and ultimate strain

432 The peak strain ε_{c1} is the strain corresponding to the maximum stress in uniaxial compression.
 433 Numerous studies showed that when the replacement level increases, the peak strain increases
 434 [83]-[88].

435 The ultimate strain ε_{cu} is the strain determined at the post-peak side, corresponding to the stress
 436 equal to 0.6 of the maximum stress. When the replacement level increases, the ultimate strain
 437 increases also [83].



438

439

440 **Figure 3. Influence of the replacement level on the peak strain ε_{c1} (a) and ultimate strain**
 441 **ε_{cu} (b) [76].**

442

443 After a comparative study on different existing formula, Ghorbel et al. (2018) observed that the
 444 formula proposed by Wardeh et al. (2015)[84] was the most suitable to predict the peak strain:

$$445 \quad \varepsilon_{c1} = 1.1(f_{cm})^{0.175}$$

446 For the ultimate strain, a formula was also proposed for concrete having characteristic
 447 compressive strength $f_{ck} \leq 50$ MPa, which is a normal grade:

$$448 \quad \varepsilon_{cu} = \{0.00298 - 0.0625[(50 - f_{cm})/100]^4\}(1 + 0.2 \Gamma_m)$$

449 However, the validity of this formula should be checked with more experimental data.

450

451 4.4.6. Stress-strain relationship under uniaxial compression

452 Ghorbel et al. (2018) [76] adopted the analytical expressions of stress-strain relationship for
 453 ordinary concretes under uniaxial compression and tested their relevancy for RAC (data from
 454 Omary et al. 2016 [83]). For example, following Eurocode 2 (2005)[89]:

$$455 \quad \sigma/f_{cm} = (k\eta - \eta^2)/[1 + (k-2)\eta]$$

456 where $k = E_c \cdot \varepsilon_{c1} / f_{cm}$; $\eta = \varepsilon / \varepsilon_{c1}$

457 The authors showed that the Eurocode 2 formula could reproduce the pre-peak behaviour of
458 RAC under uniaxial compression, while there was more difference for the post-peak behaviour.

459

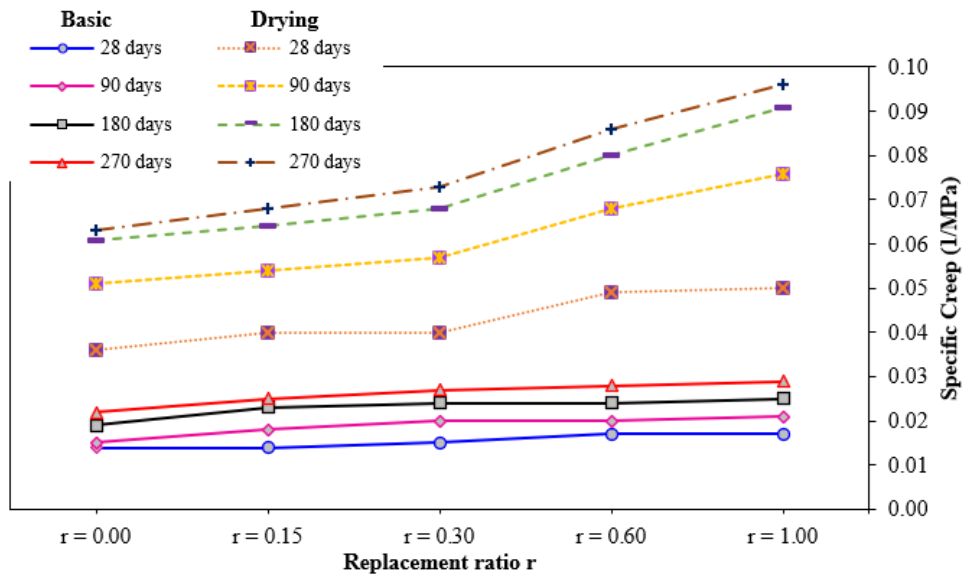
460 4.5. Shrinkage, creep, fatigue

461 4.5.1. *Shrinkage:*

462 Influences of recycled aggregates on the long term shrinkage of RAC have been
463 investigated in numerous studies [90]-[96]. The results showed that the replacement
464 by recycled aggregates increased the shrinkage, from 15 to 60%, in function of the
465 replacement level: until 30% of replacement level, the shrinkage increase was
466 limited, and less than 10% in the most of cases; however, when the replacement
467 level is more than 50%, the shrinkage increase becomes high, which can be 60% in
468 some cases, but in general, the shrinkage increase is not more than 25% [97]. The
469 increase of shrinkage for RAC is explained by the high water absorption of the
470 recycled aggregates which are porous and contains the old cement paste. Brand et
471 al. (2015) [46] investigated the shrinkage with three pre-saturation levels of recycled
472 aggregate: saturated, partially saturated (80%) and oven dried. The authors have
473 observed that during the first 24 hours, the pre-saturation did not have any effect on
474 the shrinkage; however at the long term, the RAC with pre-saturated aggregates had
475 less shrinkage than that of RAC with oven dried aggregates.

476 4.5.2. *Creep:*

477 The recycled aggregates have also significant effects on the creep of RAC. Several
478 studies showed that the creep increased when the replacement level of recycled
479 aggregate increased [91], [93], [94], [98], [99]. Figure 4 presents the result of
480 Gomez-Soberon (2002)[98] study for the creep under a permanent stress at 40% of
481 the compressive strength. The creep of RAC having replacement ratios of recycled
482 aggregate from 20% to 100% is higher from 35 to 51% respectively, comparing to
483 that of natural aggregate concrete. The basic creep is not significantly affected by
484 the recycled aggregate replacement but the drying creep is clearly affected,
485 especially when the replacement ratio is more than 30%. The results from Fan et al.
486 (2014)[100] study showed that the characteristics of the old mortar bonded to
487 recycled aggregates are the source of this creep increase.



488
 489 **Figure 4. Specific creep for different recycled concretes at different substitution ratio r ;**
 490 **own creep (continuous lines) and desiccation creep (discontinuous lines). Source:**
 491 **Gomez-Soberon (2002) [98]**

492
 493 4.5.3. *Fatigue:*

494 For the RAC applied for the roads, the fatigue performance is a topic to be
 495 investigated. However, this topic is less presented in the literature than other topics.
 496 The fatigue behaviour of concrete in compression, tension and bending is usually
 497 described by Arora & Singh (2015) [101]:

498
$$\sigma_{\log N} / \sigma_0 = A + B \log N$$

499 where σ_0 represents the static strength, $\sigma_{\log N}$ is the stress causing the failure after N
 500 cycles; $\sigma_{\log N} / \sigma_0$ is the endurance of concrete after N cycles; A and B are two
 501 empirical parameters, in function of loading type and concrete type, B is negative.

502 Different results from Xiao et al. (2013) [102], Sobhan et al. (2016) [103], Arora &
 503 Singh (2015, 2016)[101], [104] showed that the endurance had the trend to decrease
 504 slightly (about 5%) and increase the standard deviation (about 5%) when the
 505 replacement ratio increased. More data are necessary for the design of the roads, but
 506 it seems that the fatigue is not a blocking factor for the application of recycled
 507 aggregates for the road construction.

508
 509 **5. Durability of RAC**

510 The properties related to the durability are usually the risks of steel reinforcement corrosion
 511 (carbonation, chloride penetration, air/water permeability, porosity), the resistance to thawing-
 512 freezing cycles (with and without de-icing salt), to alkali-silica reaction and the presence of
 513 sulphates (ettringite formation).

514 5.1. Risks of steel reinforcement corrosion

515 5.1.1. Carbonation

516 The carbonation is a well known phenomenon which induces with the time the risk of corrosion
517 for steel reinforcement. Indeed, in atmospheric conditions, the CO₂ percentage is about 0.4%,
518 when the CO₂ penetrates in the cement paste, the Portlandite is consumed and the calcite is
519 created. This phenomenon induces a decrease of pH in the concrete, which changes from 13 to
520 8-9, so the steel reinforcement is no longer protected, then the corrosion starts when the quantity
521 of oxygen and water is enough.

522 The carbonation of RAC has been well investigated in the literature [105]-[112]. The effects of
523 the recycled aggregate incorporation on the carbonation thickness is related to different factors:

- 524 - The replacement ratio of recycled aggregates [107], [113]
- 525 - The cement amount [78]
- 526 - The characteristics of the old concrete from which the recycled aggregates are
527 obtained [111]
- 528 - The quality of the recycled aggregates (presence of asphalt materials, bricks,
529 glass, concrete etc.) [112]
- 530 - The type of crushing [96]
- 531 - The curing [114]
- 532 - The use of superplasticizer to reduce the Water/Cement ratio [115]

533 There are a heterogeneity in the results obtained from different studies in literature, however
534 the following conclusions were observed [105], [110]:

- 535 - The aggregates recycled from the crushed masonries can contain different
536 materials (light concrete, bricks, ceramics, etc) which increases the carbonation
537 thickness.
- 538 - When the replacement ratio (of recycled aggregate) increases, the carbonation
539 increases. The use of recycled fine aggregates increases more significantly the
540 carbonation than the recycled coarse aggregates. Comparing to the control
541 ordinary concrete, the ratio of carbonation thicknesses varies from 1 to 2.5 for a
542 substitution of coarse aggregate and varies from 1 to 8.7 for a substitution of fine
543 aggregate.
- 544 - It is possible to produce RAC having the same carbonation resistance as ordinary
545 concrete by optimizing the Water/Binder ratio and the nature of binder.

546 5.1.2. Chloride penetration

547 The penetration of chloride ions, with the carbonation, is a principal cause of steel
548 reinforcement corrosion. Numerous studies have been carried out in the literature on this topic
549 [29], [44], [108]-[112], [117]. These studies showed that:

- 550 - The diffusion coefficient linearly increases with the replacement ratio of recycled
551 aggregate.
- 552 - The substitution by recycled fine aggregates leads to the chloride diffusion
553 coefficients higher than that of substitution by recycled coarse aggregates.
- 554 - Similar to ordinary concrete, the migration of chloride ions can be extenuated by
555 reducing the water/binder ratio, or by using the blast furnace slag, the fly ash or
556 the silica fume.

557 - An improvement of the resistance to chloride ion migration was observed when
558 the fine aggregates recycled from the bricks replaced the natural sand; the reason
559 could probably be due to the pozzolanic nature of this material.

560 Certain studies proposed to use polyvinyl alcohol to improve the resistance to chloride
561 penetration of RAC [107]. Some studies have found that the chloride diffusion coefficient of
562 their RAC was similar to that of the ordinary concretes [117], [118]. So, a large dispersion of
563 results between different studies is observed.

564 5.1.3. Permeability

565 The permeability is related to the microstructure. The permeability depends on the porosity, the
566 connectivity of the pores, the presence of the cracks and the water content of the concrete. As
567 the recycled aggregates are porous, and sometime cracked during the crushing, the
568 incorporation of recycled aggregates increases the permeability [119]-[122]. However, no
569 effect was observed for the replacement ratio of natural aggregates by recycled aggregates less
570 than 30% [119].

571 The permeability can be reduced with the following parameters:

572 - The hardening time: the diminution of the permeability is related to the
573 prolongation of the hydration processing. With a low water/cement ratio, a
574 reduction of capillary voids was observed [109], [122]. Similarly, increasing the
575 cement content reduces also the permeability [121].

576 - The curing condition: the curing in water reduce significantly the permeability,
577 compared to the curing in air [115]

578 - The mixing processing: the two-stage mixing approach (the fine and coarse
579 aggregates are firstly mixed with a half of water, then the cement and the rest of
580 water are added) reduces the permeability, compared to the normal mixing [50].

581 5.1.4. Conclusions on risks of steel corrosion

582 The increase of the substitution ratio increases the porosity of RAC. The porosity accessible to
583 water is an important indicator of the durability of RAC. However, this parameter is not enough
584 for an assessment of the risks of steel corrosion. When a thorough investigation on the corrosion
585 risk is required, it is more relevant to consider at least the chloride diffusion coefficient and the
586 resistance to carbonation of RAC. The use of these two parameters takes already into account
587 the porosity.

588 It is observed that the recycled aggregates decrease the performance of RAC (compared to
589 natural aggregates), due to the porosity and the compacity of the cement paste in the new
590 concrete. However, by optimizing the formulation (especially by reducing the water/binder
591 ratio), although with high substitution ratio, one can obtain RAC with the resistances to
592 carbonation and to chloride diffusion equivalent to that of ordinary concretes [105]. Corinaldesi
593 & Moriconithe (2009) [116] also showed that the addition of fly ash could be effective in
594 reducing carbonation and chloride ion penetration depths in RAC.

595

596 5.2. Resistance to thawing-freezing cycles

597 Several studies noted that the thawing-freezing resistance of RAC is less than that of ordinary
598 concrete [123], [124]. However, this resistance can be improved by using the pre-saturation of
599 recycled aggregates (at 100% or 50% of saturation [125]); this result is explained by a possible
600 internal curing of RAC. Kaihua et al. (2016)[126] showed that the thawing-freezing resistance

601 of RAC closely depended on the properties of the parent concrete recycled. The use of air-
602 entrained can also increase the thawing-freezing resistance of RAC, equivalent to that of
603 ordinary concretes [127].

604 5.3. Alkali-silica reaction

605 The alkali-silica reaction deteriorates the durability of concrete because it can provoke the
606 cracking and the damages in the structure. The origin of the alkali-silica reaction is a chemical
607 reaction between four components which must be simultaneously present in concrete: the
608 reactive silica in the aggregates, a high concentration of alkaline, the presence of Portlandite,
609 and a relative humidity (RH) more than 70-80%.

610 The recycled aggregate contains two very different phases: the cement paste bonded and the
611 natural aggregates (sand and gravels). The cement paste contains the alkaline elements
612 (generally in small amount). The aggregates have different natures, depending on their source;
613 they can potentially contain the reactive phases. Therefore, the recycled aggregates can contain
614 important quantities of soluble alkaline and potentially reactive silica. As the aggregates
615 generally represents about 70% volume of concrete, the use of recycled aggregates presents a
616 potential risk of alkali-silica reaction, especially the recycled fine aggregates which contains an
617 important part of cement paste [105], [128], [129].

618 The alkali-silica reaction causes the expansion in concrete. Rougeau et al. (2018)[105] adopted
619 the criterion of an acceptable expansion which was 0.02% after 5 months for RAC. The authors
620 worked on aggregates at potentially reactive classes. The results show that the RAC with 100%
621 of recycled coarse aggregate can satisfy the criterion of expansion. However, the limit of the
622 recycle fine aggregate substituted is not more than 30% and an alkaline content less than 3
623 kg/m³.

624 5.4. Risk of ettringite and thaumasite formations

625 One of problems relative to the use of recycled aggregates is the presence of pollutants which
626 can be mortar, plaster, organic elements, chlorides, sulphates, glass, which can decrease the
627 durability of RAC [7]. Several studies showed high contents of soluble sulphates in RAC [130],
628 [131]. In the case of a very high soluble sulphate content, an internal sulphate attack can occur,
629 leading to an adding expansion due to the formation of an important quantity of secondary
630 ettringite [132]. This ettringite formation needs other specific simultaneous conditions: humid
631 environment; presence of aluminates and alkaline possibly in the cement paste; high
632 temperature of concrete at early age; etc. It is worth noting that on beside of ettringite, the
633 thaumasite can be also created at the low temperature.

634 To reduce the risks related to the formations of ettringite or thaumasite due by the sulphate
635 reactions, some authors proposed to limit the maximum content of acid-soluble sulphates for
636 the recycled aggregates at 0.3%, [105], while other references propose to limit at 0.8% [133].

637 6. Reinforced RAC structures

638 6.1. Bonding between steel reinforcement rebars and RAC

639 Among the first studies on the bonding of steel-concrete, Xiao & Falkner (2007)[134]
640 performed pull-out tests on RAC with two types of steel (smooth and ribbed). Different
641 substitution levels of natural gravels by recycled coarse aggregates were chosen (0%, 50% and
642 100%). The quantities of sand, cement and cement/water ratio were constant; so the
643 compressive strength of RAC decreased when the substitution level increased, like other results
644 presented in the previous sections. The results from the pull-out tests showed that when the
645 coarse aggregate substitution increased, the bonding of smooth steel and RAC decreased,
646 however, the bonding was constant for the case of ribbed steels. This result was confirmed later

647 by numerous other studies which used the similar approach (fixing the binder amount constant)
648 and showed that there was not significant difference of bonding for the cases of ordinary
649 concretes and RAC [135]-[141].

650 Ghorbel et al. (2018)[142] used another approach by working on different ordinary concretes
651 and RAC (with different substitution levels) which had the same compressive strength. The
652 authors carried out the pull-out tests and the four-points-bending tests. The results showed that
653 although the tensile strength of RAC decreased slightly (less than 10%, comparing to the
654 reference ordinary concrete), there was no significant difference in the bonding strength
655 between RAC and ordinary concretes. The authors also showed that the formula proposed in
656 Eurocode 2 for the bonding strength of ordinary concretes could predict the bonding strength
657 of RAC with satisfying accuracy (differences with the experimental results less than 10%).

658 6.2.Reinforced RAC columns

659 Although the studies on RAC at the material scale is numerous, as cited in the previous sections,
660 the researches at the structural scale of RAC structures (such as column, beam) are relatively
661 recent and the number is limited. The investigations on the behaviour of reinforced RAC
662 columns by Liu et al. (2010)[143], Zhou et al. (2010)[144], Choi & Yun (2012)[145] can be
663 cited. These studies concentrated on non-slender columns (slenderness from 4 to 9), with
664 different substitution levels of natural gravels by recycled coarse recycled aggregates; the
665 natural sand was not substituted. The columns were tested in compression with different
666 eccentricities. The results showed that for ordinary concretes and RAC having the same
667 compressive strengths, the behaviour of the columns was similar for the both cases.

668 Boissière et al. (2018)[146] tested also the non-slender column with RAC (slenderness of 8);
669 however, for their RAC, the natural sand the natural gravels were both substituted by the
670 recycled aggregates. The compressive strength was the same for all columns. The results
671 showed that for the low substitution ratio (30% gravel and 30% sand; or 100% gravels and 0%
672 sand), the behaviour was quasi-identical for the columns in ordinary concretes and in RAC.
673 However, for the total substitution of natural aggregates (100% gravel and 100% sand,
674 especially for the case of 100% sand), the structure stiffness decreased significantly. This result
675 is due to the decrease of the elastic modulus (already discussed in the sections 4.4.3) which
676 increased the lateral deformations and the second-order moments. Therefore, the ultimate
677 resistance of RAC columns in that case decreased slightly (about 10%). The authors also
678 showed that the calculation of the ultimate axial force following Eurocode 2 (EN 1992-1-1),
679 with the adapted security coefficients, could be applied for non-slender reinforced RAC
680 columns both for Ultimate Limit State (ULS) and Serviceability Limit State (SLS).

681 The most of studies in the literature indicate that the behaviour of non-slender columns in
682 reinforced RAC can be considered the same as reinforced ordinary concrete, when the
683 substitution ratio is not higher than 50% [144], [146]. However, for slender columns, the
684 differences are more significant because as mentioned earlier, RAC has lower elastic modulus
685 and higher creep than ordinary concrete, which can increase the second-order moment (causing
686 the buckling) and therefore reduce the ultimate capacity of slender reinforced RAC columns.
687 However, the number of experiments on the slender columns in reinforced RAC is not available
688 in the literature. Fouré (2018)[147] carried out an analytical investigations on the slender
689 columns in which the characteristics were adapted following the properties of RAC: the stress-
690 strain relationship, the elastic modulus and the creep. The results showed that for short-term
691 loadings (where the creep phenomenon has not yet occurred), when compared to the ordinary
692 concrete columns, although the second-order moment increased significantly for RAC columns
693 (about 30%, due to a lower elastic modulus), the resistant ultimate axial force decreased slightly
694 (about 10%) which could be neglected in the structural design. However, for the long-term

695 loadings (where the creep phenomenon is included), the decrease of the resistant force became
696 non-neglected (about 25%). Therefore, the author proposed that for the structural design of
697 reinforced RAC structures, the creep phenomenon should be carefully taken into account, such
698 as the coefficient A in the calculation of the limit slenderness (where $A=1/(1+0.2\varphi_{ef})$; with φ_{ef}
699 is the creep coefficient).

700 6.3.Reinforced RAC beams

701 The beams are generally verified for the performances against bending moments, shear forces,
702 deflections and cracking (opening and spacing). The number of studies on the behaviour of
703 beams in reinforced RAC is still limited, however, several important results were reported in
704 the existing studies. For the bending performance, Bai & Sun (2010)[148] Ajdukiewicz &
705 Kliszczyewicz (2007)[150], , Arezoumandi et al. (2015)[149], Knaack & Kurama (2015)[150],
706 Wardeh & Ghorbel (2015)[151], Mercado-Mendoza et al. (2018)[152] showed that the ultimate
707 bending resistance of the beams did not be affected by the substitution of natural aggregates by
708 recycled aggregates; however, the deflections of beams in RAC increased when the substitution
709 ratio increased, due to a lower elastic modulus of RAC than that of ordinary concrete.

710 For the deflection topic, Mercado-Mendoza et al. (2018)[152] showed that the calculations
711 following Eurocode 2 could reproduce with satisfying accuracy the experimental deflections
712 measured, which were at the short-term. To our knowledge, no study was experimentally
713 investigated on the long-term deflections of reinforced RAC beams, but with a higher creep of
714 RAC than ordinary concrete, it is expected that the long-term deflections of reinforced RAC
715 beams would be more important. Therefore, the specifications in Eurocode 2 for the exemption
716 of deflection calculations, which had been proposed for ordinary reinforced concretes, should
717 be revised for reinforced RAC beams.

718 For the cracking of reinforced RAC beams, although Bai & Sun (2010)[148] noted that the
719 incorporation of recycled aggregates did not significantly modify the spacing between the
720 cracks, other studies ([149], [151]-[153]) have shown that the crack spacing decreased when
721 the substitution ratio of recycled aggregates increased. This result is due to the bonding-
722 strength/tensile-strength which is slightly higher for RAC than that of ordinary concrete.
723 Indeed, as presented in the sections 4.4.2 and 6.1, RAC has similar bonding strength but lower
724 tensile strength than ordinary concrete [152]. The crack openings of RAC beams was also
725 observed decreased when the substitution ratio increased. Mercado-Mendoza et al. (2018)[152]
726 showed that when compared to the experimental results, the formulations in Eurocode 2 over-
727 estimated the crack openings and crack spacings. The reason was probably due to irrelevant
728 parameters taken for RAC, such as the tensile strength.

729 The shear behaviour is a complex phenomenon, even for ordinary concretes. The shear
730 performance of a reinforced concrete beam depends not only on the concrete properties, but
731 also on the steel reinforcements (stirrups and longitudinal steels) and the beam geometry
732 (especially the effective height). Therefore, to investigate the shear performance of reinforced
733 RAC beams, certain authors choose to investigate the beams with or without stirrups [154]-
734 [160]. The results showed that for a same compressive strength, the shear strength of RAC
735 beams was slightly lower than that of ordinary concrete, but the mechanisms of failure (cracks)
736 were the same. The decrease of shear strength in RAC beams is directly related to the lower
737 tensile strength of this concrete when compared to ordinary concretes. The results also showed
738 that the formula proposed in Eurocode 2 for ordinary concretes could predict the shear strength
739 of RAC beams. The analyses at the macroscopic scale showed that while the shear failures in
740 ordinary concrete beams occurred at the interfaces between the natural aggregates and the
741 mortar, the shear failures in RAC beams occurred through the recycled aggregates [160].

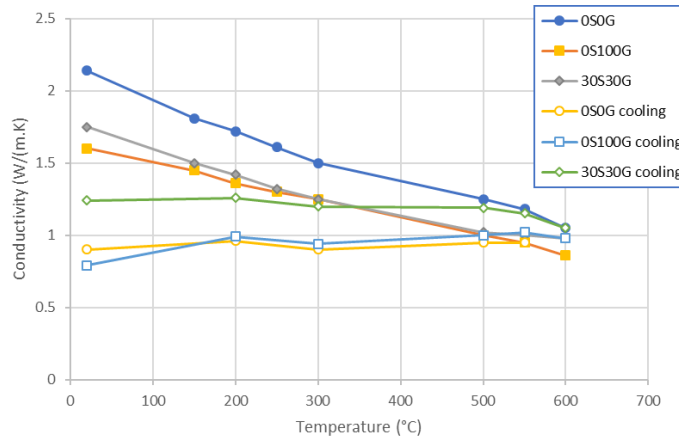
742 **7. Fire behavior of RAC**

743 The number of studies investigating the performance of RAC at high temperature is still limited
744 [161], [162]. When the concrete is heated up, numerous phenomena appear, such as the
745 dilatation of aggregates, the shrinkage of cement paste, the increase of vapor pressure, the
746 cracking or the spalling. The RAC uses not only natural aggregates but also recycled aggregates
747 which are more porous, have higher water absorption than natural aggregates, and contain also
748 the hydrates (cement paste). Moreover, recycled aggregates possess two interfacial transition
749 zones: the first one is between the mortar and the natural aggregates, the second one is between
750 the new cement paste and recycled aggregates [163]. These transition zones are considered as
751 the weak zones of mechanical properties [164], [165].

752 Like ordinary concretes, there are deteriorations in the mechanical properties when RAC is
753 exposed to high temperature [166]-[170]. When there is no contaminants in recycled aggregates
754 (wood, asphalt, etc.), the evolution of compressive strength of RAC in function of temperature
755 is similar to ordinary concretes, however, the tensile strength of RAC decreases more rapidly.
756 The non-cementitious contaminants had negative impacts on the residual mechanical properties
757 of RAC, because when they are pyrolyzed, the cracking and porosity are created [171].

758 7.1. Thermal conductivity and specific heat

759 The conductivity and the specific heat are the thermo-physic parameters which have important
760 influences on the fire behavior of RAC. To interpret different phenomena observed during the
761 fire tests, these parameters must be investigated. Robert et al. (2018) [162] used the Transient
762 Plane Source technique to measure these two parameters of different concretes: ordinary
763 concrete with natural aggregates (0S0G), RAC in which 100% natural gravels were substituted
764 by recycled coarse aggregates (0S100G), RAC in which 30% of natural sands and 30% of
765 natural gravels were substituted by recycled fine and coarse aggregates, respectively (30S30G).
766 These concretes have the same compressive strength grade (C25/30). The measurements were
767 performed on the cycles of heating-cooling. The results are illustrated on Figure 5 and Figure
768 6. From Figure 5, it is observed that at the ambient temperature, RAC have a lower thermal
769 conductivity than the reference concrete. This difference comes from the higher porosity and
770 the higher paste content in the RAC, as mentioned in the previous sections. The second
771 observation is the thermal conductivity decreases when the temperature increases. This
772 diminution of conductivity can be explained by the damage development in the concrete,
773 because the residual strength of concretes having suffered thermal cycles is lower than that of
774 unheated concretes. The potential mechanisms of damages are: the evaporation of water,
775 because the thermal conductivity of water (0.6 W/(m.K)) is higher than that of air (0.02
776 W/(m.K)); the diminution of links due to the decomposition of hydrates; the microcracking
777 from 300°C. The conductivity of the reference concrete (0S0G) decreases more rapidly than
778 that of RAC. This result is similar to other studies which showed that concretes having higher
779 conductivity loss more quickly their conductivity with the increase of temperature [172]. Then,
780 the differences of results between heating and cooling phases in the Figure 5 shows a hysteresis
781 which confirms the irreversibility, especially that the concretes were really damaged [173].



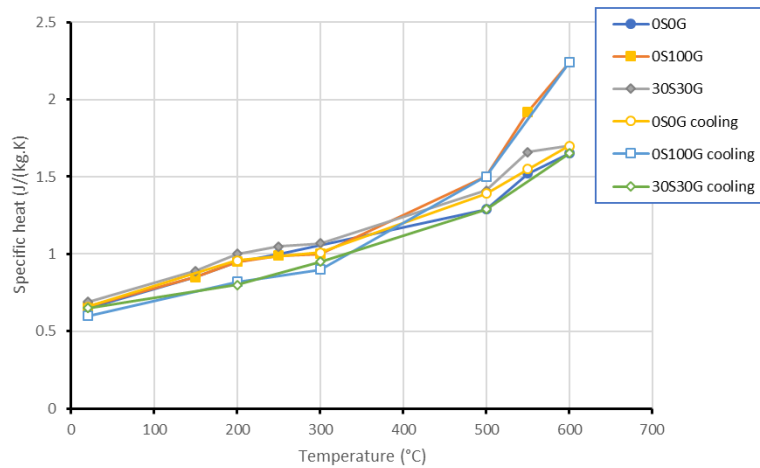
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784

Figure 5. Evolution of thermal conductivity following the temperature, for the heating and cooling, obtained by Robert et al. (2018)[162].

785



786

787

788

Figure 6. Evolution of specific heat following the temperature, for the heating and cooling, obtained by Robert et al. (2018)[162].

789 The results from Figure 6 show that the specific increases with the temperature increase; the
 790 recycled aggregates do not have significant influences on the specific heat, although some
 791 differences can be note between 500°C and 600°C. In the case of specific heat, the hysteresis
 792 is significantly less remarked than that of the thermal conductivity. So, the increase of specific
 793 heat with the temperature is related to reversible phenomena. Indeed, the specific heat depends
 794 directly to the atomic vibrations, which is the principal mode of thermal energy absorption in
 795 the solids. When the temperature increases, the energy of atomic vibrations increases, which
 796 leads to a higher specific heat [162].

797

7.2. Thermo-mechanical properties

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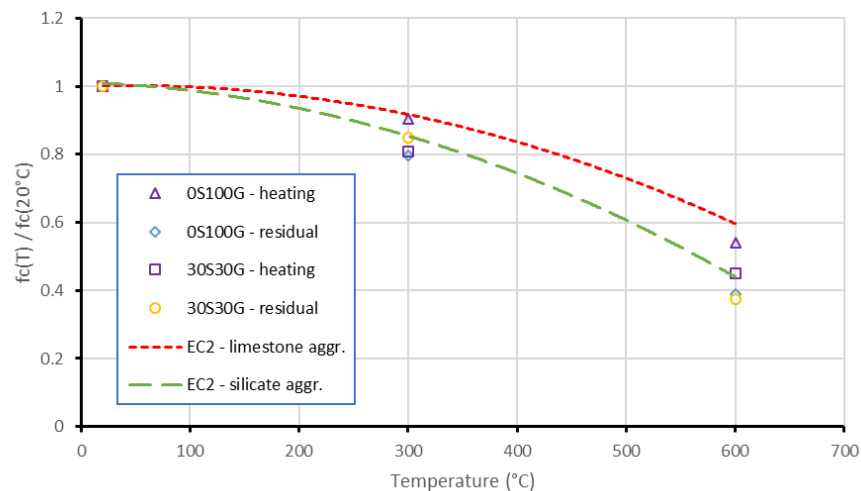
Robert et al. (2018) performed tests on specimens of 10-cm-diameter and 30-cm-height following recommendations TC 129-MHT of RILEM [174]. The concrete was of C35/45 grade. For each test, the specimen was preloaded at 20% of the compressive strength at the ambient temperature (20°C), this preloading was kept constant during the heating test. Then, the temperature was increased 1°C/min until:

803

- 300°C then stabilized during 2 hours (for the tests at 300°C),

804 - Or 600°C then stabilized during 1 hour (for the tests at 600°C).

805 Two types of compression tests were performed: tested at high temperature and tested in
806 residual state; for the second type, the specimens were let cooled down during 12h after the
807 stabilisation. The loading rate for the compression tests was 0.5 MPa/second. The results
808 obtained are presented in Figure 7, which shows the variation of the ratio between of the
809 compressive strength at a temperature ($f_c(T)$) on the compressive strength at the ambient
810 temperature ($f_c(20^\circ\text{C})$). Figure 7 illustrates the decrease of the compressive strength when the
811 RAC was exposed to the high temperature. This result confirms the damages appeared when
812 the concrete suffers to the high temperature, especially from 300°C. The figure also shows that
813 the analytical calculations following Eurocode 2-1-2 (discontinuous lines) provides the
814 acceptable results comparing to the experimental ones, in particular for the case of silicate
815 aggregates.



816

817 **Figure 7. The ratio $f_c(T)/f_c(20^\circ\text{C})$ in function of the temperature, obtained by**
818 **experiments and following Eurocode 2. Source: Robert et al. (2018)[162].**

819

820 7.3.Spalling tests and thermal profile

821 Interesting spalling tests were presented by Robert et al. (2018): four slabs of 4.6-m-length \times
822 1.5-m-width \times 0.2-m-thickness were tested during 60 min following the standard EN 1363-1
823 (Figure 8). Two slabs were in ordinary concrete and two others are in RAC. The spalling was
824 manually investigated (with a rule) after the tests, on the surface exposed to the fire. The results
825 showed that the spalling on RAC slabs were slightly more remarked than that of ordinary
826 concrete slab: about 1-3 cm of spalling-thickness for RAC slabs, compared to 0-2 cm for
827 ordinary concrete slabs. However, the spalling on RAC slabs are local (about 10% of the total
828 surface), superficial and does not affect on the mechanical stability of the slabs. The higher
829 water content of recycled aggregates may explain the reason of the higher spalling [162]. The
830 results also showed that the application of a numerical code for the fire resistant design
831 following Eurocode 2-1-2 could reproduce with satisfying accuracy the experimental behaviour
832 obtained.

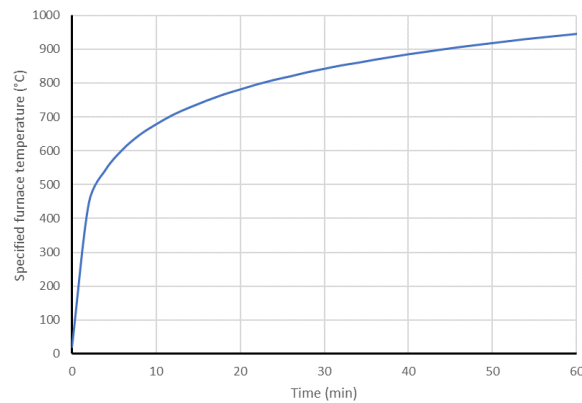


Figure 8. Specified furnace temperature in function of time, following EN 1363-1.

7.4. Fire resistant tests

The beams (0.3-m × 0.4-m of cross-section and 4.2-m-length) in reinforced RAC were tested in Robert et al. (2018)[162]. Two beams (0S100G and 30S30G) were tested in 3-point-bending test at ambient conditions; two others were tested also in 3-point-bending test but after a thermal treatment of 60 minutes, following EN 1363-1 (Figure 8). The results showed that for the beams tested at ambient conditions, the experimental results were slightly higher than the analytical calculations following Eurocode 2 (about 10%). For the beams tested after the heating, the experimental results were significantly higher than that following Eurocode 2-1-2 for ordinary concretes (about 60%). This result shows that reinforced RAC beams have good fire resistance, compared to ordinary concretes. However, this result should be confirmed with other types of recycled aggregates.

8. Conclusion and prospect

After considering different aspects relative to RAC, from the recycling of old-concrete-aggregates, the mix proportioning, the mechanical properties, the durability, the structural behaviour and the fire resistance, it is observed that the application of RAC is not very complicated. The most important step is the recycling of old-concrete-aggregates. With recycled aggregates of relevant quality and with a reasonable substitution ratio of recycled aggregates, the RAC obtained possess the properties comparable to that of ordinary concretes with natural aggregate. The possible substitution ratio for coarse aggregates can reach 100% in many cases, while for fine aggregates, it is more reasonable to limit the substitution ratio at 30% to satisfy the demand of numerous different criteria, although in many cases, higher substitution ratio (such as 50%) can be successfully applied.

Today, most of recycling processes provides the recycled aggregates which are still covered by old cement pastes and contaminants. To obtain a same grade of compressive strength, the incorporation of these recycled aggregates demands more cement and admixtures, this problem can strongly influence on the economic and environmental competitions of RAC when compared to ordinary concretes. Therefore, with the current recycling techniques, the reasonable substitution ratios are about 30-40%, even for recycled coarse aggregates. It is worth noting that the recycled fine aggregates are less suitable for a high substitution ratio in concrete, but they can be used in the processing of cement production.

For the future of RAC industry, different tracks still need to be investigated and improved:

- 868 - More efficient methods of aggregate recycling to provide recycled aggregates of
869 better quality, the old-cement-paste should be separated from the recycled
870 aggregates, the contaminants should be better eliminated.
- 871 - The new methods should be developed to incorporate the recycled fine aggregates
872 with higher substitution rates.
- 873 - The use of cements of new generation which are “greener” than the current
874 cement. The use of other alternative binders (such as geopolymer [175], [176]) for
875 RAC to replace cement will be interesting to reduce the environmental impacts.
- 876 - The creep and the fatigue of RAC need more investigations (experimental and
877 numerical). The experiments on the structural elements of reinforced RAC are
878 interesting to be continued, especially on the complex domains such as the shear
879 design, the punching behavior.

880

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