

British Journal of Applied Science & Technology 11(4): 1-13, 2015, Article no.BJAST.19991 ISSN: 2231-0843



SCIENCEDOMAIN international

www.sciencedomain.org

Non-destructive Evaluation of Self-consolidating High-strength Concrete Incorporating Palm Oil Fuel Ash

M. A. Salam¹, Md. Safiuddin^{2*} and M. Z. Jumaat³

¹Department of Civil Engineering, Dhaka University of Engineering and Technology (DUET), Gazipur, Dhaka, Bangladesh.

²School of Architectural Studies and Angelo del Zotto School of Construction Management, George Brown College, 146 Kendal Avenue, Toronto, ON M5T 2T9, Canada. ³Department of Civil Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, University of Malaya, 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration between all authors. Author MS designed the study and guided experimental investigation. Author MAS wrote the first draft of the manuscript and managed literature searches. Authors MS and MAS managed the analyses of the study. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/BJAST/2015/19991

Editor(s):

(1) Manjinder Singh, Department of Biological and Agricultural Engineering, University of Georgia, Georgia, USA.

Reviewers:

(1) Mark Bediako, Building and Road Research Institute, Ghana.

(2) Anonymous, Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia, Malaysia.

Complete Peer review History: http://sciencedomain.org/review-history/11163

Original Research Article

Received 6th July 2015 Accepted 12th August 2015 Published 29th August 2015

ABSTRACT

This paper presents the results of the key non-destructive tests performed on the self-consolidating high-strength concrete (SCHSC) mixes including palm oil fuel ash (POFA) as a pozzolanic supplementary cementing material. Twenty (20) SCHSC mixes were produced with several water-to-binder (W/B) ratios ranging from 0.25 to 0.40. POFA was incorporated in concrete mixes substituting 0%, 10%, 20%, 25% and 30% of ordinary portland cement (OPC) by weight. The non-destructive tests were carried out to determine the dynamic modulus of elasticity and ultrasonic pulse velocity (UPV) of the concretes. In addition, the 28 and 56 days compressive strengths were determined to verify whether the concretes possessed high strength or not. The slump flow of the

concrete mixes was also investigated to observe their self-consolidation capacity. Nevertheless, more emphasis was given to observe the effects of W/B ratio and POFA content on the selected non-destructive properties of the concretes. Moreover, the correlations of UPV and dynamic modulus of elasticity with compressive strength were determined. The concrete mixes produced had the required slump flow values (≥ 600 mm) for self-consolidating concrete. The compressive strength of all concretes satisfied the strength requirement (≥ 50 MPa) of high-strength concrete for all replacement levels of OPC. The UPV and dynamic elasticity decreased with higher W/B ratio. POFA was effective in improving the non-destructive properties of concretes up to 20% replacement of cement by weight. Hence, the optimum POFA content was 20% in the context of the present study. Furthermore, the dynamic modulus of elasticity and UPV were strongly correlated with the compressive strength of SCHSC possessing a correlation coefficient of +0.9413 and +0.9709, respectively.

Keywords: Compressive strength; dynamic modulus of elasticity; palm oil fuel ash (POFA); selfconsolidating high-strength concrete (SCHSC); slump flow; ultrasonic pulse velocity (UPV); water-to-binder (W/B) ratio.

1. INTRODUCTION

Non-destructive testing (NDT) is carried out as a part of the detailed investigation for concrete properties to complement the destructive test methods. Several NDT methods have been developed for assessment of concrete properties. These test methods do not require destruction of concrete elements or specimens. In addition, NDT methods are useful to establish correlations between the strength and nondestructive properties of concrete [1]. These correlations can be used indirectly to examine the strength properties of concrete without involving any destructive tests [2].

Carino [3] summarized the use of different NDT methods and discussed the challenges for the 21st century. He provided a historical perspective on the development of NDT methods for and outlined future directions. Rajagopalan et al. [4] reported a correlation between the compressive strength and ultrasonic pulse velocity (UPV) for several typical mixes of concrete. They concluded that UPV tests at the age of 7 days are more reliable than 28 days for assessing compressive strength. Anderson and Seals [5] performed experiments using dynamic NDT procedures to predict the long-term compressive strength of in-situ concrete from its UPV. They concluded that UPV measurements can be used for a comprehensive evaluation of in-situ strength. Mehta and Monteiro [6] determined the dynamic modulus of elasticity of low-, medium-, and high-strength concretes and correlated with the static modulus of elasticity of concrete. Their study revealed that the dynamic modulus of elasticity are generally 20%, 30%, and 40% higher than the static modulus of

elasticity for high-, medium-, and low-strength concretes, respectively. Al-Amoudi et al. [7] determined the compressive strength and UPV of incorporating fly ash supplementary cementing material (SCM) and established a correlation between them. They observed good correlation between compressive strength and UPV. Raman et al. [8] investigated NDT properties such as UPV, dynamic modulus of elasticity, and initial surface absorption; they correlated these properties with the compressive strength of flowing concrete including quarry waste as a partial replacement of mining sand. They found that dynamic modulus of elasticity, UPV, and initial surface absorption varied linearly with compressive strength. Shariati et al. [1] performed experimental studies on in-situ concrete in existing buildings using PUNDIT (Portable Ultrasonic Non-destructive Digital Indicating Tester) and Schmidt rebound hammer: they established the correlations of compressive strength with UPV and rebound number. Their predicted compressive strength obtained from the correlations was very closer to the experimental compressive strength. Safiuddin et al. [9] investigated the compressive strength, UPV, electrical resistivity of selfand high-performance consolidating concrete incorporating rice husk ash (RHA) as a pozzolanic SCM. They observed that RHA can significantly improve the strength and nondestructive properties of concrete. However, limited research has been carried out on the nondestructive properties of self-consolidating highstrength concrete (SCHSC) incorporating palm oil fuel ash (POFA).

POFA is a waste material produced after the extraction of oil from the fresh fruit bunches of oil

palm tree. This ash is mostly dumped in open field near palm oil mills without any profitable return, thus causing environmental pollution and health hazard [10,11]. It has been found that the properly processed POFA can be used successfully as a pozzolanic SCM to produce various types of concrete [12]. The use of POFA in concrete contributes to enhance the quality of concrete with respect to strength and non-destructive properties due to its microfilling ability and pozzolanic activity [13,14].

The main objective of this study was to investigate the non-destructive properties of SCHSC and to examine their correlations with compressive strength. Twenty (20) SCHSC mixes were produced with several water-to-binder (W/B) ratios ranging from 0.25 to 0.40. POFA was incorporated in the concrete mixes substituting 0%, 10%, 20%, 25% and 30% of ordinary portland cement (OPC) by weight. Two key non-destructive properties such as UPV and dynamic modulus of elasticity as well as the compressive strength of SCHSC mixes were determined. The slump flow of the fresh concrete mixes was also measured to observe the self-consolidation capacity of concrete.

2. EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

2.1 Materials

The coarse aggregate (CA) used in this study was locally available crushed granite stone whereas the fine aggregate (FA) used was the sand obtained from a local mine. The ordinary (ASTM Type I) portland cement (OPC) was used as the main cementing material. POFA was used as a pozzolanic SCM substituting 0–30% of OPC. POFA was collected from Jugra Palm Oil

Mill located in Banting, Selangor, Malaysia. It was obtained at 800–1000°C and processed through proper grinding to provide a fineness greater than that of OPC. POFA and OPC together acted as the binder (B). The mixing water (W) used was normal tap water. A polycarboxylate based high-range water reducer (HRWR) was also used in the present study to achieve the self-consolidation capacity of concrete.

Constituent materials were tested to verify their suitability and to facilitate mix proportioning of concrete mixes. CA and FA were tested to determine their specific gravity, water absorption, bulk density, moisture content, and gradation. POFA and OPC were tested for their specific gravity, particle size distribution, sieve fineness, specific surface area, and chemical composition. POFA was also tested for its pozzolanic activity index. The particle size distributions of OPC and POFA were determined by the laser diffraction method. The chemical compositions of POFA and OPC were obtained using the X-ray fluorescence (XRF) method. The HRWR was tested for its specific gravity and solid content. The physical properties CA, FA, OPC, POFA and HRWR are given in Table 1. The gradations of CA and FA are shown in Fig. 1. The particle size distributions of POFA and OPC are shown in Fig. 2. The chemical compositions of OPC and POFA are presented in Table 2.

2.2 Mix Proportions of Concrete

Twenty (20) SCHSC mixes were prepared with the W/B ratios of 0.25, 0.30, 0.35, and 0.40. POFA was incorporated in the concrete mixes replacing 0%, 10%, 20%, 25%, and 30% of OPC by weight.

Table 1. Properties of constituent materials

Properties	CA	FA	OPC	POFA	HRWR
Relative density	2.62	2.69	3.16	2.48	1.05
Median particle size, d ₅₀ (µm)	-	-	14.6	9.5	-
% passing through 45-µm sieve (% mass)	-	-	91.5	95	-
Specific surface area, Blaine (m²/kg)	-	-	351	775	-
Specific surface area, BET (m ² /kg)	-	-	3046	4103	-
Pozzolanic activity index (28 days) (%)	-	-	-	105	-
Solid content (%)	-	-	-	-	30
Absorption capacity (%)	0.55	1.32	-	-	-
Moisture content (%)	0.27	0.31	-	-	-
Fineness modulus	6.76	2.88	-	-	-
Bulk density (oven-dry) (kg/m ³)	1515	1700	-	-	-
Co-efficient of gradation	1.11	1.05	-	-	_

The water content for the SCHSC mixes was selected based on the guidelines given in ACI 211.4R-08 [15] whereas the amount of cement was calculated based on the selected W/B ratios. The optimum fine aggregate/total aggregate (FA/TA) ratio was determined based on the maximum bulk density of aggregate blends and it was 0.50 for all SCHSC mixes. The HRWR dosages were fixed based on trial mixes to

ensure the self-consolidation capacity of concrete with a slump flow in the range of 600–800 mm. The detailed mix proportions for various SCHSC mixes are given in Table 3. The SCHSC mixes were designated based on their W/B ratio and POFA content. For example, C25P10 implies an SCHSC mix whose W/B ratio and POFA content was 0.25 and 10%, respectively.

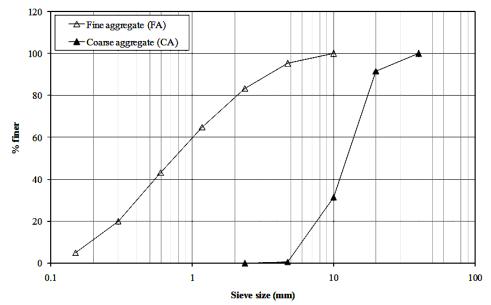


Fig. 1. Gradations of coarse and fine aggregates

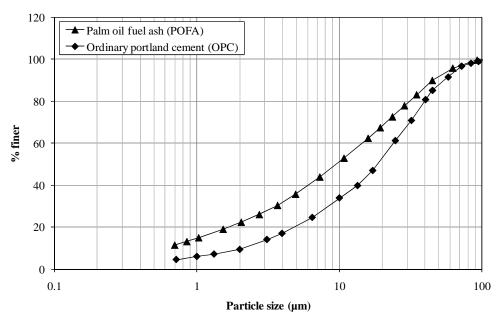


Fig. 2. Particle size distributions of OPC and POFA

Table 2. Chemical compositions of OPC and POFA

Chemical component	Quantity (% by mass)			
•	OPC	POFA		
CaO	71.79	4.89		
SiO ₂	15.20	62.27		
Al_2O_3	3.44	3.18		
Fe_2O_3	2.88	13.57		
P_2O_5	0.40	3.64		
SO ₃	3.91	0.36		
K ₂ O	0.40	7.89		
MgO	1.70	3.67		
TiO ₂	0.13	0.17		
MnO	0.07	0.16		
CuO	-	0.09		
ZnO	-	0.03		
Rb ₂ O	-	0.04		
SrO	0.03	-		

Table 3. Mix proportions of different concrete mixes

Concrete type	W/B ratio	CA	FA	OPC	POFA		W	HRWR
		(kg/m³)	(kg/m³)	(kg/m³)	(% B)	(kg/m³)	(kg/m³)	(% B)
C25P0	0.25	780.0	779.7	705.9	0	0	176.5	1.8
C25P10	0.25	772.0	771.4	635.3	10	70.6	176.5	1.845
C25P20	0.25	763.0	761.0	564.7	20	141.2	176.5	1.875
C25P25	0.25	758.0	757.9	529.4	25	176.5	176.5	2
C25P30	0.25	754.0	752.1	494.1	30	211.8	176.5	2.1
C30P0	0.30	834.0	833.2	588.2	0	0	176.5	1.5
C30P10	0.30	827.0	825.6	529.4	10	58.8	176.5	1.575
C30P20	0.30	819.0	817.1	470.6	20	117.6	176.5	1.8
C30P25	0.30	815.0	813.3	441.2	25	147.1	176.5	1.875
C30P30	0.30	811.0	809.9	411.8	30	176.5	176.5	1.925
C35P0	0.35	872.0	871.4	504.2	0	0	176.5	1.2
C35P10	0.35	867.0	865.3	453.8	10	50.4	176.5	1.225
C35P20	0.35	860.0	858.5	403.4	20	100.8	176.5	1.25
C35P25	0.35	856.0	855.5	378.2	25	126.1	176.5	1.5
C35P30	0.35	853.0	851.9	352.9	30	153.3	176.5	1.575
C40P0	0.40	901.0	899.5	441.2	0	0	176.5	1.0
C40P10	0.40	895.0	894.9	397.1	10	44.1	176.5	1.05
C40P20	0.40	890.0	888.2	352.9	20	88.2	176.5	1.2
C40P25	0.40	887.0	885.9	330.9	25	110.3	176.5	1.225
C40P30	0.40	884.0	882.1	308.8	30	132.4	176.5	1.4

2.3 Preparation and Testing of Concretes

The fresh SCHSC mixes were prepared in accordance with the mixing procedure described by Safiuddin [16]. Immediately after the completion of mixing, the slump flow of the fresh concretes was determined to examine their self-consolidation capacity. The slump flow was determined according to ASTM C 1611/C 1611M-09a [17].

The cylinder specimens of Ø100x200H mm were fabricated for the compressive strength and UPV

tests of different SCHSCs. In addition, 100W×100H×500L mm prisms were fabricated for the dynamic modulus of elasticity test of the concretes. Upon completion of casting, the specimens were left undisturbed and covered with plastic sheet and wet burlap to avoid evaporation. The specimens were de-moulded, marked, and transferred to the curing tank for wet curing at the age of 24±4 h. The curing temperature was 23±2°C. The wet curing was continued until the day of testing. The compressive strength of various SCHSCs was determined at the ages of 28 and 56 days by

testing triplicate Ø100×200H mm cylinder specimens according to ASTM C 39/ C 39M [18]. The dynamic modulus of elasticity of different SCHSCs was determined by measuring the fundamental resonant frequency of concrete in accordance with ASTM C 215 [19]. The test was carried out at the ages of 28 and 56 days using 100W×100H×500L mm concrete prisms. A resonant frequency tester was used to perform the test. The UPV of various SCHSCs was determined following ASTM C 597 [20]. The test was performed at the ages of 28 and 56 days using Ø100×200H mm concrete cylinders. A PUNDIT Plus was used for determining the UPV of the concretes.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Workability

The workability of SCHSC was measured with respect to slump flow. In this study, the slump flow varied in the range of 605-720 mm as shown in Table 4. The slump flow results revealed that the concretes were highly workable and had the self-consolidation capacity as they provided a slump flow greater than 600 mm. The slump flow for self-consolidating concrete varies in the range of 600-800 mm [21]. In the present study, adequate HRWR dosage and required cement content were used to obtain the selfconsolidation capacity of the concretes. An appropriate HRWR dosage and a proper paste volume at relatively high cement content improve the deformability of SCHSC and thus result in a greater slump flow [16,22].

3.2 Compressive Strength

The average compressive strengths of different SCHSCs (obtained by testing triplicate Ø100×200H mm cylinders) at 28 and 56 days are shown in Table 4. The variation between the average strength and each cylinder strength was less than 10%. The 28 days compressive strength varied from 52.3 to 74.2 MPa while the 56 days compressive strength differed from 54.8 to 77.0 MPa. These results revealed that the concretes produced were high-strength concrete. The minimum 28-day compressive strength requirement for high-strength concrete is 50 MPa [23]; this requirement was fulfilled by all SCHSC mixes produced in the present study. The compressive strength increased with lower W/B ratio (refer to Table 3 and Table 4). It is well known in concrete technology that a decrease in W/B ratio increases the compressive strength of concrete [24]. This is because the microstructure of concrete is significantly improved at a lower W/B ratio due to reduced quantity of water or increased amount of binder. In the present study, the binder content increased with lower W/B ratio as the amount of water was kept constant (refer to Table 3). Therefore, an increased amount of hydration products was produced from the hydration of cement. As a result, the porosity was significantly decreased, the microstructure was improved, and the concrete possessed a higher compressive strength. These findings were previously published by the authors [25,26].

The POFA content influenced the compressive strength of concrete. It is obvious from Table 4 that the compressive strength of concretes increased with the increase in POFA content up to 20%, which resulted in the maximum strength gain. Similar results were observed by other researchers. According to Sata et al. [27], the optimum ground POFA content was 20% that provided the highest level of concrete strength. Also, Chindaprasirt et al. [28] found that the compressive strength of concrete with 20% ground POFA was higher than that of OPC concrete. The compressive strength of the concretes including up to 20% POFA increased due to the effective pozzolanic behaviour of POFA particles. This can be justified based on the pozzolanic activity index of POFA. In the present study, the pozzolanic activity index of POFA was 105% (Table 1); it is substantially higher than the minimum limit of 75% for SCM, as specified in ASTM C 618-08a [29]. The high SiO₂ content (62.3%) of the ground POFA (refer to Table 2) reacted with Ca(OH)₂ (liberated from cement hydration) to produce additional calcium silicate hydrate (secondary C-S-H), which improved the compressive strength of concrete. Furthermore, POFA had a higher surface area due to smaller particle size (refer to Table 1 and Fig. 2), and therefore enhanced the pozzolanic activity and hence the compressive strength of concrete. The microfilling ability of POFA also contributed to increase the compressive strength of SCHSC. The median particle size of POFA was lower than that of OPC (refer to Table 1 and Fig. 2). The finer POFA particles filled in the micro-voids within the cement paste due to smaller particle size and thus improved the compressive strength of concrete producing a dense microstructure.

POFA was not effective in increasing the compressive strength of concrete when used with an amount more than 20% replacement of cement. Beyond this replacement level, a

Table 4. Fresh and hardened properties of SCHSCs

Concrete type	Slump flow (mm)	Compressive strength (MPa)		Dynamic modulus of elasticity (GPa)		Ultrasonic pulse velocity (km/s)	
		28 days	56 days	28 days	56 days	28 days	56 days
C25P0	660	70.9	72.9	43.08	44.60	4.74	4.76
C25P10	680	72.9	75.5	43.71	45.35	4.76	4.79
C25P20	705	74.2	77.0	45.21	47.09	4.8	4.85
C25P25	710	68.2	70.8	42.59	44.27	4.75	4.78
C25P30	720	65.9	68.4	41.20	42.69	4.72	4.75
C30P0	640	67.6	69.5	41.86	43.16	4.7	4.72
C30P10	655	69.3	72.1	42.29	44.19	4.72	4.75
C30P20	670	71.3	74.1	44.41	46.51	4.75	4.8
C30P25	680	65.5	68.1	41.08	43.02	4.7	4.74
C30P30	700	63.1	65.6	40.45	42.28	4.68	4.71
C35P0	630	61.4	63.2	39.81	41.22	4.64	4.67
C35P10	640	62.8	65.5	41.08	42.61	4.66	4.71
C35P20	665	64.2	66.9	42.33	44.05	4.68	4.76
C35P25	670	58.8	61.6	39.85	41.72	4.63	4.68
C35P30	675	57.7	60.3	38.71	40.51	4.6	4.63
C40P0	605	56.2	58.0	39.01	40.08	4.57	4.6
C40P10	620	57.9	60.2	39.82	41.47	4.6	4.64
C40P20	630	58.2	60.8	40.31	42.08	4.63	4.68
C40P25	635	54.1	56.8	38.56	40.10	4.58	4.61
C40P30	645	52.3	54.8	37.79	39.16	4.55	4.58

gradual reduction in compressive strength was observed (refer to Table 4). When used as 25% replacement of cement, POFA decreased the compressive strength of concrete by 2-3%. More reduction in compressive strength occurred for further increase in POFA content. A 5-7% reduction in compressive strength occurred when 30% POFA was used in concrete. Indeed, the lowest level of compressive strength at all ages was achieved for 30% POFA, as evident from Table 4. These findings indicate that the incorporation of POFA at a content higher than 20% significantly decreased the amount of cement in concrete. Consequently, the amount of strength-contributing hydration (primary C-S-H) obtained from cement hydration was reduced. Furthermore, a relatively small amount of Ca(OH)2 was liberated from cement hydration. Hence, a lower quantity of secondary C-S-H was obtained from the pozzolanic reaction between POFA and Ca(OH)₂. This suggests that the pozzolanic activity and microfilling ability of POFA could not compensate the loss of compressive strength due to more than 20% reduction in cement content.

3.3 Dynamic Modulus of Elasticity

The average dynamic modulus of elasticity of various SCHSCs (obtained by testing 100Wx100Hx500L mm concrete prisms) at 28

and 56 days are given in Table 4. The variation between the average and individual dynamic modulus of elasticity values was less than 5%. The dynamic modulus of elasticity varied from 37.79 GPa to 47.09 GPa. The dynamic modulus of elasticity of SCHSC decreased with the increased W/B ratio, as obvious from Fig. 3. In the present study, the aggregate content slightly increased and the paste volume significantly decreased with higher W/B ratio for the same volume of SCHSC mixes, as evident from Table 3. Hence, it was expected that the dynamic modulus of elasticity might increase with higher W/B ratio. Generally, the modulus of elasticity increases with higher aggregate content and lower paste volume [30]. However, the higher modulus of elasticity can be obtained in the case of SCHSC due to the denser packing of the particles, despite higher paste volume or lower aggregate content [31]. Therefore, the SCHSC mix with a lower W/B ratio had a higher dynamic modulus of elasticity in the present study. The high workability (refer to slump flow results shown in Table 4) resulting from adequate HRWR dosage and relatively high binder content (refer to Table 3), that is, high paste volume contributed to produce a denser microstructure in such SCHSC.

POFA influenced the dynamic modulus of elasticity of SCHSC. In this study, the SCHSC

incorporating 20% POFA had a higher dynamic modulus of elasticity than the control concrete (0% POFA), as evident from Fig. 3. The maximum increase in the dynamic modulus of elasticity of the concrete including 20% POFA was about 6% and 8% at 28 and 56 days, respectively, as compared with the control concrete. This is mainly due to the improvement of microstructure in bulk cement paste, and interfacial transition zone between aggregate and cement paste caused by the microfilling ability and pozzolanic activity of ground POFA [32]. In a complementary research, the authors of the present study also observed the improvement of microstructure in bulk cement paste and interfacial transition zone through a scanning electron microscope [26]. Furthermore, the dynamic modulus of elasticity of the concrete incorporating 25% POFA was comparable to that of the control concrete: however, the modulus of elasticity of the concrete including 30% POFA was lower than that of the control concrete due to the same reasons as discussed earlier in the case of compressive strength.

3.4 Ultrasonic Pulse Velocity (UPV)

The UPV results of the SCHSCs (obtained by testing triplicate Ø100×200H mm cylinders) at 28 and 56 days are presented in Table 4. The variation between the average and individual ultrasonic pulse velocity values was less than 5%. The UPV varied in the range of 4.55–4.85 km/s, thus the concretes produced in this study can be categorized as "excellent concrete". This is because a concrete possessing a UPV higher

than 4.5 km/s is generally classified as a concrete with excellent quality [24]. The quality of SCHSCs was excellent mostly due to the compact pore structure of concrete. Similar results were obtained by Lin et al. [33].

The UPV of the SCHSCs increased with lower W/B ratio, as evident from Fig. 4. The concretes produced with the W/B ratio of 0.25 provided the highest level of UPV. On the contrary, the concretes produced with the W/B ratio of 0.40 provided the lowest level of UPV. However, the UPV values obtained for this W/B ratio (0.40) still represented the excellent physical quality of concrete. This is due to the reason that the aggregate content increased at higher W/B ratio, as obvious from Table 3. The higher aggregate content accelerates the propagation of the pulse through concrete and therefore the UPV is increased for the same strength level [34,35].

POFA influenced the UPV of SCHSCs, as evident from Fig. 4. The presence of POFA was effective in improving the UPV of the concretes. The maximum UPV was obtained for the concrete including 20% POFA. This is because 20% POFA contributed to pore refinement in SCHSC leading to a dense microstructure that enhanced the UPV of concrete. The UPV of the SCHSC at 25% POFA was very close to that of the control concrete. However, a reduction in UPV was observed for 30% POFA due to the same reasons as discussed earlier in the cases of compressive strength and dynamic modulus of elasticity.

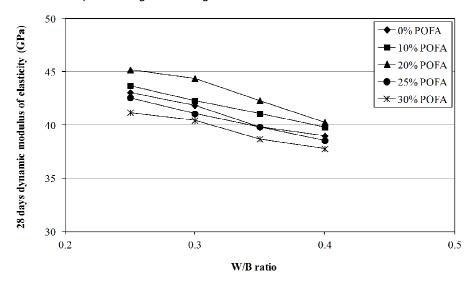


Fig. 3. Effects of W/B ratio and POFA content on the dynamic modulus of elasticity of SCHSC

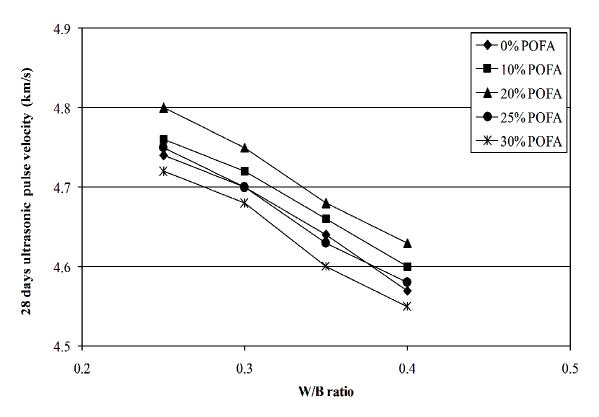


Fig. 4. Effects of W/B ratio and POFA content on the ultrasonic pulse velocity of SCHSC

3.5 Correlations between Non-destructive Properties and Strength of SCHSC

3.5.1 Dynamic modulus of elasticity and compressive strength

The dynamic modulus of elasticity of SCHSC was strongly correlated with its square root of compressive strength possessing a positive linear relationship, as shown in Fig. 5. The relationship is represented by:

$$E_d = 5.2186 \left(\sqrt{f_c'} \right) - - - - - (1)$$

The relationship shown in Equation (1) is valid for the compressive strength ranging from 52.3 MPa to 76.6 MPa and the dynamic modulus of elasticity ranging from 37.79 GPa to 47.09 GPa. The correlation coefficient (r) for the dynamic modulus of elasticity and compressive strength of different SCHSCs is +0.9413, which expresses a strong positive relationship. The excellent correlation was observed because both compressive strength and dynamic modulus of elasticity varied similarly with the W/B ratio and POFA content of SCHSC. A similar correlation

was observed by Raman et al. [8] in their study on flowing concrete including quarry waste.

3.5.2 Ultrasonic pulse velocity (UPV) and compressive strength

The correlation between the compressive strength and UPV of SCHSC is shown in Fig. 6. The correlation is represented by:

$$f_c' = 85.723 (V_{up}) - 337.33 - - - (2)$$

The relationship represented by Equation (2) is valid for the UPV varying from 4.55 km/s to 4.86 km/s and the compressive strength ranging from 52.3 MPa to 76.6 MPa. In the present study, both compressive strength and UPV varied similarly with the W/B ratio and POFA content of SCHSC. Therefore, a strong positive linear relationship with a correlation coefficient (r) of +0.9709 was observed for the compressive strength and UPV of SCHSC mixes incorporating POFA. A strong correlation between compressive strength and UPV was also observed by Demirboğa et al. [36] for the concretes including fly ash and slag, and by Safiuddin [16] for the concretes incorporating rice husk ash.

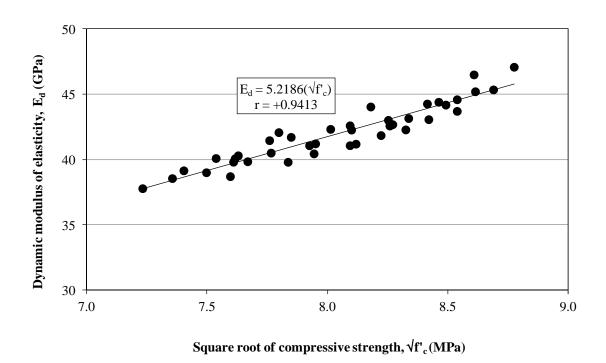


Fig. 5. Correlation between compressive strength and dynamic modulus of elasticity of SCHSC

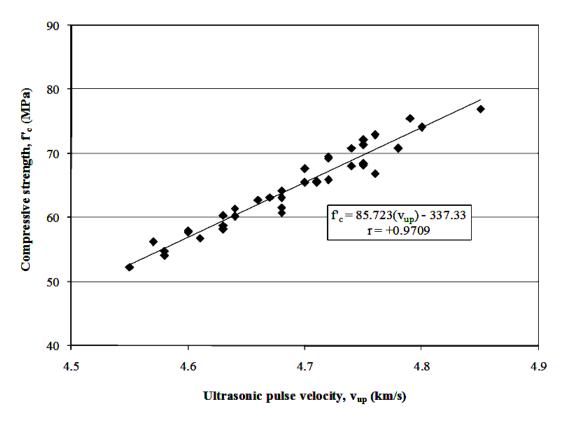


Fig. 6. Correlation between compressive strength and ultrasonic pulse velocity of SCHSC

4. CONCLUSIONS

The overall research findings of the present study regarding SCHSC with POFA are concluded below.

- The concretes fulfilled the workability (slump flow) requirement for selfconsolidating concrete. All concretes had a good self-consolidation capacity as they possessed a slump flow greater than 600 mm.
- The concretes provided a compressive strength in the range of 52-77 MPa and thus fulfilled the minimum strength requirement for high-strength concrete.
- 3) POFA produced a significant effect on the key non-destructive properties (dynamic modulus of elasticity and UPV) of SCHSC. The non-destructive properties of SCHSC were improved in the presence of POFA up to 20% replacement of OPC. This is mostly credited to the pozzolanic activity of POFA. The fineness of POFA also played an important role to enhance the aforementioned non-destructive properties of concrete. The high fineness of POFA improved its microfiling ability and pozzolanic activity, and thus contributed to improve the non-destructive properties of concrete.
- 4) The key non-destructive properties (dynamic modulus of elasticity and UPV) of SCHSC were improved with lower W/B ratio. The lower W/B ratio was associated with higher binder content, which produced greater hydration products and thus resulted in enhanced paste densification leading to a compact microstructure or pore structure.
- The highest compressive strength was achieved for the SCHSC incorporating 20% POFA. This finding is consistent with the non-destructive properties of SCHSC including 20% POFA.
- 6) Strong correlations were observed between the compressive strength and non-destructive properties (dynamic modulus of elasticity and UPV) of SCHSC. This is due to their similar variations with the W/B ratio and POFA content of concrete.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thankfully acknowledge the financial support from the University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia (research grant: UMRG

RP018/2012A). The authors are also grateful to Jugra Palm Oil Mill Sdn. Bhd., Banting, Selangor Darul Ehsan, Malaysia for the supply of palm oil fuel ash used in concrete mixes.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

- Shariati M, Ramli-Sulong NH, Arabnejad MM, Shafigh P, Sinaei H. Assessing the strength of reinforced concrete structures through utrasonic pulse velocity and Schmidt rebound hammer tests. Scientific Research and Essays. 2011;6(1):213–220.
- Malhotra VM. Testing hardened concrete: Non-destructive methods. Monograph No. 9. Farmington Hills, Michigan, USA: Amirican Concrete Institute; 1976.
- Carino NJ. Nondestructive testing of concrete: history and challanges. In: Mehta PK, editor. Concrete Technology-Present Past and Future (ACI SP-144). Farmington Hills, Michigan, USA: Amirican Concrete Institute; 1994.
- 4. Rajagopalan PR, Prakash J, Naramimhan V. Correlation between ultrasonic pulse velocity and strength of concrete. Indian Concrete Journal. 1973;47(11):416–418.
- Anderson DA, Seals RK. Pulse velocity as a predictor of 28- and 90-day strength. ACI Journal Proceedings. 1982;78(9):116–122.
- 6. Mehta PK, Monteiro PJM. Concrete structure, properties and materials. 2nd ed. New Jersy, USA: Prentice-Hall; 1993.
- 7. Al-Amoudi OSB, Maslehuddin M, Asi IM. Performance and correlation of the properties of fly ash cement concrete. Cement, Concrete, and Aggregates. 1996; 18(2): 71-77.
- 8. Raman SN, Safiuddin M, Zain MFM. (2007). Non-destructive evaluation of flowing concretes incorporating quarry waste. Asian Journal of Civil Engineering. 2007;8(6):597-614.
- Safiuddin M, West JS, Soudki KA. Hardened properties of self-consolidating high performance concrete including rice husk ash. Cement and Concrete Composites. 2010;32(9):708-717.
- Sumadi SR, Hussin MW. Palm oil fuel ash (POFA) as a future partial cement replacement material in housing

- construction. Journal of Ferrocement. 1995:25:25-34.
- Tonnayopas D, Nilrat F, Putto K, Tantiwitayawanich J. Effect of oil palm fiber fuel ash on compressive strength of hardened concrete. In: Proceedings of the 4th Thailand Materials Science and Technology Conference. Pathumthani, Thailand; 2006.
- Safiuddin M, Salam MA, Jumaat MZ. Utilization of palm oil fuel ash in concrete: a review. Journal of Civil Engineering and Management. 2011;17(2):234-247.
- 13. Tay J-H, Show K-Y. Use of ash derived from oil-palm waste incineration as a cement replacement material. Resources, Conservation and Recycling. 1995;13(1): 27-36.
- Tangchirapat W, Saeting T, Jaturapitakkul C, Kiattikomol K, Siripanichgorn A. Use of waste ash from palm oil industry in concrete. Waste Management. 2007; 27(1):81-88.
- ACI 211.4R-08. Guide for selecting proportions for high-strength concrete using portland cement and other cementitious materials. In: ACI Manual of Concrete Practice. Farmington Hills, Michigan, USA: American Concrete Institute; 2008.
- Safiuddin M. Development of selfconsolidating high performance concrete incorporating rice husk ash. Doctoral thesis. Waterloo, Ontario, Canada: University of Waterloo; 2008.
- ASTM C 1611/C 1611M-09. Standard test method for slump flow of self-consolidating concrete. In: Annual Book of ASTM Standards. Philadelphia, USA: American Society for Testing and Materials; 2009.
- ASTM C 39/C 39M. Standard test method for compressive strength of cylindrical concrete specimens. In: Annual Book of ASTM Standards. Philadelphia, USA: American Society for Testing and Materials: 2009.
- ASTM C 215. Standard test method for fundamental transverse, longitudinal, and torsional resonant frequencies of concrete specimens. In: Annual Book of ASTM Standards. Philadelphia, USA: American Society for Testing and Materials; 2004.
- ASTM C 597. Standard test method for pulse velocity through concrete. In: Annual Book of ASTM Standards. Philadelphia, USA: American Society for Testing and Materials; 2004.

- EFNARC. Specifications and guidelines for self-consolidating concrete. Surrey, UK: European Federation of National Associations Representing for Concrete (EFNARC); 2002.
- 22. Sonebi M, Grunewald S, Walraven J. Filling ability and passing ability of self-consolidating concrete. ACI Materials Journal. 2007;104(2):162-170.
- Lessard M, Baalbaki M, Aïtcin P-C. Mix design of air entrained high performance concrete. In: Concrete under Severe Conditions: Environment and Loading. London, UK: E & FN Spon; 1995;2.
- Neville AM. Properties of concrete. 4th and final edition. New York, USA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.; 1996.
- 25. Safiuddin M, Jumaat MZ, Salam MA, Rahman MA. Effects of palm oil fuel ash on the permeable porosity and water absorption of high-strength concrete. In: Proceedings of the First Australasia and South-East Asia Structural Engineering and Construction Conference. Perth, Australia; 2012.
- 26. Salam MA, Safiuddin M, Jumaat MZ. Microstructure of self-consolidating high-strength palm oil fuel ash concrete. Physical Review and Research International. 2013;3(4):674-687.
- Sata V, Jaturapitakkul C, Kiattikomol K. Influence of pozzolan from various byproduct materials on mechanical properties of high-strength concrete. Construction and Building Materials. 2007;21(7):1589-1598.
- 28. Chindaprasirt P, Homwuttiwong S, Jaturapitakkul C. Strength and water permeability of concrete containing palm oil fuel ash and rice husk-bark ash. Construction and Building Materials. 2007; 21(7):1492-1499.
- ASTM C 618-08a. Standard specification for fly ash and raw or calcined natural pozzolan for use as a mineral admixture in portland cement concrete. In: Annual Book of ASTM Standards. Philadelphia, USA: American Socity for Testing and Materials; 2008.
- 30. Cetin A, Carrasquillo RL. Highperformance concrete: influence of coarse aggregate on mechanical properties. ACI Material Journal. 1998;95(3):252-261.
- Brameshuber W, Uebachs S. Practical experience with the application of selfcompacting concrete in Germany. In:

- Ozawa K, Ouchi M, editors. Proceedings of the Second International Symposium on Self-Compacting Concrete. Tokyo, Japan: COMS Engineering Corporation; 2001.
- 32. Hussin MW, Ishida T. A study on basic properties of hardened concrete containing palm oil fuel ash as partial replacement material. In: Summaries of Technical Papers of Annual Meeting. Tokyo, Japan: Architectural Institute of Japan; 1999.
- 33. Lin Y, Lai C-P, Yen T. Prediction of ultrasonic pulse velocity (UPV) in concrete. ACI Materials Journal. 2003;100(1):21-28.
- Naik TR, Malhotra VM, Popovics JS. The ultrasonic pulse velocity method. In: Handbook on Non-destructive Testing of Concrete. Florida, USA: CRC Press; 2004.
- 35. Shetty M. Concrete technology: Theory and practice. New Delhi, India: S.Chand and Company Ltd.; 2001.
- Demirboğa R, Türkmen İ, Karakoc MB. Relationship between ultrasonic velocity and compressive strength for high-volume mineral-admixtured concrete. Cement and Concrete Research. 2004;34(12):2329-2336.

© 2015 Salam et al.; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:
The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
http://sciencedomain.org/review-history/11163