

1 **CSA-BASED PORTLAND-FREE BINDERS TO MANUFACTURE**
2 **SUSTAINABLE CONCRETES FOR JOINTLESS SLABS ON GROUND**

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10 **ABSTRACT**

11 The paper is aimed to the evaluation of the influence of water/binder ratio, tartaric acid dosage and
12 curing condition on rheological, elastic and physical properties of sustainable shrinkage-
13 compensating concretes manufactured with calcium sulphoaluminate cement (CSA), anhydrite (C \bar{S})
14 and supplementary cementitious materials (SCMs)/lime (CH) compound in place of ordinary
15 Portland cement (OPC). Results indicated that tartaric acid-based set-retarding admixture governs
16 the behavior of concrete both in fresh and hardened state. In addition, according to Abram’s model,
17 results evidenced the water/binder ratio as a key factor in strength gain. Moreover, tartaric acid
18 allows the production of shrinkage-compensating Portland-free concretes particularly indicated for
19 slabs on ground. Finally, by replacing OPC with SCMs and lime, it is possible to obtain, both for
20 CO₂-emissions and energy consumption, a reduction up to 60% at equal strength class respect to an
21 OPC-based concrete.

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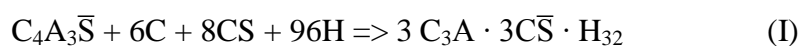
23 **KEYWORDS**

24 Concrete slabs; Calcium sulphoaluminate cement; Portland cement; Supplementary cementitious
25 materials; Sustainability.

26 **INTRODUCTION**

27 Nowadays, reinforced concrete slabs on grade are increasingly present both in infrastructures and in
28 residential or industrial buildings. Unfortunately, in many cases these elements suffer from severe
29 damage due to a poor design, a wrong materials selection and/or an inaccurate concrete casting and
30 curing [1]. Drying shrinkage is one of the common causes of cracking and curling of concrete slabs-
31 on-ground, also because these structures possess an high ratio between the surfaces exposed to the
32 air and the concrete volume [2]. The high shrinkage typical of these slabs, in the presence of
33 internal and external constraints (such as reinforcing bars, floor foundation or other structural
34 elements), determines notable internal tensile stress [3,4]. Cracking can be avoided only if tensile
35 stress induced by shrinkage, reduced by creep, is always lower than the tensile strength of concrete.
36 The cracking risk limitation can be achieved through a proper mix design (reducing the cement
37 factor and increasing both the maximum size of aggregates and the dosage of superplasticizer) [5-
38 8], adequate placing and curing [9] and by using high stiffness natural or artificial aggregates
39 [10,11].

40 Use of expansive or shrinkage-compensating concrete (EC), although more expensive than Portland
41 cement-based mixtures, is valuable in concrete structures where a reduction in cracking is of crucial
42 importance, such as in pavement slabs, bridge decks and liquid storage tanks. This technique is
43 based on the early restrained expansion that occurs between the expansive agents and water [12-
44 14]. Generally, EC are manufactured with expansive agents that lead to the formation of ettringite
45 ($C_3A \cdot 3\overline{CS} \cdot H_{32}$) or calcium hydroxide (CH) according to the following reactions:



47 $C + H \Rightarrow CH$ (II)

48 However, several authors [15,16] and standards [17,18] show that EC can be advantageously used
49 in reinforced concrete slabs-on grade without control joints only if an adequate wet curing is
50 ensured. In particular, depending on the nature of expansive agent, 2- or 7-day wet curing period is
51 needed. Otherwise, use of expansive agents is totally unsuccessful.

52 Collepardi et al. [19] and Maltese et al. [20] showed that the combined addition of an ethylene
53 glycol-based shrinkage-reducing admixture (SRA) with a CaO-based expansive agent seems to
54 have beneficial effects on concrete shrinkage even in absence of wet curing. On the other hand, a
55 wrong choice of the type and dosage of expansive agent can lead to an inadequate expansion and,
56 therefore, to crack formation in concrete slabs [21].

57 Another effective method to produce EC involves the use of expansive binders, alternative to
58 Portland cement, based on a controlled production of ettringite. Between these special binders,
59 ternary mixtures based on calcium sulfoaluminate cements (CSA), Portland cement (OPC) and
60 gypsum (CSA:OPC:C \bar{S}) are certainly the most widespread [22]. Recently, Coppola et al. [23]
61 showed the possibility to manufacture environmentally friendly shrinkage-compensating mortars
62 using CSA-based ternary mixtures in which OPC is totally replaced by supplementary cementitious
63 materials (SCMs, such as fly ash and ground granulated blast furnace slag) and lime (CH). In
64 particular, the experimental data showed the primary role of tartaric acid in the expansive behavior
65 of Portland-free CSA-based mixtures. In fact, dosages between 0.4% and 1.2% of tartaric acid vs
66 binder mass guarantee a quite stable behavior over time (free shrinkage lower than 500 $\mu\text{m}/\text{m}$ after
67 270 days at 20°C and 60% R.H.), without affecting negatively mechanical performances. On the
68 other hand, as opposed to OPC-based concretes, Portland-free CSA-based mortars evidenced higher
69 compressive strength values when cured in dry environment respect to those measured on
70 specimens stored under water. This behavior has strong consequences on job-site operations and
71 could make unnecessary wet curing operations (often not done or carried out wrongly). Finally,
72 from an environmental point of view, many authors have shown the beneficial effects deriving from

73 the use of SCMs/lime [24–27] replacing Portland cement, reaching up to 60% reduction in CO₂
74 emissions and energy requirements to produce 1 cubic meter of concrete, at equal 28-day strength
75 class.

76 The purpose of this paper is the evaluation of rheological, elastic and physical performances of
77 shrinkage-compensating Portland-free concretes (for slabs on grade without control joints)
78 manufactured with CSA:SCM:CH:C \bar{S} and tartaric acid-based set-retarding admixture at different
79 water/binder ratios.

80 MATERIALS AND METHODS

81 Materials

82 A commercial CSA clinker, ordinary Portland cement (OPC) type I 52.5 R (EN 197-1 compliant)
83 and technical grade anhydrite (C \bar{S}) were used in this study to manufacture the reference shrinkage-
84 compensating concretes (CSA:OPC:C \bar{S} = 40:40:20). Ground granulated blast furnace slag (S:
85 according to EN 15167-1), type V (according to EN 450-1 and EN 197-1) low calcium siliceous fly
86 ash (FA) and hydrated lime (CH) CL90-S (according to EN 459-1) were employed to replace totally
87 OPC in environmentally friendly mixtures (CSA:SCM:CH:C \bar{S} = 40:35:5:20). The physical
88 properties and the environmental parameters (Gross Energy Requirements: GER and Global
89 Warming Potential: GWP) of binders were reported in Table 1. Furthermore, four different types of
90 natural calcareous aggregates (maximum diameter equal to 32 mm) were combined to meet the
91 Bolomey curve (Equation I, Figure 1 and Table 2).

$$P = \left[A - C + (100 - A) \sqrt{\frac{d}{D}} \right] \cdot \left(\frac{100}{100 - C} \right)$$

92 With P: percentage passing

93 A: empirical coefficient based on workability of concrete and shape of aggregates

94 C: ratio between cement factor and cement + aggregates mass

95 D: maximum size of aggregates

96 Tartaric acid-based set-retarding admixture was added up to 0.6% with respect to binder mass in
 97 order to control the expansive behavior and the workability loss over time. Finally, the mixing
 98 water was fixed equal to about 200 kg/m³ to achieve the consistency class S4 (EN 12350-5) and the
 99 water/binder ratio was varied between 0.55 and 0.70. Composition of concretes are reported in
 100 Table 3.

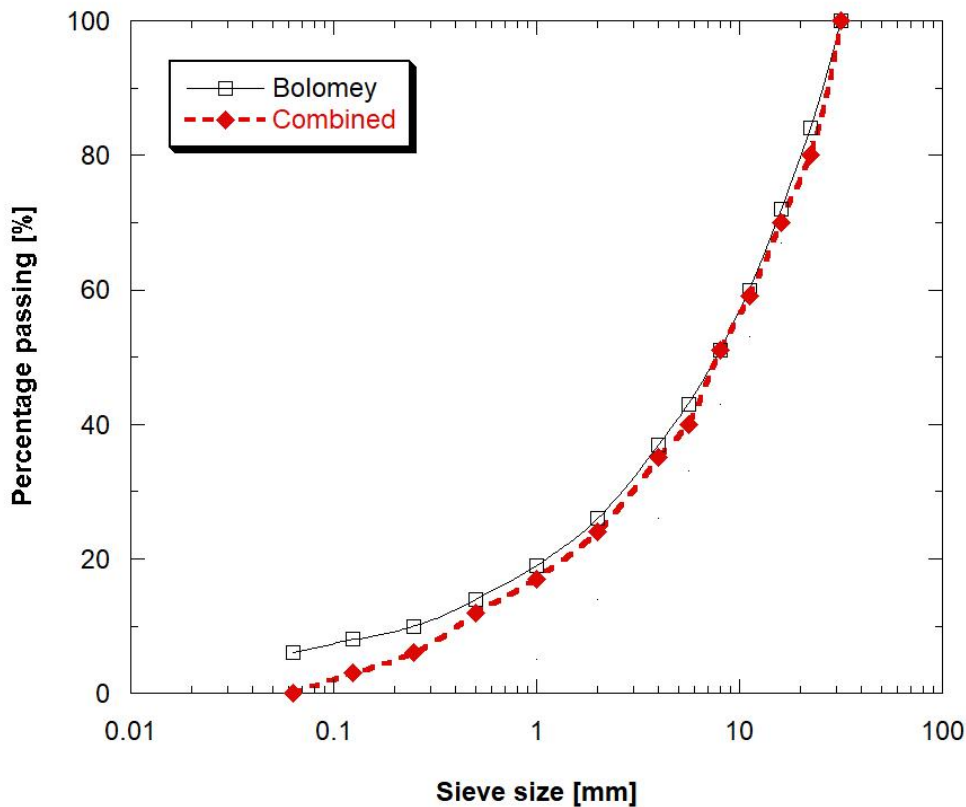
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102 **Table 1** – Physical and environmental properties of binders (* Source: Ecoinvent 3.0 Databased)

| | OPC | CSA | C\bar{S} | CH | S | FA |
|--|---------------------|---------------------|------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| D₅₀ [μm] | 5.19 | 8.18 | 2.93 | 3.00 | 5.48 | 11.1 |
| Specific surface [cm²/g] | 3175 | 2722 | 4837 | 4678 | 3049 | 2283 |
| Specific mass [kg/m³] | 3150 | 2650 | 2670 | 2120 | 2730 | 2010 |
| GER [MJ/kg] * | 5.50 | 2.70 | 1.30 | 4.50 | 0.31 | 0.10 |
| GWP [kg CO₂/kg] * | $9.8 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $7.4 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $2.4 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $4.2 \cdot 10^{-1}$ | $1.7 \cdot 10^{-2}$ | $5.3 \cdot 10^{-3}$ |

103 **Table 2** – Min/max size, water absorption and specific mass (EN 1097-6) of natural aggregates

| | Fine sand S | Fine gravel G1 | Coarse gravel G2 | Coarse gravel G3 |
|---|------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Diameter min/max [mm] | 0 / 6 | 6 / 12 | 10 / 20 | 20 / 30 |
| Water absorption [%] | 1.69% | 2.12% | 1.62% | 1.16% |
| Specific mass [kg/m³] | 2550 | 2660 | 2680 | 2650 |



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Figure 1 – Bolomey’s and combined aggregate grading curves

Table 3 – Composition and fresh properties of concretes

| Ingredients [kg/m ³] | CSA | CEM I 52.5 R | CS | CH | S | FA | Aggregates | Water | Tartaric acid | Specific mass in fresh state [kg/m ³] | Entr. air [%] |
|-------------------------------------|-----|--------------|----|----|-----|-----|------------|-------|---------------|---|---------------|
| RC 0.55-0.4 | 142 | 142 | 72 | | | | 1788 | 196 | 2.20 | 2340 | 1.5% |
| RC 0.60-0.4 | 132 | 132 | 66 | | | | 1818 | 197 | 2.22 | 2345 | 1.5% |
| RC 0.65-0.4 | 122 | 122 | 61 | | | | 1845 | 199 | 2.23 | 2350 | 1.4% |
| RC 0.70-0.4 | 113 | 113 | 57 | | | | 1857 | 199 | 2.23 | 2340 | 1.5% |
| S 0.55-0.4 | 142 | | 71 | 18 | 123 | | 1776 | 195 | 2.18 | 2325 | 1.3% |
| S 0.60-0.4 | 131 | | 65 | 16 | 115 | | 1806 | 196 | 2.20 | 2320 | 1.0% |
| S 0.65-0.4 | 121 | | 60 | 15 | 105 | | 1821 | 197 | 2.21 | 2330 | 1.1% |
| S 0.70-0.4 | 113 | | 57 | 14 | 98 | | 1845 | 198 | 2.22 | 2325 | 1.1% |
| FA 0.55-0.4 | 142 | | 71 | 18 | | 124 | 1780 | 195 | 2.19 | 2330 | 0.9% |
| FA 0.60-0.4 | 131 | | 65 | 16 | | 115 | 1802 | 196 | 2.20 | 2325 | 0.8% |
| FA 0.65-0.4 | 121 | | 60 | 15 | | 106 | 1825 | 197 | 2.21 | 2325 | 0.8% |
| FA 0.70-0.4 | 113 | | 57 | 14 | | 98 | 1849 | 198 | 2.22 | 2330 | 0.8% |
| RC 0.55-0.6 | 142 | 142 | 72 | | | | 1788 | 196 | 3.35 | 2340 | 1.5% |
| S 0.55-0.6 | 143 | | 72 | 18 | 125 | | 1799 | 197 | 3.37 | 2320 | 1.4% |
| FA 0.55-0.6 | 142 | | 71 | 18 | | 124 | 1780 | 195 | 3.33 | 2330 | 0.9% |

Tests on concretes

Fifteen concretes were manufactured according to EN 12390-2. At the end of the mixing procedure, workability was measured over time (at 0, 30, 60, 90, and 180 minutes from mixing) by means of Abram’s cone according to EN 12350-5. In addition, specific mass and entrapped air were evaluated on fresh concretes according to EN 12350-6 and EN 12350-7 standards. Specimens were produced and cured (Table 4) both under water at 20°C (W) and in a climatic chamber at 20°C and R.H. 60% (D). Specific mass and compressive strength at 1, 7 and 28 days were also determined (EN 12390-3). In addition, only for mixture containing 0.6% of tartaric acid, free and restrained shrinkage/expansion were measured up to 56 days on specimens stored both under water at 20°C (W) and in dry environment (D: 20°C, R.H. 60%) according to EN 11307 and EN 8148, respectively. Finally, tensile strength on 28-day cured cylindrical specimens (according to EN 12390-6), elastic modulus (in accordance with method B, EN 12390-13) and water penetration under pressure (according to EN 12390-8) were measured.

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Table 4 – Specimens manufactured for each concrete

| Test | Ages | Curing conditions | Format specimens | Number of specimens | Note |
|---------------------------------------|---------------|-------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------|---|
| Compressive strength | 1-7-28 days | W - D | Cube 100 mm | 18 | 3 specimens for each age and curing condition |
| Tensile strength | 28 days | W - D | Cylinder h/d : 2 d : 100 mm | 6 | 3 specimens for each curing condition |
| Elastic modulus | 28 days | W - D | Cylinder h/d : 2 d : 150 mm | 6 | 3 specimens for each curing condition |
| Water penetration | 28 days | W - D | Cube 150 mm | 6 | 3 specimens for each curing condition |
| Free shrinkage/expansion | up to 56 days | W - D | Beam 100x100x500 mm | 6 | 3 specimens for each curing condition |
| Restrained shrinkage/expansion | up to 56 days | W - D | Beam 80x80x240 mm | 6 | 3 specimens for each curing condition |

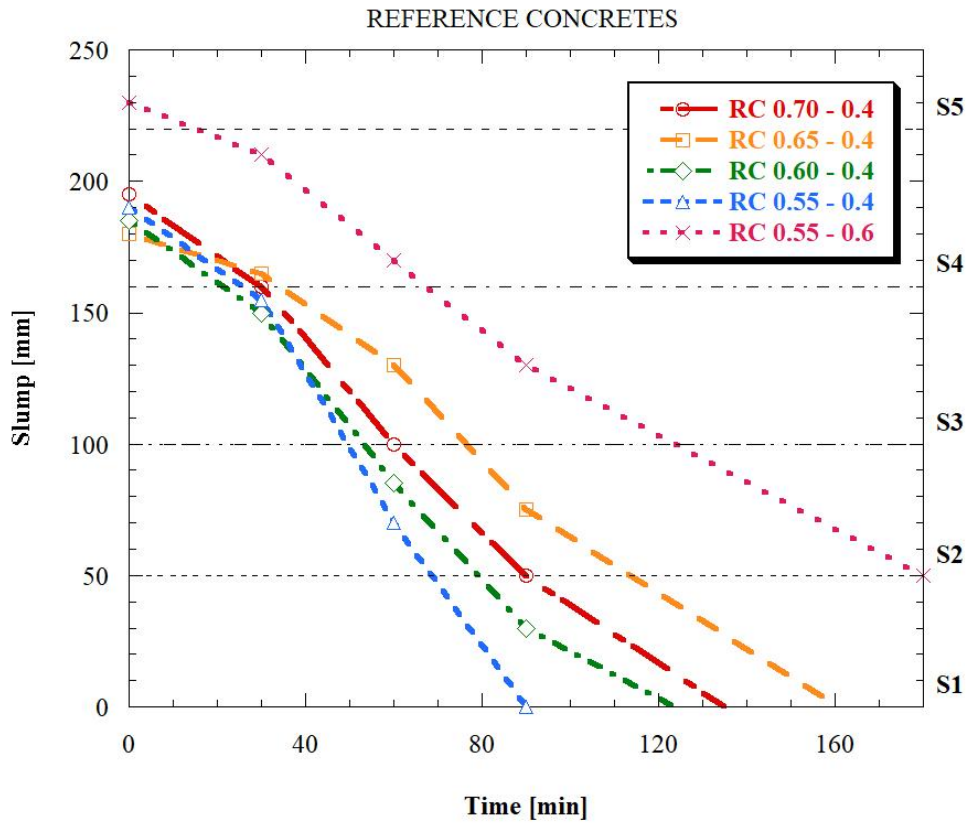
W: curing under water at 20°C – D: curing in climatic chamber at 20°C and 60% R.H.

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RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

127 Workability at the end of the mixing procedure remains almost constant independently of the
128 water/binder ratio by using 0.4% of tartaric acid dosage with respect to binder mass (Figure 2-4). In
129 particular, reference concretes (RC) and mixtures manufactured with slag (S) show an initial slump
130 equal to 200 mm, reaching the consistency class S2 (100 mm slump) after about 60 minutes. On the
131 contrary, FA-based concretes, at the same initial consistency class, evidenced a lower workability
132 loss over time, achieving the consistency class S2 30 minutes later than the references (RC) and S
133 concretes (S2 after 90 minutes from casting). According to Coppola et al. [23] the tartaric acid
134 dosage strongly influences the slump of concretes. A general increase in the initial workability
135 (more marked in FA-based mixtures than those containing OPC and S) and a reduction in
136 workability loss over time are observed by using 0.6% tartaric acid with respect to binder mass. In
137 detail, reference and S concretes (RC) reach the consistency class S2 after about 120 and 90
138 minutes, respectively. On the contrary, mixtures based on fly ash (FA) show an excellent

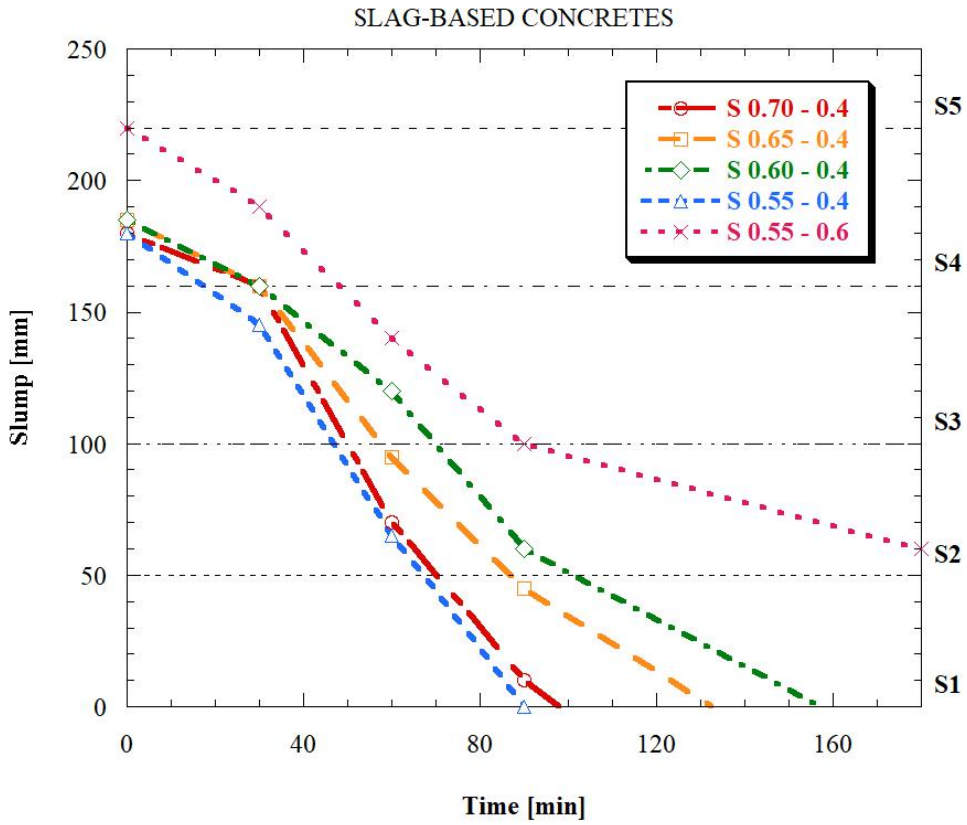
139 maintenance of workability over time, reaching the S2 consistency class after about 180 minutes. In
140 general, it is possible to conclude that, for practical uses, OPC- or S-based concretes require greater
141 set-retarding admixture dosage (0.6% by binder mass) than that (0.4% by binder mass) needed for
142 FA mixtures.



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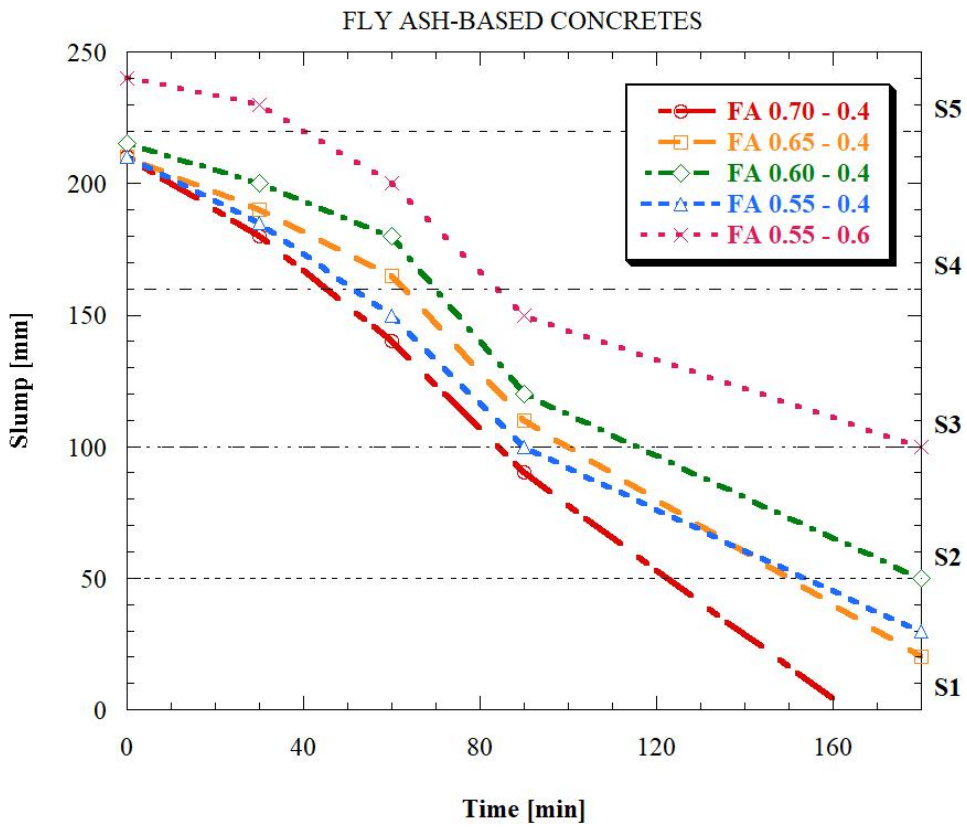
Figure 2 – Workability vs time of reference concretes (RC)



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Figure 3 – Workability vs time of slag-based concretes (S)

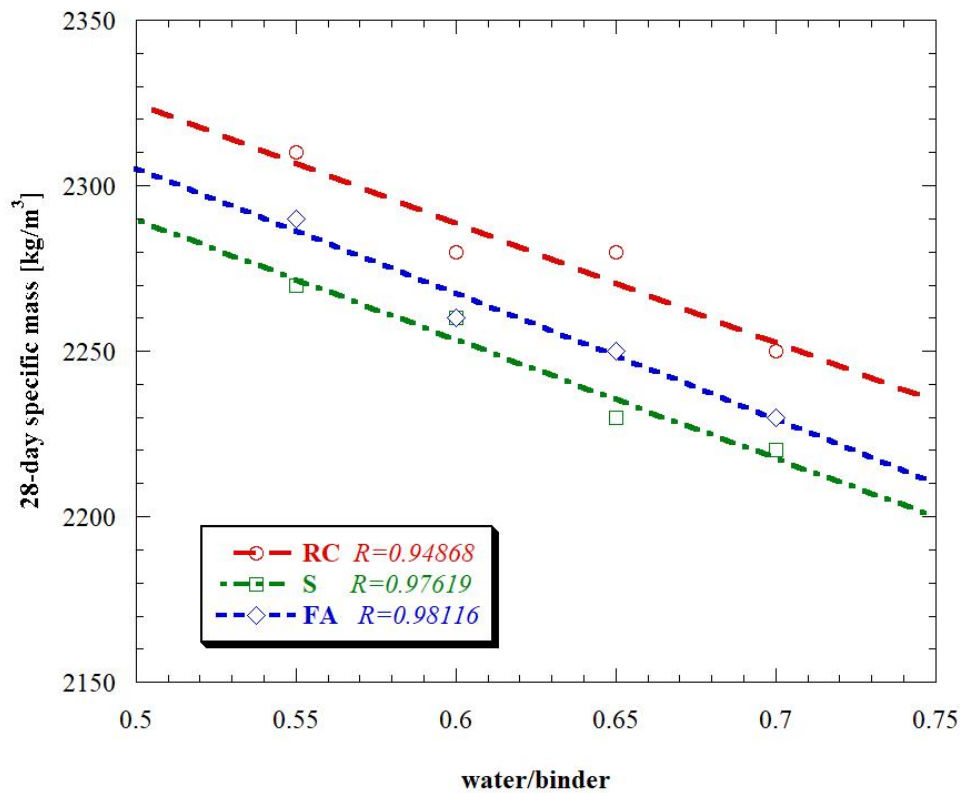


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Figure 4 – Workability vs time of fly ash-based concretes (FA)

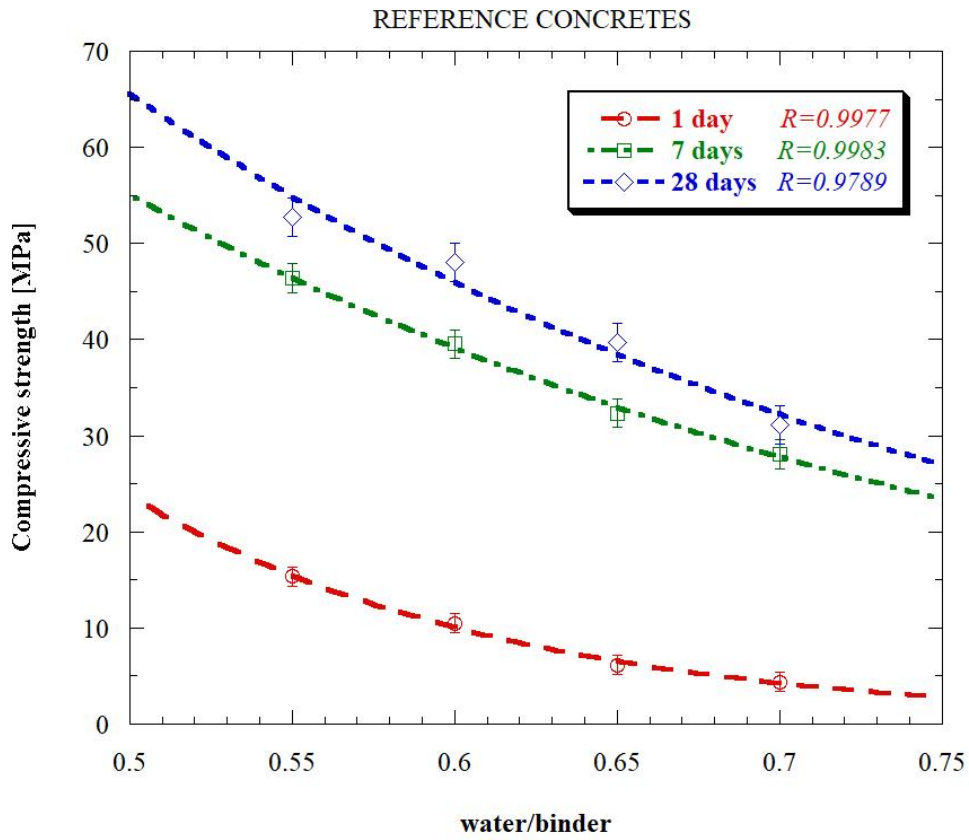
149 Moreover, variation in water/binder and tartaric acid dosage does not determine substantial changes
 150 of entrapped air (always between 0.8% and 1.5% by concrete volume) and specific mass in the
 151 fresh state. In particular, density is close to 2340 kg/m³ for reference concretes (RC) while it attains
 152 values close to 2325 kg/m³ for mixtures in which SCMs/lime have totally replaced ordinary
 153 Portland cement. On the contrary, the increase in water/binder ratio leads to a linear decrease in 28-
 154 day specific mass, independently of tartaric acid dosage and type of binder (Figure 5).



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 156 **Figure 5** – 28-day specific mass vs water/binder ratio

157 Concerning compressive strength measured on cubic specimens cured under water, it is possible to
 158 note that the water/binder is a key factor (Figure 6-8). Indeed, similarly to Portland cement
 159 concretes [28], low w/b allows to obtain mixtures of excellent strength properties while increasing
 160 this parameter results in a general worsening of mechanical performances, regardless of binders
 161 employed and the age of concrete. Moreover, replacing OPC with hydrated lime and SCMs,
 162 negligible changes in 24-hour strength are noted. On the contrary, 30% reduction in compressive
 163 strength at 7 and 28 days were measured, independently of w/b. However, SCM-based concretes

164 with w/b ratio from 0.55 to 0.70 exhibit 28-day compressive strength (25-40 MPa) suitable for
165 reinforced slabs on grade.



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Figure 6 – Compressive strength of reference concretes (RC) vs water/binder ratio (wet curing)

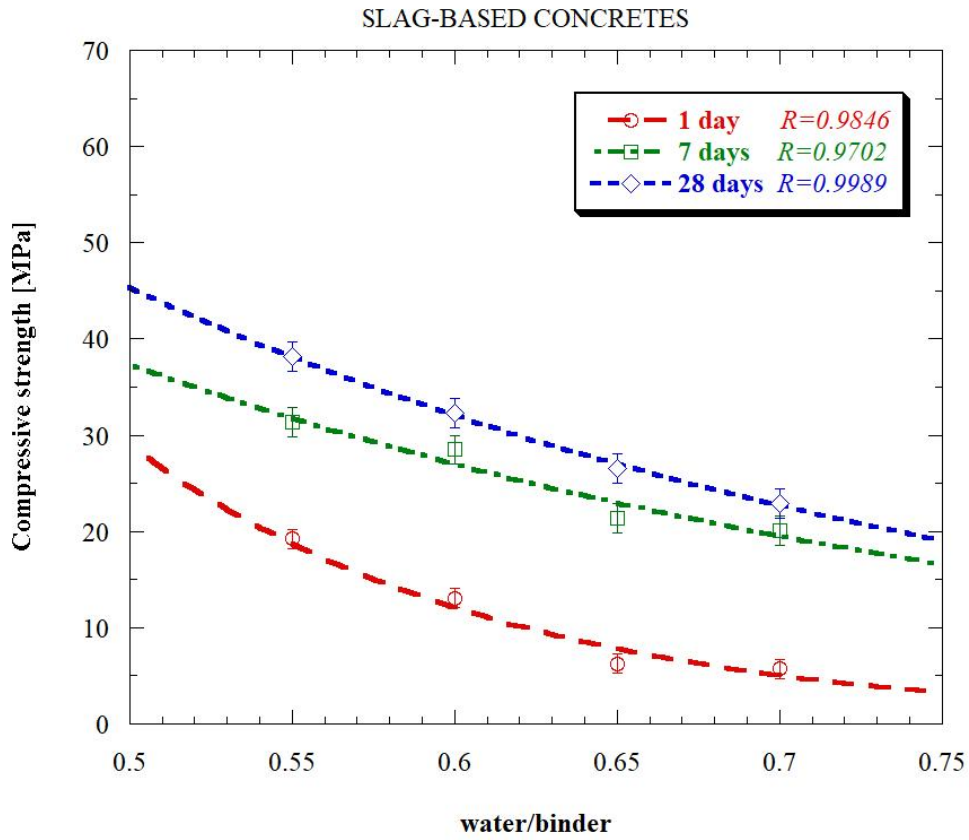


Figure 7 – Compressive strength of slag-based concretes (S) vs water/binder ratio (wet curing)

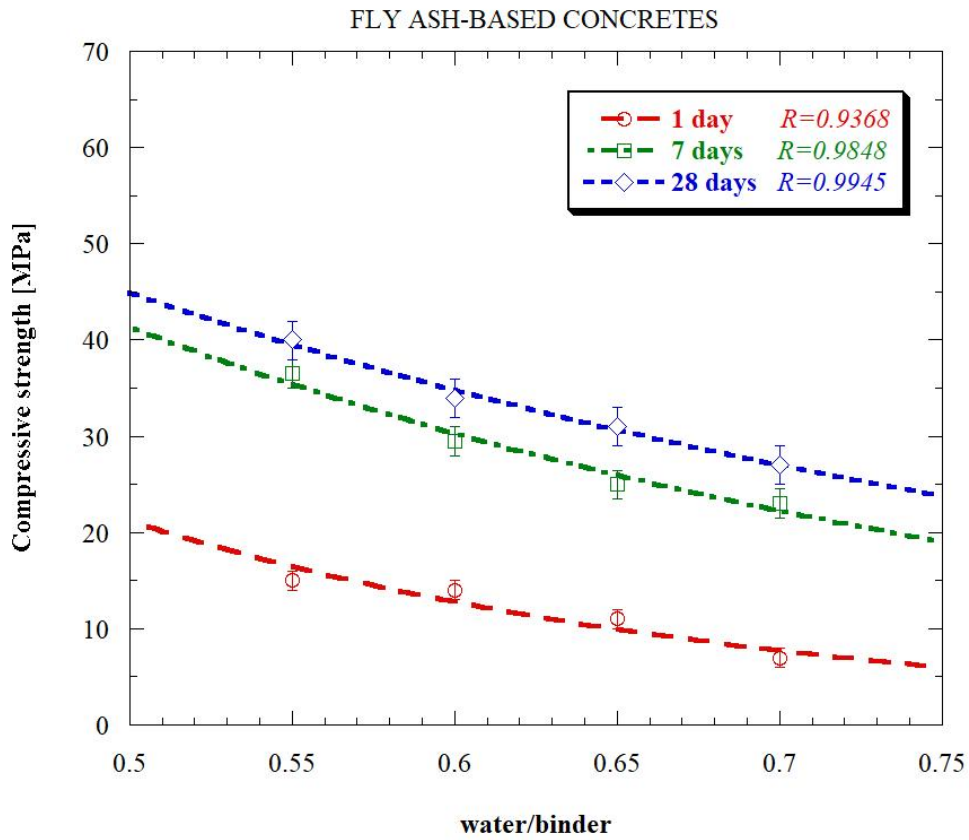


Figure 8 – Compressive strength of fly ash-based concretes (FA) vs water/binder ratio (wet curing)

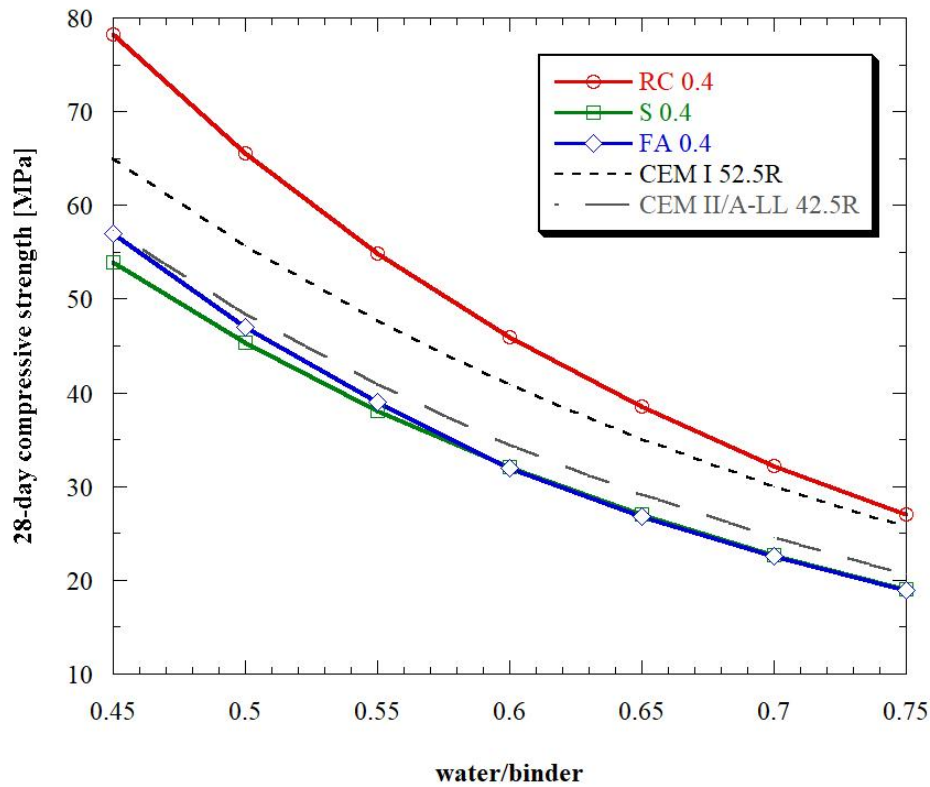
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172 Experimental data were used to determine the parameters A and B of Abram's model (III) to
173 estimate the compressive strength at 28 days of concrete manufactured with 0.4% vs binder mass of
174 tartaric acid and cured underwater at 20°C:

$$175 \quad f_{c,28} = A_{28} / B_{28}^x \quad (III)$$

176 where ($f_{c,28}$) is the concrete compressive strength at 28 days, (A_{28}) and (B_{28}) are experimental
177 parameters depending on the mixture composition and (x) is the water/binder ratio [29,30]. Results
178 in Table 5 and Figure 9 show that concretes based on SCMs and lime have a mechanical behavior
179 similar to that shown by traditional concretes manufactured with CEM I 52.5 R or CEM II/A-LL
180 42.5 R. On the contrary, compressive strength of reference mixtures CSA:OPC:C \bar{S} is more affected
181 by w/b ratio, even if at equal w/b ratio, compressive strength is significantly higher than that
182 exhibited by CEM I 52.5 R mixtures. Finally, it should be noted that, by using sustainable CSA-
183 based mixtures manufactured with FA or S and lime, it is possible to reach similar mechanical
184 strength to those obtainable, at equal w/c ratio, with a traditional limestone Portland cement (CEM
185 II/A-LL 42.5 R).



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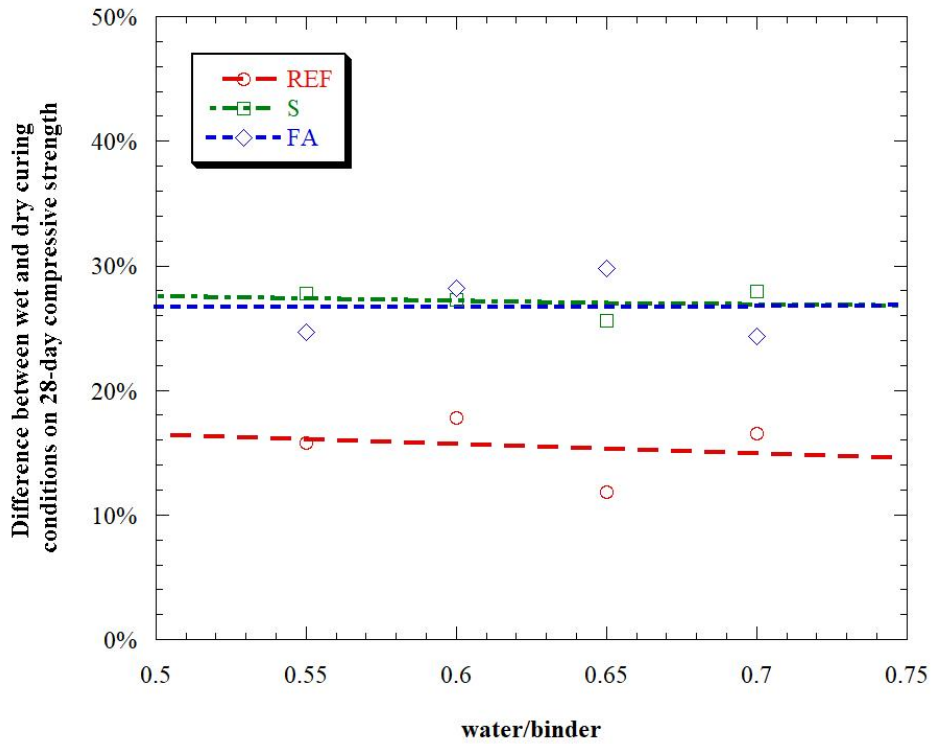
187 **Figure 9** – 28-day compressive strength of concrete manufactured with different binders vs water/binder ratio (Abram’s
188 model, wet curing)

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Table 5 – Coefficient of Abram’s model for different mixtures

| | RC 0.4 | S 0.4 | FA 0.4 | CEM I 52.5 R | CEM II/A-LL 42.5 R |
|-----------------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|---------------------|---------------------------|
| A₂₈ | 386.61 | 255.31 | 261.47 | 261.25 | 263.32 |
| B₂₈ | 34.78 | 31.72 | 33.15 | 22.00 | 29.61 |

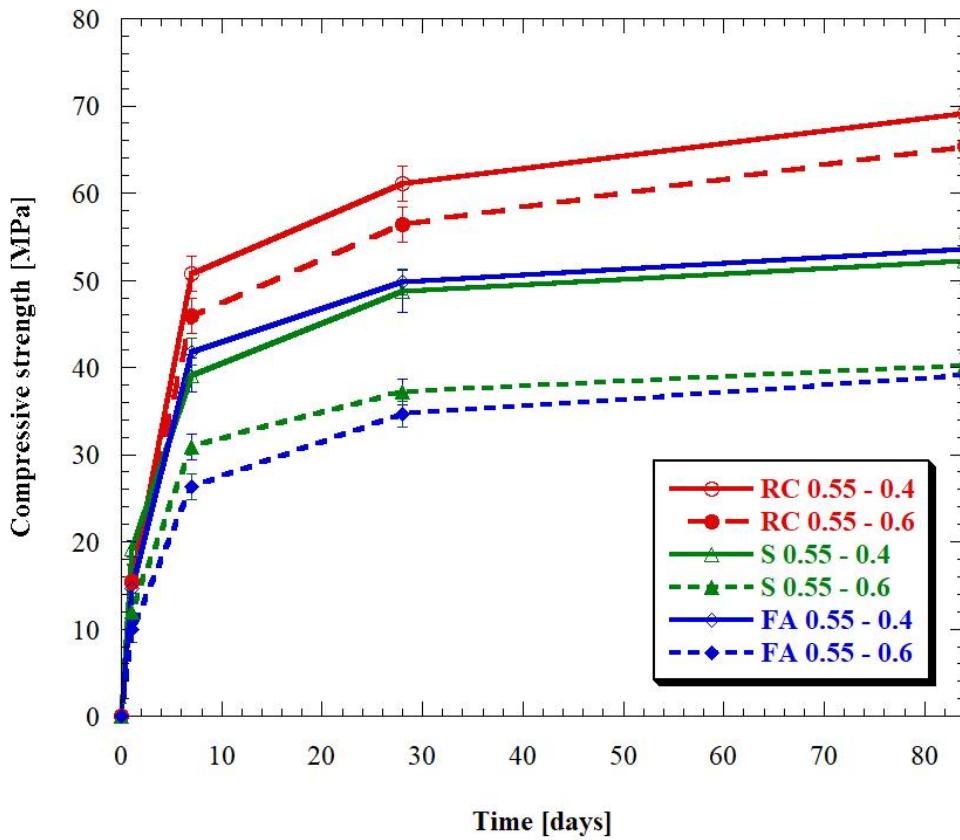
190 Also, the curing conditions strongly influence the mechanical properties of CSA-based concretes
191 (Figure 10). In fact, the reference concrete (RC) cured in dry environment (T = 20°C, R.H. 60%)
192 exhibited compressive strength approximately 15% higher compared to that of the same mixture
193 cured under water. Concrete manufactured with SCMs/lime replacing OPC showed more marked
194 differences, up to 30%, between wet and dry cured specimens. Furthermore, increasing the tartaric
195 acid dosage up to 0.6% vs binder mass, all concretes (both references and those containing
196 SCMs/lime replacing OPC) evidenced a general reduction in mechanical performances up to 25%
197 both at early and long ages (Figure 11).



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Figure 10 – Difference between wet and dry curing conditions on compressive strength at 28 days vs water/binder ratio (linear correlation)



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Figure 11 – Development of compressive strength over time on concretes (w/b=0.55) manufactured with different tartaric acid dosage (dry curing)

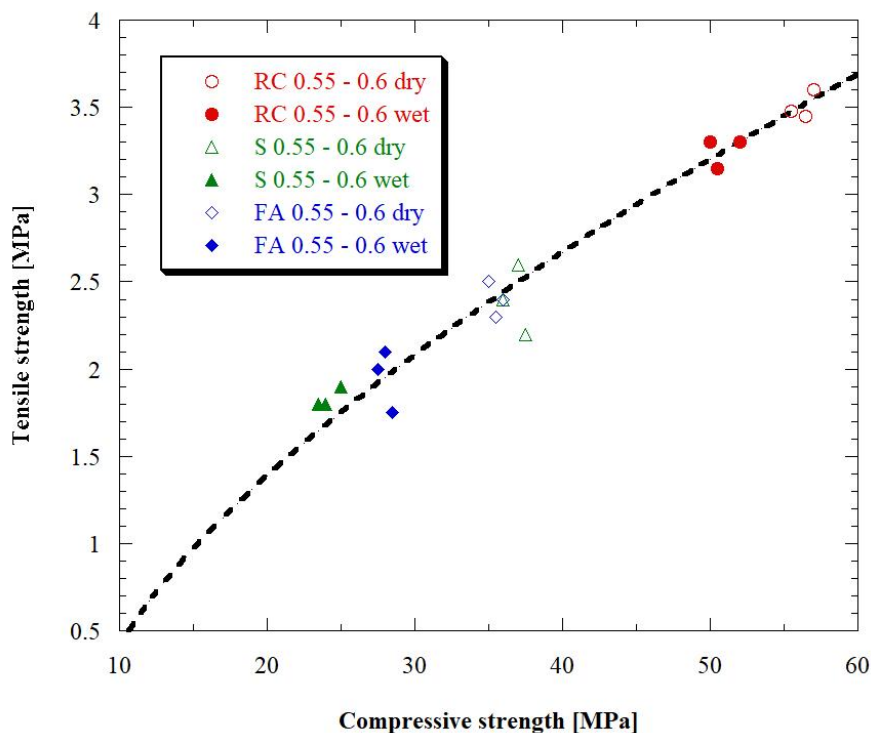
204 Total replacement of OPC with supplementary cementitious materials/lime and the underwater
 205 curing conditions determine a general worsening of both elasto-mechanical properties and
 206 watertightness of concretes. In FA- and S-based concretes, tensile strength decreases up to 40%
 207 compared to the reference mixtures (RC), independently of the curing conditions (wet or dry).
 208 However, tensile strength of CSA-based concretes (Figure 12) follows the equation proposed by
 209 Eurocode 2 (EN 1992-1-1) for ordinary Portland cement concretes (strength class lower than
 210 C50/60):

$$211 \quad f_{ctm} = 0.30 \cdot f_{ck}^{2/3} \quad (IV)$$

212 Young's modulus decreases, at the same w/b, replacing Portland cement with SCMs/lime due to the
 213 reduction of compressive strength caused by using FA or S (Figure 13). Nevertheless, elastic
 214 modulus of concrete based on calcium sulphoaluminate cement can be well approximated by the
 215 following equation proposed by Eurocode 2:

$$216 \quad E_{cm} = k \cdot \left(\frac{f_{cm}}{10}\right)^{0.30} \quad (V)$$

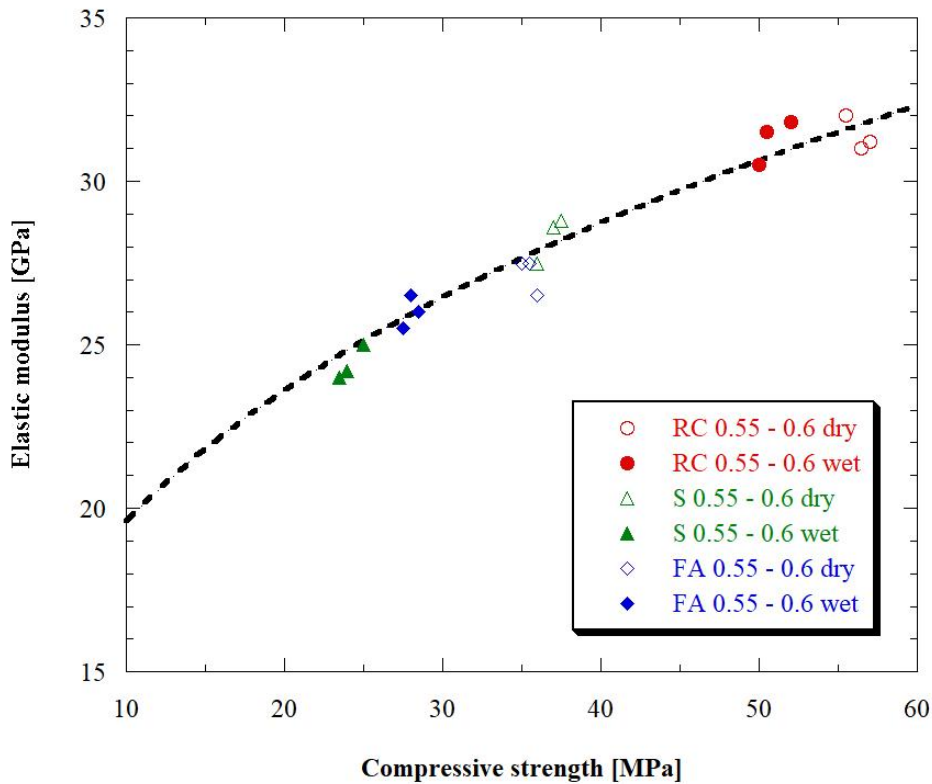
217 with k depending on the mineralogical nature of aggregates used.



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Figure 12 – Tensile strength of concrete vs 28-day compressive strength. In dash line, the correlation proposed by EC2 (IV)



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Figure 13 – Elastic modulus of concrete vs 28-day compressive strength. In dash line, the correlation proposed by EC2 (V)

224 Water penetration under pressure is influenced by the curing conditions of specimens. In general,
225 concretes cured in dry environment show a lower water penetration respect to that of the same
226 mixture stored underwater (Figure 14). This result is in good agreement with compressive strength
227 data. Furthermore, water penetration in Portland-free concretes (S or FA) grows strongly compared
228 to that detected for the reference mix (RC), independently of the curing conditions (wet or dry). In
229 particular, water penetration in dry cured SCMs/lime based concretes was about 100 mm. This
230 value is double compared to that of the reference mixture cured in the same conditions (D). In wet
231 cured SCMs/lime mixtures water penetration was about 140 mm. This value is about two times and
232 a half higher than the corresponding water penetration (60 mm) measured for the reference concrete
233 (RC) containing OPC.

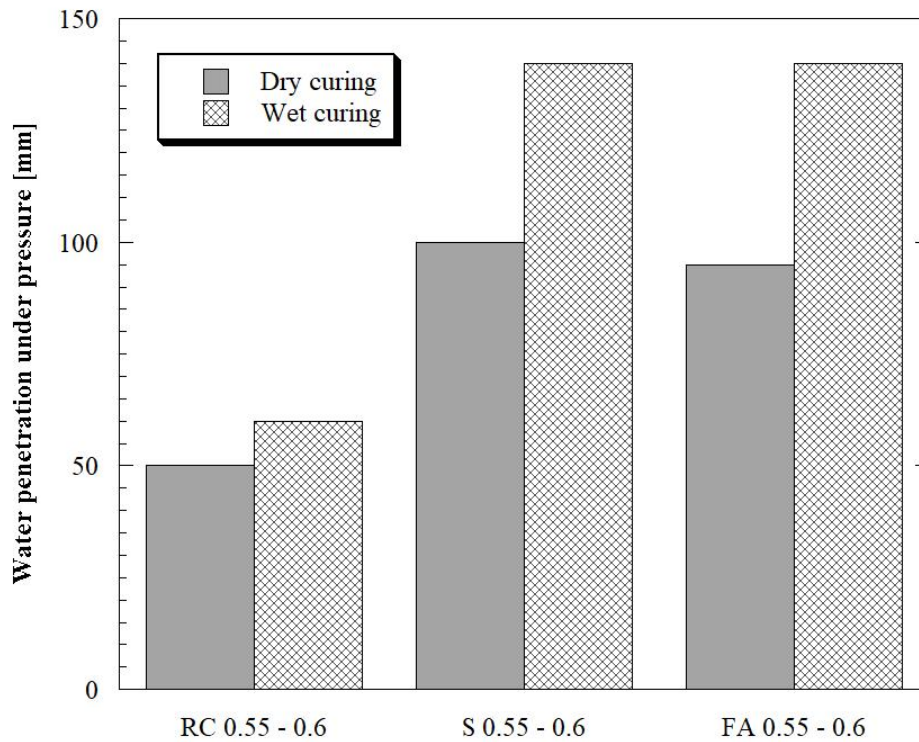


Figure 14 – Water penetration under pressure in different curing conditions (W or D)

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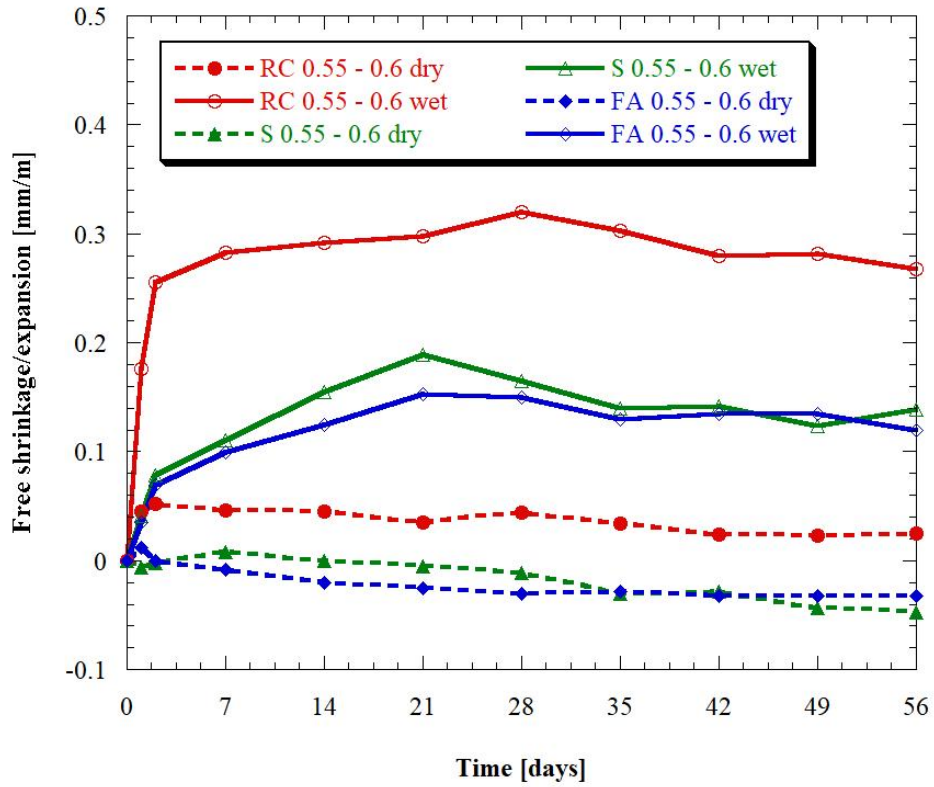
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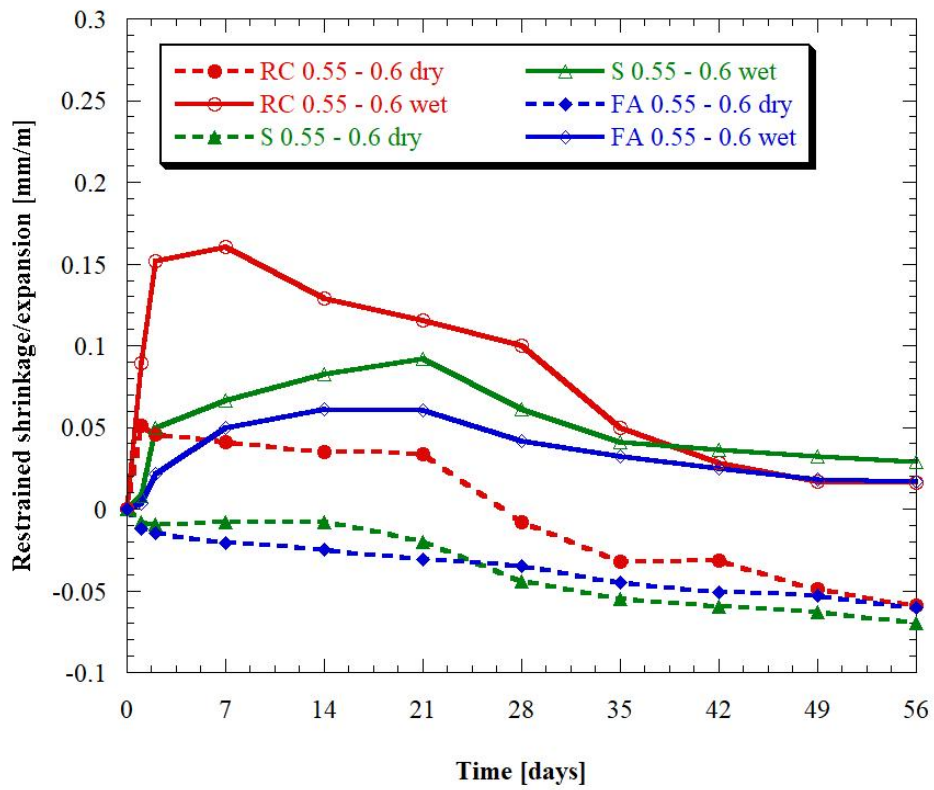
Regardless of the binder used, shrinkage of CSA-based concretes is strongly influenced by curing conditions [31,32]. Indeed, free and restrained shrinkage tests show a stable behavior over time when specimens are stored in a climatic chamber at 20°C and 60% R.H (D). On the other hand, in concretes cured under water (W) an initial expansion was followed by a negligible shrinkage (Figure 15 -16). Total replacement of OPC with SCMs/lime modifies the shrinkage behavior of concretes. In fact, reference mixtures (RC) show more marked expansion underwater at early ages with respect to Portland-free concretes (S or FA), both in free and restrained conditions.



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Figure 15 – Free shrinkage vs time in different curing conditions (positive values indicate expansion of concrete)

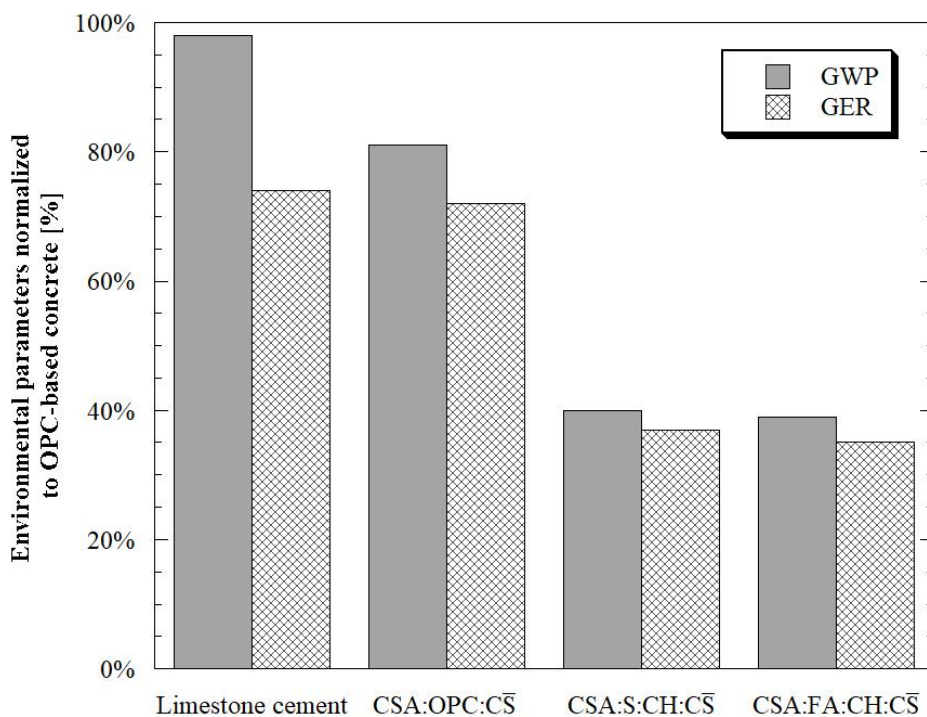


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Figure 16 – Restrained shrinkage vs time in different curing conditions (positive values indicate expansion of concrete)

247 Figure 17 shows the environmental parameters GER (Gross Energy Requirement that correspond to
 248 the total energy necessary to produce 1 m³ of concrete) and GWP (Global Warming Potential,
 249 related to the greenhouse gases emitted for 1 m³ of cementitious mixture) for class C30/37
 250 concretes manufactured with different type of binders calculated starting from the raw materials
 251 data reported in Table 1 (CEM II/A-LL 42.5R: 3.60 MJ/kg, 8.8 · 10⁻¹ kg CO₂/kg – aggregates: 0.13
 252 MJ/kg, 2.4 · 10⁻³ kg CO₂/kg). If the aim is to increase sustainability, reducing both the emissions of
 253 CO₂ (GWP) and the primary energy required (GER) for the production of one cubic meter of
 254 concrete, replacement of Portland cement type I with limestone Portland cement type II or with a
 255 ternary mixture, in which OPC and CSA are present in equal parts, is not a suitable solution to
 256 obtain a sharp reduction of the environmental impact in concrete production. In fact, improvements
 257 are rather limited, since reduction of GER and GWP is generally between 15% and 25%, due to
 258 both the high kiln temperatures required during Portland clinker production and the strong
 259 environmental impact of the extraction and grinding phase [33].



260

261

Figure 17 – GWP and GER parameters normalized to those of an OPC-based concrete at equal strength class C30/37

262 The best way to achieve a remarkable improvement in terms of sustainability is use of mixtures
263 based on sulphoaluminate cement (CSA) in which OPC has been totally replaced by supplementary
264 cementitious materials (SCMs) and hydrated lime (CH). In this case, it is possible to obtain, both
265 for GHG emissions and consumption of energy, a reduction of about 60% at equal strength class
266 due to the nature of the binders employed (generally wastes deriving from industrial process) that
267 required limited processing before being used in mortars and concretes.

268

CONCLUSIONS

269 In this paper, the influence of water/binder ratio, dosage of a tartaric based set-retarding admixture
270 and curing conditions on rheological, elastic and physical properties of environmentally friendly
271 shrinkage-compensating concretes manufactured with calcium sulphoaluminate cement (CSA),
272 anhydrite ($C\bar{S}$), lime (CH) and two different supplementary cementitious materials (fly ash: FA and
273 slag: S) replacing totally ordinary Portland cement (OPC) was investigated. According to the
274 experimental data, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- 275 - At equal mixing water, workability at the end of the mixing procedure (Figure 2-4) is not
276 influenced by the type of the ternary binder and the water/binder ratio.
- 277 - The tartaric acid-based set-retarding admixture acts as a superplasticizer.
- 278 - OPC- or S- based mixtures require higher amount of tartaric acid-based set retarding
279 admixture (0.6% vs binder mass) respect to that needed for concretes manufactured with FA
280 (0.4% vs binder mass) in order to ensure a suitable workability retention.
- 281 - In general, by using Abram's model, it is possible to note that Portland-free concretes have
282 mechanical behavior close to that shown by traditional concretes manufactured with
283 Portland cement or limestone Portland cement.
- 284 - Compressive strength values of reference mixtures (RC: CSA-OPC- $C\bar{S}$) are more affected
285 by w/b ratio than those of Portland-free CSA-based concrete. However, reference concretes

286 (RC), independently of w/b, exhibited compressive strength values higher than those
287 obtained for CEM I 52.5 R- based mixtures (Figure 9).

288 - Total replacement of OPC with supplementary cementitious materials and lime in
289 underwater curing conditions determine a general worsening of elastic and mechanical
290 properties (compressive and tensile strength, Young's modulus) and watertightness of
291 concretes (Figure 10-14).

292 - Independently of binders employed, shrinkage of CSA-based concretes exhibit a stable
293 behavior over time when specimens were cured at 20°C and 60% R.H. (D) while an
294 underwater curing (W) determines an initial expansion of concretes followed by a negligible
295 shrinkage (Figure 15-16).

296 - CSA-based concretes manufactured with SCMs and hydrated lime in place of OPC are very
297 promising from an environmentally point of view since GER and GWP parameters decrease
298 about 60% at equal strength class compared to traditional OPC or CSA-OPC-C \bar{S} mixtures
299 (Figure 17).

300 In future, durability issues of mortars and concretes manufactured with CSA-based Portland-free
301 binders have to be thoroughly investigated, especially in chloride and sulphate-rich environments or
302 in presence of freezing and thawing cycles. Finally, a great effort will be required to develop
303 suitable admixtures – in particular superplasticizers – for these alternative blended binders.

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