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Use of recycled aggregate concrete in structural members: A review focused on Southeast Asia

Ram Prasad Neupane¹, Thanongsak Imjai^{1*}, Natt Makul², Reyes Garcia³, Boksun Kim⁴, and Sandeep Chaudhary⁵

¹ School of Engineering and Technology, Walailak University, Nakhon Si Thammarat, Thailand

² Faculty of Engineering, Rajamangala University of Technology Phra Nakhon (RMUTP), Thailand

³ Civil Engineering Stream, School of Engineering, The University of Warwick, Coventry, United Kingdom

⁴ School of Engineering, Computing and Mathematics, University of Plymouth, Plymouth, United Kingdom

⁵ Department of Civil Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Indore, India

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*Corresponding author, E-mail: thanongsak.im@wu.ac.th, Walailak University, 222 Thaiburi, Thasala district, Nakhonsithammarat, Thailand, 80161

Abstract

This article presents a comprehensive review on the use of recycled concrete aggregate (RCA) and recycled aggregate concrete (RAC) in construction, with emphasis on structural applications and identification of challenges and opportunities of RCA/RAC materials in Southeast Asia. For the first time and as a first step towards potential standardization of RCA/RAC in Southeast Asia, the article critically examines the physical and mechanical performance of RCA and RAC in structural applications. Global aggregate demand is projected to surpass 50 billion tons by 2025, with major Asian countries accounting for 62% of consumption. At the same time, the global annual production of construction and demolition waste (C&DW) exceeds 3.57 billion tons, and Asia is responsible for 53% of this total. Recycling C&DW plays a crucial role in addressing environmental issues and promoting sustainable construction practices. Previous research indicates that RAC exhibits certain physical and mechanical deficiencies, with strengths 10% to 20% lower than natural aggregate concrete (NAC). At the structural level, RAC elements show reductions of up to 15% in axial, bonding, shear, and flexural strengths relative to NAC. Measures such as treatment of RCA, recycling process optimization, and optimized mixing techniques are recommended to enhance RAC properties. Prioritizing RCA treatment during construction and exploring novel strengthening techniques could elevate improve RAC and make it suitable for structural applications. The review also found that C&DW recycling efforts vary significantly across countries (particularly in Southeast Asia), with some countries lagging regarding recycling technologies and use of best practices. Various strategies to improve the performance of RAC elements are also proposed and discussed. The main findings and shortcomings of previous investigations are critically discussed, and further research needs are identified.

Keywords: Recycled concrete aggregate, state of the art review, recycled concrete, structural performance

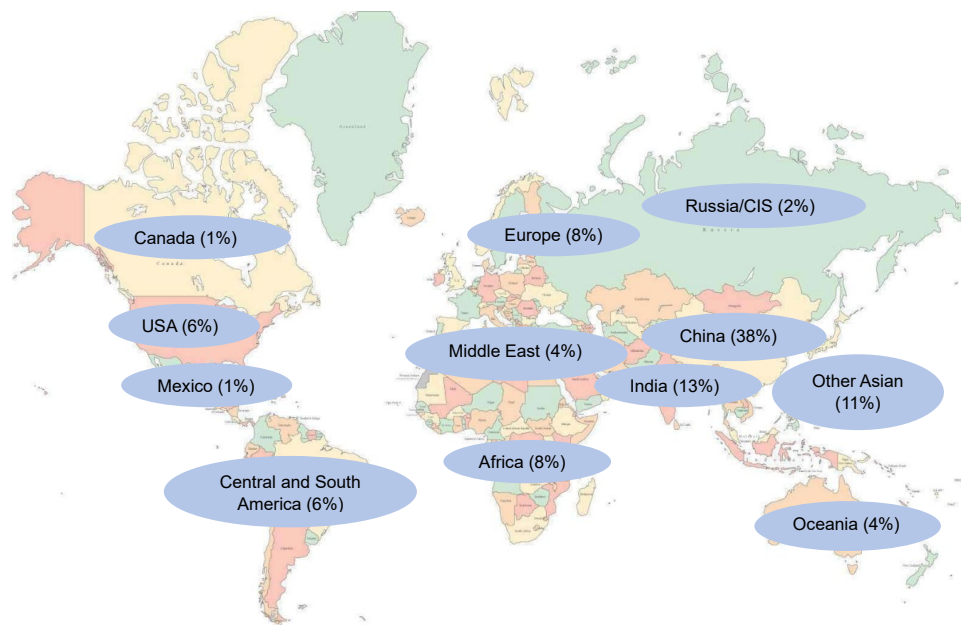
36 1. Introduction

37 Following water, concrete is the most widely used material on a global scale (Chinnu et al., 2021).
38 Concrete is widely utilized in construction due to its high strength, low cost, good durability, and
39 adaptability. These properties make it a preferred option for infrastructure construction worldwide.
40 Unfortunately, concrete demands the use of massive amounts of raw aggregate materials, which has led to
41 environmental problems in many nations. Consequently, the construction industry is seeking practical
42 solutions to make concrete more sustainable in the long term.

43 Aggregates (both fine and coarse) make up about 70% of the total volume of a typical concrete mix
44 used for structural purposes (Almeida & Cunha, 2017). Most of these are raw aggregates extracted from
45 riverbeds and banks. Consequently, the production of new concrete poses an environmental challenge as
46 natural resources are being depleted. This is particularly true in Asia, a continent that has experienced
47 accelerated urbanization since the early 1980s (Hunt, 2016; Shatkin, 2016). Urbanization has accelerated
48 construction in the continent, which in turn has increased the demand for aggregates. **Fig.1** shows the
49 proportion of aggregate consumption in major regions of the world over the last years (Makul et al., 2021;
50 Tam et al., 2018). While annual aggregate demand is approximately 40 billion metric tons worldwide
51 (Slattery, 2014) with a growth of 5.2% every five years (Wang et al., 2021), it is evident that most of the
52 world's aggregate consumption (about 62%) is concentrated in Asian countries, including China (38%) and
53 India (13%) (Tam et al., 2018). Huge demands for aggregates are also expected from Southeast Asian
54 countries, primarily because the region is still developing, and large infrastructure projects are still being
55 built.

56 Over the past two decades, the increase in population and the need for housing have driven a significant
57 revitalization of existing buildings in major urban areas of Southeast Asia. This has resulted in a continuous
58 cycle of demolition and new construction activities (Al-Bayati et al., 2018) and in a stream of construction
59 and demolition waste (C&DW) that, if recycled and treated appropriately, can be reused in construction.
60 This could also help address the environmental issues created by more than 3.57 billion metric tons of
61 C&DW generated around the globe (Chen et al., 2011), of which Asia generates 53.2% (see **Fig. 1**). China

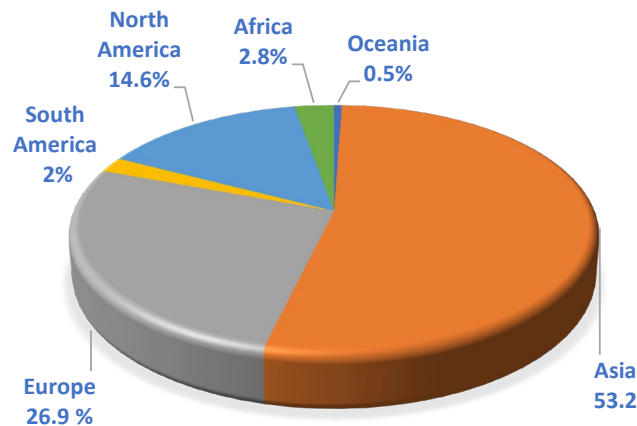
62 uses approximately 200 million tons of recycled materials in construction (Xiao et al., 2012), mostly
 63 recovered from its 1.13 billion ton of C&DW generated annually. Likewise, India generates 520 million
 64 tons from construction and demolition annually (Akhtar & Sarmah, 2018; Mohanta & Murmu, 2022), and
 65 significant efforts are underway to recycle most of these materials. Despite this progress, C&DW recycling
 66 efforts vary significantly across countries (particularly in Southeast Asia) and many lag regarding recycling
 67 technologies and use of best practices. Therefore, action and more coordinated efforts are necessary to
 68 speed up the adoption of resource-efficient practices in construction.



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Fig. 1. Scenario of global aggregate demand (2015–2020)



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Fig. 2. Annual production of C&DWs by continent (Akhtar & Sarmah, 2018; Tam et al., 2018)

73 Past studies show that 50%–80% of C&DW waste consists of mainly concrete and bricks (Ponnada &
74 Kameswari, 2015; Wu et al., 2019). As individual components, approximately 30% of C&DW is brick
75 masonry and 25% is concrete (Akhtar & Sarmah, 2018; Tam et al., 2018). Aggregate produced by crushing
76 and recovering concrete from C&DW is known as recycled concrete aggregate (RCA) (Hansen, 1986).
77 Numerous research studies have investigated the quality of RCA and its applications in construction.
78 Notable examples include studies on: recycled concrete aggregate properties with amounts of old adhered
79 mortars (Duan & Poon, 2014), the current status on the use of recycled aggregates in concrete (De Brito &
80 Silva, 2016), a critical review and assessment of recycled aggregate as a sustainable construction material
81 (Kisku et al., 2017), characteristics and mechanical properties of composite cement-based RAC (Tejas &
82 Pasla, 2023), Physical, deformation, and stiffness properties of recycled concrete aggregate (Gabryś et al.,
83 2021), novel treatment methods (Wang et al., 2021), alternative sustainable aggregates (Mohanta & Murmu,
84 2022), factors influencing the properties of concrete incorporating construction and demolition waste
85 (Ibrahim et al., 2023), assessing the relaxation of RAC from free and restrained shrinkage tests (Roziere et
86 al., 2023), and strength and elastic modulus of RAC (Kakizaki et al., 2023), among others. **Table 1**
87 summarizes relevant review articles on RCA and RAC with brief descriptions on the focus of the studies.
88 It was found that although numerous review articles exist in the literature, only one article (Makul et al.,
89 2021) focused on RCA/RAC in Southeast Asia, despite the fact that the region is the third largest consumer
90 of concrete aggregates in the world (see Fig. 2).

91 **Table 1.** Major reviews on RCA and RAC in recent years

Literature	Title	Main area of studies
Bai et al., 2020a	An analysis of the mechanical properties of recycled aggregate concrete and its qualities	Compares recycled aggregate (RA) and natural aggregate (NA), analysing performance relationships and RA replacement's impact on concrete's mechanical properties, methods for improving aggregate properties, performance prediction, application range, and reinforcement methods.
Makul et al., 2021	Development of recycled aggregate concrete in Southeast Asia	Establishes a consortium to develop cost-effective, green concrete using recycled aggregates in Southeast Asia.

Jagan et al., 2020	Characterization investigation on recycled coarse aggregate for its utilization in concrete - A review	Analyzes global C&D waste generation, reutilization percentage, and physical characteristics of recycled aggregates in concrete, offering insights for sustainability challenges in the construction industry.
Deresa et al., 2020	Review of experimental findings regarding the structural performance of reinforced recycled aggregate concrete beams and columns	Studies the structural behavior of beams and columns made from reinforced recycled aggregate concrete, with emphasis on assessing their flexural, shear, geometric and seismic characteristics.
Mistri et al., 2020	An overview of various processes for improving the qualities of recycled aggregates for green building materials	Examines challenges in reusing C&DW as RA in concrete, focusing on India's high waste generation and suggesting cost-effective, eco-friendly, and sustainable approaches.
Marinkovic et al., 2023	A critical assessment of the state of knowledge and practice in the field of sustainability assessment of recycled aggregate concrete buildings	Reviews LCA methodologies, highlighting limitations, recommendations, and future research directions in sustainability assessment, RAC design, and structures.
Bahraq et al., 2022	A review of treatment techniques to enhance the durability of recycled aggregate concrete: Improvement mechanisms, performance, and costs	Reviews techniques to enhance RAC durability, focusing on effectiveness, underlying processes, and cost analysis. It covers topics related to water permeability, absorption, the penetration of chloride ions, shrinkage, and the corrosion of reinforcement.
de Andrade Salgado & de Andrade Silva, 2022	Recycled aggregates from construction and demolition waste towards an application on structural concrete: A review	Emphasizes the expansion of understanding regarding RAC, advocating for its wider acceptance, and underscoring its environmental and economic benefits within the construction industry.
Wang et al., 2021b	A comprehensive review on recycled aggregate and recycled aggregate concrete	Examines recycled aggregates and recycled aggregate concrete, focusing on origins, recycling techniques, and production flaws. It discusses improving RAC mechanical properties and long-term performance, addressing AI limitations, and the EU green policy connection.
Bai et al., 2020	An evaluation of the recycled aggregate characteristics and the recycled aggregate concrete mechanical properties	Quantifies mortar content in RCA, important markers, and mechanical properties to assess the features of RAC. Additionally, it takes the aggregate moisture content and the water-cement ratio into account.

Tam et al., 2018	A review of the use of recycled aggregate in concrete applications (2000 to 2017)	Discusses RA in civil engineering projects, focusing on cost savings and reduced CO2 emissions. It analyzes global standards and identifies barriers to widespread adoption.
Guo et al., 2018	Durability of recycled aggregate concrete: A review	Critically reviews RAC durability, including impermeability, chloride penetration resistance, carbonation resistance, freezing resistance, and alkali aggregate reaction.
Silva et al., 2018	Fresh-state performance of recycled aggregate concrete: A review	Assesses initial performance of RAC mixes: workability, bleeding, segregation, hydration temperature, air content, and density.
Akhtar & Sarmah, 2018	A global perspective on the generation of construction and demolition debris and the properties of recycled aggregate concrete	Provides latest production trends of construction and C&DW in different countries worldwide. It examines how different supplementary materials impact the properties of recycled aggregate concrete (RAC) obtained from C&DW
Kisku et al., 2017	A critical review and assessment for the use of recycled aggregate as sustainable construction material	Discusses the utilization of recycled aggregate from C&DW in concrete, analyzing its properties, and discussing its suitability for construction.
Behera et al., 2014	Recycled aggregate from C&D waste & its use in concrete – A breakthrough towards sustainability in construction sector: A review	Explores research findings, material aspects, performance improvements, gaps in knowledge, and reasons for the construction industry's limited adoption of recycled aggregate in concrete.

92

93 Previous research indicates that the mechanical characteristics of RAC were around 10%-20% lower
94 than those of equivalent natural aggregate concrete (NAC) (Thomas et al., 2018; Kisku et al., 2017; Kazmi
95 et al., 2019; Verian et al., 2018). The lower properties of RAC can be attributed to the poor quality of RCA,
96 which is usually contaminated by adhered mortar. Moreover, RCA usually has micro-cracks produced by
97 the recycling/recovery process itself. For instance, the absorption properties of RCA were found to be ten
98 times higher than natural aggregate (NA), whereas the bulk density of RCA was approximately 22% lower
99 than NA (Zaetang et al., 2016; Abdulla, 2015). Additionally, the compressive, splitting, and flexural
100 properties of RAC reduced by 9.25%, 18.5%, and 17.6%, respectively, compared to equivalent NAC
101 (Chakradhara Rao, 2018). The performance of RAC structural members also exhibits lower (ranging from

102 6% to 24%) axial compression, shear resistance, and bond strength (Prince & Singh, 2015b; Arezoumandi
103 et al., 2015; Rahal & Alrefaei, 2018). However, recent studies (Imjai et al., 2023a; Imjai et al., 2023b;
104 Leelatanon et al., 2022; Setkit et al., 2021) have identified significant inconsistencies in the use of RAC in
105 structural elements, particularly when using large amounts of RCA (e.g. 100% replacement level of NA).
106 The elimination of contaminating materials and adhered mortar is critical to improve the quality of RCA.
107 Studies suggest that the properties of RCA can be improved by various treatments (Verian et al., 2018;
108 Wang et al., 2021) but with different degrees of success. Simultaneously, as RAC structures demonstrated
109 inferior bond behavior and flexure/shear strengths, the strengthening of RAC elements after construction is
110 considered as a feasible solution that has not been explored sufficiently in the existing literature.

111 Whilst the construction industry in some Asian countries (e.g., Japan, India, China) have used RAC
112 in real projects for decades, the use of RAC in Southeast Asia is just emerging and many barriers and
113 challenges still remain for the widely adoption of RAC in construction. To bypass these challenges, the
114 authors are working within an AMS-funded project entitled “Capacity and capability building to develop
115 recycled aggregate concrete in Southeast Asia”, which is leveraging best practices and advancing the use
116 of RCA and RAC across partners and stakeholders in the region.

117 This article presents a comprehensive review on the use of RCA and RAC in construction, with
118 emphasis on structural applications and identification of challenges and opportunities of RCA/RAC
119 materials in Southeast Asia. For the first time and as a first step towards potential standardization of
120 RCA/RAC in Southeast Asia, the article examines the basic properties of RCA, including absorption values,
121 bulk density, specific gravity, adhered mortar, abrasion, crushing, and impact values. Likewise, a thorough
122 summary of the properties of RAC reported in the existing literature is provided, with special focus on
123 compressive strength, tensile strength, and flexural strength. Various strategies to improve the performance
124 of RAC elements are also proposed and discussed. The main findings and shortcomings of previous
125 investigations are critically discussed, and further research needs are identified. This article contributes
126 towards promoting a more efficient use of recycled materials in construction in Southeast Asian countries.

127 **2. Sustainable sourcing of RCA in Asia**

128 The sustainability of RCA lies in its ability to reduce landfill waste, preserve natural resources, and
129 reduce energy consumption. RCA can reduce the environmental impact on approximately 70% of the
130 natural concrete samples compared with recycled concrete (Knoeri et al., 2013), and also save about 10%-
131 20% of concrete costs by the substitution of NA with RCA (Zheng et al., 2017). The primary source of
132 RCA is C&DW. Globally, between 2007 and 2014, aggregate production increased from 21 billion tons to
133 40 billion tons (Shatkin, 2016). Currently, the global annual production of C&DW exceeds 3.57 billion
134 tons, with over 53.2% of it originating from Asian countries (Akhtar & Sarmah, 2018; Tam et al., 2018).
135 Pressure exists to use this stream of recycled construction materials due to concerns with landfilling of
136 C&DWs, as well as due to the increasing depletion of natural resources. In recent times, there has been a
137 noticeable shift towards using RCA instead of conventional roadbed gravel and backfill materials in RAC
138 construction (Behera et al., 2014). Nonetheless, hindrances exist due to the weak regulations and lack of
139 standardization for the use of RCA and RAC in construction.

140 **2.1 Policy and regulatory framework in Asia**

141 Governments, organizations and standardization committees should play a vital role in advancing and
142 applying RAC technology by establishing comprehensive RAC specifications and standards. However,
143 owing to weak regulatory frameworks and a lack of understanding, recycled and reprocessed recycled
144 materials are not yet considered or utilized in many design codes, particularly in Southeast Asia. In the near
145 future, it is envisaged that the use of RAC will increase and constitute a significant portion of the market
146 and therefore changes in policies and regulatory frameworks are urgently required.

147 The Japanese Construction Industry Association issued a national standard (BCSJ) for the
148 incorporation of RCA and RAC in 1977 (Takahashi & Abe, 1995). However, only a limited number of
149 Asian countries (see **Table 2**) have established their own distinct standards and codes for the specifications
150 and utilization of RCA in construction projects. For example, India permits the mixing of up to 50% RCA
151 with NA, whereas China allows up to 100% (Jagan et al., 2020). European countries have also developed
152 and implemented codes, standards, and regulations for RCA/RAC (Xiao et al., 2022). For instance,
153 presented by Xia et al (Xiao et al., 2022) in his research article such as RILEM TC121-DRG (1994) in the

154 European Union, DIN4226-100 (2002) in Germany, DS2426 (2011) in Denmark, Digest 433 (1998) in the
 155 UK, BS 8500-2 (2002) in the UK, EHE-08 (2008) in Spain, Ot 70085 (2006) in Switzerland, PTV 406
 156 (2003) in Belgium, and CUR (1984) in Netherlands are prime examples of successful steps towards
 157 standardization. Brazil with its NBR 15.116 (2005), has also made significant progress.

158 As the properties of RCA differ according to location, countrywide standards and guidelines should
 159 be developed to utilize RCA for different types of construction works on the basis of local prevailing
 160 recycling and construction practices. This can ensure the quality and performance of RAC, making it an
 161 environmentally friendly option for construction projects. The standards for RAC acceptance criteria in
 162 different Asian countries are presented in **Table 2**.

163 **Table 2.** Acceptance criteria of RCA for RAC use in civil engineering works (Hou et al., 2019; Wardeh et al.,
 164 2015; Xiao et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2020)

Country	Standard/ Specification	Oven dry density kg/m ³	Water absorption (%)	Abrasion (%)	Maximum RCA replacement (%)	Remarks
Japan	JIS A 5021 (2011) JIS A 5022 (2012) JIA A 5023 (2012)	≥2500	≤3	≤35	100	Allowable strength ≤ 36 MPa
Hong Kong (China)	WBTC No. 12 (2002)	≥2000	≤10			Allowable strength ≤ 20 MPa (allowable for decorative construction)
S Korea	KS F 2527 (2020)	≥2200	≤3		100	
China	GB/T 25177 (2010)	>2450	≤3		100	Class I (structural propose)

165 **2.2 C&DW scenarios**

166 C&DW encompasses a wide range of materials such as concrete, bricks, wood, metal, plastics, and
 167 glass. The generation of C&DW have become a significant global environmental concern owing to their
 168 sheer volume and impact on landfills, resource depletion, and overall sustainability. The volume of C&DW
 169 generated is substantial and it varies significantly from one country to another. Highly developed countries
 170 with extensive construction activities tend to produce larger quantities of C&DW. Recycling and proper
 171 waste management are crucial for mitigating the above negative impacts.

172 **Table 3 and Fig. 2)** present data on C&DW generation in various countries and continents. Asian
 173 countries, led by China and India, generate a massive amount of C&DW. With China producing 1130
 174 million tons and India generating 530 million tons, the continent contributes significantly to the global
 175 waste burden. This may be attributed to rapid urbanization, infrastructure development, and construction
 176 projects. Recycled concrete generates approximately 585 million tons per year in major Asian countries.
 177 Every year, Asian countries generate over 53% of the total C&DW worldwide. Additionally, European
 178 countries, notably France, Germany, and the UK, also play a significant role in C&DW generation,
 179 contributing more than 26.87% collectively. This highlights the substantial construction activities in
 180 Europe. Similarly, North America generates approximately 14.59% of the global C&DW, whereas Africa
 181 and South America account for approximately 2.8% and 1.96%, respectively.

182 **Table 3.** Generation of C&DW globally (Akhtar & Sarmah, 2018; Tam et al., 2018)

Country/Region	C&DW (million ton)	Continent
Australia	19.3	Oceania
China	1130.0	Asia
India	530.0	
Hong Kong SAR	24.3	
Japan	75.0	
Taiwan	63.0	
Thailand	10.0	
South Korea	68.0	
Belgium	40.2	
Denmark	21.7	
Croatia	3.38	
Finland	20.8	
France	342.6	
Germany	192.3	
Ireland	16.6	
Italy	46.3	
The Netherlands	25.8	
Spain	30.0	

Cyprus	2.09	
Norway	1.3	
Portugal	38.5	
Spain	11.4	
Sweden	10.2	
Switzerland	7.0	
Austria	35.0	
UK	114.2	
Brazil	70.0	South America
Mexico	12.0	
USA	500.0	North America
Canada	9.0	
South Africa	100.0	Africa

183

184 C&DW waste can be divided mainly into five key categories: metal, concrete and minerals, wood, miscellaneous,
 185 and uncategorized waste. The latter consists of a combination of all other categories: concrete, bricks, ceramics,
 186 wood, glass, plastics, bituminous and asphalt, metals, stones, insulating materials, gypsum-type materials, and
 187 electronic and electrical parts. A summary of the different constituents of C&DW is presented in

188 **Table 4.** According to Monier et al. (2017), the main constituents of C&DW are brick (37%) masonry
 189 and concrete (31%). However, regional variations in these figures are to be expected as materials and
 190 construction practices vary from country to country.

191

192 **Table 4.** Constituents of C&DW (Monier et al., 2017)

Waste category	Min-max range
Concrete and masonry	40%-84%
Concrete	12%-40%
Masonry	8%-54%
Asphalt	4%-26%
Others (miners)	2%-9%
Wood	2%-4%
Metal	0.2%-4%

Gypsum	0.2%-0.4%
Plastics	0.1%-3%

193

194 **Table 4** provides valuable insights into the constituents of C&DW. Concrete and masonry are the most
 195 prevalent components in C&DW, collectively accounting for 40% to 84% of the total. Concrete, with a
 196 range of 12% to 40%, is a major contributor, reflecting its widespread use in construction projects. Masonry,
 197 with a range of 8% to 54%, includes materials like bricks and stones and adds to the bulk of waste generated.
 198 Asphalt is also significant, ranging from 4% to 26%. Minor components like wood, metal, gypsum, and
 199 plastics contribute less, with ranges between 0.1% to 4%. The average composition of C&DW constituents
 200 is depicted in **Fig. 3(a)**. On the other hand, Jagan et al. (Jagan et al., 2020) conducted a study to categorize
 201 the constituents of C&DW, revealing that soils and gravels accounted for 36% of the waste, followed by
 202 brick and masonry at 31%. Concrete constituted 23% of the waste, while metals and bitumen's contributed
 203 5% and 2%, respectively. The remaining 3% was attributed to other miscellaneous components.

204 Understanding the composition of C&DW is crucial for an effective screening method and for
 205 encouraging the utilization of recycled concrete. Overall, this section underscored the diverse composition
 206 of C&DW and the significance of sustainable practices in the construction and demolition sectors, with
 207 waste reduction, recycling, and responsible management pivotal for a more environmentally friendly and
 208 resource-efficient future.

209 **2.3 Recycling and recovery of C&DW in Asia**

210 Recycling C&DW, with a specific focus on concrete, can significantly contribute to the sustainability
 211 of RCA. Prioritizing concrete recycling initiatives would have a considerable impact not only on waste
 212 reduction but also on resource conservation.

213 The recycling process and net concrete and aggregate content in concrete structures after demolition
 214 are illustrated in **Table 5** and **Table 6**, based on results from Japanese concrete (Noguchi et al., 2015). **Table**
 215 **5** lists the component ratios of the mixed concrete waste under different demolition scenarios. The data
 216 indicated varying proportions of concrete, metal, wood, and other materials in the waste. In Scenarios 1 and

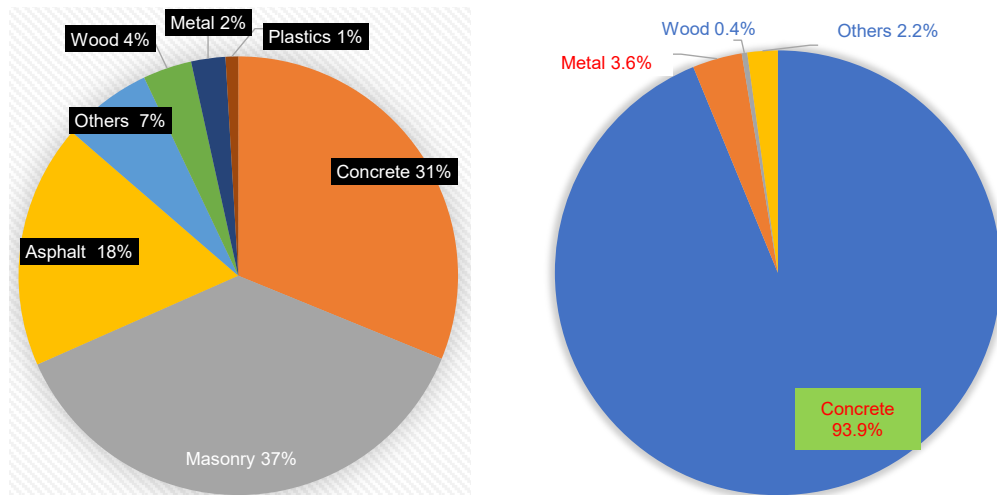
217 2, concrete dominated the waste with percentages of 98% and 97.7%, respectively. However, in scenario
 218 3, the proportion of concrete decreased to 92.8% and there was a noticeable increase in the ratios of metals
 219 and other materials. Scenarios 4 and scenario 5 continued to show a decrease in concrete contents (90%
 220 and 90.9%, respectively) and a corresponding increase in metal and other materials.similary , **Table 6**
 221 delineates the different processes and methods employed for concrete crushing.

222 Concrete remains a significant component of mixed concrete waste even after demolition. The data
 223 from different demolition scenarios show that concrete accounts for a high percentage, ranging from 90%
 224 to 98%. This information is vital for devising efficient utilization strategies, particularly in terms of
 225 recycling and resource recovery, and for making the most of the available resources for RCA. **Fig. 3(b)**
 226 illustrates the typical composite constituents found in waste concrete.

227 **Table 5.** Component ratio of mixed concrete waste (%) after demolition (Noguchi et al., 2015)

Demolition scenario	Mixed concrete waste component ratio				Proportion of waste-mixed concrete
	Concrete	Metal	Wood	Uncategorized materials	
1	98.0	0.9	0.16	0.04	0.9
2	97.7	0.93	0.16	0.31	0.93
3	92.8	0.97	0.5	2.9	0.97
4	90.0	1.0	0.5	2.8	1.0
5	90.9	0.95	0.49	4.91	0.95

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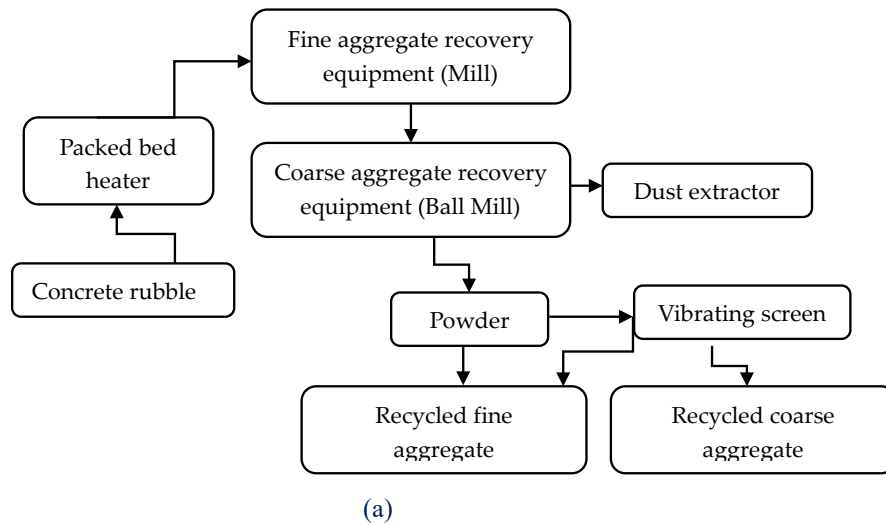


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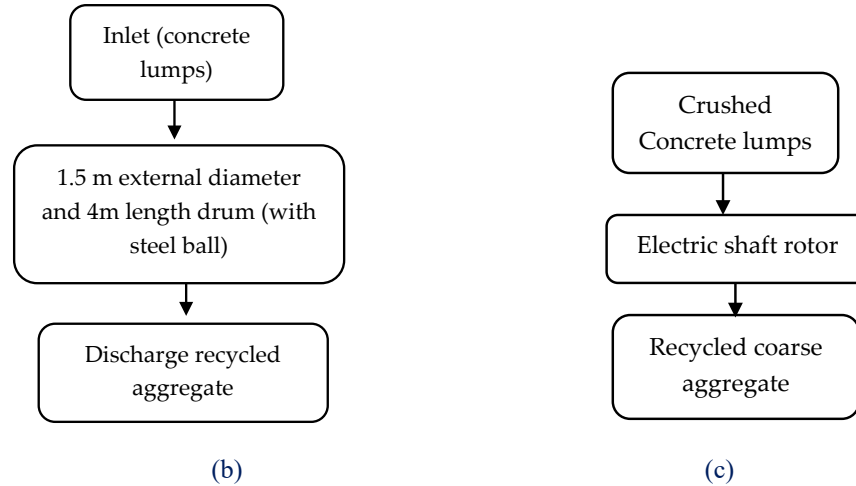
231 **Fig. 3.** Major constituents in (a) C&DW, and (b) demolished concrete (Monier et al., 2017; Noguchi et al.,
 232 2015)

233 The RA production techniques are categorized into three main groups: heating and rubbing, eccentric-
 234 shaft rotors, and mechanical grinding (Noguchi et al., 2015). The techniques are shown in **Fig. 4(a) to (c)**.



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Fig. 4. Heating and rubbing technology (a) Mechanical grinding technology (b) and Electrical shaft rotor technology(c) (Koji, 2010)

242 **Table 6.** Recycled aggregate production per unit weight of waste concrete

Production method	Quality	Concrete waste (ton)	Composition ratio (R_{RCA}) (ton)
Heated scrubbing (HS)	Class H	1.0	0.35
Mechanical scrubbing (MS)	Class H	1.0	0.30
Gravity classification (GC)	Class H, M	1.0	0.27
Wet scrubbing (WS)	Class H	1.0	0.27
Crush scrubbing (CS)	Class M, L	1.0	0.25
Multi-crush & scrubbing (MCS)	Class M	1.0	0.25
Mechanical crushing (MC4)	Class M, L	1.0	0.20
Mechanical crushing (MC3)	Class M, L	1.0	0.25
Mechanical crushing (MC2)	Class L	1.0	0.30

243 Note: {Class H (density (t/m^3) >2.5 , M (t/m^3) >2.2 , and L (absorption ratio) < 13 }; are high-, medium-, and low-
244 quality recycled aggregates (JIS, 2011). R_{RCA} = recycled coarse aggregate, C2 = crushing two times, MC3 = crushing
245 three times, MC4 = crushing four times.

246

247 The information reported in this section confirms the importance of characterizing C&DW, which is
248 a pending task in countries across Southeast Asia to realize the potential of RCA and RAC in construction.

249 The authors are currently working with the recycling industry, concrete producers and other relevant
250 stakeholders in several countries to characterize C&DW.

251 **3. Physical and mechanical characteristics of RCA and RAC**

252 According to ACI Committee (ACI-318, 2008), the original concrete, contaminants, and
253 processing/recovering technique all affect RCA quality. Recycling old concrete involves an examination of
254 the source concrete, preparation, breaking and screening, removal of impurities (i.e., steel mesh, rebars,
255 dowels), crushing and sizing of the RCA, and sieving (removal of impurities such as finer dust particles)
256 (Eni, 1967).

257 RCA has various physical and mechanical characteristics that require evaluation before incorporation
258 into concrete. Water absorption, bulk density, adhering mortar content, specific gravity, abrasion value,
259 crushing value, and impact value of the aggregates are a few of these. The size of the coarse aggregate has
260 an impact on how much mortar adheres to it, whilst the type of crusher used and the manufacturing process
261 have an impact on the form and texture of aggregate. The physical, mechanical, and chemical attributes of
262 coarse particles have a considerable impact on the strength and durability of concrete. The physical and
263 mechanical characteristics of recycled aggregate and recycled aggregate concrete have thus been the subject
264 of extensive research. This section discusses the key conclusions of earlier research on the characteristics
265 of RCA and RAC.

266 **3.1 Water absorption**

267 A comprehensive review of laboratory test results was performed (**Table 7**), focusing on the absorption
268 characteristics of NA and RCA over a 24-hour period. The analysis revealed that NA exhibited absorption
269 values ranging from 0.05% to 2.5%, whereas RCA exhibited a much broader range of 1.56% to 7%. The
270 data in **Table 7** illustrate the relative absorption values between the NA and RCA groups, highlighting the
271 higher water absorption tendency of RCA compared to that of NA. According to earlier research, the
272 absorption values of RCA appeared to be 1.7–10 times higher than NA. The presence of mortar can lead to

273 higher absorption values, which is detrimental to the workability of RAC mixes and, eventually, to their
274 compressive strength.

275 **Table 7.** Absorption percentage of NA and RCA

Studies	NA (%)	RCA (%)
Zaetang et al., 2016	0.46	4.58
Zhou & Chen, 2017	0.05	3.16
Katkhuda & Shatarat, 2017	0.5	3.2
Butler et al., 2013	1.52	6.22
Dimitriou et al., 2018	2.5	7.0
Rahal, 2007a	0.68	3.47
Chakradhara Rao, 2018	0.9	3.69
Kazmi et al., 2019	1.3	6.85
Thomas et al., 2018	0.7	6.4
Kothari et al., 2016	0.3	1.56
Revarthi et al., 2015	0.3	1.57

276
277 A comparison of the absorption values confirms that RCA tends to absorb more water than NA,
278 potentially affecting the concrete mix performance, workability, water demand, and long-term durability.
279 When using RCA as a substitution for NA in concrete, its higher water absorption potential during mix
280 design has to be considered. However, the varying quality of RCA, influenced by factors such as the source
281 and recycling process, emphasizes the need for proper quality control and adoption of standardized
282 recycling practices to ensure consistency and reliability. Designers and concrete technologists must be
283 mindful of the higher water absorption of RCA and adjust the mix designs accordingly for optimal concrete
284 performance.

285 3.2 Specific gravity

286 **Table 8** compares the specific gravity values of the NA and RCA from various studies. The specific
287 gravity indicates the density of aggregates, which in turn influences the mix workability and concrete
288 properties. The data in **Table 8** show that the specific gravity of NA generally falls within the range of 2.52

289 to 2.84, while RCA's specific gravity varies from 2.21 to 2.66. Accordingly, the specific gravity of RCA
 290 can be 2.6% to 18.7% lower than that of NA. Understanding these relationships can aid in optimizing
 291 concrete mix designs and promoting sustainable construction practices that leverage the benefits of RCA
 292 while maintaining concrete performance. Additionally, optimizing the crushing and recycling processes to
 293 minimize the presence of lightweight particles may also contribute to higher specific gravity values of RCA.

294 **Table 8.** Specific gravity of NA and RCA

Studies	NA			RCA		
	Oven dried	SSD	Apparent	Oven dried	SSD	Apparent
Zaetang et al., 2016	2.70	-	-	2.53	-	-
Zhou & Chen, 2017	2.72	-	-	2.65	-	-
Katkhuda & Shatarat, 2017	2.67		-	2.58	-	-
Butler et al., 2013	2.67	2.71		2.29	2.44	-
Dimitriou et al., 2018	2.52	2.58	2.69	2.21	2.37	2.60
Rahal, 2007a	2.84	2.86	-	2.31	2.39	-
Chakradhara Rao, 2018	2.6		-	2.38	-	-
Kazmi et al., 2019	-		2.66	-	-	2.55
Thomas et al., 2018	2.72		-	2.64	-	-
Purushothaman et al., 2015	2.79			2.38		
Revarthi et al., 2015	2.79			2.38		

295 3.3 Unit weight (Bulk density)

296 **Table 9** summarizes the bulk density values of NA and RCA from various studies. It is evident that
 297 NA generally exhibits higher bulk density values than RCA. The minimum RCA value is 1270 kg/m³,
 298 corresponding to 1435 kg/m³ of NA. The range of the unit weight of RCA was 1270 kg/m³ to 1487 kg/m³,
 299 whereas the corresponding values of NA were between 1435 kg/m³ and 1832 kg/m³. The higher bulk density
 300 of NA can be attributed to its natural origin and more uniform particle distribution. On the other hand, RCA,
 301 being a recycled material, may contain variations in the size and density of particles, leading to relatively
 302 lower bulk density values.

303 Overall, the unit weight of RCA was 6.5% to 22.0% lower than that corresponding to NA. Therefore,
 304 to improve the quality of RCA, its density should be enhanced. To achieve this, careful sorting and
 305 processing of the recycled material can be performed to remove any lightweight or undesirable particles.
 306 Additionally, optimizing the crushing and grading process to achieve a more uniform particle distribution
 307 in the RCA can contribute to an increased bulk density. Furthermore, considering the appropriate mix
 308 design and binder materials when using RCA can enhance the overall density of the concrete mixture.

309 **Table 9.** Unit weight (bulk density) in kg/m³ of NA and RCA

Studies	NA	RCA
Zaetang et al., 2016	1440	1340
Zhou & Chen, 2017	1435	1270
Rahal, 2007b	1744	1464
Kazmi et al., 2019	1513	1414
Thomas et al., 2018	1832	1487
Abdulla, 2015	1591	1241
Huda & Alam, 2014	1622	1396
Purushothaman et al., 2015	1508	1239
Revarthi et al., 2015	1508	1239
Chakradhara Rao, 2018	1556	1373

310 3.4 Adhered mortar contents

311 **Table 10** compares the adhered (parent) mortar in RCA determined in various studies. The results
 312 indicate that NA generally shows no adhered mortar, whereas RCA exhibits percentages varying from a
 313 low 5.0% (Zhou & Chen, 2017) and up to 50.67% (Rahal, 2007b). Besides the high variability of results, it
 314 is clear that much less research has focused in calculating the amount of adhered mortar, possibly due to
 315 the difficulty of the testing procedures. In RCA, excessive adhering mortar may increase water
 316 requirements, reduce workability, and alter the mix proportions. This can result in decreased strength,
 317 compromised durability, and potential segregation issues, ultimately affecting the overall quality of
 318 concrete. Additionally, segregation issues can arise, further impacting the concrete quality. To address these

319 challenges, effective methods for minimizing the adhered mortar during recycling and processing should
 320 be explored. Implementing advanced crushing and screening technologies, along with quality control
 321 measures, can produce cleaner and higher-quality RCA with a reduced mortar content. Moreover, the
 322 relatively low production costs in Southeast Asian countries may offer cost advantages in obtaining RCA
 323 with a lower adhered mortar content, thus making it cost-effective in the region.

324 **Table 10.** Adhered mortar in RCA

Studies	NA (%)	RCA (%)
Zhou & Chen, 2017	0.0	5.0
Dimitriou et al., 2018	0.0	23.0
Kazmi et al., 2019	0.0	34.5
Rahal, 2007b	0.0	50.67
Verian et al., 2018	0.0	28.9
Matsagar, 2015	0.0	25.2

325 3.5 Abrasion, crushing and impact values

326 The comparative results of abrasion, crushing and impact values of RCA from various studies are
 327 presented in **Table 11**. The investigation showed that the abrasion values of RCA ranged from 20.7% to
 328 41%, whereas the corresponding abrasion values of NA were between 11.9% and 27.5%. The crushing
 329 values of RCA ranged from 25.87% to 36%, whereas NA exhibited values between 18% and 26.7%. The
 330 findings indicate that RCA's abrasion value is 1.5 to 1.7 times higher than NAs, while its crushing values
 331 are 1.1 to 1.4 times higher, and the impact values are 1.4 to 1.5 times more significant than those of NA.

332 The higher abrasion, crushing, and impact values for RCA highlight its reduced resistance to wear,
 333 crushing, and impact forces, which can affect the concrete's overall durability and performance when RCA
 334 is used as a substitute for NA. The inferior mechanical properties of RCA are attributed to factors such as
 335 the presence of adhered mortar, variations in the composition and strength of the original concrete, and the
 336 recycling process. These findings emphasize the importance of carefully selecting and processing RCA to
 337 minimize its negative impact on concrete performance.

338 To improve the mechanical properties of RCA, it is essential to implement improved recycling and
 339 processing methods. Efficient methods for removing attached parents' mortar and controlling the grading
 340 of RCA can yield cleaner and higher-quality aggregates. Additionally, using high-strength original concrete
 341 can enhance the mechanical properties of RCA. The characterization of RCA using standard tests is
 342 necessary for a successful mix design and therefore articles and reports in the area should always report the
 343 physical and mechanical properties of RCA used in the mix design.

344 **Table 11.** Abrasion, crushing and impact values of NA and RCA

Studies	Abrasion Value (%)		Crushing value (%)		Impact value (%)	
	NA	RCA	NA	RCA	NA	RCA
Padmini et al., 2009	27.5	41	23.5	31	27.5	41
Rahal, 2007a	11.9	20.73	18.2	25.87	-	-
Chakradhara Rao, 2018	-	-	-	-	12.24	17.08
Kazmi et al., 2019	-	-	27	31	-	-
Thomas et al., 2018	-	-	26	29	-	-
Dimitriou et al., 2018	29	29	-	-	-	-
Kothari & Abhay, 2016	29	45	27	36	-	-
Abdulla, 2015	21	30	18	27.7	-	-

345 3.6. Physical properties of RCA from Southern Thailand

346 Tests were performed to obtain the basic properties of RCA from Southern Thailand, including
 347 absorption, specific gravity, unit weight, and abrasion values. Both NA and RCA were tested for a
 348 comparative evaluation of coarse aggregate properties in the southern part of Thailand. The NA consisted
 349 of crushed natural aggregate obtained from a local quarry, while the RCA was obtained from concrete
 350 cylinders crushed with an ad hoc machine (see Fig. 5). The crushed material was sieved to obtain aggregates
 351 that passed through a 20 mm sieve and was retained on a 4.75 mm sieve. Although there is no information
 352 confirming the origin of NA and RCA, it is presumed that the quarry is located in the southern region of
 353 Thailand. All experiments were conducted in accordance with the relevant ASTM Standards, including
 354 water absorption and specific gravity (ASTM C127), bulk density (ASTM C29), and abrasion tests (ASTM
 355 C131). The test results are presented in Table 12

356 **Table 12.** Physical and mechanical properties of NA and RCA obtained from tests

Description/Properties	NA	RCA
Absorption (%)	0.39	6.02
Specific Gravity (Oven dried)	2.81	2.32
Specific Gravity (SSD)	2.82	2.46
Specific Gravity (Apparent)	2.84	2.69
Bulk Density (unit weight), kg/m ³	1576	1305
Abrasion value	25.42	36.93

357 The experimental results demonstrate that the absorption value of the RCA was more than 15 times
 358 higher than that of the NA, whereas the RCA's relative density (specific gravity) is approximately 18%
 359 lower than NA's. Likewise, the bult density of RCA is about 17% lower than that of NA. The abrasion value
 360 of RCA was approximately 37%, whereas the corresponding value of NA was approximately 25%.

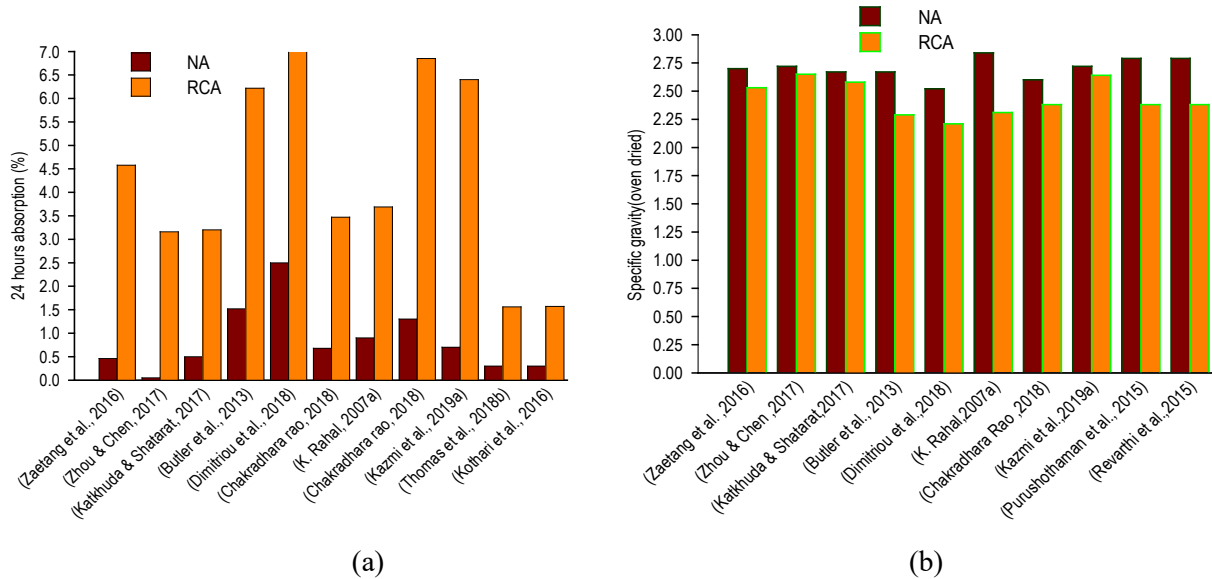


361
 362 **Fig. 5.** Crusher machine used for concrete crushing

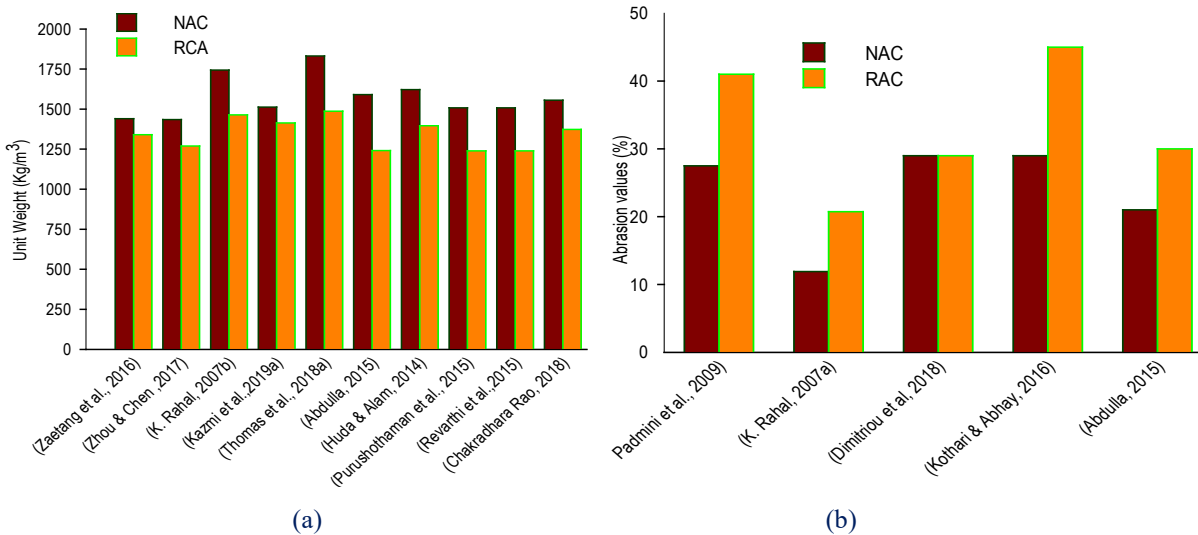
363 **3.7 Discussion on RCA properties and its influences in RAC quality**

364 The findings from various studies emphasize the critical role that the physical and mechanical
 365 properties of aggregates play in determining the strength and durability of RAC. RCAs are notably deficient
 366 compared to NA, particularly in terms of water absorption (**Fig. 6a**), specific gravity (**Fig. 6b**), bulk density
 367 (**Fig. 7a**), adhered mortar, abrasion values (**Fig. 7b**), crushing value, and impact value. These results are
 368 confirmed by the experimental results obtained from the NA and RCA tested in this study (see **Fig. 8a-d**).

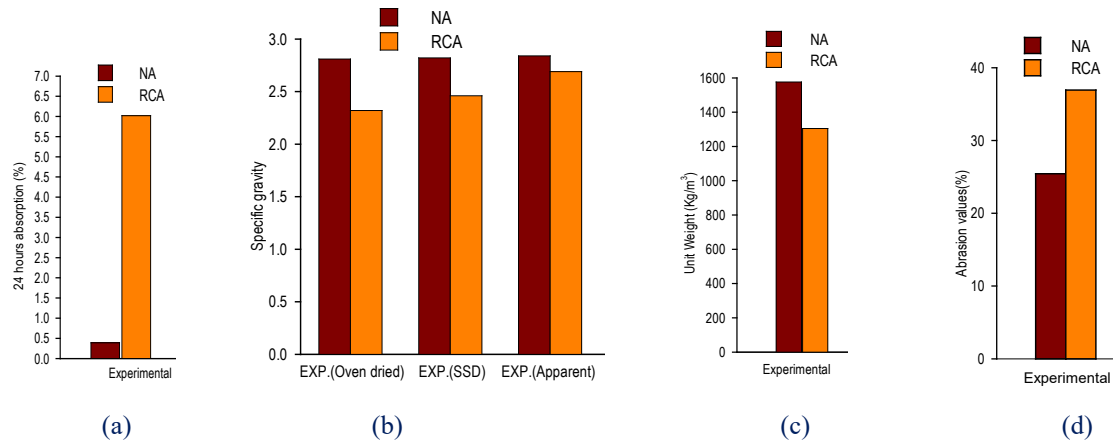
369 The trends in the above figures also suggest that while some RCA properties such as specific gravity and
 370 unit wight remain within certain limits, other such as absorption and abrasion show a significant variability.
 371 RCA exhibit variations in physical properties based on location, recycling methods, and original material
 372 quality. The variations in these properties are attributed to factors such as location, recycling methods, and
 373 quality of the original materials.



374
 375
 376 **Fig. 6.** (a) Absorption values, and (b) specific gravity from previous studies



377
 378
 379 **Fig. 7.** (a) Unit weight, and (b) abrasion values from previous studies



380
381
382 **Fig. 8.** Properties of NA and RCA from Southern Thailand (a) absorption, (b) unit weight, (c) specific gravity, and
383 (d) abrasion value

384 To enhance the performance of concrete with RCA, it is essential to address the deficiencies in its
385 physical properties. Numerous studies (González-Taboada et al., 2016; Mohanta & Murmu, 2022; Verian
386 et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2021) have proposed treatment techniques and methods to enhance the properties
387 of RCA and RAC before and during concrete mixing. The techniques and approaches are summarized
388 below.

389 **a. Before mixing:**

- 390
- 391 • Reducing RCA porosity and minimizing adhered mortar layers (can be reduced 12% to 20% of initial
392 mass of RA) can improve the overall quality (e.g. density, absorption, abrasion, bulk density) of RAC.
 - 393 • Coating the RCA surface with pozzolanic powder has demonstrated potential for enhancing the
394 mechanical and physical properties of RAC.

394 **b. During mixing:**

- 395
- 396 • The properties of RAC can be improved through the use of various mixing techniques, including a
397 two-stage mixing strategy, mortar mixing approach, and sand-encased mixing approach.
 - 398 • Incorporating supplementary cementitious materials (e.g. fly ash, grangulated blast furnace slag, silica
399 fume, or fiber reinforcement) can increase the compressive, splitting, and flexural strength of RAC.
 - 400 • Limiting the mortar contents in RCA and reducing the proportion of RCA in concrete mixes can help
achieve better results.

401 While successful, it is clear that some of the above techniques and approaches will undoubtedly increase
 402 the cost of RAC and therefore they should only be used in construction if the additional costs is
 403 outweighed by an improvement in the properties of hardened RAC.

404 3.8 Properties of hardened RAC

405 **Table 13** compares the compressive, splitting and flexural strengths of RAC and NAC from previous
 406 investigations. The test results focused exclusively on untreated RCA sourced from demolished concrete.
 407 The chosen concrete samples only comprised RAC made with 100% RCA, allowing for a comparative
 408 analysis with the corresponding NAC from each study. All reported tests followed local codes and
 409 standards. For instance, Dimitriou et al. (2018) tested the compressive strength in accordance with EN
 410 12390-3 (2009b), flexural strength according to EN 12390-5 (2009), and splitting tensile strength following
 411 EN 12390-6 (2009a). Purushothaman et al. (2015) executed the tests following IS 516-1959 (IS 1959),
 412 whereas Chakradhara Rao (2018) followed BIS (IS:20262-2009).

413 **Table 13.** Mechanical properties of NAC and RAC (100% RCA replacement)

Studies	Compressive strength (MPa)		Splitting-tensile strength (MPa)		Flexural strength (MPa)		Type of specimens
	NAC	RAC	NAC	RAC	NAC	RAC	
Dimitriou et al., 2018	72.1	60.0	4.2	4.1	8.6	6.9	Cylinder
Purushothaman et al., 2014	42.4	34.6	-	-	-	-	Cube
Rahal, 2007a	32.3	29.2	-	-	-	-	Cube
Rahal, 2007b	38.9	38.67	3.18	3.31	5.81	5.23	-
Chakradhara Rao, 2018	27.0	24.5	2.59	2.11	5.1	4.2	Cube
Kazmi et al., 2019	27.8	18.9	3.5	2.7	7.0	4.2	-
Thomas et al., 2018	52.8	50.4	5.7	5.2	5.9	5.7	Cube
Joseph et al., 2016	38.8	37.25	3.75	2.75	-	-	Cube
Etxeberria et al., 2007	29.0	28.0	2.72	2.49	-	-	Cube
Ataria & Wang, 2022	47.8	40.7	4.11	3.5	-	-	Cylinder

414 3.8.1 Compressive strength

415 According to **Table 13**, the 28-day compressive strength of RAC was found to be between 68% to
 416 99% of the strength of NAC. Overall, the average strength of RAC was 13.5% lower than that of NAC. The

417 data in **Table 13** indicate that RAC exhibits relatively larger scatter of results (most of the corresponding
418 strength variation of was from -0.6% to -26%), and this is likely due to the varying quality of RCA and to
419 the presence of impurities. However, with appropriate measures, RAC is still a valuable and sustainable
420 alternative for certain construction applications. Strategic improvements in recycled aggregate quality
421 through better sorting and screening techniques to remove impurities and weak components, thereby
422 improving the strength of RAC and mix design, can contribute to enhancing RAC's overall mechanical
423 properties of RAC and make it a more viable option in the construction industry (González-Taboada et al.,
424 [2016](#); Mohanta & Murmu, [2022](#); Verian et al., [2018](#); Wang et al., [2021](#)).

425 **3.8.2 Splitting tensile strength.**

426 The results in **Table 13** show that the tensile strength of RAC ranged from 77.14% to 104% compared
427 to equivalent NAC results. Overall, RAC's splitting tensile strength demonstrated a range of approximately
428 +4% to -27% when compared to NAC. It is evident that the tensile strength is directly influenced by the
429 compressive strength of the concrete, which, in turn, is governed by the quality of its constituents (cement,
430 coarse aggregate, and fine aggregate). To enhance the tensile properties of concrete, it is recommended to
431 improve the physical and mechanical properties of RCA through advanced crushing processes, removal of
432 adhered mortar, proper screening of fine particles, and addition of admixtures during mixing, followed by
433 appropriate curing methods.

434 **3.8.3 Flexural strength**

435 The flexural strength of RCA in **Table 13** was approximately 19% lower compared to equivalent NAC
436 results, with a reduction of up to 40%. From the available data, NAC generally exhibited higher flexural
437 strength values than RAC. To address this difference and enhance the flexural strength of RAC, the
438 incorporation of suitable admixtures and fiber reinforcement is recommended. Implementing these
439 solutions can narrow the gap between the NAC and RAC flexural strength values, making RAC a more
440 competitive and sustainable option.

441

442 **3.9 Mechanical properties of RCA from Southern Thailand**

443 The mechanical properties of RAC and NAC were examined in via laboratory tests on cylinders (Cy)
 444 and cubes (Cu) using a novel custom-made concrete crusher machine (model WU-eco CRM) as shown in
 445 Appendix. The test results are presented in **Table 14**. The target compressive strengths were M15, M21,
 446 and M24, and the ingredient proportioning was executed as per [ACI 211.1-91 \(1991\)](#). Likewise, for the test
 447 of splitting strength and flexural properties, 3-3 numbers of RCA and NAC cylinders (159 mm diameter
 448 and 300 m height), and the same quantities of rectangular beams (size 100 mm×100 mm×500 mm) were
 449 cast considering a strength of M24. The 28 days compressive strength was determined according to BS EN
 450 12390-3 ([2009b](#)), the tensile splitting test was carried out according to BS EN 12390-6 ([2009a](#)), and the
 451 flexural strength was determined according to BS EN 12390-5 ([2009](#)).

452 **Table 14.** Compressive, tensile and flexural strengths of NAC and RAC from Southern Thailand

Concrete Grade (target)	Compressive strength (MPa)		Splitting strength (MPa)		Flexural strength (MPa)	
	NAC	RAC	NAC	RAC	NAC	RAC
Cu-M15	18.76	15.77	-	-	-	-
Cy-M15	15.56	13.45	-	-	-	-
Cu-M21	22.77	18.15	-	-	-	-
Cy-M21	19.91	15.72	-	-	-	-
Cu-M24	29.56	23.78	-	-	-	-
Cy-M24	24.30	20.53	2.02	1.68	-	-
Rec- M24	-	-	-	-	4.80	2.87

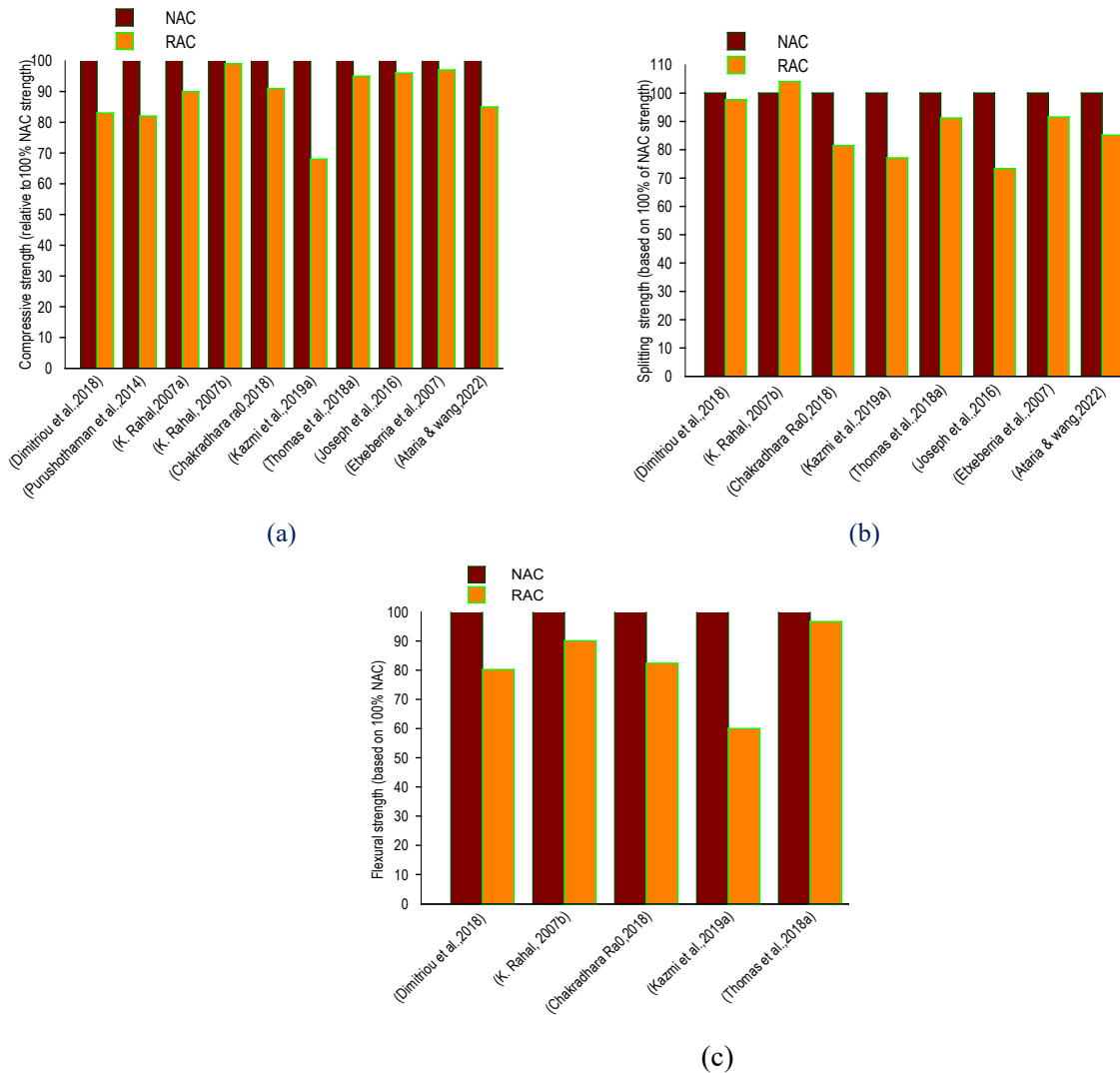
453
 454 The results in **Table 14** indicate that overall, the compressive strength of RAC cubes and cylinders
 455 was approximately 17% lower when compared to NA equivalents. Likewise, the splitting and flexural
 456 strengths of RAC specimens were 17% and 40% lower than that of NAC counterparts. The experimental
 457 results indicate no significant variation in the deficient strength between the RAC and NAC for the concrete
 458 grades produced using Southern Thailand’s materials.

459

460 **3.10 Discussion on the properties and its influences towards the performance of RAC**

461 The comprehensive review and test results presented in the previous section confirm the significant differences in
 462 RAC properties compared to NAC. RAC's compressive strength (**Fig. 9a**) is 10-20% lower, splitting tensile strength
 463 (**Fig. 9b**) is 26% lower, and flexural strength is about 19% lower than NAC. The study emphasized that the quality
 464 of recycled aggregates and the presence of impurities in the RAC contributed to the observed variations. Graphical
 465 representations of previous studies and experimental results are presented in

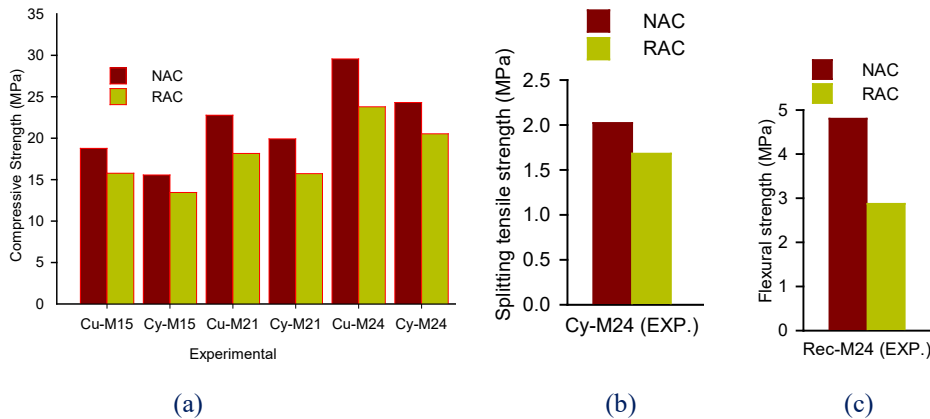
466 **Fig. 10a-c.**



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468

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470

471 **Fig. 9.** (a) Compressive, and (b) splitting tensile strengths, and (c) Flexural strengths from past studies of NAC and
 472 from past studies



473
474

475 **Fig. 10.** (a) compressive (b) tensile and (c) flexural strengths obtained from tests on Southern Thailand’s NAC and
476 RAC.

477 Whilst the above sections focused on the properties of NAC and RAC at the “material” level, the
478 performance of actual structural elements cast with RAC is also discussed in the following sections so as
479 to provide further insight into the potential uses and limitations of RAC in actual construction projects.

480 4. Performance of RAC structural elements

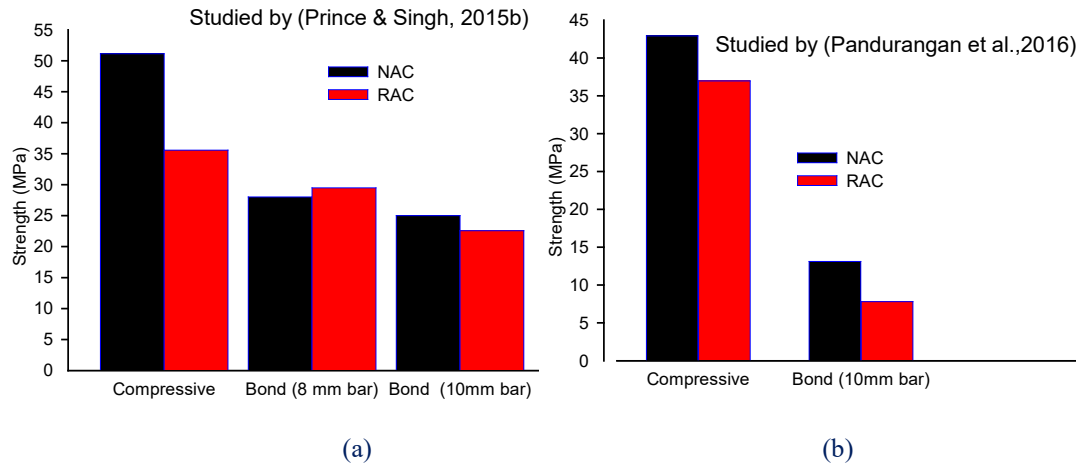
481 The performance of structural elements subjected to loads is influenced by the quality of their
482 materials, including concrete and internal reinforcement. This section gives an overview of previous
483 findings about the structural behavior of RAC members.

484 4.1 Bond behavior

485 Sufficient bond strength is essential to ensure the structural integrity and effective load transfer
486 between concrete and reinforcing rebars in structures. The bond behavior mechanism of rebars embedded
487 in RAC was found to be somehow similar to that of NAC reported in the literature, although the magnitude
488 of bond strength varies. Prince & Singh (2015a) performed pull-out tests and reported that the average bond
489 strength of RAC was 2.3% higher than that of NAC. However, RAC had 33% lower compressive strength
490 than NAC in normal strength concrete. The compressive strength of RAC for high-strength concrete was
491 27% lower compared to NAC, and its measured bond strength was 15% lower than NAC. Prince & Singh
492 (2015b) also conducted pullout tests using cylindrical specimens (100 mm in diameter and 200 mm in
493 length) with concentric rebars. It was found the bond strength of RAC of 8 mm diameter rebars was 5.25%
494 greater than that of NAC, but it was 9.75% lower with 10 mm rebars, even though the compressive strength

495 of the NAC remained constant at 51.14 MPa and 35.58 of RAC (30% less than NAC) (refer **Fig. 11a**).
496 Pandurangan et al. (2016) studied the bond strength of RAC from untreated and treated RCA. The RILEM
497 beam bond test (RILEM, 1983) with 375×180×100 mm size concrete specimen was used to evaluate the
498 bond strength of 10 mm diameter rebars. The experiment was carried out in four series: one with untreated
499 RCA, and three with RCA treated in different ways. The bond strength of RAC without treatment of RCA
500 was found to be 7.81 MPa, corresponding to 13.12 MPa of NAC, whereas the compressive strength was
501 36.96 MPa against the 42.95 MPa of NAC (see **Fig. 11b**). The bond strengths of treated RCA concrete for
502 three samples were 7%, 13%, and 24% lower respectively, compared to equivalent values of NAC. Ahlawat
503 & Ashour (2020) concluded that the bond strength of RAC (with 50% NA) dropped to 6% in the case of
504 normal concrete strength, while compressive strength decreased by 8.5%, compared to NAC. Similarly,
505 RAC with 100% RCA had an 11% lower bond strength, resulting in a 15% decrease in compressive strength
506 when compared to NAC.

507 Whilst the experimental evidence to date suggests that the bond strength of bars embedded in RAC is
508 inferior to equivalent NAC samples, the high variability and inconsistency of results indicate that additional
509 experimental research is needed to clarify the complexity of rebar debonding where splitting, pullout and/or
510 combined failures can occur. Moreover, existing studies have studied bond strength using short embedment
511 lengths (5 to 10 bar diameters), which tend to over-predict bond stresses. Results from tests on standard
512 beam-splice RAC specimens with lap splices longer than 15-20 bar diameters (e.g., Garcia et al. 2014;
513 Garcia et al. 2015; Helal et al. 2016) would enable direct comparisons of results, provide suitable data to
514 develop bond strength models, and aid eventual standardization. Moreover, analytical and numerical studies
515 on the subject are also necessary.



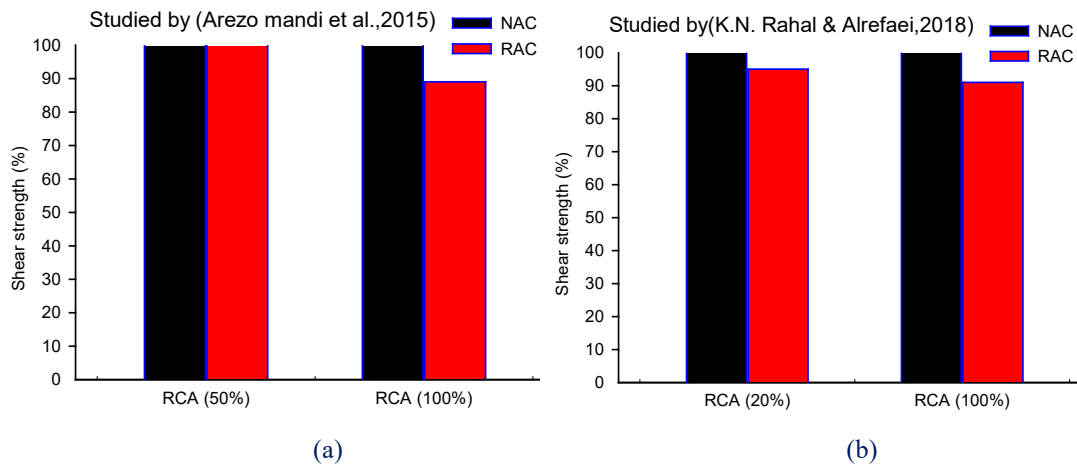
516
517

518 **Fig. 11.** Bond strengths of NAC and RAC by (a) Prince & Singh (2015b), and (b) Pandurangan et al. (2016)

519 **4.2 Shear behavior**

520 The test results by Arezoumandi et al. (2015) demonstrated that 100% RCA concrete beams had, on
 521 average, 11% lower shear strength compared to beams built with 50% RCA concrete (see Fig. 12a). This
 522 finding was consistent with the analysis conducted using parametric and nonparametric methods, which
 523 indicated that RAC beams with 100% RCA exhibited lower shear capacity compared to NAC and 50%
 524 RCA concrete beams. Notably, shear capacity did not differ significantly between NA and 50% RCA
 525 concrete beams. Additionally, a decrease in the basic mechanical properties, such as the splitting tensile
 526 strength, flexural strength, and fracture energy, was observed. Rahal & Alrefaei (2018) also investigated
 527 the shear behavior of RAC beams with reinforcements. The experimental results demonstrated that the
 528 average shear strength of RC-beams containing 20% RCA and 100% RCA decreased by only 5% and 9%,
 529 respectively, when compared to beams of NAC (refer Fig. 12a). Furthermore, the results revealed that the
 530 small RCA percentage had no effect on shear cracking patterns, critical shear fractures, longitudinal steel
 531 stresses, or mode of failure. The mid-span deflections of the beams were, however, significantly higher
 532 (25%) for 100% RCA concrete beams reinforced longitudinally and transversely than for beams reinforced
 533 simply longitudinally. On the other hand, Leelatanon et al. (2022) explored the punching shear behavior of
 534 RCA slabs. The deflections of slabs made with 100% RCA were 15% and 18% higher than that of NAC
 535 counterparts when using flexural reinforcement ratios of 1.5% and 0.8%, respectively. The test results also
 536 demonstrated that doubling the flexural rebars reduced the deflection of 100% RCA slabs by 68%.

537 Additionally, the normalized punching shear capacity exhibited differences of 6.5% and 9% between the
 538 controlled slabs and 100% RCA slabs with flexural rebars of 1.5% and 0.8%, respectively. Sahoo & Singh
 539 (2021) examined the punching shear capacity of RAC slab-column connections. The study revealed that
 540 for a given concrete compressive strength, replacing NA with 100% RCA had an insignificant effect on
 541 punching shear capacity. However, for connections with 100% RCA, there was an increase in the enveloped
 542 area (energy) by approximately 18%, 10%, and 16.6% in test specimens with concrete strengths of 28 MPa,
 543 43 MPa, and 60 MPa, respectively. Saribas et al. (2021) studied on the shear-flexure interaction in a RAC
 544 column. This study examined the impact of inelastic flexural deformation on the shear strength of columns
 545 constructed with a replacement ratio of 50% RCA. The results indicate that both NAC and RAC columns
 546 had similar seismic performances in various shear-flexure interaction scenarios. However, reducing the
 547 ratio of the transverse reinforcement can decrease the deformation capability of the columns, owing to the
 548 heightened influence of shear deformations.



549
 550
 551 **Fig. 12.** Comparison of shear strengths of NAC and RAC by (a) Arezoumandi et al. (2015), and (b) Rahal &
 552 Alrefaei (2018)

553 Overall, the results in the literature confirm that the shear strength of RAC elements is lower compared
 554 to NAC counterparts. However, some results are inconsistent and even contradictory, which can be
 555 attributed to the physical variations of the coarse RCA (Setkit et al., 2021; Leelatanon et al., 2022). The
 556 evidence also suggests that a threshold exists in the percentage of RCA after which the shear strength of
 557 RAC is significantly reduced, although that threshold is difficult to determine without tests. As a result,
 558 additional research is necessary to investigate how different RCA percentages affect the individual

559 components of concrete shear strengths (e.g., aggregate interlock and dowel action) as well as shear
560 cracking mechanisms. The latter is relevant since research has shown that the formation/development of
561 wide shear cracks can increase the deflection of concrete elements by up to 30% (Imjai et al., 2016; Imjai
562 et al., 2023b), which has implications in the service behavior of elements.

563 **4.3 Flexural and shear behavior towards seismic performance**

564 Liu et al. (2018) examined the seismic performance of RAC columns subjected to freeze-thaw cycles
565 (FTCs). Both RAC and NAC specimens exhibited flexural failure under constant and reverse cyclic load.
566 Notably, specimens with RAC made with 100% RCA displayed poor frost resistance, resulting in
567 significant loss of ductility and peak lateral load capacity during high FTCs. The study concluded that 100%
568 RCA concrete may have deficiencies in seismic performance when exposed to freeze-thaw cycles.
569 Similarly, Liu et al. (2019) tested the seismic performance of RAC columns subjected to low-cyclic lateral
570 loads. The failure process of RAC columns was comparable to that of NAC columns. This suggests that the
571 hysteretic behavior, ductility, and energy dissipation of the RAC columns satisfy the seismic requirements
572 for structural elements. Hu and Kundu (2019) subjected beam-column joints constructed with RAC made
573 with 100% RCA to quasi-static loading. The focus was on evaluating the strength, stiffness, energy
574 dissipation, damping ratio, and column compressive performance. It was found that higher axial loads on
575 RAC joints enhanced seismic performance. Secondly, an increased longitudinal reinforcement ratio
576 improved the strength but decreases the ductility, energy dissipation, and viscous damping, leading to
577 damage accumulation. Additionally, the observed shear strength of the joints was 15% higher compared to
578 the predicted strength based on prevailing codes. Therefore, Hu and Kundu concluded that RAC joints with
579 appropriate design can achieve high ductility. More recently, Zhang et al. (2021) conducted an experimental
580 investigation of the seismic performance of RAC shear walls under horizontal cyclic loads. The walls
581 showed a satisfactory performance with desirable energy dissipation, stable bearing capacity, and
582 deformation capacity. Failure in RAC walls reinforced with high-strength steel (HSS) primarily occurred
583 because of bending. However, at a 100% replacement of RCA, the RAC wall had minimal impact on
584 bearing capacity and energy dissipation, resulting in a slight reduction in ductility. Conversely, increasing

585 the strength of RAC using ultra-high-strength steel (UHSS) enhanced the peak bearing capacity by 68%
586 compared to walls with HSS reinforcement.

587 The experimental evidence to date suggests that the use of RAC in structural elements is feasible.
588 However, protective measures should be implemented so that RAC structures meet long-term durability
589 requirements. This is relevant in Southeast Asia, where the hot and humid weather quickly corrodes the
590 internal steel reinforcement of structures. A potential solution could be the use of fiber reinforced polymer
591 (FRP) reinforcement, but additional research is needed to develop guidelines for FRP-reinforced RAC
592 structures. Further research is also needed to investigate the behavior of RAC structures exposed to
593 aggressive environments (e.g., near coastal areas or wet–dry cycles).

594 **5. Needs and approaches for improving the quality of RAC members**

595 From a comprehensive analysis of previous studies and test results, the need to enhance the properties
596 of RAC arises from the low engineering properties of RCA. These deficiencies hinder the overall
597 performance and durability of RAC in structural applications, thus necessitating improvements to bridge
598 the gap between the properties of RAC and those of NAC. Numerous studies (González-Taboada et al.,
599 [2016](#); Mohanta & Murmu, [2022](#); Verian et al., [2018](#); Wang et al., [2021](#)) have proposed different methods
600 and techniques to enhance the properties of recycled aggregate concrete prior to and during mixing, as
601 discussed in Section [3.8](#).

602 The findings confirm that most improvements on RAC properties have been proposed as pre-
603 construction treatments, whereas post-construction solutions are scarce. However, RAC (as a relatively
604 low-strength LS concrete) could be externally strengthened to increase its capacity. Various techniques
605 have been proposed to improve the capacity and ductility of LS RC (reinforced concrete) columns built
606 using NAC. These techniques include external confinement methods, such as FRP jackets (Geng et al.,
607 [1998](#); Ilki et al., [2008](#); Raffoul et al., [2019](#)), post-tensioned metal strap (PTMS) confinement (Imjai et al.,
608 [2018](#)). These techniques and materials have been widely used to strengthen weak RC members made with
609 NAC because they enhance the load-carrying capacity, ductility, and structural integrity. FRP composite
610 applications (Cao et al., [2018](#); Ghobarah & El-Amoury, [2005](#); Parvin et al., [2010](#); Sezen, [2012](#); Zhou et al.,

611 [2015](#)) have proven effective in increasing the capacity and ductility of LS RC columns. For instance, Ilki
612 et al. [\(2008\)](#) have shown that, compared to unconfined columns, FRP-confined LS RC columns with
613 circular, square, and rectangular sections have higher capacities of up to 3, 1.9, and 1.4 times, respectively.
614 Previous studies have also shown the effectiveness of PTMS confinement in improving the behavior of
615 deficient normal-strength concrete elements (Helal et al., [2016](#); Garcia et al. [2017](#); Ma et al., [2019](#);
616 Moghaddam et al., [2010](#)). Likewise, this technique has proven effective at enhancing the capacity and
617 ductility of normal and high-strength concrete columns (Awang et al., [2012](#); Chau-Khun et al., [2015](#);
618 Hoong-Pin et al., [2016](#); Ma et al., [2016](#)). The effective implementation of these methods as post-
619 construction treatments can notably enhance the axial and shear capacities of reinforced concrete members.

620 The review revealed that limited research has investigated the use of strengthening techniques on RAC
621 elements. In particular, the effect of external confinement on RAC columns was investigated in only two
622 studies that applied passive confinement (Han et al., [2020](#); Ma et al., [2022](#)). Other cost-effective
623 strengthening techniques (such as PTMS) able to apply active confinement to RAC elements have not been
624 explored. The use of PTMS in Southeast Asia is expected to lead to more efficient and cost-effective
625 solutions compared to other strengthening methods such as FRP jackets, and thus additional research is
626 recommended in this area. Moreover, practical models (e.g., Huang et al., [2019](#)) are also necessary for the
627 accurate prediction of creep and fatigue performance of RAC elements. Due to the high seismic risk in
628 some Southeast Asian countries (e.g., Indonesia, the Philippines) further research could also investigate the
629 use of RAC components as structural control devices or energy dissipation dampers (e.g., Wang et al.,
630 [2023a](#); Wang et al, [2023b](#); Zhang et al., [2023](#)).

631 It should be noted that past research has also investigated the reuse of other C&DW as recycled
632 aggregates (RA) in concrete, including RA such as steel slags (Chen et al., [2020](#); Gencil et al., [2021](#); Lai
633 et al., [2021](#); Papachristoforou et al., [2020](#)), ceramic waste (Gonzalez-Corominas & Etxeberria, [2014](#);
634 Nepomuceno et al., [2018](#); Ray et al., [2021](#)), refractory brick aggregates (Cachim, [2009](#); Hou et al., [2021](#);
635 Islam & Shahjalal, [2021](#); Zhao et al., [2018](#)), glass waste (Harrison et al., [2020](#); Pauzi et al., [2021](#)) and clay
636 aggregates (Junaid et al., [2022](#); Lotfy et al., [2016](#); Nahhab & Ketab, [2020](#)). However, this sort of RA is

637 outside the scope of this article and therefore future research should investigate the use of these alternatives
638 in construction.

639 **6. Conclusions and further recommendations**

640 **6.1 Conclusions**

641 This article presents a comprehensive review on the use of recycled concrete aggregate (RCA) and
642 recycled aggregate concrete (RAC) in construction, with emphasis on structural applications and
643 identification of challenges and opportunities of RCA/RAC materials in Southeast Asia. For the first time
644 and as a first step towards potential standardization of RCA/RAC in Southeast Asia, the article examines
645 the basic properties of RCA, including absorption values, bulk density, specific gravity, adhered mortar,
646 abrasion, crushing, and impact values. Likewise, a thorough summary of the properties of RAC reported in
647 the existing literature is provided, with special focus on compressive strength, tensile strength, and flexural
648 strength. Various strategies to improve the performance of RAC elements are also proposed and discussed.
649 The main findings and shortcomings of previous investigations are critically discussed, and further research
650 needs are identified. Based on the review and laboratory tests presented in this article, following conclusions
651 are drawn:

- 652 • Southeast Asia is the third largest consumer of aggregates in the world, with a huge potential to
653 recycle and recover RCA from construction and demolition waste (C&DW). Nonetheless, hindrances
654 exist due to weak regulatory frameworks and lack of standardization for the use of RCA and RAC in
655 construction. Good practices and experience from other countries (Japan, India, China) could be
656 adapted and adopted to encourage and extend the used of RCA/RAC in the region.
- 657 • The physical and mechanical properties of RCA can differ significantly from those of natural
658 aggregates (NA). Compared to NA, RCA has higher absorption levels, adhered mortar, abrasion,
659 crushing, and impact values, whereas it has lower specific gravity bulk density. Better
660 recycling/recovering methods can be used to enhance such properties with different degrees of
661 success, Likewise, characterizing C&DW and RCA through standard tests is necessary to realize the
662 potential of RCA and RAC in construction.

- 663 • Tests at the material level shows that, compared to NAC, RAC has lower compressive, splitting
664 tensile, and flexural strengths (ranging from 10% to 26%), depending on the level of RCA
665 replacement. However, inconsistencies still in experimental results exist, particularly when using
666 large amounts of RCA (e.g., 100% replacement level of NA).
- 667 • RAC structural members exhibit lower axial compression, shear, and bond behaviours, with
668 reductions ranging from 6% to 24%. However, in some cases RAC elements have similar behaviours
669 to NAC counterparts. The experimental evidence suggests that a threshold exists in the percentage of
670 RCA after which the shear and flexural strengths of RAC are significantly reduced, although such
671 threshold is difficult to determine without tests.
- 672 • The use of large amounts of RCA (e.g., 100% replacement level of NA) to build RAC structural
673 elements has led to notable inconsistencies in test results. Moreover, protective measures should be
674 implemented so that such RAC structures meet long-term durability requirements. This is relevant in
675 Southeast Asia, where the hot and humid weather quickly corrodes the internal steel reinforcement
676 of structures.

677 **6.2 Further recommendations and research needs**

- 678 • RCA should be subjected to quality control including proper screening and crushing, as well as to
679 removal of impurities and adhered mortar to enhance its quality. The use of admixtures can also
680 improve the properties of RCA. Southeast Asia should take advantage of low production costs to
681 position as producers of high volumes of standardized RCA. However, the additional costs of any
682 treatment should be outweighed by an improvement in the final properties of hardened RAC. Future
683 research should explore the use of AI algorithms to optimize the design of RAC mixes.
- 684 • Whilst the test results suggest that the bond strength of bars embedded in RAC is inferior to
685 equivalent NAC samples, the high variability and inconsistency of results indicate that additional
686 experimental research is needed to clarify the complexity of rebar debonding where splitting, pullout
687 and/or combined failures can occur. Moreover, existing studies have studied bond strength using
688 short embedment lengths (5 to 10 bar diameters), which are known to over-predict bond stresses.
689 Results from tests on standard beam-splice RAC specimens with lap splices longer than 15-20 bar
690 diameters would enable direct comparisons of results, provide suitable data to develop bond strength

691 models, and aid eventual standardization. Moreover, analytical and numerical studies on the subject
692 are also necessary.

- 693 • Overall, the results in the literature confirm that the shear strength of RAC elements is lower
694 compared to NAC counterparts. However, some results are inconsistent and even contradictory,
695 which can be attributed to the physical variations of the coarse RCA. As a result, additional research
696 is necessary to investigate how different RCA percentages affect the individual components of
697 concrete shear strengths (particularly aggregate interlock and dowel action), as well as shear cracking
698 mechanisms. The latter is relevant since the deflection of concrete elements can increased by up to
699 30% due to shear cracks, which has implications in the service behavior of RAC elements.
- 700 • Although the use of RAC in structural elements in Southeast Asia is feasible, durability issues such
701 as corrosion of internal steel reinforcement need to be addressed through additional tests. A potential
702 solution to reduce corrosion could be the use of fiber reinforced polymer (FRP) reinforcement, but
703 additional research is needed to develop guidelines for FRP-reinforced RAC structures. Further
704 research is also needed to investigate the behavior of RAC structures exposed to aggressive
705 environments (e.g., near coastal areas or wet–dry cycles), as well as creep and fatigue loads.
- 706 • Further research should also examine the use of cost-effective strengthening techniques such as Post
707 Tensioned Metal Straps (PTMS). PTMS can apply active confinement to RAC elements and increase
708 their capacity and ductility. The use of PTMS in Southeast Asia is expected to lead to more efficient
709 and cost-effective solutions compared to other strengthening methods such as FRP jackets.

710 Implementing the above recommendations can address some of the drawbacks related to RCA and
711 enhance the overall performance and suitability of RAC in structural applications.

712

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1137

1138 **Appendix**

1139 <https://youtu.be/7dPZ93q5FWs?si=d7DnJo0pcy6ro2hT>

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