



AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY ON COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF PAVEMENTS BY USING NON-DESTRUCTIVE TECHNIQUE(NDT) & DESTRUCTIVE TECHNIQUE METHODS

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Abstract: *The objective of this study is to estimate the compressive strength of pavement made by using chemical admixture polycarboxile ether (PCE SP) on Portland Slag Cement(PSC) of three different water cement ratio's, i.e., 0.55, 0.45 & 0.35, by using the most popular Non Destructive Test (NDT) method RH (Rebound Hammer). In assessing compressive strength of pavement, in this study prepared, cured and subjected to RH (Rebound Hammer) at the end of 14 & 28 days. The destructive tests are also be done for same specimens after completion of non-destructive tests to compare the results. The obtained results shows that slight difference between OPC, PPC and PSC. But the maximum strength obtained for OPC for all w/c ratios. The final mix designs for w/c ratios of 0.55, 0.45 and 0.35 are M25, M30 & M35 by taking average compressive strength from the graphs*

INTRODUCTION

Concrete technology has developed at a fast pace indeed during the last two decades and material can be determined and controlled by means performance has been significantly improved. It is difficult to maintain strength of concrete and increase its durability, Concrete is a brittle material and if uncracked any reinforcing placed within the concrete matrix is redundant but 90% of the time concrete will fatigue and show signs of cracking but to where is hard to predict but how much it will crack of reinforcement. What type of reinforcing and the material properties of the reinforcing play a major role in the redistribution of these stresses and how significant the crack widths will be. This project undergoes to find compressive strength of different types of concretes.

Based on the principle that the rebound of an elastic mass depends on the hardness of practical and engineering value. This subject has received a growing attention during recent years, especially

the quality characterisation of damaged structure made of concrete using NDT testing.

The advantages of Non-Destructive tests as reduction in the labour consumption of testing (Malhotra 1976), a decrease in labour consumption of preparatory work, a smaller amount of structural damage, a possibility of testing concrete strength in structures where cores cannot be drilled and application of less expensive testing equipment, as compared to core testing. These advantages are of no value if the results are not reliable, representative, and as close as possible to the actual strength of the tested part of the structure. Rebound hammer is useful to detect changes in concrete characteristics over time, such as hydration of cement, for the purpose of removing forms or shoring. This test is the surface against which the mass impinges.

The test procedure is described in IS:13311 Part 2: 1992 and BS1881 202 (1986). It is portable, easy-to-use, low-cost, and can quickly cover large areas but it is valuable only as a qualitative tool since it measures the relative

surface hardness of the concrete. Other tests, such as a compression test, must be used to determine the actual strength of the concrete. The rebound measurement is governed by several factors including the size, age, and finish of the concrete, as well as the aggregate type and the moisture content. A rebound hammer will give a false reading if used over exposed aggregate.

Longitudinal ultrasonic waves are an attractive tool for investigating concrete. Such waves have the highest velocity so it is simple to separate them from the other wave modes. The equipment is portable, usable in the field for in situ testing, is truly non-destructive and has been successful for testing materials other than concrete. The ultrasonic pulse velocity tester is the most commonly used one in practice. Test is described in (IS:13311 Part 1; 1992 and BS1881-203; 1986). Nevertheless, there are intrinsic and practical factors that may interfere with the determination of concrete strength by ultrasonic means. Concrete is a mixture of four materials: Portland cement, coarse aggregate, fine aggregate and water. This complexity makes the behaviour of ultrasonic waves in concrete highly irregular, which in turn hinders non-destructive testing. In the view of the complexities of the problem it would appear to be overly optimistic to attempt to formulate an ultrasonic test method for the determination of concrete strength. However, considering the seriousness of the infrastructure problem and the magnitude of the cost of rehabilitation, major advancement is desperately needed to improve the current situation. For instance, it has been demonstrated repeatedly that the standard ultrasonic method using longitudinal waves for testing concrete can estimate the concrete strength only with ± 20 percent accuracy under laboratory conditions (Popovics 1998). The use of UPV and rebound hammer has been

experimentally investigated by inducing voids in the sample by Lorenzi (2009) and results showed the NDT data can be used to make trustworthy guess about concrete condition with damaging structural elements, if the defects are sizeable enough. The effect of admixture, different water cement ratio, its composition and ages of concrete can create uncertainty in the strength of concrete by Non-destructive Testing.

The use of Non-Destructive test has been discussed individually, but it is possible to use it more than one method at a time. This is advantageous when a variation in properties of concrete affects the test results in opposite direction. The increase in the moisture content increases the ultrasonic pulse velocity but decreases the rebound number recorded by rebound hammer (Bellander 1991).

Recommendations on the use of the combined use of non-destructive testing have been prepared by RILEM (1993). When variation in properties of concrete affect the test results, the use of one method alone would not be sufficient to evaluate the required property. Therefore, the use of more than one method yields more reliable results. Of a number of purely non-destructive tests, the rebound hammer and the ultrasonic pulse velocity combinations are the most commonly used. Attempts have been done to relate rebound

number and ultrasonic pulse velocity to concrete strength as demonstrated (Qasrawi 2000, De Almeida 1991, and Khaeder 1998).

The influence of concrete materials, mix, workmanship related variables such as intentionally induced flaws, improper compaction and different lengths of moist curing on Rebound No. and UPV is studied. The aim is to develop correlation curves between compressive strength

and NDT testing and to develop multiple regression curves from the results of UPV and Rebound Hammer in determining the compressive strength of concrete for better assessment.

1.2 REBOUNDHAMMER:-(BSEN 12504-2)

At the end of each curing days, the pavements were removed from curing tank and allowed to drain and they were subjected to Rebound Hammer. This reading is very sensitive to local variation of the concrete, mainly to the aggregate particles to the surface. There is no. of readings are taken and average recorded. **BS EN 12504-2** states that not less than nine readings are taken over an area not exceeding **300mm²**, with the impact points not less than 25mm from each or from an edge. The test was carried out at the **‘Concrete Technology Lab Civil Engineering at AITAM, Tekkali’**.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

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- To study the strength properties of concrete along with chemical admixture of different water-cement ratio.
- Calculate the percentage of chemical admixture for different water-cement ratios i.e, 0.55, 0.44 and 0.35.
- To compare the strength properties of NDT and DT.

LITERATURE REVIEW

James Hale et.al paper reviews that the most frequent non-destructive testing (NDT) procedures of concrete structures used by the structural engineering industry are reviewed in James Hale's study. The principles of non-destructive testing (NDT) methodologies are investigated in terms of their potential, limitations, inspection procedures, and interpretations. The elements that influence the success

of NDT approaches are reviewed, as well as strategies for mitigating their impact. Standard guidelines for the application and interpretation of the discussed NDT methods are referred to. Concrete non-destructive testing (NDT) is gaining popularity as a method of assessing the strength, homogeneity, durability, and other qualities of existing concrete buildings. Lack of understanding of construction materials and NDT technologies contributed to NDT perceptions of inadequacy. The purpose of this work is to address these concerns by identifying and explaining the most often used successful NDT methods for concrete buildings.

Tarsem Lal et.al research looked into the accuracy of non-destructive tests for hardened concrete strength. Two groups of test specimens in the shape of 150mmX150mmX150mm cubes were employed in this study. The initial set of specimens were used to create calibration curves for the rebound hammer and ultrasonic pulse velocity equipment that were utilised in the test. The results obtained from the calibration curves of the rebound hammer and ultrasonic pulse velocity tester were compared to those acquired from the compressive testing equipment with the second group of test specimens. At the age of 28 days, all of the test samples were examined. A statistical study was performed to determine if there was a link between the CTM test and non-destructive tests. According to the testing, the difference in results between a fully calibrated hammer and a CTM is between 2 and 7%, while the difference between a properly calibrated USPV and a CTM is between 7 and 17%. By sampling samples from the same batch and curing them in the same conditions, this conclusion was reached. The results strongly suggest that non-destructive testing be used after correctly calibrating the device.

N. R. Chandank et.al The authors attempted to describe methodology, benefits and drawbacks, as well as current work in the field of non-destructive techniques (NDT), such as ultrasonic pulse velocity (UPV) and rebound hammer (RH). These methods allow for the low-cost evaluation of wider areas of concrete members while also providing more information than eye inspection. The effect of the w/c ratio, casting process, casting direction, and cement dose on NDT readings has been documented. The purpose of this study is to present UPV, RH, and the elements that influence the results. The precaution that must be taken when doing NDT tests are also discussed

D. Dahiru This is an evaluation of the two most popular Non-Destructive Testing (NDT) methods – Ultrasonic Pulse Velocity (UPV) and Rebound Hammer (RH) in assessing compressive strength of concrete. 150mmx150mmx150mm concrete cube samples were prepared, cured and subjected to UPV and RH tests at the end of: 1, 3, 7, 14, 21, 28, 56 and 90 days. The same samples were, then subjected to destructive (compressive strength) test. Correlation test, multiple regression analysis, graphs and visual inspection were used to analyze the data obtained. Results indicated increase in rebound hammer from 24 rebounds on the day to 43 rebounds on the 90 days; while the result of UPV decreases from 43.10 th Micro-Sec. on the day, to 35.90 Micro-Sec. on the 90 days of curing. Regression Model 22 which combines UPV with RH gave the following results: 10.93N/mm, 13.99N/mm, 25.23 22222N/mm 29.72N/mm, 33.45N/mm, 33.32N/mm, 35.45N/mm and 36.75N/mm for 1, 3, 14, 21, 28, 56 and 90 curing days, respectively. The conclusion drawn from the analysis, is that combination of rebound hammer and UPV methods is effective in assessing compressive

strength of concrete. Hence it is recommended that for more accurate result, rebound hammer should be combined with UPV testing concrete, and that the following formula should be used = $45.80 + 0.88 X - 1.31 X$.

Y. B. I. Shaheen, B. Eltaly and M. Kameel The primary goal of this research is to look into the use of ferrocement concrete in the construction of water supply pipes. As a first step toward studying the performance of this type of pipe under impact load, the current work compares the performance of ferrocement pipe and reinforced concrete pipe under static load. The current study presents experimental models of ferrocement and concrete water pipes, as well as numerical models based on the finite element method. Using the ANSYS Package, finite element models were created to simulate the behaviour of the pipe through

nonlinear response and up to failure. In addition, the results of the theoretical and experimental models are presented and discussed.

Ali Poorarbabi, Mohammadreza Ghasemi, Mehdi Azhdary Moghaddam Existing structure assessment, particularly compressive strength evaluation of concrete structures, is an important topic for engineers working in construction in the majority of industrial countries. Non-destructive tests (NDT), particularly ultrasonic pulse velocity and rebound number tests, are widely used to predict the compressive strength of existing concrete structures. This study conducted an experimental programme on concrete specimens using non-destructive tests such as ultrasonic pulse velocity and rebound number, and then an efficient approach known as Response Surface Methodology (RSM) was used to estimate the compressive strength of concrete with greater

accuracy than other models available in the literature. The use of a single NDT as well as a combination of them is being investigated.

The results demonstrated that ultrasonic pulse velocity is the best NDT test at the early ages when used in the RSM process.

O.D. Atoyebi, O.P. Ayanrinde, J. Oluwafemi, The compressive strength is one of the most important concrete properties for structural concrete design or redesign because it provides information on the characteristics of concrete. This strength measure is obtained through standardised crushing tests on cast cubes; the cubes are manufactured on-site alongside the construction of concrete elements; however, they are not available for strength testing of existing buildings, necessitating the use of non-destructive test methods. Schmidt's Rebound

Hammer is a nondestructive test that uses the rebound index to determine the compressive strength of concrete. Surface hardness tests were performed on various concrete mixes and compared to cube compressive strength tests. Changes in one variable explained by changes in another, as measured by R-squared, are 93.79 percent, 99.42 percent, 86.8 percent, 1 percent, and 98.5 percent for Mix 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. It should be noted that more than one non-destructive test should be used for proper results.

Duna Samson, Omoniyi, Tope Moses This paper examines the relationship and comparison of a Destructive and a Non-Destructive Method (Rebound Hammer) of testing the compressive strength of concrete. Concrete cubes measuring 100mm x 100mm x 100mm were made with concrete mixes containing 20N/mm², 30N/mm², and 35N/mm² and cured for 7, 14, and 28 days. A total of 90 cubes were created and used in the research. **MINITAB**

15 was used to perform regression analysis on the

data in order to establish linear mathematical relationships between compressive strength and rebound number. The dependent and independent variables were the compressive strength and rebound number, respectively. The results revealed that the coefficient of correlation of all proposed models ranged from 91.6 to 97.9 percent, indicating a perfect relationship between compressive strength and rebound number. For proposed concrete cured at 7, the average percentage of residual error was determined to be 1.78 percent, 1.29 percent, and 1.32 percent.

Krzysztof Schabowicz This issue was proposed and organised to present recent advances in the field of non-

destructive testing of materials in civil engineering. As a result, the articles highlighted in this editorial deal with various aspects of non-destructive testing of various materials in civil engineering, ranging from building materials to building structures. The current development trend in non-destructive testing of materials in civil engineering is primarily concerned with the detection of flaws and defects in concrete elements and structures, and acoustic methods predominate in this field. As in medicine, the trend is toward developing test equipment that allows one to see inside the tested element and materials. Interesting findings with implications for building practises were obtained.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 GENERAL

Experimental investigation was planned to provide sufficient information about the strength characteristics

3.2 MATERIALS USED

3.2.1 CEMENT

Cement is a binder, a substance that sets and hardens and can bind other materials together. The word "cement" can be traced back to the Roman term opus

caementicium, used to describe masonry resembling modern concrete that was made from crushed rock with burnt lime as binder. The volcanic ash and pulverized bricks supplements that were added to the burnt lime to obtain a hydraulic binder, were referred to as *cementum*, *cimentum*, *camentum* and *cementum*.

Cement used in construction can be characterized as being either hydraulic or non-hydraulic, depending upon the ability of the cement to set in the presence of water (see hydraulic and non-hydraulic lime plaster).

Non-hydraulic cement will not set in wet conditions or underwater: rather, it sets as it dries and reacts with carbon dioxide in the air. It can be attacked by some aggressive chemicals after setting.

Hydraulic cements (e.g., Portland cement) set and become adhesive due to a chemical reaction between the drying ingredients and water. The chemical reaction in mineral hydrates that are not very water-soluble and so are quite durable in water and safe from chemical attack. This follows setting in wet conditions or ground water and further protects the hardened materials from chemical attack. The chemical process for hydraulic cement found by ancient Romans used volcanic ash.

The most important uses of cement are as a component in the production of mortar in masonry, and of cement, a combination of cement and aggregate to form a strong building material.

3.2.2 PORTLAND CEMENT

Portland cement is far by the most common type of cement in general use around the world.

This cement is made by heating limestone (calcium carbonate) with other material (such as clay) to 1450°C in a kiln, in a process known as calcination, whereby a molecule of carbon dioxide is liberated from

the calcium carbonate to form calcium oxide, or quicklime, which is then blended with the other materials that have been included in the mix to form calcium silicates and the other cementation compounds. The resulting hard substance, called 'clinker' is then ground with a small amount of gypsum into a powder to make 'ordinary Portland cement', the most commonly used type of cement (often referred to as OPC). Portland cement is a basic ingredient of a concrete, mortar and non-specialty grout. The most common use for Portland cement is in the production of concrete is a composite material consisting of aggregate (gravel and sand), cement, and water. As a construction material, concrete can be cast in almost any shape desired, and once hardened, can become a structural (load bearing) element. Portland cement may be grey or white.

3.2.3 POZZALANA SLAG CEMENT

Slag cement, or ground granulated blast-furnace slag has been used in concrete projects in the United States for over a century. Earlier usage of slag cement in Europe and elsewhere demonstrates that long-term performance is enhanced in many ways. Based on these early experiences, modern designers have found that these improved durability characteristics help further reduce life-cycle costs and lower maintenance costs.

Using slag cement to replace a portion of portland cement in a concrete mixture is a useful method to make concrete better and more consistent. Among the measurable improvements are:

- Better concrete workability
- Easier finishability
- Higher compressive and flexural strengths
- Lower permeability
- Improved resistance to aggressive chemicals
- More consistent

- plastic and hardened properties
- Lighter color

When iron is manufactured using a blast furnace, the furnace is continuously charged from the top with oxides, fluxing material, and fuel. Two products—slag and iron—collect in the bottom of the hearth. Molten slag floats on top of the molten iron; both are tapped separately.

The molten iron is sent to the steel producing facility, while the molten slag is diverted to a granulator. This process, known as granulation, is the rapid quenching with water of the molten slag into a raw material called granules. Rapid cooling prohibits the formation of crystals and forms glassy, non-metallic, silicates and aluminosilicates of calcium.

These granules are dried and then ground to a suitable fineness, the result of which is slag cement. The granules can also be incorporated as an ingredient in the manufacture of blended portland cement.

3.2.4 TYPES OF PORTLAND CEMENT:-

The following forms of Portland cement can be further categorized into

1. Ordinary Portland cement
2. Portland pozzolanic cement
3. Portland slag cement
4. Rapid hardening Portland cement
5. Low heat Portland cement
6. White or colored Portland cement
7. Sulphate resisting Portland cement
8. Water-repellent Portland cement
9. Portland blast furnace cement

TABLE 1: CHEMICAL COMPOSITIONS OF OPC, PPC and PSC

Compound	OPC	PSC
CaO	62-63.0	35-38.0
SiO ₂	18.5-19.2	29-32

Al ₂ O ₃	4.5-6.5	4.5-5.5
Fe ₂ O ₃	3.5-5.3	3.3-5.5
MgO	0.6-3.1	3.5-4
SO ₃	1.3-1.6	2.4-2.8
Loss of ignition	3.5	5

TABLE 2: PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF CEMENT

Physical Properties	OPC	PSC
Fineness	7.2	6.8
Normal Consistency (%)	32	32
Specific Gravity	3.15	2.85
Initial Setting Time	135 Min	124 Min
Final Setting Time	230 Min	224 Min

3.3 Test on Cement

Tests conducted on Cement are as follows:-

- 1) Fineness
- 2) Normal Consistency
- 3) Setting time
- 4) Soundness
- 5) Compressive Strength
- 6) Specific Gravity

3.3.1 Fineness

Cement fineness is a cement property that implies cement particle volume and a certain surface area. The hydration rate determines the fineness of cement. Fine concrete reacts more rapidly with water and increases the rate of strength growth and hydration heat. The improved fineness increases the precise surface area and the water responds better. The improvement in strength is therefore also faster, but the ultimate strength remains unchanged. IS Codes that prescribe only the limited precision values that are needed for various cement forms. Fineness can be measured with the

aid of the air permeability test, either by the particular surface or through the actual sieving. 100g of cement is hand-sieved by 90 μ IS 7 for 15 minutes to ensure the correct fineness. A cylindrical frame of 150 mm - 200 mm nominal diameter, 40 mm - 100 mm depth with a 90 μ grid sieve of woven stainless steel is used in the evaluation. It has a solid, durable, non-corrodible cylinders. In order to prevent loss of material during sieving, a tray fitting underneath the strapping and fitting above it shall be given. A trained and skilled technician conducts the screening process manually. The residue limits for OPC should be less than 10%.



Fig 1: IS 90 μ Sieve

3.3.2 Normal consistency

This measure does not have a consistency criterion

for cement itself, but rather it specifies the quantity of water that is added for other measurements, such as initial setting time, final setting time and solidity. The standard consistency of a cement paste is defined as that which enables the Vicat plunger to penetrate the bottom of the Vicat mould to a point of 5 mm to 7 mm while measuring the cement paste. This protocol for the experiment is given below:

Prepare a paste with a weighted volume of potable or purified water in weighed volumes, be careful to calculate neither less than 3 minutes but more than 5 minutes, and the measuring must be done before any evidence of setting takes place. The experiment is conducted in the following manner: The period to estimate must be measured from the moment water is applied to the dry cement before the mould is filled. Cover this paste with the Vicat mould, the mould on a non-porous tray. Once the mould has been filled completely, the paste surface is glued and the top of the mould levelled. The air may be removed from the mould somewhat. For gauging, clean instruments must be used. The hand of the operator and the blade of the gauging tool are used for filling the mould alone. Place the test block in the mould with the non-porous pad, under the plunger rod; lower the dip softly to the test block surface and release rapidly, allowing the dip to fall into the paste. This procedure is done right after the mould has been filled. Prepare test pastes with different water percentages and test as stated above until the amount of water required to make the usual consistency is defined.

Fig2: Normal Consistency Test

3.3.3 Setting Time

The time taken to reinforce the cement paste to a given consistency indicates the time required. Two

important time limits are important for the cement environment:

1. Initial setting time
2. Final setting time

Initial setting time

By example, it is time to apply water at a time when the paste begins to lose plasticity. The test is done with the Vicat unit. For the estimation of the penetration, a needle of volume 1 mm² is used. To render the paste, the examination is completed at 27±2°C and water equal to 0,85P is applied. The needle is lowered and tightened until it reaches the top surface of the mould. This releases the needle easily and tracks penetration. It should go down and hit the ground first. The penetration of the needle will decrease as time passes and the paste

stiffens. The measurement is repeated until the needle is 5mm (+0.5mm) above the mould.

Original setting time is named this time. Once again, the mould does not penetrate the needle at the same position such that it is pushed a bit.

Fig3: Initial Setting Time Test

3.3.4 Final setting time

It is time to use water so paste completely lacks its plasticity. The previous test is replicated, but the needle is altered. The penetration is wider than 0.5mm. The first impression is the main needle, and the second impression is the circular tip. This needle is fitted in a special way. However, when penetration is less than 0,5 mm, only one major needle sensation occurs. Therefore, the last set-up is where the penetration is less than 0,5 mm or where the ring of the cement paste is not spectacular.



Fig4: Final Setting Time Test

3.3.5 Soundness

This test is conducted to find out the presence of excess unburnt lime in the cement. Due to this lime, cracks may develop in the set cement because of increase in volume. This free or hard burnt lime hydrates very slowly and some of it will hydrate only when the cement has already set. Due to this delayed hydration of lime, expansion will take place in the set cement. Since no space is available for expansion after setting of cement, this expansion causes cracks in the set cement which is called unsoundness of cement. The test to find out the expansion due to free lime will indicate the presence of free lime and limit of expansion will be a guiding factor for the soundness of cement. The cement will be considered sound if the expansion is within the permissible limits otherwise it will indicate unsoundness. The expansion is measured using Le Chatelier Apparatus and it should be limited to **10mm**. Cement paste is prepared in the mould and filled with water 0.78xP (standard constancy) by weight of cement. It has a width of 30 mm, a diameter of 30 mm. Glass plates are placed at the top and at the bottom after filling of the mould. The assembly is then mounted in a temperature in water. From 27 to 32°C. The difference be

etweenthepointersisregisteredon the extreme end after 24 hours (x). The mounting is again immersed

inwaterandinanother30minutes,waterisheatedtothe boilingpoint. Itisheldfor3hours in boiling water. Again, at the extreme end the distance between points is noted (y). This is clearly greater than x because free chalk extension has already arisen because of boiling water. Free lime net expansion = $y - x$.

Fig5: Soundness Test

3.3.6 Compressive Strength

Compressive cement strength is measured by a compressive strength test on the compacted cylindrical pieces using a regular tamping procedure.

For cement mortar preparation, regular sand is used. Vibration unit, tamping rod, pavement mould, balancing the equipment used to measure. The Rectangular mould volume is 70.6 to 70.6 to 70.6 to 70.6 cm. Take 200 grams of cement and 600 grams of normal sand and dry fully. Then apply $[(P/4)+3]$ % of water to the dry mix of cement and sand (with normal consistency P) and mix vigorously for at least 3 minutes to produce a consistent colour mixture. If a consistent colour of the mixture in 4

minutes does not produce the mixture rejects sand and mixes fresh amounts of cement, sand and water in order to obtain a uniform colour. Compose and vibrate the mould at a required speed of 12000 ± 400 per minute at a complete compaction with whole amounts of mortar using a fitting hopper mounted to the top of the mould. Remove the mould from the press and hold

for 24 hours at a temperature of 27 ± 20 C and a relative moisture content of 90%. Remove the

Rectangular from the mould and immerse it in fresh, cle

an water at the end of 24 hours. And during checking would the Rectangular be removed from the bath. Place the test Rectangular without packaging between the Rectangular and the test plates on the compressive test.



Fig6: Cement Cylinder for Compressive Strength Test

Apply the load continuously and evenly at a rate of 140 K g/cm²/min starting from zero. The compressive power of the specimen in the Contact Region (A) is measured as the ultimate load (P).

$$\text{Compressive strength} = P/A$$

3.3.7 Specific Gravity

Normally, specific gravity is known as a ratio of the weight of a certain material volume to the weight of equivalent water volume. Kerosene that does not react with cement is used to assess the basic gravity of cement. Basic gravity bottles with capacity of 50 mL, kerosene, weighing balance and weighing container and sample that need to be checked are used for the specific gravity study. The empty weight is first registered and classified as w_1 . Then, up to a third of its volume, the particular gravity bottle is filled with kerosene and then

weighed and reported as w_4 in weight. Then the particular Gravity Bottle is filled with cement and weighed and reported as w_2 . Then you fill the remaining two thirds with kerosene and then weigh the bottle and weight w_3 . The following theorem then indicates the basic gravity of cement.



Fig7: Specific Gravity Test on Cement

3.4 AGGREGATES

Aggregates are inter granular materials such as sand, gravel, or crushed stone that, along with water and Portland cement, are an essential ingredient in concrete. For a good concrete mix, aggregates need to be clean, hard, strong particles free of absorbed chemicals or coatings of clay and other fine materials that could cause the deterioration of concrete. Aggregates, which account for 60 to 75 percent of the total volume of concrete, are divided into two distinct categories- fine and coarse. Fine aggregates generally consist of natural sand or crushed stone with most particles passing through a 3/8-inch sieve. Coarse aggregate are any particles greater than 0.19 inch, but generally range between 3/8 and 1.5 inches in diameter.

Natural gravel and sand are usually dug from a pit, river, lake, or seabed. Crushed aggregate is produced by crushing quarry rock, boulders, cobbles, or large size gravel. Recycled concrete is a viable source of aggregate and has been satisfactorily used in granular sub-bases, soil-cement, and in new concrete.

Aggregates strongly influence concrete's freshly mixed and hardened properties, mixture proportions, and economy. Consequently, selection of aggregate is an important process. Although some variation in aggregate properties is expected, characteristics that are considered include

- Grading
- Durability

- Particle shape and surface texture
- Abrasion and skid resistance
- Unit weight and voids
- Absorption and surface moisture

3.4.1 (A) COARSE AGGREGATES

Coarse aggregate are particles greater than 4.75 mm, but generally range between 9.5 mm to

37.5 mm in diameter. They can either be from primary, secondary or recycled sources. Primary, or virgin, aggregate is either land-marine-won. Gravel is a coarse marine-won aggregate; land-won coarse aggregate includes gravel and crushed rock. Gravels constitute the majority of coarse aggregate used in concrete with

used stone making up most of the remainder. Secondary aggregate are materials which are the by-

product of extractive operations and are derived from a very wide range of materials. Recycled concrete is a variable source of aggregate and has been satisfactorily used in granular sub-bases, soil-cement and in new concrete. Recycled aggregate is classified into two ways, as

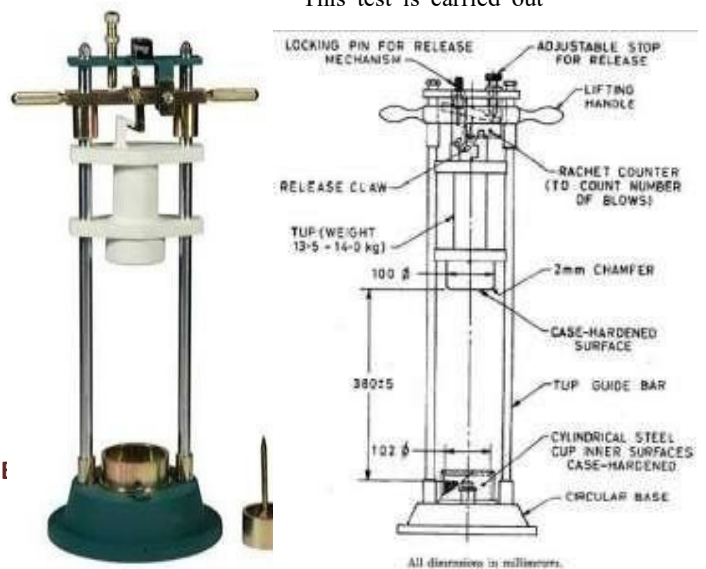
3.4.2 Tests on Coarse Aggregate

Tests conducted on the natural coarse aggregate are as follows:-

- 1) Aggregate Impact Value test
- 2) Aggregate Crushing Value test
- 3) Specific Gravity and Water Absorption test
- 4) Los Angeles Abrasion Test

3.4.3 Aggregate Impact Value Test

This test is carried out



in order to create the resistance to the impact by the gross aggregate (sudden or shock loads). The crushed device will move through the IS Sieve 2.36mm. Effect values as the amount of aggregates going through the sieve is determined by the original weight of the aggregates. The testing machine consists of a metal base with lower surface supported on the firm structure. A metal hammer weighing 13.5kg to 14kg with a diameter of 10cm is fastened with a depth of 5cm with a lower end of the rolling cylindrical form in order that the cylindrical hammer is mounted on vertical guides and the falling height of the hammer is 380 mm. A rod with a diameter of 10mm and a length of 230mm is used and rounded on one end. The 0.1gm precision and IS display are measured 12.5mm, 10mm and 2.36mm and an internal 10.2cm and 5cm depth cup with a separable cylindrical cup is mounted centrally in the base plate. The research sample contains 12.5mm of aggregates, which are held on the 10mm sieve and oven dried at 100°C to 110°C and cooled at room temperature. The aggregates are then filled in three-layer measurement cylinder each at 1/3 of the cylinder depth and compacted with the tamping rod by 25 shocks for each layer, with the tamping rod eventually completing the surface. The weight is assessed as (W₁) in grams and the aggregates filled in the measurement cylinder are measured. The aggregates are then filled in detachable cylinder which is placed on base plate. Then the compaction is done by releasing the hammer from its hook by releasing the hammer for 15 times from a height of 380mm. After that the material is removed and sieved through 2.36mm sieve. The weight of aggregates which

are passing through 2.36mm sieve is taken and noted as (W₂) in grams. Then the impact value is calculated by using the formula

$$\text{Impact Value} = W_2 / W_1 * 100$$

Impact value is expressed as in %

Where, W₁ = Aggregates sample weight

W₂ = Aggregate passing through 2.36mm sieve weight

Figure 8: Impact value test apparatus

3.4.4 Aggregate Crushing Value

The crushing value check is carried out to establish the aggregate resistance to crushing loads, which provides the relative resistance to crushing with a compression load progressively being applied. A square base plate on the base of the cylinder with a steel

cylindrical end with an inner diameter of 152mm and a square plunger with a 150mm piston and an opening for raising and positioning the plunger in the cylindrical. A balancing of necessary capability and a precision of up to 1gm. A 16mm diameter tamping rod, 600mm long and with a rounded end. Diameter 115mm and height 180mm cylindrical measure. IS screens with the following aggregates: 12.5mm, 10mm and 2.36mm. A compression test system able to apply a 400KN load at a rate of 4 tons per minute. The test sample is made of 12.5mm checked aggregates that are held on a 10mm sieve and dried on 100°C to 110°C and cooled at room temperature. This sample is then put in a three-layer steel measuring cylinder with one third of a cylinder depth and a rod of tamping with 25 blows per layer. The weight of the full unit is weighted and specified as W₁ gm in the measuring cylinder. The sample is then put on top by raising the plunger onto the rod in a cylindrical steel with open ends and a square base plate. The device is then mounted on the compression testing machine loading board and the load is progressively applied at 4t

onsperminute.Thesolutionisthen taken and the damaged sample is tamed through a sieve of 2.36mm. Weighed and noted as W2gm is the weight of the sample that passes through 2.36mm sieve. The value of the crushing is computed using the formulation

$$\text{Crushing Value} = W2/W1 * 100$$

Aggregate crushing value is expressed in %

W1 = aggregate sample weight in gms

W2 = sample passing through 2.36mm sieve weight in gms

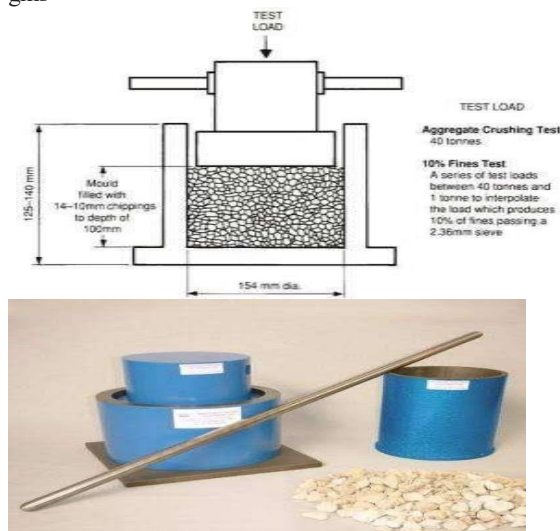


Figure9:Crushing Value test apparatus

3.4.5 Specific gravity and water absorption test

The ratio of the volume of the aggregate to the volume of the water is specified in a special seriousness. The weighting balance of a coarse aggregate up to 0.5 kg precision, for measuring the sample to no more than 3kg, shall be the following to assess the exact intensity and water absorption. A thermostat-controlled oven to maintain a water filling and basket temperature of 1000C to 1100C and a bucket. A wire basket of steel with a mesh of not more than 6.3mm for suspension. Soft tray and clothes to dry the aggregate paper. A dust-free

sample of 2kg of aggregates is taken and placed in a wire basket. The pan is then submerged in a water bucket, ensuring that 5cm of water is preserved over the aggregates. The trapped air is separated from the samples shortly after immersion and the canister is lifted and immersed at a rate of one drop per second. During immersion into water with a temperature of 220C to 320C, a weight of basket with the aggregate is measured and noted as W1gms. Then the aggregates and the basket are separated. By using absorbent clothes, the sample surface is cleaned. The emptied basket is then returned 25 times and weighted to the water source. W2 gms are observed. After drying with absorbent fabrics, the aggregate is weighed and specified in W3 gms. The sample is then dried into the oven with a temperature of 110⁰C for 24 hours, the sample weight is weighed after removal and reported as W4 gms. Then a formula measure the specified gravity and water absorption.

$$\text{Specific gravity} = \{w3 / [w3 - (w1 - w2)]\}$$

$$\text{Water absorption} = [(w3 - w4) / w4] * 100$$

W1 = standard aggregate suspended in water weight

W2 = basket suspended in water weight

W3 = saturated surface dry aggregates in air weight

W4 = oven dried aggregates weight

Figure10: Specific gravity and Water absorption test apparatus



Figure 11: Los Angeles abrasion test apparatus

3.4.6 Los Angeles abrasion test

The abrasion test in Los Angeles is used to assess the tolerance of the aggregates to decomposition or deterioration. That is, the hardness to wear under crushing or impact loads against surfaces can be determined. The abrasion test Los Angeles is based on the idea that regular steel balls combined with additional materials and rotated in a drum are used to create abrasive activity for certain revolutions creating aggregate wear and wear. The wear percentage is measured as a Los Angeles abrasion value due to the rubbing action of balls of steel. An abrasion measuring unit, Norm IS sheets with a scale of 1.7mm (2.36mm), 1.7mm (4.75 mm), 12.5 mm (10.23 mm), 25 mm (25 mm), 40 mm (12.3 mm) and a weighting balance of volume 5 to 10 kg (3.5 to 10 mm), drying oven (6 to 10 times) of cast-iron and steel balls and a weight of 390 to 445 gram (12 to 10 years); The test specimen is composed of a clean sample dried in the oven from 105°C to 110°C and a sample which goes through a sieve of 12.5mm and is held on a strap of 10mm. The sample is selected according to degree. For grades A, B, C and D, takes samples of 5kg and for grades E, F and G. Based on the grading of aggregates, the abrasive charge of steel balls is chosen. The aggregates and stainless steel balls are mounted in the drum and the shield is fixed. The engine is starting with 30 to 33 turns per minute, that is, 500 for grades A, B, C and D and 1000 turns for grades E, F and G. The sample is taken out of the drum and sieved

with a 1.7mm sieve after the completion of the revolutions and the weight of the sample is weighed 1.7mm by the IS sieve and registered in W₂gms.

$$Abrasion\ Value = \frac{W_2}{W_1} \times 100$$

W₁ is Weight of the sample taken and W₂ is Weight of the sample passing 1.7mm sieve

Table 3: Test Results of Coarse Aggregate

S.n	Test	Result
1	Impact Value	27.51%
2	Crushing Value	25.28%
3	Specific Gravity	2.6
4	Bulk Density	1600 kg/m ³
5	Fineness modulus	6.81

TABLE 4: GRADATION OF COARSE AGGREGATE

Sieve Size (mm)	Weight retained	Cumulative percentage weight retained	Cumulative percentage passing
40	0	0	100
20	0.5	8	92
10	3.2	63.5	36.4
4.75	1.5	98	2
2.36	0.12	100	0

3.5 FINE AGGREGATES

Fine aggregate are basically sands won from the land or the marine environment. Fine aggregate generally consists of natural sand or crushed stone with most particles passing through a 4.75mm

sieve, as with coarse aggregate these can be from

Sieve Size (mm)	Percentage weight retained	Cumulative percentage weight retained	Cumulative percentage passing
10	0	0	100
4.75	2	2	98
2.36	4.5	6	94
1.18	24	29	71
0.6	35	64	36
0.3	25	88	12
0.15	11.0	99.5	0.5

primary, secondary or recycled sources.

TABLE5:GRADATIONOFFINEAGGREGATE

RESULTSANDDISCUSSIONS

3.3.1 CompressiveStrength

Compressive cement strength is measured by a compressive strength test on the compacted cylindrical pieces using regular tamping procedure.

For cement mortar preparation, regular sand is used. Vibration unit, tamping rod, pavement mould, balancing the equipment used to measure. The Rectangular mould volume is 70.6 to 70.6 to 70.6 to 70.6 cm. Take 200 grams of cement and 600 grams of normal sand and dry fully. Then apply [(P/4)+3] % of water to the dry mix of cement and sand (with normal consistency P) and mix vigorously for at least 3 minutes to produce a consistent colour mixture. If a consistent colour of the mixture in 4

minutes does not produce the mixture, reject sand and mix fresh amounts of cement, sand and water in order to obtain a uniform colour. Compose and vibrate the mould at a required speed of 12000±400 per minute at a complete compaction with whole amounts of mortar using a fitting hopper mounted to the top of the mould. Remove the mould from the press and hold

for 24 hours at a temperature of 27±20°C and a relative moisture content of 90%. Remove the Rectangular from the mould and immerse it in fresh, clean water at the end of 24 hours. And during checking would the Rectangular be removed from the bath. Place the test Rectangular without packaging between the Rectangular and the test plates on the compressive test.

isture content of 90%. Remove the Rectangular from the mould and immerse it in fresh, clean water at the end of 24 hours. And during checking would the Rectangular be removed from the bath. Place the test Rectangular without packaging between the Rectangular and the test plates on the compressive test.



Fig6: Cement Cylinder for Compressive Strength Test

Apply the load continuously and evenly at a rate of 140 Kg/cm²/min starting from zero. The compressive power of the specimen in the Contact Region (A) is measured as the ultimate load (P).

Compressive strength = P/A

3.3.2 Specific Gravity

Normally, specific gravity is known as a ratio of the weight of a certain material volume to the weight of equivalent water volume. Kerosene that does not react with cement is used to assess the basic gravity of cement. Basic gravity bottles with capacity of 50 mL, kerosene, weighting balance and weighing container and sample that need to be checked are used for the specific gravity study. The empty weight is first registered and classified as w1. Then, up to a third of its volume, the particular gravity bottle is filled with kerosene and then weighed and reported as w4 in weight. Then the particular Gravity Bottle is filled with cement and weighed and reported as w2. Then you fill the remaining two thirds with kerosene and

then weigh the bottle and weight w₃. The following theorem then indicates the basic gravity of cement.



Fig7: Specific Gravity Test on Cement

3.4

3.5 AGGREGATES

Aggregates are inter granular materials such as sand, gravel, or crushed stone that, along with water and Portland cement, are an essential ingredient in concrete. For a good concrete mix, aggregates need to be clean, hard, strong particles free of absorbed chemicals or coatings of clay and other fine materials that could cause the deterioration of concrete. Aggregates, which account for 60 to 75 percent of the total volume of concrete, are divided into two distinct categories- fine and coarse. Fine aggregates generally consist of natural sand or crushed stone with most particles passing through a 3/8-inch sieve. Coarse aggregate are any particles greater than 0.19 inch, but generally range between 3/8 and 1.5 inches in diameter.

Natural gravel and sand are usually dug from a pit, river, lake, or seabed. Crushed aggregate is produced by crushing quarry rock, boulders, cobbles, or large size gravel. Recycled concrete is a viable source of aggregate and has been satisfactorily used in granular sub-bases, soil-cement, and in new concrete.

Aggregates strongly influence concrete's freshly mixed and hardened properties, mixture proportions, and economy. Consequently, selection of aggregate is an important process. Although some variation in aggregate properties is expected, characteristics that are considered include

- Grading

- Durability
- Particle shape and surface texture
- Abrasion and skid resistance
- Unit weight and voids
- Absorption and surface moisture

3.5.1 (A) COARSE AGGREGATES

Coarse aggregate are particles greater than 4.74 mm, but generally range between 9.5 mm to

37.5 mm in diameter. They can either be from primary, secondary or recycled sources. Primary, or virgin, aggregate is either land-marine-won. Gravel is a coarse marine-won aggregate; land-won coarse aggregate includes gravel and crushed rock. Gravels constitute the majority of coarse aggregate used in concrete with crushed stone making up most of the remainder.

Secondary aggregate are materials which are the by-product of extractive operations and are derived from a very wide range of materials.

Recycled concrete is a variable source of aggregate and has been satisfactorily used in granular sub-bases, soil-cement and in new concrete. Recycled aggregate is classified into two ways, as

3.5.2 Test on Coarse Aggregate

Tests conducted on the natural coarse aggregate are as follows:-

- 1) Aggregate Impact Value test
- 2) Aggregate Crushing Value test
- 3) Specific Gravity and Water absorption test
- 4) Los Angeles Abrasion Test

3.5.3 Aggregate Impact Value Test

This test is carried out in order to create the resistance to the impact by the gross aggregate (sudden or shock loads). The crushed device will move through the IS Sieve 2.36mm. Effect values as the amount of aggregates going through the sieve is determined by the original weight of the aggregates. The testing machine consists of a metal base with lower surface supported on the firm structure. A metal hammer weighing 13.5kg to 14kg with a diameter of 10cm is fastened with a depth of 5cm with a lower end of the rolling cylindrical form in order that the cylindrical hammer is mounted on vertical guides and the falling height of the

hammer is 380 mm. A rod with a diameter of 10mm and a length of 230mm is used and rounded on one end. The 0.1gm precision and IS display are measured 12.5mm, 10mm and 2.36mm and an internal 10.2cm and 5cm depth cup with a separable cylindrical cup is mounted centrally in the base plate. The research sample contains 12.5mm of aggregates, which are held on the 10mm sieve and oven dried at 100°C to 110°C and cooled at room temperature. The aggregates are then filled in three-layer measurement cylinder each at 1/3 of the cylinder depth and compacted with the tamping rod by 25 shocks for each layer, with the tamping rod eventually completing the surface. The weight is assessed as (W₁) in grams and the aggregates filled in the measurement cylinder are measured. The aggregates are then filled in detachable cylinder which is placed on base plate. Then the compaction is done by releasing the hammer from its hook by releasing the hammer for 15 times from a height of

380mm. After that the material is removed and sieved through 2.36mm sieve. The weight of aggregates which are passing through 2.36mm sieve is taken and noted as (W₂) in grams. Then the impact value is calculated by using the formula

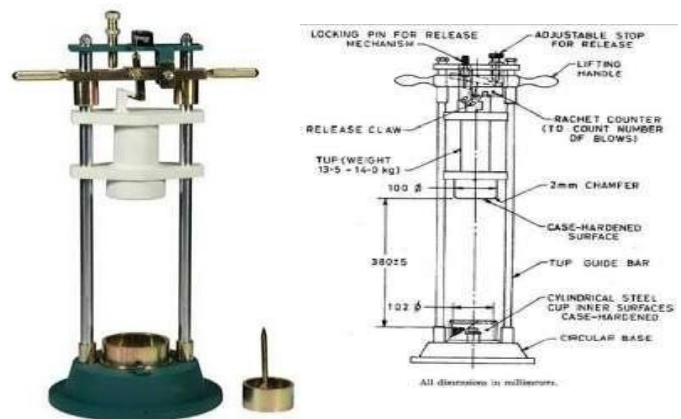
$$\text{Impact Value} = \frac{W_2}{W_1} \times 100$$

Impact value is expressed as in %

Where, W₁ = Aggregate sample weight

W₂ = Aggregate passing through 2.36mm sieve weight

Figure 8: Impact value test apparatus



3.5.4 Aggregate Crushing Value

The crushing value check is carried out to establish the agreement resistance to crushing loads, which provides the relative resistance to crushing with a compression load progressively being applied. A square base plate on the base of the cylinder with a steel cylindrical end with an inner diameter of 152mm and a cuba plunger with a 150mm piston and an opening for raising and positioning the plunger in the cylindrical. A balancing of necessary capability and a precision of up to 1gm. A 16mm diameter tamping rod, 600mm long and with a rounded end. Diameter 115mm and height 180mm cylindrical measure. IS screens with the following aggregates: 12.5mm, 10mm and 2.36mm. A compression test system able to apply a 400kN load at a rate of 4 tons per minute. The test sample is made of 12.5mm checked aggregates that are held on a 10mm sieve and dried

on 1000C to 1100C and cooled at room temperature. This sample is then put in a three-layer steel measuring cylinder with one third of a cylinder depth and a rod of a diameter of 154 mm. The weight of the full unit is weighted and specified as W1 gm in the measuring cylinder. The sample is then put on top by raising the plunger onto the rod in a cylindrical steel with open ends and a square base plate. The device is then mounted on the compression testing machine loading board and the load is progressively applied at 4 tons per minute. The solution is then taken and the damaged sample is tamed through a sieve of 2.36 mm. Weighed and noted as W2 gm is the weight of the sample that passes through 2.36 mm sieve. The value of the crushing is computed using the formulation

$$\text{Crushing Value} = \frac{W_2}{W_1} \times 100$$

Aggregate crushing value is expressed in %

W_1 = aggregate sample weight in gm

W_2 = sample passing through 2.36 mm sieve weight in gm

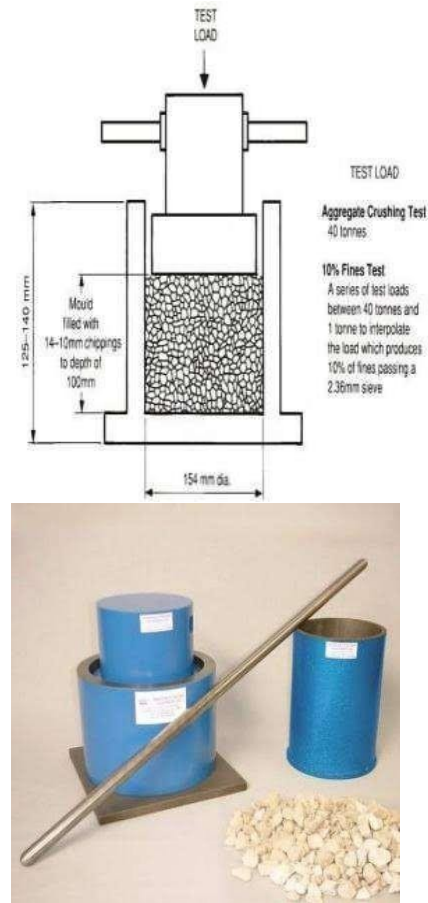


Figure 9: Crushing Value test apparatus

3.5.5 Specific gravity and water absorption test

The ratio of the volume of the aggregate to the volume of the water is specified in a special seriousness. The weighing balance of a coarse aggregate up to 0.5 kg precision, for measuring the sample on more than 3 kg, shall be the following to assess the exact intensity and water absorption. A thermostat-controlled oven to maintain a water filling and

basket temperature of 1000C to 1100C and a bucket. A wire basket of steel with a mesh of not more than 6.3 mm for suspension. Soft tray and clothes to dry the aggregate paper. A dust-free sample of 2 kg of aggregates is taken and placed in a wire basket. The pan is then submerged in a

water bucket, ensuring that 5cm of water is preserved over the aggregates. The trapped air is separated from the samples shortly after immersion and the canister is lifted and immersed at a rate of one drop per second. During immersion into water with a temperature of 220C to 320C, a weight of basket with the aggregate is measured and noted as W1gms. Then the aggregates and the basket are separated. By using absorbent clothes, the sample surface is cleaned. The emptied basket is then returned 25 times and weighed to the water source. W2 gms are observed. After drying with absorbent fabrics, the aggregate is weighed and specified in W3 gms. The sample is then dried into the oven with a temperature of 110°C for 24 hours, the sample weight is weighed after removal and reported as W4 gms. Then a formula measure the specified gravity and water absorption.

$$\text{Specific gravity} = \frac{W3}{W3 - (W1 - W2)}$$

$$\text{Water absorption} = \frac{(W3 - W4)}{W4} * 100$$

W1 = standard aggregate suspended in water weight

W2 = basket suspended in water weight

W3 = saturated surfacedry aggregates in air weight

W4 = oven dried aggregates weight



Figure 10: Specific gravity and Water absorption test apparatus

3.5.6 Los Angeles abrasion test

The abrasion test in Los Angeles is used to assess the tolerance of the aggregates to decomposition or deterioration. That is, the hardness to wear under crushing or impact loads against surfaces can be determined. The abrasion test Los Angeles is based on the idea that regular steel balls combined with additional materials and rotated in a drum are used to create abrasive activity for certain revolutions creating aggregate wear and wear.

The wear percentage is measured as a Los Angeles abrasion value due to the rubbing action of balls of

steel. An abrasion measuring unit, Norm IS sheets with a scale of 1.7mm (2.36mm), 1.7mm (4.75 mm), 12.5 mm (10.23 mm), 25 mm (25 mm), 40 mm (12.3 mm) and a weighing balance of volume 5 to 10 kg (3.5 to 10 mm), drying oven (6 to 10 times) of cast-iron and

steel balls and a weight of 390 to 445 gram (12 to 10 years); The test specimen is composed

of a clean sample dried in the oven from 1050C to 1100C and a sample which goes through a sieve of 12.5mm and is held on a strap of 10mm.

The sample is selected according to degree. For grades A,

B, C and D, takes samples of 5kg and for grades E,

F and G. Based on the grading of aggregates, the abrasive charge of steel balls is chosen. The aggregates and stainless steel balls are mounted in the drum and the shield is fixed. The engine is starting with 30 to 33 turns per minute, that is, 500 for grades A, B, C and D and 1000 turns for grades E,

F and G. The sample is taken out of the drum and sieved with a 1.7mm

sieve after the completion of the revolutions and the weight of the sample is weighed 1.7mm by the IS sieve and registered in W2gms.

$$AbrasionValue = \frac{W_2}{W_1} * 100$$

W₁ is Weight of the sample taken and W₂ is Weight of the sample passing 1.7mm sieve



Figure 11: Los Angeles abrasion test apparatus

Table 3: Test Results of Coarse Aggregate

S.no	Test	Result
1	Impact Value	27.51%
2	Crushing Value	25.28%
3	Specific Gravity	2.6
4	Bulk Density	1600 kg/m ³
5	Fineness modulus	6.81

TABLE 4: GRADATION OF COARSE AGGREGATE

Sieve Size (mm)	Percentage retained	Cumulative percentage retained	Cumulative percentage passing
40	0	0	100
20	0.5	8	92
10	3.2	63.5	36.4
4.75	1.5	98	2
2.36	0.12	100	0

3.6 FINE AGGREGATES

Fine aggregate are basically sands won from the

land or the marine environment. Fine aggregate generally consists of natural sand or crushed stone with most particles passing through a 4.75mm sieve, as with coarse aggregate these can be from primary, secondary or recycled sources. TABLE 5: GRADATION OF FINE AGGREGATE

Sieve Size (mm)	Percentage retained	Cumulative percentage retained	Cumulative percentage passing
10	0	0	100
4.75	2	2	98
2.36	4.5	6	94
1.18	24	29	71
0.6	35	64	36
0.3	25	88	12
0.15	11.0	99.5	0.5

TABLE 9: Results for 14 days curing and different thickness pavements of PSC for 0.55 W/C ratio:

S.No	Thickness of pavement (mm)	Rebound number strength (N/m ²)	Compressive strength
1	100	20	18.12
2	125	20	18.36
3	150	22	20.88
4	175	23	21.90
5	200	24	22.52

TABLE 10: Results for 28 days curing and different thickness pavements of PSC for 0.55 W/C ratio:

	Thickness of pavement (mm)	Rebound number strength (N/mm ²)	Compressive strength
1	100	23	20.01
2	125	22	19.36
3	150	26	22.88
4	175	28	24.90
5	200	29	25.52

Table 9 & 10 indicates the rebound number, ultrasonic pulse velocity and compressive strength of 0.55 w/c ratio for 14 & 28 curing days after adding super plasticizer. The maximum strength Acquired for 0.55 w/c ratio is at 28 days for both NDT and DT by adding 0.35% of super plasticizer. Then non-destructive test results having slight variation on both RH and UPV as compared to Destructive test (CTM).

TABLE 11: Results for 14 days curing and different thickness pavements of PSC for 0.45 W/C ratio:

	Thickness of pavement (mm)	Rebound number strength (N/mm ²)	Compressive strength
1	100	24	21.63
2	125	22	20.67
3	150	24	21.34
4	175	23	22.62
5	200	24	23.18

TABLE 12: Results for 28 days curing and different thickness pavements of PSC for 0.45 W/C ratio:

	Thickness of pavement (mm)	Rebound number strength (N/mm ²)	Compressive strength
1	100	28	24.36
2	125	27	23.76
3	150	27	24.03
4	175	28	25.2
5	200	29	25.81

Table 11 & 12 indicates the rebound number, ultrasonic pulse velocity and compressive strength of 0.45 w/c ratio for 14 & 28 curing days after adding super plasticizer. The maximum strength Acquired for 0.45 w/c ratio is at 28 days for both NDT and DT by adding 0.25% of super plasticizer. Then non-destructive test results having slight variation on both RH and UPV as compared to Destructive test

(CTM).

TABLE 13: Results for 14 days curing and different thickness pavements of PSC for 0.35 W/C ratio:

S.No	Thickness of pavement (mm)	Rebound number strength (N/mm ²)	Compressive strength
1	100	23	21.31
2	125	20	19.47
3	150	23	21.40
4	175	26	22.25
5	200	27	23.63

TABLE 14: Results for 28 days curing and different thickness pavements of PSC for 0.35 W/C ratio:

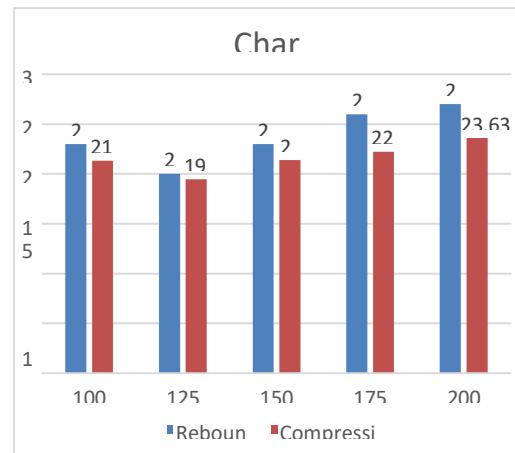
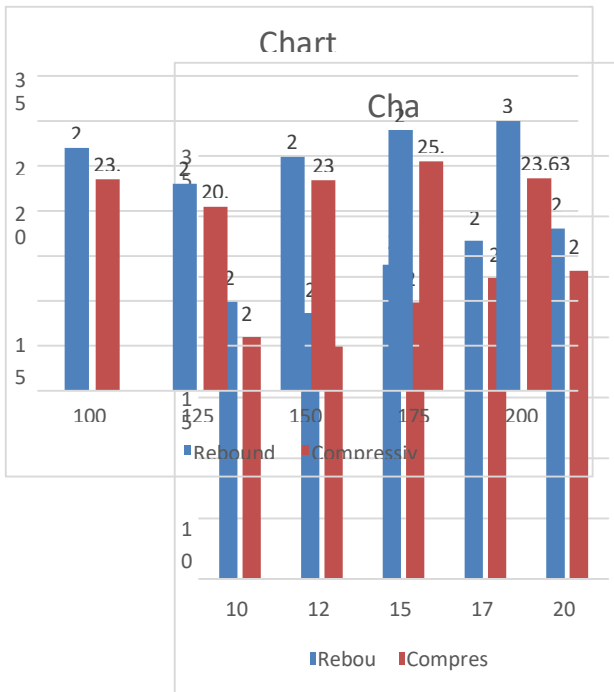
	Thickness of pavement (mm)	Rebound number strength (N/mm ²)	Compressive strength
1	100	27	23.49
2	125	23	20.47
3	150	26	23.4
4	175	29	25.52
5	200	30	27.3

Table 13 & 14 indicates the rebound number, ultrasonic pulse velocity and compressive strength of 0.35 w/c ratio for 14 & 28 curing days after adding super plasticizer. The maximum strength Acquired for 0.35 w/c ratio is at 28 days for both NDT and DT by adding 0.2% of super plasticizer.

The non-destructive test results having slight variation on RH as compared to Destructive test (CTM). Among all three water-cement ratios 0.35 having high strength for all NDT and DT tests at all curing ages (days).

The Below Graphs Indicates Thickness on X-axis and Compressive Strength on Y-axis

Results for 14 days curing and different thickness pavements of PSC for 0.55 W/C ratio



Results for 14 days curing and different thickness pavements of PSC for 0.35 W/C ratio

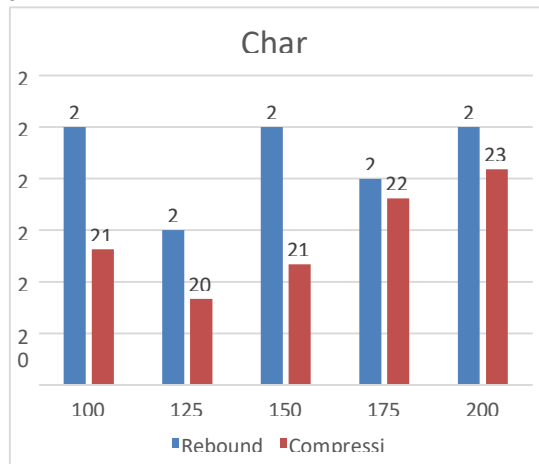
Results for 28 days curing and different thickness pavements of PSC for 0.35 W/C ratio

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions are drawn from the results considering the strength characteristics of concrete made with adding of super plasticizer in different w/c ratios.

- As a result of the experimental study chemical admixture for different w/c ratios is determined which is used to maintain workability at any temperature.
- The obtained results show that slight difference between OPC, PPC and PSC. But the maximum strength obtained for OPC for all w/c ratios.
- The final mix designs for w/c ratios of 0.5, 0.45 and 0.35 are M25, M30 & M35 by taking average compressive strength from the graphs.
- Non-destructive tests are very convenient and can be executed anywhere but these tests have their own limitations and these limitations may result in unavoidable errors which can't be eliminated totally. Applying proper correction factor is a must to get the reliable results.
- High strength is adopted at 0.35 w/c ratio for all concretes.

Results for 28 days curing and different thickness pavements of PSC for 0.5 W/C ratio



Results for 14 days curing and different thickness pavements of PSC for 0.45 W/C ratio

Results for 28 days curing and different thickness pavements of PSC for 0.45 W/C ratio

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