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### Article

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1 **High Performance Cold Asphalt Concrete Mixture for Binder**  
2 **Course Using Alkali-Activated Binary Blended Cementitious**  
3 **Filler**

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36 **Abstract**

37 A slow rate of curing and the long time necessary to achieve full strength has led cold asphalt mixes  
38 (CAM) to be considered poorer in comparison to hot mix asphalt over the last decades. This piece of  
39 research aimed to develop a new fast-curing and environmentally friendly cold asphalt concrete for  
40 binder courses mixture (CACB). It has the same gradation as that of traditional hot asphalt concrete  
41 mixtures but incorporates a binary blended cementitious filler (BBCF) containing waste, high calcium  
42 fly ash (HCFA) and fluid catalytic cracking catalyst residue (FC3R) activated by a waste alkaline NaOH  
43 solution. The research concludes that incorporating an alkali activated binary blended cementitious  
44 filler (ABBCF) with CACB significantly improves the mechanical properties and water susceptibility.  
45 In addition, the high performance ABBCF mixture has a substantial lower thermal sensitivity than  
46 traditional hot asphalt concrete binder course mixtures. SEM analysis revealed that the main  
47 crystallisation had taken place at an early stage of the new ABBCF. More significantly, the new CACB  
48 mixture has a comparable stiffness modulus with the traditional asphalt concrete binder course after a  
49 very short curing time (less than one day).

50

51 **Keywords:**

52 Alkali activation

53 Binder course

54 Cold asphalt mix

55 Emulsion

56 Fluid catalytic cracking catalyst

57 High calcium fly ash

58 Microstructure

59 Rutting

60 Stiffness modulus

61 Water sensitivity

62

63

## 64 **1. Introduction**

65 Eco-friendliness, energy efficiency and cost effectiveness associated with safety are significant drivers  
66 accountable for the development of cold bituminous emulsion mixtures (CBEM) as a substitute for hot  
67 mix asphalts (HMA). CBEMs are popular types of cold asphalt mixtures (CAMs) that are produced  
68 with no application of heat in comparison to traditional HMA. Consequently, this technology  
69 contributes to the protection of environmental and occupational health and safety Needham [1], [2]. In  
70 contrast to HMAs, CBEMs do not achieve their ultimate strength and other associated properties as  
71 quickly after application. CBEMs are identified to have low early strength, long curing times, the  
72 resultant mixtures having quite high porosities [3]. When comparing emulsion mixtures to HMA in  
73 general, they are of a relatively low quality as demonstrated by Ibrahim and Thom [4].

74 CBEM technology for road pavements has been employed in several countries. The USA and France  
75 have been using CBEMs since the 1970's and seem to have a substantial bank of knowledge about the  
76 performance of these mixtures [5]. The annual levels of manufacture has reached 1.5 million tonnes in  
77 France [6]. However, using cold emulsified asphalt as structural layers which require a longer curing  
78 time for such materials to reach their full strength after construction is restrictive, mainly in the UK,  
79 because of high sensitivity to rainfall by these mixes in the early stages of installation [7].  
80 Characteristics exhibited by emulsion bound mixtures continuously change (stiffness modulus, rutting  
81 resistance, water sensitivity, fatigue resistance, etc.) until they reach a steady state at a fully cured  
82 condition, although they may still contain a low amount of residual water. However, evolutionary  
83 characteristics have been exhibited by CAMs, especially during their early life, where early cohesion is  
84 low, increasing gradually [8].

85 The mechanical properties of CBEMs have been examined by many researchers such as Terrel and  
86 Wang [9] who found that the addition of cement to emulsion-treated mixes resulted in an acceleration  
87 in the rate of the development of resilient modulus. Another study was implemented by Head [10] in  
88 order to improve the Marshall stability of modified cold asphalt mix. He found that with the addition  
89 of 1% Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC), the Marshall stability of modified cold asphalt mixes improved  
90 approximately 3-fold compared with un-treated mixes. An examination of the role of cement in

91 emulsion-treated mixes to enhance the slow improvement of strength of these mixtures was carried out  
92 by Schmidt et al. [11]. They concluded that when cement was added to the aggregate at the time the  
93 asphalt emulsion was combined, mixes cured faster, additional resilient modulus ( $M_r$ ) developed more  
94 quickly and there was a higher water damage resistance. Previous studies on the mechanical properties  
95 of three-phase cement–asphalt emulsion composites (CAEC) reported that most of the properties of  
96 both cement and asphalt were present in CAEC; longer fatigue life and low sensitivity to temperature  
97 in cement concrete and higher toughness and flexibility in asphalt concrete [12]. Brown and Needham  
98 [13] carried out a study on cement modified emulsion mixtures where the prime aim was the evaluation  
99 of the influence of adding OPC in emulsified mixes. They used a granite aggregate grading in the middle  
100 of 20mm dense bituminous macadam with a single slow-setting emulsion. They concluded that the OPC  
101 addition enhanced the mechanical properties namely: stiffness modulus, resistance to permanent  
102 deformation and the fatigue strength of the emulsified mixes. Oruc et al. [7] performed an investigation  
103 to evaluate the mechanical properties of emulsified asphalt mixtures including 0-6% OPC which was  
104 substituted for mineral filler. A significant improvement was revealed with the addition of a high  
105 percentage OPC, leading them to speculate that cement modified asphalt emulsion mixtures might be  
106 utilized as structural layers. Al-Hdabi et al. [14] carried out experiments on the mechanical properties  
107 and water damage resistance of cold-rolled asphalt (CRA) incorporating OPC as a substitute to  
108 conventional filler and waste bottom ash (WBA). The results showed a considerable enhancement in  
109 stiffness modulus and uniaxial creep tests in addition to water sensitivity.

110 Other research implemented by Fang et al. [15] investigated the effect of cement on the rheology and  
111 stability of rosin-emulsified anionic bitumen emulsions. They used optical microscopy to examine how  
112 bitumen emulsion breaks and bitumen droplets morphology in cement and filler. They concluded that  
113 cement, unlike limestone filler, reacts with rosin emulsifiers leading to flocculation and the partial  
114 coalescence of bitumen emulsions. Further to this, Gómez-Meijide and Pérez [16] proposed a new  
115 methodology for the global study of the mechanical properties of CAMs. They found that bitumen  
116 materials stabilized with emulsion and recycled aggregates from construction and demolition (C&D)  
117 are more flexible, showing improved resistance to permanent deformation and similar stress failures in

118 comparison to mixtures with natural aggregates. That said, a higher water and bitumen content is  
119 needed [17].

120 Cement has been used widely in CBEMs, but cement production is accountable for 5% of global  
121 greenhouse gases (GHG) [18]. However, CBEMs can be further developed when manufactured with  
122 waste materials thus addressing environmental and economic concerns. That said, it is necessary to  
123 replace cement with waste materials that has the same or better performance. Research by Ellis et al.  
124 [19] considered a range of storage grade macadams consisting of recycled aggregates from different  
125 sources bound by bitumen emulsion and Ground Granulated Blastfurnace Slag (GGBS). They  
126 concluded that stiffness and strength can develop when GGBS is incorporated in high humidity  
127 conditions. Thanaya et al. [20] conducted experiments to use pulverized fly ash (PFA) as a filler in cold  
128 mix at full curing conditions, finding the cold mix stiffness equivalent to HMA. Al Nageim et al. [21]  
129 studied the addition of OPC and fly ash to CBEMs as a filler replacement. They conducting an  
130 experiment to show the development of mechanical properties in CBEM's and to identify the possibility  
131 of replacing OPC with fly ash. Recently, Nassar et al. [22] conducted investigations to improve the  
132 performance of Cold Asphalt Emulsion Mixtures (CAEMs) using binary and ternary blended fillers  
133 (BBF and TBF). They used OPC, fly ash and GGBS for the BBF while TBF was obtained by  
134 incorporating silica fumes with BBF. They concluded that the mechanical and durability properties  
135 indicated that TBF was more appropriate than BBF for the manufacture of CAEMs. In addition, they  
136 stated that a TBF mixture would be effective in road pavements which were subjected to harsh  
137 conditions both in hot and cold weathers.

138 Sadique et al. [23] aimed to develop a new cementitious material through the activation of a high  
139 calcium fly ash by a different alkali sulphate rich fly ash. They found that the cement free activation of  
140 fly ash was very effective. They revealed that the presence of a structure comprising Ca, Al, K and Si  
141 with high pH in two types of fly ashes, has the ability to break the glassy phase in the cement free  
142 system. In addition, Sadique et al. [24] performed a study to explore the pozzolanic reactivity of  
143 calcium rich fly ash by blending and grinding it in a cement-free system. They reported that the  
144 hydration effects and strength enhancement in the new blend were comparable to cement.

145 Fluid catalytic cracking catalyst residue (FC3R) is an industrial by-product generated from the fluid  
146 catalytic cracking process in petrol refineries. Pacewska et al. [25] investigated the hydration of cement  
147 paste as a function of adding spent catalyst residue to address catalytic cracking, reporting on the  
148 pozzolanic nature of the spent catalyst. They found both spent catalyst and microsilica to be similar  
149 when combined with  $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ , and that the process of hydration was highly exothermic promoting fast  
150 setting of the cement paste. Mas et al. [26] studied the mechanical properties of mortars and roof tiles  
151 using a fluid catalytic cracking catalyst residue with various mixtures, varying the proportions of Na  
152 OH and waterglass. They concluded that the use of geopolymers in the design of a new product with  
153 reduced  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions was feasibly and sustainable in the construction sector.

154 Chemical activation suggests that some chemicals can be used to activate the reactivity of cementitious  
155 components [27]. Alkaline activated materials have been shown to have enhanced higher level  
156 mechanical characteristics in comparison to cement. Consequently, the alkali activation of fly ash offers  
157 potential financial and environmental cost savings when used as a cement replacement [28]. Al-Hdabi  
158 et al. [29] stated that the incorporation of high alkali waste material as a filler replacement in CBEMs  
159 provides an ambient environment to activate the hydration process of the incorporated cementitious  
160 constituents.

161 There is demand for the development of sustainable novel CBEMs which use waste filler materials  
162 activated by alkali waste solutions and as such the main aim of this study has been to develop a fast-  
163 curing Cold Asphalt Concrete for Binder course (CACB) mixtures, to examine the effect of waste filler  
164 as a filler substitution on the performance of CACB and subsequently to compare the characteristics of  
165 this with conventional hot asphalt concrete binder course mixtures. There is limited research on the  
166 incorporation of waste materials in the production of CBEM for binder courses in road pavements.  
167 None of these studies has investigated waste binary filler systems activated by waste alkali solutions.  
168 Such binary blended cement filler (BBCF) can be activated to achieve higher strength values within a  
169 short period of time, eliminating the problems relating to curing time and low early strength of the  
170 CBEMs for binder courses.

171 This research has been carried out using 100% replacement of traditional mineral filler (limestone filler)  
172 by waste materials as the use of these materials is beneficial both in terms of being environment friendly  
173 as well as offering substantial economic advantages. Enhancements in mechanical properties were  
174 evaluated by using the indirect tensile stiffness modulus, a high-temperature wheel tracking test and  
175 thermal susceptibility. At the same time, a water susceptibility test was performed to examine the  
176 durability of the new CACB. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) observation has also been applied  
177 to investigate the microstructure of the new CACB mixtures.

## 178 **2. Materials**

### 179 2.1. Aggregates

180 The coarse and fine aggregate utilized in this research to manufacture all the mixtures comprised of  
181 crushed granite from Carnsew Quarry at Mabe, Penryn, UK. This is usually used to produce hot asphalt  
182 concrete mixtures, so the selection of aggregate gradation followed hot mix asphalt guidelines. The  
183 physical properties of the coarse aggregate were: apparent density  $2.67 \text{ Mg/m}^3$  and water absorption  
184 0.8% while for the fine aggregate: apparent density  $2.65 \text{ Mg/m}^3$  and water absorption 01.7%. A sieve  
185 analysis according to the standard BS EN 933-1 [30] was performed on the aggregate. The aggregate  
186 structure permitted a curve to be established following EN 13108-1 [31]. Figure 1 shows the particle  
187 size distribution curve of the aggregate where a dense aggregate gradation for asphalt concrete binder  
188 course AC-20 was used.



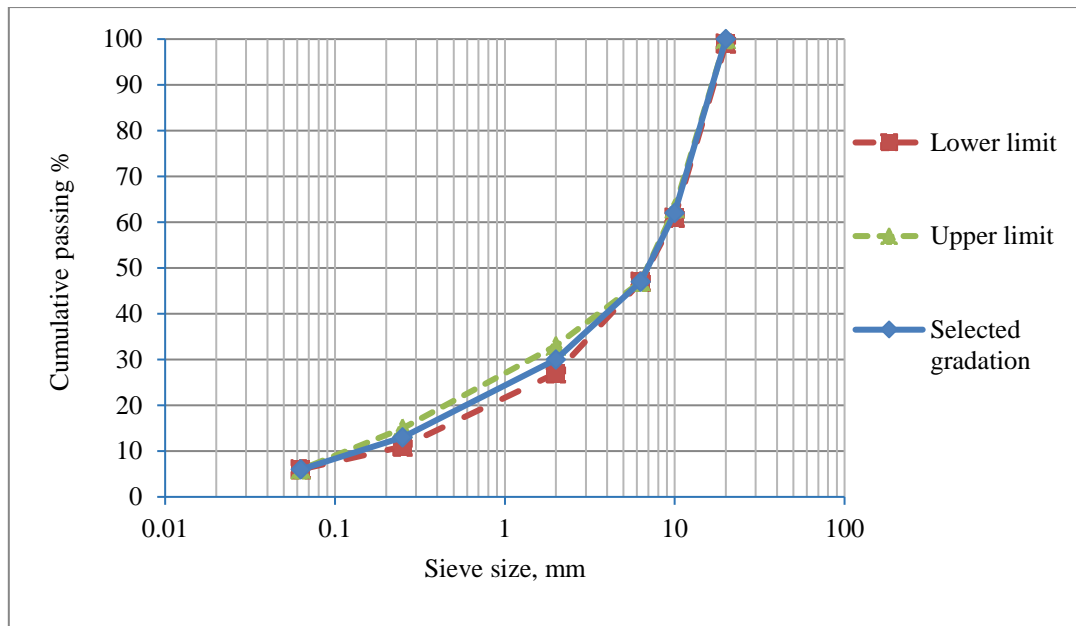


Figure 1. AC 20 mm dense binder course aggregate gradation

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190

## 191 2.2. Chosen gradation

192 After discussion with the Liverpool Centre for Materials Technology (LCMT) industrial partners', the  
 193 author and supervisory team aimed to develop a new CBEM with a continuously grade, traditionally  
 194 used for asphalt concrete binder course mixtures. Asphalt concrete AC 20 dense binder course mixture  
 195 was used to produce reference mixtures (cold and hot). Asphalt concrete is a continuously graded  
 196 mixture, a prominent type of mixture used as a binder course and base in road pavements in the UK. Its  
 197 strength is derived from the interlocking of coated aggregates which provides the principal mechanism  
 198 for the material to transmit load.

## 199 2.3 Bitumen emulsion and asphalt

200 To prepare the CACB mixtures, cationic slow setting bitumen emulsion (C60B5) was used. This kind  
 201 of emulsion is designed for use in road pavements and common maintenance applications. Thanaya [32]  
 202 confirmed that cationic emulsion is preferred because of its capability to coat the aggregate and to  
 203 guarantee high adhesion between aggregate particles. The bitumen base of the emulsion is 100/150 pen  
 204 while the bitumen residual content is 60%. In addition, two traditional binders consisting of 100/150  
 205 and 40/60 penetration-grade bitumen with a softening point of 43.5°C and 51.5°C respectively were  
 206 utilized for the control hot asphalt concrete binder course mixture preparations.

207 2.4. Filler materials

208 Two different wastes from the industry were employed and analysed as filler replacements in this  
209 research: high calcium fly ash (HCFA) which is obtained from power generation plants through  
210 combustion between 850°C and 1100°C using a fluidised bed combustion (FBC) system. A second high  
211 aluminosilicate waste material, fluid catalytic cracking catalyst residue (FC3R), was also used. A typical  
212 commercial limestone filler (LF) and a commercial Ordinary Portland cement (OPC) were utilized as  
213 control mixtures for comparison purposes during the research. Chemical and mineralogical analyses  
214 were carried out on the waste materials in order to make a qualitative assessment of the geometric  
215 features of the filler particles. The chemical compositions by energy dispersive X-ray fluorescence  
216 (EDXRF) spectrometer are given in Table 1.

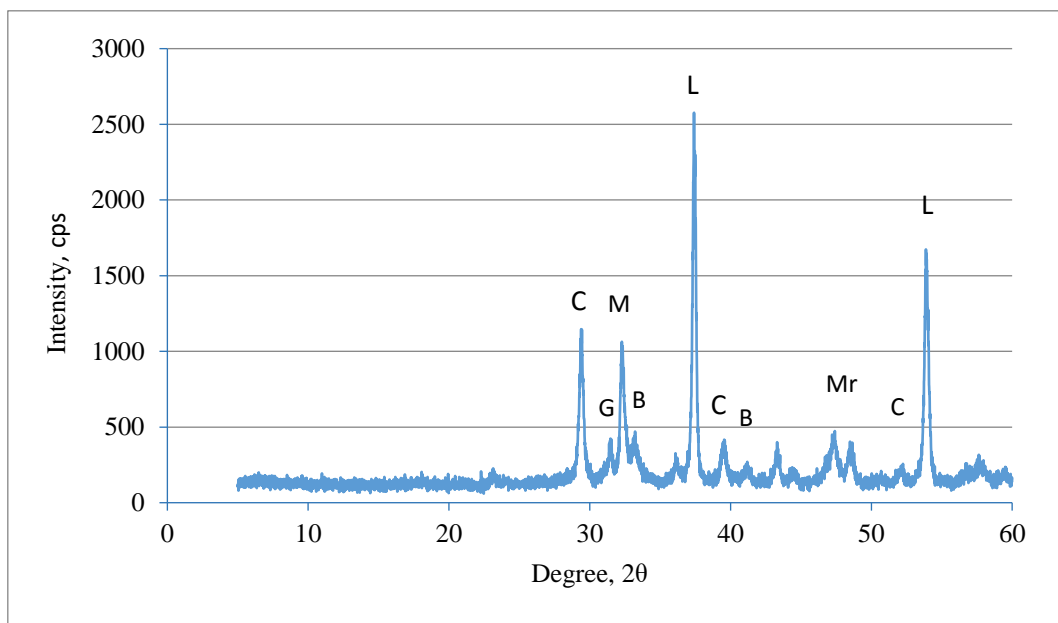
217 Table 1. Chemical analysis of the chosen filler materials, %.

Filler type	CaO	SiO <sub>2</sub>	Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	MgO	Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	SO <sub>3</sub>	K <sub>2</sub> O	TiO <sub>2</sub>	Na <sub>2</sub> O
HCFA	67.057	24.762	2.430	2.845	0	0.340	0.266	0.473	1.826
FC3R	0.047	35.452	44.167	0.684	0.368	0	0.049	0	0
OPC	62.379	26.639	2.435	1.572	1.745	2.588	0.724	0.385	1.533
LF	76.36	16.703	0	0.981	0	0.096	0.348	0.185	2.258

218

219 Table 1 illustrates the high calcium content of the HCFA used, showing a good ratio of SiO<sub>2</sub> and Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.  
220 These outcomes are consistent with those of Sadique and Al-Nageim [33]; however, the reported  
221 quantity of CaO in the current research is higher. The main oxides in the FC3R are Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and SiO<sub>2</sub>, this  
222 in agreement with the results of Mas et al. [26], Mármol et al. [34]. It has been reported that calcium  
223 hydroxide reacts with pozzolanic materials (SiO<sub>2</sub> and Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) in the moisture present at normal  
224 temperatures to form calcium silicate hydrate (CSH) gel [35]. Lea [36] stated that soluble SiO<sub>2</sub> and  
225 Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> present in the glass phase of pozzolanic materials can react with Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> released through the  
226 hydration of cement to make an extra CSH gel that improves the mechanical strength of hardened  
227 concrete structures.

228 The two waste material's mineralogy was assessed using an X-ray diffraction (XRD) method (Rigaku  
229 Miniflex diffractometer). Figure 2 shows that the sample of HCFA is crystalline as it contains sharp  
230 peaks without significant background noise. The major crystal peaks identified were: lime (CaO),  
231 calcite (CaCO<sub>3</sub>), mayenite (Ca<sub>12</sub>Al<sub>14</sub>O<sub>33</sub>), merwinite (Ca<sub>3</sub>Mg[SiO<sub>4</sub>]) and gehlenite (CaAl[Al,SiO<sub>7</sub>]).  
232 The diffraction pattern of FC3R illustrates that the material has very low crystalline peaks with an  
233 amorphous nature. Consequently, it will show high reactivity during the hydration process and can be  
234 used as an activator material as shown by the diffraction pattern in Figure 3.



235

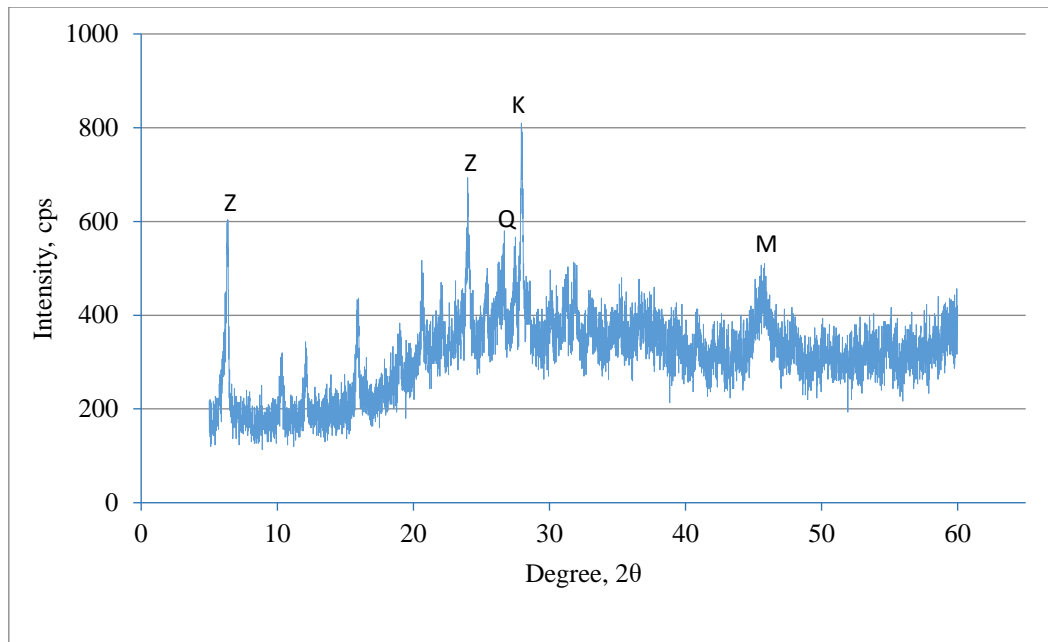
236

Figure 2. X-ray diffraction pattern of the HCFA

237

(lime-L, calcite-C, gehlenite-G, belite-B, mayenite-M, merwinite-Mr)

238



239

240

Figure 3. X-ray diffraction pattern of the FC3R

241

K- kyanite ( $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_5\text{Si}$ ), Q – quartz ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ), M- mullite( $\text{Al}_6\text{Si}_2\text{O}_{13}$ ), Z- dehydrated Ca-A zeolite

242



243

### 2.5. Sodium hydroxide (NaOH) alkali waste

244

A sodium hydroxide (NaOH) alkali waste solution produced from an acid neutralisation plant

245

containing  $\leq 8\%$  NaOH in water, was used as the alkali activator. This caustic waste product was

246

supplied by Lambson Ltd originating at Magnesium Electron Ltd. It is a waste by-product of the

247

extraction of magnesium from sea water.

248

### 3. Samples preparation and conditioning

249

Currently, there is no agreed design mixture for CBEM neither in the UK nor worldwide, but mix design

250

procedures for CBEM have been presented by some authorities and researchers [32, 37, 38]. The

251

Marshall mix design procedure, as specified by the Asphalt Institute (Marshall Method for Emulsified

252

Asphalt Aggregate Cold Mixture Design (MS-14)) [37], was used in this investigation for designing the

253

cold asphalt mixtures.

254

Firstly, aggregate gradation was chosen as outlined in section 2.2. Next, the initial emulsion content

255

was determined by using an empirical equation that governs the aggregate gradation as recommended

256 by the Asphalt Institute Manual MS-14. This was followed by determination of the pre-wetting water  
257 content (PWWC) where the coating ability of the bitumen emulsion to aggregates is extremely sensitive  
258 to the PWWC. Various pre-wetting water contents were examined, the lowest ratio consistent with  
259 satisfactory coating then adopted. In addition, indirect tensile stiffness modulus tests (ITSM) were  
260 performed to choose the optimum emulsion content following the standard BS EN 12697-26 [39]. This  
261 is the only change to the previously mentioned method: substitution of the Marshall test by the ITSM  
262 test. Finally, a mix density test was carried out to decide the optimum total liquid content at compaction  
263 (OTLCC) (i.e. emulsion plus pre-wetting water contents providing the highest mix indirect tensile  
264 strength and density). As a result, the PWWC, OTLCC and optimum residual bitumen content were  
265 found to be 3.5%, 14% and 6.3%, respectively. These findings are comparable to those published by  
266 Al-Busaltan et al. [40], Al-Hdabi et al. [41].

267 The materials were mixed in a Hobart mixer as shown in Figure 4. Aggregate, filler and pre-wetting  
268 water were incorporated and mixed for 60 seconds at a low speed. After that, Bitumen emulsion was  
269 introduced at a steady rate over the next 30 seconds, the mixing process continuing for a further 120  
270 seconds at the same speed. Following this the mixed materials were placed into moulds and immediately  
271 subjected to compaction with 100 blows of a standard Marshall hammer (impact compactor), 50 on  
272 each side of the samples. It was reported by Nassar et al. [22] that Marshall compaction is an accepted  
273 procedure used to create a suitably dense material. The samples were left for 24 hours at 20°C in the  
274 moulds and de-moulded the next day. All the specimens were left in the lab at 20°C and tested for  
275 Indirect Tensile Stiffness Modulus (ITSM) test at various ages, i.e. 1, 3, 7, 14 and 28 days. In addition,  
276 four control mixtures were prepared and tested for comparison purposes. The first control mixture was  
277 an untreated mix with traditional limestone filler (LF) which has the same design as other CACB  
278 mixtures. A mixture treated with 6% OPC composed the second. Two traditional asphalt concrete binder  
279 course mixtures were also produced for comparison purposes. To manufacture the hot asphalt concrete  
280 binder course, the laboratory mixing temperatures were fixed at 150-160°C and 160-170°C for the  
281 100/150 pen and 40/60 pen, respectively. The proportions of the mixture by percentage of Marshall  
282 samples are summarized in Table 2.



283

284

Figure 4. Photograph of mixer

285 Table 2. Details of the mix proportions of CACBs.

Mixture types	Filler types	Bitumen emulsion, %	Pre-wetting, %
1.5% HCFA mix	1.5% HCFA + 4.5% LF	10.5%	3.5%
3% HCFA mix	3% HCFA + 3% LF	10.5%	3.5%
4.5% HCFA mix	4.5% HCFA + 1.5% LF	10.5%	3.5%
HCFA mix	6% HCFA	10.5%	3.5%
BBCF mix	4.5% HCFA + 1.5% FC3R	10.5%	3.5%
ABBCF mix	4.5% HCFA + 1.5% FC3R	10.5%	3.5% waste NaOH solution
<u>Control mixtures</u>			
LF mix	6% LF	10.5%	3.5%
OPC mix	6% OPC	10.5%	3.5%
Hot AC 100/150 mix	6% LF	4.6% base binder 100/150	-
Hot AC 40/60 mix	6% LF	4.6% base binder 40/60	-

286

287 For wheel track tests, slab samples were produced measuring 400 mm long, 305 mm wide and 50 mm

288 thick compacted at an ambient temperature in a steel mould using a Cooper Technology Roller

289 Compactor device following the standard BS EN 12697-33 [42]. Wheel-track tests were performed for

290 all cold mixtures at full curing conditions in two stages: slab samples were left in their mould for 1 day  
 291 at lab temperature 20°C, this the first stage. Stage two involved placing the slab samples in a ventilated  
 292 oven at 40°C for 14 days to reach their constant mass. This curing protocol was recommended by  
 293 Thanaya [32] to guarantee that an entirely cured condition was reached. Finally, the slabs samples were  
 294 allowed to cool at lab temperatures before starting the process of conditioning. Table 3 illustrates the  
 295 abbreviations used in this research and their meaning.

296 Table 3. List of abbreviations

Abbreviations	Meaning
100/150 pen	Hot asphalt concrete binder course with 100/150 pen
40/60 pen	Hot asphalt concrete binder course with 40/60 pen
ABBCF	Alkali activated binary blended cementitious filler
BBCF	Binary blended cementitious filler
CACB	Cold asphalt concrete for binder courses mixture
CAM	Cold asphalt mix
CBEM	Cold bituminous emulsion mixture
FC3R	Fluid catalytic cracking catalyst residue
HCFA	High calcium fly ash
ITSM	Indirect tensile stiffness modulus
LF	Limestone filler
OPC	Ordinary Portland cement
OTLCC	Optimum total liquid content at compaction
PWWC	Pre-wetting water content

297

298 **4. Experimental program and tests performed**

299 A variety of laboratory tests were carried out to evaluate the performance of the new CACB. The main  
 300 laboratory programme covered the stiffness modulus, temperature susceptibility, rutting resistance and  
 301 resistance to moisture damage assessed using the indirect tensile stiffness modulus test, wheel tracking  
 302 tests at high temperatures and stiffness modulus ratio, respectively. In addition, scanning electron  
 303 microscopy was employed to investigate the microstructure of the new binder paste.

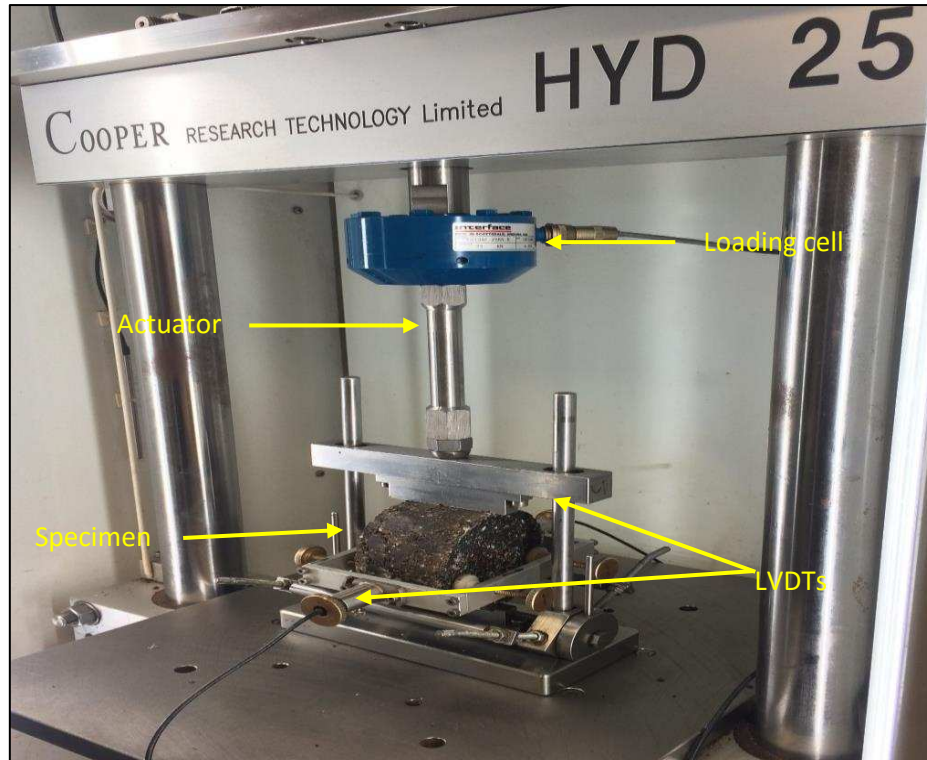
304

305 4.1 Indirect tensile stiffness modulus (ITSM) test

306 To assess the load bearing capacity of the layer manufactured from the asphalt mix, the indirect tensile  
307 stiffness modulus was determined. The ITSM tests were carried out at 20°C and were conducted on  
308 cylindrical specimens following the BS EN 12697-26 [39] using a Cooper Research Technology HYD  
309 25 testing machine as shown in Figure 5. Numerous researchers such as Al-Hdabi et al. [14], Nassar et  
310 al. [22], Monney et al. [43], Al-Busaltan et al. [44] have measured ITSM in order to evaluate the  
311 stiffness modulus of CBEMs. At minimum of five samples have been used for each mixture type. The  
312 modulus defines the vertical force under controlled stress. The test conditions were as shown in Table  
313 4. Incorporation of the HCFA was achieved through full replacement of the conventional limestone  
314 filler. Consequently, HCFA was selected for 100% replacements, while FC3R was used as  
315 supplementary cementitious material to produce a binary blended cement filler (BBCF). Sodium  
316 hydroxide (NaOH) alkali waste was then incorporated as a replacement for the pre-wetting water  
317 content to produce an alkali activated binary blended cement filler (ABBCF). Following their  
318 preparation, the samples were kept in the lab up to the time of testing. ITSM test was conducted at 1, 3,  
319 7, 14, 21 and 28 days.

320 The ITSM test was also performed at various testing temperatures, namely 5, 20 and 45 °C to investigate  
321 the susceptibility of CACB mixtures and control mixtures to temperature.





322

323

Figure 5. ITSM Apparatus machine

324

325 Table 4. Conditions of the ITSM Test

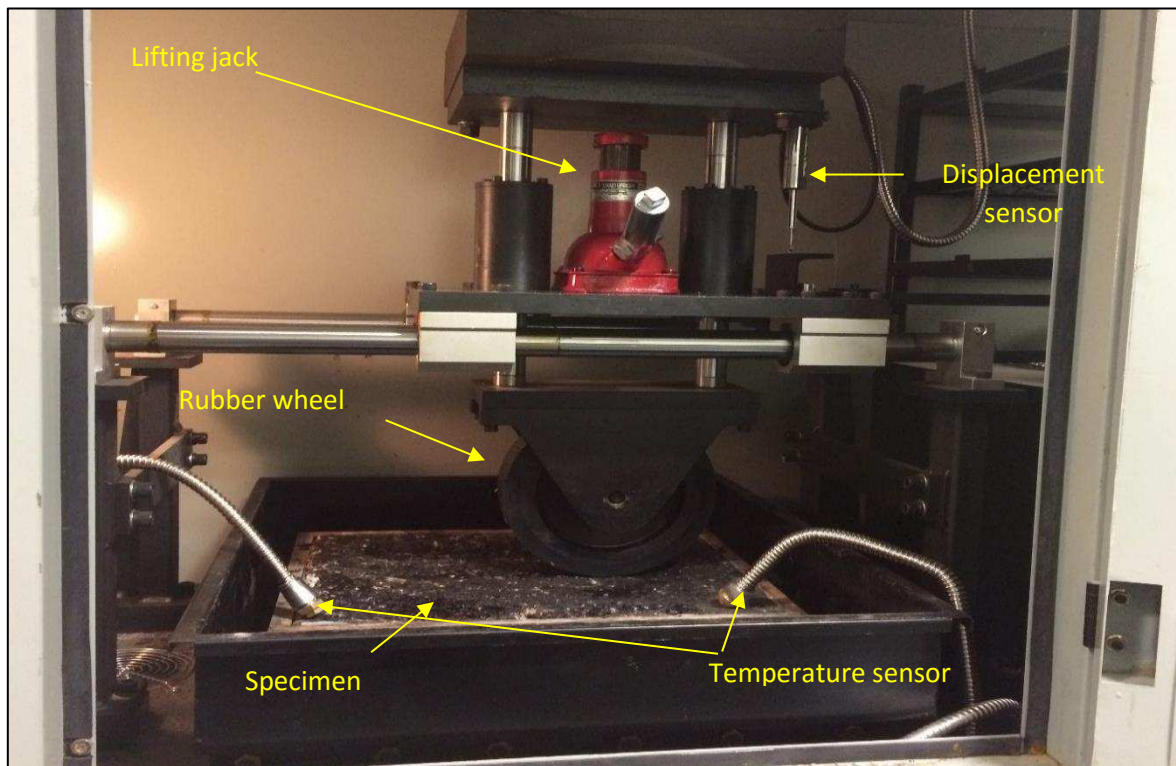
Item	Range
Specimen diameter, (mm)	$100 \pm 3$
Rise time, (ms)	$124 \pm 4$
Transient peak horizontal deformation, ( $\mu\text{m}$ )	5
Loading time, (s)	3-300
Poisson's ratio	0.35
No. of conditioning plus	10
Specimen thickness, (mm)	$63 \pm 3$

326

#### 327 4.2 Rutting resistance

328 The evaluation of rutting resistance was achieved using the wheel-tracking test which is a simulative  
 329 test to predict rut depth in accordance with the standard BS EN 12697-22 [45]. The test was performed  
 330 on slab specimens which were mixed and compacted by a roller compactor following the BS EN 12697-  
 331 33 [42]. The wheel-tracking test adopted by Ojum [46] was used to assess the rutting resistance of the  
 332 CBEMs. Before the test, slab samples were conditioned at  $60^{\circ}\text{C}$  for at least 4 hours. The wheel-tracking

333 test involves the application of a wheel pressure (0.7 MPa) on the slab specimens (400 x 305 x 50 mm)  
334 through repeated passes of a loaded wheel (10000 cycles). The traveling distance was  $230 \pm 10$  mm at  
335 a speed of  $42 \pm 1$  cycles/min. at a temperature of  $60^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The resulting deformation on the slab is  
336 measured in each of the wheel passes. Figure 6 shows the HYCZ-5 small size wheel-tracking equipment  
337 used by LCMT labs while Table 5 illustrate the test conditions. The tests were performed with five  
338 specimens per mix type.



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Figure 6. Wheel-tracking test equipment

351 Table 5. Wheel-track test conditions

Item	Range
Tyre of outside diameter, (mm)	200-205
Tyre width, (mm)	50 ± 5
Trolley travel distance, (mm)	230 ± 10
Trolley travel speed, (s/min)	42 ± 1
Contact pressure (MPa)	0.7 ± 0.05
Poisson's ratio	0.35
No. of conditioning cycles	5
No. of test cycles	10000
Test temperature, (°C)	60
Compaction	Roller compactor
Specimen temperature conditioning	4hr before testing

352

353 4.3 Water sensitivity

354 Water sensitivity has a vital role in the mix design criteria from a pavement engineer's point of view.  
 355 BS EN 12697-12 [47] was adopted to assess the moisture susceptibility of the CACB mixtures along  
 356 with cold and hot control mixtures. The stiffness modulus ratio (SMR) is expressed as the ratio of wet  
 357 stiffness to dry stiffness in the specimens. This was used to evaluate the resistance to water as  
 358 recommended by Al-Busaltan et al. [40], Al-Busaltan et al. [44], Al-Hdabi et al. [48].

359 In this test, two sets of cylindrical specimens were fabricated and separated using a Marshall hammer  
 360 with five parallel specimens in each set of samples. The first set of samples known as the dry set  
 361 (unconditioned), were kept dry at room temperature (20°C) for 24 hours in their mould. They were de-  
 362 moulded the following day and left in the lab for 7 days. The second set, known as the wet set  
 363 (conditioned), were left at lab temperature (20°C) for 24 hours, de-moulded and kept in the lab for  
 364 another 4 days. Following this, a vacuum (6.7 kPa pressure) was applied to the specimens for 30 minutes,  
 365 after which they were left immersed for 30 minutes and submerged in a water bath for 3 days at 40°C.  
 366 The two sets were then tested for ITSM whereby water damage resistance was evaluated by determining  
 367 the SMR ratio of the samples in each set calculated as follows:

368 
$$SMR = (\text{wet stiffness} / \text{dry stiffness}) \times 100$$

369 4.4. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) observation

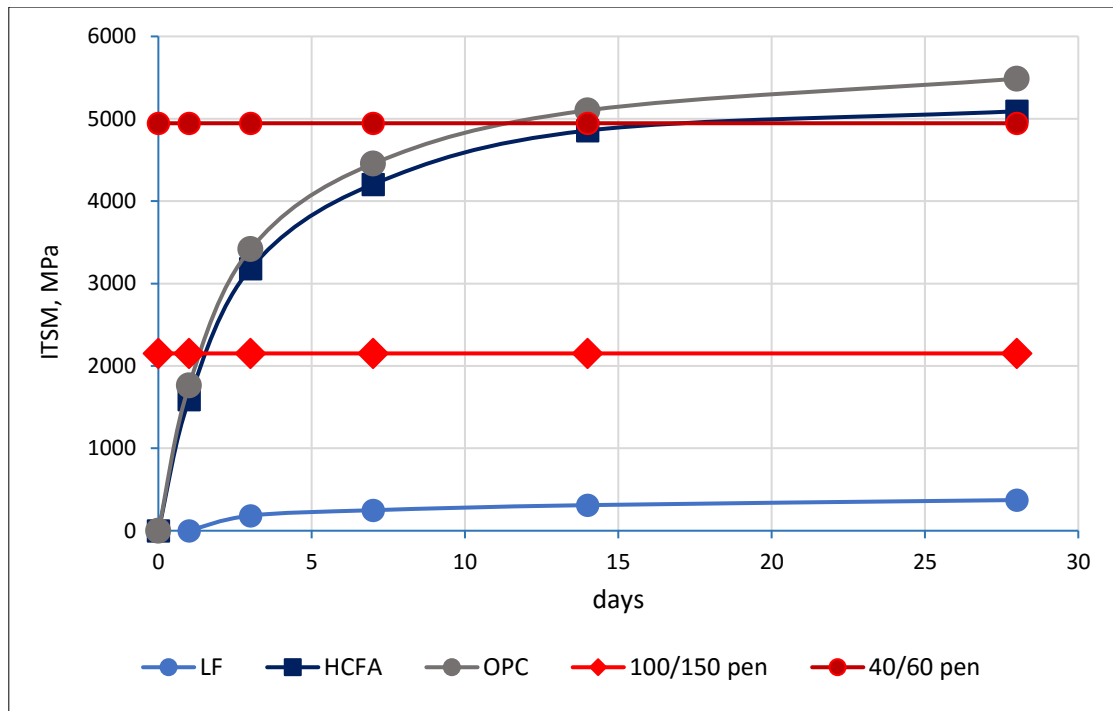
370 The microstructure of the original raw materials and fracture surfaces from the binder pastes were  
371 examined using a scanning electron microscopy (SEM). SEM is a technique for high-resolution imaging  
372 of surfaces used to examine the morphology of the object. The binder pastes of the ABBCF were  
373 prepared and dry samples were investigated with the aid of inspect scanning electron microscopy with  
374 accelerating voltages 5-25 kV. Proper fragments were taken off from the core of the paste at due age,  
375 i.e. 3 and 28 days for SEM observation. It was very important to guarantee that the fragments were  
376 snapped out of the cylinders by impact without touching any tools; if not, the paste surface would not  
377 be a natural one and would not represent the materials features correctly. Prior to carrying out SEM  
378 observations, the samples were dried in a vacuum pump to eliminate any evaporable water. They were  
379 then mounted onto aluminium stubs by means of double-sided adhesive carbon disks. A thin layer of  
380 Palladium was used to coat the fracture samples using a sputter coater to improve visibility.

381 **5. Results and discussion**

382 5.1. Performance of CACB in ITSM

383 Figure 7 shows the evolution of the indirect stiffness modulus test over 1, 3, 7, 14, 28 days for the  
384 activated mixtures by replacing the commercial limestone filler with HCFA. A significant improvement  
385 in ITSM of the CACB with HCFA was due to the hydration process that produced another binder  
386 resulting in additions to the bitumen residue binder. Consequently, the two binders generated  
387 microstructural integrity within the HCFA-emulsion mixtures. This resulted in the CACB mixture with  
388 HCFA becoming 17+ times higher than the reference LF mixture after just 3 days, offering a stiffness  
389 which overcomes that of traditional hot asphalt concrete binder courses 100/150 penetration grade in  
390 less than three days. However, the stiffness of the HCFA treated mixture is less than the stiffness of  
391 OPC by approximately 7% at 3 days. In contrast, there were no noticeable changes in stiffness for the  
392 two grades of hot asphalt concrete binder courses while the control LF showed the lowest ITSM at all  
393 ages.

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Figure 7. Influence of curing time on ITSM results

400

The second stage aimed to activate HCFA with FC3R to generate a binary blended cement filler (BBCF).

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The presence of pozzolanic particles in FC3R help to speed up hydration of the HCFA particles which

402

leads to a more hydrated product. Figure 8 illustrates the behaviour of the CACB mixtures with different

403

percentages of HCFA and FC3R. As a result, a new binary blended cement filler (BBCF) was

404

recommended with 4.5% of HCFA and 1.5% of FC3R. The performance of FC3R reveals its pozzolanic

405

activity which was reported by Payá et al. [49]. The reason for this enhancement is that the pozzolanic

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particles of FC3R react with  $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$  released during the hydration process and help to speed up

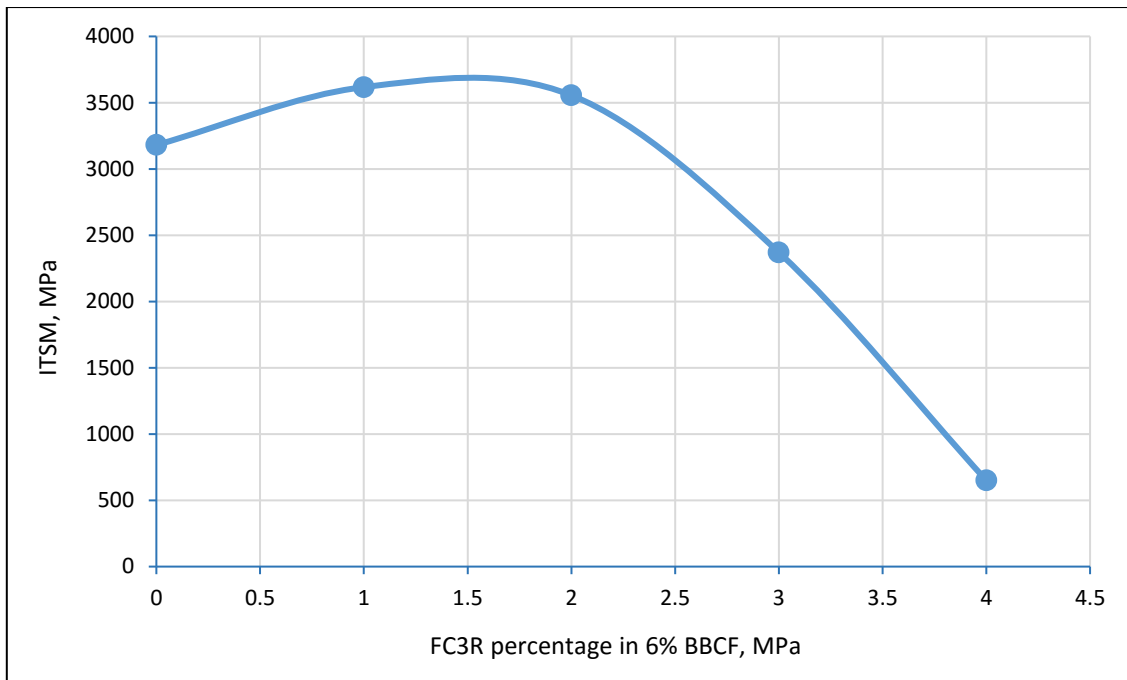
407

hydration of the HCFA particles. Consequently, more hydrated products were created. A balanced

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oxides composition was expected to be generated in this composition within the BBCF.

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411 Figure 8. Influence of replacement of HCFH with FC3R on stiffness modulus after 3 days

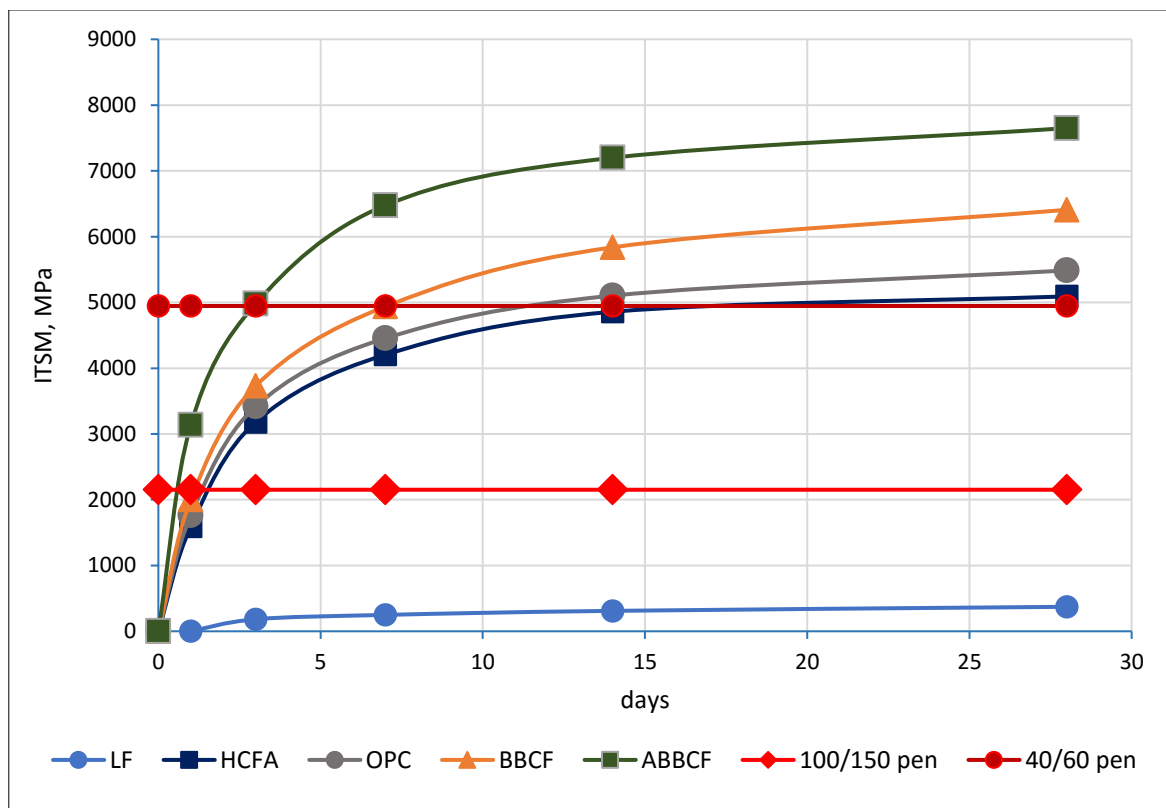
412

413 The third stage aimed to employ alkali activation for further development of the BBCF by using waste  
 414 alkali sodium hydroxide (NaOH) as a replacement of 3.5% of the pre-wetting water content. Alkali-  
 415 activation offers the opportunity to employ waste materials, because the material properties based on  
 416 alkali-activated binders are often greater than those of concrete and mortar prepared from standard  
 417 Portland cement [50]. Some studies have found that the addition of alkali-activators raise the pH of the  
 418 medium of hydration which improves breaking and dissolution of the glassy phase of pozzolanic  
 419 material [51, 52]. Li et al. [53] stated that fly ash can be activated by breaking down the glass phases  
 420 of particles through a rise in the alkalinity of the mixture. The usual technique used to increase alkalinity  
 421 is by adding a NaOH solution. However, in that alkaline environment, it is expected that glass phases  
 422 of fly ash particles will be broken and react with  $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$  creating CSH gel. Figure 10 shows that  
 423 CACB with an alkali activated binary blended cement filler (ABBCF), developed a higher stiffness  
 424 (approximately 33%) than BBCF mixtures after three days with 100% pre-water replacement by the  
 425 waste NaOH solution.

426

427 It can be observed from Figure 9 that CACB with ABBCF offers a significant stiffness modulus in  
 428 comparison to all other cold mixtures. In addition, the rate of stiffness modulus development was high  
 through to the 7 day point when before a reduction in rate was detected. The target stiffness (2152 MPa)

429 for the hot asphalt concrete 100/150 pen can be achieved in 1 day by curing with the ABBCF mixture.  
 430 It will then reach British and European requirements in terms of ITSM however, as reported by Leech  
 431 [5], traditional cold mixtures only achieve the necessary strength after 2–24 months. As a result, a new  
 432 cementitious material made completely from waste materials has been recommended for application in  
 433 CBEMs. These results are consistent with those achieved by Al-Busaltan et al. [40], Al-Hdabi et al.  
 434 [54]. In addition, the stiffness values obtained in this research are greater than those achieved in the  
 435 afore mentioned studies. Aggregate and emulsion type and the method of activation in this research  
 436 may be the factors that have led to this improvement.



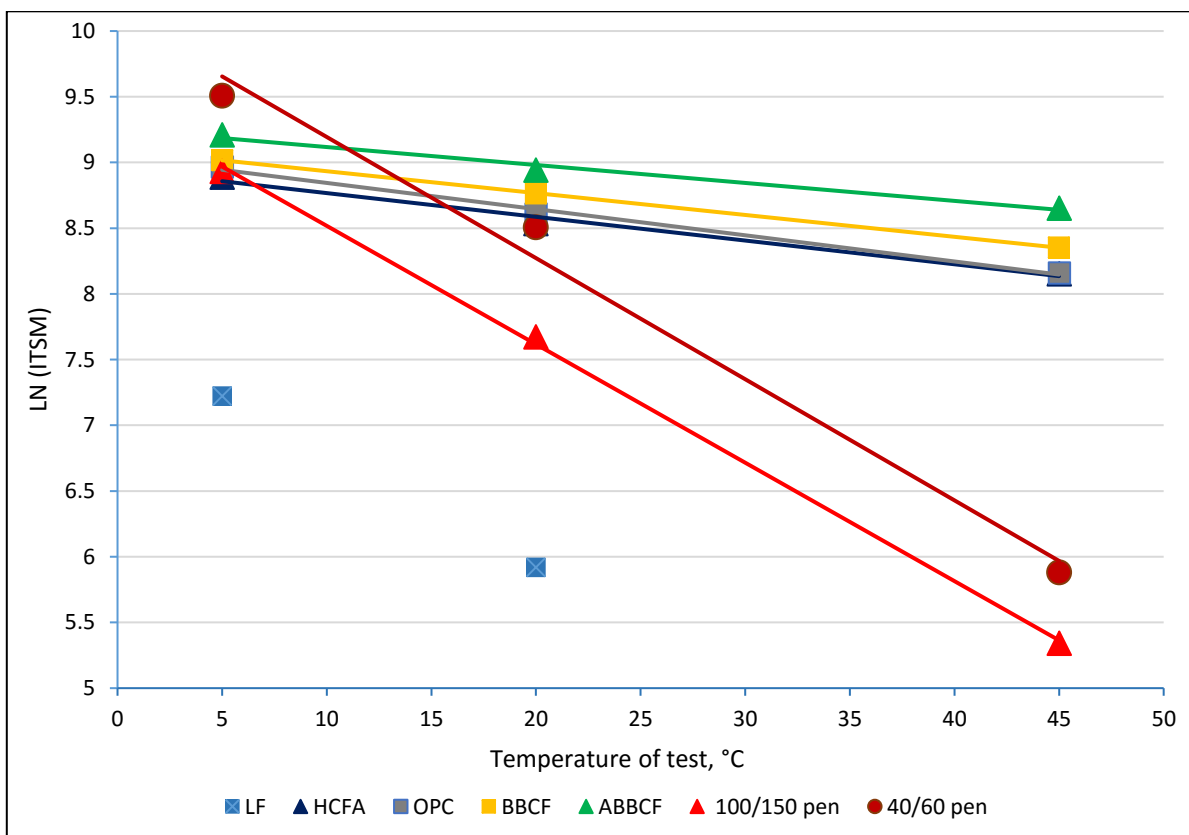
437

438 Figure 9. Influence of curing time on stiffness modulus  
 439  
 440

441 5.2. Temperature sensitivity performance

442 Studying the temperature sensitivity of CACBs can offer a useful insight into the stabilization  
 443 mechanisms of cold asphalt mixes. Figure 10 illustrates the temperature susceptibility results of all the  
 444 cold and hot mixtures. The slope of the curve in a semi-logarithmic plane characterizes temperature  
 445 susceptibility where the greater the rate of change, the more temperature sensitive the mixture. The

446 results of ITSM for the cold LF mixture is highly dependent on the test temperature applied; these  
 447 mixtures fail at 45°C. The stiffness modulus of the LF mixture decreases with the increase in  
 448 temperature. In addition, there is a strong trend apparent for both the hot asphalt concrete binder course  
 449 mixtures where they lost about 97% of their stiffness when heating from 5°C to 45°C. Nevertheless,  
 450 CACB mixtures with OPC, HCFA and BBCF and ABBCF showed a substantial lower thermal  
 451 sensitivity than the LF mixture and both hot asphalt concrete binder course mixtures. The ABBCF  
 452 mixture has an excellent performance potential regarding use in a hot climate. These findings are  
 453 comparable to those published by other authors [54, 55].



454 Figure 10. Temperature sensitivity results

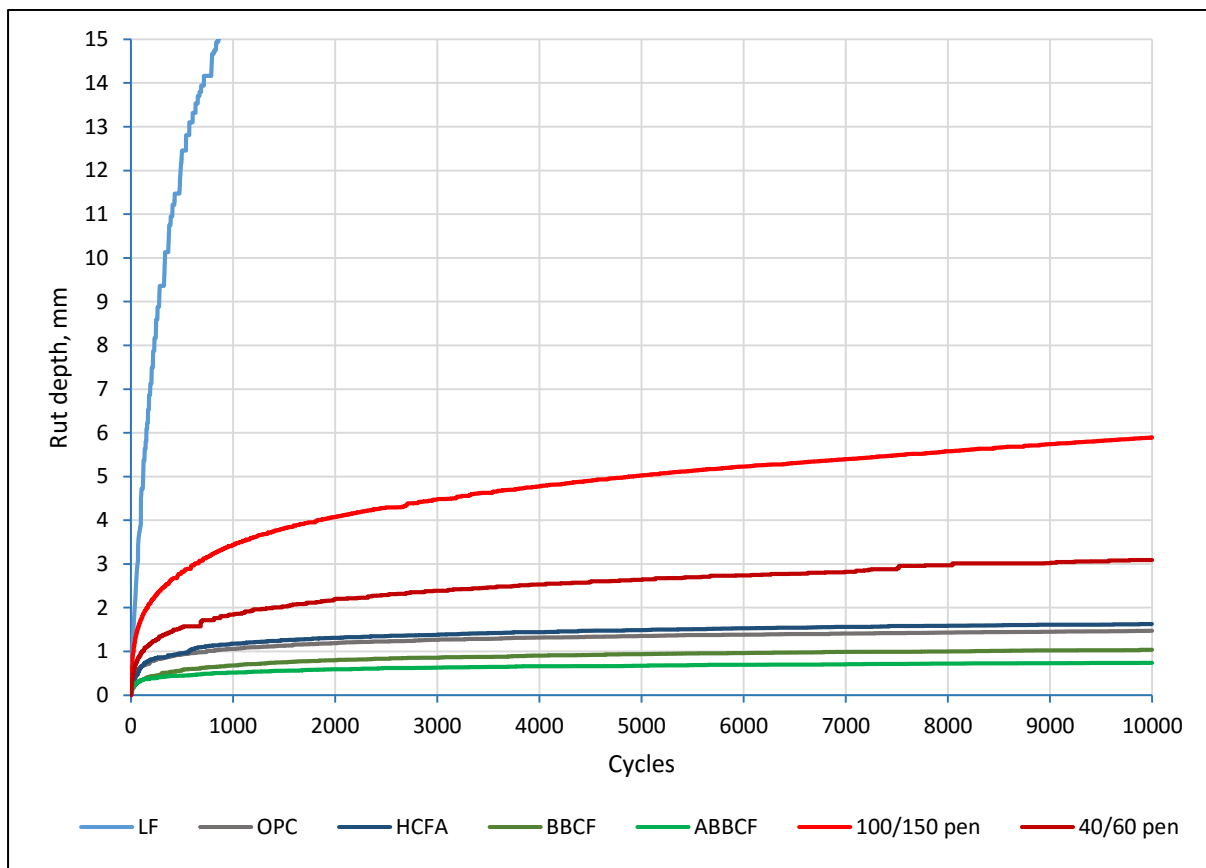
455 5.3. Performance of rutting in wheel track

456 The susceptibility to permanent deformation of the cold asphalt concrete mixtures in comparison to the  
 457 hot asphalt concrete mixtures were evaluated based on the rut resulting from repeated tracking of a  
 458 loaded wheel across slab specimens at a high temperature (60°C). Figure 11 shows the rutting test results  
 459 using the wheel-track. There was a remarkable decrease in rutting depth for CACB mixtures with HCFA,  
 460



461 OPC and BBCF. This might be due to the production of the new binder from the hydration process  
462 which makes the new CACB mixtures more rut resistant. The LF mixture has the highest rut depth  
463 (occurring during the first 1000 cycles) indicating that this mixture is more prone to rutting, revealing  
464 the weakness of such mixtures in summer weather and hot regions.

465 It is of interest to note that the ABBCF mixture dramatically reduced rut depth and exhibits considerably  
466 higher rutting resistance than LF, OPC, HCFA, BBCF and both control hot asphalt concrete mixtures.  
467 This might be related to the role of waste NaOH creating a dense microstructure activated through the  
468 hydration process. Accordingly, the new ABBCF mixture will be able to withstand a considerable traffic  
469 loading typical of road structures today indicating the potential advantage of applying this mixture on  
470 heavily trafficked roads.



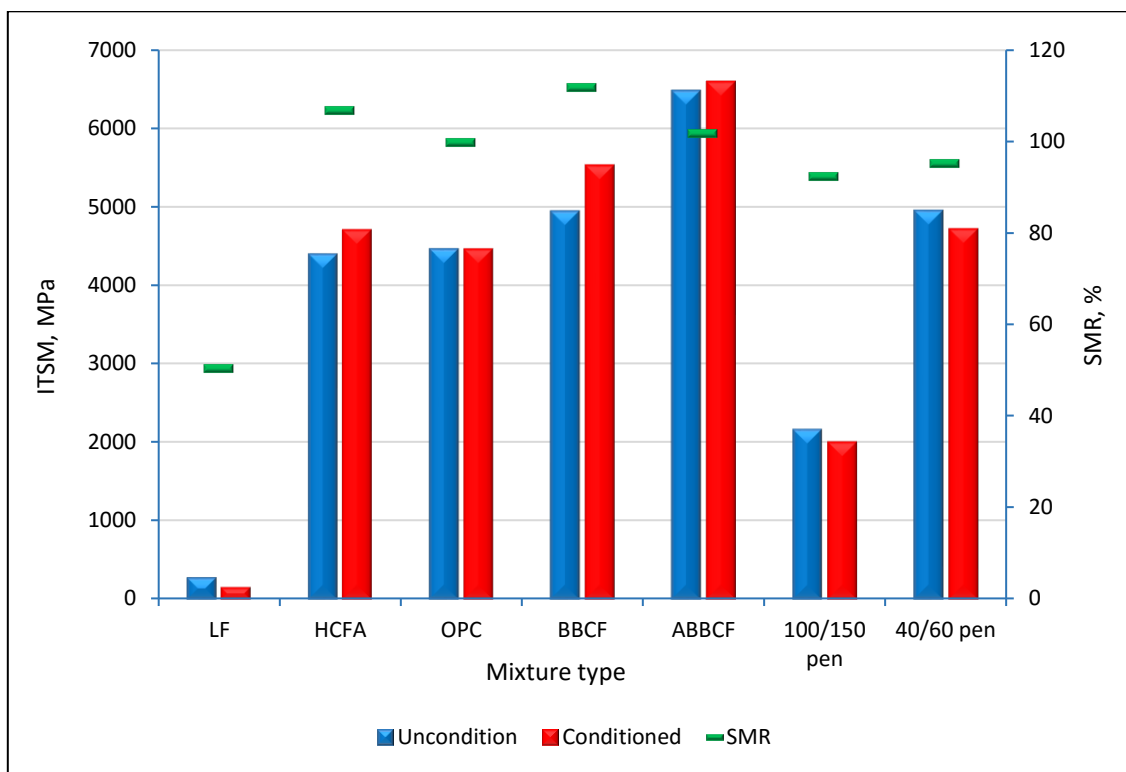
471

472 Figure 11. Comparison of rut depth

473 5.4. Water sensitivity performance

474 The water sensitivity results for CACB mixtures with different filler materials and the hot asphalt  
475 concrete binder course mixtures are shown in Figure 12. Here it can be observed that the CACB with

476 HCFA, OPC, BBCF and ABBCF exhibit higher values than the reference LF mixture and both grades  
 477 of hot asphalt concrete binder course mixtures. It seems clear that a lack of cohesion is the main reason  
 478 for the inferior performance against water action in the cold mixture made with LF. It can be observed  
 479 that the stiffness for the immersed samples for CACB with HCFA, BBCF and ABBCF is higher than  
 480 the stiffness of the dry samples. Samples immersed in water show an improved hydration process this  
 481 due to high water temperature (40°C). Heating accelerated the hydration process and more hydration  
 482 products were produced. Accordingly, CACB mixtures with HCAF, OPC, BBCF and ABBCF are less  
 483 susceptible to moisture damage.



484

485 Figure 12. Water sensitivity Performance results

486 5.5. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) observation

487 Figure 13 shows the SEM photographs after 3 and 28 days of curing for the paste sample and the original  
 488 raw materials (HCFA and FC3R in their dry state). Significant amounts of hydrates were formed at an  
 489 early stage of curing within the alkali activated binary blended filler (ABBCF). SEM analysis revealed  
 490 a more pronounced micro-structural evolution after 3 days; no intact filler particles can be detected after  
 491 3 days curing, the HCFA and FC3R powder particles found to be converted in to hydrates due to

492 successive hydration reaction. These hydration products created a dense material with high mechanical  
493 properties which is consistent with the development of the stiffness modulus of the ABBF samples.  
494 After 28 days, the surface of ABBF is covered by CSH gel and Portlandite (CH). The structure of the  
495 ABBCF is dense and crystalline products were mainly found in pore areas of this sample due to the  
496 reaction of the active BBCF and NaOH. Consequently, the ABBCF mixture can be said to have  
497 improved properties.

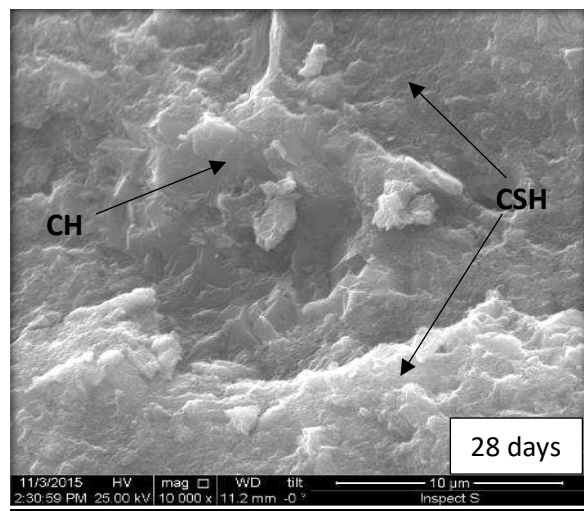
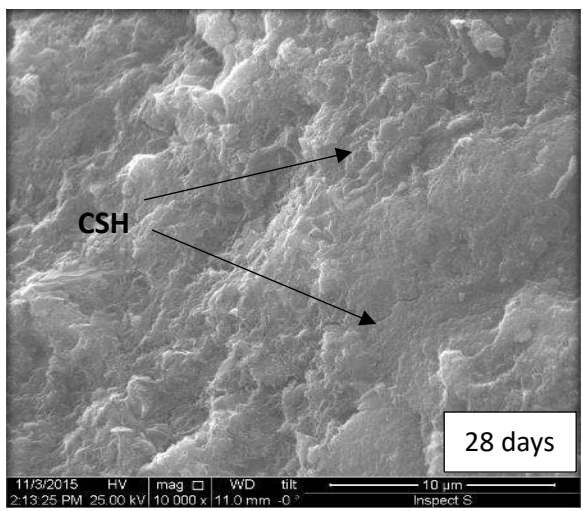
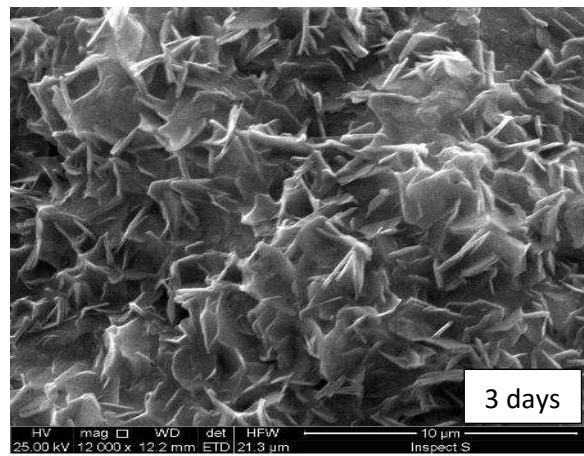
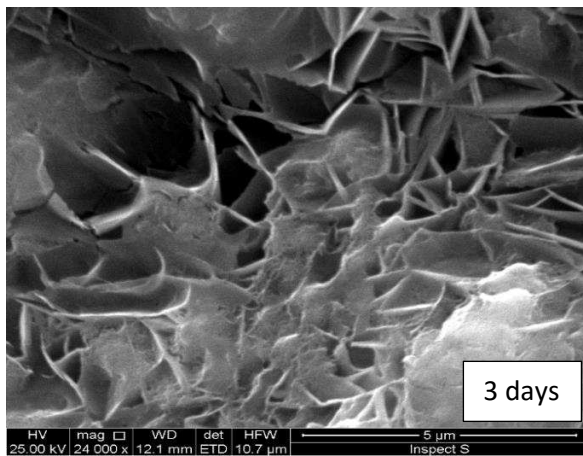
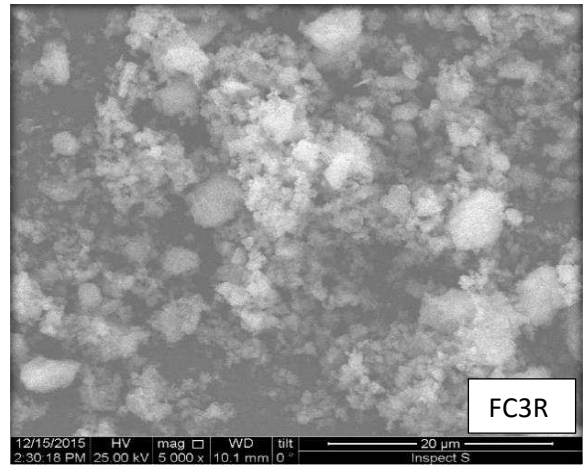
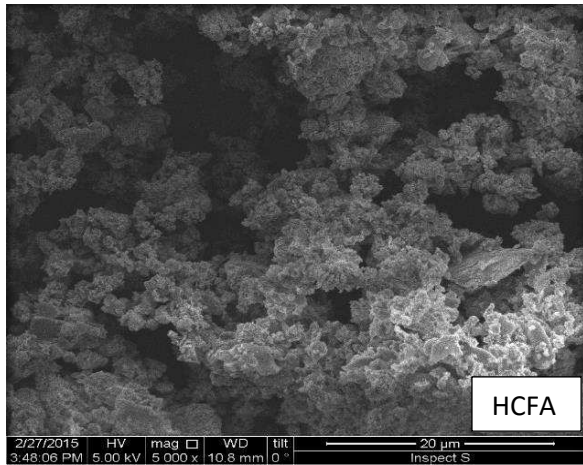
498 It is worth mentioning that the air voids present in the ABBCF mixture were 10.25% in comparison to  
499 10.93% in the reference cold LF mixture revealing an enhancement of volumetric properties for the  
500 ABBCF mixture. These findings are consistent with those obtained by Nassar et al. [22] and Dulaimi  
501 et al. [56]. Serfass [57] reported that the higher air void content in compacted CAM mixtures was the  
502 result of water evaporation. If a comparison is made between CMA and HMA, many tiny voids are  
503 present in the former due to the film made by coalescence and because the viscosity of the bitumen is  
504 higher at ambient temperature. Nassar et al. [22] recently reported that the presence of hydration  
505 products such as Ettringite, as a result of the use of OPC and fly ash (as a filler replacement) in the  
506 capillary voids of CBEM, can enhance the volumetric properties (less porosity) by decreasing both the  
507 pore size and their continuity. This prevents the movement of water and other aggressive fluids into the  
508 mixture.

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514 Figure 13. The microstructures of the original raw materials and ABBCF paste after 3 and 28 days

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518 **6. Conclusions**

519 A new fast-curing and environmentally friendly cold asphalt concrete for a binder course mixture  
520 (CACB) with high performance properties was developed at the Liverpool Centre for Material  
521 Technology (LCMT). In this mixture, a novel alkali activated binary blended cement filler (ABBCF)  
522 from waste materials was used as a substitution for commercial mineral filler. Based on the results  
523 achieved in the research performed, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- 524 1. A new binary blended cement filler (BBCF) from waste material was developed from 4.5%  
525 HCFA and 1.5% FC3R. This BBCF was activated by a waste NaOH solution to produce a novel  
526 alkali activated binary blended cement filler (ABBCF).
- 527 2. In terms of stiffness modulus, the new ABBCF mixture offers a stiffness modulus 27 times  
528 more than a mixture with commercial limestone dust after 3 days, this a result of the improved  
529 hydration products of the ABBCF.
- 530 3. The new ABBCF achieved the required stiffness for the conventional hot asphalt concrete  
531 binder course 100/150 pen (2152 MPa) in less than one day. This will overcome restrictions  
532 around the time required to achieve acceptable stiffness for traditional CBEMs.
- 533 4. The new ABBCF mixture has significant resistance to rutting in wheel-track tests at high  
534 temperatures. These results are much better than the two grade hot asphalt concrete binder  
535 course meaning it can carry heavy traffic loads in hot climate conditions.
- 536 5. In terms of water susceptibility, the ABBCF offers a conditioning stiffness modulus which is  
537 more than the unconditioned stiffness and this result is more than 100% in SMR which is better  
538 than the result for the two grades of hot asphalt concrete binder course. Progressive curing with  
539 ABBCF was accountable for the high water damage resistance.
- 540 6. The new ABBCF is significantly improved with reference to resistance to temperature  
541 sensitivity. It will therefore provide an appropriate solution in resistance to temperature  
542 variations.
- 543 7. SEM provides evidence for the existence of hydrate products which are responsible for ITSM  
544 development in the ABBCF mixture.

545 8. Decreasing waste disposal and saving raw materials will be ensured and will contribute to  
546 sustainable development.

547

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553 Liverpool John Moores University.

554

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