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1 **Use of brick waste for mortar-substrate optimisation of mortar-masonry**  
2 **systems**

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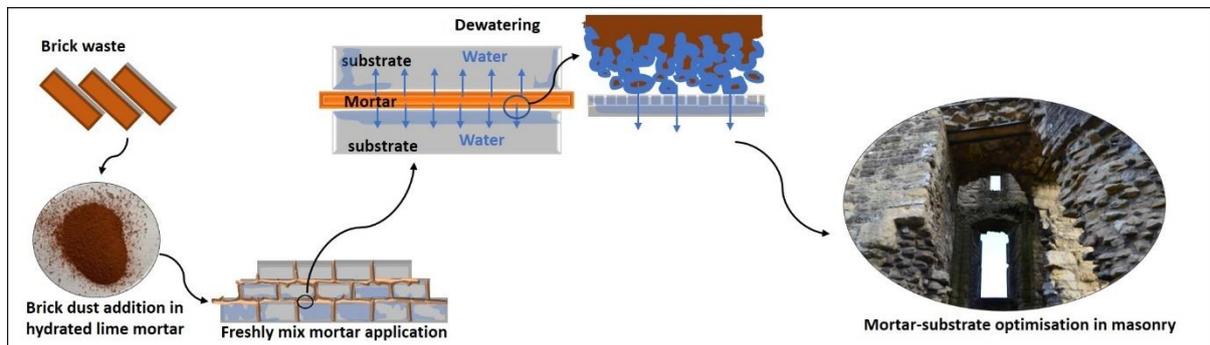
31 **Abstract**

32 This paper investigates the effect of brick dust on the water-releasing properties and dewatering of  
33 hydrated lime mortars. Dewatering in masonry occurs when freshly mixed mortar is applied to a dry  
34 substrate (e.g. fired bricks, stone) and can influence the physical and mechanical properties of the mortar  
35 and the mortar-masonry bond. Controlling these properties provides an important opportunity to  
36 optimise performance. This study evaluates the water transport kinetics of hydrated lime-brick dust  
37 mortars. The study demonstrates that the particle size distribution of the brick dust can effectively  
38 control transfer sorptivity and dewatering time. The measured dewatering times correlated to  
39 theoretically calculated values demonstrating the ability to accurately predict the dewatering  
40 characteristics of a mortar from a knowledge of the mix design. The use of waste brick dust in hydrated  
41 lime mortars provides an environmentally friendly alternative to waste disposal by routes such as  
42 landfill.

43 **Keywords:**

44 Dewatering, water transport kinetics, waste, waste disposal, hydrated lime

45 **Graphical Abstract**



46

47 Summary of the effect of brick dust addition on mortar dewatering. When freshly mixed mortar is  
48 applied the dewatering phenomenon occurs. The addition of brick dust increases the dewatering which  
49 provides mortar-substrate optimisation in masonry.

50 **1. Introduction**

51 In recent years interest in the utilisation of hydrated lime mortars has revitalised, particularly in the  
52 conservation and restoration of historic masonry [1]. The reintroduction of hydrated lime binders  
53 ensured mortar compatibility with historic masonry walls and provided benefits such as low shrinkage,  
54 ability of accommodate movement and improved resistance to salt and frost damage [1-5]. The use of  
55 cement plasters and mortars, particularly in restoration of masonry walls originally built from lime,  
56 often leads to progressive degradation due to incompatibility of the mechanical and chemical properties  
57 [6-10]. Hydrated lime, extensively used in historic masonry, sets and hardens due to carbonation [6,8,9],  
58 whereas natural hydraulic lime (NHL), lime-pozzolan and cement undergo chemical reactions with  
59 water that provide hydraulic binding characteristics [7,11-14]. Mortars containing hydrated lime set  
60 more slowly than hydraulic lime but nevertheless can still be used in load-bearing applications soon  
61 after application. Hence, the elasticity of these mortars can accommodate deformation during early  
62 settlement [12]. Therefore, the lower compressive strength, usually in the range of 0.8 to 2 MPa, attained  
63 as a result of the utilisation of hydrated lime is ideal for conservation and restoration of historic masonry  
64 walls [10,14], opposed to NHL and cement based mortars that produce much higher strengths [9].

65 Dewatering is the term used to describe the transfer of water from a freshly mixed mortar into a dry  
66 porous substrate [14]. Considering that plasters, renders and mortars are applied whilst in their fresh

67 state on to the absorbent substrates (usually a masonry unit such as fired bricks and stone) dewatering  
68 takes place. The degree of dewatering depends on the water retaining ability of the mortar and the  
69 sorptivity of the substrate. In the case of high-water retaining mortars in contact with a low sorptivity  
70 substrates, an inadequate bond is prone to develop between the mortar and the substrate. This is due to  
71 insufficient water transfer between mortar and substrate. However, in the case of high-water releasing  
72 mortars in contact with a high sorptivity substrate, a greater amount of water is absorbed from the  
73 freshly mixed mortars by the substrate. It is previously reported by Ince et. al. (2010) [15] that 40%-  
74 60% of the original mix water from the freshly mixed mortars could be lost during dewatering. This in  
75 turn adversely influences the mortar-brick interaction and causes detrimental effects to the fresh and  
76 hardened state properties of the resulting mortar [12-14].

77 There are some key issues to consider in the dewatering phenomena of masonry. Replacing the substrate  
78 unit is often not possible in conservation and restoration work. This is due to the structural and  
79 architectural compatibility of the original substrate unit with the existing masonry wall. In previous  
80 research, adhesion and slaking methods of hydrated lime mortars are studied mostly for their effects on  
81 mortar workability [17]. Through their influence on dewatering, the water retaining ability of repair  
82 mortars play a key role in determining the characteristics of the mortar-substrate bond, and consequently  
83 the degree to which they are optimised. However, plasters and mortars containing hydrated lime are  
84 known to have high water retaining characteristics and this is the main barrier to their use in restoration  
85 and construction practice. The high-water retaining ability of hydrated lime mortars can be considered  
86 the main impediment of mortar-substrate optimisation in masonry walls particularly when applied to  
87 low sorptivity substrate units.

88 There is a misconception that relevant standards do not comprehensively address the dewatering  
89 phenomenon. The process of dewatering starts as soon as the mortars and renders are cast. The casting  
90 often uses impervious steel moulds specified in testing standards. These moulds do not absorb any water  
91 therefore the dewatering process does not take place as is the case when mortars and renders are applied  
92 onto absorbent substrates units on-site. Generally during the dewatering process the water that is  
93 transferred to the substrate is the proportion of water in the mix which provides the required consistence  
94 rather than that required for hydration. Discrepancies between the standards and on-site practices are  
95 based on the differences between the water absorbent characteristics of on-site brick units versus the  
96 use of impermeable moulds used for laboratory measurements. It is well known that the water demands  
97 necessary to attain the standard consistence is often greater than the amount of water required for the  
98 hydration reactions. High water demand materials such as high fineness hydrated lime binders will  
99 absorb the excess water added to obtain the standard consistence. This in turn can minimise the  
100 dewatering effect of mortars. It is essential to note that, regardless of the degree of intensity, dewatering  
101 is unavoidable, and it will influence, both, the fresh and hardened paste properties of mortars and  
102 renders.

103 There are few published studies in the literature that focus on the in-situ dewatering mechanism of  
104 freshly mixed mortars with absorbent substrates (masonry wall units) [15]. Some of these studies focus  
105 largely on the ability to manipulate the high-water retaining characteristics of mortars using  
106 supplementary cementitious materials [15-20]. Ince et al. (2010) [15] were the first to derive an  
107 equation to quantify the time to dewater when freshly mixed mortars are placed on absorbent substrates.  
108 The factors affecting the water-retaining properties of freshly mixed mortars, and the effect of  
109 dewatering freshly mixed mortars and the associated effects on the hardened state properties of these  
110 mortars have also been reported by Ince et al. (2011) [20]. Despite the challenges in designing and  
111 carrying out the dewatering experiments, there is a growing need to study and control the water transport  
112 kinetics. The latter will provide an insight into the mechanisms responsible for water movement in  
113 mortar-substrate systems.

114 Production of lime releases less CO<sub>2</sub> emissions compared to cement clinker [21] since coal-fired kilns  
115 are used primarily in manufacturing. Manufacturing lime is more energy efficient as lower temperatures  
116 of around 900°C are sufficient to allow the chemical reactions required to take place. This is in contrast

117 to cement which requires heating in the range of 1400-1500°C to convert raw materials into Portland  
118 cement clinker. The complete life cycle and closed-loop associated with hydrated lime plays a  
119 significant role in decreasing the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions as the substantial portion of the CO<sub>2</sub> generated during  
120 calcination is reabsorbed by the binder during hardening (carbonation) [22]. The reduced CO<sub>2</sub> emissions  
121 bring associated advantages such as improved air quality and reduced dependence of the global  
122 economy on fossil fuels. The use of softer and lighter hydrated lime mortars with a low bond strength  
123 that can be easily removed also enables substrate units such as blocks, bricks and stone to be recycled  
124 when a structure reaches the end of its life span [7-9]. This modality further contributes in saving the  
125 energy and the associated CO<sub>2</sub> emissions that would be required to manufacture the substrate materials  
126 [24].

127 Existing alternatives for waste disposal, such as landfilling and recycling, could be utilised for waste  
128 brick dust produced from surplus production and debris during manufacturing [25]. Although each of  
129 these alternatives has its own credentials, landfilling brick dust waste could result in the formation of  
130 leachates such as Pb, Cs [26], As, Zn, sulphates, Ca, S, Si, Mg and Fe [27]. Recycling can be utilised  
131 to compensate the adverse effects of landfilling depending on the associated costs. The methane that is  
132 produced during decomposition of any organic materials, such as hemp and natural fibres, which are  
133 used in combination with lime-based binders can also accelerate global warming and ozone depletion.  
134 The waste disposal approach adopted in this paper, enables the reuse of the brick dust waste in the  
135 production of hydrated lime mortars. Reusing brick dust waste, as a pozzolanic addition, does not  
136 require any prior processing allowing direct use of these materials in mortar manufacture. Therefore,  
137 incorporating brick dust waste in hydrated lime mortar does not only encourage the re-introduction of  
138 the greener hydrated lime binders in engineering practices but also fosters a cleaner route for the  
139 disposal of the brick waste.

140 This paper investigates the extent to which water-releasing mortars can control the dewatering  
141 mechanism. The high-water retaining ability of modified hydrated lime mortars with brick dust has  
142 been used to attain mortar-substrate optimisation. Hydrated lime mortars and mortars with two  
143 incremental additions of brick dust were prepared. Following characterisation of raw materials, the  
144 influence of brick dust on the consistence and setting time is reported. The influence of brick dust on  
145 the mortar sorptivity, transfer sorptivity and dewatering time is also explored. This paper specifically  
146 focuses on how substrate sorptivity and pozzolanic brick dust and its fineness influence the water  
147 transport kinetics of hydrated lime mortars. The experimentally measured values of dewatering time  
148 were then validated using the calculated time to dewater for all cases examined. The environmental  
149 implications and the associated sustainability impact of the utilisation of brick dust, obtained from the  
150 local industry, in hydrated lime mortars is also assessed in the paper. The brick dust used in this research  
151 is both classified as a surplus by-product and as a waste material with the potential to play an important  
152 role in minimising CO<sub>2</sub> emissions [28]. The results reported in this study have important practical  
153 implications in conservation and restoration of masonry walls and encourage the reutilisation of  
154 modified hydrated lime binders in construction and restoration practices. The use of the waste materials  
155 in hydrated lime mortars, such as brick dust, provides a cleaner alternative for waste disposal  
156 management, particularly when compared to the conventional waste disposal routes.

## 157 **2. Theoretical background**

158 To quantify the dewatering process for a fresh mortar-substrate system, a few parameters need to be  
159 identified. These parameters are desorptivity ( $R$ ) and sorptivity ( $S$ ) and transfer sorptivity ( $A$ ). The  
160 desorptivity,  $R$ , defines the water retaining ability of a wet mix such as a mortar in this study. A low  $R$   
161 value indicates a high water retaining characteristic of the mix [23,24]. The sorptivity,  $S$ , defines the  
162 ability of a porous material to absorb water by capillarity. The sorptivity is measured by placing a dried  
163 substrate in contact with water and involves removing and weighing the substrate at intervals [25,26].  
164 The sorptivity is represented as the gradient of a plot of the cumulative absorbed volume of water per  
165 unit area of absorbing surface versus the square root of time. The transfer sorptivity,  $A$ , is a function of  
166 both  $R$  and  $S$  and characterises the ability of a porous material to absorb water from a wet mix, as seen

167 in equation (1) [31]. The transfer sorptivity is measured by placing a dried substrate in contact with a  
 168 wet mix and involves removing and weighing the substrate at intervals. The transfer sorptivity is defined  
 169 as the gradient of a plot of the cumulative absorbed volume of water per unit area of material in contact  
 170 with the wet mix versus the square root of time. These parameters are related by [33]:

$$\frac{1}{A^2} = \frac{1}{R^2} + \frac{1}{S^2} \quad (1)$$

171 Sharp Front theory is then used to derive an equation describing the time taken to dewater a wet mix,  
 172  $t_{dw}$ , by an absorbent substrate [15]. The Sharp front theory is described in detail in [25,31]. The  
 173 assumption that the wetted zone behind an advancing wet front is uniform rather than diffuse simplifies  
 174 the analysis considerably. A full derivation of equation (2) can be found in [15]:

$$t_{dw} = \left( \frac{L\alpha}{A} \right)^2 \quad (2)$$

175 The  $t_{dw}$  corresponds to the time at which no further water can be absorbed by the substrate.  $A$  is the  
 176 transfer sorptivity,  $L$  is the mortar depth and  $\alpha$  is a complex parameter to account for the initial and final  
 177 volume fractions of water and solid contents. Substrate–mortar–substrate joint is considered to represent  
 178 the idealised case of two bricks (substrate) concurrently placed in contact with wet mortar. The bricks  
 179 are initially dry so that at time  $t = 0$  the volume fraction water content of each brick,  $\theta = 0$ . The wet mix,  
 180 of thickness  $L$ , has an initial volume fraction water content  $\theta_i$  and a volume fraction solids content  $\phi_i$  so  
 181 that  $\theta + \phi = 1$ . A uniform distribution of the solids throughout the wet mix was considered. As water is  
 182 absorbed from the wet mortars by the bricks, an advancing wetted zone is created within each brick.  
 183 As desorption of water proceeds, the solids are transported to the mortar-substrate interfaces where they  
 184 consolidate forming a filter cake. Desorption eventually ceases when all the wet mix has been converted  
 185 to filter cake. As for the  $\alpha$ , a full derivation of equation (3) can be found in [15], comprises the initial  
 186 and final volume fractions of water and solid contents:

$$\alpha = \theta_i - \phi_i \frac{\theta_c}{\phi_c} \quad (3)$$

187 Where  $\theta_i$  and  $\theta_c$  are the initial and final volume fractions of water and the  $\phi_i$  and  $\phi_c$  are the initial and  
 188 final volume fractions of solids respectively. When the timescale of the dewatering process is  
 189 considered, the withdrawal of water from a wet mix by the dry substrate is described by

$$i = At^{1/2} \quad (4)$$

190 Where  $A$  is the transfer sorptivity [33]. It has been previously shown that  $i = L\alpha$  [15] and so, from  
 191 equation (4),  $L\alpha = At^{1/2}$ . All the wet mix will be converted to filter cake at time  $t = t_{dw}$  given by  $t_{dw} =$   
 192  $(L\alpha/A)^{1/2}$ .

### 193 3. Experimental Materials and Scheme

194 The hydrated lime, standard sand and brick dust, as a pozzolan addition, are the main raw materials  
 195 used in this study. CL80, which conforms to EN 459-1 was used to obtain the hydrated lime mortars.  
 196 Standard sand also follows EN 196-1. The brick dust, attained as a surplus production was supplied by  
 197 Gürdağ Trading and Industry Ltd of Northern Cyprus. The brick dust was air dried and sieved to remove  
 198 any debris prior to its use. The study comprises a control mortar with volume fractions of lime: sand of  
 199 1:2 and two types of mortars comprising lime: pozzolan: sand in the ratios of 1:1/4: 2 and 1:1:2

200 respectively. The mortars assigned as C, 1/4P and 1P respectively. The mass of the constituent materials,  
 201 essential to produce the envisaged mix proportions by volume, were calculated from density. Mix  
 202 constituents of the raw materials are summarised in Table 1. The volume proportions of pozzolanic  
 203 additions used in this study are in a good agreement with those previously reported in the literature for  
 204 conservation applications [34]. The standard mixing regime described by [35] is followed. It must be  
 205 noted that the water content is deliberately increased with the increasing additions of brick dust to attain  
 206 a constant consistence of each mixture investigated.

207 **Table 1**  
 208 Mix constituents.

Specimen	Materials	Volume Proportions	Mass (g)
Hydrated lime mortar Control (C)	Water	0.567	340
	Lime	1	396
	Brick Dust	0	0
	Sand	2	1836
Hydrated lime with 0.09 volume fraction of brick dust (1/4 P)	Water	0.583	350
	Lime	1	396
	Brick Dust	0.25	65
	Sand	2	1836
Hydrated lime with 0.36 volume fraction of brick dust (1 P)	Water	0.617	370
	Lime	1	396
	Brick Dust	1	263
	Sand	2	1836

209 Three cases were examined as shown in Table 2. Case 1 was designed as a reference, whereas Cases 2  
 210 and Case 3 address the effect of substrate sorptivity as well as the fineness of the pozzolanic addition  
 211 on the transfer sorptivity and time taken to dewater freshly mixed lime mortars.

212 **Table 2**  
 213 Three cases examined in the paper.

Case	Specimen	PSD	Sorptivity of substrate
Case 1	C	PSD 1 (0.6µm to 478µm)	2.1mm/min <sup>1/2</sup>
	1/4P		
	1P		
Case 2	C	PSD 1 (0.6µm to 478µm)	3.2mm/min <sup>1/2</sup>
	1/4P		
	1P		
Case 3	C	PSD 2 (100µm to 478µm)	2.1mm/min <sup>1/2</sup>
	1/4P		
	1P		

214 PSD = Particle Size Distribution.

215 Consistence of freshly mixed mortars was measured using the flow test [34] and the setting time using  
 216 Vicat apparatus [36]. Powder X-ray Florescence spectroscopy was conducted to determine the  
 217 elemental compositions of the raw materials used to produce mortars specimens. A Rigaku ZSX Primus

218 II with 0.1-50 Å wavelength X-rays was employed for this analysis. Particle size distribution was  
 219 determined using a Malvern Mastersizer 2000. Scanning electron microscopy was carried out using a  
 220 QUANTA 400F Field Emission SEM. All samples were held under vacuum for 24 hours prior to  
 221 imaging to reduce moisture levels. A specimen penetration energy of 10eV was used for all samples.  
 222 Surface charging effects were reduced by the application of a sputtered layer of gold metal to the  
 223 surfaces under investigation.

224 The measurement of transfer sorptivity was conducted by placing the substrate unit in contact with a  
 225 wet mortar mix [33]. Performing these measurements are experimentally challenging due to the  
 226 adhesion between the substrate and the wet mix as well as the limited time available prior to the  
 227 stiffening of the wet mix. Hydrated lime mortars were placed into five equally sized rectangular  
 228 compartments in a purpose-built mould. One brick section was then placed in contact with the mortar  
 229 in each compartment as shown in Figure 1. Each brick of size 46mm × 100mm was dried to a constant  
 230 weight at 105°C. Brick sections were removed from the mortar consecutively at increasing time  
 231 intervals and weighed. The mass, and hence the volume, of water absorbed at five-time intervals was  
 232 then obtained. The experiment was designed, from prior knowledge of the relevant parameters, so that  
 233 transfer sorptivity, time to dewater and the final water content of the dewatered mix could be obtained  
 234 from the same set of data in the experimental results section. Transfer sorptivity and time to dewater  
 235 were determined from a plot of cumulative absorbed volume of water per unit area (*i*) versus time to  
 236 dewater (*t<sub>dw</sub>*). These experiments were designed to generate 3 data points for the first stage where the  
 237 gradient of this data defines the transfer sorptivity [20,29,31-33]. The second stage was then defined  
 238 using two data points which indicate complete dewatering. The intersection of these two distinct stages  
 239 provided the time to dewater on the X-axis.



240

241 **Figure 1.** The purpose-built mould used to obtain the transfer sorptivity.

242 As explained previously, the computation of  $\alpha$  relied on the experimental measurements of  $\theta_i$  and  $\varphi_i$ .  
 243 The initial volume fraction water content of the wet mix,  $\theta_i$ , is defined with the fraction of volume of  
 244 water added to mix,  $V_{WA}$  and Volume of wet mix,  $V_{WM}$ :

$$\theta_i = \frac{V_{WA}}{V_{WM}} \quad (5)$$

245 The mass and the volume of water contained in the wet mix was known, as the total mass of wet mix  
 246 produced. To determine the total volume of the wet mix, the density of the mix was calculated initially.  
 247 Density was obtained using the graduated cylinder, which involved measuring the mass of a known  
 248 volume of the wet mix. The density and the total mass of the wet mix measured was then used to  
 249 determine the total volume of the wet mix. The volume fraction water content of the dewatered mix (i.e.

250 the filter cake) is defined with the fraction of volume of water remaining in mix,  $V_{WR}$  and volume of  
251 dewatered mix,  $V_{DM}$ :

$$\theta_c = \frac{V_{WR}}{V_{DM}} \quad (6)$$

252 For any compartment in the mould, the mass of wet mix was known before dewatering. The mass of  
253 absorbed water by the associated substrate is also known. By recording the total mass of the wet mix,  
254 it was possible to obtain the total mass of the absorbed water. The volume of water remaining in the  
255 mix was determined by subtracting the total mass of absorbed water by the substrate, from the initial  
256 mass of water added to the mix. The volume of the dewatered mix was then determined using density  
257 measurements. From these measurements, the volume fraction of water in the dewatered mix was  
258 established.

259 The water loss was calculated based on the mass of mortar in the 5<sup>th</sup> compartment used in the dewatering  
260 experiments, and the absorbed volume of water by the brick unit in contact with the wet mix in the 5<sup>th</sup>  
261 compartment. Data of the 5<sup>th</sup> compartment was used to calculate the water loss to ensure complete  
262 dewatering. The water loss was calculated in percent as the total mass of the wet mix was known.

## 263 4. Results and Analysis

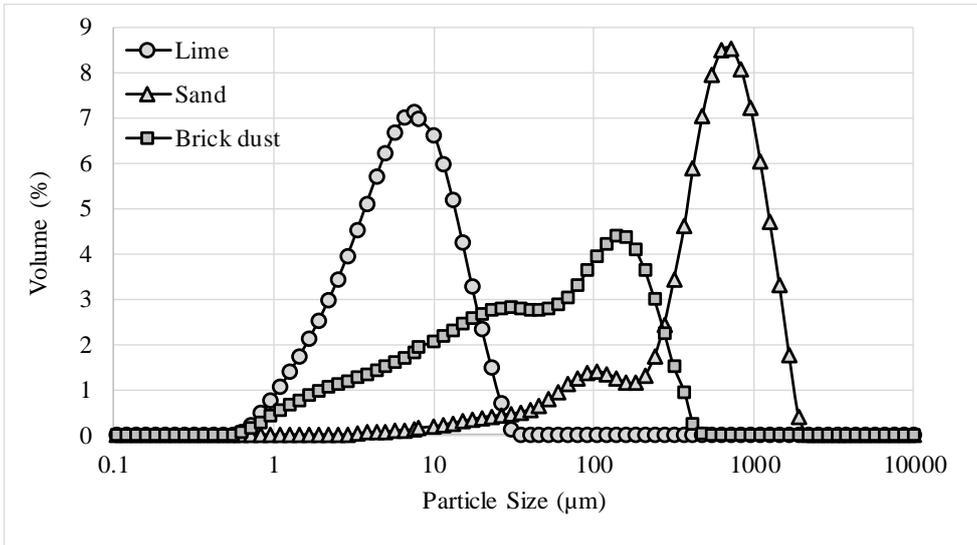
### 264 4.1. Characterisation

265 Elemental analysis of the hydrated lime (CL80), brick dust and sand obtained from an X-ray  
266 fluorescence (XRF) analysis is summarised in Table 3 and was used to confirm compliance of the raw  
267 materials with the appropriate standards. *CL80* binder, showed a 94% CaO content and hence  
268 compliance with BS EN 459-1. 64% of the brick dust, used as a pozzolanic material, in this study  
269 comprised of silicon dioxide ( $\text{SiO}_2$ ), aluminium oxide ( $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ), and iron oxide ( $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ). Although this is  
270 less than the 70% required according to the American Standard [39], the 21.6% CaO content and the  
271 quantity of  $\text{SO}_3$  being less than 4% enabled compliance with ASTM C618 and validated the moderate  
272 pozzolanic nature of the brick dust. The chemical composition of the standard sand complied with BS  
273 EN 196-1.

274 The particle size distribution of the raw materials used as constituents in mortar, are shown in Figure 2.  
275 The hydrated lime showed the highest fineness with the particle size ranging from 0.6 $\mu\text{m}$  to 30 $\mu\text{m}$ . The  
276 particle size distribution of the standard sand was in the range of 3 $\mu\text{m}$  to 4 mm and the brick dust particle  
277 size distribution was in the range of 0.6 $\mu\text{m}$  to 478 $\mu\text{m}$ , shown in Figure 2, is designated as PSD 1, which  
278 spanned that of the lime binder and the standard sand. As previously reported in Section 3, one of the  
279 objectives of this study was to investigate the effect of the brick dust fineness on the water transport  
280 kinetics of hydrated lime mortars. The particle size distribution of brick dust chosen to be in the range  
281 100 $\mu\text{m}$  to 478 $\mu\text{m}$ , is designated as PSD 2. Case 3 was used to investigate the effect of coarse particles  
282 size of the brick dust on the water transport kinetics of hydrated lime mortars.

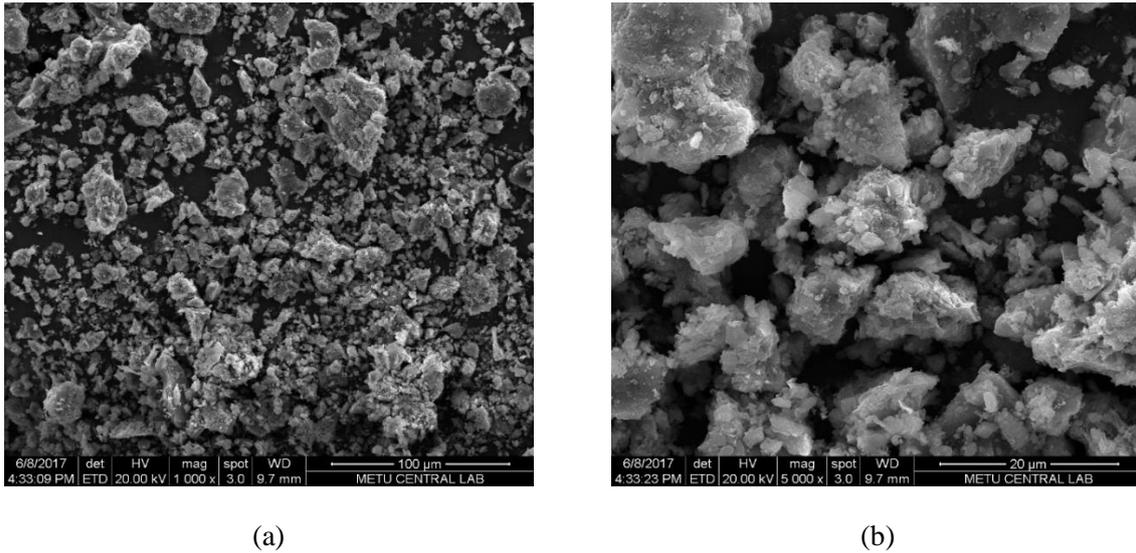
283 **Table 3**  
 284 Chemical composition of constituent materials determined from X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy.

285	Chemical composition	Lime (%)	Brick dust (%)	Sand (%)
286	CaO	94.0	21.6	0.463
	MgO	2.93	6.03	0.142
287	SO <sub>3</sub>	1.84	3.02	0.0411
	SiO <sub>2</sub>	0.513	41.0	91.9
288	Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	0.234	13.4	3.91
	Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	0.234	10.2	0.659
289	Cl	0.0783	0.0728	0.0178
	V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	0.0688	0.0866	-
290	K <sub>2</sub> O	0.0669	1.91	1.31
291	Na <sub>2</sub> O	0.0522	1.06	0.498
	SrO	0.0457	0.0841	0.0152
292	NiO	0.0225	0.0465	-
293	P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	0.0094	0.238	0.0597
	TiO <sub>2</sub>	-	0.935	0.832
294	MnO	-	0.293	0.0398
	SrO	-	0.0841	0.0152
	Cr <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	-	0.0554	0.0241



295  
 296 **Figure 2.** Particle Size Distribution of hydrated lime, brick dust, sand.

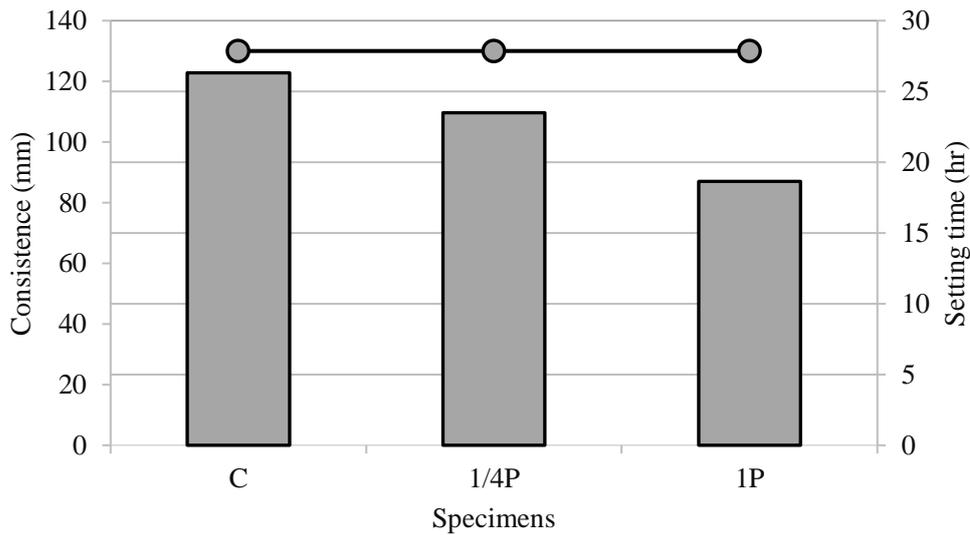
297 Scanning electron microscope (SEM) images of brick dust with varying angular size of particles are  
 298 shown in Figure 3(a). Irregular glassy particles can be seen in Figure 3(b).



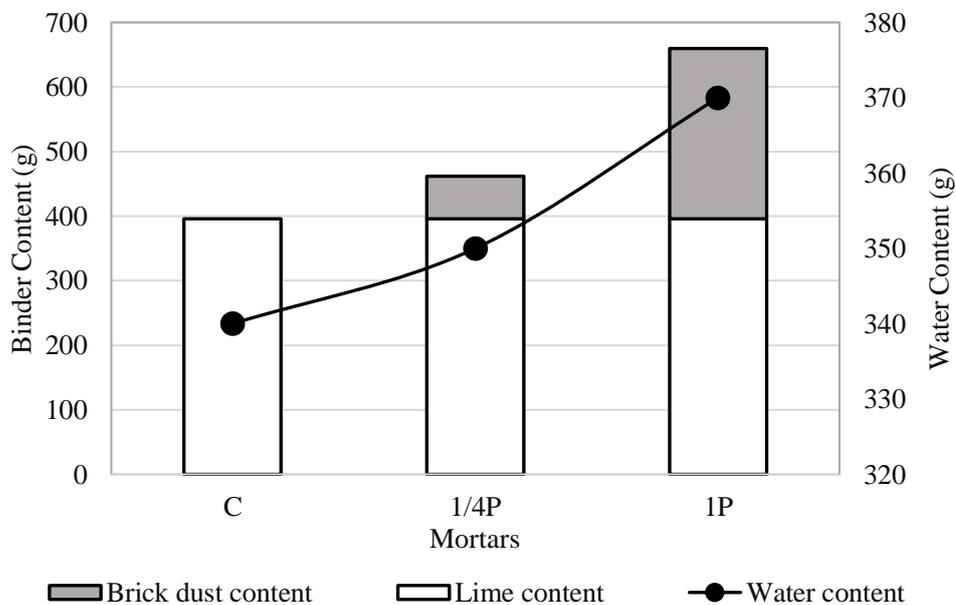
299 **Figure 3.** Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of brick dust (a) scale bar 100 $\mu$ m, (b) scale  
 300 bar 20 $\mu$ m.

301 **4.2. Consistence and Setting Time**

302 The influence of brick dust on the consistence and setting time of the mortars is described in this section.  
 303 Figure 4(a) shows that the consistence, measured using the flow table, was 130 mm for all mortars  
 304 examined. It is noteworthy that the water content was increased deliberately with the increased additions  
 305 of brick dust to attain constant consistence of 130 mm for all mortar types. Increasing the water content  
 306 was essential to attain constant consistence because of the overall increase in the fineness of the mixture  
 307 due to the increased level of pozzolanic additions. The mortar setting time decreased systematically  
 308 with the addition of brick dust as shown in Figure 4(a). The decrease in the setting time was attributed  
 309 to the coarser matrix resulting from the brick dust additions. Less dense and more porous matrix  
 310 development, as a result of the inclusions of coarser particle sizes of brick dust, enabled water to follow  
 311 more distinct pathways to evaporate and hence accelerated the setting of these mortars [40]. Long  
 312 setting times of hydrated lime often forms a barrier for the use of these binders in construction practice.  
 313 Considerable decreases in the setting time of the hydrated lime mortars, attributed to the brick dust  
 314 enhancement, could promote the re-introduction of these enhanced binders in conservation and  
 315 restoration work. The binder contents of the hydrated lime mortars were plotted against the water  
 316 contents, as shown in Figure 4(b). This figure shows that the addition of brick dust resulted in an overall  
 317 increase in the solid content. In turn, this resulted in increasingly more water being required to provide  
 318 a constant consistence for all the mixes examined.



(a)



(b)

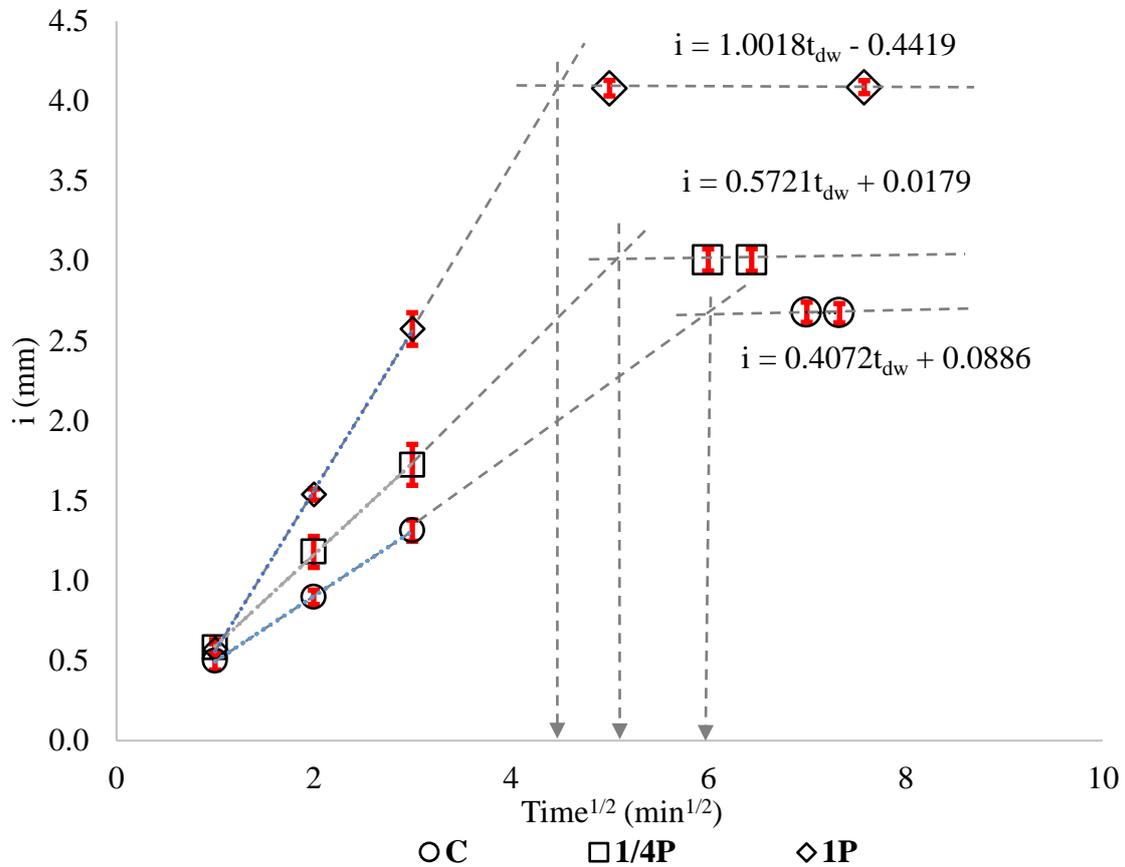
340 **Figure 4.** (a) Consistence and setting time, and (b) binder content versus the water content of  
 341 hydrated lime mortars with brick dust.

### 342 4.3 Transfer Sorptivity and Time to Dewater

343 The effect of brick dust as a pozzolanic addition on the transfer sorptivity and time taken to dewater  
 344 freshly mixed lime mortars is described in this section. Three cases including 4 specimens for each were  
 345 examined as previously noted: Case 1, designed as a reference case, comprises substrates of constant  
 346 sorptivity of  $2.1 \text{ mm/min}^{1/2}$  with brick dust, used as a pozzolanic addition, particles size range of  $0.6\mu\text{m}$   
 347 to  $478\mu\text{m}$  (designated as PSD 1). Case 2 comprises substrates of constant sorptivity of  $3.2 \text{ mm/min}^{1/2}$   
 348 with brick dust of PSD1, Case 3 comprises substrates of constant sorptivity of  $2.1 \text{ mm/min}^{1/2}$  with brick

349 dust particle size range of 100 $\mu$ m to 478 $\mu$ m (designated as PSD2). These cases were essentially created  
 350 to address the effect of substrate sorptivity as well as the fineness of the pozzolanic addition on the  
 351 transfer sorptivity and time taken to dewater freshly mixed lime mortars. These cases are shown in  
 352 Figure 5, Figure 6 and Figure 7 respectively.

353



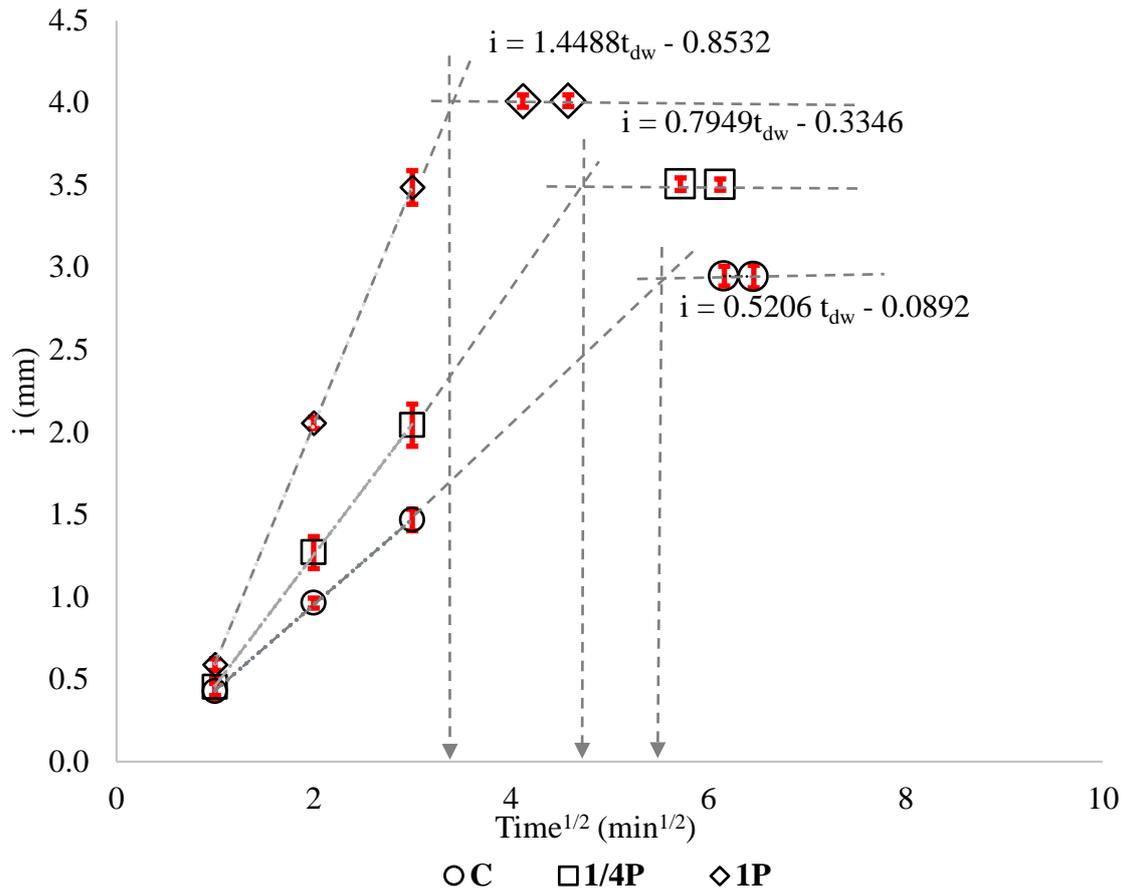
354

355 **Figure 5.** Cumulative absorbed volume of water per unit area  $i$  versus  $t^{1/2}$  for Control; 1/4P and 1P.  
 356 ( $S=2.1$  mm/min<sup>1/2</sup> PSD 1, Case 1).

357 Three cases were examined as shown in Table 2. Case 1 was designated as a reference. Case 2 was  
 358 different to the reference as the particle size distribution of the brick dust was modified to show the  
 359 effect of pozzolanic addition fineness on the transfer sorptivity and time taken to dewater freshly mixed  
 360 mortar. Case 3 demonstrated the effect of a changing the substrate sorptivity on transfer sorptivity by  
 361 using a brick with a different substrate sorptivity.

362 Case 1, designed as a reference case, comprises substrates of constant sorptivity 2.1 mm/min<sup>1/2</sup> with  
 363 brick dust, used as a pozzolanic addition and particle size range of 0.6 $\mu$ m to 478 $\mu$ m. It is shown in  
 364 Figure 5 that the increasing additions of brick dust resulted in a systematic increase in the transfer  
 365 sorptivity of hydrated lime mortars. The increase in the transfer sorptivity, attained using the constant  
 366 sorptivity substrate, is an indication of the formation of more water-releasing hydrated lime mortars  
 367 containing brick dust. These results clearly demonstrate that the high-water retaining ability and hence  
 368 the low transfer sorptivity of hydrated lime mortars can be manipulated using the brick dust as a  
 369 pozzolanic addition. In addition, the relatively long-time taken to dewater can also be significantly  
 370 lowered allowing mortar-substrate optimisation to be achieved.

371



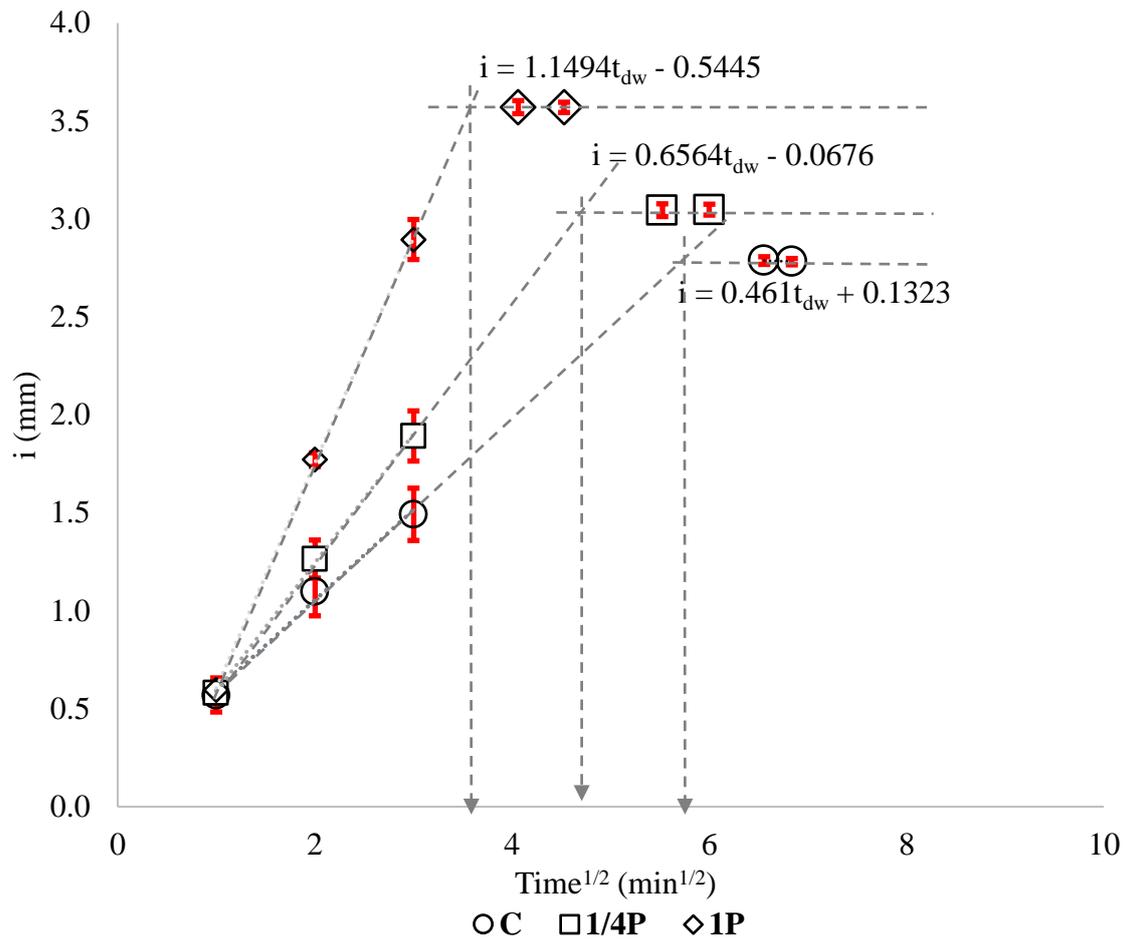
372

373 **Figure 6.** Cumulative absorbed volume of water per unit area  $i$  versus  $t^{1/2}$  for Control; 1/4P and 1P  
 374 ( $S=3.2\text{mm}/\text{min}^{1/2}$  – PSD 1, Case 2).

375 Case 2 comprises substrates of constant sorptivity of  $3.2 \text{ mm}/\text{min}^{1/2}$  with brick dust of PSD1. Figure 6  
 376 shows that the use of higher sorptivity bricks during the dewatering experiment did not significantly  
 377 change the overall trend of the result. The increase in the addition of brick dust once again, resulted in  
 378 a systematic increase in the transfer sorptivity and consequently resulted in a systematic decrease in the  
 379 time taken to dewater the hydrated lime mortars. However, it must be noted that a greater increase in  
 380 transfer sorptivity and greater decrease in the associated time to dewater of the mortars containing brick  
 381 dust could be attributed to the higher sorptivity substrates used. These enabled more water to be  
 382 withdrawn which significantly lowered the time taken to dewater the mortars in the fresh state.

383 Case 3 comprised substrates of constant sorptivity of  $2.1 \text{ mm}/\text{min}^{1/2}$  with a brick dust particle size range  
 384 of  $100\mu\text{m}$  to  $478\mu\text{m}$  (designated as PSD2). The influence of fineness of brick dust, used as a pozzolanic  
 385 addition on the transfer sorptivity and time to dewater is described in this section. The results shown in  
 386 Figure 7 support those in Figure 5 and Figure 6.

387



388

389 **Figure 7.** Cumulative absorbed volume of water per unit area  $i$  versus  $t^{1/2}$  for Control; 1/4P and 1P  
 390 ( $S=2.1\text{mm}/\text{min}^{1/2}$  – PSD 2, Case 3).

391 The increase in the addition of brick dust resulted in a systematic increase in the transfer sorptivity and  
 392 consequently resulted in a systematic decrease in the time taken to dewater the mortars. Nevertheless,  
 393 a greater increase in transfer sorptivity and greater decrease in the associated time to dewater of the  
 394 brick dust mortars, demonstrated in Figure 7, is attained when compared to the control, Case 1 was  
 395 solely attributed to the increased particle size of brick dust, used as a pozzolanic addition, that resulted  
 396 in a coarser matrix allowing more water-releasing mortars to be generated.

397 The results shown in Figure 5, Figure 6 and Figure 7 are also summarised in Table 4 for case of  
 398 comparison. Case 1, the control case, provided the basis to investigate the effect of brick dust on the  
 399 water transport kinetics of fresh lime mortars.

400 It should be noted that the experimental error ranges from 1% - 8% for the directly measured values of  
 401 transfer sorptivity,  $A$ , whereas the experimental error could approach 20% for the directly measured  
 402 values of time to dewater,  $t_{dw}$ . The associated error bars are indicated in Figure 5, Figure 6 and Figure  
 403 7.

404 Referring to Equation (1) from Section 2, it is evident that the formation of more water releasing mortars  
 405 was due to the addition of brick dust. This in turn was primarily responsible for the increased transfer  
 406 sorptivity observed which was a result of the constant sorptivity of substrates used in both cases. The

407 effect of increased substrate sorptivity as well as the effect of decreased fineness of the brick dust was  
408 investigated in Cases 2 and 3 respectively. It is evident that in both these cases greater transfer sorptivity  
409 values were attained. This implies that the high-water retaining ability of these mortars could be  
410 decreased simply by using an increased substrate sorptivity and/or increasing the pozzolan particle size  
411 used. However, it should be noted that in Case 2 the substrate sorptivity characteristics were specifically  
412 chosen to promote the dewatering characteristics studied. The increased sorptivity of the substrate used  
413 in Case 2 and the coarser particle size of brick dust used in Case 3 were not chosen to indicate any  
414 particular case in practice, but rather to demonstrate that these parameters have significant influences  
415 on the water releasing ability of hydrated lime mortars. An important finding of this study is that the  
416 transfer sorptivity can be manipulated using the aforementioned parameters to achieve mortar-substrate  
417 optimisation. The associated dewatering time values, as expected, were also substantially decreased by  
418 the factors as summarized in Table 4.

419

**Table 4**

420

Water loss, transfer sorptivity, time to dewatering of freshly mixed mortars during dewatering.

CASE	Specimen	Mass of freshly mixed mortars before dewatering in the 5 <sup>th</sup> compartment(g)	Mass of the absorbed water from the freshly mixed mortars in the 5 <sup>th</sup> compartment (g)	Water loss during dewatering (%)	Transfer Sorptivity (mm/min <sup>1/2</sup> )	Time to dewater (min)
CASE 1 S=2.1mm/min <sup>1/2</sup> PSD 1	C	262.08	12.1	4.62	0.406	41.28
	1/4P	273.00	13.5	4.95	0.571	27.56
	1P	299.52	15.9	5.31	1.020	14.28
CASE 2 S=3.2mm/min <sup>1/2</sup> PSD 1	C	261.90	13.5	5.15	0.518	33.64
	1/4P	273.20	16.2	5.94	0.796	22.56
	1P	298.80	18.6	6.22	1.449	11.39
CASE 3 S=2.1mm/min <sup>1/2</sup> PSD 2	C	268.32	12.8	4.81	0.451	36.00
	1/4P	282.36	14.0	4.96	0.641	24.10
	1P	308.88	16.5	5.34	1.139	12.96

421

#### 422 4.4 Water Loss

423 The water loss values attained during dewatering of hydrated lime mortars comprising brick dust, are  
424 summarised in Table 4. Water loss during dewatering was calculated using the mass of the freshly  
425 mixed mortars prior to dewatering and the mass of the absorbed water by the absorbent substrate from  
426 the freshly mixed mortars, both from the 5<sup>th</sup> compartment. The measurements were conducted ensuring  
427 the complete dewatering in the 5<sup>th</sup> compartment. Results summarised in Table 4 demonstrate that the  
428 increased addition of brick dust resulted in a systematic increase in the water loss attained during  
429 dewatering in all cases. As previously shown in the paper, the addition of brick dust enabled the  
430 formation of more water-releasing hydrated mortars and hence the desorption of higher amounts of  
431 water by the absorbent substrate. Results presented in Table 4 demonstrate that higher water losses are  
432 attained in Case 2 and Case 3 for mortar types when compared to the water losses reported for Case 1.  
433 Although the increase in substrate sorptivity as well as the increase in particle size of pozzolans had an  
434 increasing effect on the water loss during dewatering the hydrated lime mortars, it is apparent that  
435 among the cases investigated, increasing substrate sorptivity to  $3.2 \text{ mm/min}^{1/2}$  (Case 2) increased the  
436 water loss during dewatering more effectively.

#### 437 4.5 Measurement of $\alpha$

438 Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) which comprises the initial and final volume fractions of water and solid contents, is  
439 determined by firstly measuring the  $\theta_i$  and  $\theta_c$  using equations (5) and (6) respectively.  $\alpha$  is then  
440 calculated using equation (3) since for all stages  $\theta + \varphi = 1$ . The results shown in Table 5 demonstrated  
441 that  $\theta_i$  increases with the addition of brick dust in such mortars. The increase in water content,  $\theta_i$ , of the  
442 mix volume was attributed to the increase in the volume of water added. Considering that these mortars  
443 are not being dewatered from a constant value of  $\theta_i$ , the difference obtained between the  $\theta_i$  and  $\theta_c$  which  
444 represents the amount of water withdrawal from the freshly mixed hydrated lime mortars should be  
445 used to evaluate the influence of brick dust on dewatering. Table 5 illustrates that the difference between  
446  $\theta_i$  and  $\theta_c$  increases with increasing brick dust in the mortars. As previously explained in the paper, the  
447 increase in brick dust additions enabled more water releasing hydrated lime mortars to be formed and  
448 hence higher water withdrawal from these mortars when in contact with the substrate units. Contrary to  
449 this, the difference between  $\varphi_c$  and  $\varphi_i$  increased systematically with the addition of brick dust in hydrated  
450 lime mortars, meaning that higher amounts of solid particles were attained in the mixture after  
451 dewatering.

#### 452 4.6 Validating $t_{dw}$

453 The experimentally measured and theoretically calculated values of  $t_{dw}$  of hydrated lime mortars  
454 containing brick dust are summarised Table 5. Experimentally measured values of  $L$ ,  $A$  and  $\alpha$  were used  
455 to calculate the  $t_{dw}$ . The results validated the precision in determining the directly measured values of  
456  $t_{dw}$  for these mortars as they had an excellent agreement with the theoretically calculated  $t_{dw}$  values. The  
457 greatest difference between the measured and calculated values of  $t_{dw}$  was 1.05% which provides a high  
458 level of confidence in all cases examined. This validation was crucial to assess the accuracy of the  
459 experimental results presented in this study.

460 Table 5 also summarises the standard deviation and the error associated within the directly measured  
461 and calculated  $t_{dw}$  values. Out of the 36 specimens used for the measurement and calculation of  $t_{dw}$ , the  
462 standard deviation was in the range of 0.192 – 1.250. However, the error was in the range of 0.1%-  
463 6.71% which falls well within the commonly accepted error range for these measurements.

464  
465  
466

**Table 5**

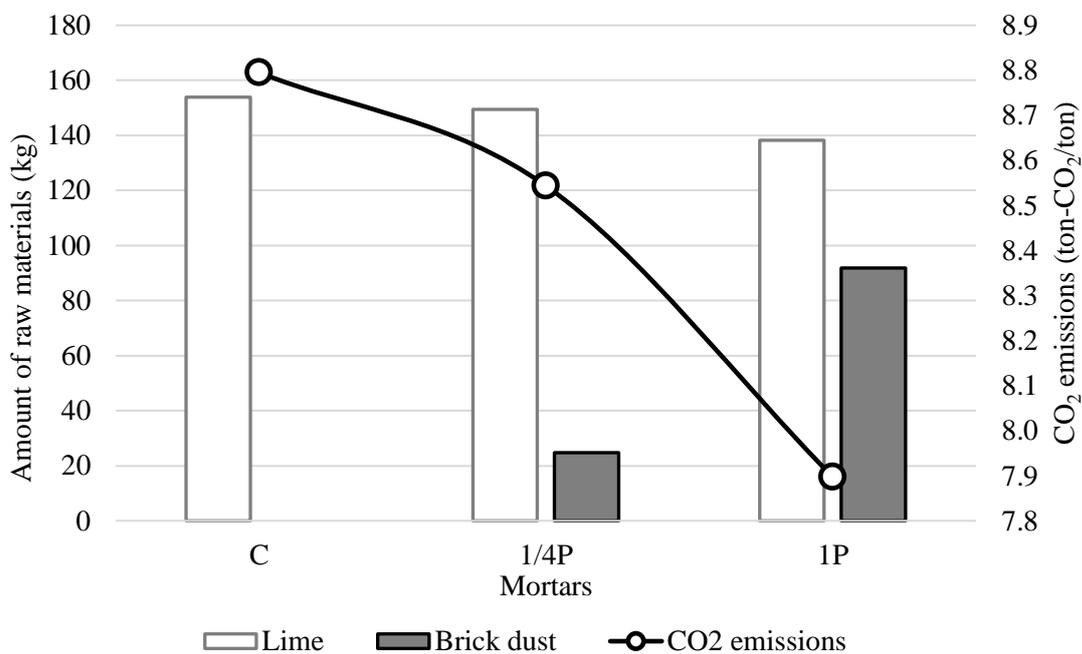
Experimental values of volume fraction, mortar depth, transfer sorptivity, complex parameter and a comparison of the calculated and directly measured time to dewater including % error and standard deviation for Case 1, Case 2 and Case 3. Values are an average of 4 specimens tested.

		Volume fractions				Mortar depth (mm)	Transfer sorptivity (mm/min <sup>1/2</sup> )	Complex parameter	Time to dewater (min)			
		Liquids		Solids					Directly measured (from the experiment)	Calculated	Directly measured	Comparison of calculated and directly measured
		initial	final	initial	final			Error (%)				Standard Deviation
CASE	Specimen	$\theta_i$	$\theta_c$	$\phi_i$	$\phi_c$	$L$	$A$	$\alpha$	$\left(\frac{L\alpha}{A}\right)^2$	$t_{dw}$	Error (%)	Standard Deviation
CASE 1 S=2.1mm/min <sup>1/2</sup> PSD 1 (actual)	C	0.224	0.155	0.776	0.844	32.1	0.407	0.081	40.945	41.28	1.14	0.638
	1/4P	0.231	0.156	0.768	0.844	33.7	0.572	0.089	27.825	27.56	3.05	0.367
	1P	0.252	0.144	0.748	0.855	35.8	1.00	0.126	20.395	19.58	1.55	0.718
CASE 2 S=3.2mm/min <sup>1/2</sup> PSD 1 (actual)	C	0.224	0.147	0.776	0.853	33.0	0.52	0.091	33.128	33.64	3.23	0.445
	1/4P	0.231	0.138	0.768	0.861	35.0	0.795	0.108	22.558	22.56	4.13	0.418
	1P	0.252	0.146	0.748	0.854	39.4	1.449	0.124	11.47	11.39	2.87	0.192
CASE 3 S=2.1mm/min <sup>1/2</sup> PSD 2 (0.5mm and above)	C	0.223	0.150	0.777	0.850	31.46	0.461	0.086	34.608	36.00	4.23	1.250
	1/4P	0.232	0.154	0.767	0.845	34.14	0.657	0.092	23.29	24.01	2.57	0.901
	1P	0.253	0.162	0.747	0.838	37.61	1.149	0.109	12.7	12.96	1.99	0.218

467

468 **4.7 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions**

469 The lime demand for each mortar mixture and their corresponding CO<sub>2</sub> emissions is presented below.  
 470 Figure 8 shows that the production of 1 ton of lime results in the emission of 0.597 tons of CO<sub>2</sub> which  
 471 is released into the atmosphere. It is also previously reported by Flower and Sanjayan (2007) [41] that  
 472 producing fine aggregates results in the release of 0.0139 tons of CO<sub>2</sub> per ton of aggregate. The CO<sub>2</sub>  
 473 emissions of hydrated lime mortars incorporating brick dust for 1 ton of material is shown in Figure 8.  
 474 The results indicate that there is a substantial decrease in the amount of lime required to manufacture 1  
 475 ton of mortar with the increased addition of brick dust. The results have also shown that the CO<sub>2</sub>  
 476 emissions are reduced by 2.86% and 10.21% with the 1/4P and 1P mixes, respectively.



477  
 478 **Figure 8.** The amount of hydrated lime and brick dust used in making 1 ton of mortars versus the CO<sub>2</sub>  
 479 emissions (ton-CO<sub>2</sub>/ton).

480 It is interesting to note that because the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions of fine aggregates are much lower than that of  
 481 the lime binder, reducing the quantity of sand does not have a significant influence. However, adverse  
 482 effects of the demolition and destruction of natural resources to acquire aggregates for mortar mean the  
 483 environmental sustainability is often underestimated [42]. Decreasing the volume fraction of fine  
 484 aggregates through the use of brick dust enables a greater reduction in the demand on natural resources  
 485 and hence reduces the ecological deprivation.

486 **5. Conclusions**

487 This study demonstrates that the strong water retaining ability of hydrated lime mortars can be utilised  
 488 through brick dust additions. Using brick dust as a pozzolan enables improvements in the freshly mixed  
 489 characteristics of lime mortars. The main conclusions are shown below:

- 490 • The increased addition of brick dust, used as a pozzolanic material, resulted in a systematic  
 491 increase in the transfer sorptivity and associated decrease in time to dewater of hydrated lime  
 492 mortars. The development of more water releasing mortars, due to the additions of brick dust,  
 493 was the primary reason for the increase in transfer sorptivity. The increased sorptivity of

494 substrate used for dewatering and the decreased fineness of the brick dust, (Case 2 and Case 3)  
495 enabled a greater transfer sorptivity of hydrated lime mortars to be achieved. Therefore,  
496 incorporation of brick dust in hydrated lime mortars enabled optimisation of the mortar -  
497 substrate interface.

498

499 • Dewatering results in a substantial decrease in the water: binder ratios. As this influences the  
500 fresh and hardened state properties of the resulting mortars it should be taken into consideration  
501 in relevant standards.

502

503 • The influence of transfer sorptivity and time to dewater in hydrated lime mortars could be  
504 simply systematised to a required degree which enables mortar-substrate optimisation in  
505 masonry construction to be attained. Comparison of the directly measured and calculated values  
506 of  $t_{dw}$  showed a difference of 1.05% demonstrating the high precision of the experimental  
507 measurements.

508

509 • Increasing additions of brick dust resulted in a systematic increase in the water loss attained  
510 during dewatering of hydrated lime mortars in all cases examined.

511

512 • The setting time of hydrated lime mortars decreased systematically with the addition of brick  
513 dust and was attributed to the coarser matrix attained resulting from the pozzolanic additions.

514 • When hydrated lime mortars are evaluated in terms of their CO<sub>2</sub> emissions a substantial  
515 reduction in carbon footprint can be achieved by the incorporation of brick dust. Benefits  
516 include a reduction in air pollution associated with the mortar production. Use in mortars is  
517 also a greener alternative for the waste management options particularly when compared to the  
518 commonly used routes such as landfilling, incineration and recycling that often have adverse  
519 effects on human and environmental health.

520

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