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Title: FEASIBILITY OF USING OLIVE BIOMASS BOTTOM ASH IN THE SUB-BASES OF
ROADS AND RURAL PATHS

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Abstract: Clay soils are widely distributed throughout the world and are the source of multiple technical problems in their application for the construction of sub-grade and sub-road bases. These types of soils are found in areas where civilian infrastructure such as roads and rural roads must be built. Therefore, in many situations it is necessary to use stabilized expansive soils, in the formation of the foundation and structural layers of linear infrastructures. Soil stabilization is used to increase the load capacity of the soil, and mixtures of lime and cement are generally used as binders. In recent years, interest in the recycling of industrial products and by-products has increased. One example of this is the use of biomass combustion in power plants. The management of significant amounts of waste (biomass bottom ash) from biomass power plants remains a problem. This paper presents the results of an experimental study for stabilizing expansive soil to determine its bearing capacity and mechanical properties via a triaxial test of the addition of biomass bottom ash. A double objective was targeted: reduction of the problems in using this type of soil and provision of a use for this type of waste. The results showed significant improvements in the mechanical. Therefore, herein is proposed the use of biomass bottom ash as a stabilizing agent for expansive soils, to improve the efficiency of the construction process by incorporating this product into a second life cycle as road bases.

1 **FEASIBILITY OF USING OLIVE BIOMASS BOTTOM ASH IN THE SUB-BASES OF**
2 **ROADS AND RURAL PATHS**

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14
15 **Abstract**

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17 problems in their application for the construction of sub-grade and sub-road bases. These types of
18 soils are found in areas where civilian infrastructure such as roads and rural roads must be built.
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37

38 **1. Introduction**

39 In road and rural-path construction, it is essential to minimize the use of additional materials, and
40 eliminate earth moving as much as possible, for environmental and technical considerations.

41 The soil treatment techniques contribute to the competitiveness and sustainability of road
42 engineering [1]. The engineering properties of construction materials determine their potential use
43 and application in civil works. The material characteristics must satisfy the engineering functions
44 that contribute to the durability and quality of the entire road structure [2]. Previous works have
45 proved the feasibility of reusing industrial residues from different origin which have been applied
46 in road construction [3-4].

47 Soil stabilization is the process of alteration of geotechnical properties to satisfy engineering
48 requirements [5]. Extensive studies have been carried out regarding the treatment of expansive
49 soils using various additives, such as lime, cement, fly ash, industrial waste products, potassium
50 nitrate, calcium chloride and phosphoric acid [6-13]. Traditional techniques of soil stabilization
51 are often used to obtain geotechnical materials improved through the addition into soil of such
52 cementing agents as Portland cement, lime, asphalt, etc. However, the traditional cementitious
53 stabilizers like cement are under discussion, not only for their negative environmental effects
54 during manufacture but also for their cost.

55 Those types of additives have been used in soils to improve their engineering properties, and to
56 modify physical and chemical reactions with soil elements in the presence of water [14-18]. For
57 this reason, this work seeks the feasibility of using new by-products with pozzolanic
58 characteristics for use as a soil stabilizer. Based on previous studies in which fly ash is used as a
59 stabilizer due to its high CaO content, hydrates forming cementitious pozzolanic products similar to those
60 formed during the hydration of Portland cement or lime. [19-21]. This research demonstrated the
61 possibility of removing cement as a stabilizing material, replacing it with ash from the
62 combustion of biomass for the generation of energy in combination with lime.

63

64 In addition to cement, lime is one of the most used materials for soil treatment. Lime is a very
65 caustic, pure white substance that results from the calcination of limestone. The common lime is
66 calcium oxide CaO , also known as quicklime, which is widely used in construction.

67 Lime can usually be obtained via thermal decomposition of materials such as limestone, which
68 contains calcium carbonate (CaCO_3), extracted from sedimentary deposits called caliche. It is
69 subjected to very high temperatures ($900\text{--}1200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$), for a period of three days in a rotary kiln or
70 in a special furnace called a lime kiln. However, if not managed, the process is reversible: while
71 cooling, the lime begins to absorb CO_2 from the air again; after a while, it once again becomes
72 CaCO_3 (calcium carbonate).

73 The long-term operation of any construction project depends on the quality of the underlying
74 soils. Unstable soils can create significant problems in built structures and pavements. With
75 appropriate design and construction techniques, unstable soils can be chemically transformed into
76 usable materials. In addition, the structural support provided by lime- or cement-stabilized soil
77 can be exploited in pavement design.

78 In general, the good results obtained from treatment with lime or cement, as applied in the
79 construction of roads and esplanades, have extended this technique to any type of geotechnical
80 problem and to esplanades with low bearing capacity [22]. The use of stabilized or treated soils,
81 even with marginal and contaminated soils, avoids the reduction of natural resources by reducing
82 the need for better quality soil. Moreover, clearance operations and transportation to a landfill are
83 avoided, along with the extraction and transportation work conducted to replace the soil. It is a
84 technique clearly focused on achieving greater sustainability.

85 One of the biggest drawbacks of stabilization using lime or cement is their small particle size.
86 Dust can be a problem, and its management is generally inadequate in populated areas. In
87 addition to the high volumetric weight of such additives, which makes them more expensive to
88 transfer, the dosage is altered in places where it is very windy. Moreover, the hydration process is
89 more expensive when done in a plant rather than doing it at the site of application.

90 Biomass is a term with many definitions. For the purposes of this paper, biomass is considered as
91 any organic (non-fossil) material burned as fuel to generate electricity or produce heat.

92 Biomass-based products produce solid residue (ash) a result of thermochemical degradation.
93 Thermochemical processes include combustion, pyrolysis, and incineration of woody biomass.
94 Currently, research is being conducted regarding the use of biomass ashes for civil works. In
95 Spain, Andalusia leads in its scope of power generation from biomass, with 18 biomass
96 combustion plants and a total installed capacity of 257.48 MW [23, 24]. The waste biomass in
97 Andalusia from grapevines, olives, fruit trees, and poplar, is used as a source of renewable,
98 sustainable energy to provide heat in homes. Biomass ashes are the solid by-products that remain
99 after complete or incomplete combustion of organic matter. Industrial biomass ashes consist of
100 biomass bottom ash (BBA), or slag, and biomass fly ash (BFA).
101 BBA and BFA have been extensively studied, with focus on several applications. BFA has
102 typically been used in agriculture due to its nutrient mineral content, including calcium,
103 potassium and phosphorus [25]. Because of the increased production of this by-product, BFA has
104 been investigated regarding its use in building materials. While fly ash utilization has been
105 extensively studied, similar studies on the effective management and utilization of bottom ash
106 have been scarce. BBA is traditionally disposed of in landfills.
107 In recent studies, biomass bottom ash from wood combustion and agricultural olive residues was
108 used as filler material in road embankments, as well as in the manufacture of cement-treated
109 recycled materials and as additive in the manufacture of lightweight recycled concrete [26-28].
110 Therefore, it would be interesting to study the possible application of bottom ash biomass for soil
111 stabilization or treatment, and more specifically, for its use in the region of Andalusia in southern
112 Spain. This region has problems related to expansive soils and has an abundance of European
113 combustion power plants as well as higher concentrations of available biomass.
114 The goal of the present work was to evaluate the possibility of using BBA as a soil treatment to
115 stabilize the sub-bases of roads and rural paths according to the technical specifications for road
116 works imposed by Spanish regulation [29].
117 This article discusses the experimental results of improvement of the properties of an expansive
118 soil when it is treated with biomass bottom ash. Thus, the treatment or stabilization of expansive

119 soils has been considered from the standpoint of civil engineering. These experiments have been
 120 based on tests to evaluate the use of these types of soil as building materials.

121 To these ends, the following parameters were measured to physically and mechanically
 122 characterise the samples: granulometric composition, absorption, density, compactability
 123 according to the modified Proctor test, bearing capacity based on the CBR index, plasticity and
 124 the triaxial compression test, x-ray fluorescence spectrometry and scanning electron microscopy
 125 analysis with x-ray spectroscopy.

126 The potential for using BBA mixed with clays at certain percentages of dosage. This BBA
 127 valorisation could avoid a large amount of the waste currently being sent to landfills, providing
 128 economic and environmental incentives.

129

130 **2. Materials and methods**

131 *2.1 Biomass bottom ashes (BBA).*

132 In this work Olive Biomass Bottom Ash (BBA) was studied and applied in the formation of
 133 granular materials to be applied in road structural layers.

134 Based on the data, a power plant burned approximately 40% olive cake and 60% wood biomass
 135 (poplar, olive and pine).

136 The biomass sample analysed in this study was collected after combustion at the plant
 137 BioLinares, as characterized in specific studies performed previously [26, 30]. A summary of the
 138 physical and chemical characterization of this sample material is shown in Table 1.

139 **Table 1:** Summary of the main physical and chemical properties

		Specific				Loss	Total	
		density of the	Water	Chemical	Organic	on	Sulphur	
		solid particles	absorption	compounds	matter	ignition	content	
		(g/cm ³)	(%)	(%)	content (%)	(%)	(%S0 ³)	
		UNE-EN 933-2	UNE-EN 1097-01	UNE 80-215	UNE 103204		EN-1744-1	
BBA	10 mm	97.0	2.46	20.11	Si	4.89	15.50	0.39
	8 mm	95.1			Ca			

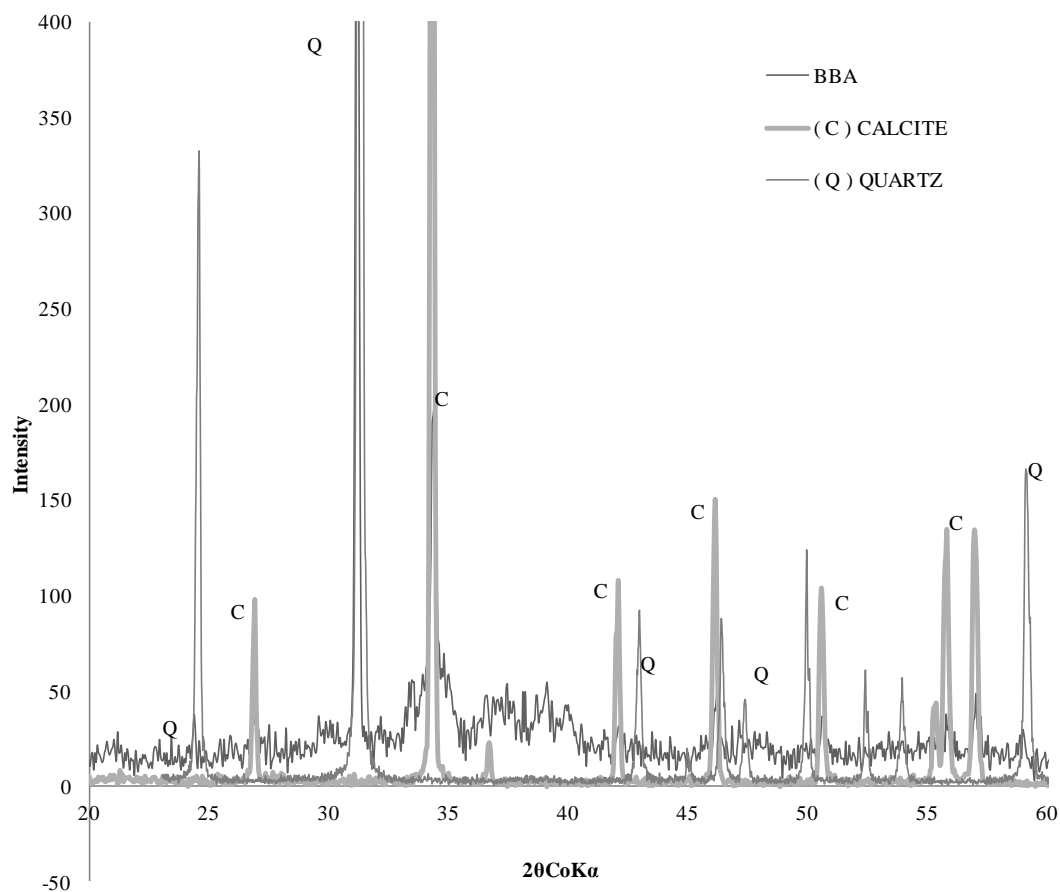
4 mm	84.8	K	14.28
2 mm	65.2	Mg	3.09
1 mm	39.0	Fe	1.64
0.5 mm	23.1	Al	0.76
0.25 mm	13.1	Na	0.35
0.063mm	5.40	Ti	0.12

140

141 According to the results, BBA is composed of extremely porous particles with rough surface
 142 textures. The size of these particles varies from sand to fine gravel. The water absorption and
 143 saturated surface-particle density were measured. Absorption is an important factor to consider
 144 because many physical parameters of bottom ash are altered in the presence of excess water [31,
 145 32]. Low dry-surface particle densities (SSD) were calculated for the BBA sample. Compared to
 146 traditional natural aggregates, low densities were obtained for BBA because it is composed of
 147 particles with low specific weight [33, 34]. The chemical composition of BBA indicated that
 148 BBA primarily consists of Si, Ca and K, while the measured amounts of Mg, Fe, Al, Na and Ti
 149 (minor elements) were < 5%. Thus, Si is the most abundant element, followed by Ca and K (in
 150 similar amounts). Due to the nature of the material, the BBA sample tested contained 4.89%
 151 organic matter.

152 The X-Ray Diffraction Analysis (XRD) of the BBA (Figure 1) shows that the most representative
 153 phase of the bottom ash is quartz, which is typically produced at high temperatures during the
 154 combustion process. There is also significant presence of the crystalline phases of calcite, because
 155 biomass fuel contains a naturally high content of wood waste.

156



157

158

Figure 1: X-ray diffractogram of BBA

159

160 *2.2 Quicklime*

161 Hydrated lime is obtained when quicklime reacts chemically with water. Hydrated lime (calcium
 162 hydroxide) reacts with clay particles and permanently transforms them into a strong cementitious
 163 matrix. The plasticity and chemical properties are summarized in Table 2.

164

165 *2.3 Expansive clay soil (ECS)*

166 Expansive soils are those which show volumetric changes in response to changes in their
 167 moisture content. Such soils swell when the moisture content is increased and shrink when the
 168 moisture content is decreased. Consequently, expansive soils cause distress and damage to
 169 structures founded on them.

170 The expansive clay soil analysed was stockpiled on the premises of the University of Córdoba.

171 The maximum aggregate size was 2 mm. Chemical analysis highlighting the elemental content of

172 elements (Table 2) and the organic matter content was 1.20 wt%, as determined according to
 173 standard UNE103 204.1993.

174

175 **Table 2:** Physical and chemical properties

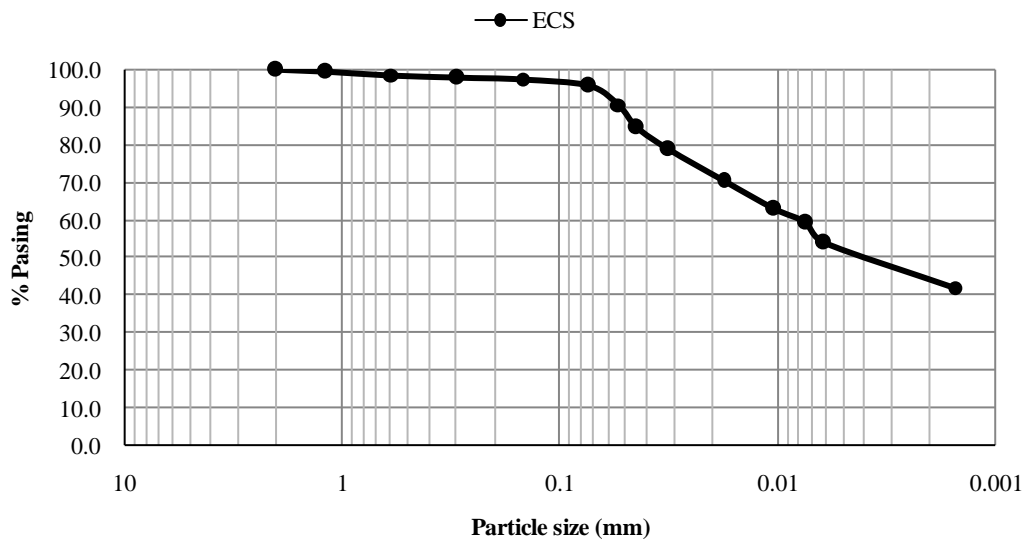
	Quicklime	ECS
Liquid limit (UNE 103-103-94)	-	59.2
Plastic limit (UNE 103-104-93)	-	39.9
Plasticity (LL-PL)	-	26.3
Organic matter (%) (UNE 103-204)	-	1.2
	Si	<0.01
	Ca	52.9
	K	<0.01
	Mg	0.15
Elemental content (%) (UNE 80-215)	Fe	0.03
	Al	0.03
	Na	0.02
	Ti	<0.01

176

177

178 Figure 2 shows the size distribution of the swelling clays. As a clay material, with much of the
 179 sample tested, 95% were among the fractions below 0.063 mm.

180



181

182

Figure 2: Particle size distribution curves

183

184 2.4 Mixtures

185 In this study, four different percentages of BBA were added to the expansive material, 0, 15, 50
186 and 100%; furthermore, the expansive material was mixed with 5 wt% quicklime. Table 3 shows
187 the mixes obtained in the laboratory as well as the name used for the different mixes.

188 .

189

Table 3: Dosages of the mixtures

Nomenclature	ECS	BBA	Quicklime
ECS	100%		
BBA		100%	
ECS+BBA(50/50)	50%	50%	
ECS+BBA(85/15)	85%	15%	
ECS+5% QL	95%		5%

190

191 2.5 Methods

192 a) *Modified Proctor*

193 The Modified Proctor compaction test is a laboratory geotechnical testing method used to
194 determine soil compaction properties, specifically, to determine the optimal water content at
195 which soil can reach its maximum dry density.

196 The Modified Proctor compaction test, in accordance with UNE 103-501-94, consists of
197 compacting soil samples with given water content in a standard mould with standard compaction
198 energy. The procedure specifies a hammer weighing 4.5 kg and a freefall distance of 457 mm. All
199 the materials were compacted in five layers, applying 60 blows to every layer.

200

201 b) *California bearing ratio (CBR)*

202 This test method is used to evaluate the potential strength of sub-grade, sub-base and base course
203 material, including recycled materials for use in road and airfield pavements. The CBR value
204 obtained in this test forms an integral part of several flexible pavement design methods.

205 This test is performed according to UNE 103 502-95, which describes the process for determining
206 the resistance index of soils called CBR. This index is not an intrinsic material value but depends

207 on the conditions of density and soil moisture, as well as the overload to be applied while
208 performing the test.

209 This study was conducted with 25% Modified Proctor (MP), 50% MP and 100% MP value tests
210 and an overload of 4.5 kg. The evolution of the tested specimens was examined under different
211 external conditions and over time. The four test conditions were un-soaked CBR, 4-day soaked
212 CBR, 90-day soaked CBR and 90-day in dry chamber CBR. The dry chamber had a temperature
213 of 20 °C and 72% humidity.

214
215 *c) Triaxial compression test*

216 The Triaxial Compression Test is a laboratory test method used to assess the mechanical
217 properties of rocks and fine-grained soils. It provides a measure of the confined compressive
218 strength and the stress-strain characteristics of rock, soil or other material specimens. It is most
219 often applied to soil and rock samples to simulate in situ confining pressures and to measure the
220 corresponding strength and deformation characteristics. Triaxial compression tests performed
221 over a range of confining pressures are used to define a material's strength envelope.

222 The specimen (either rock or reconstituted soil) is encased by a thin rubber membrane and placed
223 inside a pressure vessel. The pressure vessel allows the specimen to be loaded hydrostatically to
224 the desired confining pressure, while the rubber membrane prevents confining fluid from
225 contaminating the sample. In a conventional triaxial compression test, the specimen is first loaded
226 hydrostatically to the desired confining pressure and then the axial load is increased to specimen
227 failure while holding the confining pressure constant. The applied load and resulting deformation
228 was measured using our data acquisition system to generate load-deformation curves. The sample
229 was loaded until it:

230 - Exceeded its confined compressive strength (brittle failure), or

231 - Reached 15% axial strain.

232 At sufficiently high confining pressures, the soils reach a brittle-ductile transition. Above this
233 stress state, the material may continue to increase its load carrying capability without apparent
234 failure as additional axial strain is imposed. In this case, the state of stress at an axial strain of

235 15% is conventionally used to define the strength envelope. For porous samples, a pore pressure
236 can also be applied through a small hole beneath the specimen to simulate in situ conditions.

237 The triaxial test is performed according to UNE 103 402-98, which determines the strength
238 parameters of a material sample in CU test mode: consolidated and undrained, with a pore
239 pressure measurement assay. The specimen is saturated, consolidated under isotropic conditions
240 and the test proceeds until compressive failure.

241

242 *d) Free-swelling*

243 A series of free-swell tests were conducted on specimens compacted with optimum water content
244 and to a density equivalent to 100% of standard Proctor compaction. The apparatus used for free-
245 swell testing was an odometer, according to UNE EN 103 601-96. The free swell is the increase
246 in height (expressed in percent) when a specimen is laterally confined, subjected to a vertical
247 pressure of 10 kPa and then flooded.

248 The soil specimen was placed in a fixed-ring consolidation cell, and the specimen was subjected
249 to a confining pressure. During testing, vertical movements of the specimen were monitored using
250 a dial gauge and a linear variable differential transducer.

251 After the specimen was placed in the apparatus and the seating load was applied, the height of the
252 specimen was monitored. Once the height of the specimen came to equilibrium, data were logged
253 from the linear variable differential transducer and water was added to the reservoir in which the
254 soil specimen was sitting to begin swell testing the specimen.

255 A total of five tests were made in parallel in the laboratory to evaluate the free-swell
256 characteristics of all mixtures.

257

258 *e) X-ray fluorescence spectrometry (EDXRF)*

259 The elemental concentrations were determined using energy dispersive an X-ray Fluorescence
260 (EDXRF) Spectrometer according to UNE EN 196-2. EDXRF provides a rapid and non-
261 destructive method for the analysis of trace and major elements in soil samples. Quantitative x-
262 ray fluorescence data were collected using Panalytical NHM-X226 and quantified using Super Q
263 software. The samples were fused and analysed by the Rietveld method.

264

265 *f) Scanning electron microscopy analysis with x-ray spectroscopy*

266 Analysis by Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM analysis or SEM microscopy) was used for
267 solid material characterisation. SEM facilitates the study of particles and surfaces with the added
268 benefit of acquiring elemental composition for the sample being studied.

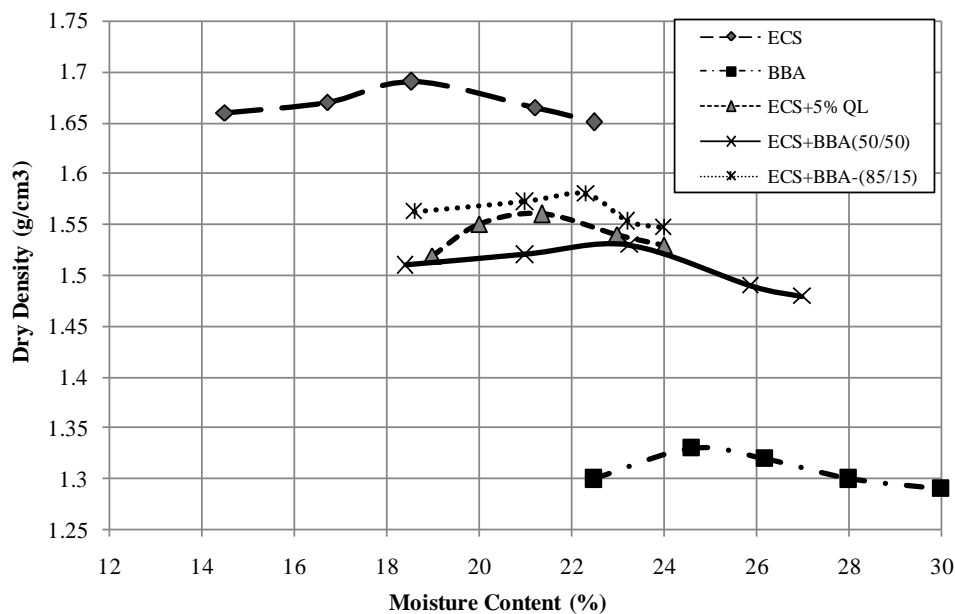
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270 **3. Results and discussion**

271 *3.1 Modified Proctor*

272 Figure 3 shows the graphical representation of the results of the Modified Proctor test, it is
273 possible to observe that all the materials presented curves very insensitive to changes of moisture
274 content, making it necessary to ensure that the moisture content was close to the optimum value
275 during compaction.

276 As expected, with the ECS+BBA mixture, the moisture and density values obtained were
277 intermediate compared to those of the pure unmixed materials, highlighting the high humidity of
278 these materials to achieve relatively low densities. In previous research [26], these results were
279 confirmed for BBA. The plane curves shown indicate that these materials do not exhibit high
280 sensitivity to changes in moisture for compaction.



281
282

Figure 3: Moisture-density relationships

283 *3.2 California bearing ratio (CBR)*

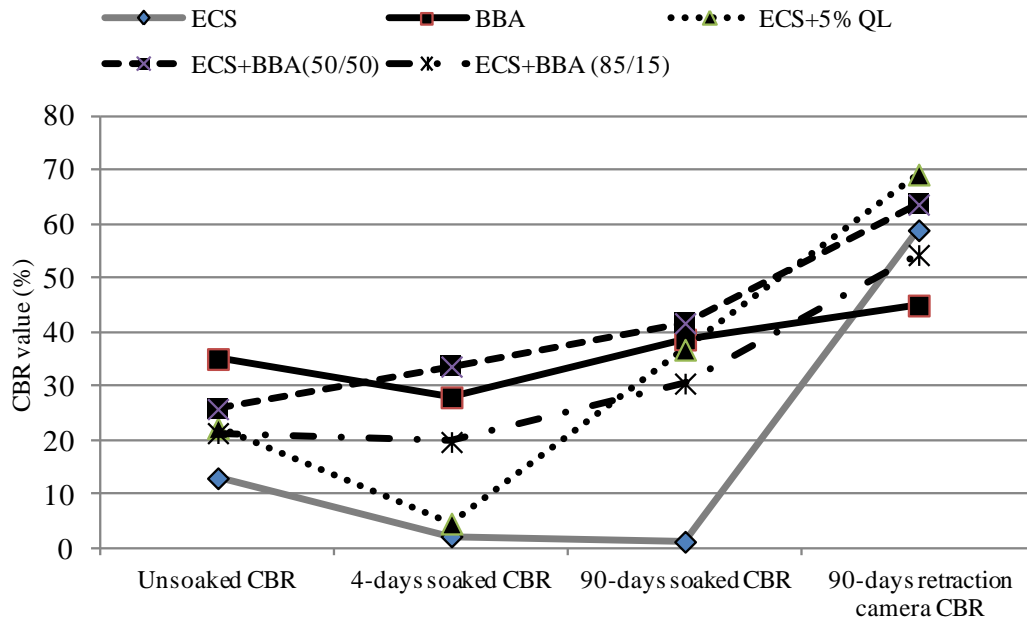
284 Table 4 shows the results obtained from the CBR tests for the four modalities selected for these
 285 tests and for the materials studied, and Figure 4 shows graphs of the CBR values obtained for
 286 100% MP in the four modes in which the tests were performed. For the 90-day soaked and 90-day
 287 dry chamber tests, the value represented is the average of three samples.

288 **Table 4:** CBR values

	Un-soaked CBR			4-days soaked CBR			90-days soaked CBR	90-days dry chamber CBR
	25% MP	50% MP	100% MP	25% MP	50% MP	100% MP	100% MP	100% MP
ECS	3.24	8.15	13.05	1.2	1.4	2.3	1.31	58.89
BBA	13.96	21.53	35.09	11.66	17.62	28.01	38.69	44.98
ECS+5% QL	8.12	14.62	22.31	2.24	3.58	4.67	36.81	69.19
ECS+BBA (50/50)	15.64	22.89	25.84	12.45	23.11	33.70	41.71	63.64
ECS+BBA (85/15)	10.89	18.22	21.39	6.48	15.22	19.75	30.55	54.31

289
 290 Comparing the values in the four test modalities it is observed that all ECS + BBA mixtures
 291 improved soil bearing capacity. The value compared to ECS was increased by 98% for ECS +
 292 BBA (50/50) and by 64% for ECS + BBA (85/15) when un-soaked. The measured values in BBA
 293 are consistent with the data obtained by previous authors [35], who characterized bottom ashes to
 294 be applied in civil infrastructures.

295 Previous research used ash from different byproducts such as Rice Husk Ash [36], Palm Oil Fuel
 296 Ash [37], 'Bagasse Ash' from sugar industry [38]. In all the researches the use of these ashes
 297 decreased CBR values (fundamental property of stabilized soil) or it has been necessary the use of
 298 cement to obtain acceptable conditions of stabilized soil. However, this new research
 299 demonstrates the high pozzolanic capacity of BBA due to its chemical composition and the
 300 viability of use as a stabilizing material.



301

302

303

Figure 4: CBR values in 100% MP in different CBR tests

304

3.3 Triaxial compression test

305

Five CU triaxial tests were conducted using the different materials analysed in this paper. The

306

conditions of sample preparation are shown in Table 5.

307

Table 5: Conditions of sample preparation

Material	Water content (%)	98% MP (Dry Density)	Confining pressures (kPa)
ECS	18.54	1.66	650 - 750 - 850
BBA	24.66	1.30	650 - 750 - 850
ECS + BBA (50/50)	23.27	1.50	650 - 750 - 850
ECS + BBA (85/15)	22.32	1.55	650 - 750 - 850

308

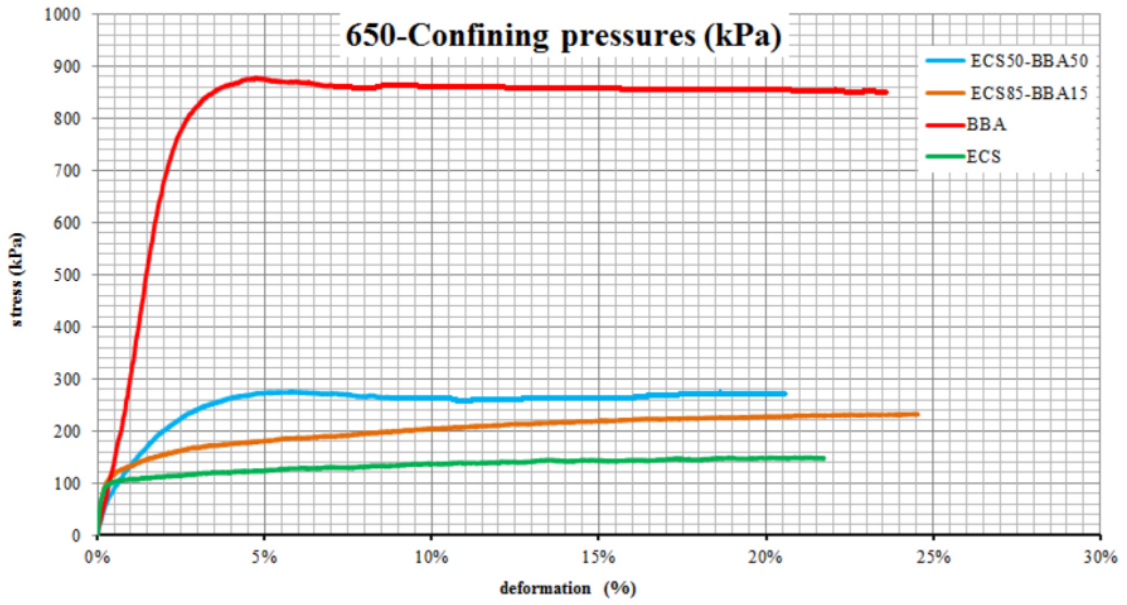
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The curves of axial deformation-deviatoric stress obtained in the tests can be observed in Figures

310

5, 6 and 7.

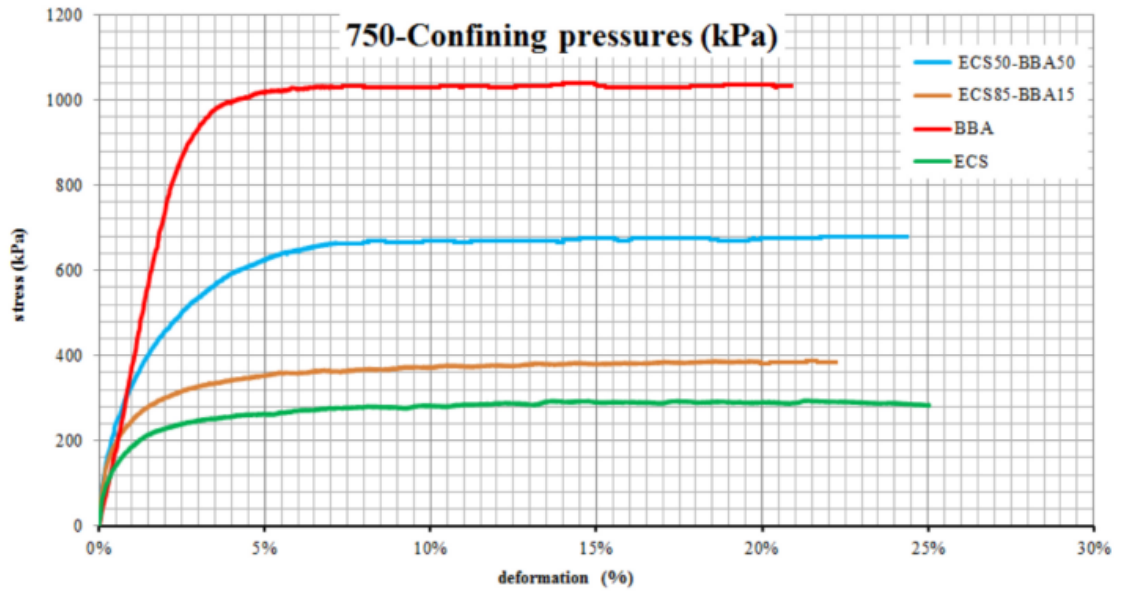
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312

313

Figure 5: Stress-strain curves: Tests performed with 650 (Kpa) confining pressures



314

315

316

Figure 6: Stress-strain curves: Tests performed with 750 (Kpa) confining pressures

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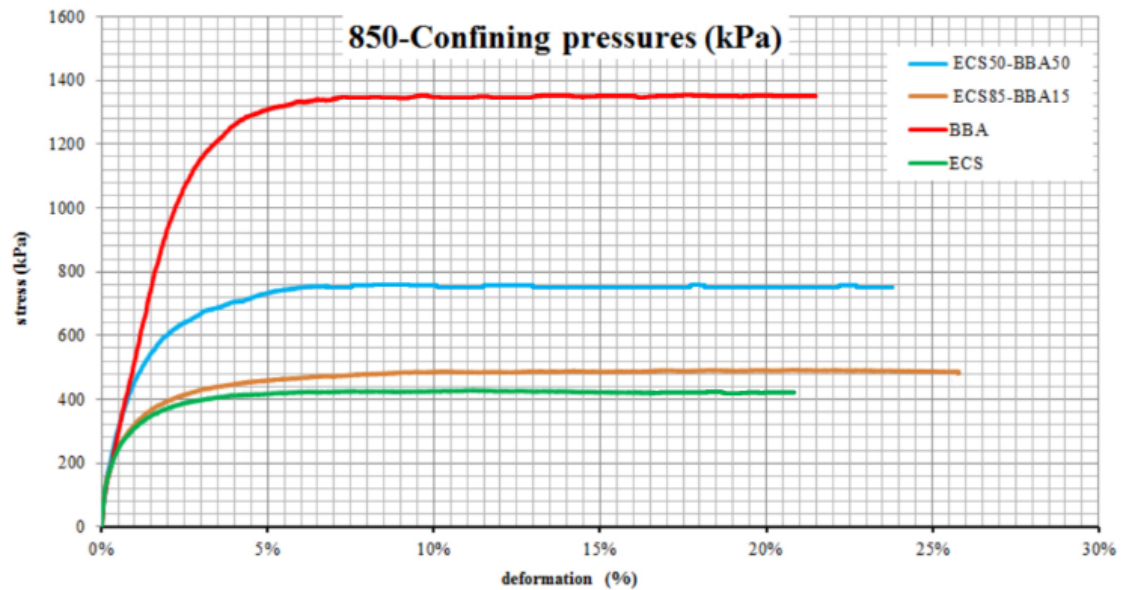


Figure 7: Stress-strain curves: Tests performed with 850 (Kpa) confining pressures

A uniform mass of expansive soil which becomes saturated with moisture will exert pressure in all directions as each individual expanding clay mineral seeks to occupy more space. The direction and magnitude of soil movement will depend upon the magnitude of the confining pressure at any particular point of resistance. Soil movement will be minimized where confining pressures are largest, while movement will be greatest where the magnitude of the confining pressure is smallest.

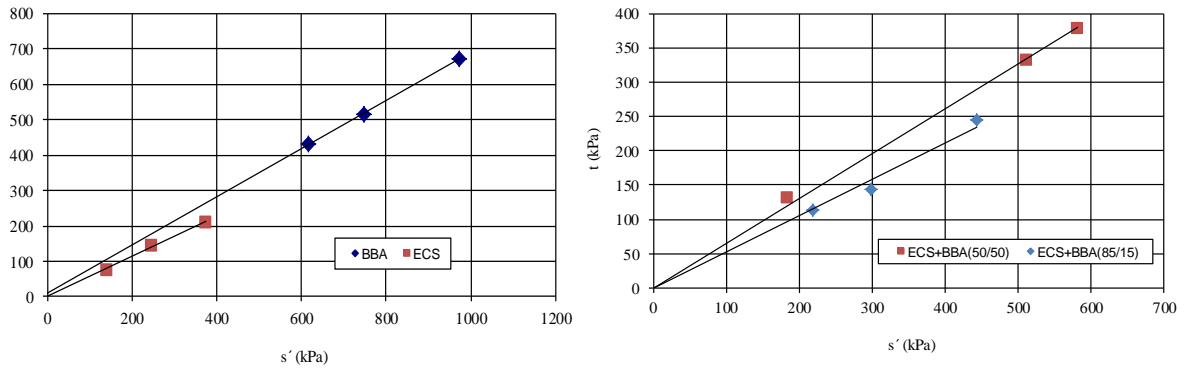
The analysis of the stress-strain curves obtained in the triaxial tests makes it possible to highlight the following aspects.

In the tests conducted with BBA, the deviatoric stress obtained was much greater than that obtained with ECS.

Once BBA was mixed with ECS in the proportion 50:50 wt%, the deviatoric stress was reduced by approximately 55% with respect to the values obtained with BBA.

The mixing of ECS with BBA produced a deviatoric stress approximately 35% of the value obtained with BBA.

The interpretation of those curves allowed us to calculate Mohr-Coulomb parameters with the aid of the $s-t$ diagrams, as seen in Figure 8.



336 **Figure 8:** Tests performed with ECS and BBA (Left) and tests performed with ECS + BBA (50/50) and
 337 ECS + BBA (85/15) (Right).

338 It can be observed that the relevant points fit very well on lines that can be interpreted as
 339 representative of the Mohr-Coulomb failure criteria. The values of friction angle obtained with
 340 these tests are summarized in Table 6.

341 **Table 6:** Triaxial strength parameter values

Strength Parameters (Effective)	
	Φ'
ECS	34.6
BBA	43.7
ECS+5% QL	27.5
ECS+BBA (50/50)	40.7
ECS+BBA (85/15)	31.9

342
 343 Table 6 shows the values of the Mohr-Coulomb failure criteria obtained in the tests.
 344 All the materials seem to exhibit non-cohesive behaviour. ECS has a friction angle of 35° (a bit
 345 large for its clayish nature) that increases to 41° once mixed with 50% BBA. The mix of 85%
 346 ECS with 15% BBA seems to have strength similar to that of the original ECS.
 347 From this point of view, the strength of all of these materials, and their combinations, can be
 348 considered high and sufficient to build any type of embankment.

349

350 *3.4 Free-swelling*

351 Furthermore, upon completion of the CBR tests (Section 3.2), the expansivity swelling values of
352 each material (expressed in percent) were obtained. Table 7 shows the results obtained for the
353 various swelling tests conducted.

354 **Table 7:** Swelling test values at four days

	<i>% Free-Swelling</i>	<i>% Swelling CBR</i>
ECS	6.74	2.95
BBA	0.06	0.01
ECS+5% QL	0.02	0.05
ECS+BBA (50/50)	0.04	0.13
ECS+BBA (85/15)	0.18	1.30

355

356 As shown in Table 7, the ECS sample showed a high percentage of free swelling. When the ECS
357 was mixed with 50% bottom ash from the biomass (i.e. ECS + BBA at 50/50), the free swelling
358 was reduced by 99.5%. This reduction was similar to that achieved with the mixture
359 manufactured with 5% lime (ECS QL + 5%).

360 Regarding CBR swelling, the behaviour patterns were similar to those shown for free swelling. It
361 can be concluded that the use of BBA reduces the expansion of expansive soils to the same extent
362 (percentage) as lime. This demonstrates economic and environmental benefits from using this
363 industrial by-product in this way.

364 *3.5 X-ray fluorescence spectrometry (EDXRF)*

365 Using Quantitative X-ray Fluorescence Analysis, the different types of experimental materials
366 and processes were analysed to compare their predominant elements, shown in Table 8.

367

368 **Table 8:** Oxide composition by EDXRF Analysis

	H ₂ O	P.F.	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	Fe ₂ O ₃	CaO	MgO	SO ₃	K ₂ O	CaO free
	(%)									
ECS	1.20	19.77	43.01	8.90	2.95	20.97	1.50	0.20	1.69	0.02
BBA	4.25	17.95	39.63	4.48	1.89	20.92	2.65	0.46	8.97	1.62
ECS+BBA (50/50)	2.84	18.33	43.73	6.96	2.45	20.63	2.03	0.22	5.33	0.76
ECS+BBA (85/15)	1.75	19.42	44.15	8.62	2.83	20.79	1.70	0.16	2.72	0.27
ECS+5% QL	3.93	17.64	42.08	11.20	4.18	17.77	3.08	1.48	1.96	1.45

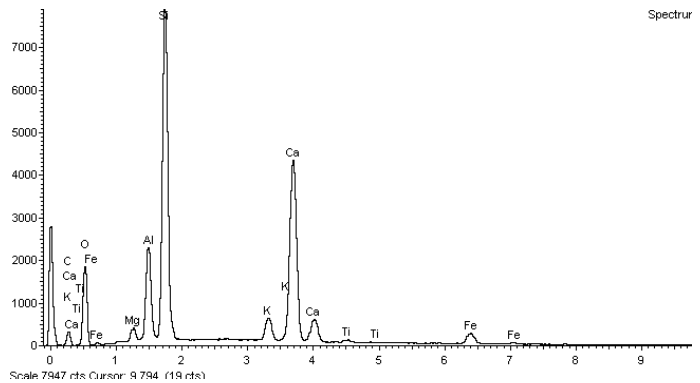
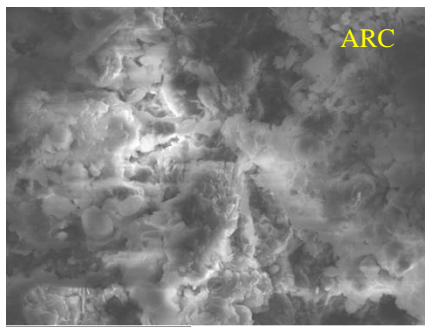
369

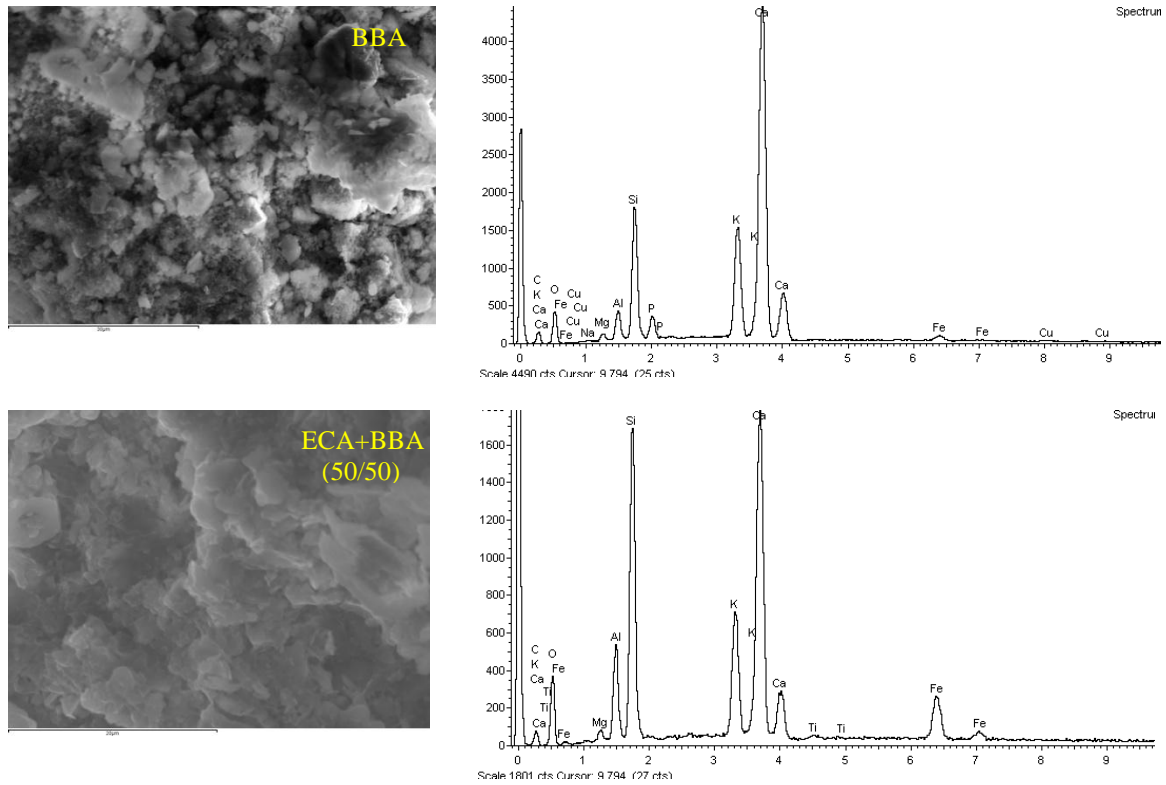
370 According to the results, this BBA contains a mixture typical of olive waste ash, but with higher
 371 values of potassium (8.97%). Also, the increase of lime in BBA, as shown in Table 8, can lead to
 372 increased pozzolanic activity [39].

373

374 *3.6 Scanning electron microscopy analysis with x-ray spectroscopy*

375 By this procedure the signals generated during the analysis produce two-dimensional images
 376 which reveal information about the tested samples (see charts in Figure 9 including external
 377 morphology: texture). The present study also includes the composition of samples as estimated by
 378 x-ray spectroscopy.





379

380 **Figure 9:** Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) and Energy Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy (EDS).

381

382 The microstructure of samples was characterized using SEM. In Figure 9, it was observed that the
 383 BBA particles were irregular in shape. The ECS particle size was typically < 63 μm and in
 384 agreement with the particle size analysis results.

385 The expansion potential of any particular expansive soil is determined by the percentage of clay
 386 and the type of clay in the soil. The clay particles which cause a soil to be expansive are
 387 extremely small. Their shape is determined by the arrangement of their constituent atoms, which
 388 form thin clay crystals.

389 According to EDX analysis with the SEM, the clays belong to a family of minerals called
 390 silicates. The principal elements in the clay were silicone, aluminium and oxygen; whereas the
 391 major elements in the BBA were Ca, K, Si and Al (Table 9).

392 **Table 9:** Percentage weight of elements

Element	Weight %		
	ECS	BBA	ECS+BBA(50/50)
C	11.43	9.28	6.51
O	39.05	26.72	31.24
Na	0	0.22	0

Mg	0.89	0.57	0.62
Al	5.22	1.91	4.3
Si	20.4	8.85	15
P	0	1.96	0
K	1.97	10.24	8.13
Ca	17.9	38.06	24.98
Ti	0.29	0	0.39
Fe	2.84	1.51	8.83
Cu	0	0.67	0

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4. Conclusions

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Based on the results obtained, we present the following conclusions:

399

- The addition of BBA in all the mixtures improved the bearing capacity, mainly due to the high calcium content that increased the pozzolanic activity.

400

401

- When the ECS was mixed with 50% bottom ash from biomass, the free swelling was reduced by 99.5%. This result is similar to those reported for the mix with 5% lime.

402

403

- The flat curves obtained by the modified Proctor test confirm that BBA do not exhibit high sensitivity to changes in moisture for compaction.

404

405

- Regarding the values of Mohr-Coulomb failure criteria obtained in the tests, the strength of all of these materials (and their combinations) can be considered high and sufficient to build any type of embankment.

406

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- It can be concluded that the use of bottom ash from biomass combustion reduces the expansion of expansive soils to the same extent as from treatment with lime.

409

410

The present work has proved, at least for certain dose percentages, the benefits of BBA for improved mechanical ability and stabilization when used for material construction in civil infrastructure. The valorisation of this product, instead of exploiting natural resources or non-renewable natural resources, can eliminate the negative impact associated with the indiscriminate disposal of this by-product in landfills.

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424

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