

Geopolymer-Enhanced Rc Beam Strength

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ABSTRACT

Fly ash has been used in the construction industry since the beginning of this decade; despite this, there is an urgent need for more experimental research, including the use of alternative materials as a possible substitute. The fabrication of plastic bottles has made considerable use of polyethylene terephthalate, most often referred to as PET. This material has been used widely. The fact that it may also be biodegraded into other substances raises a significant worry, despite the fact that it appears to have an infinite number of uses. As a direct result of this, researchers are also aiming to investigate the properties of PET fibers as a potential material for use in the construction industry. These studies were conducted with the intention of determining whether or not fly ash, bagasse ash, and metakaolin could successfully replace cement in the formulation of concrete in its entirety. In order to fulfill the requirements of this inquiry, a total of four distinct combinations were created, and the various aspects of their strengths were analyzed .

Keywords: Geopolymer, Beam

INTRODUCTION

These beams may be used for prolonged and ecologically accessible fabrication since they emit the least throughout production. They can be provided, maintained, and used. The material supply mix-up does not release repressed potency, or superfluous strength. Following data gathering, flexural strength beams do not vary. Every day, the requirements to create get more strict. The boring material is mostly cement. The painful character of the concept that consistency is conceivable is one of its major drawbacks. at the end of the Portland at the same instant in time. The backdrop for each mountain is unrestricted. 1.5 tonnes of underdone equipment are needed to manufacture each tonne of Portland at the same time. Thus, Portland cement manufacture demands a lot of supplies and active work. Recently, cementitious materials have a new outer aspect and a new substance called "geopolymer."

The 1978 davits annual introduced the geopolymer metaphor. Geopolymer materials born with silver spoons are explained in this article. Silica, alumina, rice and flyash husk ash, and alkaline solution are examples. The most important distinction in the middle of waterfront property is to produce stronger insubstantial (RCC) and geopolymer material to the from RCC, prop up from top to bottom left alone, and use alkali set in motion aluminosilicate.

Flyash will eventually outpace Beijing and Delhi's flyash deposits. To make up for a lack of meaningful upbringing collaboration, it's necessary to examine the work needed to maintain control over manufactured consumer goods. obtain anything on video, every lath accounts for 160 tonnes of airborne ash that is replacing Portland to save one million tons of sandstone. Geopolymer concrete and bubble technologies help calculate RC beam strength. Geopolymer was initially introduced by Europeans devoirs and David. This made Europe a hub for scientific and technological innovation. A geopolymer mordant source requires geopolymer, Granulated Grounding, Flyash, and geopolymer concrete (GPC) components.

Main Objective

To Geopolymer-Enhanced Rc Beam.

Research Background and Motivation

Reinforced concrete (RC) is used most often to create civil infrastructure such multi-story buildings, highways, bridges, retaining walls, and subterranean constructions. Its main drawbacks are cement's sustainability and internal reinforcing steel bar corrosion. Engineers and scholars seek solutions to these issues. PCA (2002) found that steel corrosion is the main cause of concrete degradation (Figure 1.1). Because of this, RC structures lose strength and serviceability early. Maintenance, repair, and rehabilitation of decaying RC structures are costly and strain an economy. However, employing RC materials has a key drawback: cement durability. Cement manufacture releases one ton of carbon

dioxide into the atmosphere (Mehta 2010). The cement sector produces 8% of global CO₂ emissions, according to Oliver et al. 2015. Cement production requires a lot of energy and resources. Guo et al. 2010 and Mejeumov 2007, one metric ton of cement requires 2.8 tons of virgin raw materials and 110-120 kilowatt hours of electricity. Since the existing RC system had issues, engineers and researchers were obligated to enhance it. As a result, they either enhanced the old system or developed more productive methods. Normal concrete or GFRP reinforcing bars can replace geopolymer concrete. These are two of numerous options .



Fig 1 Corrosion problems of concrete structures

The use of fiber reinforced polymer (FRP) composite bars as internal reinforcement in concrete structures to improve wear and tear resistance and extend their useful life is gaining worldwide attention and recognition in the construction industry. These bars increase the structures' use for longer. This composite material, which typically consists of strong fibers embedded in a light polymer matrix, is attractive for construction due to its corrosion resistance, light weight, high tensile strength, nonmagnetic properties, and rapid and easy construction. This material also assembles quickly. According to Robert and Benmokrane (2010), CFRP and AFRP bars cost more than GFRP bars. GFRP bars are the most prevalent type of fiber reinforced plastic bar. A sand layer helped the previous study secure GFRP bars in concrete. Mechanical interlock and friction forces from this layer prevent pullout stresses. Despite their varied design requirements, many industry specialists believe that fiber-reinforced polymer (FRP) bars may strengthen concrete beams as well as steel bars. GFRP bars are also good for transversely reinforcing concrete beams. Web reinforcements are more vulnerable to corrosion than longitudinal bars because they are closer to the concrete surface (Ahmed et al. 2010b). Web reinforcements at the concrete's surface cause this. The ACI 440.1R-15 (2015) and CAN/CSA S6-14 (2014) specifications required FRP stirrups as transverse reinforcement for concrete components. All studies showed that GFRP-reinforced concrete columns were as strong as steel-reinforced ones. All researchers agreed. This is the case even though testing and development activities on the behavior of GFRP bars as longitudinal reinforcement for concrete structures exposed to compression are still in their infancy.

Reinforced Concrete and Its Challenges

Buildings, highways, bridges, retaining walls, and subterranean constructions are made of reinforced concrete (RC). High-tensile and ductile steel bars and stirrups strengthen high-compressive concrete longitudinally and transversely. Concrete outperforms steel bars, and vice versa. Concrete's compressive strength makes it ideal for columns and other compression-heavy constructions. It lacks ductility and possesses 8–15% of its compressive strength as tensile strength. To circumvent this limitation, ductile, high-tensile steel bars strengthen concrete. Steel is weatherproofed by concrete. Mac Ginley and Choo (1990) say concrete constructions have beams, columns, slabs, walls, and foundations. According to Wasti and Ersoy (2006), beam-column junctions, beams, and slabs are the most important structural components. Columns are the main structural components. Columns and beams stabilize multi-story buildings. Beams bend and shear transverse loads to columns. Floors and roofs stress buildings. Columns transfer these stresses to the foundations via axial compression, tension, bending, and shearing. Buildings can collapse if beams or columns fail. Thus, these parts and their connections must be sturdy. The binding relationship between reinforcement and concrete affects the structural performance of RC members and their components. They communicate. Foster et al. (2010) recommend combining these ingredients for a composite action. This transfers material force. Nilson and colleagues (2003) revealed that mechanical interlock of surface deformations or indentations determines the bond strength of deformed steel bars, with only a tiny contribution from chemical adhesion and mechanical friction between reinforcement and concrete. Deformations reduce reinforcement slip relative to concrete, increasing RC members' bending, shear, torsion, and crack width. Reinforcement end bends and hooks enhance bearing resistance and bar anchoring, avoiding slippage. Besides strengthening deformations.

Standard hooks may cause steel congestion, especially in exterior or corner beam-column connections, problems in steel fabrication, especially when high-strength steel is used, and concrete placement and compaction during casting (Dhake et al. 2015; Sung-Gul et al. 2007). Casting steel and compaction would be tougher. Headed bars are replacing hooks in construction because they reduce steel congestion (Kang and Mitra 2012). RC material is used internationally

for the following reasons: 1) its lower cost compared to other building materials; 2) the widespread availability of its component materials, such as cement, sand, gravel, water, and reinforcing steel bars; 3) its ability to be moulded into different shapes and sizes according to desired structural forms; and 4) the relatively simpler skills required to erect RC structures. Steel bar rust and unsustainable cement are its principal drawbacks. Engineers and philosophers explored alternatives.

Corrosion of Steel Reinforcement

Corrosion of the steel reinforcement in concrete leads to an early weakening of the material's strength, a loss of its serviceability, and occasionally even the collapse of RC buildings and structures. Particularly susceptible to damage are reinforced concrete structures found in marine, mining, industrial, and de-icing salt situations. According to Mehta 1997, steel corrosion shortened the lifespan of RC structures in challenging conditions by twenty to thirty years or more. The RC structures were deteriorating due to steel corrosion. Corrosion on both a local and widespread scale is typical of RC constructions. The two types of corrosion described here are the most common. If there is sufficient moisture and oxygen at the surface of the steel, chloride ions will penetrate into the concrete until they reach a critical threshold value at the reinforcing depth. This will cause local corrosion, also known as pitting corrosion. The chloride ions are taken up by the concrete. It is possible to inject chlorides "internally" into concrete by using mixing water, gravels, or admixtures that contain chlorides. Chlorides can be "externally" introduced into concrete by the presence of saltwater and other chloride-contaminated surroundings. Corrosion is nevertheless caused by carbonation of the concrete.

The reaction that causes concrete to carbonate is the combination of airborne carbon dioxide and calcium hydroxides. This chemical action brings the pH of the concrete down from 13 to 13.8 to 8.5, which destabilizes the passive coating that is on the steel (PCA 2002). The passive coating of oxide provides protection for steel against corrosion. The protective coating on the surface of the steel is stripped away during the neutralization process, making corrosion feasible once more in the presence of oxygen and moisture. According to Otieno et al. (2016), the incidence of chloride-induced corrosion is significantly higher than that of carbonation-induced corrosion. When the steel bars began to corrode, the rust products that were produced might potentially grow to almost four times the volume of the steel while maintaining its mass.

The expansion of corroding steel can cause internal ruptures or tensile stresses in concrete because of the material's brittle nature. The concrete surrounding the reinforcement cracks, delaminates, and spalls as a result of the stresses. This phenomena, together with the reduction in the steel cross section and the weakening of the connection between the steel and the concrete, directly affects the residual strength and serviceability of structural parts as well as the overall RC structure. According to Ahmad 2003, the remaining service life of a corroding RC structure is found to be primarily determined by the structure's corrosion rate. Corrosion can be "delayed" by having a suitable concrete cover or by having a high alkalinity in the concrete solution, but it cannot be "prevented" owing to concrete porosity, degradation over time, insufficient material standards, and poor workmanship. Both of these factors contribute to corrosion. Both of them are decaying slowly. Because steel corrosion causes damaged and deteriorating RC structures, the expense of repairing, rehabilitating, and maintaining these structures can result in severe economic loss for the owners of the assets. These expenses add up over the course of time. According to research done by Achillides and Pilakoutas (2004), billions of dollars are spent all over the world to repair and upgrade concrete structures that include reinforcement that has deteriorated. According to estimates provided by the International Federation for Structural Concrete in 2006, the amount of money required to repair and maintain the world's infrastructure was in excess of one hundred billion euros, with a significant percentage of this expenditure going toward concrete durability difficulties. According to estimates provided by Sung-Ho and RakHyun (2011), the cost of reinforcement corrosion in RC structures in the United States is around 4% of its GNP and amounts to \$2.8 billion annually. According to estimates provided by Bruun (2014), the province of Ontario in Canada spent around \$57 billion to replace 10,000 steel-corroded RC bridges. According to Ratcliff's (2009) estimation, corrosion costs Australia \$32 billion per year, which is equivalent to more than \$1,500 for each individual. An alternative to steel reinforcement that is both more long-lasting and less expensive is required as a result of the high expenses associated with the construction, maintenance, and rehabilitation of RC structures.

Sustainability Issue of Cement

Cement-based concrete is used for most building worldwide and consumes second only to water. According to the USGS (van Oss 1996-2016), China produced 44% of the world's cement between 1994–2014. Statistics show that global cement output has been rising for years. This expansion began in 2000. According to the Portland Cement Association (PCA 2015), global cement consumption increased by 2.2% in 2015, 3.7% in 2016, and 4.0% in 2017-2018. It is expected to continue rising in the future. It is expected to rise further.

Cement output may be growing due to population increase and the construction industry's expansion to fulfill

worldwide demand for new residential and non-residential structures. These variables serve the expanding worldwide need for new structures. These factors have increased global demand for new structures. However, cement production is a major source of human CO₂ emissions 50% of CO₂ emissions come from the decomposition of CaCO₃ into CaO and CO₂, 40% from fossil fuel combustion, and 10% from raw material transportation and electricity use. One tonne of cement produces 0.90 tonnes of CO₂, 0.53 tonnes from grinding and crushing raw materials and 0.37 tonnes from burning fossil fuel. According to USGS statistics, the cement industry emitted 46 giga-tonne (Gt) of CO₂ into the atmosphere between 1994 and 2014. Based on USGS data. According to Olivier et al. 2015, the billions of tonnes of cement produced annually account for 8% of global CO₂ emissions. Global warming is our greatest environmental and economic threat, according to Benhelal et al. (2013). Global warming causes 20–30% of the world's plants and animals to die, harsh weather, and sea level rise. CO₂ is a major greenhouse gas (GHG) that warms the globe. Greenhouse gases include ozone, methane, and nitrous oxide. Due to this, low-emission binding agents for concrete have been developed to minimize CO₂ emissions and global warming. This endeavor limited CO₂ emissions .

Replacement of Steel Bars with Gfrp Bars

In the construction industry, fiber-reinforced polymer composites, sometimes known as FRP composites, are frequently used to repair and rehabilitate old structures. The technology behind FRP composites has progressed to the point that it can now be used as internal reinforcement for concrete structures. This is done to make these buildings more robust and to lengthen the amount of time they will remain in use. According to Aiello and Ombres's (2000) and Mufti et al. (2007) research, If corrosion-induced durability problems were to be avoided in concrete projects, chemically inert reinforcements such as fiber-reinforced polymer (FRP) bars may be used instead of steel reinforcements. In addition, applications that need low electric conductivity, electromagnetic neutrality, or lightweight construction are good candidates for GFRP bars. They are also resistant to fatigue and provide good thermal insulation in addition to having great strength-to-weight and stiffness-to-weight ratios. Real-time production, transportation, and monitoring are all possible with these.

Gfrp Reinforcement Properties

The most common type of FRP reinforcement is called GFRP bars. They are desirable due to their favorable cost-to-performance ratio as well as their efficient use in a variety of concrete projects including bridge deck slabs, barrier walls, parking garages, continuous pavement, and others (Ahmed et al. 2010a). They are the form of FRP reinforcement that is utilized in building the most frequently. Components of a GFRP bar are displayed in Figure 1.2.

This method of producing bars with a uniform cross-section, known as pultrusion, is utilized in the production of the bars. Reinforcing glass fibers are saturated with liquid polymer resin in a process called a resin bath. After the resin has been properly cured, the procedure is finished by driving the fibers through a shaping die. The characteristics of the bars are mostly determined by the kinds of fibres and matrices used, as well as the amounts of each and the bond interactions between them.

The high modulus (HM) GFRP bars that were utilized as reinforcement in this investigation are outlined in the table that can be seen below. The table will now appear. The CSA S807-10 FRP Specification (2010) was utilized during the production of these bars by V-Rod® Australia (2012). In order to produce the bars, pultrusion utilized longitudinal E-glass fibers in conjunction with a thermosetting vinyl ester glue. The most up-to-date GFRP bars benefit from recent FRP technology advancements that boost their endurance. These new innovations have been to this thing's benefit.

First-generation glass fiber reinforced plastic (GFRP) bars have a limited lifespan and are prone to alkaline corrosion. This was discovered through testing.

In order to increase the overall quality of the manufacturing, we utilized glass fibers that were resistant to alkali and were of the appropriate size and matrix. The fiber-matrix interphase was another area that was targeted for development and enhancement. These earlier studies also subjected the bars to an idealized and simulated hostile environment that included high temperatures and a high pH. can get an idea of how much wear and tear these circumstances have put on the bars. Mufti et al. (2007) discovered that the results of these experiments did not correspond to the behavior that occurs in actual bars. In point of fact, Robert et al. (2009) discovered that the durability performance of GFRP bars in concrete as tested in a laboratory setting did not adequately represent their genuine service life in concrete situations.

This was the conclusion reached after doing research on the topic. The bars did not pass the laboratory test after they were struck with concrete. Benmokrane et al. (2015) came to the conclusion that glass/vinylester (G/V) FRP bars had the best fibre/resin bond, as well as the best flexural strength, elastic modulus, and interlaminar shear (regulated by the fibre/matrix interface). In comparison to basalt/vinylester (B/V) and basalt/epoxy fiber reinforced plastic (FRP) bars.

They absorbed the least amount of moisture and exhibited improved durability in alkaline settings, despite the high temperatures they were exposed to. Additionally, they had the lowest temperatures.

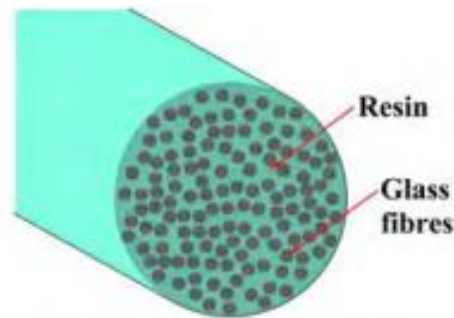


Fig 1 Typical configuration of a GFRP bar

CONCLUSION

The geopolymer concrete's mechanical properties were found to be much greater than those of the conventional concrete of the same grade. It may be deduced from the fact that the initial fracture load as well as the ultimate load of the GPB beams are greater than those of the RCB beams that the GPB beams are capable of supporting a greater quantity of weight. Every beam is susceptible to flexural failure at some point. On the other hand, when GPB beams collapse, they do so in a more ductile manner than when RCB beams do so; the crushing of the concrete only takes place in the compression zone. In compliance with the criteria for serviceability, GPB beams have a higher number of minuscule cracks spaced more closely together than RCB beams do. When compared to RCB beams, the GPB beams have a higher capacity for absorbing energy due to their greater load bearing capacity as well as their ability to withstand larger deflections without breaking. This indicates that the GPB beams have stronger ductility .

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