

1 **INFLUENCE OF ELEVATED TEMPERATURE ON PROPERTIES OF**  
2 **RADIATION SHIELDING CONCRETE WITH ELECTRIC ARC**  
3 **FURNACE SLAG AS COARSE AGGREGATE**

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14 **Abstract**

15 The development of value-added materials from by-product of the steel-making process can  
16 promote sustainability in construction to move towards a circular economy. The use of Electric  
17 Arc Furnace (EAF) steel slag as heavyweight coarse aggregate to develop sustainable radiation  
18 shielding concrete could provide both technical and economic benefits with less environmental  
19 impact. This contribution investigates the behaviour at high temperature of a sustainable  
20 radiation shielding concrete. Thermal behaviour of EAF slag concrete was compared to another  
21 heavyweight concrete made of barite aggregates and to a normal-weight concrete. On one hand,  
22 the thermal stability of the three different aggregates was determined via simultaneous  
23 Thermogravimetry and Differential Scanning Calorimetry analyses and visual observations  
24 after 10°C/min heating. On the other hand, the evolution of thermal conductivity of concretes  
25 during heating, the residual mechanical properties and the assessment of potential spalling  
26 occurrence were investigated. Stereo-microscope and Scanning Electron Microscope pictures  
27 provide additional explanations by showing the paste-aggregate interface after heating at  
28 450°C. The results indicated that EAF concrete displayed less strength reduction at increasing  
29 temperature. This improved behaviour is attributed to both the strong bond between the paste  
30 and the aggregates, and the better thermal behaviour of the EAF slag aggregates compared to  
31 barite aggregates.

32

33 *Key words: Electric Arc Furnace slag ; Heavyweight concrete ; Barite aggregate ;*  
34 *Temperature ; Compressive strength; Dynamic modulus ; Recycle ; Thermal Conductivity*

35

## 36 **1. Introduction**

37 Concrete is one of the most used materials to design shielding barriers for radiation protection.  
38 Among the typical structures that require an efficient and reliable shielding against radiations,  
39 there are reactor vessels, nuclear research facilities, hospitals and industrial facilities where  
40 high-current, low- and medium- energy proton accelerators are employed. Indeed, concrete has  
41 the ability to attenuate both gamma radiations, neutron radiations and mixed fields of both.  
42 Such property is acknowledged to the presence of heavyweight nuclei that are acting as a shield  
43 for gamma radiations, and due to relatively high content of water, that acts as a neutron-  
44 absorbing material (Kaplan, 1989).

45 Heavyweight concrete is a special type of concrete that finds large application to shield  
46 radiations, due to its improved attenuation capacity against gamma radiations. There are varying  
47 types of aggregates that can be used to achieve the desired increase in concrete density: barite,  
48 ferro-phosphorus, magnetite and hematite are the most well-known (Komarovskii, 1961;  
49 Mostofinejad et al. 1961; Ouda, 2015; Özen et al. 2015). Recently, a wide experimental research  
50 has been devoted to find sustainable alternatives to the above heavyweight aggregates, with  
51 both the aims to reduce the large economic and environmental costs caused by their use. Both  
52 negative and positive findings have been recorded. Çullu and Ertas (2016) have substituted lead  
53 mine waste to both limestone and barite aggregates in conventional and heavyweight concretes,  
54 respectively. They showed that lead mine waste aggregates do not absorb as much radiation as  
55 barite, but the absorbed radiation was higher than in the conventional concrete made with  
56 limestone. Alwaeli (2017) realized concrete specimens with scale and granulated lead–zinc slag  
57 waste as sand substitute, that displayed better attenuation capacity than convention concrete  
58 made with natural sand. Maslehuddin et al. (2013) and González-Ortega et al. (2014) performed  
59 preliminary experimental investigations about the radiation shielding properties of concretes  
60 with Electric Arc Furnace (EAF) slag. This by-product of steelmaking process represents a  
61 good candidate to cast heavyweight concretes with shielding properties, due to its high density  
62 and overall good mechanical strength. Such preliminary works highlighted the capability to  
63 produce heavyweight concretes EAF slag, with intermediate attenuation property between those  
64 of normal-mass and barite concretes. A recent work carried out by Pomaro et al. (2019) deals  
65 with a detailed experimental and numerical analysis on the mechanical and shielding properties  
66 of three kinds of concrete: a conventional one, made with normal-mass dolomitic aggregates;  
67 EAF slag concrete, including 100% of EAF slag as coarse aggregates substitution; and a barite  
68 aggregates concrete, as the heavyweight concrete of reference. Specimens were irradiated with

69 both a high-activity  $^{60}\text{Co}$  gamma-ray source (of 8.97TBq activity; dose rate of 53Gy/h at 20cm  
70 from the source) and a low-activity  $^{60}\text{Co}$  gamma-ray source (of 280kBq; dose rate of  $6.24 \times 10^{-}$   
71  $7\text{Gy/hour}$  at 40cm from the source) to measure and compare the linear attenuation coefficients  
72 of each concrete mix. Then the results were also simulated via a Monte Carlo code assessing  
73 radiation transport through matter, to assess if the results are reliable. Results clearly highlight  
74 how the gamma-rays attenuation performance of EAF slag concrete is comparable to that of  
75 barite concrete; furthermore, its mechanical properties are noteworthy improved. Previous  
76 results on EAF concrete mechanical strength and durability-related performance in literature  
77 confirm this evidence (Arribas et al. 2015; Faleschini et al. 2017a, 2017b; Ortega-López et al.  
78 2018; Papayianni and Anastasiou, 2010; Pellegrino et al. 2013), demonstrating how this by-  
79 product aggregate exhibit excellent properties.

80 This work represents a continuation of the above-cited work on EAF slag concrete, where one  
81 of the authors of this research was involved, aimed at studying in detail the thermo-mechanical  
82 properties of two heavyweight (made with EAF slag concrete and barite aggregates) and one  
83 normal-weight (made with dolomite aggregates) concretes. Indeed, there are many applications  
84 when shielding barriers might be exposed at the same time to radiation fields and high  
85 temperature, and in such strategic facilities, the guarantee of safe service life is of paramount  
86 importance. Some exemplary cases are those of the inner face of the shielding concrete in a  
87 nuclear facility, which is often exposed to direct heat from the reactor core, and that of spent  
88 nuclear fuel storage casks, that might be exposed for prolonged time at temperature up to  $150^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

89 While heating, the cementitious paste undergoes chemical and physical modifications mostly  
90 related to the departure of free and bound water of hardened cement paste. Moreover, thermal  
91 mismatch strain at the cement paste-aggregate interface can be at the origin of additional  
92 cracking (Xing et al. 2011). So, thermal exposure degrades physical properties like permeability  
93 or porosity and reduces mechanical properties like the elastic modulus or compressive and  
94 flexural strengths. Finally, the high compactness and low permeability required for these  
95 shielding elements can make heavyweight concretes more vulnerable to explosive spalling  
96 phenomenon. Spalling is the product of two concomitant processes: (a) thermo-mechanical  
97 process leading to expansion/shrinkage gradient and, (b) thermo-hydric process linked to water  
98 transfer in the pore network and leading to the build-up of pore pressure (Heap et al. 2013).

99 Only few studies have been carried out on high temperature behaviour of heavyweight  
100 concretes. The large majority of the studied concretes contained barite, magnetite or hematite  
101 aggregates.

102 Studies of Lo Monte and Gambarova (2014) have shown that barite concretes had favourable  
103 heat insulation properties thanks to their low thermal diffusivity compared to normal concretes.  
104 Residual compressive strength of barite concretes appeared to be slightly better than that of  
105 silico-calcareous concretes above 500°C (Lo Monte and Gambarova, 2014) but it was  
106 significantly lower than that of granite concrete (Ling and Poon, 2014). Ling and Poon (2014),  
107 and Horszczaruk et al. (2017) underlined the spalling sensitivity of barite concrete and the  
108 explosive spalling occurrence on the surface of the concrete specimens at low heating rate of  
109 1°C/min and 4°C/min. This effect was attributed to barite aggregates low toughness and  
110 resistance to high temperatures, causing cracking when the aggregates are exposed to high  
111 temperatures. Horszczaruk et al. (2017) found that concrete with magnetite aggregates  
112 exhibited better residual mechanical properties in comparison to barite concretes; SEM images  
113 showed that no cracks were observed at 400°C in samples containing magnetite aggregate.

114 Gencil (2012) has shown that incorporating hematite into concrete leads to an improvement in  
115 its mechanical properties at an ambient temperature of 25°C. That is, after exposure to high  
116 temperatures, hematite concretes exhibited a higher overall compressive strength, flexural  
117 strength, splitting tensile strength, and elastic behaviour in comparison to the standard concrete  
118 with silico-calcareous aggregates. Gallé and Sercombe (2001) have shown a lower increase of  
119 the permeability of hematite high strength concretes between 250 and 400°C compared to  
120 silico-calcareous high strength concretes. To the author's knowledge, no spalling sensitivity  
121 tests were performed on heavyweight concretes with high heating rate. There are currently very  
122 limited researches with respect to the effect of high temperature on EAF slag concrete. Only  
123 Netinger et al. (2013) used steel slag as coarse aggregates; compared to dolomite aggregate.  
124 They observed that slag aggregate improved residual compressive strength up to 600°C, but  
125 beyond, residual mechanical performances of steel slag concretes underwent a more severe loss  
126 of performances. Liang et al. (2018), and Ducman and Mladenovic (2011) used steel slag as  
127 fine aggregate. According to Liang et al., residual properties of ultra high-performance concrete  
128 (UHPC) using steel slag as fine aggregate were significantly improved up to 1000°C compared  
129 to quartz powder, but Ducman and Mladenovic found lower residual strength at 800°C and  
130 1000°C compared with refractory concrete made of bauxite aggregates. The worsen behaviour  
131 of slag concrete from 800°C could be explained by the mineralogical transformation of wustite  
132 into magnetite between 700°C and 800°C, this transformation being accompanied by  
133 volumetric expansion (Ducman and Mladenovic, 2011; Netinger et al. 2013).

134 Hence, in this paper an experimental research has been carried out to compare the thermo-  
135 mechanical behaviour of EAF slags aggregates concretes, barite concretes and normal-weight  
136 concrete.

137 The main aims of this work are to analyse the influence of EAF slag aggregates on the high  
138 temperature behaviour of concretes. Some tests are performed on aggregates and concretes with  
139 a heating rate of 10°C/min to assess the spalling occurrence. Otherwise, the evolution of  
140 physical and mechanical properties with temperature are investigated after heating/cooling at  
141 1°C/min. The evolution of the thermal conductivity of concrete during the heating up to 600°C  
142 is also studied. The results that are presented give a comparison between the high temperature  
143 behaviour of EAF slag concretes and two other mixes, one heavyweight using barite aggregates  
144 and a normal-weight one made of dolomite aggregates. Furthermore, the study of the thermal  
145 stability of the three different aggregates and SEM observations provide some explanations on  
146 the concretes' behaviour depending on the type of aggregates.

## 147 **2. Experimental program**

### 148 **2.1 Aggregates**

149 Two different types of heavyweight coarse aggregates were used in the experiments: electric  
150 arc furnace steel slag aggregate (EAF) - coming from a steel making plant situated in Padova  
151 (Italy), where only carbon steel is produced - and a Barite aggregate (BAR), consisting of  
152 barium sulphate, coming from Italy too. Concerning the slag, during its productive chain, it was  
153 stabilised through an outdoor weathering process lasting for 3 months, then it was processed as  
154 an aggregate (i.e., it was sieved, crushed, subject to deferrization process, etc. until reaching the  
155 required grading), and lastly daily cycles of drying/wetting conditions were applied for a week  
156 on the final product. This process, currently adopted by many steelmaking plants in Spain and  
157 Italy, allows limiting further dimensional stability problems that might occur due to free CaO  
158 and free MgO expansion, and as well, it reduces the leaching of heavy metals in the concrete.  
159 Finally, normal-weight coarse aggregate (REF) composed of dolomite was used for the  
160 reference concrete. In all the mixtures, fine aggregate was an alluvial sand. The chemical  
161 composition of the raw materials was investigated using XRF analysis and shown in Table 1.  
162 The principal components of EAF slag, barite aggregates, coarse and fine natural aggregates  
163 are oxides of iron, lime and silica; barium oxide and sulphur trioxide; lime, magnesia and finally  
164 silica, respectively. The mineralogical composition of EAF was obtained by XRD analysis

165 using a Siemens D500 diffractometer with CuK $\alpha$ . The main mineral phases identified are  
 166 wuestite (FeO), magnetite (Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>), larnite (Ca<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub>) and gehlenite (Ca<sub>2</sub>Al<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>7</sub>) and calcite  
 167 (CaCO<sub>3</sub>). This latter probably comes from the hydration then the carbonation of CaO during  
 168 the weathering stage.

169 Coarse natural aggregates and EAF aggregates were provided into various fractions of size 4-  
 170 16 mm while for barite aggregate, the size was between 4-14 mm as shown in Table 2, which  
 171 presents the physical properties of the aggregates. EAF slag coarse aggregate and barite  
 172 aggregate have high and close specific gravities, 3.85 and 3.82, respectively, while natural  
 173 coarse aggregate has a specific gravity of 2.7. Besides, the water absorption - influencing the  
 174 water content and therefore the concrete's high temperature features - of barite aggregate, EAF  
 175 slag coarse aggregate and natural coarse aggregate was 1.90%, 0.84% and 0.75%, respectively.  
 176 A Water Reducing Admixtures was used to adjust the workability of the concrete mixes.

177

178 *Table 1. Chemical composition of the aggregates by XRF analysis (Pomaro et al. 2019)*

	<b>Dolomite (%)</b>	<b>Barite (%)</b>	<b>EAF slag (%)</b>	<b>Fine NA (%)</b>
<b>CaO</b>	55.74	-	30.30	19.01
<b>SiO<sub>2</sub></b>	4.31	5.01	14.56	53.77
<b>MgO</b>	39.94	-	2.97	10.32
<b>BaO</b>	-	59.86	-	-
<b>SO<sub>3</sub></b>	-	35.14	-	-
<b>Fe<sub>x</sub>O<sub>y</sub></b>	-	-	33.28	3.19
<b>Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub></b>	-	-	10.20	11.90
<b>MnO</b>	-	-	4.34	-
<b>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub></b>	-	-	2.67	-
<b>K<sub>2</sub>O</b>	-	-	-	1.81

179

180 *Table 2. Physical properties of aggregates*

	<b>Dolomite (REF)</b>	<b>Barite (BAR)</b>	<b>Slag (EAF)</b>	<b>Fine NA</b>
<b>Size (mm)</b>	4-16	4-14	4-16	0-4
<b>Apparent density (EN1097-6) (kg/m<sup>3</sup>)</b>	2701	3817	3854	2703
<b>Water absorption (EN 1097-6) (wt.%)</b>	0.75	1.90	0.84	1.18
<b>Water porosity (EN 1097-6) (%)</b>	2.03	7.25	3.24	3.19
<b>Los Angeles coefficient (EN 1097-2) (%)</b>	28	65	15	/
<b>Origin</b>	Alluvial	Crushed	Crushed	Alluvial

## 181 2.2 Mix design

182 Concrete mixtures were prepared using cement CEMI 52.5R. All the mixes contain 400 kg/m<sup>3</sup>  
183 of cement with a water/cement (w/c) ratio of 0.4, which is the recommended ratio when it comes  
184 to concrete that are to use for nuclear purposes (Topcu, 2003). Detail of mix design used for  
185 concrete is presented in Table 3. The water reducing admixture is added in order to have a  
186 slump ranging from 150 to 210 mm, therefore corresponding to class S4, according to the  
187 standard NF EN 206-1. The ratio (w/c) and the total volume of aggregate were the same for the  
188 different mixes. However, the amount of water reducing admixture was different for each mix  
189 design to obtain the required class S4.

190

191 *Table 3. Mix proportions for one m<sup>3</sup> of the investigated concretes*

192	Components (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	REF- concrete	BAR- concrete	EAF- concrete
193	<b>Cement</b>	400	400	400
194	<b>Silico-calcareous aggregate</b>	971	-	-
195	<b>Barite aggregate</b>	-	1371	-
196	<b>EAF slag aggregate</b>	-	-	1270
197	<b>Alluvial sand</b>	913	897	966
	<b>Water Reducing Admixtures (dry extract)</b>	3.2	4.0	3.2
	<b>Slump (mm)</b>	190	150	210
	<b>Fresh Density (kg/m<sup>3</sup>)</b>	2412	2810	2771

## 198 2.3 Specimens preparation

199 For each type of mixture, eighteen cylindrical specimens of 100 mm x 200 mm (diameter x  
200 height) were cast. The concrete specimens were cured in sealed bags with a damp cloth to  
201 maintain a humidity-saturated atmosphere for a period of about three months. The moisture  
202 content was determined for each concrete mix design on 4 – 6 (200g - 400g) concrete's pieces  
203 coming from 100 mm x 200 mm cylindrical specimens broken after the compression test. The  
204 average moisture by mass of each mix design, before tests, were 4.6%, 4.0% and 4.1% for REF,  
205 BAR and EAF concretes, respectively. The lowest density of its solid phase compared to BAR  
206 and EAF concretes explains the highest value for REF concrete. These values in weight percent  
207 correspond to volume fraction of 11.0 % ± 0.3%, 11.2% ± 0.4% and 11.4% ± 0.2% for REF,  
208 BAR and EAF concretes, respectively. The average water amount being approximately the  
209 same, there is therefore a valuable basis for the comparison of the different concretes test results

210 after being heated. After 90 days of curing, one of the 100 mm x 200 mm cylindrical specimens  
211 for each mix design was cut into 4 slices of 40 mm thickness. Two slices for each mix design  
212 were pre-dried in an oven at 80°C before the thermal conductivity test and the two others were  
213 kept in sealed plastic bags with a damp cloth for heating-cooling tests. Two concrete cylinders  
214 for each mix design were cut before heating in two 100 x 100 mm cylinders. They were intended  
215 for wave velocity measurements before and after heating.

216

#### 217 **2.4 Heating and cooling methodology**

218 In order to study the high temperature behaviour of the concrete mixes, two different heating  
219 rates have been applied for the heating tests. On the one hand, to study the “spalling” sensitivity,  
220 a heating rate of 10°C/min was used, and on the other hand, to investigate the concretes’ residual  
221 properties (physical and thermomechanical one) as a function of temperature a slow heating  
222 rate of 1°C/min was performed. An electric furnace with inner dimensions 1300 x 1010 x 1040  
223 mm (*L x D x H*) with a power of 150 KW was used (Figure 1). Temperature rise was controlled  
224 by a regulator-controller connected to a thermocouple in the furnace. Type K thermocouples,  
225 connected to an automatic data acquisition were used to monitor temperatures, every 30 seconds  
226 in the furnace, positioned on specimens’ surface. The surface temperature of concretes controls  
227 the temperature rise of the furnace. To evaluate the spalling sensitivity, some aggregates and  
228 100 mm x 200 mm concrete specimens were heated up to 600°C from room temperature (at a  
229 rate of 10°C/ min) with a 2hours stabilization at 600°C and a cooling rate of -1°C/min to room  
230 temperature. The heating rate of 10°C/min has been chosen because the risk of spalling is higher  
231 at moderate heating rate than at faster heating rate (Mindeguia et al. 2013; Bangi et al. 2012;  
232 Yermak et al. 2017). As higher rate of heating induces high thermal gradient, a large number of  
233 surface cracks occurs. These cracks allow significant amount of vapour and liquid water to be  
234 drained out from the specimen that limit the risk of spalling.

235 In order to study residual properties, concretes were subjected to different heating-cooling  
236 cycles of 150, 300 and 450°C at a heating rate of 1°C/min from the room temperature, with a 2  
237 hours stabilization at the target temperature and a cooling rate of -1°C/min to room temperature.  
238 The low heating rate ensures the homogeneity of temperature and limits the thermal gradient  
239 within the specimen (Rilem, 1995).

240

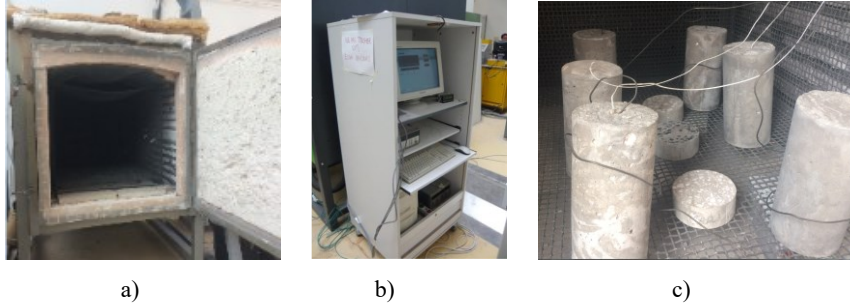


Figure 1: Heating cooling device: a) Furnace b) temperature recording system c) concrete specimens inside the electric furnace

## 2.5 Testing procedure

The evolution of the concrete microstructure with temperature was studied analysing concrete porosity, and with Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) observations. Residual properties such as the compressive strength ( $f_c$ ) and the dynamic Young modulus ( $E_c$ ) were measured after different heating-cooling cycles at  $1^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ . Thermo-physical properties like conductivity and specific heat were investigated as a function of the temperature.

### 2.5.1 Residual tests

**Dynamic modulus** ( $E_c$ ) was measured on 100 mm x 100 mm cylindrical specimens at room temperature and after heating-cooling at  $150^\circ\text{C}$  and  $300^\circ\text{C}$  ( $1^\circ/\text{min}$ ) with a Pundit lab instrument (Figure 2), evaluating the ultrasonic pulse velocity (UPV), according to European standard EN 12504-4. The device sends an electrical signal into the sample. This signal is transformed into longitudinal waves by a piezoelectric transducer. The waves propagate in the sample from one transducer to the other (at a distance  $L$ ) and are reflected back to the starting transducer. The apparatus measures the time “ $t$ ” between two successive echoes, from which the velocity “ $v$ ” of the longitudinal ultrasonic waves is calculated. The dynamic modulus of elasticity is determined from P-wave velocity and concrete density thanks to Eq. 1:

$$E_c = \frac{v^2 \cdot (\rho + \rho v) \cdot (\rho - 2\rho v)}{1 - v} \quad (1)$$

With  $E_c$  the dynamic modulus,  $v$  the velocity of the ultrasonic waves,  $\rho$  the density of the concrete at the studied temperature, and  $\nu$  the Poisson ratio ( $\nu = 0.2$  for the concrete).



268  
 269 *Figure 2: Ultrasonic pulse velocity apparatus for the assessment of the dynamic elastic modulus*  
 270

271 **Compressive strength** ( $f_c$ ) was measured on three 100 mm x 200 mm cylinders for each mix  
 272 after heating-cooling at 150°C and 300°C at 1°C/min and also at 600°C after spalling sensitivity  
 273 tests at 10°C/min. Concrete specimens were tested under uniaxial compressive loading on an  
 274 INSTRON 3000 kN hydraulic press, with imposed stress rate of 0.5 MPa/s according to EN  
 275 12390-3 (2019).

276 **Concrete mass loss** was obtained on three cylindrical specimens 100 mm × 200 mm for each  
 277 temperature level and for each concrete mix design. Specimens were weighted before and after  
 278 each heating-cooling cycle in order to determine the total mass loss during the heating-cooling  
 279 protocol.

280 **Water-porosity** ( $P$ ) was measured on three concrete pieces (200 g average weight), for each  
 281 concrete mix and for each target temperature. Before the test, samples were dried at 80°C until  
 282 achieving a constant mass. The method, according to the standard NF P18-459, requires to  
 283 saturate the sample with deionized water by using the capillary rise methodology. For this  
 284 purpose, the oven-dried samples were placed in vacuum to evacuate air from the internal pores.  
 285 This procedure should be carried out for 48h. After the complete saturation of the sample, the  
 286 amount of water should be evaluated by the gravimetric method. The weighting is carried out  
 287 immediately after disconnecting the vacuum-pump. The gravimetric water content, obtained by  
 288 the relation between the saturated weight and the dried weight (48h in an oven), should be  
 289 multiplied by the bulk density ( $\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$ ) to measure the volumetric water content. Eq. 2 gives  
 290 porosity  $P$ , expressed as the percentage volume:

291 
$$P = \frac{(m_{sat} - m_{dry})}{m_{sat} - m_{sat,im}} \cdot \rho_w \cdot 100 \quad (2)$$

292 Where  $m_{sat}$  represents the weight of saturated surface dry sample in (g),  $m_{dry}$  the weight of dry  
293 sample in (g),  $m_{sat\_im}$  the weight of the immersed saturated sample in (g) and  $\rho_w$  the water  
294 density in (g/cm<sup>3</sup>). After removing the sample from water, it is quickly and carefully wiped to  
295 remove the superficial water, and then placed on the hydrostatic balance and massed completely  
296 immersed to obtain the above measures.

297 Concrete slices of 40 mm x 100 mm were used for carrying out visual inspection with a stereo-  
298 microscope, and microstructural analysis was performed via a scanning electron microscope  
299 ZEISS Gemini SEM 300. Samples were dried, polished, immersed in the resin under vacuum  
300 after cooling and then coated with nickel.

301

## 302 **2.5.2 Thermal properties during heating**

303 Thermal properties of the different concretes such as thermal conductivity and specific heat  
304 were assessed. Besides, TGA/DSC tests have been realised on the different types of aggregates.

305 Thermal conductivity ( $\lambda$ ) was measured during heating with the Hot Disk probe TPS1500. The  
306 system is based on the technology of the Transient Plane Source (TPS). This method has been  
307 developed at Chalmers University of Technology by Gustafsson et al. (Gustafsson et al. 1994).

308 A mica probe with radius 14.610 mm, consisting of a very fine nickel double spiral (thickness  
309 10  $\mu$ m) covered with two thin layers of electrically-insulating material, is placed between two  
310 concrete cylinders (100 mm x 40 mm: diameter x thickness). The probe sends an electric current  
311 which raises the temperature of the specimen. The result is recorded with the increasing of  
312 resistance. Each concrete cylinder must have a flat surface to avoid contact defects with the  
313 sensor. Concrete cylinders were pre-dried at 80 °C until a constant mass was obtained before  
314 the measurement. The test was carried out at room temperature conditions, then increasing  
315 temperature from 20°C to 600°C in a 5 L electric furnace controlled by the Hot Disk Software.  
316 The heating rate was 1°C/min and the maximum temperature achieved was 600°C. For each  
317 target temperature, four measurements were taken under isothermal conditions.

318 Thermogravimetric analysis / Differential Scanning Calorimetry analysis (TGA/DSC) tests  
319 were carried out under vacuum in nitrogen gas. TGA/DSC tests give the mass change of a  
320 sample during heating and compare the evolution of its thermal properties to that of a Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>  
321 reference sample. The difference in temperature is measured and could be converted into a heat  
322 flow difference with an appropriate calibration. For each type, a representative aggregate

323 sample was dried at 80°C to constant mass and then ground into a fine powder using an  
 324 automatic disk vibrator type RS200 from Retsch. Aggregate samples are then kept in sealed  
 325 plastic bags until the thermal analysis test was performed with a NETZCH STA 449 F1 Jupiter  
 326 device. A 60 mg weight is placed on the thermo-nanobalance of the apparatus and weighed  
 327 accurately ( $\pm 0.025 \mu\text{g}$ ) throughout the test. The heating rate is 10°C/min up to 1000°C.

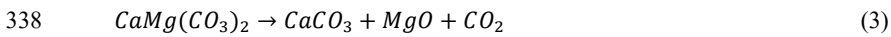
### 328 3 Results and discussion

329 This section presents, first, the results obtained on the thermal behaviour of aggregates, and  
 330 then thermal properties and residual behaviour of concretes made with the studied aggregates.

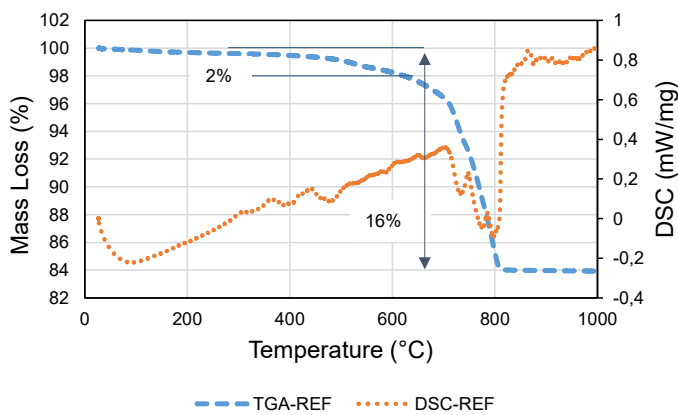
#### 331 3.1 High temperature behaviour of aggregates

##### 332 3.1.1 Thermal analysis (TGA/DSC)

333 Figure 3 presents TGA/DSC curves for dolomitic alluvial aggregate (REF). The total mass loss  
 334 is about 16%. Two stages of weight loss can be appreciated: 2% mass loss between 400°C and  
 335 500°C, and 14% mass loss in the range of 600 and 800°C. The decomposition of dolomite  
 336  $\text{CaMg}(\text{CO}_3)_2$  between 600 and 800 °C is pointed out with two endothermic peaks (735°C and  
 337 775-800°C) due to the double decarboxylation of dolomite (Eqs. 3-4).



340 The other peak observed within the range 775-800°C can be related to calcite decomposition.

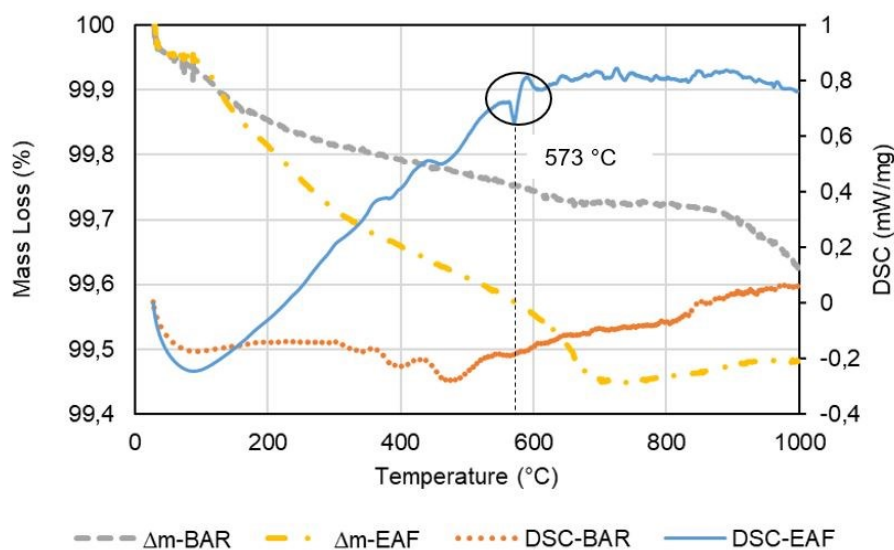


341

342 Figure 3: TGA and DSC curves for alluvial dolomite aggregate (REF)

343

344 Figure 4 presents TGA/DSC curves for BAR and EAF aggregates. The loss of weight for BAR  
345 is very low with a value of 0.38%. It mainly occurs before 300°C and after 900°C. Concerning  
346 EAF slag, the total weight loss is 0.52%. A weight loss of 0.1% can be observed in the  
347 temperature range from 600°C to 700°C that can be attributed to calcium carbonate  
348 decomposition as calcite was identified by XRD analysis. Finally, a slight weight gain is visible  
349 between 800°C and 950°C, which is possibly linked to the oxidation of some iron-based  
350 compounds present in the slag, in agreement with Galán-Arboledas et al. (2017) and Shih et al.  
351 (2004). An endothermic peak occurs at 573°C in DSC curve of EAF aggregate that correspond  
352 to the  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  transformation of quartz.



353

354 Figure 4: TGA and DSC curves for BAR and EAF aggregates

355

### 356 3.1.2 Visual observations on heated aggregates

357 In order to investigate the influence of the initial moisture content, aggregates were tested either  
358 in saturated or in their natural moisture state, at room temperature. In saturated conditions,  
359 aggregates were immersed in water from two to three days. Figure 5 shows the aggregates

360 before and after the heating test at 600°C with a rate of 10°C/min under saturated and non-  
361 saturated conditions.

362 For REF aggregate, both for the saturated or unsaturated aggregates, there was no spalling after  
363 the heating test and only few cracks were observed. Nevertheless, after the heating test, when  
364 kept at room temperature, REF aggregate showed some cracks whose length increased. This  
365 could be the result of the rehydration of CaO or MgO with ambient moisture, as the TGA/DSC  
366 curve shows the beginning of dolomite decomposition at 600°C.

367 BAR aggregates, that had been saturated before heating, spalled entirely and came into a  
368 powder form. While, in unsaturated conditions, only part of the aggregates spalled. Smaller  
369 spalled pieces could be related to higher released energy due to the build-up of high pore  
370 pressure. Works of previous authors pointed out that barite micro-fractured structure brings in  
371 intersecting surfaces that act as preferential paths in favouring the splitting of the rock particle  
372 (Witte and Backstrom, 1954). This brittle mechanical behaviour may be promoted by the  
373 barite's thermal instability. Furthermore, the high porosity of barite aggregates leads to a higher  
374 water content that is an important parameter promoting the explosive spalling risk. As shown  
375 further on SEM images (Fig. 8), closed rounded micro-porosity is observed within barite  
376 aggregates and might be fluid-filled (Valenza et al. 2000). The increase of internal pressure in  
377 those closed micro-pores during heating could also contribute to the aggregate's splitting.

378 For EAF aggregates, either in saturated or unsaturated conditions, no explosive spalling  
379 occurred.

380



381

382 *Figure 5: Comparison of the three different types of aggregates before and after the heating*  
 383 *test at 600°C (10°C/min) under saturated and unsaturated state before heating*  
 384

385

### 386 3.2 High temperature behaviour of concretes

#### 387 3.2.1 Analysis of the damage of concretes

##### 388 3.2.1.1. Visual observations after different heating rates

389 No explosive spalling phenomenon was observed after 1°C/min and 10 °C/min heating tests.  
 390 Nevertheless, one third of the EAF and BAR tested concrete cylinders exhibited some  
 391 "aggregate spalling".

392 Table 4 gives a summary of the moisture content of specimens before heating and the number  
 393 of concrete specimens damaged after heating test. Concretes with natural aggregates (REF) did

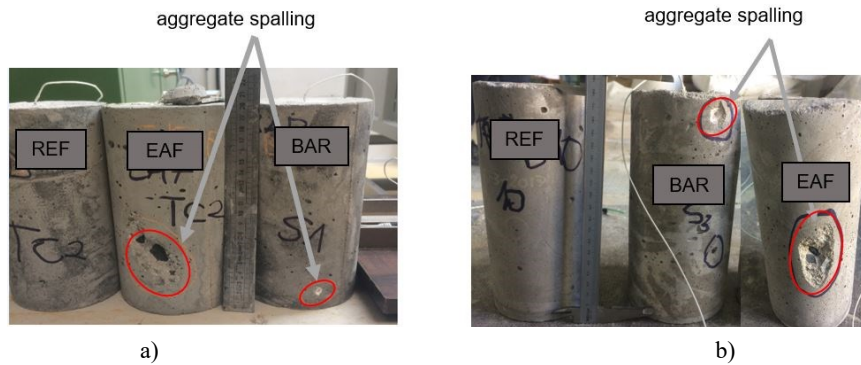
394 not exhibit any spalling phenomena during heating, whatever the moisture content (3.8%–  
 395 4.8%), but some cracks occurred. Instead, concretes with barite aggregates (BAR) and EAF  
 396 slag showed some surface spalling (Fig. 6). For these concretes, the spalling depth was about 5  
 397 mm. The aggregate spalling phenomenon observed on both concretes was more important for  
 398 the heating test at 450°C with 1°C/min rate than for the spalling sensitivity test at 10°C/min.  
 399 These crater-shaped spalling can be attributed to aggregate failures or high thermal expansion  
 400 of coarse aggregates near the specimen surface. This evidence can be related to results on  
 401 aggregates heating tests which have highlighted the thermal instability of barite aggregate. Ling  
 402 and Poon (2014) also showed that spalling occurred on the surface of barite concrete samples,  
 403 after exposure to 600°C at 5°C/min. The spalled pieces of concrete are located above aggregate  
 404 particle. The authors explain it by the high thermal expansion of barite aggregate. The thermal  
 405 expansion coefficient of barite aggregates according to Witte and Backstom (1954) is  $20.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{K}^{-1}$ .  
 406 No difference in spalling behaviour could be correlated with the different water moisture  
 407 values before heating (Table 4).

408

409 *Table 4: Summary of concrete damage after heating test (at 600°C with 10°C/min) and moisture*  
 410 *content of specimens before heating*

Concretes	Degradation type			Moisture content before heating	
	Aggregate Spalling *	Ratio of impacted Specimens	Maximum depth of aggregate spalling	(% weight)	(% volume)
<b>BAR</b>	+	1/3	5mm	4.0 ± 0.4	11.2 ± 0.4
<b>REF</b>	-	0/3	-	4.6 ± 0.3	11.0 ± 0.3
<b>EAF</b>	+	1/3	5mm	4.1 ± 0.2	11.4 ± 0.2

411 \*: +: observed degradation, -: No degradation.



412

413 *Figure 6: Illustration of the "aggregate spalling" phenomenon on BAR and EAF concrete*  
 414 *specimen of 100 mm x 200 mm dimension: a) after 10°C/min heating test up to 600°C; b) after*  
 415 *slow heating test at 1°C/min up to 450 °C*

416

#### 417 3.2.1.2. Microscopic observations after heating at 1°C/min


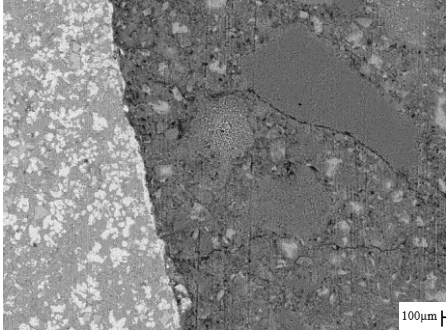

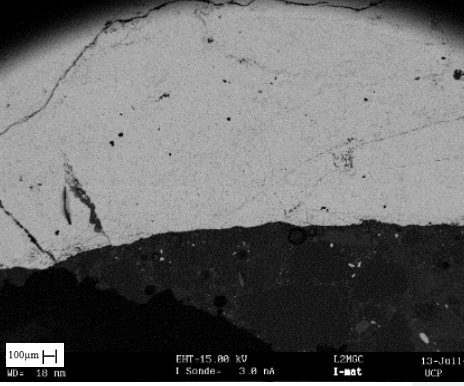
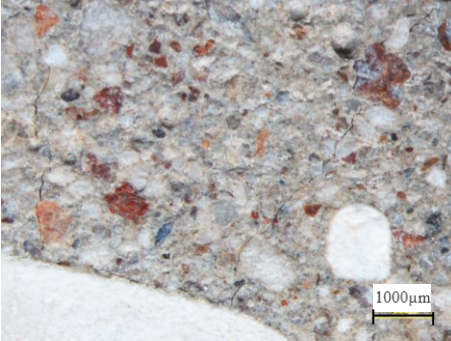
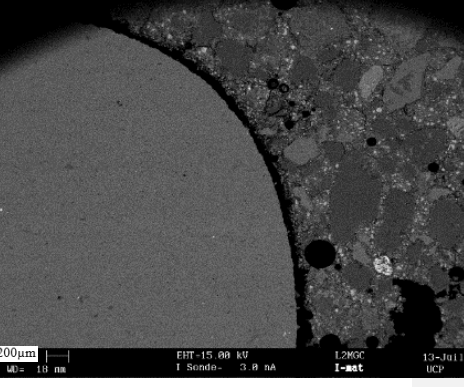
418 In order to compare and analyse the evolution of cracking with temperature in each concrete  
 419 series, 100 mm x 50 mm slices sawn from 100 mm x 200 mm concrete cylinders were submitted  
 420 to heating-cooling at 1°C/min up to 150°C, 300°C and 450°C. Regardless of the type of concrete  
 421 tested, after heating to 150°C no visible damage was detected under the stereo microscope.  
 422 After 300°C test, some cracks mainly located within the cement paste were observed under the  
 423 stereo microscope. The colour of some dolomite particles has turned into red at 300°C. Figure  
 424 7 shows pictures of REF, BAR and EAF concretes after heating-cooling cycle at 450°C taken  
 425 with stereo-microscope and scanning electron microscope (SEM).

426 For the REF concretes, reddish spots have been observed after heating at 450°C, likewise, a  
 427 radially propagation of cracks within the matrix surrounding the aggregate was noticed, as well  
 428 as some tangential cracks at the paste-aggregate interface. On one side, reddish spots could be  
 429 easily linked to the presence of iron oxides inside the alluvial sand, that would turn into a  
 430 reddish-brown coloration at increasing temperature. On the other side, color-change of some  
 431 dolomitic grains into red was already reported by other authors, i.e. by Hager et al (2016). SEM  
 432 observations highlighted the presence of an aggregate removed from the cement paste. Cracks  
 433 reveal a thermal mismatch between the aggregate and the cement paste and confirm the low  
 434 strength interface due to smooth rounded aggregate.

435 For BAR concretes, no cracks were observed at the paste-aggregate interface, showing a good  
 436 adhesion between paste and aggregate. Some cracks crossing through the barite aggregate have

437 occurred. Backscatter electron images show many micro-pores with a rounded shape within the  
438 barite aggregate (Fig. 8). Fluids may be trapped within these vacuoles due to the hydrothermal  
439 origin of the barite itself. According to several authors, aqueous and hydrocarbons fluid  
440 inclusions occur within barite, with variable liquid to vapour ratios (Thomson et al. 1992; Ulrich  
441 et al. 1988). During heating, internal pressure increases and might initiate the fracturing process  
442 of the inclusion walls. Some micro cracks were observed in the paste of the EAF concretes, no  
443 crack appeared at the paste-aggregate interface. Cracks observed in the surrounding cement  
444 matrix do not seem linked to the EAF aggregate. This confirms a good bond between EAF  
445 particles and cement paste.

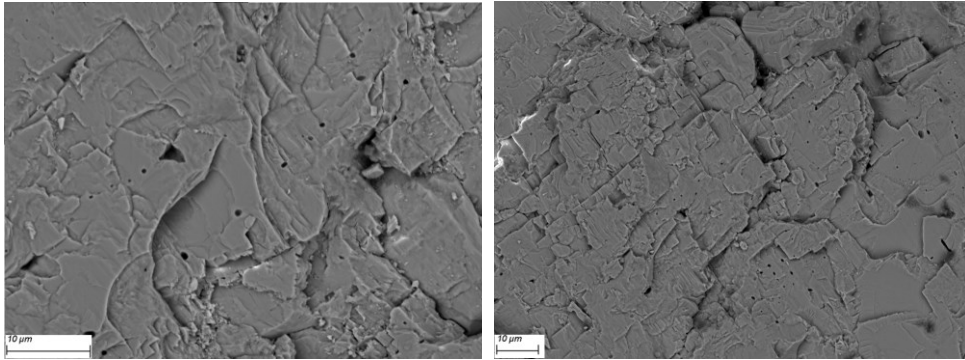
446

Type	(Optical) Microscopic observations	Scanning electron microscopy
EAF	 <p>200µm</p>	 <p>100µm</p>
BAR	 <p>200µm</p>	 <p>100µm</p> <p>EHT-15.00 kV L2MG I Scand- 3.0 nA I-mat 13-Jul-11 WD= 10 mm UCP</p>
REF	 <p>1000µm</p>	 <p>200µm</p> <p>EHT-15.00 kV L2MG I Scand- 3.0 nA I-mat 13-Jul-11 WD= 10 mm UCP</p>

447

448 *Figure 7: Stereo-microscope and Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) observations of*  
 449 *concretes after heating-cooling at 1°C/min up to 450°C*

450



451 *Figure 8: SEM micrographs of barite aggregates after heating-cooling at 1°C/min up to*  
452 *450°C*

453

### 454 **3.2.2. Residual physical properties**

455 Residual physical properties were measured after heating-cooling at 1°C/min. Indeed, to assess  
456 the evolution of the material properties in function of the temperature, the heating/cooling rate  
457 should be sufficiently low to ensure a homogeneous temperature distribution within the sample.

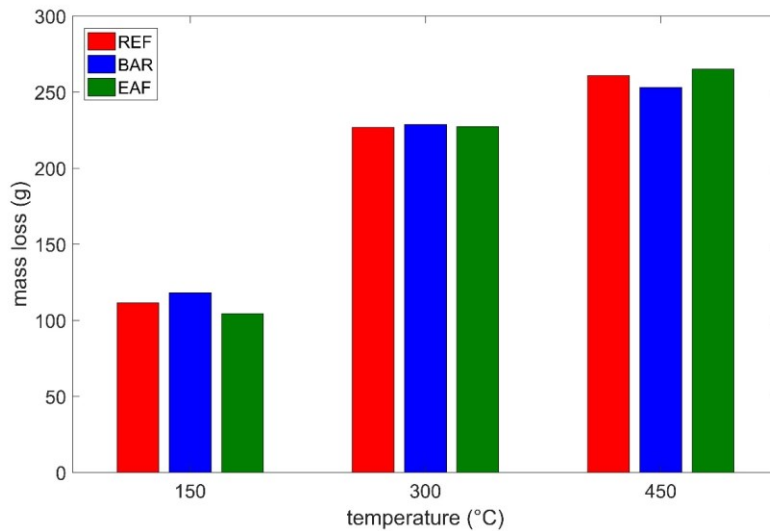
458

#### 459 **3.2.2.1 Mass loss**

460 Figure 9 shows the evolution of REF, BAR and EAF concretes mass loss as a function of  
461 temperature. The standard deviation ranges from 2 to 10 g. Because of the difference in concrete  
462 density, the mass loss was not evaluated in percentage, but by difference of masses, to allow a  
463 direct comparison between the three series of concrete. Only not spalled specimens were taken  
464 into account in the calculations.

465 As expected, the mass loss increases with temperature. At 150°C, BAR concrete exhibits a  
466 slightly higher loss as compared to EAF and REF mixes. This may be attributed to the higher  
467 water absorption capacity of BAR aggregate (Table 2). From 300 to 450°C, the three concretes  
468 show a similar mass loss trend. Most of the loss occurs before 300°C due to the evaporation of  
469 capillary water from macro-pores, evaporation of gel water from gel pores of cement paste and  
470 partial dehydration of C-S-H (Zhang 2011). The mass loss observed at 450°C may be due to  
471 portlandite decomposition.

472



473

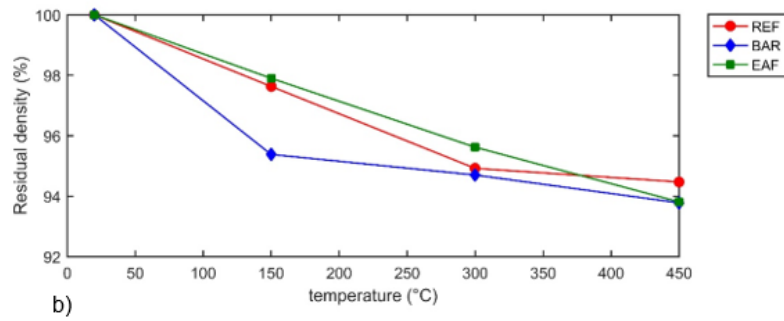
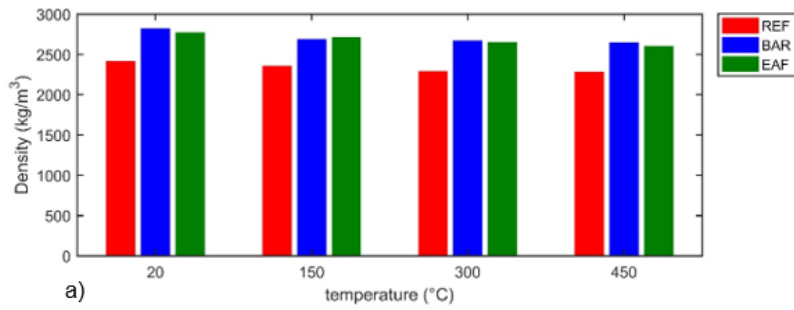
474 *Figure 9: Mass loss of 100 mm x 200 mm concrete cylinders concretes*

475

#### 476 3.2.2.2 Density and porosity

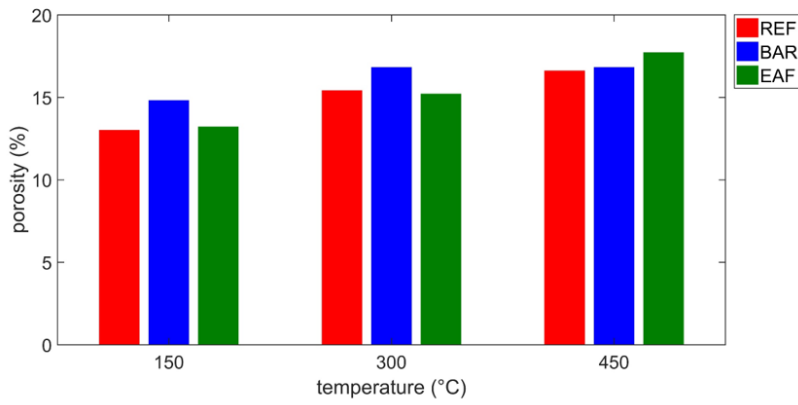
477 At 20°C, EAF concretes naturally lead with an average density of  $2805 \pm 39 \text{ kg/m}^3$  because of  
478 the high density of their aggregates. The BAR concrete comes in second place with a density  
479 of  $2766 \pm 35 \text{ kg/m}^3$ , a value quite close to that of EAF mixture. The REF concrete is a normal-  
480 weight concrete with  $2401 \pm 9 \text{ kg/m}^3$ . Figure 10 shows the evolution of density with heating  
481 temperature for the different concretes, both in (a) absolute and (b) percentage terms. As  
482 expected, the concrete density decreases with temperature. Until 300°C, both densities of EAF  
483 and BAR are around  $2600 \text{ kg/m}^3$  that is acknowledged as the unit mass volume threshold for a  
484 heavyweight concrete. At 450°C, the density of the concretes was  $2500 \text{ kg/m}^3$ .

485 Figure 11 shows the evolution of the residual porosity with the heating temperature for REF,  
486 BAR and EAF concretes. After 150°C heating-cooling test, the residual porosity of REF, BAR  
487 and EAF concretes were 13.0%, 14.5 % and 13.2%, respectively. The residual porosity of all  
488 concretes tested increases with temperature. Barite concrete has the highest values of residual  
489 porosity compared to that of the REF and EAF concretes. This is consistent with the higher  
490 porosity value of barite aggregate (Table 2). The REF and EAF concretes show a higher  
491 increase of porosity than BAR concrete between 300 and 450°C.



492

493 *Figure 10: Residual density as a function of the heating temperature*



494

495

496 *Figure 11: Residual porosity as a function of the heating temperature*

497

### 498 3.2.2.3 Residual mechanical properties of concrete

499 Mechanical tests performed on the heated specimen after cooling allowed to evaluate the effect  
500 of the aggregates on mechanical strength after exposure to high temperatures. Table 5 gives the  
501 mechanical properties of the different concretes at room temperature after 90 days. The EAF  
502 concrete has the highest strength as well as the highest dynamic modulus ( $E_c$ ), as compared to  
503 BAR and REF concretes. Hence, EAF concrete exhibits enhanced mechanical properties  
504 compared to the other mixtures, in terms of compressive and dynamic modulus. Such improved  
505 behaviour can be attributed to several reasons: relatively high compressive strength of EAF slag  
506 (higher than 130 MPa (Manso et al. 2004)); crushed shape, which is found to improve the  
507 adherence with the cementitious matrix (Abu-Eishah et al. 2012); reduced thickness of the  
508 interfacial transition zone (ITZ), due a combined physical-chemical interaction between slag  
509 and cement paste (Chan et al. 1996; Maslehuddin 2003) that results in a less porous and cracked  
510 ITZ. Indeed, it has been demonstrated that the surface of EAF slag enriches in calcite due to the  
511 hydroxylation of free CaO that is present in low amount in the slag, favouring the bond with  
512 cement paste.

513 Figure 12 shows the evolution of residual compressive strength of REF, BAR and EAF  
514 concretes from room temperature to 450 °C. As expected, exposure to elevated temperature  
515 leads to a reduction in the residual compressive strength of concrete specimens. Overall, the  
516 residual compressive strength values of EAF concretes were higher than those of REF and BAR  
517 concretes, whatever the exposure temperature.

518 Between 150 and 300°C, the residual relative compressive strength of the REF concrete is  
519 almost constant, while there is a residual strength decrease for the heavyweight concretes  
520 (Figure 12(b)). However, between 300 and 450 °C, the relative residual strength loss of the REF  
521 concrete (50%) is higher compared to that of EAF (3%) and BAR (12%) concretes. At 450°C,  
522 REF concrete only keeps 20% (9.0 MPa) of its initial compressive strength while EAF and BAR  
523 concretes exhibit 60% (39 MPa) and 53% (25 MPa) of their initial strength, respectively. After  
524 the residual compressive strength test, the failure surface of REF concretes heated at 450°C  
525 shows that aggregate particles had been debonded from the paste. Indeed, dolomite aggregate  
526 particles are rounded and smooth surface textured; this fact explains a lower bond strength than  
527 that developed between cement paste and angular aggregate particles with rough texture, like  
528 EAF or BAR aggregates. The higher increase in porosity of REF concrete between 300°C and  
529 450°C might be due to micro-cracks occurrence at the paste aggregate interface.

530 At room temperature, as for compressive strength, EAF concretes have a higher dynamic  
 531 modulus (Figure 13(a)) compared to BAR and REF concretes ones. However, the relative  
 532 modulus decrease with temperature is similar for the two heavy-weight concretes, EAF and  
 533 BAR concretes.

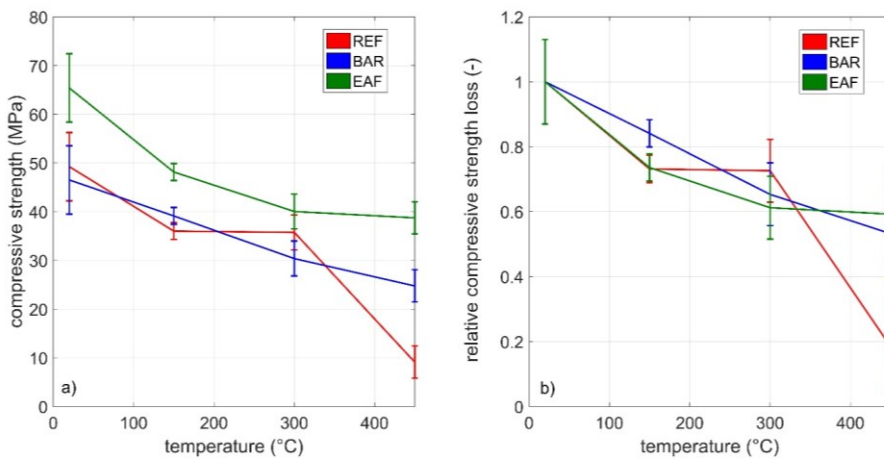
534

535 *Table 5: Mechanical properties of the different concretes at 90 days*

536

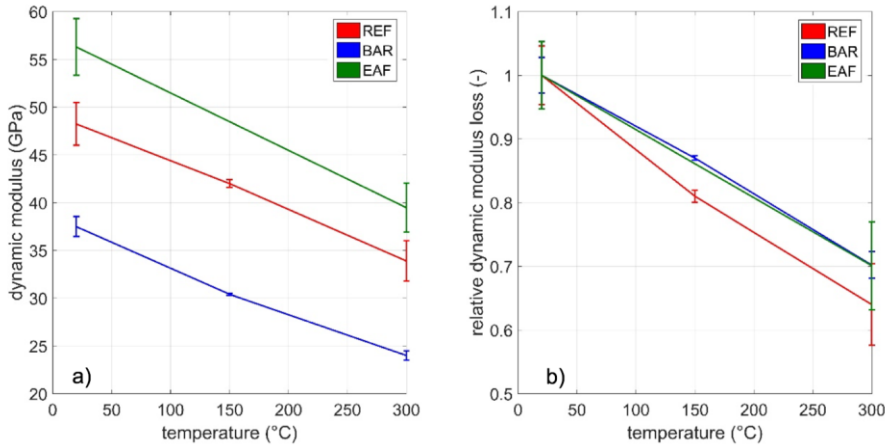
Concrete	Hardened density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	$f_{c,90days}$ (MPa)	$E_c$ (GPa)
REF	2401.0 ± 8.7	49.2 ± 2.2	48.2 ± 2.2
BAR	2765.7 ± 35.1	46.5 ± 7.0	37.5 ± 1.1
EAF	2804.1 ± 39.3	65.4 ± 2.4	56.3 ± 3.0

537



538

539 *Figure 12: Residual compressive strength (a) and relative residual compressive strength (b) as*  
 540 *a function of the temperature*



541  
542 *Figure 13: Residual dynamic modulus (a) and relative residual dynamic modulus (b) as a*  
543 *function of the temperature*

544

### 545 3.2.3 Evolution of thermal conductivity during heating

546 Table 6 lists the thermal properties of REF, BAR and EAF concretes at room temperature. As  
547 aggregates occupy a large volume in concrete, the heat transfer of concrete depends mainly on  
548 the aggregate composition. So, concrete thermal conductivity is mostly affected by  
549 mineralogical composition of aggregates, and by porosity value, due to the low thermal  
550 conductivity of air, being  $0.026 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$ . The thermal conductivity of heavyweight concretes  
551 is  $1.34$  and  $1.51 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$  for BAR and EAF concretes, respectively, being lower than that of  
552 concrete made with dolomite aggregates, which is  $2.05 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$ . BAR concrete exhibits a  
553 higher porosity (Figure 11) related to the higher porosity of barite aggregate (Table 2). This  
554 high porosity may partly explain the low thermal conductivity value of BAR concrete. Very  
555 few data are available in literature about thermal conductivity of barite concrete: Glinicki et al.  
556 (2015) had measured a thermal conductivity value of  $1.35 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$  for a barite aggregate  
557 concrete of  $2776 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^3$  density.

558 About EAF, Adegoloye et al. (2015) had already reported 20 to 24% lower thermal conductivity  
559 of EAF slag concrete compared to concrete containing silico-calcareous aggregate. Some EAF  
560 slag particles may have a vacuolar porosity that might explain the lower conductivity value.  
561 The barite aggregate concrete exhibits a specific heat much lower than that of the two other  
562 concretes, whose specific heat are quite close. The thermal diffusivity is defined as:

$$563 \quad a = \lambda / (\rho \cdot C_p) \quad (5)$$

564 where  $\lambda$  is the thermal conductivity,  $Cp$  is the specific heat and  $\rho$  the oven dry density. The two  
 565 heavyweight concretes have a lower thermal diffusivity than the normal concrete, mostly  
 566 explained by their lower thermal conductivity and higher density. The EAF diffusivity value of  
 567  $0.89 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$  is in agreement with results found by Adegoloye et al. (2015), ranging from 0.86  
 568 and  $0.96 \text{ mm}^2/\text{s}$ . Like barite concrete, EAF concrete has favourable heat insulation properties.

569 Figure 14 presents the evolution of thermal conductivity of EAF and BAR concretes as a  
 570 function of the temperature during heating up to  $600^\circ\text{C}$ . Limitation in the thermal properties  
 571 measures is caused by the use of nickel in the spiral of the probe. Nickel exhibits a change in  
 572 its electrical properties near its Curie temperature that occurs at  $358^\circ\text{C}$ , around which  
 573 measurements do not give physically meaningful values in the range between  $350$  and  $400^\circ\text{C}$ .

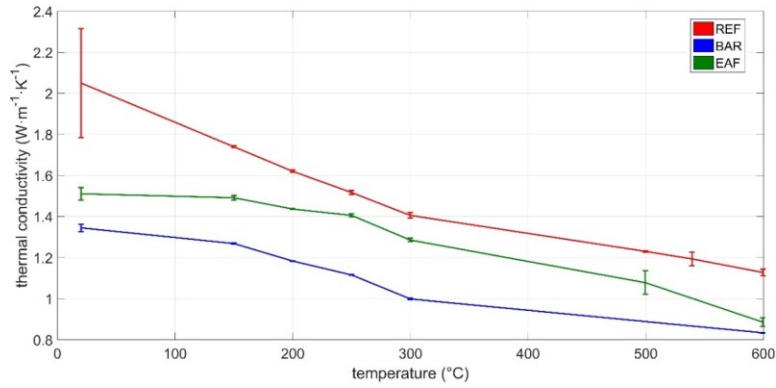
574 The observation of the thermal conductivity curves of the different concretes (Figure 14) as a  
 575 function of temperature showed, as expected, that the thermal conductivity decreased with  
 576 temperature. Phonons, quanta of atomic vibrational modes are the main heat carrier in non-  
 577 metallic solids (Zinan, 1960). At high temperature, the decrease of thermal conductivity with  
 578 temperature is related to phonon-phonon interaction (Minnich 2015). This decrease is also  
 579 linked to the increase of pores due to decomposition of hydrates and thermal microcracking.  
 580 Usually, the most conductive concretes show a higher loss of conductivity with the rise of  
 581 temperature (Xing et al. 2015). EAF concrete conductivity is higher than BAR concrete  
 582 conductivity at room temperature, but the conductivity of EAF concrete shows a lower loss of  
 583 conductivity with temperature. Up to  $300^\circ\text{C}$ , the EAF concrete exhibits a lower conductivity  
 584 decreasing rate, this being  $0.07 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$ . per  $100^\circ\text{C}$ , compared to values found in literature, for  
 585 normal-weight concretes, ranging from  $0.12$  to  $0.2 \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}$  per  $100^\circ\text{C}$  (Kodur 2014).

586

587 *Table 6: Thermal properties of REF, BAR and EAF concretes at room temperature*

Concrete	Thermal Conductivity ( $\text{W}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$ )	Thermal diffusivity ( $\text{mm}^2/\text{s}$ )	Specific heat ( $\text{kJ}/(\text{kg}\cdot\text{K})$ )
<b>REF</b>	$2.05 \pm 0.037$	$1.37 \pm 0.002$	$0.64 \pm 0.058$
<b>BAR</b>	$1.34 \pm 0.003$	$1.10 \pm 0.002$	$0.46 \pm 0.02$
<b>EAF</b>	$1.51 \pm 0.012$	$0.89 \pm 0.002$	$0.63 \pm 0.02$

588



589

590 *Figure 14: Thermal conductivity evolution of REF, BAR and EAF concretes with temperature*  
591 *during heating at 1°C/min up to 600°C.*

592

#### 593 **4 Conclusion**

594 This study aims to compare the behaviour of two different heavyweight concretes and a normal-  
595 weight concrete exposed to high temperature: a heavyweight concrete using steel industry co-  
596 products (EAF concrete), a heavyweight concrete with barite aggregates (BAR concrete) and a  
597 dolomite concrete (REF concrete) were analysed. All the concrete mixes have the same paste  
598 volume and water/cement ratio inducing an initial similarity of the cement matrix; the behaviour  
599 differences can therefore only be attributed to the nature of the aggregates.

600 According to the results obtained, it can be concluded that:

601 Barite and EAF concretes nearly have similar density, 2766 kg/m<sup>3</sup> and 2804 kg/m<sup>3</sup>,  
602 respectively. Up to 300°C, the density of these two concretes remains above 2600 kg/m<sup>3</sup>, which  
603 is the threshold defined by EN 206 for heavyweight concretes.

604 Concrete specimens with EAF aggregates have shown better mechanical properties compared  
605 to REF and BAR concretes. EAF concretes had the highest compressive strength at room  
606 temperature: 65 MPa vs 47 MPa and 49 MPa, compared to BAR and REF concretes  
607 respectively, and this occurs similarly at high temperature. The EAF and BAR concretes show  
608 a smaller decrease of the residual compressive strength and dynamic modulus with the  
609 temperature, while a strong degradation with the temperature was observed for the REF  
610 concrete. The best mechanical residual properties of EAF concrete is attributed to both the

611 strong bond between the paste and the aggregates, and the thermal behaviour of the EAF slag  
612 aggregate. SEM analysis on concretes heated at 450°C showed cracks leaving debonded  
613 aggregate grains on REF concrete, and cracks through barite aggregate grains.

614 The EAF concrete has a slightly higher conductivity ( $1.51 \text{ W.m}^{-1}.\text{K}^{-1}$ ) than BAR concrete ( $1.34$   
615  $\text{W.m}^{-1}.\text{K}^{-1}$ ), but a higher specific heat, so the EAF concrete thermal diffusivity is slightly lower  
616 than that of the BAR concrete. With the increase of the temperature, the thermal conductivity  
617 of the three concretes decreases and the gap between heavyweight and normal-weight concretes  
618 conductivity values decreases with the temperature.

619 The heating of barite aggregate at the rate of 10°C/min showed their high spalling sensitivity,  
620 which was even increased when the aggregates were in a saturated state before being heated.  
621 Barite grains were reduced into a powder form. SEM images show closed rounded micro-  
622 porosity within barite grains that might be fluid-filled considering the hydrothermal origin of  
623 barite. Heated, the barite would then be unstable under the effect of the pressure of those fluids  
624 subjected to a rise in temperature. Heated at a rate of 10°C/min, EAF aggregate showed a good  
625 thermal behaviour and TGA analysis showed a low weight loss of 0.52% at 1000°C. At a  
626 heating rate of 10°C/min up to 600°C, none of the concretes showed an explosive spalling.  
627 However, spalling aggregate at the concrete surface has been observed on EAF and BAR  
628 concretes

629 From the results achieved here it is possible to conclude that EAF slag can be satisfactorily used  
630 to produce heavy-weight concrete. As it is characterized by a high radiation attenuation against  
631 gamma radiation (Pomaro et al., 2019), similar and even higher than concrete made with barite  
632 aggregates, it shows promising application for radiation shielding. When it is exposed to high  
633 temperature, its residual properties are higher than that of both heavy- and normal-weight  
634 concretes. This is related to the better thermal behaviour of EAF aggregate compared to barite  
635 aggregate. However, large scale tests on real structural elements would be necessary to improve  
636 the knowledge of this material under high temperatures and fire scenarios.

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