Effect of Waste Tyre-Rubber Aggregate on the Strength Properties of Concrete

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Authors’ contributions
This work was carried out in collaboration between both authors. Both authors read and approved the final manuscript.

ABSTRACT
This research studied strength-characteristics of concrete using waste tyre-rubber as partial replacement for coarse aggregate in concrete construction and compares the results to those of conventional concrete. The specimens were produced with percentage replacements of the coarse aggregate by 5%, 10% and 15% of rubber aggregate. A control mix with no replacement of the coarse aggregate was produced, to make a comparative analysis. The samples consisted of concrete cubes, cylinders and beams. Various tests (such as slump, compressive strength, splitting tensile strength and flexural strength tests), were conducted. Data-collection was mainly based on the results of the tests conducted on the specimens in the laboratory. The results show that there is a reduction in the compressive strength of the concrete, due to the inclusion of rubber aggregates. Compressive strength losses of 12.69%, 17.75% and 25.33% were noticed for 5%, 10%, 15% replacement of coarse aggregate, respectively; tensile strength losses of 13.01%, 20.12%, and 24.76% were observed, respectively, when 5%, 10%, 15% of the coarse aggregate was replaced, after 28 days of curing; -0.1%, -0.15% and 0.2% decrease in flexural strength was observed for 5%, 10% and 15% replacement, respectively, after curing for 28 days. Rubberised concrete was found to have some desirable characteristics (such as lower density, enhanced ductility, and a slight increase in flexural strength in the lower compressive strength concrete categories). The overall results show that it is possible to use recycled rubber tyres in concrete

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1. INTRODUCTION

Concrete is basically made of aggregates glued by a paste (which is made of cementitious materials and water). Aggregates generally occupy 70 - 80% of the volume of concrete and can, therefore, be expected to have an important influence on its properties [1]. It is required that aggregates should be hard and strong, free of undesirable impurities (such as silt, clay, dirt or organic matter), and chemically stable. Soft, porous rock can limit strength and wear resistance; it may also break down during mixing and adversely affect workability by increasing the amount of fines. If impurities coat the surfaces of the aggregate, they will isolate the aggregate particles from the surrounding concrete, causing a reduction in strength. Silt, clay, and other fine materials will also increase the water requirements of the concrete, and organic matter may interfere with cement hydration. To get a suitable concrete mix, certain properties of the aggregate must be determined. They are the shape and texture, size gradation, moisture content, specific gravity and bulk unit weight [1]. Plain concrete does not withstand tensile forces as much as it withstands compressive ones. This major drawback has necessitated Civil Engineers making use of conventional reinforcement to increase the tensile strength and ductility of concrete building elements. The use of fibres in concrete acts as a crack-inhibitor, and substantially improves the tensile strength, cracking resistance, impact strength, wear and tear, fatigue resistance and ductility of concrete. This concept of using fibres in concrete as reinforcement is not new. In the last three decades, numerous studies have been performed on Fibre Reinforced Concrete (FRC). In the early 1960s, only straight, steel fibres were used and the major improvement occurred in the areas of ductility and fracture toughness; even flexural strength increases were also reported. In the beginning, fibre-reinforced concrete was primarily used for pavements and industrial floors. Currently, fibre-reinforced cement composite is being used for a wide variety of applications (including bridges, tunnels, canal linings, hydraulic structures, pipes, explosion resistance structures, safety valves, cladding and rolled compacted concrete).

Non-biodegradable wastes have been used as partial or total substitutes to aggregates in concrete. They have been in use in lightweight concrete technology and also to improve some qualities of the concrete. The non-biodegradable waste is creating a lot of problems in the environment and its disposal becoming a great difficulty in the municipalities. Fibre-reinforced polymer (FRP) materials are currently produced with different compositions and widely used for strengthening and retrofitting of the concrete structures. Recently, considerable research has been directed to characterise the use of polymer fibres in concrete-strengthening applications [2].

Waste tyres are one of this non-biodegradable wastes. Recycling of waste rubber tyres in Civil Engineering practices is considered as both an ecological and economic solution to the environmental problem posed by such deposits, due to the advantages it can offer. It preserves natural resources and produces an eco-friendly material – in addition to reducing the highly dangerous environmental pollution dumping of tyres in landfill sites, constitutes. A large number of studies, experiments and practical test-projects have been undertaken in many countries to assess the modifications in the properties of concrete after addition of non-used rubber aggregates. These rubber aggregates have been used to replace fine or coarse aggregates in various proportions.

In Nigeria, waste rubber tyres are some of the predominant characteristic features of the physical environment. They are found dumped by the roadside in major cities like Ibadan and Lagos. There has been very little sensitisation on the harmful effects of these non-biodegradable wastes in the Nigerian environment; with the increasing population, the presence of these
wastes in the environment poses a greater risk to the citizenry. Non-biodegradable wastes can last for centuries [3]; they can cause environmental problems that affect more than just the land [4].

Some tyres are burnt (especially during civil protests and fights) – which causes air-pollution (through mixing of the obnoxious fumes produced and the air in circulation). Waste rubber tyres also have, embedded in them, heavy metals which, when exposed to air and moisture, corrode and leach toxins from the metals into the groundwater – especially when placed in wet soils. Most communities get their water supply from shallow wells and streams which are often contaminated by toxins produced by these wastes. The rubber compound is made from basic polymer, activators, accelerators, fillers, plasticizers, anti-degradants, curatives, etc. [5]. These constituents are released into the atmosphere when rubber is burnt – and are dangerous; for example, fillers (Carbon Black, Silica, Titanium Dioxide) are carcinogenic to humans, and also to animals. Generally, open burning of plastic or rubber wastes is dangerous not just to human health, but also to the environment; it releases chemicals into the atmosphere, such as dioxins and furans – apart from those already mentioned above [6]. Studies have linked dioxins and furans, specifically, to cancer and some respiratory diseases.

Other negative impacts include the physical nuisance value of the wastes to the environment and the fact that the non-biodegradable waste dumps also serve as hideouts for rodents and reptiles which are dangerous [7]. Most of the wastes are also washed away by overland flow during a heavy downpour – to block drainage channels, subsequently leading to flooding of the environment. Also, much of these non-biodegradable solid wastes contain toxic chemicals, which have serious implications on environmental sustainability and human health. In addition, discarded tyres are among the items that can hold water and, as such, create breeding grounds for mosquitoes (including the Culex mosquito that transmits West Nile Virus). They are often targeted as the prime candidates for mosquito breeding, because it is difficult to remove water from them, and they retain heat, which further exacerabtes the conditions that attract mosquitoes [8]. Hence, proper disposal of waste rubber tyres is a major problem in Nigeria, and requires urgent attention.

Rubber is one of the most outstanding materials widely used in many engineering applications (such as automotive, civil and electrical). About 80 million tyres were part of 33 million vehicles manufactured in India in 2011 [9]. It is estimated that more than 270 million scrap-tyres weighing more than 3 million tons are produced in the United States each year; this quantity is in addition to the more than 300 million scrap-tyres that are stockpiled already [9]. Landfill has been one of the methods for their disposal. However, as rubber tyres are not biodegradable, they remain in the land for a long time, causing an environmental hazard. In India, the use of tyres to generate thermal power in cement kilns, accounts for up to 20,000 tonnes per year. In industries, large amounts of waste tyres are utilized as fuel, pigment soot, in bitumen pastes, roof and floor covers and for paving finishes [9].

Aside from tyre-derived fuel, the most promising use of recycled tyres is in engineering applications, such as artificial reefs, erosion control and aggregates for asphalt and concrete.

Natural rubber is the main raw material used in manufacturing tyres, although synthetic rubber is also used [10]. Rubber is known to have excellent energy-absorbing characteristics. Researchers have found that rubber can effectively improve the ductility, reduce the weight, lower modulus of elasticity and prevent brittle failures of materials of which it is a component part. According to Neela et al [9], concrete is the second most widely-used material in the world. One of the potential ways of utilising tyre waste is to adopt it in the construction sector for aggregate replacement [11].

As such, using rubber in concrete can help consume large amounts of otherwise waste rubber tyres, by replacing conventional (naturally-occurring) aggregates of concrete with rubber. Thus, reusing waste rubber tyres as a replacement in concrete could be a potential solution to the environmental nuisance such tyres have hitherto posed.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Materials

2.1.1 Cement

The cement type used in this research was Dangote Portland Cement, manufactured in Nigeria. The main reason for using Ordinary Portland Cement (Type I) in this study is that this
is, by far, the most common cement in use and is highly suitable for use in general concrete construction when there is no exposure to sulphates in the soil or groundwater [12]. The choice of Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC) from Portland Pozzolana Cement (PPC) also avoids any uncertainties in the results of the test.

2.1.2 Coarse aggregate

Coarse aggregate used in this research was purchased from a construction site around the University College Hospital, UCH, Ibadan. Laboratory tests were carried out to identify the physical properties of the coarse aggregate (and similarly on the fine aggregate), and the results are displayed in Table 1. The coarse aggregate size used was 19 mm, with the following physical properties determined:

(a) Moisture Content = 1.37%
(b) Unit weight of coarse aggregate =1511 kg/m$^3$
(c) Bulk specific gravity = 2.79
(d) Bulk specific gravity (Saturated Surface Density basis) = 2.84
(e) Apparent specific gravity = 2.93
(f) Absorption capacity = 1.72%

2.1.3 Fine aggregate

The fine aggregate sample used in this experiment was purchased from local sand suppliers at Ibadan along Ojoo-Moniya Road, L-Adisa Area, Oyo State, Nigeria. The following properties of fine aggregate were determined:

(a) Bulk Specific gravity = 2.41
(b) Bulk Specific gravity (Saturated Surface Dry basis) = 2.51
(c) Apparent Specific gravity = 2.61
(d) Absorption capacity = 4.38%

2.1.4 Rubber aggregate

The source of the rubber aggregate was waste tyres which were collected from various dump-sites at Moniya Area, Ibadan, Oyo State. For uniformity of the concrete production and convenience, all the tyres were medium truck tyres, i.e. the study has concentrated on the performance of a single grade of waste tyre-rubber, prepared by manual cutting.

2.1.5 Water

In this research, tap-water supplied by the Department of Agricultural Engineering, University of Ibadan, was used in all mixes.

2.2 Experimental Methods

2.2.1 Test Arrangement

In this study, a total of four mixes of concrete grades (C25) were produced with partial replacements of the coarse aggregate by 5%, 10% and 15% of the rubber aggregate, respectively. In addition, a control mix with no replacement of the coarse aggregate was produced to make a comparative analysis. The mixture proportions of the basic ingredients (i.e. cement, water, and fine aggregate), were the same for the control and rubberised concrete samples. However, a certain amount of the coarse aggregate was replaced by an equal volume of rubber aggregate to form rubberised concrete.

2.2.2 Sample Sizes

Beam-moulds used were of size 10 x 10 x 500 mm for the flexural strength test; cylinder-moulds of size 100 x 200 mm for the split-tensile strength test, and cube-moulds of size 100 x 100 mm for the compressive strength test.

Table 1. Sieve analysis of coarse aggregate

| Sieve Size (mm) | % Passing |
|----------------|-----------|
| 37.5           | 100.00    |
| 19             | 100.00    |
| 12.5           | 51.64     |
| 9.5            | 22.16     |
| 4.75           | 0.35      |
| Pan            | 0.36      |

Table 2. Sieve analysis of fine aggregate

| Sieve Size (mm) | % Passing |
|----------------|-----------|
| 4.75           | 98.22     |
| 2.36           | 95.45     |
| 0.425          | 84.56     |
| 0.212          | 42.38     |
| 0.150          | 12.68     |
| 0.075          | 1.59      |
| Pan            | 0.01      |

2.2.3 Casting and testing of materials

Compressive, flexural and split-tensile strength tests were carried out in accordance with the BS 12390. The compressive and split-tensile strength tests were carried out at the Materials Testing Laboratory of the Department of Civil Engineering, University of Ibadan. The flexural strength test was carried out at the Department of Agricultural Engineering of the University of Ibadan.
3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results obtained for the compressive, flexural and split-tensile strength tests are as follow:

3.1 Compressive Strength Test Results

The compressive strengths of concrete specimens were determined after 7, 14 and 28 days of standard curing, respectively.

Losses in compressive strength of 11.38%, 17.02% and 23.23% were observed when 5%, 10% and 15%, respectively, of the coarse aggregate, was replaced by an equivalent volume of rubber aggregate, after curing for 7 days. The observed losses of strength when the concrete cubes were cured for 14 days were 12.36%, 16.98% and 25.03% for 5%, 10% and 15% replacement of coarse aggregate with rubber, respectively. For rubberised concrete cured for 28 days, losses of 12.69, 17.75 and 25.33% were noticed for 5%, 10%, 15% replacement of coarse aggregate with rubber, respectively. For rubberised concrete cured for 28 days, losses of 12.69, 17.75 and 25.33% were noticed for 5%, 10%, 15% replacement of coarse aggregate with rubber, respectively. For rubberised concrete cured for 28 days, losses of 12.69, 17.75 and 25.33% were noticed for 5%, 10%, 15% replacement of coarse aggregate with rubber, respectively. Table 3 gives details of the compressive strengths of the control concrete and the rubberised concrete. A graphical presentation of these results is shown in Fig. 2.

Rubber has a very low modulus of elasticity (about 7MPa) and a Poisson’s ratio of 0.5 [7]. Therefore, rubber aggregates tend to behave like weak inclusions or voids in the concrete, resulting in a reduction in compressive strength. It is well known that the presence of voids in concrete greatly reduces its strength. The existence of 5% of voids can lower strength by as much as 30% and even 2% voids can result in a drop of the strength of more than 10% [12].

![Fig. 1. Compressive strength test of concrete cube](image)

![Fig. 2. Graph combining the compressive strengths of concrete cubes cured for 7, 14 and 28 days, respectively](image)
Table 3. Average compressive test results (C25 Grade)

| % Rubber | Average compressive strength (N/mm²) | After 7 days cure | After 14 days cure | After 28 days cure |
|----------|--------------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0.00     | 18.98                                | 23.21             | 28.38             |
| 5.00     | 16.83                                | 20.34             | 24.78             |
| 10.00    | 15.75                                | 19.26             | 23.34             |
| 15.00    | 14.59                                | 17.40             | 21.19             |

Fig. 3. Split-Tensile testing of concrete cylinder

![Split Tensile Strength Test](image)

Fig. 4. Comparisons of split-tensile strength test results after 7, 14 and 28 days of cure

Table 4. Split-tensile strength test results

| % Rubber | Split-Tensile Strength 0 (N/mm²) | After 7 days cure | After 14 days cure | After 28 days cure |
|----------|----------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0.00     | 2.86                             | 3.06              | 3.69              |
| 5.00     | 2.53                             | 2.71              | 3.21              |
| 10.00    | 2.24                             | 2.41              | 2.95              |
| 15.00    | 2.14                             | 2.28              | 2.78              |
3.2 Split-Tensile Strength Test

Losses of up to 11.54%, 21.68% and 25.17% were observed, respectively, when 5%, 10%, and 15% of the coarse aggregate was replaced by rubber after 7 days of curing.

The observed losses of strength when 5%, 10% and 15% of coarse aggregate was replaced by rubber aggregate and cured for a period of 14 days were 11.59%, 21.35% and 25.47%, respectively.

Likewise, for rubberised concrete containing 5%, 10% and 15% by volume of rubber aggregate cured for 28 days, losses of 13.01%, 20.12%, and 24.76% were observed, respectively. Table 4 gives details of the split-tensile strengths of the control concrete and the rubberised concrete and Fig. 4 shows a graphical presentation of the results.

One of the reasons that splitting tensile strength of the rubberised concrete is lower than the conventional concrete is that bond strength between cement paste and rubber tyre particles is poor. Besides, pore structures in rubberised concrete are much more than traditional concrete [8].

### 3.3 Flexural Strength Test

The results show that the flexural strength increased, compared to the control mix, for rubber aggregate content of 5% and 10%. For rubber aggregate content of 15%, a flexural strength reduction was observed as compared to the control mix. This indicates that improvements in flexural strength are limited to a relatively small rubber aggregate content. The details are given in Table 5 and presented graphically in Fig. 5.

| % rubber | Flexural strength (N/mm²) |
|----------|--------------------------|
| 0.00     | 3.22                     |
| 5.00     | 3.31                     |
| 10.00    | 3.35                     |
| 15.00    | 3.01                     |

### 4. CONCLUSION

From the results of this experiment, it was deduced that the compressive strengths of rubberised concrete continued to reduce as the rubber aggregate-content increased; this can be attributed to rubber acting as voids in the concrete matrix. The strengths of concrete with 5% percentage replacement of coarse aggregate with rubber aggregate, were found to be within an acceptable range. Thus, concrete with rubber aggregate greater than 5% replacement of coarse aggregate should only be used in non-load bearing members (such as lightweight concrete walls, building facades, or other light architectural units); hence, the rubberised concrete mixes could give a viable alternative to the normal weight concrete. A reduced compressive strength of rubberised concrete (due to the inclusion of rubber aggregates), limits its use in some structural applications.

The following are other observations/conclusions arising from the results of the various tests:
1. A reduction in unit-weight of up to 4.82% was observed when 15% by volume of the coarse aggregate was replaced by rubber. A similar trend of reduction in unit-weight of the rubberised concrete was noticed in all the other samples containing rubber aggregates. The low specific gravity of the rubber-chips (compared to the mineral coarse aggregates) produced a decrease in the unit-weight of the rubberised concrete.

2. Losses in compressive strength (ranging from 12.69% to 25.3%) were observed after 28 days of standard cure. The reason for the strength reduction could be attributed both to a reduction of the quantity of the solid load-carrying material, and lack of adhesion at the boundaries of the rubber aggregate. Soft rubber particles behave as voids in the concrete matrix; therefore, rubber aggregate tends to act like weak inclusions (or voids) in the concrete, resulting in a reduction in compressive strength. Although the compressive strength values have considerably decreased with the addition of waste-tyre pieces, their values are still in the reasonable range for 5% to 15% replacement-values, because the intended compressive strengths of 25N/mm² were achieved in these categories.

3. The results of the split-tensile strength tests showed that there is a decrease in strength, with increasing rubber-aggregate content (like the reduction observed in the compressive strength tests). One of the reasons that split-tensile strength of the rubberised concrete is lower than the conventional concrete is that bond strength between cement-paste and rubber-tyre particles is poor. Besides, pore structures in rubberised concrete are much more than conventional concrete.

4. Reduced compressive strength of rubberised concrete (due to the inclusion of rubber aggregates), limits its use in some structural applications. Nevertheless, it has some desirable characteristics such as lower density, higher impact- and toughness-resistance, enhanced ductility and a slightly increased flexural strength in the lower-strength concrete mixes. A significant advantage of the increase in flexural strength was achieved by limiting the replacement amount to only 10% of the coarse aggregate. For rubber-aggregate contents of 15%, a flexural strength reduction was observed, compared to the control mixes. The reduction indicates that improvements in flexural strength are limited to a relatively small rubber-aggregate content.

5. The visual observation of the patterns of failure mode revealed that the rubberised concrete does not exhibit typical compression-failure behaviour. The control concrete showed a clean split of the sample into two halves – whereas the rubber aggregate tended to produce a less well-defined failure. Moreover, the mode of failure was a gradual type (rather than the brittle failure in the control concrete). This may be an indication of greater ductility in rubberised concrete than the control concrete.

6. The use of rubber aggregates from waste tyres addresses many issues. These include reduction of the environmental threat posed by waste tyres; introduction of an alternative source to aggregates for concrete-production; and enhancing the weak properties of concrete (by the introduction of different ingredients other than the conventionally-used natural aggregates, ultimately leading to the conservation of natural resources). In addition to meeting recycling and sustainability objectives, it is indicated for generating products with enhanced properties in specific applications.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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