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1 Article

## 2 Utilization of Blended Waste Materials in Bricks

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14 **Abstract:** Cement is considered as the main raw material for the brick production. However,  
15 excessive use of the cement has negative environment impact. Therefore, cement can be replaced by  
16 using locally available waste materials and it can become a significant potential in the construction  
17 industries for cleaner production. The objective of this research is to investigate the performance of  
18 a brick when cement is replaced by the waste materials such as fly ash & palm oil fuel ash which  
19 are available in Malaysia. To determine the performance of the bricks, the compressive strength test,  
20 the water absorption test and the thermogravimetric analysis were carried out at different  
21 percentage combinations of fly ash & palm oil fuel ash. The results reveal that both the fly ash &  
22 palm oil fuel ash incorporated bricks satisfied the Class 1 and Class 2 load-bearing brick  
23 requirements according to the Malaysian Standard MS76:1972 and the water absorption  
24 requirements, according to the ASTM C55-11. The thermogravimetric analysis study confirms that  
25 the Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> gradually decreases due to the increase of pozzolanic material contents (fly ash & palm  
26 oil fuel ash). Moreover, these newly developed bricks cost less than the conventional bricks.

27

28 **Keywords:** Brick, Fly Ash, Palm Oil Fuel Ash, Waste Material

29

### 30 1. Introduction

31 In the construction industries bricks are one of the most important element, and there are various  
32 forms of bricks available in the world (Da Silva Almeida et al., 2013). Among them, using fired bricks  
33 and cement bricks are considered to be more reliable. Malaysia uses both the fired bricks and cement  
34 bricks and they have an important and relevant impact throughout the ASEAN region. To produce a  
35 large quantity of cement bricks due to its high demand, a significant amount of cement are required.  
36 However, this approach leads to environmental problems, such as increased carbon emission to the  
37 atmosphere. Incorporation of more sustainable or waste materials in the production of bricks can  
38 partially address this large issue.

39 Malaysia produces and exports large quantity of palm oil (Yusuf, 2006) and it was found that  
40 approximately four kg of waste materials are produced to obtain one kg of palm oil (Ng et al., 2012).  
41 As a result, waste materials, including empty fruit branch, oil palm shell and Palm Oil Fuel Ash  
42 (POFA) are generated significantly and it is expected that 100 million tonnes of dry waste materials  
43 will be generated by 2020 (National Biomass Strategy 2020, 2011). Generally empty fruit branch and  
44 oil palm shell are burnt to produce POFA for disposal purpose, however, it would be a great attempt

45 to reuse this POFA in brick industries. Therefore, using palm oil industry based waste materials or  
46 any other waste materials in construction industry and in any composite materials will increase  
47 sustainability and will reduce environmental pollution (Al-Oqla and Sapuan, 2014 and Rahman et  
48 al., 2014a).

49 Fly ash is produced in furnaces of coal-burning power plants. Fly ash is predominantly very fine  
50 spherical glassy particles collected in the dust collection systems from the exhaust gases of fossil fuel  
51 power plants. The main chemical constituents in fly ash are silica, alumina and oxides of iron and  
52 calcium.

53 Despite environmental problems associated with the disposal of POFA, fly ash and other waste  
54 materials, they have a potential use as a partial substitute of cement in concrete and bricks due to  
55 their high pozzolanic content as well as in other composite materials and demand for environmental  
56 sustainability (Al-Oqla and Sapuan, 2015, Al-Oqla et al. 2015 a, b, Tangchirapat et al., 2007, Cicek and  
57 Tanriverdi 2007, Rahman et. al. 2014a). Previous research data explained that there are lot of  
58 applications for using different types of waste materials such as POFA, Fly ash, lime-stone powder,  
59 rice husk, sugarcane bagasse, date palm fibre etc. for different purposes (Al-Oqla et al, 2014, Al-Oqla  
60 et al 2015 a, b, Tay, 1990, Muntohar and Rahman, 2014). Some of them were utilized specifically for  
61 the brick production which accomplished to produce light weight brick with high compressive  
62 strength (Shakir et al., 2013, Turgut, 2012, Gokhan and Osman, 2013, Rahman, 1987, Malhotra and  
63 Tehri,1996, Bilgin et al., 2012, Weng et al., 2003, Faria et al., 2012, Gencel et al., 2013).

64 For commercial production, it is very important to maintain the proper proportion of waste  
65 materials to replace cement, however; there is a lack of inadequate standard guidelines for the  
66 commercial production and application purposes. Therefore, further research needs to be conducted  
67 to develop the proper guidelines for incorporating the natural waste materials in brick (Zhang, 2013,  
68 Rahman et al., 2014a).

69 According to the previous literature, it is anticipated that there is a lack of research to measure  
70 the performance of the bricks utilizing blended POFA and fly ash. Therefore, there is a great chance  
71 to explore the technical background for the development and implementation of such bricks leading  
72 to cleaner production in the construction industry sector. (Rahman et al., 2014a, Taaffe et al., 2014,  
73 Rahman et al., 2014b).

74 In order to assess the cleaner production of the bricks, the aim of this research is to utilize the  
75 blended fly ash and POFA as a pozzolanic materials that not only improve the overall quality of the  
76 bricks but also reduce the environmental impact of these waste materials. Furthermore, this research  
77 data will be supportive to produce a proper guideline for brick production.

## 78 2. Materials and Methods

### 79 2.1. Materials

80 Locally available materials such as water, cement, POFA, fly ash and river sand were used for  
81 the production of the bricks. The POFA and fly ash are free of cost and are treated as waste materials.

#### 82 2.1.1. Ordinary Portland cement (OPC)

83 Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC) grade 42.5 produced in Sarawak, Malaysia was used in this  
84 project. The OPC satisfied the quality requirements of the ASTM C150/C150M-12 (ASTM Standard  
85 C150, 2012).

#### 86 2.1.2. Palm Oil Fuel Ash (POFA)

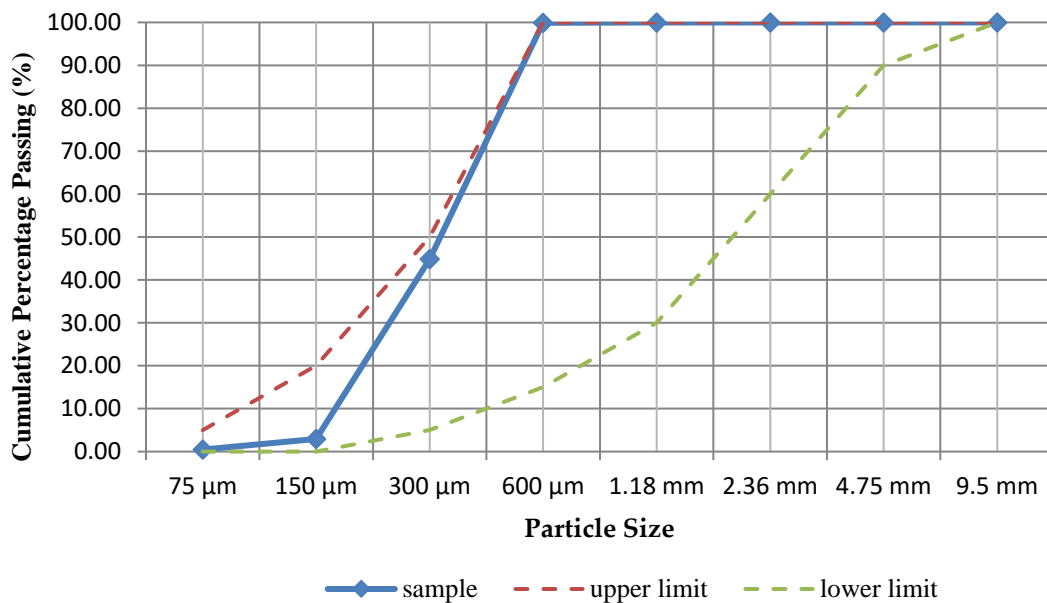
87 POFA was obtained from the palm oil industry located at Lambir, Miri, Malaysia. Then  
88 laboratory ball mill was used to make the acceptable fineness. In order to reduce the particle size to  
89 300  $\mu\text{m}$ , the process of grinding was conducted for 6 hours. Sieve analysis was then carried out and  
90 it was used to reduce the particle size up to 75  $\mu\text{m}$  or smaller. All sieved POFA were then kept in  
91 clean, dry and airtight container and stored in humidity controlled room.

### 92 2.1.3. Fly Ash

93 Fly ash was obtained from a coal-fired power plant at Kuching, Sarawak, Malaysia. Fly ash used  
 94 in this research conforms to Class F requirements set by ASTM C618-12a (ASTM Standard C618, 2012)  
 95 Chemical Specifications (Brabha et al. (2012)).

### 96 2.1.4. Local River Sand

97 The sand used in the production of the brick was collected from the local river. In order to satisfy  
 98 grading requirement of AS 2758.1 (AS 2758.1, 1998), sieve analysis was carried out. The fineness  
 99 modulus of the sand was 1.52. Figure 1 shows that the grading curve of the sample falls within upper  
 100 limit and lower limit recommended by AS 2758.1 (AS2758.1, 1998). Consequently, the sand is deemed  
 101 suitable for brick production.



102  
 103 Figure 1. Local River Sand Grading Curve

### 104 2.2. Brick Mix

105 Five batches of bricks were prepared for this research and each batch of brick underwent curing  
 106 process. Curing periods were planned for 28days and 90days in order to achieve potential strength  
 107 and durability. The dimension of each brick was 200mm long, 100mm wide and 70mm thick. Table 1  
 108 shows the five different ratios of brick mixtures used in this study. For this research, the tests carried  
 109 out were compressive strength test, breaking load test, water absorption test and thermogravimetric  
 110 analysis (TGA). These tests were conducted in accordance with ASTM C67-11 (ASTM Standard C67,  
 111 2011) which is the standard test method for sampling and testing of brick and structural clay tile  
 112 except thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) which is based on ASTM E1131-08 (ASTM Standard E1131,  
 113 2008).

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Table 1: Brick Mix Ratio

Batch	Ratio	Curing Condition
Batch 1	C : S = 1 : 3	90 days 28 days
Batch 2	C + POFA[10%] : S = 1 : 3	90 days 28 days
Batch 3	C + POFA[10%] + FA[10%] : S = 1 : 3	90 days 28 days
Batch 4	C + POFA[10%] + FA[20%] : S = 1 : 3	90 days 28 days
Batch 5	C + POFA[10%] + FA[30%] : S = 1 : 3	90 days 28 days

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Where: C = Cement; S = Sand; POFA = Palm Oil Fuel Ash; FA = Fly Ash

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### 2.3. Preparation of Bricks

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Traditional method of brick production was employed in this project. First, the Portland cement and sand were measured and blended using the Hobart A200 mixer for 3mins, in order to obtain a homogeneous mixture. The sieved POFA and fly ash were then measured and added into the mixture. At the same time, water was constantly added into the mixture until the substances in the mixture were equally distributed. The entire mixing process took approximately 6mins.

The mortar mix from the mixture bowl was then placed into a 200 x 100 x 80 mm timber mould in three equal layers. Each layer was then manually compacted using a timber plate. The moulds were then slightly overfilled with the mixtures, leaving not more than a 5mm thick layer. Again, the mixtures in the mould were placed in the hydraulic press machine and pressed with a force of up to 7MPa for further compaction. The specimens were finally dismantled from the mould and cured. Once the bricks were made, they were wrapped with plastic and kept in the lab for either 28days or 90days (M. E. Rahman et al., 2014a).

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### 2.4. Testing Methods

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The laboratory tests were divided into two categories - soaked and unsoaked conditions of bricks. The distinction between the two categories is that the soaked bricks underwent the water absorption test.

The experimental program began with the water absorption test, after the curing periods of 28days and 90days were completed. Following the water absorption test, the bricks were tested for compressive strength and breaking load (M. E. Rahman et al., 2014a). At the end of compression test, the unsoaked bricks were crushed into a fine powder and then heated by the TGA instrument.

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#### 2.4.1 Compression Test

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To obtain the compressive strength of the bricks for 28days and 90days, the compression tests were carried out using a Universal testing machine (UTM). First the brick specimens were placed on the top of the steel plate, then the vertical loads are applied to the upper surface of the specimen. During the test, the loading rate was maintained at 1.25mm/min and it was applying until the failure occurred in the bricks. The failure load of the specimen was recorded and the compressive strength of each specimen was calculated in terms of MPa.

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#### 2.4.2 Water Absorption Test

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Before the compression test, a total of 39 bricks specimens were subjected to water absorption test. To do the absorption test three steps were maintained. First, the brick specimen was weighed as  $W_d$ , Second, it was immersed in water at the room temperature for 24h, Third, it was removed from the water tank and patted dry with a lint free cloth. After removing from the water, these specimen

154 again weighed and expressed this value as  $W_s$ . The percentage value of water absorption was  
 155 calculated by using equation 1.

$$156 \quad \text{Water Absorption (\%)} = 100(W_s - W_d) / W_d \quad (1)$$

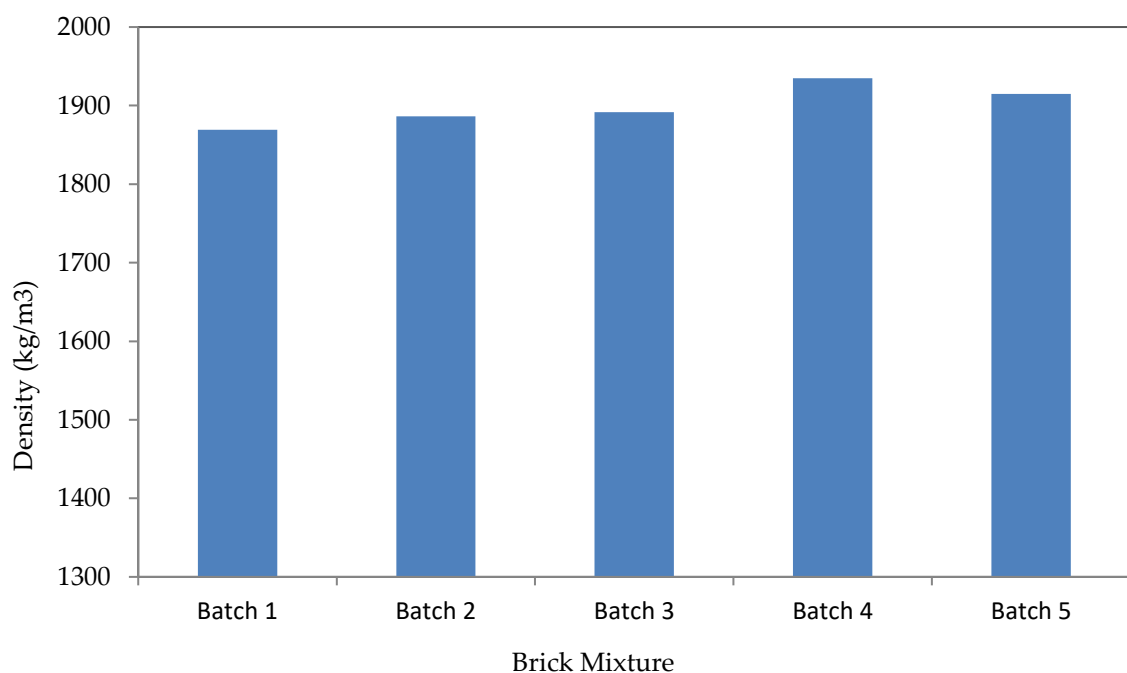
### 157 2.4.3 Thermogravimetric Analysis Test

158 Thermogravimetric analysis was performed to determine the mass change in the powder  
 159 samples. These powder samples are taken from brick specimens after undergoing curing for 28 days  
 160 and 90 days. A total of 10 brick specimens were tested for thermogravimetric analysis. The tests were  
 161 carried out using Mettler Toledo TGA/DSC1 Star System. After the compression test the brick was  
 162 placed in the mortar (bowl), then downward pressure was applied to the crushed brick with a pestle  
 163 (pounder) until it became a fine powder. The powder samples were tested from 35° to 1100°C at  
 164 heating rates of 10°C/min under a nitrogen atmosphere. The signal produced from the TGA  
 165 instrument was used to calculate the weight loss of the powder sample during heating and to estimate  
 166 the content of calcium hydroxide  $\text{Ca(OH)}_2$ . In essence, the  $\text{Ca(OH)}_2$  content was calculated from the  
 167 weight loss at 400°C-500°C and 600°C-750°C (Borges et al., 2010).

## 168 3 Results and Discussions

### 169 3.1 Density

170 The average densities of the bricks from each batch are shown in Figure 2. It can be seen that the  
 171 density of the brick increases moderately with the replacement of fly ash because of its fineness. Fine  
 172 spherical fly ashes are able to fill the void between the particles which results in denser packing  
 173 (Ranjbar et al 2014). The increase in dry density indicated that the substitution of fly ash for Portland  
 174 cement in the brick would be possible to produce a denser brick. All bricks were in the ranges of 1680  
 175 – 2000 kg/m<sup>3</sup> and according to ASTM C55-11 (ASTM Standard C55, 2011), all are considered as  
 176 medium weight bricks. Overall, the density of blended POFA and fly ash based bricks are  
 177 significantly higher than that of the control bricks.



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Figure 2. Average densities of different mixes

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## 181 3.2 Compressive Strength

182 The compressive strength of the bricks for 28days and 90days of curing are presented in Figure  
183 3 and Figure 4 respectively. It can be seen that the compressive strength of the bricks are exaggerated  
184 by the blended POFA and fly ash replacement and also by immersion.

### 185 3.2.2 Effect of Blended POFA & fly ash Replacement

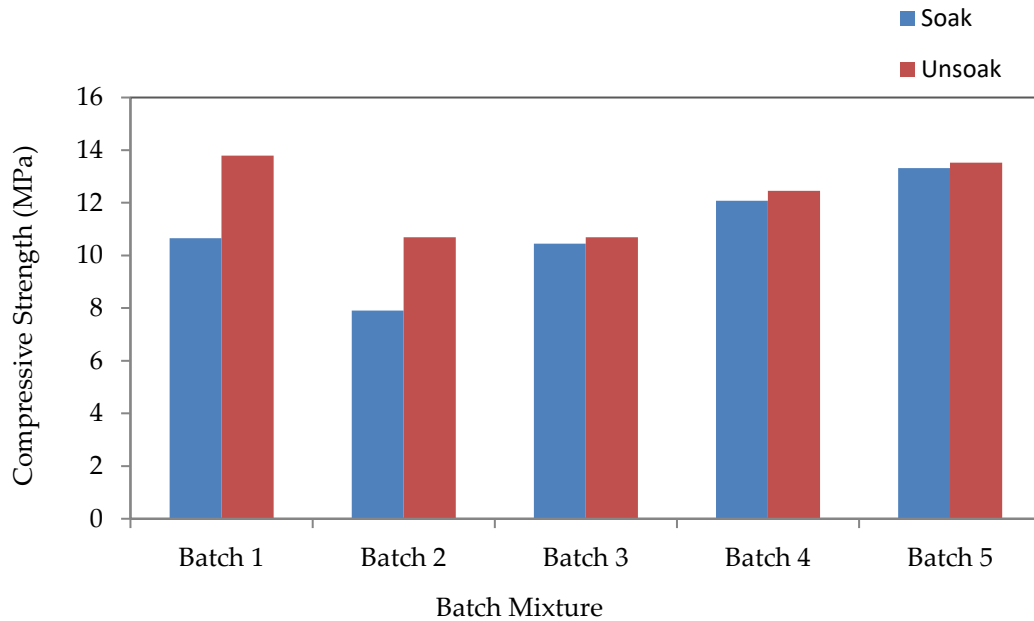
186 Figure 3 shows the average results obtained from the compressive strength tests after the curing  
187 of 28 days. The amount of blended ash is limited to 0% POFA & 0% fly ash, 10% POFA & 0% fly ash,  
188 10% POFA & 10% fly ash, 10% POFA & 20% fly ash and 10% POFA & 30% fly ash by mass of the total  
189 cementitious material in the brick. It is observed that the compressive strength decreased with the  
190 adding of blended ash. This is caused due to the slow rate of the pozzolanic reaction of ash. The  
191 compressive strength results of bricks after 90 days curing are shown in Figure 4. This figure shows  
192 that the Batch 3, which containing 10% of POFA and 10% of fly ash, achieved the highest strength of  
193 all the mixtures (22.5 MPa). However, the addition of further fly ash content resulted in the reduction  
194 of strength of the bricks. The possible reason for the decreasing strength is due to the low content of  
195 Portland cement in the cement mortar mixture. The decrease of the Portland cement content would  
196 cause a low calcium hydroxide content being generated from the cement hydration and this would  
197 also reduce the binding component calcium-silicate-hydrate (C-S-H gel) (Altwair et al 2011).  
198 Therefore, it became weak in binding the aggregate particles. Previous researches showed that the  
199 shape of ground POFA particles is irregular and angular. Therefore, it required a higher water  
200 demand in order to maintain a given workability of cement mortar mixture (Chindaprasirt et al,  
201 2007). In contrast, fly ash consisted of particles that are spherical shape and thus, it required less water  
202 to lubricate for maintaining the given workability of cement mortar mixture. Consequently, these  
203 results showed that the combination of POFA and fly ash with the same cement replacement level in  
204 cement mortar mixture achieved a less water-binder ratio compared to only POFA replacement.

### 205 3.2.3 Effect of Immersion

206 The compressive strength of the bricks at 28days and 90days are categorized into two groups:  
207 soaked and un-soaked and shown in Figure 3 and Figure 4. It is observed that the wet specimens  
208 produced a lower compressive strength compared to the air dry specimens because of the higher  
209 water absorption in the bricks during the submersion in water. As a result, this softens the fine  
210 aggregates slowly, leading to lower strength (Rahman et al. 2014a).

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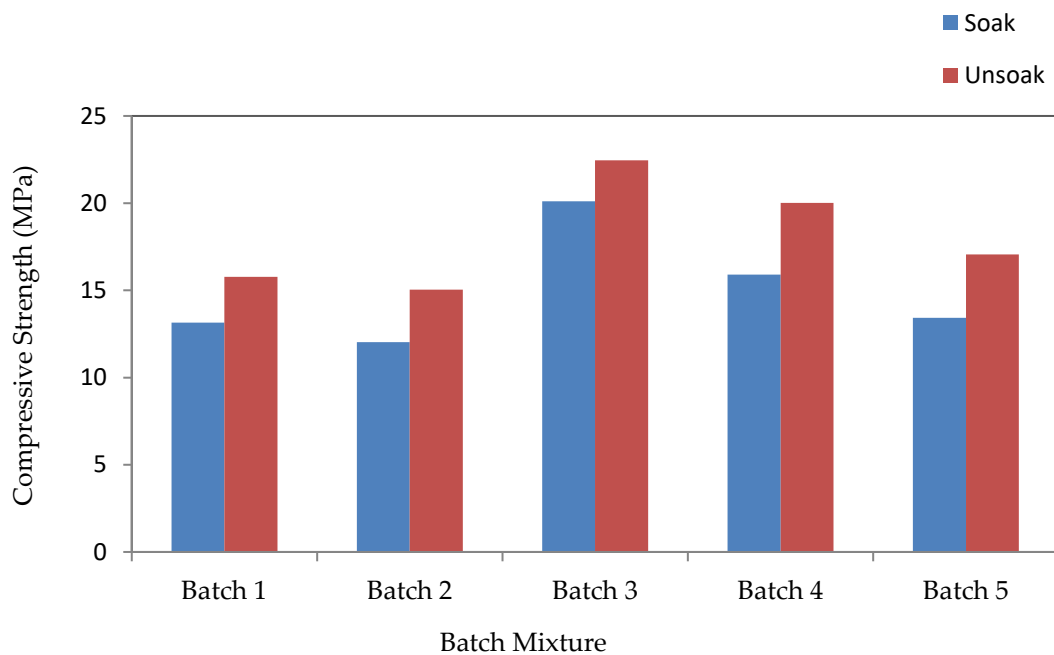
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Figure 3. Compressive strength of bricks at 28 days for soaked and unsoaked conditions.



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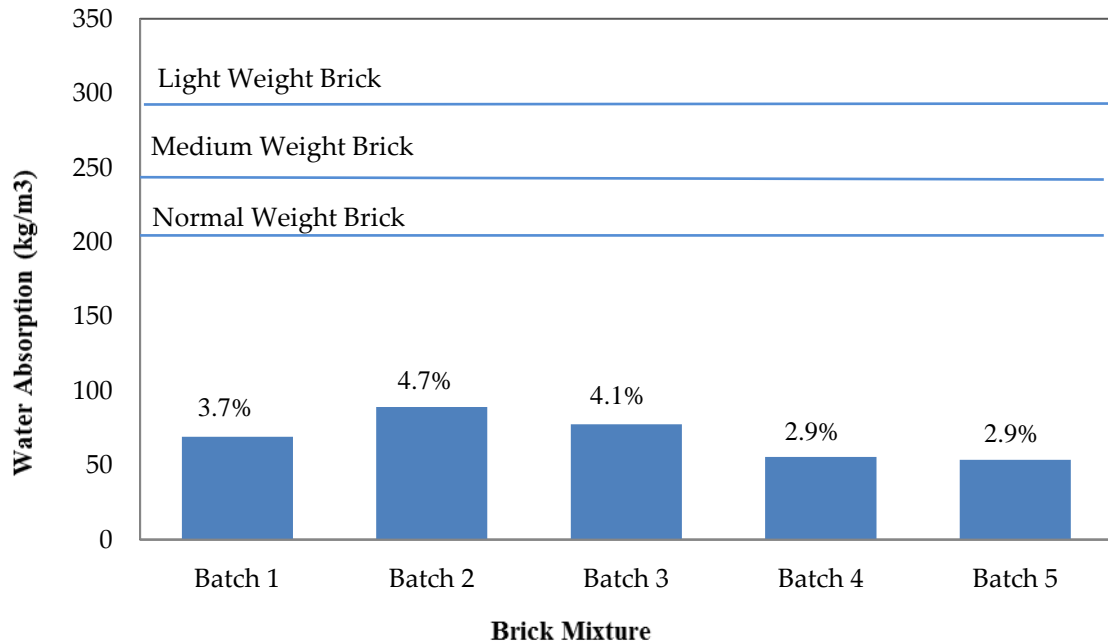
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Figure 4. Compressive strength of bricks at 90 days for soaked and unsoaked conditions

### 217 3.4 Water Absorption

218 The water absorption results for after 28 days and 90 days of air curing are presented in Figures  
 219 5 and 6. It is observed that the water absorption of all batches of brick samples are lower than the  
 220 requirements set by ASTM C55-11 (ASTM Standard C55, 2011). The requirements set under ASTM  
 221 C55 states that the utmost water absorption is 208 kg/m<sup>3</sup>, 240 kg/m<sup>3</sup> and 288 kg/m<sup>3</sup> for normal weight  
 222 brick, medium weight brick and light weight brick respectively. Hence in terms of water absorption,  
 223 all batches of brick samples are classified as normal weight bricks.

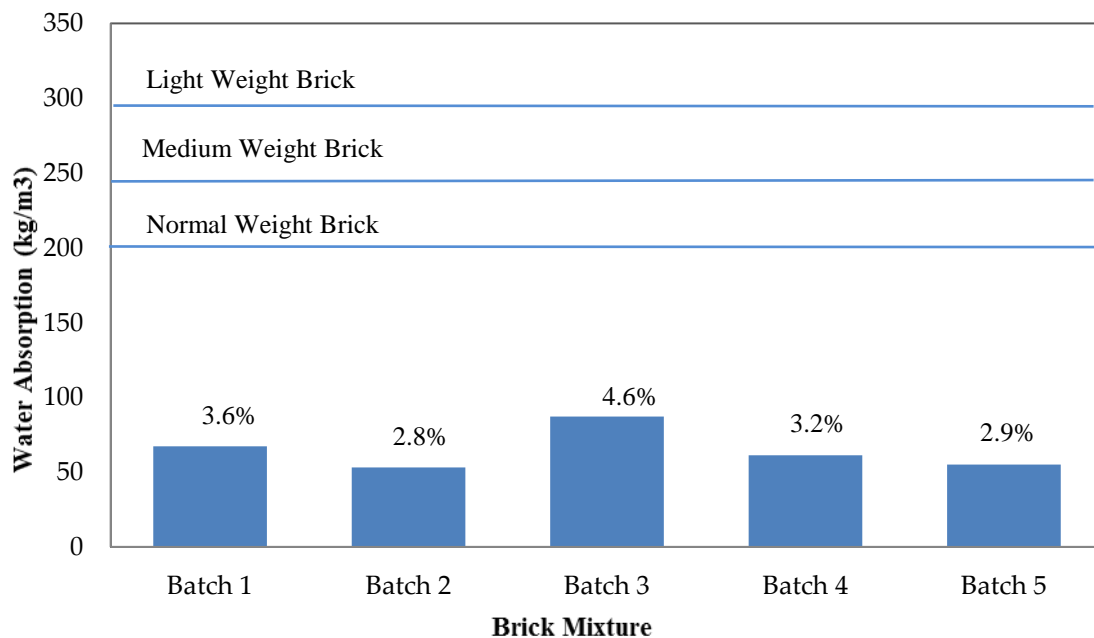
224 As seen in Figure 6, the rate of water absorption decreases significantly with increasing  
 225 percentage of fly ash replacement and these results are consistent with the published results by  
 226 Naganathan and Linda (2013). Based on these findings, it can be concluded that the small particles of  
 227 spherical fly ash is able to fill the voids, as a result it makes a denser packing which leads to lower  
 228 water absorption of the brick.



229

230

Figure 5. Water absorption of bricks at 28 days for different batches of samples



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Figure 6. Water absorption of bricks at 90 days for different batches of samples

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234

### 235 3.5 Thermogravimetric analysis

236 Figure 7 presents Thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA) and Derivative Thermogravimetric analysis  
 237 (DTG) as a cumulative mass loss of the powder samples, taken from the brick specimens, while the  
 238 temperature increases. The step analysis of cement pastes obtained from TG analysis indicates all  
 239 samples are experienced mass losses in four different steps. The first mass drop in TG curve (Figure  
 240 7(a)), which is related to distinguished peaks before 150°C in DTG curves (Figure 7(b)), are referred  
 241 to the moisture evaporation of concrete pastes samples. Table 2 illustrates the mass losses of the next  
 242 three steps of all batches taken from TGA test. Gabrovseka et al. (2006) showed that dehydration of  
 243 portlandite started from 414°C and completed at 470°C with a decomposition temperatures peak at  
 244 451°C for 7 days hydration. It has also been reported (Dweck et al. 2000, Gabrovseka et al. 2006,  
 245 Ramachandran et al 2001 and Li et al. 2003) that decomposition of carbonates shows two peaks in  
 246 DTG curve where the first peak was appeared between 470°C-720°C with maximum at 651°C referred  
 247 to the amorphous calcium carbonate and the second peak was appeared between 720°C-950°C with  
 248 maximum at 754°C denoted to the de-carbonation of well crystallized calcite.

249 Table 2: Step analysis of de-hydroxylation and de-carbonation stages from TGA curves

Cement Pastes Sample	Second Stage			Third Stage			Fourth Stage		
	Temperature Range /°C	Mass Loss /%		Temperature Range /°C	Mass Loss /%		Temperature Range /°C	Mass loss /%	
		28 days	90 days		28 days	90 days		28 days	90 days
Batch 1	419 – 442	5.02	3.90	505 -733	2.10	5.80	733 – 950	1.64	1.87
Batch 2	415 – 437	3.57	4.80	626 - 677	2.80	2.71	735 – 950	1.12	2.12
Batch 3	421 – 441	3.69	4.05	620 - 675	2.92	4.08	733 – 950	1.54	1.55
Batch 4	419 – 437	2.72	3.03	692 - 697	2.54	2.27	720 – 950	2.04	1.57
Batch 5	428 – 442	2.27	2.37	518 - 654	2.29	2.13	727 - 950	1.98	1.59

250 Based on Table 2 and Figure7, the de-hydroxylation stage occurs in the range of 415 to 442°C for all  
 251 batches without any significant changes in the degradation temperature range. In addition the broad  
 252 peak in the third stage, which occurs due to the de-carbonation of amorphous calcium carbonate, is  
 253 shorted due to adding POFA and fly ash. Table 2 also illustrates the mass losses of well-crystallized  
 254 calcite (fourth stage), which occurs in the range of 720 to 950°C, declines by increasing POFA and fly  
 255 ash content for 90days curing samples. Although, samples with 28days curing show a fluctuation in  
 256 this stage, which might be due to the low cement hydration compared to the 90days curing time.

257

#### 258 3.5.1 Hydrated Phased of Cement Pastes Containing Blended POFA and Fly Ash

259 Based on the TG and DTG results, the percentage of mass loss of calcium hydroxide Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> can be  
 260 calculated by using the equation from (Paulo et al. 2010 and Mohammed et al. 2013). The equation  
 261 for calculating the total amount of calcium hydroxide in the powder samples is shown in Equation 4:

$$262 \text{ Amount of Ca(OH)}_2 = \text{CH\% de-hydroxylation} + \text{CH\% de-carbonation}$$

$$263 = 74/18 \text{ dhloss} + 74/44 \text{ dcloss} \quad (2)$$

264 Where dhloss = total mass lost due to the de-hydroxylation of calcium hydroxide at a  
 265 temperature between 400 and 500oC.

266  $\text{Ca(OH)}_2 \rightarrow \text{CaO} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$  [de-hydroxylation of calcium hydroxide]

267 And  $d_{\text{loss}} =$  total mass lost due to the de-carbonate reaction at a temperature between 500 and  
268 733°C

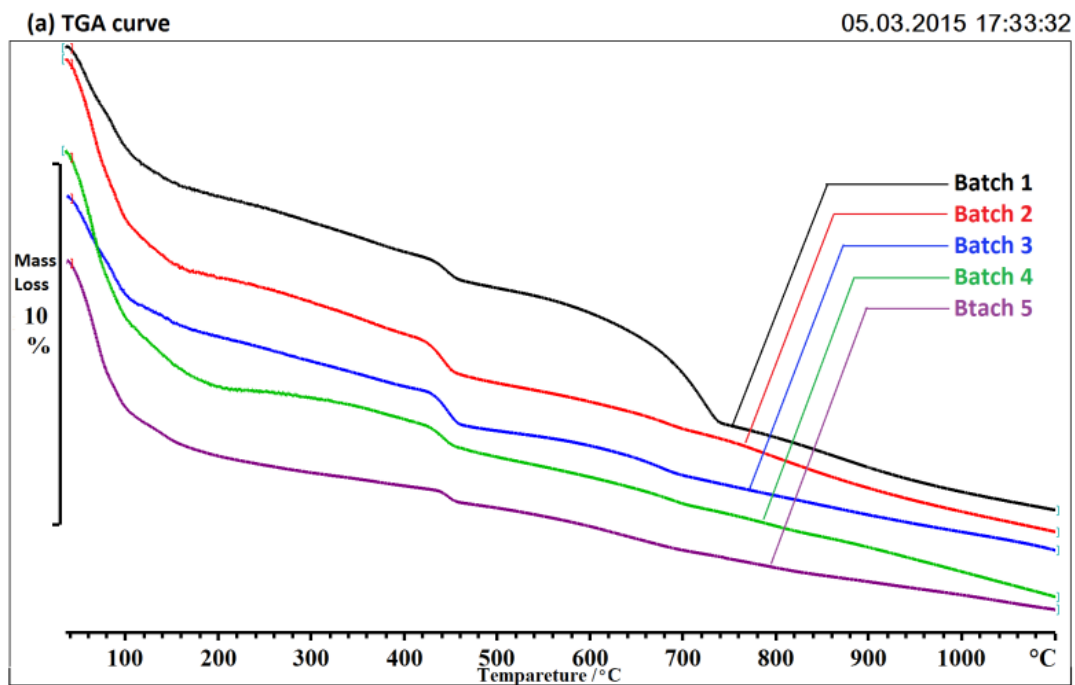
269  $\text{CaCO}_3 \rightarrow \text{CaO} + \text{CO}_2$  [de-carbonation of calcium carbonate]

270 Where 74, 18 and 44 are the molecular weights of CH, H<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> respectively.

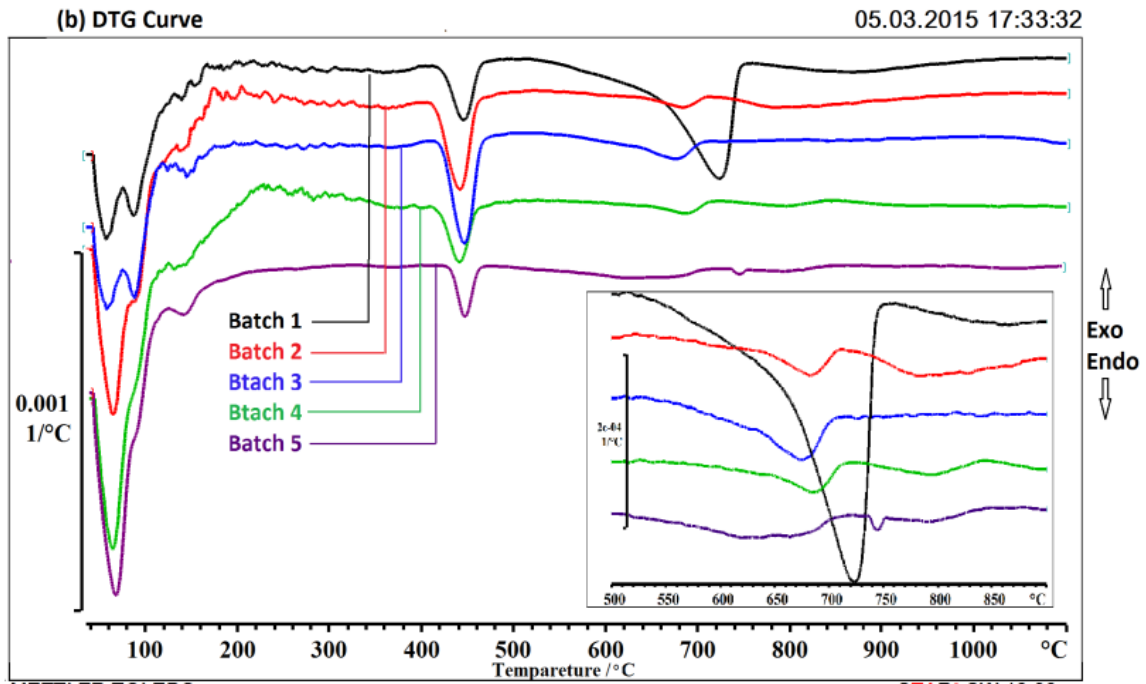
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### 272 3.5.2 Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> content

273 The Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> contents of the pastes at 28days and 90days of curing are shown in Figure 8 and Figure  
274 9 respectively. It can be seen that the results trend at 28days curing is almost similar to the results at  
275 90days curing. At 90days of curing, the Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> content of the control batch (Batch 1) was  
276 approximately at 12.4%, which was the highest value compared to the other batches and this is due  
277 to hydration of cement (Altwai et al, 2011). The addition of 10% POFA was found to result in a  
278 significant loss of Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub>. The pozzolanic reaction was found to reduce Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub>, as it was observed  
279 in Batch 2 (Kroehong et al. 2011). However, at higher proportions of fly ash content, that is 30% (Batch  
280 5), Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> content significantly dropped to approximately 6.6%. These results showed that the  
281 higher the content of pozzolanic material (POFA and fly ash), the higher the consumption of Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub>  
282 is as a result of pozzolanic reaction. Furthermore, another possibility for decreasing Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> content  
283 is due to the lower content of Portland cement in the POFA-fly ash cement pastes. The decrease of  
284 the Portland cement content would cause lower calcium hydroxide content being liberated from the  
285 cement hydration. This finding is similar with previous findings of Altwair et al. (2011).



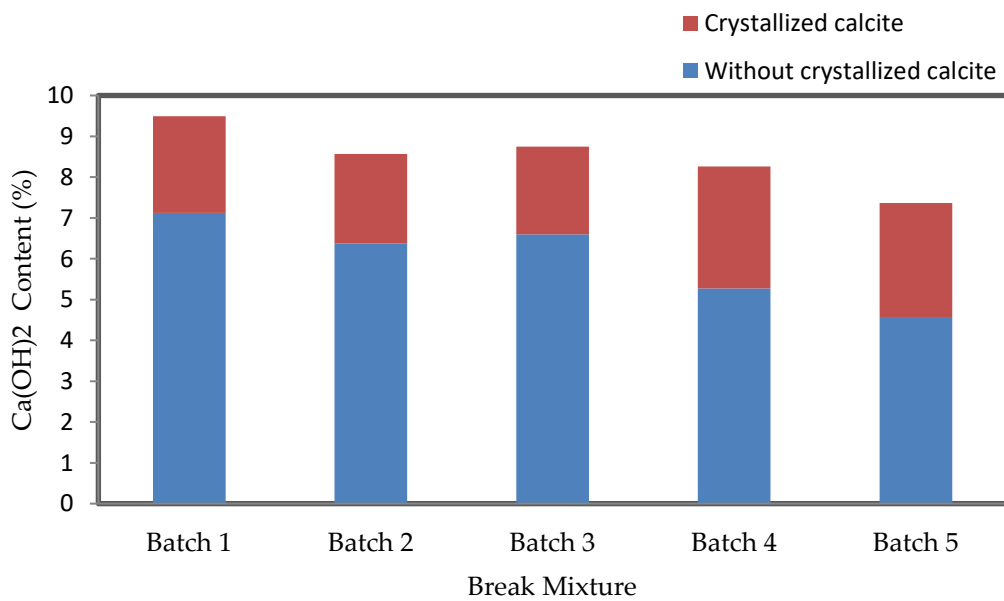
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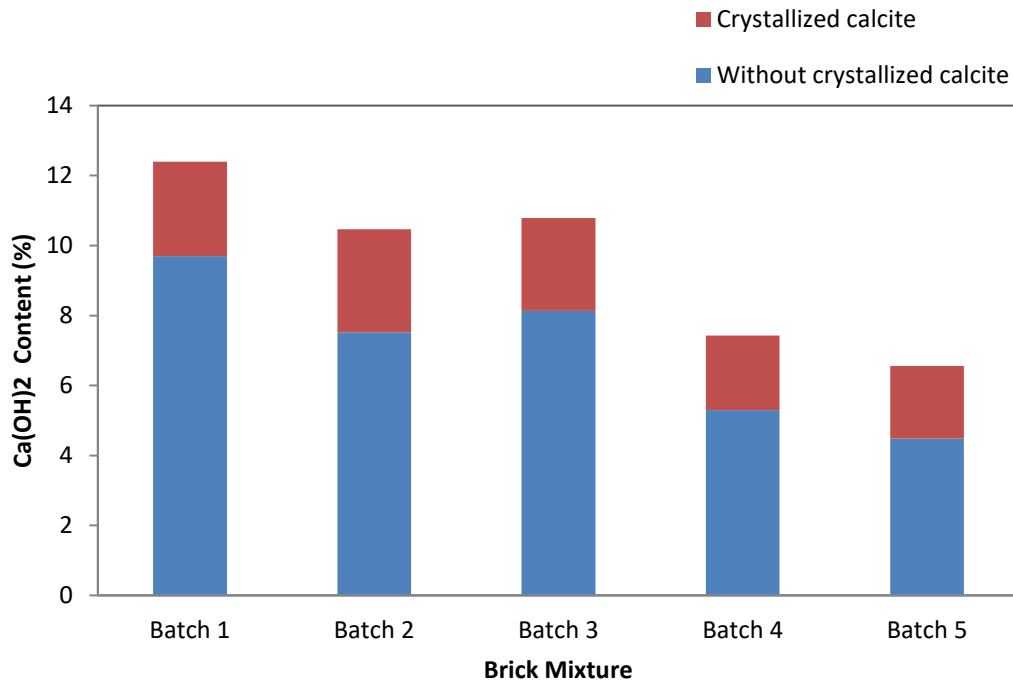
Figure 7. (a) TGA and (b) DTG Results of bricks containing blended POFA and Fly Ash



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Figure 8. De-hydroxylation and de-carbonation at 28 days



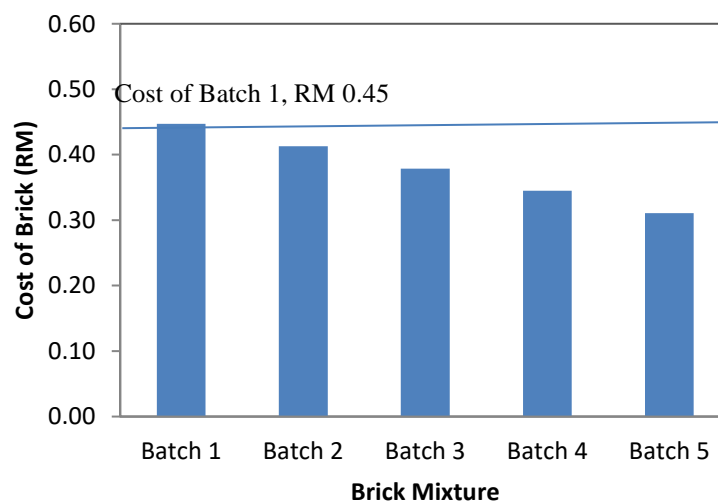
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Figure 9. De-hydroxylation and de-carbonation at 90 days

293 3.6 Cost of Brick

294 The cost analysis of the bricks is shown in Figure 10. It can be seen that the cost of the control batch  
 295 is the most expensive, compared to the other batches. The cost of the raw materials is the important  
 296 factor for the overall cost of the bricks. The brick cost depends on the cost of the cement, however;  
 297 when it is replaced by these waste materials such as POFA and fly ash, its cost became low. The lower  
 298 cost creates a commercial interest in moving towards the use of waste materials as a replacement for  
 299 cement and provides an impetus towards the cleaner production.



300

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Figure 10. Unit cost of brick

302

#### 303 4. Conclusions

304 An experimental study was carried out to investigate the properties of bricks where cement is  
305 replaced by the blended POFA and fly ash in different ratios. The findings in this study emphasize  
306 the opportunity for an environmentally friendly method of managing waste products from the palm  
307 oil industry and coal-fired power plants. Fly ash bricks showed encouraging improvement after the  
308 addition of 10% of POFA. These bricks were found to be suitable for construction of low-cost housing.  
309 Some specific conclusions from this study are as follows:

310 As per ASTM C55-11 (ASTM Standard C55, 2011), all the brick specimens were categorized under the  
311 medium weight brick category. In essence, the density of the bricks is dependent on the percentage  
312 of substitution of the Portland cement. The higher the level of replacement of Portland cement, the  
313 greater the density of the bricks.

314 The compressive strength of the bricks are improved by adding POFA and fly ash. The highest  
315 strength value was obtained when the ratio of the POFA and fly ash was maintained as 1:1. However,  
316 the compressive strength slightly decreased when the fly ash replacement was more than 10%.

317 The compressive strength of the bricks decreased approximately by 10% to 15%, after 24 hours of  
318 immersion in water. In addition, bricks containing 10% to 30% of fly ash exhibited higher compressive  
319 strength than that of the bricks made from Portland cement. However, based on the Malaysian  
320 Standard MS 76 (1972), these bricks satisfied the requirements of Class 1 and Class 2 load bearing  
321 bricks.

322 The water absorption of the POFA- fly ash bricks is 208 kg/m<sup>3</sup> which is lower than that of ASTM C55-  
323 11 (ASTM Standard C55, 2011). However, higher water absorption was found in Batch 3 compared  
324 to the control batch at 90 days. Furthermore, the water absorption of POFA-fly ash bricks decreased  
325 with increasing fly ash replacement.

326 At 28 days and 90 days of curing, TGA data confirmed that the Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> gradually decreased due to  
327 the increase of pozzolanic content.

328 POFA and fly ash are considered as waste materials, therefore, the cost of POFA and fly ash  
329 containing bricks are lower than that of Portland cement containing bricks.

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