

1 **SUSTAINABLE UNFIRED BRICKS MANUFACTURING FROM**
2 **CONSTRUCTION AND DEMOLITION WASTES**

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24

25 **ABSTRACT**

26 The management of construction and demolition wastes is a huge challenge for most
27 Governments. The greatest component of such wastes is concrete and masonry
28 fragments or remains. Among the most common approaches to valorization of such
29 wastes is to convert them to recycled aggregates, however this may be hampered by low
30 quality of some recycled aggregates compared to natural aggregates. This paper presents
31 the results of experimental investigation where concrete and ceramic remains were used
32 to partially substitute clay soil in producing unfired bricks. The bricks were then tested
33 for mechanical strength, water absorption freeze-thaw resistance. Additionally the
34 environmental impact of the bricks was assessed based on Life Cycle Analysis (LCA).
35 It was established that concrete waste could be used to substitute up to 50% of the clay
36 whereas ceramic wastes could only substitute a maximum of 30% of the clay. Blended
37 bricks made from clay and concrete waste mixes had a lower mechanical strength than
38 those made from clay and ceramic waste. As regards water absorption, there was no
39 marked difference between the two blends of brick however reduction in water
40 resistance was slightly greater in bricks containing concrete waste than in those
41 containing ceramic wastes. Also, tests showed that freeze-thaw resistance was greater in
42 bricks blended with concrete wastes than in those incorporating ceramic wastes. Life
43 Cycle analyses demonstrated that it is the binder content in the mix that largely
44 determines the environmental impact of the blended bricks.. Lastly, it was demonstrated
45 that the most desirable technical and environmental credentials of brick material mixes
46 resulted from using the binder combination: CL-90-S+GGBS 2/8.

47

48 **KEYWORDS**

49 Unfired bricks; construction and demolition wastes; pozzolanic reactions; mechanical
50 properties; durability; Life Cycle Analysis.

51

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54 1. INTRODUCTION

55 The construction sector is of strategic importance to the global economy. In the
56 European Union alone, construction generates about 10% of Gross Domestic Product
57 (GDP), provides 20 million jobs and has a direct impact on the quality of life of the
58 population (European Commission, 2014). Infrastructure and building construction and
59 demolition activities consume about 50% of raw materials and account for 33% of 900
60 million tonnes of waste generated in EU each year (European Commission, 2014; Bravo
61 et al., 2015).

62 There is no particular composition of Construction and Demolition Wastes (CDW) as
63 they vary depending on the kind of structure and or demolition process and the
64 construction management systems employed. Generally CDWs typically include: (1)
65 concrete from superstructure, (2) bricks, tiles and ceramics from floors, roofs and
66 partition walls and, (3) in lesser quantities, other materials like glass, wood,
67 plasterboard, asbestos, metals, plastics or hazardous materials. The majority of these
68 wastes are usually disposed of in landfills without any form of recovery or re-use, hence
69 generating important economic and environmental concerns. The EU has recognized the
70 need for a sustainable management of waste and of use of natural resources.
71 Consequently targets have been set to increase the re-use, recovery and recycling of
72 non-hazardous CDW across Europe above 70% by 2020, from the current average rate
73 of 47% (European Commission, 2008; Pacheco Torgal, 2014).

74 There is a high potential for reuse and recycling of CDWs since most of their
75 components can have a high resource value. As the different materials require specific
76 ways for their valorization, the most effective management systems suggest the use of

77 appropriate demolition techniques combined with recycling and re-use. This way glass,
78 wood, asbestos, metals, plastics, hazardous materials, etc. can be separated, obtaining
79 the majority of the inert waste fraction, comprising mainly concrete and masonry
80 remains (Silva et al., 2014; Vegas et al., 2015). Such waste materials can be readily
81 processed into Recycled Aggregates (RA) for use in place of Natural Aggregates (NA).
82 Examples of use of RA include construction of bound /unbound pavement layers and
83 the production of recycled concrete (Xuan et al., 2015; Özalp et al., 2016; Xuan et al.,
84 2016). These applications are limited in practice because of the perceived lower quality
85 and durability of RA when compared to NA. Therefore it is wide practice to exclude
86 fine particles of RA and to limit the maximum ratio of the coarse RA fraction to the NA
87 fraction (Bravo et al., 2015; Butera et al., 2015; Fernández Ledesma et al., 2015;
88 Cardoso et al., 2016; Rodríguez et al., 2016; Silva et al., 2016). For example, the
89 European Standard EN 12620 allows, for concrete manufacturing, the use of RA with a
90 grain size above 4 mm. The Spanish Standard EHE-08 recommends 20% as the
91 maximum ratio of RA to total coarse aggregate in the mixes used for structural concrete.
92 Other potential ways for valorization of RA include partial substitution of natural clay
93 soil by wastes, in the production of unfired bricks (Liu et al., 2011; Oti and Kinuthia,
94 2012; Miqueleiz et al., 2013; Zhang, 2013; Li et al., 2015). There are also some
95 properties of RA that could further enhance sustainability of blended unfired bricks. For
96 example, the finest RA fraction could be used to replace some natural materials or be
97 used directly in the manufacture of other products, without any prior treatments. The
98 minerals in RA may be chemically inert however the presence of any residual ceramic
99 material can produce some pozzolanic properties (Oti et al., 2014; Schackow et al.,
100 2015). As for the concrete element, particles could contain small quantities of residual
101 cement that could still be reactive. Therefore this could potentially substitute for virgin

102 binder in new construction or enable replacement of less sustainable binders like cement
103 with more sustainable ones. (Bravo et al., 2015; Silva et al., 2016).

104 This research is primarily aimed at examining the suitability of using the fine fraction of
105 CDW in the production of unfired bricks. Tests were conducted using fine materials
106 resulting from crushed old concrete and clay bricks. Unfired brick samples were made
107 with different dosages of five different binders. The test results were analyzed to
108 determine: (a) the most effective binder and dosage in mix proportions that achieve
109 target properties of the unfired bricks and (b) the environmental impact of each mix of
110 combination.

111

112 **2. MATERIALS**

113 The soil used in this study was a grey marl from the region of Pamplona, Northern
114 Spain. Table 1 shows the chemical characterization of the soils and CDW fine fraction.
115 Mineralogical compositions were estimated using X Ray Diffraction (XRD) analysis
116 based on the chart proposed by Al-Rawas (1999). Using X Ray Fluorescence (XRF)
117 analysis the soil compositions were expressed in terms of the most predominant or
118 influential oxides.

119

120

TABLE 1

121

122 According to the Spanish Standards UNE 103104 and UNE 103103, the material has
123 typical plastic limit (PL) of 18% and a liquid limit (LL) of 26%. Therefore based on
124 Casagrande Classification, this soil belongs to class CL, which is a low-plasticity clayey
125 silt. From a mechanical point of view it is a low load-bearing capacity soil, which limits
126 its possibilities of use as a construction material. To carry out this investigation, one

127 tonne of the natural marl was extracted and, after homogenization of the sample, it was
128 crushed to a maximum particle size of 1 mm.

129 The concrete fine fraction, which was supplied by a recycling plant in Vitoria, Northern
130 Spain, was obtained by crushing old structural concrete. The recycling plant only
131 valorizes the fraction 40-100 mm as RA, while any finer particles are disposed of in a
132 landfill. For this investigation, a sample weighing 100 kg and with a maximum particle
133 size of 4 mm was prepared by sieving the 0-40 mm fraction. The ceramic fine fraction
134 was also obtained from the same recycling plant. In this case, to avoid contamination of
135 the CDW by components such as plaster, mortar, etc., whole sized bricks were selected,
136 crushed and sieved in laboratory to below 4 mm size.

137 In this investigation four additives were considered for use as binder components: (i)
138 Portland Cement (PC), (ii) Calcareous Hydrated Lime (CL-90-S), (iii) Natural Hydrated
139 Lime (NHL-5) and (iv) Ground Granulated Blast furnace Slag (GGBS). The PC used in
140 this study was manufactured in accordance with the European Standard EN 197–1 and
141 is marketed in Spain under the trade name CEM I 52.5 N. Table 1 shows the
142 composition of all the additives, expressed in terms of their main oxides based on XRF
143 analysis.

144

145

TABLE 2

146

147 Table 2 also shows the embodied CO₂ and energy, as defined by Grist et al. (2015).

148 Two different types of lime were used in this study: (1) A Natural Hydraulic Lime
149 (NHL-5), obtained from burned non-pure limestone and manufactured in accordance
150 with the European Standard EN 459–1. This Lime has hydraulic properties due to the
151 presence of Aluminum and Silicon oxides as well as free Calcium. (2) A calcareous

152 hydrated Lime (CL-90-S) obtained from burned pure limestone and manufactured in
153 accordance with the European Standard EN 459–1. GGBS is a by-product obtained
154 during the manufacturing of pig iron and has a high cementitious potential due to its
155 richness in Calcium, Silicon and Aluminum oxides. The GGBS was combined with the
156 CL-90-S lime as activator, at different ratios. Table 3 shows the binder combinations
157 and the dosages tested, expressed as binder percentage of the total brick weight.

158

159

TABLE 3

160

161 **3. METHODS**

162 Prior to the production of the samples the maximum possible ratio of substitution of the
163 marl soil by each CDW was determined, based on workability requirements as per
164 Spanish Standard UNE 41410 (AENOR, 2008). For the concrete fine fraction the
165 maximum substitution rate was determined to be 50% of the soil whereas for the
166 ceramic waste it was 30%. Once the rates of substitution for each kind of wastes were
167 defined, laboratory specimens were prepared according to the method outlined by Seco
168 et al. 2017. For each combination soil, CDW and additives were mixed for 10 minutes
169 to obtain a completely dry and homogeneous mixture. Then the quantity of water
170 corresponding to the pre-determined optimum moisture content was gradually added to
171 the mixture. The ingredients were then thoroughly mixed to a homogeneous state. The
172 wet mixes were then hydraulically compacted in a cylindrical mold using 9 MPa
173 pressure to produce specimens of 65mm diameter and 75mm height. To prevent further
174 moisture losses the specimens were covered with polythene sheeting and cured in a wet
175 chamber until the testing ages of 1, 7, 14, 21 and 28 days.

176 After curing, the samples were tested for Unconfined Compressive Strength (UCS) in
177 accordance with the Spanish standard UNE 103400, before and after 24 hours of
178 immersion in water. Measurements of water absorption (WA) after 24 hours of
179 submersion were carried out in accordance with the European Standard EN 771-1.

180 Also, Thawing and freeze-thaw tests were carried out on the samples in accordance to
181 the Spanish standard UNE 67028 EX. For this test, prismatic samples of dimensions
182 225x110x60 mm were subjected to 25 cycles of freezing at -8°C during 5 hours and
183 thawing at 15°C for 1 hour.

184 In order to quantify the Environmental impact of each mix, a Life Cycle Analysis
185 (LCA) was carried out based on the approach presented by (Marcelino-Sadaba et al.,
186 2017). The impacts evaluated include CO₂ emissions and embodied energy, which were
187 analysed based on Grist et al. (2015) methods.

188

189 **4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

190 **4.1. UNCONFINED COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH**

191 Figure 1 shows the results obtained for the UCS tests for the various curing times and
192 binder types, for the mixtures where the marl soil was partially replaced by concrete
193 waste.

194

195 **FIGURE 1**

196

197 The reference line corresponds to the UCS result obtained for 28 days curing period for
198 the mixes where pure marl soil was treated with 10% of PC. In this case the reference
199 UCS value is 8.60 MPa. For the concrete combinations the worse results corresponded
200 to the CL-90-S samples, where there were insignificant UCS differences between the

201 mixes containing different dosages. The variations of UCS with curing time were very
202 small, the best result being 2.70 MPa for a lime content of 4% and curing time of 28
203 days. The UCS values for NHL-5 were higher, such that with 10% of additive 3.90 MPa
204 was reached at 28 days test age. . With this additive, there was a more discernible
205 pattern of UCS increase with time as compared to the case of CL-90-S additive. This
206 was observed at all dosages of the additive. The mixes containing PC and 10% of
207 additive reached a maximum UCS of 7.45 MPa at 28 days. A clear pattern of UCS
208 development was also observed as curing time and dosage increased, with rapid rate of
209 UCS increase during the first 14 days of curing. CL-90-S+PC combinations produced
210 UCS values intermediate between those of mixes containing one of the binders on its
211 own. For mixes with these binders, the resistance improved as the PC content in the
212 binder increased. Thus, CL-90-S+PC 2/8 achieved the highest result at 6.85 MPa for 28
213 days of curing. The best UCS result among all the combinations tested was 12.75 MPa,
214 which was obtained in the CL-90-S+GGBS 2/8 samples after 21 days of curing. Mix
215 combinations richer in GGBS produced the best results for the above binders and in
216 general the most significant UCS increase occurred before 21 days age.

217 The UCS results from lime treated target mix CL-90-S lime highlight the low reactivity
218 of the marl and concrete aggregates and the low content of reactive Silicon and
219 Aluminum oxides. Not surprisingly, binders richer in these oxides had greater UCS
220 values. Mixe combinations: 2/8 CL-90-S+GGBS, 10% PC and 2/8 CL-90-S+PC being
221 richest in PC and GGBS, hence reactive Silicon and Aluminum, showed the strongest
222 cementing properties.

223 Figure 2 shows the UCS results when marl soil was partially replaced by ceramic waste
224 and treated with the different binders.

225

226 FIGURE 2

227

228 In the case of this target combination, an increase in resistance with increasing curing
229 period was observed. At 28 days, a dosage of 10% in CL-90-S produced a UCS value of
230 6.8 MPa. In the case of NHL-5, a dosage of 8% produced the maximum UCS value of
231 7.65 MPa, at 28 days. For the mix with PC, UCS reached 8.95 MPa for the 10% dosage
232 at 28 days, thereby exceeding the reference value for the marl soil. As occurred in the
233 concrete based target mix, CL-90-S+PC 2/8 combination produced the best result for
234 this kind of binder, with UCS of 7.85 MPa at 28 days. For this target, the best UCS
235 results were also obtained in the samples treated with CL-90-S+GGBS 2/8 binder,
236 where the UCS was 12.65 MPa at 28 days. As occurred in the concrete-based target,
237 with this kind of binders, the best results were obtained with the highest GGBS
238 contents.

239 NHL-5 and CL-90-S attained higher UCS compared to the concrete based target mixes.
240 Both additives showed increasing resistance with curing time. In general, this target mix
241 when blended with binders richest in Calcium produced higher 7-day UCS values in
242 comparison to concrete based mixes. This demonstrates the pozzolanic property of the
243 ceramic waste owing to availability of free Silicon and Aluminum.

244 Figures 3 and 4 illustrate the percentage UCS loss when the samples were tested after
245 24 hours of immersion in water.

246

247 FIGURE 3

248

FIGURE 4

249

250 In the case of the concrete based target mixes, with CL-90-S, a loss of UCS between
251 40% and 60% occurred for all the dosages and for all the curing periods. The pattern
252 was similar in NHL-5 but the loss of resistance varied from 30% to 55%. Mixes
253 combinations with PC also showed a clear loss of resistance for all curing periods
254 exceeding 7 days. The final loss values were between 16 and 40%. For 1 day age, the
255 strength losses for the PC mixes were lower and, for the 10% dosage, an increase of
256 3.3% of UCS was observed. The CL-90-S+PC combinations also showed a general loss
257 of resistance after 24 hours of immersion in water with final values being between 13%
258 and 44%. The CL-90-S+GGBS combinations showed a similar pattern to the PC ones.
259 At the age of 1 day, the mix combination 2/8 CL-90-S+GGBS showed an increase of
260 UCS of 41%, whereas the 4/6CL-90+GGBS and the 6/4CL-90+GGBS had increases of
261 27% and 4% respectively. For the 8/2 combination a loss of 8.1% was obtained. In all
262 the CL-90-S+GGBS combinations, the final UCS values showed a loss of resistance
263 between 12% and 35%.

264 In the case of the ceramic based target combination mixes, the pattern of UCS loss was
265 similar to the concrete based target ones, but with lower absolute loss values. Mixes
266 with CL-90-S had a loss of UCS of between 19% and 43%, for all the curing periods.
267 For NHL-5 the losses varied from 7% to 35%. PC also showed a lower loss of UCS for
268 1 day curing period. At 28 days age, PC samples showed a loss of resistance of between
269 10% and 23%. CL-90-S+PC combinations also showed lower losses of UCS at 1 day
270 but for longer curing times the percentage UCS losses increased and were between 18%
271 and 24% for 28 days of curing. CL-90-S+GGBS combination mixes aged 1 day showed
272 increase in UCS values such that, for combination 6/4, the increase was 28%. At 28
273 days age, the CL-90-S+GGBS combination mixes showed losses of resistance of
274 between 13% and 27%.

275 The ceramic waste based target mixes showed less sensitivity of UCS to immersion in
276 comparison to the concrete based target mixes. The behavior of the binders in both
277 target mixes was similar. The anomalous UCS losses, and even increases, observed in
278 some of them at the age of 1 day is thought to be due to the effect of the free calcium
279 available on flocculation of the marl and hydration hence a cementing behaviour.
280 Binders such as PC or GGBS, which are rich in Aluminum and Silicon oxides, have
281 lower free Calcium contents. Therefore their flocculation potential is lower and thus the
282 loss of soil cohesion and resulting UCS loss are also lower. In addition, Figures 1 and 2
283 show how, at 1 day of age, pozzolanic reactions would have already started for binders
284 containing PC or GGBS. . As such, cementation processes could also justify the lower
285 loss of UCS within the first day.

286

287 **4.2. WATER ABSORPTION**

288 Figure 5 shows the water absorption test results of the concrete based target samples.

289

290 **FIGURE 5**

291

292 CL-90-S and NHL-5 combinations had steady water absorption values of between
293 13.8% and 16.0% (but mostly close to 15%) for all curing periods. PC combinations
294 showed different behavior depending on the dosage and curing time. The water
295 absorption at 28 days was approximately 13% for all the dosages. At the age of 7 days,
296 combinations having 8% and 10% dosages showed water absorption values of 16.0%
297 and 14.8% respectively, whilst the result for the 6% dosage PC combination was 10.3%.
298 These differences terminated at the age of 14 days when the three combinations
299 exhibited very similar values of water absorption. New differences were observed at the

300 age of 21 days when the combination of 6% PC yielded 11.84%, 8% PC gave 11.5%
301 and 10% PC showed 11.2% water absorption. This is an opposite pattern to that seen for
302 14 days cured samples. All the CL-90-S+PC combinations gave water absorption values
303 of between 13% and 16% at all the curing times. These combinations showed an inverse
304 PC dosage-water absorption relationship except for the 2/8 combination at the ages of 1
305 and 7 days. CL-90-S+GGBS combinations reached final values between 11-14% of
306 water absorption. In these combinations the changes in water absorption with curing
307 time followed two different patterns: 2/8 and 4/6 combinations on the one hand and 6/4
308 and 8/2 on the other hand. Binder combinations 2/8 and 4/6 showed the lowest water
309 absorption values at the age of 14 days with the results being 9.3% and 10.2%
310 respectively.

311 The water absorption values obtained for this target do indicate a definitive trend of
312 variation with either curing time or richness of the binder in Calcium, Aluminum and
313 Silicon. This could be due to complex hydration processes of these binders.

314 Figure 6 shows the water absorption test results of the ceramic based target samples.

315

316

FIGURE 6

317

318 In this case, water absorption values were higher than in the concrete based target. Thus,
319 CL-90-S and NHL-5 combination mixes achieved final values varying between 16.7-
320 18.4% and 16.3-18.4% respectively. PC samples yielded results lying in the range
321 15.4% to 17.4%, CL-90-S+PC gave 16.5% to 18.4% and CL-90-S+GGBS produced
322 12.9% to 15.3%. Like with the concrete based binder, the ceramic based binder did not
323 show any clear patterns here. In addition, some of the PC, CL-90-S+GGBS and CL-90-
324 S+PC combination mixes displayed anomalous absorption values at intermediate curing

325 ages. These are also likely to be attributable to the hydration process of the binders as
326 well as the formation of pozzolanic gels in the mixes.

327

328 **4.3. THAWING AND FREEZING TEST**

329 Subsequent to the UCS and water absorption tests, one combination of each target mix
330 with a binder was selected for freeze-thaw testing. The selection criteria were based
331 on findings by Seco et al. (2017) which demonstrated a distinct relationship between
332 unconfined compressive strength (UCS) and durability of unfired bricks.

333 As freeze-thaw tests are usually considered an indicator of durability, it was imperative
334 that the selection of the test mix considered mechanical properties before and after 24
335 hours of immersion in water. Therefore, for the concrete based target mix, the
336 reasonable selection was CL-90-S+GGBS 2/8. The binder in this case was chosen with
337 regards to the low reactivity of the target mix, which required use of rich binders to
338 enhance the properties of the brick product. The combination 2/8 produced the best
339 overall UCS, water resistance and water absorption. In the case of the ceramic waste
340 blended material, the mix combination NHL-5 10% was chosen so as to exploit the
341 reactivity of the target mix hence avoid the use of other binders richer in Silicon and
342 Aluminum oxides. The 10% target combination had an adequate UCS and highest water
343 resistance.

344

345 **FIGURE 7**

346

347 After the 25 freeze-thaw, the test samples were visually inspected for any surface
348 damage, in accordance with the UNE 67028 EX standard. Figure 7 shows representative
349 damages observed in the two target combinations. In the concrete based target with CL-

350 90-S+GGBS 2/8, 100% of the specimens had small surface cracks on the smallest side
351 of the bricks. In contrast, the ceramic based target specimens with 10% of NHL-5
352 showed general damages on all the faces of the bricks in all cases. They showed “scale”
353 damage pattern of approximately 2 mm, possibly caused by water permeation and
354 freeze induced cracks.

355 This scale damage extent was not avoided by any of the combination mixes and thus no
356 other combinations were tested.

357

358 **4.4. ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT EVALUATION OF THE DIFFERENT** 359 **COMBINATIONS**

360 Figure 8 shows the environmental impact of the production of each brick material
361 combination based on their embodied energy and CO₂ emissions. As a reference,
362 calculations included the environmental impact of bricks made of pure marl soil treated
363 with 10% of PC.

364

365

FIGURE 8

366

367 Figure 8 shows how the absolute impact of any combination mix depends mainly on the
368 binder dosage and production nature (hence the embodied energy and CO₂ emissions).
369 Both concrete and ceramic wastes have zero environmental impacts and also the marl
370 soil has very little therefore the unfired bricks from these wastes have no manufacture
371 related environmental impact. The highest absolute impact is shown by mix
372 combinations richest in PC while the ones richest in GGBS have the lowest impact
373 values. The target mix combination made of concrete waste treated with 10% of PC

374 reached 94.80 kg of CO₂ and 425 MJ. The target mix combination comprising ceramic
375 waste with CL-90-S+GGBS 2/8 gives 21.16 kg of CO₂ and 214.14 MJ per tonne.

376

377

FIGURE 9

378

379 Figure 9 shows the results obtained when the environmental impact relative to UCS is
380 considered. In this case CL-90-S richest combinations show adverse values because of
381 their low mechanical properties and the relatively high production impact of this binder.
382 In this case, the highest values correspond to the target mix combination made of
383 ceramic waste with 10% of CL-90-S, which gives 30.79 kg of CO₂/MPa of UCS and
384 152.39 MJ/MPa. The most favorable impact once again corresponds to the mixes richest
385 in GGBS. The best target mix combination incorporating concrete waste with CL-90-
386 S+GGBS 2/8 gave 1.71 kg of CO₂/MPa of UCS and 17.27 MJ/MPa per tonne.

387

388 5. CONCLUSIONS

389 This experimental investigation demonstrated how concrete and ceramic CDWs fine
390 fractions, as substitutes for natural marl soil, modified the target physical properties and
391 the chemical reactions that occur in the unfired bricks. The maximum rate of substitution
392 for each waste type was different because of the workability requirements for the mixes
393 manufacturing. Thus, for the concrete CDW the maximum substitution rate was 50%,
394 meanwhile for the ceramic CDW, a substitution rate up to 30% was possible. In the case
395 of the concrete based target, UCS at the age of 28 days decreased 13.4% in relation to
396 the pure soil, when both combinations were treated with 10% of PC. In the case of the
397 ceramic based target, the final UCS value when the same binder and dosage were used,

398 overtook the reference value by 4.1%, demonstrating a higher chemical reactivity of the
399 ceramic waste by comparison to the concrete based one.

400 UCS test after 24 hours of immersion in water showed a lower sensitivity of the ceramic
401 waste target than the concrete based one. Both kind of targets showed a lack of a clear
402 UCS losses trend as well as anomalous values at intermediate curing ages. This is due to
403 complex flocculation-hydration-cementation processes in the different combinations as
404 well as to the modification of the target physical properties.

405 Both trial wastes yielded similar final values of water absorption despite the different
406 substitution rates. At intermediate curing ages ceramic combinations showed changes in
407 water absorption because of the hydration process of the binders. Although in concrete
408 combinations, the UCS losses after 24 hours of immersion in water were much higher
409 than in the ceramic ones, the freeze/thaw performance was better. These results show
410 the complexity of the relationships between mechanical properties, water absorption and
411 durability as key parameters for the characterization of these kinds of materials. This
412 highlights that test results have to be carefully interpreted for a correct characterization
413 of this kind of construction materials from a technical point of view.

414 LCA showed the environmental impact of each combinations based on the CO₂ released
415 and the energy consumed during the whole production process. Combinations
416 environmental absolute impacts mainly depend on the binders manufacturing impacts
417 and dosage. The target kind effect is based only on the substitution of the natural soil by
418 the CDWs. Thus, combinations based on Portland Cement resulted to have the biggest
419 absolute impacts either CO₂ emissions or embodied energy meanwhile the lower results
420 corresponded to the GGBS richest combinations. If the mechanical properties of each
421 combination are taken into account, CL-90-S arises as the worst environmental binder
422 while GGBS got the smaller impacts per strength unit (MPa). LCA analysis allowed to

423 quantify the impact related to each combination manufacturing but it did not allowed to
424 consider the additional environmental benefits of the substitution of a no renewable
425 resource as is the natural soil by a recycled target.

426 The global conclusion of this investigation is that the substitution of a natural soil by
427 recycled targets modifies the target-binder chemical reactions. This could be taken into
428 account for the optimization of the target formulation and binder kind and dosage
429 selection to optimize the unfired brick manufacturing from technical and environmental
430 points of view.

431

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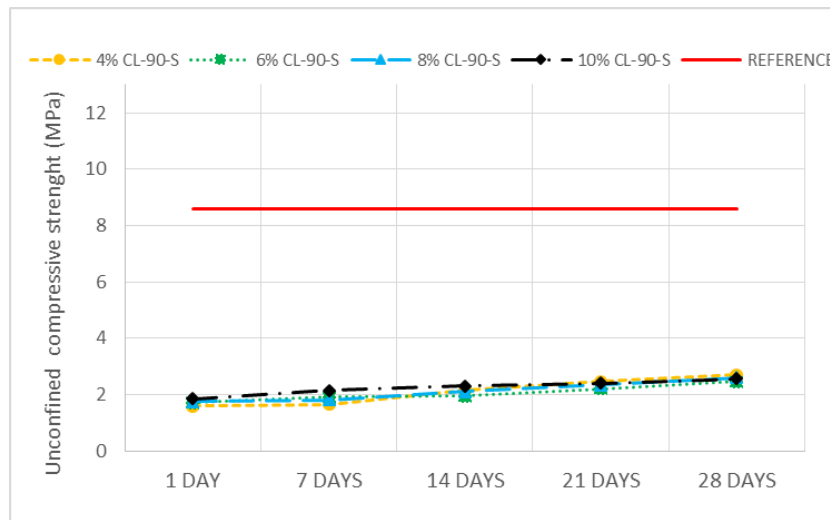
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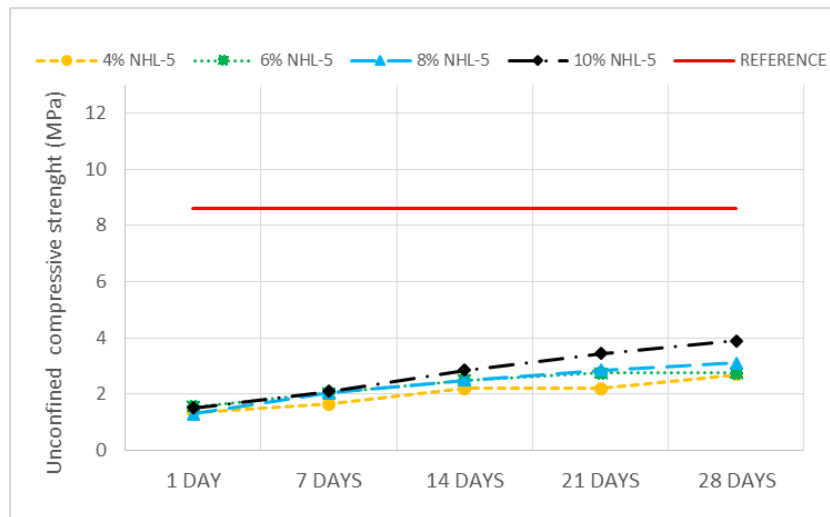
524 **FIGURES**

525 FIGURE 1. Unconfined compressive strength results for the different considered
526 combinations based on concrete waste substitution.



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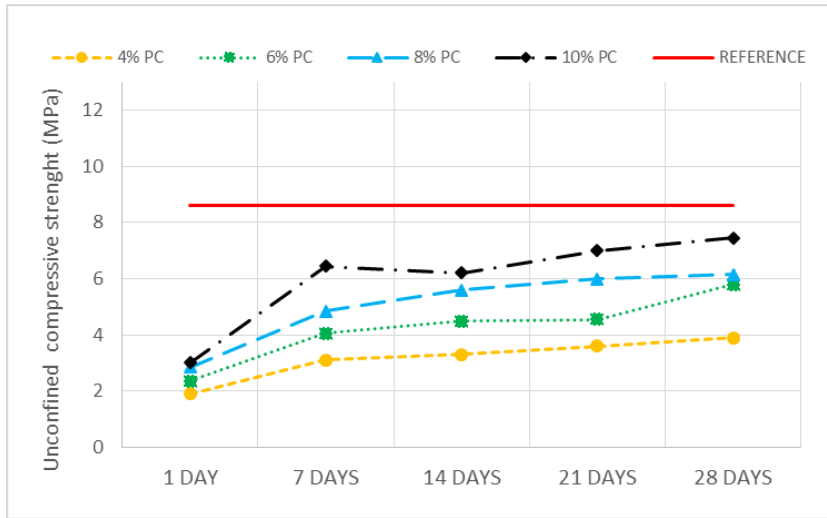
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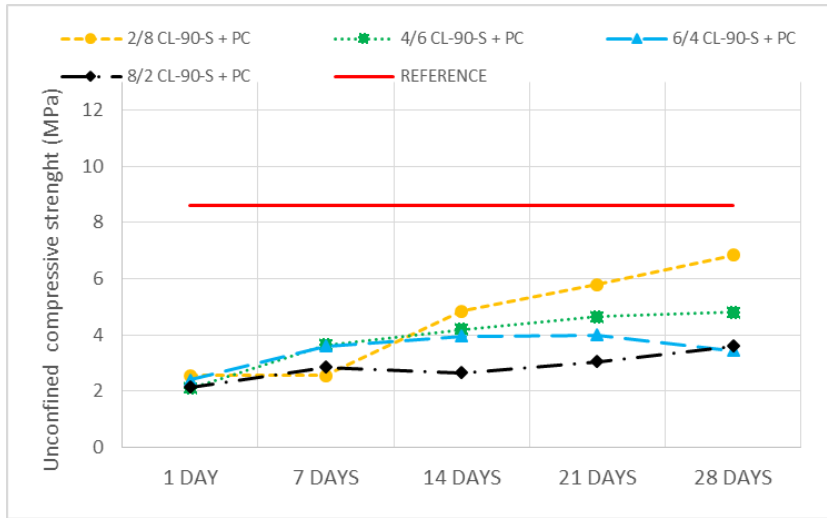
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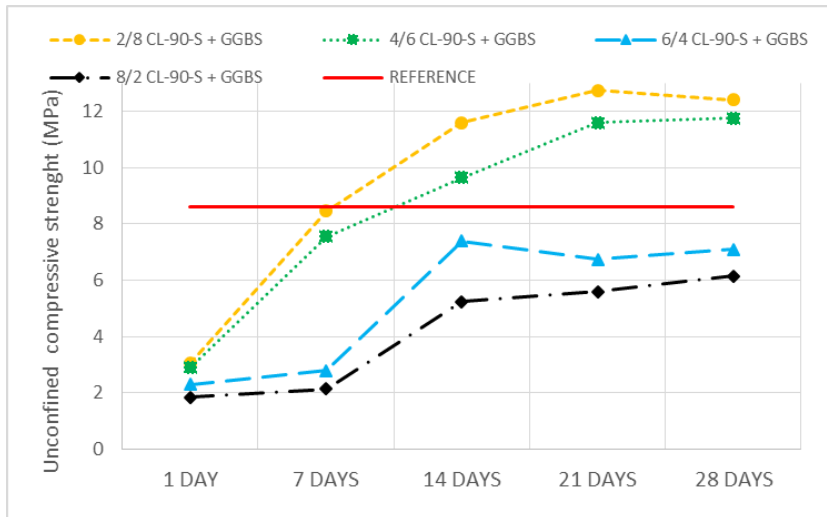
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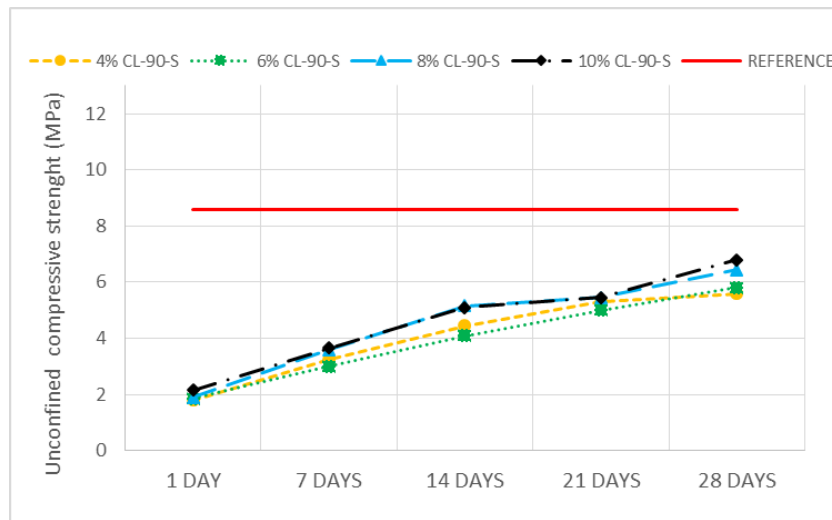
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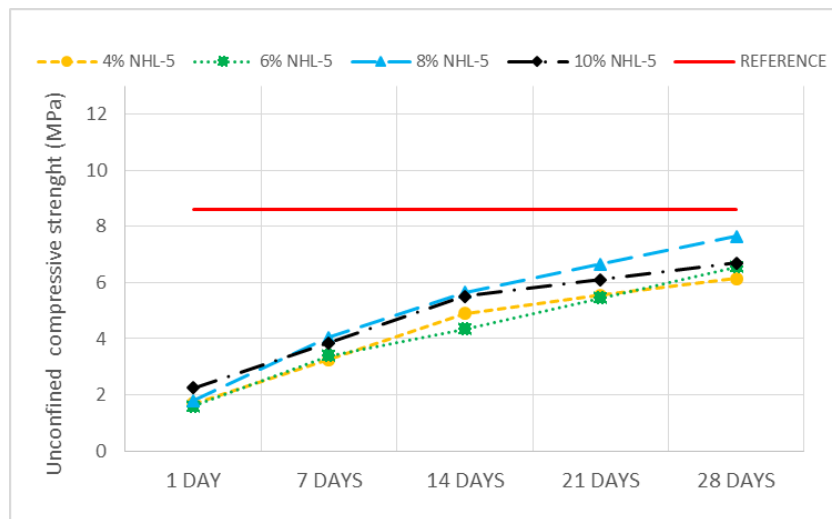
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538 FIGURE 2. Unconfined compressive strength results for the different considered
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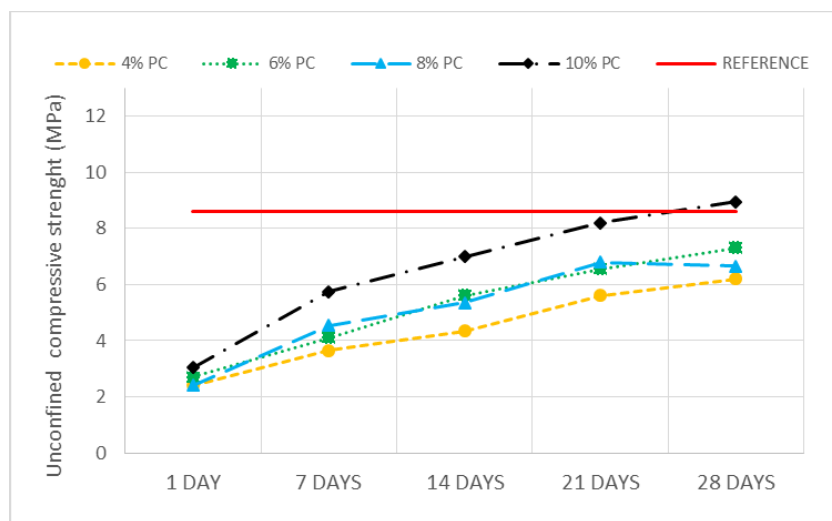
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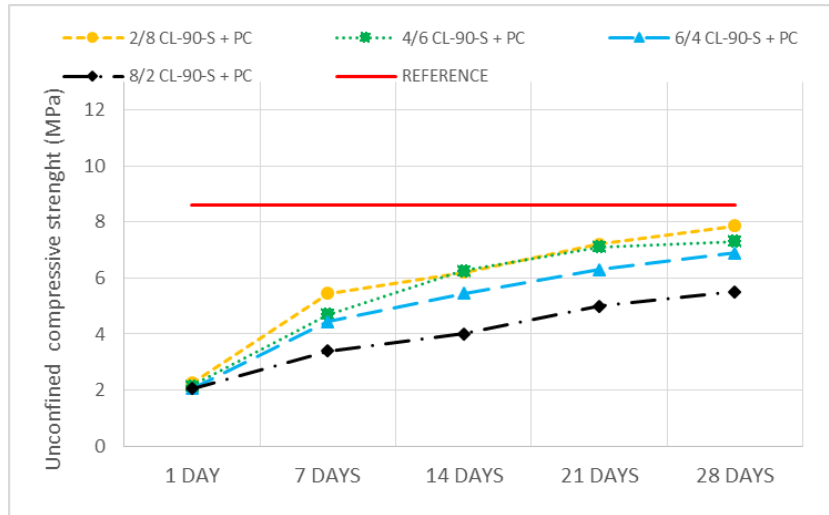
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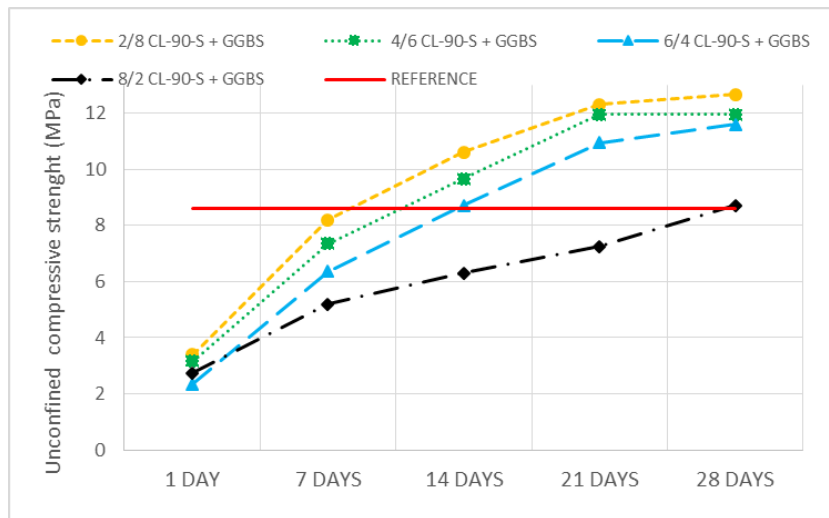
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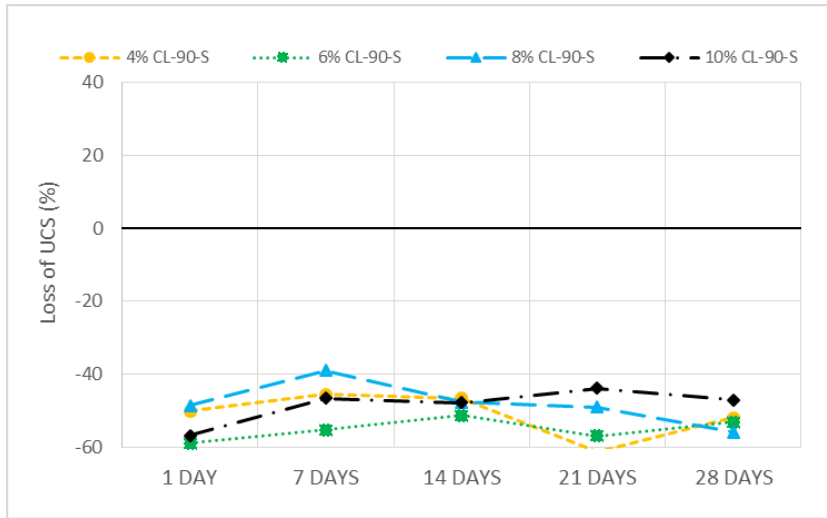
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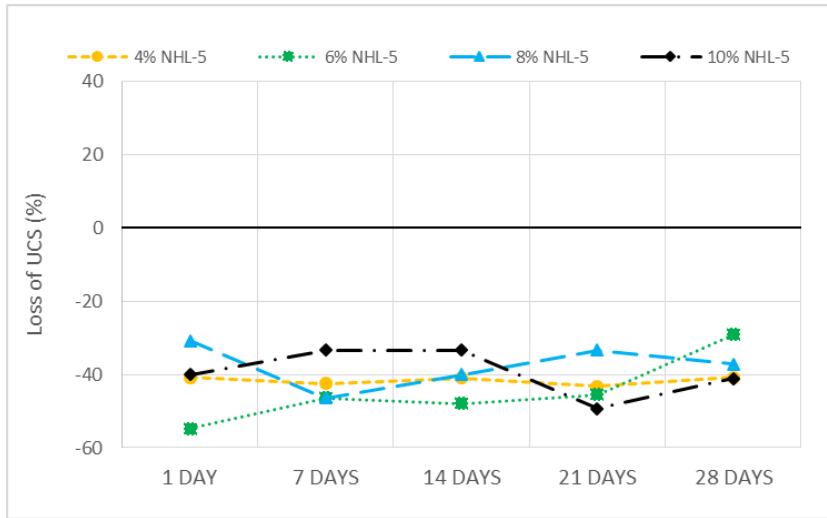
551 FIGURE 3. Unconfined compressive strength results for the different considered
552 combinations based on concrete waste substitution after 24 hours of water immersion.

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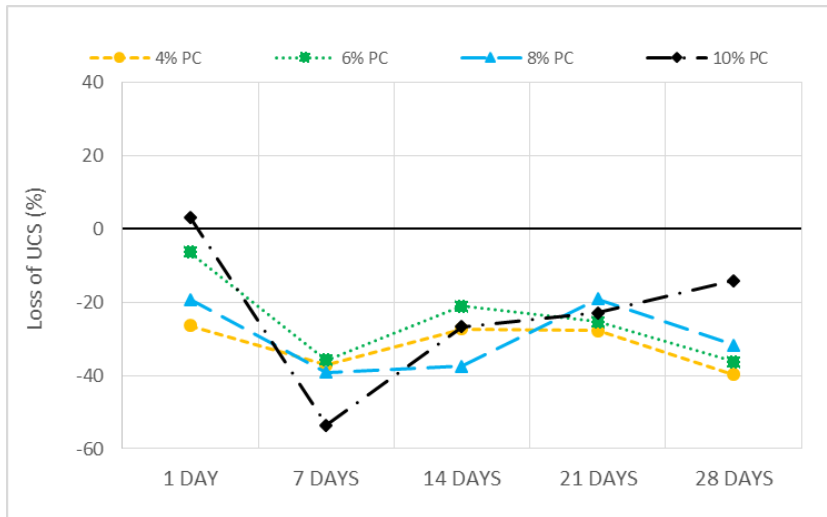
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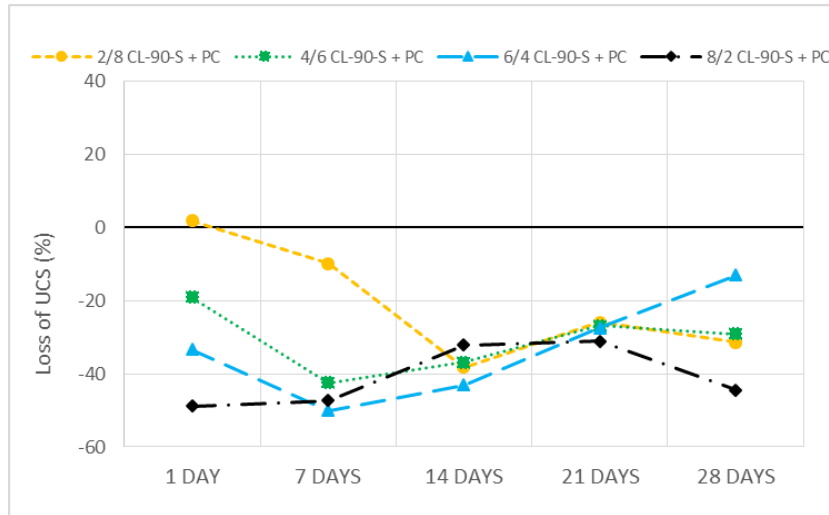
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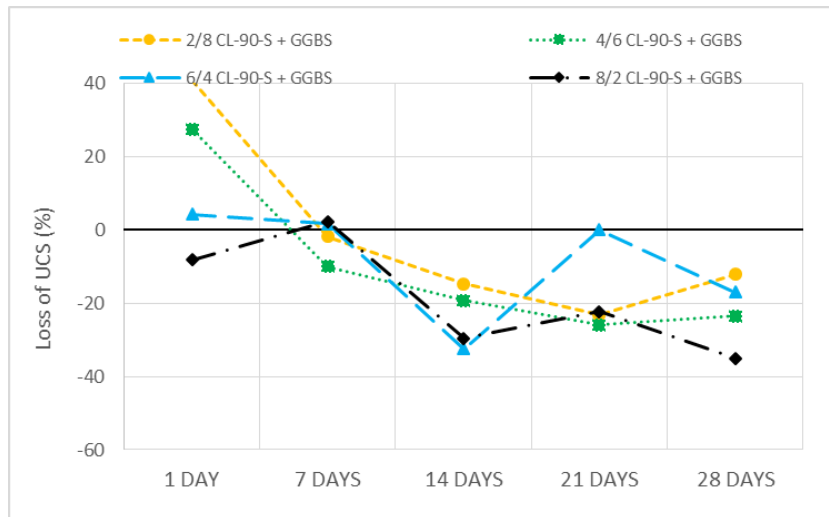
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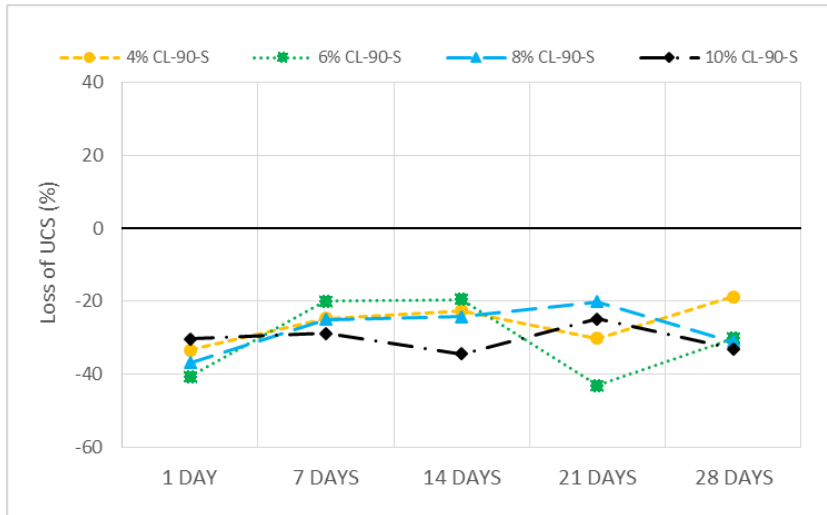


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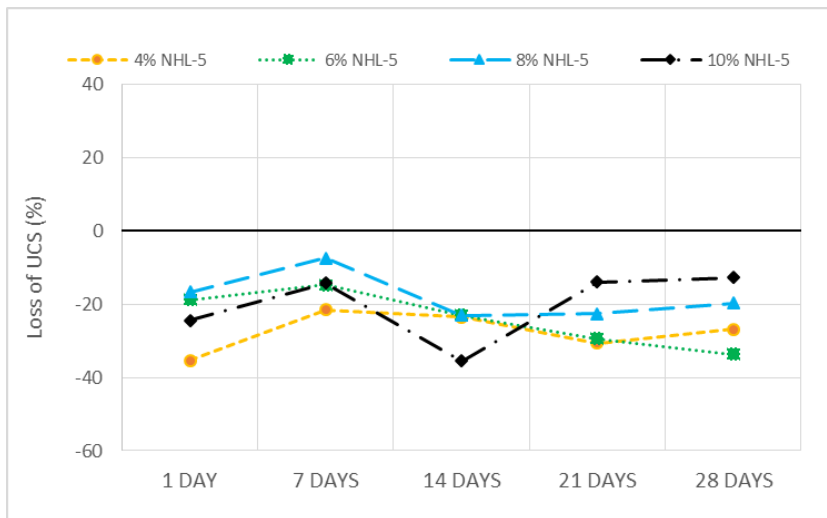
564 FIGURE 4. Unconfined compressive strength results for the different considered
565 combinations based on ceramic waste substitution after 24 hours of water immersion.

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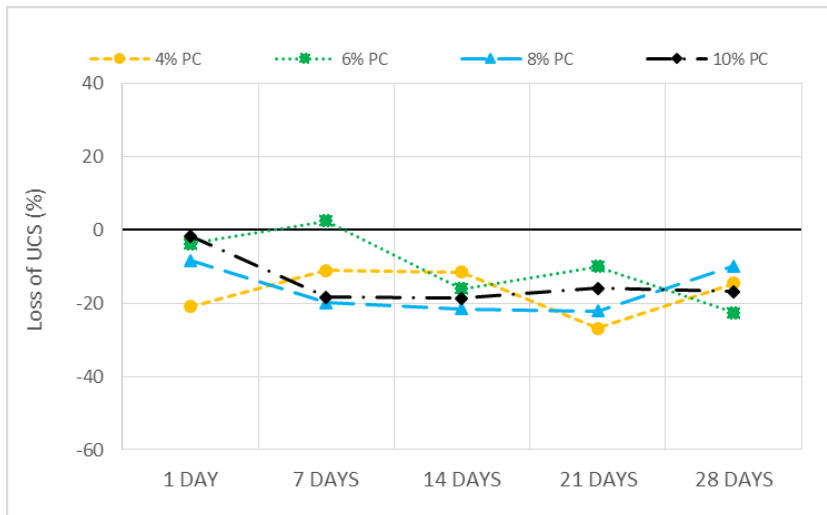
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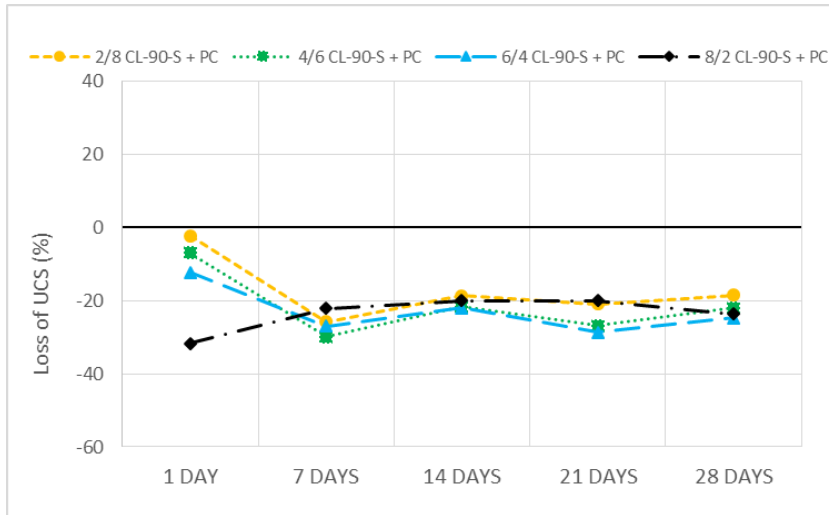
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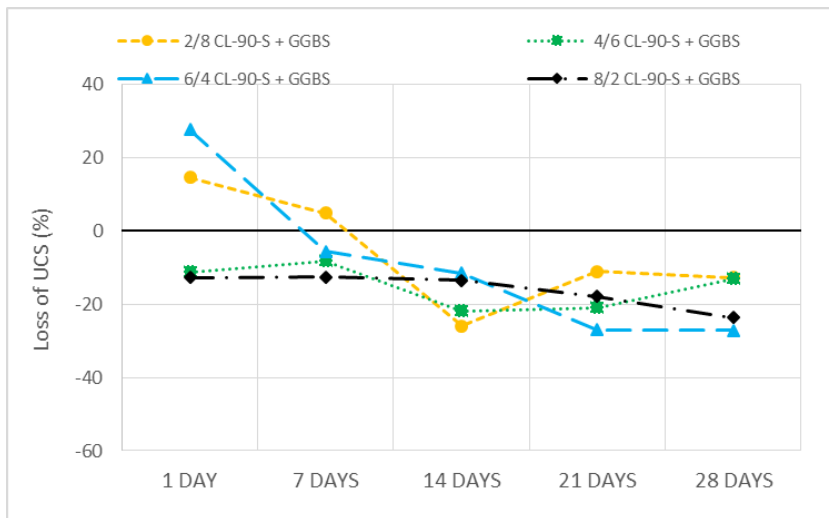


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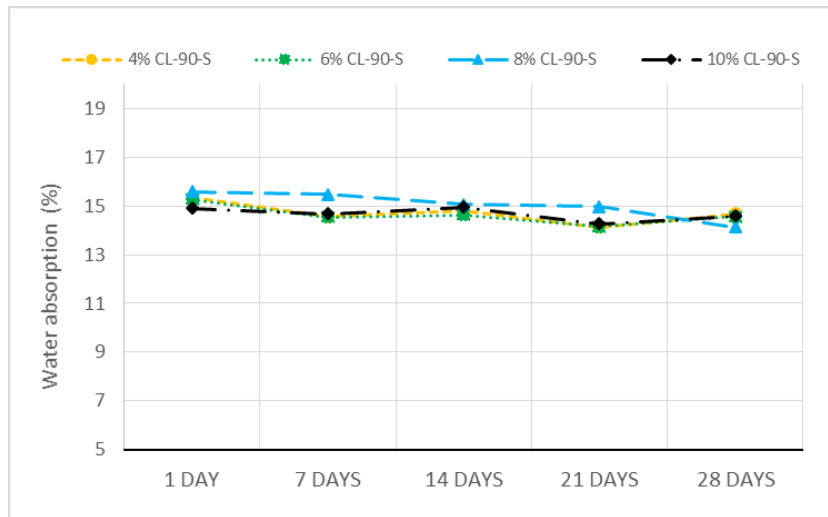
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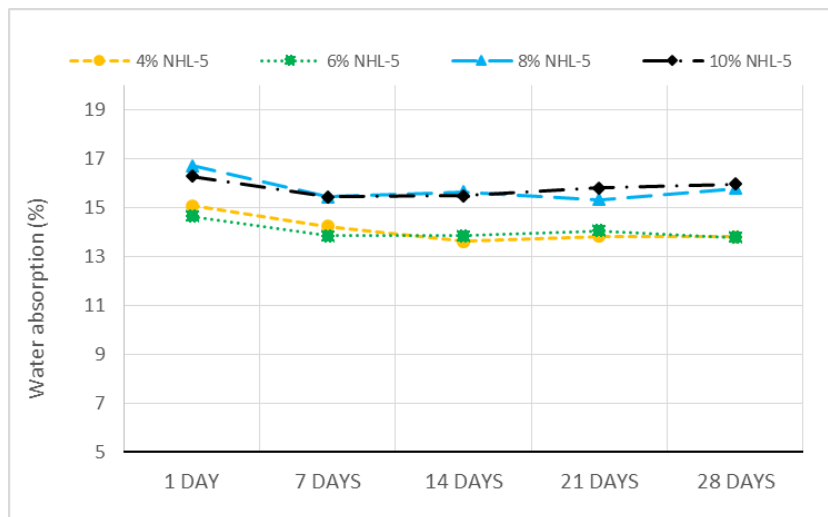
577 FIGURE 5. Water absorption test results for the different considered combinations
578 based on concrete waste substitution after 24 hours of water immersion.

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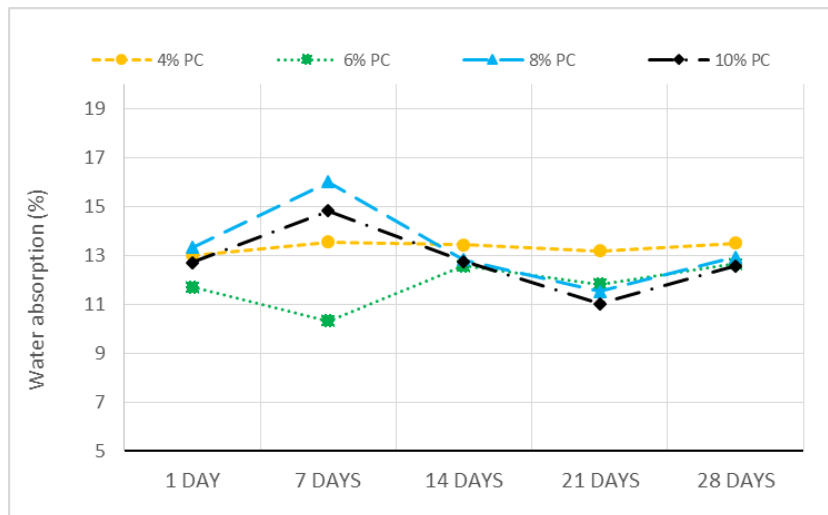
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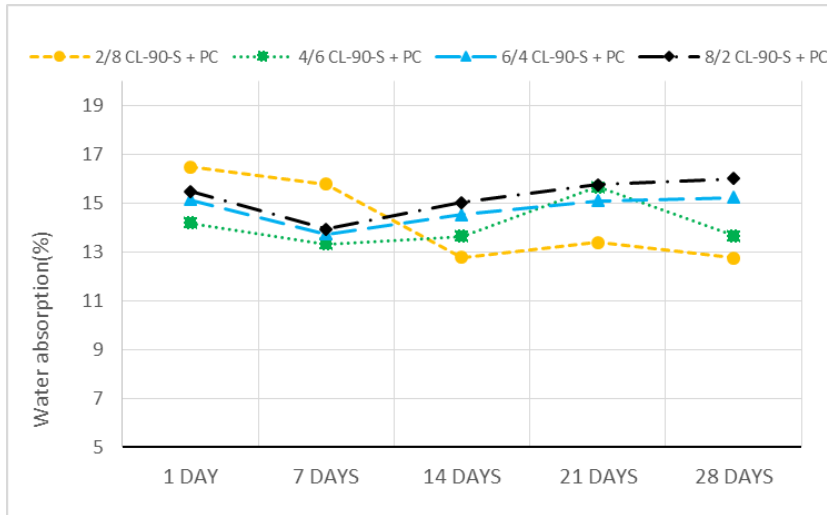
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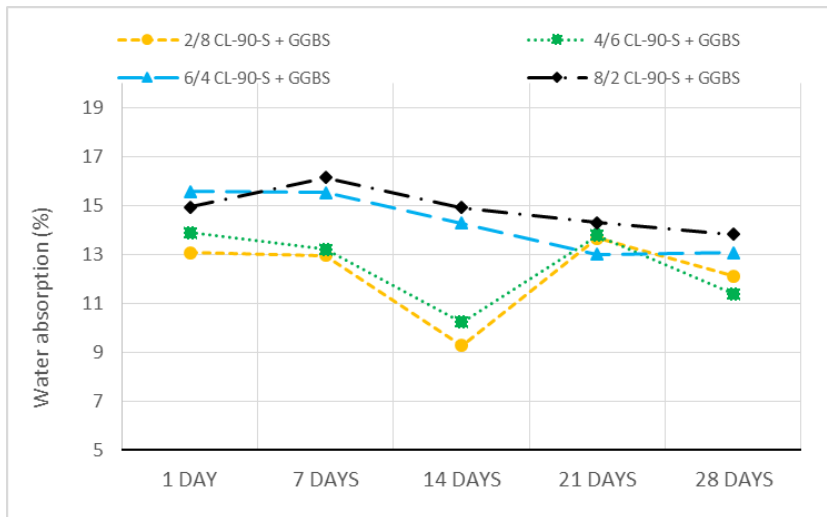
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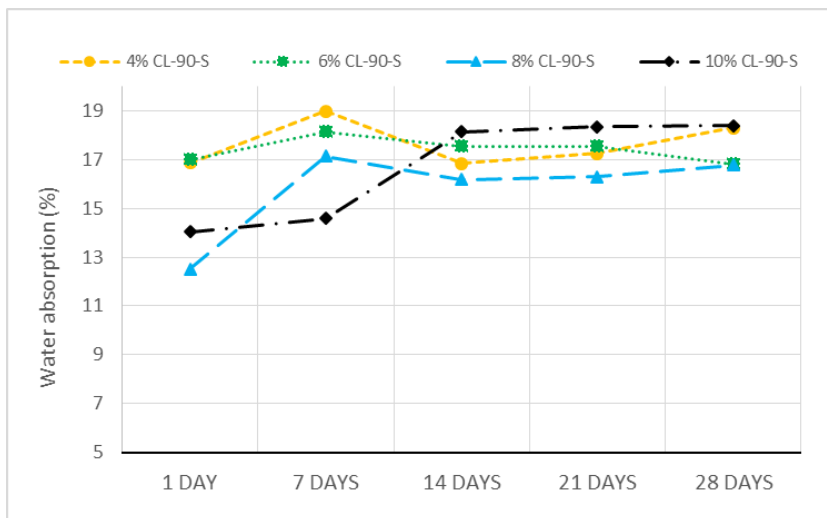
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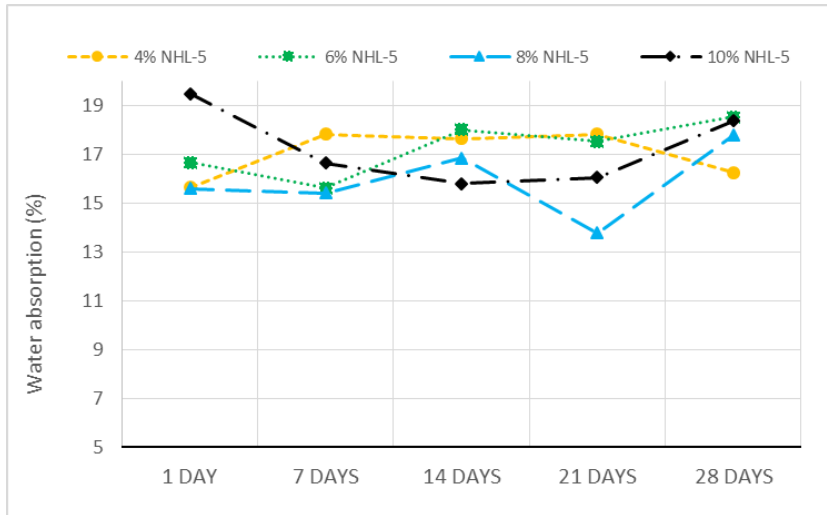
589 FIGURE 6. Water absorption test results for the different considered combinations
590 based on ceramic waste substitution after 24 hours of water immersion.

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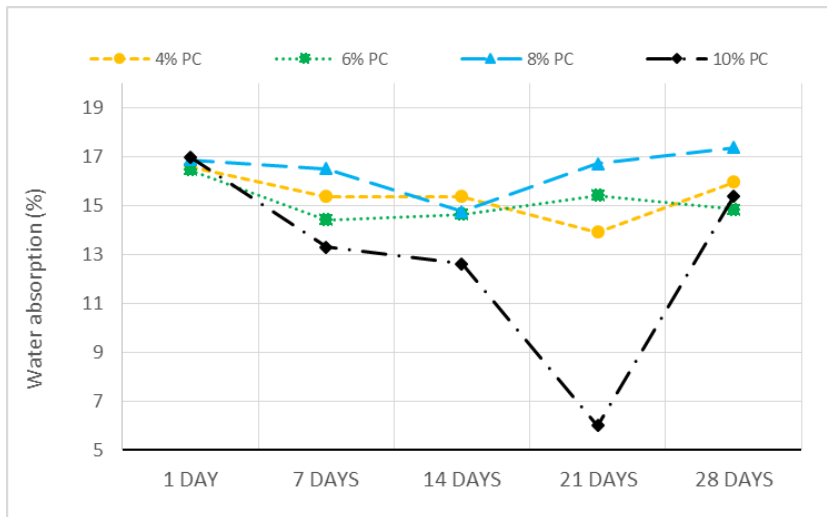
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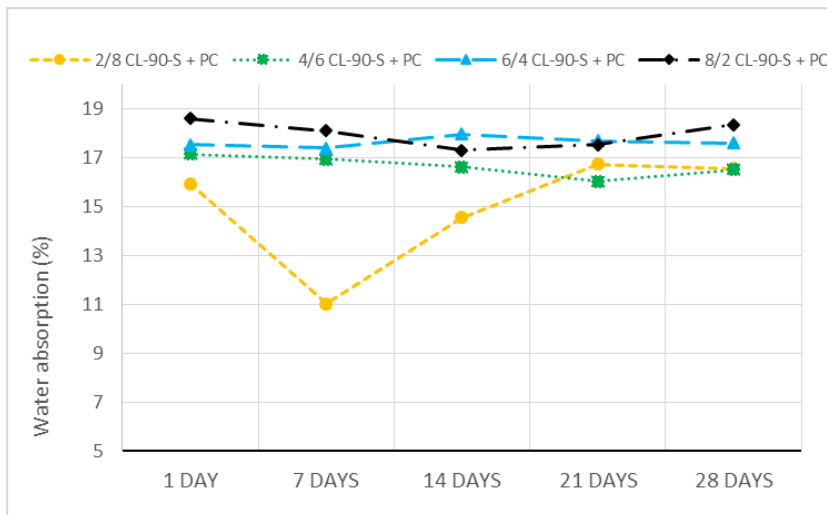
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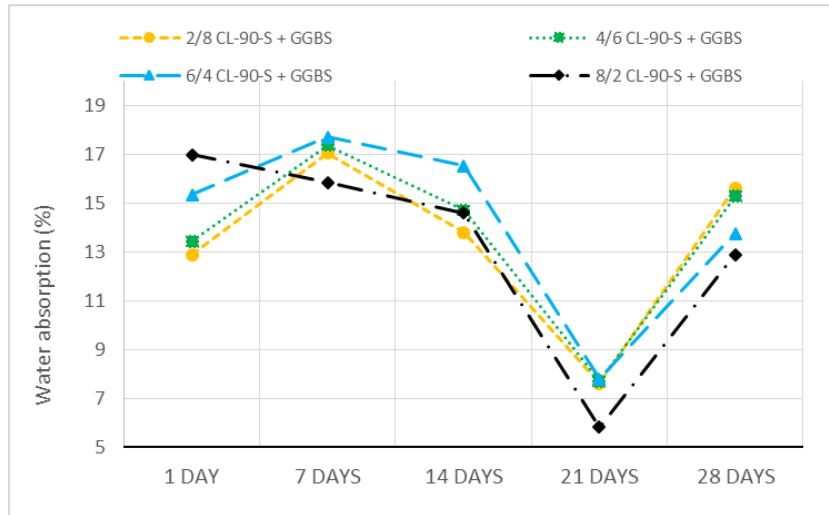


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602 FIGURE 7. Damages in specimens after the thawing/freezing test. a) Concrete based

603 target with CL-90-S+GGBS 2/8 and b) Ceramic based target with NHL-5 10%

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a)

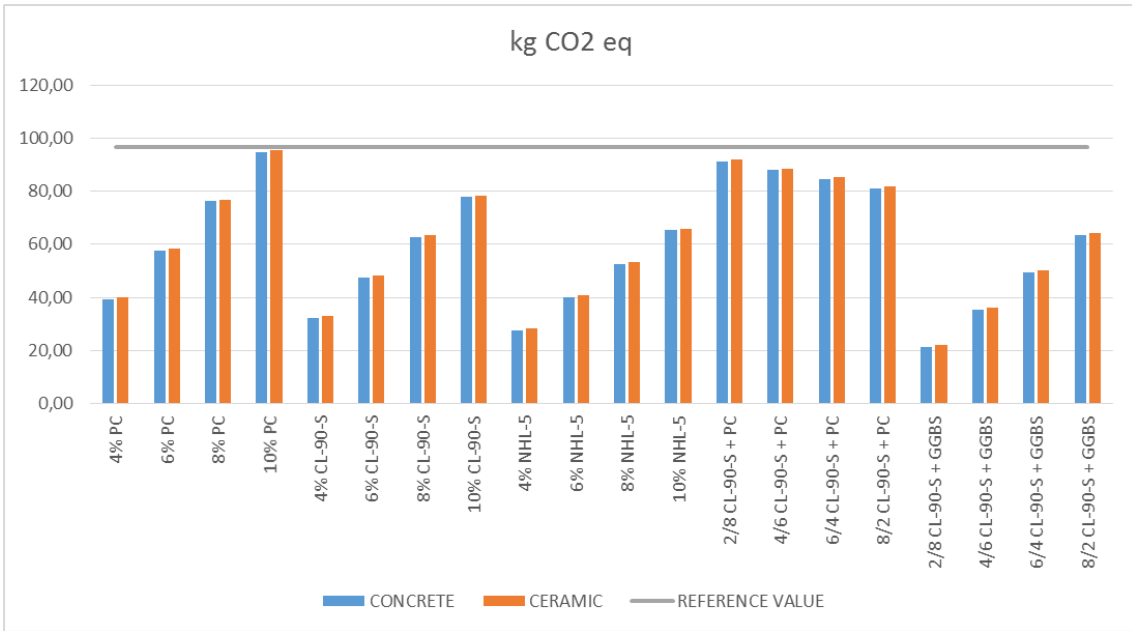


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606 FIGURE 8. Environmental impact of the production of each unfired brick combinations

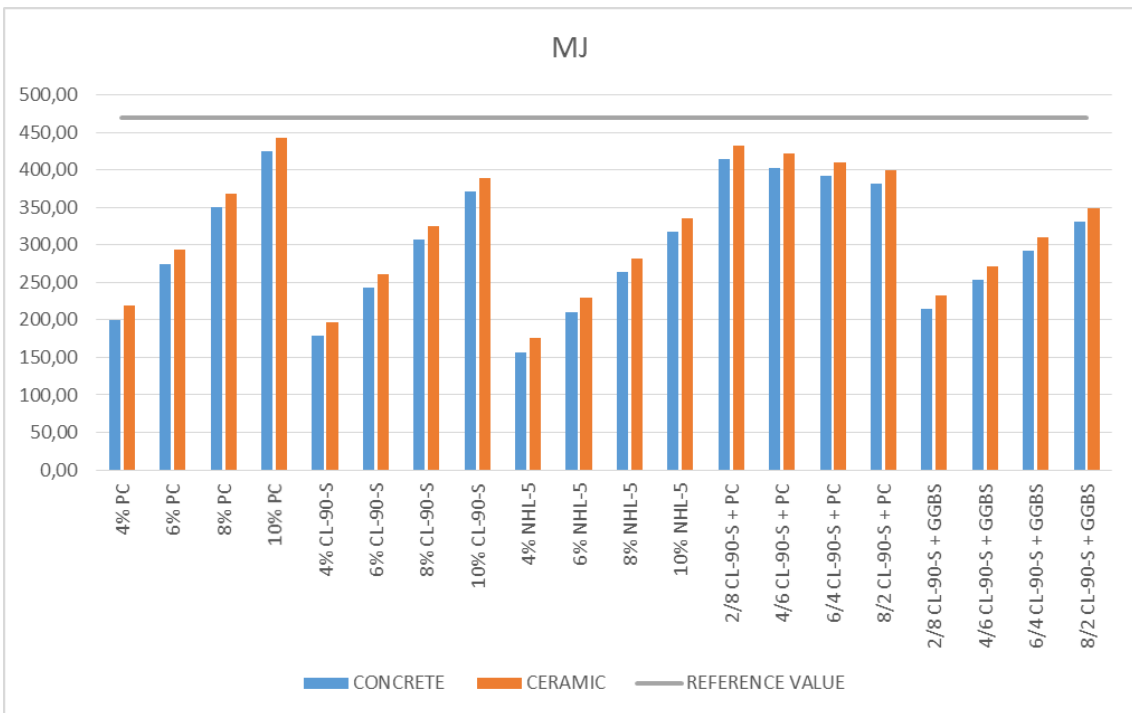
607 based on a) Total embodied energy and b) Total CO₂ emissions.



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a)



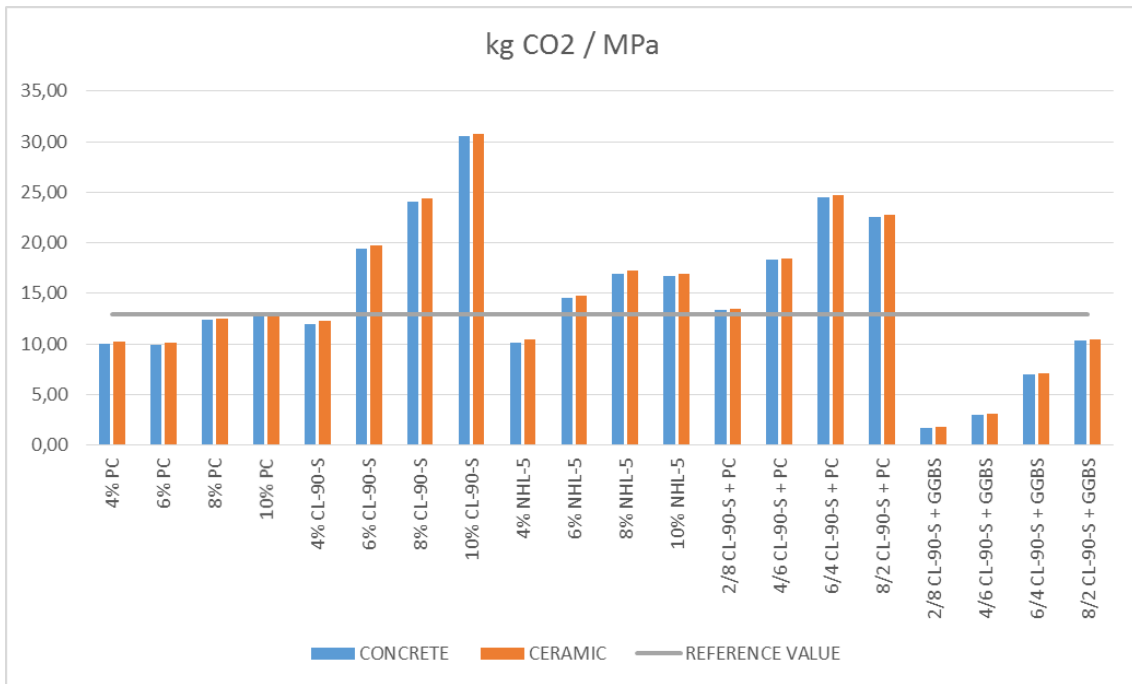
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612 FIGURE 9. Environmental impact of the production of each unfired brick combinations
 613 based on a) Relative embodied energy and b) Relative CO₂ emissions.

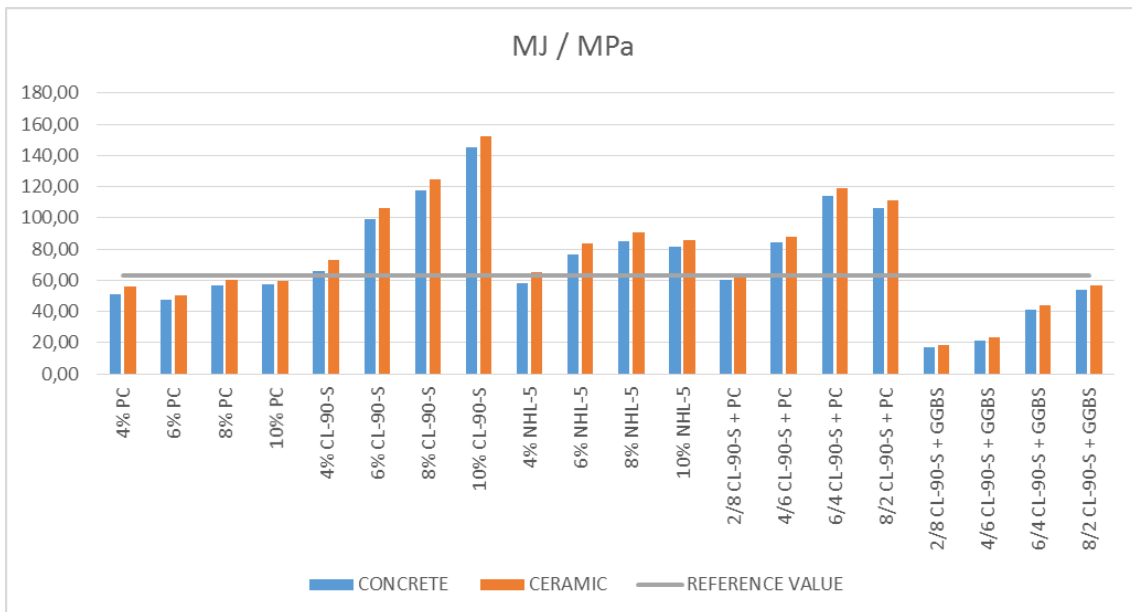
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a)



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b)

619 **TABLES**

620 Table 1. Characterization of the marl soil, brick and concrete fine fractions.

FRX ANALYSIS			
OXIDES	CONCENTRATION (%)		
	MARL SOIL	BRICKS FINE FRACTION	CONCRETE FINE FRACTION

Na ₂ O	0.36	0.77	0.20
MgO	2.06	4.15	1.26
Al ₂ O ₃	11.30	17.64	7.07
SiO ₂	30.78	39.05	20.57
P ₂ O ₅	0.12	0.18	0.13
SO ₃	0.00	0.30	11.36
K ₂ O	1.96	3.56	0.92
CaO	36.64	17.10	42.23
TiO ₂	0.53	0.64	0.36
Cr ₂ O ₃	0.03	0.03	-
MnO	3.43	0.09	0.04
Fe ₂ O ₃	0.01	5.98	2.47
Rb ₂ O	0.13	0.01	0.01
SrO	1.96	0.02	0.11
ZnO	-	0.013	0.02
ZrO ₂	0.029	0.03	0.02
BaO	0.06	0.09	0.06
Cl	-	0.02	0.03
DRX MINERALOGY			
	MARL SOIL	BRICKS FINE FRACTION	CONCRETE FINE FRACTION
	Calcite	Quartz	Caolinite
	Illite	Calcite	Calcite
	Quartz	Muscovite	Quartz
	Caolinite	Dolomite	Gypsum
	Attapulgate	Clorite	Muscovite
	Ankerite	Gypsum	
Embodied CO ₂ (kg CO ₂ /Tonne)	4	-	-
Embodied energy (MJ/Tonne)	100	-	-

622 TABLE 2. XRF obtained additives composition expressed as main oxides and embodied CO₂
 623 and energy.

OXIDES (%)	CEM I	NHL-5	CL-90-S	GGBS
SiO ₂	25	12	-	38
CaO	65	-	-	37
Ca(OH) ₂	-	53	95	-
Fe ₂ O ₃	0.5	-	-	0.5
Al ₂ O ₃	3	10	-	12
SO ₃	4	-	-	0.2
MgO	1	-	-	10
Embodied CO ₂ (kg CO ₂ /Tonne)	930	635	760	52
Embodied energy (MJ/Tonne)	3,800	2,721	3,256	1,300

624

625 TABLE 3. Additives and binders based on their combinations and dosages tested.

COMBINATION	BINDER	PC (%)	CL-90-S (%)	NHL-5 (%)	GGBS (%)
1	PC	4	-	-	-
2		6	-	-	-
3		8	-	-	-
4		10	-	-	-
5	CL-90-S	-	4	-	-
6		-	6	-	-
7		-	8	-	-
8		-	10	-	-
9	NHL-5	-	-	4	-
10		-	-	6	-
11		-	-	8	-
12		-	-	10	-
13	CL-90-S+PC	8	2	-	-
14		6	4	-	-
15		4	6	-	-
16		2	8	-	-
17	CL-90-S+GGBS	-	2	-	8
18		-	4	-	6
19		-	6	-	4
20		-	8	-	2

626