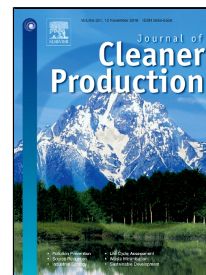


# Accepted Manuscript

Experimental and numerical study of flexural behavior of novel oil palm concrete filled steel tube exposed to elevated temperature



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**Title:** Experimental and numerical study of flexural behavior of novel oil palm concrete filled steel tube exposed to elevated temperature

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1 Experimental and numerical study of flexural behavior of novel oil palm concrete  
2 filled steel tube exposed to elevated temperature

3 **Abstract**

4 Oil palm boiler clinker (OPB) is a waste byproduct obtained at elevated temperature in an oil palm  
5 processing mill. Moreover, in recent years, Concrete filled steel tube (CFST) has been used widely  
6 in structures throughout the world. This paper presents an experimental and numerical study on  
7 novel sustainable composite beam by using OPB as replacement of natural coarse aggregate in  
8 CFSTs. Steel hollow beams (3.2m length) infilled with natural aggregate concrete and OPB  
9 concrete were subjected to flexural load and elevated temperature. The parameters selected for the  
10 experimental tests were the cross-section type (square, rectangular) and the infilling type (natural  
11 aggregate concrete and OPB concrete). The thermal response, failure modes, critical temperature,  
12 temperature distribution in steel tube and infilled concrete, deflection along the span and fire  
13 concrete contribution ratio were evaluated. The critical temperature and fire concrete contribution  
14 ratio of OPB CFST was found to be higher than natural aggregate CFST, showing superior  
15 performance of OPB CFST. Thereafter, simulations were performed and more than 50 models  
16 were analyzed to evaluate the effect of yield strength of steel (235-400 MPa), compressive strength  
17 of infilled concrete (30-75 MPa), load ratio (0.3-0.6), width-to-depth ratio (2-0.5) and steel ratio  
18 (4.4%-2.1%) on the fire resistance time of CFST beam. It was found that the increase in load ratio,  
19 steel ratio and yield strength of steel has adverse effected on the fire resistance (FR) time of CFST  
20 member. However, the FR time increased significantly with an increase in compressive strength  
21 of infilled concrete and cross-sectional dimension of CFST member. Finally, the experimental  
22 results were compared with existing equations for CFST columns filled with natural aggregate  
23 concrete. It was found that current equations may underestimate the fire resistance of CFST filled  
24 with OPB.

25 **1. Introduction**

26 Malaysia palm oil industry is the world's 2<sup>nd</sup> largest palm oil industry, with an annual production  
27 of 19.67 million metric tons of crude palm oil (Ibrahim et al., 2017). Despite producing valuable  
28 products, the palm oil industry also generates agricultural wastes (biomass). From the consumption  
29 of large amount of natural resources (forest land and water) (Javed et al., 2018; Musikavong and  
30 Gheewala, 2017a, b; Suttayakul et al., 2016) during cultivation, to the production of huge amount  
31 of environmental pollutants during processing, palm oil industry is severe threat to the  
32 environment. The pollutant produced from oil palm industry contributes to global warming,  
33 eutrophication, acidification and air pollution (Bessou et al., 2014; Saswattacha et al., 2015).  
34 That's why, oil palm industry is well known in many countries for its harmful environmental  
35 impacts. In Malaysia, 80 million dry solid biomass waste was yielded in 2010 only and is expected  
36 to reach up to 110 million by 2020 from palm oil industry only (Malaysia, 2011; Ng et al., 2012).  
37 Various types of solid wastes like palm fiber, oil palm shell, oil palm boiler clinker and empty fruit

38 branches are produced at the end of palm oil processing stages. Oil-palm-boiler clinker (OPB) is  
39 a waste material obtained by burning off solid wastes at elevated temperature of 850°C during the  
40 process of palm oil extraction (Aslam et al., 2016b; Jumaat et al., 2015). OPB usually has no  
41 economic value and are abundantly available (Hartono et al., 2016; Shafiqh et al., 2014). Most of  
42 the OPB is used for covering the potholes on the roads within the vicinity of the plantation areas,  
43 which affect the environment directly (Kanadasan and Abdul Razak, 2015).

44 The construction industry in Malaysia is developing very rapidly and progressively to support the  
45 country's economy (Karim et al., 2018; Rehman et al., 2017). By utilizing the agricultural waste  
46 in the construction industry will be a smart choice as it will reduce the harm caused by agricultural  
47 and construction industries to the environment. Besides, sustaining green environment by utilizing  
48 the waste materials, OPB has lower density and can be used in the construction industry to produce  
49 lightweight concrete. Full aggregate substitution with OPB has been shown to reduce 30% of  
50 manufacturing cost and 22.62% reduction in carbon dioxide emission, with comparable structural  
51 efficiency (strength-to-weight ratio) to conventional mix concrete (Kanadasan and Razak, 2015).  
52 Hence, using the OPB as coarse aggregate in concrete instead of natural aggregate would be  
53 efficacious in terms of cost and sustainability of a structure. Moreover, for the same  
54 aggregate/cement and water/binder ratio, the OPB concrete has shown less compressive strength,  
55 modulus of elasticity and tensile strength by 30%, 20-25% and 16-32%, respectively when  
56 compared to conventional concrete (Aslam et al., 2016a, b). However, the durability and long term  
57 performance of OPB concrete is similar to conventional concrete (Mo et al., 2016; Rehman et al.,  
58 2016; Teo et al., 2007).

59 Concrete filled steel tubes combine the action of steel and concrete when resisting axial forces and  
60 bending moments, thus showing a superior structural performance. While the steel tube confines  
61 the infilled concrete thereby improving its compressive strength, the later extends the local  
62 buckling of steel tube. The confinement of concrete by the outer tube depends on the type of  
63 infilled concrete, size of member, yield strength of steel and type of material used as outer steel  
64 tube (Dong et al., 2015; Kashif Ur Rehman et al., 2018; Kwan et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2016). It  
65 is known that the fire resistance (FR) of CFST members is better than that of hollow steel tubular  
66 columns (Liu et al., 2018; Ukanwa et al., 2018; Ukanwa et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2018). In fact most  
67 of the times, the external protection is not needed for residential buildings, where CFST members  
68 are used (Romero et al., 2011; Wang, 2014). Wang and Kodur suggested to use CFST columns in  
69 order to reduce the cost of fire protection (Wang and Kodur, 2000). Hence, the use of CFST  
70 members has increased and became popular over the last years. The use of concrete made with  
71 other than natural/normal aggregates (waste aggregates, recycled aggregates, lightweight  
72 aggregates) as infilling in CFST members is very popular amongst designers and has recently  
73 became a good alternative to Natural Aggregate Concrete (NAC) (Fu et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017;  
74 Silva et al., 2016). Among such types, the lightweight waste aggregate concrete has attracted a  
75 considerable attention due to its higher strength to weight ratio compared to the NAC. In addition,  
76 the high demand of NAC has significantly reduced the natural stone deposits and caused an

77 immense damage to the environment. At room temperature, OPB CFST (OCFST) columns show  
78 higher load-bearing capacity than traditional NAC filled steel tube (NCFST) (Hamidian et al.,  
79 2016). Hence, the benefits of using OCFST are higher for members subjected to flexural loading  
80 or for members with low D/t ratio, but, in general, the use of OCFST members is in vogue due to  
81 the enhancement of ductility in comparison with common reinforced concrete columns (Aslam et  
82 al., 2016b, 2017; Aslam et al., 2016c).

83 It is well known that OPBC behaves in a different and better way than NAC at elevated  
84 temperature, yet its performance is not completely known in case of confinement (Jumaat et al.,  
85 2015; Mohammadhosseini and Yatim, 2017). As lightweight aggregate concrete is more  
86 vulnerable to fire, therefore, it is necessary to evaluate the use of OPBC as infilled material in  
87 CFST. Despite the availability of numerous literatures on fire tests of steel columns filled with  
88 normal concrete, it is rare to find test results, which account for lightweight aggregate in CFST.  
89 Few studies can be found on the performance of different types of concrete filled in steel tube at  
90 ambient temperature (Chen et al., 2016; Silva et al., 2016). However, to date, no experimental and  
91 numerical study has evaluated the flexural behavior of lightweight concrete filled steel tube  
92 exposed to elevated temperature. Hence, in this paper, the results of an experimental program to  
93 evaluate the flexural behavior of novel oil palm CFST members subjected to elevated temperature  
94 are presented. The hollow steel tubes were filled with two different types of concrete namely NAC  
95 and OPBC. The thermal response, failure modes, critical temperature, temperature distribution in  
96 steel tube and infilled concrete, deflection along the span and fire concrete contribution ratio were  
97 evaluated. A new parameter i.e. fire concrete contribution ratio (FCCR) recently proposed by  
98 Romero et al. (2011) to enumerate the significance concrete infilling in steel sections subjected to  
99 elevated temperatures, was used to compare the effect of OPBS and NAC as infilled material.  
100 Thereafter, parametric study was conducted to evaluate the effect of different parameters (yield  
101 strength of steel, compressive strength of infilled concrete, load ratio, width-to depth ratio and  
102 steel ratio) on the FR time of CFST member. Finally, the experimental results were compared with  
103 existing equations available in literature for CFST columns filled with natural aggregate concrete.

## 104 **2. Experimental Tests**

### 105 **2.1. Heating Arrangements/Setup**

106 The elevated temperature experimental tests on square and rectangular CFST members were  
107 conducted at the Heavy Structures Laboratory of the University of Malaya, in Malaysia. Figure 1  
108 shows different parts of the experimental test setup used in the elevated temperature tests of CFST  
109 beams. The setup consists of one vertical frame (1) and two horizontal “A frames” (2). The vertical  
110 2D frame consists of 4.5m long beam. An ENERPAC hydraulic jack of 150 KN capacity in  
111 compression (3) was installed on the vertical 2D frame (1) and controlled by a hydraulic central  
112 unit (4). A load cell of 100KN (6) capacity was placed to monitor the applied load during the test.  
113 Beneath the load cell, a stub column (5) was placed to prevent the exposure of hydraulic actuator

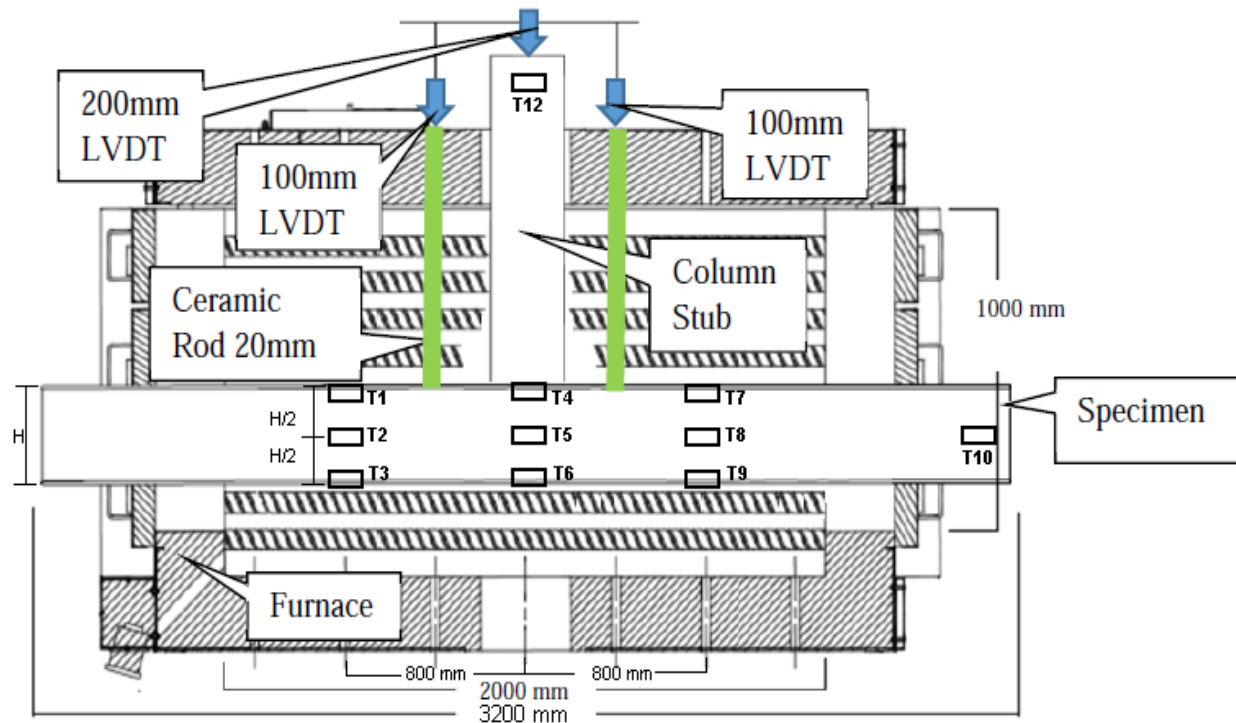
114 to elevated temperature and to transfer the load from hydraulic actuator to the beam specimen. The  
115 specimen was placed inside the furnace and was supported by two small beams attached to  
116 horizontal A-frames, thus simulating simply-supported boundary conditions. For specimen  
117 heating, a horizontal electric furnace capable of replicating the ISO-834 fire curve (ISO 834:, 1999)  
118 was used. The dimensions of the internal chamber of the furnace were 2000mm (L) x 1000mm  
119 (W) x1000mm (H) while the length of specimen beam exposed to elevated temperature was 2  
120 meters as shown in Figure 2. The experimental program consisted of 4 fire resistance tests, 2 of  
121 which were performed on NAC filled CFST (NCFST) while the remaining 2 were performed on  
122 OPBC filled CFST (OCFST). Both NCFST and OCFST samples were further demarcated as  
123 square and rectangular cross-section. The details of experimental program are summarized in  
124 Table 1. For all specimens, the steel ratio was kept constant while the nominal load ratio ( $n$ ) was  
125 kept as 0.30. All specimens were labeled so that the types of beams could easily be identified. As  
126 an example, the sample ROCFST indicates a FR test on a rectangular OCFST beam.



127

128

Figure 1 General view of the experimental test setup



129

130

Figure 2 Location of thermocouples and side view of experimental setup

131

Table 1 Dimensions of tested specimens

Specimen Name	Height, H (mm)	Width, B (mm)	Thickness, t (mm)	Load Ratio, n	Cross-Sectional shape	Type of concrete
ROCFST	200.2	100.1	5.99	0.3	Rectangular	OPBC
RNCFST	200.4	100.1	6.01	0.3	Rectangular	Normal
SOCFST	150.8	150.8	5.99	0.3	Square	OPBC
SNCFST	150.7	149.9	5.99	0.3	Square	Normal

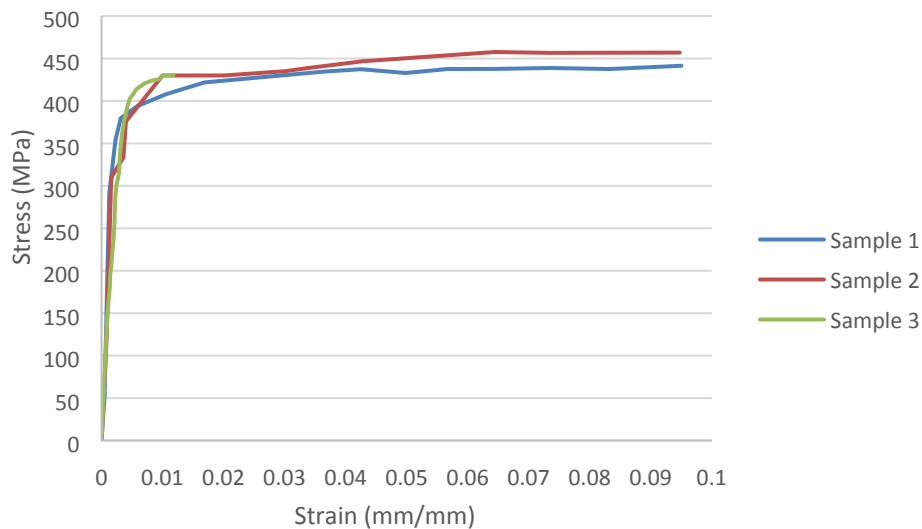
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133 We would like to mention here that the length and the cross-sectional dimensions of steel selected  
 134 for the experimental and parametric study are based on their availability in the market and  
 135 recommendations of International code (LRFD, 1994). Various researchers have also used these  
 136 dimensions in their experimental investigations. For example, in references (Jiang et al., 2013) the  
 137 researchers used BxD as 150 × 150 and 100 x 200 with a length of 2000 mm. Also, the available  
 138 experimental facilities and the testing setup were kept in mind while selecting the dimensions of  
 139 the specimens.

## 140 2.2. Specimen fabrication

### 141 2.2.1. Steel

142 The steel tubes in all specimens were cold formed from steel plates by press bending and seam  
 143 welding. The tubes were provided from a 12m length of hollow steel tube. Tensile tests were  
 144 performed on steel coupons obtained from the original tubes. The 0.2% proof stress was adopted  
 145 as recommended in literature for cold formed steel tubes (Yang and Han, 2006). The stress-strain  
 146 curves for three coupon tests are shown in Figure 3. The measured yield strength, ultimate strength,  
 147 elastic modulus and maximum elongation were found to be 394 MPa, 458 MPa, 201.3 GPa and  
 148 29%, respectively.



149

150 Figure 3 Stress-strain curves for tensile coupon tests

150

### 151 2.2.2. Concrete

152 Both NAC and OPBC (of Grade 50) were prepared in pan mixer. The steel tubes were then filled  
 153 with concrete. A poker vibrator was used to vibrate and to remove entrapped air voids in concrete.  
 154 The details of mix proportions are summarized in Table 2. The compressive strength of concrete  
 155 was determined by testing 100 mm concrete cubes while the elastic modulus and stress-strain  
 156 behavior of concrete was determined at 28 days by testing concrete cylinders having size of  
 157 150mm x 300mm. ISO 12570:2000 (ISO 12570:, 2000) was used to calculate the moisture content  
 158 of concrete. The results of measured compressive strengths and elastic moduli of both types of  
 159 concrete are presented in Table 3. It is important to mention here that although, these two concretes  
 160 have similar compressive strength, but they have very different stress-strain behavior in  
 161 compression as reported by numerous researchers (ACI Committee 318, 2015; Mustapa and  
 162 Sulong, 2017; Nayaka et al., 2018).

163

Table 2 Mix proportions of NMC and OPBC concrete



Mix Type	Cement (Kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	w/c	SP (%)	Granite CA (kg)	OPBC* (kg)	Sand (kg)	Slump (mm)
NMC	440	0.40	1.5	980	--	855	100
OPBC concrete	550	0.35	2	--	980	648	110

164 \*OPBC aggregate was used in saturated surface dry condition in concrete

165

166

Table 3 Strength and Modulus of Elasticity at 28 days and time of testing

Type of Concrete Mix	F <sup>'</sup> c at 28 days (MPa)	Ec at 28 Days (MPa)	Density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )
NMC	52	31.2	2398
OPBC	51.2	32	2019

### 167 2.3. Measuring points arrangement

168 To obtain the temperature distribution along the length of each specimen, 10 type-K thermocouples  
 169 were installed on steel tube as shown in Figure 2 while one thermocouple was embedded at the  
 170 mid-height of concrete to measure the temperature of infilled concrete (T11). In order to measure  
 171 the temperature of the furnace, 4 type-K thermocouples (T13-T16) were embedded at different  
 172 locations in the furnace. The thermocouples readings were recorded with the help of the assembly  
 173 attached to the furnace. Three Linear Variable Differential Transformers (LVDTs) were placed on  
 174 the top-side of specimen to measure the deformation of the specimen under elevated temperature.  
 175 The detailed arrangement of thermocouples and displacement transducers is shown in Figure 2. A  
 176 TDS-530 data logger was used to record the readings from load cell and LVDTs at every second.

### 177 2.4. Test Plan

178 The elevated temperature tests were conducted under transient state heating conditions to replicate  
 179 the real-life scenarios. In transient state test, the sample is loaded to some stress level by applying  
 180 load statically. Thereafter, the temperature is increased gradually by using different standard fire  
 181 time-temperature curves recommended by various testing methods, until failure point (Javed, M.F.  
 182 et al., 2017a).

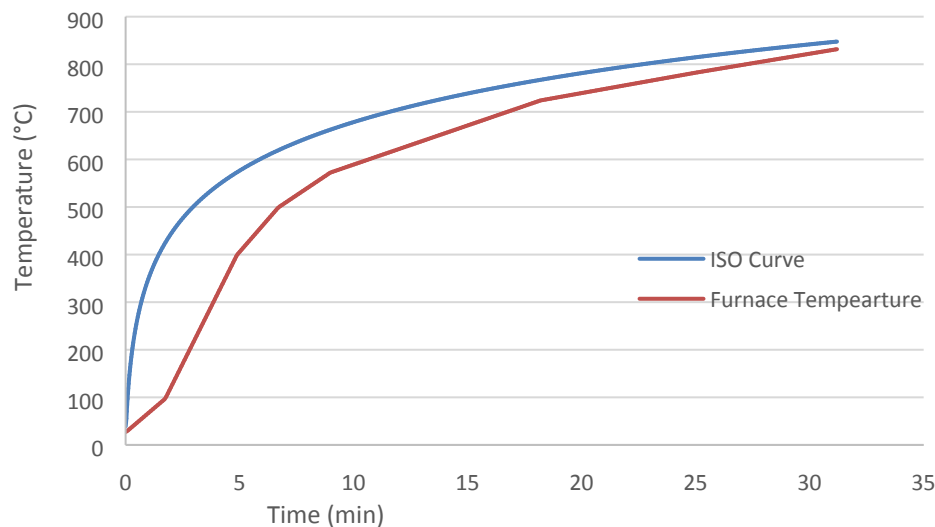
183 The experimental test comprised of two basic stages; loading stage and heating stage. For the  
 184 loading stage, the applied load ratio was selected as 30% of the design value at room temperature  
 185 because it replicates the common serviceability load of a CFST flexural member of real building  
 186 structures (Rodrigues and Laim, 2017; Rodrigues and Laím, 2017). The design value was  
 187 calculated using Chinese code (GB50936, 2014). During the loading stage, the flexural load was  
 188 applied to the specimens 30 min. before igniting the furnace. The specimen was loaded gradually  
 189 at a rate of 2.5mm/min. When the load reached the desired level, it was maintained for a period of  
 190 2 minutes. During the second stage, the furnace was ignited, and the beam was exposed to elevated  
 191 temperature such that, the average temperature of the furnace corroborated the ISO 834 fire curve  
 192 closely. It is noteworthy that the room temperature was 27°C at the time of igniting the furnace.

### 193 3. Test Results and Discussion

#### 194 3.1. Thermal response

##### 195 3.1.1. Furnace Temperature vs ISO-834 curve

196 The comparison of the average temperature of the furnace (T13-T16) and ISO-834 curve is shown  
 197 in Figure 4. The furnace temperature is lower than ISO-834 curve at the start of the test. This kind  
 198 of delay is common in electric furnace and has been reported by several researchers (Craveiro et  
 199 al., 2016; Romero et al., 2011). The amount of delay is directly related to size of furnace (Albero  
 200 et al., 2016; Espinos et al., 2013; Ibañez et al., 2016; Wan et al., 2017). At 15 minutes, the  
 201 difference ranged between 10% and 20%. Similar difference was reported at 15 minutes by  
 202 different researchers and is deemed acceptable (Laím et al., 2016; Rodrigues and Laim, 2017;  
 203 Rodrigues and Laím, 2017). The reason for evaluating the difference at 15 minutes is associated  
 204 with the fact that complete furnace is heated properly and the effect of type of furnace and heating  
 205 media is uninvolved (Huo et al., 2015; Sauca et al., 2016). Furthermore, the temperature of the  
 206 furnace is similar for different size and shape of specimen.

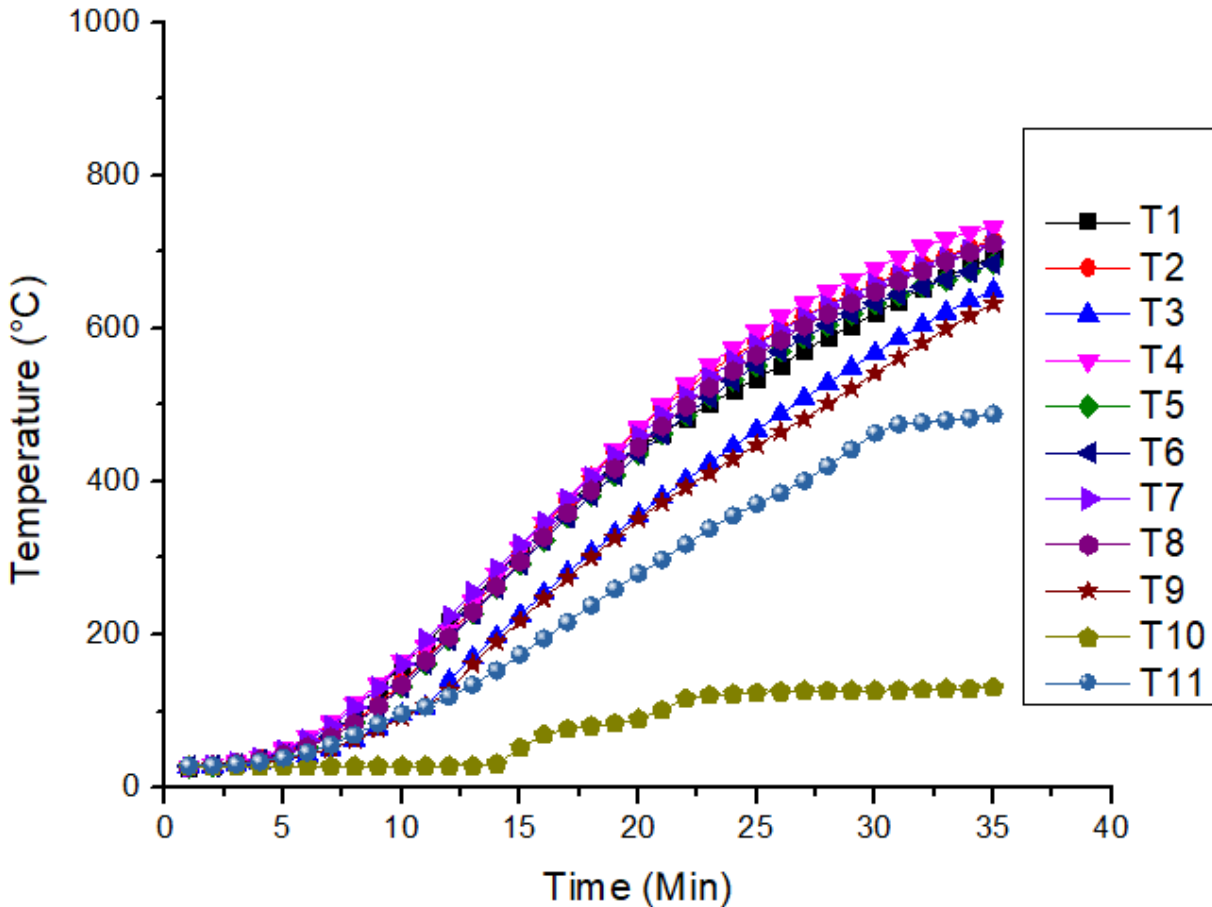


207

208 Figure 4 ISO-834 and furnace temperature throughout the test

##### 209 3.1.2. General response of tested specimen

210 The evolution of temperature in one of the tested specimen, SNCFST can be observed in Figure 5.  
 211 The temperature measured by the thermocouples installed on the outer steel tube (T1-T9) lie close  
 212 to each other while the temperature measured by thermocouple installed at concrete core (T11) is  
 213 significantly lower than outer steel temperature. T10, installed closer to the support of the beam  
 214 and being outside the furnace, registered the lowest temperature in beginning of the test and  
 215 reached maximum value of 130°C and then stopped till end of the test. The thermal response of  
 216 the rest of the specimens was similar except that the infilled concrete observes lower temperature  
 217 in OCFST.



218

219

Figure 5 Temperature distribution in SNCFST

### 220 3.1.3. Effect of type of infilled concrete

221 Figure 6 shows the comparison of temperature of infilled concrete of all four specimens. At 30  
 222 min, the temperature of the concrete in OCFST is almost 100°C less than NCFST. The better  
 223 performance of OCFST is due to the porous nature and low thermal conductivity of OPBC  
 224 aggregate. Moreover, OPBC is prepared at a high temperature (850°C). The results obtained are  
 225 in line with available literature (Jumaat et al., 2015), where they showed that for the same duration  
 226 of exposure to fire, the temperature of OPBC is less than NAC. Figure 7 shows the comparison of  
 227 outer steel tube temperature of SNCFST and SOCFST. At 30 minutes, the temperature of steel  
 228 tube of OCFST is 50°C lower than steel temperature of NCFST. Thus, based on the temperature  
 229 of steel tube and infilled concrete temperature, it can be concluded that OCFST performs better  
 230 than NCFST at elevated temperature.

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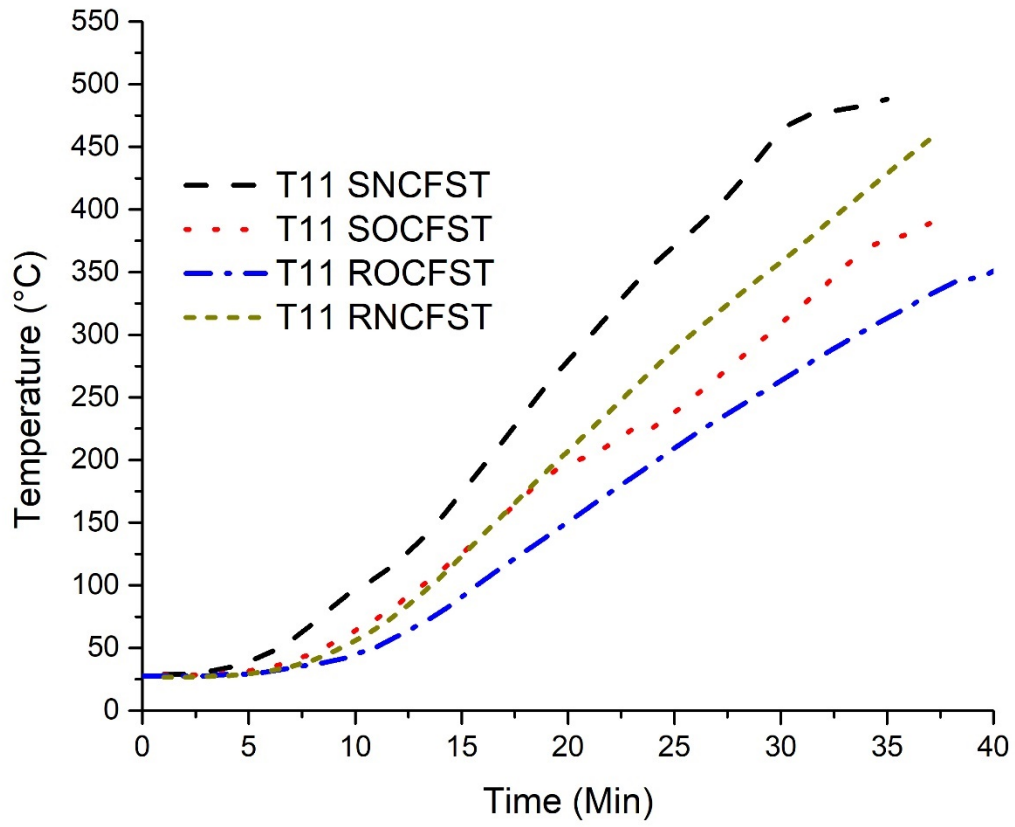
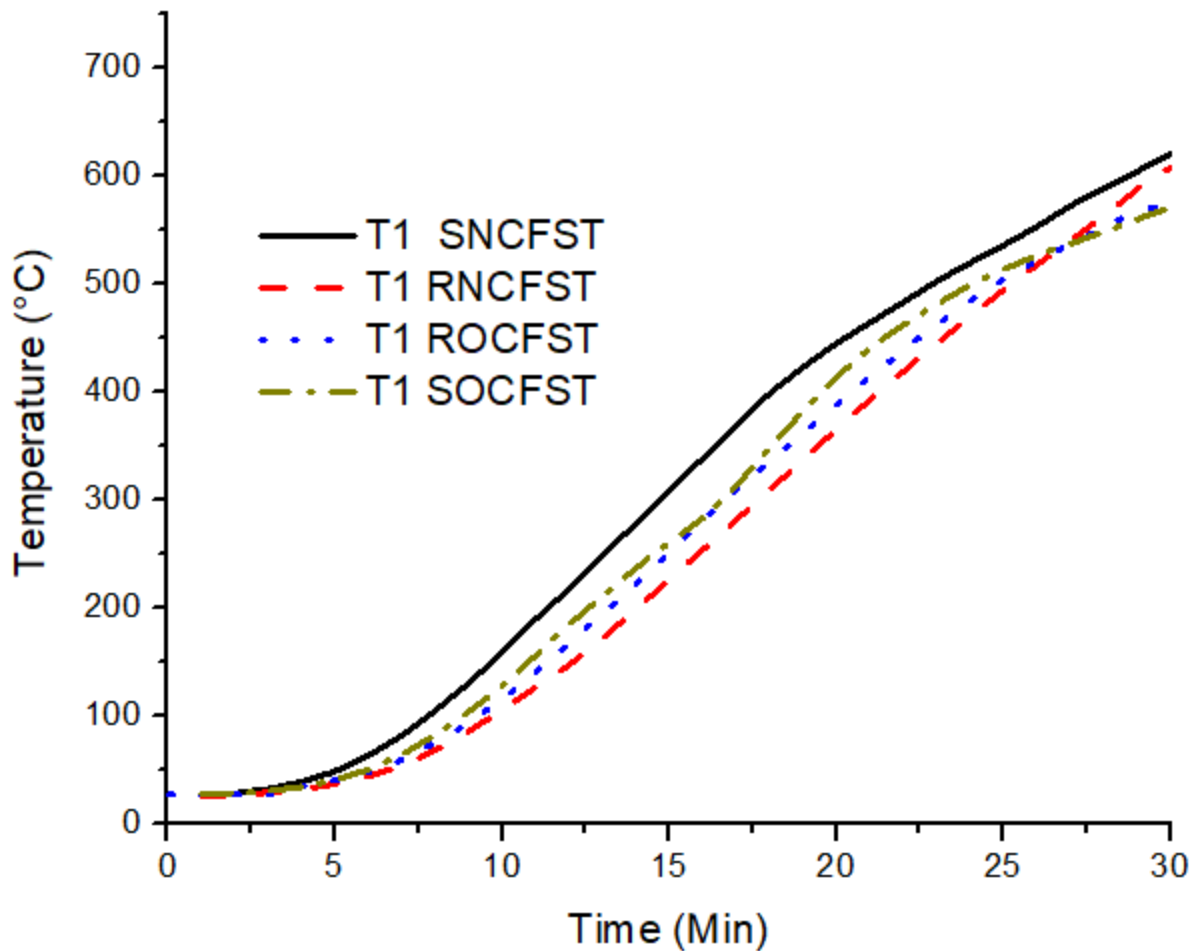
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Figure 6 Temperature of infilled concrete of all specimens



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235

Figure 7 Temperature of steel tube of all the specimens

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#### 3.1.4. Effect of Cross-sectional shape

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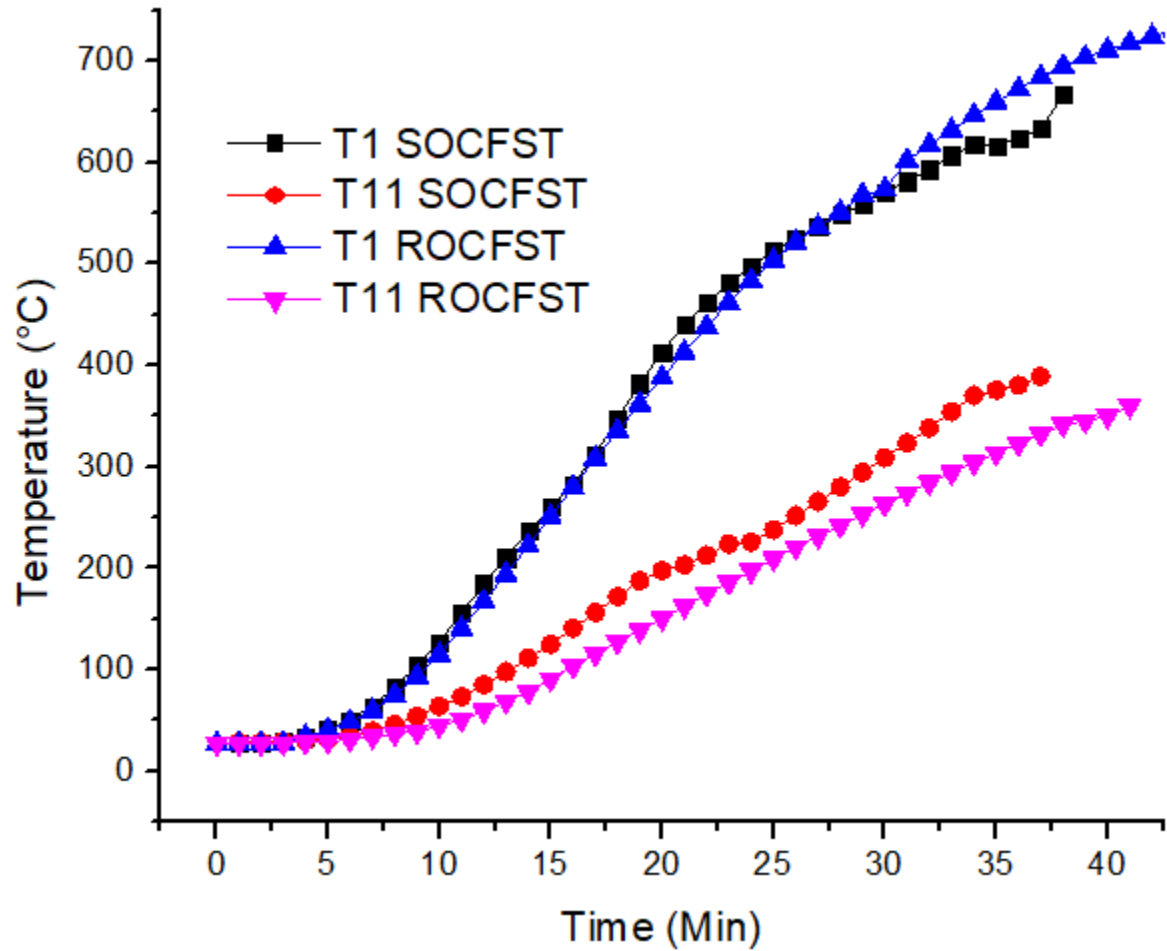
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Figure 8 shows the comparison of temperature evaluation in steel tube and infilled concrete for SOCFST and ROCFSST. The rate of rise of temperature in steel is same for both square and rectangular beams whereas the rate of rise of temperature of infilled concrete in square CFST is higher than rectangular CFST. The reason for this may be the availability of larger amount of area at the end of the tube for square CFST (12% larger) than rectangular CFST, which in turn, resulted in the escape of moisture.

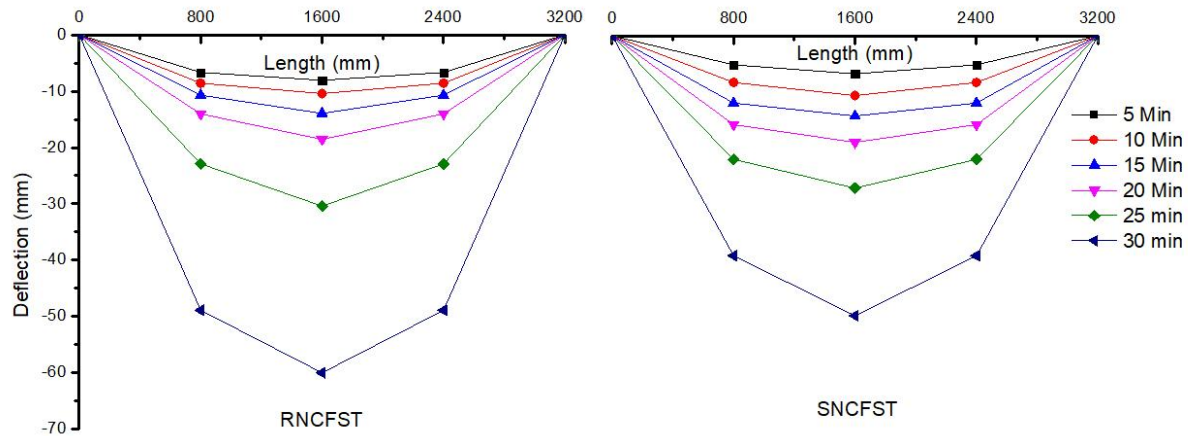


243

244 Figure 8 Comparison between the temperature of infilled concrete and steel tube of SOCFST  
 245 and ROCFST

### 246 3.2. Failure modes

247 Figure 9 shows the displacements of square and rectangular NCFST members at different time  
 248 duration of the test. As the beam boundary and loading conditions were symmetrical, the  
 249 deformation of the specimens was also observed to be symmetrical. The displacement increased  
 250 rapidly with the increase in temperature of the member for constant load level especially between  
 251 25 min to 30 min. This rapid increase is due to the yielding of steel. The results of the tests  
 252 performed in this study are presented in Figure 9. At any time interval, the deflection in rectangular  
 253 cross-section is less than the square cross-section. The reason for the better performance of  
 254 rectangular cross-section is its higher moment of inertia as compared to square cross-section. It is  
 255 important to mention that although the load ratio for all the specimens was kept constant i.e., 0.3,  
 256 the amount of load applied on rectangular cross-sections is greater than the load applied on square  
 257 cross-section as shown in Table 4.

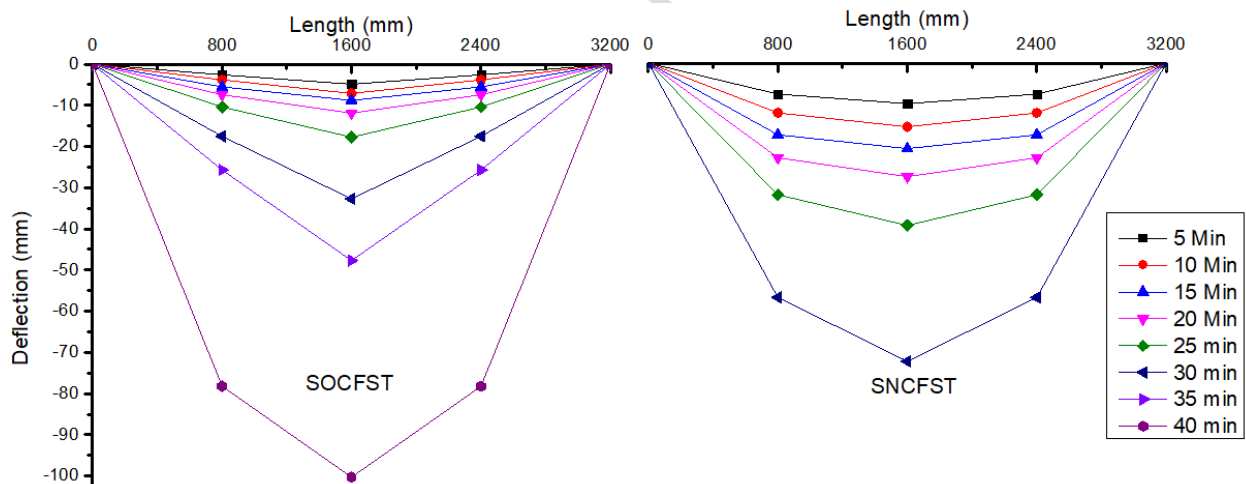


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259 Figure 9 Deflection of RNCFST and SNCFST beam at different time intervals

260 Figure 10 shows the deflection of different points in SOCFST and SNCFST at different time  
 261 interval. At any instance of time, the deflection in SNCFST is much higher than SOCFST showing  
 262 the superior structural behavior of SOCFST. As mentioned before, this is due to the low  
 263 temperature of infilled concrete causing the slower loss of strength due to elevated temperature.  
 264 For constant load level, the displacement increases rapidly with an increase in temperature of the  
 265 member especially between the last 5 minutes of the test due to the yielding of steel.

266



267

268 Figure 10 Deflection of SOCFST and SNCFST beam at different time intervals

269 The typical failure mode observed for all the specimens was global buckling. Figure 11 shows  
 270 RNCFST and ROCFST after failure. The absence of local buckling shows that the hollow steel  
 271 tubes were properly filled with concrete. No tensile fracture was observed on the tension flange.  
 272 The evolution of mid-span deflection versus the fire exposure time was determined during the fire  
 273 tests and is presented in Figure 12. The failure pattern showed ductile behavior, which is attributed

274 to the ductility and shear contribution of outer steel tube. Specimens retained their integrity after  
275 testing. These observations are strong evidence pointing towards the interaction of the concrete  
276 and steel in the CFST beams during the whole process of fire exposure. It must be noticed that due  
277 to flexural load and combined with low tensile strength of concrete, there is no plateau in these  
278 curves. The plateau in deflection versus time is commonly observed in CFST columns with high  
279 slenderness and is due to the contribution of infilled concrete (Moliner et al., 2013; Romero et al.,  
280 2011). It is important to mention at this point that majority of CFST columns when exposed to fire  
281 failed due to crushing of concrete while in this case the failure was due to the yielding of outer  
282 steel tube. According to available literature (Rush et al., 2011), the mode of failure of CFST  
283 members depends on many factors including slenderness ratio, applied load, type of load, load  
284 ratio and type of support conditions. It can be concluded that the structural response of square and  
285 rectangular beams is similar throughout the test until failure. The slope of time-deflection curve  
286 shows the initial flexural stiffness of member. It can be concluded that the SOCFST performs  
287 better than SNCFST at elevated temperature. Similarly, rectangular cross-sections perform better  
288 than square cross-sections for members subjected to flexural loads.

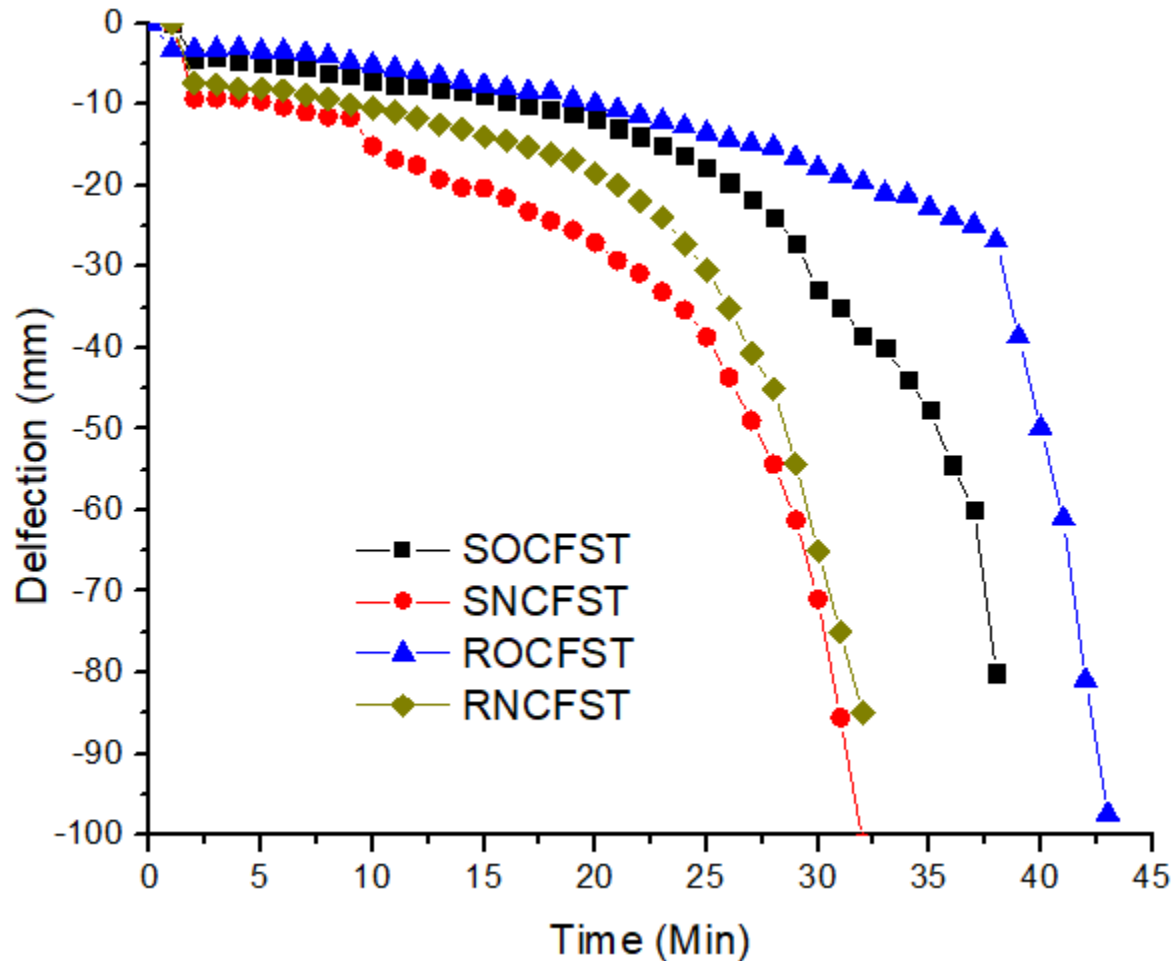


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290

Figure 11 Failure modes of RNCFST and ROCFST





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292

Figure 12 Mid-span deflection vs time of all specimens

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### 3.3. Critical Temperature/ Limiting Temperature

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The temperature corresponds to the deflection  $L/50$  is taken as the critical temperature of the specimen. The definition of critical temperature is used to ease the evaluation of the fire performance of steel members (de Normalisation, 1994; Franssen and Real, 2016; Tubes). This definition may also be used into the evaluation of the fire performance of CFST members. Table 4 shows the critical temperature measured at the middle (average of T5, T6 and T7) of the specimen. It is evident that the higher value of limiting temperature shows its tendency for higher fire resistance and towards the fact that the limiting temperature can reflect the fire behavior and resistance of the test specimens. The critical temperature of OCFST is 30°C more than NCFST for both square and rectangular cross-sections. Thus, it can be concluded that the type of infilled concrete affects the rate of heating and critical temperature of the CFST. This finding is not in line with the conclusions drawn by (Lu et al., 2009; Moliner et al., 2013), who found that the critical temperature of CFST columns was not affected by the type of infilled concrete. The difference in results is due to the lower slenderness of the specimens tested in this experimental program while

307 the slenderness of the specimens available in literature (Lu et al., 2009; Moliner et al., 2013) was  
 308 more, therefore making it impossible to gain advantage of the type of infilled concrete.

309 The prediction using the limiting temperature method for FR of CFST specimens is more  
 310 complicated than that for the steel ones because of the non-uniform thermal distribution of the  
 311 cross-section induced by the infilled concrete core (Yang et al., 2013). The critical temperature  
 312 obtained from the experimental tests is also compared with the values obtained by equation 1.  
 313 Equation 1 is given in EC3 for the calculation of critical temperature of CFST columns resisting  
 314 some percent of design axial load.

$$315 \quad T_{cr} = 39.19 \ln\left(\frac{1}{0.9674\mu^{3.833}} - 1\right) + 482 \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

316 Where  $\mu$  is the load ratio and  $T_{cr}$  in °C is the critical temperature of the specimen exposed to  
 317 standard fire.

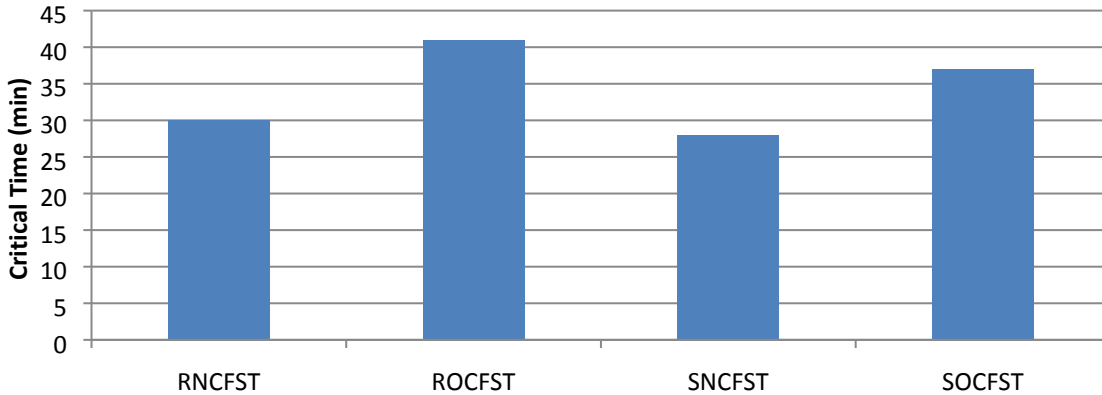
318 Table 4 Critical temperature of the tested specimens

Specimen	Applied Load, KN	Load Ratio, Hollow	$T_{cr}$ Experimental, °C	$T_{cr}$ code hollow, °C	$T_{cr}$ code, °C
ROCFST	38	0.5	756	584.66	663.77
RNCFST	38	0.5	722	584.66	663.77
SOCFST	30	0.445	718	604.98	663.77
SNCFST	30	0.445	685	604.98	663.77

319 Two values were calculated with this method of the limiting temperature corresponding to:  $T_{cr}$   
 320 code hollow and  $T_{cr}$  code. The value for hollow section is calculated because in some cases the  
 321 steel tube fails before utilizing the infilled concrete. As shown in Table 4, the values obtained from  
 322 the equation given by EC3 are close to critical temperature obtained for SNCFST from  
 323 experimental test. However, the difference in predicted values and experimental values are 50°C  
 324 or greater for all the other samples. Hence, the equation given by EC3 needs to be revised and it is  
 325 recommended to include the effect of different types of infilled concrete and cross-sections.

### 326 3.4. Critical Time

327 The time corresponds to critical temperature is termed as critical time. Figure 13 shows that critical  
 328 time for ROCFST and SOCFST is more than RNCFST and SNCFST members by 10 and 7  
 329 minutes, respectively. The enhancement is more in rectangular cross-sections as compare to square  
 330 cross-sections. Several researchers (Laím et al., 2016; Rodrigues and Laim, 2017; Rodrigues and  
 331 Laím, 2017) investigated and compared critical times of circular, square, rectangular and elliptical  
 332 CFST members subjected to axial load and concluded that the critical time of elliptical CFST is  
 333 highest followed by circular, rectangular and square CFST columns respectively. It was also found  
 334 that the maximum difference in critical time was less than 15%. Thus, based on critical time, it can  
 335 be concluded that OCFST performs better than NCFST at elevated temperature.



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337

Figure 13 Critical time of the tested specimens in min

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### 3.5. Fire concrete contribution ratio (FCCR)

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To assess the importance of filling concrete in hollow steel tube beams exposed to fire and to study the interest of using different types of concrete, fire concrete contribution ratio (FCCR) is used by different researchers (Moliner et al., 2013). FCCR is the ratio of FR rating of CFST and that of the hollow member, both subjected to the same amount of flexural load. (Moliner et al., 2013)

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$$FCCR = \frac{FR_{Filled}}{FR_{Hollow}} \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

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In the above equation  $FR_{Filled}$  and  $FR_{Hollow}$  is the FR time of filled CFST and hollow steel tube.  $FR_{Filled}$  can be calculated numerically or experimentally, but  $FR_{Hollow}$  can be obtained numerically by using equations available in literature (Yu et al., 2014). Table 5 presents the FCCR obtained for the series of tested specimens, which represents the gain in the FR period by using concrete-filled members instead of hollow steel members. In Table 5, it can be observed that for the same amount of steel and load ratio, the FR of rectangular section is 30% higher than square cross-section for tubes filled with NMC. Similarly, the FCCR of OCFST is 30% higher than NCFST. Hence, cross-sectional shape of steel tube and type of infilled concrete greatly affects the FCCR despite having same compressive strength. It is concluded that the FR of a hollow steel member can be enhanced at least 1.5 to 2.5 times by concrete infilling. Similar conclusions were found for CFST columns by (Moliner et al., 2013). Based on FCCR, it can be concluded that the OCFST structural performance is better than NCFST at elevated temperature.

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Table 5 Fire concrete contribution ratio of all tested specimens

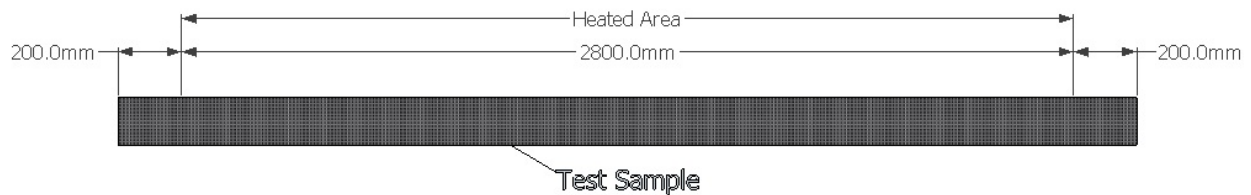
S.No	Specimen	FR CFST	Load Ratio, Hollow	FR hollow	FCCR
1	ROCFST	41	0.5	16	2.56
2	RNCFSST	30	0.5	16	1.88
3	SOCFST	37	0.445	20	1.85
4	SNCFST	28	0.445	20	1.40

## 357 4. FE Modeling

### 358 4.1. Model Description

359 The modelling and analysis were performed in commercially available FE software ANSYS. The  
360 total length of the simply supported beam was 3200 mm, where only the central part of length  
361 2800mm was exposed to fire. The temperature of beam specimen was kept uniform in the fire  
362 exposed area. The applied load was kept constant while the temperature was increased according  
363 to ISO-834 curve. For this study, 3D quadrilateral reduced integration solid element was used to  
364 model the infilled concrete while 3D hexahedral reduced integration solid element was used to  
365 model the outer cold formed steel tube. Mesh convergence study was performed to select the  
366 reasonable number of elements and its size. A surface-based interaction with a Coulomb friction  
367 model and hard contact pressure model in the tangential and normal direction, respectively were  
368 used to model the interface between steel and concrete core. The friction factor was taken as 0.6  
369 (Javed, M. et al., 2017; Javed, M.F. et al., 2017b). The details of beam and application of load and  
370 support conditions are shown in Figure 14 and Figure 15, respectively.

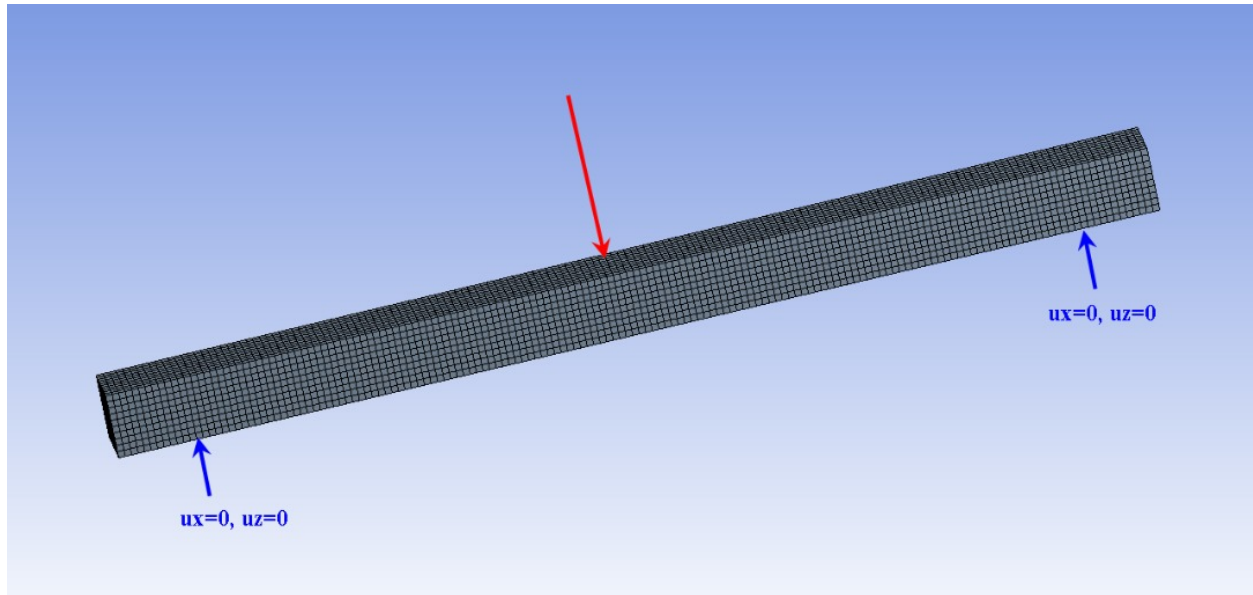
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Figure 14 Test sample showing heated length of specimen



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Figure 15 FE model with load applied and support conditions

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#### 4.2. Thermal Analysis

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Thermal analysis was performed on the developed FE model with the help of heat transfer option in ANSYS. Table 6 shows the values of different parameters used in thermal analysis. The values of different governing parameters like constant convective co-efficient for exposed and unexposed surface, steel emissivity value and radiative heat flux were used according to EC1(EN, 1991). Thermal conductivity and specific heat of normal concrete and steel were calculated according to EC2 (EN, 2004) and EC3 (CEN, 2006), respectively. For thermal expansion co-efficient of steel and concrete, the values recommended by Hong and Varma (Hong and Varma, 2009) were used.

384

Table 6 Properties of steel and concrete used in FE model

Parameters	Values
constant convective co-efficient for exposed surface	25 W/m <sup>2</sup> K
constant convective co-efficient for unexposed surface	9 W/m <sup>2</sup> K
Steel emissivity value	0.8
Stefan–Boltzmann constant	5.67 x 10 <sup>-8</sup> W/m <sup>2</sup> K <sup>4</sup>
Thermal expansion co-efficient for steel	12 x 10 <sup>-6</sup> /°C
Thermal expansion co-efficient for concrete	6 x 10 <sup>-6</sup> /°C

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#### 4.3. Material constitutive models

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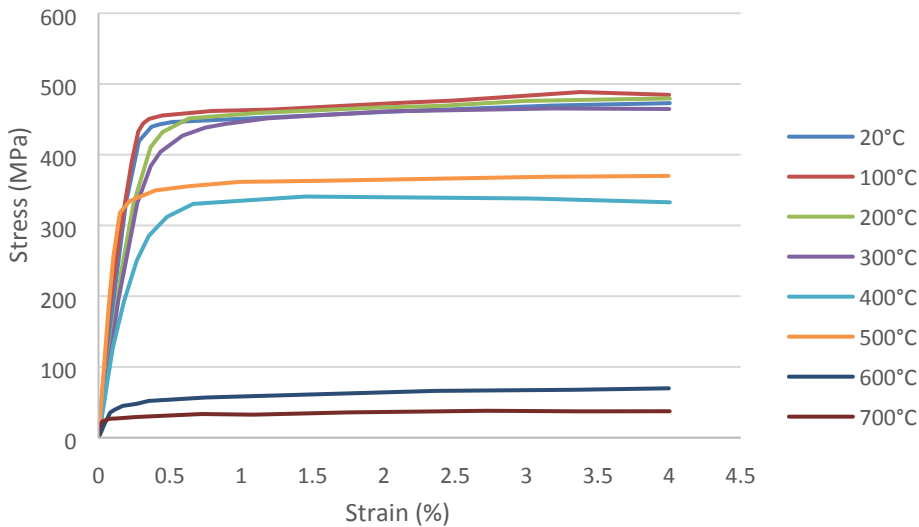
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The degradation of mechanical and thermal properties related to temperature were adopted. For steel, the model proposed by Espinos (Espinos, 2012) was employed. As Poisson's ratio is not affected by temperature, so it is assumed to be 0.3. The strength reduction factors were used to calculate the yield stress and elastic modulus at elevated temperature respectively (Kesawan and Mahendran, 2018; Li and Young, 2017). The stress-strain curves for  $f_y = 394$  MPa obtained from

391 the model used for different temperatures are shown in Figure 16. For concrete, the constitutive  
 392 model presented by Han et al. (Han et al., 2003) was employed, as this model take into account  
 393 the effect of bonding between concrete and steel. Previous studies show that the inclusion of slip  
 394 between concrete and steel interface has very minor effect on the FR time of CFST member (Ding  
 395 and Wang, 2008), hence, it was not included in the current FE model.

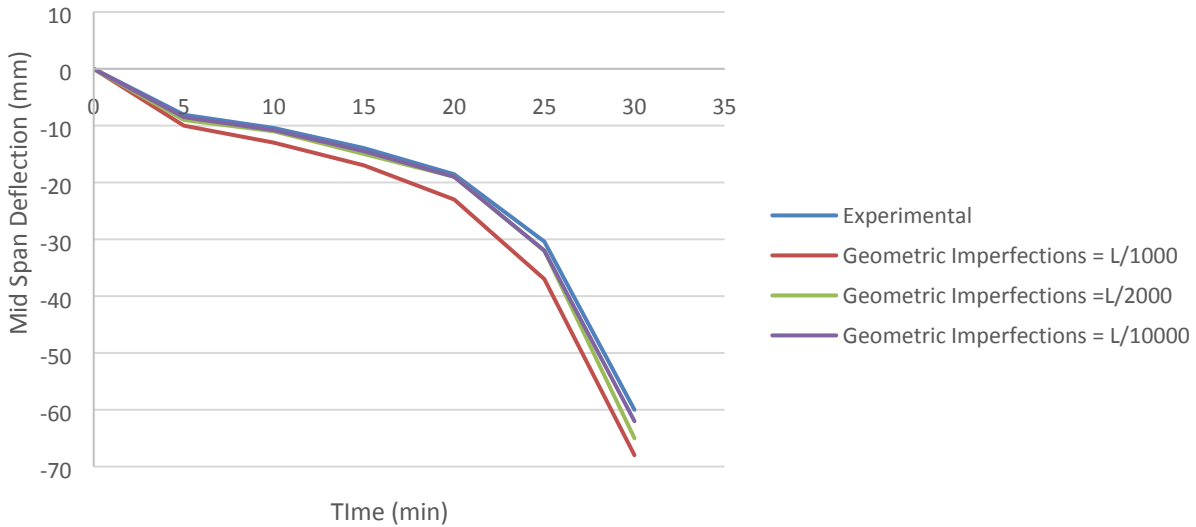


396

397 Figure 16 Stress-strain curves for  $f_y=394$  MPa steel at different elevated temperatures

#### 398 4.4. Initial geometric imperfection and amplitude

399 Different researchers recommended different initial geometric imperfection values for CFST (Han  
 400 et al., 2013; Tao et al., 2009; Wang and Young, 2013). In this study, imperfections in the form of  
 401 lowest global elastic buckling mode were included. Since the geometric imperfections were not  
 402 calculated at the time of experiment, three assumed values of imperfections were considered for  
 403 the initial geometric imperfection sensitivity analysis (Khan et al., 2018; Khan et al., 2017). Figure  
 404 17 shows the comparison of time deflection curves between experimental data and FE model  
 405 having different values of imperfections. It can be seen that smaller imperfections resulted in  
 406 higher FR time but significantly decreases the computation time. The imperfection value of  $L/2000$   
 407 gives the most favorable comparison, where  $L$  is the total length of the beam specimen. This value  
 408 of  $L/2000$  was used by Han et al. (Han et al., 2013) for stainless steel tubes. Hence, based on results  
 409 of Figure 17, the initial geometric imperfection value of  $L/2000$  was used in verification and  
 410 parametric studies.



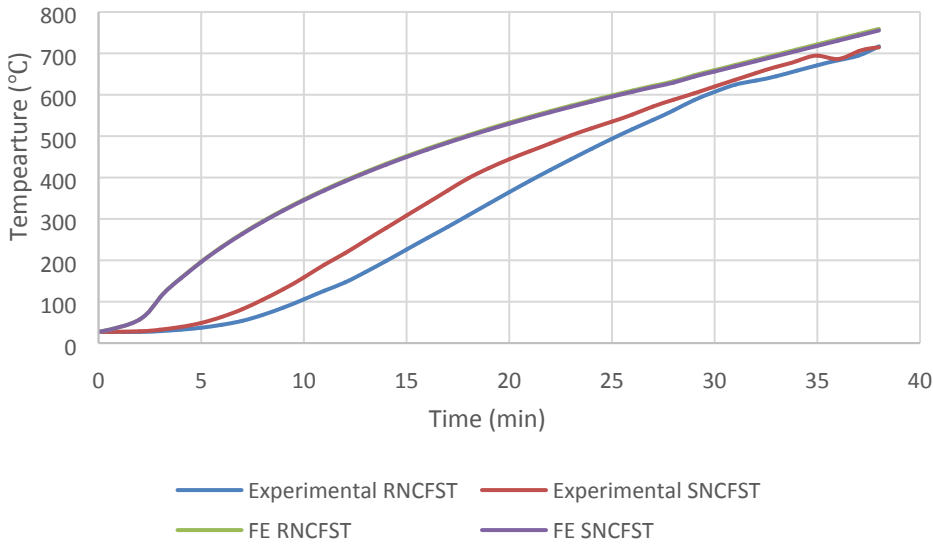
411

412 Figure 17 Mid-span deflection of different experimental tests and different FE models with  
 413 different initial imperfections

#### 414 4.5. Verification of FE model

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416 The temperature of steel tube and infilled concrete and mid-span deflection obtained from the  
 417 experimental tests and FE model were compared for verifying the FE model. Figure 18 shows the  
 418 time-temperature curve of outer steel tube of one rectangular and one square CFST beams. The  
 419 difference between experimental and FE model results for outer steel tube is negligible after 15  
 420 min. At the start of the test, the temperature predicted by FE model is higher than experimental  
 421 values. However, it gets accurate at the end of the test. This may be due to the usage of electric  
 422 furnace for experimental tests as explained in section 3.1.1.



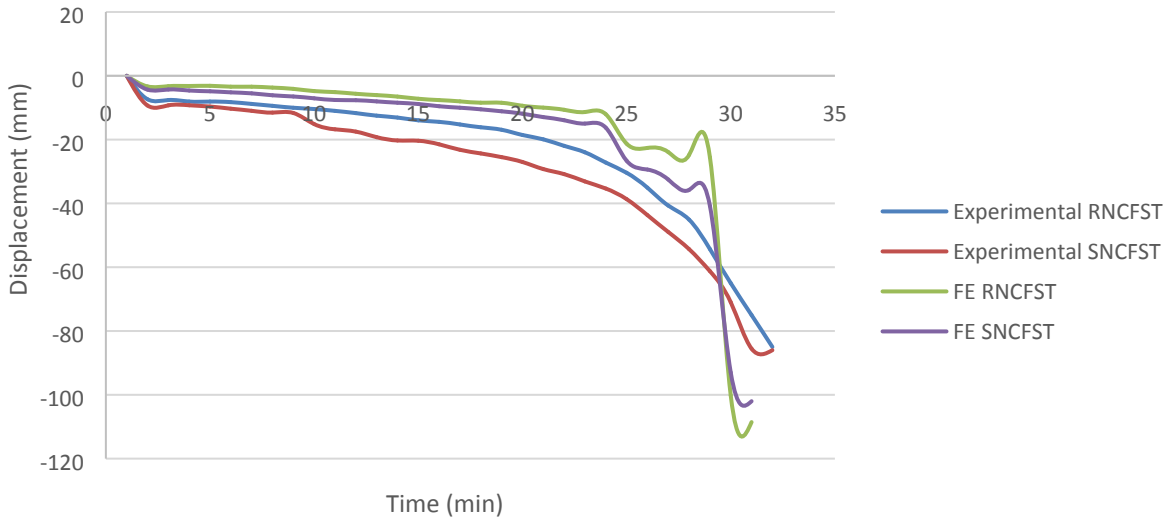
423

424 Figure 18 Comparison of experimental and FE model time-temperature curve for outer steel tube

425 The mid-span deflection obtained from FE model and the measured mid-span deflections during  
 426 test are compared for square and rectangular beams as shown in Figure 19. Some minor difference  
 427 between experimental and FE model results can be observed. Such kind of small differences were  
 428 reported by many researchers for CFST members at room and elevated temperatures (Chung et al.,  
 429 2009; Espinos, 2012; Javed, M.F. et al., 2017b). The FR time obtained from experimental results  
 430 and FE model are presented in Table 7. The close resemblance of experimental and FE model  
 431 results shows that the co-efficient of thermal expansion used for concrete, steel and steel-concrete  
 432 interface are accurate and can be used for future research works. The mean, standard deviation and  
 433 COV for the ratio between experimental and FE model results are 1.02, 0.025, and 2.45%,  
 434 respectively. The displacement predicted by FE model at the time of failure was less than the  
 435 experimentally measured displacement as shown in Figure 19. This may be due to neglecting the  
 436 “creep effect” in the FE model as the “creep effect” is enhanced at elevated temperature (Abid et  
 437 al., 2017; Han et al., 2001).

438





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440

Figure 19 Time vs displacement curve for experimental and FE models

441

Table 7 FR time for experimental and FE models

Specimens	FR time, min (Exp)	FR time, min (Num)	Exp/Num
SNCFST-1	28	27.5	1.02
SNCFST-2	28.5	27.2	1.05
RNCFST-1	29.5	29.25	1.01
RNCFST-2	29	29.25	0.99
Mean			1.02
Standard Deviation			0.025
COV (%)			2.45

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## 5. Parametric study

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In this section, more than 50 CFST specimens were analyzed with the help of verified FE model. The dimensions and details of the analyzed specimens are given in Tables 8-11, where  $D$ ,  $B$ ,  $t$ ,  $f_y$  and  $f_u$  represents the depth, width, thickness, yield strength and ultimate yield strength of steel section, respectively while  $F_c$  and  $n$  represents the compressive strength of concrete and load ratio, respectively. Most of the dimensions of the beam considered in this parametric study are same as already presented in (Javed, M.F. et al., 2017b), as these dimensions are most widely used in practical applications.

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### 5.1. Effect of yield strength of steel

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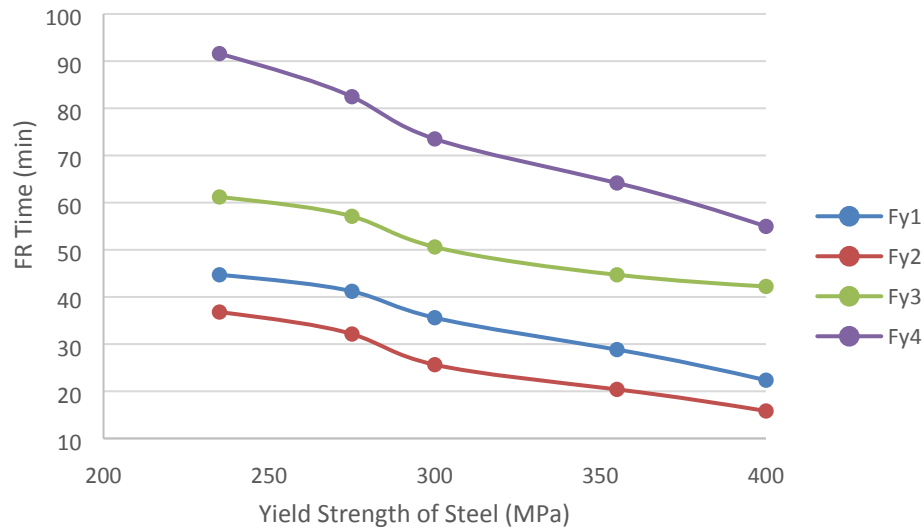
The main objective of this parametric study was to evaluate the effect of different yield strengths of steel on the FR time of CFST members when exposed to elevated temperature and flexural loads. For this purpose, five different values of yield strengths were considered. As changing the

454 yield strength of steel may affect the FR time differently for different compressive strength, load  
 455 ratio and cross-sectional dimensions, therefore 20 models were analyzed. The modulus of elasticity  
 456 of steel and concrete were assumed as 200 GPa and 29 GPa, respectively. The detailed dimensions  
 457 of the FE model considered are shown in Table 8 while the rest of the parameters were same as  
 458 mentioned in section 2.

459 Table 8 Main properties for CFST models used for studying the effect of yield strength of steel

Group Name	D × B × t	$f_y$ (MPa)	$f_u$ (MPa)	Fc (MPa)	Load ratio, n	FR Time (min)
Fy1	300x150x5	235	380	30	0.3	44.7
		275	410			41.2
		300	430			35.6
		355	450			28.84
		400	490			22.35
Fy2	300x150x5	235	380	30	0.6	36.8
		275	410			32.14
		300	430			25.64
		355	450			20.4
		400	490			15.824
Fy3	300x150x5	235	380	60	0.3	61.2
		275	410			57.1
		300	430			50.6
		355	450			44.7
		400	490			42.228
Fy4	300x600x5	235	380	30	0.3	91.6
		275	410			82.46
		300	430			73.51
		355	450			64.17
		400	490			54.96

460 Figure 20 shows the influence of yield strength of steel on the FR time of CFST members subjected  
 461 to flexural load only. It can be seen in Figure 20 that increase in yield strength of steel causes  
 462 decrease in the FR time of CFST beam regardless of load ratio, compressive strength of concrete  
 463 and cross-sectional dimensions. By increasing the yield strength of steel from 235 MPa to 300  
 464 MPa and 400 MPa, the FR time of Fy1 group was found to decrease by 21% and 50%, respectively.  
 465 The strength degradation with increasing yield strength is similar for different load ratios.  
 466 However, for FY4 group having larger cross-section, higher load ratio and lower concrete strength,  
 467 the decrease in FR time was higher. Since in larger cross-sections with low strength infilled  
 468 concrete, steel takes majority of the load, and once steel losses its strength, the member fails  
 469 quickly. While in case of smaller cross-sections and high strength of infilled concrete as in group  
 470 Fy3, higher amount of load is taken by concrete, hence it is less affected by the yield strength of  
 471 steel. It should be kept in mind that for constant load ratio, the load taken by high strength steel  
 472 was more.



473

474

Figure 20 FR time values for different yield strengths of steel

## 475 5.2. Effect of strength of concrete

476 To study the influence of compressive strength of infilled concrete on the flexural behavior of  
 477 CFST member at elevated temperature, 3 different compressive strengths of concrete were  
 478 considered. As varying compressive strength of concrete may affect the FR time differently for  
 479 different yield strength of concrete and cross-sectional dimensions, therefore 18 models were  
 480 analyzed for this section. The modulus of elasticity of concrete was calculated by using the  
 481 equations suggested in ACI-318 (ACI Committee 318, 2015). The rest of the parameters were kept  
 482 constant so that the effect of compressive strength is highlighted. The detailed dimensions of the  
 483 FE model considered are shown in Table 9 while the rest of the parameters were same as mentioned  
 484 in section 2.

485

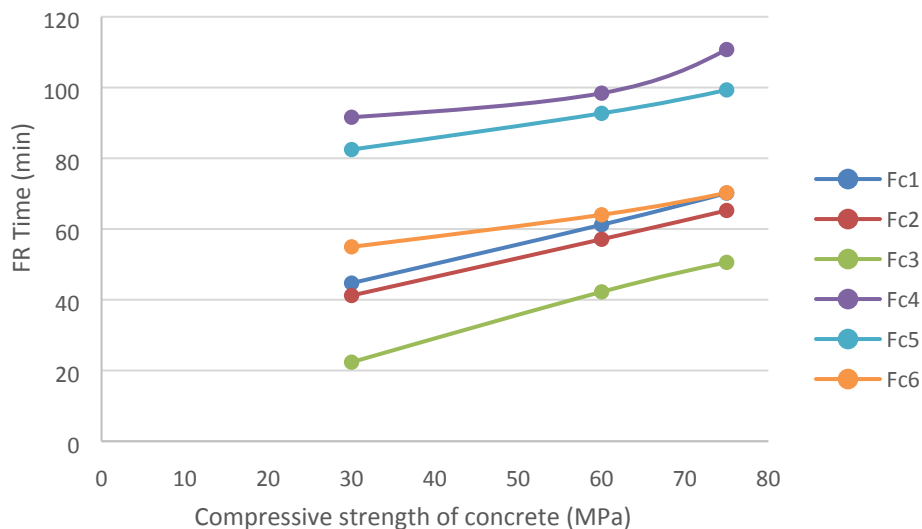
Table 9 Details of models used to study the effect of compressive strength of concrete

Group Name	$D \times B \times t$	$f_y$	$f_c$	$n$	FR Time
Fc1	300x150x5	235	30	0.3	44.7
			60		61.2
			75		70.15
Fc2	300x150x5	275	30	0.3	41.2
			60		57.1
			75		65.2
Fc3	300x150x5	400	30	0.3	22.35
			60		42.23
			75		50.57

<b>Fc4</b>	300x600x5	235	30	0.3	91.6
			60		98.4
			75		110.74
<b>Fc5</b>	300x600x5	275	30	0.3	82.46
			60		92.7
			75		99.32
<b>Fc6</b>	300x600x5	400	30	0.3	54.96
			60		64.02
			75		70.25

486

487 Figure 21 shows the effect of compressive strength of concrete on FR time for various yield  
 488 strengths of steel and different cross-sections. By increasing the compressive strength of infilled  
 489 concrete, the FR time increased regardless of the size and yield strength of steel tube. By increasing  
 490 the compressive strength of infilled concrete from 30 MPa to 60 MPa and 75 MPa, the FR time of  
 491 Fc1 group was found to increase by 37% and 57%, respectively. It can also be seen that the  
 492 percentage increase in FR time is less for larger cross-sections. For instance, by increasing the  
 493 compressive strength of infilled concrete from 30 MPa to 60 MPa and 75 MPa, the FR time of Fc4  
 494 group was found to increase by only 7% and 21%, respectively. Similar conclusions were made  
 495 by researchers for concrete filled stainless steel members subjected to axial load at elevated  
 496 temperature (Han et al., 2013).



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Figure 21 FR time of beams for different compressive strengths of concrete

499 **5.3. Effect of load ratio**

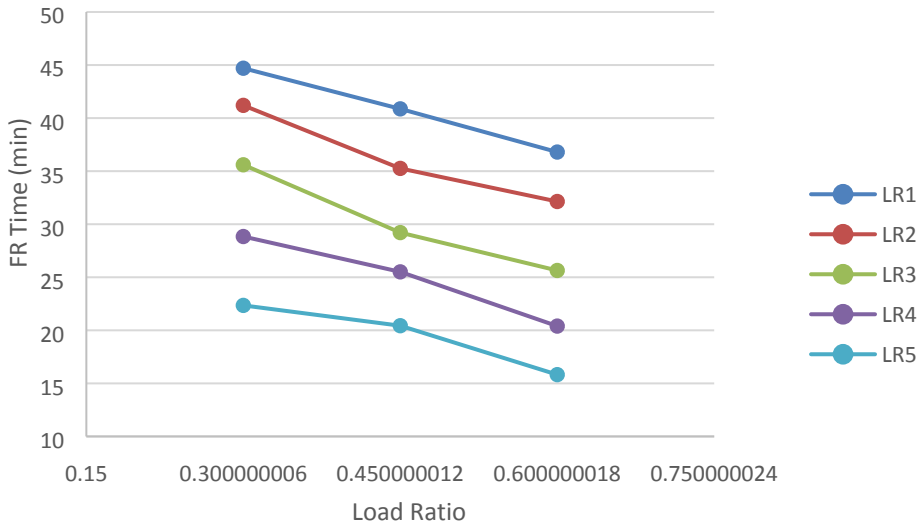
500 To study effect of load ratio on the elevated temperature performance of CFST members subjected  
 501 to flexural members, three different load ratios were selected. As varying load ratio may affect the  
 502 FR time differently for different yield strength of steel, therefore 15 models were analyzed. The  
 503 detailed dimensions of the FE model considered are shown in Table 10 while the rest of the  
 504 parameters were same as mentioned in section 2.

505 Table 10 Main properties for CFST models used for studying the effect of load ratio

Group Name	$D \times B \times t$	$f_y$	$f_c$	$n$	FR Time
LR1	300x150x5	235	30	0.3	44.7
				0.45	40.87
				0.6	36.8
LR2	300x150x5	275	30	0.3	41.2
				0.45	35.26
				0.6	32.14
LR3	300x150x5	300	30	0.3	35.6
				0.45	29.21
				0.6	25.64
LR4	300x150x5	355	30	0.3	28.84
				0.45	25.51
				0.6	20.4
LR5	300x150x5	400	30	0.3	22.35
				0.45	20.435
				0.6	15.824

506

507 Figure 22 shows the effect of load ratio on FR time for different yield strengths of steel. It is  
 508 obvious from Figure 22 that with the increase in load ratio, the FR time decreased. By increasing  
 509 the load ratio from 0.3 to 0.45 and 0.6, the FR time of LR1 group was found to decrease by 9%  
 510 and 18%, respectively. The percentage decrease was similar for different yield strengths of steel.  
 511 This is due to the fact that, residual strength of the member is less at higher load ratios and vice  
 512 versa. It is important to mention that during analysis it was observed that the decrease in FR time  
 513 with increase in load ratio was less for smaller cross-sections as compared to larger cross-sections  
 514 due to the lesser amount of steel area exposed to fire. Similar conclusions were made by  
 515 researchers for concrete filled stainless steel tube (Han et al., 2013) and concrete filled double steel  
 516 tube (Wan et al., 2017) subjected to axial load at elevated temperature.



517

518 Figure 22 Effect of load ratio on FR time for different yield strengths of steel

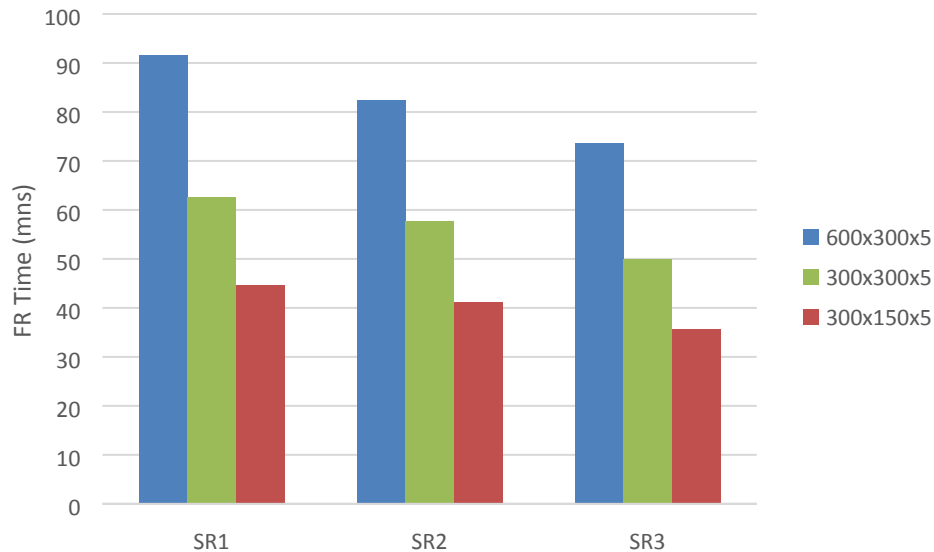
519 **5.4. Effect of width-to-depth ratio (B/D ratio)**

520 The influence of B/D ratio on the FR time of CFST member subjected to flexural load is shown in  
 521 Figure 23 and Table 11 respectively. For SR1 group, the FR time for cross-section having  
 522 dimensions of 300 x 150 and 300 x 300 was 44.7 and 62.58 minutes respectively. This shows an  
 523 increase of 40% FR time for 300 x 300 over 300 x 150. In addition to higher FR time, the surface  
 524 temperature of larger cross-sections will also rise slowly hence leading to slower reduction in  
 525 flexural capacity. This is logical, since a CFST member with larger cross-section dimension has  
 526 more infilled concrete, thus, the rise of temperature is slower in the inner part of the member,  
 527 which increases its fire endurance.

528 Table 11 Details of models used to study the effect of B/D ratio and steel ratio

Group Name	DxBxt	fy	B/D ratio	fc	n	Steel ratio	FR Time
SR1	300x150x5	235	2	30	0.3	4.4%	44.7
	300x300x5		1			2.85%	62.58
	600x300x5		0.5			2.1%	91.6
SR2	300x150x5	275	2	30	0.3	4.4%	41.2
	300x300x5		1			2.85%	57.68
	600x300x5		0.5			2.1%	82.46
SR3	300x150x5	300	2	30	0.3	4.4%	35.6
	300x300x5		1			2.85%	49.84
	600x300x5		0.5			2.1%	73.51

529



530

531 Figure 23 Comparison of FR time of different steel ratios and cross-sectional dimensions

### 532 5.5. Effect of steel ratio

533 Steel ratio is defined as the ratio of the area of steel to the area of concrete of CFST member. To  
 534 study the effect of steel ratio on the FR time of CFST member, 3 cross-sectional dimensions were  
 535 selected. The compressive strength of concrete is assumed to be 30 MPa. The detailed dimensions  
 536 of the selected sections are shown in Table 11.

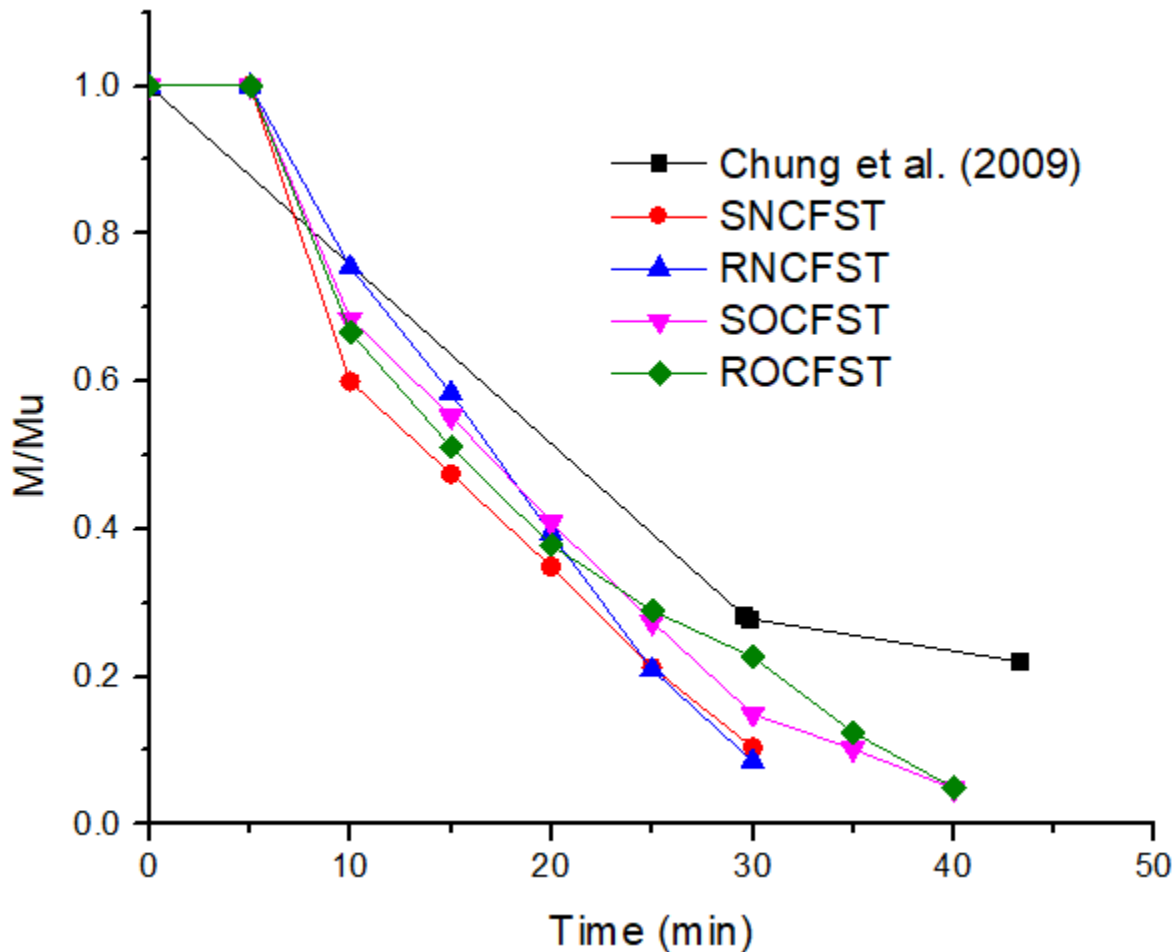
537 Figure 23 shows the effect of steel ratio on FR time of CFST member. It is obvious from Figure  
 538 23 that the FR time decrease D with the increase in steel ratio regardless of the yield strength of  
 539 steel. When the steel ratio increased from 2.1% to 2.85% and 4.4%, the FR time of SR2 group was  
 540 found to decrease by 31% and 51%, respectively. This is due to the usage of higher amount of  
 541 steel. As the strength degradation of steel at elevated temperature is faster than concrete core,  
 542 therefore CFST member with higher steel ratio attain its FR faster when subjected to elevated  
 543 temperature (Han et al., 2013).

## 544 6. Comparison with previous data

### 545 6.1. Strength reduction factors

546 The comparison between moment reduction factors obtained from this experimental study with  
 547 the moment reduction factors given by Chung et al. (2009) is shown in Figure 25. It can be seen  
 548 that the predictions made by Chung et al. (2009) for flexural loads are accurate for the exposure  
 549 time of 5 minutes. Thereafter, the difference between the predicted and experimental results  
 550 increased and reached up to 20% at fire exposure time of 40 minutes. The strength reduction factors  
 551 for square and rectangular members are similar with less than 5% of difference. Strength reduction  
 552 factors of OCFST are higher than NCFST showing the better performance of OCFST at elevated

553 temperature. Furthermore, modification is recommended in the existing methods for calculating  
 554 the strength reduction of members by considering the effect of flexural load and type of infilled  
 555 concrete.



556

557 Figure 24 Comparison of moment reduction factors obtained from this experiment with results  
 558 presented by Chung et al. (2009)

## 559 6.2. Temperature of Steel tube

560 As the specimen is exposed to elevated temperature, the temperature of the steel and infilled  
 561 concrete rises with the passage of time. For CFST columns, different equations for predicting the  
 562 temperature of steel tube at certain time are available in literature (Albero et al., 2016; Espinos et  
 563 al., 2013; Ibañez et al., 2016; Wan et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2014) from which five different equations  
 564 were selected to predict the temperature of the outer steel tube. The equations are published in  
 565 (Albero et al., 2016; Espinos et al., 2013; Ibañez et al., 2016; Wan et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2014)  
 566 and are given below.



567  $T_s = -824.667 - 5.579R - 0.007R^2 - 0.009R\frac{A_m}{V} \mp 645.076(R)^{0.269}\left(\frac{A_m}{V}\right)^{0.017}$  Equation (3)  
 568 (Albero et al., 2016)

569  $T_s = 342.1 + 10.77R - 0.044R^2 + \frac{3.922A_m}{V} - 0.025RA_m/V$  Equation (4) (Espinos  
 570 et al., 2013)

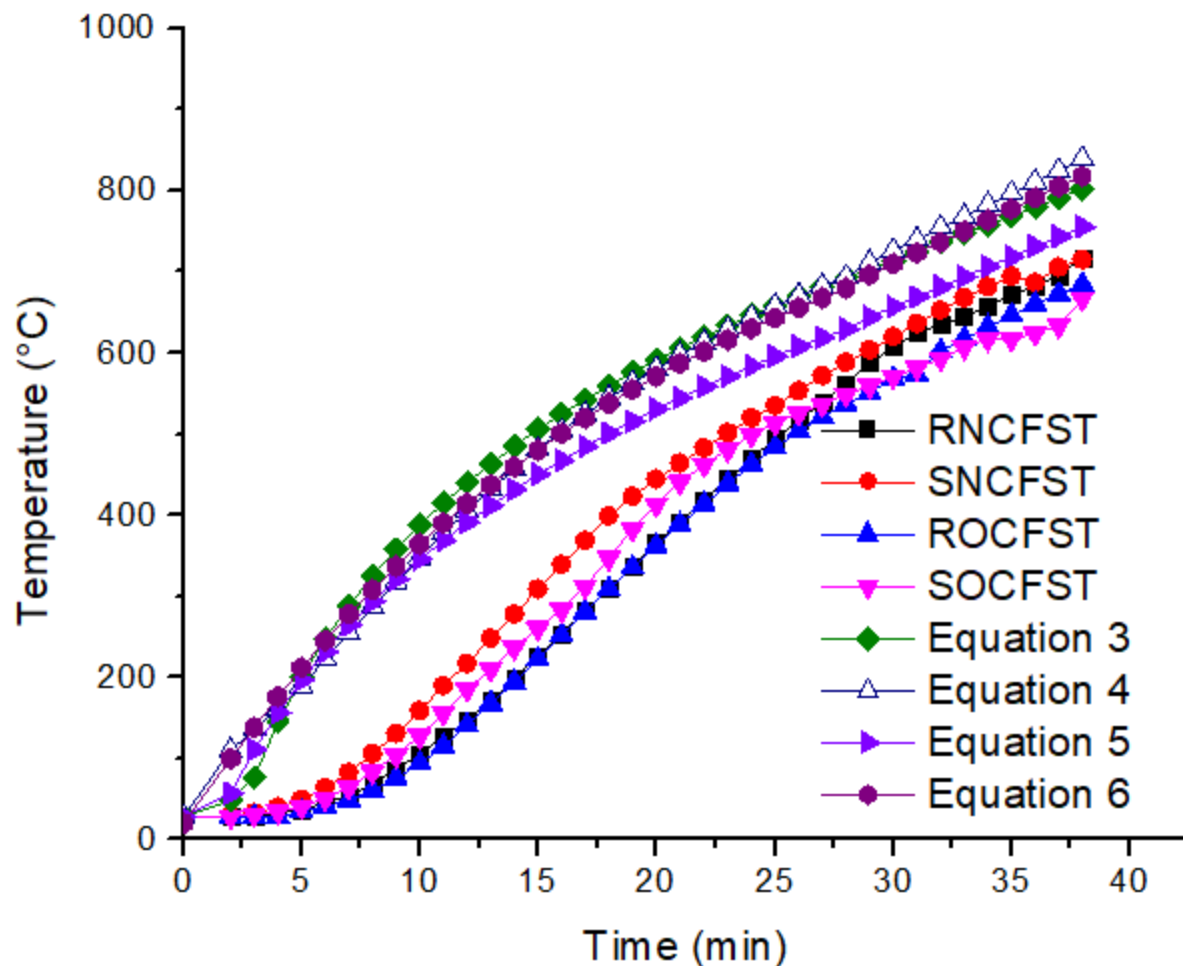
571  $T_s = \phi_{room} + [345\log(8R + 1)] * [1 - 3.38R^{-0.18}] * (1 - [0.155R^{0.58} + t^{-0.1}])$  Equation (5)  
 572 (Ibañez et al., 2016)

573  $T_s = 1200\left(1 - \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{R}{20.22 + 0.51t}\right)^{0.996 + 0.014t}}\right) + 20$  Equation 5 (Wan et al., 2017)

574  $T_s = 1200\left(1 - \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{R}{60(0.337 + 8.5d)}\right)^{0.996 + 14.0d}}\right) + 20$  Equation (6) (Yu et  
 575 al., 2014)

576 In the above equations,  $T_s$  is the temperature of steel tube, R is the fire exposure time in minutes,  
 577 t is thickness of steel tube in mm,  $\frac{A_m}{V}$  is section factor, and d is the equivalent thickness of steel in  
 578 meters.

579 The predicted temperature using the above equations were compared with the average temperature  
 580 (Sum of temperature of T1-T9 thermo-couples/9) obtained from the experiments performed. The  
 581 comparison of temperature of steel tube obtained from the equations with experimental values is  
 582 shown in Figure 26. Although, these equations were given for different cross-sections (ellipse,  
 583 circular, square and rectangular) of CFST columns, yet they can be used for CFST beams having  
 584 square and rectangular cross-sections. Equation 5 given in reference (Wan et al., 2017) yielded  
 585 most accurate prediction because it took into account the average temperature of steel tube along  
 586 its thickness and was based on both numerical and experimental results while equation 3 gave the  
 587 least accurate results.



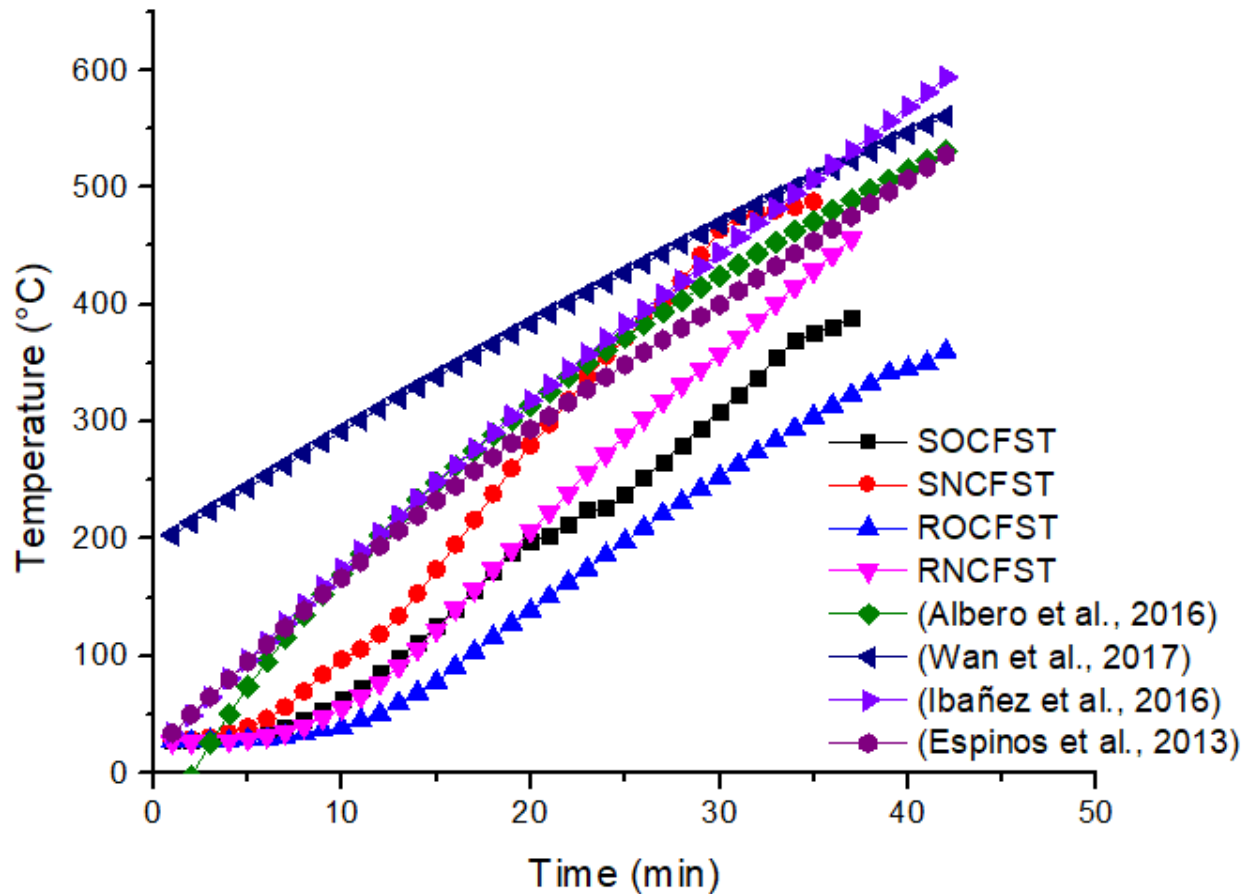
588

589 Figure 25 Comparison of temperature of outer steel of square CFST Beams with equations [3-6]

590 **6.3. Temperature of infilled concrete**

591 The comparison of time-temperature curve of in-filled concrete calculated from the equations  
 592 recommended by different researchers for different shapes of CFST columns (Albero et al., 2016;  
 593 Espinos et al., 2013; Ibañez et al., 2016; Wan et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2014) and experimental results  
 594 from this research are shown in Figure 27. The predicted time-temperature curve obtained from  
 595 equation given by Espinos et al. (Espinos et al., 2013) has the difference of more than 15% when  
 596 compared with the experimental time-temperature curve throughout the fire exposure time. When  
 597 the time-temperature curve using equation given by Wan et al. (Wan et al., 2017) is compared with  
 598 experimental data, it can be seen that the experimental time-temperature curve followed closely at  
 599 the start of the test but lags by 100°C at the end of the test. The time-temperature values obtained  
 600 from equation given by Ibanez et al. (Ibañez et al., 2016) followed the experimental time-  
 601 temperature curve closely during the first 20 minutes but lagged at the end of the test. The lagging  
 602 is more prominent in square CFST as compared to rectangular CFST. Finally, the temperature  
 603 predicted by Albero et al. (Albero et al., 2016) is accurate till the end of the test for rectangular  
 604 CFST but lagged by more than 15% for square CFST. Hence, modification is recommended in the

605 existing equations by considering the effect of cross-section of steel tube, thickness of steel tube,  
 606 type of infill concrete, type of steel and size of the furnace.



607

608 Figure 26 Comparison of temperature of infilled concrete of square CFST Beams with equations  
 609 given in (Albero et al., 2016; Espinos et al., 2013; Ibañez et al., 2016; Wan et al., 2017)

## 610 7. Conclusions

611 The utilization of agricultural wastes in construction industry would be an ideal choice for  
 612 sustainable and green construction. The oil palm industry produces a huge amount of solid  
 613 agricultural wastes including oil palm boiler clinker (OPB). In this paper, a new sustainable and  
 614 environment friendly composite flexural member with conventional coarse aggregate replaced  
 615 with OPB was analyzed and its elevated temperature performance was compared with a  
 616 conventional composite member. Based on experimental and numerical investigation, following  
 617 conclusions can be drawn:

618

- 619 1. The deflection at any instant of time in OCFST was less than NCFST due to low  
 620 temperature rise in steel tube and higher contribution of infilled concrete. Moreover, the

621 higher limiting values temperature in OCFST than NCFST reflects better fire resistance of  
622 OCFST beams.

623 2. The critical time of OCFST was 8-10 min higher than NCFST. Similarly, fire concrete  
624 contribution ratio of OCFST was found to be 30% higher than NCFST showing superior  
625 structural performance of OCFST at elevated temperature.

626 3. FE model was used to investigate the effect of yield strength of steel, compressive strength  
627 of infilled concrete, load ratio, width-to-depth ratio and steel ratio. It was found that by  
628 changing the yield strength of steel tube from 235 to 400 MPa, steel ratio from 2.1% to  
629 4.4% and load ratio from 0.3 to 0.6, the fire resistance time of CFST members decreased  
630 from 44 to 22 min (50%), 91.6 to 44.4 min (51%) and 44 to 36 min (18%), respectively.  
631 However, FR time increased by 57% when the compressive strength of infilled concrete  
632 increased from 30 to 75 MPa.

633 4. The experimental results when compared with existing equations developed for CFST  
634 columns filled with natural aggregate concrete indicated that current equations may  
635 underestimate the fire resistance of CFST filled with OPB.

636 Conclusively, the OCFST beams can be introduced as a new sustainable and eco-friendly  
637 composite beam due to its better structural performance at elevated temperature.

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840 22.



## Highlights

This paper presents a novel composite beam by using OPBC as coarse aggregate.

FE model was used to evaluate the effect of different parameters in fire.

The deflection in OCFST was less than NCFST due to low temperature rise in steel.

OCFST has 30% higher FR time and fire concrete contribution ratio than NCFST.