

Behaviour of a Mixture of Coal Wash and Rubber Crumbs under Cyclic Loading

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ABSTRACT

The interest in the utilization of granular waste materials as construction fills in lieu of quarried natural aggregates has been increasing recently resulting in more sustainable and cost-effective industry practices being adopted. This study proposes a mixture of coal wash (CW; by-product of coal mining) and rubber crumbs (RC; shredding of waste rubber tyres), as a potential capping composite for railways. A series of cyclic triaxial tests mimicking typical rail traffic loads were conducted on CWRC mixtures with and without rest periods to gain an insightful understanding of the deformation mechanism of rubber particles. It is found that the inclusion of RC increases the axial permanent strain, the volumetric strain and the damping ratio, and reduces the resilient modulus, the shear modulus and the breakage index (BI). Also, it is found that the mixture with RC recovers part of its energy dissipation efficiency after a rest period is applied, reducing the breakage index further even when the number of load cycles increases. Accordingly, a modified equation is proposed to determine the void ratio capturing the deformation of rubber.

Keywords: Coal wash; Rubber crumbs; Cyclic loading; Dynamic properties; Energy dissipation.

INTRODUCTION

The reuse of waste materials in transportation infrastructure has been the subject of numerous studies in the past decade. Such initiatives emerge as a result of the strict environmental restrictions applied to the provision of raw quarried aggregates for construction activities. Coal wash (CW), a waste produced by the coal mining industry, and rubber crumbs (RC) shredded from waste tyres, are example waste materials that can be used as construction fills. However, the proactive use of these marginal materials has been limited due to the lack of extensive experimental and field data to provide confidence to transport authorities to replace traditional aggregates with such waste mixtures. For instance, only 7.9% of the scrap tyre derivatives was used in civil engineering projects in the USA in 2017 (U.S. Tire Manufacturers Association 2018). Moreover, the wide variation of properties of CW from one source to another, and the current lack of technical standards for using them influence the decisions to reject them. Nonetheless, in recent years, numerous studies have proposed CW as a potential construction fill and investigated its geotechnical properties (e.g. Heitor et al. 2016; Indraratna 1994; Leventhal 1996; Leventhal and De Ambrosis 1985; Montgomery 1990; Okagbue and Ochulor 2007; Rujikiatkamjorn et al. 2013; Chiaro et al. 2015; Tasalloti et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2019; Indraratna et al. 2020). More recently, Indraratna et al. (2018) optimized a mixture of CW, RC and steel furnace slag (SFS) to minimize particle degradation and improve its energy absorption and damping properties and the dynamic properties of the mixture as appropriate for heavy haul tracks were also investigated by Qi et al. (2018ab) and Qi and Indraratna (2020).

Due to the lightweight and energy absorbing nature of rubber, numerous research initiatives have considered to use the recycled rubber by mixing it with other traditional aggregates such as sand and gravel (e.g. Ahmed 1993; Feng and Sutter 2000; Lee et al. 1999; Senetakis et al. 2012; Signes et al. 2016; Youwai and Bergado 2003) and with other waste materials such as

recycled glass (Saberian et al. 2019) and recycled concrete (Saberian et al. 2018). While most of these studies have mainly focused on the effect of rubber on shear strength, axial and volumetric strain and strain energy dissipation under static loading conditions, very limited research have properly evaluated the behaviour of rubber-aggregate mixtures using cyclic triaxial tests (e.g. Qi et al. 2018b) to simulate dynamic live loads in transport corridors. When the dynamic response of rubber-aggregate mixtures was considered in a few studies, only the small strain behaviour was examined through resonant column tests or shaking table tests (e.g. Feng and Sutter 2000; Senetakis et al. 2012). Also, to the authors' knowledge no previous studies have accurately investigated the deformation characteristics capturing the rebound effect of compressed rubber, which can only be understood better by introducing a rest period between the load cycles. In a track, the substructure is not subjected to dynamic loads continuously, i.e. rest periods simulate the time intervals between a given number of cycles (trains) which reflects more realistic field conditions. Moreover, previous studies of the authors, e.g. Indraratna et al. (2019ab; 2020) have evaluated the compaction characteristics and the stress-strain behaviour of the mixture of CW and RC (CWRC) under the static loading condition. As the CWRC mixture is intended for use as a capping material in lieu of traditional quarried aggregates for railway infrastructure, it is imperative to investigate its geotechnical characteristics under dynamic loading.

In this paper, a series of drained cyclic triaxial tests was carried out on CWRC mixtures with different RC contents to investigate the role of rubber inclusion on their geotechnical properties under cyclic loads (i.e. deformation behaviour, the resilient modulus, the damping properties and the breakage index). Also, the effect of a resting period between the cyclic loads on the resilient behaviour was examined with a focus on the recoverable strain before and after the rest period. Local strain measurement was used to capture the deformation of rubber particles and to differentiate between the total volumetric strain and the void

volumetric strain. Accordingly, a new equation was derived to determine the void ratio considering the change in the volume of the solid phase.

MATERIALS AND TESTING PROGRAM

Coal wash (CW) and rubber crumbs (RC) were procured from a colliery north of Wollongong City, and a tyre recycling company near Melbourne, respectively. CW was a well-graded material with a specific gravity of 2.25 and the rubber crumbs were relatively angular with a much smaller specific gravity of 1.15. Four CWRC mixtures with 0%, 5%, 10% and 15% RC (by weight) were considered in this study. The range of rubber contents was selected based on a previous study by Indraratna et al. (2018) which found that the optimum rubber content in a mixture of CW, RC and steel furnace slag is around 10%. Higher rubber contents would significantly reduce the strength of the mixture, i.e. make it overly compressible and vulnerable to deformation (settlement) (Qi and Indraratna 2020). The particle size distribution (PSD) curves of CW, RC and the CWRC mixtures as well as the upper and lower PSD limits for capping materials specified by the Australian Rail Track Corporation (ARTC, 2010) are shown in Fig.1. Coal wash was sieved and separated into different size ranges and the exact weight of each size category was obtained according to the target PSD curves, in order to prepare triaxial specimens of 100 mm in diameter having a height of 200 mm. Rubber crumbs were added at different weight proportions and the mixture was thoroughly mixed. Water was then added to reach the target moisture content ($\approx 9-10\%$) and the mixture was left in a sealed container under constant temperature and humidity to ensure a consistent water equilibration (Indraratna et al. 2019b).

The triaxial test specimens were then prepared by compacting the mixture in 5 layers, where each layer was compacted until the required thickness to achieve the target void ratio (≈ 0.29) was attained. The target void ratio was determined by considering the dry density specification of the Australian Rail Track Corporation (ARTC, 2010) as explained by

Indraratna et al. (2019b). In total, 16 cyclic triaxial tests were performed on four CWRC mixtures. At the outset, 12 tests were performed to study the effect of the cyclic stress ratio (CSR) and the confining pressure on the axial strain, volumetric strain, resilient modulus and damping properties of CWRC mixtures. Then, another series of 4 cyclic triaxial tests was performed under an effective confining pressure (σ'_3) of 25 kPa and a cyclic deviator stress (q_{cyc}) of 100 kPa, typical conditions for a subballast/capping layer (Signes et al. 2016), where a rest period was introduced every 40,000 cycles for a duration of 10 minutes, and the sample was subjected to a total of 480,000 cycles. The duration of the rest period was selected to reflect the average time between the passages of two consecutive trains in peak times. For this series of tests, *Hall Effect* sensors were used to measure the radial deformation in the middle of the sample (Fig. 2) and to accurately determine the total volumetric strain. The details of all cyclic triaxial tests are listed in Table 1.

Before starting with the cyclic loading tests presented in this manuscript, a few dummy tests were performed to calibrate the GDS system and select the appropriate stiffness index. Also, parallel samples were tested under a confining pressure of 25 kPa and a cyclic deviator stress of 100 kPa ($CSR = 2.0$) and this variation was found to be less than 2.5%. The cyclic triaxial tests were performed in three stages, namely saturation, consolidation and dynamic loading. During saturation, the back pressure was increased gradually at a rate of 1 kPa/min until a Skempton B-value greater than 0.97 was reached. Then, the sample was consolidated under the target σ'_3 until ignorable volume change ($< 5 \text{ mm}^3$) was recorded within 5 minutes. Finally, cyclic loading was applied under drained conditions and a frequency of 10 Hz and different loading conditions as listed in Table 1. In dynamic testing, the *CSR* is usually used to relate the maximum deviator stress, q_{cyc} , and σ'_3 :

$$CSR = \frac{q_{cyc}}{2\sigma'_3} \quad (1)$$

In this study, two other ratios, namely YCSR and PCSR (Eqs. 2 and 3), are introduced to relate the maximum cyclic deviator stress, q_{cyc} , with the monotonic yield deviator stress, q_{yield} , and the monotonic peak deviator stress, q_{peak} , respectively (Lackenby et al. 2007; Suiker et al. 2005), and they defined as:

$$YCSR = \frac{q_{cyc}}{q_{yield}} \quad (2)$$

$$PCSR = \frac{q_{cyc}}{q_{peak}} \quad (3)$$

In a monotonic triaxial test, q_{yield} corresponds to the deviator stress at the characteristic state (the phase transformation state under undrained conditions) at which the behaviour of the material shifts from contractive to dilative. The q_{peak} is the maximum deviator stress determined from the stress-strain curve. The values of q_{yield} and q_{peak} were determined from a previous study on the CWRC mixture of the authors (Indraratna et al. 2019b).

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Axial Strain

Figure 3(a-c) shows the permanent axial strain of the CWRC mixtures with 0%, 5%, 10% and 15% RC considering different values of CSR and confining pressure for up to 200,000 cycles. For all the stress conditions, the axial strain increases with increasing rubber contents, and this is an expected outcome associated with the deformation and compression of rubber particles. For the same CSR, there is a slight increase in the permanent axial strain when the deviator stress and the confining pressure increase simultaneously. For instance for the mixture with RC = 15%, the permanent axial strain after 200,000 cycles increases from 1.4% to 2.1%. However, the axial strain increases significantly when the CSR increases to 2.0 with a confining pressure of 25 kPa and a deviator stress of 100 kPa, and the rise is more evident for the mixtures with rubber. It is also noted that the major increase in axial strain occurs

when the mixture has 5% added rubber, and the axial strain increases at a slower rate for the mixtures with higher rubber contents (i.e. 10% and 15%). For instance, in the specimen with RC = 5%, RC = 10% and RC = 15%, an increase of 360%, 255% 192%, respectively, is measured when the CSR increases to 2.0 with a confining pressure of 25 kPa.

During cyclic loading, cyclic densification is defined as the gradual accumulation of the plastic axial strain with every load cycle. When the growth of plastic strain reaches a plateau, the material is then considered to have reached a state of shakedown, where the loading-unloading curve becomes purely elastic with no further accumulation of plastic strain (Lekarp et al. 2000b). Nonetheless, if the cyclic axial stress is greater than a threshold stress described as the “critical shakedown limit”, the material would exhibit an incremental failure accompanied with a progressive accumulation of plastic strain. It has been reported that the ratio between the “critical shakedown limit” (which separates the stable conditions from the incremental failure conditions) and the failure stress under monotonic loading conditions (i.e. critical PCSR) ranges between 0.58 and 0.98 for gravel and crushed stone (Lekarp et al. 2000b). As the definition implies, shakedown is better investigated over a range of load cycles, rather than the incremental strain over one cycle. Accordingly, the incremental permanent axial strain over different ranges of load cycles is illustrated in Fig. 3(d-e).

Different shakedown criteria have been proposed in the literature based on the incremental strain for a given number of load cycles. For instance, according to Werkmeister et al. (2001) and Gu et al. (2017), unbound granular materials are considered to reach shakedown if the incremental plastic strain between the 3000th and 5000th cycle is less than 0.045% and 0.06%, respectively. Otherwise, incremental collapse is expected to occur after a large number of cycles with a significant build-up of the permanent axial strain. However, this criterion can only be applied to rigid aggregates where shakedown is expected to happen during the first few load cycles.

It is clear from Fig. 3 that for the mixture with no rubber, shakedown is attained after only a few cycles (100 cycles), as the incremental strain over the subsequent 900 cycles is less than 0.03%. For 5% rubber content, plastic shakedown is attained after 1,000 cycles knowing that the incremental plastic strain becomes less than 0.2% between 1,000 and 10,000 cycles, which is equivalent to 0.04% over 2000 cycles. When more than 5% of RC is added to the mixture, shakedown is still attained, but only after a larger number of cycles (10,000 cycles), where a total incremental strain of less than 0.15% is recorded for the next 90,000 cycles (i.e. 0.003% over 2000 cycles). If the loading-unloading curve becomes a straight line, the phenomenon is called “elastic shakedown”. Otherwise, if the residual stress-strain response is a closed-loop, the final steady state is depicted as “plastic shakedown” (Collins et al. 1993). It is noteworthy that the material exhibits a “plastic shakedown” as illustrated in Fig. 4 which shows that the residual stress-strain response after 200,000 cycles is a closed-loop rather than a purely elastic straight line. These results indicate that despite the reduction in its strength when rubber is added to the mixture, the inclusion of rubber does not prevent shakedown. It only results in longer periods of cyclic densification before plastic shakedown is attained. Also, incremental collapse is not observed for all mixtures even when an axial stress around the yield stress ($YCSR = 1.0$) and a PCSR as high as 0.76 are applied.

Figure 5a shows the permanent axial strain for CWRC mixtures tested under a confining pressure of 25 kPa and a cyclic deviator stress of 100 kPa with rest periods. For the mixture with no rubber, the permanent axial strain is almost constant before and after each rest period. When rubber is added, the permanent axial strain decreases during the rest period and increases back to the same level after each rest period, and the reduction becomes more evident when rubber content increases. This indicates that during the cyclic loading, energy is being stored in the sample through the accumulation of a resilient strain. Figure 5(b-e) shows the resilient strain (ε_1^r) before and during the rest period. The resilient strain ε_1^r is the

221 difference between the maximum axial strain, $\varepsilon_{1,max}$ and the minimum axial strain, $\varepsilon_{1,min}$
222 during one loading cycle:

$$\varepsilon_1^r = \varepsilon_{1,max} - \varepsilon_{1,min} \quad (4)$$

223 It is observed that the resilient strain measured during cyclic loading (i.e. before applying the
224 rest period) increases only slightly when rubber content increases; this is attributed to the
225 high frequency used in this study (i.e. 10 Hz), where the mixture cannot fully recover its
226 elastic strain before the next load cycle is applied. On the other hand, the resilient strain after
227 the rest period increases significantly with increasing rubber content. This indicates that when
228 a rest period is introduced and the load is completely removed, the energy cumulatively
229 stored through the compression of rubber particles is released through a partial rebound of
230 RC resulting in a further increase in the resilient strain.

231 **Volumetric strain**

232 Assuming fully drained conditions for granular materials, the permanent void volumetric
233 strain, ε_v^* , measured by controlling the volume of water inside the sample, V_w (under drained
234 saturated conditions) represents only the change in the volume of voids, V_v , as expressed in
235 the equation below:

$$\varepsilon_v^* = \frac{\Delta V_v}{V_0} = \frac{\Delta V_w}{V_0} \quad (5)$$

236 The void volumetric strain of CWRC mixtures measured using the water controller under
237 different stress conditions is shown in Fig. 6(a-c). A contractive behaviour is observed for the
238 entire duration of cyclic loading (200,000 cycles) for all the mixtures and all stress conditions
239 considered herein, even for YCSR = 1.0. It is noteworthy that YCSR of 1.0 means that the
240 cyclic stress is equal to the yield stress which separates the contractive behaviour from the
241 dilative behaviour under monotonic loading conditions. The rate of accumulation and the
242 value of the volumetric strain increase as the rubber content increases from 0% to 15%. This

is more evident in Fig. 6(c) when a confining pressure of 25 kPa and a cyclic deviator stress of 100 kPa are applied, and this is attributed to the compressible nature of RC which facilitates the sliding and rearrangement of particles into a more compact packing.

To measure the total volumetric strain (ε_v) which accounts for both the change in the volume of voids and rubber particles, the hall effect sensors were used to measure the radial strain (see Fig. 2). Then, the total volumetric strain was calculated using the following equation:

$$\varepsilon_v = \frac{\Delta V}{V_0} = \frac{\Delta(V_v + V_{RC})}{V_0} = \varepsilon_1 + 2\varepsilon_3 \quad (6)$$

where V_{RC} is the volume of RC and V_0 is the initial volume of the sample, ε_1 is the axial strain and ε_3 is the radial strain. Figure 7a shows the void volumetric strain, ε_v^* , and the total volumetric strain, ε_v , for all CWRC mixtures under a confining pressure of 25 kPa and a cyclic deviator stress of 100 kPa. It is noteworthy that rebound behaviour is observed for the total and void volumetric strain when a rest period is applied. For the mixture with no RC, the difference between the void volumetric strain and the total volumetric strain is negligible. For all the mixtures with RC, there is a difference between the void volumetric strain, ε_v^* , and the total volumetric strain, ε_v and it is evident that the difference is more pronounced at higher rubber contents. This reflects the change in the volume of solids (i.e. RC) within the mixture, V_s , which is not accounted for in the void volumetric strain. For a granular assembly with a compressible component, a solid volumetric strain, ε_v^s , can be defined as:

$$\varepsilon_v^s = \frac{\Delta V_s}{V_0} = \varepsilon_v - \varepsilon_v^* \quad (7)$$

Figure 7b shows the effect of rubber content and the rest period on the solid volumetric strain of the CWRC mixtures. It is noted that the mixture with no rubber shows no volume change in its solid phase under cyclic loading. As a result of rubber compression and deformation the solid volumetric strain due to rubber increases significantly when 5% RC is added to the mixture with a lesser increase when more rubber is added (i.e. 10% and 15%). Like the void

volumetric strain, a dilative behaviour is observed after each rest period. This indicates that when the test is stopped and the load is completely removed, rubber particles attempt to partially recover their original volume resulting in a dilative behaviour. Nevertheless, the initial volume cannot be fully recovered due the internal confinement by surrounding rigid particles (i.e. CW) created during cyclic densification.

Void ratio

In traditional soil mechanics, the volume of solids is assumed to be constant and the change in the void ratio is determined as:

$$\Delta e = \frac{\Delta V_v}{V_s} \quad (8)$$

where, e is the void ratio, V_v is the volume of voids and V_s is the volume of the solid phase. Accordingly, the relationship between the void ratio and the void volumetric strain is expressed as:

$$e = e_0 + \varepsilon_v^*(1 + e_0) \quad (9)$$

where, e_0 is the initial void ratio and ε_v^* is the void volumetric strain. While this equation is applicable to conventional rigid aggregates like sand and gravel, the volume of solids cannot be assumed to be a constant when a compressible component like rubber is added to the mixture (Fig. 7b). An alternative equation that considers the change in the volume of solids is then derived as (Tawk et al. 2020):

$$e = \frac{\left(\frac{e_0}{1 + e_0}\right) + \varepsilon_v^*}{(1 + \varepsilon_v) - \left[\left(\frac{e_0}{1 + e_0}\right) + \varepsilon_v^*\right]} \quad (10)$$

When the solids within the mixture are not compressible and ($\varepsilon_v^* = \varepsilon_v$), Eq. 10 reverts to the original equation (i.e. Eq. 9). Figure 8 shows the void ratio calculated using both Eq. 9 and Eq. 10. For the mixture with no rubber, the difference between the values calculated using Eq. 9 and Eq. 10 is insignificant given that the change in the volume of solids (i.e. CW

particles) is minor, hence both equations would yield the same result. Nevertheless, when rubber is added to the mixture, the void ratio calculated using Eq. 10, which considers the change in the volume of RC, is smaller than the void ratio determined from the classical equation (Eq. 9). Also, during the first 100 cycles, the void ratio of the mixtures with added rubber increases even though a compressive behaviour is observed from the void volumetric strain. This is associated with a simultaneous reduction in the volume of solids resulting in an initial increase in the void ratio. The above observations indicate that classical soil mechanics relationships that were initially developed for relatively incompressible and rigid granular materials cannot be directly extrapolated to describe the behaviour of mixtures with a compressible component like RC.

Resilient Modulus, Shear Modulus and Damping ratio

The resilient modulus is defined as the ratio of the difference between the maximum and the minimum cyclic deviator stress, Δq_{cyc} , and the recoverable strain, ε_1^r , during a load cycle, and is typically measured when a state of elastic or plastic shakedown is attained :

$$M_r = \frac{\Delta q_{cyc}}{\varepsilon_1^r} \quad (11)$$

Figure 9 shows the relationship between the resilient modulus and the number of cycles for CWRC mixtures under different stress conditions. In general, the resilient modulus decreases with increasing rubber contents, a behaviour resulting from the increased elasticity by adding rubber. M_r of CWRC mixtures with RC $\geq 10\%$ reaches a stable state after 10,000 loading cycles, while a fewer number of cycles is needed to reach a stable condition for 0% and 5% RC. When tested at a constant CSR of 0.8, M_r increases when σ'_3 and q_{cyc} increase. Moreover, when the CSR increases from 0.8 to 2.0 under an effective confining pressure $\sigma'_3 = 25$ kPa (i.e. q_{cyc} increases from 40 kPa to 100 kPa), M_r also increases (Fig. 9a and 9c). However, when the CSR increases from 0.8 to 2.0 but σ'_3 decreases from 50 kPa to 25 kPa,

308 M_r decreases (Fig. 8b and 8c) despite the increase in q_{cyc} . This indicates that the resilient
 309 modulus of the CWRC mixture is more affected by the confining pressure than the CSR, and
 310 the effect of the CSR is better investigated if the confining pressure is kept constant.

311 The damping ratio (D) is an important parameter in soil dynamics as it represents the
 312 efficiency of energy dissipation in the system during a load cycle. The higher the damping
 313 ratio, the more efficiently the system can dissipate energy. The damping ratio is calculated as
 314 the area enclosed within the loop formed in the stress-strain space during one load cycle
 315 divided by the area of the triangle representing full energy recovery (linear elastic response)
 316 as shown in Fig. 10a. The shear modulus, G , is a parameter related to the stiffness of the
 317 material and is determined in the shear stress-shear strain plane (Fig. 10a). Figure 10b shows
 318 that the damping ratio of the CWRC mixture increases with the increasing rubber content.

319 For the same CSR, when σ'_3 increases from 25 to 50 kPa and the cyclic deviator stress, q_{cyc}
 320 increases from 40 to 80 kPa, the damping ratio remains constant for all CWRC mixtures.
 321 However, when the CSR increases from 0.8 to 2.0 the damping ratio of the mixture without
 322 rubber decreases significantly, while the mixtures with rubber maintain somewhat the same
 323 damping ratio. This indicates that the damping ratio of rigid materials (CW) is dependent on
 324 the CSR regardless of the confining pressure and the cyclic deviator stress. This indicates
 325 that, an increase in CSR reduces the efficiency of the CW to dissipate energy due to high
 326 levels of cyclic densification. When rubber is added, the rubber particles sustain the energy
 327 dissipation efficiency of the mixture through compression and deformation even after
 328 undergoing cyclic densification under higher values of CSR.

329 The shear modulus vs. rubber content is shown in Fig. 11 for all stress conditions. Generally,
 330 the shear modulus decreases with increasing rubber contents. Similarly, this is attributed to
 331 the elasticity of rubber which contributes to the overall reduction in the stiffness of the
 332 mixture. Under the same CSR, the shear modulus increases when both the confining pressure

and the cyclic deviator stress increase, but the variation becomes less evident as the rubber content increases. A similar behaviour was reported by Qi et al. (2018b) for the mixtures of CW, RC and SFS when tested under three stress conditions with the same CSR. In contrast, when the confining pressure remains constant at 25 kPa and the CSR increases from 0.8 ($q_{cyc} = 40$ kPa) to 2.0 ($q_{cyc} = 100$ kPa), the shear modulus remains almost constant. This indicates that, similar to the resilient modulus, the shear modulus of the CWRC mixtures is highly dependent on the confining pressure, while the cyclic deviator stress does not show a significant effect when the same confining pressure is applied.

Breakage Index and Energy Dissipation

CW is a weak material with a very high potential for breakage. Blending CW with an energy absorbing material like rubber could mitigate the degradation of CW particles when subjected to repeated loads. Breakage of the CWRC mixture after cyclic loading was evaluated using the Breakage Index (BI) proposed by Indraratna et al. (2005) and Fig. 12 shows the BI of the mixtures under an effective confining pressure of 25 kPa and a cyclic deviator stress of 100 kPa with and without a rest period. As expected, it is observed that the BI decreases with increasing rubber contents. For the mixture with $RC \leq 5\%$, the BI evaluated after 480,000 cycles when a rest period was applied every 40,000 cycles is greater than the BI determined after 200,000 cycles with no rest period. This is an expected outcome since the mixture is subjected to a higher number of load cycles. Nevertheless, for the mixture with $RC \geq 10\%$, the BI evaluated after 200,000 cycles with no rest period is greater than the BI evaluated after 480,000 cycles with a rest period even though the number of cycles is almost doubled for the latter case.

To further explore the effect of having a rest period, the corresponding stress-strain loop is illustrated in Fig. 13a. After a sufficient number of cycles, the mixture reaches plastic shakedown and the stress-strain loop becomes fully resilient (Fig. 13a 1-2 states) (i.e. no

further accumulation of plastic strain). When there is a rest period and the external vertical load is completely removed, the recoverable strain, ε_1^r , increases further due to the rebound of rubber particles (Fig 13a 2-3 states). When the load is applied again, the mixture goes through another cyclic densification stage (Fig 13a 4-5-6 states) before reaching plastic shakedown again (Fig 13a 2-1-2 states). It is evident from Fig. 13b that the total energy dissipated during the first cycle after the rest period is much higher than the energy dissipated during the last cycle before the rest period, i.e. when the mixture reached shakedown. An efficiency ratio (ER) can be defined as the ratio between the total input energy and the total energy dissipated during one load cycle:

$$ER = \frac{E_{dis}}{E_{total}} = \frac{E_{total} - E_{res}}{E_{total}} \quad (12)$$

where

$$E_{total} = \int_{\varepsilon_{min}}^{\varepsilon_{max}} q d\varepsilon \text{ (area under the loading curve)} \quad (13a)$$

$$E_{res} = \int_{\varepsilon_{max}}^{\varepsilon_{min}} q d\varepsilon \text{ (area under the unloading curve)} \quad (13b)$$

Figure 13c shows the amount of dissipated energy during the last cycle before the rest period (i.e. at plastic shakedown) and during the first cycle after the rest period. It is evident that for the mixture with no rubber, the amount of energy dissipated is similar before and after the rest period. When rubber is added, the mixture can dissipate a higher amount of energy after each rest period. The greater the content of added rubber is, the higher the dissipated energy and the corresponding efficiency ratio after each rest period (Fig. 13cd). Figure 13d also shows that there is an increase in the energy dissipation efficiency by 35% after the rest period for the mixture with $RC = 15\%$. For a CWRC mixture, the total input energy is dissipated in three main forms: (1) the sliding and rearrangement of particles, (2) the

deformation of particles and (3) the breakage of particles. As the rubber content increases (i.e. compressible component), more energy is dissipated through the compression and deformation of rubber particles and less energy is dissipated through densification and breakage. This is supported by the fact that more load cycles are needed to reach shakedown (a phenomenon associated with the rearrangement of particles) when the rubber content increases (Fig. 3d-f). When a rest period is introduced and the RC partially recover their volume, they also recover their energy dissipation potential that was gradually lost during cyclic densification, thus reducing particle degradation as less energy is dissipated through the breakage of particles.

DISCUSSION

Use as a Capping Material

To ensure an acceptable serviceability level, the maximum allowable axial deformation of a capping layer is 3 mm (Teixeira et al. 2006), corresponding to an axial strain of 2%. Figure 3a shows that for a confining pressure of 25 kPa and a cyclic deviator stress of 40 kPa the permanent axial strain after 200,000 cycles is less than 2% for all CWRC mixtures. The axial strain increases slightly when the confining pressure and the cyclic deviator stress increase to 50 kPa and 80 kPa respectively but remains less than 2% for up to 10% rubber content. This indicates that the mixture can be used in most rail corridors as a capping seam underneath the ballast layer, except for very heavy axle loads (e.g. iron ore freight rail). Under a relatively low confining pressure of 25 kPa and cyclic deviator stress of 100 kPa ($CSR = 2.0$), Fig. 3c shows that the axial strain increases to more than 2% after a few cycles when rubber is added. However, this excessive accumulation in axial strain is partly recovered when the load is removed. Therefore, this can be considered as an initial densification stage which in practice, will inevitably occur during construction and when placing and tamping the overlying ballast.

Figure 5a shows that the permanent axial strain after initial densification with respect to the new datum (dotted line) for all CWRC mixtures is less than 2%.

Figure 13c shows that the maximum energy dissipated after cyclic densification corresponds to RC = 10%, which means that a mixture with 10% RC has the highest capacity to dissipate energy after being subjected to a large number of dynamic loads from passing trains. Figure 13d also shows that the mixture with RC = 10% has the highest ER (efficiency ratio) after a rest period, after which there is only a marginal increase in ER for increased rubber content. Fig. 12 also shows that the BI of the mixture with RC > 5% decreases despite the increase in the number of cycles when a rest period is applied. This means that in practice, for a rubber content greater than 5% the mixture can recover a sufficient proportion of its energy dissipation efficiency during the rest period, thereby reducing breakage when subjected to a significantly high number of loading cycles (say $N > 200,000$). Therefore, based on the deformation response, energy dissipation and particle breakage, the mixture with 10% of added rubber can be justifiably recommended as an appropriate capping material for track substructure.

Environmental Impact and Sustainable Practices

Waste materials like CW and RC are much cheaper than traditional aggregates, making them more economical for the construction industry involved in the construction or maintenance of transportation corridors. Also, in some places where coal reject is stockpiled and good quality rock aggregates are not available, the reuse of CW minimizes the cost of transporting material from the source to the site. Therefore, the promising results presented in this study should create an incentive for the construction industry to start adopting more sustainable practices by using such waste materials in construction activities.

In Australia, the landfilling of CW is levied at \$14 per ton, which is equivalent to spending millions of dollars per year on stockpiles of CW. Therefore, selling coal wash to the

construction industry instead of stockpiling it for a levy is a double win for the coal mining industry. It gives them the chance to reverse part of the damage that coal mining causes to the environment and it can solve some of the disputes over waste landfills between environmentalists and the industry. In this context, it is in the interests of the coal mining industry to consider, promote, and fund any initiative to reuse CW as a construction fill.

The rubber producing industry is no better than the coal mining industry when it comes to the massive amounts of waste generated worldwide and the associated environmental risks. In 2016, 100,000 metric tons of discarded rubber caught fire in Madrid, Spain, causing several thousand residents to be evacuated from their homes (Moffett 2016). The toxins emitted from this fire can cause very serious health problems and possible land contamination when the residues of burnt tyres infiltrate the soil with rain. Therefore, promoting the recycling of rubber products such as waste rubber tyres is also an opportunity for the rubber producing industry to reduce its carbon footprint and engage in sustainable practices.

CONCLUSION

The dynamic behaviour of the CWRC mixtures was investigated through a series of drained cyclic triaxial tests with and without a rest period. Based on the experimental results, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. The permanent axial and volumetric strain increased with increasing rubber contents. All the mixtures reached a plastic shakedown, but more load cycles were required to attain a stable state when the rubber content increases. The permanent axial strain of the mixtures measured before the rest period was higher than that measured after a rest period. This shows that a rest period must be considered during cyclic loading when investigating the resilient behaviour of a mixture with a compressible component. No signs of frictional failure were detected for $RC \leq 15\%$ even for a $YCSR = 1.0$ and a $PCSR$ as high as 0.76.

2. For the mixtures with rubber, the total volumetric strain evaluated using local strain measurements was larger than the void volumetric strain. This indicates that during cyclic densification, the volume of RC cannot be considered as constant and the difference between the total volumetric strain and the void volumetric strain represents the associated change in the volume of the solid phase. Accordingly, a modified void ratio equation was derived to capture the deformation of rubber particles which can be applied to any mixture with a compressible component.
3. The resilient modulus and the shear modulus of the mixture decreased with increasing rubber contents, while the inclusion of RC improved the damping ratio of the mixture. When the CSR increased, the damping ratio of the mixture with no rubber decreased significantly whereas the mixtures with $RC \geq 5\%$ maintained the same damping ratio. This shows that for higher stress levels, adding rubber preserves the damping potential of the mixture even after long periods of cyclic densification.
4. The BI of the mixture decreased significantly when rubber was added, and it decreased more for mixtures with $RC \geq 10\%$ when a rest period was applied, despite the number of load cycles doubling. This shows that the efficiency of energy dissipation increases as the rubber content increases, and the energy dissipation potential can be partially recovered during a rest period, thus reducing particle breakage for longer periods of cyclic loading.
5. Based on the dynamic response in terms of axial deformation, efficiency in energy dissipation and reduction in particle breakage, the mixture with $RC = 10\%$ is recommended as the optimum blend for a capping material. From other practical perspectives, the reuse of the CWRC mixture as a construction fill is a sustainable environmental solution in relation to the quarrying of natural materials, and an economically attractive option for large scale landfilling and backfilling of spent coal

477 mines. In essence, recycling of these waste materials as an engineering fill is an
478 immense contribution towards a favourable carbon footprint.

479 While promising results were presented in this study using conventional cyclic triaxial
480 testing, it will be useful to test these type of mixtures in large-scale physical modelling to
481 examine the role of a capping layer composed of this waste mixture on the response of a
482 ballasted track section in terms of particle degradation and associated track deformation.
483 Moreover, in contrast to drained behaviour, the fully undrained stress-strain response of
484 saturated CW and rubber mixtures needs to be studied, because partially submerged track
485 conditions often prevail in low-lying coastal terrains.

486 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

487 Some or all data, models, or code that support the findings of this study are available from the
488 corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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497 gratefully appreciated.

498 **NOTATION**

499 *The following symbols are used in this paper*

CW = coal wash

ER	=	efficiency ratio
RC	=	rubber crumbs
D	=	damping ratio
e	=	void ratio;
e_0	=	initial void ratio;
G	=	shear modulus
M_r	=	resilient modulus
q_{cyc}	=	cyclic deviator stress;
q_{yield}	=	yield deviator stress under monotonic loading conditions;
q_{peak}	=	peak deviator stress under monotonic loading conditions;
V_v	=	volume of voids within specimen;
V_s	=	volume of solids within specimen;
V_{RC}	=	volume of rubber crumbs within specimen;
ε_1	=	axial strain
ε_1^p	=	permanent axial strain;
ε_1^r	=	resilient axial strain (recoverable)
ε_3	=	radial strain
ε_v	=	total volumetric strain;
ε_v^*	=	void volumetric strain
ε_v^s	=	solid volumetric strain
σ_3'	=	effective confining pressure;

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615 **Table 1.** Properties of the cyclic triaxial tests

616

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Test #	Added rubber (%)	σ'_3 (kPa)	q_{cyclic} (kPa)	CSR	YCSR	PCSR
C1	0	25	40	0.8	0.43	0.19
C2	5			0.8	0.38	0.21
C3	10			0.8	0.42	0.26
C4	15			0.8	0.43	0.30
C5	0	50	80	0.8	0.39	0.24
C6	5			0.8	0.43	0.27
C7	10			0.8	0.43	0.29
C8	15			0.8	0.46	0.35
C9	0	25	100	2.0	1.08	0.47
C10	5			2.0	0.96	0.54
C11	10			2.0	1.04	0.65
C12	15			2.0	1.07	0.76
C13*	0	25	100	2.0	1.08	0.47
C14*	5			2.0	0.96	0.54
C15*	10			2.0	1.04	0.65
C16*	15			2.0	1.07	0.76

618 *Cyclic triaxial tests with a rest period; CSR = cyclic stress ratio; YCSR = yield cyclic stress
619 ratio; PCSR = peak cyclic stress ratio.

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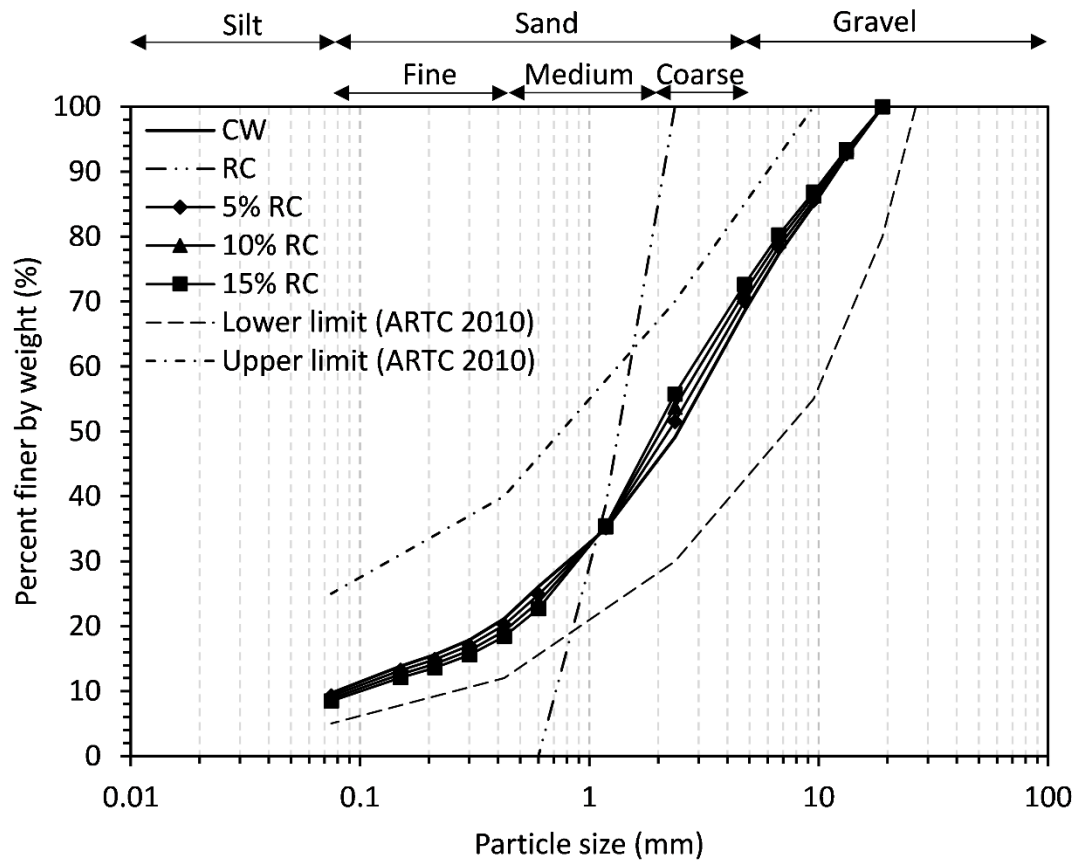


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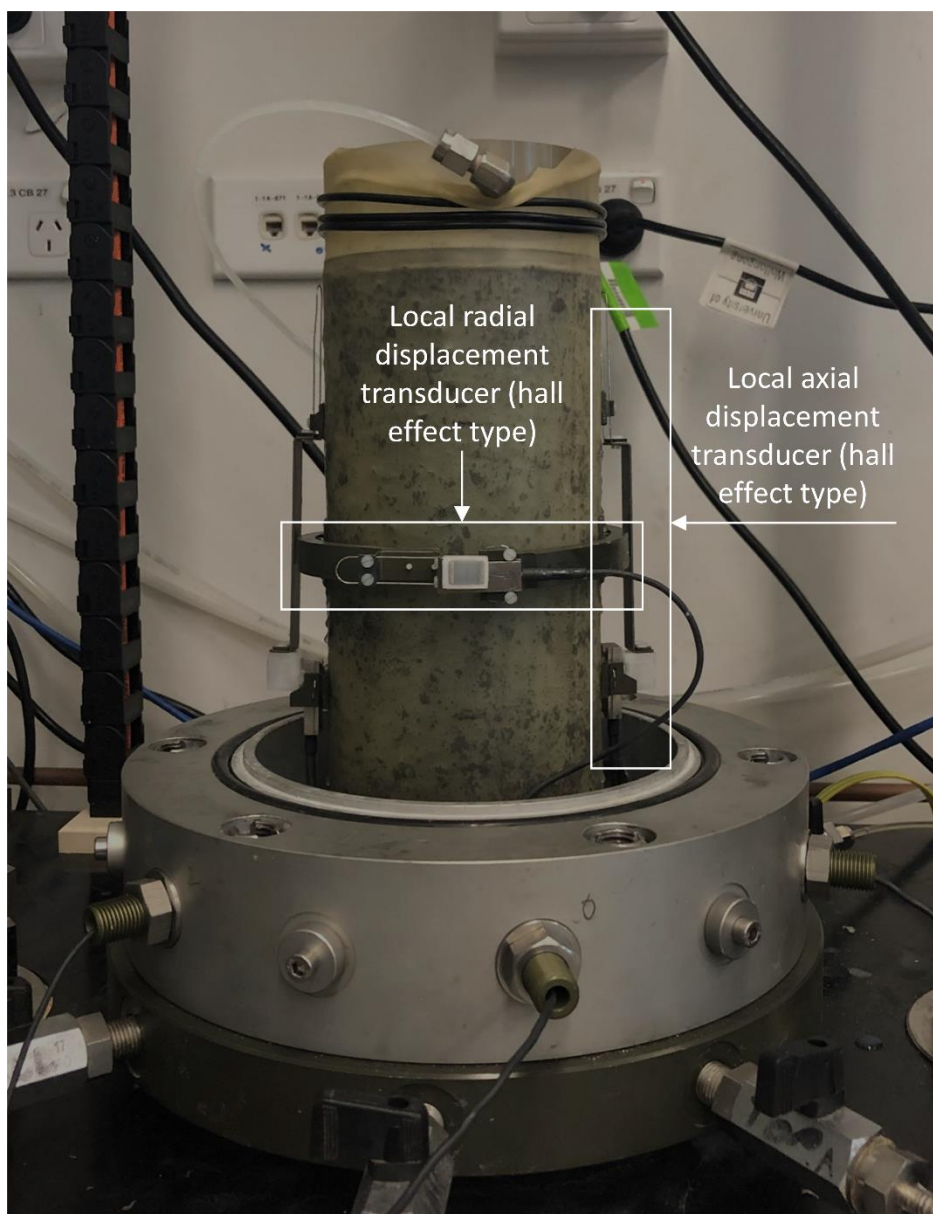


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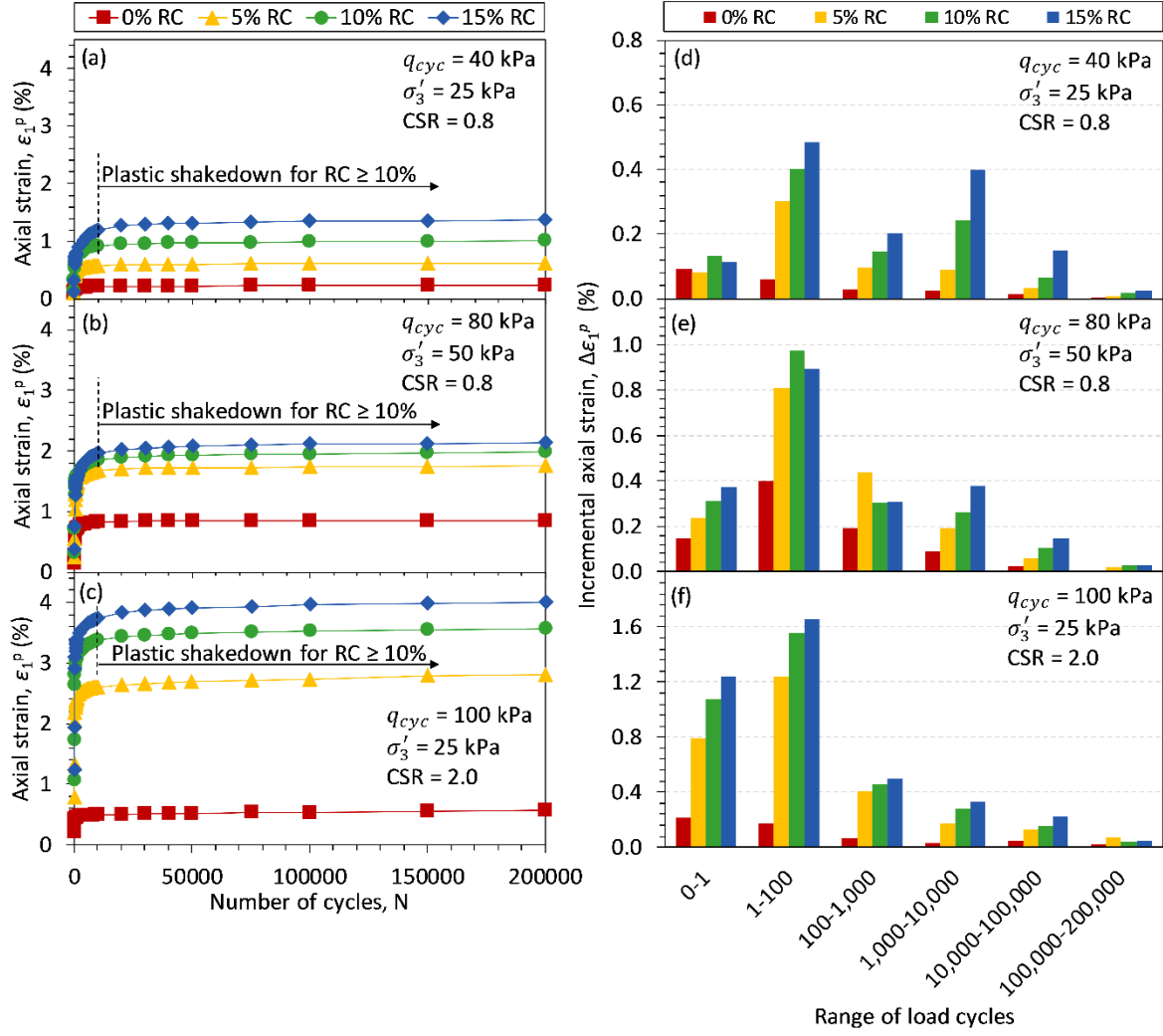


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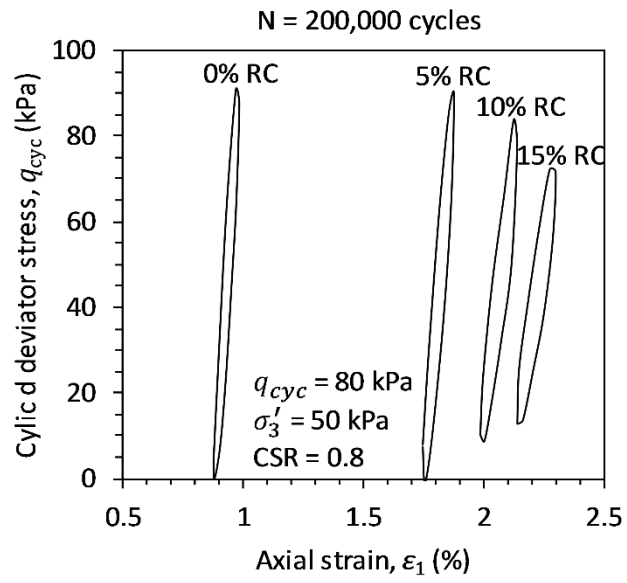


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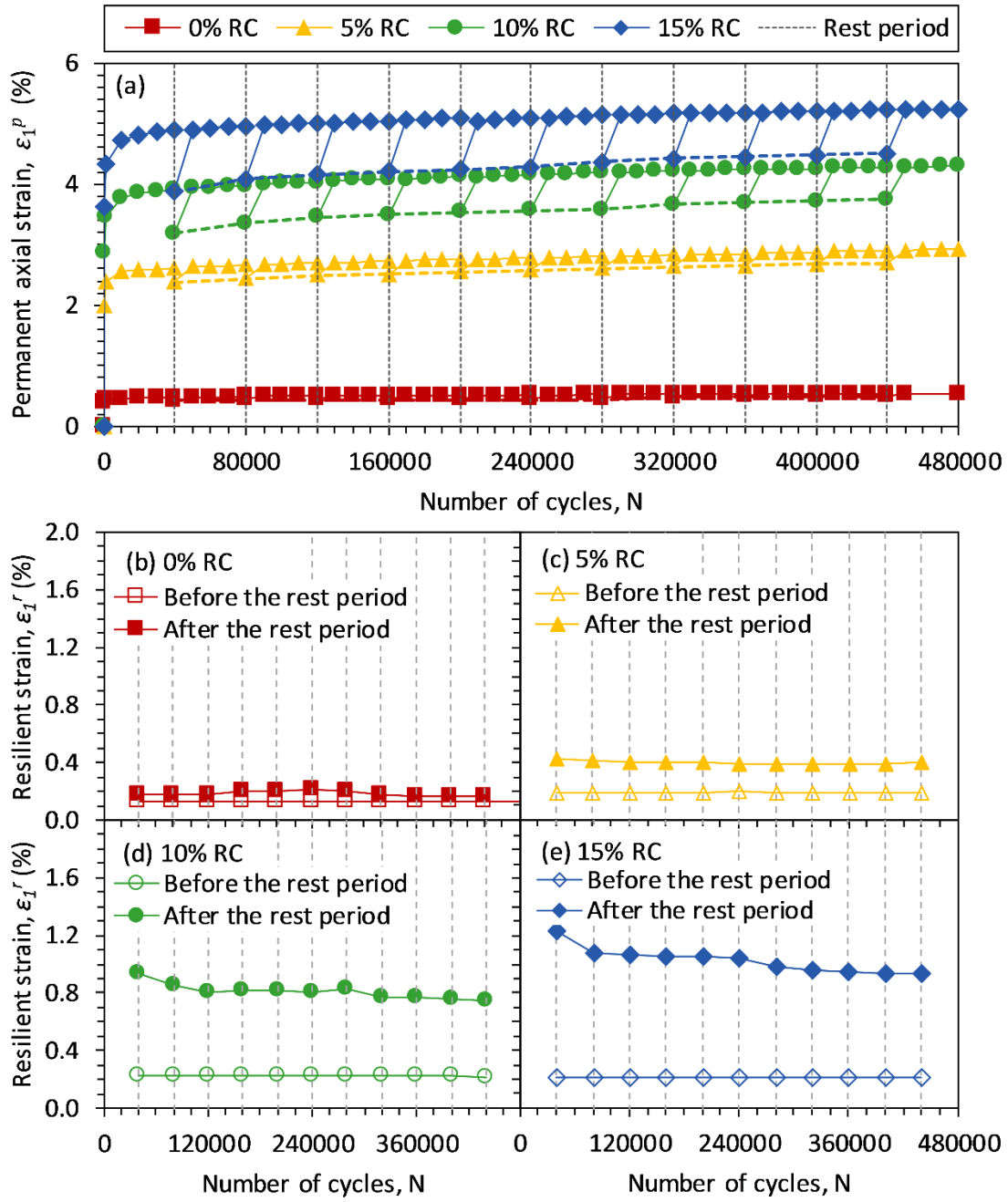


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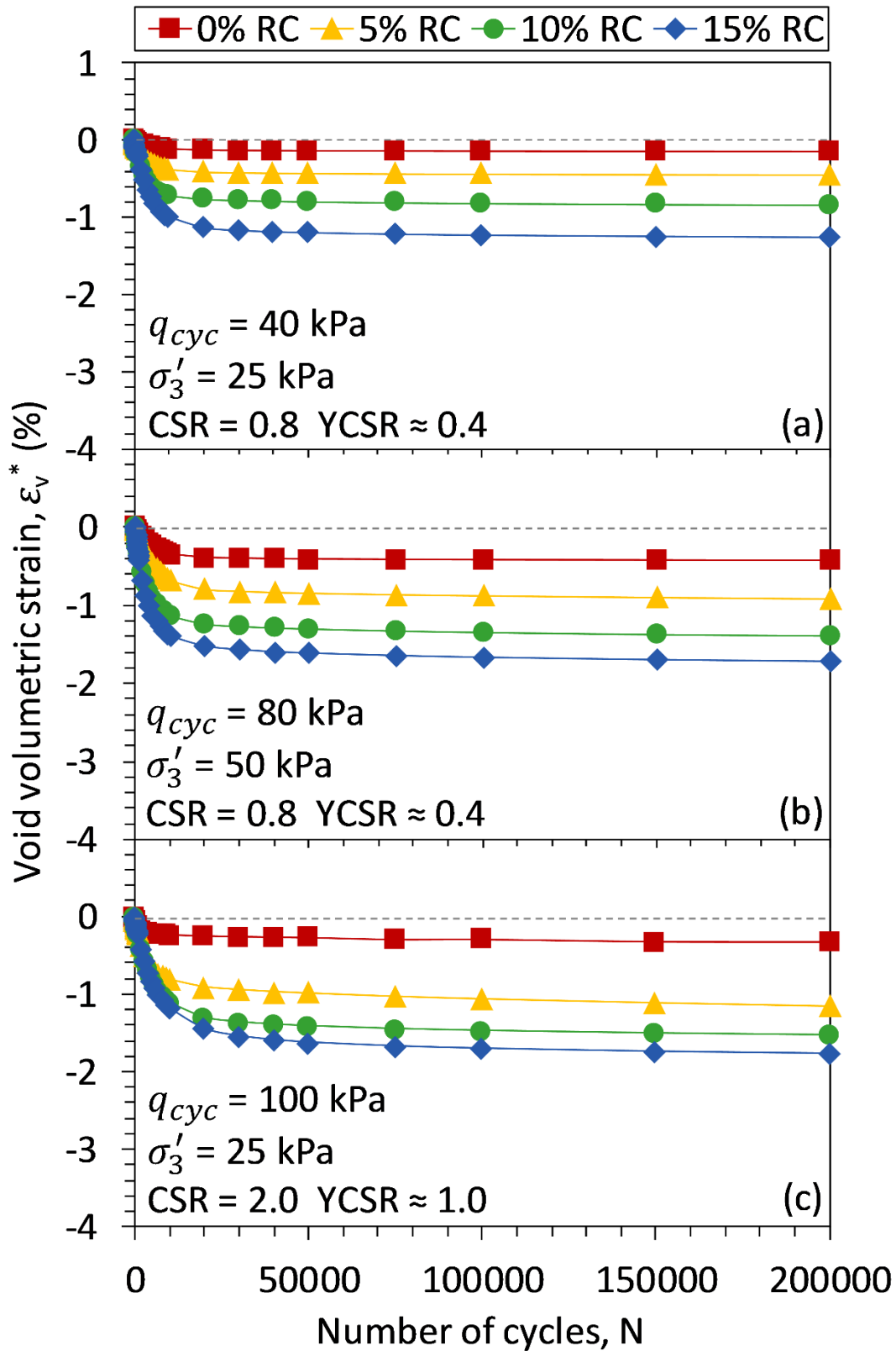


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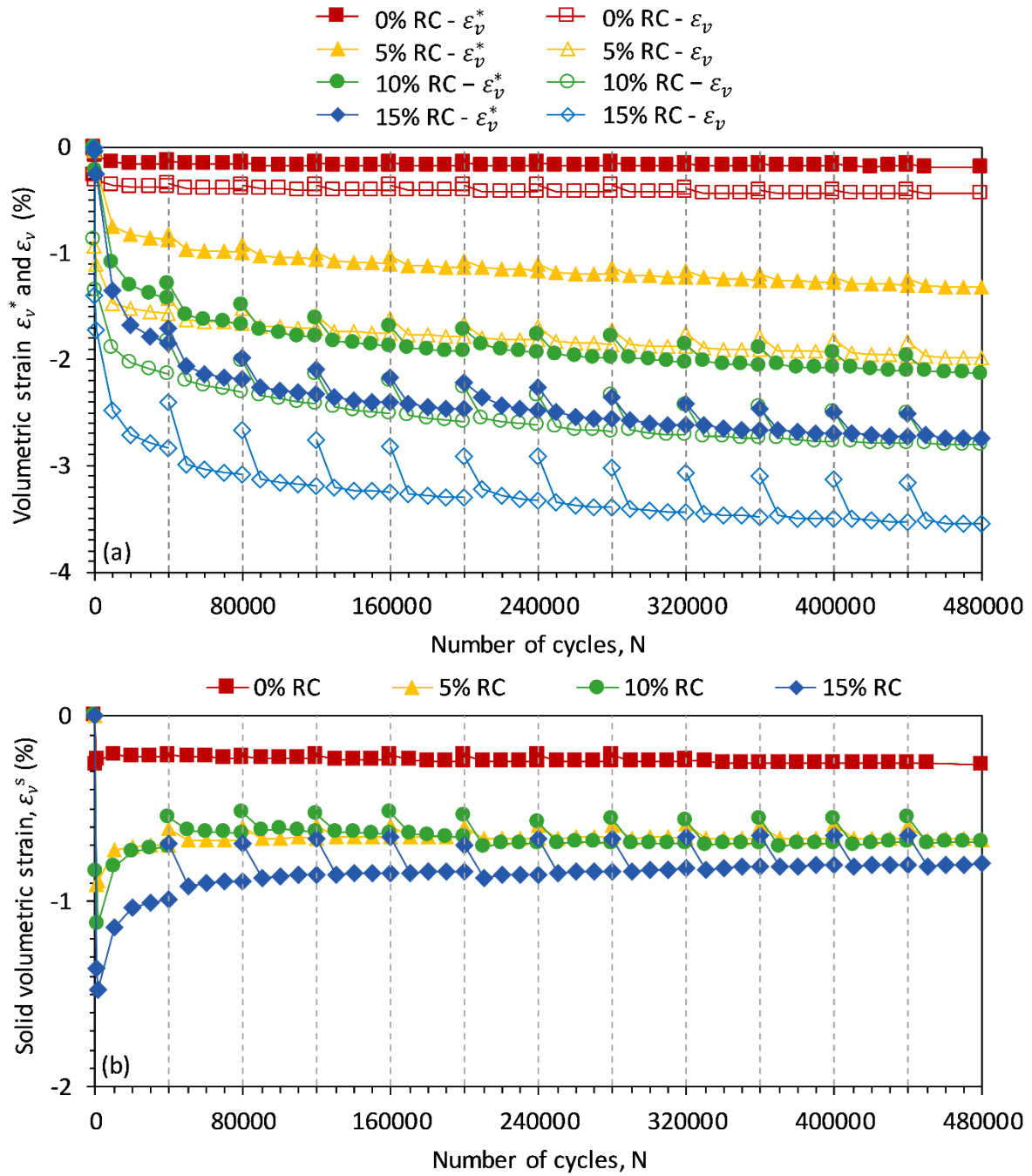


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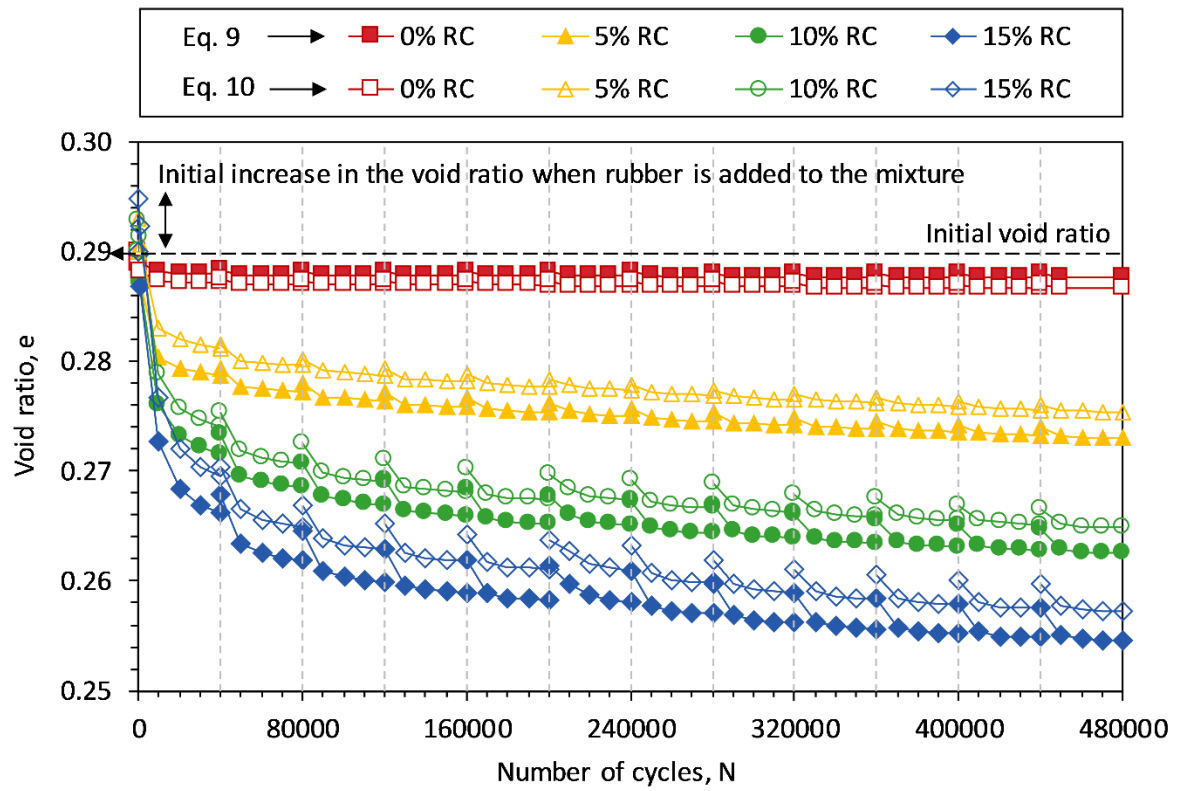


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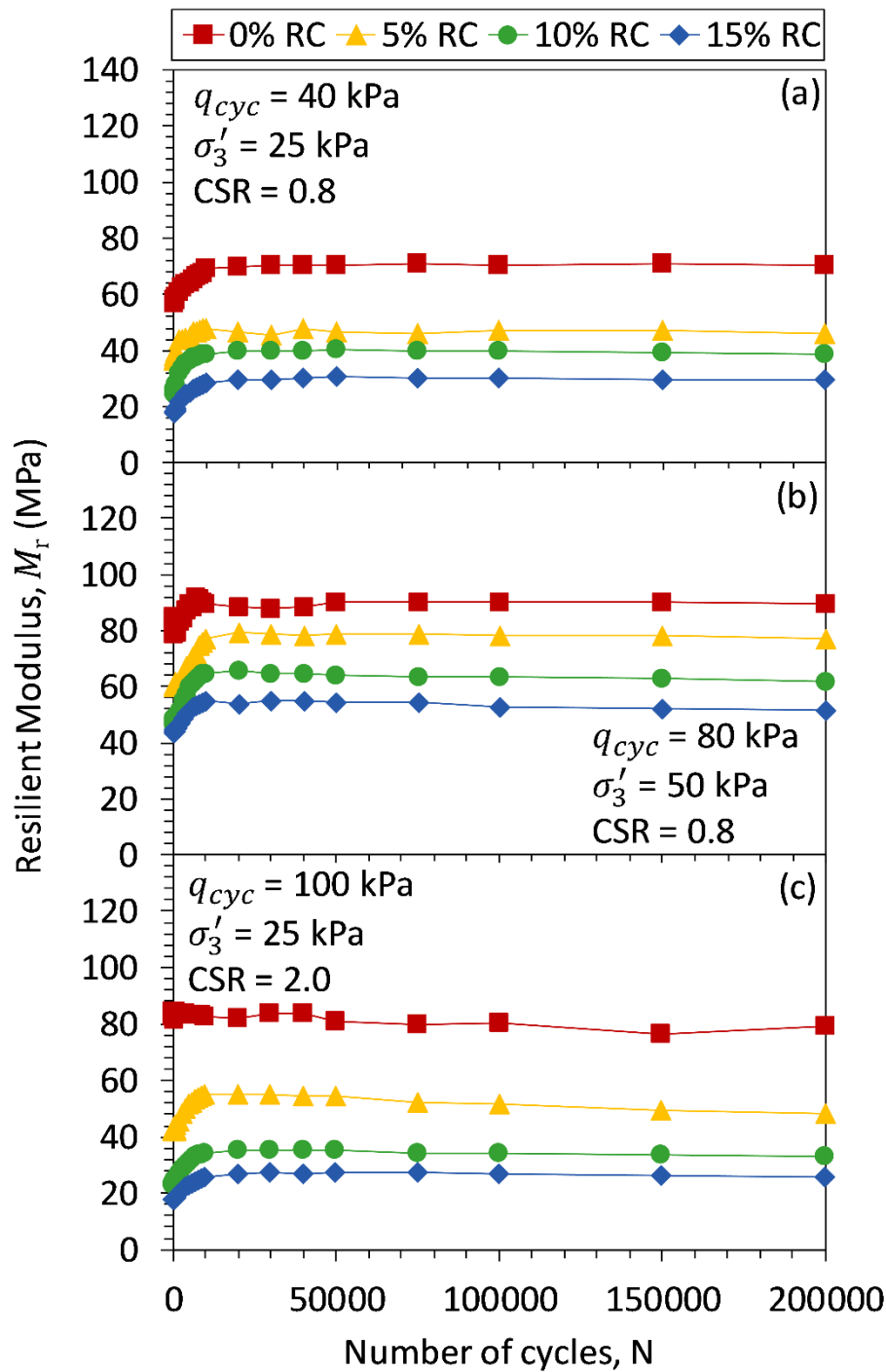


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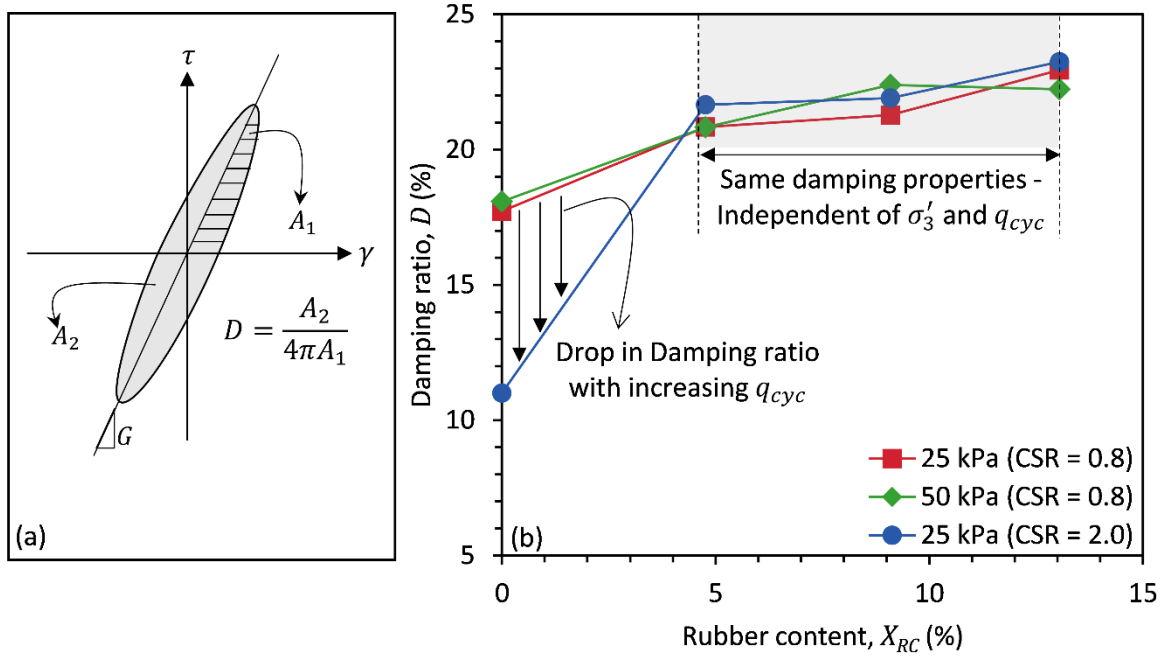


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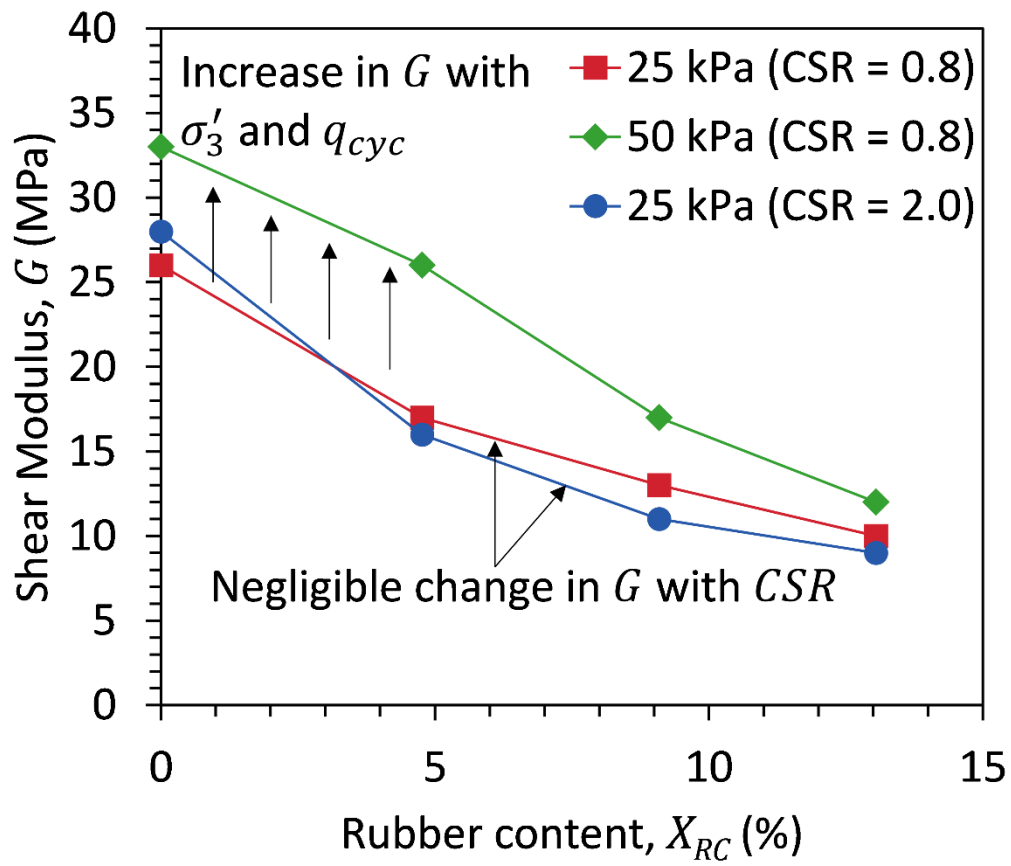


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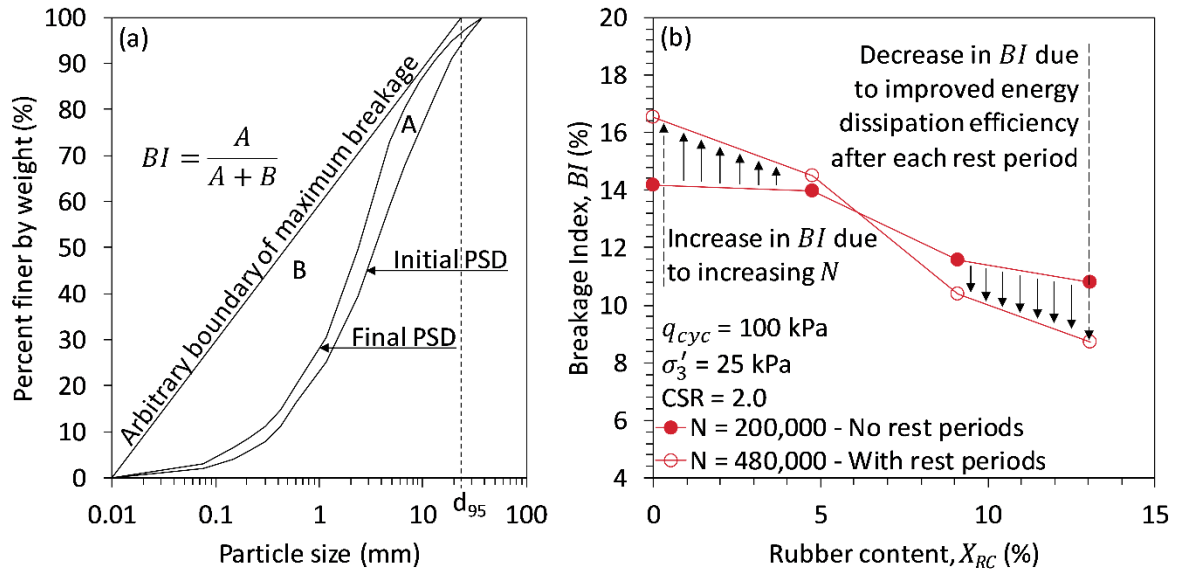


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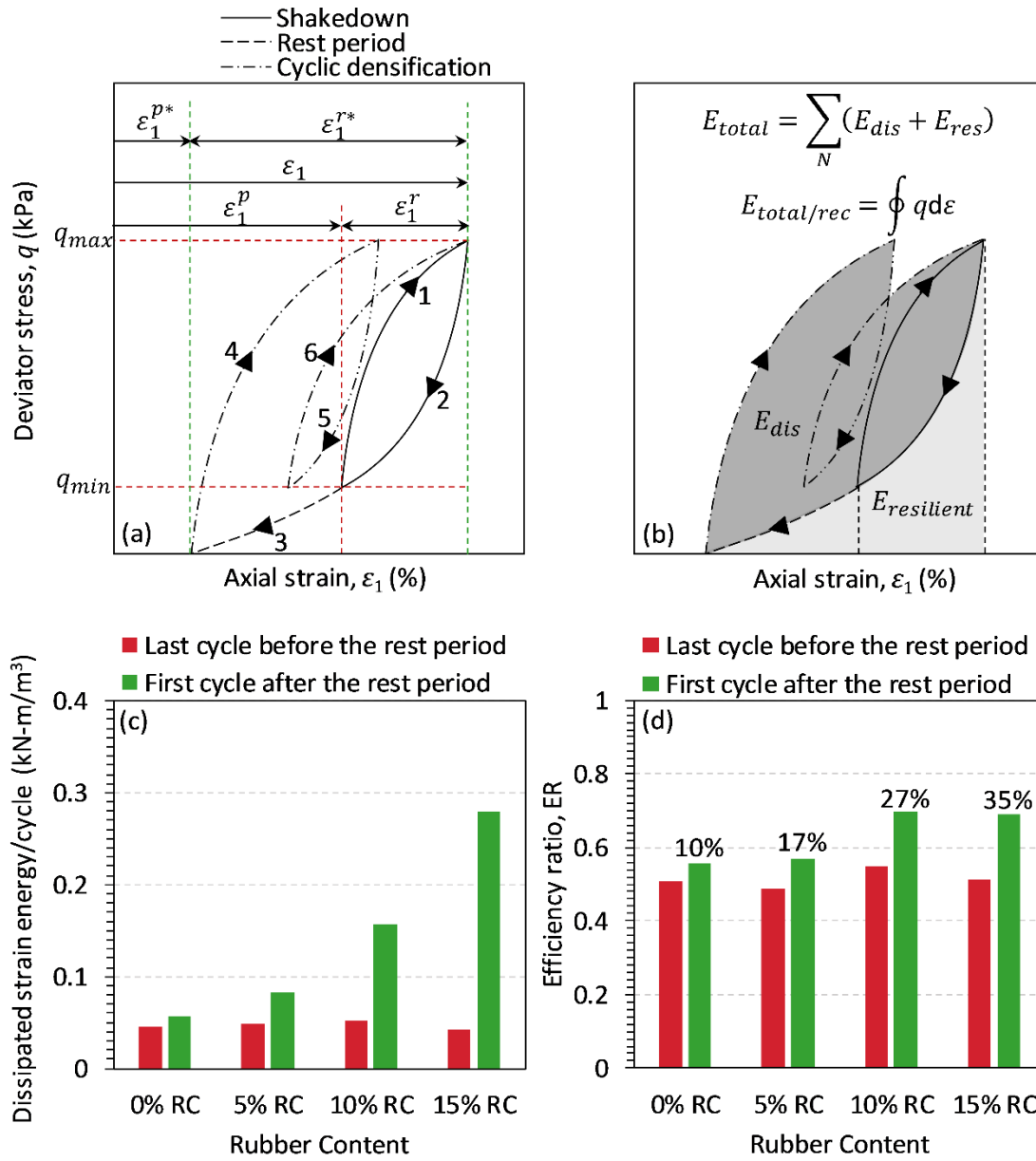


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