

Strength and Durability Studies on Concrete using Cashew Nut Shell Ash (CNSA) waste as Supplementary Materials

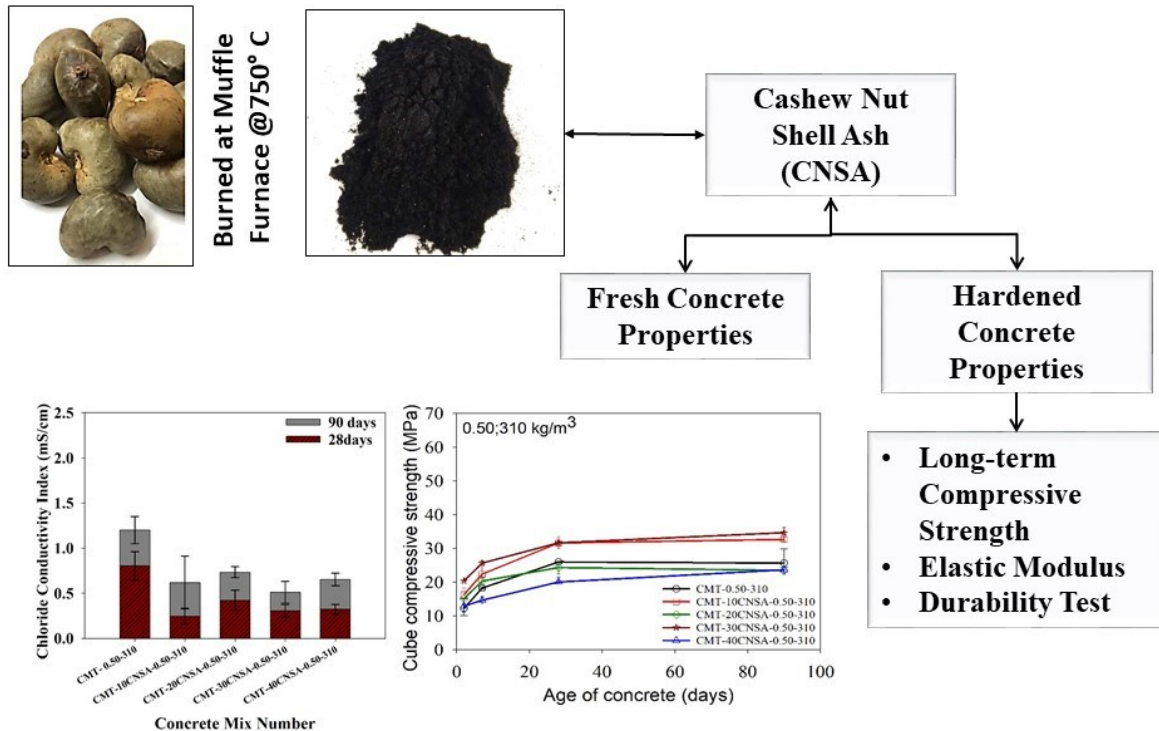
Sakthivel T.¹ and Suthaviji S.²

¹PSG Institute of Technology and Applied Research, Coimbatore, India

²Dr. Mahalingam College of Engineering and Technology, Pollachi, India

Corresponding Author: thanga.sakthivel@gmail.com

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



ABSTRACT:

As the world population is expected to increase significantly, there is a greater need for housing and, as a result, building materials. Conventional manufacturing methods for materials such as concrete involve substantial energy usage and substantial release of carbon emissions, which contribute to environmental deterioration. This study investigates the incorporation of Cashew Nut Shell Ash (CNSA) as a partial replacement for Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC) as primary cement, while CNSA formed binary blends. The study examined various water-to-binder ratios (0.55, 0.50, and 0.45) and a total binder content of 310 kg/m³, with replacement levels at 0%, 10%, 20%, 30%, and 40%. Compressive strength tests were performed at 2, 7, 28, and 90 days, shows a consistent increase in strength over time. Optimal CNSA content (10-30%) enhanced long-term strength due to its pozzolanic activity. Additionally, the elastic modulus was tested, indicating improved stiffness in mixes containing CNSA in comparison with the conventional concrete systems. Durability tests

26 such as Rapid Chloride Permeability Test and carbonation depth analysis showed that CNSA
27 addition generally decreased chloride conductivity, thereby enhancing durability. However,
28 replacement levels (beyond 40%) exhibited diminishing returns. The results suggest that
29 CNSA is a viable partial replacement for cement, improving concrete's workability, density,
30 and long-term strength while enhancing durability against chloride penetration and
31 carbonation. These findings support CNSA's potential in creating sustainable and resilient
32 concrete systems.

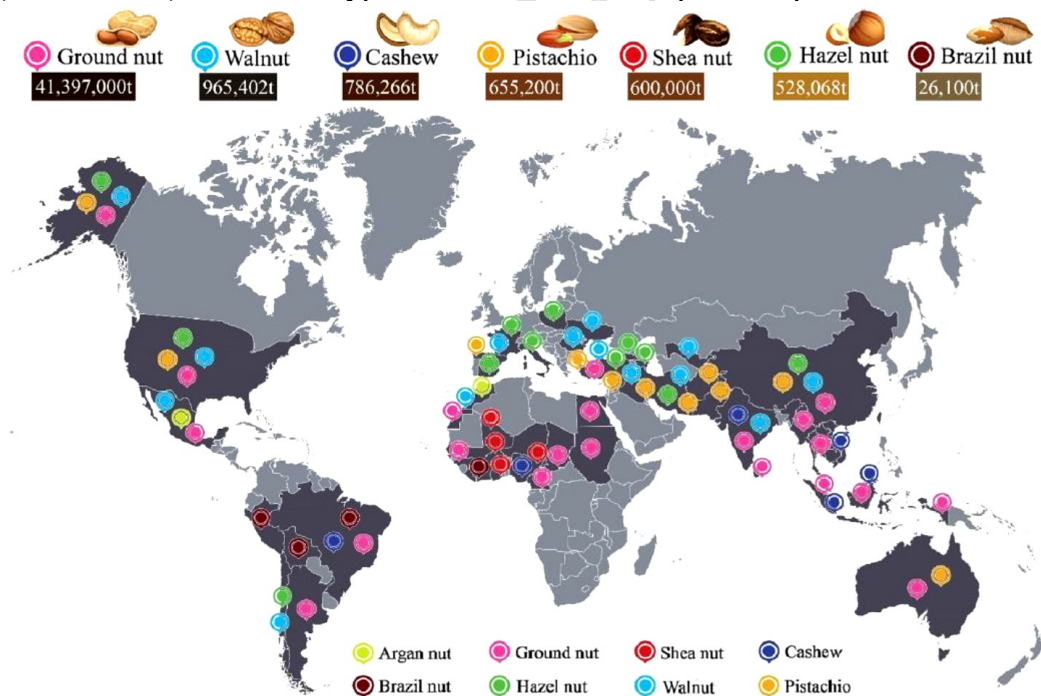
33

34 Keywords: Agricultural Waste, Solid Waste Management, Cashew Nut Shell
35 Ash, Strength, Durability.

36 1 INTRODUCTION

37 The world population is expected to increase significantly, reaching 9.70 billion
38 in 2050 and 11.20 billion by the end of this century which will ultimately cause a
39 substantial increase in the demand for housing. As a result, the production of building
40 materials such as steel, concrete, etc. will increase as the industry strives to meet the
41 demand. Similarly, the cost for processing and fabrication could also increase. In
42 continuation, high energy demand is required for the production of conventional concrete
43 (Nath et al., 2018; Latawiec et al., 2018). It has been well known that the production of
44 conventional cement is one of the major sources of global CO₂ emissions which together
45 with other greenhouse gases is considered to be responsible for 60% of global warming
46 (Aprianti, 2017; Zhang et al., 2017; Rashad, 2015; Priya and Padmanaban, 2024). The
47 majority of developing nations still depends on the agriculture-based economy, which
48 results in an annual production of large amounts of solid waste that are not properly
49 managed. Such agro-based by solid waste are typically economical, readily available,
50 and able to reduce the level of CO₂ efficiently (Sinka et al., 2018; Martinez, 2017;
51 Swaminathan and Bhagavathi Pushpa (2024). As a result, the use of these by-products in
52 construction sector has taken on a greater global significance and substantial works has
53 been carried out to make various forms of construction products to reduce environmental
54 trash and to protect against the depletion of raw materials (Jones and Brischke, 2017;
55 Sandak et al., 2019; Brunklus and Riise 2018; Paramasivan, Rajagopal 2023, Nagaraju
56 et al., 2023(a), Nagaraju et al., 2023(b). Solid waste or Agricultural by products such as
57 ground nut, rice husk, coir fibres etc are being used as replacements for aggregate, sand,
58 and cement in the manufacture of brick and concrete systems (Maheshwaran et al.,
59 2023). Furthermore, past studies were carried out on the utilization of these by-
60 products/residues in various forms to manufacture construction materials. In the recent
61 past, usage of agriculture by product such as, groundnut shell ash, Rice husk ash, bagasse
62 and cashew nut shell ash has been used as a supplementary binder to produce a
63 sustainable concrete system (Sokolova et al., 2018; Memon et al., 2020; He et al, 2020).
64 Million tonnes of nuts are being produced yearly across the world (as seen in Figure 1),
65 and these by-products from the nut processing industries are thrown away in large
66 quantities. Nigeria, Brazil, India, Vietnam, and Central America are the major countries
67 that grow and produce cashew nuts a commercial crop. The Food and Agriculture
68 Organization of the United Nations reports that Nigeria produces an average of 636,000
69 metric tonnes of cashew nuts annually. Cashew Nut is the major nut that has been
70 produced in most of the countries; also, it has noted that about 68% of the total quantity
71 of the raw cashew is generated as a byproduct called shell (nut shell). Several factors
72 contribute to the significant generation of such wastes The large-scale production and
73 processing of cashew nuts result in substantial quantities of shells, which are often
74 burned to extract valuable oils, leaving behind ash. This process is widespread in major

75 cashew-producing countries where cashew nuts are a significant agricultural product.
 76 The management of CNSA waste varies. In some regions, the ash is disposed of in
 77 landfills or used as a low-grade fertilizer. However, these methods are not
 78 environmentally sustainable and can contribute to pollution. The cashew nut shell has
 79 been used in the various industries for manufacturing/product making, such as oil
 80 extraction etc. Cashew Nut Shell Ash (CNSA) is an agro based by-products that need to
 81 go through a calcination process, to improve their properties both in fresh and hardened
 82 state. Depending on the type, these processes were typically carried out at a higher
 83 temperature of between 400 and 800 °C (Ramadhansyah et al., 2012; Memon et al.,
 84 2020; Ábrego et al., 2018). The work primarily concentrates on the applicability of the
 85 CNSAs as a sustainable supplementary binder in the concrete to evaluate the pozzolanic
 86 reactivity, its long-term performance such as compressive strength development, elastic
 87 modulus, durability, shrinkage and the corrosion properties in the steel embedded
 88 systems. Also, The present work will provide a data bank for the adaptation of CNSA as
 89 binder in the general construction practice. , From the studies of Mgayya, et.al., 2019, it
 90 clears shows that the nearly 68% of raw cashew nut has generated as shell. Also, the
 91 majority of processing firms generate a cashew nutshell as a solid waste, which they then
 92 carelessly discard, or burn and some time it has adopted an uncontrolled burning
 93 technique (Saroj, 2015; Akinhanmi et al., 2008; Ogundiran et al., 2011). The carbons in
 94 these under-burnt cashew nut shells (say, < 400 °C) are more unburned. Cashew nut shell
 95 ash (CCNA) is calcined at temperatures between 400 and 800 °C, producing particles
 96 that are white and greyish which shows high silica that has been crystallized (Paper et al.,
 97 2010; Oyebisi et al., 2019). CaO-based CCNA (35.67% max) and SiO₂-based CCNA
 98 (62.85% max) are the two types of CCNA that are exposed in past studies.



99
 100 Figure 1 Worldwide yearly nut production (*The International Nut and Dried Fruit Council*
 101 *Foundation (INC), Nuts & Dried) Fruits Statistical Yearbook, 2020)*

102 The fresh and hardened properties of these two CCNA variants have different
 103 characteristics. Due to the low and absence of CaO, which indicates retarder behavior,
 104 SiO₂- based CCNA with OPC improves the slump flow and compaction factor also, the
 105 initial state of hydration. It confirms that the CNSA can be used as a pozzolanic
 106 component in blended concrete systems. Also, as the amount of CNSA in the mix

107 increases, the fresh and hardened properties such as compressive strength, split tensile
108 strength increases with the dosage (Saroj, 2015). In case of durability test like external
109 sulphate attack, concrete blended with CNSA exhibited better resistance to sulphate
110 attack than with non-blended systems. Generally, it is recommended that 15% can be
111 replaced for structural concrete and 20% for non-structural concrete elements (Oyebisi
112 et al., 2019). Studies from Oyebisi et al., 2019 conducted the test on CNSA from
113 various sources. He reported that the oxide composition and the physical properties are
114 independent to the source and the values are comparable. India is the one of the major
115 sources of cultivating cashew nut and a substantial quantity of cashews has been
116 exported to other countries. Studies from Tantri et al., 2022, reported that use of Un
117 Calcined Cashew Nut-Shell Ash (UCCNA) in the ternary blend as a whole could be to
118 be illogical, and it appeared to have a contrary effect on the mechanical performance of
119 concrete systems UCCNA was found to be very helpful in regards to dynamic
120 instability. The potential replacement of CNSA was found to be 30% also, when 25% of
121 CNSA is used by replacement with conventional OPC, sorptivity and water absorption
122 and of the blended concrete are reduced. The sorptivity index for the CNSA were in the
123 range of $1.45 \text{ mm/min}^{0.5}$ (45% CNSA) and $0.73 \text{ mm/min}^{0.5}$ (25% CNSA), however, for
124 conventional concrete systems, it was observed as $1.81 \text{ mm/min}^{0.5}$ (Pandi and Ganesan,
125 2015). Past studies reported that the optimum percentage of replacement of CCNA in a
126 cement concrete system is in the range of 20% to 30% with OPC The strength activation
127 index has been found be increased as 75% after a standard curing condition. It was
128 found that UCCNA evaluated SCC blends were more stable and exhibited fewer
129 shrinkage characteristics (Tantri et al., 2022). The strength development of CNSA has
130 been found increased with time in connection with the percentage of replacement. Pandi
131 and Ganesan, 2015 concluded that the selected durability properties of CNSA concrete
132 show a better performance in comparison with the non-blended concrete say OPC. The
133 inclusion of Cashew Nut Shell Ash (CNSA) in concrete enhances its durability by
134 improving its resistance to chemical attacks, reducing permeability, and increasing
135 compressive strength. CNSA's fine particles fill voids within the concrete matrix,
136 leading to a denser and more cohesive material. This reduces the ingress of harmful
137 substances, such as chlorides and sulfates, which can cause degradation. Additionally,
138 the pozzolanic properties of CNSA contribute to the formation of additional calcium
139 silicate hydrate (C-S-H), further strengthening the concrete and prolonging its lifespan.

140 The proper utilization of CNSA in the construction industry would lower costs,
141 mitigate the technical, and environmental risks associated with the production of OPC
142 systems, thus in due time it could reduce solid waste, , and enhance the long term
143 properties of hardened concrete systems.Hence, the present work focused on the
144 potential usages of CNSA as a supplementary material and the possible replacement to
145 the ordinary portland cement. Also, the study adopted the perception of reactivity index
146 by examining the mineralogical and chemical constituents of CNSA, to develop the
147 blended concrete mix proportion with the OPC systems. In addition, the data on
148 durability parameters in different environmental condition (such as, chloride, gas, and
149 water) are scarcely available on in connection with CNSA. The experimental outcomes
150 will be compared with that of the conventional concrete systems and recommendations
151 will provided to incorporate in the standards. Additionally, by eliminating the need for
152 multiple-trial tests, the predictions from the present work would significantly improve
153 the mix design of blended concrete systems in particular to CNSA. Initially trial mixes
154 has been carried out to find the optimum percentage of super plasticizer, followed by the
155 main mixes has been cast for the long-term compressive strength, elastic modulus and
156 for the durability studies. The work consist of the above mentioned tests.

157
158
159
160
161
162
163
164
165
166
167
168
169
170
171
172
173
174
175
176
177
178
179
180
181
182
183
184
185
186
187
188
189
190
191
192
193
194
195
196
197

2 METHODOLOGY AND WORKFLOW

Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC) Grade 53, meeting the specifications of IS 12269, labelled as CMT, served as primary cements in this study. Cashew Nut Shell Ash (CNSA) was utilized as partial replacements in concrete mixes, resulting in the formulation of binary blends. Table 1 presents the physical properties [according to IS 1727-2004, ASTM C204-11] and oxide composition obtained from X-ray diffraction for the materials. Notably, the oxide composition of cements proved comparable and fell within the expected range and CNSA showed as a potential for supplementary cementitious materials. Crushed granite, sized between 5 - 10 mm and 10 - 20 mm, served as coarse aggregate in a 40:60 proportion, while locally sourced sand, with a maximum size of 5 mm, acted as fine aggregate. The coarse to fine aggregate ratio was fixed at 40:60. Physical properties and sieve analysis for the aggregates were conducted in accordance with IS 2386-I and III standards. The fine aggregate fell within Zone II, as per IS 383-2007 particle size distribution guidelines. To achieve the desired target slump of 100 ± 20 mm, SNF-based superplasticizers were incorporated. Mix design followed the protocol outlined in IS 10262:2009, with aggregates assumed to be in a saturated surface dry (SSD) condition. Before batching, aggregate moisture content was assessed, and necessary adjustments were made to estimate the water content required for SSD conditions. Concrete mixtures were prepared for varying water-to-binder ratios of 0.55; 0.50 and 0.45 and total binder content: 0.310 kg/m^3 . These mixes incorporated with 0%, 10%, 20%, 30% and 40% replacement levels of cement with CNSA as listed in Table 2.

Compressive strength tests were conducted on all concrete mixes considered in the study. For each mix, three 100 mm cube specimens were tested at ages 2, 7, 28 and 90, days of curing in a moist room. Testing utilized a compression testing frame with a 3000 kN capacity, with loading controlled at a rate of $140 \text{ kgf/cm}^2/\text{min}$ as per IS-516:1959 recommendations. ASTM C 469 procedure was adopted to determine the static elastic modulus of concrete. For each mix, three cylindrical specimens of 150 mm diameter and 300 mm height were tested for their elastic modulus at 28 days. The Rapid Chloride Permeability Test, conducted according to ASTM C1202(2012) standards, was carefully performed on cylindrical sliced specimens measuring 100 mm in diameter and 50 mm in thickness. This test plays a crucial role in evaluating concrete's ability to withstand chloride ion penetration, a critical aspect in determining its durability. Following the designated curing period, essential for allowing the concrete to achieve its desired strength, the specimens underwent further preparation. They were placed in a vacuum desiccator for approximately 24 hours, removing excess moisture from their surfaces to ensure precise and consistent test outcomes. The total charge passed was calculated based on the trapezoidal rule. This charged passed used to categorise the concrete in to various classes. The equation 1 is used to calculate the charge passed

$$Q = 900 (I_0 + 2 I_{30} + 2 I_{60} + \dots + 2 I_{330} + I_{360}) \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

198
199
200
201
202
203
204

where

Q = Charge passed (Coulombs)

I_0 = Current immediately after voltage is applied (Amperes)

I_t = Current at 't' minutes after voltage is applied (Amperes)

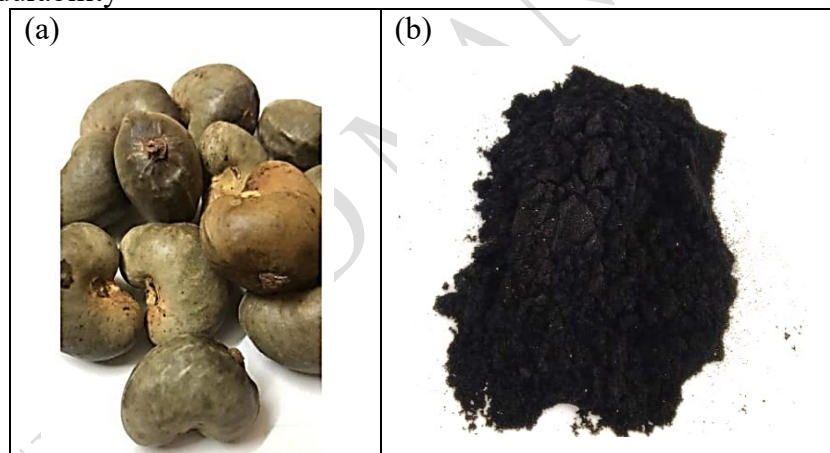
The accelerated carbonation process adhered to the guidelines outlined in RILEM TC 56 – MHM, 1988, utilizing prismatic specimens measuring $100 \times 100 \times 400$ mm. The specimens were transferred to a carbonation chamber under conditions set to

205 1% CO₂ concentration. To facilitate lateral diffusion of CO₂, the side surfaces of the
 206 specimens were coated with paraffin. On specified dates, the specimens were sliced
 207 (approximately 120 mm) and sprayed with phenolphthalein indicator. In the case of
 208 carbonated concrete, the surface remained color less, while non-carbonated concrete
 209 exhibited a pink color, providing a visual indication of carbonation status. This method
 210 ensured accurate assessment of carbonation depth and the effectiveness of carbonation
 211 resistance. The measurement of carbonation depth at various time intervals allows for
 212 the calculation of the carbonation rate or carbonation velocity by applying the square
 213 root of time relationship. This relationship is expressed by the square root of time law,
 214 as shown in Equation 2.
 215

$$x = k \cdot \sqrt{t} \quad \text{Equation 2.}$$

216 where
 217 x = Depth of carbon dioxide penetration (mm)
 218 k = Carbonation rate (mm/ $\sqrt{\text{year}}$)
 219 t = Time (year)

220 The inclusion of CNSA in concrete systems contributes to workability and overall density
 221 by improving the mixture's consistency and cohesion. Its fine particles help to create a more
 222 uniform blend, enhancing the ease with which the concrete can be mixed and poured.
 223 Additionally, CNSA fills in microscopic gaps within the concrete matrix, resulting in a
 224 denser, less porous medium. This increased density can improve the concrete's structural
 225 integrity and durability



226 Figure 2 (a) Dry Cashew nut shell (b) Cashew Nut Shell Ash
 227
 228

Table 1 Oxide composition and physical characteristics of different binders

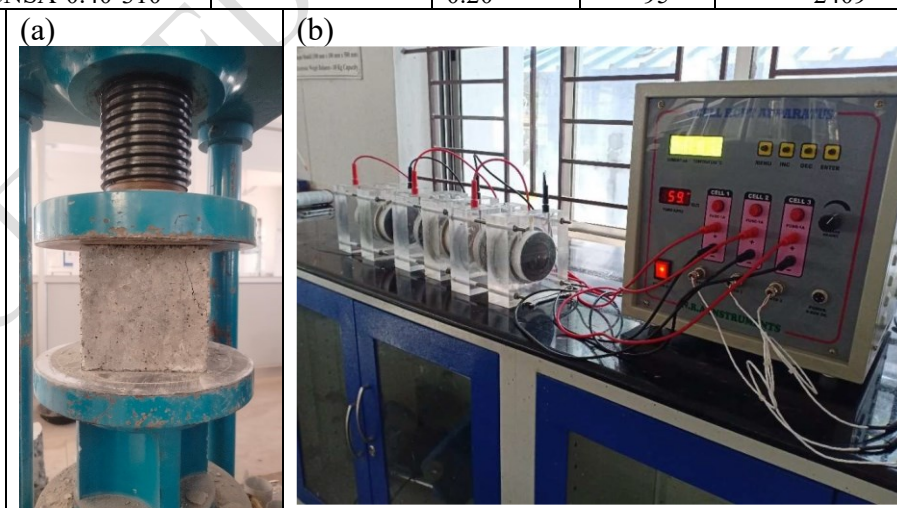
Oxide Composition (%)	OPC	CNSA
CaO	59.63	0.80
SiO ₂	20.42	63.87
Al ₂ O ₃	4.07	14.94
Fe ₂ O ₃	5.37	12.46
MgO	0.82	1.53
K ₂ O	0.27	0.51
Na ₂ O	0.23	0.34

SO ₃	0.20	1.03
Surface area (m ² /kg)	320	580
Specific gravity	3.18	3.12

229
230

231 **Table 2 Concrete Mixture Proportioning and Fresh Concrete Properties**

Mix No.	Mix ID	Concentration (kg/m ³)	SP (%)	Slump (mm)	Measured unit weight (kg/m ³)
1	CMT-0.55-310	FA:744 CA (10 mm): 477 CA (20 mm): 716 Water: 182	0.00	90	2385
2	CMT-10CNSA-0.55-310		0.04	135	2400
3	CMT-20CNSA-0.55-310		0.05	80	2400
4	CMT-30CNSA-0.55-310		0.05	95	2385
5	CMT-40CNSA-0.55-310		0.06	95	2410
6	CMT- 0.50-310	FA: 684 CA (10 mm): 529 CA (20 mm): 793 Water: 155	0.02	100	2400
7	CMT-10CNSA-0.50-310		0.01	120	2360
8	CMT-20CNSA-0.50-310		0.02	85	2400
9	CMT-30CNSA-0.50-310		0.03	130	2405
10	CMT-40CNSA-0.50-310		0.02	100	2400
11	CMT-0.45-310	FA: 743 CA (10 mm): 477 CA (20 mm): 715 Water: 155	0.02	100	2370
12	CMT-10CNSA-0.45-310		0.20	95	2400
13	CMT-20CNSA-0.45-310		0.15	130	2370
14	CMT-30CNSA-0.45-310		0.12	100	2405
15	CMT-40CNSA-0.45-310		0.15	95	2370
16	CMT-0.40-310	FA: 743 CA (10 mm): 477 CA (20 mm): 715 Water: 155 FA: 743	0.02	100	2375
17	CMT-10CNSA-0.40-310		0.20	95	2370
18	CMT-20CNSA-0.40-310		0.15	90	2420
19	CMT-30CNSA-0.40-310		0.15	100	2430
20	CMT-40CNSA-0.40-310		0.20	95	2409



232 Figure 3 (a) Compressive Strength Test Setup (b) Test setup of rapid chloride
233 permeability of concrete
234

235 3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

236 The compressive strength of concrete exhibited a consistent increase across all
237 mixtures over time, owing to the ongoing hydration processes. Notably, the rate of
238 strength gain appeared to vary, with a slower progression observed during the early ages
239 (specifically at 2 and 7 days), followed by more significant improvements at 28 and 90

240 days of curing as provided in Figure 4. Conventional concrete containing only cement
 241 demonstrated the highest early age strength at 2 and 7 days, attributed to the hydration
 242 of cement. However, its long-term strength gain at 28 and 90 days proved to be
 243 comparatively lower than that of blends incorporating CNSA. Mixtures incorporating
 244 10%, 20%, and 30% CNSA initially exhibited a slight reduction in strength at 2 and 7
 245 days compared to the control mix. Nevertheless, due to the pozzolanic activity of
 246 CNSA, they eventually surpassed the control mix in strength at later ages of 28 and 90
 247 days. Conversely, replacements with 40% CNSA experienced a more pronounced
 248 decrease in early age strength at 2 and 7 days compared to mixtures with lower CNSA
 249 contents. Furthermore, the long-term strength gain at 28 and 90 days was either lower
 250 than that of the control mix or showed minimal improvement. Substantial increase in
 251 strength was noticed at later ages with CNSA blends. This could be due to the
 252 pozzolanic reactions between the silica in CNSA and the calcium hydroxide. Raju et
 253 al.,2023(a) and Saroj, 2015 finding showed similar result and supported the present
 254 work. These findings suggest an optimal range for CNSA content (approximately 10-
 255 30% replacement) to enhance compressive strength, potentially due to CNSA's role as a
 256 pozzolanic material. This indicates its ability to react with calcium hydroxide, a by-
 257 product of cement hydration, to form additional compounds contributing to strength
 258 development in concrete.

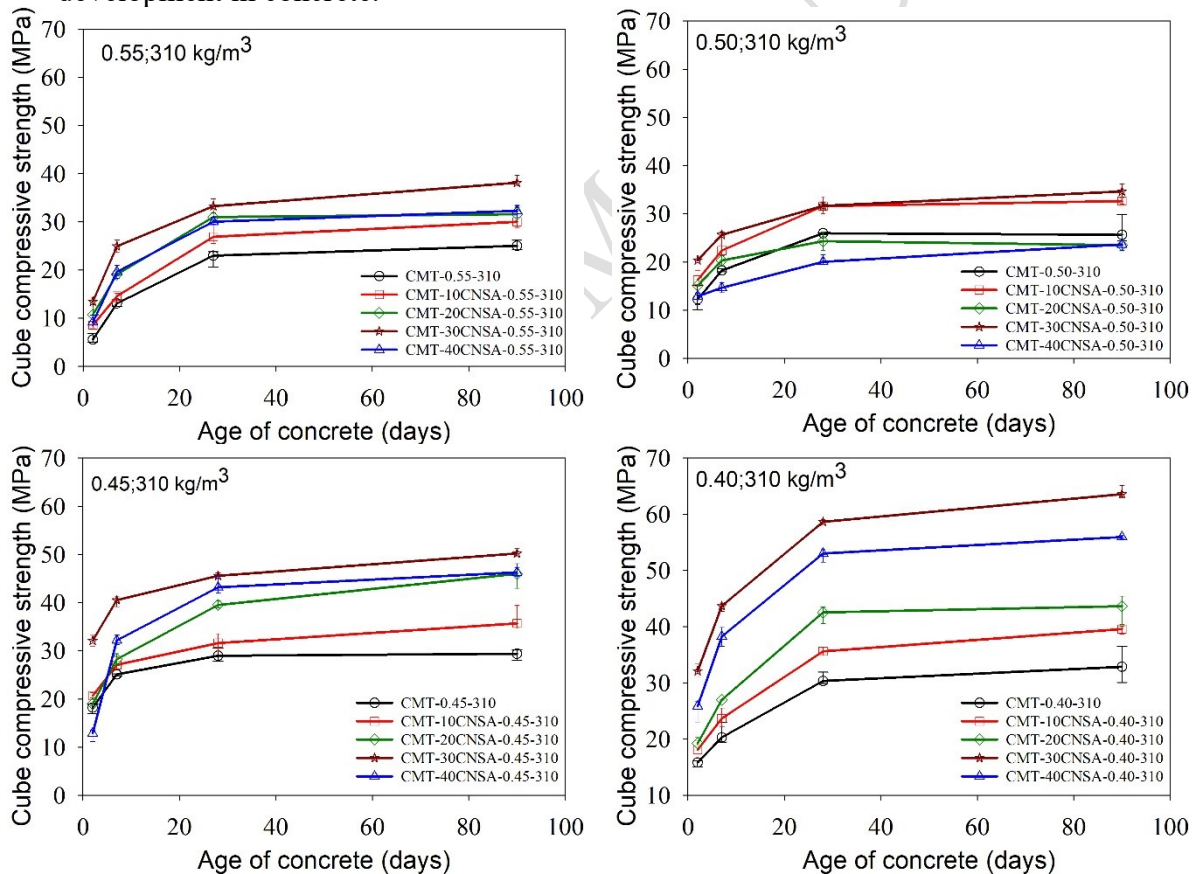


Figure 4 Compressive strength of the concrete with CNSA at different curing age.

259 The elastic modulus, also known as the modulus of elasticity, of concrete with
 260 varying replacement levels of CNSA - 0%, 10%, 20%, 30%, and 40% - was investigated
 261 in this study. The elastic modulus represents the material's ability to deform under stress
 262 and is a crucial parameter in assessing concrete's structural performance. As CNSA was
 263 used in the concrete mix at different replacement levels, the mechanical properties,
 264 including the elastic modulus, were expected to vary accordingly. Typically, higher
 265

266 replacement levels of CNSA might lead to changes in the concrete's microstructure,
 267 affecting its overall reduction in stiffness and elasticity. Based on the test, it can be
 268 inferred that the elastic modulus of concrete increases as the concrete mix proportion
 269 increases. The present work are in supported by the previous work of Memon et al.,
 270 2020; Ábrego et al., 2018 and confirmed that the concrete mix composition highly
 271 influence the elastic modulus of concrete. For example, the elastic modulus for CMT-
 272 0.55-310 is around 10 GPa, while the elastic modulus for CMT-40CNSA-0.55-310 is
 273 around 40 GPa as seen in Figure 5. The e-modulus at 28 days is higher for concrete
 274 mixes containing CNSA compared to those without CNSA. This is because the e-
 275 modulus for mixes containing CNSA (CMT-10CNSA-0.40-310, CMT-20CNSA-0.40-
 276 310, CMT-30CNSA-0.40-310, and CMT-40CNSA-0.40-310) is higher than the e-
 277 modulus for the mix without CNSA (CMT-0.40-310).
 278

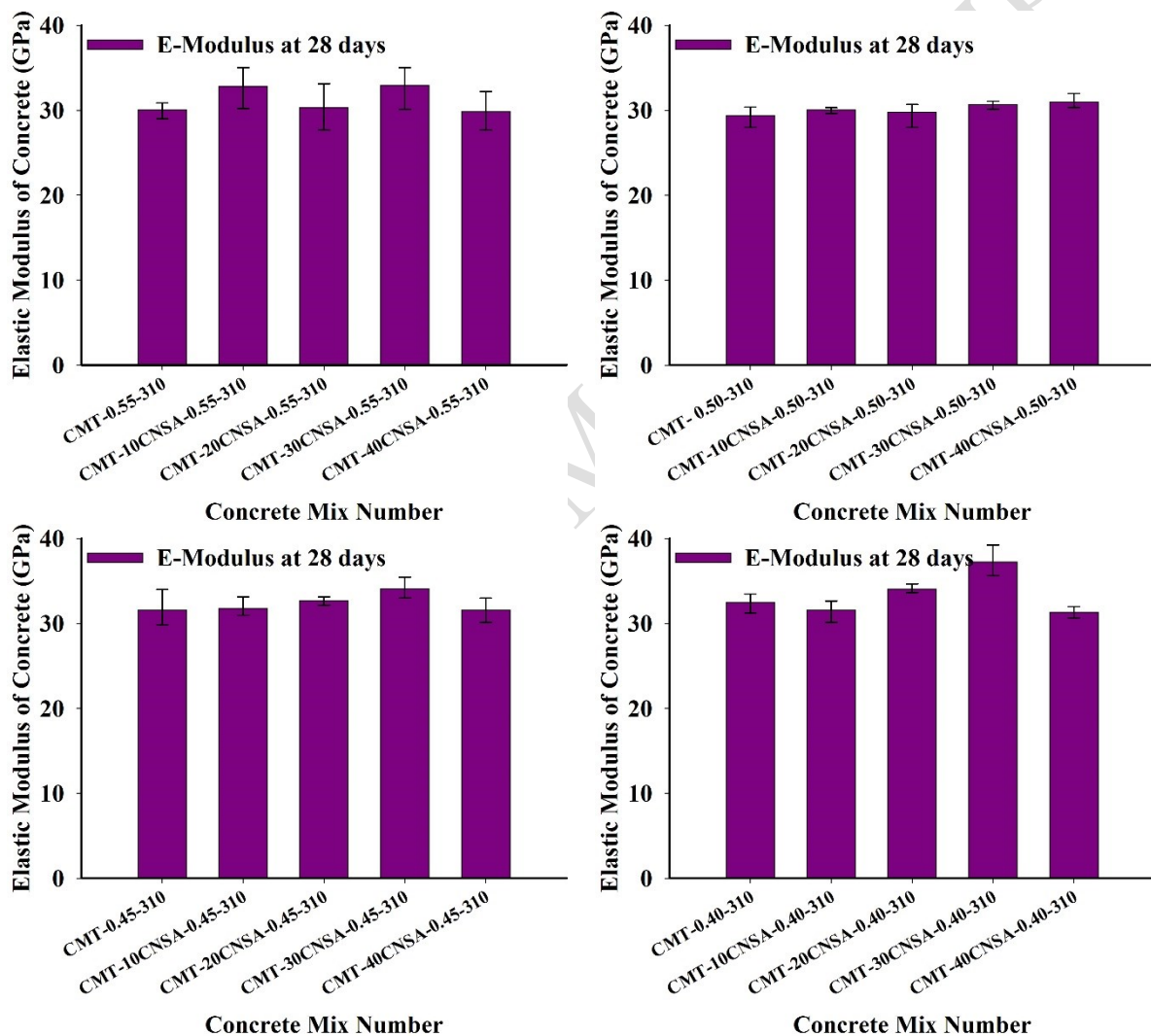


Figure 5 Elastic Modulus of the concrete with CNSA

279
 280 The effect of CNSA on the carbonation depth of concrete at various replacement
 281 levels - 0%, 10%, 20%, 30%, and 40% was investigated in this study as seen from the
 282 Figure 6. Carbonation depth refers to the penetration of carbon dioxide into concrete,
 283 which can lead to the deterioration of concrete structures over time. The inclusion of
 284 CNSA in concrete mixes at different replacement levels could potentially influence the
 285 concrete's porosity, permeability, and microstructure, subsequently affecting its

286 susceptibility to carbonation. Higher replacement levels of CNSA might result in
 287 changes to the concrete's composition and properties, altering its resistance to
 288 carbonation. By assessing the carbonation depth at different replacement levels, the
 289 study aimed to provide insights into the durability and long-term performance of
 290 concrete incorporating CNSA. Understanding how CNSA affects carbonation depth is
 291 crucial for designing sustainable and resilient concrete structures, particularly in
 292 environments where carbonation-induced deterioration is a concern. The incorporation
 293 of CNSA affects the permeability and porosity in the concrete systems as cited by Tantri
 294 et al., 2022; Pandi and Ganesan, 2015 Higher the replacement levels may alter these
 295 properties and thus influencing the depth of carbonation. The present study has been
 296 supported by recommendation by Raju et al., 2023 (b).

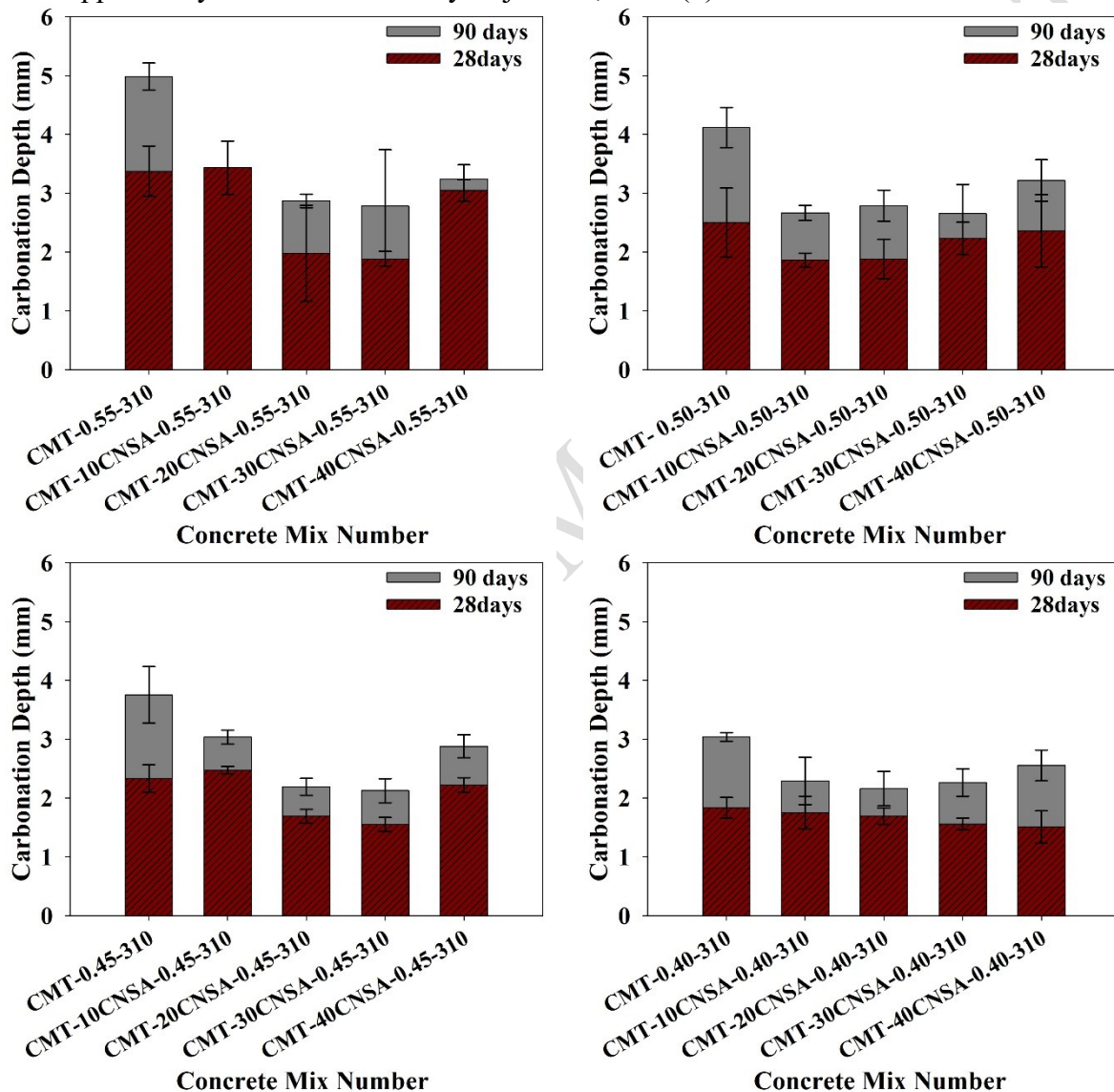


Figure 6 Carbonation Depth of concrete with CNSA

297 The use of cashew nut shell ash (CNSA) as a partial cement replacement in
 298 concrete has been studied for its performance enhancements. Studies by Rao et al., 2023
 299 also supported similar kind of results. One aspect of concrete performance that is often
 300 examined is its resistance to chloride ion penetration, as chloride ingress can lead to
 301 corrosion of reinforcement steel and ultimately degrade the structural integrity of
 302 concrete in marine or chloride-rich environments. Generally, the addition of CNSA tends
 303

304 to decrease the chloride conductivity of concrete compared to conventional concrete
 305 without CNSA. This is attributed to the pozzolanic reactions of CNSA, which can lead to
 306 denser microstructures and reduced permeability. The present study shows that different
 307 optimal replacement levels of CNSA for achieving the best balance between mechanical
 308 properties and durability performance, including chloride conductivity. The optimal
 309 replacement level may vary depending on factors such as the specific characteristics of
 310 the CNSA, mix design, curing conditions, and environmental exposure. As the
 311 replacement level of CNSA increases as 10%, 20%, 30%, 40%, there is typically a trend
 312 of decreasing chloride conductivity up to a certain level of replacement. However,
 313 beyond a 40% replacement level, there are a diminishing returns or even adverse effects
 314 on concrete property in terms of chloride conductivity
 315

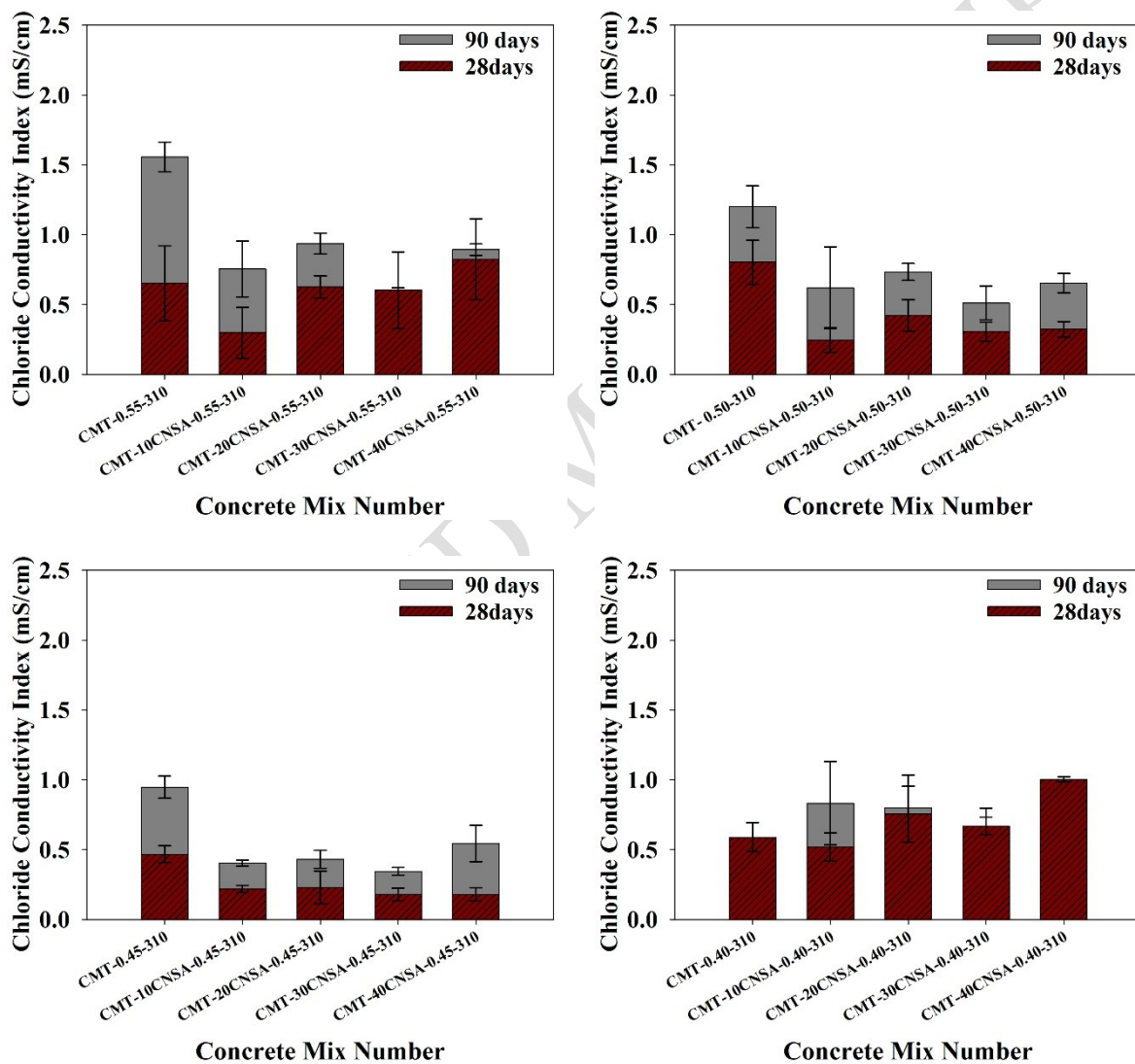


Figure 7 Chloride Conductivity of concrete with CNSA

316
317

318 4 CONCLUSION

319 Cashew Nut Shell Ash (CNSA) is increasingly being explored as a supplementary
 320 cementitious material (SCM) in concrete due to its potential performance enhancement.

321 Adopting CNSA helps manage waste from the cashew nut industry and reduces the
322 carbon footprint of concrete production, contributing to more sustainable construction.
323 CNSA's pozzolanic activity enhances long-term concrete strength and durability.
324 Economically, CNSA is a cost-effective alternative to traditional SCMs, especially in
325 regions with abundant cashew processing. However, successful adoption requires proper
326 mix design, careful curing, and consistent quality control to ensure optimal performance
327 and durability in the concrete systems.

- 328 1. The strength gain of concrete is typically slower at early ages when incorporate with
329 CNSA. Conventional concrete, made primarily with OPC, often shows higher early
330 age strength due to the rapid hydration rate. However, prolonged curing time, the
331 pozzolanic reaction in CNSA blends contribute to a higher long-term strength gain
332 compared to conventional concrete systems. This could be because of calcium
333 hydroxide in the presence of water to form C-S-H, which is responsible for the
334 strength and durability of concrete. This activity is optimal within the 10-30%
335 replacement range.
- 336 2. Elastic modulus increases with higher CNSA replacement levels, indicating a stiffer
337 material. CNSA-containing mixes exhibited higher elastic modulus compared to those
338 without CNSA, particularly at 28 days. This is due to the enhanced microstructure and
339 denser packing resulting from pozzolanic reactivity, which contribute to stiffer
340 concrete systems.
- 341 3. Inclusion of CNSA at different replacement levels influenced carbonation depth,
342 potentially due to changes in concrete's porosity and permeability. Higher
343 replacement levels might alter concrete's resistance to carbonation, impacting long-
344 term durability. This improves the density and reduces the permeability, which helps
345 resist carbonation; excessive replacement levels could make a negative impact this
346 balance.
- 347 4. CNSA addition generally decreases chloride conductivity, attributed to pozzolanic
348 reactions leading to denser microstructures and reduced permeability. Optimal
349 replacement level varies depending on CNSA characteristics, mix design, curing
350 conditions, and environmental exposure. Increasing CNSA replacement up to 40%
351 typically decreases chloride conductivity, but beyond this level, there may be
352 diminishing returns or adverse effects on concrete properties. The optimal level of
353 replacement to minimize chloride conductivity depends on various factors, such as
354 characteristics of the CNSA used, and the environmental exposure. Typically,
355 increasing CNSA replacement up to 40% decreases chloride conductivity. However,
356 beyond 40%, the benefits may diminish, and other concrete properties might be
357 adversely affected.

358
359 Overall, the study provides the potential benefits of incorporating CNSA in concrete
360 mixes, including improved mechanical properties, durability, and sustainability.
361 However, careful consideration of replacement levels is crucial to optimize performance
362 while ensuring desired properties are maintained.

363 5 REFERENCE

- 365 1 Ábrego, J., Plaza, D., Luno, F., Atienza-Martínez, M., Gea, G., (2018). Pyrolysis of
366 cashew nutshells: characterization of products and energy balance. *Energy*, (158), 72–80.
367 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2018.06.011>
- 368 2 Tantri, A., Nayak, G., Shenoy, A., Shetty, K. K., Achar, J., Kamath, M., (2022).
369 Implementation assessment of calcined and uncalcined cashew nut-shell ash with total
370 recycled concrete aggregate in self-compacting concrete employing Bailey grading

- 371 technique. *Innovative Infrastructure Solutions*, 7, 305, [https://doi.org/10.1007/s41062-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s41062-022-00907-8)
372 022-00907-8
- 373 3 Akinhanmi T.F, Atasié V.N., Akintokun P.O., (2008). Chemical composition and
374 physicochemical properties of cashew nut (*Anacardium occidentale*) oil and cashew nut
375 shell liquid. *Journal of Agricultural, Food and Environmental Sciences*, 2 (1), 1–10.
- 376 4 Aprianti S, (2017). A huge number of artificial waste material can be supplementary
377 cementitious material (SCM) for concrete production—a review part II. *Journal of Cleaner*
378 *Production*, 142, 4178–4194, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2015.12.115>.
- 379 5 ASTM C1202 (2010). Standard test method for electrical indication of concrete’s ability to
380 resist chloride penetration. *American Society for Testing and Materials*, USA
- 381 6 ASTM C204 (2011). Standard test methods for fineness of hydraulic cement by air
382 permeability apparatus. *American Society for Testing and Materials*, USA
- 383 7 ASTM C469 (2010). Standard Test Method for Static Modulus of Elasticity and Poisson’s
384 Ratio of Concrete in Compression. *American Society of Testing and Materials*, USA.
- 385 8 Broitman, D., Raviv, O., Ayalon, O., Kan I., (2018). Designing an agricultural vegetative
386 waste-management system under uncertain prices of treatment-technology output
387 products. *Waste Management*, 75, 37–43, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2018.01.041>.
- 388 9 Brunklaus, B., Riise, E., (2018) Bio-based Materials within the Circular Economy:
389 Opportunities and Challenges. *Designing Sustainable Technologies, Products and*
390 *Policies*, pp. 43–47.
- 391 10 Das, P., Sreelatha, T., Ganesh, A., (2004). Bio oil from pyrolysis of cashew nut shell
392 characterisation and related properties. *Biomass Bioenergy*, 27 (3) 265–275,
393 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biombioe.2003.12.001>
- 394 11 He. J., Kawasaki, S., Achal, V., (2020). The utilization of agricultural waste as agro-
395 cement in concrete: a review. *Sustainability*, 12, 6971, <https://doi.org/10.3390/SU12176971>
- 397 12 He K., Zhang J., Zeng Y., (2019). Knowledge domain and emerging trends of agricultural
398 waste management in the field of social science: *A scientometric review. Sci Total*
399 *Environ.* Jun 20; 670:236-244. doi: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.03.184.
- 400 13 Daniel, H., Perinaz, B.T., (2012). What a waste: a global review of solid waste
401 management. *Urban development series*, knowledge papers no. 15, World Bank 15 116,
402 <http://hdl.handle.net/10986/17388>.
- 403 14 IS 10262 (2009). Indian Standard methods for Concrete Mix Proportioning – Guidelines,
404 *Bureau of Indian Standards*, New Delhi, India.
- 405 15 IS 12269 (2013). Indian Standard Ordinary Portland Cement, 53 GRADE —
406 Specification, *Bureau of Indian Standards*, New Delhi, India.
- 407 16 IS 1727 (2004). Indian Standard methods of test for pozzolanic materials, *Bureau of*
408 *Indian Standards*, New Delhi, India.
- 409 17 IS 383 (2007). Indian Standard methods of test for Specification for Coarse and Fine
410 Aggregates from Natural Sources for Concrete, *Bureau of Indian Standards*, New Delhi,
411 India.
- 412 18 IS 516 (2004) Indian standard methods of tests for strength of concrete, *Bureau of Indian*
413 *Standards*, New Delhi, India.
- 414 19 Mgaya, J., Shombe, G.B., Masikane, S.C., Mlowe, S., Mubofu E.B., Revaprasadu N.,
415 (2018). Cashew nut shell: a potential bio-resource for the production of bio-sourced
416 chemicals, materials and fuels, *Green Chemistry*. doi: 10.1039/c8gc02972e
- 417 20 Jones, C., Brischke, C., (2017). Performance of bio-based building materials, *Woodhead*
418 *Publishing*.

- 419 21 Latawiec, R., Woyciechowski, P., Kowalski, K.J., (2018). Sustainable concrete
420 performance CO₂ emission, *Environments*, 5 (2) 27, <https://doi.org/10.3390/environments>
421 5020027.
- 422 22 Maheshwaran, J., Regin, J. J., Ilanthalir, A., (2023). Influence of chemical and thermal
423 treatment methods on the mechanical and micro-structural characteristics of coconut shell
424 based concrete, *Global NEST Journal*, 25(10), 56-64.
- 425 23 Martinez, R. G, (2017). Hygrothermal assessment of a prefabricated timber-frame
426 construction based in hemp. *Procedia Environmental Sciences*, 38 729–736,
427 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.proenv.2017.03.155>.
- 428 24 Memon, S.A., Khan, S., Wahid, I., Shestakova, Y., Ashraf, M., (2020). Evaluating the
429 effect of calcination and grinding of corn stalk ash on pozzolanic potential for sustainable
430 cement-based materials. *Advances in Materials Science and Engineering*. [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/1619480)
431 10.1155/2020/1619480
- 432 25 Nagaraju, T. V., Mantena, S., Azab, M., Alisha, S. S., El Hachem, C., Adamu, M.,
433 Murthy, P. S. R. (2023). Prediction of high strength ternary blended concrete containing
434 different silica proportions using machine learning approaches. *Results in Engineering*, 17,
435 100973.
- 436 26 Nagaraju, T. V., Bahrami, A., Azab, M., Naskar, S. (2023). Development of sustainable
437 high performance geopolymer concrete and mortar using agricultural biomass—A strength
438 performance and sustainability analysis. *Frontiers in Materials*, 10, 1128095.
- 439 27 Nath, A.J, Lal, R, Das, A.K., (2018). Fired bricks: CO₂ emission and food insecurity.
440 *Global Challenges*, 2, <https://doi.org/10.1002/gch2.201700115>.
- 441 28 Ogundiran, M.B., Babayemi, J.O., Nzeribe, C.G., (2011). Application of waste cashew nut
442 shell ash showed significant reduction in mobility of pb and cd in waste battery
443 contaminated soil, *Pacific Journal of Science and Technology*. 12 (2), 121–126.
- 444 29 Oyebisi, S., Igba, T., Oniyide, D., (2019). Performance evaluation of cashew nutshell ash
445 as a binder in concrete production. *Case Studies in Construction Materials*. 11:e00293.
446 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cscm.2019.e00293>
- 447 30 Pandi, K., Ganesan, K., (2015). Effect of Water Absorption and Sorptivity of Concrete
448 with Partial Replacement of Cement by Cashew Nut Shell Ash. *Australian Journal of*
449 *Basic and Applied Sciences*, 9(23), 311-316
- 450 31 Paper, C., Ara, S., Gerai, M., (2010) Analysis of the cashew nut production *I pro-Africa*
451 *conference*
- 452 32 Paramasivan, S., Rajagopal, T., (2023). Strength studies on concrete using e-plastic waste
453 as coarse aggregate. *Global NEST Journal*, 25(10), 212-215.
- 454 33 Priya, S.S., Padmanaban, I., (2024). Effect of coconut shell ash as an additive on the
455 properties of green concrete. *Global NEST Journal*, 26(1), 05413.
- 456 34 Raju, G. K., Nagaraju, T. V., Jagadeep, K., Rao, M. V., & Varma, V. C. (2023). Waste-to-
457 energy agricultural wastes in development of sustainable geopolymer concrete. *Materials*
458 *Today: Proceedings*.
- 459 35 Raju, J. N. S. S. N., Nagaraju, T. V., Varma, V. C., Alisha, S. S., Jagadeep, K., (2023).
460 Eco-efficient biowaste and aqua waste as cementitious material in high performance
461 concrete. *Materials Today: Proceedings*.
- 462 36 Ramadhansyah, P.J., Mahyun, A.W., Salwa, M.Z.M., Abu, B.B.H., Megat, J.M.A., Wan
463 I.M.H. (2012). Thermal analysis and pozzolanic index of rice husk ash at different
464 grinding time. *Proc Eng* 50:101–109. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.proeng.2012.10.013>
- 465 37 Rao, M. V., Sivagamasundari, R., & Nagaraju, T. V. (2023). Achieving strength and
466 sustainability in ternary blended Concrete: Leveraging industrial and agricultural By-
467 Products with controlled Nano-SiO₂ content. *Cleaner Materials*, 9, 100198.

- 468 38 Rashad, A.M, (2015). A brief on high-volume Class F fly ash as cement replacement—A
469 guide for Civil Engineer, *International Journal of Sustainable Built Environment*. 4 278–
470 306, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbsbe.2015.10.002>.
- 471 39 RILEM TC 56 – MHM (1988). CPC-18 Measurement of hardened concrete carbonation
472 depth, *Materials and structures*, 21, 453 – 455.
- 473 40 Sandak, A., Sandak, J., Brzezicki, M., Kutnar, A., (2019). Bio-based building skin,
474 *Springer Nature, Singapore*.
- 475 41 Saroj, P.L., (2015) Advances in cashew production technology. [http:// www. cashew. res.](http://www.cashew.res.in)
476 in
- 477 42 Sinka, M, Korjakins, A., Bajare, D., Zimele, Z., Sahmenko, G., (2018). Bio-based
478 construction panels for low carbon development, *Energy Procedia*, 147 220–226,
479 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.egypro.2018.07.063>.
- 480 43 Sokolova L.N.S., Ermakova, E.V, Rynkovskaya, M., (2018) A review of agro-waste
481 materials as partial replacement of fine aggregate in concrete. *IOP Conference Series:*
482 *Materials Science and Engineering* [https:// doi. org/ 10. 1088/ 1757- 899X/ 371/1/ 012012](https://doi.org/10.1088/1757-899X/371/1/012012)
- 483 44 Swaminathan, S. Bhagavathi Pushpa, T., (2024), Utilization of cement power plant beds
484 for aerated concrete thermal blocks, *Global NEST Journal*, 26(2), 05432.
- 485 45 United Nations, Peace, dignity and equality on a healthy planet.
486 <https://www.un.org/en/sections/issues-depth/population/>
- 487 46 Zhang, X., Shen, J., Wang, Y., Qi, Y., Liao, W., Shui, W., Li, L., Qi, H., Yu, X., (2017).
488 An environmental sustainability assessment of China’s cement industry based on emergy,
489 *Ecological Indicators*. 72, 452–458, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jecolind.2016.08.046>.
- 490 1