

Strength of Ternary Blended Cement Concrete Containing Corn Cob Ash and Pawpaw Leaf Ash

L. O. Ettu¹, J. I. Arimanwa², K. C. Nwachukwu³, C. T. G. Awodiji⁴, and A. P. C. Amanze⁵

^{1,2,3,4,5}Department of Civil Engineering, Federal University of Technology, Owerri, Nigeria.

Key Words: Binary blended cement, ternary blended cement, concrete, pozzolan, corn cob ash, pawpaw leaf ash.

Date Of Submission: 27 April 2013		Date Of Publication: 13, May.2013

I. INTRODUCTION

There is a pressing need to reduce the high cost of cement in order to provide accommodation for the populace in South Eastern Nigeria and other places. Efforts have therefore been intensified at sourcing local materials that could be used as partial replacement for Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC) in civil engineering and building works. Supplementary cementitious materials have been proven to be effective in meeting most of the requirements of durable concrete and blended cements are now used in many parts of the world (Bakar, Putrajaya, and Abdulaziz, 2010). Calcium hydroxide $[Ca(OH)_2]$ is obtained as one of the hydration products of OPC. When blended with Portland cement, a pozzolanic material reacts with the lime to produce additional calcium-silicate-hydrate (C-S-H), which is the main cementing component. Thus the pozzolanic material serves to reduce the quantity of the deleterious $Ca(OH)_2$ and increase the quantity of the beneficial C-S-H. Therefore, the cementing quality is enhanced if a good pozzolanic material is blended in suitable quantity with OPC (Dwivedia et al., 2006).

Much literature exists on binary blended cement systems where OPC is combined with different percentages of a pozzolan in making cement composites (Adewuyi and Ola, 2005; Elinwa and Awari, 2001; De Sensale, 2006; Saraswathy and Song, 2007). Industrial waste pozzolans such as fly ash (FA) and silica fume (SF) are already widely used in many countries and attempts have also been made to produce and use pozzolanicrice husk ash (RHA) commercially in some countries (Cisse and Laquerbe, 2000). Mehta and Pirtz (2000) investigated the use of RHA to reduce temperature in high strength mass concrete and got result showing that RHA is very effective in reducing the temperature of mass concrete compared to OPC concrete. Malhotra and Mehta (2004) later reported that ground RHA with finer particle size than OPC improves concrete properties, including that higher substitution amounts results in lower water absorption values and the addition of RHA causes an increment in the compressive strength. Cordeiro, Filho, and Fairbairn (2009) carried elaborate studies of Brazilian RHA and rice straw ash (RSA) and demonstrated that grinding increases the pozzolanicity of RHA and that high strength of RHA, RSA concrete makes production of blocks with good bearing strength in a rural setting possible.

Their study showed that combination of RHA or RSA with lime produces a weak cementitious material which could however be used to stabilize laterite and improve the bearing strength of the material. Sakr (2006) investigated the effects of silica fume (SF) and RHA on the properties of heavy weight concrete and found that these pozzolans gave higher concrete strengths than OPC concrete at curing ages of 28 days and above. Agbede and Obam (2008) investigated the strength properties of OPC-RHA blended sandcrete blocks. They replaced various percentages of OPC with RHA and found that up to 17.5% of OPC can be replaced with RHA to produce good quality sandcrete blocks. Wada et al. (2000) demonstrated that RHA mortar and concrete exhibited higher compressive strength than the control mortar and concrete. Cordeiro, Filho, and Fairbairn (2009) also investigated the influence of different grinding times on the particle size distribution and pozzolanic activity of RHA obtained by uncontrolled combustion in order to improve the performance of the RHA. It was expected that the reduction of RHA particle size could improve the pozzolanic reactivity by reducing the adverse effect of the high-carbon content in the ash and increasing the homogeneity of the material. The study revealed the possibility of using ultrafine residual RHA containing high-carbon content in high-performance concrete.

Habeeb and Fayyadh (2009) also investigated the influence of RHA average particle size on the properties of concrete and found that at early ages the strength was comparable, while at the age of 28 days, finer RHA exhibited higher strength than the sample with coarser RHA. Rukzon, Chindaprasirt, and Mahachai (2009) further studied the effect of grinding on the chemical and physical properties of rice husk ash and the effects of RHA fineness on properties of mortar and found that pozzolans with finer particles had greater pozzolanic reaction. A number of researchers have also worked on sawdust ash and found that it could be used in binary combination with OPC to improve the properties of cement composites (Elinwa, Ejeh, and Mamuda, 2008; Elinwa and Abdulkadir, 2011).

Some researchers have proceeded to investigate the possibility of ternary blended cement systems in order to further reduce the quantity of OPC in blended cements. Rukzon and Chindaprasirt (2006)investigated the strength development of mortars made with ternary blends of OPC, ground RHA, and classified fly ash (FA). The results showed that the strength at the age of 28 and 90 days of the binary blended cement mortar containing 10 and 20% RHA were slightly higher than those of the control, but less than those of FA. Ternary blended cement mixes with 70% OPC and 30% of combined FA and RHA produced strengths similar to that of the control. The researchers concluded that 30% of OPC could be replaced with the combined FA and RHA pozzolan without significantly lowering the strength of the mixes. Fri'as et al. (2005)studied the influence of calcining temperature as well as clay content in the pozzolanic activity of sugar cane straw-clay ashes-lime systems. All calcined samples showed very high pozzolanic activity and the fixation rate of lime (pozzolanic reaction) varied with calciningtemperature and clay content. Elinwa, Ejeh, and Akpabio (2005) investigated the use of sawdust ash in combination with metakaolin as a ternary blend with 3% added to act as an admixture in concrete. Fadzil et al. (2008) also studied the properties of ternary blended cementitious (TBC) systems containing OPC, ground Malaysian RHA, and FA. They found that compressive strength of concrete containing TBC gave low strength at early ages, even lower than that of OPC, but higher than binary blended cementitious (BBC) concrete containing FA. At long-term period, the compressive strength of TBC concrete was comparable to the control mixes even at OPC replacement of up to 40% with the pozzolanic materials. Their results generally showed that the TBC systems could potentially be used in the concrete construction industry and could be particularly useful in reducing the volume of OPC used.All the above works on ternary blended cements were based on blending OPC with one industrial by-product pozzolansuch as SF or FA and one agricultural by-product pozzolan, notably RHA. Many communities in South Eastern Nigeria generate tons of agricultural and plant wastes such as corn cob and pawpaw leaf as efforts are intensified toward food production and local economic ventures. There is currently very little or no literature on the possibility of binary blending of one of these Nigerian agricultural by-products with OPC and virtually no literature on ternary blending of any two of them with OPC. Thus, this work provides a pioneer investigation on the suitability of using two Nigerian agricultural by-products in ternary blending with OPC for concrete making. The compressive strength of ternary blended cement concrete containing corn cob ash and pawpaw leaf ash was specifically investigated. The successful utilization of corn cob ash and pawpaw leaf ash in ternary combination with OPC for making concrete would further add value to these wastes and reduce the volume of OPC currently required for civil engineering and building works.

II. METHODOLOGY

Corn cob was obtained from Aba district in Abia Stateand paw-paw leaf from Eziobodo in Imo State, both in South East Nigeria. These materials were air-dried, pulverized into smaller particles, and calcined into ashes in a locally fabricated furnace at temperatures generally below 650°C. The corn cob ash (CCA) and

pawpaw leaf ash (PPLA) were sieved and large particles retained on the 600µm sieve were discarded while those passing the sieve were used for this work. No grinding or any special treatment to improve the quality of the ashes and enhance their pozzolanicity was applied because the researchers wanted to utilize simple processes that could be easily replicated by local community dwellers.

The CCA had a bulk density of 810 Kg/m³, specific gravity of 1.95, and fineness modulus of 2.00. The PPLA had a bulk density of 790 Kg/m³, specific gravity of 1.88, and fineness modulus of 1.35. Other materials used for the work are Ibeto brand of Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC) with a bulk density of 1650 Kg/m³ and specific gravity of 3.13; river sand free from debris and organic materials with a bulk density of 1590 Kg/m³, specific gravity of 2.82; Crushed granite of 20 mm nominal size free from impurities with a bulk density of 1515 Kg/m³, specific gravity of 2.96, and fineness modulus of 3.62; and water free from organic impurities.

A simple form of pozzolanicity test was carried out for each of the ashes. It consists of mixing a given mass of the ash with a given volume of Calcium hydroxide solution $[Ca(OH)_2]$ of known concentration and titrating samples of the mixture against H_2SO_4 solution of known concentration at time intervals of 30, 60, 90, and 120 minutes using Methyl Orange as indicator at normal temperature. For each of the ashes the titre value was observed to reduce with time, confirming the ash as a pozzolan that fixed more and more of the calcium hydroxide, thereby reducing the alkalinity of the mixture.

A standard mix ratio of 1:2:4 (blended cement: sand: granite) was used for the concrete. Batching was by weight and a constant water/cement ratio of 0.6 was used. Mixing was done manually on a smooth concrete pavement. For binary blending with OPC, each of the ashes was first thoroughly blended with OPC at the required proportion and the homogenous blend was then mixed with the fine aggregate-coarse aggregate mix, also at the required proportions. For ternary blending, the two ashes were first blended in equal proportions and subsequently blended with OPC at the required proportions before mixing with the fine aggregate-coarse aggregate mix, also at the required proportions. Water was then added gradually and the entire concrete heap was mixed thoroughly to ensure homogeneity. The workability of the fresh concrete was measured by slump test, and the wet density was also determined. One hundred and five (105) granite concrete cubes of 150mm x 150mm x 150mm were produced with OPC-CCA binary blended cement, one hundred and five (105) with OPC-PPLA binary blended cement, and one hundred and five (105) with OPC-CCA-PPLA ternary blended cement, each at percentage OPC replacement with pozzolan of 5%, 10%, 15%, 20%, and 25%. An equal combination of CCA and PPLA was used in the ternary blended system. Twenty one control cubes with 100% OPC or 0% replacement with pozzolan were also produced. This gives a total of 336 concrete cubes. All the cubes were cured by immersion. Three cubes for each percentage replacement of OPC with pozzolan and the control were tested for saturated surface dry bulk density and crushed to obtain their compressive strengths at 3, 7, 14, 21, 28, 50, and 90 days of curing.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The particle size analysis showed that both the CCA and the PPLA were much coarser than OPC, the reason being that the ashes were not ground to finer particles. Therefore, the compressive strength values obtained using them can still be improved upon when the ashes are ground to finer particles. The pozzolanicity test confirmed both ashes as pozzolans since they fixed some quantities of lime over time. The compressive strengths of the OPC-CCA and OPC-PPLA binary blended cement concretes as well as the OPC-CCA-PPLA ternary blended cement concrete are shown in tables 1 and 2 for 3-21 and 28-90 days of curing respectively.

The tables 1 and 2 show that concrete produced from ternary blend of OPC with equal proportions of CCA and PPLA have compressive strength values in between those of binary blends of OPC and CCA on one hand and OPC and PPLA on the other hand for all percentage replacements and curing ages. Also, the variation of strength for concrete produced from ternary blended cements is similar to those of concrete produced from binary blended cements for all percentage replacements and curing ages. More importantly for civil engineering and building construction purposes, the 90-day strengths obtained from ternary blending of OPC with equal proportions of CCA and PPLA were 27.30N/mm² for 5% replacement, 26.30N/mm² for 10% replacement, 25.10N/mm² for 15% replacement, 23.70N/mm² for 20% replacement, and 22.40N/mm² for 25% replacement, while that of the control was 24.40N/mm². Thus, the 90-day strength values for 5-15% replacement of OPC with equal combination of CCA and PPLA are higher than that of the control and those for 20-25% replacement are not much less than that of the control. The results in table 2 show that high concrete strength values could be obtained with OPC-CCA-PPLA ternary blended cement at 50 days of hydration and above.

OPC	Compressive Strength (N/mm ²) for								
Plus	0%	5%	10%	15%	20%	25%			
	Poz.	Poz.	Poz.	Poz.	Poz.	Poz.			
	Strength at 3 days								
CCA	8.70	6.10	5.80	5.30	4.80	4.50			
PPLA	8.70	4.70	4.50	4.20	4.00	3.80			
CCA	8.70	5.60	5.30	4.90	4.40	4.20			
&									
PPLA									
	Strength at 7 days								
CCA	14.80	10.20	9.80	8.80	7.90	7.10			
PPLA	14.80	7.80	7.70	7.30	6.80	6.30			
CCA	14.80	9.10	8.60	7.80	7.20	6.80			
&									
PPLA									
		Strength at 14 days							
CCA	22.30	19.50	18.30	15.30	11.70	11.30			
PPLA	22.30	13.90	13.40	11.80	11.30	10.80			
CCA	22.30	17.30	15.50	13.20	11.60	11.10			
&									
PPLA									
	Strength at 21 days								
CCA	22.90	22.00	19.30	16.80	14.70	12.80			
PPLA	22.90	18.80	17.80	15.80	13.90	12.10			
CCA	22.90	19.10	18.40	16.10	14.30	12.50			
&									
PPLA									

Table 1. Compressive strength of blended OPC-CCA-PPLA cement concrete at 3-21 days of curing

Table 2. Compressive strength of blended OPC-CCA-PPLA cement concrete at 28-90 days of curing

OPC	Compressive Strength (N/mm ²) for							
Plus	0%	5%	10%	15%	20%	25%		
	Poz.	Poz.	Poz.	Poz.	Poz.	Poz.		
	Strength at 28 days							
CCA	23.80	24.00	22.90	21.10	18.60	16.50		
PPLA	23.80	23.80	22.90	20.30	17.90	15.80		
CCA	23.80	23.90	23.30	20.80	18.10	16.20		
&								
PPLA								
	Strength at 50 days							
CCA	24.30	25.90	24.80	23.10	21.40	20.30		
PPLA	24.30	25.20	24.50	22.80	20.90	19.80		
CCA	24.30	25.40	24.60	23.00	21.10	20.00		
&								
PPLA								
	Strength at 90 days							
CCA	24.40	27.80	27.00	25.40	24.00	22.70		
PPLA	24.40	26.90	25.80	24.80	23.50	22.00		
CCA	24.40	27.30	26.30	25.10	23.70	22.40		
&								
PPLA								

Tables 1 and 2 show that 100% OPC concrete (the control) strength increased steadily till the age of about 28 days, after which it increased only gradually until the age of about 90 days. Table 1 also shows the low strength of OPC-CCA-PPLA ternary blended cement concrete relative to the strength of the control concrete at early ages of 3 to 21 days. The poor early strength gets more pronounced with increase in percentage replacement of OPC with CCA-PPLA combination as shown in table 2. This very low early strength could be due to the fact that pozzolanic reaction was not yet appreciable at early ages. The pozzolanic reaction set in after some days and increased with days of curing/hydration such that the strength of blended cement concrete increased more and more with age than that of the control. Table 1 clearly shows that very high strength could be achieved for OPC-CCA-PPLA ternary blended cement concrete with 10 to 15% replacement of OPC with pozzolans at 50 to 90 days of curing.

Tables 1 and 2 also show that the strength values of OPC-CCA binary blended cement concrete are higher than those of OPC-PPLA binary blended cement concretefor all percentage replacements of OPC with pozzolansand at all curing ages. This higher strength of OPC-CCA binary blended cement concrete relative to that of OPC-PPLA binary blended cement concrete shows that CCA contains more quantity of reactive amorphous silica than does PPLA. The strength value of OPC-CCA-PPLA ternary blended cement concrete consistently lies in-between the values for OPC-CCA and OPC-PPLA binary blended cement concretes for all percentage replacements of OPC with pozzolansand at all curing ages. This suggests that a disproportionate blending of the two pozzolans should be in favour of CCA for optimization of thestrength of OPC-CCA-PPLA ternary blended cement concrete.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Ternary blended cement concrete produced from blending OPC with equal proportions of CCA and PPLA have compressive strength values in between those of binary blended OPC-CCA and OPC-PPLA cement concretes for all percentage replacements of OPC with pozzolansand at all curing ages. Also, the variation of strength for OPC-CCA-PPLA ternary blended cement concrete is similar to those of OPC-CCA and OPC-PPLA binary blended cement concrete as well as that of OPC-CCA-PPLA ternary blended cement concrete as well as that of OPC-CCA-PPLA ternary blended cement concrete as well as that of OPC-CCA-PPLA ternary blended cement concretes for 5-15% replacement of OPC with pozzolans and close to the control values for 20-25% replacement. This shows that very high strength values of OPC-CCA and OPC-PPLA binary blended cement concretes as well as OPC-CCA-PPLA ternary blended cement concrete could be obtained if high target strength is designed for and good quality control is applied. Thus, OPC-CCA-PPLA ternary blended cement concrete could be used for various civil engineering and building works.

REFERENCES

- Adewuyi, A.P., & Ola, B. F. (2005). Application of waterworks sludge as partial replacement for cement in concrete production. Science Focus Journal, 10(1): 123-130.
- [2] Agbede, I. O., &Obam, S. O. (2008). Compressive Strength of Rice Husk Ash-Cement Sandcrete Blocks. Global Journal of Engineering Research, Vol. 7 (1), pp. 43-46.
- [3] Bakar, B. H. A., Putrajaya, R. C., & Abdulaziz, H. (2010). Malaysian Saw dust ash –Improving the Durability and Corrosion Resistance of Concrete: *Pre-review. Concrete Research Letters*, 1 (1): 6-13, March 2010.
- [4] Cisse, I. K., &Laquerbe, M. (2000).Mechanical characterization of sandcretes with rice husk ash additions: study applied to Senegal. *Cement and Concrete Research*, 30 (1): p.13–18.
- [5] Cordeiro, G. C., Filho, R. D. T., & Fairbairn, E. D. R. (2009). Use of ultrafine saw dust ash with high-carbon content as pozzolan in high performance concrete. *Materials and Structures*, 42: 983–992. DOI 10.1617/s11527-008-9437-z.
- [6] De Sensale, G. R. (2006). Strength development of concrete with rice-husk ash.*Cement &Concrete Composites*, 28: 158–160.

[7] Dwivedia, V. N., Singh, N. P., Das, S. S., & Singh, N. B. (2006). A new pozzolanic material for cement industry: Bamboo leaf ash. *International Journal of Physical Sciences*, 1 (3): 106-111.

- [8] Elinwa, A. U., &Abdulkadir, S. (2011). Characterizing Sawdust-ash for Use as an Inhibitor for Reinforcement Corrosion. *New Clues in Sciences*, 1: 1-10.
- [9] Elinwa, A. U., & Awari, A. (2001). Groundnut husk ash concrete. Nigerian Journal of Engineering Management, 2 (1), 8 15.
- [10] Elinwa, A. U., Ejeh, S. P., & Akpabio, I. O. (2005). Using metakaolin to improve sawdust-ash
- [11] concrete. Concrete International, 27 (11), 49 52.
- [12] Elinwa, A. U., Ejeh, S. P., & Mamuda, M. A. (2008). Assessing of the fresh concrete
- [13] properties of self-compacting concrete containing sawdust ash. *Construction and Building Materials Journal*, 22: 1178 1182.
- [14] Fadzil, A. M., Azmi, M. J. M., Hisyam, A. B. B., & Azizi, M. A. K. (2008). Engineering
- [15] Properties of Ternary Blended Cement Containing Rice Husk Ash and Fly Ash as Partial Cement Replacement Materials.*ICCBT*, A (10): 125 134.
- [16] Fri´as, M., Villar-Cocin˜a, E., Sa´nchez-de-Rojas, M. I., & Valencia-Morales, E. (2005). The effect that different pozzolanic activity methods has on the kinetic constants of the pozzolanic reaction in sugar cane straw-clay ash/lime systems: Application of a kinetic–diffusive model. *Cement and Concrete Research*, 35: 2137 2142.
- [17] Habeeb, G. A., & Fayyadh, M. M. (2009). Saw dust ash Concrete: the Effect of SDA
- [18] Average Particle Size on Mechanical Properties and Drying Shrinkage.*Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 3(3): 1616-1622.
- [19] Malhotra, V. M., & Mehta, P. K. (2004). Pozzolanic and Cementitious Materials. London: Taylor & Francis.

- [20] Mehta, P. K. &Pirtz, D. (2000). Use of rice husk ash to reduce temperature in high strength mass concrete. ACI Journal Proceedings, 75:60-63.
- [21] Rukzon, S., & Chindaprasirt, P. (2006). Strength of ternary blended cement mortar containing Portland cement, rice husk ash and fly ash.*J. Eng. Inst. Thailand*, 17: 33-38 (547-551).
- [22] Rukzon, S., Chindaprasirt, P., & Mahachai, R. (2009). Effect of grinding on chemical and physical properties of saw dust ash. *International Journal of Minerals, Metallurgy and Materials*, 16 (2): 242-247.
- [23] Sakr, K. (2006). Effects of Silica Fume and Rice Husk Ash on the Properties of Heavy Weight Concrete. *Journal of Materials in Civil Engineering*, 18(3): 367-376.
- [24] Saraswathy, V., & Song, H. (2007).Corrosion performance of rice husk ash blended concrete. *Construction and Building Materials*, 21 (8): p.1779–1784.
- [25] Wada, I., Kawano, T., & Mokotomaeda, N. (2000). Strength properties of concrete
- [26] incorporating highly reactive rice-husk ash. Transaction of Japan Concrete Institute, 21 (1): p. 57–62.