Potential utilization of regional cashew nutshell ash wastes as a cementitious replacement on the performance and environmental impact of eco-friendly mortar Manjunath Balasubramanya¹, Claudiane M. Ouellet-Plamondon², BB Das³, Chandrasekhar Bhojaraju^{1*}

7 Graphical abstract



8 1 Department of Civil Engineering, St. Joseph Engineering College, Vamanjoor, Mangaluru,

9 Karnataka, India. 575028 *(Corresponding author). E-mail address:

- 10 chandrasekhar.b@sjec.ac.in
- 11 2 Department of Construction Engineering, University of Quebec, École de technologie
- 12 supérieure (ÉTS), 1100 Notre-Dame West, Montréal, QC, H3C 1K3, Canada.
- 13 3 Department of Civil Engineering, National Institute of Technology Karnataka, Surathkal,
- 14 Karnataka 575 025, India
- 15
- 16
- 17

18

Abstract

Globally, agro-waste ashes are increasing significantly due to the rapid implementation of 19 biomass-based power plants. In the present trend, agro-wastes are disposed of in an 20 unsustainable manner. The recycling of agro-waste has significantly contributed to sustainable 21 goals. In the construction sector, it is possible to dispose of waste more efficiently. However, 22 23 the efficiency of locally available agro-residual waste in cementitious composites is not well understood. In the present investigation, the practicability of using agro-residual ash obtained 24 from the burning of cashew nut shells on the properties of eco-friendly blended cement paste 25 26 and mortars is explored. Blended cement mixtures containing cashew nut shell ash (CNSA) were prepared at five replacement levels, 5, 10, 15, 20, and 25%, relative to the weight of the 27 cement. To understand the characteristics of CNSA, microstructure investigations such as X-28 ray diffraction, thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), scanning electron microscopy, and energy-29 dispersive spectroscopy analyses were performed. Paste properties of CNSA-based cement are 30 observed through consistency, setting time, mini-slump flow, and expansion tests. For the 31 CNSA-based mortars flow table, compressive strength, ultrasonic pulse velocity (UPV), 32 33 electrical resistivity (ER), water absorption, Bulk density, and porosity tests were performed to understand its efficiency. The strength indices of mortars were used to quantify the pozzolanic 34 35 effect of CNSA. With the incorporation of CNSA, water demand increased by 57%, initial and final setting time decreased by 90% and 83%, respectively. Results showed that CNSA-based 36 mortars absorbed more water and had higher porosity, which reduced compressive strength, 37 UPV, and ER values. CNSA blended mortar is more suitable for applications that do not require 38 high compressive strength. Results indicated that the compressive strength, UPV, and ER are 39 within the limit specified. Strength indices indicated that CNSA has a positive and negative 40 pozzolanic effect during early and later ages, respectively. Further, the sustainable assessment 41 showed that the introduction of CNSA in mortar could substantially reduce embodied carbon, 42 43 embodied energy, and strength efficiency over the control mortar. The inadequate amount of SiO₂, Fe₂O₃, and Al₂O₃ in CNSA makes it an unsuitable pozzolanic material. However, it can 44 45 be utilized in smaller amounts as a fractional replacement of cement and is found to be promising for specific desired properties of cement as a cost-effective accelerator. 46

47

48 Keywords:

Supplementary cementitious material, Cashew nut shell ash, Blended cement, early agestrength, Sustainable assessment

51 Highlights:

52	•	CNSA improves early-age strength due to its high alkali content and accelerates hydration
53		at an early age.
54	•	CNSA blended mortars can be used for applications that do not require high compressive
55		strength.
56	•	CNSA is a regional waste material that can be used in smaller amounts.
57	•	CNSA is found to be promising for specific characteristics of cement as a cost-effective
58		accelerator.
59		
60		
61		
62		
63		
64		
65		
66		
67		
68		
69		
70		
71		
72		
73		
74		
75		
76		
77		
78		
79		
80		
81		
82		
83		
84		

85 Abbreviations:

CAGR	Compound annual growth rate	XRD	X-ray diffraction
MMT	Million metric tonnes	SEM	Scanning electron microscopy
SCM	Supplementary cementitious materials	EDS	Energy dispersive spectroscopy
CNSA	Cashew nutshell ash	TGA	Thermogravimetric analysis
CNS	Cashew nutshell	DTG	Derivative Thermogravity
CNSC	Cashew nut shell cake	LOI	Loss on ignition
SCC	Self-compacting concrete	IST	Initial setting time
RAP	Reclaimed asphalt pavement	FST	Final Setting time
SAI	Strength activity index	UPV	Ultrasonic pulse velocity
BBDA	Box–Behnken design approach	ER	Electrical resistivity
OPC	Ordinary Portland Cement	MUV	Multi-Utility vehicle
XRF	X-ray fluorescence	ASTM	American Society for Testing and Materials
86			
87			
89			
90			
91			
92			
93			

Authors' submitted manuscript (preprint) Article published in Journal of Journal of Building Engineering, Vol. 66, 2023. The final published version available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2023.105941

100 **1. Introduction**

The global cement market is expected to reach USD 488.4 billion by 2027, with a compound 101 annual growth rate (CAGR) of 6.1%. India is the second-largest cement producer in the world 102 [1] and accounts for a 7.8% share of global production. The cement industry will play an 103 important role in building a new India, with cement demands forecast to double by 104 2030. Cement production in India is envisioned to reach 660 MMT by 2030 at a CAGR of 105 6.6%. Fig.1 shows the Projected cement demand (MMT) and per capita consumption (kg), 106 2018 – 2030 of Indian cement. The escalating population and improved industrialization are 107 108 the main reasons for the significant demand for cement. Population growth has ensued in 109 increased needs for infrastructure and housing. This has surged the demand for cement across the globe for substantiating the facilities in the form of residential, office, healthcare centers, 110 and industrial buildings to support life activities [2]. The construction sector is one of the 111 fastest-growing sectors worldwide. Cement is an essential building material used in 112 113 construction [3]. Hence, the growing demand from the expanding construction sector is currently influencing the market. 114



120

Fig.1: Projected cement demand (MMT) and per capita consumption (kg), 2018 – 2030
 (Source: Kanvic Cement Demand Projection Model 2018)[4]

Compared to other industries, pollution from the cement industry is significant that sustainability should be prioritized among issues related to cement production [5]. Due to the energy-intensive processes involved in cement manufacturing, carbon dioxide (CO₂) constitutes the majority of greenhouse gas emissions [6]. Carbon emissions from the cement
industry could increase 27% by 2050 from their current discharge of 5-8% of global CO₂
emissions [7-9]. 39% of energy-related carbon emissions are generated by the building and
construction industry [10].

The cement organization is accountable for the over-extraction and consumption of raw 136 material and energy resources, making its manufacturing highly unsustainable [11]. The huge 137 demand for cement as a building material has led to a concern about its substitute with 138 supplementary cementitious materials (SCM). Industrial and agricultural-based remains are the 139 140 most feasible alternatives for the cement binder [12]. Therefore, the construction industry is 141 motivated to use these remains as construction materials [13]. Researchers have previously investigated the possibility of reusing industrial derivatives as partial alternatives for cement. 142 143 Fly ash and slag are commonly used industrial residues as SCM [14]. The prolonged obtainability of fly ash is also in doubt, as coal-based electricity development is not a tenable 144 145 process [15]. It was reported that the slag production is less than 10% of the cement production. However, the accessibility of these residues is reported to be limited [16]. Hence, diversified 146 147 SCMs need to be interposed against the fast-increasing societal pressure to attain sustainability [17]. 148

The utilization of agricultural waste ashes is a more cost-effective alternative to fly ash and slag since their logistic price is significantly lower. The agricultural residue ashes are locally available to cement plants and ready-mix concrete plants, reducing the transportation of fly ash or slag over long distances [18]. Therefore, the paramount focus of the development and characterization of SCMs has been accorded with by-products from the agro-sector [19]. Agro-based residue ashes as SCMs may proffer economic feasibility, green conservation, and society's endorsement as the three pillars of sustainable development [20].

Several studies have been conducted to analyze the efficacy of diverse agro-industrial residues such as rice husks ashes, bagasse ashes, bamboo leaves ashes, corn cob ashes, banana leaves, palm oil fuel ashes, elephant grass ashes, tea ash, tobacco ash, barley straw, wheat straw, hazelnut, pistachio shell, Rice straw ash [2, 11, 13, 21-31], have shown pozzolanic activity and been used as a fractional substitute in binary blend cement. There have been several studies on using agro-based residue ashes, but there have been limited studies on CNSA. The feasibility of using CNSA as a cement substitute should be assessed.

Cashew nut is a cash crop found in India, Africa, Brazil, Vietnam, and Central America,
Portuguese explorers introduced the cashew tree (Anacardium occidentale) to India nearly five
centuries ago [32]. Cashew is one of the major horticultural crops, and India is the second-

largest producer, processor, and exporter of cashews, with more than 15% of the world's export 166 share. As a marketable commodity, cashew has a crucial role in the liberalized Indian economy. 167 In India, Cashew was cultivated on a total of 1.02 million hectares of land, with a productivity 168 of 706 kg/ha as of 2020. Fig.2 indicates the production of Cashew Nut and CNSA in India. The 169 country's approximate raw cashew by 2050 is estimated to be 4-5 million metric tons or 170 more. India is one of the world's topmost cashew nut-producing countries, and it has 3650 171 cashew processing industries spread across the states [33]. Some of India's top cashew nut-172 producing states are Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, Orissa, Karnataka, Kerala, and Tamil Nadu. 173

174 The cashew shell waste (CNS) generated in small-scale cashew processing industries 175 was found to be 67.5% of total weight of cashew seed [34]. The CNS is dispatched to an oil 176 extraction factory to remove the oil that remains in the cashew nut shell [35]. The product obtained from the oil extrication of CNS is cashew nut shell cake (CNSC). The CNSC is 177 transformed into CNSA by two methods, open burning and burning in a muffle furnace at high 178 179 temperatures. In addition, CNSA can also be obtained from the boilers of biomass power plants. CNSA obtained from the boilers are usually disposed of in open fields, causing landfill issues. 180 181 CNSA can be used as a fertilizer for some plants due to its high concentration of nutrients as well as a soil stabilizer [36]. Also, the impact of these ashes on the cement replacement is still 182 183 at a very early stage of research. Considering this, the study is carried out to utilize CNSA as 184 an SCM in mortar.



185

186

Fig.2: Production of Cashew Nut and CNSA (thousand metric tons) in India, 2017 - 2020

Until now, there are few research on using CNSA as a building material in civil 188 engineering practice. Solomon et al. [37] evaluated the performance of CNSA as a potential 189 binder in concrete production. Results inferred that the workability is increased with a surge in 190 the percentage of CNSA. Adithya Tantri et al. [38] produced a sustainable self-compacting 191 concrete (SCC) incorporating CNSA as a cementitious material and reclaimed asphalt 192 193 pavement (RAP) as coarse aggregate. Results revealed that CNSA up to 15% was found to be optimum for Ordinary Portland cement (OPC), and the results confirmed that CNSA could be 194 a potential SCM in the future. Utilizing reactivity index concepts and mix proportions, 195 196 Solomon Oyebisi et al. [39] predicted the splitting tensile strength of concrete embracing 197 Anacardium occidentale nutshell ash. Jugal Kishore Mendu et al. [40] prepared the concrete incorporating CNSA as a partial substitution to cement at 5%, 10%, 15%, and 20% of CNSA 198 to study fresh concrete and hardened properties. He concluded that CNSA has a good pozzolan 199 as the strength activity index (SAI) is more significant than 75%. As indicated in previous 200 201 findings, mechanical properties of the concrete increased upto15% replacement level [37-39], and the formation of CSH gel is more prominent. CNSA exhibited higher resistance against 202 203 sulphate than OPC [37, 41]. Additionally, the material showed stronger compressive, splitting, impact, tensile, and bending characteristics than conventional concrete. Solomon Oyebisi et 204 205 al. [42] used the Box –Behnken design approach (BBDA) to investigate the concrete workability and strength, incorporating binding, water/binder ratio, binder/aggregate ratio, and 206 207 curing mechanisms. Results indicated that the feasibility of using less water to optimize concrete strength is achievable by blending OPC with CNSA. 208

209 Based on the literature, a knowledge gap exists in exploring the potential use of CNSA as a cement alternative, specifically for normal strength preparation in a mortar. This research 210 aims to develop sustainable mortar using CNSA obtained by combusting cashew shells in a 211 boiler at a processing plant with partial substitution of cement. The present research is a portion 212 of more comprehensive research examining the potential use of regionally accessible remains 213 as a binder. The cement and concrete industries may be able to recycle some of these biomass 214 ashes into supplementary products if they possess sufficient SCM potential. It also ensures that 215 these wastes can be disposed of without enduring heavy costs and wide spaces for land 216 217 disposal.

To explore the use of CNSA as a viable alternative SCM, X-ray fluorescence (XRF), X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) was performed. The objectives of this study were to

- i) Carry out an in-depth analytical characterization-based performance evaluation of CNSA.
- ii) Investigate the effect of CNSA on the characteristics of cement paste.
- iii) Examine the mechanical characteristics and durability properties of the CNSA basedmortars.
- iv) Evaluate the sustainability and cost performance of CNSA on the various mixes.

An extensive experimental program has been carried out to answer these objectives. To investigate the characterization of CNSA different microstructural analysis is performed, including a) XRD, b) TGA, c) SEM – EDS. For Fresh properties of the CNSA based paste, various tests like a) Consistency b) Setting time c) Mini-Slump flow d) Expansion tests are considered. Moreover, the present study considers various mechanical and durability tests on CNSA based mortar to address the third objective. The last objective was determined using embodied carbon, embodied energy and eco-strength efficiency.

234 **2. Experimental Information**

235 2.1 Materials

236 2.1.1 Cement, Fine aggregates, and water

237 Commercially available OPC (53 grade) conforming to Type – I ASTM C 150 was the primary binder. The chemical compositions of OPC are shown in Table 1. The normal consistency is 238 28%, the specific gravity is 3.14, 153 min initial setting time (IST), 265 min (FST), and the 239 specific surface area of OPC were 316 m^2/kg , respectively. All the values were within the 240 expected range, conforming to IS 12269 for 53-grade cement. Natural river sand was used as a 241 fine aggregate. The aggregates were washed to remove fine particles, sundried, sieved, and 242 then graded. There is a risk of deleterious reactions with increasing aggregate reactivity. 243 Aggregate reactivity can be prevented by selecting "non-deleteriously" aggregates [43]. The 244 aggregates used in this study are crystalline quartz aggregates and these aggregates are less 245 susceptible to the reactivity [44, 45]. The aggregates passing through a 2.36 mm sieve and 246 retained on a 300µm sieve with a maximum particle size of 2.36 mm were used in this study. 247 The specific gravity of fine aggregate is 2.62, with a fineness modulus of 2.60. The palatable 248 water was used to mix and cure concrete with pH = 7. 249

250 2.1.2 Cashew nut shell ash

For this study, CNSA was collected from Kalbhavi cashews, Mangalore, Karnataka, India. CNSA is obtained after the cashew nut shell wastes were dried and burned in a cogeneration boiler. After the burning process, the CNSA is then aggregated, and dumped at the nearest disposal site, thus creating landfill problems. The step-by-step method for developing CNSA is shown in Fig. 5. CNSA collected from a disposal site was dried at 105–110^oC for 24 hours

to remove any moisture content and cooled at ambient temperature. Subsequently, after the 256 cooling, to increase the reactivity of the particles, the CNSA was pulverized and followed by 257 grinding in a laboratory ball mill for one hour. It has been reported that biomass ash sifted 258 through a 75µm sieve can be used to replace cement in [2, 46]. In this study, CNSA was 259 prepared in a similar manner. Fig.3 delineates the raw and processed CNSA, respectively. The 260 CNSA exhibited lower specific gravity than OPC (i.e., 1.92). The particle size distribution of 261 CNSA is represented in Fig.6. A laser diffraction particle size analyzer was used to measure 262 particle size distribution of CNSA. The particle size distribution in Fig.6 suggests that the D10 263 264 (i.e., the diameter of the particles at 10% passing), D50 and D90 values of CNSA are 5.37µm, 18.68µm and 40.02µm respectively which meant 10%, 50%, and 90% of the sample is smaller 265 than 5.37µm, 18.68µm and 40.02µm. The mean diameter of CNSA is 21.16µm. The results 266 from the SEM confirms that CNSA consists of small to bigger particle sizes. The specific 267 surface area of CNSA is $355 \text{ m}^2/\text{kg}$ by Blaine's air permeability apparatus as per IS 4031 (Part 268 2)-1995. The oxide composition of OPC and CNSA was determined using XRF. The results 269 are presented in Table 1. By comparing samples' weights before and after ignition for 60 270 minutes at 750° C, the loss on ignition (LOI) values of the CNSA were determined as seen in 271 Fig.4. 272



Fig. 3: (a) Raw (b) processed CNSA



- 274
- 275
- 276



Fig. 4: Sample before and after LOI (calcined at 750°C)



Material	Parameters	Chemical composition	OPC	OPC requirements as per ASTM C 150	CNSA	
	Specific Gravity		3.14	3.15	1.92	
	Specific surface area (m ² /kg)		316	225	355	
Physical	Pass through a 75µm sieve (%)		100	-	100	
properties	Pass through a 53µm sieve (%)		90	-	72	
	Moisture content (%)		-	-	5.88	
		Silicon dioxide, SiO ₂	18.90	18 - 24	5.73	
		Aluminium oxide, Al ₂ O ₃	4.88	2.6 - 8.0	1.50	
		Iron oxide, Fe ₂ O ₃	5.28	1.5 - 7.0	3.24	
		Calcium oxide, CaO	62.70	61 - 69	11.20	
Chemical		Magnesium oxide, MgO	1.01	0.5 - 4.0	16.30	
properties		Sulphur trioxide, SO3	1.16	0.2 - 4.0	0.20	
		Sodium oxide, Na ₂ O	0.38	-	3.02	
		Potassium oxide, K2O	0.50	0.2 - 1.0	42.60	
		Phosphorous Pentoxide, P2O5	0.23	-	9.73	
		LOI	1.25	5.0 max	4.50	



Fig. 6: Particle size distribution of CNSA

307 2.2 Mortar mix proportions and specimen fabrication

CNSA-based blended cement pastes and mortars were prepared with a CNSA dosage of 5, 10, 15, 20, and 25% relative to the weight of cement using a w/cm ratio and sand/cm ratio of 0.5 and 2.75, respectively. According to [41, 42] studies, specimens were cast with a water-cement ratio of 0.5. The mix proportions for control and CNSA-based blended cement pastes and mortars are presented in Table 2 and 3, respectively.

A study was conducted to evaluate the consistency, setting time, soundness, and acid attack of two types of pastes: i) control cement paste (0CNSA) and ii) CNSA-based blended cement paste. Cement paste was prepared using IKA RW 20 digital high-speed stirrer with a maximum speed of 2000 rpm, as shown in Fig. 8.

All cement mortar mixes were prepared using a standard Digi mortar mixer shown in Fig. 8 according to IS 2250 - 1981 guidelines. In the beginning, all the materials (cement, sand, CNSA, and water) are mixed manually. In order to attain homogeneity, the dry materials are mixed at low speed for one minute and 30 sec at high speed, and the mortar is left to rest for 90 sec to clean the sides of the bowl. The material is further mixed for one minute at high speed. The IS 4031 (Part 7) -1988 was comprehended to determine the workability of mortar

through the flow table. A flow diameter of 152 mm was measured for the control mixture. Each

- mortar mix was kept more than or equal to the flow value of 110 ± 5 mm
- 325

Table 2: Mix Proportions of CNSA-based blended cement paste

	Mix ID	OPC (g)	Water (g)	CNSA (g)	
-	0 CNSA	400	200	0	
	5 CNSA	380		20	
	10 CNSA	360		40	
	15 CNSA	340		60	
	20 CNSA	320		80	
	25 CNSA	300		100	

326

Table 3: Mix Proportions of CNSA-based blended cement mortar

Mix ID	OPC (g)	Sand (g)	Water (g)	CNSA (g)
0 CNSA	450	1238	225	0
5 CNSA	427.5			22.5
10 CNSA	405			45
15 CNSA	382.5			67.5
20 CNSA	360			90
25 CNSA	337.5			112.5

327 **2.3 Testing Methods**

328 2.3.1 Characterization of CNSA

329 XRF: The chemical characteristics of CNSA were studied using the XRF technique. Bruker 330 model S8 Tiger and S4 Pioneer sequential wavelength-dispersive X-ray spectrometers and 331 sample preparation units were used with a 4 kW Rh X-ray tube. Also, SPECTRA plus software 332 for the qualitative and quantitative determination of elements.

333 XRD: XRD technique was used to study the mineralogical characteristics of the CNSA sample.

A 3rd generation Empyrean, Malvern PANalytical with 2 θ linearity equal or better than $\pm 0.01^{\circ}$

- and angular resolution of 0.026° , scanning from 10^0 to $80^0(2\theta)$, with 10^0 intervals.
- 336 DTA/TGA: TGA quantifies changes in physical and chemical properties of materials with
- 337 accelerating temperature at a constant rate. TGA defines the properties of materials that exhibit
- decomposition, oxidation, or loss of volatiles that affect their mass. In this study, TGA 4000,

PerkinElmer of maximum temperature 800° C at a heating rate of 10° C/min was used to study the properties of CNSA.

341 SEM: The scanning electron microscopy (SEM) technique was used to envision the 342 microstructure and morphology of CNSA. SEM was studied using Carl Zeiss, GEMINI 300.

343 **2.3.2 Tests on Blended pastes and mortars**

Vicat apparatus was used to assess the consistency of the control and CNSA-based cement paste samples according to ASTM C187 -16 [47]. The amount of water required must be determined to obtain adequate consistency of cement paste [13].

IST is the period between cement contact with water and penetration measurement. After the cement is initially in contact with water, the FST is measured when the needle leaves no full circular impression on the paste surface. Vicat apparatus was used to evaluate the setting time of the control and CNSA-based cement paste samples according to ASTM C 191-08 [48].

An expansion or soundness indicates a hardened binder paste's ability to resist expansion when excessive magnesia or free lime is present. The expansion of the control and blended specimens are according to BS EN 196-3 [49].

A miniature design of the Abrams test was considered for the mini-slump tests that 354 showed the same characteristic of the cone described in ASTM C1437 [50]. Freshly prepared 355 356 pastes were filled in a reduced version of the slump cone with a top diameter of 19 mm, bottom diameter of 38 mm, and height of 57 mm, which was placed on a grid-marked plate. In the first 357 stage, dry materials are mixed at 200 rpm at 60 sec, water is added to 300 g of cement, and 358 then mixed for 60 sec at 500 rpm. The cement paste is left to rest for 90 sec in the next stage. 359 360 In the last step, the paste is continuously mixed for 90 sec at 2000 rpm. After mixing, the fresh pastes were tested for flow using a mini-slump cone. After lifting the filled cone, the cement 361 paste's flow to a stable state, and the increase in the diameter of the cone is measured in 362 perpendicular directions to determine its diameter. The photo is taken from the top of the 363 364 arrangement. Fig. 7 illustrates the procedure used to carry out the mini-slump flow test.



Fig. 7: Procedure used to determine mini-slump



Fig. 8: Apparatus (a) high-speed stirrer (b) Digi mortar mixer (c) flow table

After 28 days of water curing, the compressive strength of CNSA-based mortar was determined using 50mm as recommended by ASTM C109 [51]. Based on ASTM C642–13 [52], bulk density, water absorption, and porosity measurements were performed on mortar specimens. Eq. (1,2,3) was used to calculate absorption, density, and porosity for each mixed sample. The values reported are the averages obtained from testing three mortar samples per mix proportion.

372	Absorption after immersion, $\% = [(W_2 - W_1) / W_1] \ge 100$	(1)
373	Bulk Density, dry = $[(W_1/(W_3 - W_4)] \times 100$	(2)
374	Porosity = $[(W_3 - W_1) / (W_3 - W_4)] \ge 100$	(3)
375	W_1 = weight of the specimens dried in an oven at 105 ⁰ C for 24h	
376	W_2 = weight was measured immediately to obtain the weight of the same	ple in water mass of
377	surface-dry sample in the air after immersion	
378	W_3 = surface of the cube specimens was wiped with a clean towel and	nd reweighed for the
379	saturated surface dry weight in the air after immersion and boiling.	
380	$W_4 = Apparent$ mass of sample in water after immersion and boiling	
381	The UPV of the cured cubic mortar samples was determined	using the PUNDIT
382	portable ultrasonic device, following ASTM C597 [53]. During this te	st, the pulse velocity
383	traveling through the cement composite medium is measured to detect cr	acks and voids.
384	Cubic mortar samples were tested for ER after 7 and 28 days of	f curing. To measure
385	resistivity, two electrodes were connected to two sides of the samples [13,	54], and an electrical
386	resistance measurement instrument was used, as shown in Fig. 9. Based or	the formula = RA/L ,
387	the resistivity values ρ were determined. Where ρ is the resistivity (Q-cn	n), R is the resistance
388	(Ω) , A is the sample area (cm ²), and L is specimen length (cm). An Anal	ytical method is used
389	to evaluate the pozzolanic effect of CNSA as a cement substitute in morta	ar and was conducted
390	in accordance with the foregoing studies by [2, 55]. Table 4 indicates the	summary of the tests
391	conducted in this study. In addition, SEM was performed on the chosen m	nixes to determine the

influence of CNSA on the microstructure of mortar.



Fig. 9: Testing Method for determining electrical resistivity of mortar

Sl. No	Tests performed	Specimen	Size of the Specimen	Curing time	Number of samples per mix	Standards used in this study
Paste						
1	Consistency		-	-	-	ASTM C187 -16
2	Setting time	ODC and	-	-	-	ASTM C191 -08
3	Expansion	Blended	-	-	2	BS EN 196-3
4	Mini Slump	Pastes	Top dia = 19 mm, Bottom dia = 38 mm, and height = 58 mm	-	-	ASTM C1437
Mortar 6	Flow table		-	-	-	ASTM C1437
7	Compressive Strength		50 x 50 x 50 mm	1, 3, 7, 28 days	12	ASTM C109
8	Ultrasonic pulse velocity	OPC and Blended		7, 28 days	6	ASTM C597
9	Water absorption, Bulk density, Porosity	Mortar	70.6 x 70.6 x 70.6 mm	28 days	6	ASTM C642–13
10	Electrical resistivity			7, 28 days	3	[54]
395						

Table 4: Summary of the tests methods conducted in this study

396 3. Results and Discussion

397 **3.1 Characterization on CNSA**

398 The chemical composition of the CNSA is presented in Table 1. The CNSA has a high K₂O 399 content, which is in accession with the results reported by [56]. The presence of more than 30% K₂O can cause the fusion of large and dense particles during oxidization [57] which is justified 400 401 by the SEM image of CNSA. More energy is required to grind these large dense particles to get the desired fineness [24]. Studies showed that the mineral composition of cashew nuts has 402 the highest concentration of potassium (K), followed by magnesium (Mg), Calcium (Ca), 403 phosphorous (P), and sodium (Na) [58-60]. The high K contents of the CNSA could be caused 404 405 due to the occurrence of more clayey soils under the cashew plantation [61]. Such High alkali (K and Na) levels negatively affect workability, setting, and strength [62]. Table 1 presents the 406 407 concentration of SiO₂ and Al₂O₃ for the CNSA, which are substantially lesser than the expressed in other research [37, 38, 40]. SCMs with high calcium aluminosilicate 408 concentrations usually exhibit pozzolanic activity. Therefore, the low concentration of SiO₂, 409 Al₂O₃, Fe₂O₃, and CaO in the CNSA will likely result in a low pozzolanic activity. The 410 morphology of CNSA is examined by SEM at various magnifications as shown in Fig. 10, 411 CNSA particles display some aggregation, and are comprised of angular, large, and medium-412 sized particles than OPC. The EDS analyzes of the CNSA particles are presented in Fig.11. 413 Fig.12 (a) shows the mineral composition of CNSA. The minerals were identified as Calcium 414 silicate (CaSiO₄), Arcanite (K₂SO₄), Periclase (MgO), Quartz (SiO₂), Potassium ferrite 415 (K₂FeO₄), Sodium phosphate (Na₃PO₄), Sylvite (KCl), and Harmunite (CaFe₂O₄). Harmunite 416 417 structure is highly crystalline, an oxide semiconductor, and a high anisotropy antiferromagnet [63, 64]. Fig.12 (b) shows that potassium, magnesium, calcium, phosphorous, and silicon are 418 the primary oxides identified by XRF. 419

420

421



Fig. 10: SEM of CNSA particles at a) 1.00 K X b) 4.00 K X Magnification





40µm

Electron Image 1

Element	Weight %	Atomic %
Ca K	4.54	2.48
O K	51.30	70.11
Si K	1.87	1.46
K K	27.69	15.49
Na K	1.00	0.95
Mg K	5.85	5.26
ΡK	2.75	1.94
S K	1.03	0.70
<u>Ti</u> K	0.53	0.24

Fig. 11: EDS analysis of CNSA Particles



Fig.12: a) XRD pattern of CNSA b) Percentage of oxides in CNSA based on XRF



Fig. 13: Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) of CNSA

Fig. 13 shows the results of the TG – DTG curves of the CNSA. During the first phase, initial 426 moisture is evacuated with a peak temperature of 72°C. In the second phase, hemicellulose 427 dissipates between 89°C and 213°C, with the maximum removal of hemicellulose detected at 428 112°C, as indicated by the curve inflection point. In the third phase, the decomposition of 429 cellulose occurred between 307°C and 513°C, with a peak occurring at 412°C. MgO is a 430 hygroscopic material that can absorb moisture from the air. As a result, the MgO temperature 431 observed in TGA might range between 367°C to 451°C, resulting in a weight loss of 24% as a 432 result of removing absorbed water and hydroxide groups. The fourth phase of lignin 433 degradation involves endothermic reactions taking place at temperatures between 661°C and 434 801^oC. The decomposition in this range is also attributed to the presence of amorphous calcium 435 436 carbonate, which decomposes from calcium carbonate to CaO. Calcium carbonate is decomposed with increasing temperature from 801°C to form CaO. From 801°C, the amount 437 of CaO is increased, as observed in the TGA curve. 438

- 439
- 440

441 **3.2** Consistency on blended cement

The amount of water of control (0 CNSA) and CNSA-blended cement pastes for the attainment 442 of consistency are presented in Fig. 14. The water required for the standard consistency of these 443 cement is substantially enhanced to 57% with the incorporation of CNSA. The consistency of 444 0 CNSA was found to be 28%, while the same for 5 CNSA, 10 CNSA, 15 CNSA, 20 CNSA, 445 and 25 CNSA was measured to be 34, 39, 41, 42, and 44%, respectively. It is observed from 446 the results that there was an enhancement in the consistency of the cement pastes. This increase 447 in the amount of water required for consistency is potentially due to the greater specific surface 448 449 of the CNSA particles. Similar results on using agricultural waste leftover ashes have divulged 450 the increased water demand for preparing the cement pastes [65, 66]. With the incorporation of natural and artificial pozzolans having coarser particles than that of OPC [67], the 451 consistency of blended cement diminishes, and an increase in the amount of water was noticed 452 453 in the subsistence of finer-sized biomass ash [30]. A similar phenomenon was also observed in 454 cement pastes with fly ash blended with a high LOI. [68].



Fig. 14: Consistency of blended cement at different CNSA percentages



Initial setting time and Final setting time of the blended cement are presented as shown in Fig. Increase in CNSA percentage subsides the IST and FST of cement pastes. A considerable decrease of 74% and 60% was found in the IST and FST of cement at 5% of CNSA. At higher CNSA replacement levels, the reduction was also seen but relatively in less amount. The incorporation of 25% of CNSA reduced the setting time of cement by 90% and 83%,

respectively. An increase in CNSA dosage reduces the IST and FST of cement pastes, 461 signifying that CNSA in cement paste has an accelerating effect. Shorter setting times are 462 achieved due to the accelerating effect of finer mineral admixture particles. The setting is an 463 outcome of the hydration process. Faster the setting indicates that the subsistence of CNSA 464 particles provides supplemental sites for the deposition of hydration products resulting in early 465 hydration of cement [69]. To suppress early hydration problems, the use of special chemical 466 activators such as nano- SiO₂ [70], nano-TiO₂ [71], and graphene oxide [72] has been the 467 nucleus of the latest studies. Thus, CNSA, a fine-grained waste accelerator, can promote the 468 469 preceding challenges with eco-efficient benefits.



Fig. 15: Setting time of blended cement at different CNSA percentages

The expansion (soundness) is evaluated to divulge the resistance against the volume changes of cement. The expansion of CNSA blended cement is conducted with the aid of the Le Chatelier apparatus for free CaO content. Table 5 shows the influence of the supplements of CNSA in cement paste on the expansion. It is seen that with the addition of CNSA content, the expansion will increase. Compared to cement paste containing CNSA, the control paste showed lower expansion. However, the results indicated that the expansions in all the mixes are under the limit designated by EN 197-1 [73].

- 478
- 479
- 480

⁴⁷⁰ **3.4 Expansion test on blended cement**

		(Cashew nu	tshell ash ((%)		EN 197-
Property	0 CNSA	5 CNSA	10 CNSA	15 CNSA	20 CNSA	25 CNSA	1 Limit
Expansion, mm	0.50	1.10	1.50	2.0	2.0	4.5	<u><</u> 10

 Table 5: Expansion of blended cement pastes

482 **3.5 Mini slump tests on blended cement**

High mobility and moderate viscosity are essential for the forming of cement-based materials.
A mini-slump test was performed due to the limited quantity of cement paste that could be
effectuated to measure the workability. Fig. 16 illustrates pictures of the flow of the blended
paste at different CNSA percentages. There was no sign of bleeding in any of these mixes.

The mini-slump diameter of the cement paste is approximately 92 mm at 0 min, and it is 487 increased to 107 mm at the end of 5 min, yielding a slump of 14%, and reduced to 95 mm at 488 15 min. However, for the 0 CNSA, the mini-slump value is increased for 2 min and 5 min. For 489 5 CNSA, the mini-slump values are increased by 6% and 17% at 2 min and 5 min and decreased 490 by 2% and 6% at 10 min and 15 min due to the less mass of CNSA in the mix leading to similar 491 results to 0 CNSA. Results show that the addition of CNSA causes reductions in mini-slump 492 493 values for 10 CNSA, 15 CNSA, 20 CNSA, and 25 CNSA. Identical trends were observed at all times for all the mixtures mentioned above. Fig. 17 shows the variation of mini-slump flow 494 495 for the pastes with different percentages of CNSA. Finer particle size has a considerable effect on the flow. This can be due to the high specific surface area that decreases the fresh mix's 496 497 available water [74, 75]. Also, higher alkali content in CNSA accelerates the hydration thereby affecting the flowability for the higher percentages of CNSA [76] [77]. 498



Fig. 16: Pictures of the mini-slump flow of the blended paste at different CNSA percentages



Fig. 17: Mini slump flow of the blended paste at different CNSA percentages

500 **3.6 Flow table test of blended cement**

Flow table test was performed on all the mortar mixes incorporating different percentages of 501 CNSA to study the flow properties of the mixes. The test results are exhibited in Table 6 502 and Fig. 18 presents the flow behaviour with an increase in the percentage of CNSA. 503 Incorporating CNSA into mortar has a noticeable effect on workability. It was observed that 504 505 the flow value for the CNSA-based cement mortars reduced with an increase in the proportion 506 of CNSA. The 0 CNSA has a flow value of 152 mm. The flow value of mixes 5 CNSA, 10 CNSA, 15 CNSA, 20 CNSA, and 25 CNSA indicate lower values of 141, 138, 137, 128, and 507 508 125 mm, respectively. Compared to OPC, CNSA requires extra water because of its irregular shape, excessive porous texture, and angular particle geometry, as seen in the SEM image, 509 510 which causes a decline in the blended mixes' flow properties. This led to poor workability. As the percentage of agricultural residue ashes increases, its workability decreases [78]. In 511 addition, the high specific surface area of CNSA reduces workability by adding substitution 512 levels. As a result, more water was required to moisten the surface [79]. 513



Fig. 18: Pictures of the behaviour of flow at different CNSA percentages

514	Table 6: Flow table values of Blended cement mortar at different CNSA percentages
-----	---

Mix	Flow value (mm)	
 0 CNSA	152	
5 CNSA	141	
10 CNSA	138	
15 CNSA	137	
20 CNSA	128	
25 CNSA	125	

515 **3.7 Hardened properties of blended cement**

Fig. 19 enunciates the compressive strength test results of all the mortar mixes at 1, 3, 7, and 516 28 curing ages. The compressive strength values for 0CNSA, 5CNSA, 10CNSA, 15CNSA, 517 20CNSA, and 25CNSA are 6.64, 9.14, 10.09, 9.79, 9.11, and 8.26 MPa after one day of curing 518 519 age. The improvement in 1-day compressive strength is 37.7, 52, 47.4, 37.2, and 24.4%, respectively. Similarly, the compressive strength values for 0 CNSA, 5 CNSA, 10 CNSA, 15 520 CNSA, and 20 CNSA are 38.96, 33.54, 30.87, 28.73, 24.42, and 21.41 Mpa after 28 days of 521 curing. The decrement in 28-day compressive strength is 13.9, 20.8, 26.3, 37.3, and 45%, 522 523 respectively. Additionally, the incorporation of higher biomass ash in cement mortars endured 524 an excessive reduction in compressive strength values [80].

In contrast with the control mortar, the blended mortar shows higher compressive strength at 525 an early age. In CNSA, K₂O has a chemical composition of about 52%, much greater than other 526 industrial residues (fly ash, slag, and silica fume). Due to the high alkaline content in CNSA, 527 the addition of CNSA at increasing levels will result in a more alkaline environment than the 528 control mix, resulting in accelerated hydration at early ages and improving early-age strength 529 530 [77, 81]. In this study, researchers found that the strength values decreased with enhancements in CNSA levels at 28 days as the greater alkali content suppresses hydration at later ages [82]. 531 Also, due to the fact that the high specific surface area of CNSA requires more water to 532 533 maintain workability, resulting in fewer hydrated CNSA products, thereby reducing compressive strength at 28 days. With higher levels of CNSA in the mortar, 28-day 534 compressive strength was significantly decreased. Fig.20 and Fig.21 indicates the SEM of 10% 535 CNSA at 1 day and 3 days respectively. 536

537 Similar findings were identified when the incorporation of the ground nut shell ash [83], 538 untreated corn cob ash [24], and corn stalk ash [81] was used as a cementitious material. High 539 alkali oxide content substantially diminished the compressive strength of the concrete due to 540 an enormous amount of alkali induced into a sulphate disproportion which has an anti-positive 541 impact on the cement hydration.

542 The CNSA-blended mortar has a lower compressive strength and is most appropriate 543 for applications that do not demand a greater compressive strength. In accordance with ASTM 544 C270 [84], type M, S, and N mortars should have a minimum compressive strength of 17.2, 12.4, and 5.2 MPa after 28 days, respectively. Compressive strength of 21.41 MPa was 545 obtained for 25 CNSA at 28 days. The compressive strength of different mixes was found 546 547 within the standard value. Also, ASTM C90 [85] requires a minimal compressive strength of 13.8 MPa for load-bearing masonry units that are laid in mortar, which is attainable with the 548 addition of CNSA in the mortar mixture. 549

According to the strength results, untreated CNSA should not be used as an SCM since it contains high K₂O, P₂O₅, MgO, and high LOI, which reduce the concrete's strength significantly. In one of the research work, it was found that both water and acid washing of the ash showed positive effects on concrete and enhanced the compressive strength at later ages [86]. Although there is no research on the pre-treatment for CNSA, it was hypothesized that the pre-treatment of CNSA could enhance the quality of the ash, decrease the K₂O, and improves its strength.



Fig. 19: Compressive strength of Blended cement Mortar at different CNSA percentages



Fig. 20: SEM image of 10% CNSA blended paste at 1 day



Fig. 21: SEM image of 10% CNSA blended paste at 3 days

557 **3.8 Ultrasonic Pulse velocity**

Ultrasonic Pulse Velocity (UPV) is a non-destructive technique for examining concrete for 558 homogeneity and uniformity, voids, and cracks. In UPV, ultrasonic pulses pass-through 559 construction materials are measured to determine their durable properties and hardened 560 strength. UPV values are significantly influenced by pore structure, material properties, mix 561 562 proportions, and the interfacial zone between aggregates and cement paste [87]. The UPV test results for the CNSA-based blended mortar and OPC mortar are presented in Fig. 22. All the 563 specimens containing different proportions of CNSA were measured for UPV at 7 and 28 days. 564 565 The UPV values for CNSA-based blended mortar vary from 3535 to 3889 m/s and 3735 to 4465 m/s after 7 and 28 days of curing, and that of OPC is 3889 and 4465 m/s for 7 and 28 566 days. UPV values of control mortar (0 CNSA) exhibiting dense and compact structure. 567



Fig. 22: UPV Values of Blended cement Mortar at different CNSA percentages
The UPV values of all the control mortar and CNSA-based blended mortar specimens increased
with the curing period. The compressive strength of all the mortar samples also emanates a
similar trend. With increase in CNSA levels, UPV values for 7 and 28 days decreased by
2.59%, 4.24%, 4.47%, 4.75%, 9.10% and 3.76%, 6.65%, 9.24%, 11.39%, 16.34%. Higher the

- 572 UPV values, finer will be the quality of cement composites. All the mixes in this study showed
- 573 UPV values over 3500 m/s. Concrete with pulse velocity values over 3500 m/s stipulates good
- 574 durability [88] as indicated in Table 7. Therefore, CNSA-based mortars can be classified as
- 575 durable mortars. This research showed that the mortar has become more condensed with the
- 576 increase in curing age, so the rationale for high velocity.
- 577 Table 7: Quality class achieved by OPC mortar [89-92]

Concrete Quality [89-92]	UPV Range (m/s)
Excellent	>4500
Good	3600 - 4500
Questionable	3000 - 3600
Poor	2100 - 3000
Very Poor	1800 - 2100
Significant abnormality has to	
be anticipated inside the	<1800
structure	

578 **3.9** Water absorption, Bulk density (dry), porosity

579 The water absorption, bulk density, and porosity of mortar with different CNSA contents are shown in Table 8. After 28 days of curing, the absorption of water is calculated to be 5.53, 580 581 6.48, 7.13, 8.61, 10.25, and 11.63% for 0 CNSA, 5 CNSA, 10 CNSA, 15 CNSA, 20 CNSA, and 25 CNSA. The increase in water absorption is 17, 29, 55, 85, and 110 %, respectively, 582 583 correlated to the control mortar. An important factor influencing the water absorption of mortar 584 samples is the formation of the pore system [93]. By observing through SEM, CNSA contains 585 a large number of pores, which can substantially enhance the water absorption of mortar samples as its percentage increases. A possible explanation is that the excess CNSA lacks 586 adequate calcium hydroxide to react with, thus causing pores to form in the mixture, which has 587 caused to absorb more water. 588

For the above-mentioned mortar mixtures, the porosity value are 7.67, 10.51, 11.37, 13.36, 17.05, 21.31% respectively. Directly obtained biomass ash has asymmetrical shapes, bigger particle sizes, and rough surfaces, leading to high porosity [94]. Blended mortar consists of coarser CNSA particles, which results in the development of more pores. Due to high pores in CNSA, the absorbed water evaporates from the mortar sample during drying. As a result, voids are created in the mortar samples, which will surge the porosity of the mortar. An increase in

- the porosity results in weaker bonding between particles, which results in lesser compressive
- 596 strength [95].
- 597 Table 8: Water absorption, Bulk density, and Porosity of Blended cement mortar at
- 598 different CNSA percentages

Mix ID	Absorption after immersion	Bulk density, dry	Porosity
0 CNSA	5.53	2.16	7.67
5 CNSA	6.48	2.15	10.51
10 CNSA	7.13	2.11	11.37
15 CNSA	8.61	2.08	13.36
20 CNSA	10.25	2.02	17.05
25 CNSA	11.63	2.00	21.31

Table 8 exhibits the density of mortar with variations in CNSA content at 28 days. The density 599 of the sample with CNSA was lesser than that of conventional mortar. Compared with 600 conventional mortar, the CNSA-based mortar showed moderately less bulk. 25 CNSA-blended 601 602 mortar mix showed a 7.24% lower reduction than the control mix due to coarser particles of CNSA than the cement particles. As illustrated in Table 1, CNSA has less SiO₂, thereby, the 603 amount of developed hydration products was lower in CNSA-blended mortar than in the 604 control mortar. High pores in CNSA lead to the reduction in the density of the CNSA-based 605 mortar mixes. 606

607 **3.10 Electrical resistivity**

One of the cementitious mixtures' most essential durability factors is their electrical resistivity. 608 A mortar's electrical resistivity is indirectly proportional to the corrosion rate of metallic 609 embedment. Fig. 23 illustrates the electrical resistivity (ER) for all the control and blended 610 mortar mixes. The 7-day ER value for 0 CNSA is 24547 Ω -cm, increasing to 44125 Ω -cm at 611 28 days. After 7 days of curing, the ER values for 5 CNSA, 10 CNSA, 15 CNSA, 20 CNSA, 612 and 25 CNSA are measured to be 22737, 22171, 20361, 18089, and 14479 Ω -cm, respectively. 613 For the same mixes, the ER values reach 42571, 41724, 35864, 30005, and 26969 Ω -cm after 614 28 days, respectively. Nevertheless, with the increase in CNSA substitution levels, the 615 resistivity dramatically decreased by 3.52%, 5.44%, 18.72%, 32%, and 38.8% at 28 days. The 616 more CNSA was replaced with OPC, the porosities presented in mortar were increased, leading 617 to lower ER values. Also, due to the factuality that the CNSA is abundant in potassium, as 618 619 potassium dissolves in the pore solution, the conductivity of the pore solution increases and

decreases the resistivity of concrete [24]. Corrosion is less expected when ER of concrete is equal to or greater than 10000 Ω -cm [96]. ACI Committee 222 [97] recommended limits for corrosion through mortars shown in Table 9. From the above results, we can conclude that all the mixtures with CNSA have a low probability of corrosion at all ages.



percentages

Table 9: Resistivity values and fisk of corrosion of remorcement bars (97-9)	Table 9: Resistivity	values and r	risk of corrosion	of reinforcement	bars [97-99]
--	----------------------	--------------	-------------------	------------------	--------------

Resistivity (Ω-cm)	Corrosion rate
>20000	Low
10000 - 20000	Low to Moderate
5000 - 10000	High
<5000	Very high

626 **3.11 Indices of Pozzolanic effect**

Few researchers have previously quantified the pozzolanic effect of active minerals in a mortar [55, 100, 101]. A mineral admixture supplement to concrete or mortar, where its strength is considered in two parts, one from cement hydration and the other from its pozzolanic effect. As per previous studies, pozzolanic effects of CNSA as a cement substitute in mortar were quantified using strength indices [55].

632 The specific strength ratio is expressed as

633

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{f} / \mathbf{q} \tag{4}$$

634 Where f is concrete compressive strength, q is the cement or mineral admixture percentage of635 the cementitious materials.

 R_C articulates the influence of unit cement on concrete strength without any mineral admixture, while R_M divulges the impact of the unit mineral admixture on concrete strength, and R_P is the contribution of the pozzolanic effect to concrete strength due to the mineral admixture, expressed by the equation:

640

 $\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{P}} = \mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{M}} - \mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{C}} \tag{5}$

641 Index of specific strength (K), K is the ratio of R_M to R_C , and the formula can estimate it:

 $K = R_M / R_C$ (6)

643 Contribution of pozzolanic effect to strength (P), P is the percentage value of the contribution 644 of the pozzolanic effect to concrete strength, and it can be written as:

645 $P = (R_P / R_M) \times 100\%$ (7)

Table 10 shows the influence of CNSA on indices of strength parameters (R_C, R_M, R_P, K, P) at 646 1,3, 7, and 28 days for all mortar mixes. Fig. 24 illustrates that the P value is increased for all 647 the percentages of CNSA at 1 day because higher alkali content (K₂O and Na₂O) accelerates 648 the cement hydration at an early age. The value of P indicates that the addition of CNSA has 649 positive pozzolanic effects on mortar strength at 1 day. At 3 days value of P is higher than the 650 amount of CNSA, up to 5%, 10%, and 15%, respectively. However, the P value is positive for 651 20% CNSA and 25% CNSA but is lesser than the amount of CNSA added to the mix, showing 652 653 the minor pozzolanic contribution to strength.

Similarly, at 7 days, the value of P is higher than the amount of CNSA, up to 5% and 10%, respectively. For 20% CNSA and 25% CNSA, the value of P is negative showing minimum contribution to the strength. These results are associated with the compressive strength test results, where all the CNSA mixes achieved lesser compressive strength than the control mortar at 28 days because the alkali content in CNSA contributes to the degradation of mortar compressive strength over time [82]. Therefore, the value of P for all the CNSA blended mixes at 28 days was negative, indicating less contribution for pozzolanicity at later ages. This study
showed that the CNSA could be used for the application where early strength development is
required.



Fig. 24: Pozzolanic effect of Blended cement Mortar at different CNSA percentages

Table 10: Strength	ı index	parameter	of mortar
--------------------	---------	-----------	-----------

	~]	R _M]	R _P]	K				Р	
Mix ID	Ч (0()	1	3	7	28	1	3 days	7	28 days	1	3	7	28	1	3 days	7	28 days
	(70)	day	days	days	days	day		days		day	days	days	days	day		days	
0 CNSA	100	0.07	0.14	0.25	0.38	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
5 CNSA	95	0.10	0.19	0.28	0.35	0.029	0.049	0.031	-0.036	1.44	1.35	1.12	0.90	30.98	26.24	11.28	-10.35
10 CNSA	90	0.11	0.18	0.29	0.34	0.045	0.039	0.035	-0.046	1.68	1.28	1.14	0.88	40.77	22.11	12.33	-13.58
15 CNSA	85	0.12	0.17	0.26	0.33	0.048	0.032	0.0064	-0.051	1.73	1.23	1.02	0.86	42.34	18.79	2.49	-15.26
20 CNSA	80	0.11	0.16	0.24	0.30	0.047	0.022	-0.008	-0.084	1.71	1.15	0.95	0.78	41.69	13.72	-3.38	-27.63
25 CNSA	75	0.11	0.15	0.24	0.28	0.043	0.009	-0.012	-0.104	1.65	1.07	0.94	0.73	39.70	6.56	-5.26	-36.47

665 **4. Sustainability and cost assessment**

666 4.1 CO₂ Emissions

The corresponding CO_2 emission values for OPC [102], water [103], and fine aggregates [103] 667 were taken from the literature. Embodied carbon of CNSA is not available in the literature, so 668 the embodied carbon used is subject to certain presumptions. In the present study, only the 669 670 carbon emissions caused by the transportation and processing of CNSA are considered since the cashew nut industry burns CNS as fuel. For CNSA, the CO₂ emissions were calculated 671 according to the method described by [104]. CNSA is collected from Kalbhavi Industries, 672 673 Mangaluru; The distance between the cashew industry and the laboratory where the casting 674 and testing were done is roughly 35 km.

Multi-Utility Vehicle (MUV) capacity of 1000 kg was used to transport the CNSA. The 675 electricity consumed for oven drying CNSA for 24 hours at 105°C is at a rate of 1041.67 W/h 676 [104]. Furthermore, assuming that to process (Drying, pulverizing, and Ball milling) the 1000 677 678 kg CNSA, approximately 174.7 kWh electricity will be consumed (considering the same as Pulverized Oil Fuel Ash) [104]. According to CO₂ Baseline Database for the Indian Power 679 Sector, October 2021 [105], the CO₂ emission factor for each kilowatt-hour of electricity 680 consumed is 0.79 kgCO₂/kWh, while 0.145 kgCO₂/km emission factors for MUV as per India 681 682 Specific Road Transport Emission Factors [106]. Using these emission factor values, 1 kg of CNSA has an embodied carbon of 0.143 kg. 683

-	684	Table 11: CO ₂	emission	factors for	r the	primary	ingr	edients	used	in a	ll the	mortar	mix
---	-----	---------------------------	----------	-------------	-------	---------	------	---------	------	------	--------	--------	-----

Cement	Sand	Water	CNSA
0.82 [102]	0.024 [103]	0.0013 [103]	0.143 (Table 13)

Control and CNSA-based mortar production were used to calculate the embodied GHGE
ECO₂e and the embodied energy EE for 1 kg of each Type of mortar using Eq.8, 9 [95]

- $ECO_2 e = \Sigma CO_{2i} \times m_i$ (8)
- $EE = \Sigma E_i \times m_i$
- CO_{2i} is the embodied carbon factors, E_i is the embodied energy factors per unit mass of constituent i, and m_i corresponds to the mass of mortar ingredient i per kg of mortar.
- 691 The EE to produce raw materials is obtained from various sources detailed in Table 12.
- 692

Table 12: Embodied energy for the ingredients used in all the mortar mixes

(9)

 Cement	Sand	Water	CNSA	
 5.5 [107]	0.34 [103]	0.0017 [103]	2.21	

		Energy re	equirements for 1000	kg of CNSA	Transporta	ntion of 1000 kg of CNSA	Total emission
Sl No	Item	Consum	ption (kWh)	- Emission factor	Distance	Emission factor	(kg CO ₂ /kg
		Drying ¹	Pulverizing and Ball milling ²	(kg CO ₂ /kWh) ³	(km) ⁴	$(\text{kg CO}_2/\text{km})^5$	CNSA)
1	CNSA	25 [104]	149.7 [104]	0.79	35	0.148	0.143

695

694

¹ A 1041.67 W/h consumption rate was observed from the oven during 24 hours of drying [104]

² Energy engrossed by Pulverizing and Ball milling machines [104]

⁶⁹⁸ ³Emission factors due to the development of electricity [105]

⁴ Distance from the cashew nut industry to the laboratory

⁵ Emission factor of the MUV used to transport the materials [106]

701

702

703

704

705

Moreover, the production of CNSA is involved in transporting, drying, pulverizing, and ball 707 milling. However, the embodied carbon estimated based on these aspects was 0.143 kgCO₂/kg 708 as seen in Table 11 and Table 13. An investigation by Dissanayake et al. [108] denotes that the 709 utilization of the waste materials results in nearly zero EE, but the EE utilized for transporting, 710 drying, pulverizing, and ball milling is to be considered. As per the greenhouse gas: reporting 711 712 conversion factor from Department for Business, Energy, and Industrial Strategy, the conversion factors is 0.233 kgCO₂ per kWh [109]. Also, 1 MJ equals 0.2778 kWh [110], and 713 the equivalent carbon dioxide released for the transporting, drying, pulverizing, and ball milling 714 715 of the CNSA was considered. Hence for CNSA, which was acquired as direct waste, the EE derived as 2.21 MJ/kg. Although there are no values with the CNSA in the literature, this result 716 elucidates the one found for the rice husk ash [111], which is an agro-industrial waste. 717

Mortar with CNSA in varied proportions as a replacement for cement was evaluated for their 718 environmental efficacy. Compared to control mortar, CNSA mortars contribute less 719 720 greenhouse gas emissions, making them environmentally friendly. The derived results are illustrated in Fig. 25. It can be divulged that the incorporation of CNSA in mortar led to a 721 722 substantial decrease in the embodied carbon of the mixes. CNSA incorporation into mortar clearly affects the difference obtained for ECO₂e for different mortars. From Fig.25, it can be 723 724 revealed that the utilization of CNSA in mortar led to a significant decline in the embodied carbon of the mixture. The embodied carbon of blended mortar is 3.8%, 7.6%, 11.4%, 15.2%, 725 and 19% lesser than that of the control mortar at 5%, 10%, 15%, 20%, and 25% of OPC 726 replaced with CNSA. The mix with the utmost percentage replacement of CNSA emitted the 727 least amount of ECO₂e among the different proportions. 728



Fig. 25: Embodied carbon and Eco-strength efficiency of Blended cement Mortar at different CNSA percentages



Fig. 26: Embodied energy of Blended cement Mortar at different CNSA percentages

729

731 **4.2 Embodied Energy**

- Fig. 26 shows the embodied energy of control mortar and the varying percentages of CNSA.
- As seen in Fig. 26, the maximum amount of EE is developed by control mortar compared to
- different mixes. The amount of EE is 2.89, 2.82, 2.74, 2.67, 2.60, 2.52 MJ/kg with 0, 5, 10, 15,
- 735 20 and 25% CNSA levels. The reduction of EE is 2.5, 5.1, 7.6, 10.2 and 12.7% compared to
- control mortar. According to these findings, CNSA fractionally substituted with cement led to
- 737 a reduction in EE.

738 **4.3 Eco-strength Efficiency**

A varied mix of CNSA will result in different total CO₂ emissions. However, it is essential to focus not only on reducing embodied carbon but also on the abatement of materials and the impact on compressive strength [112]. An eco-strength efficiency indicator using Eq. 13 [104] can be used for a better understanding,

743 Eco-strength efficiency =
$$\frac{\text{Average 28-day compressive strength of mortar}}{\text{Total Embodied carbon of mortar}}$$
 (10)

According to Fig.25, the control mortar with 0% CNSA has an efficacy of 0.0976 744 745 MPa/kgCO₂e.kg for 28 days. From Fig.25, it can be seen that the eco-strength efficiency of CNSA blended mortar is decreased at all levels compared to control mortar. This can be due to 746 747 the decrease in compressive strength of all the CNSA blended mortar mixes at 28 days. By substituting OPC with 5%, 10%, 15%, 20%, and 25%, the eco-strength efficiency is lowered 748 749 by 10.4%, 14.2%, 16.7%, 26%, and 32%, respectively. As mentioned earlier, CNSA blended mortars can be used for applications that do not require high compressive strength. Also, the 750 751 strength values obtained for CNSA blended mortars were found to be more than the ASTM standards (ASTM C270 and ASTM C90). However, it is essential to focus not only on the 752 reduction of eco-strength efficiency but also on the reduction in the constituents with 753 replacement levels of OPC and embodied carbon. 754

Despite its meager contribution to reducing CO₂ emissions, CNSA offers the advantage of conservation of natural resources and can be used to develop ecologically beneficial and energy-efficient mortars for the cement industry to promote sustainable growth.

758 **4.4 Cost assessment**

The CNSA used in this study is an untreated regional waste material obtained directly from the industry. The ash obtained will be disposed of on land, so the processing cost for CNSA is relatively less than the cement. Therefore, the cost for drying, pulverizing, ball milling, and transporting CNSA will be considered in this study. From table 13, total electricity consumption for drying, pulverizing, and ball milling of 1000kg of CNSA is 174.7 kWh. The cost of 174.7 units consumed for drying, pulverizing, and ball milling of 1000kg of CNSA is Rs. 1398.00* /1000 kg. CNSA of 1000kg transported for a distance of 35 km, the cost for transporting CNSA is Rs. 619.78* /1000 kg. Hence, total cost of CNSA is Rs. 2.017* /kg. To calculate the quantity of cement and sand for $1m^3$ of mortar for a mix ratio of 1:2.75, weight of cement and sand is 510.72 kg/m³ and 1404.48 kg/m³. Table 14 indicates the total cost of mixes for $1m^3$ of mortar

770)
-----	---

Mix	Cement (kg/m ³)	CNSA (kg/m ³)	Sand (kg/m ³)	Total (Rs / m ³)
0 CNSA	510.72	-	1404.48	6192.48
5 CNSA	485.22	25.53	1404.48	6039.97
10 CNSA	459.66	51.06	1404.48	5886.98
15 CNSA	434.13	76.59	1404.48	5734.24
20 CNSA	408.60	102.12	1404.48	5581.49
25 CNSA	383.04	127.68	1404.48	5428.57

- * Cost can be varied based on market conditions

789 **Conclusion**

3R's - Reducing, recycling, and reusing waste is one of the important goals of the world's 790 sustainability. A country's sustainable development depends on tackling waste materials that 791 cause regional environmental contamination and reusing them for sustainable 792 development. Hence, this study divulged the practicability of harnessing the waste CNSA on 793 the characteristics of the cement pastes and mortars. The CNSA was utilized in developing a 794 795 mortar mix by substituting the cement at various levels and the fresh and hardened characteristics of paste and mortar is studied. Embodied energy and carbon assessment, eco-796 797 strength efficiency were used to assess the sustainability performance of mortars. Based on the 798 results, the following conclusions can be drawn.

- The reactive phases and high specific area of CNSA lead to additional water for attaining
 the consistency of cement paste.
- CNSA has an acceleration effect on the setting time of blended cement pastes. Due to the presence of high alkali (K₂O and Na₂O) in CNSA, the precipitousness of cement hydrates occurs at a faster rate, leading to a shortening in the induction period and reduction in the setting time of cement pastes.
- Results show that incorporating CNSA in more significant amounts decreases the mini slump flow of the cement paste. The particle size of CNSA has a substantial influence on
 the flow.
- The workability of all the mixes of blended mortar is found to be more than 110 mm. Higher
 the replacement levels, flow values were decreased by 7%, 9%, 10%, 16% and 18%
 respectively. CNSA particles exhibit more angularity, aggregation and reactive phases,
 leading to an decrease in flowability.
- CNSA leads to higher compressive strength at an early age as the alkali in cement accelerates the hydration at an early age. At 28 days, the compressive strength of all the replacement levels is 14%, 21%, 26%, 37%, and 45% less than the control mortar. At later ages, the mechanical properties of cement-based materials were adversely affected by the high alkali content in blended cement mortar. However, CNSA-blended mortars can be potentially used in masonry units. The findings of this study shows that regional waste material CNSA can be utilized in smaller amounts.
- Porosity is the main factor influencing the UPV values, and higher porosity negatively
 affects the UPV. The partial replacement of OPC with CNSA in mortars decreases the UPV

values with an increase in percentage. However, the CNSA blended mortar is in a good
quality with UPV of 3500 – 4500 m/s.

CNSA concrete exhibited a lower bulk density than the control mortar. This is because the
 specific gravity value of CNSA is lower than that of cement, resulting in a decrease in the
 bulk density of mortar with CNSA.

The indices of the pozzolanic effect 'P' have positively contributed to the strength during
the initial ages. For later ages (at 28day), the value of 'P' decreased than the amount of
CNSA, indicating negative pozzolanic contribution to the strength.

- The sustainability assessment shows a substantial reduction in the embodied carbon, energy,
 and overall carbon footprint for all the replacement levels of CNSA. The eco-strength
 efficiency of CNSA blended mortar was reduced than the control mortar for all the mixes.
 Also, the cost assessment of the mortar mixes indicated that the CNSA can be used as a
 cost-effective accelerator.
- CNSA as a partial substitute for the cement found to be promising for certain desired 834 characteristics of cement despite its limitations in strength at later ages. CNSA is an 835 underutilized resource that has the potential to evolve as a construction material. A great deal 836 of research is required for CNSA to enhance its efficiency and material's characteristics for 837 construction applications. The present literature mainly focuses on mortar's fresh and 838 mechanical properties utilizing CNSA. However, the effects on reactivity, hydration, 839 840 microstructure, and durability are yet to be thoroughly studied. Also, researchers may attempt to investigate the possibility of using CNSA on the performance of structural concrete. Further, 841 due to the higher alkali content of CNSA, more research is needed to investigate if this type of 842 ash promotes an alkali-silica reaction. 843

In addition, this work provides a dual opportunity for the production of CNSA at an industrial 844 scale and to blend with Portland cement. While processing CNSA, industries can adopt suitable 845 methods for sieving and grinding to the desired fineness. The processed CNSA from the cashew 846 industry can be exported to the cement industry and blended with the clinker to make high-847 quality, sustainable quick accelerating cement. Thus, CNSA can generate substantial income 848 for the industry and be used in cement production as a blended material. However, it is still 849 850 necessary to conduct a great deal of research on CNSA to prove its suitability for cementitious composites. 851

- 852
- 853

Credit authorship contribution statement

Manjunath Balasubramanya: Conceptualization, Idea, Investigation, Data curation, Validation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Visualization, Writing - original draft, Writing -review & editing. Claudiane M. Ouellet-Plamondon: Formal analysis, Data curation, Validation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. **BB Das:** Investigation of TGA. Chandrasekhar Bhojaraju: Conceptualization, Investigation Validation, Formal analysis, Methodology, Visualization, Supervision, Resources, Funding acquisition, Writing - review & editing.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that there are no competing interests regarding the publication of this paper.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank St Joseph Engineering College, Mangaluru, Karnataka for their financial support (SJEC/DIR/ST/S/20/20) throughout the research work. The authors would like to thank the technical staff and students for their support in our experiments. The authors are grateful to the National Centre for Earth Science Studies, Thiruvananthapuram for XRF and particle size analyzer facility, National Institute of Technology, Surathkal, Karnataka and Manipal academy of higher education (MAHE), Karnataka for providing help with the XRD, TGA, SEM and EDS facilities. **Data Availability statement**

All data, models and code generated or used during the study appear in the published article.

886 **References**

[1] C.-Y. Zhang, R. Han, B. Yu, Y.-M. Wei, Accounting process-related CO2 emissions from
 global cement production under Shared Socioeconomic Pathways, Journal of cleaner
 production 184 (2018) 451-465.

[2] M.A. Caronge, M. Tjaronge, I.R. Rahim, R. Irmawaty, F.E. Lapian, Feasibility study on theuse of processed waste tea ash as cement replacement for sustainable concrete production,

- Journal of Building Engineering 52 (2022) 104458.
- [3] A. Pandey, B. Kumar, Effects of rice straw ash and micro silica on mechanical properties of
 pavement quality concrete, Journal of Building Engineering 26 (2019) 100889.
- [4] S. Sharma, Building a New India, 2018. <u>https://www.kanvic.com/grey-matter/building-a-</u>
 <u>new-india</u>.
- [5] S. Shrivastava, R. Shrivastava, A systematic literature review on green manufacturing
 concepts in cement industries, International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management
 (2017).
- [6] S. Kenai, W. Soboyejo, A. Soboyejo, Some engineering properties of limestone concrete,
 Materials and manufacturing processes 19(5) (2004) 949-961.
- 902 [7] F. Pacheco-Torgal, J. Labrincha, The future of construction materials research and the 903 seventh UN Millennium Development Goal: A few insights, Construction and building 904 materials 40 (2013) 729-737.
- [8] F. Belaïd, How does concrete and cement industry transformation contribute to mitigating
 climate change challenges?, Resources, Conservation & Recycling Advances 15 (2022)
 200084.
- 908 [9] R. Isaksson, Process based system models for detecting opportunities and threats—the case 909 of World Cement Production, International Journal of Quality and Service Sciences (2016).
- 910 [10] B.S. Thomas, J. Yang, A. Bahurudeen, J.A. Abdalla, R. Hawileh, H.M. Hamada, S. Nazar, V.
- Jittin, D.K. Ashish, Sugarcane bagasse ash as supplementary cementitious material in
 concrete–A review, Materials Today Sustainability 15 (2021) 100086.
- 913 [11] I. Tekin, İ. Dirikolu, H. Gökçe, A regional supplementary cementitious material for the 914 cement industry: Pistachio shell ash, Journal of Cleaner Production 285 (2021) 124810.
- [12] A.A. Amer, S. El-Hoseny, Properties and performance of metakaolin pozzolanic cement
 pastes, Journal of Thermal Analysis and Calorimetry 129(1) (2017) 33-44.
- 917 [13] A. Khan, M.A. Sikandar, M.T. Bashir, S.A.A. Shah, B. Zamin, K. Rehman, Assessment for 918 utilization of tobacco stem ash as a potential supplementary cementitious material in cement-
- based composites, Journal of Building Engineering 53 (2022) 104531.
- [14] V. Brial, H. Tran, L. Sorelli, D. Conciatori, C.M. Ouellet-Plamondon, Evaluation of the
 reactivity of treated spent pot lining from primary aluminum production as cementitious
 materials, Resources, Conservation and Recycling 170 (2021) 105584.
- [15] K. Scrivener, F. Martirena, S. Bishnoi, S. Maity, Calcined clay limestone cements (LC3),
 Cement and Concrete Research 114 (2018) 49-56.
- 925 [16] R. Snellings, Assessing, understanding and unlocking supplementary cementitious926 materials, RILEM Technical Letters 1 (2016) 50-55.
- 927 [17] S. Kappenthuler, S. Seeger, From resources to research—a framework for identification
 928 and prioritization of materials research for sustainable construction, Materials Today
 929 Sustainability 7 (2020) 100009.
- 930 [18] G. Athira, A. Bahurudeen, V. Vishnu, Availability and accessibility of sugarcane bagasse
- ash for its utilization in Indian cement plants: A GIS-based network analysis, Sugar Tech 22(6)
- 932 (2020) 1038-1056.

- 933 [19] V. Jittin, A. Bahurudeen, Evaluation of rheological and durability characteristics of
 934 sugarcane bagasse ash and rice husk ash based binary and ternary cementitious system,
 935 Construction and Building Materials 317 (2022) 125965.
- [20] J.B. Jamora, S.E.L. Gudia, A.W. Go, M.B. Giduquio, J.W.A. Orilla, M.E. Loretero, Potential
 reduction of greenhouse gas emission through the use of sugarcane ash in cement-based
 industries: A case in the Philippines, Journal of Cleaner Production 239 (2019) 118072.
- [21] A.P. Vieira, R.D. Toledo Filho, L.M. Tavares, G.C. Cordeiro, Effect of particle size, porous
 structure and content of rice husk ash on the hydration process and compressive strength
 evolution of concrete, Construction and Building Materials 236 (2020) 117553.
- [22] N. Chusilp, C. Jaturapitakkul, K. Kiattikomol, Utilization of bagasse ash as a pozzolanic
 material in concrete, Construction and Building Materials 23(11) (2009) 3352-3358.
- [23] M. Moraes, J. Moraes, M. Tashima, J. Akasaki, L. Soriano, M. Borrachero, J. Payá,
 Production of bamboo leaf ash by auto-combustion for pozzolanic and sustainable use in
 cementitious matrices, Construction and Building Materials 208 (2019) 369-380.
- 947 [24] M. Shakouri, C.L. Exstrom, S. Ramanathan, P. Suraneni, Hydration, strength, and
 948 durability of cementitious materials incorporating untreated corn cob ash, Construction and
 949 Building Materials 243 (2020) 118171.
- 950 [25] T.S.B.A. Manan, N.L.M. Kamal, S. Beddu, T. Khan, D. Mohamad, A. Syamsir, Z. Itam, H.
- Jusoh, N.A.N. Basri, W.H.M.W. Mohtar, Strength enhancement of concrete using incinerated
- agricultural waste as supplementary cement materials, Scientific reports 11(1) (2021) 1-12.
 [26] K. Wi, H.-S. Lee, S. Lim, H. Song, M.W. Hussin, M.A. Ismail, Use of an agricultural by-
- product, nano sized Palm Oil Fuel Ash as a supplementary cementitious material,
 Construction and Building Materials 183 (2018) 139-149.
- [27] Y. Lv, G. Ye, G. De Schutter, Characterization of cogeneration generated Napier grass ash
 and its potential use as SCMs, Materials and Structures 52(4) (2019) 1-12.
- [28] F. Cao, H. Qiao, Y. Li, X. Shu, L. Cui, Effect of highland barley straw ash admixture on
 properties and microstructure of concrete, Construction and Building Materials 315 (2022)
 125802.
- 961 [29] A. Qudoos, H.G. Kim, J.-S. Ryou, Effect of mechanical processing on the pozzolanic 962 efficiency and the microstructure development of wheat straw ash blended cement 963 composites, Construction and Building Materials 193 (2018) 481-490.
- [30] Y. Baran, H. Gökçe, M. Durmaz, Physical and mechanical properties of cement containing
 regional hazelnut shell ash wastes, Journal of Cleaner Production 259 (2020) 120965.
- 966 [31] S. Munshi, R.P. Sharma, Investigation on the pozzolanic properties of rice straw ash 967 prepared at different temperatures, Materials Express 8(2) (2018) 157-164.
- [32] N. Kumar, V. Ponnuswami, S. Jeeva, C. Ravindran, D. Kalaivanan, Cashew Industry in
 India–an overview, Chronica Horticulturae. 52 (2012) 27.
- 970 [33] A. Mohod, S. Jain, A. Powar, Cashew nut shell waste: availability in small-scale cashew
 971 processing industries and its fuel properties for gasification, International Scholarly Research
 972 Notices 2011 (2011).
- [34] P. Das, T. Sreelatha, A. Ganesh, Bio oil from pyrolysis of cashew nut shell-characterisation
 and related properties, Biomass and bioenergy 27(3) (2004) 265-275.
- 975 [35] A. Mohod, S. Jain, A. Powar, Cashew nut processing: sources of environmental pollution
- and standards, BIOINFO Environ Pollut 1(1) (2011) 5-11.
- 977 [36] J. James, R. Roshna, S. Santhiya, Cashew nut shell ash as a supplementary additive in lime
- 978 stabilized expansive soil composites, Materials Today: Proceedings (2022).

- [37] S. Oyebisi, T. Igba, D. Oniyide, Performance evaluation of cashew nutshell ash as a binder
 in concrete production, Case Studies in Construction Materials 11 (2019) e00293.
- [38] A. Tantri, G. Nayak, M. Kamath, A. Shenoy, K.K. Shetty, Utilization of cashew nut-shell ash
 as a cementitious material for the development of reclaimed asphalt pavement incorporated
 self compacting concrete, Construction and Building Materials 301 (2021) 124197.
- [39] S. Oyebisi, T. Igba, A. Raheem, F. Olutoge, Predicting the splitting tensile strength of
 concrete incorporating anacardium occidentale nut shell ash using reactivity index concepts
 and mix design proportions, Case Studies in Construction Materials 13 (2020) e00393.
- [40] J.K. Mendu, R.M.R. Pannem, Assessment of mechanical properties of cashew nut shell
 ash blended concrete, Innovative Infrastructure Solutions 6(4) (2021) 1-20.
- [41] C. Pavithra, A. Arokiaprakash, A. Maheshwari, Behaviour of concrete adding chicken
 feather as fibre with partial replacement of cement with Cashewnut shell powder, Materials
 Today: Proceedings 43 (2021) 1173-1178.
- [42] S. Oyebisi, A. Ede, H. Owamah, T. Igba, O. Mark, A. Odetoyan, Optimising the Workability
 and Strength of Concrete Modified with Anacardium Occidentale Nutshell Ash, Fibers 9(7)
 (2021) 41.
- 995 [43] M.D. Thomas, B. Fournier, K.J. Folliard, Alkali-aggregate reactivity (AAR) facts book,
 996 United States. Federal Highway Administration. Office of Pavement Technology, 2013.
- [44] I.B.O. MINES, Indian Minerals Yearbook 2016, Gov. India Minist. Mines Nagpur 13 (2018)1-17.
- [45] K.F. Portella, L.E. Lagoeiro, J.L. Bronholo, D.d.C. Miranda, M.D. Bragança, B.G. Dias, N.P.
 Hasparyk, S.C. Kuperman, Alkali-silica reaction (ASR)-Investigation of crystallographic
 parameters of natural sands by backscattered electron diffraction, Revista IBRACON de
 Estruturas e Materiais 14 (2021).
- 1003 [46] M.A. Noaman, M.N. Islam, M.R. Islam, M.R. Karim, Mechanical properties of brick 1004 aggregate concrete containing rice husk ash as a partial replacement of cement, Journal of 1005 Materials in Civil Engineering 30(6) (2018) 04018086.
- 1006 [47] C. ASTM, Standard test method for amount of water required for normal consistency of1007 hydraulic cement paste, (2011).
- 1008 [48] A. ASTM, Standard test methods for time of setting of hydraulic cement by Vicat needle,1009 ASTM International: West Conshohocken, PA, USA (2013).
- 1010 [49] B. EN, 196-3: 2016 Methods of testing cement, Determination of setting times and 1011 soundness (2016).
- 1012 [50] C. ASTM, Standard test method for flow of hydraulic cement mortar, C1437 (2007).
- 1013 [51] A. Standard, ASTM C109-standard test method for compressive strength of hydraulic 1014 cement mortars, ASTM International, West Conshohocken, PA (2008).
- 1015 [52] A. ASTM C642, Standard test method for density, absorption, and voids in hardened 1016 concrete, ASTM, ASTM International (2013).
- 1017 [53] C. Astm, 597, Standard test method for pulse velocity through concrete, ASTM1018 International, West Conshohocken, PA (2009).
- 1019 [54] P. Ghosh, Q. Tran, Correlation between bulk and surface resistivity of concrete,1020 International Journal of Concrete Structures and Materials 9(1) (2015) 119-132.
- 1021 [55] L.-H. Yu, H. Ou, L.-L. Lee, Investigation on pozzolanic effect of perlite powder in concrete,
- 1022 Cement and Concrete Research 33(1) (2003) 73-76.
- 1023 [56] K. Umamaheswaran, V.S. Batra, Physico-chemical characterisation of Indian biomass 1024 ashes, Fuel 87(6) (2008) 628-638.

- 1025 [57] Y. Niu, H. Tan, Ash-related issues during biomass combustion: Alkali-induced slagging, 1026 silicate melt-induced slagging (ash fusion), agglomeration, corrosion, ash utilization, and 1027 related countermeasures, Progress in Energy and Combustion Science 52 (2016) 1-61.
- 1028 [58] T. Akinhanmi, V. Atasie, P. Akintokun, Chemical composition and physicochemical 1029 properties of cashew nut (Anacardium occidentale) oil and cashew nut shell liquid, Journal of 1030 Agricultural, Food and Environmental Sciences 2(1) (2008) 1-10.
- 1031 [59] E. Gyedu-Akoto, Utilization of some cashew by-products, Nutrition & Food Science 1032 (2011).
- 1033 [60] R. Rico, M. Bulló, J. Salas-Salvadó, Nutritional composition of raw fresh cashew
 1034 (Anacardium occidentale L.) kernels from different origin, Food science & nutrition 4(2) (2016)
 1035 329-338.
- 1036 [61] A. Aweto, M. Ishola, The impact of cashew (Anacardium occidentale) on forest soil, 1037 Experimental Agriculture 30(3) (1994) 337-341.
- 1038 [62] Z. Li, K. Afshinnia, P.R. Rangaraju, Effect of alkali content of cement on properties of high 1039 performance cementitious mortar, Construction and Building Materials 102 (2016) 631-639.
- 1040 [63] S. Damerio, P. Nukala, J. Juraszek, P. Reith, H. Hilgenkamp, B. Noheda, Structure and
- 1041 magnetic properties of epitaxial CaFe2O4 thin films, npj Quantum Materials 5(1) (2020) 1-10.
- 1042 [64] A. Bloesser, J. Timm, H. Kurz, W. Milius, S. Hayama, J. Breu, B. Weber, R. Marschall, A
 1043 novel synthesis yielding macroporous CaFe2O4 sponges for solar energy conversion, Solar RRL
 1044 4(8) (2020) 1900570.
- [65] N.M. Al-Akhras, M. Abdulwahid, Utilisation of olive waste ash in mortar mixes, Structural
 Concrete 11(4) (2010) 221-228.
- 1047 [66] D. Adesanya, A. Raheem, Development of corn cob ash blended cement, Construction 1048 and Building Materials 23(1) (2009) 347-352.
- 1049 [67] K.M.A. Hossain, Blended cement using volcanic ash and pumice, Cement and Concrete 1050 research 33(10) (2003) 1601-1605.
- 1051 [68] M. Thomas, Supplementary cementing materials in concrete, CRC press2013.
- 1052 [69] M. Tokyay, Cement and concrete mineral admixtures, CRC Press2016.
- 1053 [70] M. Liu, H. Tan, X. He, Effects of nano-SiO2 on early strength and microstructure of steam-
- 1054 cured high volume fly ash cement system, Construction and Building Materials 194 (2019)1055 350-359.
- 1056 [71] J. Chen, S.-c. Kou, C.-s. Poon, Hydration and properties of nano-TiO2 blended cement 1057 composites, Cement and Concrete Composites 34(5) (2012) 642-649.
- 1058 [72] L. Wang, Q. Li, J. Song, S. Liu, Effect of graphene oxide on early hydration and compressive
 1059 strength of Portland cement-copper tailing powder composite binder, Powder Technology
 1060 386 (2021) 428-436.
- [73] I. EN, 197-1: Cement—Composition, Specifications and Conformity Criteria for Common
 Cements. No. BS EN 197-1: 2011, British Standards Institution (BSI): London, UK (2011).
- 1063 [74] C. Bhojaraju, S.S. Mousavi, V. Brial, M. DiMare, C.M. Ouellet-Plamondon, Fresh and 1064 hardened properties of GGBS-contained cementitious composites using graphene and 1065 graphene oxide, Construction and Building Materials 300 (2021) 123902.
- 1066 [75] Z. Pan, L. He, L. Qiu, A.H. Korayem, G. Li, J.W. Zhu, F. Collins, D. Li, W.H. Duan, M.C. Wang,
 1067 Mechanical properties and microstructure of a graphene oxide–cement composite, Cement
- 1068 and Concrete Composites 58 (2015) 140-147.
- 1069 [76] S. Mantellato, M. Palacios, R.J. Flatt, Relating early hydration, specific surface and flow
- 1070 loss of cement pastes, Materials and Structures 52(1) (2019) 1-17.

- 1071 [77] Y. Bu, J. Weiss, The influence of alkali content on the electrical resistivity and transport 1072 properties of cementitious materials, Cement and Concrete Composites 51 (2014) 49-58.
- 1073 [78] F.F. Ataie, K.A. Riding, Thermochemical pretreatments for agricultural residue ash 1074 production for concrete, Journal of Materials in Civil Engineering 25(11) (2013) 1703-1711.
- 1075 [79] S. Praveenkumar, G. Sankarasubramanian, S. Sindhu, Strength, permeability and 1076 microstructure characterization of pulverized bagasse ash in cement mortars, Construction 1077 and Building Materials 238 (2020) 117691.
- 1078 [80] R. Rajamma, R.J. Ball, L.A. Tarelho, G.C. Allen, J.A. Labrincha, V.M. Ferreira, 1079 Characterisation and use of biomass fly ash in cement-based materials, Journal of hazardous 1080 materials 172(2-3) (2009) 1049-1060.
- [81] Q. Li, Y. Zhao, H. Chen, P. Zhao, P. Hou, X. Cheng, N. Xie, Effect of waste corn stalk ash on
 the early-age strength development of fly ash/cement composite, Construction and Building
 Materials 303 (2021) 124463.
- 1084 [82] L. Huang, P. Yan, Effect of alkali content in cement on its hydration kinetics and 1085 mechanical properties, Construction and Building Materials 228 (2019) 116833.
- 1086 [83] B. Alabadan, M. Olutoye, M. Abolarin, M. Zakariya, Partial replacement of ordinary 1087 Portland cement (OPC) with bambara groundnut shell ash (BGSA) in concrete, Leonardo 1088 Electronic Journal of Practices and Technologies 6 (2005) 43-48.
- 1089 [84] C. ASTM, 270. Standard Specification for Mortar for Unit Masonry, Especificación 1090 Estándar del Mortero para Unidades de Mampostería (2003).
- 1091 [85] A. C90, Standard Specification for Loadbearing Concrete Masonry Units, Annual book of 1092 ASTM standards, United States (2014).
- 1093 [86] M. Shakouri, C.L. Exstrom, S. Ramanathan, P. Suraneni, J.S. Vaux, Pretreatment of corn
 1094 stover ash to improve its effectiveness as a supplementary cementitious material in concrete,
 1095 Cement and Concrete Composites 112 (2020) 103658.
- 1096 [87] V.M. Malhotra, Testing hardened concrete: nondestructive methods, (1976).
- 1097 [88] E. Mohseni, F. Naseri, R. Amjadi, M.M. Khotbehsara, M.M. Ranjbar, Microstructure and
 1098 durability properties of cement mortars containing nano-TiO2 and rice husk ash, Constr. Build.
 1099 Mater 114 (2016) 656-664.
- 1100 [89] F. Saint-Pierre, A. Philibert, B. Giroux, P. Rivard, Concrete quality designation based on1101 ultrasonic pulse velocity, Construction and Building Materials 125 (2016) 1022-1027.
- [90] J.R. Leslie, W. Cheesman, An ultrasonic method of studying deterioration and cracking in
 concrete structures, Journal of the American Concrete Institute 21(1) (1949) 17-36.
- 1104 [91] N.R.C.o.C.D.o.B. Research, R. Feldman, Non-destructive testing of concrete, 1977.
- 1105 [92] C. Costa, J.C. Marques, Feasibility of eco-friendly binary and ternary blended binders
- made of fly-ash and oil-refinery spent catalyst in ready-mixed concrete production,Sustainability 10(9) (2018) 3136.
- [93] H. Xiong, K. Yuan, J. Xu, M. Wen, Pore structure, adsorption, and water absorption of
 expanded perlite mortar in external thermal insulation composite system during aging,
 Cement and Concrete Composites 116 (2021) 103900.
- 1111 [94] B.S. Thomas, J. Yang, K.H. Mo, J.A. Abdalla, R.A. Hawileh, E. Ariyachandra, Biomass ashes
- 1112 from agricultural wastes as supplementary cementitious materials or aggregate replacement
- in cement/geopolymer concrete: A comprehensive review, Journal of Building Engineering 40(2021) 102332.
- 1115 [95] K. Selvaranjan, J. Gamage, G. De Silva, S. Navaratnam, Development of sustainable mortar
- 1116 using waste rice husk ash from rice mill plant: Physical and thermal properties, Journal of
- 1117 Building Engineering 43 (2021) 102614.

- [96] A. Nanni, Guide for the design and construction of concrete reinforced with FRP bars (ACI
 440.1 R-03), Structures Congress 2005: Metropolis and Beyond, 2005, pp. 1-6.
- 1120 [97] T. Bremner, K. Hover, R. Poston, J. Broomfield, T. Joseph, R. Price, K. Clear, M. Khan, D.
- Reddy, J. Clifton, Protection of metals in concrete against corrosion, Technical Report for ACI
 Committee 222: Farmington Hills, MI, USA2001.
- 1123 [98] J. Gonzalez, J. Miranda, S. Feliu, Considerations on reproducibility of potential and 1124 corrosion rate measurements in reinforced concrete, Corrosion Science 46(10) (2004) 2467-1125 2485.
- [99] C. Bhojaraju, S.S. Mousavi, C.M. Ouellet-Plamondon, Influence of GGBFS on corrosion
 resistance of cementitious composites containing graphene and graphene oxide, Cement and
 Concrete Composites 135 (2023) 104836.
- 1129 [100] K.G. Babu, P.S. Prakash, Efficiency of silica fume in concrete, Cement and concrete 1130 research 25(6) (1995) 1273-1283.
- 1131 [101] K.G. Babu, G.S.N. Rao, Efficiency of fly ash in concrete, Cement and Concrete 1132 Composites 15(4) (1993) 223-229.
- 1133 [102] L.K. Turner, F.G. Collins, Carbon dioxide equivalent (CO2-e) emissions: A comparison
- between geopolymer and OPC cement concrete, Construction and building materials 43(2013) 125-130.
- 1136 [103] R.H. Crawford, A. Stephan, F. Prideaux, Environmental Performance in Construction 1137 (EPiC) Database, 2019.
- 1138 [104] M.F. Alnahhal, U.J. Alengaram, M.Z. Jumaat, F. Abutaha, M.A. Alqedra, R.R. Nayaka, 1139 Assessment on engineering properties and CO2 emissions of recycled aggregate concrete 1140 incorporating waste products as supplements to Portland cement, Journal of cleaner 1141 production 203 (2018) 822-835.
- 1142 [105] CEA, CO2 Baseline Database for the Indian Power Sector, User Guide, 2018.
- [106] C. Gajjar, A. Sheikh, India specific road transport emission factors, Transport SectorEmission Factor Methodologies (2015) 9-10.
- 1145 [107] F. Collins, Inclusion of carbonation during the life cycle of built and recycled concrete:
- influence on their carbon footprint, The International Journal of Life Cycle Assessment 15(6)(2010) 549-556.
- 1148 [108] D. Dissanayake, C. Jayasinghe, M. Jayasinghe, A comparative embodied energy analysis
- of a house with recycled expanded polystyrene (EPS) based foam concrete wall panels, Energy and Buildings 135 (2017) 85-94.
- 1151[109] M. Ibrahim, A. El Berry, K. Ashour, EXPERIMENTAL AND THEORETICAL STUDY OF SMART1152ENERGY MANAGEMENT SOLAR WATER HEATING SYSTEM FOR OUTDOOR SWIMMING POOL
- 1153 APPLICATION IN EGYPT, Frontiers in Heat and Mass Transfer (FHMT) 18 (2022).
- 1154 [110] N. Bheel, S.K. Mahro, A. Adesina, Influence of coconut shell ash on workability, 1155 mechanical properties, and embodied carbon of concrete, Environmental science and 1156 pollution research 28(5) (2021) 5682-5692.
- 1157 [111] G. Srikanth, A. Fernando, K. Selvaranjan, J. Gamage, L. Ekanayake, Development of a 1158 plastering mortar using waste bagasse and rice husk ashes with sound mechanical and 1159 thermal properties, Case Studies in Construction Materials 16 (2022) e00956.
- 1160 [112] R. Kumar, N. Shafiq, A. Kumar, A.A. Jhatial, Investigating embodied carbon, mechanical
- properties, and durability of high-performance concrete using ternary and quaternary blends
- of metakaolin, nano-silica, and fly ash, Environmental Science and Pollution Research 28(35)
- 1163 (2021) 49074-49088.
- 1164