



Evaluating the Influence of Palm Kernel Shell Ash on Ire Clay Geopolymer Concrete Cured at Ambient Temperature

O. R. Olulope ^{a*}, K. D. Oluborode ^a and O. O. Popoola ^a

^a Department of Civil Engineering, The Federal Polytechnic, Ado, Ekiti State, Nigeria.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. Author ORO analyzed the study, wrote the first draft of the manuscript and managed the literature searches. Author KDO conceived the study idea and performed the laboratory experiments. Author OOP managed the literature searches. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI: 10.9734/ASRJ/2023/v7i3132

Open Peer Review History:

This journal follows the Advanced Open Peer Review policy. Identity of the Reviewers, Editor(s) and additional Reviewers, peer review comments, different versions of the manuscript, comments of the editors, etc are available here: <https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/100943>

Original Research Article

Received: 04/04/2023

Accepted: 09/06/2023

Published: 30/06/2023

ABSTRACT

There is an abundance of clay deposit in Ire Ekiti which can serve as geopolymer source material and Palm kernel shell exists as a massive agro waste in South Western Nigeria. This study evaluates the effect of palm kernel shell ash (PKSA) as an additive on the compressive strength of Ire clay geopolymer concrete. The objective of the study is to determine the selected properties of the obtained concrete at room temperature. Palm kernel shell was burned at 650°C for 2 hours in a furnace. Natural clay collected from Ire Ekiti was manually pulverized, air dried and calcined in a furnace at 750° for 2 hours. The geopolymer concrete was prepared at a mixing ratio of 1:2:3. The material constituents were calcined clay (source material), 12M of NaOH and Na₂SiO₃ (ratio of NaOH to Na₂SiO₃ was 2:5), river sand and 12.5mm granite were the fine and coarse aggregates respectively while PKSA of 0%,7.5% and 15% of the calcined Ire Clay content were used as

*Corresponding author: E-mail: olulopeomolade@yahoo.com;

additive in preparing the geopolymer concrete. geopolymer concrete specimens were cured at ambient temperature till testing at different maturity ages of 7, 14 and 28 days. It was generally observed that increasing the percentage of PKSA as additive strongly improved the compressive strength gain with maturity of the Ire clay geopolymer concrete. At 28 days maturity, 7.5% PKSA addition improved the compressive strength by 166% while 15% PKSA addition improved the strength by 181% increase. The highest compressive strength was 7.67N/mm² at 15% PKSA addition on 28 day. Conclusively, Ire clay and PKSA are viable source material and additive respectively for geopolymer concrete production. The Ire clay geopolymer concrete can be practically applied like conventional concrete in structural work especially in a rural community like Ire Ekiti where cement needs to be transported over kilometers. Also, the concrete performing well at ambient temperature makes it cost effective compare to most geopolymers that require heating at high temperature. It is recommended that further study on the durability should be done.

Keywords: Clay; geopolymer; palm kernel shell ash; compressive strength; source material.

1. INTRODUCTION

Due to its low cost, superior mechanical and physical qualities, low energy consumption, and reduced greenhouse gas emissions as compared to ordinary concrete, geopolymer concrete has garnered a lot of interest [1,2]. As geopolymer concretes do not contain Portland cement and the powder binder utilized is typically an industrial/agricultural waste or minimally-processed natural material, it has been reported that they have a smaller carbon footprint than conventional concrete and are environmentally friendly [3].

The results of investigations on a variety of geopolymer concrete's short- and long-term performances, as well as on large-scale reinforced geopolymer concrete members, show that the material is appropriate for the production of precast concrete products used as structural elements in building construction [4]. According to reports, the Global Change Institute (GCI), located at the University of Queensland in Australia, is the first structure in the world to use structural geopolymer concrete manufactured from slag and fly ash. Additional applications of geopolymer concretes on-site have been reported [5,6].

Researchers hypothesized that binders could be produced by reacting an alkaline liquid with silicon (Si) and aluminum (Al) in a geologically derived source material or in by-product materials such as fly ash, agro waste ash like rice husk ash. As a result, the word "Geopolymer" was created to characterize these binders because polymerization is the chemical reaction that occurs under such circumstances [1,4]. When silica (Si) and aluminum (Al) materials are combined with alkaline activator

solutions in a chemical reaction to form a Si - O - Al polymer link, geopolymer paste is created. Typically, alkaline solutions consist of polysilicate materials that dissolve in a NaOH or KOH solution [7]. Research on geopolymer concrete is shifting from chemistry to engineering applications and commercial production according to Gülşan and Koushkbaghi [8,9].

Alkaline activator solutions, silicon (Si), and aluminum (Al) rich source materials are the key components of geopolymer. The raw ingredients for geopolymer could include natural minerals like kaolinite and clays, as well as industrial or agricultural waste products including fly ash, rice husk ash, GGBFS, silica fume, and red mud [6,10]. According to Davidovits et al. [11], as an activator in the geopolymerization process, solutions of sodium hydroxide (NaOH) or potassium hydroxide (KOH) and sodium silicate (Na₂SiO₃) can be used. Water is a component of a geopolymer mixture, but it has no significant effect on the chemical reaction occurring there; it merely aids in producing a workable or uniform mixture [12].

He et al. [13] incorporated palm oil fuel ash (POFA) as a unique of the agricultural waste products that can be produced from palm oil, alongside palm fiber and shells. POFA has been studied as a pozzolanic material that can partially supplant Portland cement in concrete and other cement composites [7].

Tangchirapat et al. [14] discovered that increasing the amount of POFA in high-strength concrete reduces the water permeability of concrete, cement consumption, and the price of high-strength concrete. This application of POFA is deemed environmentally friendly because it reduces the quantity of waste sent to landfills.

The kind and nature of the raw materials, alkaline activators, and curing conditions have been recognized as the most influential aspects of geopolymerization. Typically, silica- and alumina-rich raw materials are utilized. Controlling the leaching of alumina and silica from raw materials is significantly influenced by alkali concentration [15]. Activation of silicates enhances the solubility of raw materials and generates advantageous mechanical characteristics. Diverse curing conditions are recorded for different raw materials and activators [16]. The geo-polymers rely upon thermally activated herbal materials like Meta kaolinite or business byproducts like fly ash or slag to offer a source of silicon (Si) and aluminum (Al). These silicon and aluminum is dissolved in an alkaline activating solution and eventually polymerizes into molecular chains and end up the binder (Bharti et al., 2020)The majority of researchers have reported that geopolymer concretes are mostly cured at high temperatures [17,18]. In addition, literature on the use of PKSA as an additive in geopolymer concrete is scant. This study endeavors to determine the impact of palm kernel shell ash as an additive on Ire clay geopolymer concrete cured at room temperature.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Materials

- a. Natural clay soil collected from Ire Ekiti, Southwestern Nigeria, was pulverized manually and calcined by heating the natural clay at 750°C in a furnace for 2 hours. The calcined clay (CC) was used as a source material.
- b. Palm kernel shells (agricultural waste material) were collected in sacks from a local oil palm mill in Ijan Ekiti, southwest Nigeria. The empty shells were washed and sun-dried, they were calcined under controlled burning at 650°C for 2 hours. The collected ash was further ground into a finer consistency. The ashes were sieved using a 75µm sieve to remove any foreign matter and larger ash particles; only the fine ashes that passed through the 75µm sieve were collected. In this work, palm kernel shell ash (PKSA) was employed as an additive in the manufacturing of geopolymer concrete.
- c. Sodium hydroxide (NaOH) and sodium silicate (Na₂SiO₃) were chosen as activators since they are the most established and manageable alkali materials due to the ease

of handling them as well as being the commonest available activators. The proportion of sodium silicate (Na₂SiO₃) to sodium hydroxide (NaOH) was ratio 2:5. sodium hydroxide has a molecular weight of 40. 480 grams of sodium hydroxide were dissolved in 1000 milliliters of water to create a 12 mol solution (12 x 40 = 480). To make 480 grams of sodium hydroxide (NaOH), one liter of sodium silicate (Na₂SiO₃) was used. Distilled water was used in diluting the alkaline to the required molarity.

- d. The fine aggregates used was naturally occurring river sand obtained from Ado Ekiti metropolis. On physical inspection, it was free from debris, clay and impurities. The river sand conformed to [19] grading zone II.
- e. The coarse aggregate used was 12 mm crushed granite collected from a quarry site in Ekiti State, southwest, Nigeria. The aggregates passing through sieve size 12mm downward to the 4mm sieve were used.

2.2 Preliminary Tests on Materials

Chemical analysis of the calcined clay (CC-source material) and palm kernel shell ash (PKSA-additive) were performed in the laboratory to determine their chemical constituents. Specific gravity of the CC and PKSA were also determined.

While the clay and silt content was determined using the field settling method, the specific gravity, water absorption, and particle size distributions (dry sieving method) were carried out for the coarse and fine aggregates in accordance with [20-22], respectively.

2.3 Sample Preparation

The specimen was prepared by both weight and volume batching; the additive, source material and the aggregates were batched by weight while the alkaline solution was done by volume. A design mix ratio of 1:2:3 geopolymer concrete mass (indicating 1 part geopolymer gel, 2 parts fine aggregate and 3 parts coarse aggregate) was adopted in accordance with ST2 of [23]. PKSA was included as additives in proportion of 0 %, 7.5 % and 15% of the source material (CC) in respective batches of the mix. The proportions of the material constituents are depicted in Table 1. GPC0%, GPC7.5% and GPC15% shown in

Table 1. Material constituents proportion

Materials	GCP0%	GCP7.5%	GCP15%
Alkaline mixture (cm ³)	96.3	96.3	96.3
Calcined clay (source material) (g)	316.5	316.5	316.5
River sand (fine aggregate) (g)	633.0	633.0	633.0
Granite (coarse aggregate) (g)	949.5	949.5	949.5
PKSA (Additive) (g)	0	23.74	47.48
Additive (%)	0 %	7.5 %	15 %

Table 1 connote the identification names for geopolymer concrete with palm kernel shell ash 0%, 7.5% and 15% respectively. The alkaline mixture, calcined Ire clay, the fine aggregate and the coarse aggregate contents were kept constant while the additive (PKSA) was added in 0, 7.5 and 15% of the calcined clay(source material) content.

The fresh geopolymer concrete was compacted in three layers into the prepared 50 x50x50 mm³ steel cube. The cubes containing the fresh geopolymer concrete were covered with large polythene sheet to avoid evaporation. After casting for 24 hours, geopolymer concrete cube samples were demolded and properly labeled. Three test samples were cast for varying testing ages of 7, 14, and 28 days. The test samples were cured at room temperature in open air in the laboratory till the specified testing age.

2.4 Specimen Testing

The compressive strength test was performed using a wizard basic compression test machine that was electronically controlled. The test specimens were positioned in the hydraulic testing frame and a force was supplied until failure. The prism halves were centered relative to the machine's plates to within 0.5 mm and longitudinally so that the end face of the prism overhangs the plates by roughly 10 mm. The highest force exerted and specimen dimensions were subsequently recorded, and the specimen's compressive strength was calculated.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Oxide Composition

The oxide compositions of the calcined clay (CC) and the palm kernel shell ash (PKSA) are presented in Table 2. Silicon oxide (SiO₂) content in the clay and the PKSA were 58.96 % and 55.20 % while aluminum oxide (Al₂O₃) contents were 19.85 % and 12.1 % respectively. However, the Fe₂O₃ content in PKSA (7.92%) was more than twice the content in CC (3.31 %). It was also observed that all the other oxides safe CuO are

higher in PKSA compared to CC. The sum of the SiO₂, Al₂O₃ and Fe₂O₃ in CC and PKSA were 82.12 % and 75.22 %, respectively. The results indicated that clay is an exceptionally good source material for geopolymer concrete. Lemougna and Davidovits et al. [24,11] observed similar effect. PKSA as an additive, has an amorphous nature with high silica content, thus, owing to its high pozzolanicity, it is anticipated that it will enhance the qualities of geopolymer concrete.

Table 2. Oxide composition of calcined clay and PKSA

Oxides	Ire calcined clay (%)	Palm kernel shell ash (%)
SiO ₂	58.96	55.2
Al ₂ O ₃	19.85	12.1
Fe ₂ O ₃	3.31	7.92
CaO	0.36	5.42
P ₂ O ₅	0.11	3.15
K ₂ O	0.23	4.32
MgO	0.38	3.3
Na ₂ O	1.91	2.1
MnO	0.01	0.2
CuO	0.21	0.05
Lol	11.26	2.21

3.2 Physical Properties of Materials

The summary of chosen aggregate physical attributes is presented in Table 3. As required [19], the clay and silt concentration of the river sand is less than 4%. The specific gravity of granite is 2.80, while its water absorption is 1.30. In addition, the fine aggregate consists of well-distributed, clean river sand with a specific gravity of 2.67 and a water absorption of 2.3, as shown in the Table 3. Specific gravity of aggregates (fine and coarse) contributes to concrete strength [25]. The values as presented in Table 3 are in tune with reported values for fine aggregates and coarse aggregates. Result of particle size distribution result is depicted in Fig. 1. The result indicates that the size of the coarse aggregate used ranges between 12.5mm and 4.75mm. According to ASTM [26], such size range of aggregate is suitable for concrete work.

Table 3. Material properties

Properties	Calcined Clay	PKSA	River sand	Granite
Specific gravity	2.57	1.38	2.67	2.8
Water absorption %	-	-	2.3	1.3
Clay content %	-	-	0.46	0.23
Colour	Reddish brown	Black	Light brown	Blueish grey

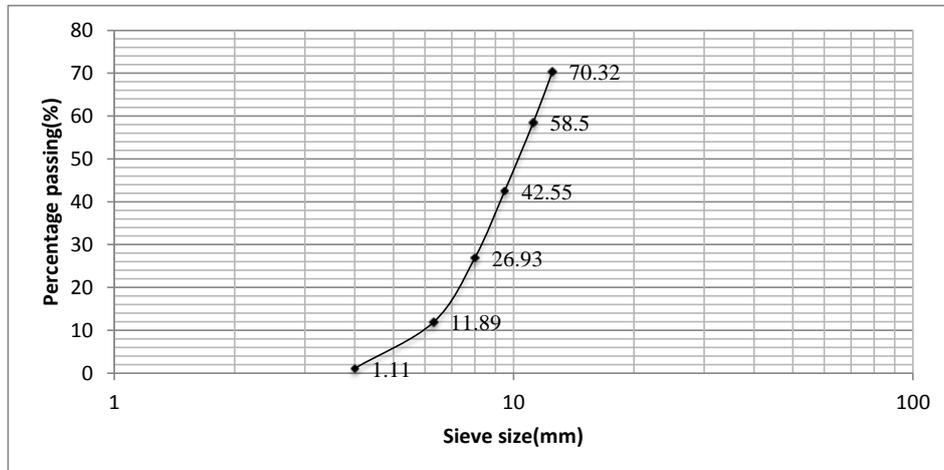


Fig. 1. Sieve analysis for coarse aggregate

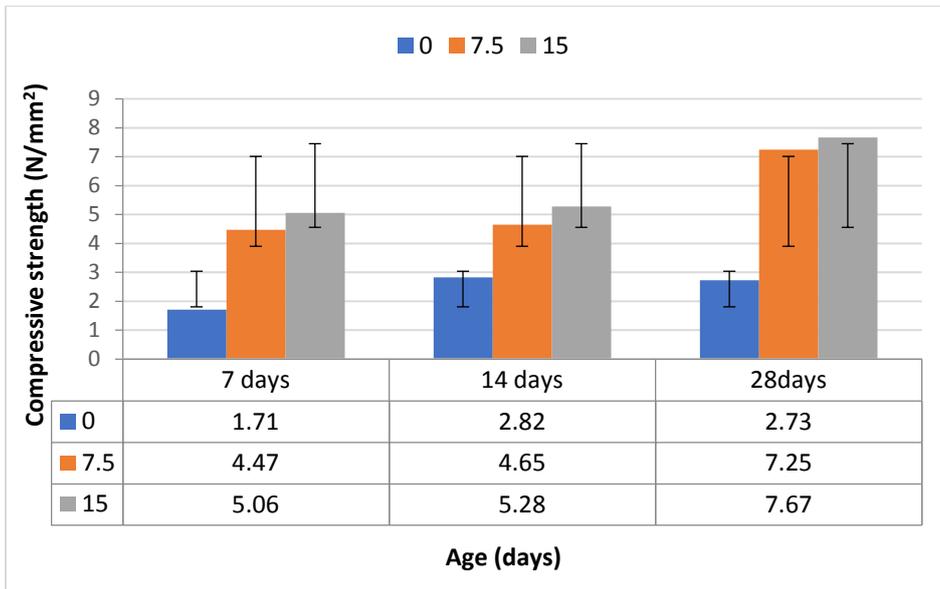


Fig. 2. Effect of PKSA as additive on the compressive strength of Ire clay geopolymer concretes

3.3 Compressive Strength

Fig. 2 illustrates the compressive strength values of Ire clay geopolymer concrete with PKSA as an additive, cured at room temperature in open air for 7, 14, and 28 days. As a result of the curing's enhancement of continuous hydration, the

compressive strength of the samples progressed with age. At 7 days and 28 days, the compressive strength values were 1.71N/mm² and 2.82N/mm², respectively, the control sample without additive increased in compressive strength by 65 percent. The compressive strength values for geopolymer concretes without

PKSA at 7, 14 and 28 days were 1.71 N/mm², 2.82 N/mm² and 2.73 N/mm² respectively. The values of geopolymer concretes with 7.5% PKSA additive at 7, 14 and 28 days were 4.47 N/mm², 4.65 N/mm² and 7.25 N/mm² while the values for the geopolymer concrete with 15% inclusion of PKSA at the stated ages were 5.06 N/mm², 5.28 N/mm² and 7.67 N/mm² respectively.

At 7 days maturity, addition of 7.5% and 15% PKSA had improved the compressive strength by 161% and 196% increments respectively. At 14 days maturation, the compressive strength of Ire clay geopolymer concrete with 7.5% and 15% PKSA addition increased by approximately 65 and 87 percent, respectively, compared to the values at 7 days maturity. At 28 days maturity, the addition of 7.5% PKSA increased compressive strength by 166%, whilst the addition of 15% PKSA increased strength by 181%. Generally, it was noticed that increasing the proportion of PKSA as an additive has a beneficial effect on the increase in compressive strength with age of Ire clay geopolymer concrete. ASTM and Endale [26,27] noted similar performance when they used agro waste ashes in concretes. This finding is attributable to the filler action of the PKSA in the geopolymer composite. The additive must have refined the pore structure of the concrete. He et al. [13] reported similar characteristics of agricultural wastes ash in concrete.

Even when cured at room temperature, the compressive strength of Ire geopolymer concrete increased with age. It is common and typical for the compressive strength of concrete to increase with age. This is a result of the geopolymerization process resulting in increased strength.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The impact of PKSA as an additive on Ire clay geopolymer concrete cured at room temperature has been assessed. Calcined Ire clay and the PKSA have high silica, alumina and iron oxide contents. The sum of the three oxides in CC is 82.12% and 75.22% in PKSA. Increasing the PKSA content as an additive has a favorable impact on the rise in compressive strength with age, even when geopolymer concrete is cured at room temperature. Ire clay and PKSA are viable materials and additives for the creation of geopolymer concrete, respectively. The Ire clay geopolymer concrete can be used like conventional concrete in low to medium structural work especially in places where cement needs to be

transported over kilometers. Also, the concrete performing well at ambient temperature makes it cost effective compared to most geopolymers that require curing at high temperature. This can boost the acceptance of geopolymer in underdeveloped regions such as Ire Ekiti and other rural areas.

It is recommended that additional research be done to establish the durability performance of Ire clay geopolymer concrete with PKSA. In addition, other additives may be investigated for the improvement of the qualities of Ire Clay geopolymer concrete for widespread structural applications.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The efforts of the authors are highly acknowledged. Despite the fact that there was no funding/sponsor for the work, each author participated in the research work and contributed financially to publish the work.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. Hassan A, Arif M, Shariq M. Use of geopolymer concrete for a cleaner and sustainable environment – A review of mechanical properties and microstructure. *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 2019;223: 704–728. Available: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2019.03.051>
2. Wongs A, Zaetang Y, Sata V, Chindaprasit P. Properties of lightweight fly ash geopolymer concrete containing bottom ash as aggregates. *Construction and Building Materials*. 2016;111:637–643. Available: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2016.02.135>
3. Aleem MA, Arumairaj PD. Optimum mix for the geopolymer concrete. *Indian Journal of Science and Technology*. 2012;5(3):2299–2301. Available: <https://doi.org/10.17485/ijst/2012/v5i3.8>
4. Ma CK, Awang AZ, Omar W. Structural and material performance of geopolymer concrete: A review. *Construction and Building Materials*. 2018;186:90–102. Available: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2018.07.111>

5. Aldred J, Day J. Is geopolymer concrete a suitable alternative to traditional concrete ?. 2012;1–14.
6. Islam A, Alengaram UJ, Jumaat MZ, Bashar II, Kabir SMA.. Engineering properties and carbon footprint of ground granulated blast- furnace slag-palm oil fuel ash-based structural geopolymer concrete. *Construction & Building Materials*, 2015; 101:503–521. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2015.10.026>
7. Hardjasaputra H, Fernando I, Indrajaya J, Cornelia M, Rachmansyah. The Effect of Using Palm Kernel Shell Ash and Rice Husk Ash on Geopolymer Concrete. *MATEC Web of Conferences*, 2018; 251. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1051/mateconf/201825101044>
8. Gülşan ME, Alzeebaree R, Rasheed AA, Niş A, Kurtoğlu AE. Development of fly ash/slag based self-compacting geopolymer concrete using nano-silica and steel fiber. *Construction and Building Materials*, 2019;211:271–283. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2019.03.228>
9. Koushkbaghi M, Alipour P, Tahmouresi B, Mohseni E, Saradar A, Sarker PK.. Influence of different monomer ratios and recycled concrete aggregate on mechanical properties and durability of geopolymer concretes. *Construction and Building Materials*. 2019;205: 519–528. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2019.01.174>
10. Weil M, Dombrowski K, Buchwald A. Life-cycle analysis of geopolymers. *Geopolymers: Structures, Processing, Properties and Industrial Applications*, 2009;194–210. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1533/9781845696382.2.194>
11. Davidovits J. *Geopolymer Chemistry and Applications* (3rd Ed.). Institut Geopolymere; 2011.
12. Xie J, Wang J, Rao R, Wang C, Fang C. Effects of combined usage of GGBS and fly ash on workability and mechanical properties of alkali activated geopolymer concrete with recycled aggregate. In *Composites Part B: Engineering*. Elsevier Ltd. 2019;164. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compositesb.2018.11.067>
13. He J, Kawasaki S. The utilization of agricultural waste as agro-cement in concrete : A review; 2020.
14. Tangchirapat W, Jaturapitakkul C, Chindaprasirt P. Use of palm oil fuel ash as a supplementary cementitious material for producing high-strength concrete. *Construction and Building Materials*. 2009;23(7):2641–2646. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2009.01.008>
15. Salas DA, Ramirez AD, Ulloa N, Baykara H, Boero AJ. Life cycle assessment of geopolymer concrete. *Construction and Building Materials*. 2018;190:170–177. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2018.09.123>
16. Nadia J, Fekoua N, Rodrigue C, Lekuna L, Ghazouni A, Mbouombuo I, Kamseu E, Rossignol S, Leonelli C. Effects of curing cycles on developing strength and microstructure of goethite-rich aluminosilicate (corroded laterite) based geopolymer composites. *Materials Chemistry and Physics*. 2021;270(April), 124864. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matchemphys.2021.124864>
17. Karthik A, Sudalaimani K, Vijayakumar C T, Saravanakumar SS. Effect of bio-additives on physico-chemical properties of fly ash-ground granulated blast furnace slag based self cured geopolymer mortars. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*. 2019;361: 56–63. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2018.08.078>
18. Part WK, Ramli M, Cheah CB An overview on the influence of various factors on the properties of geopolymer concrete derived from industrial by-products. *Construction and Building Materials*. 2015;77:370–395. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2014.12.065>
19. Federal Ministry of Works and Housing. *General Specification for Roads and Bridges, Volume II*, Federal Highway Department, FMWH: Lagos, Nigeria, 1997;317.
20. BS 812: Part (103.1) . *Testing Aggregates - Part 103: Methods for Determination of Particle Size Distribution - Sieve Tests*. British Standard Institution, London, United Kingdom; 1985.
21. BS 1377: Part (2). *Methods of Test for soils for Civil Engineering Purposes - Classification Tests*. British

- Standard Institution, London, United Kingdom; 1990.
22. BS 812: Part (2). Testing Aggregates - Methods of determination of density. British Standard Institution, London, United Kingdom; 1995.
 23. BS 8500. Concrete – Complementary standard to BS EN 206–1 Part 1: Method of specifying and guidance 2002 Part 2 specification for constituent materials and for concrete; 2002.
 24. Lemougna PN, Melo U FC, Kamseu E, Tchamba AB. Laterite based stabilized products for sustainable building applications in tropical countries: Review and prospects for the case of Cameroon. Sustainability. 2011;3(1):293–305. Available:<https://doi.org/10.3390/su3010293>
 25. Al-Gburi M, Yusuf SA. Investigation of the effect of mineral additives on concrete strength using ANN. Asian Journal of Civil Engineering, 2022;23(3):405–414. Available:<https://doi.org/10.1007/s42107-022-00431-1>
 26. ASTM C33/C33M-08. Standard Specification for Concrete Aggregates. ASTM International, West Conshohocken, PA. 2011.
 27. Endale SA, Taffese WZ, Vo D, Yehualaw, M D. Rice Husk Ash in Concrete; 2023.

© 2023 Olulope et al.; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:

The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
<https://www.sdiarticle5.com/review-history/100943>