14(2) 467-484

The effect of water containing sodium sulfate ions on strength of concrete of aquaculture ponds and channels

Mostafaeipour A.*

Received: October 2012

Accepted: February 2015

Abstract

Aquaculture is among the oldest occupations of human being. Over the past quarter of century, the aquaculture industry has grown rapidly. The effect of water containing sodium sulfate on long term compressive strength of concrete of fishing ponds and channels is investigated in this paper. Aim of this paper was to analyze the strength of concrete channels and of aquaculture which are in direct contact with dissolved sodium sulfate. This is an ongoing laboratory investigation which consisted of 480 standard casting concrete cube mix designs and subjecting them to different curing condition environments. Analyzing laboratory results, it was found that for short period of time, the effect was negligible, but for longer periods up to seven months, EC (electrical conductivity) of water had a low negative effect on compressive strength of concrete was almost 25 kg/cm² lower than estimated. However, loading the sample concretes up to failure resulted in strength loss of up to 10%. To solve this problem, designed compressive strength for water channels and ponds which are in direct contact with sodium sulfate ions in the water.

Keywords: Aquaculture, Compressive strength, Concrete, Sodium sulfate, Electrical conductivity, Ponds and channels.

Industrial Engineering Department, Yazd University, Yazd, Iran *Corresponding author's email: mostafaei@yazduni.ac.ir

Introduction

There are many successful fisheries around the world which are well managed, but preventive maintenance is an important issue which must be considered in order to have more successful business in this field. Numerous environmental factors like pollution, climate change, and acidification are main reasons for collapse of oceans (Jacques, 2015). Fishery as a common-pool resource is a complicated business which has numerous common problems which affect other fishermen's life style (Emery *et al.*, 2015; Katikiroa *et al.*, 2015).

Concrete has a major initial cost in aquaculture pond construction which must be considered by many investors. Coastal fisheries require obeying government regulations in many countries (Jentoft, 2007; Berghofer et al., 2008). But private aquaculture using farms needs less government regulations. Bycatch is a major problem for many fisheries in many countries too (Abbott and Wilen, 2009; Holland and Jannot, 2012). Holland (2010) believed bycatching in fishery is the major problem globally either for individuals or for industry sector. There are also many fishery literatures on policy and management, but there is no research regarding quality of concrete for ponds or channels. Ovando et al. (2013) believe that most studies either provide high level theoretical treatments of cooperation or provide detailed, descriptive information for a selected region or type of fishery. Surprisingly, there is no research about effect of different dissolved ions on concrete used in aquaculture construction.

In this study, an attempt was made to study the effects of water with different ECs on compressive strength of concrete (CRT). Concrete is basically a mixture of two components, aggregates and paste. The paste, comprised Portland cement and water, binds the aggregates (sand and gravel or crushed stone) into a rocklike mass (Ksmatka and Panaresa, 1988). In order to study the effects of water with different ECs resulting from sodium sulfate on physical properties of concrete for aquaculture purpose, the compressive strength of concrete should be evaluated in different conditions.

The concrete samples for testing should be placed in water with different ECs. The general assumption is that whether the water with the EC resulting from sulfate has any effect on the strength of concrete in the long run or not. However in practice it can be understood that water with different ECs resulted from sulfate may have effects on the structures, such as ponds or concrete pipes and channels.

The most important parameter in the project was to determine the effect of ECs of water on the compressive strength of concrete. And this requires testing all specimens of concrete in a specific period of time.

One important feature of water is EC. When concrete tanks, ponds, and pipes are in contact with waters with different ECs, the effect of EC on compressive strength should be investigated. However, the ions formed by EC would influence the concrete. The factors affecting EC are anions and cations, CO_3 ⁻ HCO_3 ⁻, Cl⁻ and SO_4 ²⁻ are anions and Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , Na^+ and K^+ are cations.

In this project, the effect of sodium sulfate existing in water on the compressive strength is studied, in general, the effects of water with different ECs is discussed. The compressive strength is usually measured in periods of 7, 14, 21 and 28 days; however for this research work, in order to study the long-lasting effect of EC resulted from sodium sulfate more carefully, the concrete specimens were studied for periods of 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 months.

Concrete samples were of the same type and quality. For this laboratory research the specimens were placed in water with different ECs for different periods of time. This laboratory research was done in the city of Yazd in central desert part of Iran which is in shortage of water. An amazing method of transferring underground water to the surface was developed by Persians (Iranians) for drinking and agriculture purposes using ganats which are sustainable without polluting and green the environment (Mostafaeipour, 2010). There are many other research works related to using renewable and sustainable energy in Iran for generating clean energy in Iran which could pump underground water to the surface without using fossil fuel for aquaculture purposes (Mostafaeipour, 2010; Mohammadi and Mostafaeipour, 2013: Mostafaeipour et al., 2013: Dinpashoh et al., 2014; Khorasanizadeh et al., 2014; Mohammadi et al., 2014; Mostafaeipour et al., 2014).

In this study, a total amount of 480 cubic concrete specimens were made with the same mix design and quality of 300kg/cm³ cement content. Then specimens were placed in waters with eight different ECs, ranging from zero to 18000 micro siemens per centimeter. The cubic CRT specimens were tested for compressive strength in periods of 7, 14, 21 and 28 days. Also for better results, more samples were tested in 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 months.

Rahman *et al.* (2012a) conducted a study to improve water quality by using duckweed and lime in order to increase fish

production. Rahman *et al.* (2012 b) indicated that use of duckweed and lime is economically sustainable.

Reinforced concrete durability is evaluated by testing the capability of concrete cover to protect steel reinforcement from corrosion (Thomas, 1991). It is also reported that concrete's high alkalinity causes chemical protection (Rosenberg 1989). et al., Steel reinforcement corrosion is the most common cause of failure in concrete structures (Swamy, 1988; Masuda, 1991). Purpose of this study is to analyze compressive strength on concrete, not steel. Sulfate is the main problem for durability of concrete. Clearly, there are sulfates in soil, ground water, and seawater which reacts with various phases of hydrated cement paste such as C_3A and Ca (OH)₂, leading to expansion, cracking, and strength reduction. Sulfate resistance improvement of concrete was studied by many researchers. In order to improve the sulfate resistance of concrete, pozzolans such as fly ash, silica fume, and natural pozzolan can be used (Irassar et al., 2000; Thomas and Savva, 2001; Jaturapitakkul et al., 2007).

Jaturapitakkul *et al.* (2007) investigation showed that C_3A is not the sole parameter responsible for expansion due to sulfate attack.

Gonzalez and Irassar (1977) studied the attack of sulfate on four cements with low C_3A content (0–1%) and a C_3S content of 40–74%. Their results showed greater expansion for cement mortar with a higher C_3S content. According to some studies, it is found that the type of cement with different C_3A contents does not have much effect on sulfate resistance (Cohen and Bentur, 1988; Al-Amoudi *et al.*, 1995; Jaturapitakkul *et al.*, 2007). Some works are

conducted on underwater structures or structures in tidal zones under real condition (Sandberg *et al.*, 1998; Andrade *et al.*, 2000; Tang and Anderson 2000; Meira *et al.*, 2007).

Purpose of this study is to determine and evaluate effect of water containing sodium sulfate ions on concrete strength for aquaculture ponds and channels. This paper presents laboratory research work involved in measuring compressive strengths of concrete samples with different properties containing various percentages of sodium sulfates dissolved in the water surrounding concretes for different periods of time.

Materials and methods

Properties of materials

Concrete samples used for this experiment, were made from ordinary Portland cement (Type I), fine aggregate, and coarse aggregate. The maximum size of coarse aggregate was 20 mm and that of fine aggregate was 4.75 mm. Besides, normal tap water (pH= 6.8) was used as mixing water and for curing with ECs of less than 300 micro siemens.

Cement

Portland cement type I was used in this study. The chemical and Bogue compositions calculated according to ASTM C 150 (ASTM, 2001; Jaturapitakkul *et al.*, 2007) are given in Table 1.

Table 1: Chemical composition of Portland cement.								
Chemical composition (%)	Portland cement type I							
Silicon dioxide (SiO ₂)	20.4							
Aluminum oxide (Al ₂ O ₃)	4.5							
Iron oxide (Fe_2O_3)	3.4							
Calcium oxide (CaO)	65.2							
Magnesium oxide (MgO)	1.4							
Sodium oxide (Na ₂ O)	0.4							
Potassium oxide (K ₂ O)	0.4							
Sulfur trioxide (SO ₃)	3.1							
Loss on ignition (LOI)	1.1							

Aggregate

Sand is a major component in concrete mixes. Sand from natural gravel deposits or crushed rocks is a suitable material used as the fine aggregate in concrete production (Al-Harthy *et al.*, 2007).

In many desert regions, there is abundance of very fine natural sands known as dune sands (Al-Harthy *et al.*, 2007). Banfill and Carr (1987) have studied the effect of very fine sand dredged from river estuaries on concrete mixtures. It was found that as the sand content increases, the water required for a given workability increases. Guettala *et al.* (1997) have compared strength properties of mortar mixes made with conventional sands and dune sand. Kay *et al.* (1994) also investigated the potential of using dune sand as fine aggregates in concrete. Laquerbe *et al.* (1995) studied the effect of using laterite gravel and dune sand as aggregates for concrete. The researchers reported the use of offshore sand, which is considered as the most viable alternative for river sand, with respect to availability, ease of extraction, environmental impact and cost (NSSSL, 1992; Dias, 2000; Dias *et al.*, 2008).

For this work, local river sand with a fineness modulus of 2.82 was used as a fine aggregate. Crushed limestone was used as a coarse aggregate, with a maximum size of 20 mm. The fine and coarse aggregates had specific gravities of 2.48 and 2.52, and water absorption of 0.63 and 0.46%, respectively.

Water

Drinking water with EC of 300 micro siemens was used to make concrete samples. Therefore, all the samples had same properties.

Concrete mixture proportion

Since all concrete specimens were of the same quality, it was concluded that concrete with a compressive strength of 300 kg/cm² could be prepared in different ways. The plan according to which the concrete mixture was prepared in the laboratory was as follows:

- 4	2: materials used to make 40 cubic samples of									
	Material	Amount								
	Coarse aggregate	750 kg								
	Fine aggregate	1100 kg								
	Cement	300 kg								
	Water	Necessary for slump 10								

Table 2: materials used to make 40 cubic samples of CRT.

Curing condition

Ambient atmospheric conditions can adversely influence thermal and moisture structure of freshly poured concrete. If concrete becomes too warm or temperature gradients too large during the first several days after the concrete is poured, or if there is insufficient water in the concrete, the concrete may crack or may not develop its maximum potential strength, reducing its long-term durability (Neville, 1996; Naderi *et al.*, 2009).

There existed a lot of barriers to the research, choosing a basin or pond in which specimens could be kept in water with different ECs resulted from sodium sulfate. To solve the problem, the issue was discussed with some concrete manufacturers, but they were unwilling to help. The reason why a laboratory was selected for the research was that the specimens could be placed under the pressure jack at the laboratory immediately. Therefore, there was a drop in the cost of transportation.

A big problem was removed, but another problem was preparing the water with different ECs which had to be kept for curing of specimens. The employed curing regimes were chosen based upon ACI standards, and all specimens were kept in same physical conditions, they were stationed in the concrete laboratory, and the temperature of the environment was recorded at different periods of time. During the whole curing period, temperature of the room was measured between 14 and 22°C.

Research methodology

The methodology of this project was designed in a way that the water with ECs resulted from different percentages of sodium sulfate was studied. Water with different percentages of sodium sulfate (Table 4) was divided into 7 groups for this study. 472 Mostafaeipour., The effect of water containing sodium sulfate ions on...

ole 4: properties of water in different contain						
Sample	Electrical conductivity (EC)					
1	0-3000					
2	3000-6000					
3	6000-9000					
4	9000-12000					
5	12000-15000					
6	15000-18000					
7	>18000					

- - - - -

After water was prepared according to the above – mentioned properties, 800 specimens of concrete of the same properties and qualities were prepared and put in basins full of water with different ECs.

At the end of each period, compressive strength was performed on each capped specimens. Cement, gypsum and sulfur pastes can be used as a capping material as recommended in ASTM C617. Sand paper also can be used at the surface of the specimens too (Topc, 1997; Wasserman and Bentur, 1997; Mun, 2007). Capping was not used for cubic samples ($15 \text{ cm} \times 15$ $cm \times 15cm$) in this research work, because it can be used for cylinder shape samples.

The concrete specimens were designed to be cubic, and they were put under the pressure jack for periods of 7, 14, 21 and 28 days according to the standards and their compressive strength were measured. In order to get accurate results, the specimens were tested for longer periods of time such as 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 months. It should be noted that for each period of time defined according to Table 5, a series of concrete specimens were placed in the water with the EC belonging to the drinking water, and then they were compared with each other.

Table 5: Period for testing the concrete samples.												
Period												
Day	7	14	21	28								
Month					2	3	4	5	6	7		

Water for curing periods

This was the main part of project and eight basins with different ECs were selected according with Table 6. Clearly, aim of this study was to analyze the effect of water with different ECs on compressive strength of cubic CRT specimens. Therefore, there were six different water samples ranging from zero to 18000 EC. There was also one sample with EC of more than 18000 EC. Saturation point for sodium sulfate in water results in EC amount of 18000 for sample of EC7. Drinking water was denoted as EC8 which was mainly for comparison and final analysis of the specimens.

Table 6: Water for curing.										
EC1 EC2 EC3 EC4 EC5 EC6 EC7 EC8										
Zero	3000	6000	9000	12000	15000	More	Drinking			
to	to	to	to	to	to	than	Water up to			
3000	6000	9000	12000	15000	18000	18000	300			

Water composition with different ECs

ECs of water in different barrels were measured. At the beginning, 14 of 160 liter basins full of drinking water with different ECs and one 200-litre basin full of drinking water were selected.

The 160 liter basins were numbered, each one contained water with specific ECs according to Table 8.

No. 1 and 2 contained water with EC ranging from 0 to 3000, each two basins contained water with specific EC, but basin number 15 was filled up with pure drinking water with EC of about 300. Characteristics of water and the number of basins both are mentioned in Table 7.

Table 7	7:	EC	of	water	in	different	barrels
---------	----	----	----	-------	----	-----------	---------

Barrel No	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Min EC	0	0	3000	3000	6000	6000	9000	9000	12000	12000
Max EC	То 3000	to 3000	to 6000	to 6000	to 9000	to 9000	to 12000	to 12000	to 15000	to 15000

Table 8: EC of water in different barrels (Continue).											
Barrel No	11	12	13	14	15						
Min EC	15000	15000	18000	18000							
	to	to			300						
Max EC	18000	18000									

Followings are different steps for determination of EC and the amount of sodium sulfate needed to add to the water for the purpose of attaining desirable EC ranges:

Stage 1

The initial amount of EC of each basin was measured to be 300.

Stage 2

The amount of sodium sulfate needed to attain different ECs was calculated so the weight of sodium sulfate required for 1 liter of drinking water was measured.

Stage 3

The required sodium sulfate was added to the water, then the ECs of the basins were measured.

Stage 4

The required amount of sodium sulfate was again modified, and finally the amount of required sodium sulfate basin was measured.

Results

The present study was conducted to analyze compressive strength at different periods of time up to seven month.

Analysis of compressive strength at different periods of time

The results indicating the average amount of compressive strength for periods of 7, 14, 21 and 28 days as well as the periods of 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 months for different ECs were analyzed. It should be noted that the specimens were specified based on the amount of ECs and the following table:

Table 9: EC of water for different barrels.							
Specimen No.	Electrical conductivity (EC)						
1	0-3000						
2	3000-6000						
3	6000-9000						
4	9000-12000						
5	12000-15000						
6	15000-18000						
7	>18000						
8	Max 300						

Six concrete specimens were prepared for testing EC of each water sample for each period. Also in order to compare the specimens exposed to the water with different ECs; six specimens were placed in the drinking water for each EC range to be tested in different periods up to 7 months. Average of compressive strength belonging to the concrete specimens in drinking water was also calculated. According to Table 10, there were 7 specimens with different ECs available and sample No. 8 belongs to drinking water. The range of EC belonging to each specimen was specified. Totally 800 specimens of cubic concretes were prepared for analysis in this research work.

	EC=1	EC=2	EC=3	EC=4	EC=5	EC=6	EC=7	EC=8
7 Days	102	103	108	118	106	107	108	111
14 Days	195	193	192	190	185	188	180	199
21 Days	215	213	212	211	214	203	208	219
28 Days	221	220	219	211	219	218	217	232
2 Months	270	263	263	260	261	258	251	270
3 Months	292	288	278	282	276	256	256	294
4 Months	297	295	292	290	287	295	280	308
5 Months	314	307	298	301	290	289	283	314
6 Months	318	311	304	304	300	309	302	322
7 Months	319	315	308	308	293	310	305	323

7 days

According to Table 11, the average compressive strength of the specimen number 8 (drinking water) was 111 kg/cm^2 and the average for compressive strength of the other specimens were 107.43 kg/cm^2 .

The average compressive strength of drinking water was 199 kg/cm² and the average compressive strength of the other specimens was 189 kg/cm².

21 Days

The average compressive strength of drinking water was 219 kg/cm² and the

14 Days

average compressive strength of the other specimens was 210.86 kg/cm².

28 Days

The average compressive strength of drinking water was 232 kg/cm² and the average compressive strength of the other specimens was 217.86 kg/cm^2 .

2 Months

The average compressive strength of drinking water was 270 kg/cm² and the average compressive strength of the other specimens was 260.86 kg/cm².

3 Months

The average compressive strength of drinking water was 294 kg/cm² and the average compressive strength of the other specimens was 275.29 kg/cm^2 .

4 Months

The average compressive strength of drinking water was 308 kg/cm^2 and the average compressive strength of the other specimens was 290.86 kg/cm².

5 Months

The average compressive strength of drinking water was 314 kg/cm^2 and the average compressive strength of the other specimens was 297.43 kg/cm^2 .

6 Months

The average compressive strength of drinking water was 322 kg/cm^2 and the average compressive strength of the other specimens was 306.86 kg/cm^2 .

7 Months

The average compressive strength of drinking water was 323 kg/cm^2 and the

average compressive strength of the other specimens was 308.29 kg/cm^2 .

From information presented in Table 10, which is based upon average compressive strength of cubic samples at different times, it is concluded that compressive strength of specimens with different EC at different periods of time was less than that of specimens placed in drinking water. The compressive strength of concrete decreased almost 10% while EC of water increased.

Discussion

Analysis of compressive strength of samples with different ECs

Each chart refers to a particular period of time, the horizontal axis shows different EC and vertical axis the compressive strength based on kg/cm². There are eight different charts; each one is related to a specific EC. In other words, the first chart refers to the EC number 1 and all specimens were placed in the water with ECs ranging from 0 to 3000.

Analysis of concrete samples with EC of up to 3000 (EC=1)

All of the samples placed in basins numbered 1 and 2 were analyzed, and the EC of water ranges from 0 to 3000. The horizontal axis indicates the time at which the specimens were tested and the vertical axis shows the compressive strength of specimens in kg/cm². Ten periods of time were selected for breaking the specimens, such as periods of 7, 14, 21 and 28 days and the others are arranged at periods of 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 months.

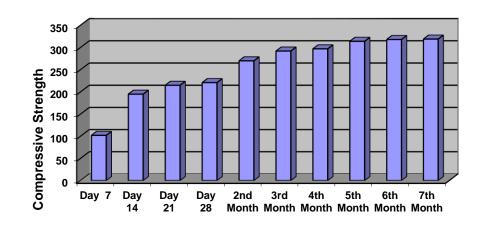


Figure 1: Compressive strengths of samples placed in water with EC from 0 to 3000.

Fig. 1 indicates average of compressive strength in the specified periods of time. The average compressive strength of the specimens placed in the water with the EC ranging from 0 to 3000 was calculated on the seventh days up to period of 7 months (Fig. 1). The results are acceptable because the compressive strength increased and acquires 300 kg/cm². After five months, the amount of strength is little more than 300 kg/cm², since then the amount becomes somehow constant. The reason why there is delay in the attainment of the final strength is that the temperature at which concrete was preserved was lower than 23 degrees centigrade. Since the study was intended to study the effect of EC on the strength of concrete. Moreover, the EC of water

preserving the concrete doesn't have a lot of effect on the final strength of concrete.

Analysis of concrete samples with EC from 3000 to 6000 (EC=2)

The specimens were placed in the basins 3 and 4 were analyzed. Moreover, the specimens are specified as having EC2 and the EC ranges from 3000 to 6000. The horizontal axis indicates the time at which the specimens were tested and the vertical axis refers to the compressive strength of specimens. Ten periods of times were selected for breaking the concrete samples such as 7, 14, 21 and 28 days, and the rest were arranged at periods of 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 months.

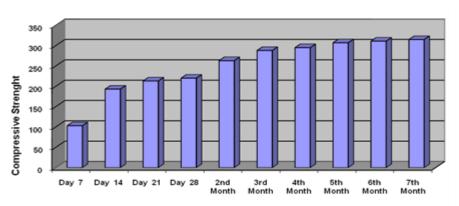


Figure 2: Compressive strengths of samples placed in water with EC from 3000 to 6000.

While concrete specimens were placed in the water with EC ranging from 3000 to 6000, the compressive strength was increasing. The average strength was increasing (Fig. 2) and in the fifth month it remained somehow constant and reaches up to 300kg/cm². Moreover, according to the finding, the EC of water used to preserve the concrete does not have any effect on the strength of concrete.

Analysis of concrete samples with EC from 6000 to 9000 (EC=3)

Basins 5 and 6 were used for analyzing the whole cubic concrete samples. The

specimens were specified as having EC3 and the EC ranges from 6000 to 9000. The horizontal axis indicates the time at which the specimens were tested and the vertical axis refers to the compressive strength of specimens. Ten periods of times were selected for breaking the specimens such as 7, 14, 21 and 28 days, and the rest were arranged at periods of 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 months. The compressive strength test was done on the concrete specimens placed in the water with EC ranging from 6000 to 9000; the results are shown in Fig 3.

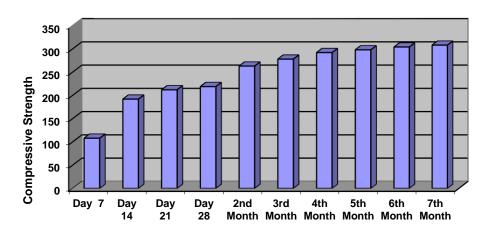


Figure 3: Compressive strengths of samples placed in water with EC from 6000 to 9000.

The final strength has gained its value from the sixth month and since then; it was constant and had the value of almost 300 kg/cm². There was a delay in gaining final strength, because of lower temperature of the environment which the samples were kept. Moreover, according to the finding, the EC of water used to preserve concrete does not have any effect on the strength of concrete.

Analysis of concrete samples with EC from 9000 to 12000 (EC=4)

All the specimens placed in the basins 7 and 8 were analyzed. Moreover, the specimens are specified as having EC4 and the EC ranges from 9000 to 12000.

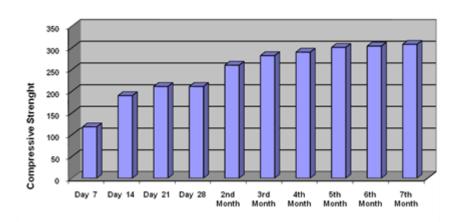


Figure 4: Compressive strengths of samples placed in water with EC from 9000 to 12000.

The final strength has gained its value from the fifth month and since then it was constant and had the value of almost 300 kg/cm². There was a delay in gaining final strength, because of lower temperature of the environment which the samples were kept. Moreover, according to the finding, EC of the water used to preserve concrete does not have any effect on the strength of concrete.

Analysis of concrete samples with EC from 12000 to 15000 (EC=5)

All specimens placed in the basins 9 and 10 were analyzed. Moreover, the specimens are specified as having EC5 and the EC ranges from 12000 to 15000. The final strength has not gained its final value of 300 kg/cm². But it was almost close to 300 kg/cm² in 6th month.

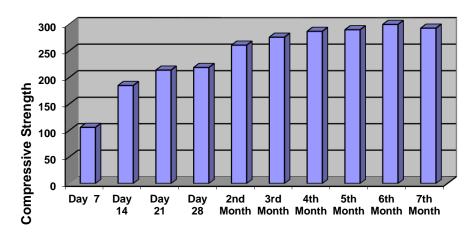


Figure 5: Compressive strengths of samples placed in water with EC from 12000 to 15000.

Analysis of concrete samples with EC from 15000 to 18000 (EC=6)

All specimens placed in the basins 11 and 12 were analyzed. Moreover, the specimens are specified as having EC6 and the EC ranges from 15000 to 18000. The final strength has not gained its final value of 300 kg/cm². But it was almost close to 300 kg/cm² in 6^{th} , and 7^{th} month.

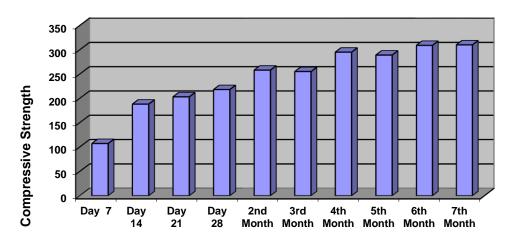


Figure 6: Compressive strengths of samples placed in water with EC from 15000 to 18000.

Analysis of concrete samples with EC from 3000 to 6000 (EC=7)

All specimens placed in the barrels 13 and 14 were analyzed. Moreover, the specimens are specified as having EC7 and the EC of the water was exactly 18000 or a little bigger. According to the findings, the final strength was gained after 6 months and it was almost same for 7^{th} month.

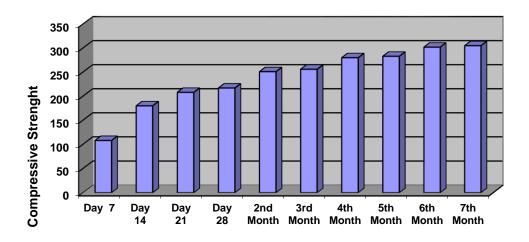


Figure 7: Compressive strengths of samples placed in water with EC equal or more than 18000.

Analysis of concrete samples with EC of up to 300 (EC=8)

All specimens placed in the basin number 15 were analyzed and they were defined as EC8.

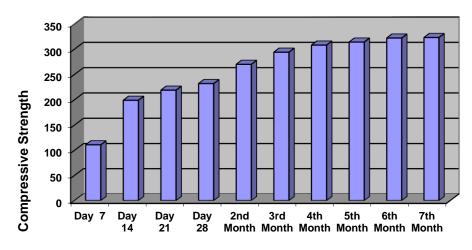


Figure 8: Compressive strengths of samples placed in water with EC of max 300.

The basin contained drinking water was regarded as an index for making a comparison among specimens. The compressive strength increased and it reached up to 308 kg/cm² after 4 months and it was 314, 322 and 323 kg/cm² accordingly for 5th, 6th and 7th months.

Water in which the specimens were kept was drinking water; it had the EC of 300. Fig. 8 indicates the results obtained from the breakage of concrete specimens. It can be concluded that the concrete samples reached their final compressive strengths after 4 months, which it is acceptable. There is a delay for attainment of the final strength due to the temperature which was below 23°C since all the specimens were in the same condition.

Compressive strength of the samples at different periods of time

The compressive strengths of the specimens placed in the water with different ECs were

analyzed at different periods of time. The compressive strength was increasing and the final strength of all specimens was equal to that of anticipated value that is 300kg /cm². The waters with different ECs don't have a lot of effect on final strength of concrete. It should be noted that by increasing EC of the water, the final compressive strength of concretes decrease slightly by almost 10% if we compare all data with the index data of Fig. 8. Fig. 9 clearly shows that EC8 gained the highest compressive strength among other samples. It is true that designed strength was 300 kg/cm², but in fact the concrete samples gained more strength than designed. Comparing data of EC8 with other ECs indicate that sodium sulfate has a little negative effect on compressive strength of concrete.

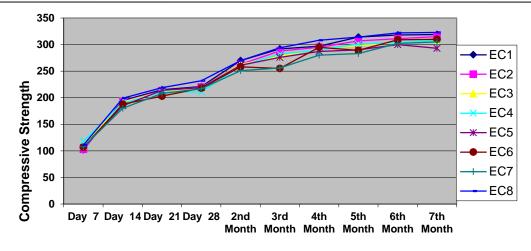


Figure 9: Compressive strength of the samples at different periods of time.

In short periods of time, there was not much difference between average strength of the tested specimens in waters with different ECs and drinking water. In longer periods of time, the differences become more significant, that is, compressive strength of specimens placed in the water with more ECs becomes slower. Even during a period of seven month the strength was under 300 kg/cm². In general, EC of the water has a negative effect on compressive strength of concrete, but there is a slight effect. In order to resolve the problem, concrete with higher degree of strength can be made. If concrete with strength of 300 kg/cm² is needed, higher strength must be designed to make up for the reduction of the strength. However, there is slight average reduction of strength that is 25 kg/cm² and it can be resolved by increasing the design value by 10%.

Acknowledgments

Authors would like to thank Yazd Regional Water District for support of this research work.

References

Abbott, J.K. and Wilen, J.E., 2009. Regulation of fisheries bycatch with common-pool output quotas. *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management*, 57(**2**), 195–204.

- Al-Amoudi, O.S.B., Maslehuddin M. and Abdul-Al, Y.A.B., 1995. Role of chloride ions on expansion and strength reduction in plain and blended cements in sulfate environments. *Construction and Building Materials*, 9(1), 25–33.
- Al-Harthy, A.S., Abdel Halim, M., Taha, R. and Al-Jabri, K.S., 2007. The properties of concrete made with fine dune sand. *Construction and Building Materials*, 21, 1803–1808.
- Andrade, C., Sagrera, J.L. and Sanjuán, M.A., 2000. Several years study on chloride ion penetration into concrete exposed to Atlantic Ocean water. In: Andrade C. Kröpp J., editors. 2nd Proceedings of International RILEM workshop on testing and chloride modeling ingress into concrete. Paris, France.
- ASTM, 2001. Standard specification for Portland cement, C150. Annual Book of ASTM Standards, Volume 04.01, Cement, Lime, Gypsum Edition. ASTM International, West Coshohocken, PA, USA. pp. 149–155,

- Banfill, P. and Carr, M., 1987. The properties of concrete made with very fine sand. *Concrete*, 3, 11–6.
- Berghofer, A., Wittmer, H. and Rauschmayer, F., 2008. Stakeholder participation in ecosystem-based approaches to fisheries management: A synthesis from European research projects. *Marine Policy*, 32, 243–253.
- Cohen, M. D. and Bentur A., 1988. Durability of Portland cement-silica fume pastes in magnesium sulfate and sodium sulfate solutions. *ACI Materials Journal*, 85(3), 148–57.
- **Dias, W.P.S., 2000.** The analysis of proposed change and stakeholder response– a case study. *Civil Engineering* and *Environmental Systems*, 17, 1–17.
- Dias, W.P.S., Seneviratne, G. and Nanayakkara S., 2008. Offshore sand for reinforced concrete. *Construction and Building Materials*, 22(7), 1377-1384.
- Dinpashoh, Y., Mirabbasi, R., Jhajharia,
 D.H., Abianeh, Z. and Mostafaeipour
 A., 2014. Effect of short-term and long-term persistence on identification of temporal trends. *Journal of Hydrologic Engineering*, 19(3), 617-625.
- Emery, T.J., Tisdell, J., Green, B.S., Hartmann, K., Gardner, C. and Leon R., 2015. An experimental analysis of assignment problems and economic rent dissipation in quota managed fisheries. Ocean & Coastal Management, 106, 10-28.
- Gonzalez, M.A. and Irassar, E.F., 1997. Ettringite formation in low C3A Portland cement exposed to sodium sulfate solution. *Cement and Concrete Research*, 27(7), 1061–72.

- Guettala, A., Melkmi, S. and Tibermacine, N., 1997. A study of mechanical characteristics for sand concrete (Rolled sand concrete and dune sand concrete), In: 7th Arab structural engineering conference, Nov. 24–26; Kuwait.
- Holland, D.S., 2010. Markets, pooling and insurance for managing bycatch in fisheries. *Ecological Economics*, 70, 121–133.
- Holland, D.S. and Jannot, J.E., 2012. Bycatch risk pools for the US West Coast Ground fish Fishery. *Ecological Economics*, 78, 132–147.
- Irassar, E.F., Gonzalez, M. and Rahhal, V., 2000. Sulphate resistance of type V cements with limestone filler and natural pozzolan. *Cement and Concrete Composites*, 22(5), 361–368.
- Jacques, P.J., 2015. Are world fisheries a global panarchy? *Marine Policy*, 53, 165–170.
- Jaturapitakkul, C., Kiattikomol, K., Tangchirapat, W. and Saeting, T., 2007. Evaluation of the sulfate resistance of concrete containing palm oil fuel ash. *Construction and Building Materials*, 21, 1399–1405.
- Jentoft, S., 2007. Limits of governability: Institutional implications for fisheries and coastal governance. *Marine Policy*, 31(4), 360–70.
- Katikiroa, R., Ashoka Deepanandac, K. H.M. and Macusid, **E.**. 2015. Interplay between perceived changes in fishery and social structures in Tanzanian coastal fishing communities. Fisheries Research, 164, 249-253.
- Kay, E.A. and Frearson, J.P.H., 1994. An investigation into the use of dune sand in concrete. In: Fookes, P. G.; Party, R.

H. G. editors. Proceedings of the 1st International Symposium on Engineering of arid soils. Ballkema, Rotterdam, the Netherlands. pp. 261-272.

- Khorasanizadeh, H., Mohammadi, K. and Mostafaeipour, A., 2014.
 Establishing a diffuse solar radiation model for determining the optimum tilt angle of solar surfaces in Tabass, Iran. *Energy Conversion and Management*, 78, 805-814.
- Ksmatka, S.H. and Panaresa, W.C., 1988. Design and control of concrete mixtures. *Portland Cement Association*, 13th edition, Washington DC, USA.
- Laquerbe, M., Cisse, I. and Ahouansou, G., 1995. Pour une utilization rationelle des gravelleux lateriques et des sables de dunes comme ganulats a beton application au cas du Senegal. *Materials and Structures*, 28, 604–10.
- Masuda, M., 1991. Cathodic protection of reinforcing steel in concrete. In: Proceedings of 7th Asian-Pacific corrosion control conference, corrosion control, Beijing, China. 2, 921–26.
- Meira, G.R., Andrade, C., Padaratz, I.J., Alonso, C. and Borba Jr., J.C., 2007. Chloride penetration into concrete structures in the marine atmosphere zone – relationship between deposition of chlorides on the wet candle and chlorides accumulated into concrete. *Cement and Concrete Composites*, 29 (9): 667, 676.
- Mostafaeipour, A., 2010. Historical background, productivity and technical issues of qanats. *Water History*, 2, 61–80.

- Mostafaeipour, A., Sedaghat, A., Ghalishooyan, M., Dinpashoh, Y., Mirhosseini, M., Sefid, M. and Pour-Rezaei, M., 2013. Evaluation of wind energy potential as a power generation source for electricity production in Binalood, Iran. *Renewable Energy*, 52, 222-229.
- Mostafaeipour, A., Jadidi, M., Mohammadi, K. and Sedaghat, A., 2014. An analysis of wind energy potential and economic evaluation in Zahedan, Iran. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 30, 641-650.
- Mohammadi, K. and Mostafaeipour, A., 2013. Economic feasibility of developing wind turbines in Aligoodarz, Iran. Energy Conversion and Management, 76, 645-653.
- Mohammadi, K., Mostafaeipour, A. and Sabzpooshani, M., 2014. Assessment of solar and wind energy potentials for three free economic and industrial zones of Iran. *Energy*, 67, 117-128.
- Mun, K.J., 2007. Development and tests of lightweight aggregate using sewage sludge for nonstructural concrete. *Construction and Building Materials*, 21, 1583–1588.
- Naderi, M., Sheibani, R. and Shayanfar M.A., 2009. Comparison of different curing effects on Concrete strength. 3rd International Conference on concrete and development, Tehran, Iran.
- Neville, A.M., 1996. Properties of concrete. John Wiley and Sons, Hoboken, NJ, USA, 844P.
- NSSSL (National sand study for Sri Lanka), 1992. Final Report, Phase 1, Delft Hydraulics; vols. 1 and 2. NSSL, Sri Lanka.

- Ovando, D.A., Deacon, R.T., Lester, S. E., Costello, C., Leuvan, T.V., McIlwain, K., Strauss, C.K., Arbuckle, M., Fujita, R., Gelcich, S. and Uchida, H., 2013. Conservation incentives and collective choices in cooperative fisheries. *Marine Policy*, 37, 132-140.
- Rahman, M.S., Shahjahan, M., Haque,
 M.M. and Khan, S., 2012a. Control of euglenophyte bloom and fish production enhancement using duckweed and lime. *Iranian Journal of Fisheries Sciences*, 11(3), 602-617.
- Rahman, M.S., Shahjahan M., Haque M. M. and Khan, S., 2012b. Control of euglenophyte bloom and fish production enhancement using duckweed and lime. *Iranian Journal of Fisheries Sciences*, 11(2), 358-371.
- Rosenberg, A., Hanson, M.C. and Andrade, C., 1989. Mechanisms of corrosion of steel in concrete. Materials science of concrete. The American Ceramic Society, Westerville, OH, USA. pp. 285–313.
- Sandberg, P., Tang, L. and Andersen, A., 1998. Recurrent studies of chloride ingress in uncracked marine concrete at various exposure times and elevations. *Cement and Concrete Research*, 28(10), 1489- 1503.
- Swamy, R.N., 1988. Durability of steel reinforcement in marine environment. In: Proceedings of the 2nd international conference on concrete in marine environment, St. Andrews By-The-Sea, Canada, pp. 147–161.
- Tang, L. and Andersen, A. 2000. Chloride ingress data from five years field exposure in a Swedish marine environment. In: Andrade C., Kröpp J., editors. Proceedings of 2nd

International RILEM workshop on testing and modelling chloride ingress into concrete. Paris, France.

- Thomas, K.K. and Savva, A.E., 2001. Resistance of fly ash and natural pozzolans blended cement mortars and concrete to carbonation, sulfate attack, and chloride ion penetration. In: Proceedings of the 7th CANMET/ACI International Conference on Fly Ash, Silica Fume, Slag, and Natural Pozzolan in Concrete, Chennai, India. pp. 276–293.
- Thomas, M.D.A., 1991. Marine performance of PFA concrete. *Magazine of Concrete Research*, 43 (151), 171–85.
- **Topc, I.B., 1997.** Semi lightweight concretes produced by volcanic slags. *Cement and Concrete Research*, 27, 15–21.
- Wasserman, R. and Bentur, A., 1997. Effect of lightweight fly ash aggregate microstructure on the strength of concretes. *Cement and Concrete Research*, 27(4), 525–37.