Impact of alternative cementitious material on the mechanical and transfer properties of concrete
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Biography:

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ABSTRACT

An experimental program was carried out to characterize the risk of corrosion in reinforced concretes, designed with alternative cementitious materials (ACMs). The study focuses on three alternative cementitious materials used with ordinary Portland cement: glass powder (GP) obtained from mix glass, alternative fly ash (AFA) obtained from the combustion of wastepaper deinking sludge and wood residues in a fluidized-bed reactor, and limestone filler (LF). Concrete specimens casted with a Water-to-Binder ratio (W/B) of 0.4 and 0.55 were tested in order to determine compressive strength, chloride ion penetration, chloride diffusion, and porosity accessible to water. Reinforced concretes were also submitted to accelerated corrosion tests. The use of GP in replacement of cement yielded to a good resistance to chloride ion penetration. In this case, low level of chloride ion penetration is maintained despite the increase of W/B. Hence, measurements of chloride ion penetration do not correlate with compressive strength values. The AFA slightly increases the chloride ion
penetration, while the use of limestone filler has no significant impact. The chloride ion penetration tests show a good relation with the accelerated corrosion tests.

Keywords: alternative cementitious materials, glass powder, alternative fly ash, limestone filler, corrosion, chloride, concrete durability, concrete transfer properties.

INTRODUCTION

Damages caused by the corrosion of steel are the main cause of premature deterioration of reinforced concrete structures. In the United States, the annual cost of repair in 2002 was evaluated to 271 million dollars\(^1\). The risk of corrosion of steel is mainly associated with either the penetration of chloride ions and/or a decrease of the pH induced by carbonation of the binder. The use of supplementary or alternative cementitious materials (ACMs) to replace Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC) is often required to achieve low chloride ion penetration and durable concretes. The impact of fly ash (FA), silica fume (SF) and ground granulated blast furnace slag (GGBFS) in a binary or a ternary system with OPC has been extensively studied\(^2\)\(^\text{11}\). Pozzolanic materials are known to react slowly with calcium hydroxide, resulting from OPC hydration or already present within the added materials. Finely divided Calcium Silicate Hydrates (C-S-H) with lower CaO/SiO\(_2\) ratio (C/S) are formed and fill the fine porosity\(^12\). Limestone used in blended cements also has a chemical effect that contributes to the acceleration of calcium silicate hydration by the formation of carboaluminate phases\(^13\)\(^\text{-14}\). Combined with the chemical effect, fine particles added to cement, especially limestone filler, can also provide nucleation sites to form first hydrates and thus accelerate the hydration\(^15\)\(^\text{-16}\). These additional gels contribute to a densification of the microstructure and increase the pore network tortuosity\(^2\) and mechanical properties. Pozzolanic materials reduce the chloride ion penetration by modifications of the cement paste microstructure and the nature of C-S-H.
formed. The impact of limestone filler on concrete resistance towards chloride penetration is complex. Additional negative effects may be attributed to the diluting effect of clinker, the presence of a porous and connected paste-aggregate transition zone, the higher level of $\text{OH}^-$ in the porous solution$^{17}$, and the decrease of the ability of chloride binding into carboaluminate phases$^{18}$. Nevertheless, the use of limestone blended Portland cement can improve the durability compare to OPC$^{14}$.

ACMs are also developed to offer new opportunities to decrease the environmental impact of concrete and contribute to the valorization of industrial by-products. This paper relates on results obtained on casted concretes with a glass powder (GP) obtained by finely crushing mix glass bottles, an alternative fly ash (AFA) coming from the combustion of wastepaper de-inking sludge and wood residues in a fluidized bed for the co-generation of electricity, and a limestone filler (LF) as a limestone blended cement. The properties of these concretes are compared to those of OPC concretes.

Finely ground GP has a pozzolanic activity$^{19,21}$. In terms of reactivity and impact on the concrete durability, the properties of GP are often compared to those of class F fly ash$^{22}$. Its high fineness removes all risks of swelling reaction by alkali-silica reaction in concretes when mixed with reactive aggregates$^{23}$. AFA can have hydraulic activity, due to the presence of free lime, and pozzolanic activity, due to the presence of aluminosilicate materials that can react with calcium hydroxide$^{24}$. If ACMs can contribute to a densification of the binder matrix, the cement dilution and/or pozzolanic activity can reduce the resistance to carbonation. As a consequence of these contrary effects, the impact of ACMs on concrete durability is complex$^{6,9,25}$. The specific impact of the studied ACMs on concrete durability must be evaluated to promote these new materials for appropriate environmental conditions for concrete structures.
RESEARCH SIGNIFICANCE

The mechanical properties of concretes made with ACMs are often well characterized but the risk of steel corrosion is generally not deeply studied. The work carried out in this investigation describes an accelerated corrosion test that allows characterizing both the periods of initiation and propagation of steel corrosion in concrete. Meanwhile, it correlates the impact of three ACMs to the chloride ion penetration and the risk of corrosion of reinforced concretes. Also, this research illustrates the independence between concrete mechanical properties and durability.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

The experimental design includes eight concrete mixes. The latters consist of four different binders (OPC as control, OPC substituted with 20% of GP, OPC substituted with 20% of AFA, and a 10% limestone filler blended OPC (LF). The rate of 20% for the substitution of OPC by GP and AFA corresponds to an optimal dosage obtained in previous works based on the monitoring of mechanical properties and permeability with curing time. The LF cement is a common commercial cement that is used in this study in order to compare its properties with the other additions (AFA and GP) and OPC. Each binder is mixed using two water-to-binder ratios (W/B: 0.4 and 0.55). For each batch, specimens were cured in a 100% relative humidity room for a time depending of each specific test procedure. Concrete specimens are tested for compressive strength, chloride ion penetration and porosity accessible to water. An accelerated corrosion test has been implemented and conducted to evaluate the behavior of reinforced concretes in a rich chloride environment.

Materials

The physical properties and chemical analysis of GP, AFA, LF and OPC are shown in Table 1 and their particle size distribution, in Fig. 1. X-ray diffraction analysis for GP and AFA have shown that GP is a totally amorphous product while AFA is composed of calcium oxide.
(CaO), calcium carbonate (CaCO₃), anhydrite (CaSO₄) and gehlenite (Ca₂Al₂SiO₇) as main crystalline phases.

Trial using the modified Chapelle test²⁹ confirmed that GP has a pozzolanic activity. The pozzolanicity of GP was also verified by monitoring in cement pastes the decrease of the portlandite peak using X-ray diffraction³⁰. The capacity of consumption of calcium hydroxide by GP is estimated to 418 grains Ca(OH)₂/oz (955 mgCa(OH)₂/g). AFA has both a pozzolanic activity and hydraulic activity. Determined by the modified Chapelle test²⁹, AFA is able to react with 36 grains Ca(OH)₂/oz (82 mg Ca(OH)₂/g). Taking into account of the 9.2% of free lime initially present in AFA, the capacity of consumption of Ca(OH)₂ by AFA is estimated to around 89 grains Ca(OH)₂/oz (204 mg(Ca(OH)₂)/g).

One siliceous sand and two crushed coarse limestone aggregates were used for concrete mixes which are summarized in Table 2. An air-entraining admixture (in a range of 0.46 to 0.89 oz/lb of binder (29.0 to 52.6 ml/100 kg of binder)) and a superplasticizer (in a range of 0.0 to 0.3 oz/gal of concrete (0.0 to 2.2 l/m³) have been used to achieve an entrained air content between 6% and 8% and an initial slump between 7.2 in. and 8.8 in. (180 and 220 mm). This air content range is normally indicated in Canadian specifications.

**Specimens**

Concrete cylinders of diameter 3.94 in. (100 mm) and length 7.87 in. (200 mm) were used to investigate the compressive strength, chloride ion penetration and porosity accessible to water.

**Accelerated corrosion test**

The experimental setup designed for the accelerated corrosion test is illustrated in Fig. 2. It consists of four concrete elements (39.4 in.(100 cm) long, 3.94 in. (100 mm) thick and 7.87 in. (200 mm) high) sealed together to form a closed container of 51.5 U.S gallons (195 liters) of saline solution (NaCl 5%). Each side of the structure is built with a different reinforced concrete with three series of three bars (⌀ 0.39 in. (10 mm)) distant of 3.94 in. (100 mm) and
placed at 7.87, 13.8 and 19.7 in. (20, 35 and 50 mm) from the internal side in contact with the saline solution. Each bar is 9.8 in. (250 mm) long. The extremity of the bars is coated with epoxy to control the surface (4.87 in², 31.4 cm²) of steel in contact with the concrete and avoid interferences created by the extremity of concrete (air, cracks, liquid flow). A constant difference of electrical potential of 5V is imposed between each steel bar and a galvanized steel grid placed at around 2 in. (5 cm) from the concrete. A resistance (1Ω) placed in each electric circuit allows monitoring the current in each bar via the measurement of voltage.

ITEMS OF INVESTIGATION

- **Compressive strength test**

  Compressive strength tests are conducted in accordance with ASTM C39 on cylinders kept in a 100% relative humidity room for 1, 7, 14, 28, and 91 days.

- **Rapid chloride ion penetration test**

  The tests of rapid chloride ion penetration are conducted according to the procedure described in ASTM C1202.

- **Chloride ion penetration test**

  This test is conducted accordingly to the French association of Civil Engineering recommendations (AFGC). It was performed on three concrete cores of 1.97 in. (5 cm) thickness taken from cylinders for each concrete. After 91 days curing, specimens were saturated with a basic solution, NaOH (0.025 mol/l) + KOH (0.083 mol/l), under vacuum during 20 hours. Concrete cores are then placed between two cells. One cell contains a 3% NaCl solution (cathode side) and the other, a 0.3N NaOH solution (anode side). A 30V potential difference is applied between the two cells at 68°F ± 1.8°F (20 ± 1°C). Chloride ion penetration is expressed by the electric charge in Coulombs passing through the core during 6 hours of testing.
The migration depth ($X_d$) is obtained by a pulverization of 0.05 molar silver nitrate ($\text{AgNO}_3$) on fresh broken samples. The non-stationary diffusion coefficient ($D_{\text{app}}$ $\text{m}^2/\text{s}$) is obtained with:

$$D_{\text{app}} = \frac{R\cdot T \cdot L}{z\cdot F \cdot \Delta E} \frac{(X_d - \alpha \sqrt{X_d})}{\Delta t}$$

Where $\alpha = 2\zeta \sqrt{\frac{R \cdot T \cdot L}{Z \cdot F \cdot \Delta E}}$ and $\zeta = \text{erf}^{-1}(1 - 2 \times \frac{C_d}{c_0})$

$R$ = the gas constant ($R = 8.3144 \text{ J.mol}^{-1}.\text{K}^{-1}$); $T$ = the absolute temperature (K); $L$ = specimen’s thickness (m); $z$ = the valence ion ($z = 1$); $F$ = the Faraday constant ($F = 96480 \text{ J.V}^{-1}$); $\Delta E$ = the potential drop between the surfaces of specimen (V); $\Delta t$ = test’s duration (s); $X_d$ = chloride depth, $c_0$ = the chloride concentration of the catholyte solution (upstream compartment) in $\text{mol.L}^{-1}$ and $C_d$ = chloride threshold concentration detected by colorimetry in $\text{mol.L}^{-1}$ ($C_d = 0.07$). For $C_0 = 0.5 \text{ mol.L}^{-1}$, $\zeta = 0.764$.

- **Accelerated corrosion test**

This test is conducted on concrete structures as described above. The concrete specimen are demolded 48 hours after their fabrication and cured in a 100% relative humidity at 68°F (20°C) for 6 weeks. Electronic devices are connected during the 7th week on the superficially air dried concretes at 68°F (20°C). The 8th week, the concrete structure is filled with tap water to saturate the concrete and check the tightness and liquid leaks. The 9th week, tap water is replaced by a saline solution (5% NaCl) and a potential difference of 5V is applied between the cathode (galvanized steel grid placed in saline solution) and the anode (each 36 bars tested). For each steel bar, the voltage is periodically measured on a 1Ω resistor connected in between the cathode and the anode. The measurements are thereafter converted into electrical current data using the Ohm’s law.

To investigate the microstructure at the end of the accelerated corrosion tests, the corrosion products developed in the four concretes (OPC, GP, AFA, LF) mixed at a W/B=0.55 were
observed using SEM and analyse using energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS). In this sense, corroded concrete samples were cored around the reinforcing bars and fresh fractures pieces were taken from each core samples for SEM observations. The SEM acceleration voltage and emission current were respectively set to 15.0 kV and 60 μA. Complementary to these microscopic investigations, corroded bars have been extracted from the four concretes (W/B = 0.55) in order to evaluate the loss of mass during the test.

- Porosity accessible to water

This test is conducted accordingly to the AFGC recommendations\textsuperscript{28}. Three concrete cores (3 cm thickness) taken from cylinders are maintained under vacuum during 4 hours and then saturated under vacuum by tap water during 20 hours. Saturated samples are weighed in air ($M_{\text{air}}$) and in water ($M_{\text{water}}$). Concrete samples are then air dried at 224°F (105°C) up to constant mass ($M_{\text{dry}}$). The accessible porosity to water ($\varepsilon$) is obtained by:

$$\varepsilon(\%) = \frac{M_{\text{air}} - M_{\text{dry}}}{M_{\text{air}} - M_{\text{water}}} \times 100\%$$

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Compressive strength

Compressive strengths of concrete at 1, 7, 14, 28, and 91 days are shown in Fig. 3 and 4 for W/B of 0.4 and 0.55 respectively. After one day, the control concrete (OPC) exhibits the highest compressive strength. After 7 days, LF concretes attained similar compressive strength as the control. As previously shown\textsuperscript{32}, the compressive strength of 20% AFA concretes after 7 days is higher than that of the control. Filler effect of LF accelerates the hydration of concretes with a high W/B ratio, probably by offering nucleation sites in a more diluted system. The high reactivity of AFA at early ages can be explained by its fineness that may accelerate its hydraulic activity. GP concrete has the lowest compressive strength at
early ages but the difference with the control concrete decreases with time due to the
pozzolanic activity of the GP. After 91 days, control and GP concretes have a similar
compressive strength.

For W/B=0.4, the dilution of Portland cement with limestone filler conducts to a significant
decrease of the compressive strength of -1174.7 psi (-8.1 MPa) after 91 days. No difference is
observed for a W/B ratio of 0.55. The compressive strength of LF concretes after 7 days of
maturation is similar to that of OPC concretes. It may be explained by both: the nucleation
sites offered by LF and, the higher fineness of the LF binder.

Chloride ion penetration

The results of rapid chloride ion penetration tests results are illustrated in Fig. 5 (W/B=0.4)
and 6 (W/B=0.55). After 28 days, the electrical indications of the tested concretes (in
Coulombs) to resist chloride ion penetration are similar for both W/B 0.4 and 0.55. For W/B
of 0.4, the electrical charges oscillated around the acceptable high limit by the standard
(4236±631 Coulombs), while, they are in the upper limit for W/B 0.55 (5619±1061
Coulombs). For a W/B ratio of 0.55, the electrical charges of AFA, LF and OPC concretes
are comparable and never achieve the moderate domain comprised between 2000 and 4000
Coulombs. GP concrete exhibits the most important decrease of chloride ion penetration after
28 days. After 91 days, the chloride ion penetration of this binder is more than the half of the
other tested binders. The great influence of GP on the reduction chloride ion penetration
reduction is accentuated with the increase of the W/B ratio. After 91 days, the GP chloride
ion penetration with W/B ratio of 0.55 (1313±139 Coulombs) is more than the third of the
other tested binders.

Nominal particle size is an important parameter to control the reactivity of GP\textsuperscript{19}, but some
other factors, such as glass content may be considered. After 220 days, Shayan and Xu\textsuperscript{20}
obtained a higher chloride ion penetration than what we obtained at a shorter time. Chloride ion penetration can be reduced by increasing the GP proportion up to 30% of OPC content\textsuperscript{20}. For a W/B ratio of 0.55, the use of AFA has an impact on the chloride ion penetration. Indeed, it allows achieving the moderate domain comprised between 2000 and 4000 Coulombs. The capacity of AFA to reduce the chloride ion penetration is less important than that of standard FA, where a reduction of coefficient of chloride diffusion by more than 2 can be expected for this grade of concrete\textsuperscript{5}. Previous tests on concrete ages of 180 days and 1 year show that an important decrease of the charge is expected in concrete with similar AFA\textsuperscript{33}. Fig. 7 plots de chloride ion penetration in coulombs versus the coefficient of apparent chloride ion diffusion ($D_{app}$). According to the test used, the obtained $D_{app}$ are in a range of high [0-3.33E-12 ft$^2$/s (0-3.09E-14 m$^2$/s)] and very high durability [$>3.33$ E-12 ft$^2$/s (3.09E-14 m$^2$/s)]\textsuperscript{33} whereas the electrical charges measured are in a larger scale from low to high chloride ion penetrations\textsuperscript{27}. The comparison of these results reveals that from one side, concretes can be separated from low to high chloride ion penetration and from the other side, from high to very high durability. The tendency is that, when the chloride ion penetration obtained by ASTM C 1202\textsuperscript{27} increases, $D_{app}$ also increases. This relation is not so clear for concretes within the same range of durability. Within the high durability domain, the electrical charge measured with ASTM standard can vary within a large scale (0-4000 coulombs) without influence on $D_{app}$. The test of ASTM C1202\textsuperscript{27} and the criteria proposed to evaluate chloride ion penetration appear to be more selective than those of the French method proposed by AFGC\textsuperscript{28}.

**Corrosion test**

In Fig. 8, the evolution of current intensity in steel bars during the accelerated corrosion tests are given for steel bars placed at 0.8 in. (20 mm) from the surface. This test gives interesting data on the concrete behavior after the beginning of corrosion and more precisely the way it
performs against the stress induced by the formation of chlorinated iron oxides. The current variation with time can schematically be described in three steps:

1) The current intensity decreases with time. This diminution can be explained by a continuous penetration of chloride in the porosity toward the polarized steels. Salts may precipitate within the porosity making the concrete progressively less penetrable by the chloride ion and/or a protective oxide layers may be formed on the steel bars.

2) The current intensity remains constant. This step is not systematically observed. It is generally encountered with steels placed deeper in the concrete. At this stage, we assume that chlorides have reached the steel bars and the corrosion process begins. The evolution of the microstructure of the concrete and its penetration of chloride ions remains unchanged with time.

3) The current intensity increases and an important variation within the three steels placed at the same distance from the surface can be recorded. This increase may be explained by a degradation of concrete, due to the formation of expansive corrosion products, and of the protective oxide layers on the steel bars. It may depend of the concrete resistance towards the tensile stresses generated by the formation of corrosion products. The crack spread is complex and can be greatly different between the three bars placed at the same distance from the surface.

The test on the structure made with four concretes with a W/B ratio of 0.55 was stopped after 32 days because of large cracks causing major leaks of chloride solution.

The initial current measurements give information on concrete resistances. It can be clearly observed that concretes with a W/B ratio of 0.55 have initial current intensity higher than those measured on concretes with a W/B ratio of 0.4. According to the chloride ion penetration measurements, the lowest initial currents are measured on concretes with GP.
One should also note that the initial intensity obtained for GP concretes and W/B ratio of 0.55 is lower than those measured on other concretes with a lower W/B ratio of 0.4. This test gives information about the resistance to chloride ion penetration by the determination of the duration before the corrosion is detected. In Fig. 8 for steels placed at 0.8 in. (20 mm) from the surface, the corrosion seems to begin rapidly. OPC, AFA and LF concretes readily start with a higher initial current than the GP concrete: 8-10 mA for W/B=0.4 concretes and 12-mA for W/B=0.55 concrete. currents increase (step 3) within the seven first days for W/B=0.4, and within the first three days for W/B=0.55. The concretes are immediately damaged after the beginning of the corrosion test. At W/B=0.4, it exists a period of time when the current remains constant (step 2) after 7 days and the cracks development provoke a sudden increase of the current intensity (step 3) with large variations. In the case of the LF concrete, this occurs 15-20 days after the corrosion test was initiated. In the case of the OPC and AFA concrete, this occurs 35-40 days after corrosion test was initiated. For GP concretes, the current slightly decreases within the first five days (step 1) for W/B=0.4 and slightly increase within the first seven days (step 3) for W/B=0.55. The current remains constant afterwards (step 2) for both concretes. Similar observations can be drawn from the monitoring of current intensity in bars placed at 1.4 in. (35 mm) from the surface of the concrete.

Fig. 9 represents the time taken to detect corrosion at the end of step 1 for concretes with a W/B ratio of 0.4 (Fig. 9a) and 0.55 (Fig. 9b). This time increases quasi-linearly with the distance between the steel bars and the surface of concrete exposed to the saline solution. This accelerated test of corrosion confirms the results obtained with the chloride ion penetration tests. Indeed, GP concretes have high resistance to chloride ion penetration. The use of this ACM with W/B=0.55 allows reaching similar resistance to chloride ion penetration than that of the control concrete with W/B=0.4. The relative mass losses with
respect to the initial bar weight are given in Table 3 for bars initially placed at 20 mm from
the surface exposed to chloride solution.

Shayan and Xu\textsuperscript{20} show that the use of 20\% GP in substitution of OPC does not have an
impact on the dynamic modulus of elasticity (E). The good behavior of GP concrete is not
thus explained by an increase of E. As it can be seen in Table 3, the quantities of corrosion
products are two to three times less important for GP concrete compares to OPC, LF and
AFA concretes. After 32 days of testing, the better resistance of GP concretes to the
generation of cracks may be explained by lower quantity of corrosion products. The lower
quantity of corrosion products thus exercises less tensile strength on the concrete.

**Porosity accessible to water**

The porosity accessible to water obtained by applying the method recommended by AFGC\textsuperscript{28}
is represented in Fig. 10. For concretes with W/B of 0.4, porosity varies closely between 13.0
and 15.1. The partial substitution of cement by 10\% LF or 20\% ACMs does not have a
significant impact after 91 days curing. The increase of W/B implies an increase of the
accessible porosity. OPC and 10\% LF concretes show comparable porosity of 16.2\% and
16.0\% respectively. Contrary to concretes with W/B of 0.4, the substitution of cement by
20\% ACMs in concretes with W/B of 0.55 resulted in an increase of porosity. Very high
values of 20.1\% and 21.1\% are obtained for AFA and GP.

There is no relation between the porosity accessible to water and the resistance to chloride
ion penetration and accelerated corrosion. Specifically for concretes with GP that have a
pozzolanic activity, the densification of the microstructure and the increase of the tortuosity
do not imply a decrease of porosity accessible to water. Attention should be paid to the fact
that the porosity accessible to water has a low degree of significance with the real transfer
properties of concrete.
SEM examination of concretes after corrosion test

The chloride ions (Cl\(^-\)) penetration during the accelerated corrosion tests notably initiates reaction between Cl\(^-\) and Portlandite and weakens the protective hydroxide film on the steel bars. These phenomena may also affect the microstructure and the hydration products, by generating expansive corrosion products consisting of iron oxides (Fe\(_x\)O\(_y\)) and oxy-chloride (Fe\(_x\)O\(_y\)Cl\(_z\)) around the steel bars\(^{34}\).

Depending on its ability to resist to chloride ions penetration, concrete will develop different morphologies of corrosion products with different Fe/Cl ratio. Thus, this ratio will decrease with the increase of the chloride penetration and corrosion of the armature bars. While Fig. 11 to 14 present the morphology of the corrosion products and their respective EDS spectrum obtained in four different concretes at the same W/B (OPC 0.55, 20% GP 0.55, 20% AFA 0.55, 10% LF 0.55). Table 4 summarizes the morphology type of the corrosion products observed in each concrete and their respective Fe/Cl \% atomic ratios. Empty cells means that the associated corrosion product is not observed in the concrete.

1. OPC 0.55

Fig. 11 presents the morphology of the corrosion production and their respective EDS spectrum observed in OPC 0.55. This concrete globally contains two types of corrosion products: a) nested flower-like and b) lamellar-like corrosion products. These products show a Fe/Cl ratios of 1.8 and 2.1 respectively. Petals in the flower-like products are 1 to 3 \(\mu\)m wide, while the lamellae in the second products are 20 to 40 \(\mu\)m wide.

2. 20% GP 0.55

Fig. 12 presents the morphology of the corrosion production and their respective EDS spectrum observed in 20% GP 0.55. This concrete mainly develops a gel-like corrosion product. This product indicates a Fe/Cl of around 12.3.

3. 20% AFA 0.55
Fig. 13 exhibits the morphology of the corrosion production and their respective EDS spectrum observed in 20% AFA 0.55. This concrete globally contains a) gel-like, b) globular-like and c) hexagonal crystal-like corrosion products. These products indicate a Fe/Cl ratio in the 1.3-2.2 range. As for 20% GP 0.55, the gel-like material is widely spread in the concrete sample and the globular products show globules of 1 to 5 µm in diameter. The hexagonal crystal-like products are ≈10 µm wide.

4. Binary OPC-LF concrete (LF 0.55)

Fig. 14 exhibits the morphology of the corrosion production and their respective EDS spectrum observed in 10% LF 0.55. This concrete globally contains three different corrosion products with the following morphologies: a) a gel-like and globular-like, b) nested needle-like and c) lamellar-like corrosion products. These show a Fe/Cl in the 1.2-8.0 range. The gel-like material and the nested needle-like product are widely spread in the concrete sample and the globular products shows globules of 1 to 10 µm in diameter. Lamellae are 10 to 20 µm wide.

Globally, the Fe/Cl ratios in Table 4 agree with results obtained from the chloride ion penetration and the accelerated corrosion tests, meaning that these ratios decrease with the increase of the current intensity measured during the first and the second tests. 20% GP 0.55 concrete, which shows the lowest current value during both the chloride ions penetration and accelerated corrosion tests, exhibits the least amount of corrosion products of product and the highest Fe/Cl ratio values. OPC 0.55, 20% AFA 0.55 and 10% LF 0.55 concretes, which show comparable results during both the chloride ions penetration and accelerated corrosion tests, also indicate comparable low Fe/Cl ratios.
CONCLUSIONS

Besides their environmental impact, the use of ACMs brings additional mechanical and durability properties to concrete. The present work illustrates that the use of these ACMs has an impact on both the mechanical and transfer properties of concrete, such as the chloride ion penetration and accelerated corrosion. At early ages (1 day), the dilution of OPC by ACMs reduces the compressive strength. With time, concrete mixes designed with ACMs achieve similar or greater compressive strengths than those attained by OPC concretes.

For the transfer properties, the replacement of 10% of OPC by LF or 20% of OPC by AFA has no significant consequence on the resistance to chloride ion penetration. The pozzolanic activity of GP decreases the chloride ion penetration of concrete. This effect is also observed at high W/B.

The accelerated corrosion tests on reinforced concretes clearly show that concrete with 20% GP exhibits a good resistance to the formation of corrosion products on steel bars, while the other tested concretes are rapidly damaged using the same accelerated conditions.

Measurements of the porosity accessible to water show no relationship with the resistance to chloride ion penetration and accelerated corrosion. Contrary to the chloride ion penetration and acceleration corrosion tests, porosity accessible to water does not take into account the tortuosity of the microstructure.

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Fig. 4 – Compressive strength vs time in 100% relative humidity room for concrete with a W/B ratio of 0.55.
Fig. 5 – Coulomb charge of concretes with a W/B ratio of 0.4 vs curing time curing.
Fig. 6 – Coulomb charge of concretes with a W/B ratio of 0.55 vs curing time.
Fig. 7 – Comparison between chloride ion penetration obtained with ASTM C1202 and the coefficient of apparent chloride ions diffusion obtained with the method recommended by AFGC
Fig. 8 – Corrosion accelerated test. Monitoring of electrical current in steel bars placed at 0.8 inch (20 mm) from the saline solution
Fig. 9 – Time taken to detect of corrosion depending on the distance between steel bars and saline solution in concrete for W/B of 0.4 (a) and W/B of 0.55 (b).

Fig. 10 – Porosity accessible to water (AFGC 2007\textsuperscript{28}) and durability (AFGC 2004\textsuperscript{33})

Figure 11 – SEM micrographs and EDS spectra of a) nested flower-like and b) lamellar-like corrosion products observed in OPC 0.55.

Figure 12 – SEM micrographs and EDS spectra of gel-like corrosion product observed in GP 0.55.

Figure 13 – SEM micrographs and EDS spectra of a) gel-like material and globular-like and b) of hexagonal crystal-like corrosion products in AFA 0.55.

Figure 14 – SEM micrographs and EDS spectra of a) gel-like and globular-like, b) nested needle-like and c) lamellar-like in LF 0.55.
Table 1 Chemical and physical analysis of materials (% by mass).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Oxide</th>
<th>OPC</th>
<th>AFA</th>
<th>LF</th>
<th>GP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SiO₂</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>71.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al₂O₃</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>15.60</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe₂O₃</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CaO</td>
<td>63.80</td>
<td>41.60</td>
<td>62.4</td>
<td>11.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MgO</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>1.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K₂O</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Na₂O</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>12.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SO₃</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOI</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>7.25</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| D₅₀, µm    | 25.8 | 74.5 | 15.2 | 12.3 |
| Blaine, ft²/lb | 1,904 | 5,224 | 2,470 | 2,148 |
| (m²/kg)    | (390) | (1070) | (506) | (440) |
| BET, ft²/lb| 6,103 | 16,941 | 7,811 | 3,222 |
| (m²/kg)    | (1,250) | (3,470) | (1,600) | (660) |
| Pozzolanic activity*, grains | -- | 36 | -- | 418 |
| Ca(OH)₂/oz | (82) | (955) |

*Modified Chapelle test*

Table 2 Mixture proportions of concretes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mix labels</th>
<th>Binder</th>
<th>W/B</th>
<th>Composition, lbs/yd³ (kg/m³)</th>
<th>Fresh concrete properties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Binder</td>
<td>Sand (0-5 mm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPC-0.4</td>
<td>100%OPC</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>651</td>
<td>1105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPC-0.55</td>
<td>100%OPC</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>(350)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GP-0.4</td>
<td>80% OPC 20% GP</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>651</td>
<td>(400)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GP-0.55</td>
<td>80% OPC 20% GP</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>(350)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFA-0.4</td>
<td>80% OPC 20% AFA</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>651</td>
<td>(400)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFA-0.55</td>
<td>80% OPC 20% AFA</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>(350)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LF-0.4</td>
<td>10% LF</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>651</td>
<td>(400)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LF-0.55</td>
<td>10% LF</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>(350)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Relative mass loss of bars with respect to their initial weight. Bars are extracted from concretes with W/B of 0.55 after corrosion test with a duration of 32 days.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concretes</th>
<th>OPC</th>
<th>LF</th>
<th>GP</th>
<th>AFA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mass variation (%)</td>
<td>-22.8</td>
<td>-22.6</td>
<td>-9.4</td>
<td>-31.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4. Atomic Fe/Cl ratio of corrosion products: empty cells signify that the associated corrosion product is not observed in the concrete.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concretes</th>
<th>Nested flower</th>
<th>Lamellar</th>
<th>Gel</th>
<th>Hexagonal crystal</th>
<th>Globular</th>
<th>Gel-globular</th>
<th>Nested needle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OPC 0.55</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GP 0.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFA 0.55</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LF 0.55</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1 Particle size distribution of materials using laser granulometry.

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