

Carbonation rate in old structures assessed with air-permeability site NDT

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ABSTRACT: In this paper, test results obtained on several old concrete structures (up to 60 years old), located in different regions of Japan, Portugal and Switzerland, are presented. First, the coefficient of air-permeability kT (Swiss Standard SIA 262/1) was measured at different locations of those structures, to be followed by the measurement of the carbonation depth CD on samples removed from the same locations. The CD values were "normalized" by converting them into carbonation rates CR ($CR = CD / \sqrt{age}$). The results highlight the following facts:

- There is a large scatter in both kT and CD within each structure, posing a challenge for prediction modeling
- There is a general trend of higher values of CR for higher values of kT
- If kT is low, CR is also low; however, there are some cases of high kT and low CR (possibly due to micro-climatic exposure conditions and/or presence of cracks)
- There seems to be a threshold value of kT ($\sim 0.01 \cdot 10^{-16} \text{ m}^2$) below which the carbonation rate is negligible (less than $1 \text{ mm}/\sqrt{a}$, i.e. less than 10 mm in 100 years)

The results presented are useful to predict the carbonation rate on the basis of non-destructive air-permeability measurements made on site, as has been done in some real cases.

1 INTRODUCTION

Although less aggressive than chloride-induced corrosion, corrosion damage due to carbonation constitutes a matter of concern. This incidence may be aggravated in the future by the gradual rise in CO_2 concentration in the air, especially in industrial, motorcar and urban environments, and by the reduction in clinker content of the binders that is taking place in the cement and concrete industry nowadays.

The carbonation progress is generally assumed as:

$$CD = CR \cdot \sqrt{t} \quad (1)$$

CD = carbonation depth (mm)

CR = carbonation rate ($\text{mm}/\text{y}^{1/2}$)

t = time (years)

Where CR depends of several factors such as the "penetrability" of the concrete cover, the amount of carbonatable material in the matrix, the concentration of CO_2 in the environment, the exposure conditions (temperature, RH, rain), etc.

The "square root" rule, described by Eq. (1) is often used to estimate the service life of existing concrete structures. Indeed, measurements of the carbonation depth CD , obtained destructively on drilled

cores or fragments removed from the surface, at time t_0 allow, by a simple application of Eq (1) to know CR and, therefore, to predict the time t at which the carbonation front will reach the steel and depassivate it (when carbonation depth CD equals cover depth). CD is typically measured by spraying a pH indicator (usually phenolphthalein) on freshly broken surfaces [RILEM, 1998].

This simple approach faces two drawbacks: the destructive or damaging nature of the measurements and the high variability of CD , typically encountered in a single concrete structure. Table 1 shows the wide range of CD found in very old structures investigated in Chile [Rojas K., 2006] and in younger structures investigated in China [Liang et al, 2013].

Table 1. Range of CD values measured in Chilean and Chinese structures

	CHILE			CHINA	
	Quillota Bridge	Barros Arana Bldg.	Eng. Univ. Chile Bldg.	Chorng-chin Viaduct	Wann-fwu Bridge
Built	1908	1910	1917	1971	1987
Tested	2006	2005	2005	2012	2012
Age	98	95	88	41	25
No. Tests	5	6	5	10	10
CD min	0	35	28	0	0
CD max	65	100	55	38	140
CR max	6,57	10,26	5,86	5,93	28,00

The high scatter of CD results is confirmed by other results presented below. As a result, in order to have an acceptable picture of the CD values in the structure, an unaffordable amount of concrete samples is required.

As discussed above, the “penetrability” of the cover concrete is one of the main factors governing the carbonation rate CR . Air-permeability is one of the most accepted properties to evaluate the “penetrability” of the cover concrete and is one of the easier tests to perform on site.

Already in the 90’s, a method to estimate the progress of carbonation in concrete, based on intrusive site measurements of air-permeability, was proposed [Parrott, 1994], included also as a CEN document [Andrade et al, 1992]. Similar approaches were applied to use non-destructive air-permeability measurements to predict the service life of the emblematic Museum of Western Art in Tokyo [Imamoto et al, 2012] and of precast concrete segments of the Port of Miami Tunnel [Torrent et al, 2013]. In these two investigations the coefficient of air-permeability kT was measured applying the non-destructive Swiss Standard Method [SIA 262/1-E, 2013], described in the Annex.

The purpose of this paper is to review and analyze published data of parallel measurements of air-permeability kT and carbonation depth CD , conducted on old structures in Japan, Portugal and Switzerland, to explore the possibility of using the non-destructive kT measurements for the prediction of carbonation rate and its associated service life.

2 CARBONATION AND AIR-PERMEABILITY kT IN THE LABORATORY

Several laboratory investigations have shown that the coefficient of air-permeability kT correlates well with natural and accelerated carbonation of concrete.

Fig. 1 presents results of CR values (calculated as the measured CD divided by the square root of the exposure time) as function of kT measured at onset of exposure, reported by:

- [Torrent und Ebensperger, 1993], who exposed prisms made with several concrete mixes, subjected to different curing conditions, to an ambient of 20°C, 50% RH for 500 days
- [Torrent und Frenzer, 1995], who exposed prisms made with several concrete mixes, subjected to different curing conditions, to an ambient of 20°C, 50% RH for 2 years
- [Kubens et al, 2003], who exposed cubes and prisms made with two concrete mixes, subjected to different curing conditions, to an ambient of 30°C, 40% RH for 90 days. Companion specimens were also exposed to accelerated carbonation: 5% CO_2 , 30°C, 50% RH for 7 days, with good correlation with kT (not included in Fig. 1)

- [Imamoto et al, 2008], who exposed panels made with three concrete mixes, subjected to two different curing conditions, to an ambient of 20°C, 60% RH for 3.5 years
- Holcim, prisms made with four concrete mixes, subjected to 28 d. moist curing, were exposed to an ambient of 20°C, 57% RH for 2 years.

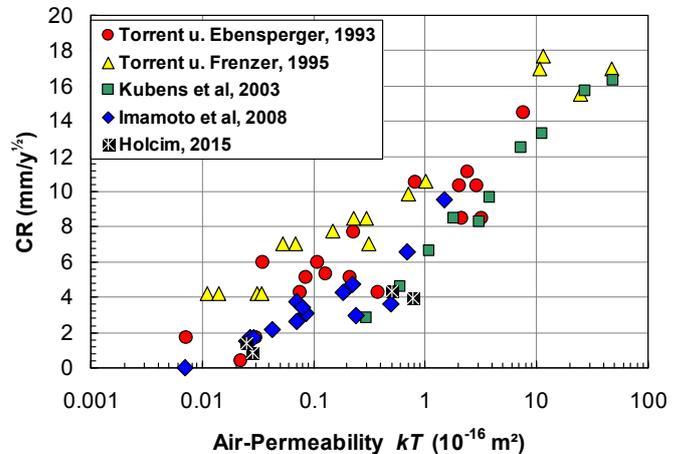


Figure 1. CR measured in the lab under natural CO_2 exposure vs. kT values

Despite the different origin of the data, the good agreement between the five sets of results is remarkable. The fact that most concretes included in Fig. 1 are made with OPC may have contributed to the good agreement.

The laboratory data show that the carbonation rate CR follows a linear relation with the logarithm of kT and that CR becomes negligible for kT values below $\approx 0.01 \cdot 10^{-16} m^2$.

3 CARBONATION AND AIR-PERMEABILITY kT ON SITE

3.1 Experimental

The general procedure was to identify suitable structures and elements where to conduct the tests. First, kT was measured on site, followed by cores drilling at the same spot or by fragments breaking of the concrete; the CD was measured by spraying a phenolphthalein solution [RILEM, 1988] on freshly broken surfaces (e.g. by splitting the cores).

The kT values were measured using different instruments (see Table 2): a prototype, the “Torrent Permeability Tester” (TPT), manufactured by Proceq and, more recently, the “PermeaTORR”, manufactured by Materials Advanced Services.

A short description of the test method to measure kT is presented in the Annex.

3.2 Structures Investigated

Table 2 provides a brief description of the structures investigated; more information can be found in the corresponding references.

[Torrent u. Ebensperger, 1993], is shown at the top of the charts.

The data in Fig. 2 present a high scatter, both in terms of CR and of kT . The values of CR for each structure range from close to 0 up to 4, 5 and even almost 6 mm/y^{1/2}, confirming the high variability of this property, already discussed in relation with Table 1.

Table 2 – Structures investigated in Switzerland, Japan and Portugal

Structure	Age at test (years)	Location	Country	Reference	Instrument
Motorway Underpass	30	Kanton SO	Switzerland	Torrent and Frenzer, 1995	Prototype
Urban Bridge	60	Basel BS			
Highway Bridges	30	NW Switz.		Jacobs, 2008	TPT
Building	30	Canton TI		Teruzzi, 2009	
Museum	50	Tokyo	Japan	Imamoto et al, 2014	<i>PermeaTORR</i>
Multi-family dwelling	49	Osaka			
Specimens	12-32	Tochigi			
Multi-family dwellings	42	Chiba *			
HSC dummy columns	15	Tsukuba			
Lab. Building, E and W sides	49	Sendai			
Highway Overpasses (HW OP)	18-32	Lisbon	Portugal	Neves, 2012	TPT
		11-31			
Highway Underpasses (HW UP)	19-32	Lisbon			
		11			
Highway Pedestrian Overpass (HW POP)	4	Lisbon			
Motorway Overpass (MW OP)	32				

* Lightweight Aggregates Concrete (LWAC)

3.3 Experimental Results

Values of carbonation rate CR , calculated by dividing the measured CD by the square root of the age at test are presented in Figs. 2, 3 and 4, as function of the kT measured at the same spots. Figs. 2, 3 and 4 present the results obtained on Swiss, Japanese and Portuguese structures, respectively. The qualitative scale of permeability classes, based on kT values

What is also remarkable is the high variability of air-permeability kT , which ranges over 3, 4 and 5 orders of magnitude, for each of the different structures studied.

The situation for the Japanese cases has similarities and differences (particularly if we confine the analysis only to the real structures tested). On one extreme, the Chiba buildings, built with LWAC,

show CR values in the range 2 – 13 mm/y^{1/2}. On the other hand, the Osaka buildings show much more uniform values of CR (1.5 – 3.5 mm/y^{1/2}). The results from the Museum of Western Art in Tokyo present two well differentiated sets of data. Five results showing low values of kT and CR , corresponding to measurements conducted on repair mortars and three results with high kT and moderate CR , corresponding to the few cores allowed to be drilled from the historical building (only one designed by Le Corbusier in Japan).

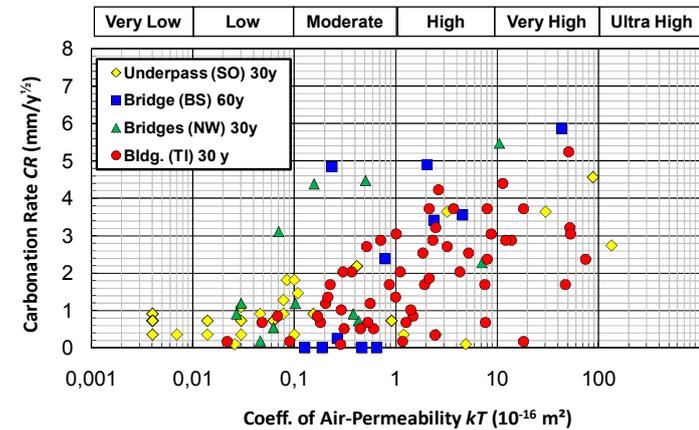


Figure 2. CR and kT values measured on Swiss Structures

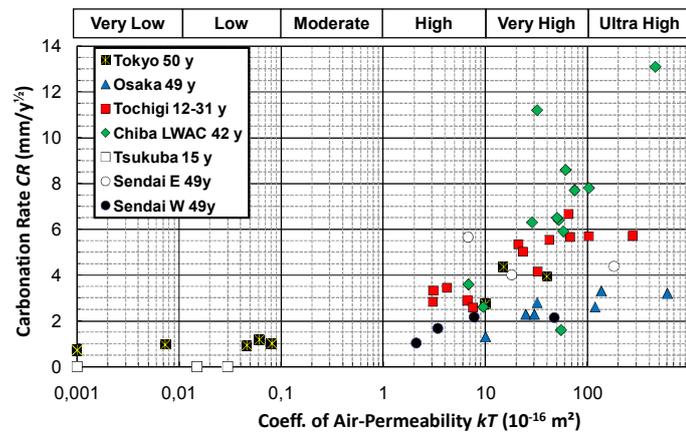


Figure 3. CR and kT values measured on Japanese Structures

The data in Fig. 4 show a similar pattern as those in Fig. 2, particularly on the upper range. However, there is comparatively scarcity/absence of very low CR values for the whole range of kT values. Perhaps the warmer and drier climatic conditions of Portugal may explain this fact.

No clear difference between the concrete structures, ages or locations can be observed in Fig. 4.

The three Figs. 2, 3 and 4 show a general trend of increasing values of CR for increasing values of kT .

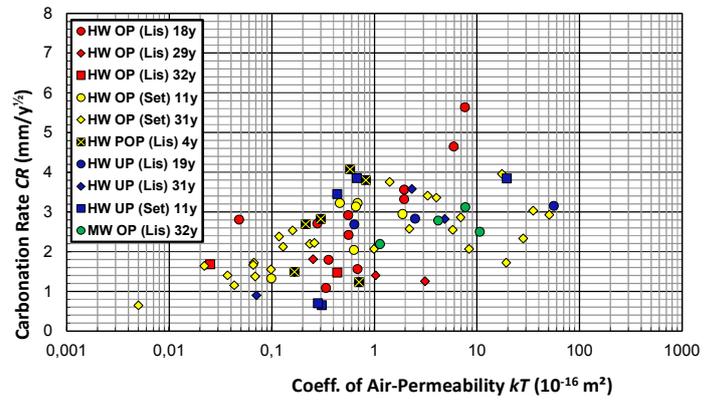


Figure 4. CR and kT values measured on Portuguese Structures

4 USE OF AIR-PERMEABILITY TESTS FOR CARBONATION PREDICTION

Fig. 5 merges the data shown separately in Figs. 2, 3 and 4, differentiating just the country where they were obtained.

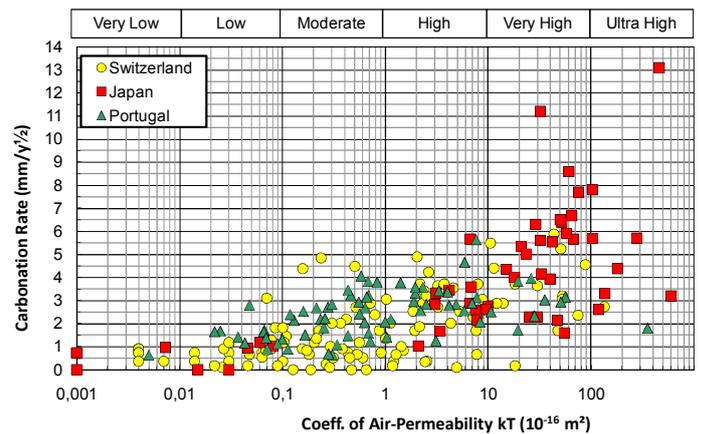


Figure 5. CR and kT values measured on Swiss, Japanese and Portuguese Structures

Fig. 5 shows that the three sets of data merge nicely, despite the different geographical and climatic regions included and the different instruments and experimental procedures applied by the five research teams involved.

Fig. 5 also shows:

- that the carbonation rate CR tends to increase with growing values of kT
- the confirmation of a limiting value of $kT \approx 0.01 \cdot 10^{-16} \text{ m}^2$, below which CR becomes negligible, same as for laboratory tests (see Fig. 1)
- qualitatively, it is clear that for low values of kT ($< 0.1 \cdot 10^{-16} \text{ m}^2$), there is a high certainty that the carbonation rate will be low (between 0 and 2 mm/y^{1/2})
- for higher values of kT the uncertainty increases with kT , as both low and high carbonation rates can occur for a given kT value.

The phenomenon in item d) can be speculatively explained by the differences in microexposure (sunlight, rain, wind, moisture, etc.) of the different elements tested within the structures investigated, affecting carbonation rate (normally kT is measured under dry conditions [SIA 262/1-E, 2013]); see e.g. difference in data from E (yellow dots) and W (black dots) sides of Sendai Building in Fig. 3. Another possible source of scatter could be the effect of localized defects (e.g. microcracks) that may affect kT but not necessarily CD (see Fig. 6). In both cases, to a high kT value a relatively low CD may correspond. The presence of such cracks has not been identified/reported by the researchers, so the eventually affected data cannot be discriminated in Fig. 5.

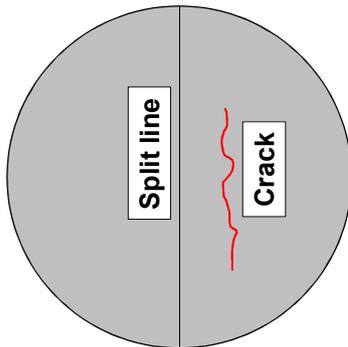


Figure 6. Possible crack affecting kT but not CD measured on the core split surface

The data shown in Fig. 5 constitute a useful platform on which a model to predict carbonation in old structures, based on non-destructive measurement of the air-permeability on site, can be built.

A probabilistic treatment may be appropriate, such as that applied by [Teruzzi, 2009] to his own data (red dots in Fig. 2). Fig. 7 shows the result of his analysis.

The plots show clearly what has been described qualitatively before: the displacement to the right (towards higher values of CR) of the modes of the functions for increasing kT values and the corresponding higher uncertainties (wider distributions).

An attempt is currently being made to combine this approach with the probabilistic distribution (due to inaccuracies) of the cover depth, measured non-destructively. If successful, it would allow establishing the probability that the service life exceeds a certain value, from the combined measurement of kT and the cover depth, at each point of the structure under investigation.

This opens the ground for a more realistic assessment, as the structure can be scanned extensively by both NDT methods: air-permeability test and covermeters and a mapping of service lives (at given reliability levels) could be built.

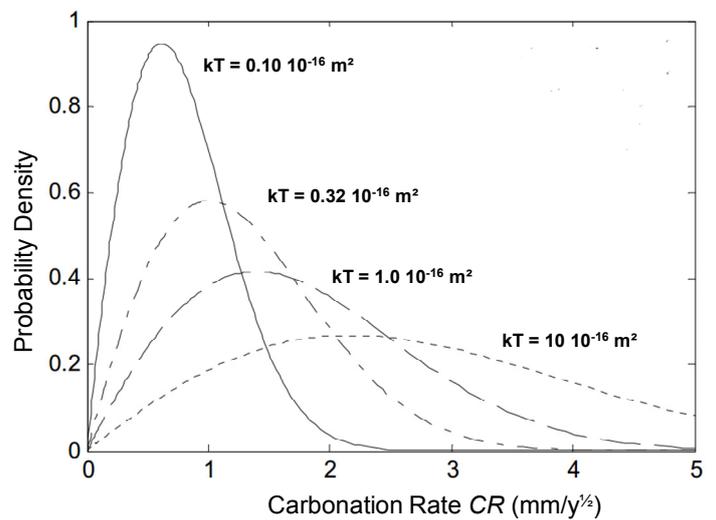


Figure 7. Change in the probability distribution of CR as function of kT [Teruzzi, 2009]

5 CONCLUSIONS

- Both the carbonation rate CR and the coefficient of air-permeability kT show a high range of values on the same structure, making the application of analytical prediction models questionable
- The coefficient of air-permeability kT , measured after the Swiss standard method [SIA 262/1, 2013] correlates very well with the rate of carbonation CR , measured in the laboratory under natural CO_2 exposure
- The correlation between CR and kT values, measured on old existing structures in Japan, Portugal and Switzerland, shows the following pattern:
 - In general terms, CR grows with increasing kT values
 - There seems to be a threshold limit of $kT \approx 0.01 \cdot 10^{-16} \text{ m}^2$ below which CR is negligible
 - For low values of $kT (< 0.1 \cdot 10^{-16} \text{ m}^2)$, there is a high certainty that the carbonation rate will be low (between 0 and $2 \text{ mm/y}^{1/2}$)
 - For higher values of kT the uncertainty increases with kT , as both low and high carbonation rates can occur for a given kT value.
- The results obtained on old structures constitute a useful platform on which a model to predict carbonation in old structures, based on non-destructive measurement of the air-permeability on site, can be built
- A probabilistic treatment of data may allow establishing the probability that the service life exceeds a certain value, from the combined measurement of kT and the cover depth, at each point of a structure under investigation. This work is in progress at the moment.

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ANNEX: DETERMINATION OF THE
COEFFICIENT OF AIR-PERMEABILITY kT
AFTER SWISS STANDARD [SIA 262/1, 2013]

Figs. 8 and 9 show a sketch and details of the test, intended for measuring, non-destructively, the coefficient of air-permeability of the cover concrete, in the lab and on site.

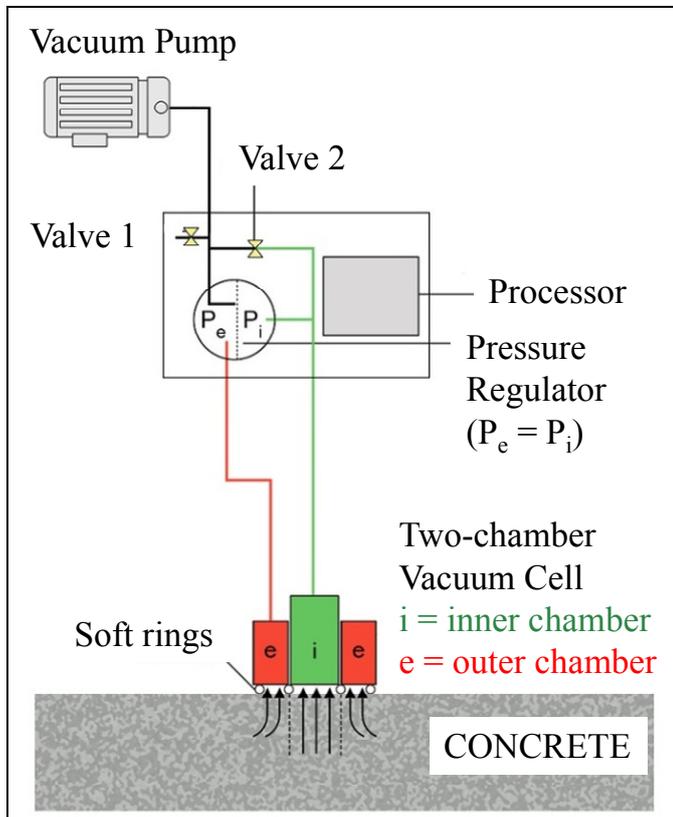


Figure 8. Sketch of kT test [SIA 262/1, 2013]

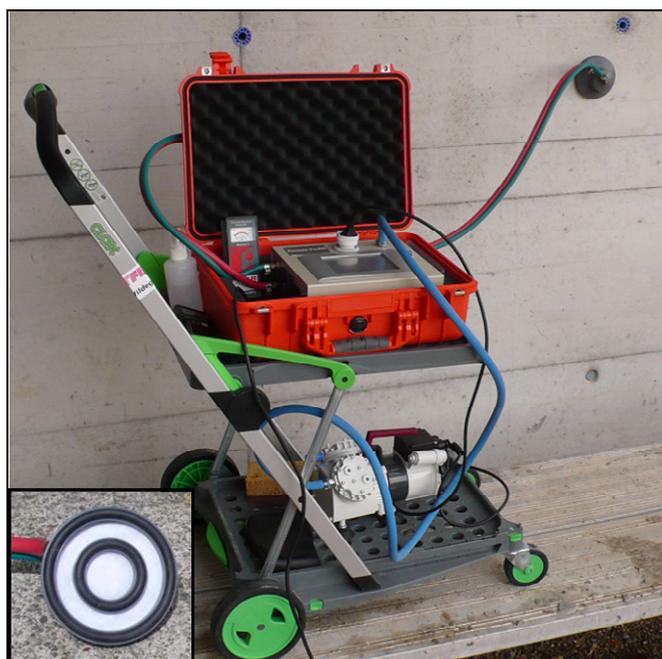


Figure 9. kT test: details of vacuum cell and application on a concrete wall

Vacuum is created inside the 2-chamber vacuum cell (Fig. 8), which is sealed onto the concrete surface by means of a pair of concentric soft rings, creating two separate chambers. At a time between 35 and 60 sec (with a vacuum of ca. 5 - 50 mbar, depending on the concrete, instrument, etc.) valve 2 is closed and the pneumatic system of the inner chamber is isolated from the pump. The air in the pores of the material flows through the cover concrete into the inner chamber, raising its pressure P_i . The rate of pressure rise in the inner chamber ΔP_i (measurement starts at $t_0 = 60$ s) is directly linked to the coefficient of air-permeability of the cover concrete. A pressure regulator maintains the pressure of the external chamber permanently balanced with that of the inner chamber ($P_e = P_i$). Thus, a controlled unidirectional flow into the inner chamber is ensured (sketched in Fig. 7) and the coefficient of permeability to air kT (m^2) can be calculated.

Valve 1 serves to reset the system by opening it to the atmospheric air.

Applying the Hagen-Poiseuille law for compressible fluids, under certain assumptions, the coefficient of air-permeability is calculated with Equation (2); a full derivation can be found in <http://www.m-a-s.com.ar/eng/documentation.php>.

$$kT = \left(\frac{V_c}{A} \right)^2 \frac{\mu}{2 \varepsilon P_a} \left(\frac{\ln \frac{P_a + \Delta P_i}{P_a - \Delta P_i}}{\sqrt{t_f} - \sqrt{t_0}} \right)^2 \quad (2)$$

kT : coefficient of air-permeability (m^2)

V_c : volume of inner cell system (m^3)

A : cross-sectional area of inner cell (m^2)

μ : viscosity of air at $20^\circ C$ ($= 2.0 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ Ns/m}^2$)

ε : estimated porosity of the cover concrete (default value assumed = 0.15)

P_a : atmospheric pressure (N/m^2)