

23 **1. Introduction**

24 Steel corrosion is one of the principal reasons for the deterioration and durability failure of concrete structures. It
25 reduces the effective area of a steel bar in concrete irregularly and decreases its strength and ductility significantly.
26 It causes the cracking of concrete cover due to expansion of corrosion products and hence decreases the stiffness
27 of a structure. It also deteriorates the bond between a corroding bar and its surrounding concrete and therefore
28 alters the behavior of a structure. As a result, the bearing capacity and safety margin of a structure with corroding
29 steel bars decreases substantially. Its anticipated ductile failure mode may be changed into a brittle one without an
30 obvious warning ^[1-3].

31 It is well known that steel corrosion is initiated as a result of concrete carbonation and chloride migration ^[4-10].
32 Ove the past decades, a significant number of researches have been done on the properties of concrete that is
33 affected either by concrete carbonation or chloride diffusion, respectively ^[11-13]. Actually, however, most of
34 reinforced concrete structures may suffer from concrete carbonation and chloride intrusion simultaneously with a
35 potential interaction between concrete carbonation and chloride migration.

36 It has been reported that a penetration of carbon dioxide (CO₂) into a concrete not only causes concrete
37 carbonation and deteriorates concrete structures, but also reduces the capacity of chloride binding and makes more
38 chloride ions released in the pore solution of a carbonated concrete. In addition, the presence of CO₂ results in
39 concrete shrinkage, which in turn promotes the transportation of more external chloride ions into the concrete. As
40 a result, both concentration of chloride ions in the pore solution of the carbonated concrete and the risk of chloride
41 – induced corrosion of steel bars in the concrete increase significantly ^[14-17]. On other hand, chlorides ions in a
42 concrete reacts chemically with its tricalcium aluminate (C₃A) of a concrete and produces Friedel salt
43 (3CaO·Al₂O₃·CaCl₂·10H₂O) during hydration process of the concrete, which in turn increases the pH value of
44 pore solution of a concrete and mitigates the risk of carbonation–induced corrosion of steel bar in the concrete ^[18].

45 The above valuable researches do reveal the effect of concrete carbonation on intrusion/concentration of chloride
46 ion in a concrete. However, less significant research has been reported on the effect of chloride intrusion on
47 carbonation of concrete or cement paste. In addition, the carbonation of a concrete is conventionally identified
48 using phenolphthalein method. This method, however, calls for breaking off specimens and does not estimate the
49 carbonation rate in terms of percentage of Portlandites consumption. Actually it is known that carbonation is a
50 gradual phenomenon, partial carbonation after the front determined by means of pulverizing phenolphthalein is
51 not possible^[19-23]. Fortunately, both X-ray computed tomography (XCT) and mercury intrusion porosimetry (MIP)
52 facilitate a powerful technology that can accurately image the internal structures of composite and heterogeneous
53 materials in three-dimensions ^[24-25].

54 Hence, this paper presents an experimental investigation into the effect of chloride ions on carbonation of cement
55 paste by means of X-ray CT techniques and mercury intrusion porosimetry(MIP), which is benchmarked by the
56 conventional phenolphthalein method. A group of the cement cylinders with different amounts of chlorides ions
57 were manufactured and cured before they were subjected to an accelerated carbonation process in a conditional
58 cabinet regime for different ages. The carbonation front of the cement paste was first evaluated using
59 phenolphthalein spraying method. This was followed by an investigation of microstructure evolution of the cement
60 paste due to carbonation using XCT and MIP techniques, which is vital to transport of carbon dioxide, water,
61 chloride ion and eventually concrete durability^[26]. The relevant results can be referred to for durability design and
62 prediction of reinforced concrete structures.

63 **2. Experimental**

64 **2.1 Materials and Specimens**

65 An Ordinary Portland cement PO425 in conformity with Chinese Cement standards (GB 175-2007) was used for
66 the manufacturing of the cement paste cylinder specimens with a diameter of 36mm and a height of 100mm. The

67 cylinder specimens have the water to cement ratios of 0.3, 0.4 and 0.5 and the chloride ions (NaCl) of 0.0%, 0.3%,
68 0.6% and 1.0% of cement mass, respectively. Following casting of cement mortar, the cylinder specimens were
69 first cured in the standard conditional regime of $20\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ and 90% relatively humidity for 24 hours, before they
70 were de-molded, wrapped up with plastic film and cured in the same regime for 28 days. At the end of cure period,
71 both top and bottom circular surfaces of each cylinder specimen were sealed with an epoxy. Afterwards, the
72 cylinder specimens were stored in an conditional cabinet for 7 days, 14 days, 21 days and 28 days, respectively,
73 with their side surface exposed to a carbonation regime that has a 20% carbon dioxide (CO_2) in volume and 60%
74 relatively humidity for an accelerated carbonation process.

75 **2.2 Testing methods**

76 **2.2.1 Evaluation of carbonation depth using Phenolphthalein method**

77 The carbonation depths of cement paste cylinder specimen were first measured using the conventional method of
78 Phenolphthalein solution, which was adopted to consolidate the results measure by X-CT, as described below.
79 Some cylinder specimens were removed from the conditional cabinet at different carbonation periods, before they
80 were cut into two using a metal saw and the 1% Phenolphthalein alcohol solution was sprayed on one cut surface
81 of the specimen to observe the variation of the surface color and determine the carbonation depth. Another cut
82 surface of the specimen was sealed with epoxy and the remaining part of the specimen was re-conditioned in the
83 cabinet to continue its carbonation process.

84 **2.2.2 Evaluation of carbonation using X-ray CT**

85 Further to the above measurement of carbonation front of all the cement cylinder specimens using Phenolphthalein
86 method, the cement cylinder specimens with water to cement ratios of 0.3 and 0.5 were selected for the
87 investigation of their microstructures evolution at different carbonation age using X-CT technique and analyzed
88 with software named VG Studio MAX 2.1. As illustrated in Fig.1 for its principle, the cement cylinder specimen

89 was set in a holder that was mounted on a precision rotation table, and then the table position was adjusted to fit
90 the image within the field view. During scanning process, a conical X-ray beam was emitted as the specimen
91 rotates through 360 degree. The X-ray CT raw data were then collected using 1080 projection images that were
92 recorded by a CCD camera with an array of 1024×1024 pixels. As a result, the 3D voxel size was 0.086 mm ×
93 0.086 mm× 0.086 mm [27-28].

94 **2.2.3 Evaluation using mercury intrusion porosimetry (MIP)**

95 By 28-day curing, one of the specimens with different water-to-cement ratios was taken out to prepare samples for
96 MIP testing. To be specified, a hammer was used to slightly rap the specimen and take one small 10-mm pieces
97 (average diameter) with nearly perfect surface for MIP testing.

98 **3. Results and Discussions**

99 **3.1 Effect of chloride ions on carbonation of cement paste**

100 **3.1.1 Measured carbonation depth using phenolphthalein**

101 Table 1 summaries the carbonation depths of cement cylinder specimens with different water to cement ratios and
102 different chloride ions at different carbonation ages. It is clear that carbonation depth of cement cylinder increases
103 with an increase of carbonation age and an increase of water-to-cement ratio, respectively. For example, for the
104 same amount of 1.0% chloride ions, the carbonation depth of the cement cylinder with a water to cement ratio of
105 0.3 after 7 days carbonation is 1.90mm, which is much smaller than that of 10.8 mm of the cylinder with water to
106 cement ratio of 0.5 after 28 days carbonation. This is attributed to the fact that a large water to cement ratio
107 increases porosity of cement paste, which prompts the diffusion of carbon dioxide and therefore increases the
108 carbonation depth. The longer the carbonation time, the further the carbon dioxide can move into the cement
109 cylinder and hence increase its carbonation depth. In particular, the results in Table 1 show that an increase of
110 chloride-ions contents in cement paste decreases the corresponding carbonation depth significantly. For the same

111 water to cement ratio of 0.4 and the same carbonation period of 14 days, the carbonation depth of cement cylinder
112 with 0.3% chloride ions is 7.0mm, which is reduced to 5.9 mm for the cement cylinder with 1.0% chloride ions.

113 **3.1.2 Carbonation results by X-CT testing**

114 The carbonation depths measured using the above phenolphthalein is valuable. However, they are only for the
115 individual destructed section of a cement cylinder, and cannot easily be used to show the overall profile of
116 carbonation of the nondestructive cylinder. In order to more visually observe the carbonation process of specimen,
117 a three-dimensional reconstruction of the tested cylinder and the gray value gradation of each section were
118 obtained by X-CT analytical technique.

119 Fig.2 and Fig.3 show the three-dimensional reconstruction images and the gray value gradation of the cement
120 cylinders with the chloride ions of 0.3%, 0.6% and 1.0%, the carbonation ages of 0, 7 and 21 days and the water to
121 cement ratios of 0.3 and 0.5, respectively.

122 It is obvious that either an increase of carbonation ages from 0 to 21 days or a decrease of chloride ions from 1.0%
123 to 0.3% does decrease the diameter and volume of the remaining un-carbonated cement paste, and therefore
124 increases the carbonation depth of cement cylinder. In addition, a comparison of the images between Fig. 2 and
125 Fig. 3 indicates that an increase of water to cement ratio from 0.3 to 0.5 also decreases the diameter and volume of
126 the remaining un-carbonated cement paste, and therefore decreases the carbonation depth of cement cylinder.
127 These observations from X-CT results are clearly consistent with the previous discussions based on the
128 phenolphthalein results in Table 1.

129 In particular, both Fig 2 and Fig 3 show that the diameters and volumes of the remaining un-carbonated cement
130 paste of lower part of each cylinder specimen is greater than those of upper part of the cylinder. In other words, for
131 the same cement cylinder under the same carbonation regime, the carbonation depth of its upper cement paste is
132 larger than those of its lower part, which is attributed to the fact that, during the manufacturing of cylinder

133 specimen, the compaction of liquid cement drove the spare water upwards and therefore the water-to-cement ratio
134 of the upper cement is a little bit higher than that of lower cement of the same cement cylinder due to gravity
135 stratification. It is clear that the late observation cannot be easily made using the phenolphthalein method.

136 In addition to the above qualitative observation, the X-CT techniques also creates the quantitative results in the
137 term of gray values, as shown in Fig 4 and Fig 5 for the specimen with water to cement ratio of 0.5, the chloride
138 ions of 0.3% and 1.0%, and the carbonation ages of 0, 7 and 21 days, respectively. Here, the gray values represent
139 absorption rates and attenuation coefficients at the corresponding object position. The gray values are proportional
140 to the X-ray attenuation coefficient that is strongly correlated with the density of the specimens.

141 Fig.4 shows that, before carbonation with 0 day of carbonation age, the gray value is about 380 at its peak amount
142 of volume elements, which decreases to about 350 for the carbonated cement cylinders. In addition, the amounts
143 of peak volume elements of the cement cylinders with 0.3% chloride ions decrease steadily from 1100 to 600 as
144 carbonation age increases from 0 to 21 days. For the non-carbonated cement cylinders, an increase of chloride
145 ions from 0.3% to 1.0% decreases the amounts of peak volume elements from 1100 to 900. However, for the
146 carbonated cement cylinder, the effect of chloride ions on the amount of peak volume elements become less
147 significant with the similar values of about 900 for 7 days carbonation. This indicates that as carbonation progresses,
148 the density of carbonated products increases and the amounts of peak volume elements corresponding gray values
149 of carbonated products becomes less than those of the non-carbonated parts.

150 Fig.5 shows a two dimensional (2D) plan view (left), side view (right side) and gray value distribution of a cement
151 cylinder with 0.5 water to cement ratio, 0.3% chloride ion and 0, 7 and 21 days carbonation ages. According to the
152 brightness of the 2D slice, light area is the carbonated cement and dark area is the non-carbonated ones. It is clear
153 that the carbonation front is gradual segment. The gray value at the point P was dipped in Fig.5, whose
154 corresponding scanning line position referred to pore in the hardened paste. It can be seen that before carbonation

155 the gray values varies along the diameter of 36mm of cement cylinder varies gently. However, after the 7 and 21
156 days of carbonation, the gray value changes sharply, especially near the boundaries between the carbonated and
157 non-carbonated zones of cement cylinder. The dotted line in scanning gray value curve represented the
158 corresponding carbonation front.

159 **3.2 Effects of chloride ions on porous characteristics of non-carbonated cement**

160 By means of mercury intrusion porosimetry (MIP) techniques, the effect of chloride ions on the porous size
161 distribution and accumulated porosity of the non-carbonated cement paste with water to cement ratios of 0.3 and
162 0.5 are shown in Fig. 6 and 7, respectively, and summarized in Table 2. Before the discussion of the MIP results,
163 however, It should be pointed out here that much smaller pores need much higher mercury intrusion force, and
164 thus the corresponding pores with diameter equal or less 5 nm could not be detected precisely^[29].

165 Fig. 6 (a) and Fig. 7(a) show that the cumulative pore volumes of all the cement pastes decrease sharply as their
166 porous diameter increases. In other words, the diameter of the most pores in a cement paste is less than 10 nm.
167 Furthermore, the cumulative pores volumes of all the cement paste with 1.0% chloride ions is always less than
168 those of the cement paste without chloride ions. A comparison of Fig. 6(a) and Fig. 7(a) also shows that the
169 cumulative pore volumes of all the cement pastes with 0.5 water to cement ratio is always greater than those of the
170 cement pastes with 0.3 water to cement ratio. Hence, either an increase of chloride ions or a reduction of water to
171 cement ratio decreases the cumulative pore volumes of a cement paste.

172 It was seen from Fig.6 (b) that the most probable pore of specimen without chloride ion is 95.34 nm, and that of
173 specimen with 1% chloride ion is 77.07 nm. It could also be seen from Fig.7(b) that the probable pore size of
174 specimens without chloride ion is 678.47 nm while that of ones with 1% chloride is only 21.09 nm. Hence
175 chloride ions refine the porous structures of hardened paste.

176 The above observation is well supported by the measured data summarized in the table 2. For the same water to

177 cement ratio of 0.3, the total intrusion volume and median pore diameter of the cement paste with 1.0 chloride ions
178 are 0.09 (ml/g) and 77.10(nm), which are much smaller than those of 0.14 (ml/g) and 124.81 (nm) of the cement
179 paste without chloride ions. In other words, an increase of chloride ion does refine the pores of a cement paste.

180 However, Table 2 also shows that an increase of chloride ions increases the total pore area of both cement paste
181 with the water to cement ratios of 0.3 to 0.5 from 6.75 to 10.59 m²/g and from 12.85 to 20.37 m²/g, respectively.
182 Hence, an increase of chloride ions in a cement paste does refine its porous characteristic, mitigate its carbonation
183 rate and eventually improve durability of a concrete structure.

184 In order to better exhibit the effect of chloride ion on porous refinement of a cement stone, the three dimensional
185 reconstructed images of the porous structures of two cement pastes, one without chloride and another with 1.0%
186 chloride ion were developed using VG Studio Max 2.1 software and 3D defects analyzing module, as shown in
187 Fig.8.

188 In Fig.8, the change of the color from blue to red indicates a gradual increase of the pore volume and tiny cracks.
189 It was seen in Fig.8 that chloride ion indeed refines the early porous structures of cement paste and lowers its
190 porosity, which is consistent with what has been observed from Fig. 6, Fig 7 and Table 2.

191 **4. Conclusions**

192 (1) Carbonation rate of a cement paste increases with its carbonation ages and its water to cement ratio, but
193 decreases with its chloride ions content.

194 (2) Chloride ion of a cement paste refines its porous structures, decreases its porosity and eventually mitigates
195 its carbonation rate.

196 (3) The X-CT technology can be used to display the progressed carbonation front and the corresponding
197 microstructure evolution of cement paste with its measured data agreed well with those using conventional
198 phenolphthalein method.

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268 **Captions of Tables**

269 **Table 1** Measured carbonation depth (mm) of specimen using Phenolphthalein

270 **Table 2** Parameters of porous structure of cement paste measured by MIP

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Table 1 Measured carbonation depth (mm) of specimen using Phenolphthalein

W/C	Chloride ion /%	Carbonation ages			
		7 (days)	14 (days)	21 (days)	28 (days)
0.3	0	3.4	6.0	6.6	7.1
	0.3	3.1	4.9	6.0	6.4
	0.6	2.2	4.8	5.1	5.7
	1.0	1.9	3.0	4.2	4.8
0.4	0	7.2	9.6	10.3	10.6
	0.3	4.8	7.0	9.1	9.4
	0.6	4.2	6.8	8.0	8.6
	1.0	4.1	5.9	6.9	7.8
0.5	0	9.4	12.5	16.1	17.1
	0.3	8.9	10.8	13.8	14.5
	0.6	6.8	8.8	10.3	11.7
	1.0	6.0	7.3	9.1	10.8

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Table 2 Parameters of porous structure of cement paste measured by MIP

W/C	Chloride ion (%)	Total intrusion volume (ml/g)	Total pore area (m ² /g)	Median pore diameter (Volume)/nm	Porosity (%)
0.3	0	<u>0.14</u>	<u>6.75</u>	124.81	24.23
	1	<u>0.09</u>	<u>10.59</u>	77.10	17.69
0.5	0	<u>0.21</u>	<u>12.85</u>	179.72	32.03
	1	<u>0.17</u>	<u>20.37</u>	55.61	26.84

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323 **Captions of Figures:**

324 Fig.1. X-CT scanner (a)Set up (b) Principle

325 Fig.2. X-CT pictures of specimen with 0.3 water-to-cement ratio at different carbonation ages

326 Fig.3. X-CT picture of specimen with 0.5 water-to-cement ratio at different carbonation ages

327 Fig.4.3D-gray-values histograms of specimen with 0.5 water-to-cement ratio at different carbonation ages

328 (note: C=Carbonation, NC=Non-carbonation) (a) [Cl⁻]=0.3% before carbonation ;(b) [Cl⁻]=0.3% 7-day

329 carbonation age; (c) [Cl⁻]=0.3% 21-day carbonation age; (d) [Cl⁻]=1% before carbonation; (e) [Cl⁻]=1%

330 7-day carbonation age; (f) [Cl⁻]=1% 21-day carbonation age

331 Fig.5. Top view (left) and side view (right) images and line gray values distribution at different carbonation

332 ages (note :P=Pore; X=X-ray beam hardening; C=Carbonation; NC=Non-carbonation) (a) 0 day

333 carbonation; (b) 7-day carbonation age; (c) 21-day carbonation age

334 (Note: NC-No Carbonation; C-Carbonation; X-X-ray beam hardening; P-Pore)

335 Fig.6. Porous structures of specimen with 0.3 water-to-cement ratio (a) Cumulative pore volumes; (b) Pore

336 size distribution

337 Fig.7. Porous structures of specimens with 0.5 water-to-cement ratio (a) Cumulative pore volumes; (b) Pore

338 size distribution

339 Fig.8. Porous structures of cement paste with water cement ratio of 0.5 by X-CT

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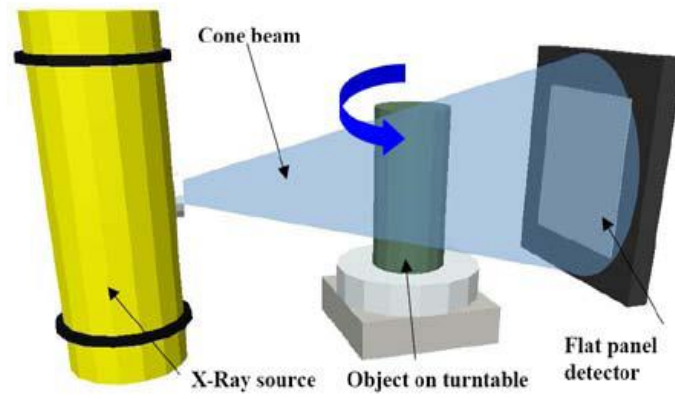
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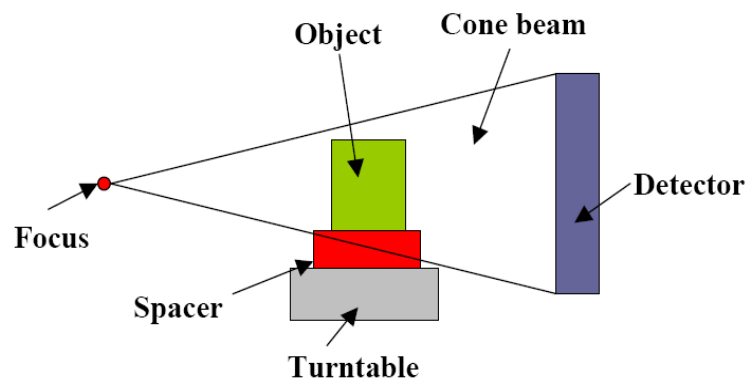
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(a) Set up

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(b) Principle

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Fig.1 X-CT measurement with flat panel detector ^[27]

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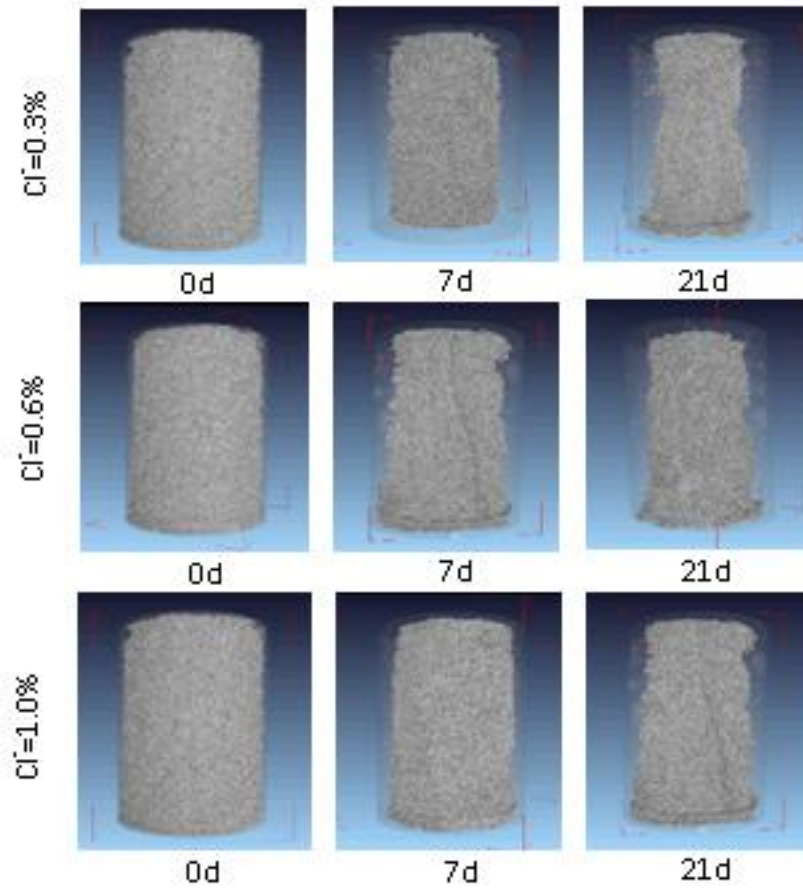
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Fig.2. X-CT images of the cement cylinder with water to cement ratio of 0.3 at different carbonation ages

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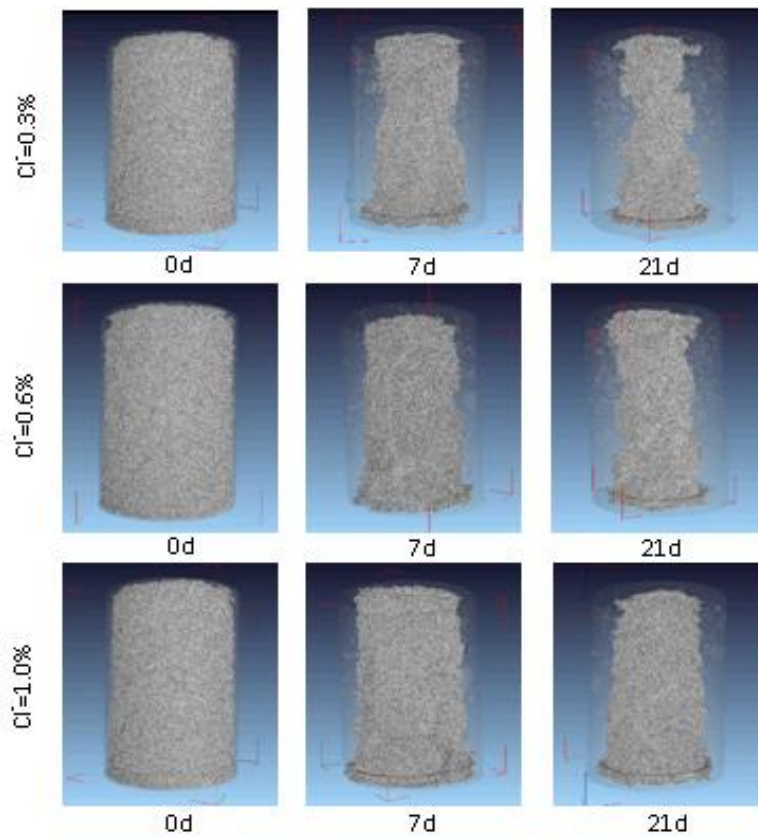


Fig. 3

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Fig. 3. X-CT images of the cement cylinder with water to cement ratio of 0.5 at different carbonation ages

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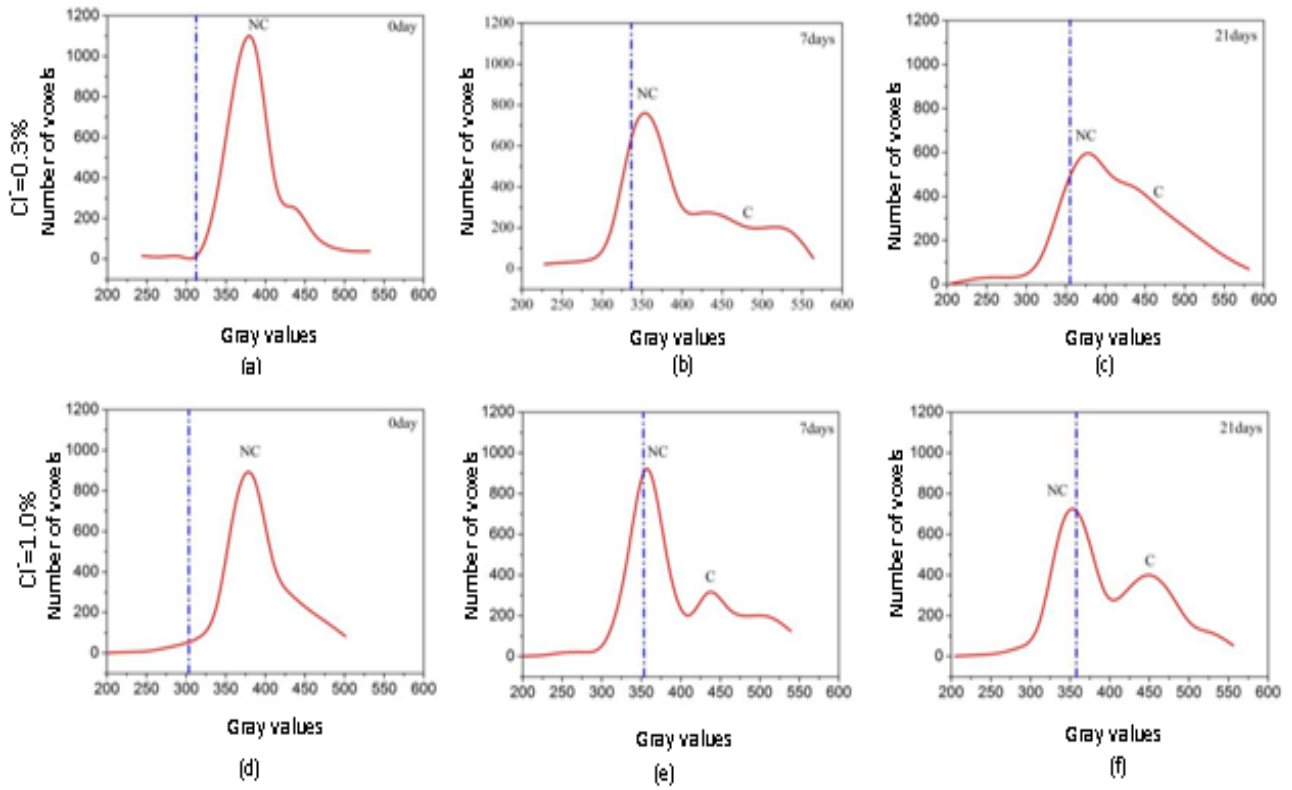
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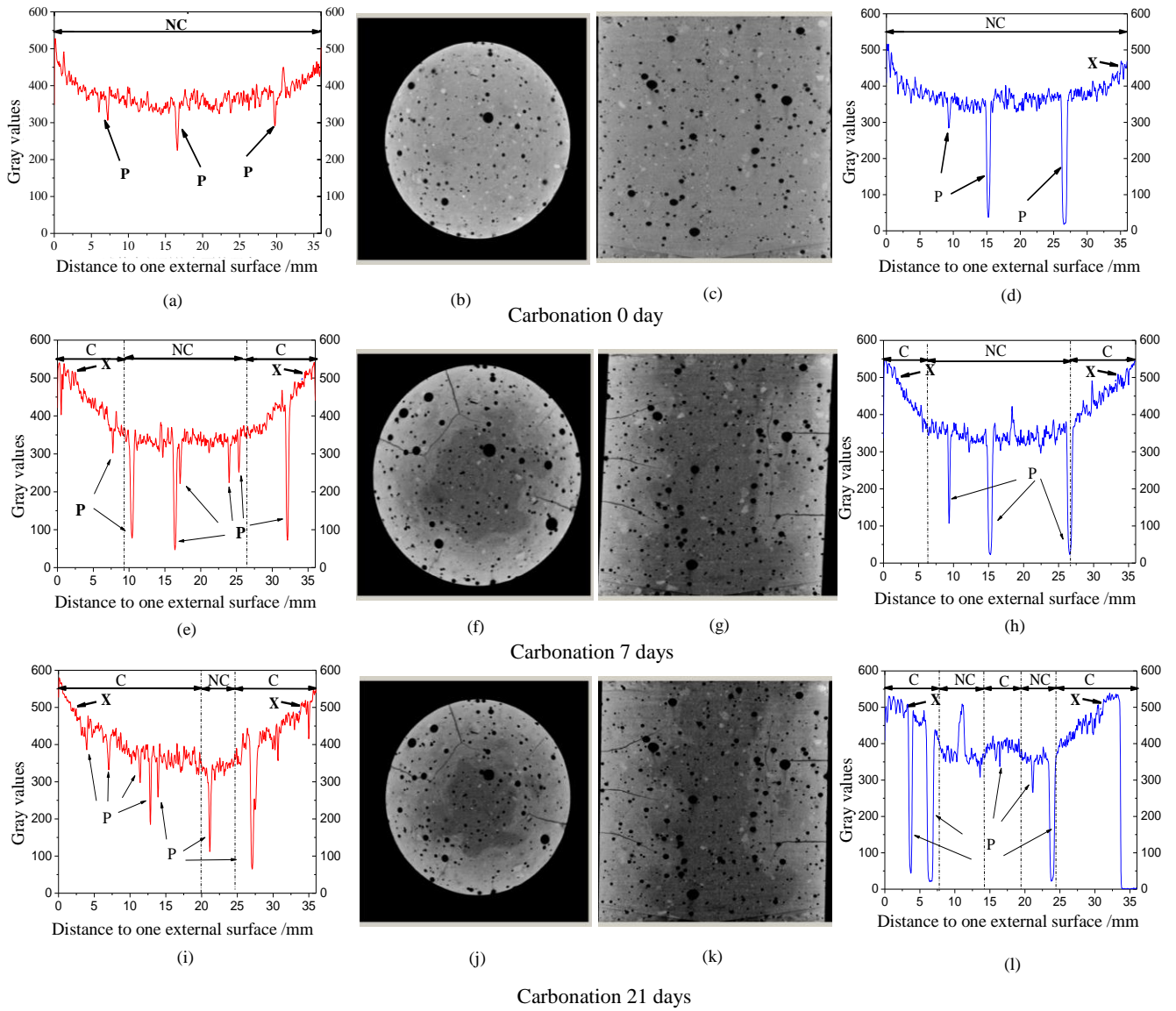
Fig.4. 3D gray values histograms with different carbonation ages (note: C=Carbonation, NC=Non-carbonation)

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413 Fig.5 Top view (left) and side view (right) images and line gray values distribution of different carbonation ages (note :P=Pore;

414 X=X-ray beam hardening; C=Carbonation; NC=Non-carbonation)

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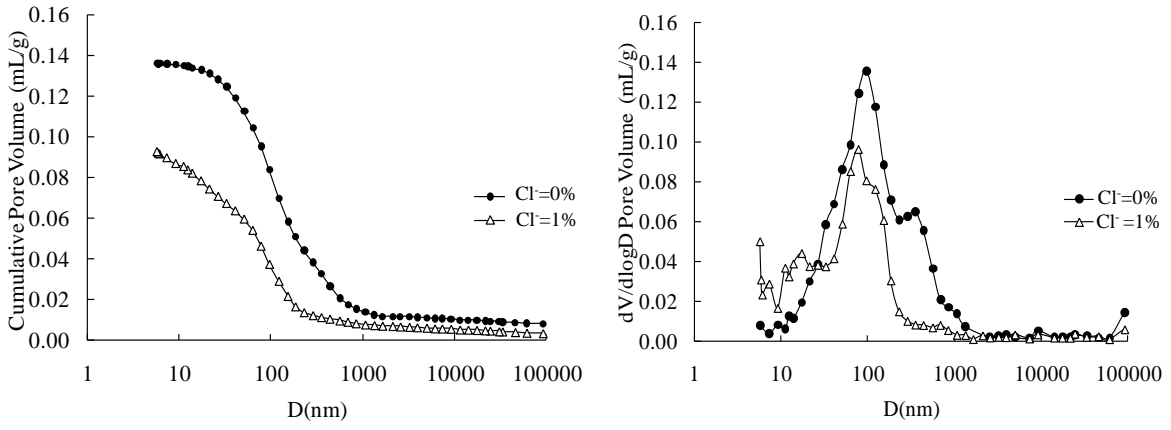
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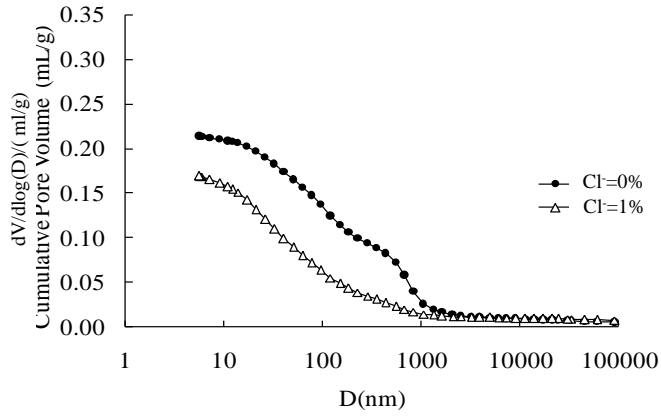
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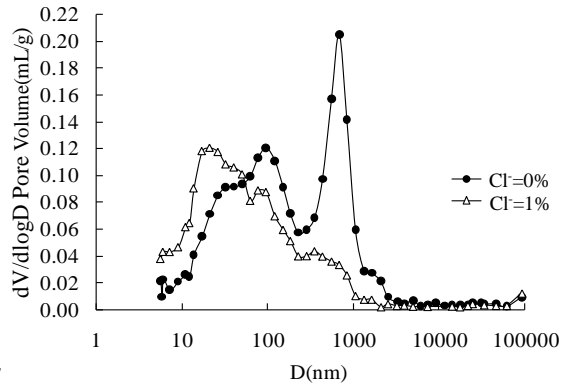
(a) Accumulating porosity (b) Pore distribution
Fig.6 Porous structures of specimen with 0.3 water-to-cement ratio



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Fig.7

(a) Accumulating porosity

(b) Pore distribution

Fig.7. Porous structures of specimens with 0.5 water-to-cement ratio

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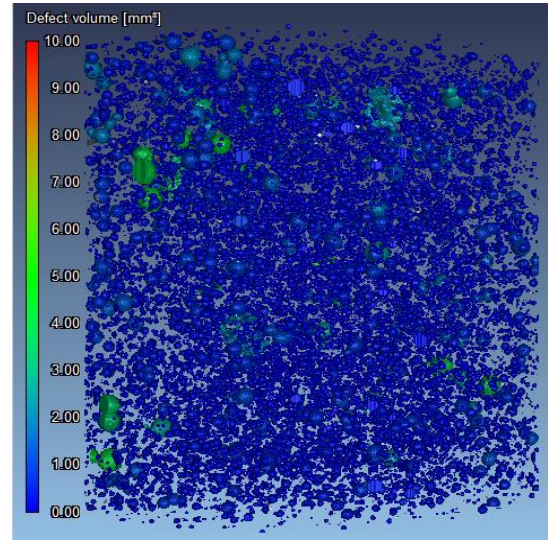
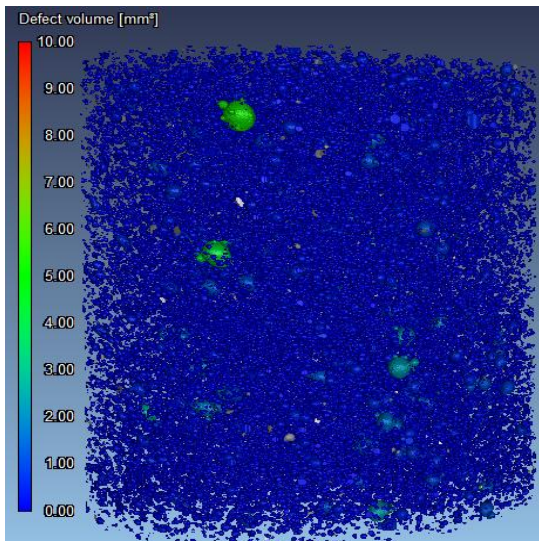


Fig.8 Porous structures of cement paste with water cement ratio of 0.5 by X-CT

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