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Internal Curing of High Performance Concrete Bridge Decks and its Effects on Performance, Service Life and Life-Cycle Cost

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National Research
Council Canada

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Introduction

→ Presentation overview

1. High Performance Concrete Bridge Decks – Issues and Solutions
2. Effect of Internal Curing on Concrete Performance
3. Case Study – Highway Bridge Deck
4. Service Life Modelling
5. Life Cycle Cost Modelling
6. Environmental Impact



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– Part 1 –

HPC Bridge Decks

(Issues and Solutions)



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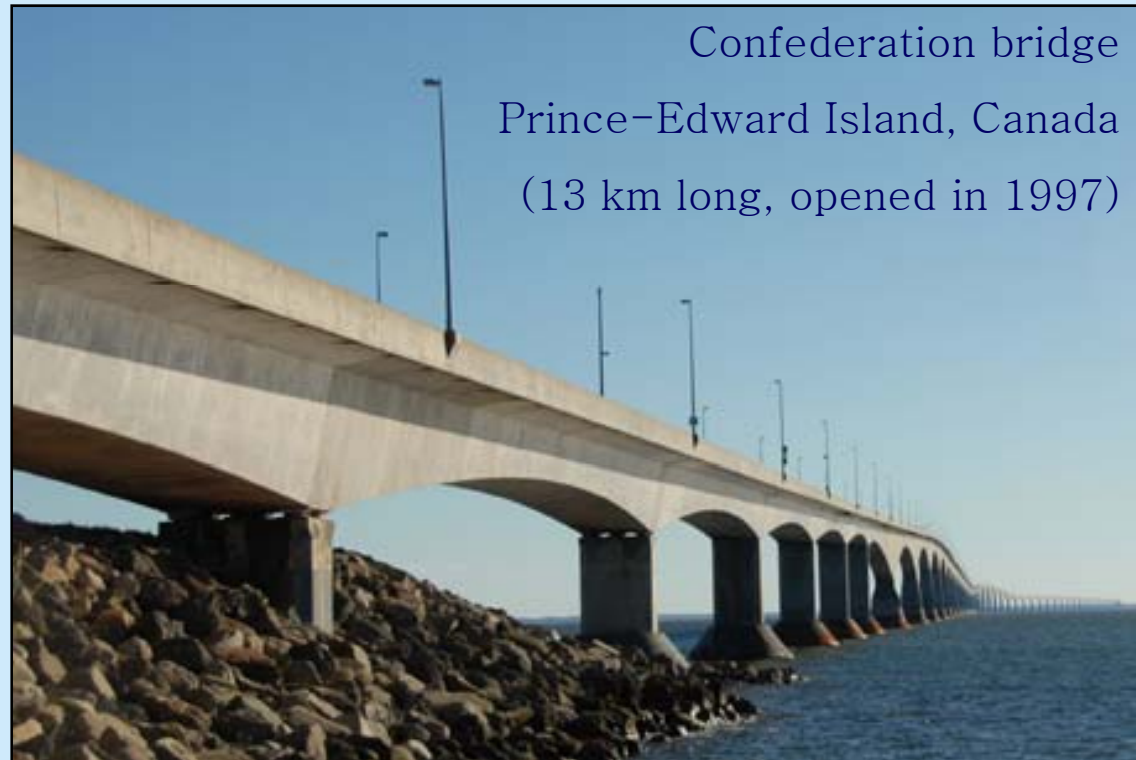
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HPC bridge decks

→ Benefits and challenges

- According to the US Federal Highway Administration, most DOTs use HPC for highway bridges, to benefit from:
 - high strength, low permeability, long spans, thin sections ...
- FHA reports that the main causes of deterioration in bridge decks are:
 1. Shrinkage cracking (>100,000 bridges in USA)
 2. Rebar corrosion
- Cost to upgrade all concrete bridges:
 - \$ 80-100 billion (USA)
 - \$ 8-10 billion (Canada)



Confederation bridge
Prince-Edward Island, Canada
(13 km long, opened in 1997)

HPC bridge decks

→ Reinforcement corrosion

- Corrosion cracking due to de-icing salt contamination is a common problem in concrete bridges and parking structures.
- Solutions investigated at NRC:
 - Low-permeability concrete
 - Corrosion inhibitors
 - High-performance steels



Vachon Bridge, Laval, Canada, 1996
(before rehabilitation, after 22 years of service)

Laurier-Taché Parking Garage, Hull, Canada, 2004
(before rehabilitation, after 29 years of service)

HPC bridge decks

→ Restrained shrinkage

- Shrinkage cracking due to restraint of movement is also a common problem in concrete bridges and parking structures.
- Solutions investigated at NRC:
 - Internal curing with LWA
 - Shrinkage-reducing admixtures
 - Supplementary cementing materials



Vachon bridge, Laval, Canada, 1996
(a few days after rehabilitation)

Laurier-Taché Parking Garage, Hull, Canada, 2004
(a few weeks after rehabilitation)

HPC bridge decks → Underlying causes

1) Chemical shrinkage

- Volume of hydrated cement < Volume of water + cement
- Occurs in cement-based concrete (typical value for OPC = 7% by vol.)

2) Self-desiccation

- Internal drying due to lack of water to hydrate all cement particles
- Occurs more often in high-strength concrete due to low w/c (< 0.42)

3) Drying shrinkage

- External drying when ambient RH is lower than concrete RH
- Occurs more often in normal concrete due to high permeability

4) Cooling

- Loss of heat to the environment, accumulated due to cement hydration
- Occurs more in high-strength concrete due to high cement content

5) Other causes



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– Part 2 –

Effect of Internal Curing on Concrete Performance



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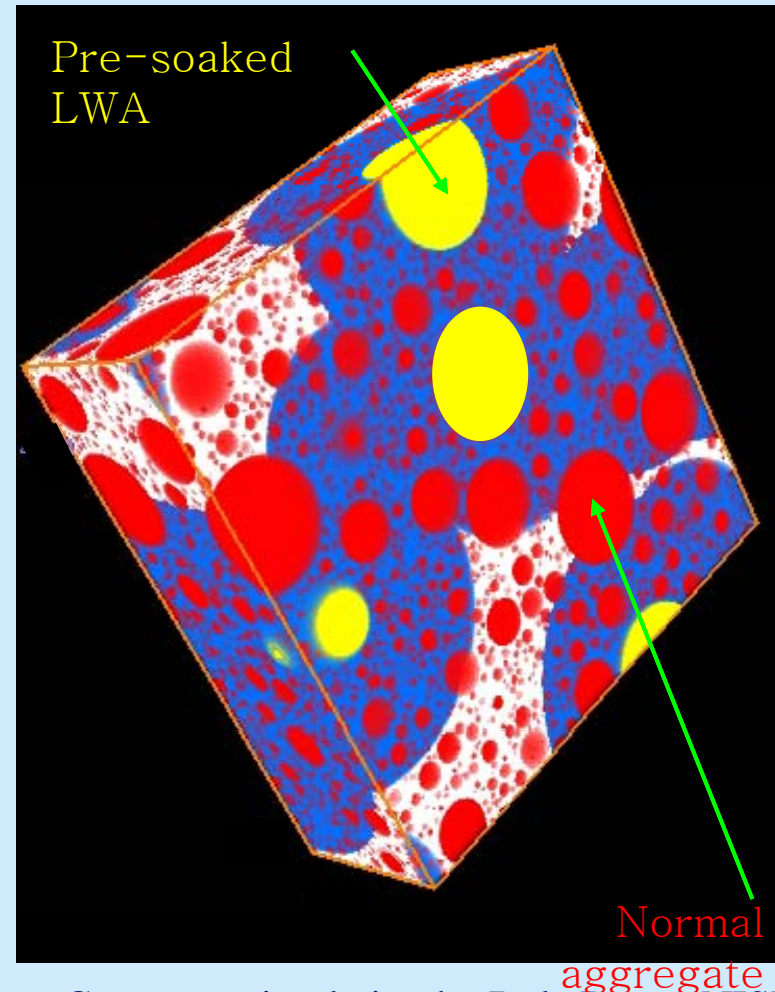
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Internal curing

→ Definition

- IC consists of providing curing water to concrete from inside, by using:
 - pre-soaked porous LWA, or
 - super-absorbent polymers, or
 - saturated wood fibers.

- IC can compensate for chemical shrinkage, reduce self-desiccation, and improve cement hydration, which may result in:
 - reduced early-age cracking,
 - higher concrete strength and stiffness,
 - reduced permeability and rebar corrosion.

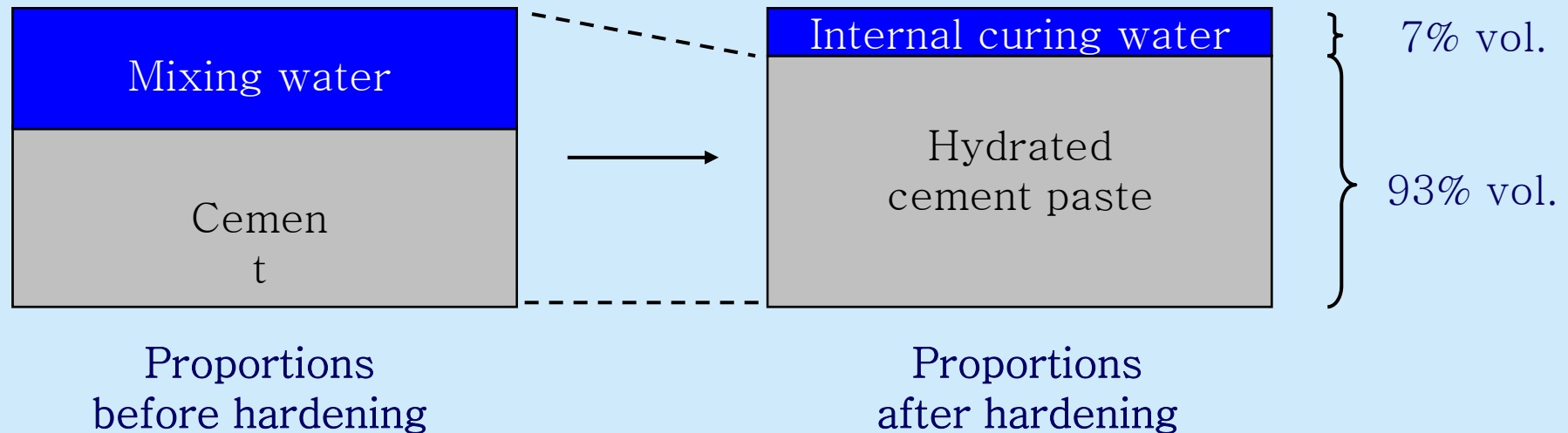


Computer simulation by Dale Bentz, NIST

Effect of internal curing → Chemical shrinkage

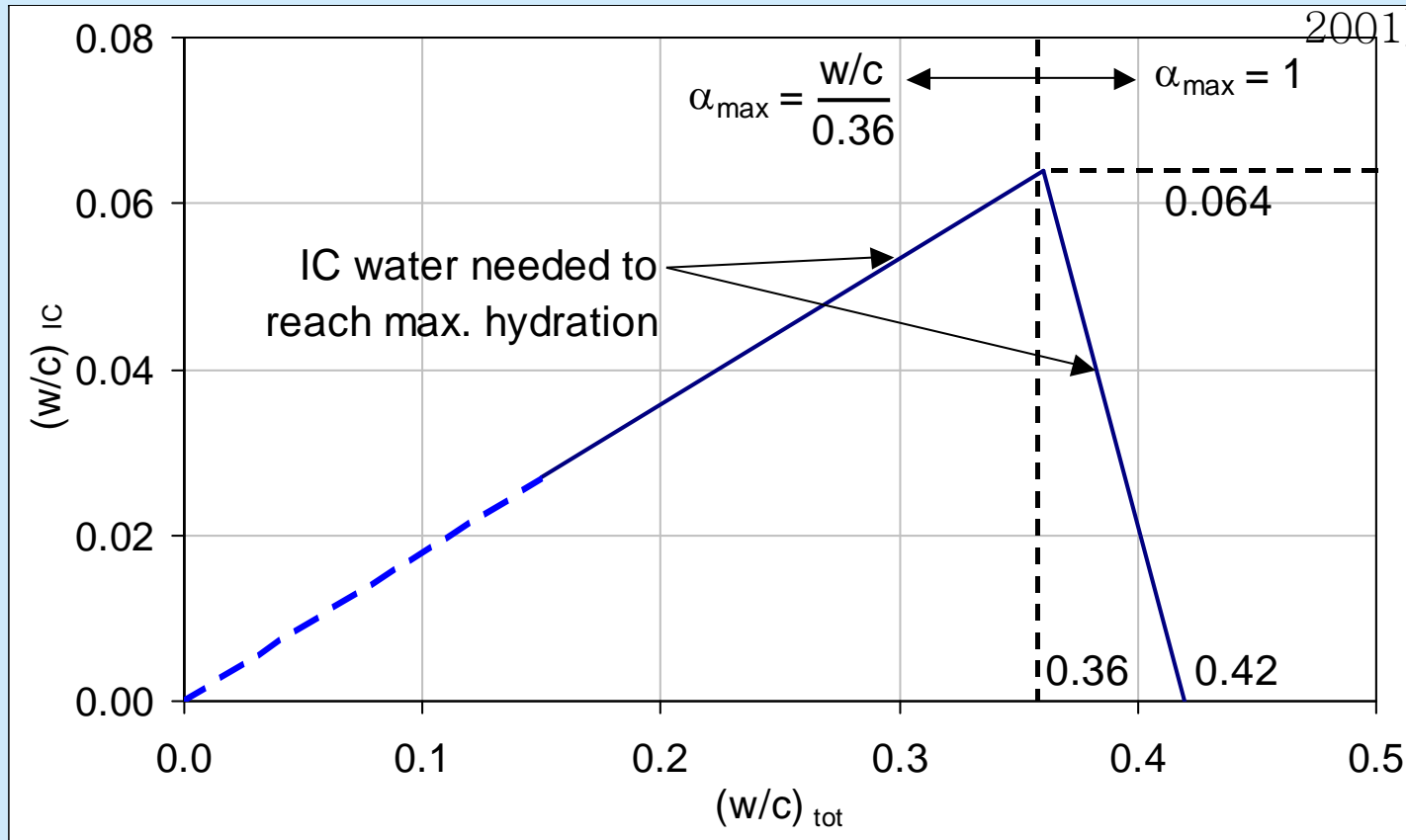
1) Chemical shrinkage

- Can be compensated by internal curing.



Effect of internal curing → Chemical shrinkage

(Jensen & Hansen
2001)



$$M_{LWA} = \frac{M_C C_S \alpha_{\max}}{S_{LWA} \phi_{LWA}}$$

M_{LWA} = dry mass of
LWA

M_C = mass of cement
 C_S = chemical

α_{\max} = hydration
degree

S_{LWA} = saturation
degree

Effect of internal curing → Desiccation & shrinkage

2) Self-desiccation

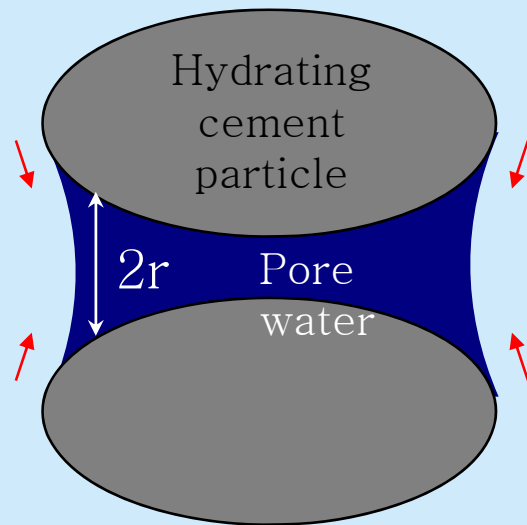
3) Drying shrinkage

Can be reduced by internal curing (higher RH),

Can also be reduced by use of SRA (lower γ).

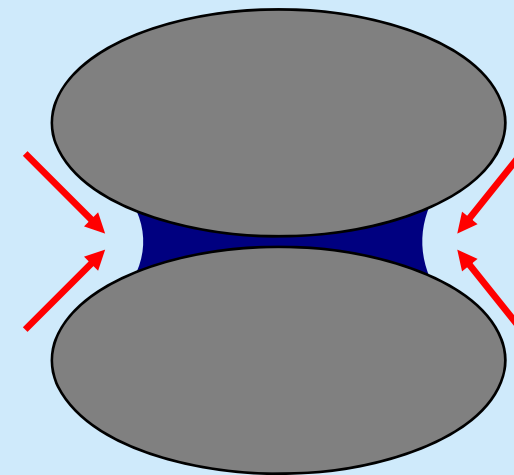
$$\sigma_{cap} = \frac{2\gamma}{r} = \frac{-\ln(RH)RT}{V_m}$$

Kelvin-Laplace equation



High RH

Surface tension forces pulling on particles (γ)



Low RH

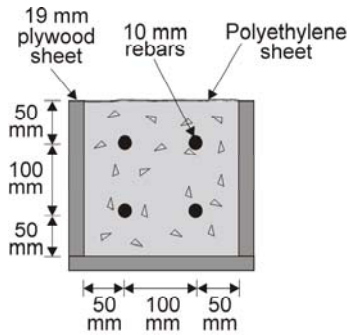
Effect of internal curing

→ Previous testing at NRC

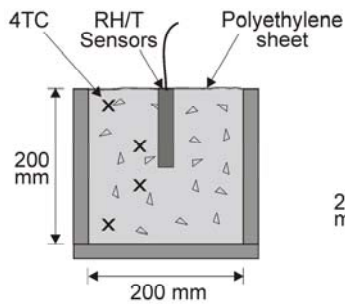
- **Control concrete** (referred to as Mix-0)
 - Cement/sand/coarse aggregate ratio: 1:2:2
 - Water/cement ratio: 0.34
 - Cement content: 445 kg/m³ (ASTM type I)
- **LWA-modified concretes**
 - Same as above, plus:
 - Normal sand partly replaced by saturated LWA (15% absorption capacity)
 - 6% sand replacement (Mix-L)
 - 12% sand replacement (Mix-M)
 - 20% sand replacement (Mix-H)

Effect of internal curing

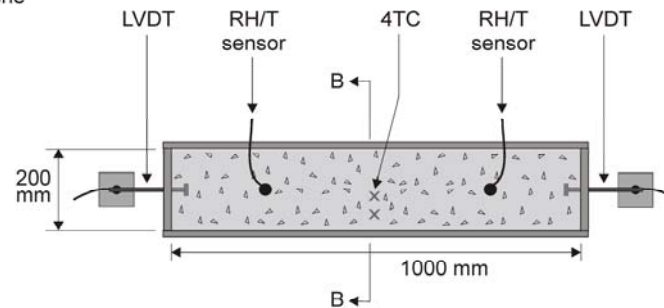
→ Restrained shrinkage testing



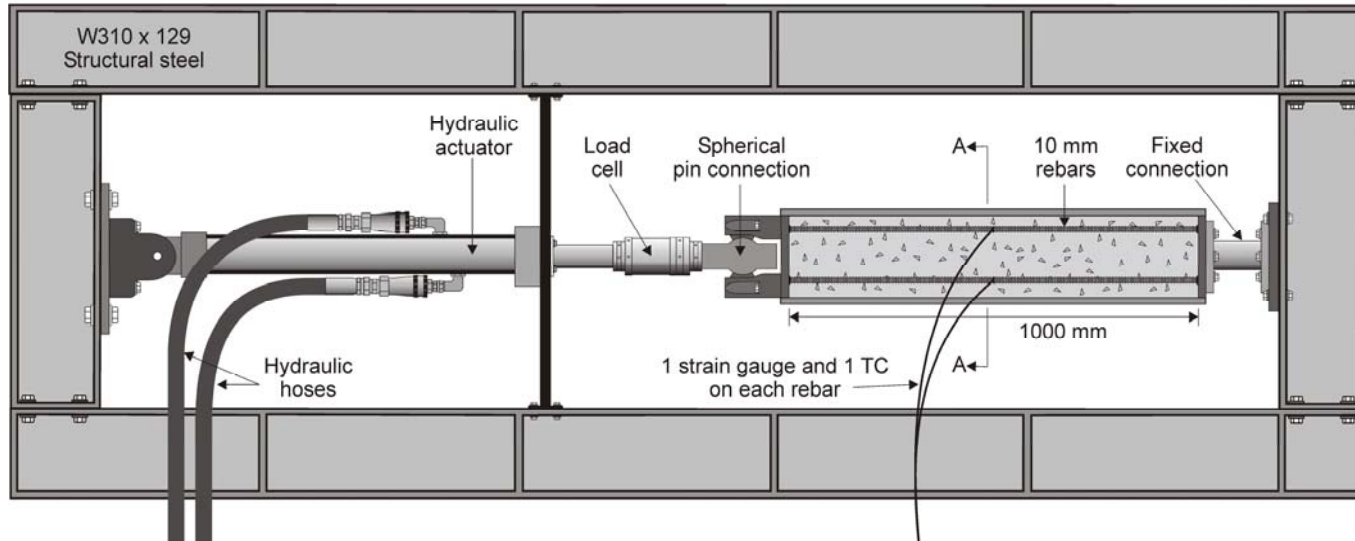
Cross-section A-A of Restrained Specimen



Cross-section B-B of Unrestrained Specimen



Plan View of Unrestrained Specimen

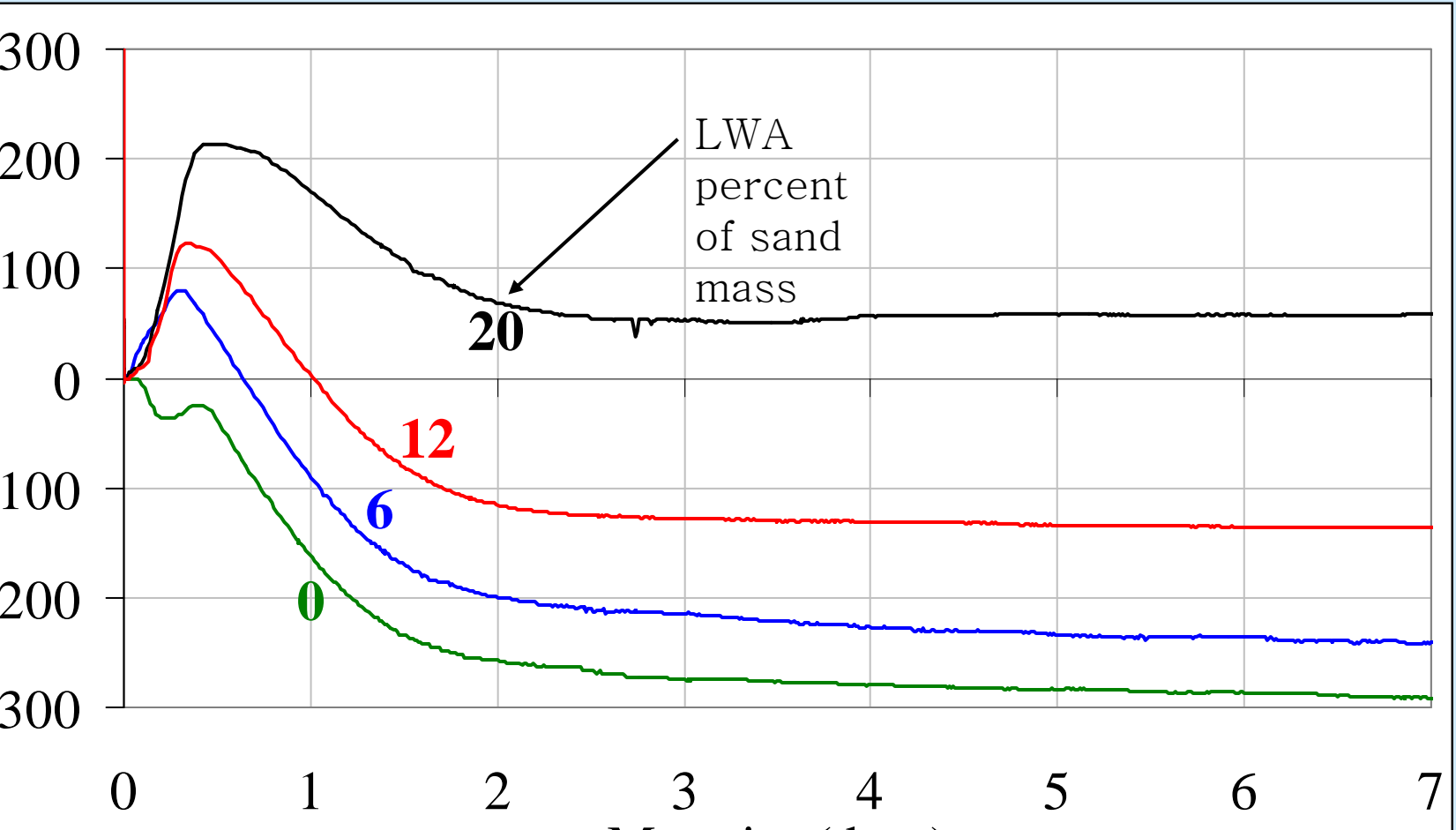


Plan View of Restrained Specimen in Test Frame



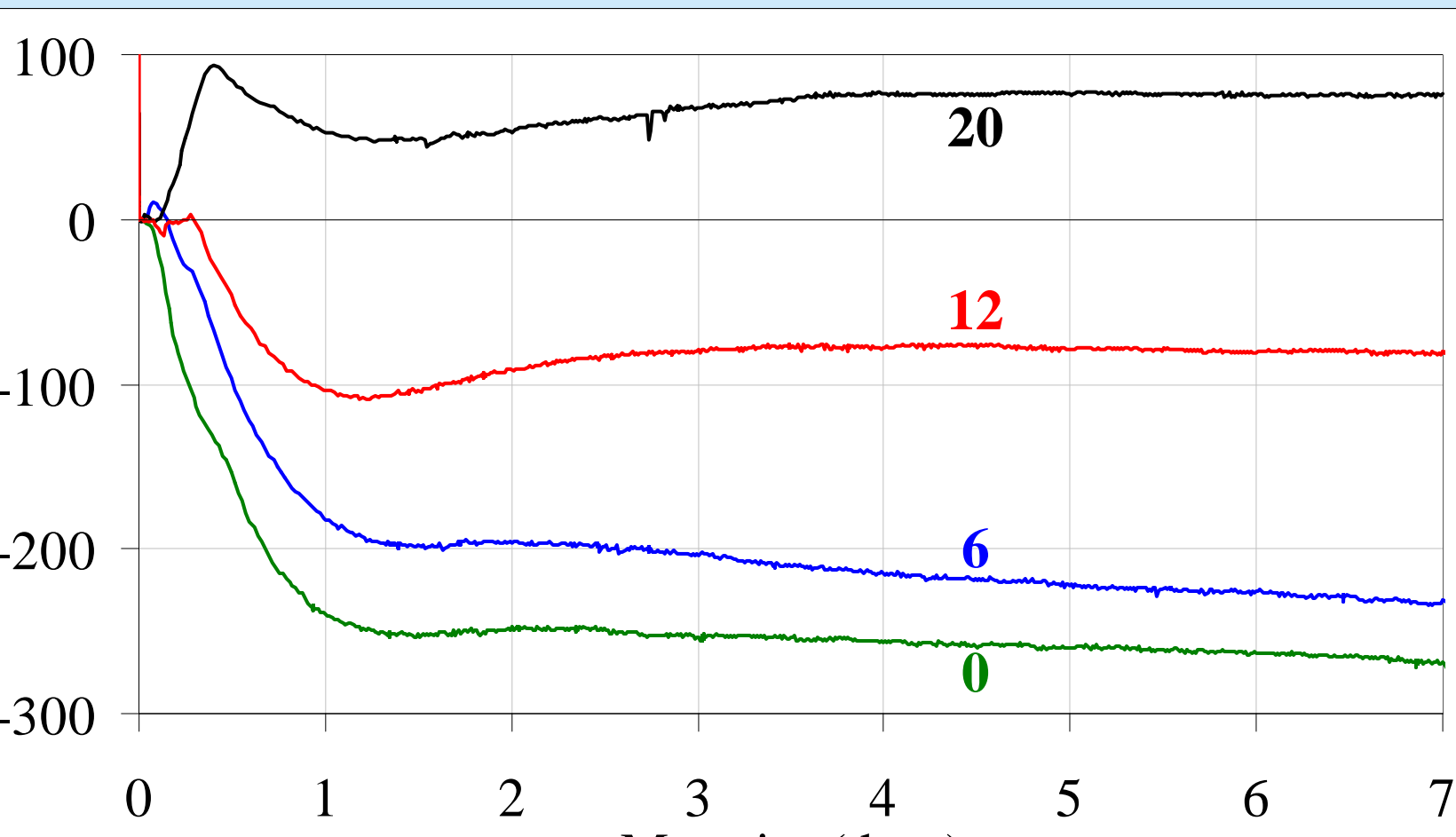
Effect of internal curing

→ Total strain





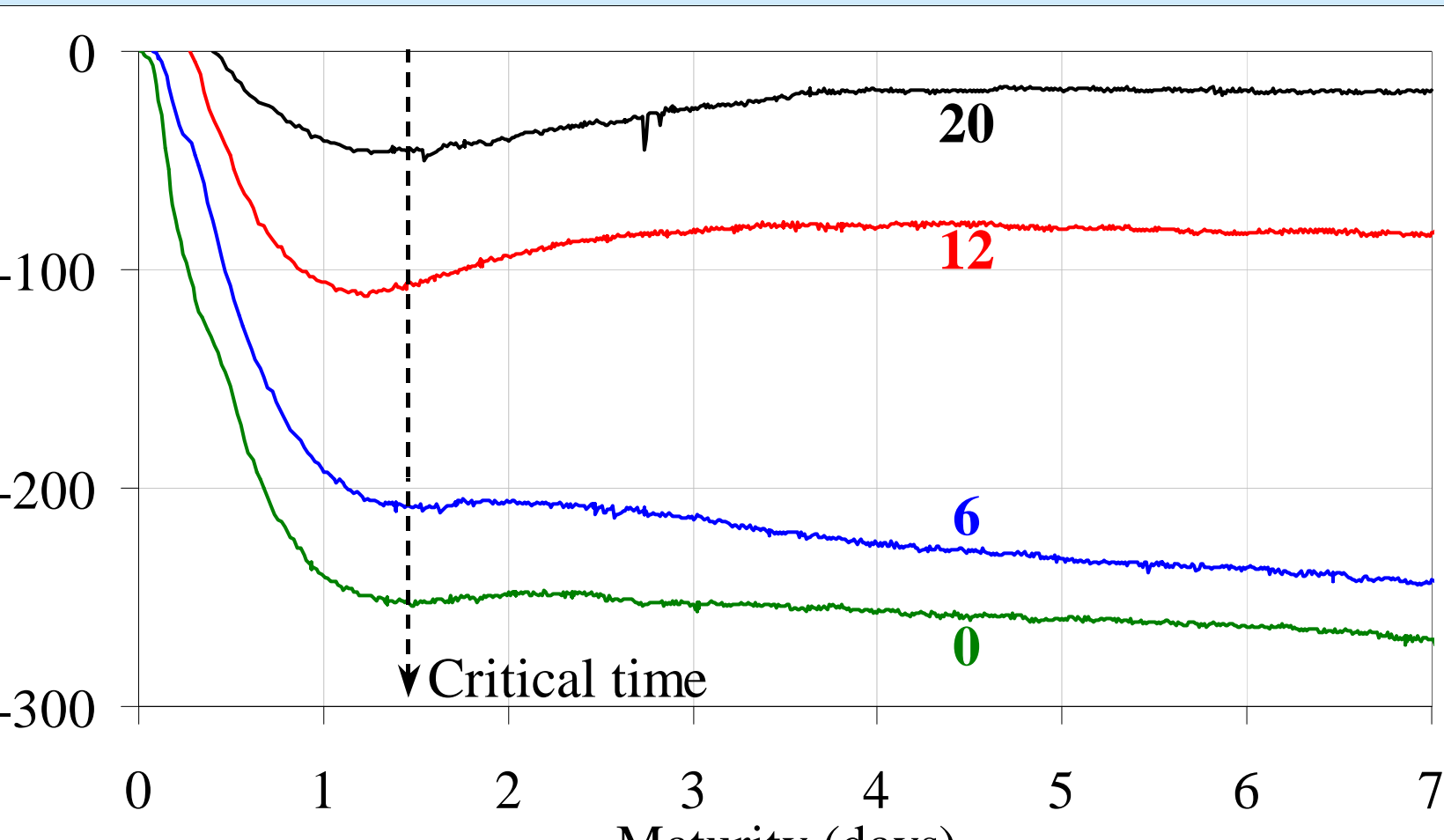
Effect of internal curing → Autogenous shrinkage strain





Effect of internal curing

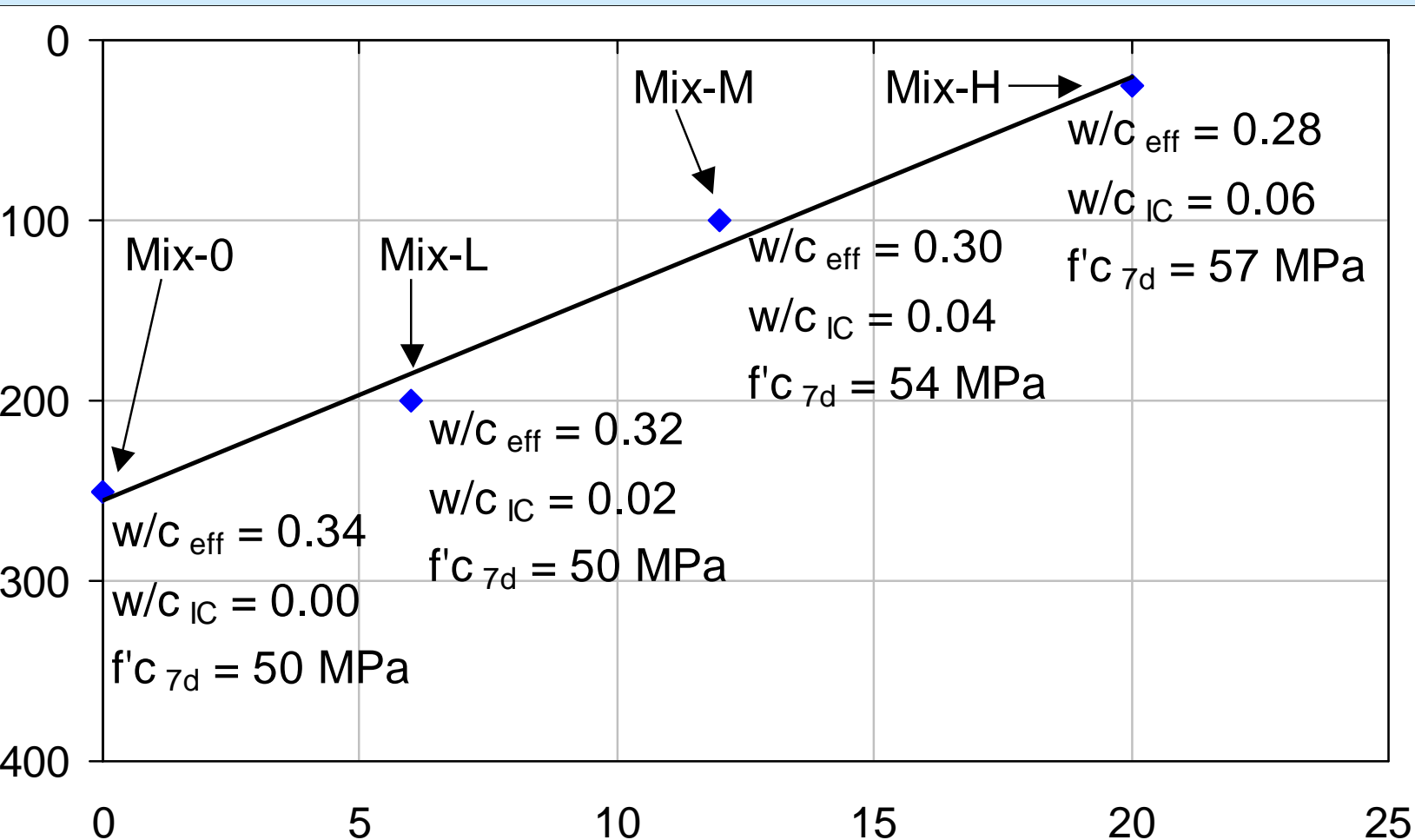
→ Net shrinkage strain





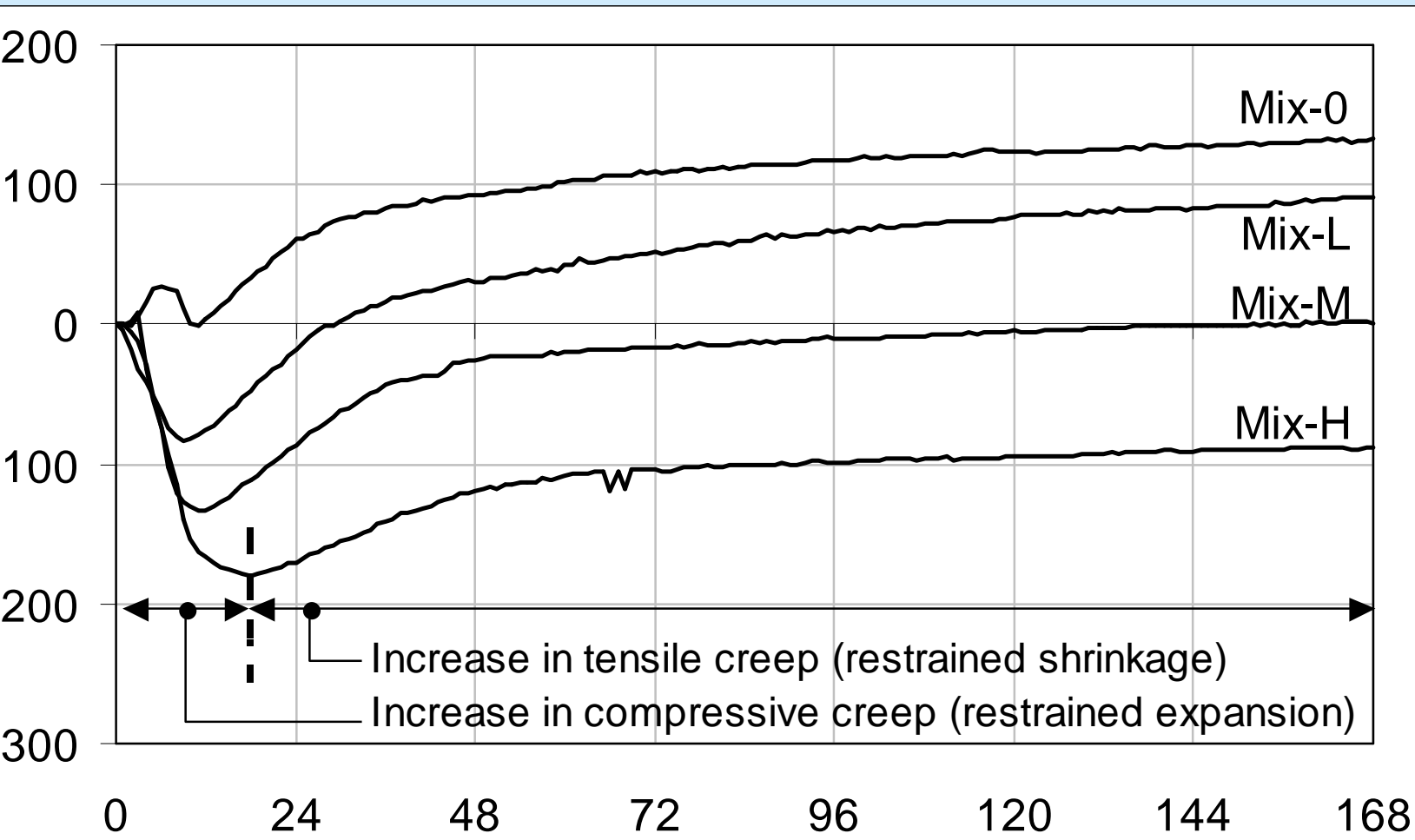
Effect of internal curing

→ Requirement to avoid shrinkage



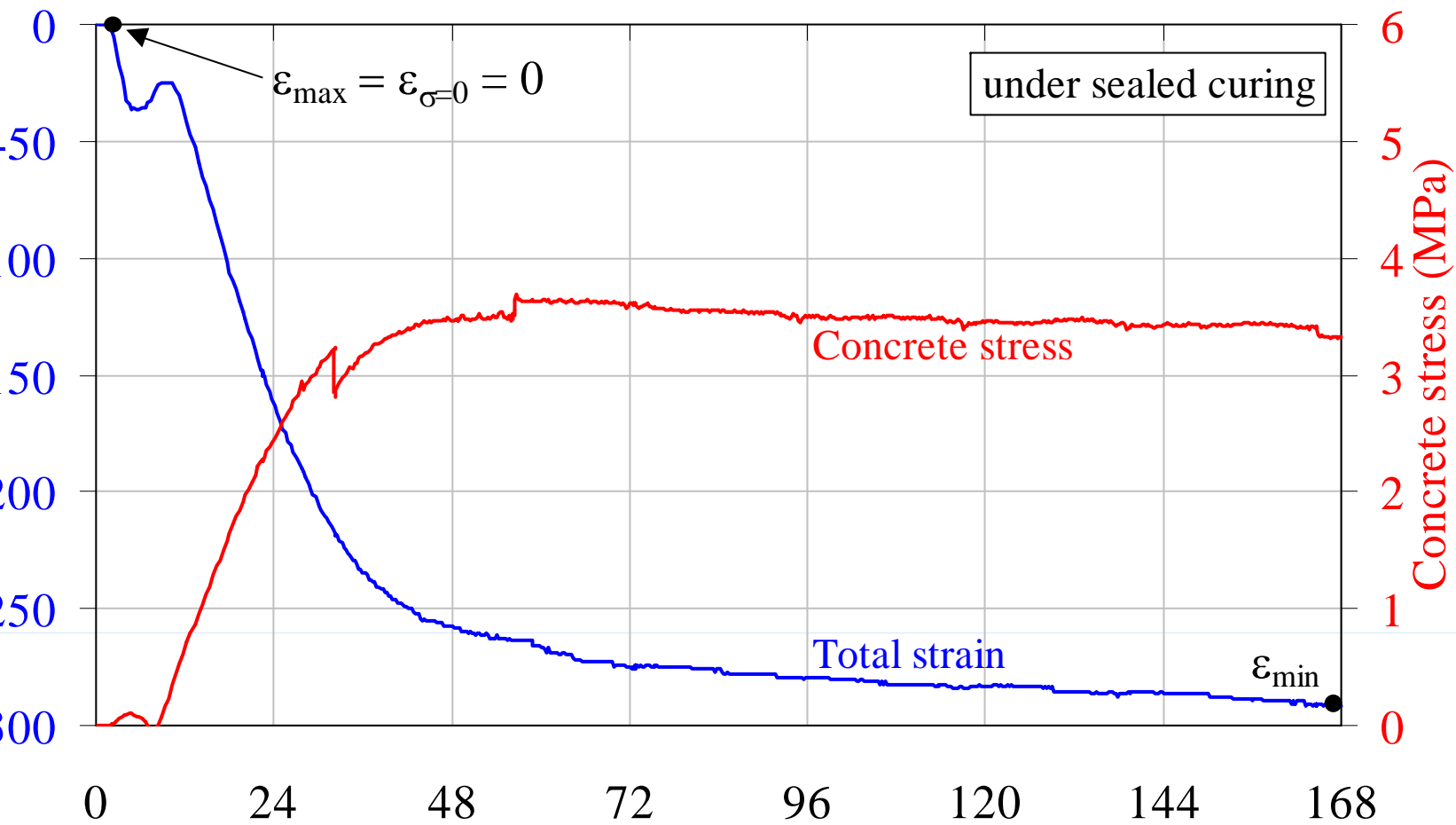


Effect of internal curing → Basic creep strain



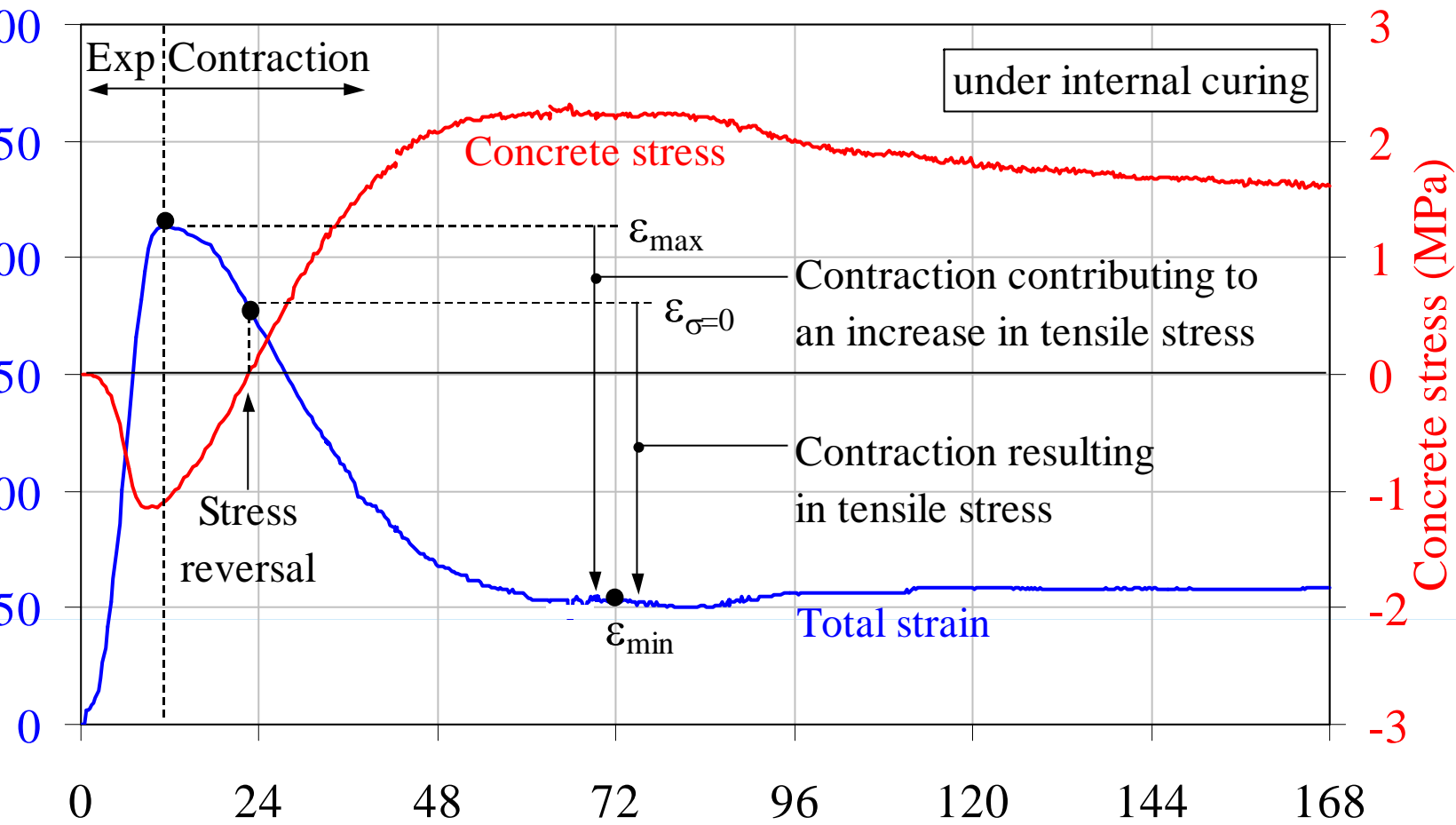


Effect of internal curing → Tensile stress



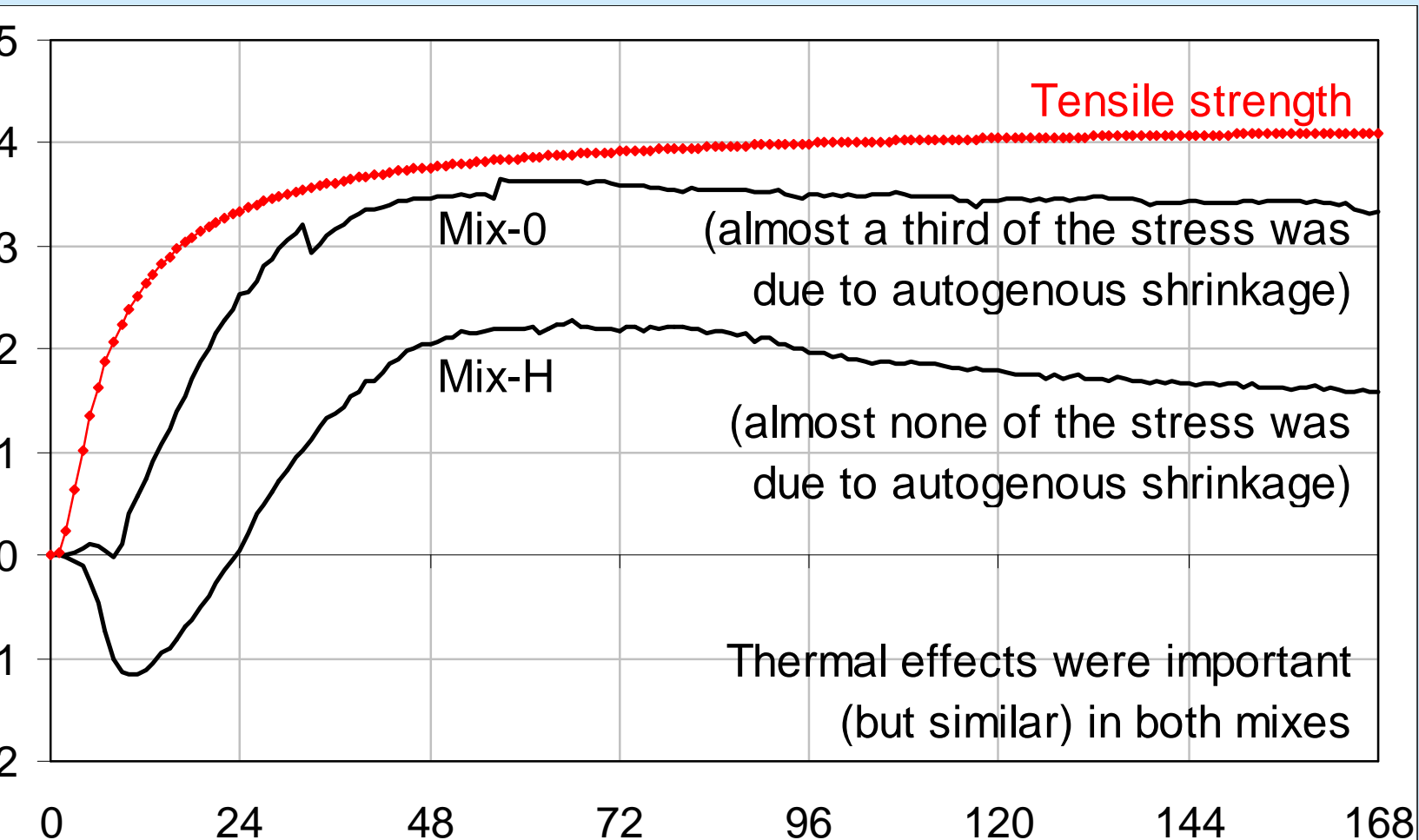


Effect of internal curing → Tensile stress



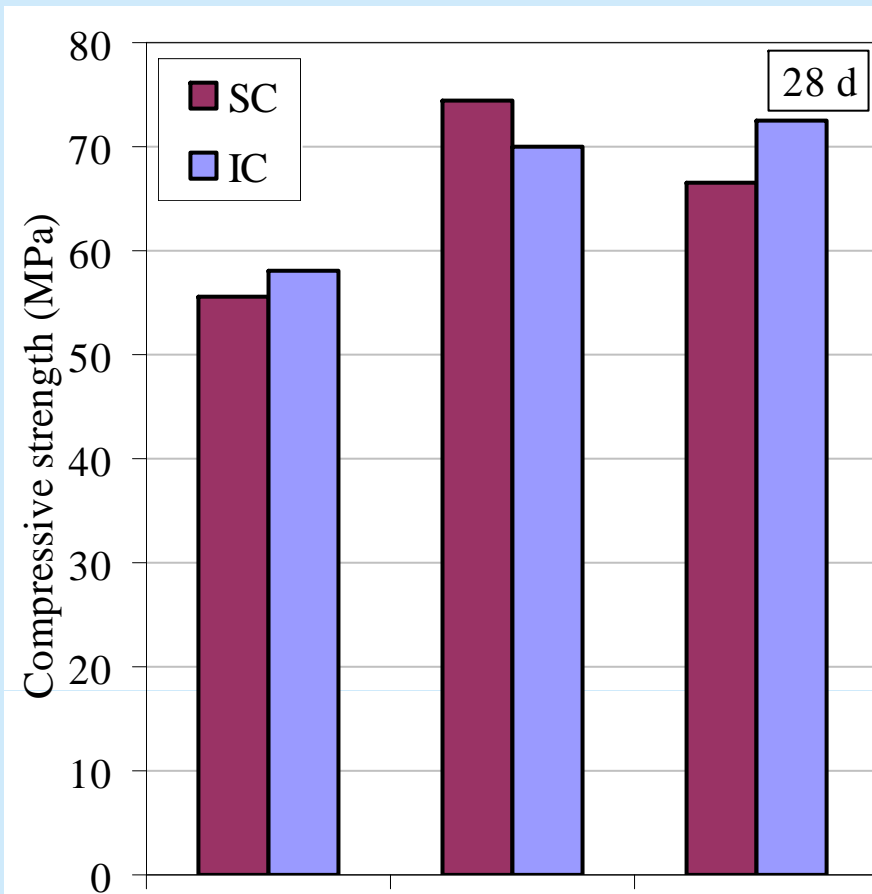
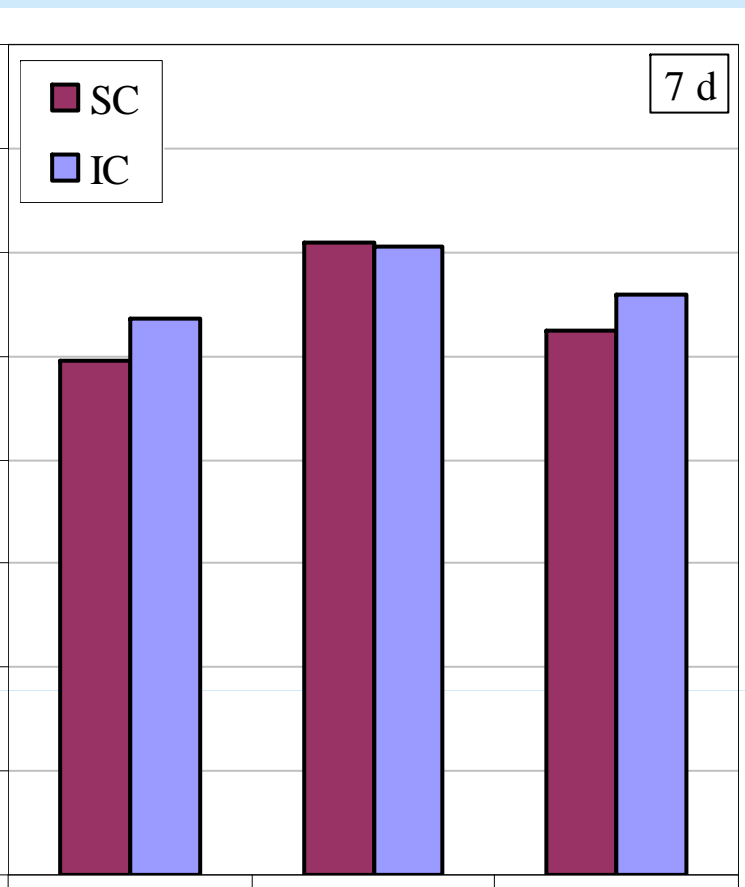


Effect of internal curing → Tensile stress





Effect of internal curing → Compressive strength





Effect of internal curing → Field demonstration

Project description:

- Large-scale paving project in Hutchins, Texas (Villarreal & Crocker 2007)
- 190 000 m³ of internally-cured concrete

Main field observations:

1. Marginal pavement cracking
2. 7-day flexural strengths > 90% of required 28-day flexural strength
3. Compressive strengths of air-cured cylinders = those of wet-cured cylinders

Main conclusions:

1. Internal curing can reduce shrinkage cracking significantly,
2. Cement hydration is more complete due to internal curing,
3. Internally-cured concrete is less sensitive to poor external curing practices or



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– Part 3 –

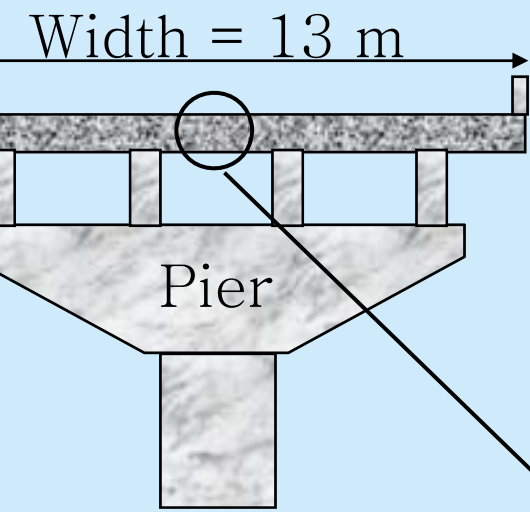
Case Study – Highway Bridge Deck



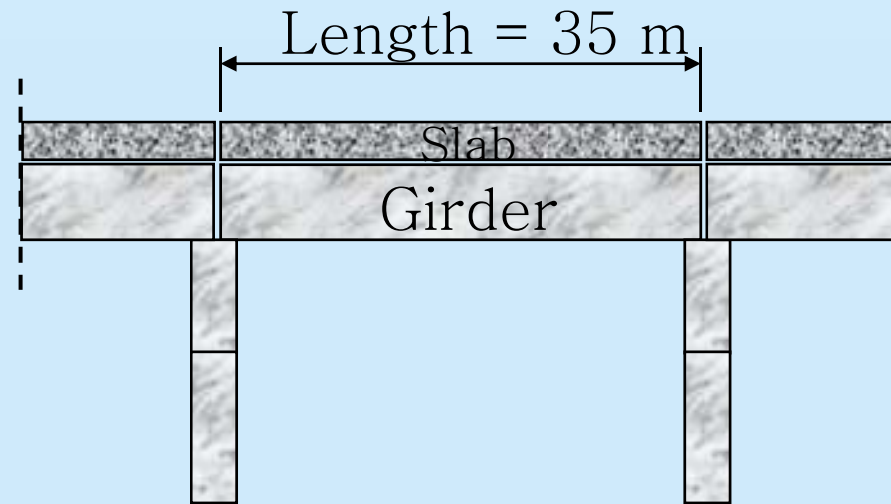


Case Study

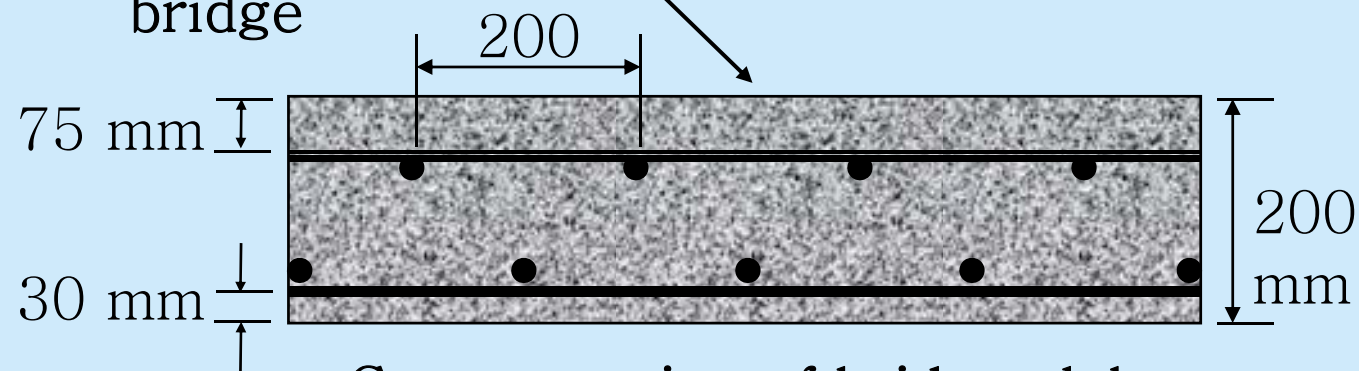
→ Highway Bridge Deck



Cross-section of bridge



Elevation view of bridge



Cross-section of bridge slab



Case Study

→ Concrete mix formulations

Bridge deck	Initial cracking	Water (kg/m ³)	Cement (kg/m ³)	SCM (%)	w/cm	LWA (kg/m ³)	Cost (\$/m ³)
NC	No	140	350	0	0.40	0	\$450
HPC	Yes	160	450	25	0.35	0	\$600
HPC-IC	No	160	450	25	0.35	200	\$625
VHPC-IC	No	160	525	25	0.30	200	\$750

costs 75\$/ton (vs. \$15/ton for normal sand).

of 200 kg/m³ of LWA and long-distance transportation (e.g. 600

only increase the in-place cost of concrete by approximately



Case study

→ Exposure conditions

Exposure conditions (all deck options):

Surface chlorides: 9 kg/m^3 (typical of severe conditions in Canada)

Corrosion threshold: 0.7 kg/m^3 (typical for normal steel reinforcement)

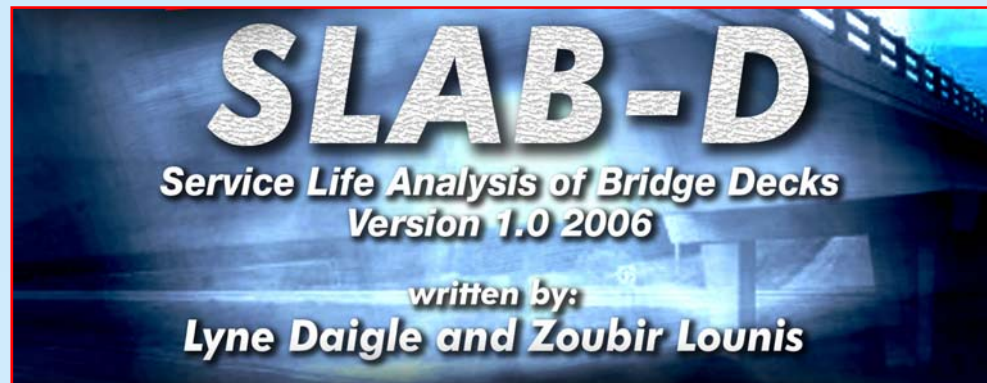
Corrosion rate: $0.5 \text{ } \mu\text{A/cm}^2$ (typical moderate value in concrete)

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– Part 4 –

Service Life Modelling of Bridge Deck

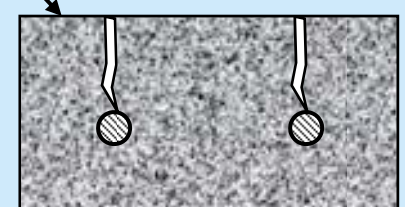
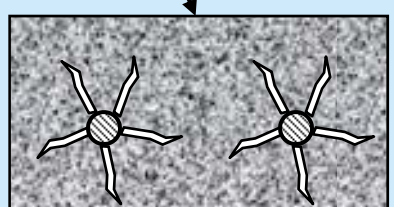
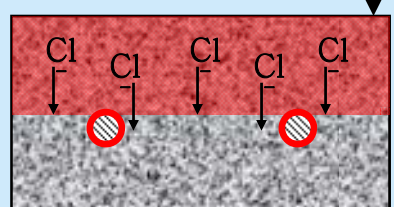
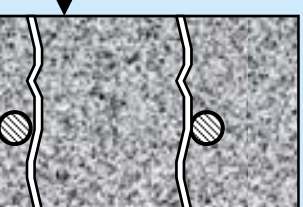
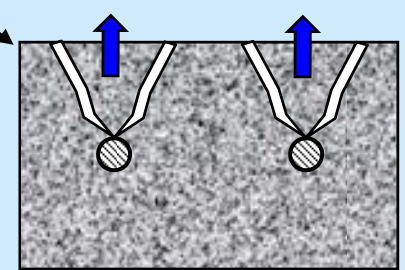
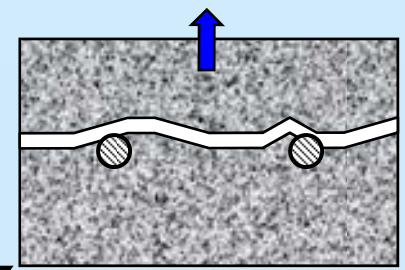
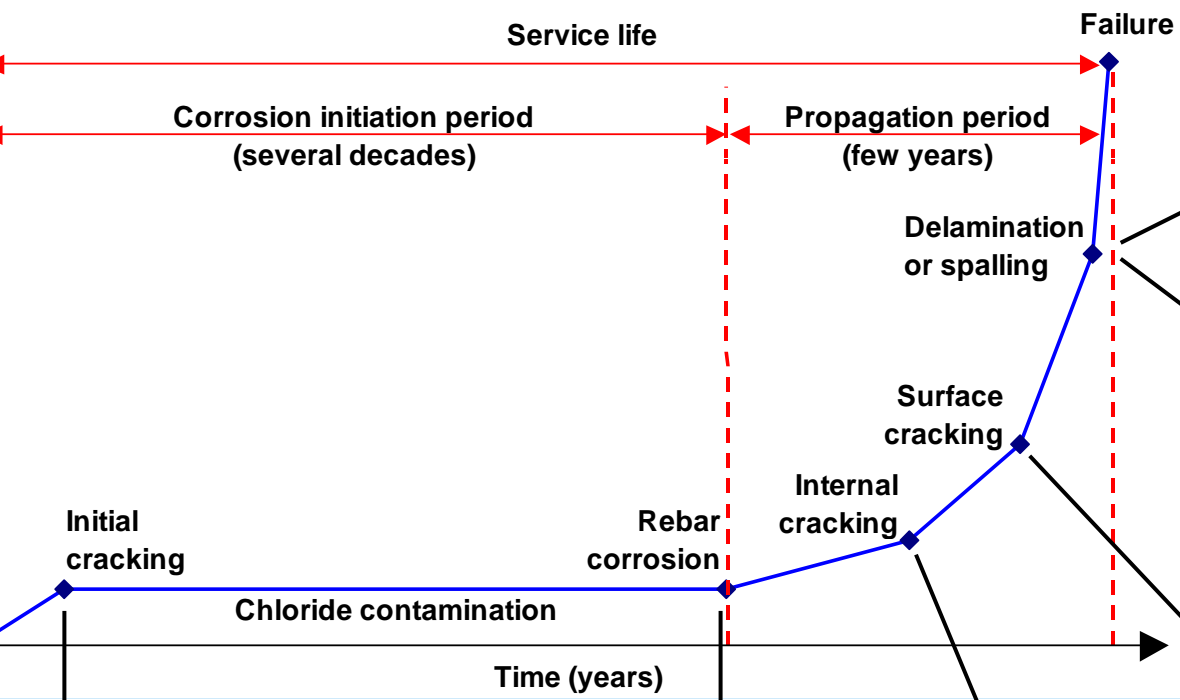




Service life modelling

→ Two-phase damage model

(modified from Tuutti 1982)





Service life modelling

→ Chloride diffusion in concrete

Frank's 2nd law of diffusion:
(Frank 1975)

$$C(x, t) = C_s \left[1 - \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{x}{2\sqrt{D_c t}} \right) \right]$$

C = chloride concentration

C_s = surface chloride content

D_c = chloride diffusion coefficient

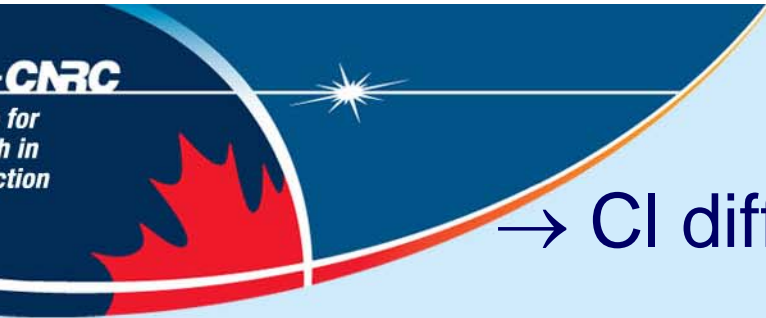
x = depth in concrete

t = time of exposure

Chloride diffusion coefficient:
(Gulifiza et al. 2003)

$$\log D_c = -3.9 (w/c)^2 + 7.2 (w/c) - 14.0 \quad (\text{no SCMs})$$

$$\log D_c = -3.9 (w/c)^2 + 5.4 (w/c) - 13.7 \quad (\text{with SF / Slog})$$



Service life modelling

→ Cl diffusion in cracked concrete

Effect of cracking on chloride penetration (simplified approach):

$$= D_c + \frac{w_{cr}}{s_{cr}} D_{cr}$$

Bridge deck	w/cm (actual)	D_c (m ² /s)	D_{app} (m ² /s)
NC	0.40	18×10^{-13}	18×10^{-13}
HPC (cracks)	0.35	6.6×10^{-13}	8.1×10^{-13}
HPC-IC	0.35	6.6×10^{-13}	* 6.6×10^{-13}
VHPC-IC	0.30	4.4×10^{-13}	* 4.4×10^{-13}

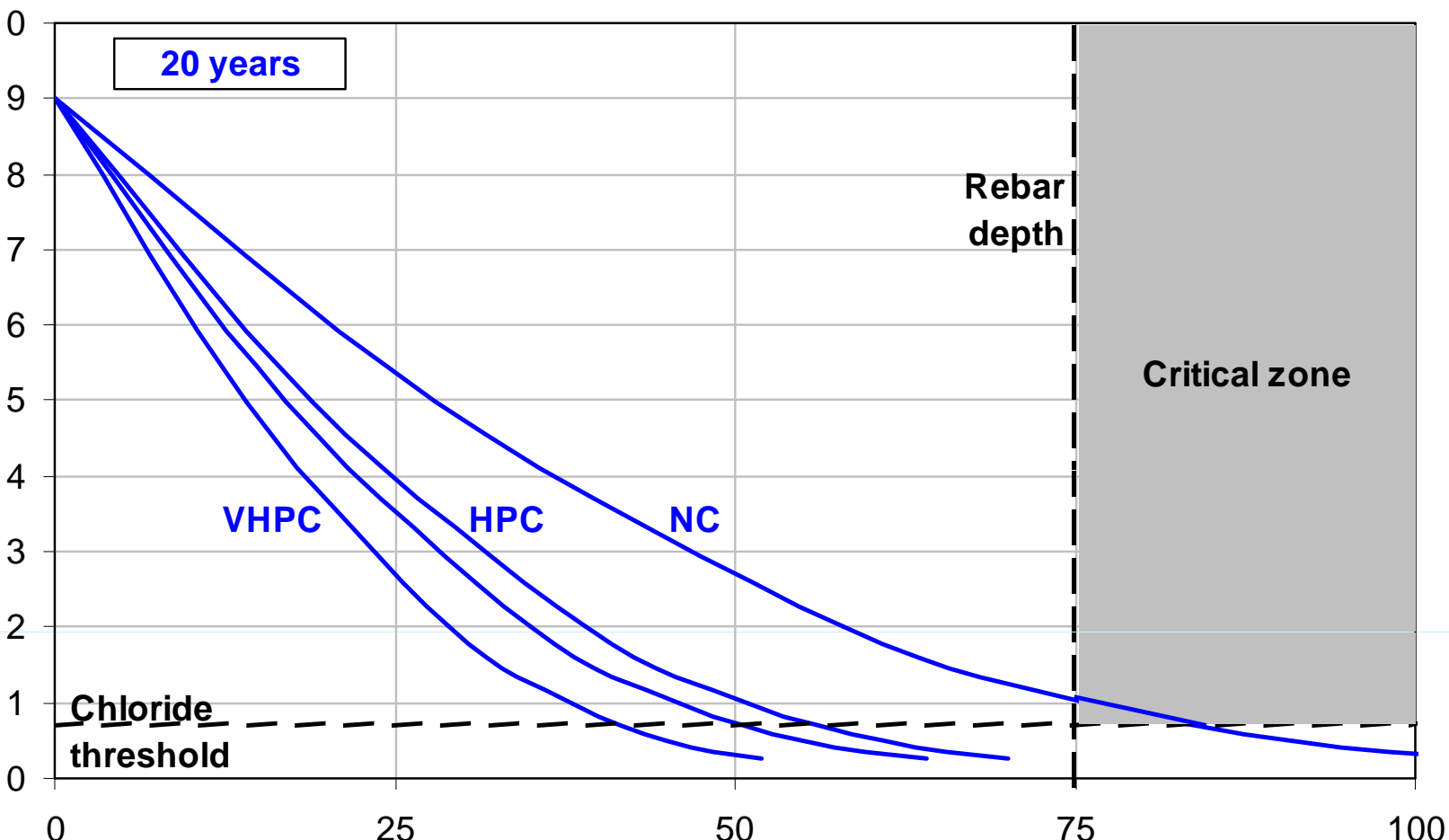
* Conservative estimate

diffusion in cracks: 5×10^{-10}



Service life modelling

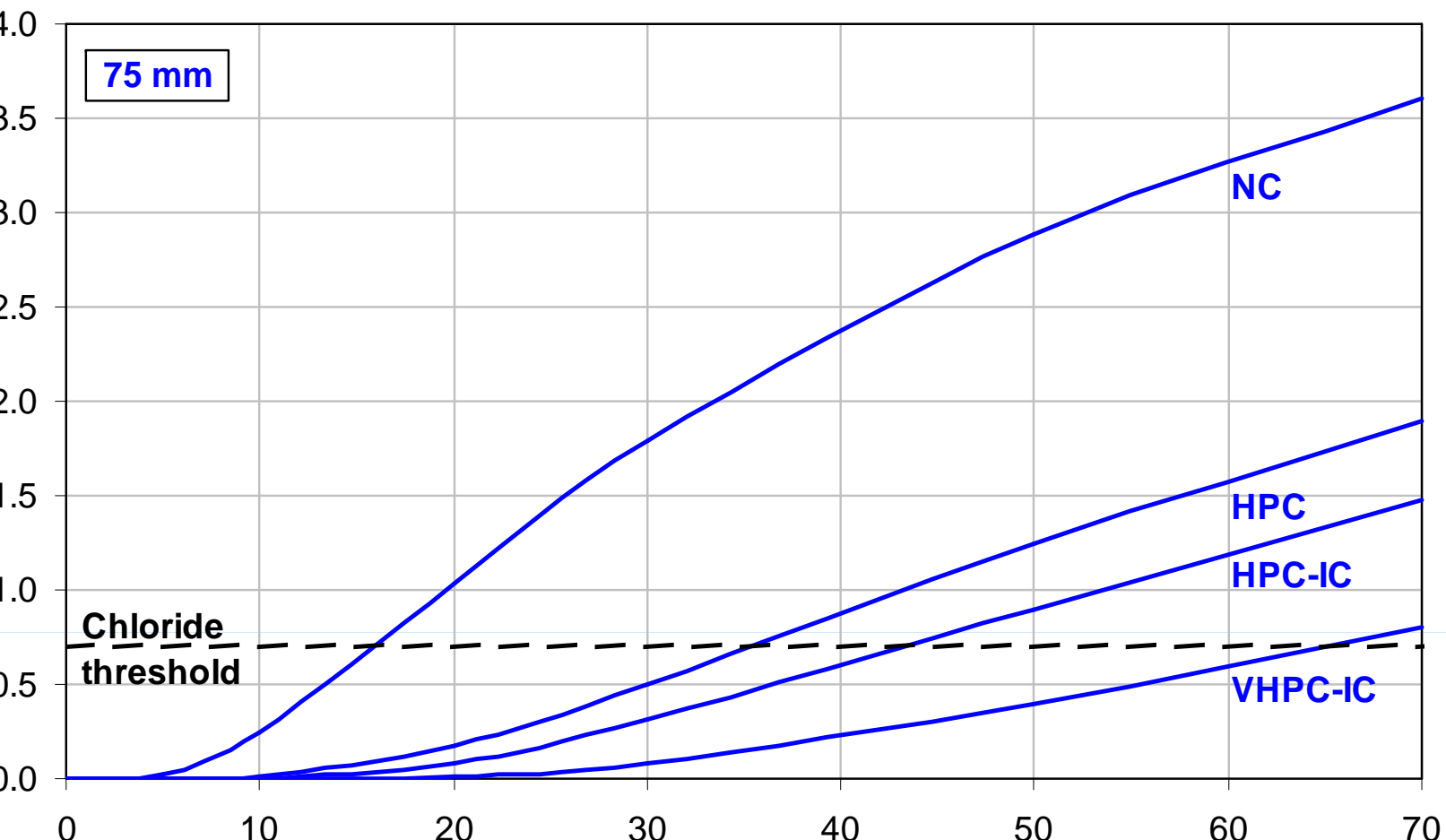
→ Chloride profile after 20 years





Service life modelling

→ Chloride ingress at rebar level





Service life modelling

→ Corrosion induced damage

Propagation time for each damage level:
(from onset of corrosion to initial cracking, surface cracking and spalling)

$$t_p = \frac{\pi d (\Delta d)}{2 S j_r \left[\frac{1}{\rho_r} - \frac{\alpha}{\rho_s} \right]}$$

where:

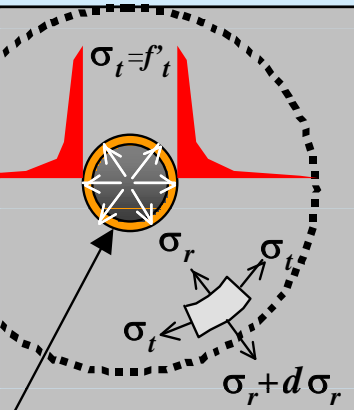
d = rebar diameter

S = rebar spacing

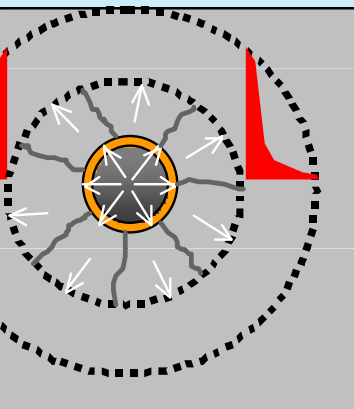
j_r = rust production rate

ρ_r = rust density

ρ_s = steel density



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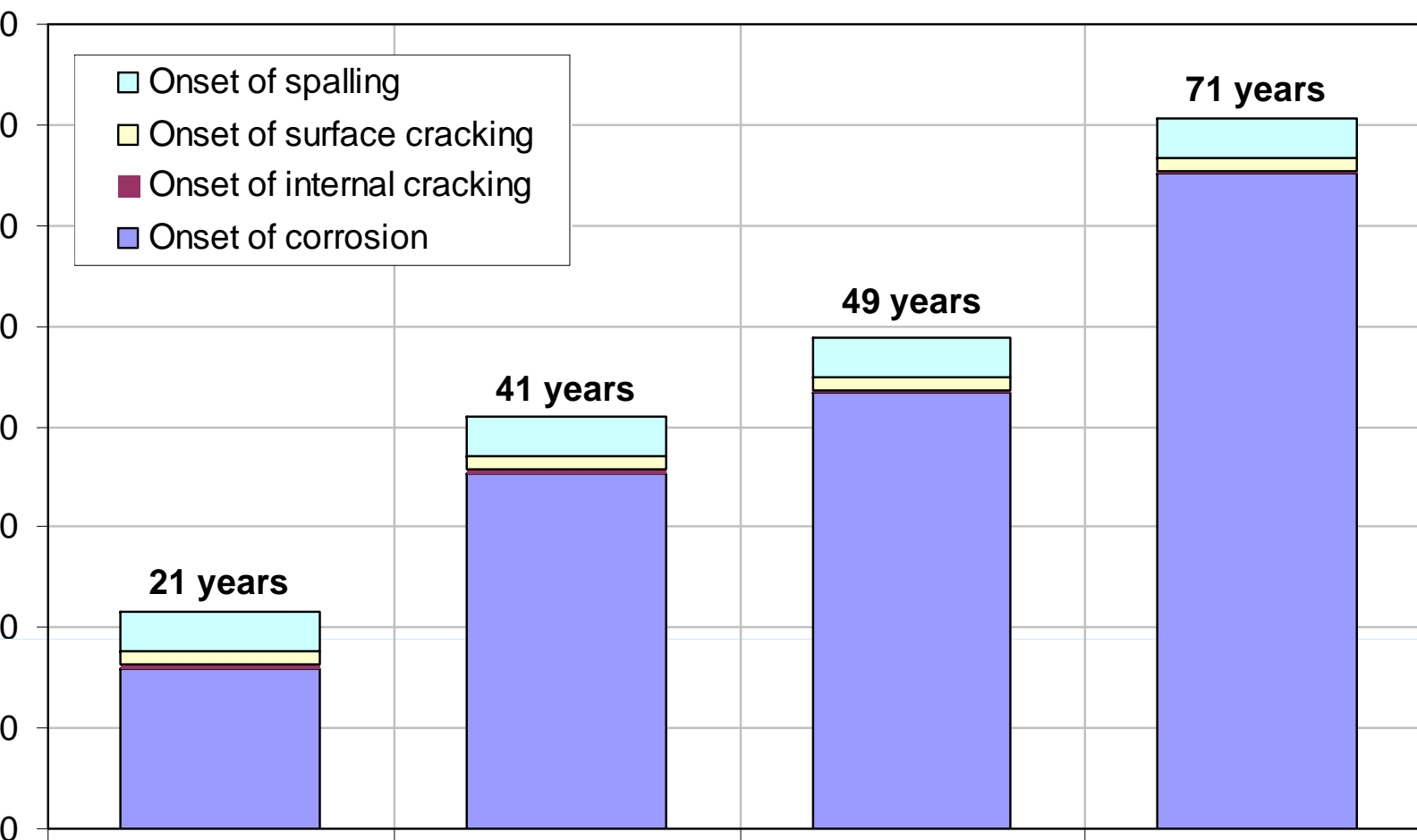


-wall cylinder



Service life modelling

→ Average SL prediction





Service life modelling

→ Reliability analysis

Reliability analysis takes into account variability and uncertainty

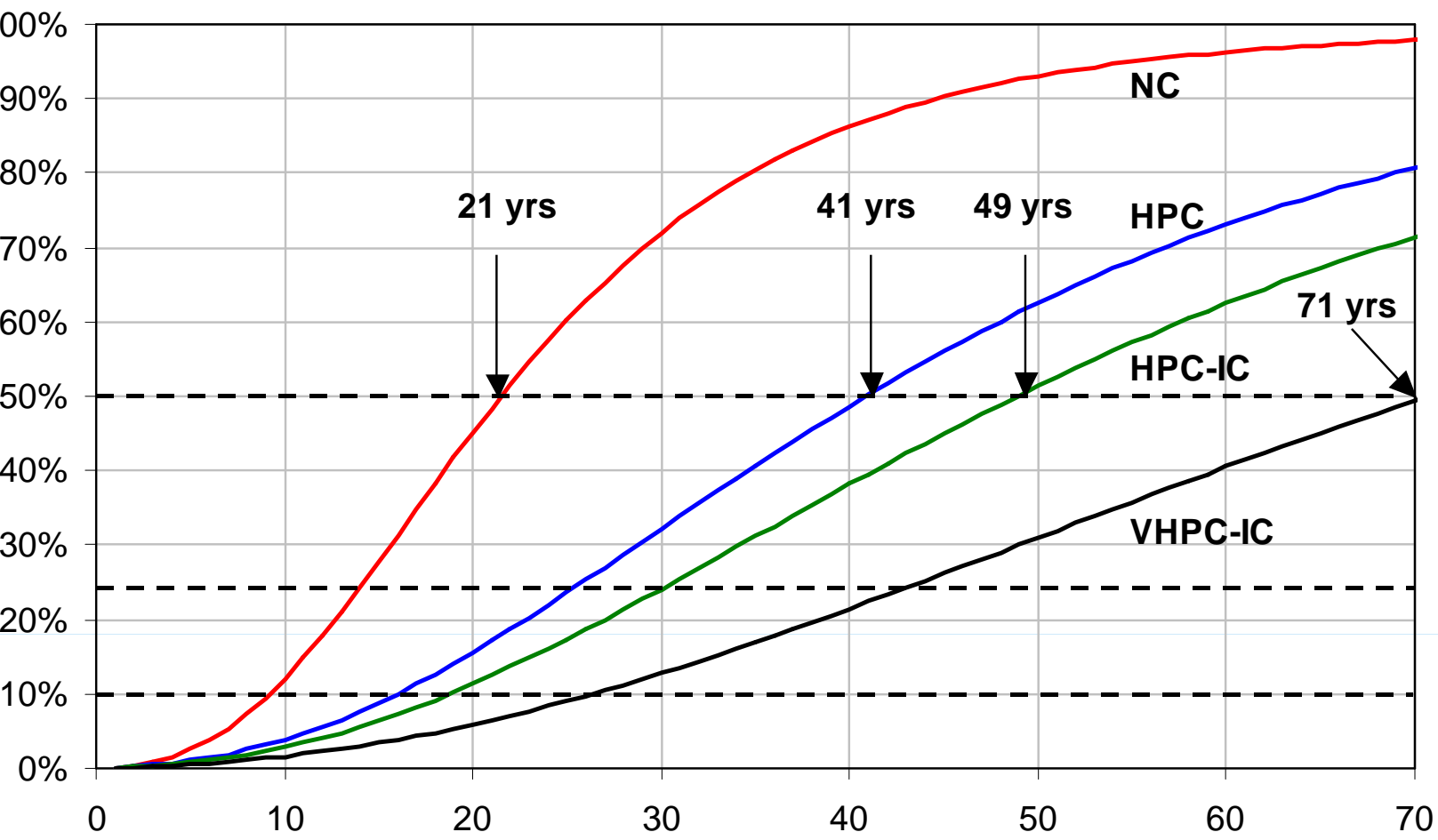
input parameters (properties, dimensions, environmental conditions, etc.)

Model parameter	Average	COV
Surface chlorides	9 kg/m ³	30 %
Diffusion coefficient		
-NC	18 x 10 ⁻¹³ m ² /s	
-HPC	8.1 x 10 ⁻¹³ m ² /s	
-HPC-IC	6.6 x 10 ⁻¹³ m ² /s	30 %
-VHPC-IC	4.4 x 10 ⁻¹³ m ² /s	
Cover depth	75 mm	30 %
Chloride threshold	0.7 kg/m ³	30 %
Corrosion rates	0.5 μA/cm ²	30 %



Service life modelling

→ Probability of spalling





Service life modelling

→ Assessment of deck condition

Condition state	Description (from AASHTO guidelines)
1	The surface of the deck has no patched area and no spalls in the deck surface.
2	The combined distress area (existing patches, delam. and spalling) of the deck is less than 10%.
3	The combined distress area of the deck is between 10% and 25%.
4	The combined distress area of the deck is between 25% and 50%.
5	The combined distress area of the deck is more than 50%.

In this case study:

> 10 % distress area: minor repair

> 25% distress area: major repair

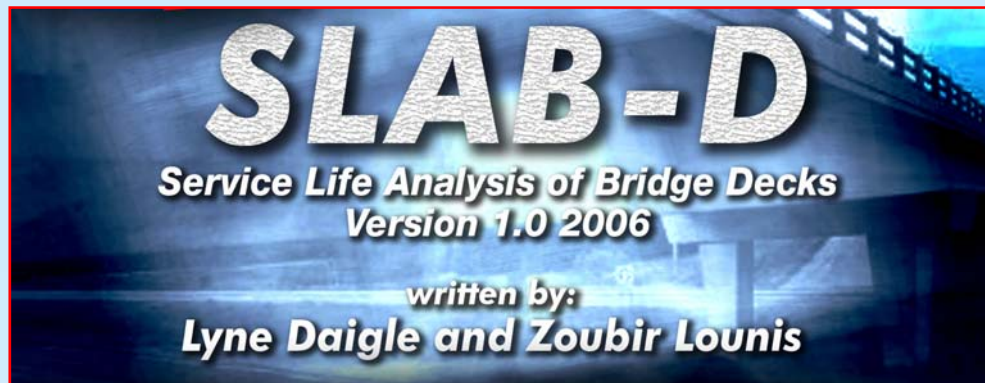
> 50% distress area: deck replacement

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– Part 5 –

Life Cycle Cost Modelling of Bridge Deck

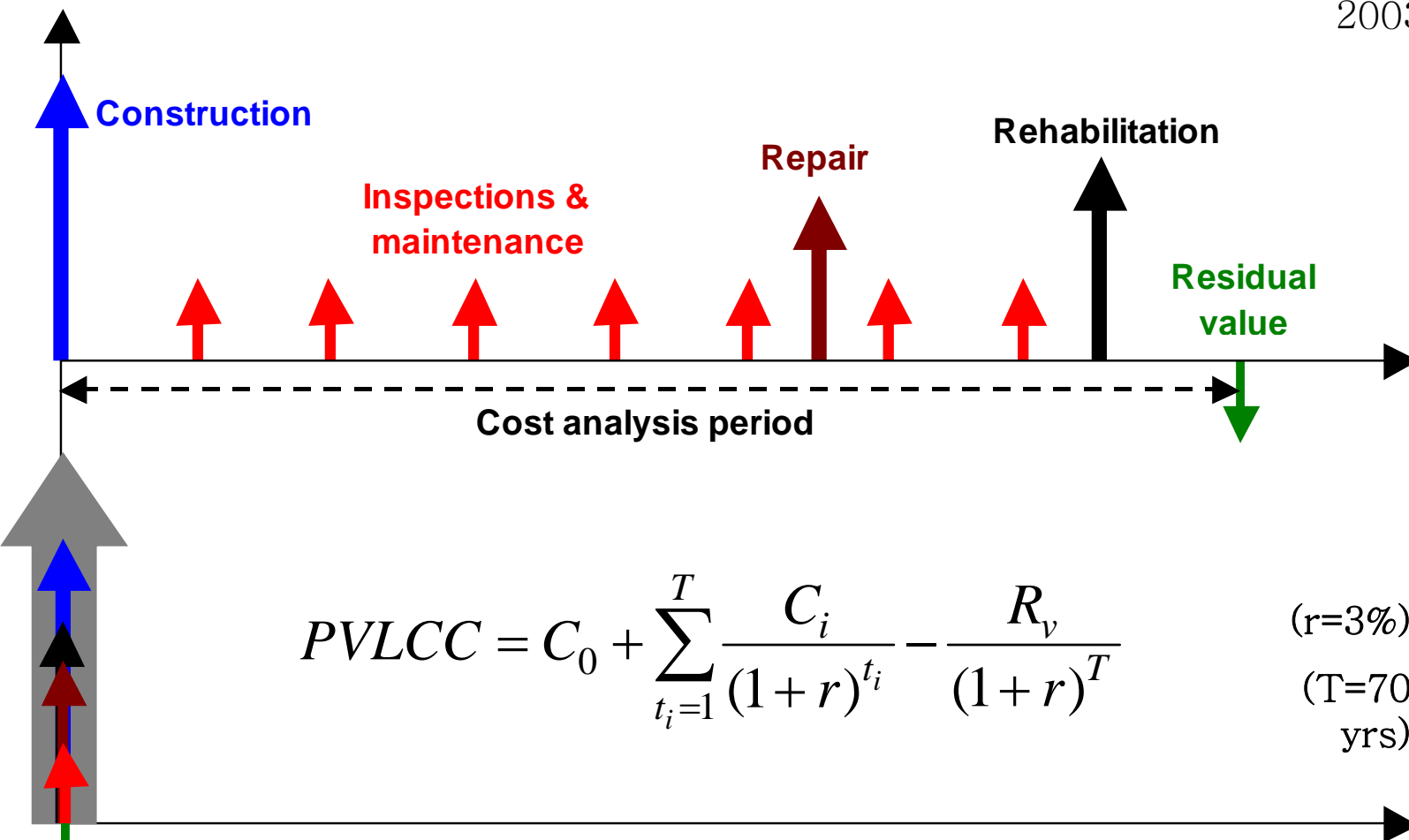




Life cycle cost modelling

→ Present value approach

(Grant et al. 1990; Hawk 2003)



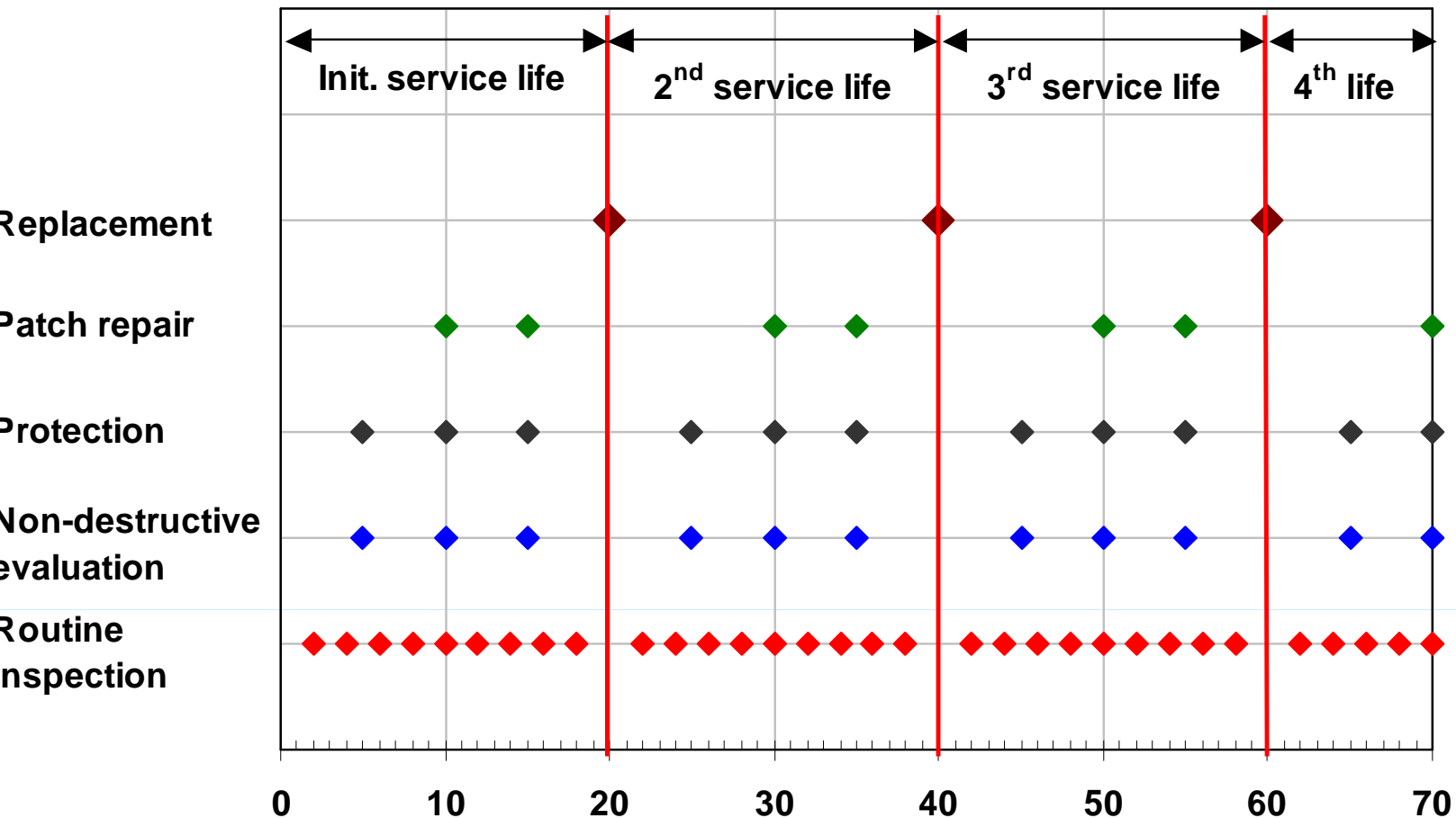
$$PVLCC = C_0 + \sum_{t_i=1}^T \frac{C_i}{(1+r)^{t_i}} - \frac{R_v}{(1+r)^T}$$

(r=3%)
(T=70 yrs)



Life cycle cost modelling

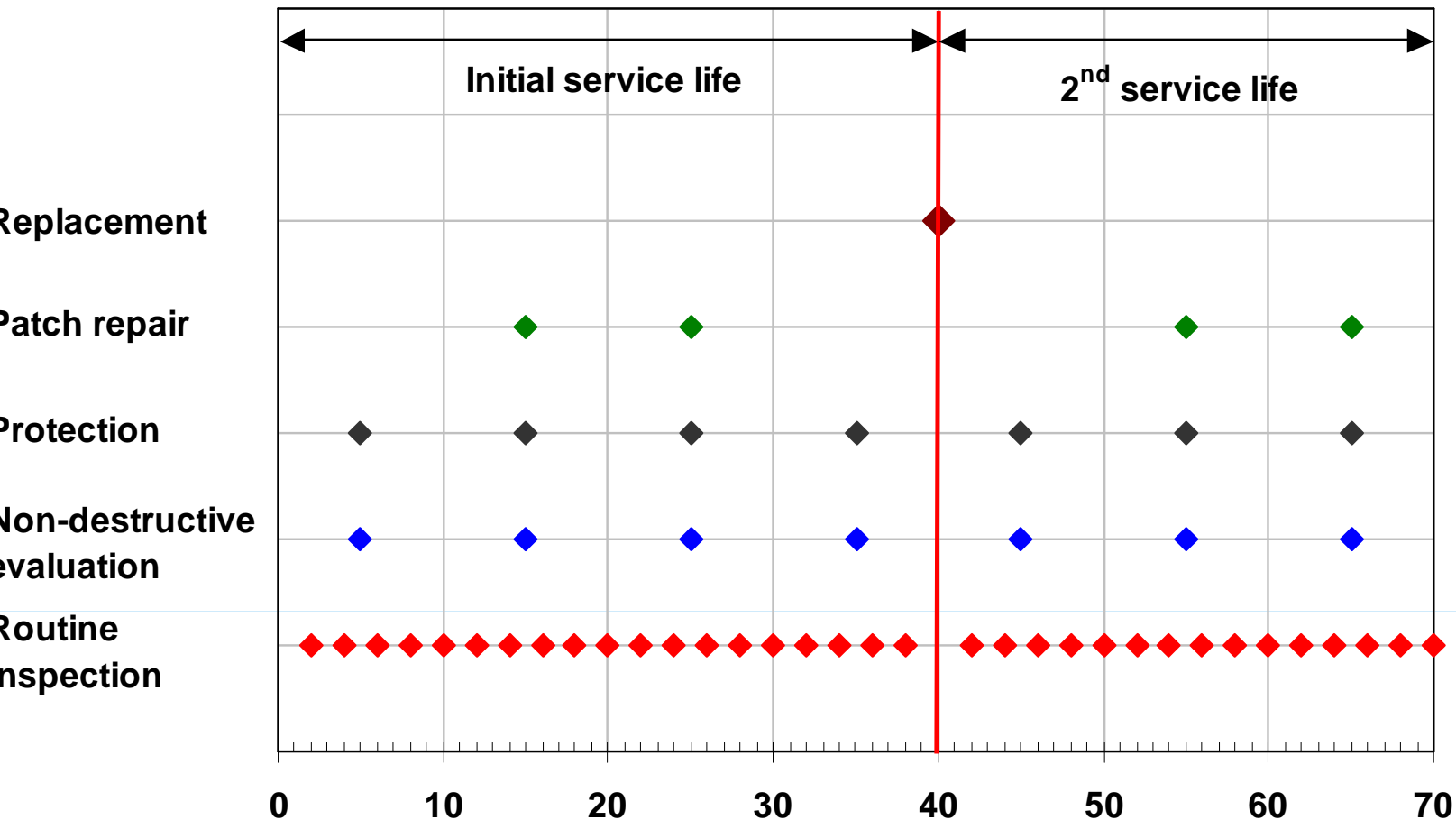
→ Maintenance of NC deck





Life cycle cost modelling

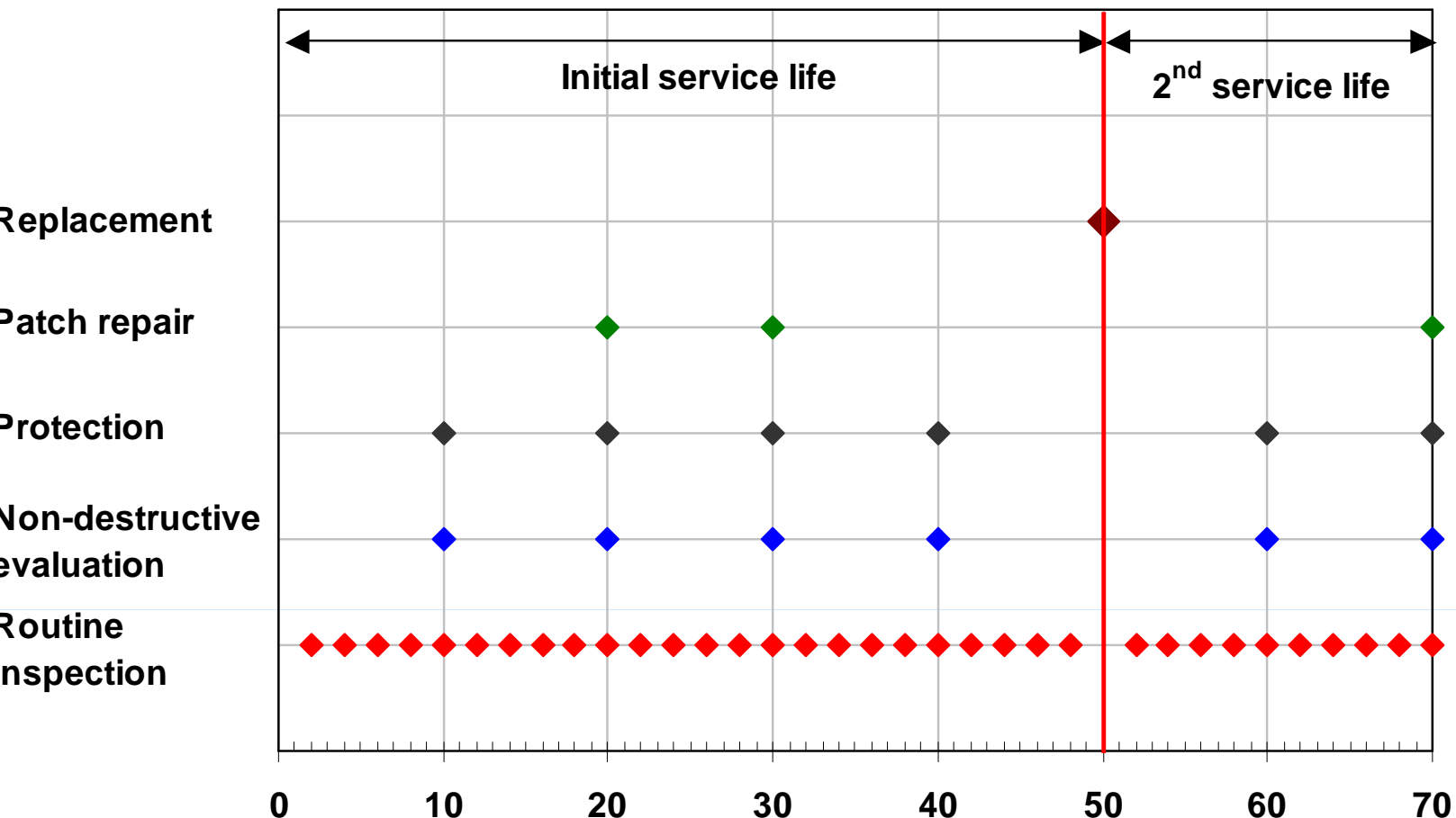
→ Maintenance of HPC deck





Life cycle cost modelling

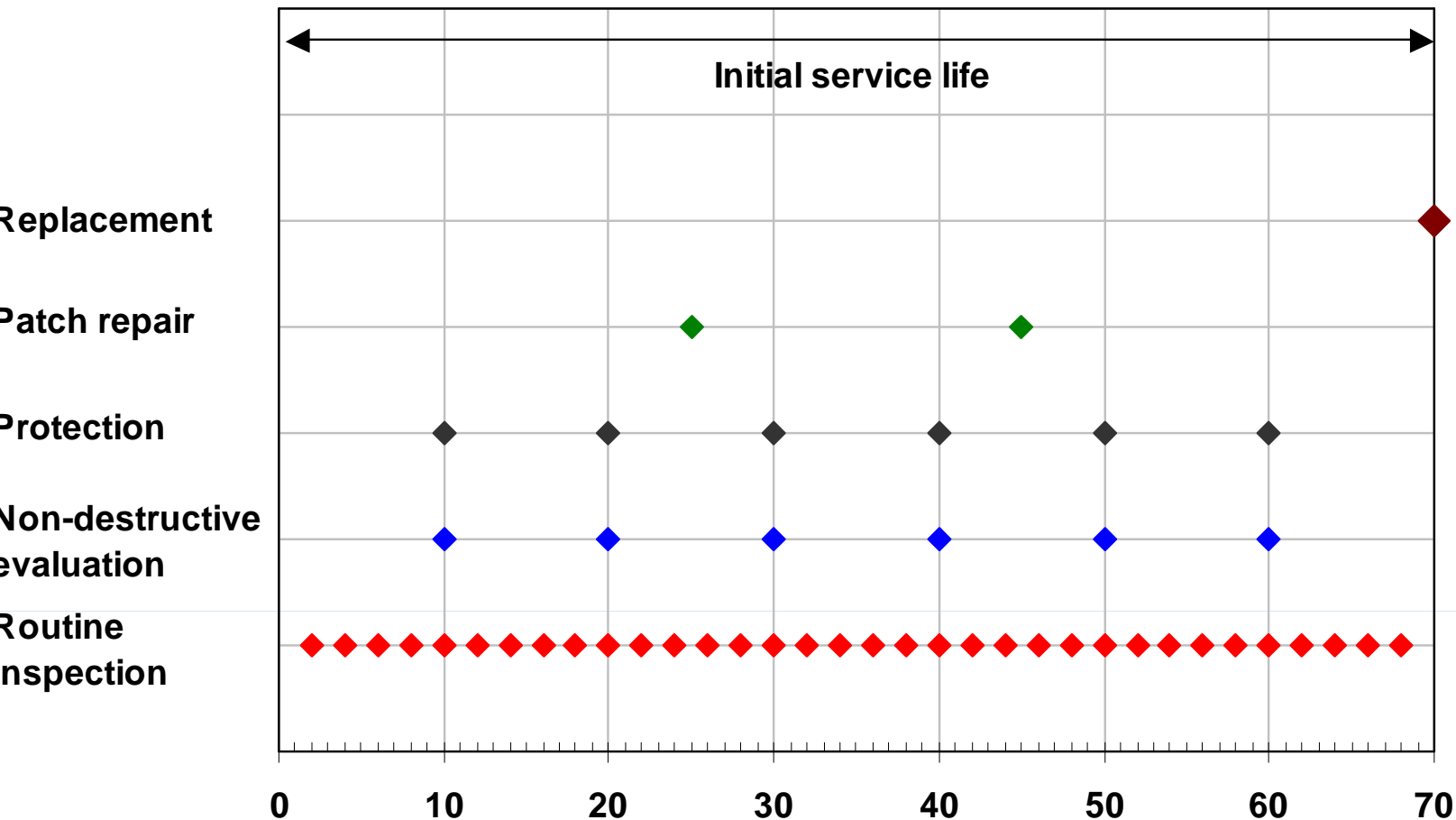
→ Maintenance of HPC-IC deck





Life cycle cost modelling

→ Maintenance of VHPC-IC deck





Life cycle cost modelling

→ Maintenance costs to agency

Activity	Agency Cost	Duration	Road length affected	Reduced traffic speed
Routine inspection	2 \$/m ²	0.25 d	0.25 km	70 km/h
Non-destructive evaluation	20 \$/m ²	1 d	0.5 km	50 km/h
Protection	20 \$/m ²	1 d	0.5 km	50 km/h
Patch repair	200 \$/m ²	2 d	1 km	50 km/h
Replacement (disposal & reconstruction)	C.C. + 350 \$/m ²	15 d	1 km	50 km/h



Life cycle cost modelling

→ Maintenance costs to users

Costs to users:

Value of car driver's time	\$12/h
Value of truck driver's time	\$20/h
Vehicle operating cost	\$9/h
Accident rate during activity	6 accidents per million vehicle-km
Cost per accident	\$40,000

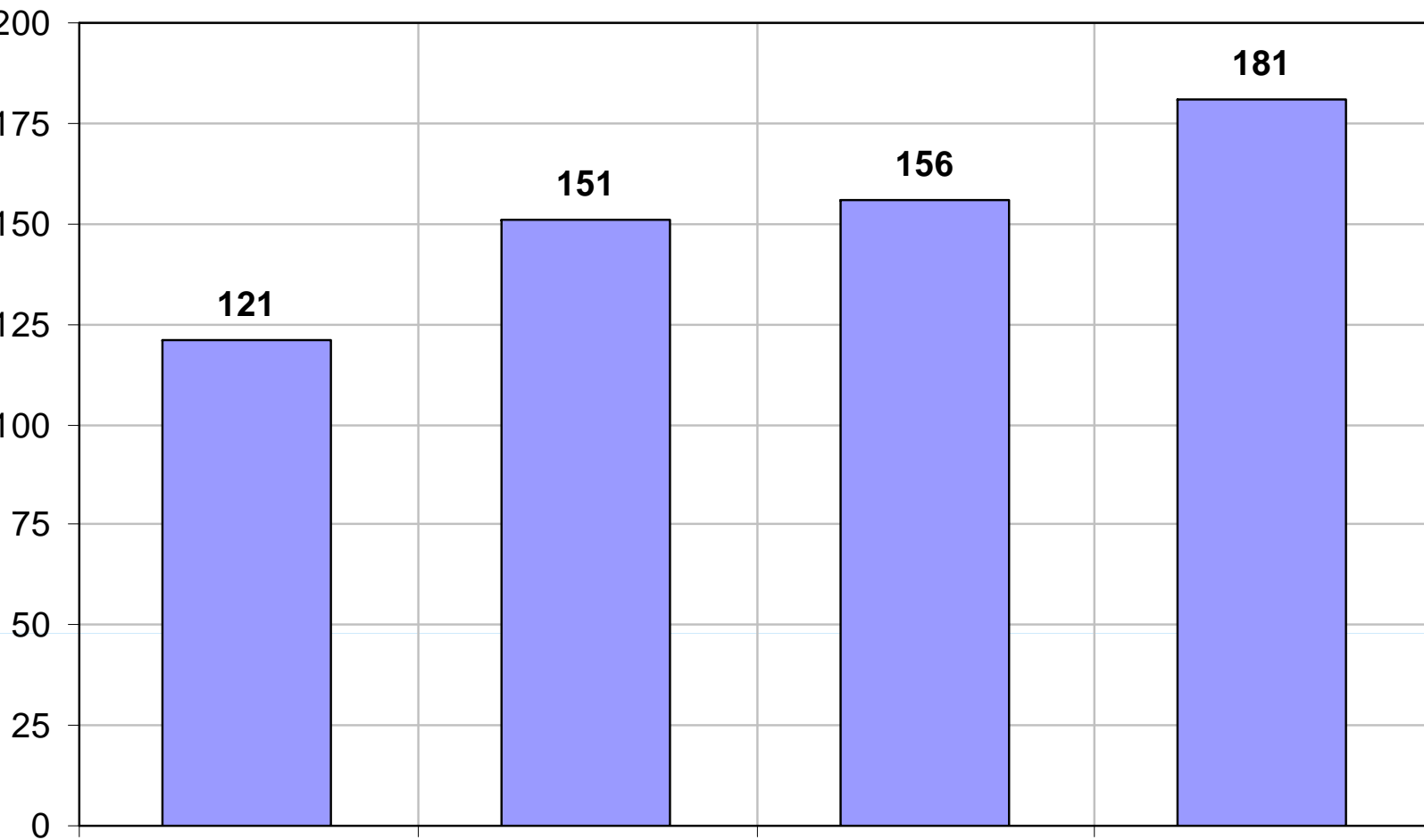
Traffic

Annual average daily traffic (AADT)	4000
Percent of truck in AADT	25%
Normal traffic speed	100 km/h
	2 accidents per



Life cycle cost modelling

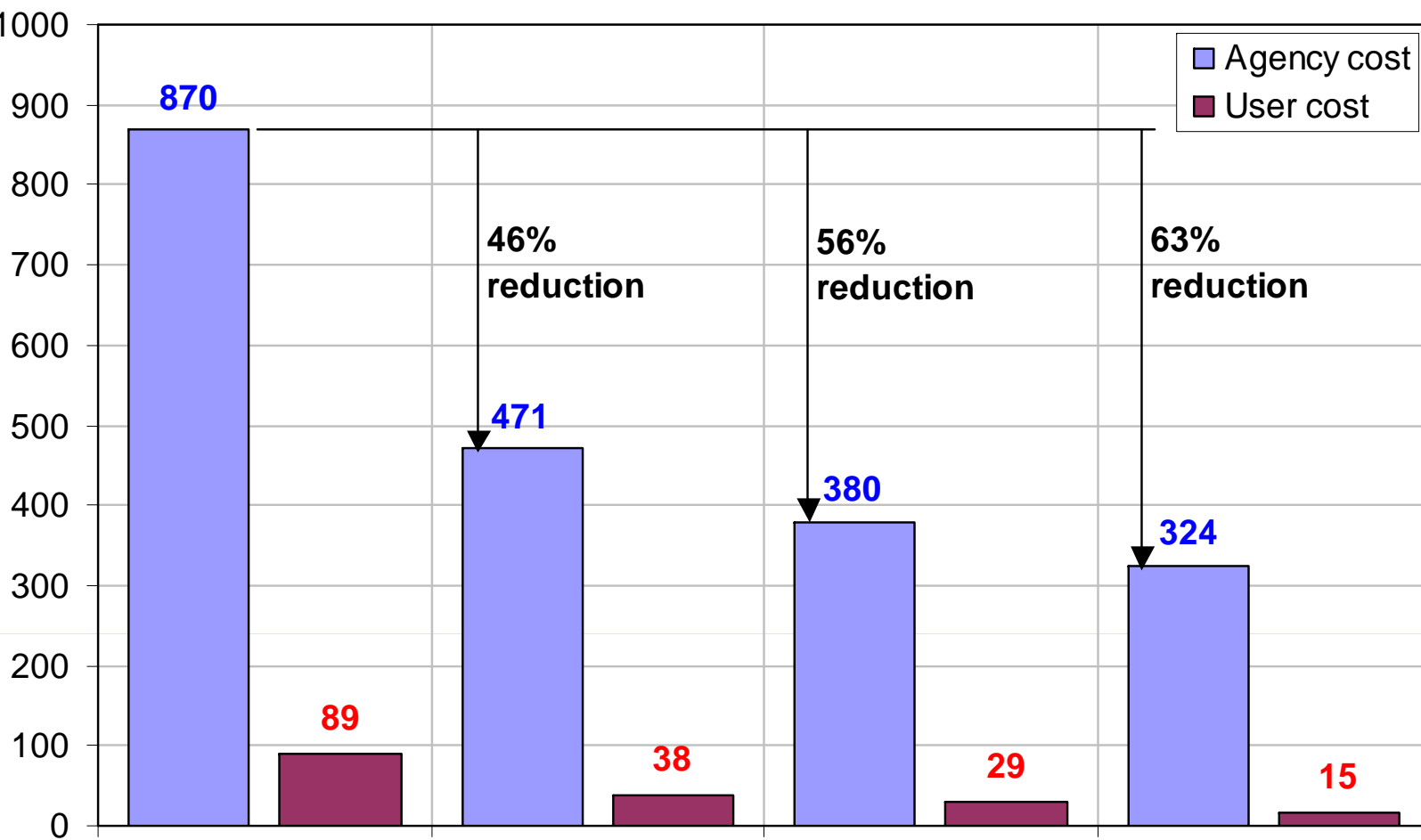
→ Initial construction cost





Life cycle cost modelling

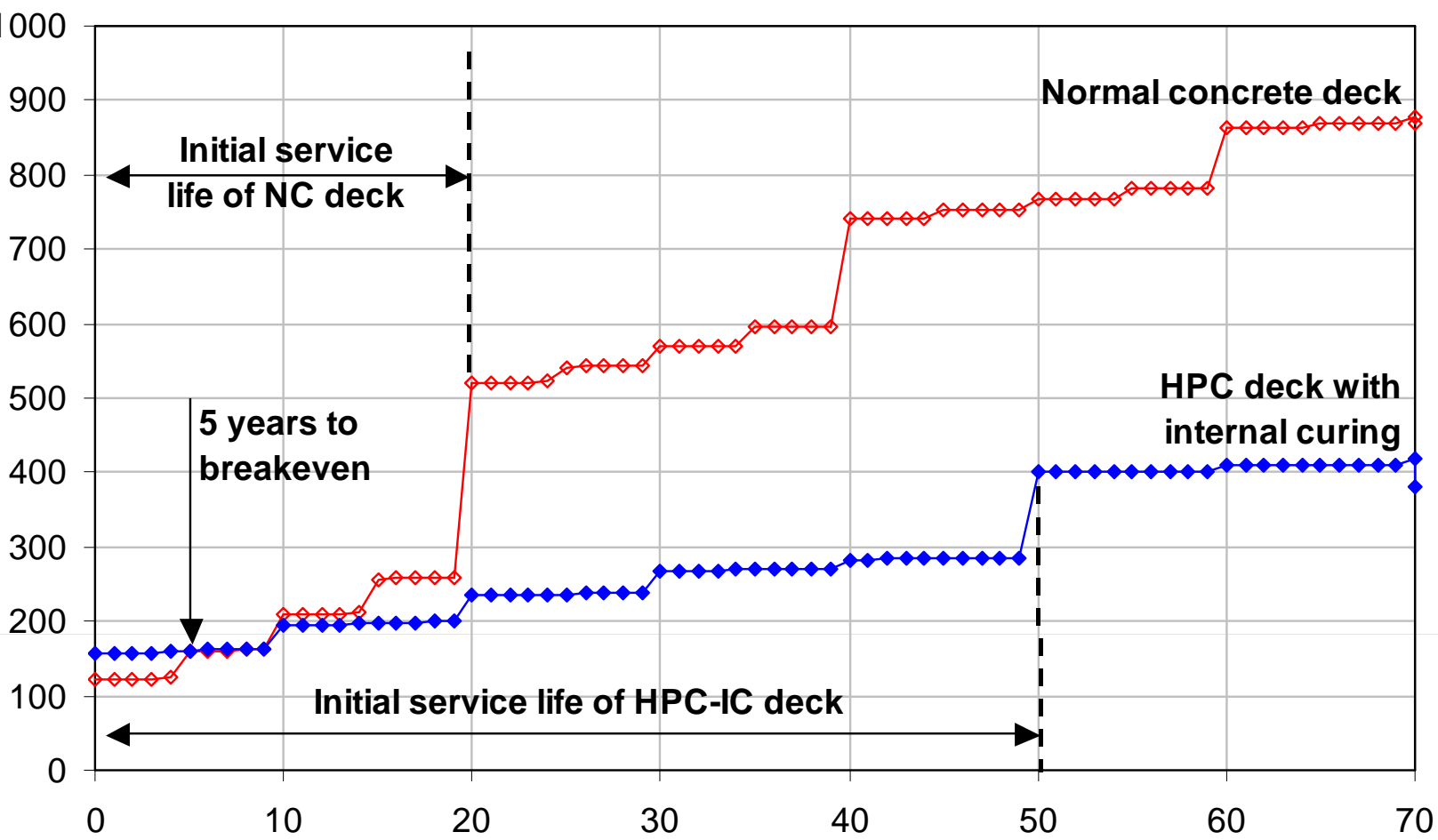
→ Present value of life cycle cost





Life cycle cost modelling

→ PV cumulative expenditure





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– Part 6 –

Environmental Impact





Environmental impact

→ CO₂ emissions

Long service life and low maintenance of concrete structures can minimize impact on environment by reducing CO₂ emissions.

Emission of carbon dioxide can be reduced by:

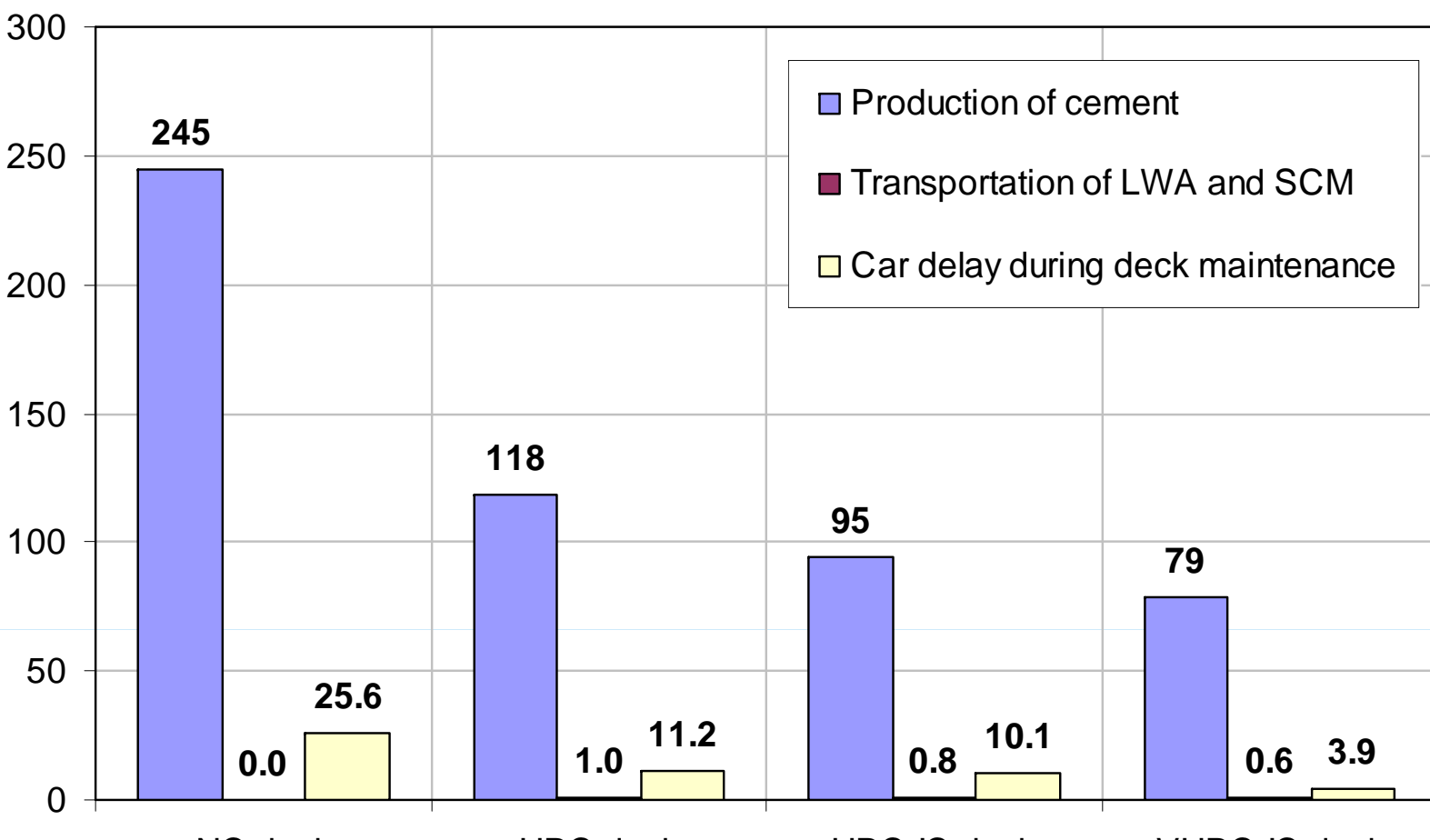
Using SCM to reduce cement content in concrete; 25% SCM
(1 ton of cement produced = 1 ton of CO₂),

Reducing transportation of non-locally available LWA and SCM
(1 ton of material transported over 1000 km = 0.022 ton of CO₂),

Reducing car delays due to deck maintenance activities
(1 hour car delay = 4 kg of CO₂).



Environmental impact → CO₂ emissions over life cycle





Conclusions

HPC structures can be designed to include new shrinkage prevention technologies without significantly increasing initial construction cost.

Service performance of bridge decks can be improved due to reduced shrinkage cracking and reduced reinforcement corrosion.

Service life of bridge decks can be extended by at least 10 years due to internal curing alone, and by up to 50 years due to use of VHPC and IC.

Life cycle costs of bridge decks can be substantially reduced due to:

- Fewer maintenance activities (inspection, protection and repair),
- Lower user costs (delays and accidents),
- Longer service life (over 70 years).

Higher initial construction cost of HPC-IC deck vs. NC deck can be offset in only 5 years.

Environmental impact can be reduced due to fewer maintenance activities and longer service life.