

1 Comparing chloride ingress from seawater and NaCl solution in Portland cement mortar

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5 6 **Abstract**

7 This study investigates whether chloride ingress testing using NaCl solution is conservative when
8 assessing the performance of concrete in marine conditions. Seawater contains besides sodium and
9 chlorine additional elements such as sulfur and magnesium, which can change the phase assemblage
10 in the concrete and thereby affect chloride ingress. Mortars samples prepared with Portland cement
11 were exposed to seawater or NaCl solution with a similar chloride concentration. After 180 days of
12 exposure to seawater, only the outer 1 mm was enriched in sulfur and magnesium, which had only a
13 limited impact on the chloride ingress. Leaching, observed in the outer 10-20 mm both for NaCl and
14 for seawater exposure had a much stronger influence on the chloride ingress. Hence, chloride ingress
15 in marine exposed concrete can be assessed using NaCl solutions. To mirror the leaching in field
16 exposure, the volume of exposure solution needs to be high.

17
18 **Keywords:** B. EDX; B. Thermal Analysis; C. Durability; D. Chloride; thermodynamic modelling

19 20 **1 Introduction**

21 Reinforced concrete is an important construction material for marine exposed structures such as
22 bridges, docks, harbours, off shore and platforms due to its ability to withstand the harsh marine
23 environment. However, the service life of reinforced concrete structures can be limited by several
24 deterioration mechanisms. In marine environment, one of the major deterioration mechanisms is
25 chloride induced corrosion of the reinforcement steel. When chlorides reach the reinforcement and
26 accumulate to critical concentrations they can initiate corrosion. Hence, to ensure sufficient service
27 life, such structures need to be designed and constructed with concrete compositions with high
28 chloride ingress resistance, as well as an appropriate concrete cover depth in order to protect the
29 reinforcement during the designed service life.

30 Laboratory testing of concrete compositions for marine applications is generally performed with NaCl
31 solutions to mimic the marine conditions. Commonly used diffusion tests either prescribe exposure
32 to 3% NaCl solution (approx. 30 g/l), which yields a similar chloride concentration as in the Atlantic,

33 (ASTM C1543 [1], EN 13396 [2], CEN/TS 12390-11 [3]) or about 5.5 times higher concentration (165
34 g/l NaCl solution), (ASTM C1556 [4] and NT BUILD 443 [5]).

35 However, seawater contains, in addition to sodium and chloride, other ions, for example magnesium,
36 sulfate, and carbonates, which potentially can influence the chloride ingress [6]. The effect of
37 seawater on the phase assemblage of concrete is complex. The differences in the mobility of the ions
38 and in the solubility of the reaction products results in elemental zonation in the concrete near the
39 surface [7-11].

40 In this study, we investigated whether the presence of ions other than sodium and chloride in
41 seawater will affect the chloride ingress. The chloride ingress by bulk diffusion in Portland cement
42 mortars exposed to seawater is compared with mortars exposed to NaCl solution with a similar
43 chloride concentration. Saturated samples were exposed to seawater and NaCl solution 7 days after
44 casting. Elemental profiles were determined after 21, 90 and 180 days of exposure at 20°C.

45 2 Experimental

46 2.1 Materials

47 Mortars with ordinary Portland cement (PC) type CEM I 42.5 R according to EN197-1 [12] with 6%
48 silica fume (SF) were investigated. The mix composition of the mortars is given in Table 1**Error!**

49 **Reference source not found..**

50 The chemical composition of the different materials is given in Table 2. Table 3 gives the mineral
51 composition of the Portland cement determined by XRD-Rietveld. About 99.2% of the silica fume is X-
52 ray amorphous. The PC mortar was proportioned with a water-to-binder mass ratio of 0.40 and the
53 sand-to-binder mass ratio of 2.5:1. A polycarboxylate based superplasticizer (SP) was included to
54 obtain good compactability, while air demper was added to reduce the amount of entrapped air. The
55 amount of mixing water was corrected for the water present in the admixtures (SP and demper).
56 Standard sand according to EN196 [13] was used for all the mixes.

57 For the exposure, two kinds of solutions were used: seawater and NaCl solution. The seawater was
58 taken from the Trondheim fjord, Norway. The composition of the seawater determined by inductive
59 coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) is given in Table 4. The NaCl solution was prepared
60 using technical grade NaCl and distilled water to have the same chloride concentration as the
61 seawater. The chloride concentration of the NaCl concentration was checked by AgNO₃ titration (see
62 Table 4).

63 2.2 Sample preparation

64 The mix compositions are given in Table 1**Error! Reference source not found..** The mortars were
65 mixed with a Hobart mixer (10 L mixing bowl). The volume of the mortar batches was 2.7 L. The
66 mixing procedure was the following: The cement and sand are first dry mixed for ½ minute at speed
67 I. During the following ½ minute the water including the admixtures was added to the bowl while
68 mixing at speed I. Then the mortar was mixed for an additional minute at speed I, and after a break
69 of three minutes the mortar was mixed for one more minute at speed II.

70 After mixing, the samples were filled into 125 mL cylindrical sealed HDPE bottles and stored in a 20°C
71 acclimatized room. After 1 day, a small amount of water was added in the bottom and at the top of
72 the bottle, in order to counteract self-desiccation (see Figure 1). Most of the samples were prepared
73 for exposure as described below, however some samples were cured sealed for longer time at 20°C
74 and used as non-exposed references.

75 **2.3 Exposure to NaCl and seawater**

76 For the exposed samples, the plastic bottles were removed after 3 days of curing. After demoulding,
77 the top 10 mm of each sample was sawn off and the samples were placed on grids and dried in a
78 desiccator over silica gel for 2 hours. The dried samples were coated with two layers of epoxy and
79 put to dry in air for 24 hours on small studs after applying each layer of coating. During the epoxy
80 coating the samples dried. Therefore the 5 days old coated samples were placed in distilled water for
81 2 days in order to saturate them prior to exposing them to the NaCl solution and seawater. This was
82 done in order to limit capillary suction of the exposure solutions and isolate diffusion as a sole ingress
83 mechanism.

84 The samples were stored in sealed boxes resting on a grid, 2-3 mm submerged in the exposure
85 solutions, with the epoxy-free surface facing down wards as shown in Figure 2. The sealed boxes
86 contained approx. 500 ml exposure solution for 12 samples (exposure surface of approx. 236 cm²).
87 The exposure solution was exchanged weekly.

88 The samples were investigated after 21, 90 and 180 days of exposure. For each time, three samples
89 were investigated per exposure solution. One of the three samples was split. One half was sprayed
90 with 0.1 M AgNO₃ to have an indication of the Cl-ingress depth. This half was also used for the
91 preparation of a thin section (see Figure 2). The other half and the two remaining samples were
92 profile ground. Prior to profile grinding, the epoxy on the cylindrical surface was removed by
93 grinding. The profile grinding was performed with the following intervals 0-1, 1-3, 3-5, 5-7, 7-9, 9-13,
94 13-17, 17-23 mm. The ground samples were stored in plastic grip-bags which were placed in a
95 desiccator until analysis. Chloride analysis was performed on all three sample i.e. the two full and
96 one half samples, whereas thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) and induced coupled plasma mass
97 spectrometry (ICP-MS) was only performed on one of the samples.

98

99 **2.4 Reference samples**

100 Two different sets of non-exposed reference samples were used. One reference sample was taken
101 after 180 days of sealed curing at 20°C. The sample was crushed and ground, and analysed with the
102 same methods as the profiles ground sections of the exposed samples (see section 2.5). After 3 years
103 of sealed curing at 20°C, the other non-exposed reference mortar sample was used for pore solution
104 extraction using a steel die method described in [14]. The pore solution composition was analysed by
105 ICP-MS.

106

107 2.5 Analysis of mortars

108 Approx. 5 g of each profile ground section was used to determine the acid soluble chloride content
109 which we refer to as the total chloride content. The powder was weighed prior and after drying at
110 105°C overnight in order to determine the free moisture content. The dried powder was dissolved in
111 50 mL 80°C (1:10) HNO₃, and filtrated after 1 hour. The chloride content in the resulting filtrate was
112 determined by potentiometric titration with a Titrand 905 titrator from Metrohm using 0.01 M
113 AgNO₃ and expressed relative to the dry concrete mass (mass after drying at 105°C).

114 The filtrate obtained from the acid digested ground mortar powder produced for the chloride
115 analysis was also used for determining the total content of potassium (K), sodium (Na), magnesium
116 (Mg), and sulfur (S) using a ICP-MS Element 2 from Thermo Scientific. The concentrations of the
117 various elements measured were recalculated relative to the dry concrete mass (weight after drying
118 at 105°C).

119 The thermogravimetric analysis (TG) was performed with a Mettler Toledo TGA/SDTA851, on
120 approximately 300 mg of the profile ground samples loaded in 900 µL alumina crucibles. The samples
121 were heated up from 40 to 900°C at a rate of 10°C/min while the oven was purged with N₂ at
122 50 ml/min. The mass loss of the samples was monitored as a function of the temperature. The mass
123 loss due to the release of water (H), decomposition of calcium hydroxide (CH), and release of CO₂
124 was measured in the respective temperature intervals 40-550°C, 450-550°C, and 550-850°C. The
125 exact limits for the temperature intervals were determined based on the derivative
126 thermogravimetric curves (DTG). All results were expressed relative to the mass of the concrete
127 powder samples at 850°C. The amount of calcium hydroxide is calculated by multiplying the weight
128 loss with 74/18 (molar mass Ca(OH)₂ / molar mass H₂O).

129 The polished thin sections were investigated with a Hitachi S-3400N scanning electron microscope
130 (SEM) operated at an accelerating voltage of 15 kV combined with an Oxford 80 mm² X-MaxN SD
131 energy dispersive spectrometer (EDS) with 125 eV spectral resolution. In this paper, elemental EDS
132 maps of the surface near region of a selection of samples are presented.

133

134 2.6 Thermodynamic modelling

135 Thermodynamic calculations were carried out using the Gibbs free energy minimization software
136 GEMS3 [15, 16], which is a geochemical modelling code that computes equilibrium phase
137 assemblages and speciation in complex chemical systems. The general thermodynamic database [17,
138 18] was expanded with the Cemdata18 database [19], which contains solubility products of solids

139 relevant for cementitious systems. The data-set includes thermodynamic data for common cement
140 minerals such as ettringite (AFt) and alumina-ferric monophases (AFm), hydrotalcite, hydrogarnet
141 and C–S–H phases. The C–S–H phases were modelled using the CSHQ model developed by Kulik [20],
142 which is based on a continuous solid solution between four C-S-H end-members with different Ca/Si
143 ratios resulting in C-S-H phases with Ca/Si ratios between 0.6 to 1.6. Data for magnesium silicate
144 hydrates (M-S-H) were taken from Nied et al. [21], who also used a solid solution model, and data for
145 Na- and Ca containing zeolites from Lothenbach et al. [22]. The formation of magnesite, dolomite,
146 quartz, aluminium containing siliceous hydrogarnet and thaumasite was suppressed in the modelling
147 due to their slow formation kinetic at ambient temperature.

148 To simulate the effects of NaCl or seawater on the hydrate assemblage, the hydrated cement was
149 virtually titrated with volumes of NaCl solution or seawater as described in detail in [23, 24]. The
150 quantity of NaCl solution in the calculations was varied from 0 to 200'000 ml solution per 100 g
151 anhydrous cement and the results are presented in g per 100 g anhydrous cements as a function of
152 the volume of the added solution. This approach allows prediction of the progressive changes in
153 phase assemblage upon ingress of chloride and other ions, assuming that the surface of the mortar is
154 in contact with a very high amount of NaCl or seawater solution and that the center of the mortars
155 comes into contact with very low amounts of solution only. The concentrations used in the modelling
156 were those compiled in Table 4.

157

158 **3 Results**

159 **3.1 Chloride profiles**

160 Figure 3 shows the chloride profiles for mortar exposed to seawater (dashed lines) and to NaCl
161 solution (solid lines) for 21, 90 and 180 days.

162 For all exposure times, seawater exposure (dashed lines) seems to lead to a higher chloride content
163 compared to exposure to NaCl solution (solid line) at the same depth from the exposed surface.

164 Over time the chloride profiles start to show a reduction in the chloride content at the surface (0-1
165 mm section) compared to the chloride content deeper in (e.g. section 1-3 mm).

166 Chloride content was determined using titration and also by ICP-MS. The concentrations obtained by
167 the two techniques are in relatively good agreement as can be seen from Figure 4. It should be noted
168 that three parallel samples were analysed by titration whereas only one of these samples was
169 analysed by ICP-MS.

170

171 **3.2 Total elemental profiles determined by ICP-MS**

172 The sections analysed by chloride titration were also analysed for different elements by ICP-MS.
173 Figure 5 shows the elemental concentration of sodium (Na), potassium (K), magnesium (Mg) and
174 sulfur (S) determined by ICP-MS for the mortar samples after 21, 90 and 180 days of exposure to
175 seawater (dashed lines) and NaCl solution (solid lines). Only four sections were analysed per sample
176 namely 0-1 mm, 1-3 mm, 3-5 mm and 5-7 mm. In addition, one non-exposed reference sample was
177 analysed to determine the background level of the elements. In the graphs the background is
178 depicted at a depth of 15 mm. The sand will merely have diluting function on the elemental profiles
179 depicted in Figure 5, as the elemental changes will take place in the cement paste and a relatively
180 pure siliceous sand is used (Table 2). In addition, it should be noted that the exposed surface is a cut
181 surface. Therefore there should be no systematic differences in the paste content of the different
182 investigated sections which could cause gradients in the elemental composition.

183 In order to identify concentration gradients between the exposure solutions and the pore solution of
184 the mortars, the pore solution was obtained from non-exposed samples sealed cured for 3 years (see
185 Table 5).

186 Both exposure solutions, seawater and NaCl solution, have a more than 3-times higher sodium
187 concentration (Table 4) than the pore solution of the mortars (Table 5), therefore sodium was
188 expected to diffuse into the samples. However, the sodium profiles show enrichment in sodium only
189 for the samples exposed to NaCl solution, and just in the outer most section (0-1 mm). In the sections

190 further from the surface the sodium content was at the background level. Hence, no clear diffusion
191 profiles can be observed for sodium within the scale of the analysed sections (1 or 2 mm). The
192 sodium content in the outermost layer seems to increase with increasing exposure time, although
193 the changes were limited between 90 and 180 days exposure. In the case of exposure to seawater,
194 on the other hand, there is no enrichment in sodium in the outermost section for all investigated
195 times, contrary there is even slight indication of sodium leaching towards the surface.

196 The NaCl solution does not contain potassium, and the seawater only very low concentrations (Table
197 4) compared to the potential pore solution of the mortar (Table 5). Hence, potassium profiles do
198 show clear leaching profiles for all samples. The background level of potassium was maintained in the
199 section 5-7 mm up to 21 and 90 days of exposure. Prolonged exposure, 180 days, led to further
200 leaching as potassium level at the depth of 5-7 mm dropped below the background level.

201 Magnesium is present in the seawater, but not in the NaCl solution. Hence, ingress of magnesium in
202 the mortar samples exposed to seawater is expected. However, magnesium is hardly mobile in the
203 high pH environment of the mortar, and it is therefore unlikely to diffuse deep into the samples. In
204 fact, the outermost sections (0-1 mm) of all samples exposed to seawater show an enrichment in
205 magnesium, whereas the magnesium level in the NaCl exposed samples remains unchanged. There is
206 no clear increasing trend in the magnesium content in the outermost section of the seawater
207 exposed samples with exposure time larger than 90 days.

208 The NaCl solution does also not contain sulfur, whereas the seawater contains slightly more (Table 4)
209 compared to the pore solution of the unexposed mortar (Table 5). The sulfur profiles show that the
210 sulfur content only increased in the outermost section (0-1 mm) for the samples exposed to
211 seawater. Exposure to NaCl solution did result in an apparent minor reduction in the sulfur content in
212 the outer approximately 5 mm. For the seawater exposed samples, similar observations were made
213 as for magnesium: also the sulfur content did not increase further with time after 21 days of
214 exposure.

215

216 **3.3 Phase assemblage**

217 The TGA analysis of the inner part of mortars hydrated for 90 days (13-17 mm in Figure 6) showed
218 that the hydrated mortars contained C-S-H, portlandite (approx. 4 wt.%), some ettringite, calcium
219 carbonate as well as monocarbonate. In the sections 1-3 and 3-5 mm the main phase changes, for
220 both NaCl and seawater exposure, were a reduction in the portlandite content and the formation of
221 Friedel's salt. However, in the outer most section, 0-1 mm, the phase changes were different for the
222 different exposure solutions. For both exposures we observed a reduction in portlandite, and the

223 presence of Friedel's salt and carbonates, but in the case of seawater in addition an enrichment in
224 ettringite, and brucite.

225 Figure 7 shows the portlandite and carbonate profiles determined by TGA. The carbonate profiles
226 showed an increase in the carbonate content in the outermost section (0-1 mm) for all investigated
227 samples. In the case of NaCl exposure the enrichment in carbonates is most likely due to carbonation
228 during sample preparation i.e. during drying when applying the epoxy coating. The increase in
229 carbonates is more pronounced for seawater exposure probably due to the presence of dissolved
230 carbonate in the seawater (Table 4). This is also reflected in the increase of the amount of carbonates
231 with exposure time.

232 The amount of portlandite was reduced towards the exposed surface for all samples. The decrease in
233 the outermost section will be partially due to the carbonation of this section. The gradual decrease in
234 portlandite in the deeper lying uncarbonated sections is caused by leaching. The leaching was
235 independent of whether the samples were exposed to seawater or NaCl solution. In addition the
236 leaching progressed with increasing exposure time.

237

238 **3.4 SEM-EDS elemental maps**

239 Figure 8 and Figure 9 show a BSE image and the elemental maps for the samples exposed to
240 respectively seawater and NaCl solution for 90 days. These maps illustrate the elemental changes
241 taking place in the outer mm of the mortar of the seawater and NaCl exposed samples. They are
242 representative for other samples investigated at different exposure times. In both sets of maps it can
243 be clearly seen that the siliceous sand was used to prepare the mortars; calcium represents the
244 cement paste in the mortar.

245 The seawater exposed sample does not show an increased porosity at the exposed surface.
246 Elemental zonation is observed: on the surface deposits of a magnesium rich phase, i.e. brucite, as
247 well as calcium carbonate crystals are observed. In the deposited layer a slight enrichment of sodium
248 was observed which was, however, not reflected in the profiles in Figure 5. Just below the surface
249 deposits, the paste showed a slight sulfur enrichment and further in a chlorine enrichment.

250 For the NaCl exposed sample, the outer surface has become more porous (darker in BSE). The outer
251 100 µm section are leached for calcium and sulfur and also the chloride level is low in this region. The
252 sodium content, on the other hand, is clearly increased in this zone, in agreement with the ICP-MS
253 analysis.

254

255 3.5 Modelling of phase changes

256 Thermodynamic modelling is used to calculate the effect of NaCl or seawater on the hydrates (Figure
257 10). The right hand side of the figures displays the paste composition in the unaffected core of the
258 mortar; to the left the effect of more NaCl or seawater solution on the hydrates formed is calculated,
259 which represents the gradual changes towards the surface of a exposed mortar. The vicinity of the
260 exposed surface is simulated in the thermodynamic model by increasing the amount of exposure
261 solution (up to 100 kg / 100 g cement).

262 For the non-exposed core of the sample, the predicted phase composition consists of C-S-H,
263 portlandite, ettringite, monocarbonate, siliceous hydrogarnet and calcium carbonate. Upon exposure
264 to NaCl solution, first Friedel's salt forms instead of monocarbonate. For higher levels of NaCl
265 solution all phases decompose, leading to a gradual reduction of the total volume of solid phases. At
266 very high NaCl levels alkali aluminium silicates are predicted to form, in this case represented by the
267 zeolite natrolite.

268 In the case of seawater, we similarly predict the formation of Friedel's salt instead of monocarbonate
269 for low levels of seawater. However, upon higher levels of seawater there is an increase in the total
270 volume of phases even though portlandite decomposes. This is caused by the formation of phases
271 such as ettringite, calcite and brucite due to the presence of sulfate, carbonate and magnesium in
272 the seawater. For even higher levels of seawater, C-S-H and ettringite decompose and instead
273 additional M-S-H, hydrotalcite, brucite and calcite are formed resulting in a reduction of the total
274 volume of phases.

275 Figure 11 shows the predicted portlandite and carbonate profiles as a percentage of the dry mortar
276 mass (including modelled bound water), and Figure 12 the elemental profiles for the same
277 simulations (including 10 ml of the modelled exposure solution per 100 g cement in addition to the
278 modelled bound water) to correspond to the experimental elemental profiles shown in Figure 3 and
279 Figure 5. The predicted phase assemblage and profiles are compared to the experimental results in
280 the discussion.

281

282 4 Discussion

283 4.1 Changes in the phase assemblage

284 The predicted phase composition of the non-exposed sample consists of C-S-H, portlandite,
285 ettringite, monocarbonate, siliceous hydrogarnet (Si-Hg) and calcite (right hand side in Figure 10 at
286 approx. 0 g NaCl or seawater). This corresponds to the phases observed using TGA (Figure 6 section
287 13-17 mm) except for the siliceous hydrogarnet which cannot easily be identified using TGA, as it
288 shows a broad weight loss in the temperature region 300-400°C, where also hydrotalcite and C-S-H
289 phases show a weight loss. The modelled portlandite content is lower (Figure 11) than the amount
290 measured by TGA (Figure 7), which can be related to differences in the Ca/Si of the C-S-H in the
291 model (Ca/Si = 1.6) and the actual Ca/Si.

292 The measured total content of sodium, potassium and sulfur determined in the non-exposed sample
293 (Figure 5) agrees very well with the predicted content in Figure 12. The discrepancy between the
294 predicted and measured magnesium content is due to the omission of the magnesium originating
295 from the cement in the model.

296 Upon exposure to either seawater or NaCl solution, one can observe a reduction in portlandite and
297 the formation of Friedel's salt using TGA (section 1-3 and 3-5 mm in Figure 6 and Figure 7). In the
298 model this corresponds to the phase assemblage at an addition of seawater or NaCl solution in the
299 range of 20 to 200 g in Figure 10 and Figure 11. However, at the exposed mortar surface, i.e. the
300 outermost section 0-1 mm, the phase changes differ for the two exposure conditions. The phase
301 changes experimentally observed in the outermost section correspond to the changes up to
302 approximately 10 000 g of NaCl solution and 1000 g of seawater in Figure 10 and the corresponding
303 elemental changes up to approximately the same limits in Figure 12.

304 Upon exposure to even higher levels of seawater, the model predicts a decrease in Friedel's salt in
305 parallel to a decrease in portlandite, combined with an increase in ettringite, and finally for very high
306 seawater additions, a decomposition of ettringite and C-S-H and the formation of gypsum, M-S-H,
307 brucite, and calcite.. In agreement with the modelling, we observed for seawater exposure a sulfur
308 enrichment by SEM-EDS (Figure 8) and ICP-MS (Figure 5) near the surface, which is due to the
309 formation of ettringite as confirmed also by the TGA data (Figure 6). The precipitation of brucite and
310 calcite on the exposed surface was confirmed both by SEM-EDS (Figure 8) and TGA (MH and
311 carbonate in Figure 6 and Figure 7). Brucite formation was also reflected in the increase in the
312 measured magnesium content in the outermost section (Figure 5 and Figure 12). The predicted
313 (Figure 10) decomposition of ettringite and C-S-H, and the formation of M-S-H were not
314 experimentally observed as it would occur at even higher levels of leaching than the one observed

315 within the applied exposure time. In other studies, M-S-H has been observed in concrete within 5
316 years of exposure to seawater [25]. The discrepancy between the modelled chlorine level (Figure 12)
317 and the maximum measured chlorine content (Figure 3) is attributed to the fact that the model only
318 accounts for chloride binding in Friedel's salt (Figure 10) and not for the potential chlorine in C-S-H.

319 In the case of NaCl solution exposure, portlandite, ettringite, Friedel's salt and C-S-H are predicted to
320 decompose together with the formation of natrolite or an amorphous precursor at the surface
321 (Figure 10). The SEM-EDS maps confirm the leaching of calcium-containing phases, e.g. C-S-H,
322 ettringite and Friedel's salts, in the outermost 100 μm (Figure 9). The extremely leached zone is
323 deprived of calcium, sulfur and chlorine, but contains still silicon, aluminium and sodium. This points
324 towards the formation of an alkali containing aluminium silicate phase (e.g. natrolite or an
325 amorphous zeolitic precursor) at the exposed surface. This also corresponds to the increase in both
326 the measured and predicted sodium content (Figure 5 and Figure 12) near the surface within the
327 NaCl exposed sample.

328 Leaching during both NaCl solution and seawater exposure is demonstrated by the reduction in
329 portlandite and potassium towards the exposed surface as predicted (Figure 11 and Figure 12) and
330 experimentally confirmed (Figure 7 and Figure 5). The leaching seems to be independent of whether
331 the samples are exposed to seawater or NaCl solution, and progresses with increasing exposure time.

332

333 **4.2 Diffusion of elements in mortar**

334 When comparing the pore solutions of the unexposed mortars in Table 5 with the exposure solutions
335 in Table 4, the largest differences can be found for the chlorine and the potassium concentrations.
336 The exposure solution has a chlorine concentration, which is approx. two orders of magnitude larger
337 than the concentration in the pore solution, while for the potassium the concentration in the
338 exposure solution is minimum one order of magnitude lower than in the pore solution of the
339 unexposed mortar. The differences in concentration of sulfur, magnesium and sodium are smaller.

340 Thus, the total potassium and chlorine exhibited clear diffusion profiles and the profiles changed with
341 time. Chlorine was ingressing (Figure 3) while potassium was leaching (Figure 5), independent
342 whether NaCl or seawater was the exposure solution.

343 The other elements, magnesium, sulfur, and sodium, were enriched in the outermost section (0-1
344 mm) (Figure 5). The applied grinding techniques do not have sufficient spatial resolution to allow
345 measurement of diffusion profiles for these elements. It becomes however evident that sulfur and
346 magnesium move much less in the mortar than chlorine and potassium. The precipitation of
347 magnesium as brucite occurs at pH values higher than 10 [26] and leads to very low magnesium

348 concentrations at high pH values. Therefore, the magnesium has very limited mobility in
349 cementitious systems with high pH. In fact, the precipitation of magnesium hydroxide is observed on
350 the surface of the cement and its content in the cement paste does not seem to increase significantly
351 within the investigated exposure time. Sulfur progressed somewhat further, but also for sulfur the
352 content and penetration depths did not increase within the exposure time, which however might
353 rather be related to the limited lateral resolution due to the used grinding technique.

354 Sodium shows a particular behaviour, there is an increase in the content with time within the mortar
355 near the surface, but only for the NaCl exposure. In the case of seawater exposure, which contains a
356 comparable sodium concentration, there is no clear enrichment in sodium. The enrichment in the
357 case of exposure to the NaCl solution would be consistent with the calculated formation of natrolite
358 or a zeolitic precursor near the surface, which is only possible when the paste is strongly decalcified.
359 In the case of seawater the decalcification of C-S-H at the exposed surface is less severe and
360 therefore no natrolite formation is predicted and no sodium enrichment within the mortar is
361 observed. In addition, the decalcification of C-S-H at the surface could also allow for additional
362 sodium binding in the C-S-H, as low Ca/Si C-S-H is able to bind more alkali [27]. The good agreement
363 between modelled behaviour and experimental observation also indicates that the elemental profiles
364 we are measuring, reflect to a large extent the interaction between the different elements and the
365 solids, and only to a limited extent the content of an element in the pore solution.

366

367 **4.3 Do sulfur and magnesium enrichment stop chloride ingress?**

368 From the chloride profiles (Figure 3) it can be seen that there was no increase in the resistance to
369 chloride ingress of the mortars when exposed to seawater compared to NaCl solution. Even to the
370 contrary, the total chlorine contents for the seawater exposed samples are higher than for the NaCl
371 exposed samples at the same depth from the exposed surface although the seawater exposed
372 samples had a clearly more intact microstructure at the surface. Hence, although sulfur and
373 magnesium present in seawater are able to stabilise the microstructure at the surface they do not
374 prevent or slow down chloride ingress.

375 Others [6] have observed enhanced chloride ingress upon exposure to combinations of magnesium
376 sulfate and NaCl, but this might be due to the high sulfate concentrations used (350 mmol/l sulfur),
377 which over time led to cracking due to sulfate attack opening up for chloride ingress. A recent survey
378 of Norwegian and Danish marine exposed concretes showed that for the sulfur concentration
379 present in seawater of 30 mmol/l, and low water-binder-ratios applied for marine concrete, generally
380 just an enrichment in sulfur is observed near the surface, but no or only limited signs of damage [25,

381 28]. It is therefore important to use realistic sulfur and magnesium concentrations to assess their
382 effect on chloride ingress.

383 Similarly, the microstructure stabilised by carbonate, sulfur and magnesium did not prevent or
384 reduce leaching as demonstrated by the portlandite profiles determined by TGA. There was no
385 significant difference between the samples exposed to seawater and NaCl solution using this
386 technique.

387

388 **4.4 Shape of the chloride profile**

389 A beginning peaking behaviour of the chloride profiles is observed after 90 days for the seawater
390 exposed samples and after 180 days for the NaCl exposed samples. For the samples exposed to
391 seawater for 180 days, the chloride content in the outermost section (0-1 mm) is lower than the
392 chloride content at 1-3 mm. In the case of seawater, one could attribute this to the ingress of sulfur
393 which reduces the chloride binding capacity [29-31]. However, the peaking behaviour is also
394 observed for the samples exposed to NaCl solution, which does not contain sulfur. Also carbonation
395 can reduce the chloride binding capacity [30], however the peaking behaviour for NaCl exposure
396 becomes more pronounced with time whereas the level of carbonation remains the same.

397 The fact that over time the chlorine content becomes slightly lower at the surface compared to the
398 section deeper in is attributed to severe leaching in the outermost zone of the samples as seen in the
399 elemental maps in Figure 8 and Figure 9. This leads to the decomposition of C-S-H and the loss of its
400 ability to sorb chlorine.

401 The chloride profiles also exhibit an increase in the maximum chlorine content over time. Our
402 hypothesis is that leaching leads to a reduction in the pH and partial decalcification of the C-S-H
403 causing an increase in the calcium concentration in the pore solution, which in turn leads to
404 increased chloride binding. It has been recently shown that the availability of calcium plays a
405 fundamental role in the ability of cement to bind chloride, and that a decrease in the availability of
406 calcium lowers the amount of chlorine associated with C-S-H [32,33].

407 As leaching and the consequent decalcification of C-S-H influences the chloride ingress profile, it is
408 important to allow leaching during testing. This can be done by keeping the volume of the exposure
409 solution high enough and the composition constant to simulate field exposure, e.g. concrete column
410 in the sea.

411

412 **4.5 Impact of the findings for service life modelling**

413 The presence of sulfate, magnesium and carbonate in the seawater in addition to sodium and
414 chlorine did not have a major effect on the chloride ingress within the 180 days of exposure at 20°C.
415 This supports the use of NaCl solution when testing the resistance to chloride ingress from marine
416 exposed concrete.

417 The changes in the phase composition in the exposed concrete can give rise to variations in the value
418 and location of the maximum chloride concentration and potentially also the diffusion coefficient
419 over time, both for seawater and NaCl solution. We attribute the increase in the maximum chloride
420 content and inwards movement of the maximum chlorine content in concrete to progressed
421 decalcification of the C-S-H.

422 In service life models based on Fick's second law of diffusion, e.g. as used in [fib 2006], describing the
423 chloride ingress profiles with two parameters, a surface concentration C_s and an apparent diffusion
424 coefficient D_{app} , the impact of these time dependent changes are currently mathematically taken into
425 account by an "ageing factor" applied on the apparent diffusion coefficient. However, also the
426 surface concentration changes over time as the value and location of the maximum chloride content
427 strongly affect the surface concentration.

428 It can be concluded that in order to understand and predict chloride ingress over time, multi-species
429 ingress models taking into account changes in the phase assemblage over time are needed.

430

431 **5 Conclusion**

432 The aim of this study was to investigate how elements in seawater other than chlorine and sodium
433 affect chloride ingress in cement-based materials over time. This was done by comparing chloride
434 ingress in mortar from seawater with the ingress from a NaCl solution with the similar chlorine
435 content at 20°C during 180 days. The samples were saturated prior to exposure in order to avoid
436 capillary suction and to focus on diffusion as a sole ingress mechanism. We observed that:

- 437 • Phase changes due to the presence of sulfur and magnesium in seawater did not limit
438 chloride ingress within the investigated time range.
- 439 • Peaking behaviour in the chloride profiles seems to be due to leaching causing decalcification
440 of the C-S-H.
- 441 • Chlorine and potassium showed clear diffusion profiles up to 10-20 mm depth, whereas
442 ingress of sodium, sulfur and magnesium was limited to the outer 1 mm at the surface.

443

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449

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533

534

535 **Tables**

536

537 **Table 1: Mix composition of the tested mortars including the water-to-binder mass ratio (w/b).**

	Mass [g]
PC	1522.8
SF	97.2
water	638.6
sand	4050.0
SP	4.9
demper	6.1
w/b	0.40

538

539

540

541 **Table 2: Chemical composition [wt.-%] and physical characteristics of the Portland cement (PC), fly**
 542 **ash (FA), slag, silica fume (SF) and sand.**

[%]	PC	SF	sand
LOI 950C	2.4	2.0	0.3
SiO₂	19.6	95.1	95.8
Al₂O₃	4.5	1.0	1.6
TiO₂	0.3	0.0	0.1
MnO	0.1	0.0	0.0
Fe₂O₃	3.5	0.1	0.7
CaO	61.6	0.1	0.1
MgO	2.4	0.4	0.1
K₂O	1.0	1.0	0.7
Na₂O	0.5	0.1	0.0
SO₃	3.4	0.0	0.0
P₂O₅	0.2	0.1	0.0
CO₂	1.0		
free CaO	2.5		
K₂O water soluble	0.9		
Na₂O water soluble	0.3		
Blaine [cm²/g]	3900		
density [g/cm³]	3.12	2.3	2.66
BET [m²/g]		19.19	

543

544 **Table 3: The mineral composition of the ordinary Portland cement (PC) determined by XRD-**
 545 **Rietveld.**

minerals	[%]
C₃S	55.7
C₂S	15.4
C₃A	5.7
C₄AF	10.9

546

547

548 **Table 4: Elemental composition of the exposure solutions (¹ Standard seawater composition from**
549 **Millero et al. [34] with a pH of 8.1 at 25°C, ²by titration)**

	Seawater ¹		NaCl-solution ²	
	[g/l]	[mmol/l]	[g/l]	[mmol/l]
C	0.025	2.1		
Ca	0.44	10.9		
Cl	20.6	580	19.3	545
K	0.42	10.8		
Mg	1.36	56.3		
Na	11.4	497	12.52	545
S	0.96	30.0		

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551

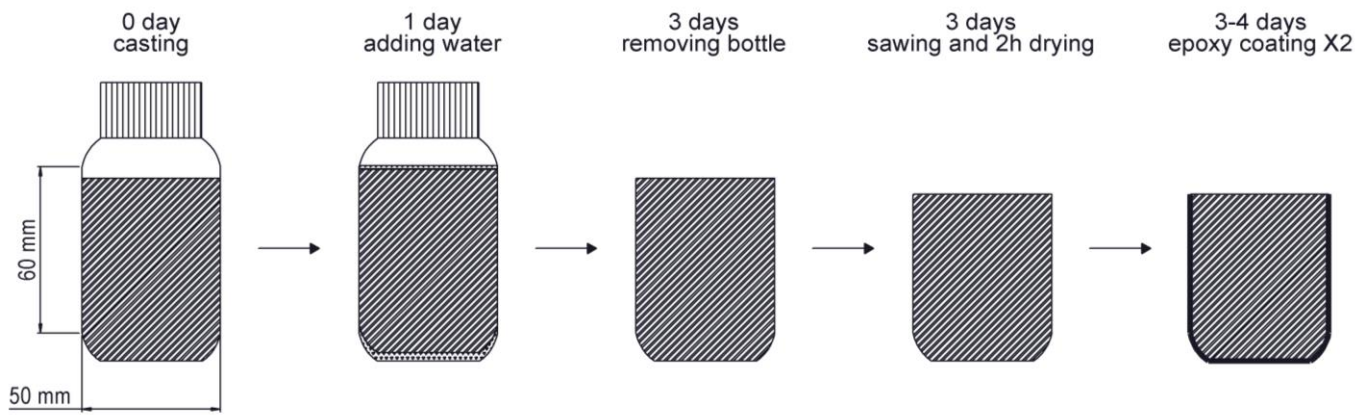
552 **Table 5: Elemental composition of the pore solution of the mortars after 3 years of sealed curing**
553 **determined by ICP-MS on expressed pore solution.**

	Concentration [mmol/l]
Al	0.04
Ca	4.12
Cl	2.11
K	187
Mg	0.005
Na	159
Si	0.19
S	8.22
Fe	0.006

554

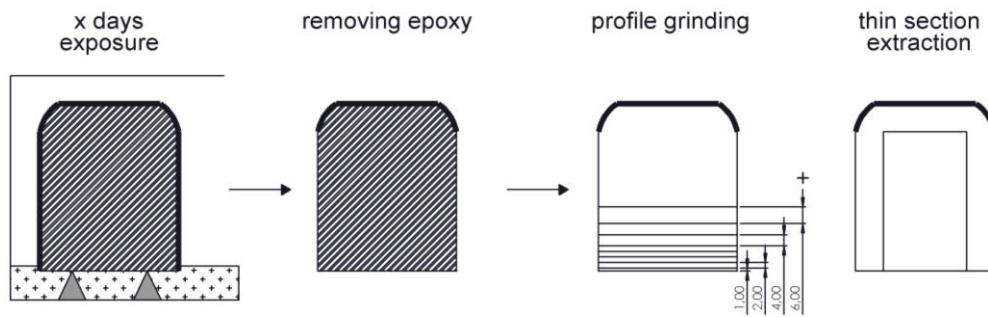
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556 **Figures**



557

558 **Figure 1: Sample preparation**

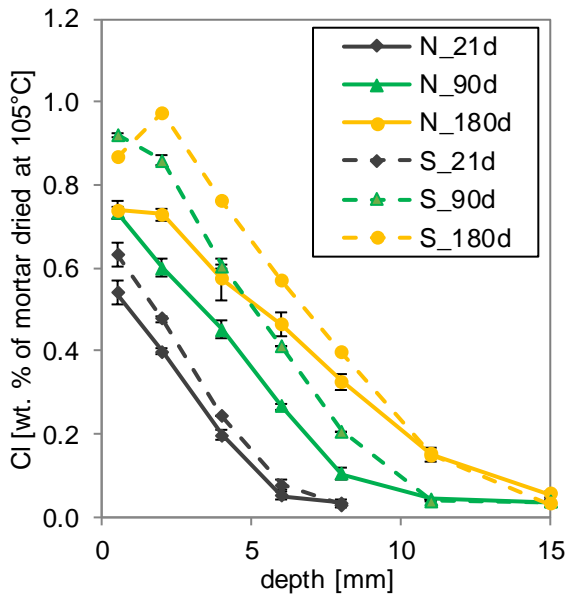


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560 **Figure 2: Exposure conditions and sample extraction**

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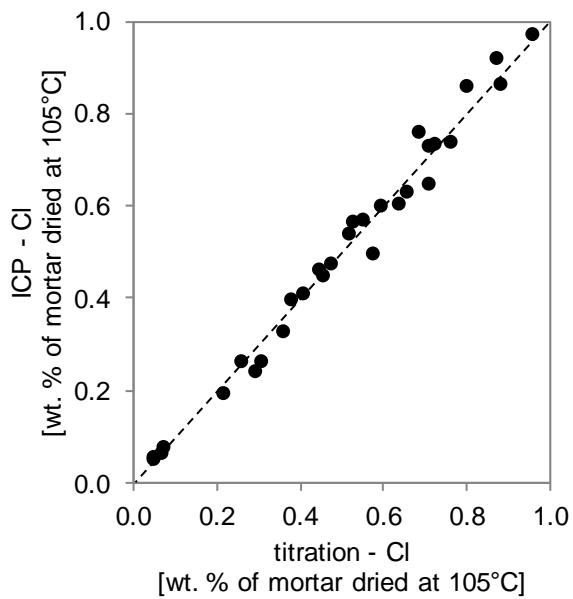
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564 **Figure 3: Total chloride profiles of PC mortar samples exposed to seawater (S) or NaCl solution (N)**
565 **for 21, 90 and 180 days, expressed at wt.% of mortar dried at 105 °C.**

566

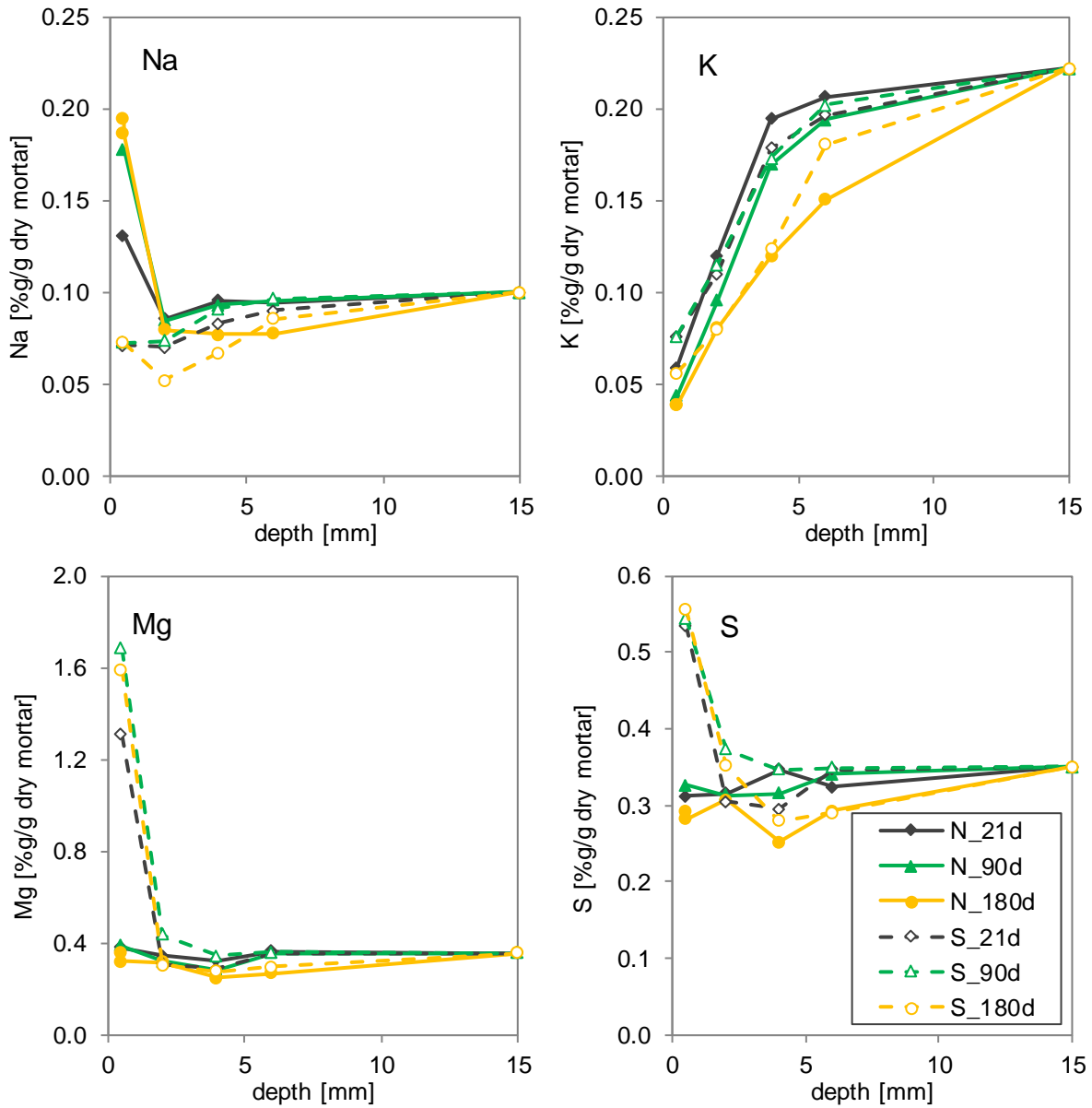


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568 **Figure 4: Comparison of the total chloride content determined by ICP-MS with the amount**
569 **determined by titration on the same profile ground mortar samples.**

570

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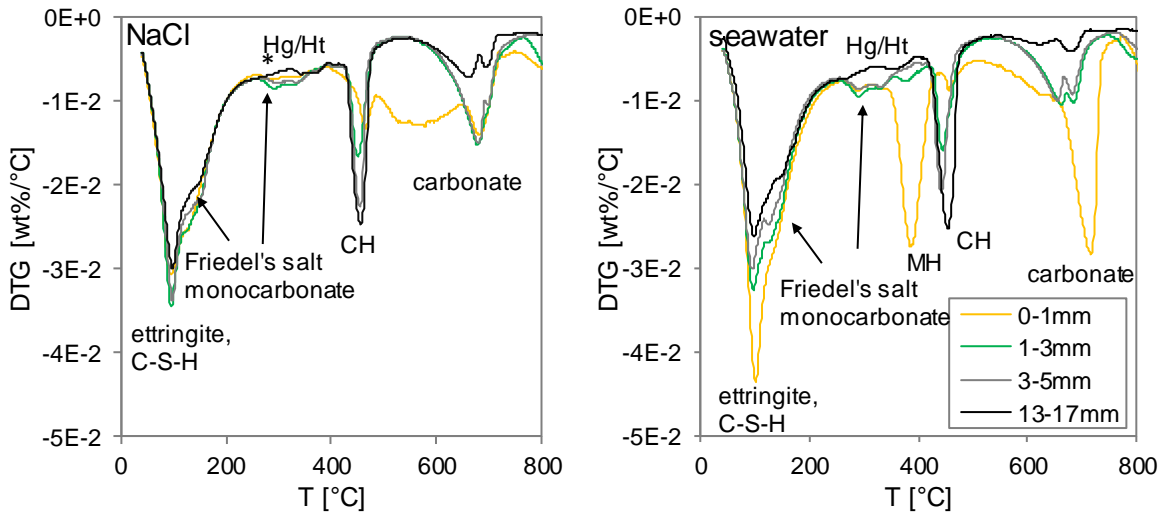


572

573

574 **Figure 5: Total sodium (Na), potassium (K), magnesium (Mg) and sulphur (S) content determined by**
 575 **ICP-MS for profile ground PC mortar samples after 21, 90 and 180 days of exposure to seawater (S)**
 576 **and NaCl solution (N), expressed at wt. % of mortar dried at 105 °C.**

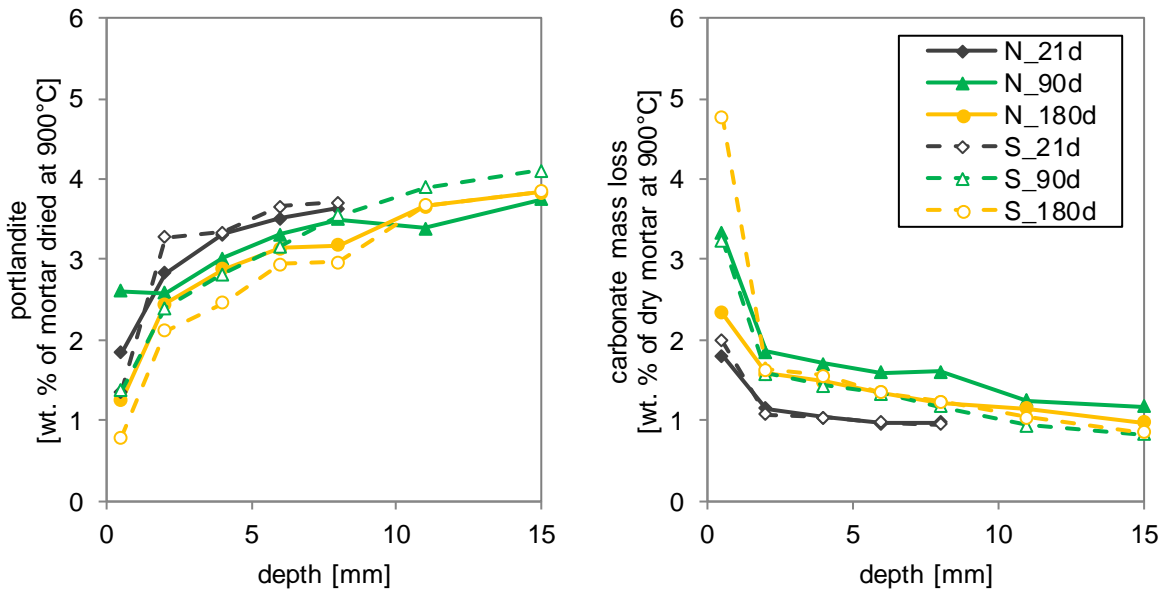
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579 **Figure 6: Derivative of thermogravimetric curves (DTG) for different profile ground sections of the**
 580 **PC mortar exposed for 90 days to NaCl solution and seawater, expressed as wt. % of the initial**
 581 **mortar mass at 40 °C per °C. The weight loss peaks typically associate with the following phases as**
 582 **indicated: ettringite, C-S-H, Friedel's salt, mon carbonate, portlandite (CH), brucite (MH), and**
 583 **potentially M-S-H and natrolite (*). The weight loss above 550 °C is associated with the**
 584 **decomposition of carbonates.**

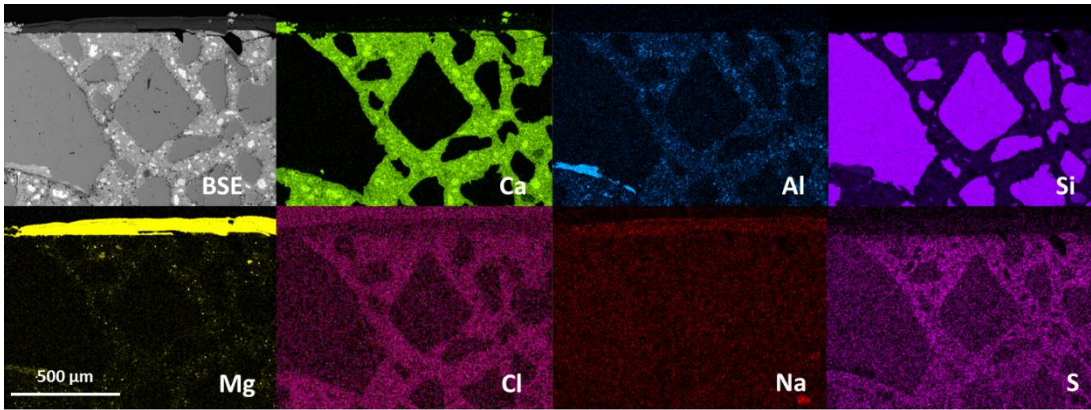
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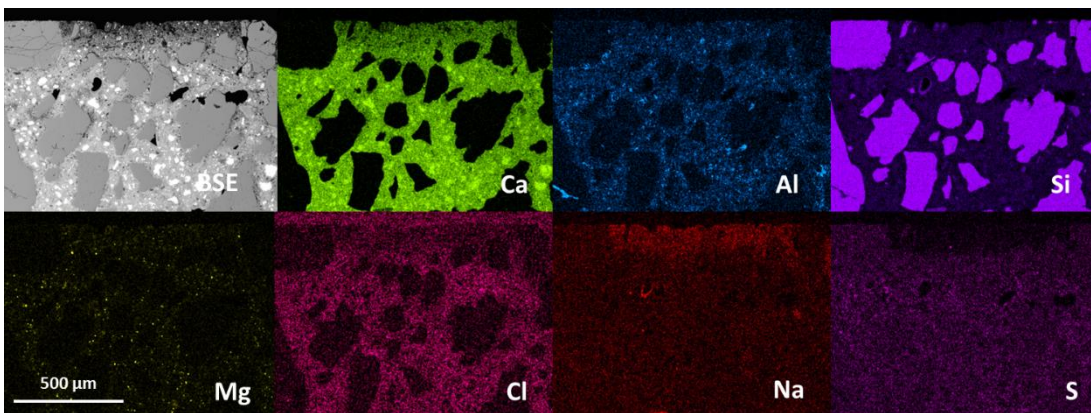
587 **Figure 7: Portlandite (left) and carbonate content (right) determined by TGA on profile ground PC**
 588 **mortar after 21, 90 and 180 days of exposure to seawater (S) and NaCl solution (N), expressed as**
 589 **wt. % of mortar dried at 900 °C.**

590



591

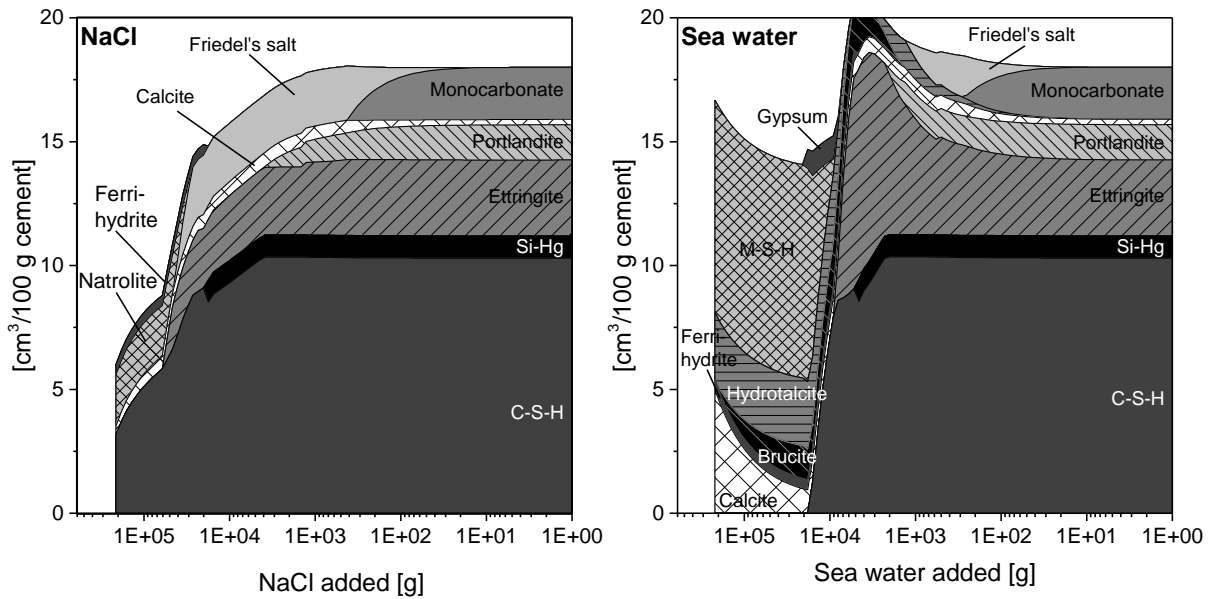
592 **Figure 8: Elemental maps of the exposed surface of the PC mortar after 90 days of exposure to**
 593 **seawater. The exposed surface is at the top of the images.**



594

595 **Figure 9: Elemental maps of the exposed surface of the PC mortar after 90 days of exposure to NaCl**
 596 **solution. The exposed surface is at the top of the images.**

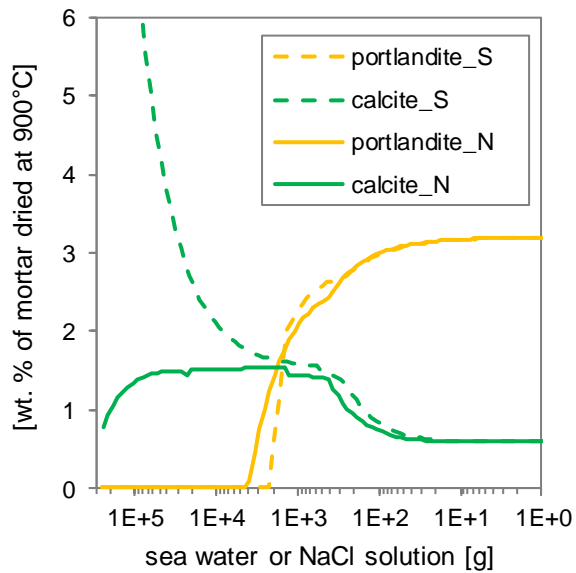
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600 **Figure 10: Predicted volume of the phases in the PC paste upon exposure to increasing amounts of**
 601 **NaCl solution (left) or seawater (right) in [cm³/100 g cement].**

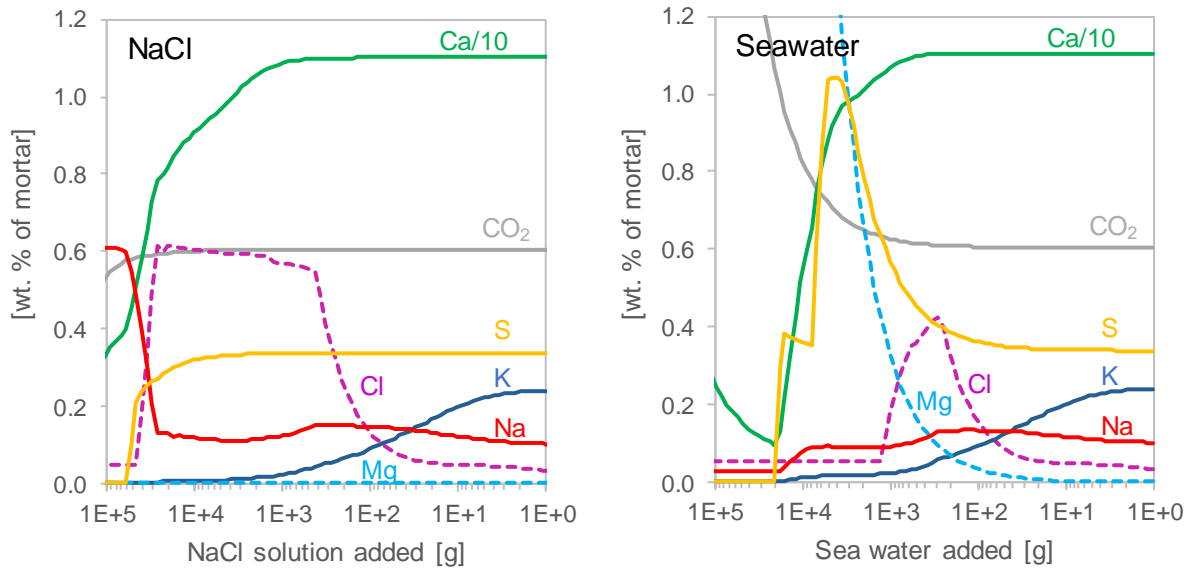
602



603

604 **Figure 11: Predicted portlandite and calcite profiles in the PC mortar given as wt. % of mortar**
 605 **(including the amount of modelled bound water) upon exposure to increasing amounts of NaCl**
 606 **solution (_N, solid line) or seawater (_S, dotted line).**

607



608

609 **Figure 12: Predicted elemental profiles in the cement paste given as wt. % of mortar (including the**
 610 **modelled bound water and an additional 10 ml exposure solution per 100 g of cement) upon**
 611 **exposure to increasing amounts of NaCl solution (left) and seawater (right).**