

1 **The Influence of Shrinkage-Reducing Admixtures (SRAs) on Moisture Absorption in**
2 **Cementitious Materials at Early-Ages**

3
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7 **1.0. Abstract**

8
9 The water absorption behavior of cement pastes ($w/c = 0.30$) containing varying concentrations
10 (i.e., 0 %, 0.2 % and 5 %) of a shrinkage reducing admixture (SRA) was measured. Moisture
11 ingress was monitored using x-ray absorption. A decrease in both the depth of water penetration
12 and the rate of water absorption was observed with increasing specimen maturity and admixture
13 concentration. This agrees with theoretical considerations that suggest water sorption is a
14 function of the surface tension and the viscosity of the fluid ingressing into the pores. The
15 Boltzmann-Matano approach was successfully employed to determine the moisture content
16 dependent moisture diffusivity of the material, which exhibited a dependence on both the pore
17 structure (specimen maturity) and the admixture concentration.

18
19 **Keywords:** shrinkage reducing admixture (SRA), water absorption, moisture transport, moisture
20 diffusivity, sorption, early-age, x-ray absorption

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22 **2.0. Introduction and Background**

23

24 Shrinkage reducing admixtures (SRAs) are being increasingly used in concrete construction [1].
25 Shrinkage reducing admixtures work by reducing the surface tension of the pore fluid which in
26 turn reduces the capillary stress developed and the shrinkage of concrete [2,3]. Several studies
27 have demonstrated that SRAs can substantially reduce shrinkage (both, drying and autogenous)
28 while having a minimal impact on mechanical properties such as strength or elastic modulus
29 [4,5,6,30]. Several researchers have shown that reducing shrinkage results in a reduction or
30 elimination of cracking in concrete elements [7,8,9,10].

31

32 While the majority of research has focused on assessing the influence of shrinkage reducing
33 admixtures on volume change, the impact of these admixtures on material durability has received
34 less attention [4,30,31,33,34,41,47]. Schissel et al. assessed the rapid chloride penetrability of concrete
35 mixtures containing SRA and observed them to provide a greater resistance to ionic transport
36 than conventional mixtures [11]. This may be due in part to the reduction in the conductivity of
37 the solution containing SRA [45]. Further, Bentz et al. [43] demonstrated that additions of SRA
38 may reduce the diffusion rate of ionic species due to the increase in the viscosity of the pore
39 solution. Berke et al. [12] have shown that reinforced concrete containing a shrinkage reducing
40 admixture may also have a lower potential for corrosion related damage and deterioration as
41 compared to reinforced concrete not containing such an admixture.

42

43 Other researchers have investigated the influence of SRA on the freeze-thaw resistance of
44 concrete. While some have suggested that the SRA may in some cases interact with the air

45 entraining admixture resulting in a reduction in the stability of the air system [^{13,14}] or reduce the
46 scaling performance under freeze-thaw loading [¹⁵], others have shown that it is possible to make
47 concretes with a sufficient air void system [¹⁷]. It has often been anecdotally observed that
48 concrete containing SRA can be even more resistant to freezing and thawing than conventional
49 concrete after some drying is permitted [^{16,17}]. This can be explained by observations that water
50 is absorbed less quickly into concrete containing SRA [^{1,47}]. This has been attributed to the
51 reduction in surface tension of the pore fluid.

52

53 A need exists for the development of more comprehensive approaches for quantifying the water
54 absorption behavior of concretes containing SRA. This has implications on the interpretation of
55 laboratory tests like chemical shrinkage, chloride ingress or freeze thaw testing and can also have
56 a substantial impact on the field performance and service life modeling of concrete containing
57 SRA. Specifically, this could include water absorption during curing, saturation leading to freeze
58 thaw damage, or the ingress of aggressive ionic agents.

59

60 **3.0. Research Significance**

61

62 This paper quantifies how SRAs reduce water absorption and relates this to a moisture diffusivity
63 coefficient. The diffusivity coefficient is related to considerations of specimen age (maturity),
64 and surface tension and the viscosity of the pore fluid. These results demonstrate a benefit of
65 SRAs in reducing moisture ingress and enable this effect to be incorporated from a fundamental
66 perspective in service life models which aim to predict the durability performance of structures.

67

68 **4.0. Materials and Mixing Procedures**

69

70 Three cement paste mixtures were prepared according to the mixture proportions shown in Table

71 1. Type I ordinary portland cement was used. The cement had a Blaine fineness of $360 \text{ m}^2/\text{kg}$

72 and a Bogue potential phase composition (mass fraction) of 60 % C_3S , 12 % C_2S , 12 % C_3A , and

73 7 % C_4AF , with a Na_2O equivalent of 0.72 %. A high-range water reducing admixture (HRWRA

74 - Glenium 3000NS^{©**}) was used. A commercially available shrinkage reducing admixture (SRA

75 - Tetraguard AS20[©]) was added at 0.2 % and 5 % concentration (based on the initial water to

76 SRA replacement rates by mass) of the initial mixing water. The mixture compositions (SRA

77 concentrations) were specifically selected to evaluate the moisture transport performance of

78 mixtures having three distinct values of liquid-vapor surface tensions ($72 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N/m}$,

79 $54 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N/m}$, and $38 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N/m}$) (Further details are provided in Sections 6.2 and 7.2).

80

81 A mixing procedure was used in preparation of the cement pastes that permitted mixing to be

82 performed under an evacuated condition, to minimize the influence of entrapped air on the

83 measurements. The cement paste mixtures were prepared using de-aired, de-ionized water. The

84 water was de-aired by boiling and then cooled to room temperature (23 ± 1) °C before mixing.

85 The dry constituent materials were placed in a special mixing chamber [^{18,19}]. The chamber was

86 sealed, air was evacuated from the chamber using a vacuum pump, and the solution of water and

87 the chemical admixtures was introduced into the chamber under the same evacuated condition.

88 The chamber was then placed in a commercial paint shaker and shaken for 5 min to mix the

** Certain commercial products are identified in this paper to specify the materials used and procedures employed. In no case does such identification imply endorsement by Purdue University or the National Institute of Standards and Technology, nor does it indicate that the products are necessarily the best available for the purpose.

89 constituents and obtain a consistent paste mixture. After mixing, the chamber was opened and
90 the cement paste slurry was placed in the specimen molds using external vibration [19].

91

92

Table 1: Mixture Proportions (by Mass)

93

	w/c = 0.30	w/c = 0.30 + 0.2 % SRA	w/c = 0.30 + 5 % SRA
Water	0.3000	0.2994	0.2850
Cement	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
HRWRA	0.0050	0.0050	0.0050
SRA	0.0000	0.0006	0.0150

94

95 **5.0. General Information on the X-Ray Absorption Facility**

96

97 The equipment used is an x-ray absorption system produced by GNI [20]. The system consists of
98 a modified Type 9120 x-ray source (tube) contained in an environmentally controlled
99 (temperature and humidity) chamber [21]. For the x-ray energy settings (Power = 2.5 W; 50 KeV
100 and 50 μ A) used in this study, the spot size of the source was approximately 0.0055 mm [21]. The
101 x-ray beam output by the source exhibits a conical spread [21].

102

103 The x-ray intensity was measured using a charge-coupled device (CCD) (i.e., x-ray camera). The
104 16-bit CCD camera records the cumulative x-ray intensity at each pixel, for a total surface of
105 252 pixels x 256 pixels [22]. The x-ray source and camera can be moved simultaneously using an
106 X-Y positioning table with a precision of ± 0.001 mm. The Focus to Detector Distance (FDD,
107 Figure 1), can be adjusted from 10 mm to 500 mm; however, for this study the FDD was fixed at
108 500 mm. The Object to Detector Distance (ODD) was fixed at 100 mm for this study (Figure 1).

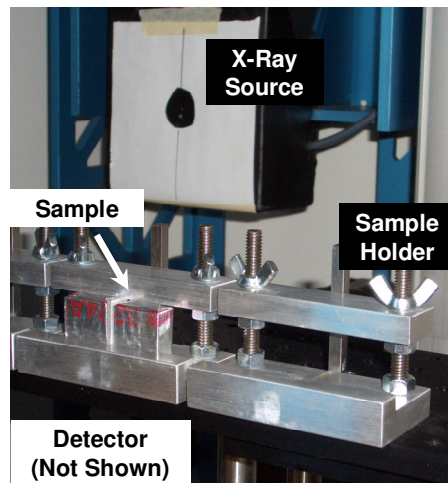
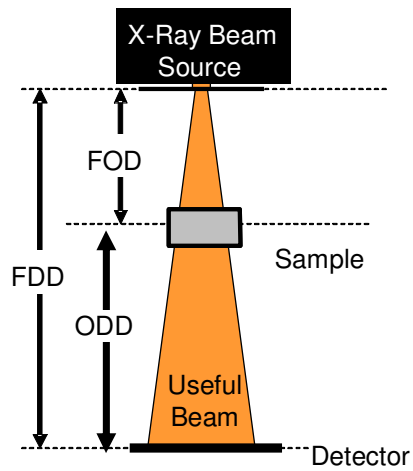
109

110 The specimens analyzed in this study are mounted on a fixed stage, which allows the user to
111 perform repetitive imaging, ensuring a fixed specimen position. An illustration of the
112 experimental setup is provided in Figure 1. A single pixel size and spatial resolution (refer
113 section 5.2) of 0.08 mm has been determined for the geometry used in this investigation.

114

115 A critical consideration in moisture movement studies is the need to resolve the spatial position
116 and moisture content of the specimen. Spatial resolution is crucial to identify the position of the
117 moisture front in the system. Further, it may also be important to account for mismatch of the
118 attenuation coefficients and the consequent loss in spatial resolution which is encountered at the
119 specimen-air interface [23]. These considerations will be discussed further in Section 5.2.

120



121

122

123

124 Figure 1: Equipment Layout: (a) A schematic illustration of the geometry of the experimental
125 setup (not to scale) and (b) A photo of the specimen in the x-ray chamber

126

127 **5.1. Analytical Assessment of Moisture Movement using X-Ray Absorption**

128

129 The intensity of x-ray radiation transmitted at any time through a dry element can be described
130 using Equation 1, while Equation 2 describes the intensity of radiation transmitted through the
131 same element that contains moisture [24].

132
$$I_{DRY} = I_0 \cdot \exp[-(\mu_{Eff}) \cdot t] \quad \text{Equation (1)}$$

133
$$I_{WET} = I_0 \cdot \exp[-(\mu_{Eff} \cdot t + \mu_w \cdot t_w)] \quad \text{Equation (2)}$$

134 where: μ_{Eff} and t are the effective linear attenuation coefficient and thickness of the dry volume
135 element and μ_w and t_w are the linear attenuation coefficient and the thickness of the volume of
136 water present in the material [25].

137

138 To describe the influence of moisture ingress on the transmitted x-ray behavior, the ratio of the
139 wet and dry transmitted intensities can be compared. This can be done by rearranging and
140 reducing Equation 1 and Equation 2. This expression is shown in Equation 3.

141
$$\frac{I_{WET}}{I_{DRY}} = \exp[-\mu_w \cdot t_w] \quad \text{Equation (3)}$$

142 The moisture content (MC) of a porous specimen (m^3/m^3) can be expressed as a ratio of the
143 volume of water (m^3) absorbed to total (solid) volume of the dry material (m^3). This can be
144 written as shown in Equation 4 where V_i is the volume fraction of water (moisture content)
145 contained in the specimen.

146
$$MC = V_i = \frac{t_w}{t} \quad \text{Equation (4)}$$

147 Equations 3 and 4 can then be rearranged to represent the moisture that exists in the material
148 (described in Equation 5) as a function of the logarithm of the ratio of the transmitted intensities
149 in the wet and the dry states, the attenuation coefficient of water (at a specified energy level) and
150 the thickness of the material in the dry state [25].

$$151 \quad MC = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{I_{WET}}{I_{DRY}}\right)}{(-\mu_w \cdot t)} \quad \text{Equation (5)}$$

152

153 **5.2. Spatial and Moisture Content Resolution of the X-Ray Absorption Facility**

154

155 Figure 2(a) shows the spatial resolution as a function of magnification (Equation 6) [26,27].

$$156 \quad R_w = \frac{S_p}{M} + \left(1 - \frac{1}{M}\right) \cdot S_s + \frac{(M-1) \cdot t \cdot \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}{ODD} \quad \text{Equation (6)}$$

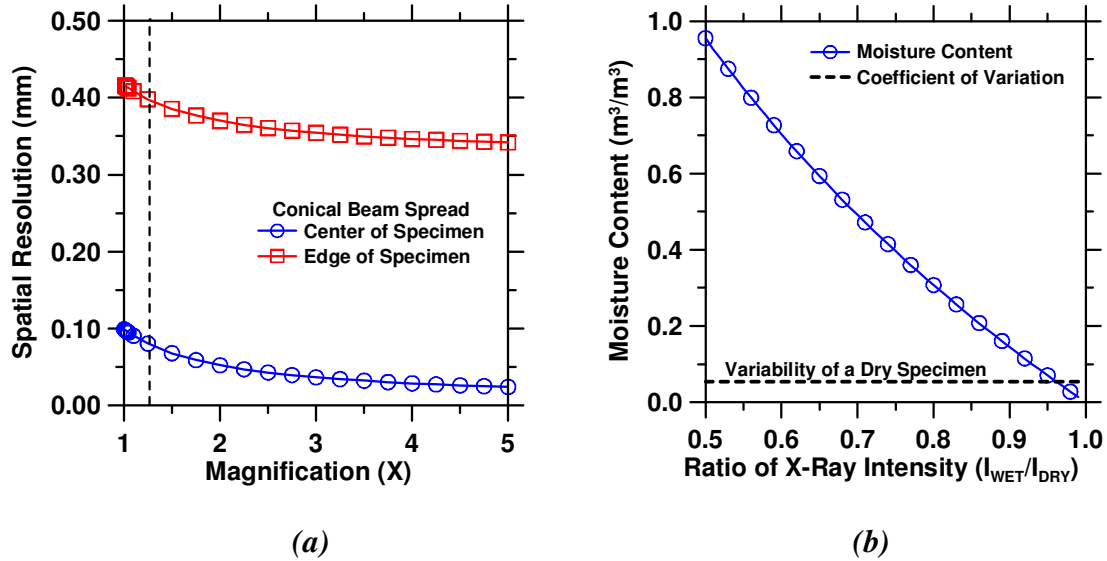
157 where S_p is the single-pixel size on the camera (0.08 mm in this study), M ($M = 1 + ODD/FOD$)
158 is the level of magnification (1.25X in this study), S_s is the spot-size of the x-ray beam at the
159 source (0.0055 mm), t is the specimen thickness (12.7 mm in this study) and x and y are the
160 dimensions from the center of the specimen to its visible edges in the horizontal and vertical
161 directions (mm). Figure 2(a) illustrates that increasing the magnification increases the spatial
162 resolution (increasing values denote a loss in resolution). For the setup used in this study and a
163 specimen thickness of 12.7 mm, a spatial resolution of ≈ 0.08 mm to ≈ 0.39 mm was determined,
164 at the center and visible edges of the specimen respectively.

165

166 The moisture content resolution (%) of the x-ray facility for the present experiments can be
167 described by ascertaining the coefficient of variation (COV) of the transmitted intensity for a dry

168 specimen (or a specimen containing a specific fixed level of moisture). Multiple measurements
169 (3) on a single specimen tested in the dry state demonstrate a measurement (intensity) variability
170 (COV) of 0.55 %. Using the ratio of the transmitted intensity of a wet specimen (containing a
171 variable level of moisture), the transmitted intensity of a dry specimen, the effective attenuation
172 coefficient of water at a specific energy level (cm^{-1}), and the thickness of the specimen (cm), the
173 relationship between the normalized x-ray intensity and the moisture content can be determined
174 (Equation 5). This relationship is graphically illustrated in Figure 2(b) [²⁵].

175
176 For an incident beam power of 2.5 W (50 KeV and 50 μA), a coefficient of variation of 0.55 %
177 in the transmitted intensity was determined for a dry paste specimen [²⁵]. While the attenuation
178 coefficient of water shows maximum sensitivity at low beam energies, practical considerations
179 of beam energy and variability justify selection of 50 KeV as an appropriate imaging energy, as a
180 trade-off is needed between low variability and a decreasing sensitivity for the attenuation due to
181 water [²⁵]. The volumetric moisture content resolution is then determined to be 0.0055 (m^3/m^3)
182 which for the material tested (cement paste, bulk density of 2100 kg/m^3) is equivalent to a mass-
183 based moisture content resolution of 0.26 % (kg/kg). The moisture resolution is shown
184 graphically in Figure 2(b).



185

186

187

188 Figure 2: (a) Spatial resolution as a function of magnification at the center of the specimen. The

189 dashed line indicates the magnification level used in this study and (b) The moisture content as a

190 function of the normalized x-ray intensity and the minimum moisture resolution (dashed line)

191

192 6.0. Experimental Procedures

193 6.1. Fluid Surface Tension and Viscosity Measurements

194

195 The surface tensions of solutions of SRA and de-ionized (DI) water and SRA and synthetic pore

196 solution (0.35 KOH + 0.05 NaOH – molar concentration) were measured using the du Noüy

197 Ring Method at 23 ± 0.5 °C [28]. The method is based on determining the force that is required to

198 detach a wire ring from the surface of a solution. The ring used was made of a platinum-iridium

199 alloy and was cleaned according to ASTM D971 prior to each measurement. The measured

200 surface tension of distilled water (0.0723 N/m) was used as a standard reference in determining

201 the change in surface tension caused by the addition of the SRA [29]. The average of three

202 measurements was used in the representation of each data-point, with a typical coefficient of
203 variation being 0.50 %. A more detailed procedure on performance of the surface tension
204 measurements can be found elsewhere [^{44,45}].

205

206 The viscosities of solutions of SRA and de-ionized (DI) water were measured using a
207 Hydramotion 700^{**} portable viscometer, at a temperature of 23 ± 0.5 °C, with an uncertainty of
208 0.02 mPa·s. The measured viscosity of distilled water (0.89 mPa·s) is used as a standard
209 reference in determining the change in viscosity effected by addition of the SRA. Measurements
210 were performed at a water-SRA mass concentration of 0 %, 0.2 %, 5 % and 10 %.

211

212 **6.2. Moisture Ingress Assessment Using X-Ray Absorption**

213

214 Cement paste samples (25.4 mm x 25.4 mm x 12.7 mm, density = 2100 kg/m³) were used to
215 measure water absorption. A dimensional tolerance of ± 0.5 mm was noted between samples. At
216 degrees of hydration (evaluated using chemical shrinkage measurements [^{19,30,31,32}]) of
217 approximately 10 % and 47 % (equivalent ages of 8 h and 24 h for the plain mixture; $w/c = 0.30$)
218 the samples were demolded and weighed. At this time, the samples were placed in an oven at
219 50 °C for 2 d to remove the evaporable water contained in the sample, while minimizing the
220 influence of drying on the pore structure. After 2 days of drying, the samples were weighed and
221 the evaporable water content was measured (~30 % and ~20 % for the specimens at 10 % and
222 47 % hydration respectively on a volumetric basis of the sealed samples). The initial water
223 content of the plain cement paste ($w/c = 0.30$) is ~48 % by volume.

224

225 At the time of testing, the oven-dried samples were wrapped in two uniform layers of aluminum
226 tape to seal the sample and enable one-dimensional water absorption. Consequently, the
227 measured intensity of x-ray radiation transmitted through the overall specimen would be a
228 function of the thickness of the cement paste and the aluminum tape. After the samples were
229 sealed, they were exposed to x-rays having an energy of 2.5W (50 KeV and 50 μ A), for a camera
230 integration (exposure) time of 5 seconds per image. Multiple (3 imaging cycles, which acquired
231 10 images each for a total of 30 images) x-ray images were acquired for the dry samples, to
232 develop a baseline calibration profile in the dry state. This profile was then used to track the
233 time-dependent ingress of moisture into the samples using Equation (5), assuming a uniform
234 moisture front and degree of hydration (reaction) through the specimen volume [^{25,64}]. After
235 testing of the dry samples was completed, water was ponded on the top of the cement paste
236 samples. X-ray measurements were then performed periodically over a duration of 1 hour after
237 water addition to monitor moisture ingress.

238

239 **7.0. Experimental Results**

240 **7.1. Fluid Surface Tension and Viscosity Measurements**

241

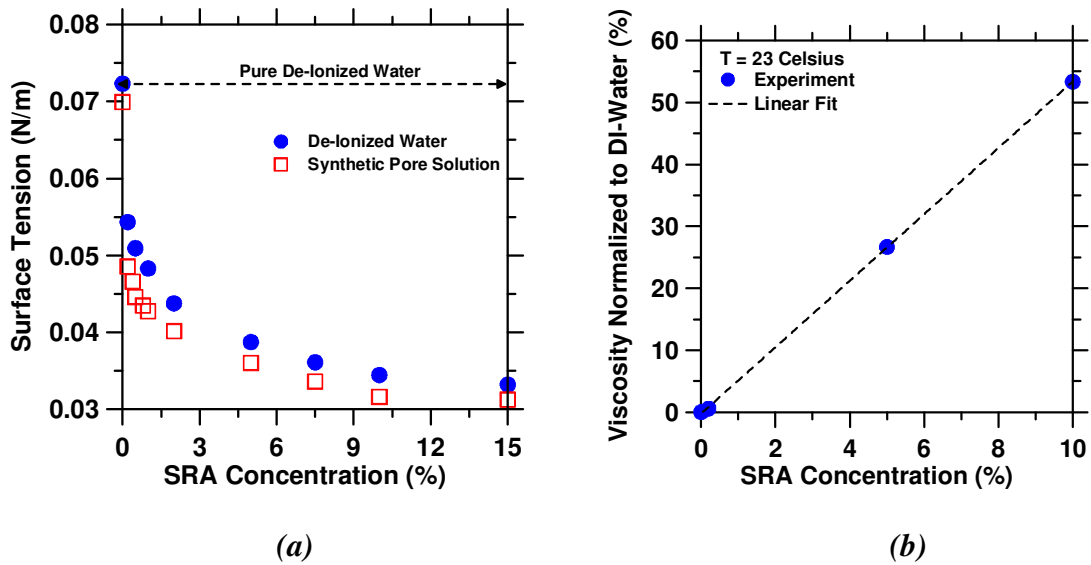
242 Figure 3(a) shows the measured surface tension for the DI-Water solutions and synthetic pore
243 solutions (0.35 KOH with 0.05 NaOH – molar concentration) containing various concentrations
244 of a shrinkage reducing admixture (SRA). As observed in Figure 3, dramatic reductions in
245 surface tension are noted even at very low rates of admixture addition. However, a plateau in the
246 reduction in surface tension is achieved when the SRA concentration reaches a critical level of
247 $\approx 10\%$ to 15% [^{33,34,35}]. A similar response is noted for SRA addition in pore solution; however,

248 the plateau in surface tension reduction is reached at a lower SRA concentration due to the
 249 presence and continued dissolution of salts in the pore solution [^{34,35}].

250

251 Figure 3(b) shows the measured viscosity of solutions containing various concentrations of an
 252 SRA normalized to the viscosity of DI-Water. As observed in Figure 3(b), the solution viscosity
 253 increases linearly with increasing SRA concentration, and is $\approx 55\%$ higher than DI-Water at an
 254 SRA concentration of 10 %.

255



256

257

258

259 Figure 3: (a) Surface tension as a function of SRA concentration for DI-Water and synthetic pore
 260 solutions and (b) Viscosity increase as a function of SRA Concentration for DI-Water solutions

261

262

263

264

265 **7.2. Moisture Ingress Profiles Assessment Using X-Ray Absorption**

266

267 Figure 4 shows the time dependent moisture penetration profiles, for the plain and 5 % SRA

268 mixtures at 10 % hydration. In the figure, a ratio of x-ray intensity (transmitted) less than one

269 indicates a region where water has penetrated from the top surface (depth = 0), while a value

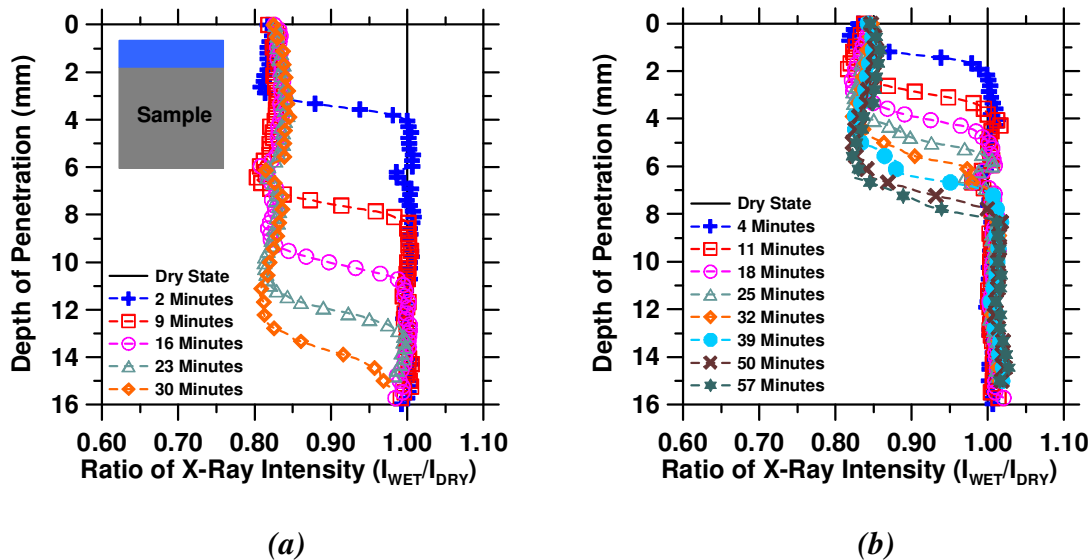
270 near 1.0 indicates a dry (original) region. It is seen that while the rate of moisture movement

271 (depth of penetration) is rapid in the plain mixture (Figure 4(a)), the rate of penetration is

272 significantly reduced in the SRA system, with approximately half the extent of penetration being

273 achieved in this system over the same time interval (Figure 4(b)).

274



275

276

277

278 Figure 4: The measured moisture ingress profiles as a function of x-ray intensity ratio at 10 %

279 hydration for: (a) a plain paste ($w/c = 0.30$) and (b) a paste containing a shrinkage-reducing

280 admixture ($w/c = 0.30 + 5\%$ SRA)

281

282 **8.0. Discussion of Experimental Results**

283 **8.1. The Influence of Surface Tension and Fluid Viscosity on Sorption: Experimental**
284 **Observations and Theoretical Modeling**

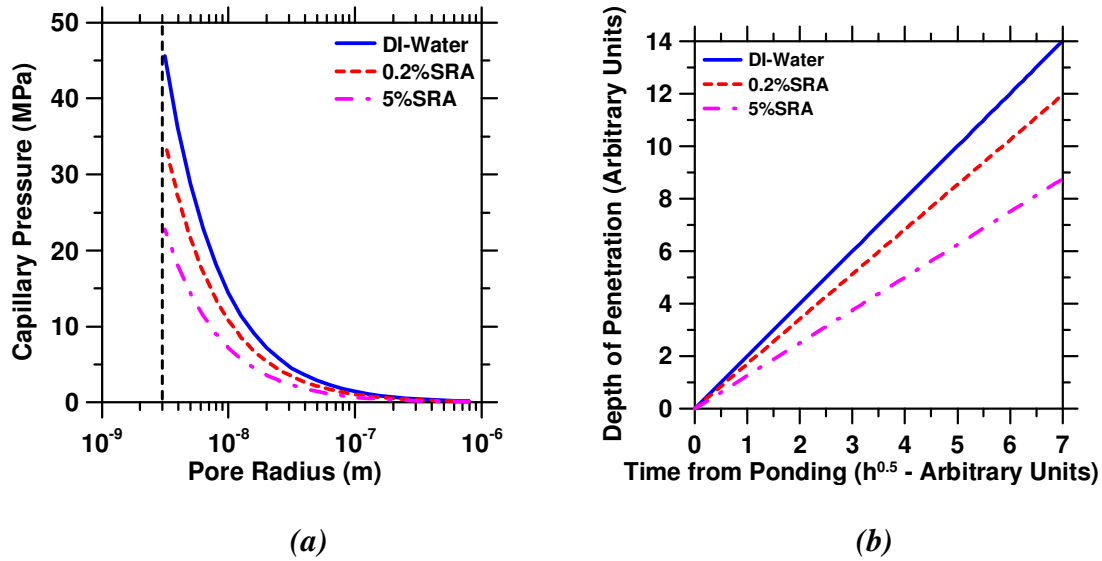
285

286 It is common to consider the parameter sorptivity (the rate of water absorption) to describe the
287 moisture sorption behavior of a porous material [³⁶]. The sorptivity is determined from the slope
288 of the plot of volume of water absorbed as a function of the square root of the time from
289 ponding, or in the case of spatially sensitive studies from a plot of the depth of penetration of
290 water as a function of the square root of the time from ponding. Since water absorption is a
291 process driven by capillary suction, the reduction in surface tension (and capillary pressure,
292 Figure 5(a)), and the increase in viscosity effected by addition of an SRA would have significant
293 implications on the sorption behavior of the system.

294

295 Measurements of sorptivity require fulfillment of certain considerations to be valid including: (a)
296 a uniform initial water content, (b) one-dimensional flow and an unlimited supply of water at the
297 ponding surface, (c) a homogenous material and (d) a material which is structurally and
298 chemically unaltered by the infiltration of water [³⁶]. While, conditions (a) to (c) are easily
299 validated for cementitious materials, (d) presents difficulties especially in the case of early-age
300 testing when a large proportion of unhydrated cement exists in the system. To minimize
301 microstructural changes (and changes induced in the permeability and capillary suction forces
302 due to pore refinement) and the ‘sorptivity anomaly’ induced due to continuing hydration,
303 moisture ingress studies in this project were performed for a duration of only one hour [³⁶].

304



305

306

307

308 Figure 5: (a) The capillary pressure as a function of the pore radius computed using the Young-
 309 Laplace equation. The dashed line indicates the thermodynamic stability limit of the liquid-vapor
 310 meniscus [^{37,38,39,40,41}] and (b) The theoretical water sorption profiles for solutions containing
 311 different concentrations of a SRA computed using Kehlman's Formulation [^{47,48}]

312

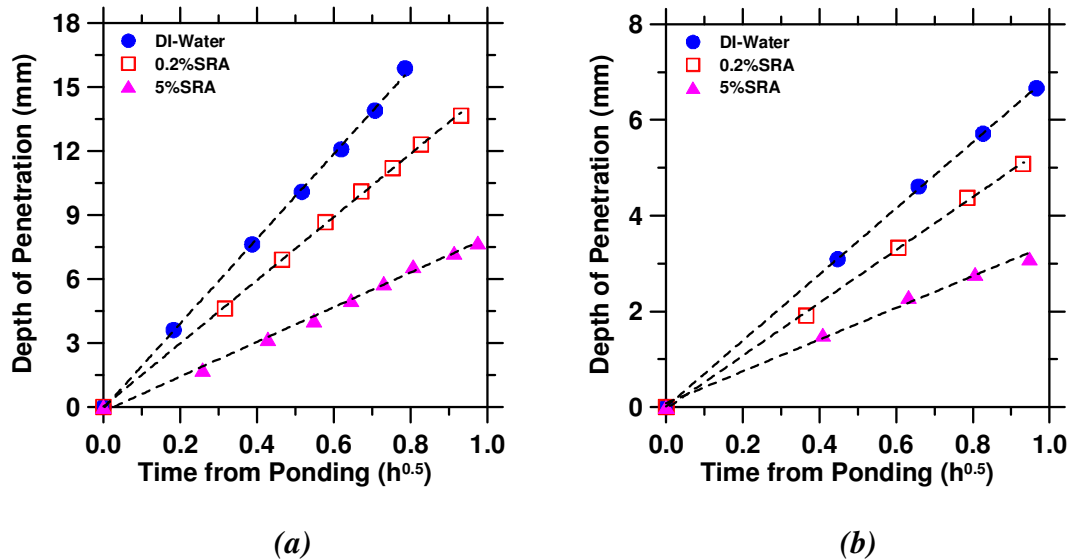
313 The reduction in surface tension and the increase in pore-fluid viscosity effected by addition of
 314 an SRA would exert a considerable influence on the sorptivity and water-absorption behavior of
 315 materials dosed with a shrinkage reducing admixture [^{36,42,43,44,45,46,47}]. To comprehensively
 316 evaluate changes in water absorption induced by addition of a shrinkage reducing admixture,
 317 experimental observations of moisture ingress (Figure 4) were complemented by theoretical
 318 modeling of water absorption using a formulation developed by Kelham (Equation 7) [^{47,48}].

319

$$320 \quad x(t_i) = \sqrt{\frac{4 \cdot k \cdot \gamma \cdot \cos(\theta) \cdot t_i}{\phi \cdot \mu \cdot r}} \quad \text{Equation (7)}$$

321 where: $x(t)$ is the depth of penetration (m) at any time t_t (s), k is the intrinsic permeability of the
 322 material (m^2), γ (N/m) is the surface tension of fluid, θ is the liquid-solid contact angle (radians),
 323 Φ is the porosity of the material (fraction), μ is the viscosity of the fluid ($kg/(m \cdot s)$) and r (m) is
 324 the radius of the pore (capillary). In this study, the liquid-solid contact angles were determined
 325 using a linear interpolation of values reported previously for 0 % and 10 % SRA solutions (7°
 326 and 28° respectively) [42].

327



328

329

330

331 Figure 6: The measured depth of penetration and the sorption coefficients evaluated for cement
 332 paste mixtures at: (a) 10 % hydration and (b) 47 % hydration

333

334

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Table 2: Experimentally Measured and Theoretically Modeled Sorption Coefficients

Cement Paste Mixture	Scaled Experimental Coefficient		Scaled Theoretical Coefficient
	10 % Hydration	47 % Hydration	
w/c = 0.30	1.00	1.00	1.00
w/c = 0.30 + 0.2 % SRA	0.75	0.79	0.84
w/c = 0.30 + 5 % SRA	0.45	0.49	0.61

340

341 Considering each paste mixture displays a similar pore structure at an equivalent degree of

342 hydration, we can assume similar values of porosity and intrinsic permeability for these

343 systems [^{30,49}]. Further, considering a ratio of surface tension values of 1.00:0.75:0.53 (Figure

344 3(a)), and a ratio of fluid viscosities values of 1.00:1.01:1.27 [^{47,48}] (Figure 3(b)) for pure water,

345 0.2 % and 5 % SRA solutions, the depth of penetration (arbitrary units) and the sorptivity (slope

346 of the depth of penetration versus square root of time curve) can be modeled for each mixture

347 evaluated in this project. The results of this analysis are described in Figure 5(b) and summarized

348 in Table 2. The sorptivity values determined from theoretical modeling for each of these systems,

349 pure water, 0.2 % SRA and 5 % SRA scale as 1.00:0.84:0.61 respectively. It is seen, the ratio of

350 sorptivity's determined from theoretical modeling are in good agreement with the scaled values

351 of sorptivity determined from experimental measurements (Table 2). The difference observed in

352 the measured and modeled sorption coefficients may be attributed to the change in the SRA

353 concentration as a function of specimen maturity (hydration) and increasing water absorption

354 into the pore structure, which would exert a larger influence on the results with increasing SRA

355 concentration (as evidenced).

356

357 It is noted that a linear fit of the experimental water absorption measurements display's a small

358 non-zero intercept. This may be explained due to air-trapping and surface and edge effects in the

359 specimen [³⁶]. The agreement between experimental and modeling approaches is significant in
360 that, for measurements performed over a short time scale, it would allow estimation of the
361 sorptivity for various mixtures and ingressing fluids, permitting determination of the fluid
362 saturation level in the material. While in this study, the ingressing fluid was DI water and the
363 SRA was supplied from within the cement paste, previous measurements of the ingress of both
364 DI water and a 10 % SRA solution into hardened cement paste specimens (containing no SRA)
365 have also supported the validity of the $\sqrt{(\gamma/\mu)}$ scaling of sorption coefficients [⁵⁰].

366
367 The results of theoretical modeling and experimental observations of water sorption illustrate an
368 important point; even upon cycles of drying and wetting, the SRA is observed to persist in the
369 material and is capable of altering the moisture absorption and shrinkage behavior [^{44,51,64}]. It is
370 hypothesized that upon drying, the SRA is adsorbed/absorbed onto the pore walls and maintains
371 this state until a cycle of rewetting is experienced, when the SRA goes back into the pore
372 solution. This has significant implications on the durability performance of materials containing
373 an SRA and will be discussed further in Section 8.3.

374

375 **8.2. The Boltzmann-Matano Approach for Assessment of the Moisture Diffusivity**

376

377 One-dimensional moisture diffusion in a unsaturated porous medium can be described in the case
378 of single-phase, isothermal moisture transport as shown in Equation (8) [^{36,52}]:

$$379 \quad \frac{\partial w}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \cdot \left(D(w) \cdot \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \right) \quad \text{Equation (8)}$$

380 where: w is the moisture content (fraction), $D(w)$ is the moisture content dependent liquid
381 moisture diffusivity (units of m^2/s) and x and t denote variables for spatial position and time. In

382 the case of moisture transport in a semi-infinite, isotropic, homogenous medium that has a
 383 uniform initial moisture w_i and a constant (or final) moisture content w_f at the boundary furthest
 384 from the wetting end, the diffusivity function has been determined to have a unique, closed-form
 385 solution using a procedure known as the Boltzmann transformation (Equation 9) [^{36,53,54,55,56}].

$$386 \quad D(w) = -\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\left(\frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial w} \right)_w \right) \cdot \int_{w_i}^{w_f} \lambda \cdot dw \quad \text{Equation (9)}$$

387 where: λ is the Boltzmann variable ($\text{mm/h}^{0.5}$). A primary consideration for the validity of the
 388 transformation dictates that the wetting front should not reach the bottom of the specimen (the
 389 region having fixed moisture content). For measurements which satisfy the criteria of the
 390 Boltzmann transformation, when the wetting profiles are represented as a function of the
 391 Boltzmann variable, λ , all the experimental measurements should collapse onto a single master
 392 curve, known as the characteristic moisture profile which indicates the moisture content (or in
 393 this case the normalized x-ray intensity) as a function of the Boltzmann variable (Equation 10).

$$394 \quad \lambda = \frac{x}{\sqrt{t}} \quad \text{Equation (10)}$$

395 The characteristic moisture profiles for two cement paste mixtures ($w/c = 0.30$ and $w/c = 0.30 +$
 396 5% SRA) at 10% hydration are illustrated in Figure 7 [³⁶]. Figure 7 shows moisture penetration
 397 profiles which have been subjected to the Boltzmann transformation. The fitted Boltzmann-
 398 Matano curve of the experimental ingress profiles is seen to provide a good representation of the
 399 measured moisture ingress profiles within a small region of scatter (Figure 7) [⁶⁴].

400

401 The characteristic curve shows four distinct stages which corresponds to regions having four
 402 different moisture contents in the specimen (Figure 7(a)), Stage-I is the surface zone, closest to
 403 the wetting water and shows the highest moisture content (lowest intensity) corresponding to

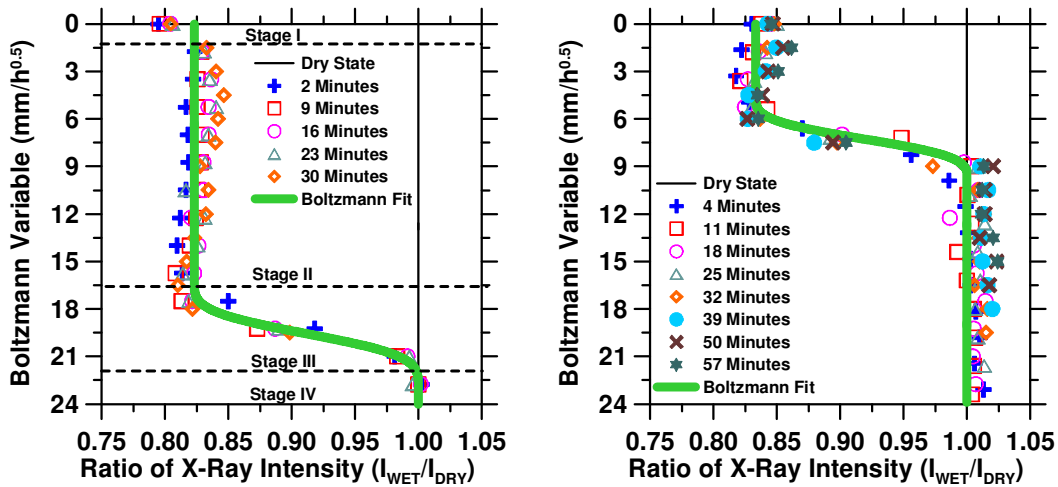
404 saturation of the specimen surface [²⁶]. Complete saturation at the surface is achieved only when
405 the air entrapped in the pore structure diffuses out. It has been noted by previous researchers that
406 this is a very slow process which can continue for months [³⁶]. It is important to indicate that
407 while the Boltzmann transformation has been demonstrated to reliably replicate the experimental
408 response, conceptually, the application of such a transformation is not completely accurate over
409 every region of the characteristic moisture profile. The closed-form solution of the diffusion
410 approach used in the Boltzmann transform is valid only in the case of single phase diffusion. In
411 the surface zone (stage-I), there exists two-phase diffusion, namely water diffusing into the
412 cement paste and air trapped in the microstructure diffusing out. However, it is noticed (Figure
413 7) in spite of the violation of the single-phase diffusion approach, the Boltzmann transformation
414 reliably replicates the experimental response, demonstrating from practical considerations that
415 the single-phase diffusion approach may be considered valid, given the small contribution of air
416 diffusion at short time scales [³⁶].

417
418 Stage-II is a region of almost uniform moisture content (constant intensity) and corresponds to a
419 diffuse-moisture zone preceding the wetting front. The movement of moisture in the diffuse zone
420 is driven by capillary forces which suck moisture into the sample. Issues of air-trapping in the
421 diffuse and wetting zones are crucial, with saturation not being achieved until all the entrapped
422 air is able to diffuse out.

423
424 Stage-III corresponds to the wetting front that penetrates progressively deeper into the specimen
425 with increasing time. This region shows the largest variability in moisture content (intensity), as
426 a function of increasing depth (and Boltzmann variable).

427 Stage IV corresponds to the region having uniform moisture content (w_f) throughout the course
 428 of the imbibition experiment which satisfies the semi-infinite medium diffusion criteria of the
 429 Boltzmann-Matano approach.

430



431

432

433

434 Figure 7: The Boltzmann transformed ingress profiles illustrating the Boltzmann variable as a
 435 function of x-ray intensity for specimens at 10 % hydration for: (a) a plain paste ($w/c = 0.30$) and
 436 (b) a paste containing a SRA ($w/c = 0.30 + 5\%$ SRA)

437

438 8.3. The Influence of SRA Addition and Specimen Maturity on the Moisture Diffusivity

439

440 Isothermal moisture transport in porous materials can be adequately represented using a non-
 441 linear diffusion equation (Equation 8) [36]. In Equation 8, all mechanisms of moisture movement
 442 distribution and transfer (liquid and vapor) are represented by a single moisture diffusivity, $D(w)$,
 443 which is dependent upon the local moisture content of the material. The moisture diffusivity

444 increases with increasing moisture content, showing a dramatic increase at saturation. When the
445 diffusivity is combined with the initial and boundary conditions of the element under evaluation,
446 the moisture transfer performance of building materials can be comprehensively predicted [57,61].

447
448 The moisture diffusivity of a porous material can be calculated from transient moisture transfer
449 measurements, shown in Figure 5 [58,59]. The Boltzmann-Matano approach can then be used to
450 yield the characteristic moisture profile shown in Figure 7 [36,60]. Traditionally, the moisture
451 content dependent moisture diffusivity (for absorption, imbibition or infiltration type processes)
452 for concretes has been represented as an exponential function (Equation 11) [36,59,61,62,63].

$$453 \quad D(w) = D_0 \cdot \exp(\beta \cdot w) \quad \text{Equation (11)}$$

454 where: D_0 and β are constants which depend upon the properties of the material. In this work, the
455 exponential function has been fit over the linear range of the moisture diffusivity function due to
456 the difficulties associated with accurately describing the moisture diffusivity at very low and
457 very high moisture content levels.

458
459 Figure 8 shows the moisture diffusivity of cement pastes at 10 % and 47 % hydration computed
460 using an averaging and curve-fitting procedure and Equation 9 [64]. It is seen (Figure 8(a)) that
461 pastes containing SRA (0.2 % and 5 %) exhibit lower moisture diffusivity D_0 and higher β values
462 as compared to the plain cement paste (Table 3). This behavior can be explained by the reduction
463 in surface tension of the pore fluid and increase in fluid viscosity, induced by addition of the
464 admixture which reduces capillary suction (and absorption) and the tendency of the material to
465 transmit fluids due to capillarity (refer section 8.1). The point at which the diffusivity
466 dramatically increases corresponds to the surface zone, closest to the water source, where

467 saturation is achieved. Further, the assumption of plain and SRA mixtures exhibiting similar
 468 porosities is validated as the moisture diffusivity dramatically increases at similar moisture
 469 contents, corresponding to porosity saturation.

470

471 **Table 3: Moisture Diffusivity Parameters for Cement Pastes at 10 % and 47 % Hydration**

472

Moisture Diffusivity Parameters	10 % Hydration		47 % Hydration	
	D_0 (m ² /s)	β	D_0 (m ² /s)	β
w/c = 0.30	1.36E-09	8.13	7.23E-10	8.48
w/c = 0.30 + 0.2 % SRA	4.20E-10	9.62	3.63E-10	9.72
w/c = 0.30 + 5 % SRA	3.96E-10	9.99	8.95E-11	10.50

473

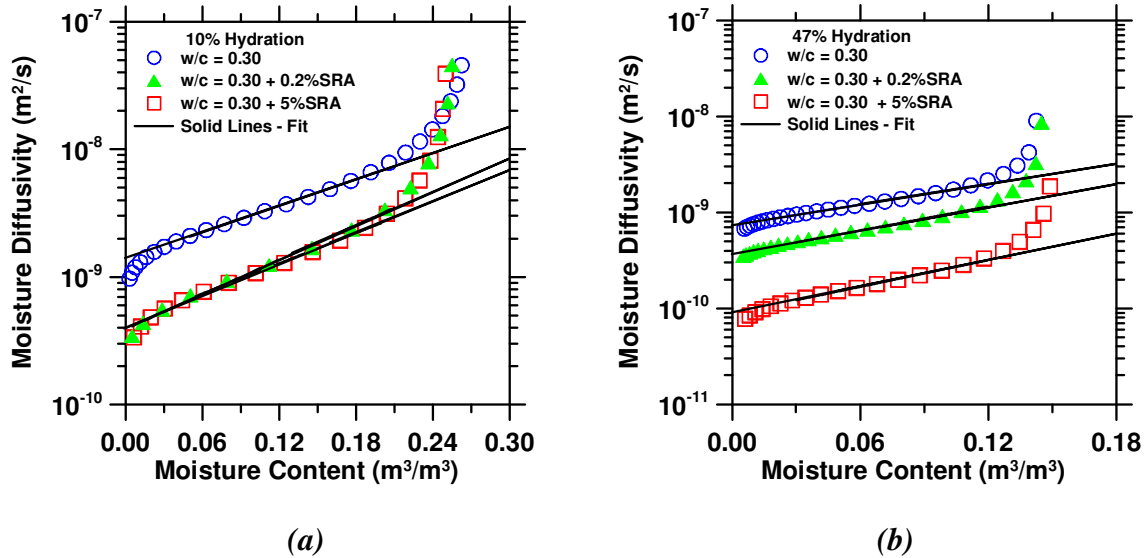
474 In addition to the change in surface tension, pore structure refinement with increasing hydration
 475 would also influence the moisture diffusivity of the material. This influence is evident in Table 3
 476 which shows a reduction in the moisture diffusivity, D_0 , with increasing hydration. This is
 477 reasonable considering that a less porous microstructure would exert a larger resistance to the
 478 movement of moisture. Further, it is interesting to note the β parameter increases with increasing
 479 maturity (structure densification), and exhibits an opposing trend to the D_0 value (which
 480 decreases with increasing hydration). The value of the β calculated compares well with the value
 481 ($\beta = 4-9$) reported in the literature for mature building materials [^{36,46,57,61,62}].

482

483 The change in the moisture diffusivity achieved by addition of a shrinkage reducing admixture
 484 has powerful implications on curing, freeze-thaw performance and ion-migration in these
 485 mixtures. The reduced moisture diffusivity and the sorptivity of SRA mixtures suggests the depth

486 of fluid penetration in these mixtures at short-time scales would be less than in plain cement
 487 mixtures. This may imply less water absorption during curing in these mixtures over short curing
 488 durations. The reduced sorptivity and moisture diffusivity could indicate a longer time to
 489 saturation which may enhance the performance of these mixtures when subjected to freeze-thaw
 490 loadings [65]. Further, the decreased moisture diffusivity may indicate better durability
 491 performance in concretes containing a SRA due to decreased moisture (and consequently
 492 aggressive ion) migration in these materials [43].

493



494

495

496

497 Figure 8: The moisture content dependent moisture diffusivity as a function of the moisture
 498 content for cement pastes at: (a) 10 % hydration and (b) 47 % hydration

499

500

501

502

503 **9.0. Summary and Conclusions**

504

505 In conclusion, this paper has described the water absorption behavior of cement pastes
506 containing various concentrations of a shrinkage reducing admixture. X-ray absorption
507 measurements were used to provide high resolution spatial information on the movement and
508 depth of penetration of moisture. The Boltzmann-Matano concentration dependent diffusion
509 approach was used to profile the characteristic moisture curve, which enabled determination of
510 the wetting moisture diffusivity. It was observed that the addition of an SRA results in a
511 reduction in surface tension and an increase in fluid viscosity. The addition of an SRA reduces
512 the sorptivity and wetting moisture diffusivity. Further, the reduction in the sorptivity, measured
513 for mixtures containing an SRA, compared well with theoretical modeling of the sorption
514 coefficient. The sorptivity and moisture diffusivity were both observed to decrease with
515 increasing maturity and pore structure refinement.

516

517 The outcome of this investigation has powerful implications as it relates to the durability and
518 moisture transfer performance of concrete mixtures containing surface-tension and viscosity
519 altering admixtures. The reduction in moisture diffusivity effected by addition of an SRA
520 influences the durability performance of cementitious materials, due to allied considerations of
521 curing (reduction in the depth of curing water) and ion diffusivity (reduced chloride and
522 deleterious ion migration), and may suggest improved freeze-thaw (decreased saturation levels)
523 performance of the system. This assumes significance in the context of predicting the service life
524 of these materials, and substantiates the need for determining appropriate input parameters for
525 computer models which aim to make such predictions for concrete structures.

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527

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536

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