

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

Jill Louise Folkestad for the degree of Honors Baccalaureate of Science in Civil Engineering presented on March 8, 2010. Title: Carbonation of Mid-Twentieth Century Reinforced Concrete Bridges in Oregon

Abstract Approved: \_\_\_\_\_

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Carbonation of concrete is of concern for reinforced concrete bridges. While long-term environmental deterioration of structures is unavoidable, protective design allows a structure to fulfill its full service life without any significant serviceability or strength losses due to deterioration. Understanding the process of concrete carbonation and the effect it has on structural performance allows for the proper design of concrete protection. The tests performed in this project determine in-situ carbonation depths of bridge core specimens retrieved from highway and interstate bridges in Oregon that were constructed in the mid-twentieth century. Further, the development of an accelerated carbonation chamber provides a controlled environment to determine an approximate carbonation rates. Combining field exposure with controlled laboratory results, carbonation can be better characterized in terms of climate, atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration, time, and concrete properties.

Key Words: Carbonation, corrosion, Reinforced Concrete, accelerated testing

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Carbonation of Mid-Twentieth Century  
Reinforced Concrete Bridges in Oregon

by

Jill Louise Folkestad

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Special thanks to

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# **Carbonation of Mid-Twentieth Century Reinforced Concrete Bridges in Oregon**

## **Introduction**

Structural engineering consists of more than just the basic mechanics of design. The engineer is responsible for the design of the structure for the entirety of its life-span. This includes the consideration of structural deterioration from external factors such as environmental exposures. In reinforced concrete structural design corrosion of reinforcing steel cause much of the service life deterioration that is seen in modern day structures. Corrosion can be attributed to both chloride exposure and carbonation of the concrete.

In order to design a structure to withstand these environmental degradation mechanisms, it takes an understanding of the material properties and the effects of particular environments. Certain atmospheric conditions in some climates have harsher impacts on concrete than others. For example, when constructing in humid, warm locations such as the tropics, carbonation rates of concrete may be increased (depending on the concentration of atmospheric carbon dioxide gas in the air). Although the general process of carbonation is known, there are many factors that affect the depth and rate of carbonation penetration in concrete. Therefore, developing a better understanding of the impact of all these factors is helpful for structural design. When all the factors are known, a design can be implemented to adequately protect the structure for the entire duration of its service life.

In-situ carbonation depth testing and accelerated carbonation techniques allow a better understanding of the process of carbonation of concrete. Analyzing bridge specimens that have fulfilled their service life in particular climactic locations in the state of Oregon provides insight into the actual amount of carbonation that has occurred in realistic structures. The in-situ carbonation depth in the bridge specimens determines the risk that the bridge had of either being in the initiation phase of structural degradation or in propagation phase, where the reinforcing bar may start to corrode and the structure may begin to lose structural capacity.

The accelerated carbonation test is used to minimize the variability in the atmospheric conditions affecting carbonation (e.g. temperature, humidity, and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration). Once that is established, the main difference for the specimens is the concrete mixture-design and strength. The results from the accelerated carbonation test will determine if the test is a feasible design tool, how the concrete strength relates to carbonation, and how well accelerated tests correlate to field exposure. It is assumed that lower density concrete with more air voids and lower strength may experience substantially more carbonation than concrete of higher quality. Accelerated carbonation testing will determine approximately how substantial that difference in carbonation depth really is.



## Background

### Reinforced Concrete

Concrete has been used as a building material for many centuries, dating back to before the time of the Roman Empire. Methods for reinforcing concrete were later developed. Today, the use of reinforced concrete has advanced substantially, becoming one of the most popular building materials used world-wide. Concrete is known for its strength in compression, and steel is known for its strength in tension; therefore, providing a very versatile composite material. Also, “the universal nature of reinforced concrete construction stems from the wide availability of reinforcing bars and of the constituents of concrete (gravel, or crushed rock, sand, water and cement)... and from the economy of reinforced concrete compared with other forms of construction” (Wight, 2009, p. 1).

With the understanding that reinforced concrete is a very versatile, economic, and durable composite material, it is important to emphasize careful design and construction procedures to optimize the material’s use. Although reinforced concrete is well known for its tremendous durability, many factors may cause premature degradation of the material. For example, freeze-thaw cycling, temperature cycling, moisture, solar radiation, acid attack, sulfates, chlorides, deicing salts, and reactive aggregates all cause deterioration of reinforced concrete structures. However, proper design and detailing protects the structure from these sources of degradation.

Most environments where reinforced concrete bridges exist are harsh on the structures; therefore, rather than avoiding such environments, the structure must be designed to withstand them. In order to protect reinforced concrete structures, many options are implemented. For example, concrete cover protects the steel reinforcing bars from the direct environment and concrete provides a passive chemical protection. Concrete coatings such as silanes and epoxy sealants are sometimes applied to supply additional protection.

Overall, reinforced concrete is a widely used material on a multitude of structures. For the purpose of this project, reinforced concrete bridges will be the focus in terms of structural systems.

## **Reinforced Concrete Bridge Design**

In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, bridges designed of reinforced concrete became more popular. With the advent of the material, more and more possibilities were available for bridge design with reinforced concrete. The composite use of material allows for a very functional, yet aesthetic design. Reinforced concrete allowed the intersection of beauty, economy, and strength (Liebenberg, 1992, p. 11).

There are many benefits to using reinforced concrete for bridge construction. For example, reinforced concrete is a very strong composite material. This material allows for very high compressive strength provided by the concrete and tensile

resistance provided by the reinforcing steel. With the composite section of both concrete and steel, a bridge made of this material can see almost any loading pattern if adequately designed by the engineer. Not only is this material extremely functional for engineering purposes, it is durable against the environment if properly designed to provide the necessary protection against the elements. So far, the functionality of the material has been discussed; however, it also offers aesthetic appeal. Reinforced concrete has the ability to be formed with an architectural façade to allow aesthetic appeal. Also, the simple image of the structural components of a bridge offers a grandiose view (Liebenberg, 1992, p. 52-53).

Reinforced concrete has provided the ability for bridges to span irregular areas, in irregular shapes because of the versatility of the material. The fact that concrete can be formed into any shape opens up many possibilities for design. Many architecturally extravagant designs have been performed with concrete because of the ability to build the forms for pouring, rather than being restricted to any one material section.

Although this material produces a lot of versatility, it can make the design process more extensive. Since many new designs are not “typical,” new design strategies have to be formed in order to accurately analyze and design the structure. A certain innovation in design must be established; however, “the adaption of existing design concepts, configurations and details in design, to achieve the objectives and requirements of specific structural projects, constitutes a very large percentage of the work executed in practice” (Liebenberg, 1992, p. 57). It is the job of the engineer to

understand the limits of the structure and design the bridge to fulfill its serviceability requirements for the entirety of its service life.

The economic benefits of reinforced concrete also make it an exceptional building material for bridges. The composite material provides the capability of supporting large loads without excessive material. If the reinforcing steel is placed in such a way as to follow the moment diagram (or follow the tension sections of the structure) then the material cost can be minimized. This was especially important with the advent of the interstate highway system. More and more bridges were needed to build the transportation systems in the United States; therefore, having a very flexible, yet affordable material was essential. The state of Oregon's section of Interstate 5 was opened in 1966. This new passage allowed travel through Oregon much easier and faster. Although this entire section did not open until 1966, certain parts were constructed and used prior to this date. Many reinforced concrete bridges were built in Oregon at this time to provide access for all parts of the highway system.

With the onset of modern techniques, approaches, and philosophies in reinforced concrete bridge design, it is time to evaluate the bridges that were first constructed on the highway corridors. Replacement and renovation of the older bridges is necessary to keep the highway systems safe and functioning. Although the composite material of reinforced concrete is very durable, modern design has worked to perfect the durability and better understand the factors that may cause deterioration in the bridge structures.

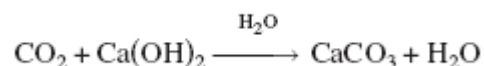
Bridge service life is very important to understand in terms of reinforced concrete bridge design. Every bridge is designed with the intent to be used for a particular period of time before rebuilding is necessary. There are two categories in which service life of a bridge can be assessed: functional life and structural life. Functional life describes the capacity of traffic that the bridge can handle. Structural life describes the serviceability and safety of the structure. For the case of this study, structural life is the main focus for bridge service life. The life of a bridge is determined by many factors, such as environment, loading criteria, material selection, etc., and there are many ways in which that life can be optimized (Branco, 2004, p. 11-14).

In terms of environmental deterioration, such as carbonation of concrete, protection to the bridge must be provided to sustain the bridge throughout the entire span of its service life. Therefore, bridge design is an integral process to create a structure that is durable, strong, economical, and aesthetic.

## **Carbonation of Concrete**

There are many factors that affect the deterioration of reinforced concrete structures. A main factor that is becoming increasingly important in urban environments is carbonation. Carbonation occurs with the presence of atmospheric carbon dioxide in the air. Although carbonation does not significantly alter the strength of the concrete itself, it can have detrimental effects on the reinforcing steel.

Carbonation of concrete is the process by which atmospheric carbon dioxide reacts with calcium hydroxide, a hydrated phase of Portland cement paste. With water acting as a catalyst, these two chemical components react to form calcium carbonate and a water byproduct. The chemical reaction is written as follows:



In order for this reaction to take place, the presence of water is essential; however, if the concrete specimen is saturated (meaning there are no air voids) the reaction will be much slower due to the inability of carbon dioxide gas to penetrate the concrete surface. Therefore, carbonation occurs readily when there are plenty of air voids for the carbon dioxide gas to penetrate the pores. Once the carbon dioxide gas has penetrated the concrete, dissolution in water occurs and the reaction takes place.

The process of carbonation happens at a very slow rate; therefore, in most cases it is not an issue. In typical environments, carbon dioxide content “varies from 0.03% by volume in rural air to 0.3% in large cities” (da Silva 2009). Although this is a very slow process, most structures are designed for a very long life span. Throughout this life span, the structure will develop a depth of carbonated concrete on the cover portion of the concrete. In design, a minimum cover of concrete is required to protect the reinforcing bars; however, if this cover is breached, the structure could be at risk. Therefore, it is important to understand the effects of climactic location in determining likely carbonation results that a structure will see in its life.

Factors such as carbon dioxide concentration, humidity, and temperature play a significant roll in the carbonation process. The most ideal situation for carbonation is a relative humidity of 50-75% (Tesfamariam 2008, p. 708). This ensures the air voids are not fully saturated, but also enough water to spur the chemical reaction to form carbonated concrete. Temperature is also very important factor in carbonation. Room temperature (25 degrees Celsius) is a typical value for optimal temperature for concrete carbonation. Different regions have different climates; therefore, it is important to understand that certain structures might see increased effects of carbonation.

The reason that carbonation is such a great concern for reinforced concrete structures is the pH shift that it causes in the concrete. Concrete that is not carbonated typically has a pH value of 12.6. Once the concrete is carbonated, that pH value can fall as low as 9.0 (Da Silva 2009). When carbon dioxide penetrates concrete, carbonic acid forms; this is what lowers the pH value and depassivates the steel. The neutralization of the concrete doesn't necessarily have any adverse affects on the concrete itself; typically the steel reinforcing bar is the major concern.

The rate at which carbonation occurs is a very important aspect to consider in the design of reinforced concrete structures. The service life of a structure depends on all the factors that contribute to the deterioration of a structure. As discussed earlier, relative humidity and temperature play an extremely important part in the process of carbonation. Also, carbon dioxide concentration in the air is an important factor to consider. Several models have been developed to estimate the rate of carbonation in a certain location and climate.

The model presented by Tuutti provides a carbonation depth estimate in terms of time, carbon dioxide concentration in the atmosphere, carbon dioxide which has reacted in the concrete, and a carbon dioxide diffusion coefficient (Andrade, 1995, p. 160). With this model, engineers are able to predict the concrete cover depth that is necessary to protect the reinforcing steel throughout the service life of a structure.

Reinforced concrete is a very durable structural material; however, if not designed properly to consider all deterioration possibilities, the strength and serviceability of that structure will decline immensely. Carbonation of concrete is a very important factor to consider when designing, especially in humid locations that are very conducive for the carbonation reaction.

## **Determination of Carbonation Depth**

There are many methods available to determine depth of carbonation in concrete specimens. This section will explain these methods to gain a better understanding of both carbonation of concrete and how depths can successfully be determined in the laboratory.

### ***pH Indicator Solution***

The first method that will be discussed is the use of phenolphthalein indicator solution to determine carbonation depth. This method provides a simple and quick way to determine carbonation depths on freshly faced concrete specimens. If the contact area that has been sprayed has a pH above 9.0 the solution will turn a purple-pink color, while any values of pH below 9.0 will appear colorless when sprayed with the solution.

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It is very important to split the specimens rather than saw cut them to get a clean fracture rather than a smeared surface. If saw cutting is used, results may be skewed due to spreading of non-carbonated paste on carbonated concrete or visa versa. A split tensile test (per ASTM C 496) is one method that will provide a clean break and a fresh working surface to determine carbonation depth with an indicator solution.

Drawbacks of using phenolphthalein consist of errors in zones where the carbonation is partial. The indicator cannot clearly detect those zones, which may provide a significant source of error when testing specimens. Also, the phenolphthalein must be sprayed on the specimen immediately after fracture. To gather reasonable results, spraying the concrete within 15 minutes of splitting is essential. Although these drawbacks exist, the phenolphthalein indicator solution is a very economical, simple, and quick way to test for carbonation depth in specimens. The color difference is very vibrant and easy to see for taking measurements.

### ***Thermal-gravimetric Analysis***

Carbonation is analyzed by this method using material weight change. The specimens are heated and weighed, and based on the obtained weights, the material properties can be determined.

Using this method, concentrations of calcium hydroxide and calcium carbonate can be determined. Therefore, it's easy to see whether or not the specimen has undergone the transformation from non-carbonated concrete to carbonated concrete. This method requires very careful measurements and calculations and a firm understanding of chemistry. The availability of a drying oven is also necessary.

### ***Other Methods***

There are other methods to determine the depth of carbonation in a concrete specimen. For example, x-ray diffraction analysis and fourier transformation infrared spectroscopy are both used to perform this test (Chang, 2004, p. 1760). In choosing a test to perform, it is important to consider time, budget, and scope of the project. For a limited time scale and budget, the phenolphthalein pH indicator solution is a very viable solution. Also, the test specimens themselves may dictate the test that needs to be performed.

### **Corrosion of Reinforcing Steel**

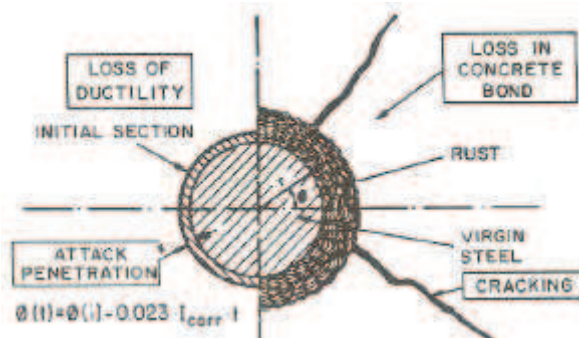
“Corrosion of reinforcing bars occurs in concrete structures due to chloride attack or concrete carbonation. This corrosion causes the reduction of steel section, cracking of concrete cover, and affects the safety and serviceability of the structures” (Broomfield, 1994, p.165). Preventative measures need to be made in the reinforced concrete design to consider the possible effects of corrosive behavior.

Concrete cover provides protection for the reinforcing steel. Concrete mixtures have a naturally protective chemistry for the steel bars; therefore, the cover depth acts as a shield against corrosive environments for the steel. Although this layer is typically designed to be sufficient, there are instances when the cover is too thin and reinforcing steel may be at risk. Certain environments are more vulnerable to the effects of corrosion and concrete penetrability. For example, humid and moist locations provide an ideal environment for corrosion. Humidity accelerates the rate of concrete

carbonation, thus introducing a risk for that concrete protection over the steel. Also, abundant concentrations of environmental carbon dioxide and presence of chloride may lead to increased rates of corrosion of steel. If the steel is exposed to the environment, corrosion is most certain to occur. Therefore, protecting the steel from these environmental impacts is essential in reinforced concrete design.

The geometry and composition of reinforced concrete sections play an extremely important role in the environmental deterioration of the structure. For example, once corrosion of the reinforcing bar occurs, the corroded layer expands. This expansion introduces an internal pressure on the concrete. The expansion can be as much as eight times the volume of the non-corroded steel (Bob, 1990, p.58). If the pressure is great enough, the concrete will begin to crack or even spall. Not only does the concrete lose strength, but the corrosion of the reinforcing steel causes a loss in the usable cross sectional area for the steel strength. Just as stated by Broomfield, this situation will eventually risk the safety and serviceability of the structure.

Figure 1 depicts the corrosion cycle of reinforcing steel.



**Figure 1—Diagram of Reinforcing Bar Corrosion**

(Reprinted from “Progress on Design and Residual Life Calculation with Regard to Rebar Corrosion of Reinforced Concrete,” by C. Andrade & C. Alonso, 1996, *Techniques to Assess the Corrosion Activity of Steel Reinforced Concrete Structures*, p. 32. Copyright 1996 by ASTM)

According to Andrade and Alonso, deterioration in the reinforcement causes both “loss of load-bearing section and... loss of ductility” (1996, p. 32). The interface between the concrete and the reinforcing steel is subject to “loss in bar/concrete bond and... concrete cracking” (1996, p. 32).

Although reinforced concrete structures are well known for durability and unlimited exposure, it is the job of the engineer to design the structure to maintain that durability against an environment causing degradation to the structural materials.

There are different phases to the degradation of reinforced concrete structures. First, unnoticeable changes will occur in the interior sections of the concrete. This phase is called the initiation phase in which no structural weakening has occurred; however, the concrete cover may be penetrated by carbonation. The propagation phase is where the structure actually begins to lose strength, ductility, or serviceability. This is the phase in which corrosion of reinforcing steel occurs. Once this phase begins,

the deterioration of the structure occurs at an accelerated rate, and is typically difficult to slow down or stop (Rostam, 1995, p. 129).

Corrosion of reinforcing bars in concrete is something that can be prevented through proper design. Without the proper protection afforded by concrete cover or other methods, the reinforced concrete structure is potentially at risk of losing strength and/or serviceability. The amount of time and effort to provide concrete protection is very minimal, while the benefits can maximize the life-span of a structure.

### **Accelerated Carbonation**

The use of an accelerated carbonation test allows concrete to be carbonated at a much faster rate than in actual atmospheric conditions. Essentially, the service life exposure (in terms of concrete carbonation) can be achieved in less than a year. This becomes very useful in terms of designing a structure to withstand the full extent of damage caused by carbonation.

In a laboratory accelerated carbonation testing chamber, it is preferable to maintain a carbon dioxide gas concentration of four percent (40,000 ppm). Actual carbonation concentration in real atmospheric conditions is approximately 0.04 percent (400 ppm). With CO<sub>2</sub> concentration being at a magnitude of 100 times greater than that of the atmosphere, the accelerated carbonation chamber is able to induce much larger amounts of concrete carbonation in less time.

The relative humidity of the system is optimal around 60 percent and at room temperature. Maintaining constant humidity is achieved through a liquid solution of

sodium nitrite ( $\text{NaNO}_3$ ) and water in pans and a heat lamp. Keeping an air tight chamber will provide better maintenance of the atmospheric conditions.

Once the accelerated carbonation test has completed the time span desired (one week of accelerated carbonation can be approximated to one year of real exposure time), carbonation depth data can be obtained using the phenolphthalein pH indicator solution.

## Objectives

- Develop a database of service life carbonation depths for a data set of reinforced concrete bridge cylinders.
- Develop an accelerated carbonation chamber to determine approximate carbonation rates and how well accelerated tests correlate to field experience.
- Use the results to determine plausible actions to be taken to protect existing bridges from environmental deterioration.

## Testing Methodology

### In-situ Carbonation Depths

The testing for concrete depth was performed using a pH indicator known as phenolphthalein. This indicator is a clear solution that turns purple when applied to non-carbonated concrete. The concrete that is carbonated will remain uncolored, signifying the depassivation of the concrete cover. This solution can be sprayed onto the fresh face of the concrete specimens to determine the carbonation depth.

The concrete core specimens were first sawn to a length of eight inches. Eight inches is required in order to retrieve split tensile results upon splitting of the cores. The cores are four inches in diameter, and therefore require eight inches of length per ASTM C496—Standard Test Method for Splitting Tensile Strength of Cylindrical Concrete Specimens. Once the load at failure ( $P$ , lbf) is obtained, the splitting tensile strength in psi can be obtained from the following equation:

$$T = \frac{2P}{\pi LD}$$

Equation 2.1

Where “ $L$ ” is the length of the specimen in inches and “ $D$ ” is the diameter of the specimen in inches. Once the splitting tensile strength is found, it can be estimated that compressive strength is approximately  $(T/6.4)^2$  (Wight, 2009, p. 58).



Once all of the cores (including nine control specimens) were cut at the required eight inch length, the cores were split using a split tensile machine. All the tensile strengths were recorded. Further calculations were performed post-testing (i.e. compression strength calculation).

The placement of cylinder in the split tensile machine is essential. Creating a symmetrically loaded area provides the best and most accurate results. The machine used was developed to mainly test the “standard” cylindrical specimens (6” x 12”); therefore, it was necessary to add steel plates in order to develop centroidal loading on the cylinder. It was also important to make sure that the cylinder is snug and well supported throughout the load application. Otherwise, eccentricities cause skewed results.

Observing the cylinder all throughout the load application process was required. Once the core appeared split, the load was removed and the test was complete. The maximum pound-force value was stored in a computer for recording purposes. From this load obtained at failure, the tensile strength was calculated.

Sources of error to note in ***Split Tensile Test***:

- Some concrete cylinder specimens taken from the bridges have reinforcing bar remaining in the sample; therefore, the tensile strength of the concrete cannot be determined from this test. The core can still be split to be used for carbonation depth testing, but the strength will not be logged.

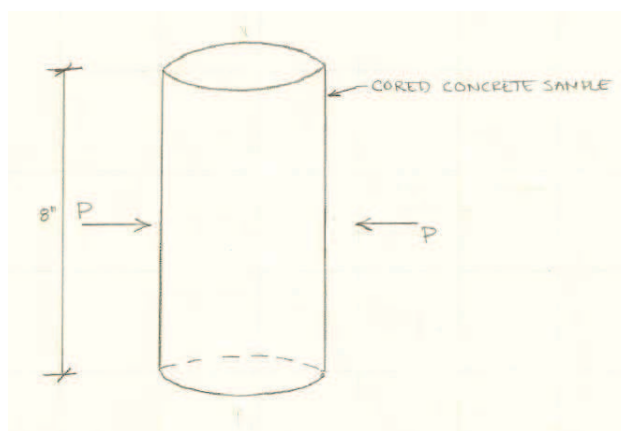
- Human error in placing and loading the cylinders results in possibly skewed results.
- The cylinder specimens were cored from in-situ bridges and not cured per ASTM C 511 for curing molded specimens. It is important to note that this test is performed to gather an approximate value for the concrete strength.

After the splitting of the cylindrical specimens, half of each core was tested for carbonation depth. The specimen was sprayed with the pH indicator solution within 15 minutes of splitting to ensure accurate results. The depth measurements were taken at three locations on each long side of the half-cylinder and once on the in-situ exposed face of the concrete. The measurements on the length-wise sides of the cylinder indicate the carbonation that has occurred from the time the cylinder was cored from the bridge. The face depth indicates the in-situ carbonation depth from the time of construction to present. Two concrete depth calculations/measurements were logged in the data—1: The gross carbonation depth of the exposed face and, 2: The net carbonation depth of the exposed face (gross depth less the average of the length-wise depths). It is important to note that the carbonation that has occurred from the time the cylinder was cored is not equal on the length-wise sides and the exposed sides. This is true because once a certain depth of carbonation has been reached the rate of carbonation slows down. It can be understood in terms of a breathable layer of concrete. The outer layer breathes more, and therefore is carbonated much faster. The further into the concrete, less oxygen is available; therefore, it can be said that very

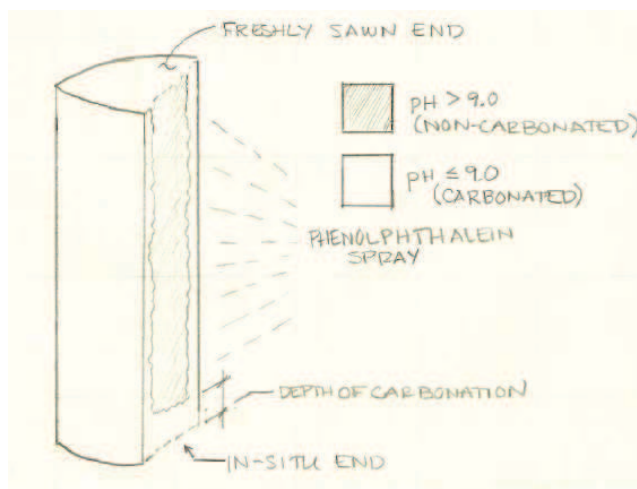
little to no carbonation has happened post coring on the in-situ exposed face. Both results will be logged for completeness purposes; however, the gross results will be considered as realistic depths.

***Visualization of testing procedures:***

Figure 2 and Figure 3 depict the testing sequence for the concrete cylinder specimens→



**Figure 2—Perform Split Tensile Test**



**Figure 3—Application of Phenolphthalein indicator solution**

## Accelerated Carbonation Test

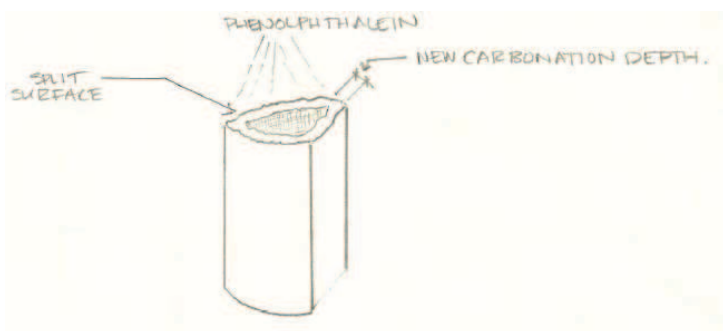
The use of an accelerated carbonation test will provide results on the rate of carbonation. This rate can be determined due to highly controlled conditions provided by a carbonation chamber. The carbonation chamber is constructed using two 55 gallon steel drums that are connected together via tubing. A CO<sub>2</sub> gas supply runs into the first chamber which contains several pans of NaNO<sub>2</sub> (Sodium Nitrite) and water solution. A heat lamp is also placed in this first chamber to provide necessary temperature to achieve relative humidity between 50 and 70 percent. The second chamber holds the concrete specimens on wire shelving. A fan is placed in this chamber to provide air circulation. The key to providing a controlled atmosphere is to place a CO<sub>2</sub> sensor in the second chamber. This sensor triggers the solenoid valve to open and let in CO<sub>2</sub> gas if the concentration goes below 4%. With this well-maintained system, carbonation of concrete specimens in the second chamber happens at an accelerated rate (McGrath, 2005, p. 1-8).

It is approximated that a CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 4% provides an optimal amount for accelerated carbonation. If the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is too high (i.e. approaching 100%), results for accelerated carbonation are not realistic, because carbonation also depends on the other atmospheric gases that are in the air. With this test, it is approximated that one week of accelerated carbonation is equal to one year of natural atmospheric carbonation (da Silva, 2009, p. 334). Therefore, an accelerated time of 30 days will provide approximately four years of natural carbonation. From this data, the

carbonation rate can be determined. Also, the results will provide a means for looking at how different concrete properties affect carbonation.

After the accelerated test takes place, the specimens will be removed from the chamber. Since the specimens are half-cylinders, splitting them to retrieve a clean surface cannot be done by saw-cutting. Therefore, the samples will need to be split by load application. The half-cylinder will be placed on two supports at either end of the previously split surface (resembling a simply supported beam). A point load will then be applied at the centerline of the beam until failure. Once the split is made, phenolphthalein solution can be applied to the fresh surface to determine accelerated carbonation depth.

The following figure depicts accelerated carbonation depth of a split specimen:



**Figure 4—Determination of Accelerated Carbonation Depth**

***Determining the rate of carbonation from Accelerated Carbonation Results:***

To determine the carbonation rate of each specimen, the Tuutti model was used.

The following equation provides the “rate of advance of the carbonation front”

(Andrade, 1995, p. 160):

$$\frac{C_s}{C_x} = \sqrt{\pi} \frac{x\sqrt{t}}{2\sqrt{D}} \exp \frac{x^2/t}{2\sqrt{D}} \operatorname{erf} \left( \frac{x\sqrt{t}}{2\sqrt{D}} \right)$$

Equation 2.2

Where  $C_s$  = CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the atmosphere, mol/kg

$C_x$  = CO<sub>2</sub> which has already reacted with the concrete, mol/kg

$D$  = CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion coefficient, m<sup>2</sup>/s

$x$  = Carbonation depth, mm

$t$  = time, s

The error function (erf(x)) is two times the sum of the Gaussian distribution. All variables, except  $D$  are known. Therefore, with the results of the accelerated carbonation test,  $D$  can be solved.

Also, with time and depth as two variables in the equation, the rate is easily solved for when designing new reinforced concrete structures.

## Laboratory Testing and Data

The following table provides the information for the core samples used in this study. The bridges are all in the state of Oregon, along state and United States highway systems.

Bridge No.	Bridge Name	DATE CORED	Construction Date	Location on Bridge	Geographic location	Oregon Region
07863 07863 07863 07863	Row River Road Bridge	6/11/2008	1954	N. Westside Exterior N. Eastside Exterior N. Eastside Exterior Northside Interior Northside Interior	Row River Road, I-5, Cottage Grove	I-5 Valley
06768 06768 06768 06768	OR 58, Lost Creek	N/A	1946	Interior Span 4 Interior Span 4 Exterior Span 4 South Exterior Span 4 North	Lost Creek, 095 MI E HWY 1 JCT, State HWY OR 58 (HWY 018)	Valley
20041 20041 20041 20041 20041	I-5 South Bound	1/3/2008	1956	N/A	I-5 at London Road	I-5 Valley
OR 58 & US 57 OR 58 & US 57 OR 58 & US 57 OR 58 & US 57 OR 58 & US 57	OR 58 & US 57	10/15/2007	N/A	N/A	OR 58 & US 57	Valley
20039 20039 20039 20039 20039	London Rd Bridge, Bundle A04 North Bound	10/8/2007	1956	Interior Girder Interior Girder Exterior Girder Exterior Girder Exterior Girder	London Rd.	I-5 Valley
07491 07491 07491 07491 07491	US 26, Rush Creek Antone, Bundle A51	Summer 2007	1951	Girder Girder Girder Girder Girder	Bridge Creek, US 26 (HWY 041) In Mitchell	East/Central
08738N 08738N 08738N 08738N 08738N	Eagle Mill North Bound	4/13/2009	1962	Interior Interior Exterior Exterior Exterior	I-5 Northbound, Eagle Mill Rd, 0.6 Mile N of Ashland NCL	South West
20376 20376 20376 20376 20376	MJ Hughes Construction, Bundle 312, Brown Creek Bridge	7/24/2009	1958	West Exterior Girder West Exterior Girder West Exterior Girder West Interior Girder West Interior Girder	Wheeler County HWY 26	East/Central
20370 20370 20370 20370 20370	Saginaw Rd Overpass, Bundle 312	8/3/2009	1956	South Exterior Girder South Exterior Girder South Exterior Girder South Interior Girder South Interior Girder	Lane County	I-5 Valley
08742N 08742N 08742N 08742N 08742N	Bear Creek North Bound	4/27/2009	1962	Exterior Exterior Exterior Interior Interior	Bear Creek, 0.8 Mile N of Ashland SCL, I-5	South West
20549 20549 20549 20549 20549	Holm II-I-5 Louse Creek US 199	6/19/2009	1960	N/A	I-5 at Louse Creek	South West
08502 08502 08502 08502 08502	Hilgard	N/A	1958	Right Exterior Girder, Span 4 18' back bent 5 Right Interior Girder, Span 4 20' back bent 5 Left Interior Girder, Span 4 22' ahead bent 4 Right Exterior Girder, Span 3 20' back CL of bent 4 Left Exterior Girder, Span 5 25' ahead bent 4	Hilgard Interchange, OR 244 (HWY 341)	East
20551 20551 20551 20551 20551	Holm II	8/14/2009	1960	Interior Interior Interior Exterior Exterior	I-5 at Louse Creek	South West
07393 07393 07393 07393 07393	Columbia River Highway I-84, Crossing over Mosier Creek	4/29/2009	1951	Interior and Exterior Beams	Mosier Creek	North (Columbia River)

**Table 1—Bridge Core Database**

The concrete specified in the bridge drawings under “General Notes” denotes that the concrete used for the bridges should be Class “A” mix with a compressive strength of 3300 psi. Although this is specified in the plans, it does not mean that all of the mixtures used for the various bridges (or even different locations on the same bridge) are guaranteed to have the same properties.

Each bridge had a select amount of core specimens tested for split tensile and then sprayed with a phenolphthalein indicator solution to determine in-situ carbonation depth. The following tables give the results that were obtained from the testing procedures.



Bridge No.	P, load at failure (lb)	f <sub>ct</sub> , Tensile Strength (psi)	f' <sub>c</sub> , Compressive Strength (psi)
20370	10660	212.07	1098.03
20370	11725	233.26	1328.39
20370	14040	279.32	1904.73
20370	15390	306.17	2288.64
20376	17570	349.54	2982.94
20376	17570	349.54	2982.94
20376	17575	349.64	2984.63
20376	17580	349.74	2986.33
06768	12380	246.29	1480.95
06768	17565	349.44	2981.24
06768	18120	360.49	3172.61
06768	19275	383.46	3589.96
07393	20390	405.65	4017.30
07393	23285	463.24	5239.05
07393	27170	540.53	7133.12
07491	10600	210.88	1085.71
07491	11315	225.10	1237.11
07491	14575	289.96	2052.66
07863	11140	221.62	1199.14
08502	14270	283.89	1967.65
08502	14975	297.92	2166.88
08502	17010	338.40	2795.82
08502	17030	338.80	2802.40
08502	17175	341.69	2850.32
08738N	14215	282.80	1952.51
08738N	15135	301.10	2213.43
08738N	15610	310.55	2354.54
08738N	15820	314.73	2418.32
08742N	12615	250.97	1537.71
08742N	12935	257.33	1616.71
08742N	13890	276.33	1864.25
08742N	14835	295.13	2126.55
20041	13045	259.52	1644.33
20041	13740	273.35	1824.21
20041	16225	322.79	2543.72
20549	17185	341.88	2853.64
20549	17580	349.74	2986.33
20549	18760	373.22	3400.68
20549	20650	410.82	4120.41
20551	16895	336.12	2758.14
20551	17675	351.63	3018.69
20551	18350	365.06	3253.66
20551	20640	410.62	4116.42
OR 58 & US 57	16180	321.89	2529.63
OR 58 & US 57	20055	398.98	3886.38
OR 58 & US 57	20410	406.04	4025.19
OR 58 & US 57	28850	573.95	8042.52

Table 2—Concrete Strength of Core Specimens

Carbonation Depth (in)								
Bridge No.	Side 1			Side 2			Face Depth	Face Depth
	1.1	1.2	1.3	2.1	2.2	2.3	(Gross)	(Net)
07863	0.55	0.3	0.4	0.38	0.35	0.3	1.45	1.07
06768	0.3	0.35	0.3	0.3	0.35	0.3	0.9	0.58
06768	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.35	0.3	0.95	0.61
06768	0.4	0.4	0.35	0.35	0.35	0.3	1.1	0.74
06768	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.35	0.35	0.9	0.53
20041	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.4	0.15
20041	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.30
20041	0.1	0.15	0.1	0.1	0.15	0.2	0.35	0.22
OR 58 & US 57	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.1	1.10
OR 58 & US 57	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.75	0.75
OR 58 & US 57	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A
OR 58 & US 57	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.85	1.85
20039	0.55	0.35	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.5	1.5	1.08
20039	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.3	1.4	1.03
20039	0.4	0.35	0.35	0.3	0.5	0.3	1.35	0.98
20039	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.35	0.35	0.5	1.7	1.35
07491	0.3	0.25	0.2	0.25	0.25	0.25	1.85	1.60
07491	0.25	0.3	0.35	0.25	0.2	0.2	2.05	1.79
07491	0.35	0.3	0.35	0.35	0.25	0.3	1.35	1.03
08738N	0.2	0	0.2	0.1	0.15	0.2	1.45	1.31
08738N	0.15	0.2	0.2	0.15	0.05	0.05	1.6	1.47
08738N	0.05	0.05	0.25	0.05	0.2	0.2	1.85	1.72
08738N	0.2	0.25	0.2	0.15	0.1	0.25	1.7	1.51
20376	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.25	0.25	0.2	1.5	1.23
20376	0.3	0.25	0.35	0.35	0.4	0.45	1.45	1.10
20376	0.25	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.25	0.2	1.5	1.25
20376	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.25	1.5	1.29
20370	0.2	0.1	0.15	0	0	0.1	1.3	1.21
20370	0.12	0.15	0.12	0.1	0.1	0.1	1	0.89
20370	0.15	0.1	0.15	0.2	0.1	0.15	1.1	0.96
20370	0.1	0.15	0.05	0.15	0.2	0.1	1.6	1.48
08742N	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.15	0.2	0.25	0.85	0.62
08742N	0.2	0.15	0.25	0.1	0.15	0.2	0.9	0.73
08742N	0.15	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.15	0.9	0.72
08742N	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.15	0.85	0.68
20549	0.2	0.15	0.1	0.2	0.15	0.1	1.6	1.45
20549	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.7	1.50
20549	0.25	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.15	0.1	1.5	1.33
20549	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	1.6	1.45
08502	0.15	0	0	0.15	0.25	0.1	1.35	1.24
08502	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.35	0.35	1.6	1.20
08502	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.4	1.30
08502	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.05	0.05	0.05	1.3	1.23
08502	0.3	0.3	0.35	0.25	0.3	0.35	0.98	0.67
20551	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.2	1.20
20551	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.15	0.2	0.2	1.15	1.01
20551	0.1	0.1	0.25	0.2	0.15	0	1.1	0.97
20551	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.15	0.1	0.2	1.5	1.33
07393	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.35
07393	0	0	0	0.1	0	0	0.95	0.93
07393	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.85	0.72
Control							0.1	
Control							0.1	
Control							0.1	
Control							0.1	
Control							0.1	
Control							0.1	
Control							0.1	
Control							0.1	
Control							0.1	
Control							0.1	

Table 3—Carbonation Depth of Core Specimens

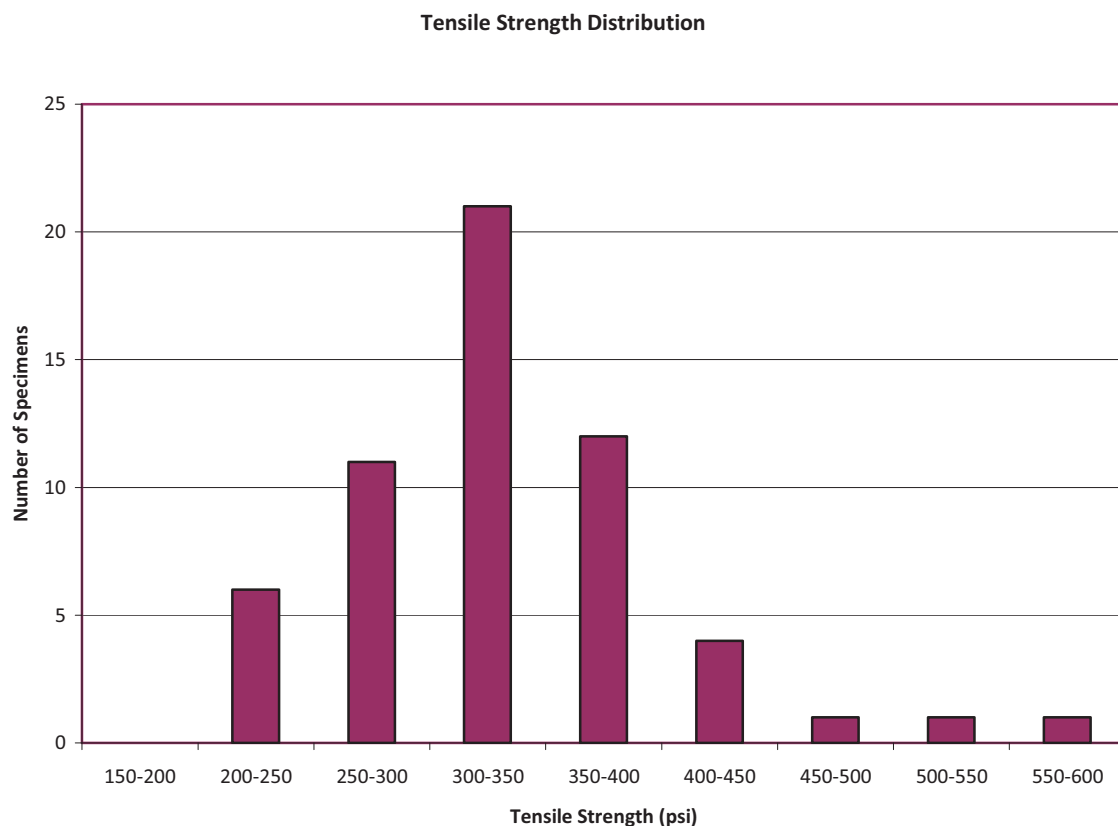
## Results Analysis

### *Split Tensile*



Figure 5—Split Tensile Test

Based on the approximate results obtained by the split tensile test, the core specimens are able to be classified in terms of concrete strength. The following figure shows the graphical depiction of the bridge cores and their corresponding concrete strengths.

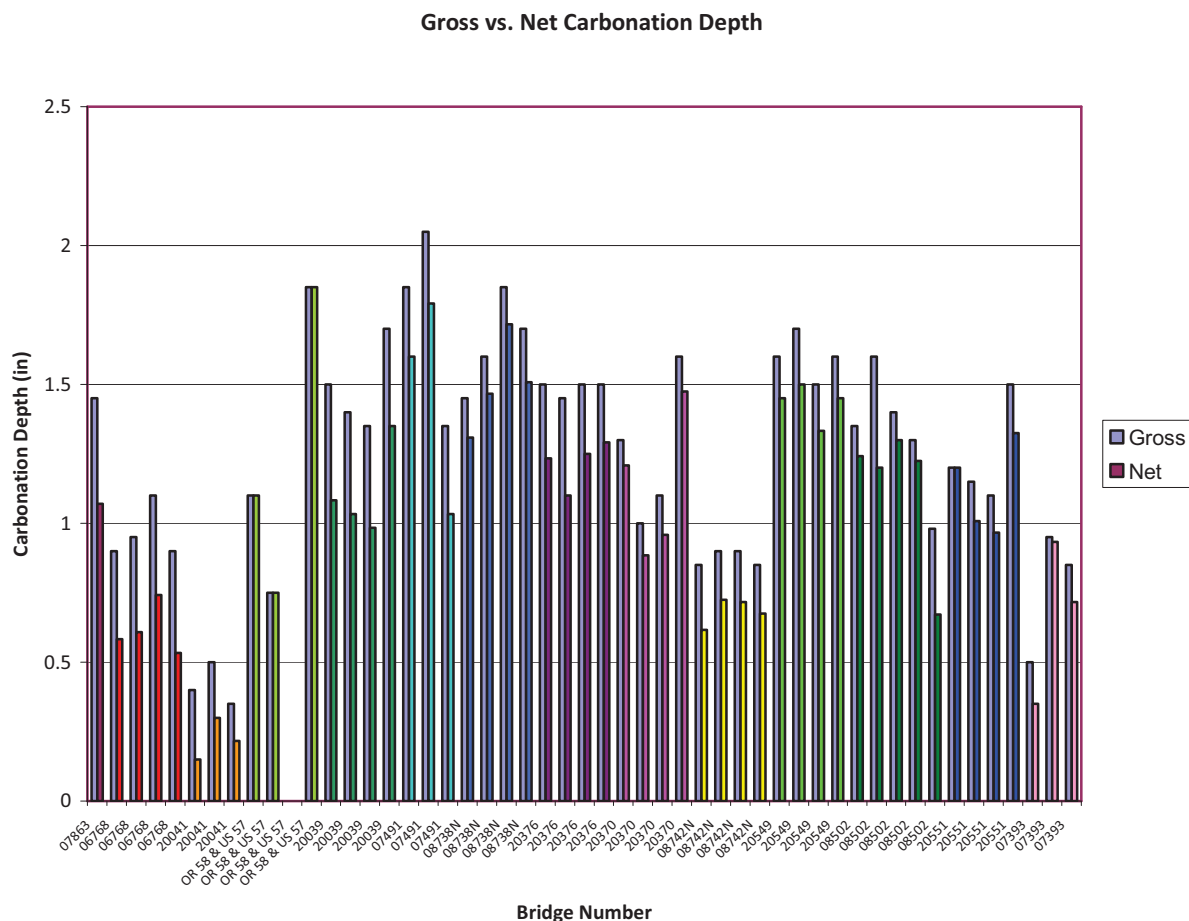


**Figure 6—Concrete Tensile Strength Distribution of Bridge Cores**

### ***Carbonation Depth***

From the results that were gathered and displayed above in Table 3.2, the following plots provide graphical depiction of the carbonation depths versus several different variables such as the geographic regional location in Oregon, time, and a generalized plot of carbonation depth showing the difference between gross and net values.

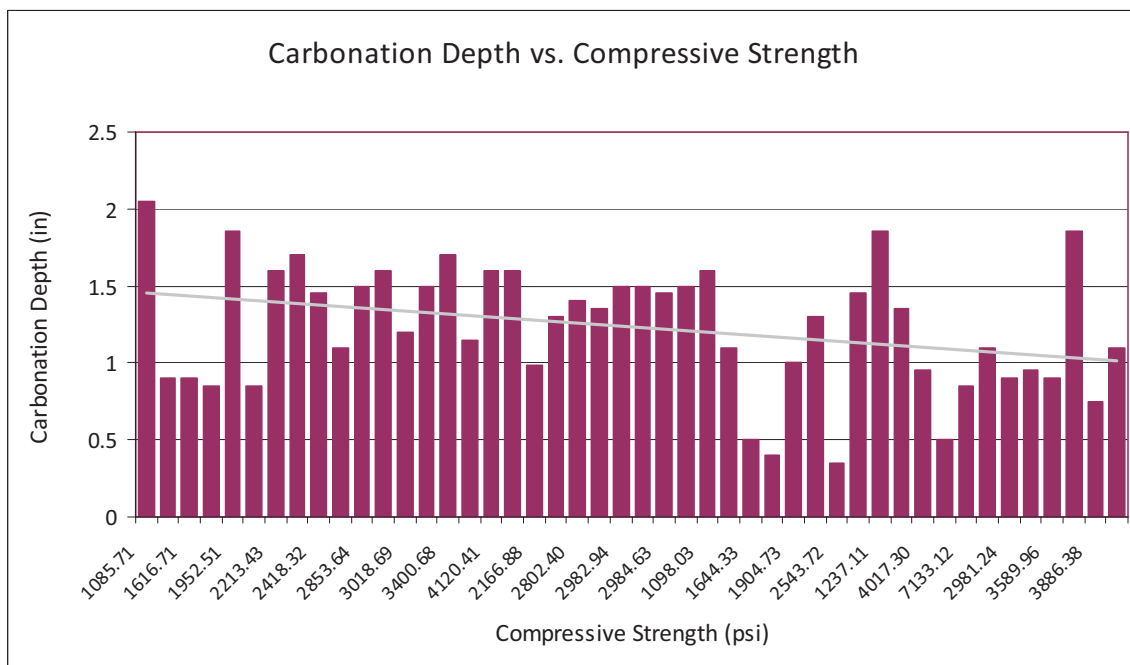
### Gross Versus Net Carbonation Depth:



**Figure 7—Gross vs. Net Carbonation Depth**

The photographs of the carbonation depths of all the bridge specimens are in Appendix A. The Phenolphthalein indicates the non-carbonated portion of the concrete with a purple-magenta coloring.

*Strength Correspondence:*



**Figure 8—Carbonation Depth vs. Compressive Strength**

### Regional Correspondence:

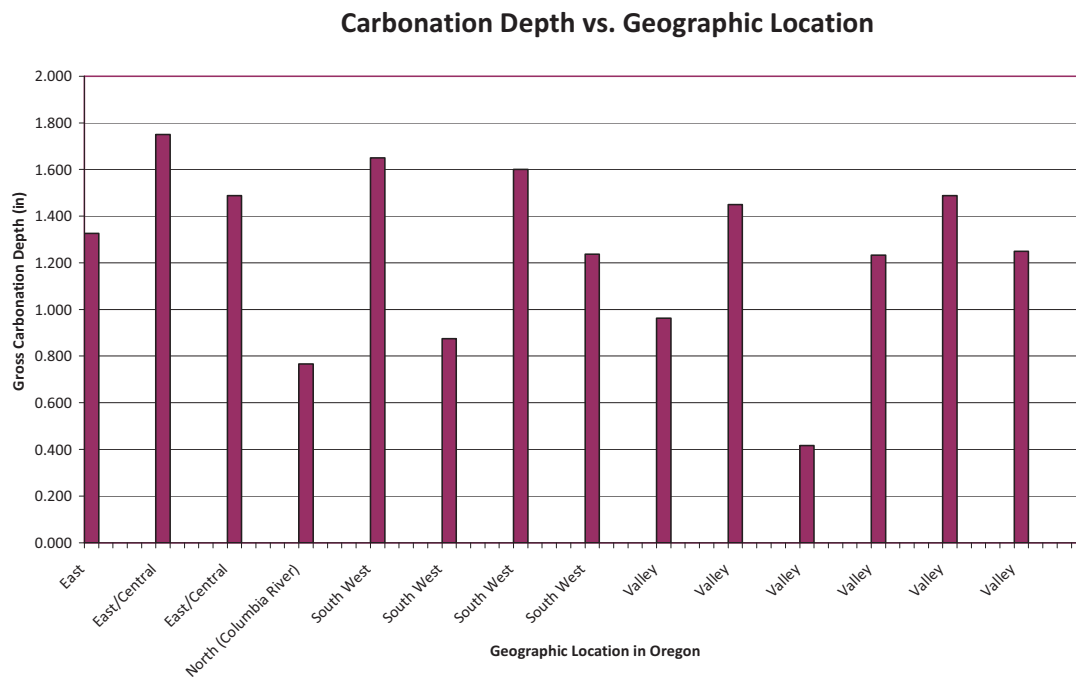


Figure 9—Carbonation Depth vs. Geographic Regional location in Oregon

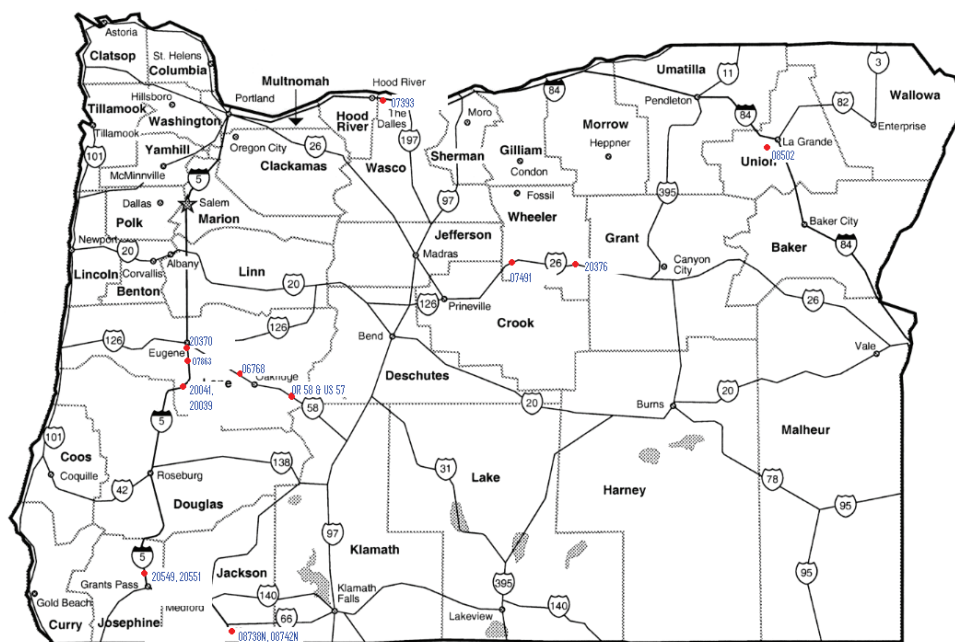
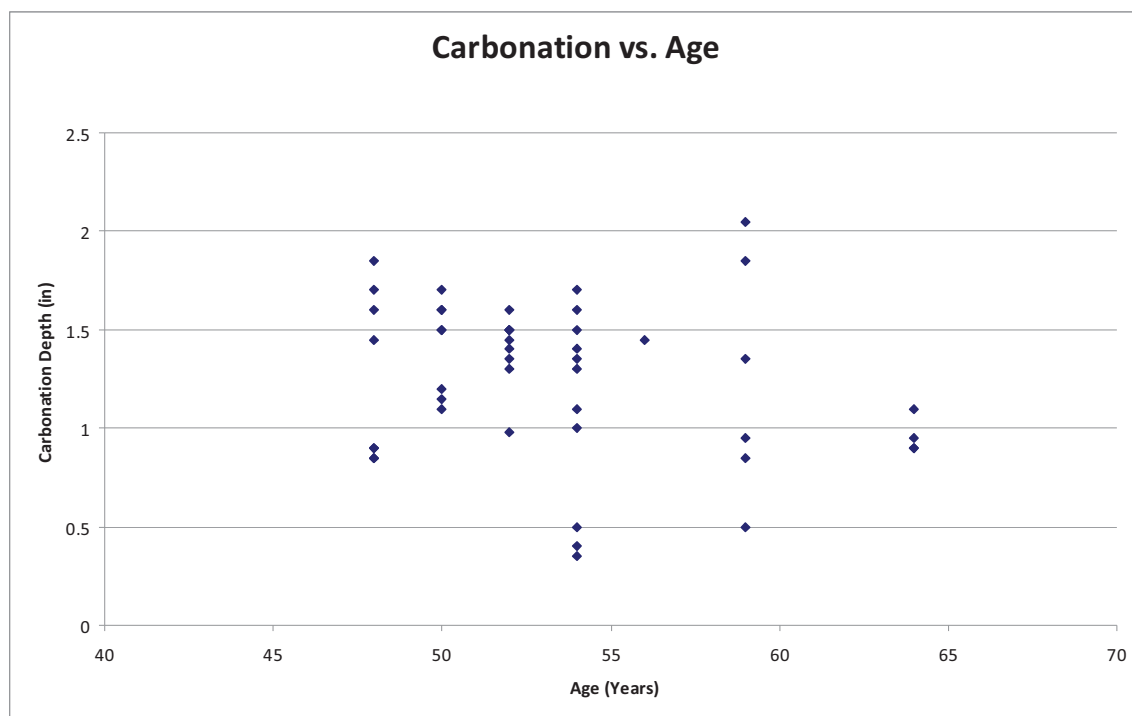


Figure 10—Oregon Map with Bridge Locations

Carbonation of Mid-Twentieth Century Reinforced Concrete Bridges in Oregon

*Service Life Analysis (Time History):*



**Figure 11—Carbonation Depth vs. Time**



### 3-Dimensional plot of Carbonation vs. Age & Compressive Strength:

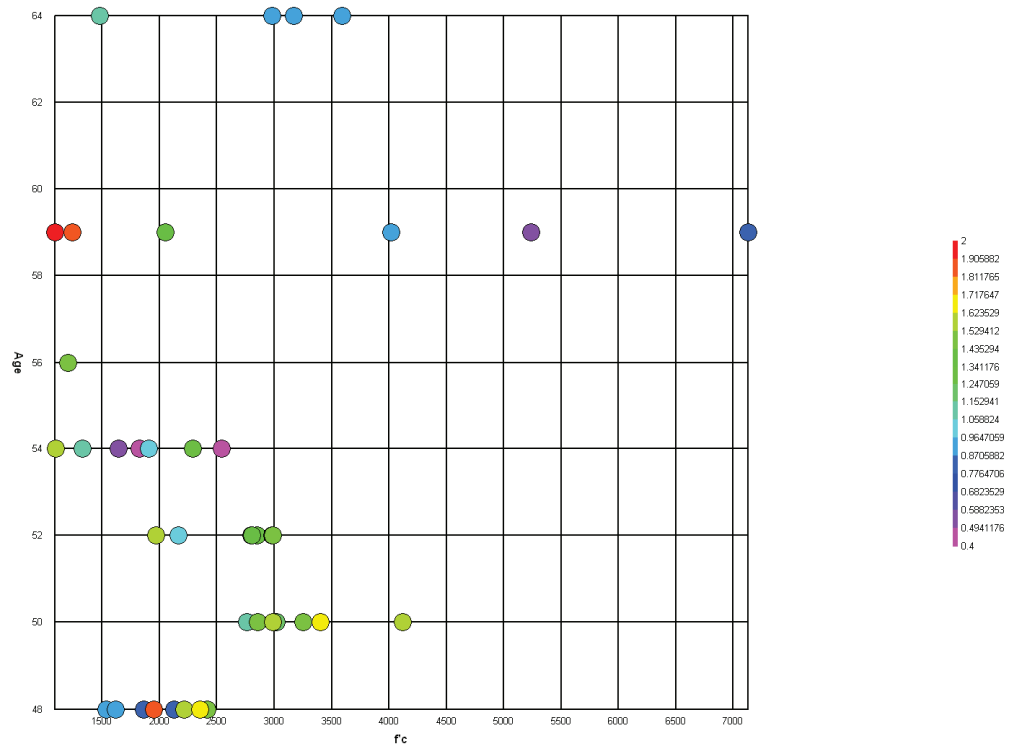


Figure 12—Age vs. Compressive Strength with Carbonation Depth in color scale

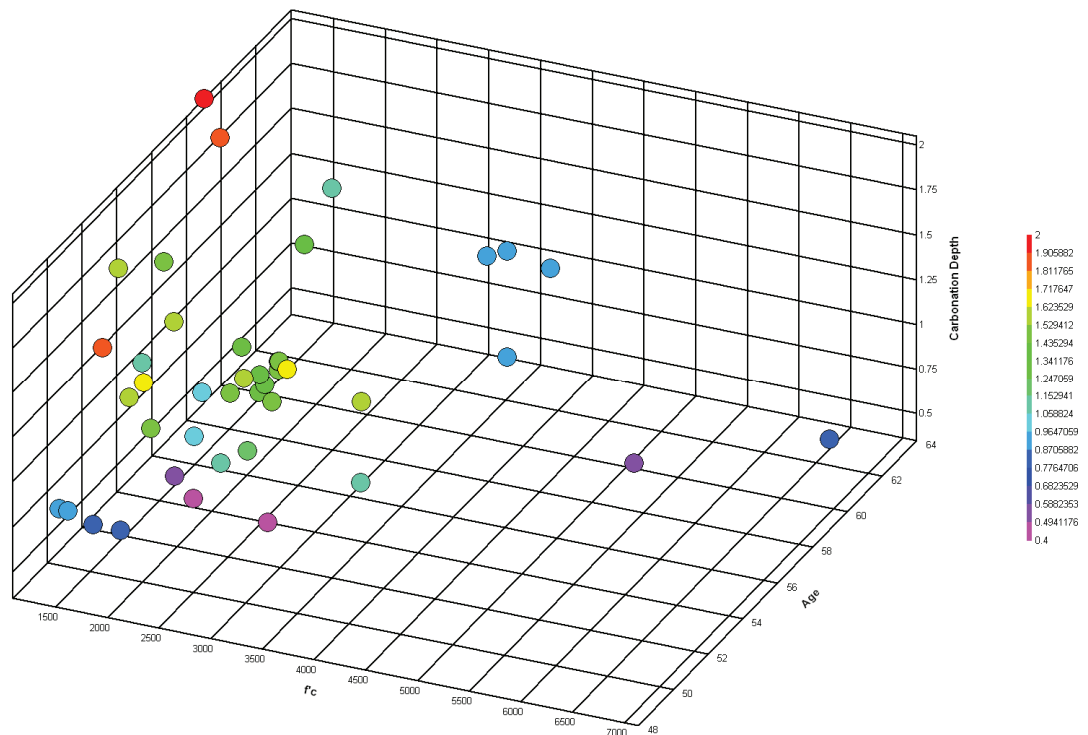


Figure 13—3D view of Age, Compressive Strength, and Carbonation Depth

## Discussion

The results obtained for the carbonation depths of the individual cores gives relevant and useful data for a specific bridge; however, when looking at the group of specimens from all the different bridges, it is hard to draw conclusions on the carbonation depths versus geographic location, time, and other factors. The main cause for the inconclusiveness is the variety of parameters that affect carbonation of concrete. The bridges are diverse enough in mixture design, concrete strength, construction date, concrete curing time, geographic and climactic locations, and atmospheric carbonation content.

In order to draw more conclusive results and determine feasible carbonation rates for the individual bridge specimens, the accelerated carbonation results are necessary. Providing consistent and equal parameters for all concrete specimens in the accelerated carbonation chamber limits the differing factors.

Despite the existence of inconsistent group results, each bridge provides relatively good internal consistency for carbonation depth. Each core specimen from its particular bridge correlates exceedingly well with the carbonation rates found in the other specimens. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the differing locations on the bridge girders have relatively no significance in the carbonation results. However, it is important to note extremes or inconsistent results among the cores obtained from a single bridge. For example, a cored sample from bridge number 07393 had a deep carbonation spot of 2.7 inches in one location of the specimen. Although the typical

carbonation depth appeared to be 0.95 inches, it's important to note locations where it is vastly different.

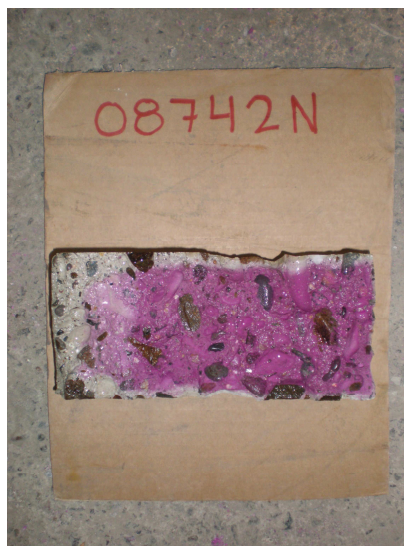


**Figure 14—Location of Deep Carbonation Depth in core from Bridge No. 07393**

If this behavior is typical in not only this sample, but elsewhere on the bridge, due to air voids or cracking, the structural integrity of the bridge structure may be at risk.

Another example of differing test results came from bridge number 08742N. All of the core specimens from this bridge had a very distinct purple area where the concrete was non-carbonated; however, there was also a region that was lighter purple, which might suggest that the specimen was partially carbonated in those regions. On average, just over an inch of depth was seen in the “partially carbonated” zones of these core specimens.

The following figure shows the partially carbonated zone on the concrete between the distinct purple and the gray.



**Figure 15—Partially Carbonated Zone in core from Bridge No. 08742N**

The partially carbonated zone can be extremely important if it has a pH value low enough to cause depassivation of the reinforcing steel. If that concrete layer is no longer to act as a passivating material for the steel, corrosion may be an issue. Although depassivation doesn't always mean immediate corrosion of the steel, it is a serious problem if not properly dealt with.

The length of total carbonation depth (colorless carbonated layer plus light purple partially carbonated zone) is as much as 2.2 inches on one of the specimens of this bridge. With a concrete cover of only 2 inches for all the bridges, it is clear to see that the steel was subject to depassivation in this region.

Other bridges indicate moderate to severe carbonation depths in the bridge specimens. If the net values for the carbonation depths are used, the in-situ carbonation depth decreases dramatically; however, carbonation does not happen at a linear rate. This means that the carbonation that occurred post-coring on the in-situ face is not equal to the carbonation that occurred on the sides of the core. The rate is

much faster on the sides that have not seen any previous carbonation because carbonation occurs much faster near the surface of the concrete (or breathable layer), whereas carbonation at increasing depth occurs much slower due to the slower diffusion rate of water and carbon dioxide gas.

In order to draw more conclusive results on the climactic impact, a larger sample size is necessary. The bridges considered have too many variables to draw reasonable results based on the location those bridges had been in Oregon. However, it is still useful information to know where that bridge came from, and the environmental factors that were affecting the concrete throughout the life-span of the bridge.

Due to the time variance from bridge construction to bridge demolition, many of the bridges were exposed to atmospheric conditions longer than others. This impacts the results for the rate of carbonation. Although linear results are not clear, the data does somewhat resemble longer exposure periods to be associated with carbonation depth.

## Further Testing and Research

Accelerated carbonation tests are the main focus of further testing and research on this project. The same samples from the same bridges will provide results from the accelerated carbonation tests that will be compared to the in-situ carbonation results as well as the group results obtained from all the bridges tested under the same controlled environment. The newly faced half-cylinders are used to have a clean, non-carbonated face at the beginning of the test.

The goal of the accelerated carbonation test is to develop a relatively simple procedure for obtaining the rate of concrete carbonation that can be implemented in the design of reinforced concrete structures. The safety of the structure should be held paramount when designing; therefore, developing a system to minimize hazards caused by environmental degradation will enhance the engineer's ability to design a safe structure.

The accelerated carbonation chamber provides a controlled environment for all the samples to be tested. A picture of the finished Chamber can be seen in Figure 16.



**Figure 16—Accelerated Carbonation Chamber**

Once results are obtained from the accelerated carbonation test, the plots from in-situ versus those from accelerated carbonation can be compared. It will be interesting to see if the same trends occur among the different specimens.

Several approaches can be taken when doing laboratory testing with accelerated carbonation. Changing parameters and input variables allows results to be obtained for different aspects or objectives. Understanding how these variables affect each other and implementing a test henceforward provides for a successful laboratory experiment.

## Conclusion

The results obtained for the bridge core specimens provide significant information on the carbonation depths of the reinforced concrete bridges. With real data from bridge core specimens, it is assumed that the general depth of carbonation for the entire bridge relates to the carbonation depth reported by the core specimens. After further analysis using an accelerated carbonation chamber, the properties of the bridge cores can be more accurately defined. The development of a rate of carbonation for the different bridges can be idealized through the use of the field exposure carbonation results and the accelerated carbonation results for each bridge core specimen. Furthermore, feasibility of an accelerated carbonation chamber can be determined based off the comparison of the field exposure versus controlled laboratory carbonation depths.

Upon completion of this project, the state of the objectives set for this project is as follows:

- Database of service life carbonation depths was developed for a data set of reinforced concrete bridge cylinders.
- An accelerated carbonation chamber was developed to determine approximate carbonation rates and how well accelerated tests correlate to field experience.
- The results can be used to determine plausible actions to be taken to protect existing bridges from environmental deterioration.



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## **Appendix A**

### Photos of Carbonated Core Specimens

**Controls:**







Bridge Number: **20376**





Bridge Number: 06768





Bridge Number: OR 58



Bridge Number: 07491



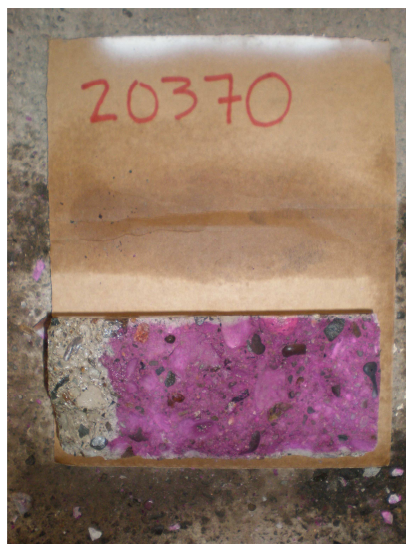




Bridge Number: 20041



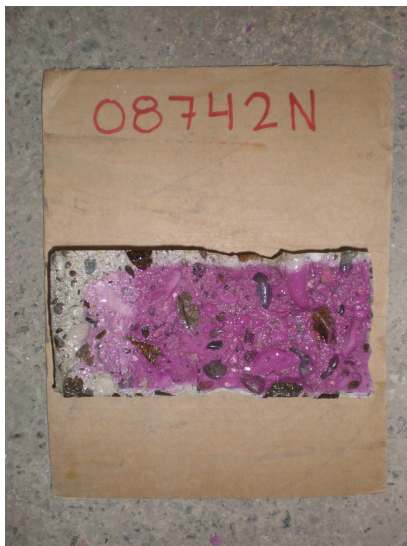
Bridge Number: 20370

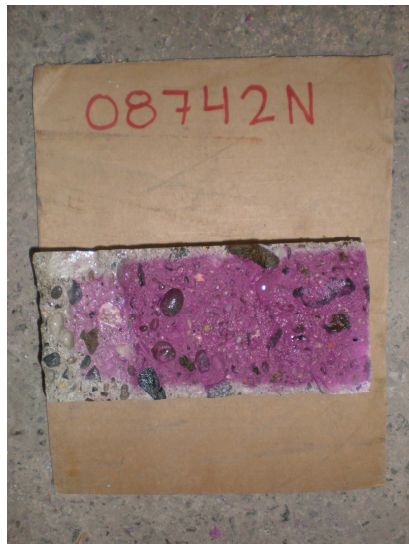






Bridge Number: 08742N

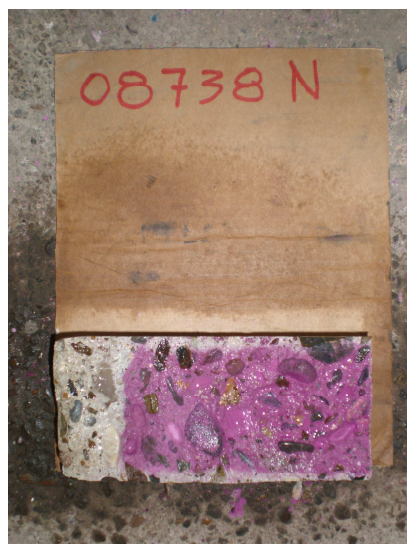
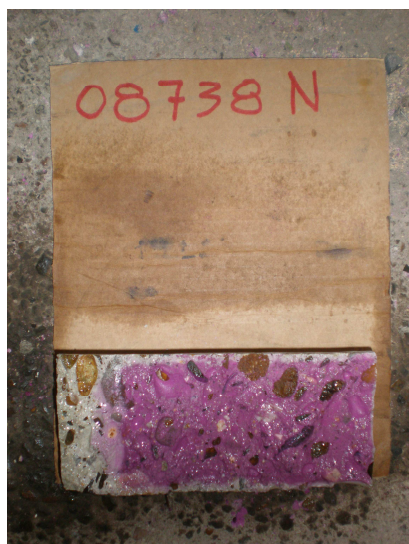




Bridge Number: 08738N







Bridge Number: 07863



Bridge Number: 08502





Bridge Number: 20551







Bridge Number: 20549





Bridge Number: 07393



Bridge Number: 20039



## **Appendix B**

Technical Information for CO<sub>2</sub> Sensor  
(For use in Accelerated Carbonation Chamber)

FIGARO

an ISO9001 and 14001 company

## Technical Information for the CDM4160 CO<sub>2</sub> Module

CDM4160 is a new unit which uses TGS4160, Figaro's durable solid electrolyte CO<sub>2</sub> sensor. Due to Figaro's proprietary idea for signal processing with a microcomputer, no maintenance is required for this module. By application of DC voltage to the module, an analog output voltage proportional to CO<sub>2</sub> concentration can be obtained. The module can generate a control signal based on a user-selectable threshold concentration. The features mentioned above make this module ideal for air quality control applications in homes, offices and factories as well as in the field of agriculture.



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**IMPORTANT NOTE:** OPERATING CONDITIONS IN WHICH FIGARO SENSORS ARE USED WILL VARY WITH EACH CUSTOMER'S SPECIFIC APPLICATIONS. FIGARO STRONGLY RECOMMENDS CONSULTING OUR TECHNICAL STAFF BEFORE DEPLOYING FIGARO SENSORS IN YOUR APPLICATION AND, IN PARTICULAR, WHEN CUSTOMER'S TARGET GASES ARE NOT LISTED HEREIN. FIGARO CANNOT ASSUME ANY RESPONSIBILITY FOR ANY USE OF ITS SENSORS IN A PRODUCT OR APPLICATION FOR WHICH SENSOR HAS NOT BEEN SPECIFICALLY TESTED BY FIGARO.





Product name	Carbon dioxide (CO <sub>2</sub> ) sensor module		
Model No.	CDM4160-L00	CDM4160-M00	CDM4160-H00
Detection range	400 to 4,500ppm	400 to 9,000ppm	400 to 45,000ppm
Sensor (principle)	TGS4160 (Solid state electrolyte)		
Accuracy (*1)	Approx. ±20%		
Power supply	DC5.0±0.2V regulated		
Power consumption	1.3W (typical)		
Inrush current	600mA (max)		
Operational temperature & humidity range	-10°~+50°C, 5~95%RH (avoid condensation)		
Storage temperature & humidity range	-20°~+60°C, 5~90%RH (pack in a moisture proof bag)		
Warm up time	2 hours		
CO <sub>2</sub> concentration signal (*2)	Continuous analog output proportional to CO <sub>2</sub> concentration		
	Vconc = CO <sub>2</sub> concentration/1,000 (DC 4.5V full scale)	Vconc = CO <sub>2</sub> concentration/2,000 (DC 4.5V full scale)	Vconc = CO <sub>2</sub> concentration/10,000 (DC 4.5V full scale)
Control signal	ON: HIGH output (when CO <sub>2</sub> conc. exceeds threshold) OFF: LOW output		
	800/ 1,000/ 1,500/ 2,000 (ppm)	1,000/ 2,000/ 5,000/ 8,000 (ppm)	5,000/ 10,000/ 20,000/ 40,000 (ppm)
Trouble signal	ON: LOW output (sensor trouble) OFF: FLOAT NC		
LED display	Green LED: Lights while power is on (blinks during warm up)		
	Yellow LED: Blinks during trouble		
	Red LED: Lights when CO <sub>2</sub> concentration exceeds the threshold		
Reset switch	Establishes the ambient CO <sub>2</sub> concentration as 400ppm when pushed		
Dimension	45 x 60 x 31mm (45 x 67 x 31mm incl. CN1)		
Weight	approx. 22g		

**Note 1:** Assumes benchmark is set accurately at 400ppm of CO<sub>2</sub>. This value does not contain long term drift.

**Note 2:** In this module, the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is calculated by measuring the relative change of sensor output at the measuring point from sensor output in clean air (assumed to be 400ppm of

Table 1 - Specifications

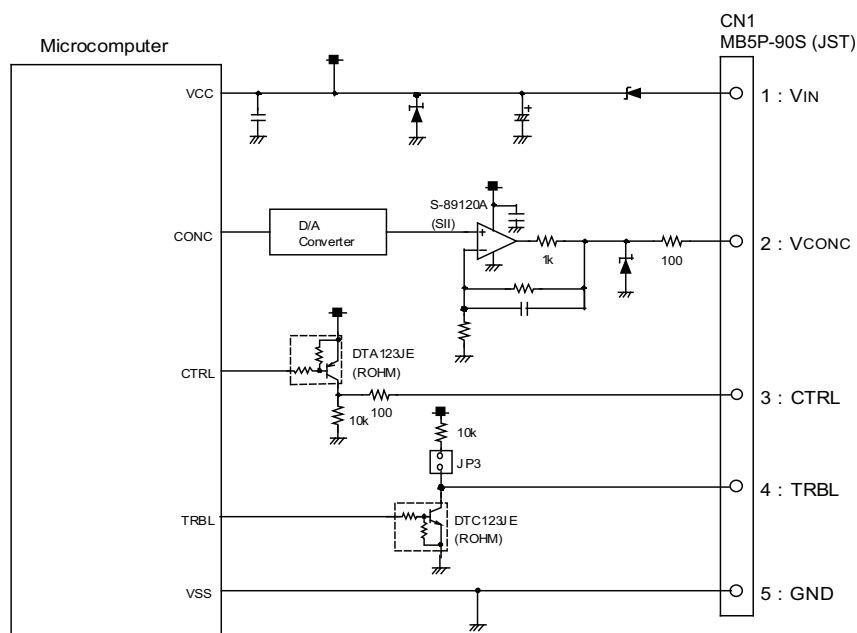


Fig. 2 - Circuit diagram of interface for circuit

is pushed during warm-up time (within the first two hours after the module is powered on), the baseline voltage is read at that moment and the module immediately goes into operation mode.

**Caution:** If the baseline reset switch is pushed while in a polluted environment where the actual CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is higher than 400 ppm (ambient levels), the accuracy of readings may become adversely affected.

## 2-7 Input-output signal (CN1)

Please refer to *Table 4-Rated input and output voltages* for rated values. Also please refer to *Fig. 2-Circuit diagram of interface for circuit*.

### 2-7-1 Vin (Pin No. 1)

Regulated voltage should be input into this port. The sensor's output may vary according to the sensor's voltage dependency characteristics if the input voltage fluctuates. Please refer to "TGS4160 Technical Information" for details.

### 2-7-2 Concentration output (Pin No. 2)

An analog voltage corresponding to CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is output from this port according to the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CDM4160-L00 : } V_{\text{conc}} &= \text{CO}_2 \text{ conc} / 1000 \\ \text{CDM4160-M00 : } V_{\text{conc}} &= \text{CO}_2 \text{ conc} / 2000 \\ \text{CDM4160-H00 : } V_{\text{conc}} &= \text{CO}_2 \text{ conc} / 10000 \end{aligned}$$

### 2-7-3 Control signal output (Pin No. 3)

When CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations exceed the control concentration, output from this port will be "ON".

Mode	JP1	JP2	Threshold CO <sub>2</sub> Concentration of Control Signal					
			CDM4160-L00		CDM4160-M00		CDM4160-H00	
			ON	OFF	ON	OFF	ON	OFF
I	OPEN	OPEN	800ppm	720ppm	1,000ppm	900ppm	5,000ppm	4,500ppm
II	OPEN	SHORT	1,000ppm	900ppm	2,000ppm	1,800ppm	10,000ppm	9,000ppm
II	SHORT	OPEN	1,500ppm	1,350ppm	5,000ppm	4,500ppm	20,000ppm	20,000ppm
IV	SHORT	SHORT	2,000ppm	1,800ppm	8,000ppm	7,200ppm	40,000ppm	36,000ppm

Table 3 - CDM4160 jumper pin settings

## 2-7-4 Trouble signal output (Pin No. 4)

This port will output "ON" in the following situations:

- \* when sensor output is abnormal
- \* when the connection for control concentration setting is broken

## 2-8 LEDs (refer to Table 5)

### 2-8-1 Green LED (LED 1)

The green LED indicates the module's power condition. It will be lit when the power is on. The LED blinks on and off during warm-up time (for the first two hours after power is turned on).

### 2-8-2 Yellow LED (LED 2)

The yellow LED indicates a trouble condition. It blinks on and off when trouble signal output is "ON".

### 2-8-3 Red LED (LED 3)

The red LED indicates that CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is over the control concentration level. It lights when control signal output is "ON".

Pin No.	Item		Minimum	Typical	Maximum	u/m
1	Power supply input (VIN)		3.5	5.0	5.5	V
2	CO <sub>2</sub> conc. output (VCONC)	Output voltage	GND	-	4.6	V
3	Control signal output (CTRL)	Output voltage (trouble) IOL=1mA	GND	-	0.2	V
		Output voltage (warmup) IOH=1mA	VIN-0.6	-	VIN	V
		Allowable current	-	-	25	mA
4	Trouble signal output (TRBL)	Output voltage Ic=5mA	-	-	0.3	V
		Allowable voltage	-	-	50	V
		Allowable current	-	-	100	mA

Table 4 - Rated input/output voltages

Condition	Green LED	Yellow LED	Red LED	Control signal (CTRL)	Trouble signal (TRBL)	CO2 concentration signal		
						CDM4160-L00	CDM4160-M00	CDM4160-H00
Warm up period	Blink ON/OFF	OFF	OFF	OFF	OFF	0.4V	0.2V	0.04V
CO2 Conc. < Threshold	ON	OFF	OFF	OFF	OFF	CO2 conc./1000V	CO2 conc./2000V	CO2 conc./10000V
CO2 Conc. ≥ Threshold	ON	OFF	ON	ON	OFF	CO2 conc./1000V	CO2 conc./2000V	CO2 conc./10000V
Trouble	ON	Blink ON/OFF	OFF	OFF	ON	4.5V	4.5V	4.5V

Table 5 - Signal output in operation mode

## 3. Operation modes

### 3-1 Warm up

The sensor is warmed up for two hours after the module is powered on. The green LED blinks on and off and a constant voltage (0.4V for -L00, 0.2V for -M00, 0.04V for -H00) is output from the concentration output port during this period. The green LED will be lit continuously after the warm-up period ends unless a power outage occurs.

### 3-2 CO2 concentration lower than threshold level

The green LED will be on if the calculated CO2 concentration is lower than the threshold level.

### 3-3 CO2 concentration exceeds threshold level

The red LED will be lit and the control signal output is turned "ON" if the concentration exceeds the threshold level.

The control signal output is turned to "OFF" and the red LED will be off when CO2 concentration drops to 90% of the threshold level.

### 3-4 Trouble

When the sensor's output is abnormal, the yellow LED blinks on and off and the TRBL signal is set to "ON".

## 4. Cautions

1) By assuming that the baseline level represents fresh air (400ppm of CO2), actual CO2 concentrations are calculated based on the difference between the baseline level and the current sensor output. As a result, the following cautions should be noted:

a) Accurate readings cannot be expected if an accurate baseline could not be acquired.

b) The sensor should be exposed to fresh air periodically to properly renew the baseline level. Performance shown in the specifications cannot be

achieved if the module was used in an environment where CO2 concentrations increased slowly and steadily for a long period of time.

c) The module should be located in fresh air during the warm-up period. Accurate readings cannot be expected until the baseline is acquired in fresh air. If the module is warmed up in an environment where CO2 concentration is higher than normal fresh air, the baseline will represent a polluted level and the device will not be able to clean the air sufficiently.

d) Power should be on at all times. Since the baseline is memorized in a microcomputer, if the power should be cut off, the memory would be lost and operation would resume from the warm-up process.

e) The module is not intended for usage in life saving equipment. If the module is incorporated into life saving equipment, an alternative and secure measure for calculating CO2 concentration should be used be used for the life safety function.

2) This module is designed only for indoor usage. The module should be protected from exposure to rain, wind, sun, heat radiation, etc.

3) Please apply a regulated voltage, otherwise the accurate reading cannot be expected. Application of excessive and/or reverse voltage would cause damage to the module.

4) The module does not include a circuit for protection from excessive current. An excessive current protection circuit should be added to a peripheral circuit of the module.

5) The sensor may deteriorate if it is stored without power in a high humidity environment for a long period of time. Please keep the sensor in a humidity-proof bag with a desiccant if the sensor is to be stored without power for a long period of time.

6) The sensor has dependency on oxygen concentration. Under environments where the oxygen concentration

varies from ambient conditions (i.e. 21% O<sub>2</sub>), the sensor may not function properly and may not exhibit the characteristics described in this brochure.

7) Please refer to "TGS4160 Technical Information" for other handling precautions of TGS4160.

## 5. Important Notice

Figaro Engineering Inc. (Figaro) reserves the right to make changes without notice to any products herein to improve reliability, functioning or design.

Information contained in this document is believed to be reliable. However, Figaro does not assume any liability arising out of the application or use of any product or circuit described herein; neither does it convey any license under its patent rights, nor the rights of others.

### **IMPORTANT NOTE**

This product is not designed and authorized for use as a component in life support applications wherein a failure or malfunction of the products may result in injury or threat to life. Figaro Engineering Inc. reserves the right to make changes to this product without notice to improve reliability, functioning, and/or design.

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### OVERSEAS

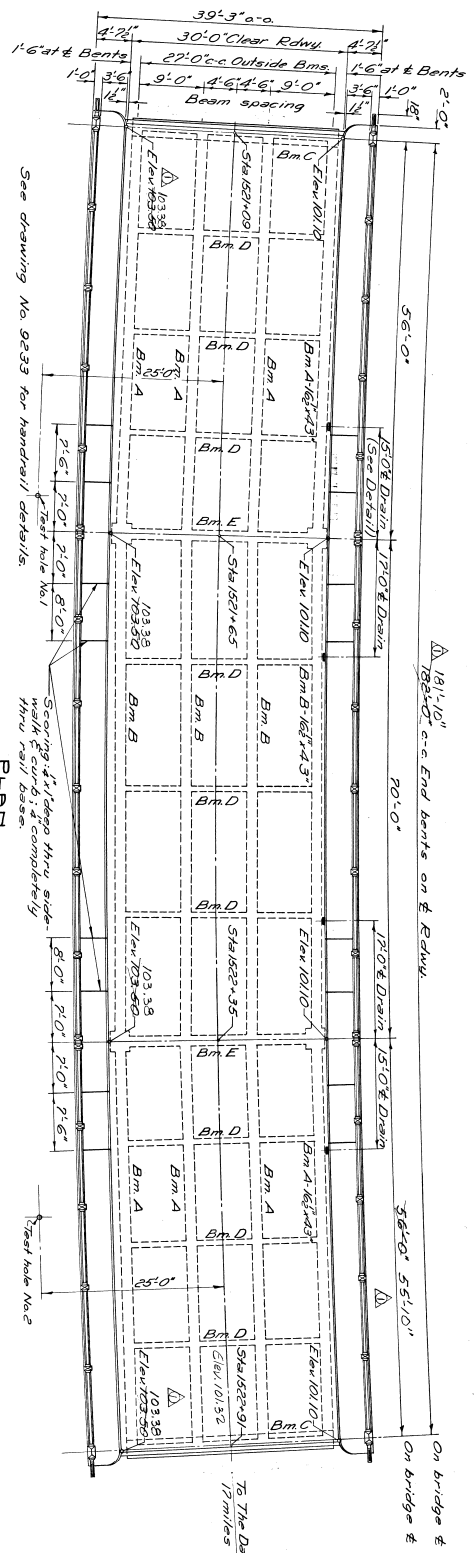
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## **Appendix C**

### Bridge Plans





**GENERAL NOTES:**

1. Bridge designed for 160,000 lbs. live load.

2. All concrete shall be class "A" and shall be 3000 psi in 28 days (i.e. 1350 p.s.i.)

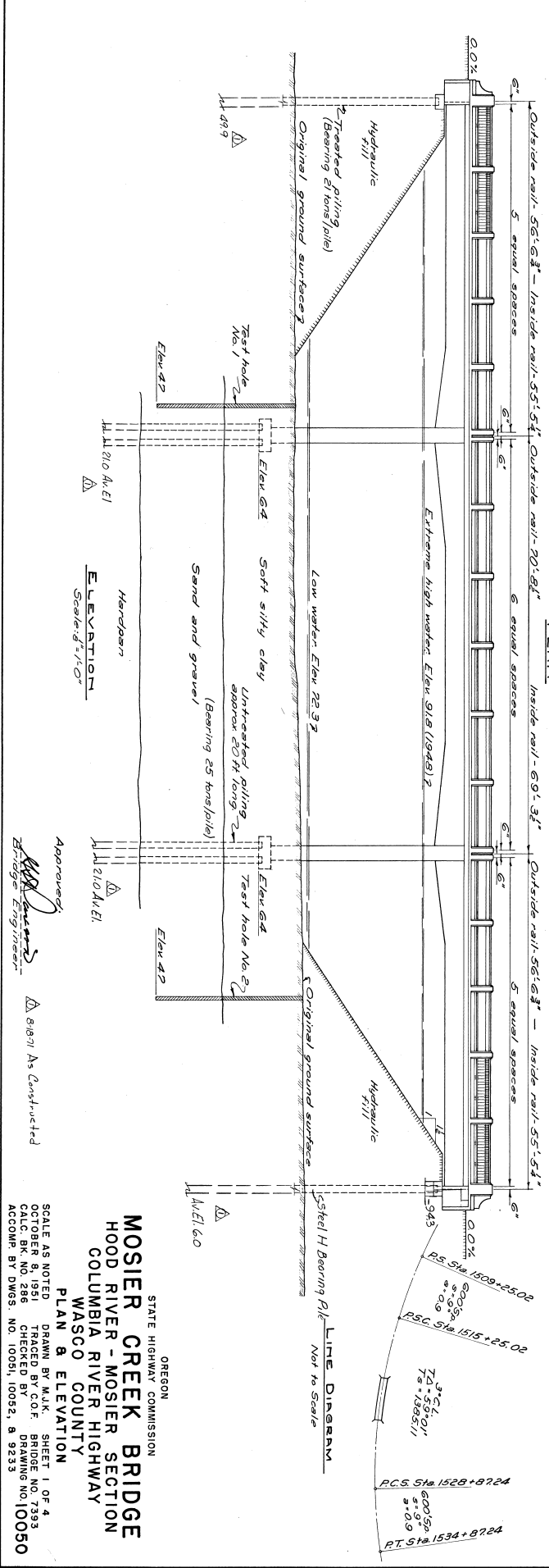
3. All reinforcing shall be intermediate size and shall be in accordance with A.S.T.M. specification A305-43.

4. All reinforcing bars shall be of concrete unless otherwise noted. All girders shall be lap-jointed.

5. Elevation shown are finished grade of gutters. Finished grade is design level for piling is 25 ft. above grade.

6. Subgrade = 10000

7. 10 ft. E



STATE HIGHWAY COMMISSION  
**MOSIER CREEK BRIDGE**  
 HOOD RIVER - MOSIER SECTION  
 COLUMBIA RIVER HIGHWAY  
 WASCO COUNTY  
 PLAN & ELEVATION

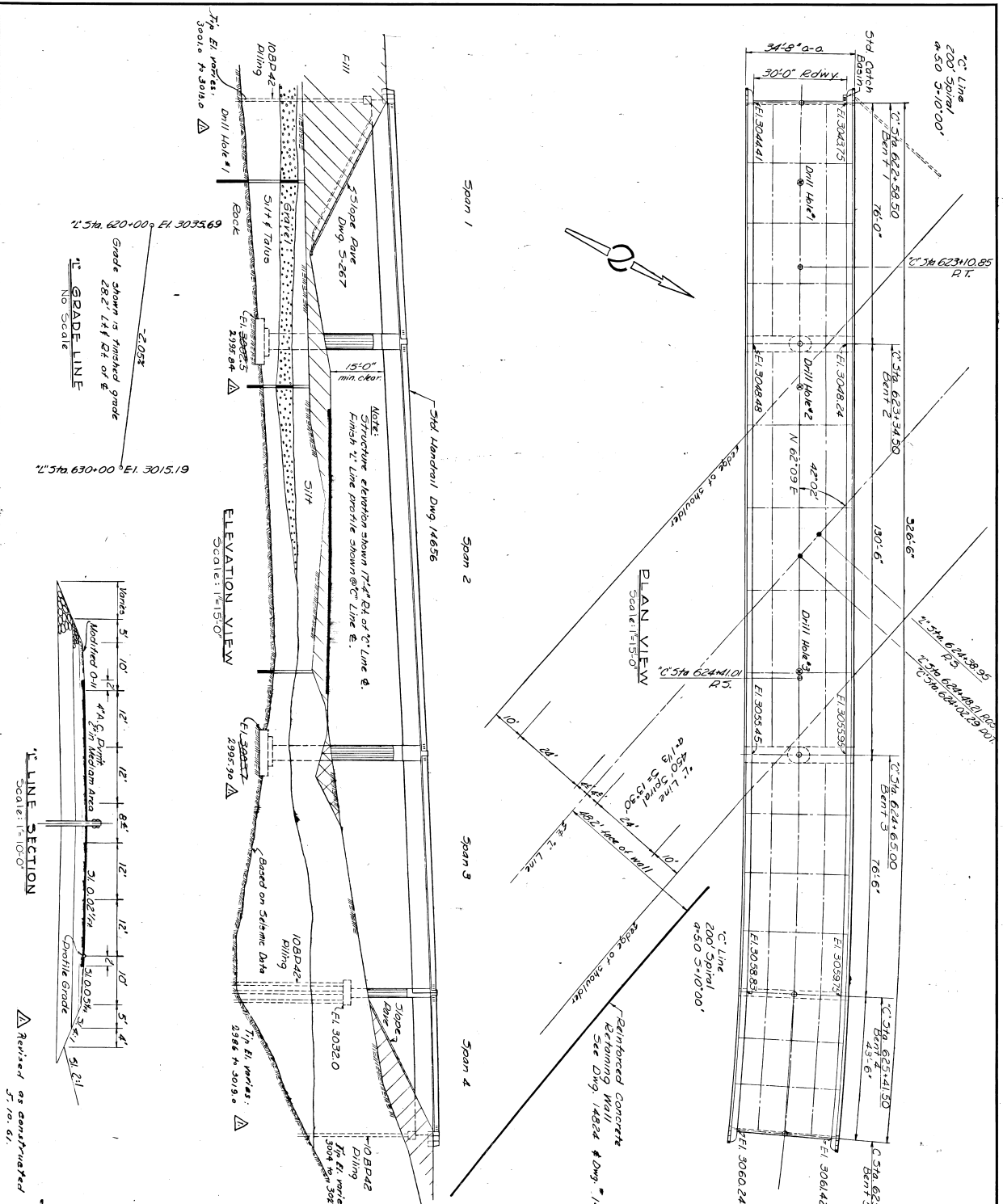
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 OCTOBER 8, 1951  
 CHECKED BY  
 ACCOMP. BY DWG. NO. 10051, 10052, & 9233

DRAWN BY M.J.K.  
 SHEET 1 OF 4  
 BRIDGE NO. 7393  
 DRAWING NO. 10050









**GENERAL NOTES:**

1. Structure designed for 1120-516-44 loading.

2. All concrete shall be Class II and shall obtain a breaking strength of 3300 psi in 28 days (4-1320 psi).

3. All reinforcing steel shall be intermediate grade deformed bars and shall conform to A.S.T.M. Specification A 305. Bars from #3 to #11 inclusive shall be tapered 50 diameters at all splices unless noted or shown otherwise. Bars #14 & #18 shall not be spliced except as shown. All bars shall be placed 2" clear of concrete unless noted or shown otherwise.

4. Footing elevations are subject to change depending on foundation material encountered. Reinforcing steel for columns shall not be fabricated until final footing elevations have been determined in the field.

5. All workmanship and materials shall conform to specifications for bridges of the Oregon State Highway Commission.

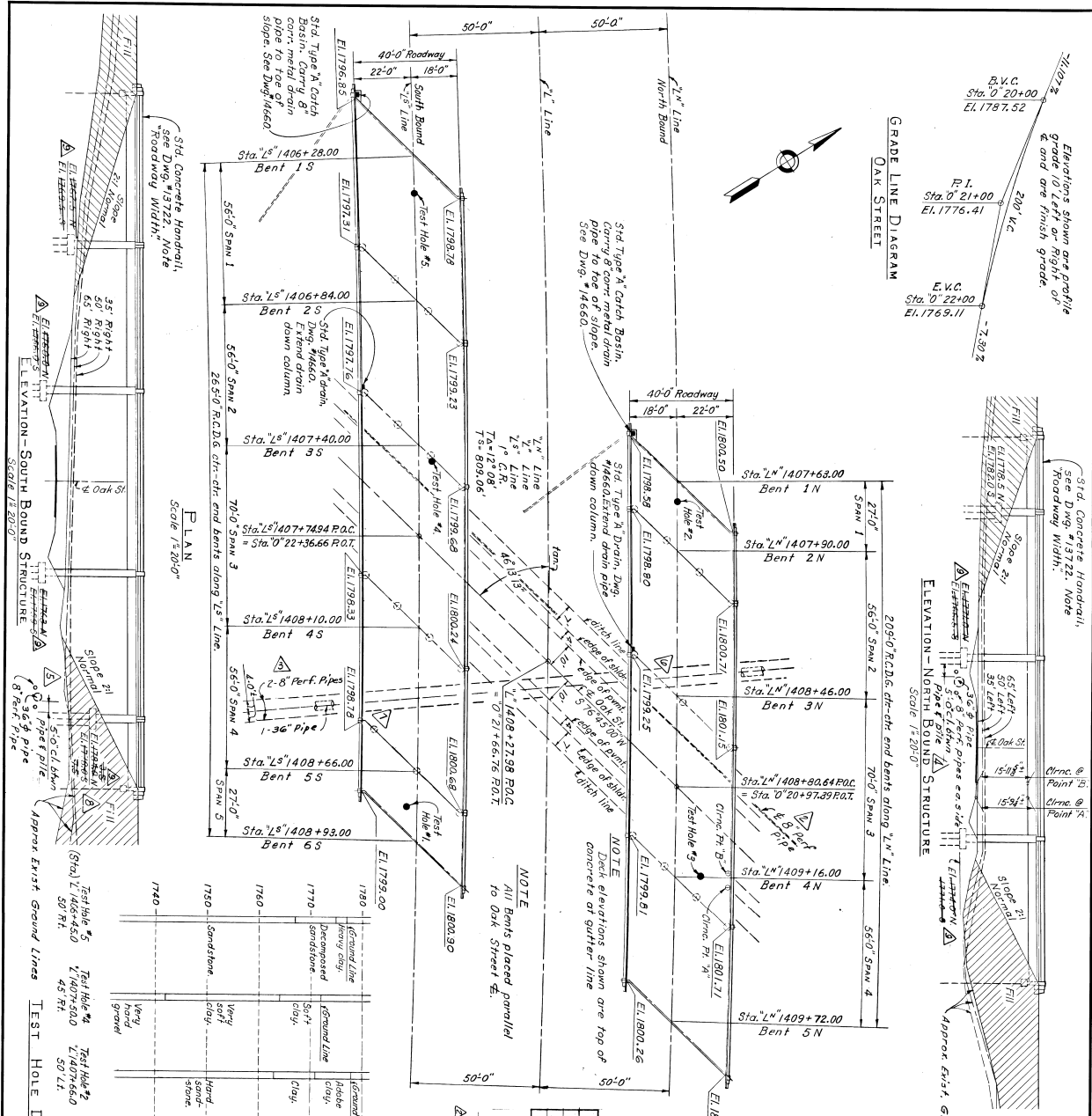
**APPROVED:**

\_\_\_\_\_  
BRIDGE DIVISION

**LEGATD INTERLOUANGE LYING**  
GLOVER-DERRY TRAIL SECTION  
OLD OREGON TRAIL HIGHWAY  
UNION COUNTY

**PLAN & ELEVATION**

DATE: Nov. 24, 1958  
BY: J. H. B. / J. H. B.  
CHECKED: J. H. B. / J. H. B.  
DRAWING NO.: 14817



DESIGN DATA	56-70-56	70-127-127	127-127-127	127-127-127	127-127-127
A	1	1	1	1	1
B	1	1	1	1	1
C	1	1	1	1	1
D	1	1	1	1	1
E	1	1	1	1	1
M	1	1	1	1	1
V	1	1	1	1	1

TEST HOLE DATA	Test Hole #1	Test Hole #2	Test Hole #3	Test Hole #4	Test Hole #5
Station	1406+28.00	1407+40.00	1408+46.00	1409+16.00	1409+72.00
Soil	Very soft	Very soft	Very soft	Very soft	Very soft
Remarks	...	...	...	...	...

**GENERAL NOTES**

Bridges designed for H-20-S16-44 and Military loading. All concrete shall be class "A" and shall have a breaking strength of 3300 p.s.i. in 28 days (f'c = 1350 p.s.i.).

All reinforcing steel shall be intermediate grade deformed bars. Bars #4 shall conform to A.S.T.M. specification A-305 and shall be lapped 30 diameters of all splices unless noted or shown otherwise. All reinforcing bars shall be placed 2" clear of the nearest face of concrete unless noted or shown otherwise. (f's = 26,000 p.s.i.).

Design and workmanship shall conform to the specification for bridges of the Oregon State Highway Commission.

**REVISION**

1. 6/1/52 "Dwg. #14660 added 1" to all sheets changed"

2. 6/1/52 "Dwg. #14660 added 1" to all sheets changed"

3. 6/1/52 "Dwg. #14660 added 1" to all sheets changed"

**GRADE LINE DIAGRAM**

Sta. 1400+90.63 Elev. 1793.12

Sta. 1400+90.63 Elev. 1793.60

Sta. 1400+90.63 Elev. 1793.12

Sta. 1400+90.63 Elev. 1793.60

**MILITARY LOADING**

24K axle

24K axle

Long Load Width

6'-0"

2'-0"

2'-0"

**PLAN OF OAK STREET**

Sta. 1406+28.00

Sta. 1407+40.00

Sta. 1408+46.00

Sta. 1409+16.00

Sta. 1409+72.00

Oak Street (Location)

Pacific Highway (North Bound)

Pacific Highway (South Bound)

**APPROVED**

Revised 3.27.54

Revised as constructed

**OREGON STATE HIGHWAY DEPARTMENT**

**BRIDGE DIVISION**

**PACIFIC HIGHWAY OVERTAKING**

**AT OAK STREET**

**N. ASHLAND INTERCHANGE - S. ASHLAND INTERCHANGE**

**PACIFIC HIGHWAY - JACKSON COUNTY**

**PLAN & ELEVATION**

**DATE 6-22-52**

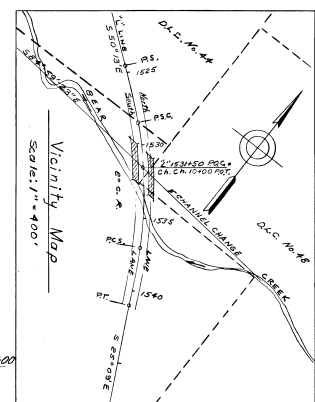
**DESIGNED BY** J. L. CROOKER

**CHECKED BY** J. L. CROOKER

**DRAWN BY** J. L. CROOKER

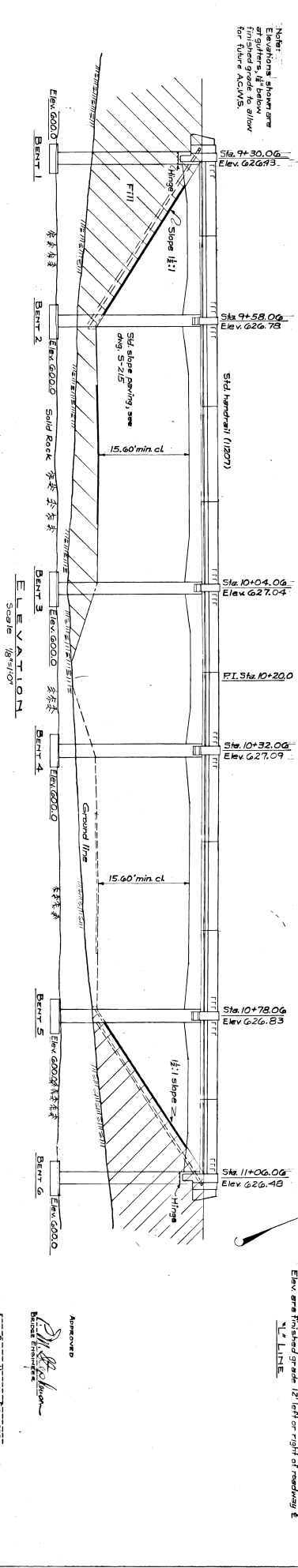
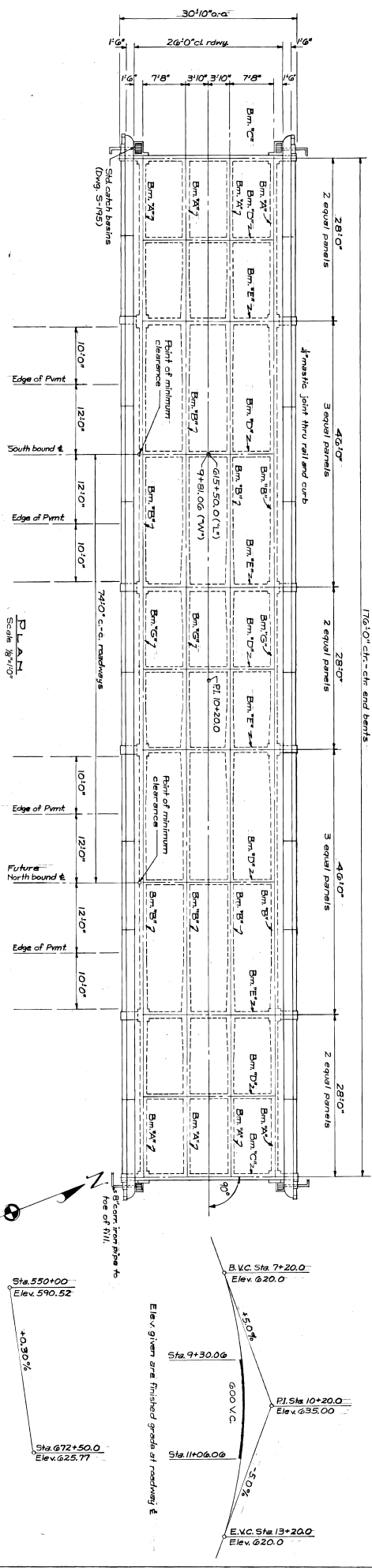
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**PROJECT NO. 18062**



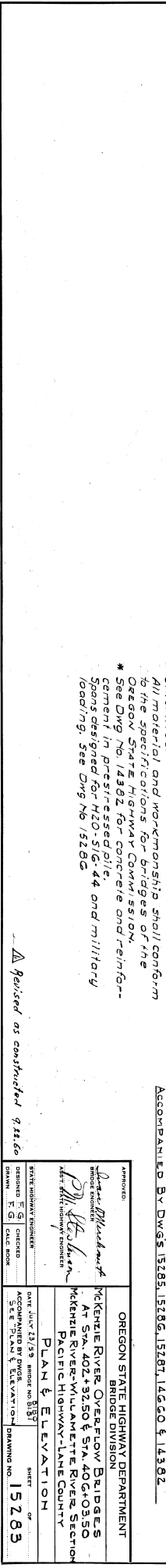
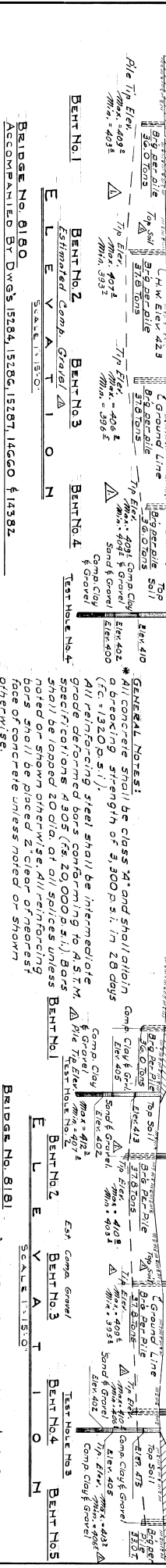
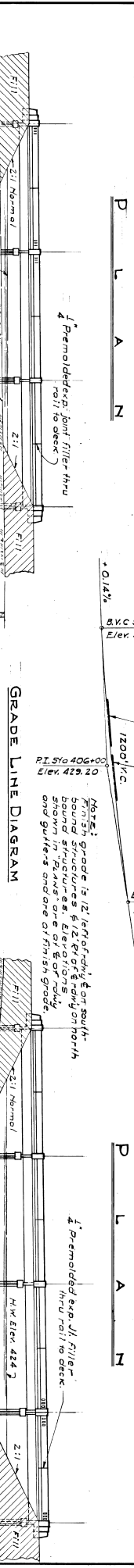
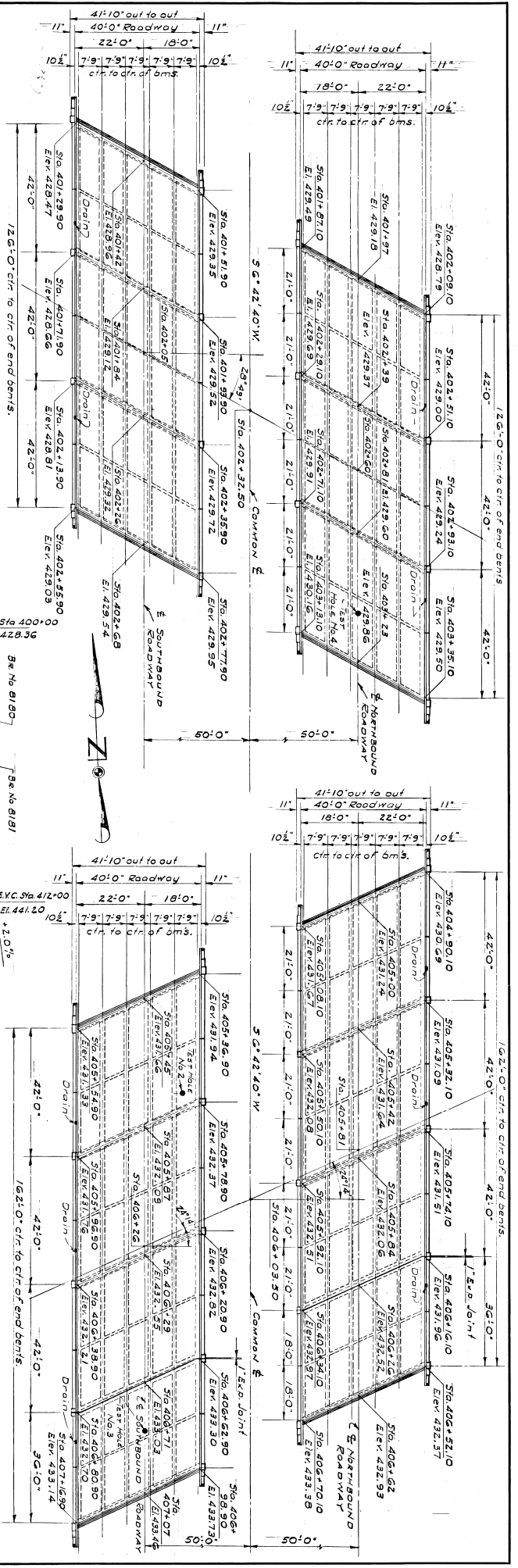
APPROVED:	OREGON STATE HIGHWAY DEPARTMENT BRIDGE DIVISION
DESIGNER: <i>John P. Mulholland</i> BRIDGE ENGINEER LAST STATE HIGHWAY ENGINEER <i>John P. Mulholland</i> PLATE NUMBER: <i>100-10000</i> DESIGNED: <i>0-0</i> DRAWN: <i>CSH</i> DATE: <i>6-13-62</i>	BEAR CREEK BRIDGE N ASHLAND INTCH - S ASHLAND INTCH PACIFIC HIGHWAY - JACKSON COUNTY PLAN & ELEVATION DATE: 6-13-62. SHEETS: 100-10000-1 ACCOMPANIED BY: DIMS: 8/10/62 100-10000-1 1/2" x 6"
DRAWING NO. 18069	SHEET 1 OF 6





GENERAL NOTES:  
 All concrete shall be class 3000 psi and shall attain a breaking strength of 3300 psi in 28 days (15-1820 psi).  
 All reinforcing steel shall be intermediate grade deformed bars.  
 Bars from number 3 to number 11 inclusive shall conform to A.S.T.M. Specification A-615, Grade 60.  
 Bars from number 12 to number 18 inclusive shall conform to A.S.T.M. Specification A-615, Grade 60.  
 Bars from number 19 to number 25 inclusive shall be placed 2' clear of nearest face of concrete unless noted or shown otherwise and shall be lapped 20 diameters at all splices unless shown or noted otherwise.  
 All lap splices shall be staggered and shall be lapped 20 diameters at all splices unless shown or noted otherwise.  
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STATE HIGHWAY COMMISSION  
 SASHAW COUNTY  
 GOSHEN DIVISION SECTION  
 PACIFIC HIGHWAY LANE COUNTY  
 PLAN & ELEVATION  
 SCALE: AS NOTED  
 JANUARY 19, 1955  
 CHECKED BY  
 DESIGNED BY  
 ACCOMP. BY  
 11675



BRIDGE No. 8180  
 ACCOMPANIED BY DWGS 15285, 15286, 15287, 14660 & 14382.

GENERAL NOTES:  
 1. Concrete shall be class 31 and shall comply with the specifications for concrete for bridges of the Oregon State Highway Commission.  
 2. See Dwg No. 14382 for concrete and reinforcement in prestressed pile.  
 3. Spacing designed for H20-S16-44 and military loading. See Dwg No. 15286.

BRIDGE No. 8181  
 ACCOMPANIED BY DWGS 15285, 15286, 15287, 14660 & 14382.

APPROVED:  
 OREGON STATE HIGHWAY DEPARTMENT  
 BRIDGE DIVISION  
 AT STA. 402+32.50 & STA. 406+38.90  
 MCKENZIE RIVER-OWEN FLOW BRIDGE  
 PACIFIC HIGHWAY-LANE COUNTY  
 PLAN & ELEVATION  
 SHEET 15285



