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Investigation into pavement curing materials and surface concrete properties

by

Zhi Ge

A thesis submitted to the graduate faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of MASTER OF SCIENCE

Major: Civil Engineering (Civil Engineering Materials)

Program of Study Committee: Kejin Wang, Major Professor James Cable Brian Coree William Duckworth Chengsheng Ouyang

> Iowa State University Ames, Iowa 2002



Graduate College Iowa State University

This is to certify that the master's thesis of

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has met the requirements of Iowa State University

Signatures have been redacted for privacy

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ABSTRACT

Appropriate curing is important for concrete to achieve the designed properties. At present, spraying liquid membrane-forming curing compound is the most common method used in pavement and other concrete structure construction.

Although a great deal of work has been done on concrete curing, most studies have focused on the effects of curing conditions (such as temperature and relative humidity) on concrete properties (such as strength and freeze/thaw durability). Limited research has been done to study different curing compounds and the changes in the surface concrete properties induced by different curing compounds and applications technologies.

The present research was conducted to evaluate curing compounds, application technologies, and their effects on concrete properties, especially on the surface concrete properties. Three curing compounds were selected and applied to concrete (mortars and pastes) at three different times after casting. Two application methods, single and double layer applications, were employed. Moisture content, conductivity, sorptivity, and degree of hydration were measured at different depths in the specimens. Flexural and compressive strength of the specimens were also tested. Statistical analysis was conducted to examine the relationships between these properties.

It was found, in this project, that the application of curing compound improved the concrete properties. The application of the high-efficiency-index curing compound gave better properties than the low-efficiency-index curing compound. Compared with other test methods in this project, the sorptivity test was the most sensitive test, which gave difference for different curing conditions.

Since the sorptivity is more sensitive to various curing methods, it could be a good method to be used to measure the effectiveness of the compounds. The statistical analysis showed the relationship between the moisture and conductivity. Therefore, conductivity may be a good method to evaluate the moisture content in field.

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1. INTRODUCTION

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1.1 Background

Random cracking in concrete pavements are often reported during the first few days after construction during the cold and hot weather concreting. The problem is directly related to concrete curing methods and materials, which control moisture loss and temperature inside concrete. Concrete curing practice employs burlap or insulating blankets and sprayed liquid membrane-forming curing compounds on pavements to reduce moisture and heat loss during the early age of cement hydration (first seven days). Burlap or insulating blankets are considered ideal for retaining heat and moisture, but their application is laboratory or intensive and time consuming, and their insulation effectiveness is often affected by the wind. In contrast, liquid membrane-forming curing compounds could provide a similar insulation and be applied much more easily. Control of heat and moisture loss by application of a curing compound, especially in hot or cold weather conditions, has aided contractors in enhancing concrete quality, permitting early opening of pavements to traffic and extending the available construction season.

Concrete practice has indicated that the performances of curing compounds are closely related to the characteristics of the curing materials, application methods, and application time. However, little research has been reported on the effectiveness of curing compounds and application technologies. There are no reliable testing methods available to evaluate the effectiveness of curing. Presently, white-pigmented curing compounds are commonly used in Iowa, while poly-alpha methylstyrene and other curing products are common elsewhere.

1.2 Objectives

This research focuses on evaluating curing compound materials, application technologies, and their effects on concrete properties, especially on the surface concrete properties, in the laboratory. The objectives of this research are 1) to identify and evaluate alternative curing materials and techniques that meet the goals of the Iowa DOT to improve moisture retention in newly placed concrete pavements and 2) to develop a suitable



evaluation method for measuring the effectiveness of the compounds on the pavement at construction.

1.3 Scope of the Study

This thesis presents a literature review of curing technology, with an emphasis on curing compounds, and the experimental results from the laboratory investigation. In the experimental work, three curing compounds were selected and applied to concrete (mortars and pastes) at three different times after casting. Two application methods, single- and double-layer applications, were employed. Moisture content, conductivity, sorptivity, and degree of hydration were measured at different depths of the specimens. Flexural and compressive strength of the specimens were also tested. Statistical analysis was conducted to examine the relationships among these material properties. Since the curing has more effect on surface properties, this report focuses on the analysis of the surface properties.



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2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Curing Effect on Concrete Properties

To "cure" concrete is to provide concrete with adequate moisture and temperature to maintain cement hydration for a sufficient period of time. Proper curing of concrete is crucial to obtain design strength and maximum durability, especially for concrete exposed to extreme environmental conditions at an early age.

Research has shown that a high curing temperature (up to 212 0 F or 100 0 C) generally accelerates cement hydration and concrete strength gain at early age. Curing temperatures below 50 0 F (10 0 C) are not desirable for early age strength development. When the curing temperature is below 14 0 F (-10 0 C), the cement hydration process may cease (American Concrete Institute [ACI] Committee 308, 2000). Cement hydration is an exothermic reaction, which generates a certain amount of heat. If the heat of hydration is kept within the concrete, it will benefit the cement hydration and concrete strength development. As a result, insulation and sealing materials are commonly used for concrete curing.

The relative humidity (RH) in concrete also significantly influences the rate of cement hydration. Normally, the moisture in the freshly placed concrete is in excess of that required for complete cement hydration. If this moisture can be kept within the concrete, it will promote cement hydration. However, if the moisture evaporates and the relative humidity of the concrete falls below 80%, cement hydration may cease (Mindess and Young, 1981). The water to cement ratio and degree of saturation of a hydrating concrete govern the pore structure, permeability, diffusivity, and absorption characteristics of the hardened concrete.

Curing time is another key for proper cement hydration and concrete strength development. Good curing practices (proper temperature and high humidity) activate cement hydration, thus shortening the curing time required for the concrete to reach its designed strength. Poor and/or insufficient curing may result in premature deterioration in the form of plastic and drying cracking, scaling, and joint spalling.

Since the development of concrete microstructure depends essentially on the curing conditions, the curing has influence on all subsequent concrete properties, which include compressive, permeability, sorptivity, etc. Good curing, especially the early age curing, will



give better properties. Research data have shown the impact of different curing methods on concrete properties.

Figure 2.1, adapted from *Concrete*, Mindess and Young, shows the influence of curing methods and curing times on compressive strengths. Different curing methods and times give totally different compressive strengths, ranging from 2500 to 5750 lb/in² at 180 days. The continuously moist-curing gives high compressive strength. After the moist curing is ceased, the rate of the strength gain soon stops, due to the moisture loss. Figures 2.2 and 2.3 show the influence of curing on oxygen permeability, the permeation of oxygen under an applied pressure. The oxygen permeability is related to the concrete durability. Figure 2.2 indicates the relationship between the curing methods and the oxygen permeability at different depth from the surface. The better curing gives the lower permeability, which means better durability. The difference between the oxygen permabilities decreases as the depth increases, which demonstrates that the curing methods have more effect on the concrete surface. Figure 2.3 shows the importance of the early-age curing. The oxygen permeability decreases sharply with the curing extension from one to three days. After 3 days, most of cement has hydrated and the hydration rate decreases. The data in Figure 2.4 indicate that the water permeability is reduced about 50% by extending moist curing from one to three days. Dhir (1987) demonstrated that the surface absorption is also reduced by 50% by extending the water curing from one to four days (Figure 2.5). Figures 2.6 and 2.7 show the effect of curing on the surface abrasion. Both of these two figures show the important of the duration of the curing. In figure 2.7, the depth of abrasion decreases sharply in the first seven days. After that the depths are almost constant.

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Figure 2.1. Compressive strength of concrete dried in laboratory air after preliminary moist curing (Adapted from *Concrete*, Mindess and Young 1981)



Figure 2.2. Influence of curing on oxygen permeability (Cabrera et al, 1988)



Figure 2.3. Influence of curing time on oxygen permeability (Adapted from ACI 308, 2000)



Figure 2.4. Influence of curing on water permeability (Kosmatka and Panarese

1988)





Figure 2.5. Surface absorption (Dhir 1987)



Figure 2.6. Curing effect on abrasion resistance (Sawyer 1957)





Figure 2.7. Abrasion resistance for different curing and concrete (Dhir 1991)

2.2 Curing methods

According to ACI Committee 308, there are two types of curing methods: 1) continuous or frequent application of water through water ponding, fogging, steam, or saturated material; and 2) the prevention of excessive loss of water from the concrete by means of sealing materials such as plastic sheets, or by application of a membrane-forming curing compounds to the freshly placed concrete.

1) Water curing

• Poundings or immersion

As soon as the concrete is sufficiently hardened to withstand marring, the surface of concrete should be kept wetting by ponding (Transportation Research Committee, 1979). This method is seldom used, but it is the most effective method. Sudden release of pond water should be avoided and application time is important in ponding concrete surface.

• Fog spray or sprinkling

This method is really effective when adequate water is available and the air temperature is well above freezing. Sprinkling should start before the concrete surface dries out, and intermittent sprinkling should be timed to prevent intermittent drying (Mindess and Young, 1981).



• Coverings that hold water

As soon as the concrete is sufficiently hardened to prevent surface damage and after the surface has been thoroughly wetted, the surface of concrete should be protected by these coverings. These coverings include burlap, cotton mats, rugs, curing, sand and sawdust, and straw or hay. Burlap is widely used. As these materials will dry out, periodic moistening is required.

• Steam Curing

When concrete is cured in live steam, the rate of strength gain is increased. Steam curing includes low- and high-pressure curing. The maximum curing temperature for low-pressure steam curing may be anywhere in the range of 40 to 100 ^oC (104 to 212 ^oF). The temperature for the high-pressure curing exceeds 100 ^oC. The saturated steam pressure must be allowed to develop and a sealed enclosure must be used (Mindess and Young, 1981).

- 2) Sealing materials
 - Plastic film

Plastic film should be placed over the wet surface as soon as possible, and cover all exposed surface. Plastic film can be used to cover more complex shapes because of its flexibility. The plastic film should be continuous. Otherwise, the efficiency will be reduced.

• Reinforced paper

Reinforced paper includes two layers of Kraft paper cemented together with a bituminous adhesive and reinforced with fiber. It should comply with American Society and Materials (ASTM) C 171.

• Liquid membrane-forming curing compound

Liquid membrane-forming curing compound is widely used for concrete slabs and pavements. The membrane-forming curing compounds should meet ASTM standards. In addition to the ASTM standard, different Departments of Transportation (DOT) may have different specifications. According to ACI, curing compounds must be applied after the finishing and as soon as surface water sheen (super natant liquid) has disappeared. Membrane coating must be maintained for the duration of the full-specified curing period. The membrane should be protected by suitable means if traffic is unavoidable. Any damage to the membrane during the curing period should be immediately repaired at the original specified



rate of coverage.

2.3 Liquid Membrane-Forming Curing Compound

Based on the Florida standard for radon-resistant new commercial building construction, "Curing compound is a liquid that can be applied as a coating to the surface of newly placed concrete to retard the loss of water, or in the case of pigmented compounds, also to reflect heat so as to provide an opportunity for the concrete to develop its properties in a favorable temperature and moisture environment" (Murley, 1996). The remainder of this chapter discusses the results of a literature survey on liquid membrane-forming curing compounds.

2.3.1 Types of Liquid Membrane-Forming Curing Compounds

Typical curing compounds consist of wax or resin, which is emulsified in water or dissolved in a solvent (Vandenbossche, 1999). After being applied to the surface, the water or solvent evaporates and then the wax or resin forms a membrane on the surface. This membrane helps retain moisture in the concrete. Concrete cured with curing compounds is kept partially saturated near the surface during the curing period. The depth of the moisture zone is dependent on the moisture-retaining characteristics of the membrane employed and the temperature gradient across the concrete/air interface.

Based on their chemical compositions and manufacturing processes, curing compounds can be divided into the following categories (QCL Group, 1999): (1) wax emulsion, (2) acrylic emulsions, (3) chlorinated rubber-based compounds, (4) hydrocarbon resins, and (5) polyvinyl acetate (PVA)–based compounds.

• Wax Emulsion

These curing compounds consist of emulsions of wax in water or dissolved in a suitable solvent. This method of curing compares well with others, but it affects the bond of surface treatments (topping and vinyl) to the concrete surface.

• Acrylic Emulsions

These materials offer relatively good curing, and they also tend to permit a better bond for subsequent treatments than other compounds.

Chlorinated Rubber-based Compounds



These are either synthetic or natural rubber polymers, dissolved in a suitable solvent. They have high curing effectiveness, but care should be taken in their use as the solvents are toxic and flammable.

• Hydrocarbon Resins

The majority of these curing compounds are of natural or synthetic resins dissolved in a solvent. After an application, the solvent in the curing compound will evaporate, and a membrane will form on the surface of the concrete, which provides the concrete with excellent curing. However, under extreme weather conditions this membrane becomes brittle and breaks down under the action of sunlight and weathering, thus reducing its effectiveness.

• PVA-based Compounds

Tests on PVA-based curing compounds generally show that they are of limited effectiveness in preventing moisture loss from the concrete. Their capabilities are influenced by their solids content, which varies markedly between manufacturers.

By contrast, ASTM classifies liquid membrane-forming curing compounds by the color of the compound and the solid constituent present for forming the membrane. ASTM 309 includes the following classifications:

Type 1-clear

Type 1-D-clear or translucent with fugitive dye

Type 2-white pigmented

Class A-no restrictions

Class B-resin-based compositions

2.3.2 Requirements for Liquid Membrane-Forming Curing Compounds

As mentioned previously, the purpose of curing compounds is to retain moisture and temperature in concrete for cement hydration. As a result, the ability of water retention and heat reflectance of a curing compound must be specified for a quality curing.

• Water Retention

Water or moisture retaining ability is the ability of a material to prevent the loss of moisture from a hydraulic cement mortar.



Together with ASTM 309, "Standard Specification for Liquid Membrane-Forming Compounds for Curing Concrete," ASTM C156, "Test Method for Water Retention by Concrete Curing Materials," provides a standard test method for estimating the water retention ability of curing compounds. The water retaining value, determined by this method, is used to assess the suitability for contributing to an appropriate curing environment for concrete. But the test results obtained may be highly variable as indicated by the precision statement. The single-operator standard deviation is 0.13 kg/m² (0.03 lbs/ft²), and multi-laboratory standard deviation is 0.3 kg/m² (0.06 lbs/ft²) (Vandenbossche, 1999). These standard deviations are extremely high compared with the required water retention value of less than 0.55 kg/m² (0.11 lbs/ft²) in 72 hours for Type 2 Class B curing compounds.

Table 2.1 shows test results from the Minnesota Department of Transportation (Mn/DOT) (from Vandenbossche, 1999). As shown in the table, the standard deviations of the tests are very large compared to the average water loss, which indicates that "the lack of precision of ASTM C156 is so severe that it can be difficult to conclude whether a given compound has passed or failed the test" (Senbetta, 1988). The coefficients of variation (the ratio of the standard deviation to the average value) for these three materials are 40%, 71%, and 57%, respectively. Mn/DOT tested 141 samples from three different companies and suggested that reducing the maximum allowable evaporation loss would help prevent the use of the marginal curing compound.

Products	Average Water Loss (Kg/m ²)	Sample Standard Deviation (Kg/m ²)	Number of Samples
W.R. Meadows 1250-White	0.20	0.08	40
W.R. Meadows 2230-White	0.24	0.17	10
Vexcon Enviocure 100-White	0.49	0.28	12

Table 2.1. Water Loss and Variation of Curing Compound

Many factors affect the laboratory test results. These factors include the precision of the control of the temperature, humidity and air circulation in the curing cabinet, preparation and sealing of the mortar specimens, the age and the surface condition of the mortar



specimen when the curing product is applied, and the uniformity and quantity of the curing membrane (ASTM C309). Some of these factors are not well considered in ASTM C156.

Because the ASTM C156 method is not reliable, some state departments of transportation (DOTs) try to modify the test and have developed their own specifications. These changes include changing the specimen size and shape, changing the method of calculating the test results, specifying test results at 24 hours and 72 hours, using heat lamps and fans to simulate sunny and windy conditions; using different temperature, relative humidity, and wind conditions in the cabinet; and using different mortar mixtures (Senbetta, 1988).

The Iowa DOT uses the efficiency index of the material and moisture loss to evaluate this material (Iowa DOT, 2000). The Iowa DOT specifies the efficiency index of the material shall not be less than 95.0%, except that material showing moisture loss of less than 1.0% of the quantity of water remaining in the test specimen at the time the curing material is applied (Iowa DOT, 1997). Mn/DOT decreases the allowable water loss to 0.15 kg/m² (0.03 lbs/ft²) in 24 hours and 0.4 kg/m² (0.08 lbs/ft²) in 72 hours. The California Department of Transportation requires the curing compound resin to consist of 100% poly-alpha-methylrene. This kind of curing compound has good property of water retention.

• Reflectance Properties

Type 2 liquid membrane-forming curing compounds include a white pigment, which helps to reflect radiant heat from the sun and results in less of an increase in temperature within the concrete throughout the curing period than other curing methods. The reflectance of curing compounds also reduces the rate of evaporation and decreases early age stresses. ASTM C309 states that reflectance shall not be less than 60%.

• Other General Requirements

According to ASTM C309, there are other requirements curing compounds should meet. The drying time should not be more than four hours; the volatile portion of liquid membrane-forming compounds should be neither toxic, nor have flash points less than 50°F (10°C). Liquid membrane-forming compounds should not react deleteriously with concrete and its components. Compounds should be of a consistency that they could be readily applied by spraying to a uniform coating at a material temperature above 40°F (4°C).



ASTM C309 also states, "Permanent colors other than white, or other special attributes are beyond the scope of this specification and are subject to negotiation between the purchase and the supplier." Some curing compounds need to meet special requirements, such as alkali resistance, adhesion-promoting qualities, and resistance to degradation by ultraviolet (UV) light, in addition to their moisture-retention capability as measured by ASTM C156.

2.3.3 Application Technologies of Liquid Membrane-Forming Curing Compounds

Once a curing compound is selected, application technology is a key for the quality of the curing. There are a number of unsuccessful applications of curing compounds, many of which result from improper application time, insufficient amount, and/or nonuniform coverage of curing compounds (Mather, 1990).

• Time of Application

For maximum beneficial effect, liquid membrane-forming compounds must be applied to concrete as soon as final finishing operations are complete (within two hours) and after surface water sheen has disappeared and no water sheen is visible, but not so late that the curing compounds will be absorbed into concrete.

If the concrete has not ceased to bleed, it is too soon to apply the curing compound no matter how dry the surface has become as a result of the evaporation rate exceeding the bleeding rate. When the evaporation rate exceeds that of the bleeding, the surface appears dry even though bleeding is still occurring. If the curing compounds are applied at this time, two undesirable conditions may occur: (1) evaporation is effectively stopped but bleeding is continuing, which will cause a layer bleeding water under the concrete surface (this condition promotes scaling); (2) evaporation is temporarily stopped but bleeding water may still continue, which causes map cracking of the membrane film with reduction in water retention capability. For this second situation, reapplication of curing compounds is required (ACI Committee 308, 2000; Transportation Research Committee, 1979).

If a curing compound is applied to a concrete surface that has dried, the curing compound will be absorbed and will not form a membrane. The curing compound–saturated dry surface layer of concrete will cease to gain strength, and it will disintegrate under traffic and severe weathering.



• Amount of Application

The amount of curing compound used should be enough to seal all exposed concrete surfaces. Curing compound shall not be permitted to enter joints, nor shall it be allowed on surfaces to be subsequently joined with other concrete surfaces. An additional coat of compound shall be applied to surfaces showing discontinuity of coverage. Areas covered with curing compound and damaged by construction operations within the seven-day curing period shall be re-sprayed as specified. Areas subjected to heavy rainfall shall be recoated within three hours after initial application.

A more direct approach to increasing the effectiveness of the curing compound membrane is to increase its thickness by increasing the rate of spraying (Loeffler et al., 1987). Therefore, the most common method for ensuring proper curing concrete is to control the spraying speed. The typically used spray rate ranges between 2.5 and $5m^2/L$ (102 and 204 ft^2/gal). However, many state DOTs have their own specification for the minimum spraying speed. Table 2.3 shows spraying speeds of two DOTs as compared to the typical. Although every DOT considers the minimum spray rate, several DOTs consider the surface texture of concrete when specifying spray rate. Different textures require different curing compounds to achieve the same curing results. Smooth surfaces require less curing compound than do rough surfaces.

	Typical	Iowa DOT	Mn/DOT	
Spraying speed (m ² /L)	2.5-5	3.3	4	

Table 2.2. Spraying Speed for Liquid Membrane-Forming Curing Compounds

• Uniformity of Application

In addition to correct spray rate, the continuity is also very important. The spray operation should be performed using approved equipment to form a continuous and uniform water-impermeable film without marring the surface (Transportation Research Committee, 1979). For Type 1-D white-pigmented curing compounds, if the pigments are dispersed uniformly in the curing compound, it is possible to detect nonuniform application by careful visual inspection. For clear or translucent compounds without dye, the ability to visually



inspect uniformity is less certain. Therefore, clear or translucent compounds must be inspected for uniformity shortly after application. Mn/DOT indicates that five factors affect the ability to obtain a uniform coverage: nozzle type, nozzle spacing and boom height, nozzle orientation, cart speed, and wind shield.



3. Experimental Work

In order to evaluate curing materials, application methods, and test methods for curing effectiveness, three curing compounds were selected and applied to concrete (mortars and pastes) at three different times after casting. Two application methods, single- and double-layer applications, were employed. Moisture content, conductivity, sorptivity, and degree of hydration were measured at different depths of specimens. Flexural and compressive strengths of some of the specimens were also tested. The results are compared with those from the specimens without application of curing compounds.

3.1. Curing Materials

The curing compounds used in this project are 1645-White, 1600-White, and 2255-White, which are from the W.R. Meadows Company. Compound 1645-White is a water-based curing compound currently used by the Iowa DOT. Compound 1600-White is also a water-based curing compound that meets ASTM specification but not the Iowa specification. Compound 2255-White is a resin-based curing compound currently used by Minnesota DOT. Typical properties of the three curing compounds are listed in Table 3.1.

Name	ASTM Specification	Efficiency Index	Solids Content	Estimate Cost (\$/gal)
1645-White	Type 2 Class A	95.9	29.2%	2
1600-White	Type 2 Class A	89.0	17.1%	1
2255-White	Type 2 Class B	98.1	43.5%	6.5

Table 3.1. Typical Properties of Selected Curing Compounds

3.2. Curing Methods

3.2.1. Reference 1: Air Curing

Reference 1 simulates the worst curing condition in a mild weather condition. The samples, without any curing compound, were cured in a room until testing. The room temperature was approximately 76.5°F and the relative humidity was 38%.



3.2.2. Reference 2: Wet Curing

Reference 2 simulates the best wet-curing condition in a mild weather condition. The samples without any curing compound were covered with burlap after the casting and cured in a fog room until testing. The temperature in the fog room was approximately 73°F and the relative humidity was higher than 95%.

3.2.3. Reference 3: Oven Curing

The samples without any curing compound were cured in an oven until testing. The oven was turned on at 7:00 AM and turned off at 7:00 PM. The relative humidity in the oven was about 35%. The typical oven temperature is shown in the Figure 3.1.



Figure 3.1. Typical Oven Temperature

3.2.4. Case 1: Air Curing + Single-Layer Curing Compound

In this case, a selected curing compound was sprayed on specimens at 0.25, 0.5, and 1.0 hours after casting. The specimens were cured in the air (with a temperature of 76.5°F and a relative humidity of 38%) before and after application of curing compound until testing.

3.2.5. Case 2: Oven Curing + Single-Layer Curing Compound

In this case, a selected curing compound was sprayed on specimens at 0.25, 0.5, and 1.0 hours after casting. The specimens were cured in the oven (see Figure 3.1 for the oven



temperature; relative humidity of 35%) before and after application of curing compound until testing.

3.2.6. Case 3: Oven Curing + Double-Layer Curing Compound

In this case, two layers of a curing compound were applied onto the surface of the specimens. The first layer was sprayed at 0.25, 0.5, and 1.0 hours after casting. The second layer of the same curing compound was spayed 5 minutes after the first application of the curing compound. Samples were cured in the oven (same temperature and relative humidity as in Case 2) before and after application of curing compound until testing.

The double-application air curing had been planned at the beginning of this project. But the test results from the single-application air curing show that the improvement is not significant and that there is no big difference for different curing compounds. Therefore, the double-application air curing was not employed.

3.3. Specimens

3.3.1. Paste Specimens

Small cement paste slabs were prepared with a dimension of 10 inches by 5 inches by 4 inches. Holcim Type I/II cement was used. In order to apply a water-based curing compound onto the slabs at a very short time after casting, a dry mixture was required. As a result, a water-to-cement ratio (w/c) of 0.28 was selected for all paste specimens. Three 2-inch cores were taken from the paste slabs for degree of cement hydration tests.

Paste was mixed using the Lancaster concrete mixer. The cement was first mixed with water for 40 seconds. After rest for 20 second, the paste was mixed for another 1 minute.

3.3.2. Mortar Specimens

Two types of mortar samples were cast: one was a 2-inch by 2-inch by 4-inch prism, and the other was a 10-inch by 5-inch by 4-inch slab. The prism specimens were used for moisture content and sorptivity tests. In order to measure moisture content and sorptivity of a specimen at different depths, the specimen needed to be separated into three pieces: top, middle, and bottom. In order to prevent moisture loss from cutting of the specimens, two notches were designed to divide the specimens into three equal pieces.



The slabs were used for temperature monitoring, conductivity tests, and compression tests, in which 2-inch by 4-inch cylinders were cored from the slabs. Holcim Type I/II cement and Hallett Sand (fineness modulus of 2.94) were used. The sand to cement ratio was 2.75, and the w/c was 0.42 for all the mortar specimens.

The mortar was mixed by the same procedure as the paste. Cement was mixed with sand and water for 3 minutes. After rest for 2 minutes, the mortar was mixed for another 2 minutes.

3.3.3. Concrete

Concrete beams, with a dimension of 4 inches by 4 inches by 18 inches were prepared for flexural strength tests. The concrete mix proportions are shown in Table 3.2. The concrete beams were cured in the oven for 1 day, de-molded at the second day, and then cured in the fog room for other 6 days before flexural tests. The concrete was mixed by the standard procedure.

	Source	Weight (lb/ft ³)
Coarse Aggregate	Ft. Dodge	80
Fine Aggregate	Cordova	63
Cement	Holcim I/II	29
Air Entraining Agent	Daravair 1400	6.0 ml
Water	Tap water	14

Table 3.2. Concrete Mix Proportions

3.4. Compound Spray

Curing compounds were sprayed on specimens according to Iowa DOT test method No. 901-D (May 2000). After well shaking and mixing, the tested curing compound was put into a paint sprayer as shown in Figure 3.2. The sprayer was attached to a compressed air supply that adjusts pressure. The curing compound was then uniformly sprayed on the surface of the specimen until the prescribed rate had been applied. The amount of the curing compound in the sprayer was recorded before the spray, and the compound was sprayed until the remaining curing and sprayer weighed the same as the calculated weight (to the nearest 0.1 g).





Figure 3.2. Paint Sprayer with Compressed Air Supply

3.5. Test Methods

Eight different tests were conducted: (1) moisture content, (2) sorptivity, (3) degree of hydration, (4) compressive strength, (5) conductivity, (6) temperature, (7) flexural strength, and (8) thermogravimetric analysis (TGA).

3.5.1. Moisture Content

Moisture content was measured from a set of three mortar prisms at age 1 and 3 days. In the tests, a 2-inch by 2-inch by 4-inch mortar prism was fractured along the designed notches into 3 pieces: top, middle, and bottom. Each piece was weighed to the nearest 0.01 of a gram (W_i) and then put in an oven at a constant temperature of 105°C to remove free water. After heating for 48 hours, the pieces of samples were weighed again (W). The moisture content (MC) is given by

$$MC = [(W_i - W) / W] * 100\%$$
(3.1)

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3.5.2. Sorptivity

Sorptivity was also measured from mortar prisms at age 3 days. In this test, a 2-inch by 2-inch by 4-inch mortar prism was evenly cut into three pieces with slow sawing. The bottom surface of the bottom piece was cleaned or smoothened using a sand paper. For each piece, the dimensions of the bottom cross sections were measured, the lateral surfaces were sealed with five-minute epoxy, and the top surface was covered with plastic. After the samples were weighed to the nearest 0.01 of a gram, the bottom surface was immersed into tap water to a maximum depth of 3 mm. The water level was kept constant. The samples were then weighed at time intervals of 1 minute, 5 minutes, 10 minutes, 20 minutes, 30 minutes, 1 hour, 6 hours, and even longer if necessary. Before each weighing, the surfaces, which were in contact with water, were pressed against a paper towel to remove any excess water. The test was finished when the slope of mass gain per unit area versus square root time was constant. This constant slope is the sorptivity coefficient.

3.5.3. Degree of Hydration- Furnace method

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A 2-inch core was drilled from the paste sample. Three 0.5-inch thick pieces were cut from the top, middle, and bottom of the core. Each piece was crushed, sieved with a number 16 sieve, weighed and filled into a crucible (the crucible was weighed before putting the sample in). The crucibles were put in an oven at a constant temperature of 105°C and weighed again after 18 hours for obtaining the amount of evaporable water (W_{105}). For estimating the weight of hydrated water, or non-evaporable water, the crucibles were put back in the furnace, heated to 1000°C, and after kept at this temperature for one hour, put in the desiccators. After having reached the room temperature, they were weighed again (W_{1000}). The amount of non-evaporable water can be calculated from the difference between the two weights at 105°C and 1000°C. The degree of cement hydration (α) is proportion to the non-evaporable water, and it can be expressed as the following (Mindess and Young, 1981):

$$\alpha = \left[\left(W_{105} - W_{1000} \right) / \left(0.24 * W_{1000} \right) \right] * 100\%$$
(3.2)

Note that Thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA) also provides information on amount of non-evaporable water in specimens. Comparison of the degrees of cement hydration calculated from the two tests will be presented later.

3.5.4. Compressive Strength

The compression tests were performed for 2-inch by 4-inch mortar cylinders, according to ASTM C39, "Test Method for Compressive Strength of Cylindrical Concrete Specimens," at age 3 and 7 days. Three 2-inch cylinders were drilled from the mortar slab. The surfaces of each cylinder were capped using gypsum. The cylinders were loaded at the rate of 20–50 psi/minute after the gypsum had dried.

3.5.5. Conductivity

After a mortar slab was cast, two copper plates (2 inches wide by 0.75 inches deep by 0.125 inches thick) were inserted into the sample, and they divided the sample equally in length. The Solomat MPM 2000 conductivity meter was used to measure the resistivity between the two copper plates at relatively low alternate current (A.C.) frequency (1000 Hz). The measurements were taken every hour for a total of 24 hours. This A.C. technique avoids errors due to polarization of the electrodes.

3.5.6. Temperature

The 21X data logger was used to measure the temperature inside the mortar. The measure point was about 1 inch from the side and 2 inches from the surface. The temperature was continuously recorded for one week.

3.5.7. Flexural Strength

The flexural test was conducted on seven-day concrete beams based on ASTM C78, "Standard Test Method for Flexural Strength of Concrete (Using Simple Beam with Third-Point Loading)." The distance between two loading points was 4 inches, and 12 inches between two supporting points.

3.5.8. Thermogravimetric Analysis

The Hi-Resolution TGA 2950 Themogravimetric Analyzer from TA Instruments was used in the TGA test. The 50-mg paste powder was heated in the nitrogen to 1000°C at a constant heating rate of 10 degree/minute. The weight loss is automatically recorded.



4. Test Results and Discussion

The test results are discussed in the following section. Each value presented in the figures is the average value of three specimens except the maturity, which is calculated from one specimen. The different curing compounds are represented by the Efficiency Indices. For example, the C98.1 represents the 2255-White curing compound. 15, 30 and 60 minutes are spray time, which is the time between the casting and the compound spray.

4.1. Moisture Content

As mentioned previously, concrete mixes usually contain an amount of water in excess of that required for complete hydration to obtain a desired workability. As cement hydrates, some of the water will be chemically or physically bound; the other unbound or free water has the potential to evaporate. Also, at the very beginning of cement hydration, some solid particles in the concrete tend to settle due to their gravity, and the solid settlement facilitates free water to rise to the concrete surface. Thus, fresh concrete loses surface moisture as soon as it is exposed to drying.

The amount of moisture loss in concrete varies with the type of cement, water content, placement temperature, curing materials, and curing time. Figure 4.1 presents a typical variation of moisture content along the depth of a specimen. Generally, the top part of a specimen (with or without application of curing compound) has the lowest and the middle part has the highest moisture content, and the bottom has slightly lower moisture content than the middle part of the concrete.





Figure 4.1. Typical Moisture Content Distribution with Depth

The low moisture content in the top part of the concrete is clearly due to moisture loss from the surface. The slightly low moisture content in the bottom part of the concrete might be due to settling and bleeding. In this research, properties of the top part of the concrete are of special interest and are discussed in detail.

4.1.1. Effect of Type of Curing Compound

Figure 4.2 displays the one-day moisture content of mortar specimens made with different curing materials and applied at different times. The specimens with curing compounds were stored in room air curing conditions before and after the compound spray. Their results were compared with the two reference specimens (without curing compound), one of which cured in the same room in air (Ref. 1) and the other of which was cured in a standard fog room (Ref. 2).


Figure 4.2. Moisture Content of Air Cured Specimens (Case 1) at One Day

As shown in the figure, the moisture content of the Ref. 1 specimen is the lowest (6.3%) of all specimens; that of the Ref. 2 specimen is the highest (8.3%). All specimens applied with curing compounds had moisture content of 7.5%–8.0%. This indicates that the application of curing compounds does prevent moisture loss efficiently. However, there is little difference in one-day moisture content between different curing compounds, possibly due to the limited amount of moisture lost in the short time period.

Figure 4.3 demonstrates the three-day moisture content of the same mortar specimens as presented in Figure 4.2.



Figure 4.3. Moisture Content of Air Cured Specimens (Case 1) at Three Days

Figure 4.3 shows that the moisture content of the Ref. 1 specimen decreased from 6.3% at one day to 5.45% at three days; the Ref. 2 specimen had little change in its moisture content over this time period. Although higher than that in the Ref. 1 specimen, the moisture content of the specimen sprayed with curing compound 1600 (C89.0) was much lower than those in specimens sprayed with curing compounds 1645 (C95.9) and 2255 (C98.1). This indicates that curing compound 1600 (C89.0) has the lowest moisture retention ability of the three curing compounds used, which is consistent with its low efficiency index.

Under severe exposure conditions, such as a hot weather condition, the effects of type of curing compound on moisture retention become much clearer. As shown in Figures 4.4 and 4.5, at oven curing condition, the Ref. 1 specimen, without curing compound, had moisture content of 4.65% at one day and 3.55% at three days; the specimens with curing compounds had moisture content of 6.7%–7.4% at one day and 6.5%–7.0% at three days.

Compared with air curing, the one-day moisture content of oven cured specimens, on average, was lower. This may be caused by the high evaporation rate at high temperatures. But the moisture content of samples covered with curing compound improved by 2.4%, compared with samples without curing, for oven curing and 1.5% for air curing. Therefore, it is more effective to apply curing compounds in hot weather conditions than in mild weather conditions with respect to moisture content.



Figure 4.4. Moisture Content of Oven Cured Specimens (Case 2) at One Day



Figure 4.5. Moisture Content of Oven Cured Specimens (Case 2) at Three Days

4.1.2. Effect of Application Layers and Time

Figures 4.6 and 4.7 exhibit the one- and three-day moisture content of specimens with double layers of curing materials. The tests were performed only on curing compound 1645 (C95.9) and 1600 (C89.0) since curing compound 2245 (C98.1) is expensive and its double-layer application would increase cost significantly.



Figure 4.6. Moisture Content of Oven Cured Specimens at One Day—Double Layer (Case 3)



Figure 4.7. Moisture Content of Oven Cured Specimens at Three Days—Double Layer (Case 3)

Compared with single-layer application, as shown in Figures 4.4 and 4.5,double-layer application of curing compounds 1645 (C95.9) and 1600 (C89.0) had little improvement in moisture retention. This is probably not true for field application. In the field, the wind and setting of sprayers may influence uniformity of the curing compound applied, while in the present laboratory experiment all curing compounds were uniformly applied. The moisture

content measurement is not sensitive enough to evaluate the differences between double- and single-layer application if curing compound is applied uniformly.

Figures 4.4–4.7 also show that the time of curing compound application appeared to have little effect on moisture content at room temperature. However, in a hot weather condition (oven curing), the moisture content slightly decreased as the spray time increased, except for the sample sprayed with compound 1645 (C95.9) at 30 minutes. This indicates that the application time should be different in different field conditions. In hot weather conditions, curing compounds should be applied earlier than in mild weather conditions. *4.1.3. Statistical Analysis*

The statistical model was fitted to predict the average moisture content. Tables 4.1 and 4.2 show the fitting results. The model is shown in equation 4.1.

Average MC =
$$6.95 + 0.48$$
 Air $- 0.29$ Layer $+ 0.03$ C $1645 - 0.06$ C $1600 + 0.54$ Day (4.1)

Where Air, Layer, C 1645, C 1600, and Day are dummy variables, which have only two values, 1 and 0. For Air, 1 and 0 means air curing and oven curing, respectively. If Layer is 0, it means double layer. Otherwise, it means single layer. When C 1645 and C 1600 are both 0, the moisture content is the average value of the samples with curing compound C 2255.

This model shows that the curing condition, application layer, and the age can cause the difference in the moisture content. For different curing compounds, there is no apparent difference.

	Value
RSquare	0.718661
RSquare Adj	0.685168
Root Mean Square Error	0.230062
Mean of Response	7.170208
Observations (or Sum Wgts)	48

Table 4.1. Summary of Fit



Term	Estimate	Std Error	t Ratio	Prob> t
Intercept	6.9464583	0.110134	63.07	<.0001
Air	0.4883333	0.076687	6.37	<.0001
Layer	-0.287083	0.089924	-3.19	0.0027
C 1645	0.0268056	0.089924	0.30	0.7671
C 1600	-0.059306	0.089924	-0.66	0.5132
Day	0.53625	0.066413	8.07	<.0001

Table 4.2. Parameter Estimates

4.2. Electrical Conductivity

As cement hydration progresses and free water is lost, the numbers and/or the mobility of ions in the concrete pore solution change. This in turn causes a change in the electrical conductivity of the concrete.

A typical result from an electrical conductivity measurement is shown in Figure 4.8. The electrical conductivity of the mortar specimen increases at the initial stage of cement hydration, reaching a peak at 1–3 hours, and then gradually decreases with time.



Figure 4.8. Typical Conductivity Curve

For given materials and mix design, the conductivity of concrete depends primarily on the cement hydration process and moisture content in the concrete. At the initial stage of



cement hydration, the spaces between cement particles are generally filled with mixing water. The electrical conductivity of the specimen increases with time because of a rapid ion dissolution and high mobility of the ions in the concrete pore system.

As hydration progresses, the amount of free water in the mortar pores reduces and the water becomes saturated with Ca^{2+} , Na^+ , K^+ , OH^- , and other ions. These ions are, however, readily absorbed by the formation of a thin layer of hydration products, which form an envelope around the unhydrated cement grains. This envelope consists of electrical double layers of adsorbed calcium ions and counter ions that lead to a decrease of both the number and mobility of ions. Consequently, the electrical conductivity of the specimen starts to decrease after reaching the maximum (Ragai and Salem, 2001).

In addition to the cement hydration process, the moisture content of a specimen has significant influence on its conductivity value. Since specimen Ref. 3 (oven cured without curing compound) had the lowest moisture content and specimen Ref. 2 (fog room cured without curing compound) had the highest moisture content among the specimens tested, their conductivity curves formed the lower and upper boundaries, respectively, for all other conductivity curves. That is, the conductivity of all other specimens fell within these boundaries (see Figure 4.9). The electrical conductivity of samples sprayed with curing compounds with high efficiency indices is close to the upper boundary (Ref. 2), and vice versa.





Figure 4.9. Conductivity Curves and Boundaries

4.3. Relationship Between Electrical Conductivity and Moisture Content

The statistical analysis software JMP was used for data analysis. The data used are 1-day results. The JMP output shows that conductivity measurements decrease with moisture content. The estimated relationship is shown in equation 4.1 and Figure 4.10.

$$Conductivity = 1 / [A - B log(MC)]$$
(4.2)

where A and B are constants, and MC is the moisture content of the specimen tested. The r^2 is 0.79. Based on the present test data, A and B are 18.65 and 7.68, respectively. The 95% CIs (Confident Interval) are [15.95, 21.36] and [6.26, 9.11], respectively. According to this relationship, the electrical conductivity measurement can be used to estimate the moisture content in the field. Note that the change of w/c ratio, material properties, and other factors will also affect the electrical conductivity. Therefore, the parameters A and B in the equation may change under different conditions.





Figure 4.10. Relationship Between Conductivity and Moisture Content

4.4. Sorptivity

Exposed to a surface of free water, concretes and mortars absorb the water at a constant rate, which is defined as *sorptivity*. Sorptivity is closely related to the pore structure characteristics of the concrete or mortar. It is believed that water absorption is the most reliable test method to access the effects of curing (Bentz et al., 1999). Poor curing will cause very high sorptivity. The effect of curing is more pronounced within about 30 mm (1.2 inches) from the surface. This region loses moisture to the atmosphere (Gowripalan et al., 1990). In this project, 1.3-inches thick specimens were used.

4.4.1. Effect of Depth

The typical sorptivity test results from the top, middle, and bottom parts of a specimen are presented in Figure 4.11. As shown in the figure, the rate of water absorbed by the tested specimen is nonlinear at the beginning of the test, and then becomes linear with testing time. The slope of the absorbed water-time (\sqrt{t}) curve is defined as the sorptivity value of the specimen. Due to temperature and moisture loss, the microstructure of the near-surface-area concrete often does not develop as well as that of the internal concrete. Therefore, the sorptivity of the near-surface-area concrete is generally higher than that of the internal concrete. The internal concrete (middle and bottom parts of the specimens) generally



has higher moisture content and curing temperature, which facilitates cement hydration. Therefore, the microstructure in the internal concrete is better than that in the top part, thus resulting in low sorptivity.



Figure 4.11. Typical Sorptivity Test Results

4.4.2. Effect of Curing Compounds and Conditions

Figure 4.12 shows the effect of curing condition on sorptivity. It is observed from the figure that regardless of type of curing compound applied, specimens with double-layer application of curing compound and cured in the oven (Case 3) had the lowest sorptivity, and those with single-layer application of curing compound and cured at room temperature (Case 1) had the highest sorptivity. Although moisture content measurements did not show clear benefits of double-layer application on curing effectiveness, the sorptivity measurements here clearly demonstrate that double-layer application of curing compound improves the microstructure, especially the pore structure, of the concrete.





Figure 4.12. Effect of Curing Conditions on Sorptivity

Figure 4.13 shows the effect of type of curing compound on mortar sorptivity. It can be observed that regardless of application technique and exposure condition, the specimens with curing compound 2255 (C98.1) had the lowest sorptivity; specimens with curing compound 1600 (C89.0) had the lowest sorptivity; and the specimens with curing compound 1645 (C95.9) had mediate sorptivity. This trend is consistent with the trend from the Iowa effectiveness index tests.



Figure 4.13. Effect of Type of Curing Compound on Sorptivity



4.4.3. Effect of Application Time

Figures 4.14 and 4.15 show the effect of the application time under different curing conditions. For air curing (Figure 4.14), the samples sprayed at 15 minutes had the highest sorptivity and those sprayed at 30 minutes had the lowest sorptivity. It is possible that at 15 minutes after casting, the mortar specimens had not ceased to bleed; that is too soon to apply the curing compound. Bleed water was seen on the specimen surface, which sometimes caused the curing materials to float on the surface of the specimens, resulting in nonuniform coating. At 60 minutes after casting, the mortar specimen surface might start to dry; some curing materials might be absorbed onto the mortar surface, thus preventing formation of an effective membrane and increasing the mortar sorptivity.



Figure 4.14. Effect of Application Time on Sorptivity—Air Curing, Single Layer





Figure 4.15. Effect of Application Time on Sorptivity—Oven Curing, Single Layer

However, the trend for oven curing (Figure 4.15) is different from that for the air curing. For oven curing, the sorptivity increases as the spray time increases, except for the sample with C89.0 sprayed at 15 minutes. This result confirms that in hot weather conditions, early application of curing compounds is necessary for quality of curing.

4.5. Degree of Hydration

Two types of methods, furnace method and TGA method, were used to determine the degree of hydration. The furnace method is a very simple and cheap method. The TGA method is easier to control the test environment, quicker, and more expensive. The test data from these two methods were discussed, and the relationship between the two methods was studied.

4.5.1. Furnace Method

Figure 4.16 demonstrates the variation of degree of cement hydration with depth. Generally, the top part of a slab specimen (with or without application of curing compound) has the lowest and the middle part has the highest degree of hydration, and the bottom part has slightly lower degree of hydration than the middle part of the concrete. This trend is consistent with the trend of moisture content. The middle part of a tested specimen usually



has high moisture content and high temperature; therefore, it has a high degree of hydration. The top and bottom parts of a tested specimen have low moisture content and possible heat loss; therefore, they display low degree of hydration values.



Figure 4.16. Typical Result of Degree of Cement Hydration along Specimen Depth

The degrees of hydration in the near-surface-area concrete specimens are shown in Figures 4.17 and 4.18. It is seen from the figures that the application of curing compound significantly improves the degree of hydration under both mild and hot weather conditions.



Figure 4.17. Effect of Curing Compound on Degree of Hydration—Air Curing

(Case 1)

Under room temperature air curing or mild weather conditions (Figure 4.17), all specimens with single-layer application of curing compound (Case 1) had a degree of cement hydration over 47.5%; the reference specimen cured in the same curing condition without curing compound (Ref. 1) had a degree of cement hydration of 41.5%; the reference specimen cured in a fog room (Ref. 2) without curing compound had a degree of cement hydration of approximately 47.5%.



Figure 4.18. Effect of Curing Compound on Degree of Hydration—Oven Curing (Case 2)

Under oven curing or hot weather conditions (Figure 4.18), the specimens with single-layer application of curing compound (Case 2) had a degree of cement hydration of 47.0%–52.5%; the corresponding specimen without curing compound (Ref. 3) had a degree of cement hydration of approximately 43.5%. Compared with mild weather curing conditions (Case 1), hot weather curing conditions (Case 2) appear to activate cement hydration of all specimens. However, the differences in degree of cement hydration between the specimens with and without curing compounds were reduced under hot weather curing conditions, probably due to the more significant loss of moisture.

Figures 4.17 and 4.18 demonstrate that the type of curing compound also affects the degree of cement hydration. No matter whether under room or oven conditions, the specimens with curing compound 1600 (C89.0), on average, had the lowest degree of hydration. This is more pronounced when the specimens were cured in the oven. The

specimens applied with curing compounds 1645 (C98.1) and 2255 (C95.9) had compatible degrees of cement hydration.

Figure 4.19 reveals the effect of application layers on cement hydration under hot weather conditions. It is observed that when a high-efficiency-index curing compound 1645 (C95.9) was used, the double-layer application had little improvement on cement hydration. This indicates that when uniformly applied, a single layer of a high-efficiency-index curing compound is good enough for proper cement hydration, and no double-layer application of the curing compound is necessary. However, when a low-efficiency-index curing compound 1600 (C89.0) is used, a double-layer application of the curing compound clearly increases the degree of cement hydration. In this case, the second layer helps prevent the loss of moisture and heat, which in turn improve cement hydration.





4.5.2. Results from TGA Method

During the TGA test, the sample was heated at a constant rate, 10 °C /minute, in a nitrogen atmosphere. The weight was automatically and continuously recorded. A typical test result is shown in Figure 4.20. There is a continuous and rapid loss of water below 145°C. In this region, the capillary water, most of the absorbed water, and some of the water of crystallization of calcium aluminate hydrates and ettringite, are lost (Taylor, 1964). The



weight loss before 145°C is considered as the evaporable water in the paste. The loss of weight is continued at a slow rate after 145°C until almost 400°C. The abrupt change of the slope is due to the decomposition of the crystalline Ca(OH)₂. The two floating segments (145-400 °C and 500-1000 °C) of the TGA based line in the figure indicate decomposition of C-S-H gel in the paste. The weight loss after 145°C is considered as the loss of non-evaporable water, which is related to degree of cement hydration.



Figure 4.20. Typical Result from TGA Test

4.5.3. Comparison Between Furnace and TGA Tests

The degree of hydration results from furnace and TGA tests are compared. The furnace test results had slightly higher values than, but the same trend as, the TGA results. Generally, a TGA test requires expensive equipment, which is not always available in many concrete laboratories; and operation of the TGA test requires special training and experience, whereas the furnace test method for measuring degree of cement hydration is relatively simple and inexpensive, which gives it great potential to be widely used.

A statistical analysis was applied to find the relationship between the results from furnace and TGA tests (presented in Figure 4.22). The figure shows a linear relationship between the results from the two test methods (r = 0.81). There is one point on the 95% prediction bands. Without this point the r is 0.86. The small difference between these two



methods could be partially caused by the control of locations selected from a TGA curve for determination of the evaporable water in cement paste.



Figure 4.21. Relationship Between Results from Furnace and TGA Tests

4.6. Relation of Sorptivity to Moisture Content and Degree of Hydration

Sorptivity is closely related to the pore structure characteristics and moisture condition of a tested material. During the cement hydration process, the pore spaces in the concrete are gradually filled with hydration products. The degree to which the pores are filled depends primarily on (1) the initial volume of pores in the cement paste, or the w/c of the paste, and (2) the degree to which the cement has hydrated, or degree of hydration (ACI Committee 308, 2000). In this project, a constant w/c ratio was used for mortar specimens, and another for paste specimens. As a result, the pore characteristics of the specimens were mainly controlled by the degree of cement hydration. For the specimens made with the same materials and mix proportion, their degree of hydration is predominantly governed by curing condition at a given age. Thus, a sorptivity value of a tested specimen may well reflect the curing effectiveness of the specimen.

In this project, the samples used for sorptivity tests were not dried. Therefore, the moisture content in the specimens also affected the sorptivity values. A statistical analysis



was conducted to find whether there was any relationship among sorptivity, degree of hydration, and moisture content. The Table 4.3 and Figure 4.22 show the correlations between each two variables. Sorptivity has moderate linear relationships with moisture content and degree of hydration. It means that sorptivity is related to these two variables. The relationship among sorptivity, degree of hydration, and moisture content are shown in Tables 4.4 and 4.5.

and and a second se	Sorp	МС	Hydration	
Sorp	1.0000	-0.7316	-0.7476	
МС	-0.7316	1.0000	0.5368	
Hydration	-0.7476	0.5368	1.0000	

 Table 4.3. Variable Correlations (r)



Figure 4.22. Scatter Plot Matrix of Sorptivity, Moisture Content, and Degree of Hydration



	Value
R ²	0.7945
R ² adj.	0.765
Root mean square error	0.245
Mean of response	0.685
Observations (or sum wgts)	25

Table 4.4. Summary of Fit

Term	Estimate	t Ratio	Prob. > <i>t</i>
Intercept	29.111407	3.82	0.0010
MC	-3.556219	-3.20	0.0043
Hydration	-0.534835	-3.38	0.0028
MC * hydration	0.0663069	2.90	0.0086

Table 4.5. Parameter Estimates

In the statistical analysis, a linear relation of sorptivity with degree of hydration and moisture was assumed. Figure 4.23, the scatter plot matrix, plotted with the residuals, which are the differences between the observed values and the predicted value, versus each variable, is used to check the regression assumptions. Because there is no clear pattern in this figure, the linear assumption is valid. No higher-order terms are needed in the equation. Otherwise, there is a clear pattern. For example, if the sorptivity were also related to MC^2 , the residual versus MC would be quadratic. Figure 4.23 also shows that there is one point, which has a higher residual about 0.9. Although it is not an outlier, the r^2 will be 0.92 without this point. This high residual may be caused by the test method or the inconsistence of the material.

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Figure 4.23. Scatter Plot Matrix of residuals

The relation of sorptivity with moisture content and degree of cement hydration can be expressed by

sorptivity =
$$29.11 - 3.56(MC) - 0.53\alpha + 0.07(MC) * \alpha$$
 (4.3)

Where MC is moisture content and α is degree of hydration. In table 4.1, R² of equation 4.2 is 0.79, which means that 79% of the variation in the sorptivity can be explained with the help of degree of hydration and moisture content.

The importance of the parameters is verified in the table 4.2. The p-values for these parameters are less than the 0.05. Therefore, it is more than 95% sure that these parameters are not zero.

4.7. Compressive Strength

Compressive strength is often used as an indicator for curing effectiveness (Meeks and Carino, 1999). In this project, three-day and seven-day compressive strength tests were



conducted with 2-inch by 4-inch cylinder specimens cored from mortar slabs. The effects of curing on compressive strength are shown in Figures 4.24 and 4.25.

As observed in Figure 4.24, under room temperature air curing conditions, the specimens without curing compound had compressive strengths of approximately 3300 psi at three days and 3600 psi at seven days. Specimens applied with curing compound 2250 (C98.1) had compressive strengths of 3700–4200 psi at three days and 4300–4800 psi at seven days. Specimens applied with curing compound 1645 (C95.9) had compressive strengths comparable to those of the specimens made with curing compound 2250 (C98.1). Specimens applied with curing compound 1600 (C89.0) had similar compressive strength to the specimens without curing compound. It is possible that this curing compound kept only a certain amount of moisture that only affects the properties of the near surface area concrete, rather than bulk concrete. On the other hand, a high-efficiency-index curing compound might keep more moisture in the concrete and affect the properties of the concrete farther from the surface, thus improving compressive strength of the specimens.

At high temperatures, the effects of curing compounds are different. Moisture loss becomes critical to strength development. As a result, all three curing compounds improved mortar compressive strength. High efficiency index curing compounds, such as 2250 (C98.1) and 1645 (C95.9), appear to be more effective in strength improvement than low efficiency index curing compounds, such as 1600 (C89.0). Double-layer application did not significantly influence the compressive strength of the specimens.

Both Figures 4.24 and 4.25 indicate that there is no clear effect of application time of curing compounds on compressive strength. This may be explained by noting that the strength values reflect a bulk material property and the test method is not sensitive enough to reflect a property change in the near surface area (ACI Committee 308, 2000).

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Figure 4.24. Effects of Curing Compounds on Compressive Strength—Air Curing





(a)



(b)

Figure 4.25. Effects of Curing Compounds on Compressive Strength—Oven Curing

4.8. Temperature and Maturity

When cement is mixed with water, the hydration process is initiated. Cement hydration is an exothermal reaction, which generates heat. Since degree of cement hydration depends on both time and temperature, the strength of concrete in the field is often evaluated by a concept of maturity. Maturity is expressed as a function of the concrete temperature and time of curing (ACI Committee 308, 2000):

$$M(t) = \Sigma (T_a - T_o)\Delta t \tag{4.4}$$

where M(t) = maturity (degree - hours), T_a = average concrete temperature during interval (°F), T_o = datum temperature (14°F), and Δt = time interval (hours).

In this project, the temperatures of the mortar slabs were measured, and the maturity was calculated according to Equation 4.3. Figure 4.26 illustrates the differences in maturity values between specimens with and without curing compounds under different exposure conditions. The figure also shows that under the same exposure condition, the specimens applied with different types of curing compounds or with the same compound but applied at a different time after casting displayed little differences in their maturity values. This implies that maturity methods may be not suitable for evaluating the effectiveness of curing compounds.

4.9. Flexural Test

Third-point bending tests were performed on four sets of concrete beams (4 inches by 4 inches by 18 inches) with or without a layer of curing compound. The curing compounds 2255 (C98.1), 1645 (C95.9), and 1600 (C89.0) were applied at 15 minutes after casting. The beams were cured in an oven (100°F) for one day, then de-molded and cured in a fog room (at 73°F and relative humidity greater than or equal to 95%) for other six days before testing. During flexural tests, loads were applied on the sides of the beams, rather than on the top surface where the curing compound was applied. The test results are presented in Figure 4.27. The figure illustrates that there is no significant difference in flexural strength between the



specimens with or without curing compound, except that specimens applied with curing compound 1645 (C95.9) had slightly higher flexural strength.



Figure 4.27. Flexural Strength under Different Curing Conditions



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5. Conclusions and recommendations

5.1. Project Summary

Curing is important for concrete to achieve desirable strength and durability. The purpose of curing is to facilitate cement hydration by providing or retaining adequate moisture and temperature in the concrete for a sufficient time period. Among many curing materials and methods, the application of a liquid membrane-forming curing compound is the most widely used for concrete pavements and bridge decks. Curing compounds are economical, easy to apply, and relatively maintenance free. Concrete practice has indicated that the performances of curing compounds are closely related to the characteristics of the curing materials and application methods. Curing especially influences properties of the near-surface-area concrete, which is often the first defense line for concrete deterioration. However, limited research has been done investigating the effectiveness of different curing compounds and their application technology. Presently, there are no reliable testing methods available to evaluate the effectiveness of curing.

This research project investigates the effects of curing compound materials and application technology on concrete properties, especially on surface concrete properties. This report presents a literature review of curing technologies, with an emphasis on curing compounds, and the experimental results from the laboratory investigation. In the experimental work, three curing compounds were selected and applied to concrete (mortars and pastes) at three different times after casting. Two application methods, single- and double-layer applications, were employed. Moisture content, conductivity, sorptivity, and degree of hydration were measured at different depths of the specimens. Flexural strength and compressive strength of the specimens were also tested. Statistical analysis was conducted to examine the relationships between these material properties.

5.2. Major Research Findings

The following observations were made from the present investigation:

1. Regardless whether or not a curing compound was applied, the properties of the near-surface-area concrete, such as degree of hydration and sorptivity, differed from those of internal concrete.



2. Application of a curing compound significantly increased moisture content and degree of cement hydration and reduced sorptivity of the near-surface-area concrete.

3. Specimens applied with a high-efficiency-index curing compound generally had lower sorptivity, higher conductivity, higher degree of hydration, and higher compressive strength values than specimens applied with a low-efficiency-index curing compound. The effects of type of curing compound on the properties of the near-surface-area concrete appeared to be more significant in hot weather conditions.

4. In mild weather conditions (room temperature air curing), specimens with curing compounds applied at 30 minutes after casting showed better properties (low sorptivity) than those with compounds applied at 15 or 60 minutes. For 15 minute, this is probably due to effect of bleeding water. At 60 minute, the surface may begin to dry. This will cause the higher sorptivity. However, in hot weather conditions (oven curing), early spray (at 15 minutes after casting) provided concrete with high moisture content and low sorptivity. These results indicate that in concrete practice, application time of a curing compound can be adjusted based on the environmental condition.

5. A double-layer application of a high-efficiency-index curing compound, such as 1645 (C95.9) and 2255 (C98.1), did not significantly improve the concrete properties when compared with the corresponding single-layer application. However, a double-layer application of a low-efficiency-index curing compound, such as 1600 (C89.0), clearly improved the concrete properties when compared with the corresponding single-layer application. The research results indicate that if a sufficient amount of a high-efficiency-index curing compound is uniformly applied, no double-layer application is necessary, and when a poor curing material and application is employed, a double-layer application will improve concrete properties.

6. The effects of type of curing compound on properties of the near-surface-area concrete were demonstrated by the results from sorptivity,



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degree of hydration, and compressive strength tests but not from moisture content measurements.

7. Conventional compressive and flexural strength tests did not provide good indication for the subtle changes in the near-surface-area concrete. These test results are possibly more closely related to the bulk concrete properties, rather than the surface concrete properties. For the flexural strength only a few of beams were tested. More study is needed.

8. Maturity tests demonstrated that specimens with curing compound had a slightly higher maturity value than those without curing compound. However, the test method used is not sensitive enough to show the effects of different types of curing compounds and different application times.

9. The degree of cement hydration measured from the furnace method demonstrated a similar trend, with slightly higher values, to that from TGA test.

10. Of all the test methods applied, the sorptivity test is the most sensitive one to provide a good indication for the subtle changes in microstructure of the near-surface-area concrete caused by different curing materials and application methods.

11. Conductivity measurements of the near-surface-area concrete showed a close relation with moisture content of the concrete. The relationship can be expressed as follows:

Conductivity = $1 / [A - B \log(MC)]$

where A and B are constants, related to concrete materials and mix proportion. Using this relationship, the water retention ability of a curing compound can be estimated by monitoring the conductivity of the surface concrete in the field.



12. Sorptivity measurements of the near-surface-area concrete demonstrated a close relationship with moisture content and degree of hydration (α) with an r² equal to 0.79. The relationship can be expressed as follows:

Sorptivity = $29.11 - 3.56(MC) - 0.53\alpha + 0.07(MC) * \alpha$

5.3. Recommendations

Based on the research results from the laboratory study, the following suggestions are suggested to be considered in the future field study:

1. Although curing compounds 2255-White and 1645-White showed compatible performance and single-layer application of curing compound 1600-White showed poor performance in the laboratory experiments, all the three curing compounds are suggested to be studied in the field again due to the consideration of the differences between field and laboratory conditions.

2. The optimal application time for curing compounds is primarily dependent upon the moisture condition of the concrete surface, which is significantly influenced by the weather condition and bleeding characteristics of the concrete. Considering the effects of the wind and the radiant heat from the sun in hot weather on field concrete, early spray (less than 15 minutes after paving) should be studied.

3. The results from the laboratory study have suggested that if a sufficient amount of a high efficiency-index curing compound is uniformly applied, no double-layer application is necessary. Therefore, it may be more meaningful to investigate the effects of the amount of curing compound on curing effectiveness, instead of studying the double-layer application, for curing compounds 2255 (C98.1) and 1645 (C95.9). However, the improvements in concrete properties from a double-layer application of the low-efficiency-index curing compound 1600 (C89.0) should be further verified in the Phase II study.

4. The nondestructive conductivity test method may be modified and adopted for field tests. Water retention ability of a curing compound may be



estimated by monitoring the conductivity of the surface concrete in the field based on the conductivity-moisture content relationship obtained from the Phase I study.

5. Although results from the laboratory study indicate that the maturity test is not sensitive enough to show the effects of different types of curing compounds and different application times, the tests *did* demonstrate the difference between specimens with and without curing compound. The test should also be conducted in the Phase II study to provide information on bulk concrete pavement strength development.

6. Properties of the near-surface-area concrete have more significance influences on concrete durability than on concrete strength. To further study the effects of curing compounds on properties of the near-surface-area concrete, permeability and splitting/tensile strength tests may be conducted for the surface concrete in the field study.



Appendix A: Regression Analysis

1. Least-squares method

In this thesis, the least-squares method is used to determine the best fitting line that minimizes the sum of the squares of the length of the vertical-line segments (Figure 1) drawn from the observed data points to the fitted line. The smaller the deviation of observed values, the closer the best-fitting line will be to the data. The sum of square of distance is given by

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 X_i)^2$$

Where Y_i : The observed value.

 \hat{Y}_i : The estimated value at X_i based on the fitted line.

 \hat{eta}_0 : The intercept of the fitted line

 $\hat{\beta}_1$: The slope of the fitted line



Figure A.1. Deviation of observed points from the fitted line

The least-square solution is to find the $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ for which the sum of square is a minimum. This minimum sum square is called the sum of squares due to errors (SSE). As long as these two parameters are determined, the line is fixed. If β_0^* and β_1^* denote any other



possible estimators of β_0 and β_1 , we must have

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 X_i)^2 \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \beta_0^* - \beta_1^* X_i)^2$$

2. The Correlation Coefficient r.

The correlation coefficient is used to estimate how two random variables are linearly associated in a sample. The sample correlation coefficient is defined as

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \overline{X})(Y_i - \overline{Y})}{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \overline{X})^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \overline{Y})^2\right]}$$

r is a dimensionless quantity. Its values range from -1 to 1. The larger r is, the stronger the relation is. If r is 1 or -1, it means the linear association between X and Y is perfect. Any point fits the line. If $|\mathbf{r}|$ ranges from 0.85to 1, it means the relationship is strong. $0.5 \le |\mathbf{r}| \le 0.85$ means moderate relationship and $0 \le |\mathbf{r}| \le 0.5 \square$ weak relationship.

 r^2 measures the strength of the linear relationship between X and Y. If the X is not used at all, the best predictor in this case would be \overline{Y} , the sample mean of the Y's. The sum of the squares of deviations associated with the \overline{Y} would be given by

$$SSY = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \overline{Y})^2$$

If the X is used to predict the Y, the sum of squares due to errors is given by

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - \hat{Y}_i)^2$$

 r^2 , the square of the sample correlation coefficient, is given by the formula



$$r^2 = \frac{SSY - SSE}{SSY}$$

Therefore, r^2 gives the proportionate reduction in the sum of the squares of vertical deviations due to the use of the fitted line $\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 X$ instead of the \overline{Y} . The larger the value of r^2 , the greater the reduction in SSE is, and the stronger the linear relationship between X and Y is. For example, if $r^2=0.6$, it means 60% of variation in Y can be explained with the help of X.

3. Testes for Slope and Intercept

To take account of the uncertainties of using a sample, and to assess if the fitted line helps to predict Y, it is necessary to test statistical hypotheses about the unknown parameters in the fitted line.

For the fitted line $\hat{Y} = \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 X$, the estimators $\hat{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\beta}_1$ are normally distributed with respective means β_0 and β_1 . These estimators together with estimates of their variance can be used to form test statistics based on the *t* distribution.

In this report the null hypothesis is that the mean of the estimator is zero, and the significance level is 0.05. More specifically, to test the null hypothesis H_0 : $\beta_l = 0$, the test statistic used is

$$T = \frac{\hat{\beta}_1 - 0}{S_{\hat{\beta}_1}}$$

where

$$S_{\hat{\beta}_1} = \frac{S_{Y/X}}{S_X \sqrt{n-1}}$$

This test statistic has the t distribution with n-2 degrees of freedom when H_0 is true. Based on the calculated *T* value, the p-value can be gotten from the table (figure 2).



With the p-value or T value, we can determine to reject or accept the null hypothesis. If the p-value, which means the probability of getting a sample like we got if the null hypothesis were right, is smaller than 0.05, we will reject the null hypothesis. Otherwise the null hypothesis will be accepted. If the null hypothesis H_0 : $\beta_1=0$ were right, this means that X does not help to predict Y.



Figure A.2. P-value
APPENDIX B: INTRODUCTION TO JMP

JMP is statistical analysis software, for Windows and Macintosh, which dynamically links statistics with graphics to interactively explore, understand, and visualize data. JMP is designed for anyone who wants to discover relationships and outliers in their data. The JMP software includes a data table window for entering, editing data, a broad range of graphical and statistical methods for data analysis, a design of experiments (DOE) module, options to highlight and display subsets data, a formula editor for each table column, a facility for grouping data and computing summary statistics, special plots, charts, and communication capability for quality improvement techniques, and tools for printing and for moving analyses results between applications. JMP is good for business analysis, scientific research, product design and development, and process improvement.

There are a great many statistical methods implemented in JMP, but they are organized and consolidated into the Analyze, DOE, and Graph commands, which are accessible through the JMP Starter window. Also statistical methods are folded into hierarchies, rather than accessed from a large flat list.

JMP is a friendly software and easy to use. To begin an analysis of data, open the date file and follow three steps:

- 1. Assign modeling types to variables
- 2. Launch an analysis platform
- 3. Select columns to play variable roles

In the JMP, three modeling types are used, which are continuous, ordinal, and nominal types. For continuous columns, the numeric value is directly used in the model. And for continuous factors, the response is a continuous function of the factor. But the ordinal value is not used directly. It is just a name. JMP interprets the ordinal column as discrete values. The response, for ordinal factors, change to different values as the factor changes to different levels. For the nominal modeling type, the values are treated as unordered categories, or names. A character column is always nominal column. The values can be either characters or numbers, but numbers are treated as unordered discrete values.



APPENDIX C: TEST PROCEDURES AND EQUIPMENT



Figure C.1. Test Procedures for Moisture Content Measurement



Figure C.2. Test Procedures for Sorptivity Measurements



Figure C.3. Test Procedures for Degree of Cement Hydration



Figure C.4. Sample and Device Used for Conductivity Measurements



Figure C.5. Equipment Used for TGA Tests

APPENDIX D: TEST DATA

	Ref 1	Case1-c1-15	Case1-c1-30	Case1-c1-60	Case1-c2-15	Case1-c2-30	Case1-c2-60	Case1-c3-15	Cae1-c3-30	Case1-c3-60
Тор	41.00	51.47	51.76	51.52	49.97	48.89	47.43	49.92	52.65	49.77
Middle	47.87	54.09	54.50	55.19	55.35	54.04	53.51	52.56	54.90	53.60
Bottom	46.63	54.13	51.49	52.41	52.05	50.92	49.92	49.72	51.43	50.90
	Ref 2	Case2-c1-15	Case2-c1-30	Case2-c1-60	Case2-c2-15	Case2-c2-30	Case2-c2-60	Case2-c3-15	Cae2-c3-30	Case2-c3-60
Тор	47.11	52.48	52.11	51.78	46.72	48.47	47.15	51.64	49.25	52.06
Middle	51.68	57.48	57.02	56.19	56.13	56.25	53.22	54.96	53.67	55.89
Bottom	48.47	54.33	54.03	53.33	51.59	54.88	51.26	51.70	53.45	52.25
	Ref (oven)	Case3-c1-15	Case3-c1-30	Case3-c1-60	Case3-c2-15	Case3-c2-30	Case3-c2-60			
Тор	43.62	52.81	52.86	50.77	50.13	50.19	50.99			
Middle	55.17	57.53	57.19	56.78	55.12	56.50	55.74			
Bottom	55.45	54.20	56.69	55.82	53.21	52.64	53.25			

Table D.1. 3-day Degree of Hydration



								Case1-c3-	1	
	Ref 1	Case1-c-15	Case1-c1-3	0 Case1-c1-6	0 Case1-c2-15	5 Case1-c2-30	Case1-c2-60	5	Cae1-c3-30	Case1-c3-60
Тор	3.64	0.70	0.52	0.55	0.76	0.55	0.62	0.60	0.46	0.52
Middle	1.94	0.40	0.40	0.37	0.41	0.45	0.37	0.36	0.44	0.38
Bottom	1.06	0.16	0.12	0.22	0.21	0.21	0.11	0.19	0.15	0.14
								Case2-c3-	1	
	Ref 2	Case2-c-15	Case2-c1-3	0 Case2-c1-6	0 Case2-c2-1	5 Case2-c2-30	Case2-c2-60	5	Cae2-c3-30	Case2-c3-60
Тор	0.41	0.44	0.45	0.56	0.63	0.52	0.59	0.42	0.46	0.49
Middle	0.36	0.40	0.37	0.42	0.38	0.34	0.35	0.33	0.37	0.36
Bottom	0.17	0.13	0.12	0.21	0.11	0.14	0.13	0.13	0.12	0.14
	Ref (oven)	Case3-c-15	Case3-c1-3	0 Case3-c1-6	0 Case3-c2-1	5 Case3-c2-30	Case3-c2-60			
Тор	4.23	0.34	0.42	0.39	0.50	0.42	0.32			
Middle	0.98	0.26	0.34	0.31	0.28	0.31	0.29			
Bottom	0.15	0.14	0.12	0.14	0.14	0.17	0.13			

Table D.2. 3-day Sorptivity



			Case1-c1	Case1-c1-	Case1-c1-	Case1-c2-	Case1-c2-	Case1-c2-	Case1-c3-	Cae1-c3-	Case1-c3-
		Ref 1	-15	30	60	15	30	60	15	30	60
	Тор	6.26	7.67	7.64	7.76	7.65	7.77	7.80	7.63	8.02	7.69
Moisture	Middle	7.04	7.79	8.13	7.85	7.89	7.84	8.06	7.59	7.94	7.85
	Bottom	6.88	7.39	7.36	7.69	7.34	7.38	7.39	7.27	7.90	7.10
Conductivity		234.50	309.50	274.50	335.50	286.00	266.00	302.00	232.60	334.00	318.00
		Ref 2	Case2-c1 -15	Case2-c1- 30	Case2-c1- 60	Case2-c2- 15	Case2-c2- 30	Case2-c2- 60	Case2-c3- 15	Cae2-c3- 30	Case2-c3- 60
	Тор	8.31	7.35	7.29	6.82	7.35	7.20	6.96	7.26	7.24	6.92
Moisture	Middle	8.31	7.42	7.50	6.94	7.45	7.32	7.07	7.46	7.49	7.15
	Bottom	8.00	6.81	7.14	6.72	7.09	7.11	7.08	7.26	7.22	7.05
Conductivity		395.10	300.50	280.00	263.00	218.50	226.50	292.00	294.00	306.00	305.50
			Case3-c1	Case3-c1-	Case3-c1-	Case3-c2-	Case3-c2-	Case3-c2-			
		Ref (oven)	-15	30	60	15	30	60			
	Тор	4.77	7.44	7.59	7.29	7.84	7.23	7.11			
Moisture	Middle	5.73	7.82	7.73	7.33	7.75	7.37	7.27			
	Bottom	5.74	7.38	7.35	7.21	7.33	7.27	7.07			
Conductivity		122.50	294.50	316.00	288.00	276.50	300.50	330.50			

 Table D.3. 1-day Moisture Content and Conductivity



	Ref 1	Case1-c-15	Case1-c1-30	Case1-c1-60	Case1-c2-15	Case1-c2-30	Case1-c2-60	Case1-c3-15	Cae1-c3-30	Case1-c3-60
Тор	5.41	7.34	7.37	7.31	6.65	6.40	7.12	7.10	7.24	7.13
Middle	6.49	7.41	7.45	7.46	7.27	6.88	7.30	7.25	7.19	7.12
Bottom	6.23	7.11	7.20	7.01	6.88	6.71	6.70	6.92	6.84	6.76
	Ref 2	Case2-c-15	Case2-c1-30	Case2-c1-60	Case2-c2-15	Case2-c2-30	Case2-c2-60	Case2-c3-15	Cae2-c3-30	Case2-c3-60
Тор	8.17	6.90	6.92	6.58	6.58	6.83	6.47	6.63	6.67	6.53
Middle	8.02	7.00	7.19	6.82	7.05	6.87	6.40	7.00	6.99	6.85
Bottom	7.64	6.75	6.80	6.71	6.90	6.67	6.28	6.76	6.80	6.74
	Ref (oven)	Case3-c-15	Case3-c1-30	Case3-c1-60	Case3-c2-15	Case3-c2-30	Case3-c2-60			
Тор	3.59	6.81	7.16	6.59	7.21	7.04	7.07			
Middle	5.20	7.24	7.15	6.78	7.24	7.09	7.12			
Bottom	5.42	6.93	6.83	6.53	6.87	7.00	7.00			

Table D.4. 3-day Moisture Content

Table D.5. Compressive Strength

	Ref 1	Case1-c-15	Case1-c1-30	Case1-c1-60	Case1-c2-15	Case1-c2-30	Case1-c2-60	Case1-c3-15	Cae1-c3-30	Case1-c3-60
3-day	3265.13	3877.58	3817.29	4109.29	3314.65	3295.94	3489.50	4153.22	3814.10	3694.23
7-day	3549.97	4553.31	4901.44	4442.31	3692.15	3648.91	4620.94	4814.54	4319.45	4665.29
	Ref 2	Case2-c-15	Case2-c1-30	Case2-c1-60	Case2-c2-15	Case2-c2-30	Case2-c2-60	Case2-c3-15	Cae2-c3-30	Case2-c3-60
3-day	3605.68	4258.00	4732.50	3977.80	3791.20	3887.40	4524.90	4412.50	4368.60	4383.40
7-day	4562.60	4201.70	4795.70	4624.70	4413.30	4376.80	5244.80	4986.10	4757.00	5183.30
	Ref (oven)	Case3-c-15	Case3-c1-30	Case3-c1-60	Case3-c2-15	Case3-c2-30	Case3-c2-60			
3-day	3258.50	4133.10	4131.30	3988.00	3863.40	4212.80	4409.90			
7-day	3748.20	4217.40	4290.30	4995.10	4077.80	4409.70	4816.20			



Beam	Width (in)	Depth (in)	Age	Total Load (lb)	Strength (psi)	Ave. Strength (psi)
Ref 1	4.01	4.02	7 day	3128	579.23	
Ref 2	4.06	4.01	7 day	2657	488.38	548.60
Ref 3	4.03	4.02	7 day	3138	578.20	
C1-1	4.06	4.01	7 day	3197	587.64	
C1-2	4.03	4.02	7 day	3534	651.16	605.45
C1-3	4.01	4.00	7 day	3088	577.56	
C2-1	3.96	4.02	7 day	3174	596.21	
C2-2	3.99	4.00	7 day	2746	516.17	558.64
C2-3	4.03	4.021	7 day	3060	563.55	
C3-1	4.02	4.00	7 day	3104	579.10	
C3-2	4.02	4.02	7 day	3101	572.80	565.77
C3-3	4.01	4.03	7 day	2960	545.40	

Table D.6. Flexural Strength



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