

# 1 THE ROLE OF POROSITY IN EXTERNAL SULPHATE ATTACK

2  
3 Tai Ikumi<sup>a,\*</sup>, Sergio H. P. Cavalaro<sup>b</sup> and Ignacio Segura<sup>a,c</sup>

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5 <sup>a</sup> Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Universitat Politècnica de  
6 Catalunya, Barcelona Tech, Jordi Girona 1-3, C1, E-08034 Barcelona, Spain

7 <sup>b</sup> School of Architecture, Building and Civil Engineering, Loughborough University,  
8 Leicestershire, LE11 3TU, United Kingdom

9 <sup>c</sup> Smart Engineering, Jordi Girona 1-3 K2M 202c, Barcelona, Spain

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11 \* Corresponding author: Tai Ikumi. Department of Civil and Environmental  
12 Engineering, Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya Barcelona Tech, Jordi Girona 1-3,  
13 C1, E-08034 Barcelona, Spain. Email address: tai.ikumi@upc.edu, Tel: +34 93 401  
14 6507 Fax: +34 93 401 1036

## 15 16 ABSTRACT

17  
18 Design codes promote a limitation of permeability (indirectly of porosity) to reduce the  
19 sulphate ingress and improve the resistance of concrete and mortar to external sulphate  
20 attack (ESA). However, porosity could also have a positive effect on durability by  
21 generating additional space to accommodate the expansive phases. The aim of this study  
22 is to evaluate the role of porosity in ESA. For that, changes at the macro-scale, phase  
23 composition and pore network are monitored for mortar compositions with different  
24 pore-size distribution. Results indicate the existence of two mechanisms: the capacity to  
25 accommodate expansive phases controls the durability during the initial stages of the  
26 attack, while at later stages durability is defined by the permeability. Results from  
27 specimens with air-entrainer suggest that the intentional increase of porosity towards  
28 maximising the capacity to accommodate expansive products might be a valid approach  
29 in order to reduce the expansive forces generated during ESA.

30  
31 **Keywords:** Sulphate Attack (C), Ettringite (D), X-Ray Diffraction (B), Mercury  
32 Porosimetry (B), Pore structure

## 33 34 1. INTRODUCTION

35  
36 External sulphate attack (ESA) is a complex degradation process that can compromise  
37 the long-term durability of cement-based materials in contact with sulphate-rich  
38 environments. ESA requires the penetration of sulphate ions from an external source  
39 into the cementitious material. The connection between the external aqueous media and  
40 the pore solution alter the equilibrium conditions in the liquid system, leading to a net  
41 mass flow and subsequent chemical reactions to restore a minimum energy state. The  
42 chemical reactions triggered define the damage mechanism associated with the attack.  
43 ESA caused by sodium sulphate is characterised by ettringite and gypsum formation in  
44 such a quantity that the material sustains chemical and physical damage. Chemical  
45 damage refers to the degradation of mechanical properties in the cementitious matrix  
46 caused by the decalcification of hydrated phases, while physical damage is usually  
47 related to the degradation caused by expansive forces generated at the pore-level. These  
48 forces are ultimately responsible for the development of expansions and possible  
49 cracking and spalling [1,2].

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51 There is still controversy on how ettringite and gypsum formation are converted into  
52 actual expansions. The prevailing theories are the volume increase approach and the  
53 crystallisation pressure theory. The first assumes that the expansions observed are the  
54 result of the additional volume generated by the expansive products precipitated during  
55 the attack (e.g. [3]). Therefore, the amount of ettringite precipitated determines the  
56 magnitude of the expansions. The latter states that expansions are caused by the  
57 crystallisation pressure exerted on the pore walls due to the formation of ettringite [4,5].  
58 In this case, ettringite has to be growing from a supersaturated solution in confined  
59 conditions in order to convert the chemical energy into mechanical work, meaning that  
60 not all ettringite contributes to the expansions. Recent investigations place the  
61 crystallisation pressure theory as the most plausible, with it currently the most accepted  
62 mechanism of damage [6]. A comprehensive review of the main suggested theories can  
63 be found in [2].

64  
65 Building and structural codes specify precautionary measures when obtaining sulphate-  
66 resisting concrete. These measures consist of limiting the aluminate content in the  
67 cement, using low water/cement ratios to reduce the permeability and increasing of  
68 compressive strengths to resist the internal stress caused by the expansion (e.g. Model  
69 Code 2010, BS 8500-1:2006, ACI 201.2R-08, UNE EN 206-1:2008). The  
70 recommendation of low permeability seeks to reduce the penetration of external  
71 aggressive ions into the inner layers of the material, with several studies supporting  
72 such a recommendation. Nowadays, it is accepted that cement-based materials with low  
73 permeability show a better durability against sulphates than the corresponding samples  
74 with higher permeability (e.g. [1,2,7-10]). Although permeability and porosity are not  
75 synonyms, in general the fall-off in permeability is accompanied by a consequent  
76 decrease in the porosity of the matrix. Therefore, the limitation of permeability usually  
77 indirectly implies a reduction of the porosity provided by the pore network.

78  
79 However, the role of the pore network during the attack is not only related to the  
80 transport of sulphate ions. Since pores are basically empty spaces within a rigid matrix,  
81 they have a certain capacity to accommodate expansive phases before creating damage.  
82 In this context, pores might act as deposits or containers of the expansive products  
83 precipitated during ESA. This phenomenon has been described by other authors [3,11-  
84 13] as the buffer capacity of the matrix and it is directly or indirectly considered in both  
85 damage mechanisms previously mentioned.

86  
87 Some studies report trends that may suggest the positive consequence of a highly porous  
88 material in comparison with a dense matrix with low permeability and porosity. Naik et  
89 al. [14] found that a reduction of the water/cement ratio caused more severe physical  
90 damage in samples exposed to a sodium sulphate solution. The authors attributed the  
91 earlier damage and the more rapid failure of the samples to the reduced extensibility of  
92 the material and the low capacity of the dense pore network to accommodate expansive  
93 phases [14]. M. Santhanam et al. [15,16] assessed the behaviour of mortars with a  
94 presumably high capacity to accommodate expansive phases by the use of an air-  
95 entrainer admixture. The authors obtained delayed levels of deterioration in such  
96 mortars, suggesting that entrained air might provide sites for nucleation of expansive  
97 phases, which might in turn lead to a reduced damage in the paste. Another hypothesis  
98 formulated was that air might help arresting the growth of cracks due to their spherical  
99 shape.

101 Despite that, solid evidence and explanations regarding the contribution of a highly  
102 porous matrix are rare and inconclusive. Consequently, the maximisation of the buffer  
103 capacity of the matrix by increasing the porosity has not been recognised as a possible  
104 approach to obtain more durable materials against ESA.

105  
106 The objective of this study is to assess the influence of the pore network on the  
107 durability against ESA. For that, mortar compositions with different porosities (from  
108 8.1 % to 18.8 %) are subjected to accelerated sulphate attack. In order to isolate the  
109 effects of porosity, C<sub>3</sub>A content, external sulphate concentration and geometrical  
110 characteristics of samples are kept constant for all compositions. Characterisation of the  
111 macro-scale behaviour is performed by monitoring the dimensional, mass and ultrasonic  
112 velocity variation over time. Changes in phase composition are investigated by X-ray  
113 diffraction (XRD) and evolution of the pore characteristics of the mortars are examined  
114 by mercury intrusion porosimetry (MIP).

115  
116 This study provides evidences and explanations that help understanding the role of  
117 porosity in samples subjected to ESA. The findings might open up alternative strategies  
118 for the future design of durable cementitious materials against the attack.

## 119 **2. EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAMME**

### 120 **2.1 MATERIALS AND MORTAR COMPOSITIONS**

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122 Portland cement (CEM I 52.5R) with high C<sub>3</sub>A content was used in order to promote  
123 ettringite formation and the potential damage during ESA. Table 1 shows the chemical  
124 (determined by XRF spectrometry) and mineralogical (estimated using Bogue  
125 equations) composition and summarises the physical properties of the cement. Data  
126 provided by Bogue equations is only used to classify the cement as highly reactive  
127 under sulphate exposure. De-ionised water and siliceous sand following the  
128 specifications of UNE-EN 196-1:2005 were used in all mortars. Commercial  
129 superplasticiser GLENIUM ACE 456 and air-entrainer MasterAir 100 were added to the  
130 mixtures.  
131  
132  
133

134 Table 1. Chemical and mineralogical composition of the Portland cement.

| Chemical composition [% bcw*]              |      |
|--|------|
| SiO <sub>2</sub>                           | 19.5 |
| Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>             | 5.9  |
| Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>             | 1.7  |
| CaO  | 63.1 |
| MgO  | 2.1  |
| SO <sub>3</sub>                            | 3.5  |
| K <sub>2</sub> O                           | 0.8  |
| Na <sub>2</sub> O                          | 0.4  |
| Cl   | -    |
| LOI  | 3.0  |
| Phase composition [% bcw*]                 |      |
| C <sub>3</sub> S                           | 65.4 |
| C <sub>2</sub> S                           | 10.6 |
| C <sub>3</sub> A                           | 12.3 |
| C <sub>4</sub> AF                          | 5.6  |
| Physical properties                        |      |
| Spec. surf. area (BET) [m <sup>2</sup> /g] | 1.10 |

|                      |       |
|----------------------|-------|
| d <sub>10</sub> [μm] | 0.58  |
| d <sub>50</sub> [μm] | 6.88  |
| d <sub>90</sub> [μm] | 31.84 |

bcw: by cement weight

Table 2 shows the composition of the four matrices included in this study. Different degrees of refinement of the pore network were obtained by varying the water/cement ratio from 0.38 to 0.55 and by using an air-entrainer. Initial reference porosities obtained by MIP test at 14 days after sulphate exposure are included in Table 2. The different compositions considered cover a wide range of porosities (from 8.1 % to 18.8 %). The nomenclature adopted for each composition follows the pattern *water/cement ratio – initial porosity*. Air-entrained mortars have the term ‘AE’ prior to the water/cement ratio. Notice that the cement content remained constant for all compositions, ensuring similar amount of C<sub>3</sub>A and potential expansion. Therefore, the macro-scale response of mortars after sulphate exposure can be associated mainly to differences in the pore system.

The mixing procedure defined in UNE-EN 196-1:2005 was adopted, introducing small modifications to cover the specificities of the admixtures added. The air-entrainer was added at the end of the mixing procedure and mixed at high speed for 60 seconds. The superplasticiser was mixed with the de-ionised water in contents to assure flow extents of 20 cm ± 0.5 cm. This flow extent was defined to favour similar workability and surface finish amongst all mortar compositions.

Table 2. Compositions and mass attenuation coefficient (MAC) of the mortars.

| Material                    | 0.38_8.1% | 0.45_12.4% | 0.55_13.7% | AE0.45_18.8% |
|-----------------------------|-----------|------------|------------|--------------|
| Cement [kg/m <sup>3</sup> ] | 580       | 580        | 580        | 580          |
| Sand [kg/m <sup>3</sup> ]   | 1425      | 1325       | 1180       | 1325         |
| Water [kg/m <sup>3</sup> ]  | 220       | 261        | 319        | 261          |
| Air-entrainer [% bcw]       | -         | -          | -          | 0.3          |
| Superplasticiser [% bcw]    | 1.00      | 0.50       | -          | 0.25         |
| Water/cement ratio          | 0.38      | 0.45       | 0.55       | 0.45         |
| Porosity [%]                | 8.1       | 12.4       | 13.7       | 18.8         |
| MAC [cm <sup>2</sup> /g]    | 48.11     | 48.01      | 47.84      | 48.01        |

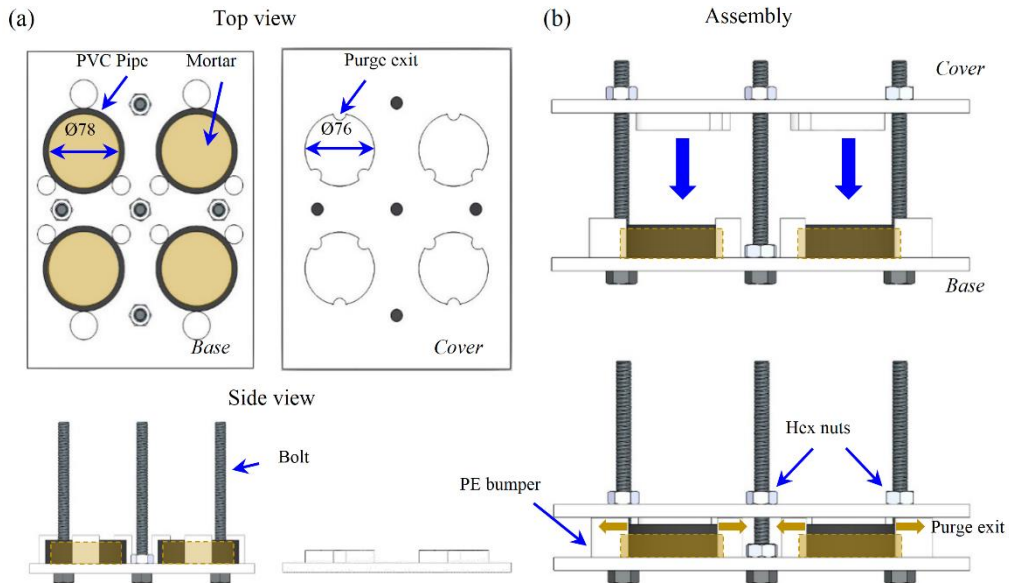
## 2.2 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

### 2.2.1 SPECIMEN PREPARATION

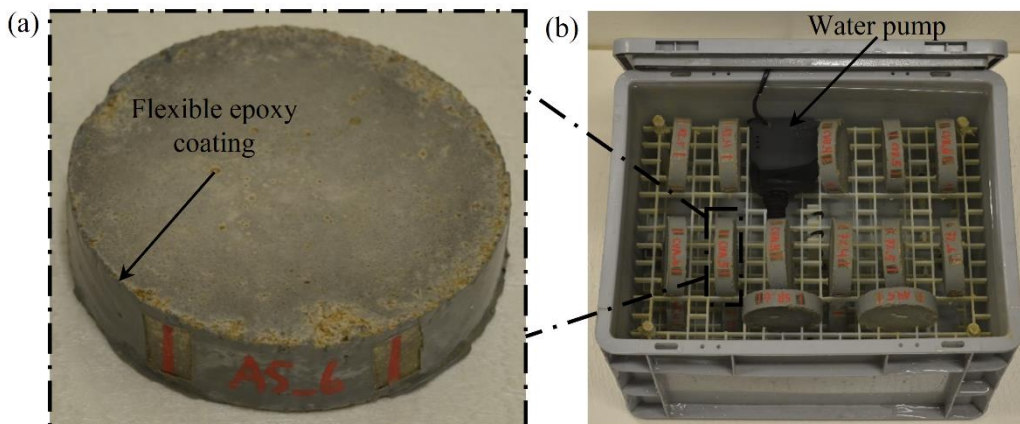
Ø78 mm x 17 mm mortar specimens were cast to conduct this study. Such geometry was chosen to avoid the typical corner spalling observed in rectangular samples that might alter the macro-scale response during the attack [17]. The dimensions selected maintain similar exposed surface-volume ratio than other studies that showed good balance between test duration and representativeness [18]. Due to the importance of the surface finish in transport-related degradation processes, specimens were cast in individual moulds to obtain external surfaces representative of field conditions and to avoid the presence of cut aggregates on the exposed surfaces.

Figure 1 shows a schematic representation of the moulds and the casting process adopted. The moulds comprised a PE rigid base with four fixed PVC pipes and a movable PE rigid cover. Top and side views of these components are shown in Figure 1a. Five Ø12 mm x

175 160 mm bolts were used to guide the cover into the base during assembly (Figure 1b),  
 176 while twelve PE bars were used to fix the PVC pipes and block the cover at a specific  
 177 height to obtain a sample thickness of 17 mm. To relieve the excess mortar, purge exits  
 178 were introduced in the cover. Before assemblage, the mortar (represented in light hatching)  
 179 was first poured inside the PVC pipes and compacted with 15 jolts in the flow table  
 180 (ASTM C1437) at a rate of one jolt per second to eliminate air pockets. After that, the  
 181 cover was placed and tightened to the base. In order to ensure adequate surface finish  
 182 quality, the moulds were then vibrated for ten seconds at the vibration table. Finally, the  
 183 hex nuts were further tightened until the cover reached the PE bumpers that control the  
 184 height of the specimens.  
 185



186  
 187  
 188 Specimens were demoulded 24 hours after casting and the lateral surface was water-  
 189 sealed with MasterSeal M 338 flexible epoxy coating to ensure linear penetration of the  
 190 sulphate ions through the two main surfaces of the specimen. Figure 2a shows a final  
 191 specimen obtained after applying the coating. Once sealed, all specimens were cured in  
 192 water at  $25\text{ °C} \pm 1\text{ °C}$  for 24 hours. Then, they were placed laterally inside plastic  
 193 containers and submerged in a sulphate-rich water solution (Figure 2b).  
 194



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 197 2.2.2 EXPOSURE CONDITIONS  
 198

199 Specimens were exposed to the sulphate solution shortly after casting to reproduce the  
200 real exposure conditions of most structures subjected to ESA, which are usually built *in*  
201 *situ*. Sulphate concentration of 30 g of Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>/l was used to accelerate the degradation  
202 process [19]. The solution was renewed weekly during the first month and every other  
203 week until the end of the test at 365 days. The volumetric ratio of sulphate solution to  
204 mortar was 12, a level that should be representative of field conditions where the  
205 material is exposed to continual supply of sulphate ions.

206  
207 Water pumps were placed inside the plastic containers to ensure a continuous flow from  
208 the bottom to the top in order to minimise concentration gradients (Figure 2b). The  
209 containers were filled to the top and covered to reduce contact with the air, thus limiting  
210 CO<sub>2</sub> dissolution and carbonation. Reference samples of each composition were also  
211 exposed to non-aggressive curing with water without sulphates for comparative  
212 purposes.

### 213 214 2.2.3 TEST METHODS

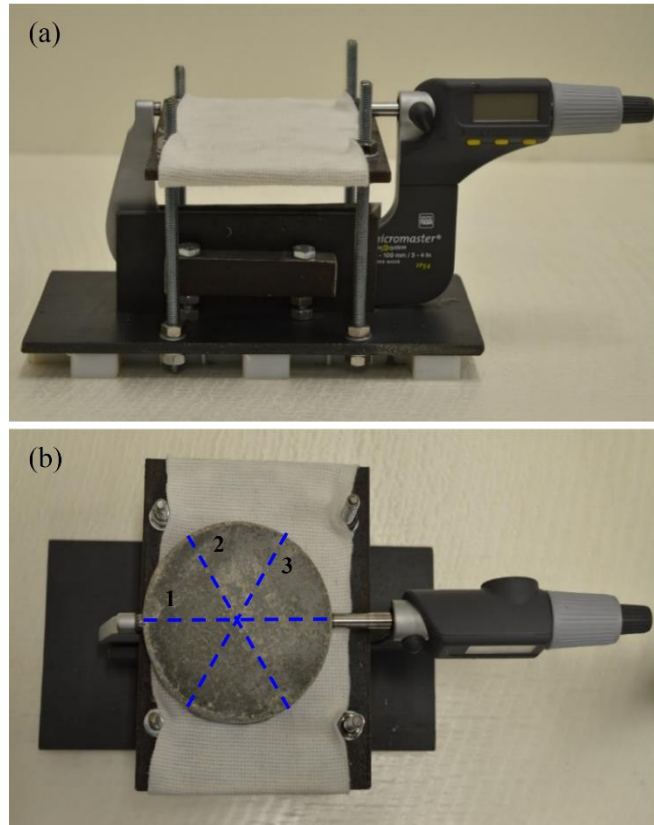
#### 215 216 - *Macro-structural monitoring*

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218 Characterisation of the macro-scale behaviour relies upon measurements of expansion,  
219 mass and ultrasonic velocity and visual inspection of the specimens. All measurements  
220 were taken weekly during the first month and every other week until the end of the  
221 study. The values presented in this study are the average of three specimens.

222  
223 Due to the singular shape of the specimens, a device was designed to measure the radial  
224 free expansions of the mortars (Figure 3a), which consisted of a MICROMASTER  
225 electronic micrometer with a precision of  $\pm 0.001$  mm and a metallic platform to fix the  
226 measured points. Several vertical strips were introduced to facilitate the measuring and  
227 to guarantee a similar position of the specimens (Figure 2a). Prior to the start of the  
228 experimental programme, the precision of the equipment was evaluated during a series  
229 of over 500 measurements on mortar specimens with and without gauge studs.

230 Specimens with gauge studs obtained higher variability of the measurements ( $\pm 0.008$   
231 mm with studs and  $\pm 0.002$  mm without studs). Consequently, the use of studs was  
232 discarded. For each specimen, three radial directions were measured at each time to  
233 cover all the sample (Figure 3b). Therefore, each expansion value presented in this  
234 study is the average of nine measurements.

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The ultrasonic pulse velocity between the two exposed faces was measured at 500 kHz sampling frequency using a PUNDIT PL-200, while a zero-crossing algorithm was used to calculate the travelling time of the ultrasonic wave. Mass evolution was controlled with a precision balance of  $\pm 0.01$  g. Surface water of the samples was dried up before weighting.

#### - Phase composition evolution

Changes in phase composition were examined using X-ray diffraction (XRD) at 28, 90, 180, 270 and 365 days. Samples for XRD were core-drilled from original specimens using a column drill equipped with a water-cooled diamond drill bit [20]. For each composition, samples were extracted from the same specimens to reduce the variability of the results. Due to the symmetric sulphate exposure conditions, each sample was divided in two. One half was crushed and the powder was pressed in cylindrical standard sample holders of 16 mm diameter and 2.5 mm height, while the other half was discarded. XRD measurements were made using a PANalytical X'Pert PRO MPD Alpha1  $\Theta/2\Theta$  diffractometer in reflection Bragg Brentano geometry of 240 mm of radius.  $\text{CuK}\alpha_1$  radiation ( $\lambda=1.5406$  Å) and X'Celerator detector with active length of  $2.122^\circ$  were used. Work power was set to 45 kV – 40 mA.  $\Theta/2\Theta$  scans from 4 to  $80^\circ 2\Theta$  with a step size of  $0.017^\circ 2\Theta$  and a measuring time of 50 seconds per step were performed. Sample holders were spun at two revolutions per second.

Rietveld analysis using the external standard method was performed on the XRD results for the quantitative study of the crystalline phases. The external standard method was used for quantification instead of the more common internal standard method to avoid homogenisation problems and further dilution of the cement paste in the analysed

264 sample [21-23]. The adopted methodology is similar to earlier works [21-23]. Phase  
 265 weight fractions were calculated from phase scale factors by comparison to the scale  
 266 factor of the external standard ( $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ ), measured under identical diffractometer  
 267 conditions. The density and volume values of the unit cell of each phase were obtained  
 268 from data sets from ICSD. Mass attenuation coefficients (MAC) of the different  
 269 compositions used were calculated from the MAC of each component, including the  
 270 water content and taking into account the weight fraction of each one. Final MAC of the  
 271 different mortars used are listed in Table 2.

272

273 All Rietveld refinements were carried out with X'Pert High Score Plus software  
 274 package by PANalytical, using the structures listed in Table 3. Small peaks of Fe-  
 275 substituted ettringite formed as a result of the reaction between sulphate ions and the  
 276 ferroaluminate phases were detected in some mortars at late stages of the attack. Since  
 277 its crystalline structure for Rietveld refinement was not available it was not considered  
 278 during quantification. The global variables refined were the background polynomial  
 279 with 4 coefficients (1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup>) and the zero shift. For all phases detected,  
 280 individual scale factors and lattice parameters were refined. A pseudo-Voigt function  
 281 was chosen to model the peak shape. The phase profile width ( $w$ ) was refined for quartz,  
 282 ettringite, portlandite and gypsum. For quartz and portlandite, the profile parameters  $U$ ,  
 283  $V$  and the peak shape were also refined. Preferred orientation corrections were applied  
 284 when necessary for gypsum (0 2 0), portlandite (0 0 1), ettringite (1 0 0) and quartz (1 0  
 285 1) as long as the phase content was above 2%.

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Table 3. Phase structures used for Rietveld refinement.

| Phase       | Chemical composition  | ICSD Code | Reference |
|-------------|---|-----------|-----------|
| Alite       | $\text{Ca}_3\text{SiO}_5$   | 94742     | [24]      |
| Belite_o    | $\text{Ca}_2\text{SiO}_4$   | 81097     | [25]      |
| Portlandite | $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$  | 15471     | [26]      |
| Calcite     | $\text{CaCO}_3$   | 79673     | [27]      |
| Ettringite  | $\text{Ca}_6\text{Al}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3(\text{OH})_{12}26\text{H}_2\text{O}$ | 155395    | [28]      |
| Gypsum      | $\text{CaSO}_42\text{H}_2\text{O}$  | 15982     | [29]      |
| Ferrite     | $\text{Ca}_2\text{AlFeO}_5$   | 9197      | [30]      |
| Quartz      | $\text{SiO}_2$  | 200721    | [31]      |
| Corundum    | $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$   | 73725     | [32]      |

288

289 - *Pore system evolution*

290

291 Evolution of the pore system of the mortars were examined through mercury intrusion  
 292 porosimetry (MIP) with a Micrometrics AutoPore IV 9500 (contact angle  $140^\circ$  and Hg  
 293 surface tension 485 dynes/cm) at 14, 28, 91, 180 and 270 days. Tests after 270 days  
 294 were not performed due to the spalling of the external layer of the sample during  
 295 drilling. Samples were extracted following the same procedure as described in the  
 296 previous section. Due to the symmetric sulphate exposure conditions, each sample was  
 297 divided in two halves and analyzed separately, before the samples were freeze-dried to  
 298 ensure full desaturation prior to mercury intrusion.

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### 300 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

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#### 302 3.1 MACRO-STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISATION

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304 3.1.1 VISUAL APPEARANCE OF SAMPLES

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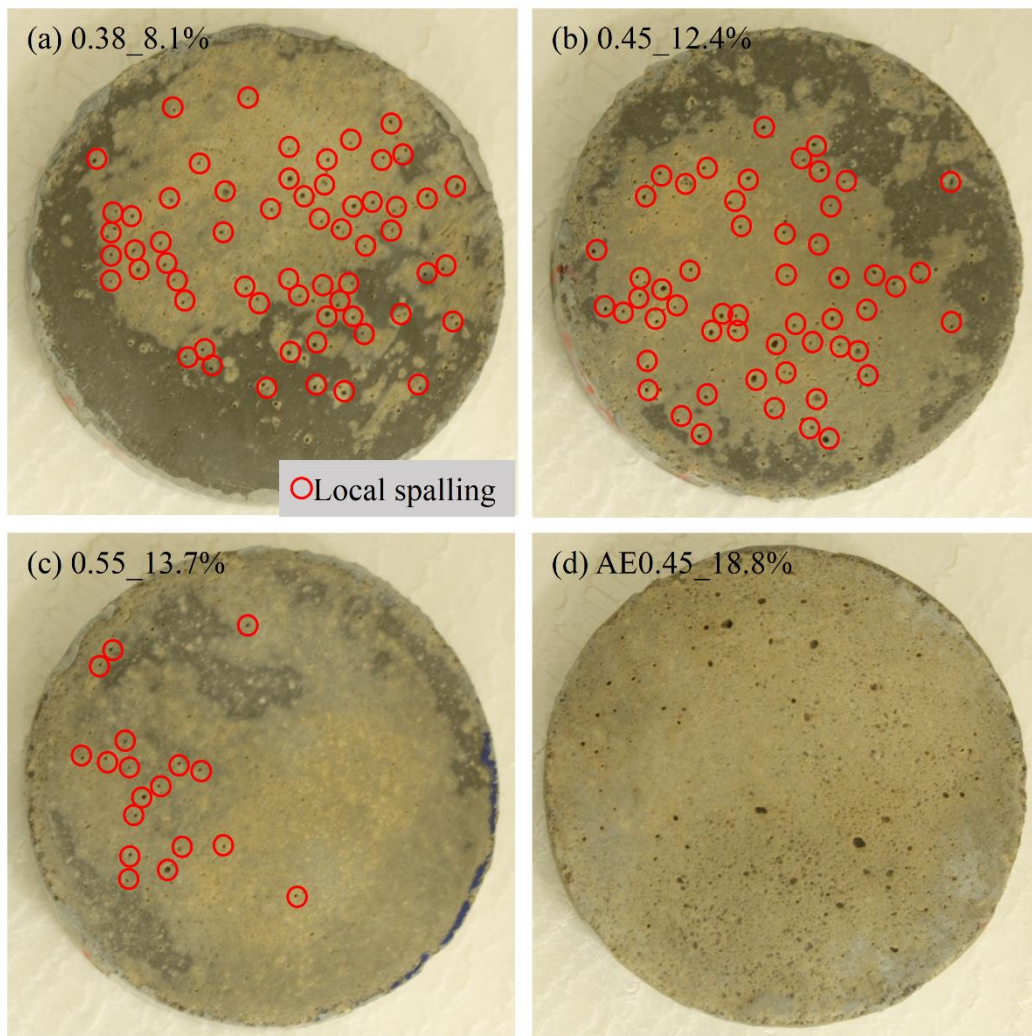
306 Visual appearance during the attack indicates no major failure in any composition in the  
307 form of generalised spalling of the external surface or tensile splitting of the sample.

308 The geometrical characteristics and specimen preparation adopted in this study  
309 prevented the development of failure modes that might compromise the interpretation of  
310 the macro-structural response of the material.

311

312 Figure 4 depicts the visual appearance of the external surface of the four compositions  
313 at the end of the test. In 0.38\_8.1%, 0.45\_12.4% and 0.55\_13.7%, a thin, dense layer  
314 covering most of the surface was observed. This layer appeared in small localised  
315 regions approximately in the second month of exposure and spread at different rates  
316 until the end of the test. Samples with lower water/cement ratio (0.38\_8.1% and  
317 0.45\_12.4%) showed the higher formation rates. As a result, these samples experienced  
318 localised spalling in locations within the region covered by the layer. In Figure 4, these  
319 locations are highlighted with a red circle.

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323 A comparison of the amount of red circles between Figure 4a, 4b and 4c clearly  
324 indicates that the physical damage in the form of local spalling increases with the  
325 decrease of the porosity of the samples. This observation concurs with the results

326 presented by Naik et al. [14]. On the other hand, in mortars with air entrained (Figure  
327 4d) this dense layer is not visible at any stage of the attack.

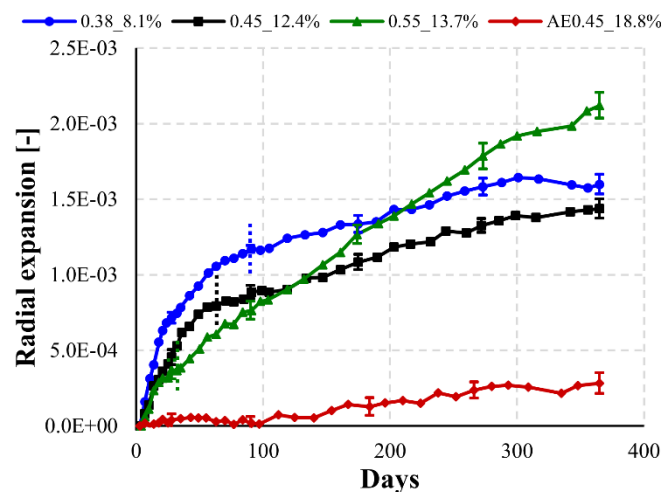
328

### 329 3.1.2 EXPANSIONS

330

331 Figure 5 depicts the radial expansion of the mortars during the 365 days of sulphate  
332 exposure. In order to distinguish the effects of sulphate exposure from the normal  
333 hydration process, data presented in Figure 5 corresponds to the difference between  
334 exposed and control specimens. Due to the large number of measuring points at each  
335 curve, +1/-1 standard deviation bars are only depicted at 28, 90, 180, 270 and 365 days.  
336 The maximum, minimum and mean standard deviation of all radial expansion  
337 measurements are  $1.28 \cdot 10^{-4}$ ,  $2.36 \cdot 10^{-5}$  and  $5.71 \cdot 10^{-5}$  respectively. Results for  
338 0.38\_8.1%, 0.45\_12.4% and 0.55\_13.7% series show a first stage of rapid expansions  
339 followed by a second stage characterised by a decrease in the expansion rate. In the case  
340 of 0.55\_13.7%, this decrease is considerably less pronounced than in the other  
341 compositions. The duration of the first stage is approximately 77, 63 and 25 days  
342 respectively for 0.38\_8.1%, 0.45\_12.4% and 0.55\_13.7%, as indicated by the vertical  
343 lines on each expansion curve (duration estimated by the first consecutive measure  
344 where the expansion increase is below 5%).

345



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348 The first stage may be caused by the high initial sulphate concentration gradient  
349 between the solution outside and inside the specimen. Moreover, the early exposure  
350 facilitates sulphate ingress due to the low densification of the matrix at this moment.  
351 Therefore, a sudden sulphate concentration boost in the pore solution of the matrix close  
352 to the surface should be observed. This may cause ettringite precipitation and  
353 crystallisation pressure increase at locations where calcium, aluminium and sulphates  
354 meet. According to the prescriptions included in codes, the magnitude of the expansions  
355 should be more evident in the compositions with higher porosity, as the penetration is  
356 presumably enhanced. However, Figure 5 shows the opposite trend for the first stage of  
357 the expansion curve, as mortar 0.38\_8.1% presents the highest expansions but the  
358 lowest porosity.

359

360 This behaviour might be explained by a retardation of the cement hydration derived  
361 from the different dosages of superplasticiser adopted in the compositions. This may  
362 lead to higher initial porosities in the matrices with higher dosages (0.38\_8.1%), prior to

363 the first porosity measurement performed at 14 days. Even though this hypothesis is in  
364 line with the established knowledge on ESA included in codes, it presents several  
365 shortcomings. First, the effects on cement hydration from polycarboxylate  
366 superplasticisers are usually reported to alter up to 3 days of hydration [33]. Since the  
367 mortars were exposed to the sulphate solution 48h after casting, the effects of the  
368 superplasticiser on the pore structure should be minor. Moreover, it seems unlikely that  
369 these effects overcome the large difference on water contents introduced by the different  
370 water/cement ratios adopted. Finally, the trends described are consistent after the first  
371 porosity measurement (at 14 days of exposure), where it is confirmed that the decrease  
372 of water/cement ratio leads to a reduction of porosity.

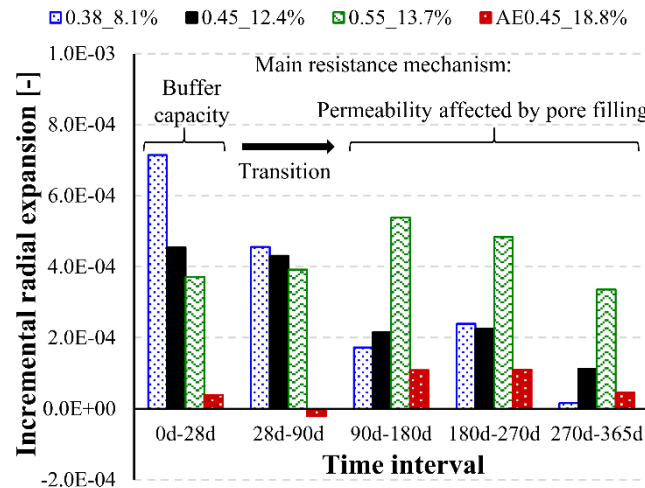
373  
374 Alternatively, it is believed that in this stage expansions are defined by the capacity of  
375 the matrix to accommodate expansive products. In refined pore networks, the initial  
376 sulphate concentration boost might cause sudden ettringite precipitation in small pores,  
377 as the dense matrix force the sulphate flux through small capillary pores before reaching  
378 larger pores. Due to the large availability of large pores in coarse pore networks, the  
379 precipitation could mainly occur in locations with a high capacity to accommodate  
380 expansive phases without creating expansion [15,16].

381  
382 The decrease of expansion rates observed in the second stage for series 0.38\_8.1%,  
383 0.45\_12.4% and 0.55\_13.7% might be related to the kinetics of diffusion (reduction of  
384 concentration gradient) and the influence of a pore-filling effect in the diffusion  
385 coefficient of the external layers of the samples. Interestingly, the reduction of the  
386 expansion rate is also related to the porosity of the mortars. In this case, mortars with  
387 lower porosity (0.38\_8.1% and 0.45\_12.4%) show bigger reductions in the expansion  
388 rate in comparison with mortars with higher porosity (0.55\_13.7%), which present  
389 lower decrease. A possible explanation is that in refined pore systems, the precipitation  
390 produced during the first stage severely hinders sulphate penetration later, thus  
391 decreasing the expansion rates. In porous matrices, the precipitation achieved is not  
392 enough to fill a significant fraction of the capillary pores. Consequently, the penetration  
393 rate should not be significantly altered and expansions would only be slightly reduced.  
394 This hypothesis explains the steady expansion of samples 0.55\_13.7%.

395  
396 The air-entrained mortar presents a particular evolution over time. For this series, no  
397 initial expansion is observed in the first stage, its onset only occurring after 100 days of  
398 exposure. However, the expansion rates observed are still smaller than in other  
399 compositions. The absence of expansions during the first 100 days could be related to  
400 the high capacity of the matrix to accommodate expansive product. Due to the extensive  
401 availability of large pores relative to the amount of ettringite formed, the pore-filling  
402 effect that hinders sulphate penetration described for the other compositions does not  
403 apply. As a result, instead of a reduction of expansions in the late stages of the attack,  
404 for this composition the expansion rate increased. In terms of the absolute values  
405 reached at the end of the accelerated test, the total expansion of the composition with  
406 air-entrainer is 7.5 times smaller than the composition with 0.55 water-cement ratio.

407  
408 The profiles depicted in Figure 5 reflect the double role of porosity in ESA. To  
409 highlight this, Figure 6 shows the incremental radial expansion at different periods of  
410 exposure, with the error bars included in each column corresponding to a +1 standard  
411 deviation. During the first 28 days, results indicate that the capacity of the matrix to  
412 accommodate expansive product constitutes the main resistance mechanism against

413 ESA, as expansions decreases with the increment of porosity. However, from 90 days of  
 414 exposure this trend is reversed for the non-air-entrained mortars, as expansions decrease  
 415 with the decrease of porosity. Therefore, at this stage the permeability of the matrix is  
 416 the main factor that define the behaviour against the attack. Notice that the air-entrained  
 417 mortar shows the smallest increments of expansions in almost all periods evaluated.  
 418 This result may indicate that the first stage where the buffer capacity of the matrix  
 419 controls the overall resistance against the attack can be extended over time if a sufficient  
 420 amount of large pores are available.  
 421



422  
 423

424 Figure 6 also sheds light on the reasons for the differences in behaviour found between  
 425 mixes 0.38\_8.1% and 0.45\_12.4%. The higher final expansion of the former is justified  
 426 by a significantly higher expansion in the period 0d-28d, which is approximately 57%  
 427 greater than the observed in 0.45\_12.4% at the same period. In later periods, both  
 428 compositions show similar increments in radial expansion. Therefore, the bigger final  
 429 expansion of 0.38\_8.1% in comparison with that from 0.45\_12.4% is possibly the  
 430 consequence of a lower buffer capacity in the initial stages due to the more refined  
 431 porosity.

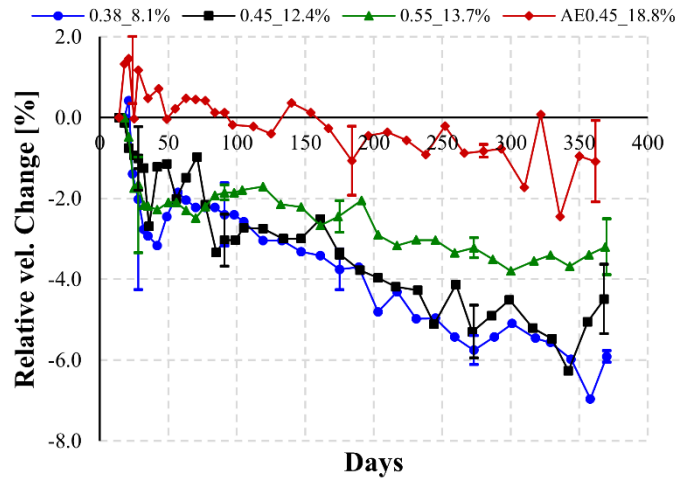
432

### 433 3.1.3 ULTRASONIC PULSE VELOCITY

434

435 Figure 7 shows the evolution of the ultrasonic pulse velocity for the different  
 436 compositions considered (difference between specimens stored in sulphate solution and  
 437 control at a certain time divided by the difference at the beginning of the accelerated  
 438 attack). Due to the large number of measuring points at each curve, +1/-1 standard  
 439 deviation bars are only depicted at 28, 90, 180, 270 and 365 days. The maximum,  
 440 minimum and mean standard deviation of all velocity change measurements are 2.35,  
 441 0.11 and 0.76 % respectively. Changes in velocity can be possibly related to the change  
 442 in the density and integrity of the specimens. Positive values suggest denser matrices  
 443 while negative values are indicative of damage. Samples from series 0.38\_8.1%,  
 444 0.45\_12.4% and 0.55\_13.7% show similar trends with a decrease in ultrasonic velocity  
 445 with exposure time. As described in Figure 5 for the expansion, the relative velocity  
 446 change also depicts 2 stages. The first of these presents a rapid decrease of relative  
 447 velocity indicating high degradation rates. After that, a deceleration of the degradation  
 448 is observed, probably caused by the reduction of the penetration rate of sulphates due to  
 449 the pore-filling effect and the decrease of the sulphate concentration gradient, as

450 described in section 3.1.2. The differences observed amongst 0.38\_8.1%, 0.45\_12.4%  
 451 and 0.55\_13.7% should be evaluated with caution, specially at early ages, as the  
 452 relatively high variability of the measurements might compromise analysis of the  
 453 results.  
 454



455  
 456  
 457

458 The evaluation of the velocity change at the end of the test shows that the degree of  
 459 damage increased in inverse proportion to porosity. In fact, the composition with the  
 460 denser matrix and smaller porosity (0.38\_8.1%) presents the higher velocity reduction  
 461 amongst all the compositions studied, indicating relatively higher damage caused by the  
 462 attack. This result is in line with the visual inspection performed in section 3.1.1, but is  
 463 not consistent with the expansion profiles presented in 3.1.2 (at the end of the test,  
 464 0.38\_8.1% did not show the highest dimensional variation). Such results could be  
 465 explained by the reduced extensibility of the material due to higher stiffness of the  
 466 denser matrix [14]. Therefore, even though a relatively higher damage occurs, the  
 467 higher elastic modulus restrains the deformation, leading to the assessment of lesser  
 468 expansion.

469

470 Air-entrained mortars (AE0.45\_18.8%) meanwhile maintained similar velocities than  
 471 the control specimens throughout the accelerated attack, indicating low levels of  
 472 damage. These results are in line with the expansion curves presented in Figure 5, where  
 473 AE0.45\_18.8% mortars exhibited the lowest expansions amongst all compositions.

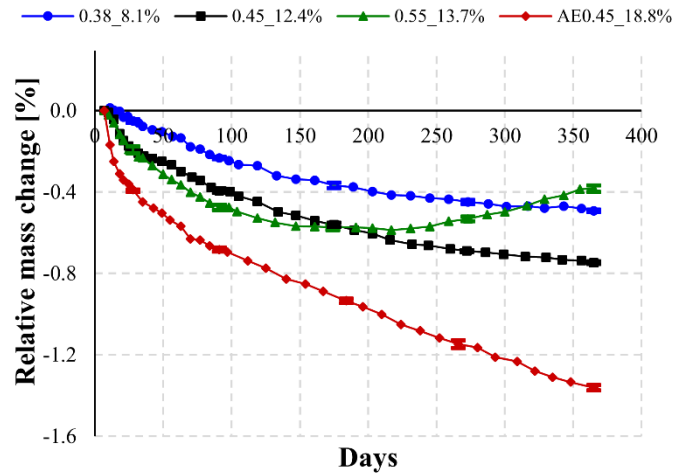
474

### 475 3.1.4 MASS EVOLUTION

476

477 Figure 8 depicts the relative mass variation over time for all mortars studied. In order to  
 478 isolate the effects of sulphate exposure from the phenomena of absorption, hydration  
 479 and leaching experienced by all samples, this figure represents the differences between  
 480 exposed and control specimens. Due to the large number of measuring points at each  
 481 curve, +1/-1 standard deviation bars are only depicted at 28, 90, 180, 270 and 365 days.  
 482 The maximum, minimum and mean standard deviation of all relative mass change  
 483 measurements are 0.033, 0.003 and 0.011 % respectively. Notice that most error bars  
 484 are barely visible in the graph due to the low variability of the results. Despite the fact  
 485 that all samples presented a slight positive mass change, mortars subject to sulphate  
 486 exposure showed a much lower mass increase. Therefore, Figure 8 shows negative mass

487 variations for all compositions. Up to 200 days, sulphate exposure causes higher mass  
488 reduction as porosity increases, while the mass of 0.38\_8.1%, 0.45\_12.4% and  
489 AE0.45\_18.8% mortars continues to decrease over time. However, 0.55\_13.7% series  
490 presents a change in tendency, showing a mass increase after 200 days.  
491



492  
493

494 The mass reduction due to sulphate exposure could be explained by several processes  
495 occurring after sample immersion. Mortars in the aggressive media experience sulphate  
496 uptake from the external solution, which causes an increment of mass. However,  
497 sulphate ingress triggers a series of chemical reactions that involves dissolution of  
498 soluble calcium bearing phases for ettringite and gypsum precipitation. To maintain the  
499 equilibrium of the system, hydroxide ions released from portlandite dissolution diffuse  
500 towards the external solution, causing mass reduction. Measures of pH at the end of the  
501 test confirm higher leaching rates in the mortars submerged in the  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  solution  
502 compared to control (9.46 and 8.73, respectively), while calcium content by ICP-OES at  
503 the end of the test also indicates that calcium leaching phenomenon is more pronounced  
504 in the aggressive solutions (88.37 ppm over 56.06 ppm). These phenomena should be  
505 intensified as porosity and permeability of the specimen increases, in line with the  
506 initial trends depicted in Figure 8.

507

508 The slope reduction shown by non-air-entrained mortars at later stages of the attack  
509 indicates a deceleration of the leaching process, which could be explained by lower  
510 concentration gradients between external and internal solutions and the pore-filling  
511 effect caused by the precipitation of phases in the superficial pores of the specimens. As  
512 described in Figure 4, non-air-entrained mortars present a thin dense external layer that  
513 might slow down the leaching process. On the other hand, this dense layer is not visible  
514 in AE0.45\_18.8% series, which could explain why in this composition the leaching  
515 phenomenon seems to progress at a similar rate until the end of the test. The particularly  
516 high mass gain experienced by 0.55\_13.7% from 200 days on could be explained by a  
517 macroscopic swelling caused by the large expansions measured. Notice that this age  
518 corresponds to the age when the expansion of this series becomes the highest amongst  
519 all compositions studied (see Figure 5).

520

521 The physical changes observed here suggest that the role of the pore network during  
522 ESA is not only related to the transport process and the amount of expansive phases  
523 formed. According to the results obtained, the buffer capacity of the matrix to

524 accommodate the product precipitated might be more relevant than the permeability  
525 itself when it comes to define the durability of the specimens at early stages of the  
526 attack.

527

## 528 3.2 MICRO-STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS

529

### 530 3.2.1 XRD ANALYSIS

531

532 This section presents the evolution of phase composition measured by quantitative XRD  
533 analysis for the different compositions during sulphate exposure. To simplify the  
534 interpretation of the results, only crystalline phases interacting with the sulphate ions are  
535 presented and phase contents are expressed as a percentage of the cement content.

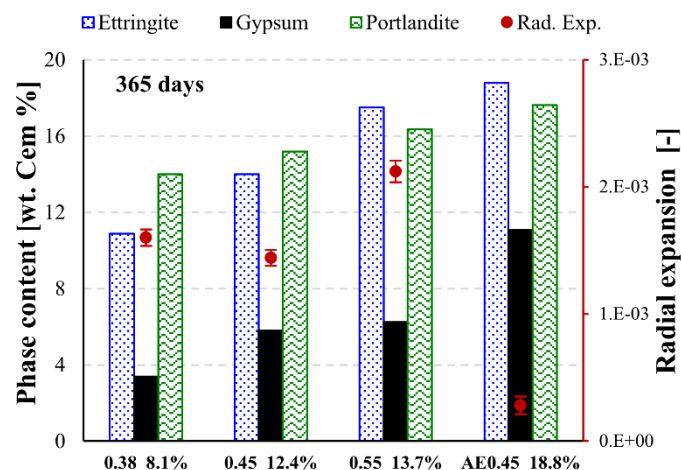
536

537 Figure 9 depicts ettringite, gypsum and portlandite contents for all compositions at the  
538 end of the test. The sum of expansive phases (ettringite and gypsum) range between  
539 14.3 % in the composition with 0.38 water/cement ratio and 29.9 % in the air-entrained  
540 mortars. On the other hand, Portlandite contents only present a slight variation, with  
541 values between 14.0 % and 17.6 % for 0.38\_8.1% and AE0.45\_18.8%, respectively. As  
542 expected, Rietveld quantification reveals increasing amounts of expansive phases with  
543 the increase of porosity of the composition, with results suggesting that the pore system  
544 affects the sulphate penetration rate of each composition, causing precipitation of  
545 different amounts of expansive products.

546

547 Figure 9 also includes the radial expansions measured at 365 days with its  
548 corresponding +1/-1 standard deviation bars. Results indicate no clear relationship  
549 between the amounts of expansive phases and the final radial expansions measured.  
550 Although the amount of expansive phases in AE0.45\_18.8% is 2.1 times bigger than in  
551 0.38\_8.1%, the final radial free expansion obtained decreases by a factor of 5.7.

552



553

554

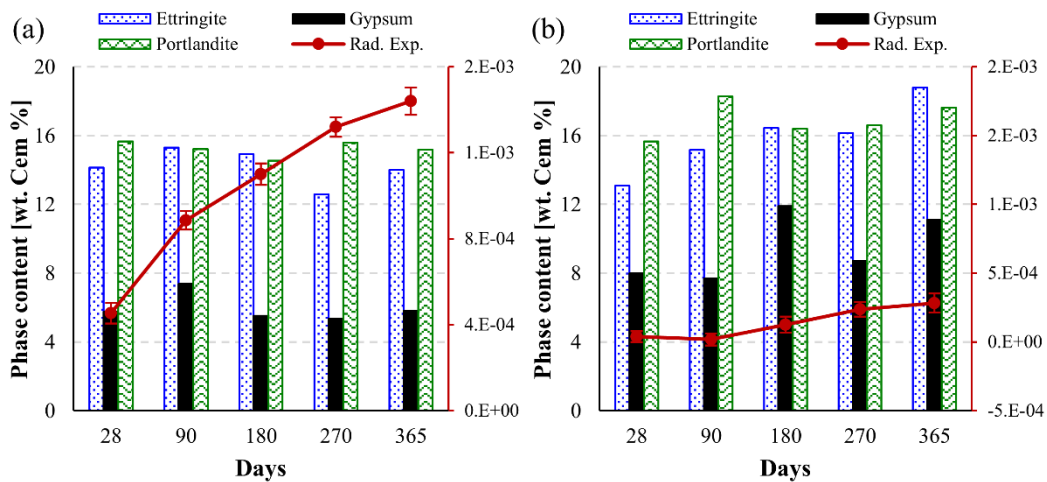
555 In order to further evaluate the relationship between expansive phases and expansions at  
556 different stages of the attack, Figure 10 shows the evolution of ettringite, gypsum and  
557 portlandite contents combined with the radial expansions for 0.45\_12.4% and  
558 AE0.45\_18.8% mortars at 28, 90, 180, 270 and 365. These compositions were selected  
559 for presenting the same water/cement ratio and aggregate content, with the main  
560 difference the presence of air voids intruded by the air-entraining agent. Both

561 compositions already show high ettringite and gypsum contents after 28 days of  
562 exposure.

563

564 After that, 0.45\_12.4% depicts similar contents until the end of the test (-0.1 % between  
565 28 and 365 days) while AE0.45\_18.8% shows a moderate increase (+8.9 % between 28  
566 and 365 days). In both cases, the increments of expansion and the amount of expansive  
567 phases formed during the same period do not seem to present any direct relationship at  
568 any stage of the attack. Series 0.45\_12.4% clearly illustrates this statement. Even  
569 though expansion increases by  $9.8 \cdot 10^{-4}$  between 28 and 365 days, the amount of  
570 expansive phases remain almost unaltered. Again, this suggests that the progressive  
571 precipitation of expansive phases consumes part of the buffering capacity of the pore  
572 system. Once the buffering capacity is reduced, precipitations of even small amounts of  
573 expansive phases lead to significant expansion.

574



575

576

577 ESA-related expansions have traditionally been attributed to the additional volume  
578 generated by ettringite formation. Therefore, dimensional variations should imply the  
579 precipitation of expansive phases. However, the results obtained depicts no clear link  
580 between these two variables. This is in agreement with other studies of the literature  
581 [34,35] that did not find any clear correlation between the amount of ettringite formed  
582 and the expansions observed. Amongst the other possible ESA expansion mechanisms  
583 that have been suggested in the literature [2], the crystallisation pressure theory might  
584 be the only one that could explain the results obtained.

585

586 This theory states that expansions are originated from the crystallisation pressure  
587 developed by ettringite formation in a supersaturated pore solution [4,5,36]. According  
588 to this theory, only ettringite formed in small pores is likely to generate enough pressure  
589 to cause damage [34]. During the initial stages of exposure, there is rapid increase of  
590 sulphate content in the pore network causing the early precipitation of expansive phases.  
591 Due to the extremely high concentration of sulphates and the inability to generate  
592 enough ettringite to reduce the degree of supersaturation in regions with a very refined  
593 matrix, there is a crystallisation pressure boost at these locations. This pressure is  
594 responsible for the degradation and damage observed during the first stage of the attack  
595 (Figures 5 and 7). At later stages, due to a lower penetration rate caused by the pore-  
596 filling effect, this excess of sulphate ions can be allocated to other locations, more  
597 thermodynamically stable, with a consequent decrease in crystallisation pressure. This



598 phenomenon is reflected on the macro-scale by a reduction of the expansions and  
 599 degradation rates, as observed in Figures 5 and 7.

600

601 In the case of AE0.45\_18.8%, the absence of expansions during the initial stage might  
 602 be explained by the large availability of locations to accommodate the initial ettringite  
 603 precipitated and sulphate excess without developing high crystallisation pressures.  
 604 Unlike more refined matrices, the air-entrained mortars do not experience a significant  
 605 reduction of sulphate penetration due to the pore-filling effect (Figure 1). Consequently,  
 606 sulphate content continues to increase at a steady rate until crystallisation pressure starts  
 607 to develop in some parts of the matrix. This phenomenon might explain the slight  
 608 expansion and degradation observed after 150 days of exposure (Figures 5 and 7).

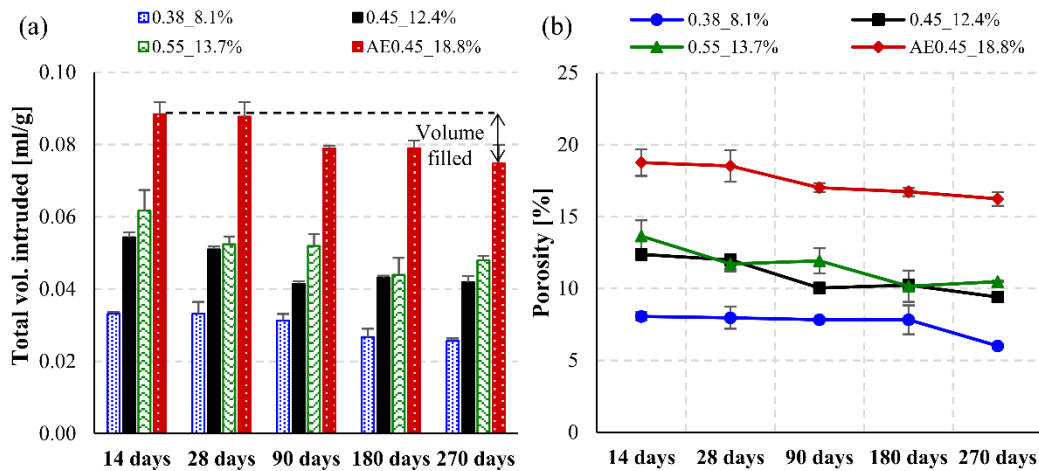
609

### 610 3.2.2 CHARACTERISATION OF THE PORE STRUCTURE

611

612 This section presents the results of a comprehensive analysis of the pore size  
 613 distribution performed by MIP tests at 14, 28, 90, 180 and 270 days to obtain a  
 614 qualitative picture of the evolution of the pore network throughout the attack. Figure 11  
 615 shows the evolution of the total volume of mercury intruded and MIP porosity for all  
 616 mortars under sulphate exposure. The error bars included correspond to +1/-1 standard  
 617 deviation. As expected, the volume intruded and porosity increases with increasing  
 618 water/cement ratio and addition of an air-entrainer. Initial porosities at 14 days ranged  
 619 between 8.1 % and 13.7 % for mortars with a water/cement ratio between 0.38 and 0.55.  
 620 In air-entrained mortars, porosities of 18.8 % were observed due to the inclusion of air  
 621 bubbles.

622



623

624

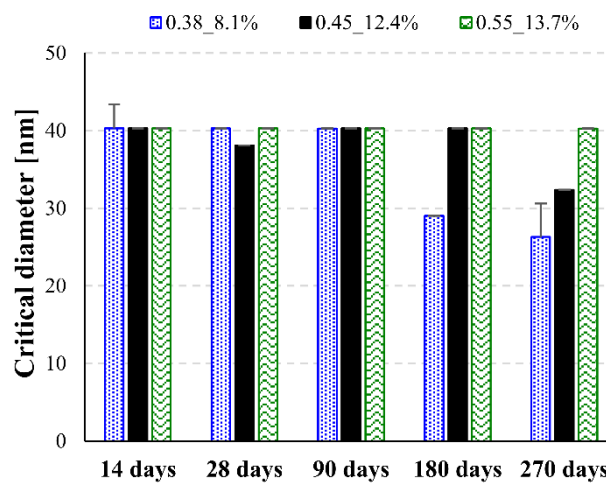
625 As the attack proceeds, the mercury intruded and porosity decrease as a result of normal  
 626 cement hydration processes and the precipitation of expansive phases in the pore  
 627 network. The difference between the total volume intruded at 14 and 270 days allows  
 628 the assessment of the pore volume filled by these two phenomena in each composition.  
 629 Mortars with higher porosity (0.55\_13.7% or AE0.45\_18.8%) display 1.8 times more  
 630 pore volume filled than the composition 0.38\_8.1%. This result suggests that both  
 631 cement hydration and precipitation of expansive phases are more significant in  
 632 compositions with higher porosities, in line with the XRD results shown in Figure 9.

633

634 However, the assessment of the fraction of volume filled from the initial total pore  
 635 volume depicts different trends. In this case, 0.38\_8.1% mortars show 1.5 times more

636 ratio of volume filled than AE0.45\_18.8% between 14 and 270 days. This result  
 637 suggests that despite mortars with refined pore networks present lower precipitation of  
 638 expansive phases and slower cement hydration, the volume filled represents a higher  
 639 fraction of the total volume available. Therefore, in these compositions the pore-filling  
 640 effect is more significant. These trends correspond to the visual inspection of the  
 641 specimens described in section 3.1.1.

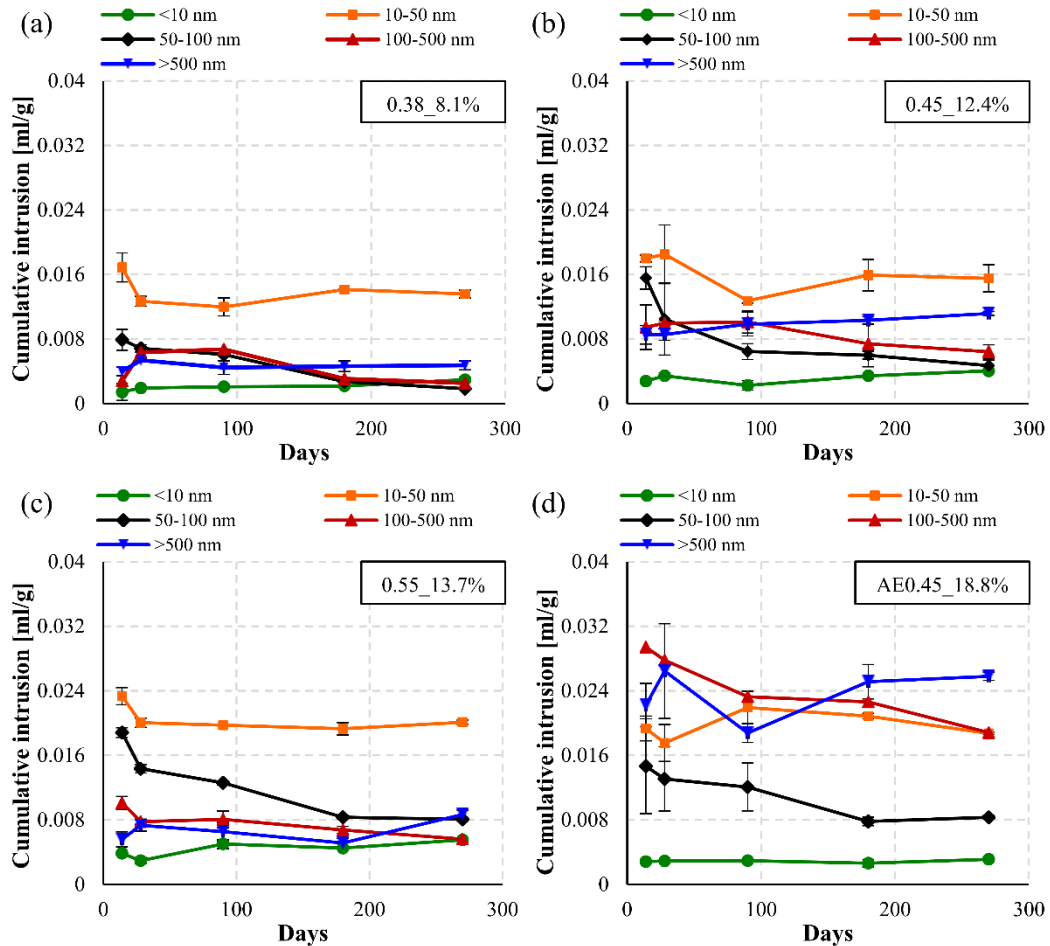
642  
 643 Figure 12 shows the evolution of the critical pore diameter for 0.38\_8.1%, 0.45\_12.4%  
 644 and 0.55\_13.7% under sulphate exposure at 14, 28, 90, 180 and 270 days, with the error  
 645 bars included corresponding to +1 standard deviation. This semi-quantitative parameter  
 646 can be usually related to the permeability of the material [20]. Results for  
 647 AE0.45\_18.8% series are not included as the air bubbles produce high increments of  
 648 intrusion in large diameters which distort the assessment and hinder comparison with  
 649 the other compositions.  
 650



651  
 652  
 653 Despite the differences in porosity, non-air-entrained mortars present similar critical  
 654 diameters until 90 days of exposure. After that, mortars with low water/cement ratios  
 655 display an important reduction of critical diameter, with this trend becoming even more  
 656 evident at the end of the evaluated period. The inability of the critical diameter to  
 657 capture differences in the permeability during the early stages of the attack might be  
 658 explained by the fact that this parameter does not account for the most accessible path  
 659 for fluid transport in the cement paste but the mean pore size that allows maximum  
 660 percolation. Results suggest that these pores might only be affected at late stages of the  
 661 attack, when the most accessible paths are reduced due to the pore-filling effect and the  
 662 formation of the thin layer described in section 3.1.1.

663  
 664 Figure 13 shows the evolution of the pore size distribution of all mortars according to 5  
 665 predefined pore ranges (<10 nm, 10-50 nm, 50-100 nm, 100-500 nm and >500 nm). The  
 666 error bars included correspond to +1/-1 standard deviation. This figure shows how  
 667 sulphate exposure alters the pore-size distribution of the material and allows a  
 668 qualitative assessment of the precipitation patterns amongst the different compositions.  
 669 The evolution of the different pore ranges between 14 and 270 days shows similar  
 670 trends for the non-air-entrained mortars. For these compositions, the refinement of the  
 671 pore network during the attack is mainly caused by the reduction of pores between 50 –  
 672 100 nm. This pore range accumulates the 63.0 %, 66.4 % and 58.2 % of the total

673 volume filled by the combined action of cement hydration and precipitation of  
 674 expansive phases in 0.38\_8.1%, 0.45\_12.4% and 0.55\_13.7%, respectively. However,  
 675 the AE0.45\_18.8% series only accumulates 31.1 % of the volume filled in this pore  
 676 range. In this case, the main reduction of intrusion is observed in pores of 100 - 500 nm,  
 677 which concentrates the 60.4 % of the reduction.  
 678



679  
 680  
 681 Although the pore sizes measured in the MIP technique do not necessarily match the  
 682 real pore size distribution of the material, the qualitative analysis of the results highlight  
 683 that the pore sizes affected during ESA vary depending on the characteristics of the pore  
 684 system of the matrix. Results indicate that in air-entrained mortars, the alterations in the  
 685 pore network are produced in bigger pore ranges than the observed in other  
 686 compositions, which is in agreement with other studies [37]. The bigger pores of  
 687 AE0.45\_18.8 act as pressure releases that limit the pressure increase in the system,  
 688 especially in smaller pores. This pressure release effect combined with the capacity to  
 689 accommodate expansive phases might explain the lower degrees of damage observed in  
 690 AE0.45\_18.8.  
 691

#### 692 4. CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE ROLE OF POROSITY

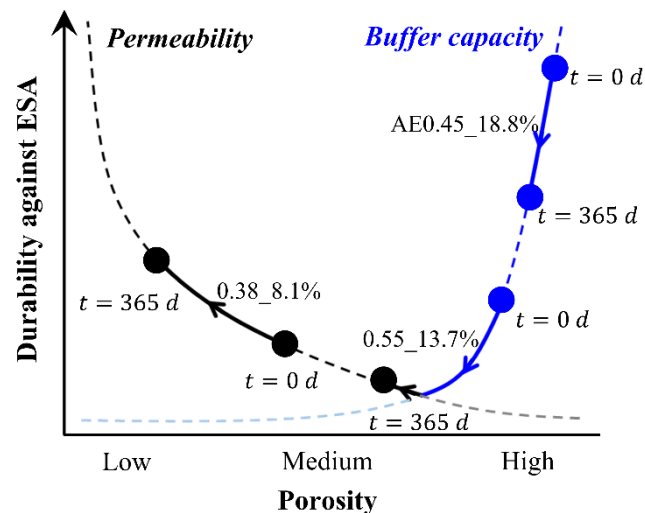
693  
 694 The approach adopted in the codes to obtain durable materials against ESA is based on  
 695 a fairly simple perception of the role of the porosity. It assumes that the amount of  
 696 ettringite precipitated defines the damage generated in the material. Therefore, codes  
 697 prescribe materials with low permeability to reduce the penetration of sulphate ions.

698 However, this study shows that the amount of expansive phases itself is not always a  
 699 good indicator of the level of deterioration. Sometimes, other aspects such as the  
 700 location of the precipitation and the presence of pressure release pores might play a  
 701 more significant role in the outcome of the attack.

702  
 703 The results obtained in this study highlight two mechanisms defined by the pore  
 704 network that contribute to ESA resistance: permeability, which is related to the amount  
 705 of expansive phases potentially generated, and buffer capacity, which might define the  
 706 preferential location of the precipitation of expansive products. Overall ESA resistance  
 707 defined by the pore network is the result of the contribution of these two mechanisms.  
 708 Since the pore network characteristics do not remain constant over time (due to cement  
 709 hydration and pore-filling effect), the contribution of these two mechanisms also varies  
 710 during the attack.

711  
 712 Figure 14 represents this phenomenon in a schematic way. A material with low porosity  
 713 achieves high durability by the low permeability of the matrix, which hinders sulphate  
 714 ingress and potential ettringite precipitation. As porosity increases, sulphate penetration  
 715 is promoted, thus reducing the durability of the material. The buffer capacity curve,  
 716 however, shows an opposite trend. In this case, ESA resistance increases for high values  
 717 of porosity due to a preferential precipitation in large pores and decreases along the  
 718 refinement of the pore network. Notice that this model does not account for the effects  
 719 of crack formation. The model depicted in Figure 14 therefore represents the role of  
 720 porosity during the attack prior to the onset of cracking.

721



722

723

724 Figure 14 includes a qualitative location of 0.38\_8.1%, 0.55\_13.7% and AE0.45\_18.8%  
 725 based on the porosity of these compositions. 0.45\_12.4% is not depicted for clarity in  
 726 the interpretation of the graph. At early stages of the attack, 0.38\_8.1% presents the  
 727 lowest durability, which is reflected by displaying the largest expansions amongst the  
 728 compositions evaluated (Figure 5). As time proceeds, the durability of this composition  
 729 improves due to a reduction of porosity, which results in a decrease of the expansion  
 730 rate.

731

732 Meanwhile, the air-entrained mortar initially presents the highest durability due to the  
 733 large buffer capacity of the matrix (no expansions measured). Despite durability reduces  
 734 over time as the precipitation of expansive phases reduce the buffer capacity, this

735 composition keeps displaying the highest potential durability against ESA at the  
736 conclusion of the test. Finally, 0.55\_13.7% mortars display a half-way behaviour with  
737 an initial stage characterised by a pore system that is capable of accommodating part of  
738 the expansive phases. A decrease in durability is caused by the precipitation of  
739 expansive phases that reduces the buffer effect of the porosity.

740  
741 Further research on the use of air-entrainers with other mortar mixtures is recommended  
742 to validate the buffer capacity curve shown in Figure 14. The design of durable  
743 materials against ESA based on high buffer capacities should be made with caution. In  
744 these cases, durability tends to drop off over time as the pore-filling effect has a  
745 negative impact on the matrix buffer capacity, while the continuous formation of  
746 ettringite might lead to a significant strength-loss of the material due to decalcification  
747 of portlandite or C-S-H gel. The approach based on low permeability is safer however,  
748 as the pore-filling effect developed over time has a positive impact on permeability.

## 749 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

750  
751 The following specific findings may be derived from this study.

- 752  
753 • Expansion measurements suggest that the buffer capacity of the pore structure  
754 defines the damage developed during the early stages of ESA. After that, the  
755 transport process affected by the precipitation of expansive phases controls the  
756 durability. The duration of the first stage can be extended if sufficient number of  
757 large pores relative to the amount of ettringite formed are available in the  
758 material.
- 759  
760 • Air-entrained mortars displayed the lowest expansion and ultrasonic-pulse  
761 velocity variation over time, possibly characterised by the smallest damage level  
762 amongst all compositions tested. MIP results suggest that this behaviour might  
763 be explained by a preferential precipitation of expansive phases in large pores,  
764 which buffers the pressure increase in the pore system and accommodates  
765 expansive phases without causing damage.
- 766  
767 • Quantitative XRD analyses shows no direct relationship between the damage  
768 generated and the amount of expansive product formed during any stage of the  
769 attack. In fact, the biggest precipitation of expansive phases was found in the  
770 composition that presents the least expansion.

## 771 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

772  
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