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1 Performance evaluation of curing compounds using durability parameters

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5 **Abstract:** With the world facing a huge shortage of water and labourer, the use of curing
6 compounds in place of conventional and prolonged wet curing is inevitable. However, hot weather
7 conditions and the quality control issues in many countries necessitate diligence in the selection of
8 curing compounds. However, the ASTM C156 standard (water loss test) – the only standard
9 method available – exhibits large variability in results and cannot be used to reliably assess the
10 effectiveness and qualify curing compounds. Also, the compressive strength test is not sensitive
11 enough to assess the quality of curing compounds. Given this scenario, there is a need for an
12 alternate test method to assess the effectiveness of curing compounds. This paper presents an
13 experimental investigation on the suitability of tests on various durability parameters to assess the
14 effectiveness of curing compounds. The oxygen permeability index (OPI), water sorptivity index
15 (WSI), non-steady-state migration coefficient for chloride penetration (D_{nssm}), total porosity, and
16 compressive strength were used as test parameters. These parameters of mortar specimens
17 prepared using Ordinary Portland Cement and cured using wet curing, air drying, and five curing
18 compounds were evaluated. The mortar specimens were kept in the following two controlled
19 environments: (i) mild (25 °C, 65 % RH) and (ii) hot (45 °C, 55 % RH). The study found that the
20 OPI, WSI, and D_{nssm} are suitable and more sensitive than the compressive strength in assessing the
21 effectiveness of curing compounds. Amongst these three, OPI test showed more consistent results
22 and can be recommended as a test for qualifying curing compounds.

23 **Keywords:** Curing compounds; efficiency; concrete; durability; temperature; hot weather

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24 **1 INTRODUCTION**

25 Curing compounds are membrane-forming chemicals that help in preventing the loss of water from
26 the surface of concrete and thus, facilitate curing of concrete during the early stages of the
27 hydration process [1]. The use of curing compounds not only eliminates the need for additional
28 potable water and frequent supervision for the entire period of curing but also provides a viable
29 solution where the conventional wet curing methods become impractical. Some of the examples
30 are high-rise buildings, tunnel linings, and large pavement slabs. However, despite their relevance
31 in the fast-paced construction industry of present times, which is struggling to meet its water
32 requirements, there have been very limited attempts to investigate performance of curing
33 compounds and the factors affecting it.

34 ASTM C156 provides a water loss test for the qualification of curing compounds [2].
35 Although ASTM C156 appears to be a fairly simple test, it has met with acute criticism worldwide
36 because of its extremely low precision. ASTM C156 itself has reported a single-operator standard
37 deviation of 0.13 kg/m² and a multi-laboratory standard deviation of 0.30 kg/m². Considering the
38 limit of 0.55 kg/m² on water loss prescribed by ASTM C309 [3], these standard deviation values
39 would reach to a minimum of 24 and 55 % respectively. With this level of precision, it would be
40 impossible to decide whether to pass or fail a particular curing compound let alone differentiating
41 between the performances of different curing compounds [4].

42 Conventionally, the influence of curing on the quality of concrete in the field has been
43 evaluated by its effect on the compressive strength of concrete and have also been studied well [5–
44 10]. However, it has been observed that the properties of the cover concrete or the near-surface
45 concrete can vary substantially from those of the interior concrete. These variations in the
46 properties of concrete can extend to more than 40 mm beneath the surface, out of which the outer

47 20 mm exhibits the major variations [11]. These variations can result from the segregation of
48 concrete as a result of bleeding, over working of the concrete by excessive consolidation/finishing,
49 and the loss of water due to poor curing practices. It was observed in the studies on cement paste
50 and mortar that drying due to poor curing practices can adversely affect the porosity, diffusivity,
51 and water sorptivity up to a depth of 50 mm [12,13].

52 As the effect of curing extends only to the near-surface region, the use of a bulk property
53 such as compressive strength appears to be an ineffective way of evaluating the curing efficiency.
54 In fact, Fattuhi, in a study on 16 different curing compounds, found that although the water
55 retention efficiencies of curing compounds with respect to air-dried specimens varied widely
56 between 25 % and 89 %, the resultant 28-day compressive strength for all the cases were above 80
57 % of that of the water cured specimens [14]. This practice also results in the underestimation of
58 the role that curing plays in enhancing the durability of RC structures. Also, transport parameters
59 have been observed to yield much better sensitivity to the effects of curing than compressive and
60 flexural strength [15–17]. These parameters include air permeability, water sorptivity, resistance
61 to carbonation, and chloride permeability.

62 Studies have shown the benefits of adopting wet curing during the early age on the
63 durability of concrete. Seven days of wet curing has been observed to reduce the water absorption
64 of concrete exposed to harsh environment for 360 days by 22 % [18]. Through a study on Ground
65 Granulated Blast Furnace Slag (GGBFS) concrete cured in simulated arid climate, Austin et al.
66 have shown that the lack of wet curing could significantly increase the air permeability and water
67 sorptivity [19]. Similarly, the water sorptivity of fly ash concretes has been observed to
68 demonstrate greater sensitivity to deficient curing in arid climates than that of Ordinary Portland
69 Cement (OPC) concretes [15,20]. Zhang et al. reported that the influence of curing on the chloride

70 resistance of OPC concretes increases with increase in the water-to-cement ratio [21]. The findings
71 of a limited number of studies on curing compounds generally highlight their inferior performance
72 in comparison to wet curing and in some cases, marginal or even no improvement over air curing
73 [17,19,21,22]. However, their potential in reducing the differences between the transport
74 properties of near-surface concrete and the interior concrete has also been realized [23,24]. Curing
75 compounds also help in mitigating plastic and drying shrinkage, although wide variations exist in
76 the performance [25,26].

77 Tests on transport properties, also commonly referred to as durability tests, can serve as a
78 rational and effective approach to characterize curing methods. However, the lack of
79 standardization and the use of different test methods across the world render it very difficult to
80 conclusively assess the sensitivity of these tests to curing from the existing literature. Moreover,
81 contradictions between the results of different test methods have also been observed [27,28]. For
82 instance, Tan and Gjorv concluded that elevated temperatures reduced the chloride resistance of
83 concrete; however, the resistance to water penetration showed no corresponding variation with
84 temperature [27]. In general, water sorptivity appears to be the most widely used parameter for
85 evaluating curing efficiencies and has been observed to demonstrate great sensitivity to curing
86 [23,29]. However, instance where surface tests such as water sorptivity, air permeability, pull-off
87 strength, and accelerated carbonation test showed limited sensitivity to curing has also been
88 reported [28]. Taking into account the above mentioned gaps and contradictions present in the
89 existing literature, this study focuses on the following two objectives: (1) to evaluate and compare
90 the performance of curing compounds (CC) with respect to conventional curing methods in
91 different exposure conditions, and (2) to investigate the suitability of durability index (DI) tests as
92 a screening test in evaluating the effectiveness of curing methods. The primary intention of the

93 paper is to investigate and propose the possibility of durability index test as a screening test for
94 curing compounds and not on understanding the chemical actions of various curing compounds.
95 Mortar is used in this study instead of concrete because the use of concrete could complicate the
96 analysis by the variability introduced by the use of coarse aggregates. The use of mortar facilitates
97 more sensitivity and easier assessment of curing efficiencies of curing compounds. This is
98 important for producing reproducible results across different laboratories and eventual
99 standardization. This may be the reason why the ASTM C156 also suggests using mortar (instead
100 of concrete). However, to evaluate the actual impact of a curing method on the properties of a
101 specific concrete at site, it is imperative to conduct tests on that specific concrete and is a subject
102 of further study.

103 **2 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE**

104 **2.1 Materials**

105 Cement mortar was used in this study with a cement-to-sand ratio of 1 : 2.75 and a water-to-cement
106 ratio of 0.5. A water-to-cement ratio of 0.5 was chosen to avoid self-desiccation in cement paste.
107 It is well known that a w/c of 0.42 to 0.44 is needed for complete hydration of cement [30]. A w/c
108 less than that can lead to self desiccation of cement paste. In such case, the use of wet curing would
109 provide external water to the cement and help in cement hydration over and above what could be
110 possible with the mixed water. This gives an undue advantage to wet curing when the curing
111 efficiencies are evaluated over other methods where no such additional water is involved. To avoid
112 such biased comparison, a rounded value of 0.5 was chosen which is above the limiting value of
113 0.42 to 0.44. However, in practice the use of low w/c is becoming common and is also
114 recommended for strength as well as durability. In such cases, the use of curing compounds in
115 isolation might not give the best possible results.

116 Five curing compounds, procured from three manufacturers, were used in this study. The
 117 specifications of these curing compounds and the abbreviations that are used for them in this study
 118 are presented in Table 1. Out of the five curing compounds, the curing compounds WX-1 and WX-
 119 2 were wax emulsions; RW was a resin emulsion; and RS-1 and RS-2 were resin-based compounds
 120 in organic solvents.

121 **Table 1. Details of curing compounds**

Curing Compound	Generic Type	Classification as per ASTM C309		Solids content, % (non-volatile matter)
		Based on Colour	Based on Composition	
WX-1	Wax in Water (Wax Emulsion)	Type 2	Class A	6
WX-2	Wax in Water (Wax Emulsion)	Type 1-D	Class A	25
RW	Resin in Water (Resin Emulsion)	Type 2	Class B	37
RS-1	Acrylic Resin in Organic Solvent	Type 2	Class B	40
RS-2	Acrylic Resin in Organic Solvent (Aluminised)	Type 1	Class B	50

122
 123 As per the manufacturers' data sheets, the curing compounds that were used in this study
 124 conform to ASTM C309 (2011). The curing compounds WX-1, RW, and RS-1 formed a white
 125 membrane. On the other hand, the curing compound WX-2 was white initially, but formed a
 126 translucent film upon drying. The curing compound RS-2 was aluminized and was silver-grey in
 127 colour, but left a clear film on drying. Curing compounds were applied on mortar specimens at a
 128 rate of 5-6 m²/L (or 167-200 mL/m²) as recommended by the manufacturers and ASTM C309
 129 (2011). The solids content (non-volatile matter) of curing compounds was measured in the

130 laboratory. The curing compound was spread on a glass slide as per the recommended coverage
131 rate of 5 – 6 m²/l and was left for drying in air at 25 °C and 65 % RH for 24 hours. The solids
132 content is provided in Table 1. The solids content presented here represents the percentage mass
133 left after 24 hours of drying with respect to the initial mass of curing compound.

134 2.1.1 Curing methods

135 Broadly, four types of curing methods were adopted in this study: (1) air drying, (2) curing
136 compound, (3) 7 days of wet curing, and (4) continuous wet curing. Amongst the chosen curing
137 methods, air curing and continuous wet curing represent the extremities of curing quality. As the
138 most common practice on site is to adopt “7 days of wet curing”, so “7 days of wet curing” was
139 also studied. Under the method – curing compound, five types of curing compounds were used.
140 Two sets of specimens were cast for each curing method/curing compound. One set of specimens
141 was subjected the exposure conditions – (1) 25 °C, 65 % RH and the another to the exposure
142 conditions – (2) 45 °C, 55 % RH (refer Section 2.1.2 (see Figure 3)).

143 After casting, the moulded specimens were stored in a laboratory for 24 hours. The
144 temperature of the laboratory varied from 25 °C (minimum) to 35 °C (maximum) in 24 hours.
145 After 24 hours, the specimens were extracted from the moulds and each set of specimens were
146 then cured using one of the above mentioned curing methods. The following procedure was
147 followed for each curing method.

148 **1. Air drying (Air):** The specimens were stored directly in the environmental chambers after
149 demoulding.

150 **2. Curing compound (CC):** The cube specimens were cleaned with a cotton cloth to remove
151 laitance or loose material from the surface of the specimens before applying the curing
152 compound on them. The curing compound was applied on all the six face of the cubes using a

153 paint brush (size – 25 mm). The brush was saturated with curing compound before starting
154 the application to avoid the loss of curing compound through absorption by the paint brush.
155 The excess curing compound was also carefully removed from the brush prior to the
156 application. The surfaces were painted with curing compound in a horizontal position, as
157 uniformly as possible, without dripping the curing compound at the edges (Figure 1). After
158 drying of the curing compound layer on the last painted face, the cube was turned over and the
159 next face was painted. This procedure was followed for all the faces of the cube specimens.
160 The application rate was maintained in the range of 5 to 6 m²/L. Finally, the specimens were
161 transported to the environmental chambers. The cube surfaces painted with curing compounds
162 are shown in Figure 2.

163 **3. 7 days wet curing (7dW):** The specimens were kept immersed in saturated lime solution in a
164 closed container for 6 days after demoulding. They were taken out of the container at the age
165 of 7 days and were stored in air until tested. The specimens were stored in the appropriate
166 environmental chamber (one at 25 °C and another at 45 °C), both during and after the water
167 bath period.

168 **4. Continuous wet curing (Wet):** The specimens were kept immersed in saturated lime solution
169 in a closed container until they were tested. The specimens were stored in the appropriate
170 environmental chamber (one at 25 °C and another at 45 °C) throughout the curing period.

171

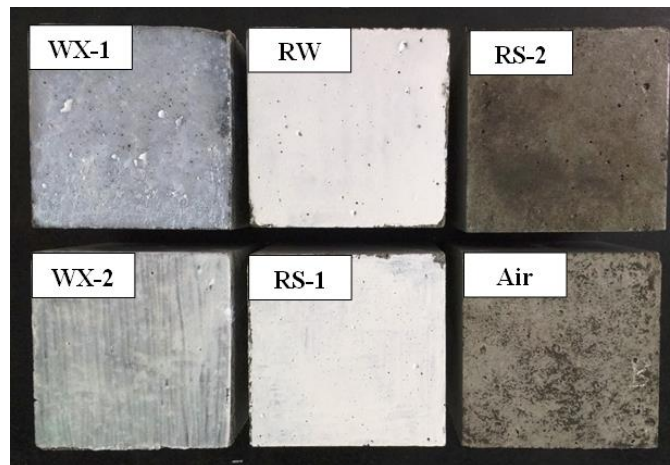


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173

174

Figure 1. Application of curing compound on the cube specimens



175

176

Figure 2. The cube specimens after the application of curing compounds

177 2.1.2 Exposure Conditions

178 Two types of exposure conditions were chosen for this study: (1) Temperature (T) of 25 ± 2 °C

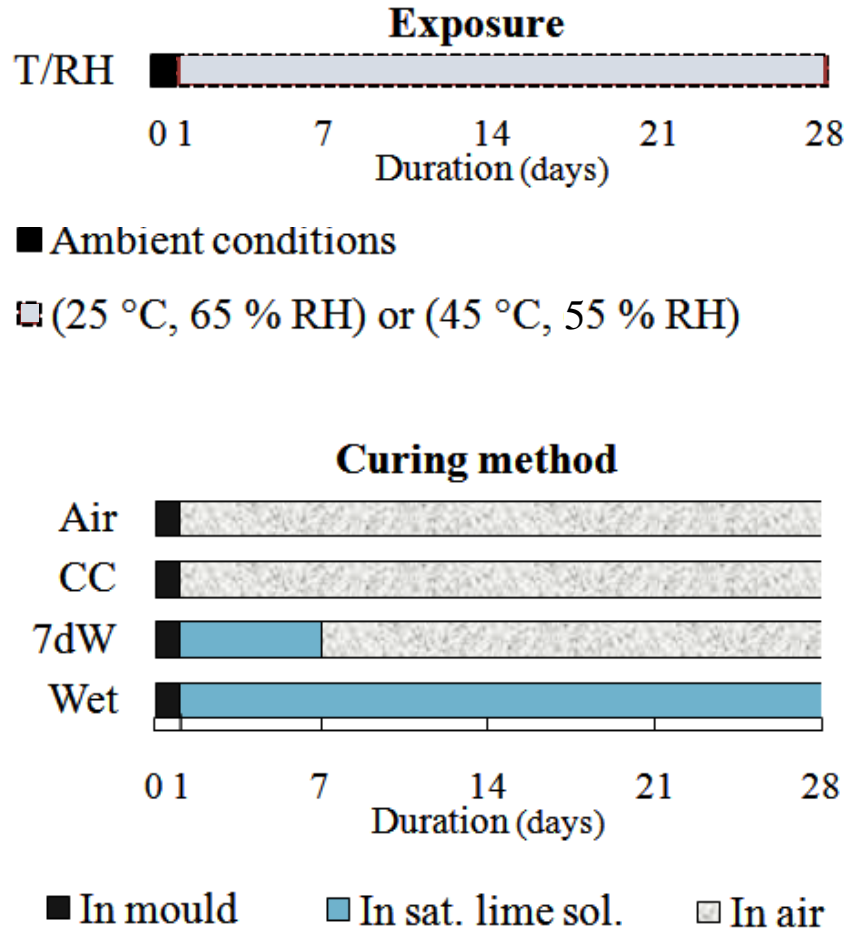
179 with relative humidity (RH) of 65 ± 10 % and (2) Temperature of 45 ± 2 °C with relative humidity

180 of 55 ± 15 %. The description of curing regimes with the imposed exposure conditions is presented

181 in Figure 3. The effects of wind and solar radiation were not included in this study. Environmental

182 chambers were used to maintain the mentioned controlled exposure conditions.

183



184

185

186

Figure 3. Exposure conditions for each curing regime

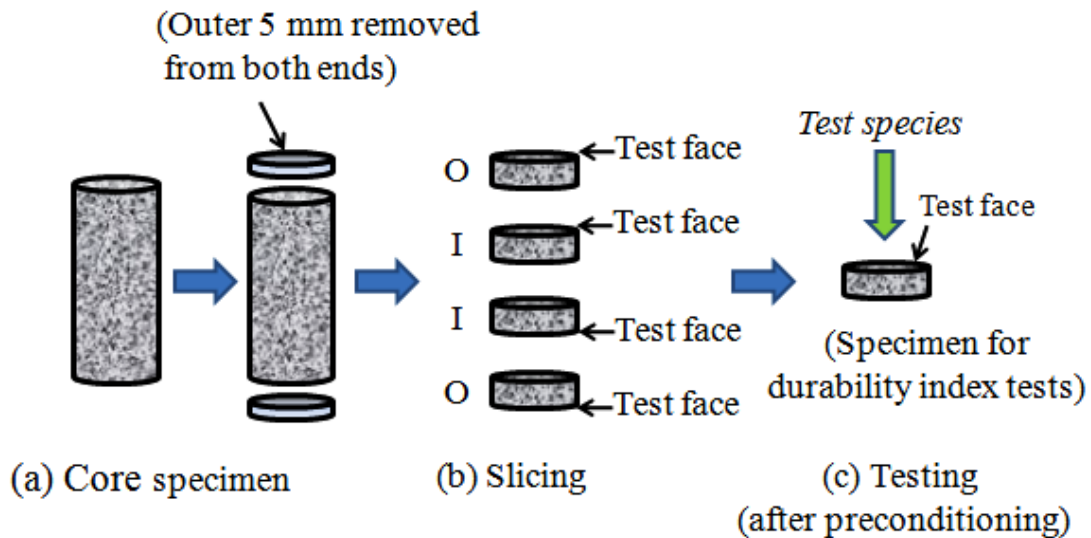
187 **2.2 Testing**

188 Compressive strength was evaluated on cube specimens of size 100 mm at the age of 3, 7, 14, and
 189 28 days. Each compressive strength result constitutes an average of three strength tests. Three
 190 durability index (DI) tests were adopted in this study, namely, Oxygen Permeability [31], Water
 191 Sorptivity [32], and Rapid Chloride Migration Test (RCMT) [33]. Apart from these tests,
 192 water-penetrable porosity was also measured using vacuum saturation technique [32]. In case of
 193 the above mentioned four tests, four specimen replicas were tested for each result.

194 2.2.1 Preparation of slice specimens for durability tests

195 Cubes of size 150 mm were cast for durability tests. After the age of 28 days, cores of 70-mm
196 diameter (or of 100-mm diameter for RCMT) were extracted from each of the cube specimens.
197 Cores from the cube specimens were used instead of standard cylinder specimens for RCMT to
198 avoid the variations introduced as a result of differences in the specimen geometry. This also
199 facilitates valid comparison between the results of different test methods for assessing the
200 effectiveness of the adopted curing methods. To minimize the effect of variations in the surface
201 finish on the curing efficiency, coring was performed in the direction that is perpendicular to that
202 of casting, i.e., across the moulded faces and thereby avoiding the cast face. In the field conditions,
203 this is applicable to the case of formed surfaces. Then, slices of 30 mm were extracted from 5 to
204 35 mm and 40 to 70 mm depths from either side of the cores. The outward surface of the slices
205 was carefully marked as the test surface after the slicing operation as shown in Figure 4.

206



207

208

209

Figure 4. Preparation of test specimens for durability tests

210 2.2.2 *Description of test methods*

211 *(a) Oxygen permeability test*

212 Slices of diameter 70-mm and thickness 30-mm were dried in an oven for 7 days at 50 °C. After
213 this preconditioning, the specimens were kept in a falling head permeameter as per the standard
214 [31] and an initial pressure of 100 ± 5 kPa of oxygen gas was applied on the test face of the
215 specimen. From the start time, the decay in pressure was recorded at an interval of 15 minutes for
216 a period of 6 hours or until the cumulative drop in pressure reached 50 ± 2.5 kPa, whichever
217 occurred first. The coefficient of permeability (K) was calculated from this data using D'arcy law.
218 A graph was plotted between $\ln\left(\frac{P}{P_0}\right)$ and t and using the slope of the best fit line of this curve and
219 Darcy's law, k was calculated. Finally, OPI was computed as the negative logarithm (common) of
220 the average of coefficients of permeability of at least 4 specimens as per Equation (1).

221

$$OPI = - \log_{10} \left[\frac{(k_1 + k_2 + k_3 + k_4)}{4} \right] \quad (1)$$

222

223

224 *(b) Water sorptivity test*

225 Water Sorptivity test was performed on the same specimens that were tested for OPI. Initially,
226 the dry mass of the specimen was recorded. Then, the specimen was placed on narrow plastic
227 supports with the test surface dipped into saturated lime solution up to a depth of 2 mm from
228 its surface. Mass of the specimen was recorded at 3, 5, 7, 9, 12, 16, 20, and 25 minutes from
229 the time it was placed in the lime solution. The submerged surface of the specimen was wiped
230 clean with a paper towel before weighing. After the completion of the test, the specimen was
231 saturated with lime solution using vacuum saturation method as described in next section to

232 measure its water absorption capacity. Finally, the sorptivity was calculated using Equation
233 (2).

234

$$S = \frac{\Delta M_t}{t^{1/2}} \cdot \frac{d}{(M_{sat} - M_{dry})} \quad (2)$$

235 where

S is the sorptivity in $\text{m/s}^{1/2}$

ΔM_t is the mass of water absorbed at time 't' in kg

t is the time in s

d is the specimen thickness in
m

M_{sat} is the saturated mass in kg

M_{dry} is the initial mass in kg

$\frac{\Delta M_t}{t^{1/2}}$ is the slope of best fit line for mass of water absorbed versus square root of time graph.

236

237 (c) *Water penetrable porosity test*

238 After being tested for oxygen permeability and water sorptivity, the 70-mm diameter and 30-mm
239 thick slices were kept in a vacuum desiccator. A vacuum of greater than 70 kPa was maintained in
240 the desiccators for about 3 hours. Then, the desiccator was filled with saturated calcium hydroxide
241 solution to submerge the specimens completely. Vacuum of greater than 70 kPa was maintained
242 for another hour. At the end of one hour, the pressure inside the desiccators was allowed to rise to
243 atmospheric pressure. The specimens were stored in the desiccator for another 18 hours in
244 submerged condition. Then, the specimens were taken out of the desiccator and their mass was
245 measured immediately (in saturated surface dry [SSD] condition). Using the dry mass, SSD mass,
246 and the dimensions of the specimen, the water-penetrable porosity was calculated.

247 (d) *Rapid chloride migration test*

248 Lime saturated specimens of diameter 100 mm and thickness 50 mm were used in this test.

249 A solution of 10 % NaCl (by mass) was used as the catholyte and a solution of 0.3 N NaOH was

250 used as the anolyte. The cathode and anode were made of stainless-steel mesh. To start the test, an
 251 initial potential of 30 V was applied across the specimen and the resulting current was measured.
 252 On the basis of the obtained value of the current, the final voltage was selected from NT Build 492
 253 (1999). Initial current was measured after applying the final voltage across the specimen.
 254 Temperature of the anolyte was also recorded. Final current and temperature were measured at the
 255 end of the test duration. Then, the specimens were extracted from the sleeves and were split into
 256 two halves in longitudinal direction. The split face was sprayed with 0.1 M silver nitrate solution
 257 which on reacting with chlorides forms a white precipitate of silver chloride. The depth of silver
 258 chloride from the incident face was measured at every 10 mm to obtain the penetration depth of
 259 chlorides (see Figure 4). However, the outer 10 mm at both the edges were not included in this
 260 measurement to avoid edge effects.

261 Non-steady-state migration coefficient (D_{nssm}) was calculated using the following
 262 simplified equation (Equation (3)).

$$D_{nssm} = \frac{0.0239 (273 + T)L}{(U - 2)t} \left(x_d - 0.0238 \sqrt{\frac{(273 + T)Lx_d}{(U - 2)}} \right) \quad (4)$$

264

265 where

266 D_{nssm} is non-steady-state migration coefficient in 10^{-12} m²/s

267 T is average temperature of anolyte during the test in °C

268 L is specimen thickness in mm

269 U is applied potential in V

270 t is time in h

271 x_d is average penetration depth of chlorides in mm

272 **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

273 **3.1 Compressive Strength**

274 Table 2 presents the compressive strength of mortar specimens up to 28 days under each curing
275 regime at both the temperatures. For the ease of comparison and interpretation, the *relative*
276 *strength* is defined as the percentage compressive strength achieved under each curing regime with
277 respect to the compressive strength of continuously wet-cured specimens at the same age. This
278 *relative strength* for various cases is presented in Figure 5. Compressive strength results for the
279 exposure conditions of 25 °C and 65 % RH suggests that the influence of the quality of curing is
280 apparent throughout the exposure period from as early as 3 days to the later age of 28 days.
281 However, the distinction between the performances of curing methods is clearer from the age of
282 14 days onwards.

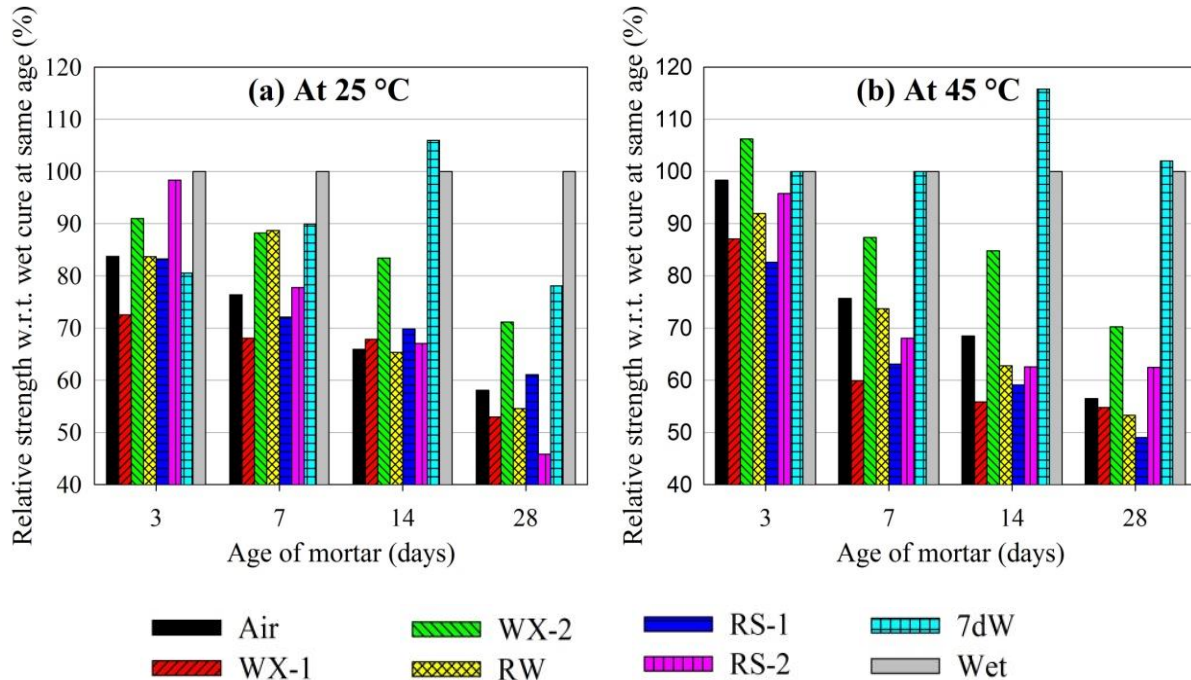
283 At 25 °C and 65 % RH, wet curing (Wet) leads to the highest compressive strength at
284 28 days as expected (Figure 5 (a)). The loss in compressive strength due to deficient curing,
285 throughout the period of 28 days, is prominently visible in the case of air drying (Air). On the other
286 hand, curing compound WX-2 results in a relative compressive strength of 71 % with respect to
287 that of wet-cured specimens at 28 days, which is only about 7 % less than that of 7-day wet curing.
288 However, none of the other curing compounds leads to any significant improvement over air
289 curing. In the case of curing compounds, the rate of gain of compressive strength reduces
290 substantially after 3 days, suggesting the unavailability of sufficient water in the pores for
291 hydration to progress.

292

Table 2. Compressive strength of mortar cube specimens (in MPa)

Curing method	Exposure: 25 °C / 65 % RH				Exposure: 45 °C / 55 % RH			
	Age (days)				Age (days)			
	3	7	14	28	3	7	14	28
Air	15.8 (1.2)	21.7 (2.0)	23 (0.2)	26.4 (4.0)	22.1 (0.8)	26.5 (1.3)	27.1 (1.8)	23.9 (1.3)
WX-1	13.7 (0.9)	19.4 (1.2)	23.6 (0.6)	24.0 (0.4)	19.6 (1.0)	21.0 (1.2)	22.1 (1.2)	23.2 (0.5)
WX-2	17.2 (1)	25.1 (0.8)	29.1 (1.2)	32.3 (0.1)	23.9 (2)	30.6 (0.7)	33.5 (1)	29.8 (0.3)
RW	15.8 (1.6)	25.2 (5.6)	22.8 (2.2)	24.8 (1.4)	20.7 (0.2)	25.8 (5.5)	24.8 (4.6)	22.6 (1.4)
RS-1	15.7 (0.8)	20.5 (4.1)	24.4 (0.4)	27.7 (0.6)	18.6 (0.9)	22.1 (1.8)	23.4 (0.3)	20.8 (1.4)
RS-2	18 (0.4)	22 (1.4)	25.8 (2.2)	29.2 (1.7)	21.5 (0.8)	23.9 (0.4)	24.8 (2.3)	26.5 (0.3)
7dW	15.2 (0.7)	25.6 (0.5)	36.9 (2.5)	35.5 (1.9)	22.5 (0.7)	35.0 (3.4)	45.8 (1.8)	43.2 (4.4)
Wet	18.9 (1.3)	28.4 (1.5)	34.9 (0.8)	45.4 (1.9)	22.5 (0.7)	35.0 (3.4)	39.6 (1.4)	42.4 (2)

Note: Values in the parentheses represent standard deviation



296

297 **Figure 5. Percentage compressive strength of mortar cured under different curing regimes**
 298 **relative to the strength of the continuously wet-cured mortar at same temperature and age**
 299

300 The exposure to a high ambient temperature of 45 °C results in a higher rate of strength
 301 gain compared to at the temperature of 25 °C. Consequently, higher strength is achieved during
 302 the early ages, i.e., 3 to 14 days, as compared to the standard laboratory exposure for all the curing
 303 methods. However, this trend reverses subsequently before 28 days. Only in the case of 7-day wet
 304 curing, the 28 day-strength at 45 °C remains higher than that at 25 °C. At this temperature the
 305 effect of curing is not apparent at the age of 3 days; however, it is clear from 7 days onwards
 306 (Figure 5 (b)).

307 At 45 °C, the mortar cured with 28-day wet curing (Wet) and the mortar cured with 7-day
 308 wet curing achieve similar strengths at 28 days, which are higher than the strengths achieved under
 309 all the other curing methods. It must be noted that due to high rate of strength gain, both
 310 continuously wet-cured and 7-day wet-cured mortar, achieve more than 75 % of the 28-day
 311 strength by 7 days. Hence, the gain in strength afterwards is not substantial which explains the

312 similarity in their strengths at the age of 28 days. Moreover, the specimens for 7-day wet curing
313 and continuous wet curing at 45 °C were cast in the same batch, so the strength results up to the
314 age of 7 days are same for both the regimes. These results suggest that wet curing in the early ages
315 eliminates the need for prolonged curing periods in the case of high ambient temperatures.

316 The trend followed by compressive strength of 7-day wet cured specimens is such that it
317 exceeds the compressive strength of continuously wet cured specimens at the age of 14 days in
318 both the exposure regimes. Then, at the age of 28 days, the compressive strength of 7-day cured
319 specimens is either close to (for curing at 45 °C) or lower than (for curing at 25 °C) that of
320 continuously wet cured specimens. The observed higher strength of the 7-day wet cured specimens
321 than that of continuously wet cured specimens at the age of 14 days could be attributed to the
322 difference in moisture conditions of both types of specimens.

323 Drying has been shown to result in higher compressive strength in the literature[34,35].
324 Popovics[35] explained that concrete specimens soaked in water are likely to have a moisture
325 concentration gradient across the cross-section that results in swelling of the exterior “*wet*”
326 concrete. This swelling is restraint by the interior “*dry*” concrete resulting in a state of self-
327 equilibrating residual stress in the specimen. The wet exterior is subjected to biaxial compression
328 and the dry interior to biaxial tension. This state of residual stress in a wet specimen leads to a
329 reduction in the compressive strength of the specimen. The exact opposite occurs when the
330 specimens are allowed to dry, i.e., exterior will shrink due to drying and vice versa. Another
331 explanation proposed for this behavior is that drying reduces the interlayer spacing of the C-S-H
332 gel and hence increases the Van der Waal forces between the layers[34]. This increased interlayer
333 bonding leads to an increase in the compressive strength.

334 In the present case, drying of 7-day wet cured specimens from 7th day to 14th day in air
335 storage could have led to the compressive strength exceeding that of continuously wet cured
336 specimens at 14 days. However, later on, due to lack of sufficient water for further hydration, there
337 is no improvement in the strength of 7-day wet cured specimens between 14 and 28 days. On the
338 other hand, continuously wet cured specimens owing to availability of sufficient water keep
339 hydrating throughout and gain strength close to or more than 7-day wet cured specimens at the age
340 of 28 days.

341 In the case of curing compounds, as in the case of 25 °C, the rate of strength gain decreases
342 significantly after the age of 3 days at 45 °C also. Only the curing compound WX-2 results in an
343 improvement in strength, of about 13 %, over that achieved under air curing. However, while it
344 results in a loss in strength of less than 10 % at 25 °C with respect to 7-day wet curing, this loss
345 escalates to more than 30 % at 45 °C. Overall, it is apparent that the adopted curing compounds
346 result either in no or, at best, a meagre improvement in compressive strength over air curing.
347 Further, retrogression in strength was also observed after 14 days at 45 °C with air curing, 7-day
348 wet curing, and curing compounds WX-2, RW, and RS-1. This retrogression of strength could
349 have occurred due to differential drying shrinkage as a result of excessive loss of water from the
350 surface of mortar specimens.

351 **3.2 Transport Properties of Mortar in the Near-Surface Region**

352 *3.2.1 Water-Penetrable Porosity*

353 The porosity results are presented in Figure 6 (a). Air drying (Air) and wet curing lead to similar
354 porosities, when cured at 25 °C. The porosity of 7-day wet-cured mortar at this temperature also
355 lies very close to them. All the curing compounds result in higher porosity than air drying (Air).
356 This is contrary to the general expectations. However, a rise in the porosity values is seen, in

357 general, with the increase in the curing temperature from 25 °C to 45 °C as expected [36].
358 Decrement in the porosity is seen only in the case of 7-day wet curing at 45 °C. Otherwise, porosity
359 results at 45 °C follow a trend similar to that at 25 °C.

360 The possible reason behind the observed trends in the porosity results could be partial pore
361 filling. Wet cured specimens, owing to greater hydration, could have finer pores than the rest of
362 the specimens. Fine porosity of the wet cured specimens could lead to a greater depth of
363 penetration of water due to capillary suction than the rest of the specimens. Therefore, although
364 the total amount of porosity in the case of wet cured specimens might be lower, a greater depth of
365 coverage would lead to similar porosity result as other specimens. Similarly, the anomalous
366 porosity in the case of 7-day wet cured specimens at 45 °C could also be a result of partial pore
367 filling and may not represent the actual porosity.

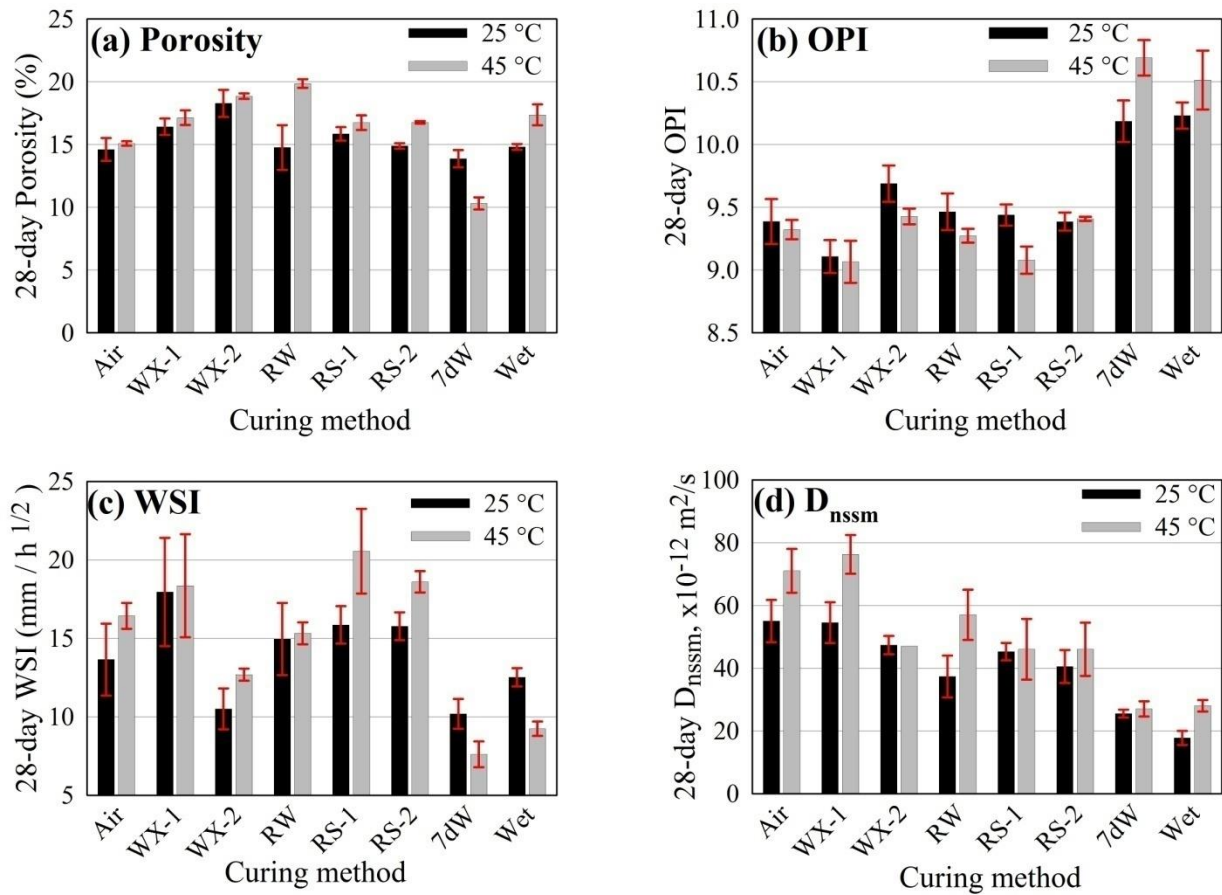
368 3.2.2 Oxygen Permeability Index (OPI - log scale)

369 Figure 6 (b) shows the OPI results. It must be emphasized here that a higher value of OPI indicates
370 superior performance and vice versa ($OPI = -\log K$, ' K ' is *Coefficient of permeability*). OPI results
371 at 25 °C indicate a large improvement in the OPI from 9.4 (Air) to 10.2 (Wet) with 28 days of wet
372 curing. 7-day wet curing results in a very similar OPI to wet curing. On the other hand, only the
373 curing compound WX-2 leads to a noticeable improvement — although not very substantial — in
374 OPI over air drying (Air) with an OPI of 9.7. OPI results of all the other curing compounds remain
375 close to or even worse (WX-1) than that of air drying (Air).

376 Increase in the curing temperature from 25 °C to 45 °C seems to improve OPI in the case
377 of wet curing (Wet and 7dW). However, it seems to reduce the OPI in the case of curing
378 compounds. In this case, none of the curing compounds leads to any improvement over air drying
379 (Air), including curing compound WX-2. It implies that curing compound WX-2 may help in

380 curing at 25 °C, but it may not be as effective at 45 °C. Furthermore, the superior performance of
 381 7-day wet-cured mortar suggests that even a mortar achieving a “poor” OPI under deficient curing
 382 can achieve a “very good” OPI with only 7 days of proper curing. This is based on the qualitative
 383 classification for the durability potential of concrete (OPI > 10 implies very good performance;
 384 OPI < 9.5 implies poor performance) [29].

385



386

387 **Figure 6. Effect of laboratory curing on the properties of near-surface mortar (outer slices)**
 388

389 **3.2.3 Water Sorptivity Index (WSI)**

390 Higher value of WSI is indicative of deeper penetration of water into mortar and thus an inferior
 391 performance. Therefore, WSI results, as shown in Figure 6 (c), in line with OPI results, also

392 suggest a superior performance by both the methods of wet curing over other curing methods.
393 However, certain differences between the trends followed by OPI and WSI results can be easily
394 noticed. First, 7-day wet curing exhibit better WSI than 28-day wet curing at both the temperatures.
395 Second, the curing compound WX-2 yields a WSI similar to 7-day wet curing, which is also better
396 than 28-day wet curing at 25 °C.

397 3.2.4 Non-Steady-State Migration Coefficient for Chloride Penetration (D_{nssm})

398 The effect of lab curing on D_{nssm} of OPC mortar is shown in Figure 6 (d). It should be noted that
399 larger value of D_{nssm} signifies inferior performance of mortar. From Figure 6 (d), it is apparent that
400 D_{nssm} increases significantly in the absence of wet curing. 28-day wet curing results in the lowest
401 value of D_{nssm} at 25 °C, followed by 7-day wet curing. Curing compounds lead to improvement
402 over air curing at 25 °C, although that is only a minor improvement. Increase in curing temperature
403 seems to degrade the performance of OPC mortar to resist chloride penetration, in general. At 45
404 °C, 28-day wet curing and 7-day wet curing both result in similar D_{nssm} . All the curing compounds
405 except WX-1 result in superior D_{nssm} than that of air curing.

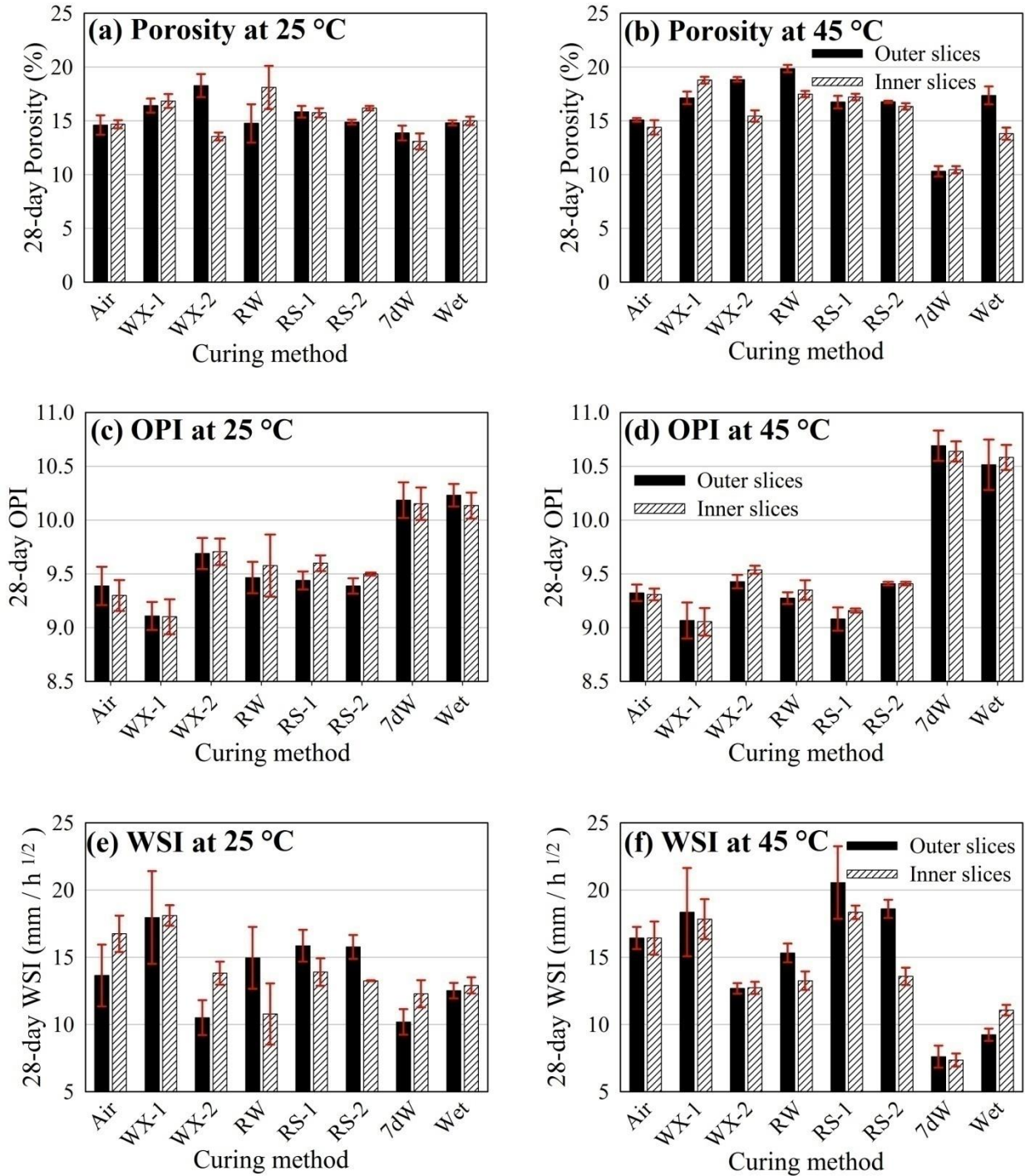
406 Migration results differ with OPI and WSI results in certain aspects. First, curing
407 compounds, in general, lead to better D_{nssm} than air drying (Air) at both the temperatures as
408 opposed to their OPI and WSI, which were similar to or worse than those of air-dried (Air) mortar.
409 Second, curing compound WX-2 does not stand out well in migration results, compared to what is
410 seen from other test results. Finally, the increase in curing temperature seems to reduce the
411 performance of all the curing methods in migration results uniformly; however, in OPI and WSI
412 results, wet curing and the rest of the curing methods exhibit opposite trends.

413 It is interesting to note that in case of wax-based curing compounds, the difference in the
414 solids content of the two curing compounds seems to have influenced their efficiency (Table 1).

415 However, the resin-based curing compounds, despite having higher solids content, could not
416 demonstrate better performance than WX-2. In short, it appears that the solids content alone
417 cannot be used as a performance-deciding factor.

418 **3.3 Transport Properties of Mortar in the Inner Region**

419 Figure 7 shows the effect of curing on the porosity, OPI, and WSI of the inner mortar compared
420 to the near-surface mortar.



421

422

Figure 7. Effect of laboratory curing on properties of the near-surface and inner mortar (outer and inner slices) at 25 °C and 45 °C

423

424

425

It can be inferred from the results that the inner slices do not show any significant

426

improvement in performance as compared to the outer slices in any of the cases. While this was

427 expected of wet-cured specimens owing to the availability of sufficient water to both outer and
428 inner slices, some improvement in the quality of mortar with depth was expected in other cases.
429 However, it is well known that high surface-area-to-volume ratio of the cube specimens can lead
430 to high rate of water-loss from the surface. Owing to the high initial porosity of mortar, moisture
431 from the core may rise towards the surface easily to maintain a uniform hygral state throughout
432 the specimen. In this way, the continuous loss of water from the surface would have eventually led
433 to depletion of moisture from the core of the specimen at early ages, leading to similar degrees of
434 hydration and therefore, similar results for near-surface and inner mortar.

435 **3.4 Sensitivities of Test Methods to Detect Differences in the Effectiveness of Curing**

436 **Methods**

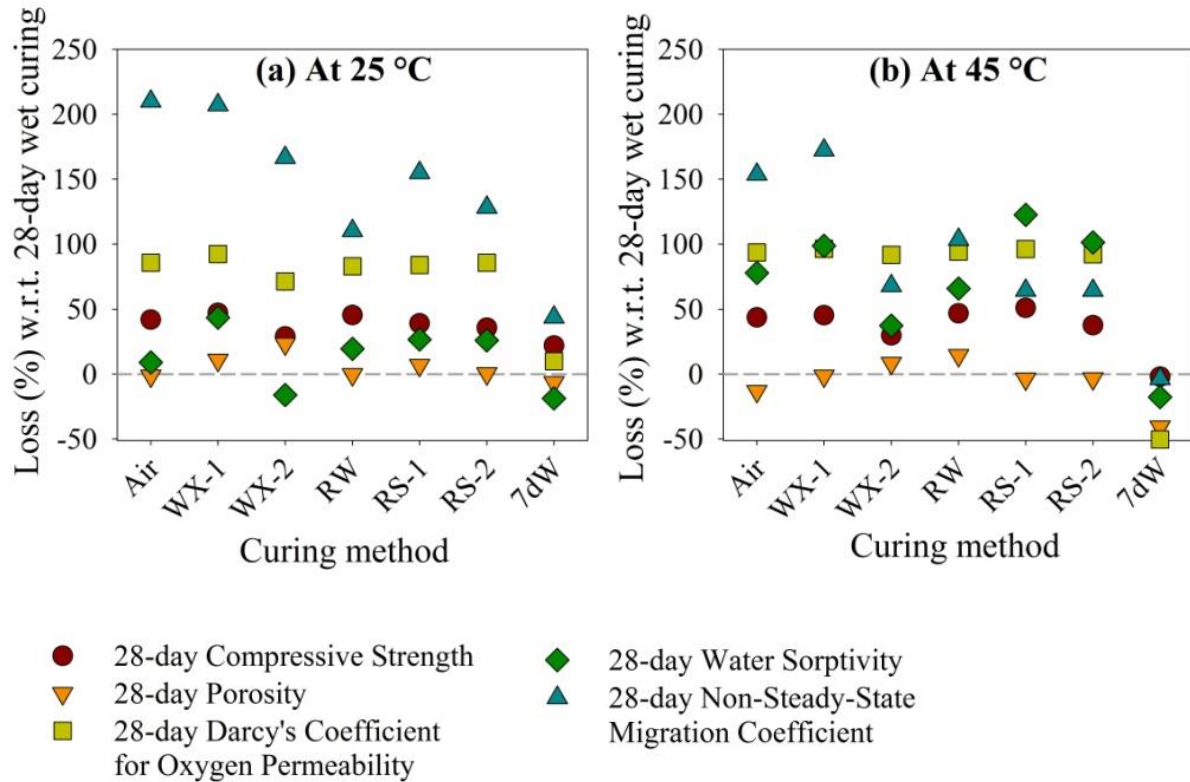
437 To facilitate comparison between the results of test methods used in this study, all the 28-day
438 results are presented in terms of percentage decrement/loss in the test parameters with respect to
439 the results of 28-day wet cured mortar in Figure 8.

440 In general, Darcy's coefficient of permeability (from OPI test), WSI, and compressive
441 strength follow trends similar to each other at both the temperatures. Contrary to this, non-steady-
442 state migration coefficient shows distinctly different behaviour in certain cases. For example, the
443 curing compound RW at 25 °C and the curing compounds RS-1 and RS-2 at 25 and 45 °C result
444 in lower loss in the performance than curing compound WX-2. Moreover, porosity does not seem
445 to show significant variations with the change in curing methods.

446 Compressive strength exhibits a maximum variation of 20 to 40 % at 25 and 45 °C
447 respectively due to change in curing method. On the other hand, Oxygen permeability shows a
448 variation of 76 and 166 % at 25 and 45 °C respectively. Similarly, migration coefficient exhibits a
449 variation of 112 % and 158 % at the two temperatures. On the other hand, WSI exhibits a variation

450 of mere 28 % at 25 ° C compared to a variation of 96 % at 45 °C. Both WSI and migration
 451 coefficient also demonstrate large variability in the results.

452



453

454

455 **Figure 8. Percentage loss in 28-day index values/properties for various curing methods**
 456 **relative to those of 28-day wet curing**

457

458 In conclusion, OPI seems to give clear indication of large variations in the quality of curing
 459 with high degree of reliability. This is in agreement with the literature [37]. On the other hand,
 460 WSI results show the intermediate variations with much more prominence, which in some cases
 461 can lead to exaggerated view of the apparent performance. Chloride migration coefficient seems
 462 to identify large differences in the quality of curing with high sensitivity; however, high variability
 463 observed in the data could limit its use for the intermediate cases. Further, water penetrable
 464 porosity shows very low sensitivity to curing.

465 **4 CONCLUSIONS AND LIMITATIONS**

466 An experimental program was followed to evaluate the influence of various curing methods on the
467 strength and durability characteristics of OPC mortar (with w/c of 0.5) at 25 and 45 °C exposure
468 temperature. The curing methods that were adopted in this study included five curing compounds,
469 two durations of wet curing (i.e., 7 and 28 days), and air drying. The two exposure conditions
470 (i) 25 °C at 65 % RH and (ii) 45 °C at 55 % RH were used. The performance of curing compounds
471 was evaluated using compressive strength, porosity, oxygen permeability index (OPI), water
472 sorptivity index (WSI), and non-steady-state migration coefficient (D_{nssm}) for chloride penetration.
473 The following conclusions are drawn from this study.

474 **4.1 Performance of curing compounds with respect to conventional curing methods**

475 One wax-based curing compound exhibit better performance than air curing. The other wax-based
476 and three resin-based compounds exhibit very poor performance to the extent that performance of
477 these four compounds could not be even differentiated from that of air drying (no curing). Both
478 strength and durability performance depreciate immensely in the absence of wet curing. Wet
479 curing, until the age of 7 days, seems to be more than satisfactory in achieving the potential of
480 OPC mortar, which should translate to OPC concretes as well. The increase in the curing
481 temperature from 25 to 45 °C, in general, seems to downgrade both the transport characteristics
482 and compressive strength as expected. However, in the case of 7-day wet curing and
483 continuous-wet curing, perhaps due to a greater degree of hydration during the first 7 days at 45 °C
484 compared to that at 25 °C, this trend seems to reverse for most of the characteristics.

485 **4.2 Sensitivity of test methods to curing**

486 A comparison of all the test results indicates the durability parameters have greater ‘sensitivity to
487 curing’ than the compressive strength. In particular, OPI test exhibits high sensitivity and generate

488 consistent results with low variability; hence, can be recommended as a qualifying test for curing
489 compounds.. Although WSI and D_{nssm} also demonstrate high percentage changes in the results
490 with the changes in curing quality in some cases, the lack of consistency and large variations in
491 the results reduce their overall reliability. On the other hand, the total porosity test completely
492 fails to detect changes in the curing quality. Also, the observed subtle differences in the trends of
493 different durability tests indicate that curing may affect the transport properties to different degrees
494 and in different ways. The influence of curing with depth could not be detected possibly because
495 of the high surface-to-volume ratio and large initial porosity of the mortar specimens. These
496 conclusions are drawn from studies under laboratory controlled conditions. Similar studies on
497 field-cured specimens should be conducted, which would further help in developing guidelines for
498 the selection of curing compounds.

499

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