Instantaneous *In-Situ* Determination of Water-Cement Ratio of Fresh Concrete

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Authors
Mancio, Mauricio
Moore, Jeffrey R.
Brooks, Zenzile
[et al.]

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INSTANTANEOUS IN-SITU DETERMINATION OF WATER-CEMENT RATIO OF FRESH CONCRETE

Mauricio Mancio, Jeffrey R. Moore, Zenzile Brooks, Paulo J. M. Monteiro, Steven D. Glaser

Mauricio Mancio is a postdoctoral scholar in the Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering at the University of California, Berkeley, where he received his Ph.D. His research interests include environmentally-friendly cements, high-performance concrete mix design, corrosion of reinforcing steel in concrete structures, and nondestructive testing methods.

Jeffrey R. Moore is a postdoctoral researcher in the Geological Institute at the Swiss Federal Technology Institute (ETH) in Zürich, Switzerland. He received his Ph.D. in Civil and Environmental Engineering from the University of California, Berkeley. His research interests include passive electrical monitoring of fluid flow, experimental rock physics, and alpine geomorphology.

Zenzile Brooks is currently a graduate student in the Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. She received her BS degree in Civil Engineering from the University of Southern California and was previously a researcher at University of California, Berkeley's College of Engineering SUPERB Program. Her research interests include micromechanics of geomaterials.

ACI member Paulo J. M. Monteiro is the Roy W. Carlson Distinguished Professor in the Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering at the University of California, Berkeley, where he received his Ph.D. His research interests include mathematical modeling, microstructure of concrete, and testing methods.

Steven D. Glaser is a Professor in the Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering at the University of California at Berkeley. He received his PhD from The University of Texas at Austin. His interests include nanoseismic investigation of fundamental mechanics, multi-scale geophysics, wireless sensor networks, biomechanics, and rock physics.

ABSTRACT

The water-to-cement (w/c) ratio is one of the most important parameters determining the quality of cement-based materials. Currently, there is no practical way to accurately determine this ratio after all the ingredients of concrete have been mixed, posing a significant quality control problem for the construction industry. A new method has been developed to address this challenge whereby an electrical resistivity probe is immersed in fresh concrete, providing an instantaneous and accurate measure of a concrete’s water-to-cement ratio. Experiments were conducted on eight concrete mixtures designed according to the ACI 211.1 procedure, with varying w/c ratios (0.30, 0.40, 0.50, and 0.60) and fly ash percentages (0% and 25%). The results demonstrate a strong direct correlation between the resistivity of fresh concrete and the water-to-cement ratio. Average w/c ratio estimates based on measurements using the resistivity probe were within ±0.01 of the actual values for all mixtures tested.

Keywords: durability; electrical resistivity; fresh concrete; nondestructive testing; quality assurance; quality control; strength; water-to-cement ratio.
INTRODUCTION

Instantaneous, *in-situ* measurement of the water-to-cement (w/c) ratio of fresh concrete is an unresolved challenge that has motivated engineers and researchers for several decades. A number of studies have explored various methods for determining the w/c ratio of concrete. The U.S. Army Construction Engineering Research Laboratory, for example, developed a technique based on chloride and calcium titration to determine, respectively, the water and cement contents of fresh concrete [1]. Popovics and Popovics (1998) explored applying ultrasonic pulses to both fresh and rapidly solidified concrete [2]. Other strategies have included separating the components of concrete: Bavelja (1970) developed a pressure-filter method of separating water from cement; Nägele and Hilsdorf (1980) attempted to separate cement by flotation; and Hime and Willis (1955) tried to separate cement using a centrifuge [1, 3-5]. The Kansas Department of Transportation (1994) continued Bavelja’s work in pressure-sieving fresh concrete by using a turbidimeter to correlate the turbidity of the remaining solution to the w/c ratio [6]. The National Cooperative Highway Research Council (NCHRP) investigated applying solvents to determine w/c ratio and developed an acetone moisture content method [Hime, 1990]. The NCHRP also investigated the use of a specific ion electrode (bromide) to identify the presence of some common ions from cement [7], but the results were not promising.

A nuclear gage method developed in 1993 by Troxler Electronic Laboratories provided accurate results; however, only trained professionals can operate the nuclear device, which has limited the method’s acceptance and widespread use [1, 8, 9]. In the microwave method, perhaps one of the most practical methods developed thus far, a sample of fresh concrete is weighed and then heated in a microwave oven to evaporate the water. The weight difference between the dry and wet samples, when combined with the cement proportion from the mix design, yields the water percentage and the w/c ratio [7, 10, 11]. The microwave test is a
relatively simple method, however, with limited application. It only measures the water content, takes between 15-30 minutes to dry a concrete sample, and safety concerns regarding the presence of metal in some aggregates remain an issue [12].

Despite many innovative attempts to measure the w/c ratio of fresh concrete, experts have failed to agree on a single, simple and efficient method that can provide instantaneous and accurate results. Currently, none of the methods listed has gained widespread acceptance for use in field conditions, and the slump flow remains the most commonly specified test to evaluate the quality and determine acceptance of fresh concrete at a building site.

Electrical resistivity and water-to-cement ratio of wet mixtures

There have been two significant efforts to describe the w/c ratio of fresh cement paste and concrete mixtures from electrical resistivity measurements [9, 13]. Wei and Li [13] studied the early hydration process of Portland cement pastes using resistivity measurements conducted in a non-contacting device [14]. In their setup, cement paste was cast into a ring-shaped mold with a rectangular cross section, and an electrical current flow was induced in the specimen by an external transformer. Li’s group characterized the bulk electrical resistivity of fresh cement pastes mixed with different w/c ratios, as well as the electrical resistivity of pore solutions extracted from the cement pastes by vacuum filtering. Based on their results, Wei and Li [13] suggested that electrical resistivity measurements can be used to determine the w/c ratio of fresh cement pastes; however, no experiments with concrete or mortar were performed. Their study provides valuable insight into the mechanisms of cement hydration, particularly regarding the dissolution of ions into solution and their relationship to electrical resistivity; however, the results have limited applicability when the electrical resistivity of concrete is considered.

Although cement paste (cement plus water) is an essential component of concrete, concrete is a composite material that necessarily includes aggregates (typically fine and coarse) and often
mineral and/or chemical admixtures. Cement paste and concrete have markedly different properties and behavior, both in the fresh (wet) and hardened states, primarily due to the presence of aggregates in concrete. According to Archie’s law, the bulk electrical resistivity of porous media is a function of two parameters: (1) resistivity of the pore fluid; and (2) porosity [15, 16]:

\[
\rho_b = \frac{\rho_f}{a \phi^m}
\]

where \(\rho_b\) = bulk electrical resistivity, \(\rho_f\) = resistivity of the pore fluid, \(\phi\) = porosity (by volume), and \(a\) and \(m\) are empirical constants. In fresh cement pastes (a solution-saturated porous media), porosity (or water content) varies significantly with the w/c ratio and has a strong influence on the bulk resistivity. In fresh concrete, as discussed in more detail below, fresh mixtures with different w/c ratios may have very similar “porosities” or overall water content [17]. In fact, according to ACI’s standard concrete mix-proportioning procedure (ACI 211.1), for a given aggregate size and consistency (slump), different concrete mixes can have essentially the same overall water content (in lb/yd\(^3\) [kg/m\(^3\)]) independent of the w/c ratio, which is chosen based on the desired compressive strength [18, 24]. MacDonald and Northwood [9] attempted to characterize the relationship between the w/c ratio and electrical resistivity of fresh concrete. Samples for resistivity testing were prepared by sieving wet concrete through a #4 (4.75mm) screen, and resistivity measurements were conducted on the mortar fraction of concrete. After sieving, the wet mortar samples were cast into cylindrical molds and placed in a bench-top measuring circuit. Even though the aggregate size was kept constant in all mixes tested, the consistency (and consequently the water content) of the different mixes varied significantly. Careful analysis of their results reveals that the variation of electrical resistivity observed was primarily caused by changes in
porosity (which is approximately equal to water content in the fresh state), and not changes in the concrete’s w/c ratio. Note that in construction practice, the slump of concrete (a measure of consistency) is specified based on the type of construction and the slump range is typically fixed for a given job [18]. The study by MacDonald and Northwood [9] also included an exploration of the diffusivity of chloride ions in concrete, and the authors ultimately concluded that it is possible to estimate the diffusivity of hardened concrete by measuring its resistivity. The researchers did not recommend electrical resistivity measurements as a means for estimating the w/c ratio of fresh concrete and noted that additional work would be required to develop a field procedure.

RESEARCH SIGNIFICANCE

Potential quality problems of a given concrete batch can usually be detected only after the material has hardened in the structure, when compressive strength experiments are performed. Remediation costs – including material, safety, labor, and time delays – can be substantial. Considering that existing methods for determining the w/c ratio of fresh concrete are cumbersome and often unreliable [19], new user-friendly and accurate techniques should be investigated. The objective of this research is to devise an efficient method and instrument to instantaneously determine the w/c ratio of fresh concrete in the field.

EXPERIMENTAL INVESTIGATION

Experimental setup

An electrical resistivity measuring device was designed and constructed for this project. The apparatus is based on a four-electrode probe using a Wenner array, a well-established electrode array typically used in exploration geophysics. The probe consists of four stainless-steel electrodes separated at a distance of 2.5cm [1 in.] by a non-conductive plastic body (Figure 1).
The laboratory testing system consists of a power supply, a resistor of known resistance ($R_o = 1160 \, \Omega$), and the resistivity probe that is connected in series (Figure 2). The two outer electrodes of the probe are connected to the circuit, and the power supply drives an AC current with a 1.5 V, 1 kHz sinusoidal wave. In this study, a bench-top power supply was used; however, a battery-operated handheld function generator could easily be substituted in a field instrument. The user submerges the probe into a fresh concrete sample and a current flows through the material. As shown in Figure 2, voltmeters connected in parallel with both the known resistor and the inner electrodes display the corresponding voltage drops across these elements ($V_o$ and $V_c$).

The current $I_o$ passing through the circuit is given by $V_o/R_o$, and the electrical resistance of the concrete sample ($R_c$) is equal to $V_c/I_o$. The electrical resistivity of the concrete ($\rho_c$), a material property independent of sample geometry, is given by $\rho_c = k R_c$, where $k$ is the geometric factor (a parameter determined by the geometry of the probe used). As described later in more detail, the geometric factor for this resistivity probe immersed in solution has been analytically determined as $k = 4\pi a$, where $a$ is the spacing between electrodes. Experimental verification of the calculated geometric factor was also carried out. To experimentally determine the value of this constant, the probe was submerged in aqueous solutions of known resistivities ($\rho_s \approx 1 \, \Omega\cdot\text{m}, 5 \, \Omega\cdot\text{m}, \text{and} 10 \, \Omega\cdot\text{m}$), and the expression $k = \rho_s/R_s$ was used to obtain the geometric factor. In this equation, $R_s$ is given by $V_s/I_o$, i.e., the potential measured across the two inner electrodes divided by the current driven through the circuit.

**Relationship between w/c ratio and electrical resistivity of fresh concrete**

In order to investigate the relationship between electrical resistivity and the w/c ratio of fresh concrete, eight samples with varying w/c ratios (0.30, 0.40, 0.50, and 0.60) and fly-ash percentages (0% and 25% of Type I/II cement replaced with Class F fly-ash) were prepared according to the ACI 211.1 mix design procedure [18]. Details of the concrete mixtures are
presented in Table 1. Note that because water content is a function of the desired workability and aggregate characteristics, concretes with the same slump but different w/c ratios typically have similar water content per unit volume. Based on the ACI procedure, a non-air-entrained concrete with maximum aggregate size of ½ in. [12.5 mm] and 3-4 in. [75-100 mm] slump, as used in this research, will have a mixing water content of about 365 lb/yd$^3$ [216 kg/m$^3$] [18]. To avoid possible variations because of changes in tap-water resistivity, the initial resistivity of the mixing water was measured and kept constant at 80 Ω-m. Immediately after mixing, a portion of each concrete was poured into a 15 cm x 30 cm [6 in x 12 in] plastic cylinder to hold the sample as resistivity measurements were conducted over time. Standard for all measurements, the probe was vertically immersed in concrete and centrally-located within the plastic cylinder. Resistivity was measured at 10-minute intervals for about 2 hours, before initial setting of cement.

**ANALYTICAL INVESTIGATION**

**Theoretical determination of the geometric factor ($k$)**

The geometric factor for a Wenner electrode array in a homogeneous half space (as used in exploration geophysics and surface measurements in general) is known to be equal to $2\pi a$ [16, 20]. In our application, however, the resistivity probe is completely immersed in the surrounding medium. As current flows through the circuit and the concrete from electrode A to B (see Figure 2b), electrode A can be thought of as a point source of current in a spherical whole space, as illustrated in Figure 3. The current $I$ flowing through this sphere can be expressed as

$$I = J \cdot 4\pi r^2$$

(2)

where $J$ is current density and $4\pi r^2$ is the surface area of the spherical whole space. Because electrical conductivity ($\sigma = 1/\rho$) is defined as the ratio between current density ($J$) and
electric field \((E)\), and considering that the electric field at a point is equal to the negative gradient of the electric potential \((\phi)\), the expression above can be rewritten as

\[
I = \sigma E \cdot 4\pi r^2 = \sigma \cdot (-\nabla \phi) \cdot 4\pi r^2 \tag{3}
\]

In this equation, \(\phi\) is a scalar quantity representing the electric potential at a single point. Expressing the electric potential gradient in spherical coordinates \((\nabla \phi = d\phi/dr)\) and integrating the resulting expression, the electric potential at a point on the spherical surface \((\phi)\) can be expressed as a function of the current \((I)\), resistivity \((\rho)\), and radius of the whole space \((r)\):

\[
\phi = \frac{I}{\sigma \cdot 4\pi r} + C = \frac{I \cdot \rho}{4\pi r} + C \tag{4}
\]

Electric potential cannot be measured at a single point, but only as the difference between two points. For the resistivity probe used in this study (Figure 2b), the electric potential at each of the two inner electrodes (M and N) is a function of the current flowing from the two outer electrodes (A and B). As schematically represented in Figure 4, the potential at electrode M, for example, is given by the difference between potentials of the two outer electrodes (A and B), located at distances \(a\) and \(2a\), respectively from M. The potential at electrode M \((\phi_M)\) is then given by

\[
\phi_M = \frac{I_A \rho}{4\pi a} - \frac{I_B \rho}{4\pi(2a)} \tag{5}
\]

Similarly, the potential at electrode N is

\[
\phi_N = \frac{I_A \rho}{4\pi(2a)} - \frac{I_B \rho}{4\pi(a)} \tag{6}
\]

Considering that the current flowing through electrode A is the same as through electrode B \((I_A = I_B = I)\), subtracting the two potentials \((\phi_M - \phi_N)\) yields the potential measured across the two inner electrodes \((V)\):
\[ V = \frac{I \cdot \rho}{4\pi a} \] (7)

Solving this expression for resistivity (\( \rho \)), we find

\[ \rho = \frac{V}{I} (4\pi a) = R \cdot k \] (8)

Where \( k = 4\pi a \) is the probe’s geometric factor.

Therefore, knowing the electrode spacing (\( a \)) and the electric current (\( I \)) injected through the probe, the resistivity of the material can be directly obtained by simply measuring the voltage across the two inner electrodes. A resistivity reading can be obtained in as little as a few milliseconds, an instantaneous determination for all practical purposes.

As described in the next section, the calculated geometric factor \( k \) for our probe, which equals 0.319 (\( a = 1 \text{ in.} = 0.0254 \text{ m} \)), was very similar to the experimental value (less than 2.5% difference).

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Experimental determination of the geometric factor (k)**

The empirical determination of the probe’s geometric factor was based on eighteen measurements conducted with aqueous solutions of low, medium, and high electrical resistivity (see Table 2). The average measured value for \( k \) was 0.327, which is only 2.5% higher than the theoretical value calculated above. This small error may be attributed to inaccuracies in resistivity measurements and the fact that point-sources of current were assumed in the theoretical calculation.

Both calibration and concrete resistivity measurements were obtained by vertically embedding the probe in the center of the sample, which was the standard 15 cm x 30 cm [6 in x 12 in] plastic cylinders typically used for compressive strength testing. Measurements
taken off-center and close to the cylinder wall are influenced by the difference in
conductivities between the concrete and the plastic container and should be avoided.

It is worth noting the geometric factor \( (k) \) is a constant that depends solely on the geometry of
the resistivity apparatus, and needs to be determined only once, at the product development
stage.

6  Relationship between w/c ratio and electrical resistivity of fresh concrete

Resistivity measurements were made at 10-minute intervals for each of the eight different
samples during the first two hours after mixing. Two measurements were made at each time
interval, and average values for each mix were calculated including all readings made during
the testing period. All measurements were made using the probe apparatus described above.

Tables 3 and 4 present the average resistivity values measured as a function of w/c ratio for
each of the mixes, while Figures 5 and 6 illustrate the relationship between the w/c ratio and
electrical resistivity of fresh concrete. As expected, the electrical resistivity of fresh concrete
increased with increasing w/c ratio (quite differently than occurs with hardened concrete). At
a lower w/c ratio, the lower electrical resistivity (or higher conductivity) can be explained by
a greater overall concentration of ions in solution, while for a higher w/c ratio, the increased
resistivity can be attributed to a less concentrated pore solution. In fact, as Wei and Li [13]
have shown, the electrical resistivity of the pore solution increases with the w/c ratio\(^1\). While
some species with relatively low solubility (such as calcium hydroxide and gypsum) may
quickly reach saturation for the whole range of w/c ratios tested, other compounds (e.g.,
potassium and sodium hydroxides) are highly soluble and will remain dissolved in different

\(^1\) Note that cement paste and concrete are significantly and inherently different materials, particularly when it
comes to the effect of w/c ratio on their bulk electrical resistivity in the fresh state. The direct relationship
between electrical resistivity and w/c ratio, observed for fresh concrete with a given consistency and for the pore
solution itself, is different than that verified for cement paste, in which resistivity is inversely related to w/c (see
[13]). As mentioned previously – see Archie’s law (Eq. 1) and related discussion – in the case of fresh pastes
with varying w/c ratios, the bulk resistivity is determined primarily by the widely varying water content, not the
resistivity of the pore fluid.
The pore solution concentrations of K\(^+\) and Na\(^+\) for a given w/c ratio have been found to increase rapidly during the first 12 minutes after mixing but to remain nearly constant after that point up to about 3 hours [22].

It is important to point out that the characteristic resistivity measured for each concrete mix is primarily a function of the resistivity of the pore fluid, rather than the amount of pore fluid. All fresh concrete mixes tested had the same consistency and therefore approximately the same “porosity” (in the fresh, solution-saturated state, porosity equals water content plus entrapped air), so the quantity of pore fluid in each mix was nearly constant. Therefore, any difference in the characteristic resistivity between samples must be attributed to the nature of the pore fluid, rather than the amount of pore fluid. Archie’s law (Equation 1) provides further support for this assertion: the porosity volume fraction (\(\phi\)) has been held constant, and, consequently, any changes in bulk resistivity (\(\rho_b\)) are caused solely by changes in the resistivity of the pore fluid (\(\rho_f\)).

**Statistical Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): influence of time and w/c on \(\rho\)**

As shown in Table 5, in general, electrical resistivity increases with increasing w/c ratio, but remains relatively constant over time for early-age concrete. As mentioned earlier, all experiments were conducted before initial setting of the cement. Replacing 25% of the concrete with fly ash increased the average resistivity by approximately 35% (likely a result of the slower dissolution rate of this material, which leads to a less concentrated and consequently more electrically resistant pore fluid), but the variation with w/c ratio remained similar.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests were performed to identify the statistical significance of the variables investigated (time and w/c ratio), as well as to quantify their effects. Two-factor, no replication ANOVA tests were run on the resistivity measurements for all mixes.
The ANOVA test results are presented in Table 6, where $SS$ signifies “sum of squares,” $df$ denotes “degrees of freedom,” and $MS$ indicates “mean squares” ($MS = SS/df$). The term $F$ is known as the Fisher parameter, which quantifies the degree to which variance in resistivity may be attributed to each factor analyzed. The $F$-ratio is the ratio between the variance of a parameter (in this case, resistivity) and the expected variance if the parameter and factor (in this case, time or w/c ratio) are related. The greater this value, the greater the correlation between the parameter and the factor [23]. The $F$-critical value ($F_{crit}$) scales $F$; the greater the difference between $F$ and $F_{crit}$, the more the parameter and factor are related. If $F > F_{crit}$ the factor exerts a statistically significant effect on the parameter. For those fresh concrete samples composed with either 0% or 25% fly-ash, the calculated $F$-value for the w/c ratio factor was much greater than the $F$-critical value, demonstrating that the w/c ratio has a strong statistically significant effect on the resistivity of fresh concrete before initial setting. Conversely, since the calculated $F$ value for the time factor was much less than the $F$-critical value for both concrete types, it can be said that time did not have a statistically significant effect on the measured resistivity values.

The “$P$-value” column expresses the probability that any correlation between the parameter and the factor (resistivity and time or w/c ratio) is due solely to chance [23]. The high $P$-value for both types of concrete with respect to time suggests that the variation in resistivity is more likely to be due to chance or experimental error than related to time. Conversely, the low $P$-value for both types of concrete with respect to the w/c ratio indicates that correlation between the w/c ratio and resistivity is not due solely to chance.

The observation that resistivity appears to not vary significantly with time may be attributed to the fact that the formation of hydration products is incipient at this very early stage and has not yet considerably changed the overall concentration of ions in solution.

**Water-to-cement ratio estimates**
A strong direct correlation was observed between electrical resistivity and the w/c ratio of fresh concrete (Figures 5 and 6). In this section, we use this correlation to estimate the w/c ratio of concretes based on single, averaged resistivity measurements made with the resistivity probe described in this paper.

Resistivity readings from the probe are used as input in the fitted curves, and then the corresponding fitted quadratic equations (Figures 5 and 6) are solved to obtain a w/c ratio estimate (the equations are valid only between the upper and lower values of w/c ratio tested).

Table 7 presents the average w/c ratio estimates obtained. The estimated values are virtually identical to the actual w/c values for all mixes tested, with variations remaining smaller than 0.01. The error figures presented in this table are absolute values corresponding to estimates based on a single resistivity measurement made within the first two hours after mixing. In this case, the estimates show average errors of only 4.22% and 4.30%, for each concrete type, respectively (0% and 25% fly-ash).

The small standard deviation and coefficient of variation further emphasize the limited error. Resistivity readings and individual w/c estimates were more accurate for mixes with a w/c ratio of less than 0.60, although average w/c estimates were satisfactory in all cases. This mix (w/c = 0.60) contains a lower cement content and lower cohesiveness as compared to the lesser w/c ratio mixtures, and it is possible that aggregate segregation (settling) occurred during the testing period, which could explain the variability in resistivity readings. In this case, it is important that mixing be continued until just before performing the resistivity readings.

Given that the relationship between w/c ratio and compressive strength of concrete is usually known for a given mix, a quick determination of the w/c ratio in the field (based on the material’s electrical resistivity) could also be used to estimate the expected compressive strength of that concrete.
A simple probe was designed and constructed to instantaneously measure the electrical resistivity of fresh concrete, and thereby estimate the w/c ratio of fresh concrete. Once the probe’s geometric factor was determined, it was used to conduct resistivity tests on a series of fresh concrete samples with different w/c ratios (ranging from 0.30 to 0.60). The probe was vertically inserted into the center of a concrete sample held in a standard 6 in x 12 in [15 cm x 30 cm] plastic cylinder. A measurement can be obtained within a few milliseconds.

A relationship between resistivity and the w/c ratio was established and tested, and two equations were developed to correlate the electrical resistivity of fresh concrete with its w/c ratio. Results demonstrate that the method described here can be used to accurately and instantaneously determine the w/c ratio of fresh concrete based on the material’s electric resistivity. The most significant findings include:

- there is a strong direct relationship between w/c ratio of fresh concrete and the material’s electrical resistivity,
- the use of fly ash tends to increase the electrical resistivity of fresh concrete,
- time did not have a statistically significant effect on the electrical resistivity of fresh concrete before initial setting, and
- average w/c ratio estimates based on the electrical resistivity of fresh concrete were virtually identical to the actual w/c values for all mixes tested.

Practical application of the resistivity probe in the field should be preceded by a calibration of the relationship between w/c ratio and electrical resistivity for the specific materials being used, similarly to what is routinely done for the relationship between w/c ratio and compressive strength of concrete. Future work may include the development of a battery-powered handheld unit that can internally calculate the electrical resistivity and display the corresponding w/c ratio and compressive strength estimates. Mixtures containing chemical
admixtures and higher volumes of mineral admixtures will also be studied. In addition, trials at actual jobsites should be performed in order to test the efficiency of the proposed method and apparatus in field conditions.
REFERENCES


    Kansas Department of Transportation. p. 57.


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Table 1 – Concrete mix proportions (FA = fine aggregate, CA = coarse aggregate). Specific gravity of materials: cement = 3.15, fly ash = 2.60, FA = 2.67, CA = 2.68.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mix #</th>
<th>w/c ratio</th>
<th>Unit proportions</th>
<th>Amounts (SSD), kg/m³ [lb/yd³]</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Cement Fly ash Water FA CA</td>
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<td>271 [456] 90 [152] 217 [365] 863 [1455] 858 [1446]</td>
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Table 2 – Empirical determination of the probe’s average geometric factor (k)

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<th>Solution type</th>
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<th>k2</th>
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<td></td>
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<td>0.361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium ρ (=5 Ω·m)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>0.303</td>
<td>0.304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>0.290</td>
<td>0.291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>0.334</td>
<td>0.335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High ρ (=10 Ω·m)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.35</td>
<td>0.330</td>
<td>0.296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>0.330</td>
<td>0.342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.90</td>
<td>0.336</td>
<td>0.335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average geom. factor =</td>
<td><strong>0.327</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation =</td>
<td><strong>0.023</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 – Relationship between w/c and electrical resistivity of fresh concrete (0% fly ash)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>w/c</th>
<th>Avg. ρ (Ω·m)</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Coeff. of variation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>0.122</td>
<td>3.96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.138</td>
<td>3.34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>0.165</td>
<td>3.47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>0.188</td>
<td>3.56%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 – Relationship between w/c and electrical resistivity of fresh concrete (25% fly ash)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>w/c</th>
<th>Avg. $\rho$ ((\Omega\cdot m))</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Coeff. of variation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td>2.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>0.192</td>
<td>3.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>6.47</td>
<td>0.203</td>
<td>3.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>7.16</td>
<td>0.415</td>
<td>6.41%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 – Electrical resistivity of concrete as a function of time and w/c ratio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time (min)</th>
<th>Resistivity ((\Omega\cdot m)) for different mixes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>2.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>2.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>2.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>2.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>2.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>120</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6 – Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): effects of w/c ratio and time on the measured electrical resistivity of fresh concrete. (a) 0% fly ash, (b) 25% fly ash

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F value</th>
<th>P value</th>
<th>F critical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>W/C ratio</td>
<td>38.43</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.81</td>
<td>518.2</td>
<td>1.17E-29</td>
<td>4.377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>0.568</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>1.916</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>2.723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>0.890</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39.89</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F value</th>
<th>P value</th>
<th>F critical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>W/C ratio</td>
<td>66.56</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>22.19</td>
<td>349.2</td>
<td>1.17E-26</td>
<td>4.377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>0.439</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.575</td>
<td>0.847</td>
<td>2.723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>2.287</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>69.29</td>
<td>51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b)

Table 7 – Comparison between actual and estimated values of the w/c ratio: (a) 0% fly ash, and (b) 25% fly ash. Estimates are based on average resistivity values for each mix. Errors refer to w/c estimates based on single measurements of $\rho$ made during the test period.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>w/c ratio (actual value)</th>
<th>w/c ratio (estimate)</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Coeff. of variation</th>
<th>Avg. error</th>
<th>Max. error</th>
<th>Min. error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.010</td>
<td>3.32%</td>
<td>2.54%</td>
<td>5.36%</td>
<td>0.01%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>3.98%</td>
<td>2.47%</td>
<td>12.10%</td>
<td>0.01%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>5.78%</td>
<td>4.58%</td>
<td>10.70%</td>
<td>0.22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>8.77%</td>
<td>7.31%</td>
<td>16.99%</td>
<td>0.06%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>w/c ratio (actual value)</th>
<th>w/c ratio (estimate)</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Coeff. of variation</th>
<th>Avg. error</th>
<th>Max. error</th>
<th>Min. error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>1.93%</td>
<td>1.52%</td>
<td>3.60%</td>
<td>0.01%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.017</td>
<td>4.10%</td>
<td>2.90%</td>
<td>8.39%</td>
<td>0.03%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>4.79%</td>
<td>3.71%</td>
<td>10.24%</td>
<td>0.31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>10.78%</td>
<td>9.05%</td>
<td>17.54%</td>
<td>3.04%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b)
Fig. 1 – Electrical resistivity probe developed in this study. Electrode spacing is 2.5 cm [1 in].

Fig. 2 – Schematic illustrations of (a) the electric circuit; and (b) resistivity probe

Fig. 3 – Point source of current ($I$) in a spherical whole space
Fig. 4 – The electric potential measured at the inner electrode M is determined by the difference between single-point potentials at outer electrodes A and B.

Fig. 5 – Relationship between electrical resistivity and w/c ratio of fresh concrete (0% fly ash).

\[ y = -16,232x^2 + 22,019x - 2,0763 \]

\[ R^2 = 1 \]
Fig. 6 – Relationship between electrical resistivity and w/cm ratio of fresh concrete (25% fly ash)

\[ y = -17.021x^2 + 25.3x - 1.9016 \]
\[ R^2 = 0.9997 \]