

1 **The influences of corrosion degree and uniformity on bond strength and cracking pattern of**
2 **cement mortar and PVA-ECC**

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10 **Abstract:** Engineered Cementitious Composite (ECC), which has a strain-hardening behavior under
11 tension, has been widely used for repairing and retrofitting the reinforced concrete structures. In such
12 applications, the performance of the bonding between the ECC and corroded rebar is critical for the
13 service life prediction of the repaired structures. In this work, the cracking patterns and bond
14 behavior of polyvinyl alcohol engineered cementitious composites ECC (PVA-ECC) and cement
15 mortar with uniform and non-uniform corroded steel rebars were studied. It is found that the uniform
16 corrosion induced cracks were randomly distributed while the non-uniform corrosion induced cracks
17 would concentrate perpendicular to most corroded side. The bond strength of PVA-ECC and mortar
18 specimens is independent with corrosion method. The bond strength of PVA-ECC and mortar
19 specimens both showed a trend of increasing first and then decreasing with the development of
20 corrosion rate. The threshold corrosion rate for mortar specimen is 0.125% while the PVA-ECC
21 specimen has the threshold corrosion rate value of 0.922%.

22 **Key words:** Uniform corrosion; Non-uniform corrosion; Polyvinyl Alcohol Engineered
23 Cementitious Composite (PVA-ECC); Cracking pattern; Bond strength

24 **1. Introduction**

25 **1.1. Research background**

26 The corrosion of steel reinforcements in concrete is a long-standing problem (He et al. 2019; Li et al.
27 2008) for the durability performance of reinforced concrete (RC). Corrosion of reinforcing bar (rebar)
28 can cause widespread damage to RC structures, including the reduction of the rebar cross section,
29 and weakening the concrete-rebar bond strength. Moreover, the generated cracks on concrete surface
30 can provide more transport path for contamination mass (Fu et al. 2022; He et al. 2018, 2022), which
31 might cause further corrosion. Thus, the studies of cracking distribution and bond strength
32 deterioration of corroded RC structures are of great importance for durability prediction and
33 repairing of the cracked structures.

34 **1.2. Bond behavior**

35 Upon the propagation of rebar corrosion, the reduction of cross-sectional area of steel rebar and the
36 generated cracks in concrete cover could lead to the degradation of bond performance (Abosrra et al.
37 2011; He et al. 2020; Lin et al. 2019; Okada et al. 1988; Stewart 2009). The bond consists of three
38 aspects, which are, chemical adhesion, friction and mechanical interlock in between concrete and
39 rebar. At low pull-out stress level, the bond strength is mainly determined by the chemical adhesion.
40 Many studies have proved that, during this period, the bond strength is provided by the compressive
41 strength of the surrounding concrete (AL-mahmoud et al. 2007; Zhu et al. 2018b). Once the slip
42 occurs, chemical adhesion disappears, and the bond is assured by the friction and mechanical
43 interlock (Fu et al. 2021; Zhu et al. 2018a). During this period, the tensile strength of the surrounding

44 concrete plays a dominate role in determining the bond strength (Ju et al. 2020).

45 Extensive research has been dedicated to understanding the bond behavior of corroded RC structures.
46 Lee et al. (Lee et al. 2002) found that before the cracking of concrete cover, the bond strength of
47 corroded RC structure was higher than that of the plain RC structure. Fang et al. (Fang et al. 2006)
48 revealed that for confined RC structures, a medium corrosion level (at around 4%) had no substantial
49 influence on the bond strength while a significant reduction in bond strength was observed when the
50 corrosion degree exceeded 6%. Tondolo (Fang et al. 2006) found the critical corrosion level for bond
51 strength reduction was 2%. Zhu et al. (Zhu et al. 2018a) investigated the bond strength of
52 non-uniformly corroded RC structures and found the bond strength reached peak when the corrosion
53 degree was 0.25-0.3%. Huang (Huang 2014) found that for uniformly corroded steel rebar, the
54 critical corrosion level for bond strength increase was 3%. Coccia et al. (Coccia et al. 2016) found
55 that for plain round steel rebar, the corrosion degree of 0.5-0.6% was the critical value to reach the
56 peak bond strength.

57 It can be found that the low corrosion degree leads to the increase of bond strength while a further
58 increase in corrosion level could result in a significant reduction in bond strength. However, the
59 critical corrosion level is influenced by corrosion uniformity, steel types (i.e., plain round steel and
60 threaded steel) and the surrounding cementitious material types.

61 **1.3. Corrosion cracking pattern**

62 In addition to the bond behavior, cracking pattern is also of great importance in durability study of
63 RC structures. The generated corrosion cracks lead to the release of ring stress of steel rebar which
64 could result in the reduction of the bond strength (Fu et al. 2021; Zhang et al. 2009). Moreover,
65 cracks provide more path for the transport of aggressive mass which could significantly increase the

66 corrosion rate of reinforcement (Fu et al. 2017; Zhu et al. 2018b). Thus, the study of cracking
67 patterns of corrosion RC structures could provide evidence for repair of corroded RC structures.

68 However, few literatures focus on the evolution of corrosion induced cracking patterns, not to
69 mention the influence of corrosion uniformity, cementitious matrix type and corrosion degree on the
70 development of cracking pattern. It was found that corrosion uniformity plays an important role in
71 distribution of cracking patterns due to the stress concentration of non-uniform corrosion (Fu et al.
72 2021). Zhang et al. (Zhang et al. 2009) studied the influence of cracking pattern on the serviceability
73 of RC concrete beam. It was found that under non-uniform corrosion condition, the distribution of
74 cracks significantly influences bond degradation of RC beam and cross-section loss of the
75 reinforcement. Yang et al. (Yang et al. 2019) found the presence of corrosion cracks obviously has a
76 negative effect on the bond performance of RC structures. Moreover, the crack patterns were found
77 to be more dominant than rust and rebar shape in bond deterioration mechanism. Qiao et al. (Qiao et
78 al. 2016) found the internal crack propagation is dependent on the corrosion uniformity rather than
79 the cover thickness.

80 Previous studies indicate that the corrosion cracking patterns play an essential role in bond behavior,
81 durability performance of RC structure, while the corrosion uniformity influences the cracking
82 patterns. However, there is still a lack of study on the effect of corrosion degree on the cracking
83 pattern development. Thus, the study of corrosion uniformity on the influence of cracking patterns
84 can provide a good indication in durability evaluation of RC structures.

85 **1.4. Research Objectives**

86 To this end, with the motivation to study the influences of corrosion degree and uniformity on bond
87 strength and cracking pattern, this study used a recently proposed non-uniform electrochemical

88 acceleration corrosion method to study the cracking pattern and the bonding performance of cement
89 mortar and Polyvinyl Alcohol Engineered Cementitious Composite (PVA-ECC) materials. The
90 critical corrosion degrees on the bond strength degradation under different corrosion uniformity
91 conditions were analyzed. The crack width and the distributions of cracks under uniform and
92 non-uniform corrosion conditions were studied. It is worth noting that there are a number of different
93 varieties of ECC (i.e., lightweight ECC, self-compacting ECC, steel-fiber ECC), the research
94 conclusion in this study may vary with the type of ECC.

95 **2. Experimental program**

96 **2.1. Materials and mix proportion**

97 The matrix material used in this study was composed of cement, fly ash (FA), silica sand (SS) and
98 superplasticizer (SP). Table 1 presents the chemical compositions of Portland cement and fly ash.
99 The cement was Type I Portland cement in compliance with ASTM C 150 (ASTM C150 / C150M-20
100 2020) with a specific gravity of 3.15 and fineness of 384 m²/kg. The Class C fly ash (FA) in
101 compliance with ASTM C618 (ASTM C618 - 19 2019) had a specific gravity of 2.52 and fineness of
102 419.6 m²/kg. Silica sand (SS) with a specific gravity of 2.61 and particle sizes ranging from 180 to
103 270 μm was used. A very small amount of AVDA 105 superplasticizer (SP) produced by Grace
104 Construction Products Inc. was added to adjust the rheological properties of the fresh mix for better
105 fiber distribution and workability. The discontinuous K-II REC15 PVA fibers were manufactured by
106 Kuraray Co., Ltd, with the physical properties indicated in Table 2.

107 The mix proportions of cement mortar and PVA-ECC are listed in Table 3. It shall be noted that the
108 mix proportions of PVA-ECC and mortar are the same, except that PVA-ECC mixture had 2% (by
109 vol. of concrete) PVA fiber, while the mortar did not.

110 **2.2. Sample preparation**

111 2.2.1. Mechanical test sample preparation

112 Three 50 mm (2 in.) cubic mortar and ECC samples, respectively, were prepared for compressive
113 strength tests. Two dog-bone shape mortar and ECC samples, respectively, were also prepared for
114 tensile strength tests, the shape and dimensions of tensile strength test sample were presented in Fig.
115 2 (a).

116 In this work, all specimens (including cylinder specimens discussed in following sections) were
117 demolded at 1d age after casting and then cured in 23 °C with the relatively humidity (RH) of 95%
118 for 28 days.

119 2.2.2. Corrosion uniformity sample preparation

120 In order to simulate the natural non-uniform corrosion condition, an electrochemical acceleration
121 corrosion method based on the impressed current method was proposed recently in a companion
122 work (Fu et al. 2018). Two cylindrical ECC specimens with the diameter of 100 mm (4 in.) and the
123 height of 200 mm (8 in.) were prepared for corrosion uniformity test. The round steel rebars with the
124 diameter of 12.7 mm (0.5 in.) and the length of 250 mm (10 in.) were embedded in the center of the
125 cylinder specimens, respectively. A stainless-steel wire with the diameter of 0.7 mm (0.028 in.) and
126 the length of 250 mm (10 in.) was embedded into one of the specimens for the induction of
127 non-uniform corrosion, the distance between the surface of steel rebar and stainless wire was 5 mm
128 (0.2 in.). The non-uniform corrosion specimen was denoted as NU and the uniform corrosion
129 specimen was denoted as U as presented in Table 4.

130 The purpose of implementing cylindrical specimens was to ensure that the cover thickness was

131 uniformly around the circumference of steel rebar. The reason of using plain round steel rebars
132 instead of corrugated black steel rebar was to simplify the rust thickness quantification. However, it
133 is worth noting that the applicability and effectiveness of the proposed method are independent of the
134 morphology of steel rebar surface as well as the geometry and the size of specimen.

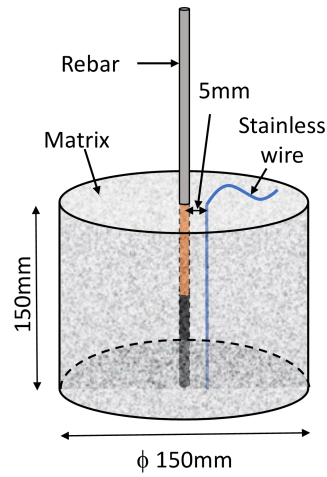
135 2.2.3. Accelerated corrosion sample preparation

136 36 specimens with a diameter of 150 mm (6 in.) and height of 150 mm (6 in.) were prepared to study
137 the cracking pattern and the bonding property between the cementitious matrix and the corroded steel
138 rebar. Round steel rebar with the diameter of 12.7 mm (0.5 in.) and the length of 575 mm (23 in.)
139 was embedded in the center of cylinder specimen. Steel rebar was divided into 4 sections with the
140 length of 400 mm (16 in.), 75 mm (3 in.), 75 mm (3 in.), and 25 mm (1 in.), respectively. The first
141 (400 mm) and the last (25 mm) sections were out of specimens. The middle two sections (75 mm)
142 were embedded into cementitious matrix. In this work, the binding length of the rebar was 75 mm.
143 Thus, one of the embedded sections (75 mm) were separated from cementitious matrix by a PVC
144 pipe as presented in Fig. 1 (b). These 36 cylinders specimens were divided into 4 groups. the first 2
145 group specimens were cast by ECC and the other 2 group specimens were cast by mortar. One of the
146 ECC groups specimens were prepared for non-uniform corrosion with 8 specimens and denoted as
147 NUECC, and the other group of ECC specimens were prepared for uniform corrosion with 10
148 specimens and denoted as UECC. The mortar group also includes with 8 non-uniform corrosion
149 specimens denoted as NUM, and 10 uniform corrosion specimens denoted as UM. A summary of
150 cylinder samples used in this study was concluded in Table 4.

151 For non-uniform corrosion specimens, stainless steel wires with the diameter of 0.7 mm (0.028 in.)
152 and the length of 200 mm (8 in.) were embedded into cementitious matrix parallel to rebar, the

153 distance between the surface of the rebars and stainless wires was 5 mm (0.2 in.). The configuration
154 of the designed cylinders is shown in Fig. 1.

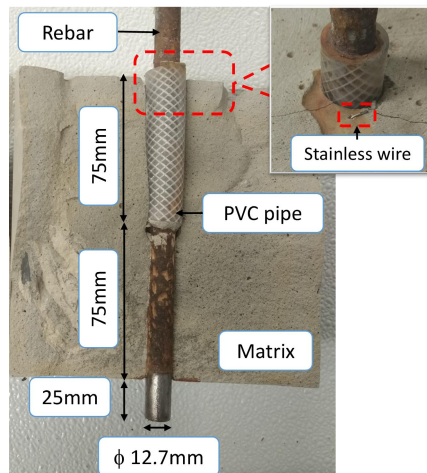
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157 (a) Configuration of the non-uniform corrosion specimens for crack mode and bonding property
158 study (uniform corrosion specimens did not include the stainless wire).

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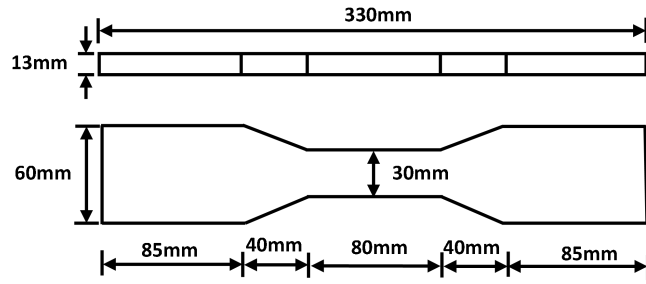
160 (b) Picture of the non-uniform corrosion cylinder specimens (uniform corrosion specimens did
161 not have stainless wire).

162 Fig. 1. The configuration of the designed cylinders.

163 **2.3. Test methods**

164 2.3.1. Mechanical tests

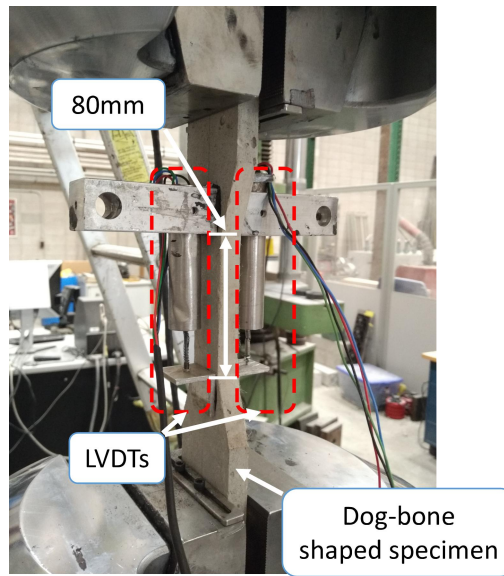
165 The cracking resistance of mortar and ECC specimens in this work was mostly provided by tensile
166 strength of the composites rather than compressive strength. Thus, at the designated age, uniaxial
167 tension tests on dog-bone shape specimens were conducted under a displacement control condition
168 by a mechanical testing system (MTS) testing machine, at a rate of 0.5 mm/min. Dog-bone shape
169 specimen was widely used to determine the tensile strength of cement mortar and ECC materials (Yu
170 et al. 2015, 2020; Zhang and Zhang 2018). Two linear variable differential transformers (LVDTs)
171 were installed on each side of the tested specimen to measure the displacements between two points
172 on the specimen in a gauge length of 80 mm as shown in Fig. 2 (b). Based on the recorded load (by
173 MTS) and average displacement data (by LVDTs), the tensile stress-strain curve of the tested
174 specimens was plotted. The compressive strength tests on cubic specimens were also performed in
175 accordance with ASTM C109 (ASTM C109 / C109M - 20b 2020).



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(a) Shape and dimensions of tensile strength test specimen.



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(b) Tensile strength test setup.

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Fig. 2. Tensile strength test setup and specimen.

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2.3.2. Accelerated corrosion uniformity tests

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At the designated age, the corrosion of steel rebars in UC and NUC specimens was induced and

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accelerated by the impressed current method. For uniform corrosion specimen, the sample surface

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was wrapped with a layer of sponge saturated with 3.5% (by mass) NaCl solution, then a layer of

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stainless-steel mesh was wrapped on the surface of the sponge as shown in Fig. 3 (a) and (b). The

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reason of using saturated sponge and stainless-steel mesh is to uniformly apply the impressed current

187 into the specimen. During the corrosion process, the stainless-steel mesh was connected to cathode
188 while the steel rebar was connected to anode. For non-uniform corrosion sample, the steel rebar was
189 connected to anode and the steel wire was connected to cathode as presented in Fig. 3 (c) and (d).
190 During corrosion acceleration process, the UC and NUC specimens were connected in series and the
191 steel rebars were connected into the anode, stainless wire for NUC specimen and stainless mesh for
192 UC specimen were connected into the cathode of direct current (DC) power. The corrosion current
193 density was controlled as $200 \mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ and the corrosion duration was 5 days. It is worth noting that
194 the accelerated corrosion current density for lab study has a very wide selection. Some study used the
195 accelerated corrosion current density higher than $1000 \mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ (Dong et al. 2017; Du et al. 2017),
196 most of studies used the corrosion current density in a range of $100\text{-}600 \mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ for corrosion
197 acceleration study (Fu et al. 2018; González et al. 2004; Hong et al. 2020).

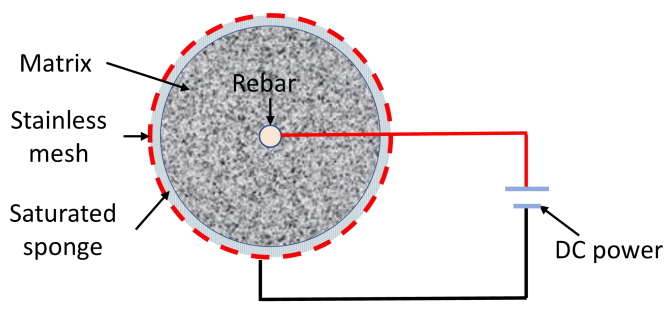
198 After corrosion acceleration, disc samples were cut from the middle portion of NUC and UC
199 specimens and then polished. The rust distribution and rust layer thickness of steel rebars in
200 non-uniform and uniform corrosions were then analyzed from backscattered electron images (BSEM)
201 obtained by a FEI QUNTA 650 environmental scanning electron microscope.

202 2.3.3. Uniform and non-uniform corrosion acceleration

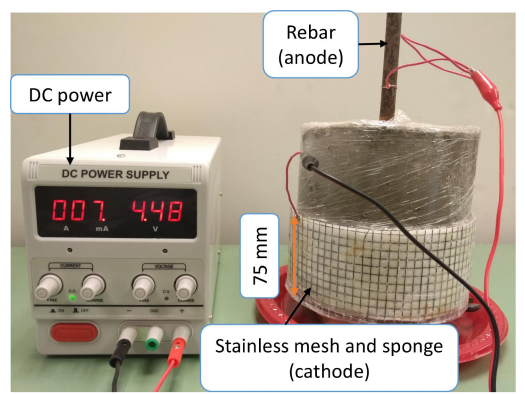
203 After curing, the corrosion propagation of steel rebar in ECC and mortar cylinder specimens was
204 accelerated by the impressed current method as shown in Fig. 3. For uniform corrosion acceleration,
205 the surface of the specimens was wrapped with a sponge saturated with 3.5% (by mass) NaCl
206 solution. A layer of stainless-steel mesh was then wrapped the saturated sponge. The width of the
207 sponge and mesh was 75 mm which is the same with the corrosion section length of rebar as shown
208 in Fig. 1. The stainless mesh and stainless wire were connected to the cathode of the DC power,

209 respectively, for uniform corrosion and non-uniform corrosion, while the rebar was connected to the
210 anode of the DC power. The corrosion current density for uniform corrosion and non-uniform
211 corrosion was controlled as $200 \mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$.

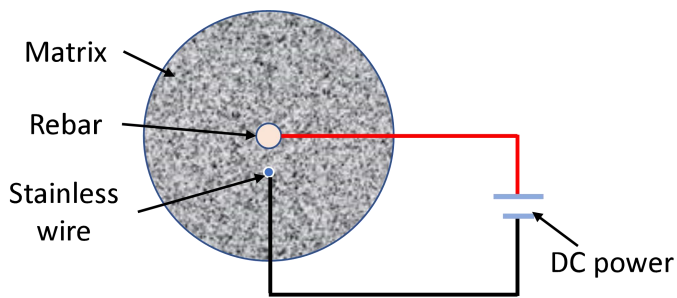
212 The 36 cylinder specimens for corrosion crack monitoring and bonding strength test were divided
213 into 4 groups as presented in section 2.2.3. The ECC specimens for uniform (UECC) and
214 non-uniform (NUECC) corrosion acceleration included 4 corrosion durations, which were 1 d, 2 d, 4
215 d and 6 d. While the uniform (UM) and non-uniform (NUM) corrosion acceleration of mortar
216 specimens had 4 different corrosion durations, which were 8 h, 16 h, 24 h and 32 h. 2 duplicates for
217 ECC and mortar cylinders were prepared, respectively, as reference specimens without corrosion
218 process (i.e., UECC0 and UM0 in Table 4). Each corrosion duration specimens had 2 duplicates. The
219 details of all cylinder specimens for corrosion acceleration were concluded in Table 4. The design
220 corrosion rate (ρ_0) was calculated in accordance with ASTM G102 (ASTM G102-89(2015)e1 2015)
221 and also presented in Table 4.



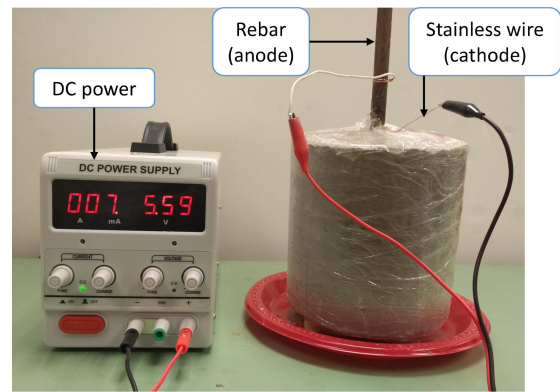
(a) Schematic for uniform corrosion acceleration.



(b) Test setup for uniform corrosion acceleration.



(c) Schematic for non-uniform corrosion acceleration.



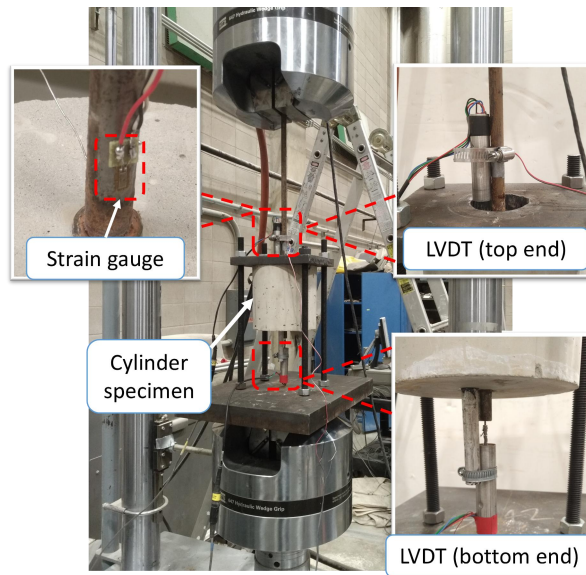
(d) Test setup for non-uniform corrosion acceleration.

222 Fig. 3. Test setups and schematics for uniform and non-uniform corrosion acceleration of cylinder specimens.

223 2.3.4. Pull-out test

224 After corrosion acceleration, steel rebars in cylinder specimens were pulled out by an MTS machine
 225 as illustrated in Fig. 4. The pull-out test is widely used in literature (AL-mahmoud et al. 2007; Fu et
 226 al. 2021; Li and Yuan 2013). This test has also been standardized by British Standards Institution (BS
 227 EN 12504-3 2005). The displacements of top and bottom ends of the steel rebar were recorded by
 228 two LVDT sensors and the strain of the rebar during pullout test was measured by a strain gauge. The
 229 loading speed of pullout test was 0.1 mm/min. Based on the recorded strain (by strain gauge) and
 230 average displacement data (by LVDTs), the bond stress-slip curve of the tested specimens was
 231 plotted.

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Fig. 4. Pullout test setup.

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2.3.5. Crack profile recording

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The position and width of cracks in cylinder specimens after corrosion acceleration and pullout test

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were recorded as shown in Fig. 5. The crack width was recorded by a crack visualizer with an

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accuracy of 0.001 mm. The crack distributions were recorded by a round plastic scale as presented in

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Fig. 5 (a). The plastic scale was evenly divided into 16 parts with 22.5° of each part to record the

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position of cracks. Red color curves in Fig. 5 (b) denote cracks induced by corrosion acceleration

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while blue color curves represent the crack profile after pullout test. The crack widths were measured

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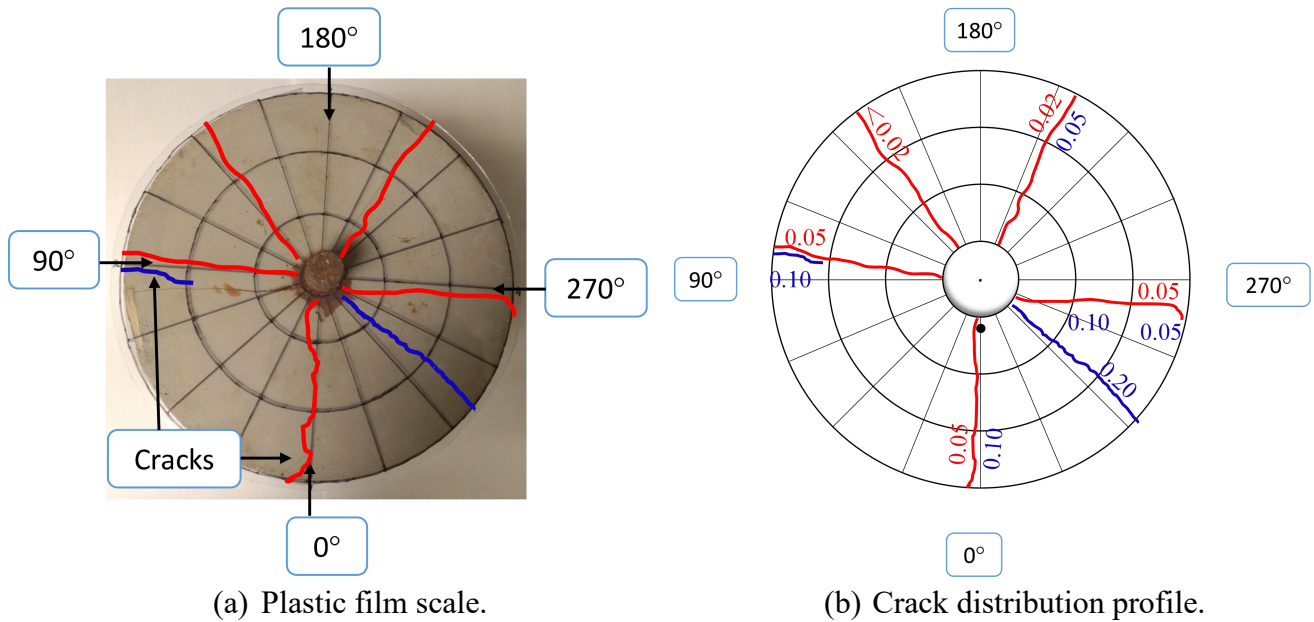
by a crack width tester. It is worth noting that some cracks induced by corrosion acceleration might

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widen during the pullout test. Thus, the crack widths were measured after corrosion acceleration and

244

pullout test, respectively.



245 Fig. 5. Crack profile recording of cylinder specimens (red curves and numbers denote crack position and width
 246 after corrosion acceleration, blue curves and numbers denote crack position and width after pullout test).

247 2.3.6. Steel rebar corrosion rate determination

248 6 plain steel rebars with the length about 65 mm were prepared for corrosion rate calibration. Each
 249 rebar's length was measured for 3 times and the average length of each rebar was recorded. The mass
 250 of each rebar was also measured. The mass of rebar per unit length was determined and taking as
 251 average for 6 rebars (K_a).

252 After pullout tests, the cylinder specimens were split and corroded rebars were taken out for
 253 corrosion rate determination. Then, the corrosion section was cut from the middle portion with a
 254 length about 65 mm, and the corrosion rate was determined by weight loss method in accordance
 255 with ASTM G 103 (ASTM G1-03e1 2017). Consequently, the length of each rebar was measured for
 256 3 times and the mass of corroded rebar after processing was determined. The mass per unit length of
 257 each corroded rebar were calculated as K_b . The corrosion rate of steel rebar was determined as:

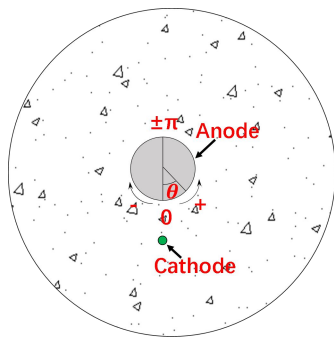
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$$\rho = \frac{K_a - K_b}{K_a} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

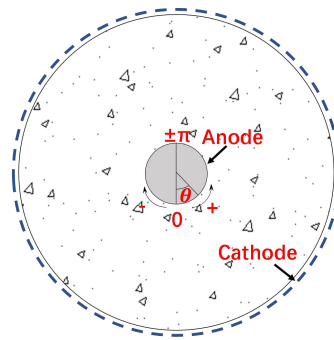
259 where ρ (%) denotes the corrosion rate of steel rebar.

260 3. Corrosion uniformity simulation

261 Finite element method (FEM) simulations were performed to investigate the current density
 262 distribution during corrosion acceleration. Rust thickness and distribution of uniform corrosion and
 263 non-uniform corrosion were also studied by FEM method in this work. The FEM simulation was
 264 conducted using the commercial software Comsol Multiphysics®. The model geometries are shown
 265 in Fig. 6, which is comprised of a large circle with the diameter of 150 mm represents the electrolyte
 266 (ECC), a middle circle with a diameter of 12.7 mm in the center of the large circle represents the
 267 rebar. For non-uniform corrosion simulation model, a small circle with the diameter of 0.7 mm
 268 represents the stainless wire, the distance between the center of stainless wire and the surface of
 269 rebar was 5 mm. The parameters used for simulation are concluded in Table 5.



(a) Non-uniform corrosion model.



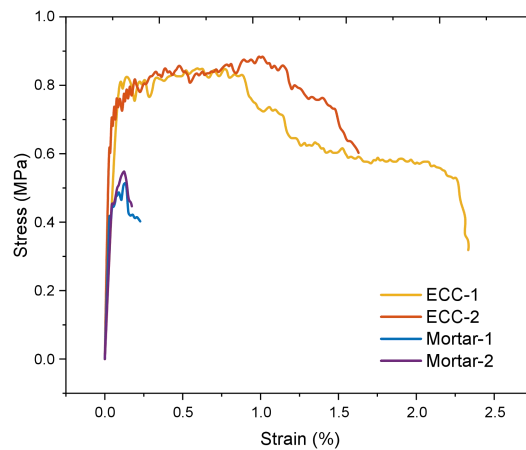
(b) Uniform corrosion model

270 Fig. 6. Model geometries of uniform and non-uniform corrosion models (anode was steel rebar and cathode for
271 non-uniform simulation was wire while for uniform corrosion simulation was sponge).

272 **4. Results and discussion**

273 **4.1. Mechanical performance**

274 The compressive strengths of ECC and mortar samples were 44.0 MPa and 45.0 MPa, respectively.
275 The stress-strain curves of dog-bone specimens for ECC and mortar mixtures are presented in Fig. 7.
276 What can be clearly seen from this figure is that the ECC specimens showed upgraded tensile
277 strength and strain rate compared with mortar specimens. The tensile strengths of 2 ECC specimens
278 were 0.85 MPa and 0.86 MPa, respectively, while the mortar specimens were 0.51 MPa and 0.54
279 MPa, respectively. The ultimate strain rates of ECC specimens were 2.33% and 1.63%, respectively,
280 while the mortar specimens were 0.22% and 0.17%, respectively. The enhanced tensile strength and
281 the strain rate of ECC specimens meet the characteristics of ECC materials (Lim and Li 1997; Ling
282 et al. 2019), which is, the addition of PVA fiber in ECC bridges the generated cracks and
283 significantly enhances the load and displacement capacities.

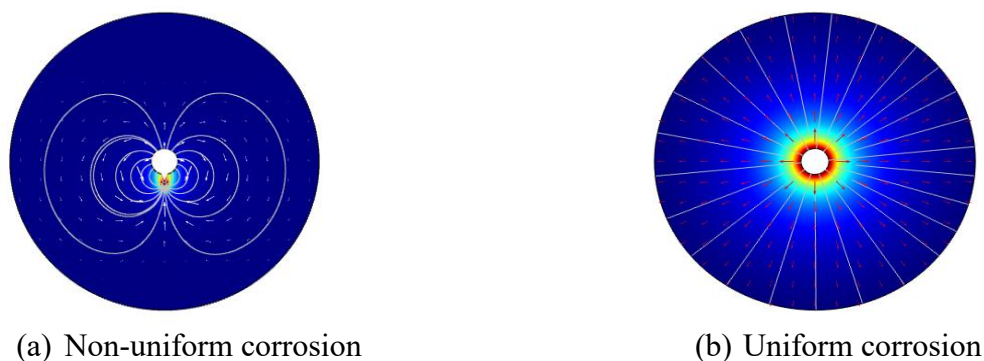


284
285 Fig. 7. Stress strain curves of dog-bone specimens.

286 **4.2. Corrosion uniformity comparison between corrosion test and simulation results**

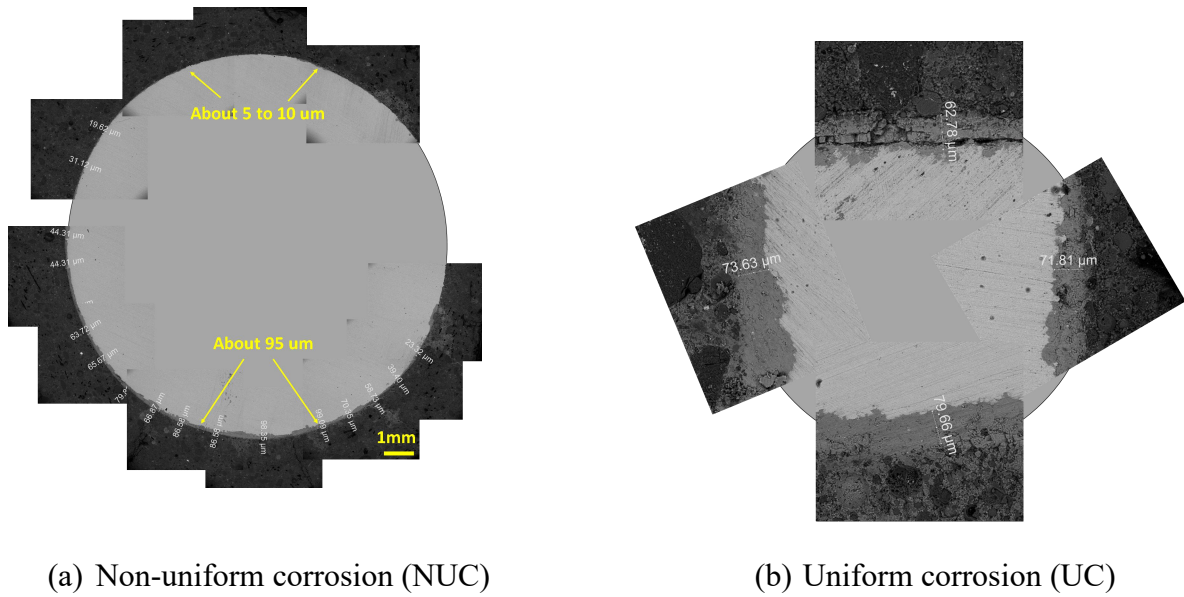
287 The corrosion current density distributions of uniform and non-uniform corrosion simulation are

288 presented in Fig. 8. Fig. 8 (a) shows that the corrosion current in the non-uniform corrosion
289 simulation was mostly concentrated around the steel rebar on the side near the cathode (i.e., steel
290 wire), while on the side facing away from the cathode, the corrosion current density was low. Fig. 8
291 (b) reveals that the corrosion current density was uniformly distributed in the uniform corrosion
292 simulation model.



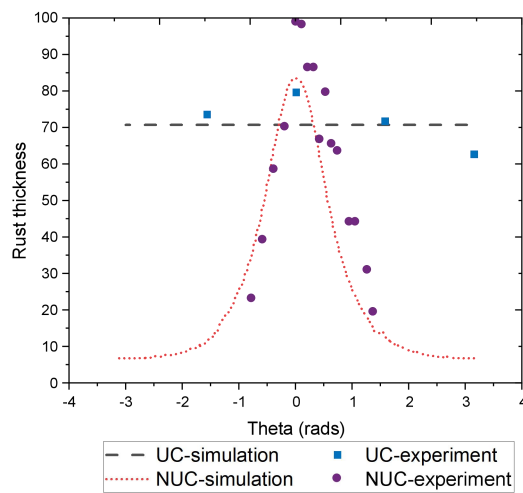
293 Fig. 8. Corrosion current density distribution simulation results.

294 The measurement results of rust thickness distribution from BSEM tests are presented in Fig. 9. As
295 seen in Fig. 9 (a), the rust of non-uniform corrosion sample accumulated on the side near the steel
296 wire (cathode) while the other side had limited rust accumulated. Fig. 9 (b) reveals that the uniform
297 corrosion sample rust was evenly distributed around the steel rebar. Fig. 9 (a) shows that the rust
298 thickness of non-uniform corroded sample facing the cathode side was about 95 μm , while the side
299 facing away the cathode was about 5 to 10 μm . The rust thickness of uniform corroded sample in Fig.
300 9 (b) was about 70 μm .



301 Fig. 9. BSEM results of rust thickness.

302 The rust thickness distributions of uniform and non-uniform corrosion from experiment and
 303 simulation results are presented in Fig. 10. A typical Gaussian distribution characteristic for the
 304 corrosion products can be obtained for the non-uniform corrosion sample; A similar rust distribution
 305 on non-uniform corrosion samples has been observed in Ref. (Fu et al. 2018). For the uniform
 306 corrosion sample, the distribution of the corrosion products distributed uniformly.



307
 308 Fig. 10. Rust thickness distributions of uniform and non-uniform corrosion results from simulation and experiment.

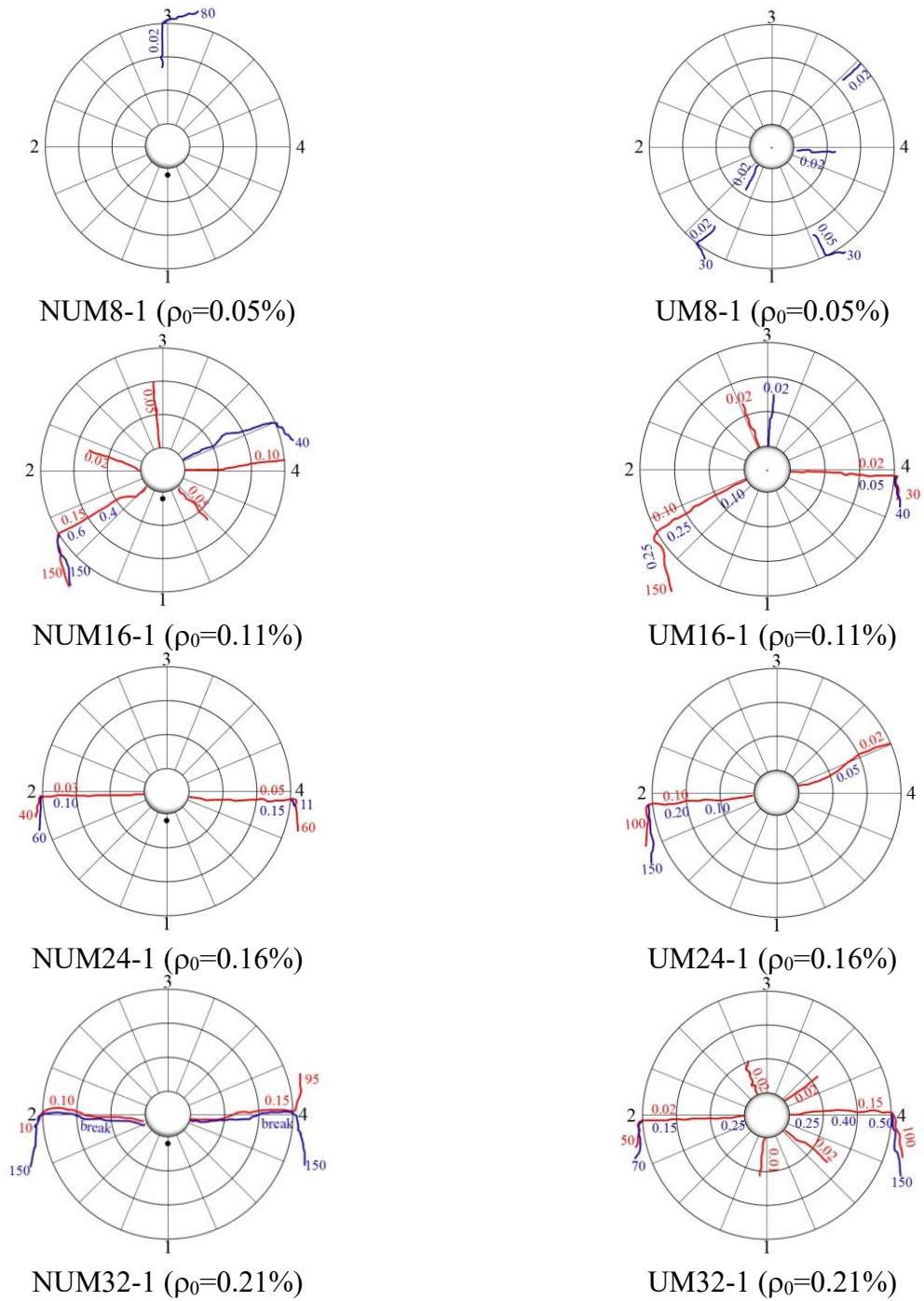
309 4.3. Cracking pattern analysis

310 4.3.1. Cracking profiles of mortar specimens

311 Fig. 11 illustrates part of cracking profiles of mortar specimens subjected to uniform (UM) and
312 non-uniform corrosion (NUM) methods, where the red curves denote the cracks induced by
313 corrosion before the rebar was pulled out, and the blue curves are cracks recorded after the rebar
314 pull-out test. The cracking profiles of all samples can be found in the supplementary file.

315 When corrosion duration was 8h (which denotes the design corrosion rate, ρ_0 , was 0.05% as
316 presented in Table 4), no corrosion crack was observed in NUM and UM samples. When corrosion
317 duration increased to 16h ($\rho_0=0.11\%$), corrosion cracks were observed in NUM samples and in UM
318 samples. In NUM samples, the average crack width at 16h was 0.08 mm; In the UM samples, it was
319 0.02 mm. With the development of corrosion duration, the crack numbers increased, and crack width
320 of each sample was more pronounced. The NUM samples always showed larger corrosion cracks
321 than UM samples (i.e., at 32h corrosion duration, the average crack widths for NUM and UM
322 samples were 0.15 mm and 0.05 mm, respectively). This could result from the accumulation of rust
323 in one side of NUM that caused the stress concentration. In the case of uniform corrosion, the
324 corrosion products were evenly distributed around the steel rebar, as indicated in Fig. 9. Thus, with
325 the same design corrosion rate, the stress generated by the corrosion products of uniform corroded
326 samples was lower than non-uniform corroded samples. After the pull-out test, the pull-out cracks
327 (blue curves in Fig. 11) developed along the location of the main corrosion crack (red line). With
328 longer corrosion time, the width of the pull-out crack increased.

329



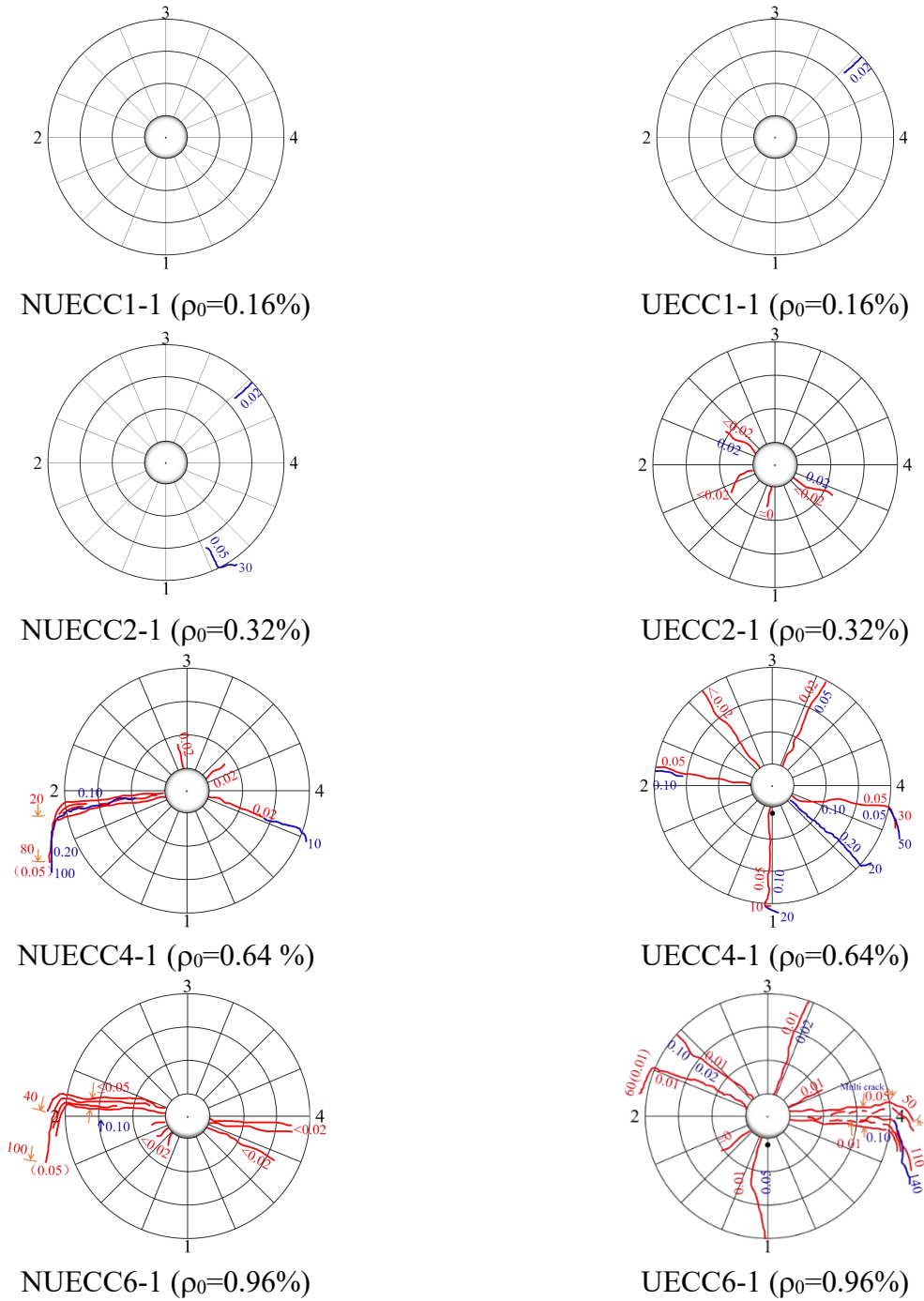
330 Fig. 11. Crack patterns in cement mortar specimens (NUM denotes non-uniform corrosion mortar
 331 sample, UM denotes uniform corrosion mortar sample).

332 4.3.2. Cracking profiles of ECC specimens

333 The cracking profiles of ECC specimens are presented in Fig. 12. No corrosion-induced crack was

334 observed after 1d corrosion ($\rho_0=0.16\%$). Some micro-cracks (~ 0.001 mm) were observed when the
335 corrosion duration was increased to 2d ($\rho_0=0.32\%$), but there was still no obvious corrosion-induced
336 crack on the sample surface. When corrosion duration increased to 4d ($\rho_0=0.64\%$), the NUECC
337 specimens developed an average crack width of 0.04 mm, while the 6d ($\rho_0=0.96\%$) NUECC
338 specimens had an average crack width of 0.016 mm. The average crack width of UECC samples at
339 4d ($\rho_0=0.64\%$) corrosion duration specimens was 0.024mm. When the corrosion duration increased
340 to 6d ($\rho_0=0.96\%$), the average crack width increased to 0.04mm. Most cracks of NUECC specimens
341 were concentrated in 2 – 4 (or $90^\circ - 270^\circ$ line) direction, while the UECC specimens presented
342 randomly distributed cracks, and this pattern was consistent with the observation of mortar samples.
343 Statistical analysis of crack distributions is presented in the following section.

344 Fig. 12 shows that there were many micro-cracks (~ 0.001 mm) on the surface of ECC specimens.
345 These micro-cracks released the expansion stress generated by the corrosion products. Thus, no
346 corrosion cracks appeared in 1d and 2d corrosion ECC specimens, and 6d NUECC specimens'
347 average crack width was even smaller than 4d's. The design corrosion rates of ECC specimens were
348 pronouncedly higher than those of mortar specimens, but the crack width of ECC specimens was
349 smaller than that of ECC specimens. This can be explained by the generation of those microcracks
350 and the excellent tensile performance of ECC. The appearance of microcracks released the expansion
351 stress generated by corrosion products. In addition, the high ductility of ECC can bear the volume
352 expansion of corrosion products. Thus, compared with mortar specimens, the crack width of ECC
353 specimens was significantly lower, even though the corrosion rates of ECC specimens were higher
354 than those of mortar specimens.



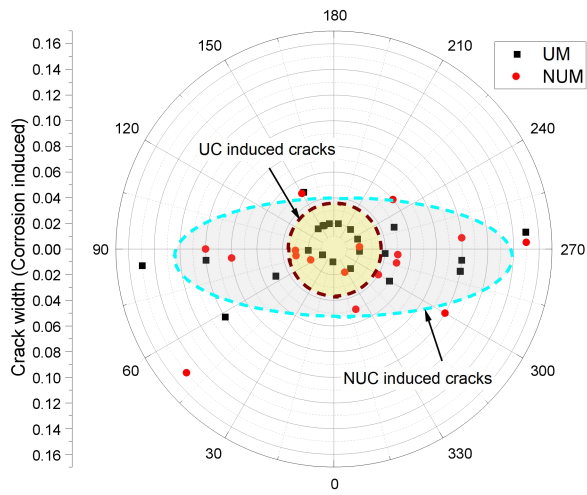
355 Fig. 12. Crack patterns in ECC specimens (NUECC denotes non-uniform corrosion ECC sample,
 356 UECC denotes uniform corrosion ECC sample).

357 4.3.3. Statistical analysis on cracking patterns of non-uniform and uniform corrosion cases

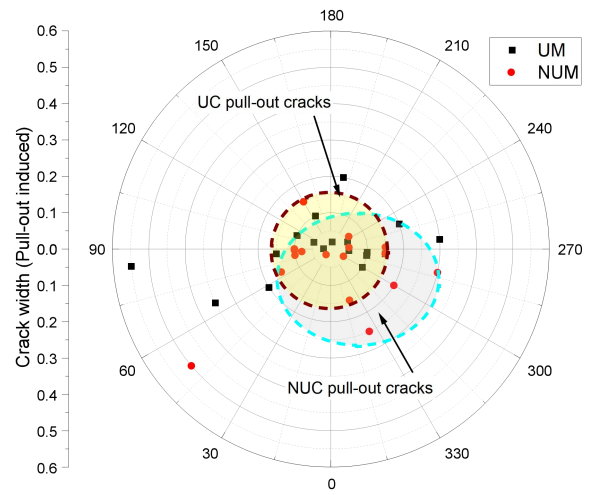
358 Fig. 13 illustrates the cracking patterns of cement mortar samples induced by corrosion and pull-out

359 tests. In Fig. 13 (a) and (c), it is clear that most non-uniform corrosion (NU) induced cracks
360 developed along the $90^\circ - 270^\circ$ line direction, while the uniform corrosion (U) induced cracks
361 randomly distributed around the steel rebar. As discussed in section 4.2, in the case of non-uniform
362 corrosion, most corrosion products accumulated in the side near the steel wire, while in the case of
363 uniform corrosion, the corrosion products evenly distributed around the steel rebar. Consequently,
364 the volume expansion of corrosion products from non-uniform corrosion generated non-uniform
365 stress that was concentrated on the steel wire side, which further caused more cracks along the $90^\circ -$
366 270° line direction (or 2 – 4 line direction in Fig. 11). Nevertheless, products generated by uniform
367 corrosion were evenly distributed around the steel rebar. Thus, compared with the concentrated stress
368 in the case of non-uniform corrosion, the stress caused by the volume expansion of uniform
369 corrosion products were uniformly distributed around the steel rebar. As such, with the same
370 corrosion rate, the crack width of non-uniform corrosion was higher than that of uniform corrosion
371 due to the concentrated stress.

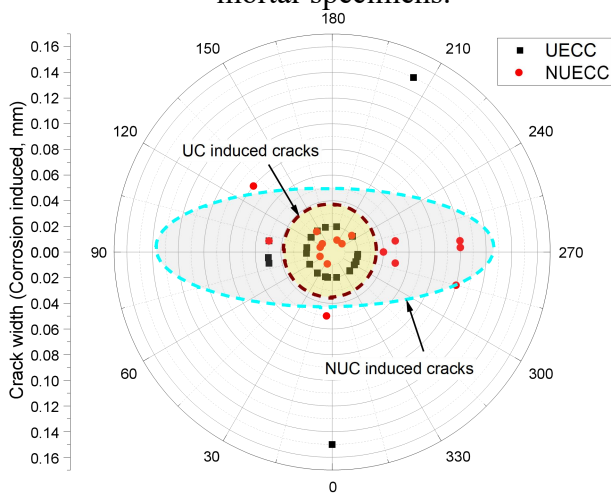
372 The pull-out induced cracking patterns are presented in Fig. 13 (b) and (d). Compared with
373 non-uniform corrosion, the pull-out cracks in uniform corrosion case distributed more uniformly
374 around the steel rebar than that in non-uniform corrosion case. As presented in Fig. 11 and Fig. 12,
375 most of pull-out cracks were induced along the corrosion cracks. Moreover, in non-uniform
376 corrosion case, more corrosion pits were generated on the surface of steel rebar in the steel wire side,
377 which in turn, increased the friction force between the steel rebar and mortar bulk in pull-out test. As
378 a result, more pull-out induced cracks were observed on the side with the steel wire.



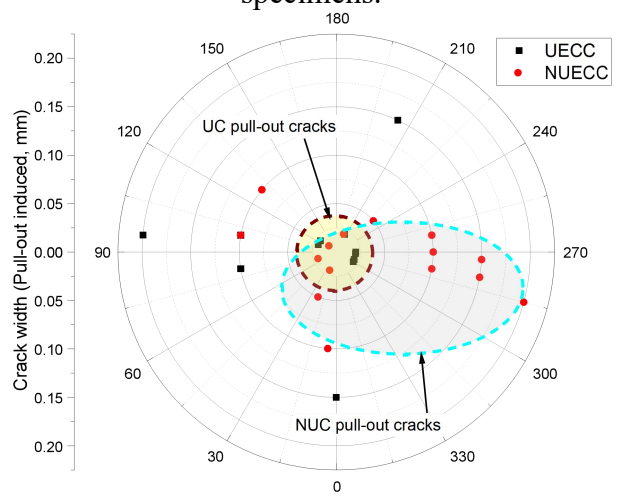
(a) Corrosion induced cracking patterns of mortar specimens.



(b) Pull-out induced cracking patterns of mortar specimens.



(c) Corrosion induced cracking patterns of ECC specimens.



(d) Pull-out induced cracking patterns of ECC specimens.

379

Fig. 13. Cracking patterns of mortar and ECC specimens.

380

As discussed in previous sections, the corrosion induced cracks of non-uniform corrosion case were

381

mostly concentrated alongside the $90^\circ - 270^\circ$ line direction, and the pull-out induced cracks of

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non-uniform corrosion case were distributed in the side with the steel wire, a similar cracking pattern

383

for non-uniform corrosion case was also found in (Fu et al. 2021). Thus, as shown in Fig. 14, in order

384

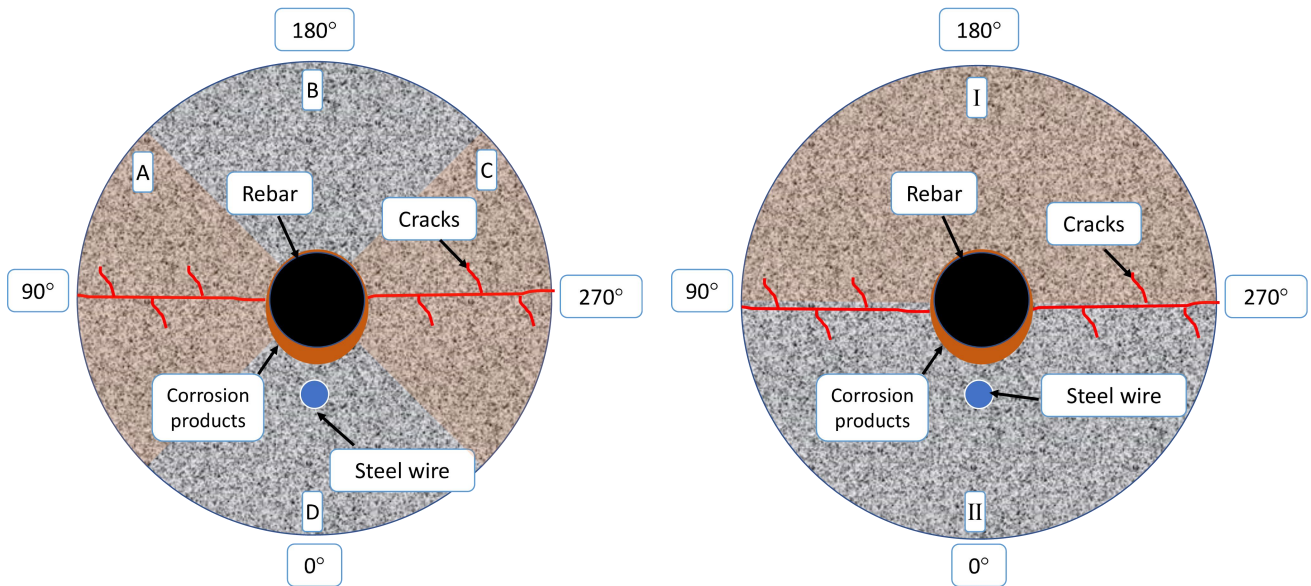
to count the corrosion induced crack distribution, the cross section of cylinder specimen was divided

385

into 4 parts (i.e., part - A, B, C and D), and the cross section was divided into 2 parts (i.e., part I and

386

II) to count the pull-out induced crack distribution.



(a) Cross section was divided into 4 parts to count the corrosion induced cracks.

(b) Cross section was divided into 2 parts to count the pull-out induced cracks.

387

Fig. 14. Schematic of the cross-section division to statistically count the distribution of cracks.

388

Table 6 presents the average values of crack width as well as the possibilities of cracks in different

389

parts induced by corrosion and pull-out tests. The crack width induced by non-uniform corrosion (i.e.,

390

NUM and NUECC) was significantly higher than uniform corrosion induced (i.e., UM and UECC),

391

which corresponding with the previous discussion that the stress generated by the non-uniform

392

corrosion products was more concentrated in one side. The pull-out induced crack widths for

393

uniform corrosion and non-uniform corrosion cases did not show obvious difference. With the same

394

corrosion method, the ECC matrix specimens showed lower crack width than the specimens with

395

mortar as matrix even the design corrosion rate of most ECC specimens were higher than mortar

396

specimens. The ECC material can restrain the development of the corrosion cracks in two aspects: (1)

397

ECC can self-heal the micro-cracks, which can resist the transmission and diffusion of corrosive

398

substances (i.e., chloride ions, water, oxygen), thereby the service life of the structure can be

399

extended, (2) the randomly distributed fibers in the matrix, especially those distributed transversely

400

to the steel bar, can continue to withstand tensile stress after the matrix cracks, effectively

401 suppressing the propagation of longitudinal splitting cracks, and significantly improving the
402 toughness of the matrix.

403 The non-uniform corrosion induced cracks (i.e., NUM and NUECC) have much higher possibility of
404 appearing in parts A and C than that in parts B and D as shown in Fig. 14 (a), while the uniform
405 corrosion induced cracks (i.e., UM and UECC) have similar possibility of appearance in parts A+C
406 and parts B+D. This agrees with the illustration in Fig. 13 (a) and (c) that the cracks induced by
407 non-uniform corrosion concentrated alongside the $90^\circ - 270^\circ$ line direction while the uniform
408 corrosion induced cracks randomly distributed around the steel rebar.

409 The pull-out cracks for non-uniform cases (i.e., NUM and NUECC) also showed unevenly
410 appearance possibilities in parts I and II as divided by Fig. 14 (b) method. In uniform corrosion cases
411 (i.e., UM and UECC), the cracks uniformly distributed in these two parts, which is reasonable since
412 most of the pull-out cracks developed alongside the corrosion cracks, and the uniform corrosion
413 induced cracks were evenly distributed around the steel rebar as discussed previously. For
414 non-uniform corrosion case, the unevenly distributed corrosion pits also increased the friction force
415 on the side close to the steel wire (i.e., part I in Fig. 14) while the corrosion pits in uniform corrosion
416 case were evenly distributed. Consequently, the possibilities of pull-out cracks in part I of
417 non-uniform corrosion cases (i.e., NUECC and NUM) were higher than in part II.

418 **4.4. Bonding performance analysis**

419 Assuming that the bond stress is evenly distributed in the rebar-mortar/ECC interface, the ultimate
420 rebar-mortar/ECC bond strength (τ_u) of a specimen can be determined by the ultimate pull-out load
421 and the bonding surface area as expressed in Eq. :

422

$$\tau_u = \frac{T_u}{\pi dl} \quad (2)$$

423 where T_u represents the ultimate load in pull-out tests (N), d denotes the diameter of steel rebar in
424 this work (mm) and l is the bonding length in this work (mm).

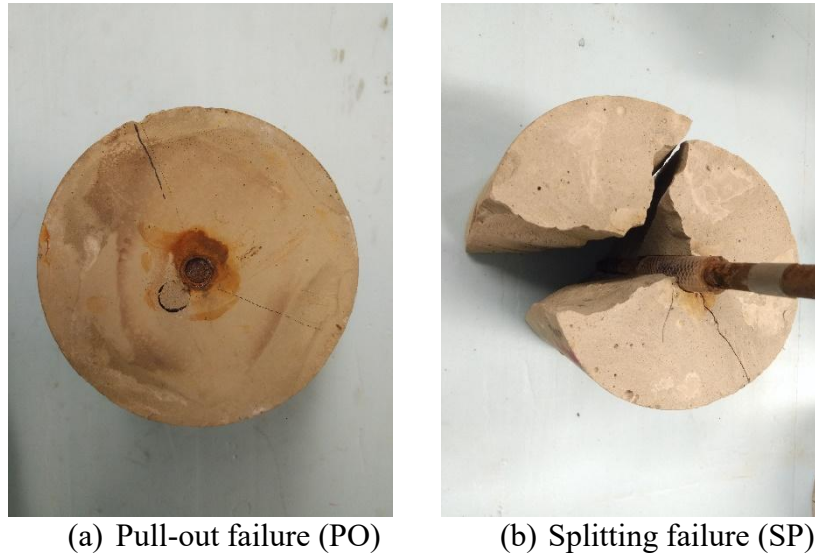
425 The results of corrosion rate, average bond strength and slip value at peak of all specimens are
426 summarized in Table 7. The average bond stress of reference mortar (UM0) and ECC (UECC0)
427 specimens were 2.47 MPa and 3.46 MPa, respectively. The bond stress of reference ECC specimens
428 was 28.6% higher than the mortar samples. As discussed before, the tensile strength and the cracking
429 resistance ability of ECC are higher than mortar. Thus, during the pull-out test, the generated
430 microcracks were prevented to develop by fibers in ECC specimens while the mortar specimens had
431 limited resistance to prevent the development of microcracks. Thus, the bond strength of UECC0
432 specimens was higher than UM0 specimens.

433 In Table 7, The bond strength of corroded specimen was 3-10 times higher than that of corresponding
434 uncorroded specimen. The reason for the enhanced bond strength of corroded specimens can be
435 attributed to the generation of mechanical bite force. For uncorroded specimens, the bond strength
436 was mainly provided by the chemical bond force and friction force. There was limited mechanical
437 bite force between round steel rebar and sample matrix. Nevertheless, after corrosion process,
438 corrosion pits were generated on rebar surface, which significantly increased the friction force and
439 mechanical bite force in between rebar and sample matrix. As a result, the corroded specimens had
440 higher bond strengths than uncorroded specimens.

441 Given the cracking patterns of corroded ECC and mortar specimens showed significant difference as
442 been discussed in previous sections. The bonding performance of corroded specimens is expected to

443 be quite different between ECC and mortar specimens. In this section, the influence of corrosion
444 methods and the bulk material types on bonding performance are discussed comprehensively.

445



446 Fig. 15. Different failure modes

447 4.4.1. Bond stress-slip behavior

448 The slip of steel rebar and mortar/ECC matrix can be calculated in accordance with Eq.

449
$$S_{av} = \frac{S_f + S_d}{2} - \varepsilon L \quad (3)$$

450 Where s_f is the slip between the free end of rebar and the sample matrix, s_d represents the slip
451 between the loading end and the sample matrix, ε represent the measured tensile strain of the steel
452 rebar and L is the length of the steel rebar between the loading end and the anchorage of MTS.

453 Typical bond stress-slip curves for NUM-24h and NUECC-1d specimens are presented in Fig. 16,
454 both of the specimens had the same design corrosion rate (i.e., $\rho_0=0.16\%$). The NUM-24h specimens

455 showed splitting failure mode (i.e., Fig. 15 (b)) while the NUECC-1d specimen demonstrated a
456 pull-out failure mode (i.e., Fig. 15 (a)) in pull-out tests. It can be observed in Fig. 16 NUM-24h
457 specimen with splitting failure mode only had one slip section (OA_1), when it reached the ultimate
458 load, specimen split rapidly since there was no other source could provide resistance to the sliding of
459 steel rebar. Then, the bond stress reduced quickly, and the steel rebar was completely pulled out (i.e.,
460 A_1B_1 section). For specimens with pull-out failure mode, the stress-slip curve can be divided into 3
461 sections, including micro-slip section, failure section and residual section:

462 (1) Micro-slip section (OA_2): in this section, the chemical bond between reinforcement and ECC
463 materials gradually break down. The fiber and mortar jointly bear the hoop tensile force. The
464 cracked ECC specimens did not suddenly burst due to the presence of the fiber which could
465 continue to bear the load until the ultimate load (bond strength). Due to the strong grip of the
466 ECC material, the bond-slip curve developed linearly in this stage.

467 (2) Failure section (A_2B_2): when reached the peak stress, the mechanical bite force between the
468 steel bar and the fiber mortar gradually decreased, the bond stress gradually decreased, and
469 the interface slip significantly increased. In point B_2 , the steel rebar started to be pulled out,
470 then the bond stress started to linearly decrease.

471 (3) Residual section (B_2C_2): the whole steel bar was slowly pulled out, and the bond stress
472 mainly depends on the sliding friction resistance between corroded steel rebar and the ECC
473 matrix.

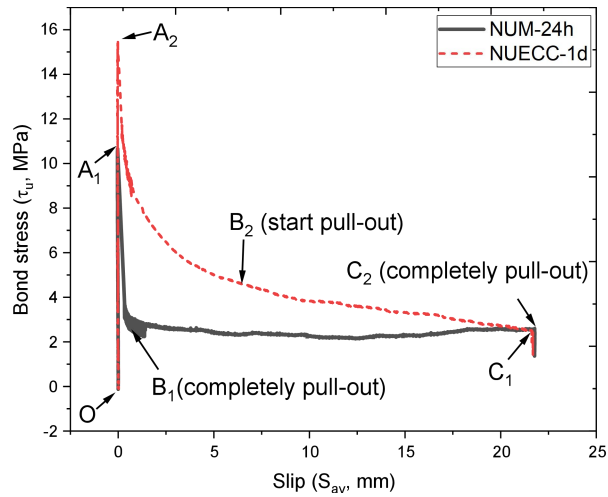


Fig. 16. Typical bond stress-slip curve.

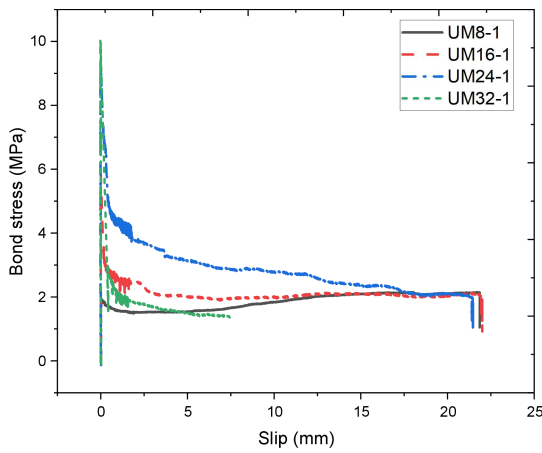
4.4.2. Bond stress-slip performance of corroded specimens

The bond stress-slip curves of all mixtures are presented in Fig. 17. The slope of the ascending section of each curve was very close which indicates that the corrosion duration, corrosion methods, and the used of bulk materials have limited effect on the bonding stiffness of the specimens.

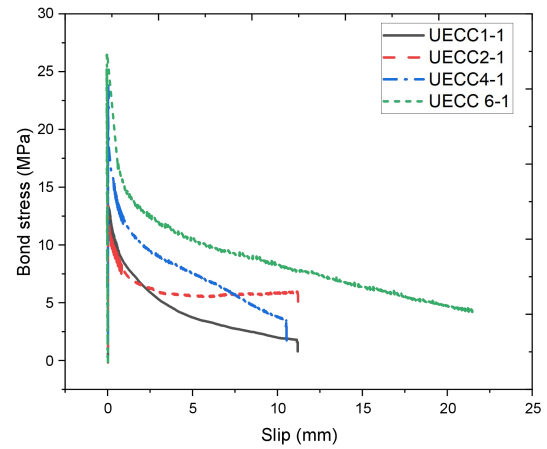
Compared with mortar specimens, ECC specimens showed better post-failure performance. In Fig. 17, the slip distance (i.e., A_2B_2 section in Fig. 16) for ECC specimens was longer than that of mortar specimens, which indicates that ECC materials have a better slip-resistance property after peak stress. When the steel rebar was pulled out (i.e., B_2C_2 section in Fig. 16), the stress-slip curves in Fig. 17 of mortar specimens developed horizontally while the ECC specimens still gradually decreasing, which implies the ECC materials can still provide sliding friction when steel rebar were pulling out. It can be seen from Table 7 that the failure modes of mortar samples are mostly splitting failure (SP) while ECC are mostly pull-out failure (PO). The SP failure mode denotes major cracks were observed during/after the pull-out tests. Thus, mortar samples could not provide any resistance after the generation of major cracks. On the other hand, the ECC samples kept intact during the pull-out tests,

490 the ring stress was not completely released. As a result, the ring stress provides the friction force
491 during the pull-out process for ECC samples. So, the post-failure performance of ECC is better than
492 that of mortar specimens.

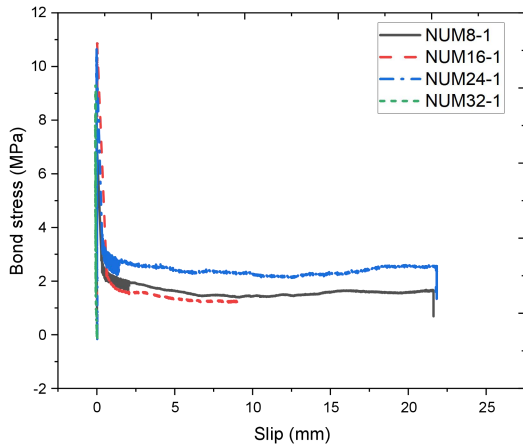
493 The residual bond stress for non-corrosion mortar sample was 1.45 MPa, while the non-uniform
494 corrosion mortar specimens were 1.76-5.51 MPa and the uniform corrosion mortar specimens were
495 1.71-6.36 MPa. For ECC specimens, the residual bond stress of non-corrosion specimen was 1.95
496 MPa, the non-uniform corrosion ECC specimens were 7.59-12.94 MPa while the uniform corrosion
497 specimens were 6.04-13.56 MPa. It can be seen that the residual bond stress for corroded specimens
498 were higher than that of the non-corrosion samples. This can be concluded that the friction between
499 the round rebar and mortar/ECC materials increased after corrosion, which increased its bonding
500 performance.



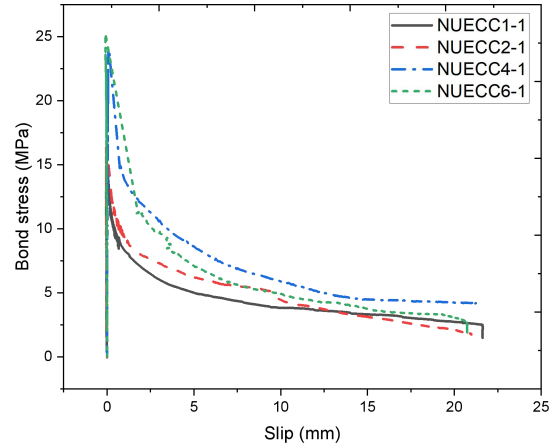
(a) Uniformly corroded mortar specimens.



(b) Uniformly corroded ECC specimens



(c) Non-uniformly corroded mortar specimens

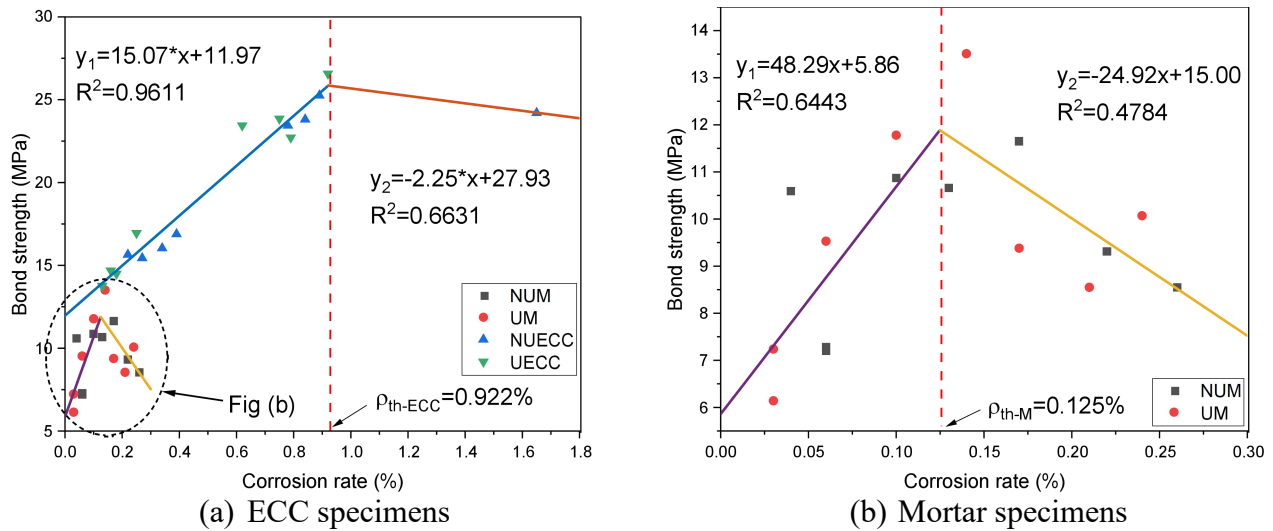


(d) Non-uniformly corroded ECC specimens

Fig. 17. Bond stress-slip curves of all specimens.

4.4.3. Bond strength and corrosion rate relationship

Fig. 18 presents the bond strength of corroded specimens in terms of corrosion rate. It is found that the bond strength for ECC and mortar specimens is independent with corrosion method. Both mortar and ECC specimens showed a trend of increasing first and then decreasing with the development of corrosion rate. The increase trend of bond strength with corrosion rate indicates that the appearing of corrosion pits would generate bite force between steel rebar and cementitious matrix. However, the volume expansion of corrosion products generated cracks in matrix, and thus, the bite force would be released, and the bond strength decreased after a threshold corrosion rate value. The linear fitting results indicate that the threshold corrosion rate for mortar specimen is 0.125% while the ECC specimen has the threshold corrosion rate value of 0.922%. The excellent tensile strength and ductility of ECC material result in a much higher threshold corrosion rate value than mortar specimen.



514 Fig. 18. Bond strength of corroded specimens in terms of corrosion rate.

515 **5. Conclusions**

516 In this work, the bonding performance of cement mortar and ECC materials under uniform and
 517 non-uniform corrosion methods were studied by electrical accelerated corrosion methods. The
 518 conclusions from this study can be drawn as follows:

- 519 1. Corrosion method has a great influence on cracking pattern. At a given corrosion level, the
 520 average crack width of mortar samples induced by non-uniform corrosion is generally larger
 521 than that induced by uniform corrosion, which can be attributed to the concentrated stress
 522 induced by the accumulated rust in non-uniform corrosion case. The micro-cracks generated
 523 in ECC specimens could release the expansion stress of rust. Thus, the average crack width of
 524 non-uniformly corroded ECC samples might be lower than that of uniformly corroded ECC
 525 samples (i.e., 6d of accelerated corrosion ECC samples in this work).
- 526 2. The uniform corrosion induced cracks evenly distributed around the steel rebar while the
 527 non-uniform corrosion induced cracks concentrated in a line perpendicular to the rebar -steel
 528 wire line which can be attributed to the rust accumulation.

529 3. Pull-out induced cracks developed along with the corrosion induced cracks. The pull-out
530 cracks of uniform corroded specimens uniformly distributed around the specimen surface
531 while the non-uniform corrosion specimens showed concentrated pull-out cracks on one side
532 with more rust, which can be attributed to the corrosion pits which increased the friction and
533 mechanical forces on the side close to the steel wire.

534 4. The bond strength of ECC and mortar specimens is independent with corrosion method. Both
535 ECC and mortar specimens showed a trend of increasing first and then decreasing with the
536 development of corrosion rate. The threshold corrosion rate for mortar specimen is 0.125%
537 while the ECC specimen has the threshold corrosion rate value of 0.922%.

538 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

539 **Chuanqing Fu:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Visualization, Investigation. **Rui He:**
540 Data curation, Writing- Original draft preparation, Writing- Reviewing and Editing. **Kejin Wang:**
541 Supervision.

542 **Data Availability Statement**

543 Some or all data, models, or code that support the findings of this study are available from the
544 corresponding author upon reasonable request.

545 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

546 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships
547 that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

548 **Acknowledgments**

549 Most corrosion tests were performed during the time the first author visited Iowa State University
550 (ISU), and the support from the Department of Civil, Construction and Environmental Engineering,
551 ISU, on the experiments is greatly appreciated. Authors would also like to acknowledge the financial
552 support from the Natural Science Foundation of Zhejiang Province (Grant No. LR21E080002,
553 LZ20E080003), and the National Natural Science Foundation (Grant Nos. 51678529 and 51978620).

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668

669

670 **Tables:**

671 Table 1. Chemical compositions of Portland cement and fly ash used in this work.

Composition	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	Fe ₂ O ₃	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	MgO	SO ₃	Other	LOI
Cement, %	19.2	5.29	2.48	63.69	0.04	0.51	2.88	2.82	0.39	2.7
Fly ash, %	30.7	16.48	6.8	28.8	2.97	0.27	6.74	3.47	3.28	0.49

672

673 Table 2. Physical properties of PVA fibers.

Length (L_f), mm	12
Diameter (D_f), μm	39
Aspect ratio (L_f/d_f)	308
Modulus of elasticity (E_f), GPa	42.8
Fiber strength, MPa	1600
Fiber density, g/cm^3	1.3
Surface-coated by Oil (by wt.)	1.2%

674

675 Table 3. Mixture proportion (by wt.)

Mixture ID	Binder (%)			FA/binder	SS/binder	Water/binder	SP/binder(%)	Volume of fiber
	Cement	FA	SS					
Mortar	0.2	0.8	0.2	0.8	0.2	0.22	0.60	0
ECC	0.2	0.8	0.2	0.8	0.2	0.22	0.60	2%

676

677 Table 4. A summary of cylinder specimens used in this work.

Sample ID	Test purposes	Materials	Corrosion types	Design corrosion rate (ρ_0 ,%)	Corrosion durations
UC	Corrosion uniformity test	ECC	Uniform (U)	/	5 d
NUC			Non-uniform (NU)	/	5 d
UECC0 (Ref)	Corrosion crack monitoring and	ECC	Uniform (U)	0	0 d
UECC1				0.16	1 d
UECC2				0.32	2 d
UECC4				0.64	4 d

UECC6	bonding strength		0.96	6 d
NUECC1	tests	Non-uniform (NU)	0.16	1 d
NUECC2			0.32	2 d
NUECC4			0.64	4 d
NUECC6			0.96	6 d
UM0 (Ref)				0
UM8	Mortar	Uniform (U)	0.05	8 h
UM16			0.11	16 h
UM24			0.16	24 h
UM32			0.21	32 h
NUM8				0.05
NUM16	Non-uniform (NU)		0.11	16 h
NUM24			0.16	24 h
NUM32			0.21	32 h

678 Note: Each mixture for bonding strength tests has 2 duplicates.

679

680

Table 5. Parameters used for FEM simulation.

Parameter	Symbol	Value	Unit	Source
External current density	i	2	A/m ²	Controlled in tests
Anodic exchange current density	i_a^0	3×10^{-4}	A/m ²	
Cathodic exchange current density	i_c^0	1×10^{-5}	A/m ²	(Cao and Cheung 2014)
Anodic equilibrium potential vs. SCE	φ_a^0	-0.78	V	
Cathodic equilibrium potential vs. SCE	φ_c^0	1.6	V	
Anodic Tafel slope	β_a	0.090	V/dec	
Cathode Tafel slope	β_c	-0.180	V/dec	
ECC resistivity	ρ	200	Ωm	
Volumetric expansion ratio of rust	a	2.35		

681 Note: SCE denotes saturated calomel electrode.

682

Table 6. Average values of crack width and the possibilities of cracks in different parts.

Mixtures	Corrosion crack width (mm)	Pull-out crack width (mm)	Possibilities of corrosion cracks in different parts (%)		Possibilities of pull-out cracks in different parts (%)	
			Part A+C	Part B+D	Part I	Part II
NUM	0.0647	0.1472	82.35	17.65	73.68	26.32
NUECC	0.0424	0.0856	76.47	23.53	56.25	43.75
UM	0.0492	0.1550	58.33	41.67	50.00	50.00
UECC	0.0359	0.0700	54.55	45.45	50.00	50.00

Table 7. Summarized results of corrosion and pull-out tests.

Sample ID	ρ_{des} , %	ρ_m , %	$\rho_{a,m}$, %	τ_u , MPa	$\tau_{a,u}$, MPa	η_s , %	Failure mode
UM0-1	-	-	-	2.86	2.47	-	PO
UM0-2	-	-	-	2.07			PO
NUM32-1	0.21%	0.22%	0.24%	9.31	8.93	3.62	SP
NUM32-2	0.21%	0.26%		8.55			SP
NUM24-1	0.16%	0.13%	0.15%	10.66	11.16	4.52	SP
NUM24-2	0.16%	0.17%		11.65			SP
NUM16-1	0.11%	0.10%	0.08%	10.87	9.04	3.66	SP
NUM16-2	0.11%	0.06%		7.2			SP
NUM8-1	0.05%	0.06%	0.05%	7.28	8.94	3.62	PO/SP
NUM8-2	0.05%	0.04%		10.59			SP
UM32-1	0.21%	0.24%	0.23%	10.07	9.31	3.77	SP
UM32-2	0.21%	0.21%		8.55			SP
UM24-1	0.16%	0.17%	0.16%	9.38	11.45	4.64	SP
UM24-2	0.16%	0.14%		13.51			SP
UM16-1	0.11%	0.10%	0.07%	11.78	8.96	3.63	SP
UM16-2	0.11%	0.03%		6.14			SP
UM8-1	0.05%	0.03%	0.05%	7.24	8.39	3.4	SP
UM8-2	0.05%	0.06%		9.53			PO/SP
UECC0-1	-	-	-	2.86	3.46	-	PO
UECC0-2	-	-		4.05			PO
NUECC6-1	0.96%	0.89%	1.27%	25.26	24.73	7.15	PO
NUECC6-2	0.96%	1.65%		24.2			PO
NUECC4-1	0.64%	0.78%	0.81%	23.44	23.63	6.83	PO
NUECC4-2	0.64%	0.84%		23.81			PO
NUECC2-1	0.32%	0.39%	0.37%	16.89	16.47	4.76	PO
NUECC2-1	0.32%	0.34%		16.04			PO
NUECC1-1	0.16%	0.27%	0.25%	15.44	15.55	4.49	PO
NUECC1-2	0.16%	0.22%		15.65			PO
UECC6-1	0.96%	0.92%	0.86%	26.57	24.64	7.12	PO/SP
UECC6-2	0.96%	0.79%		22.71			PO
UECC4-1	0.64%	0.62%	0.69%	23.44	23.65	6.84	PO

UECC4-2		0.75%		23.85			PO
UECC2-1		0.16%		14.68			PO
UECC2-2	0.16%	0.25%	0.21%	16.95	15.82	4.57	PO
UECC1-1		0.18%		14.49			PO
UECC1-2	0.32%	0.13%	0.16%	13.76	14.13	4.08	PO

686 Note:1. ρ_{des} denotes the design corrosion rate, ρ_m represents the measured corrosion rate of each
687 specimen and $\rho_{a,m}$ is the average corrosion rate of the duplicated specimens.

688 2. τ_u denotes the measured bond strength of each specimen and $\tau_{a,u}$ is the average bond strength of
689 duplicated specimens.

690 3. η_τ denotes the bond strength ratio between the corroded specimen and that of corresponding
691 uncorroded specimen.

692 4. failure mode: PO denotes the pull-out failure, after pull-out test, sample remained intact, no major
693 crack was observed (i.e., Fig. 15 (a)). SP denotes the splitting failure, after pull-out test, major cracks
694 was observed, sample split into several parts (i.e., Fig. 15 (b)). PO/SP denotes a failure mode in
695 between pull-out failure and splitting failure, major cracks was observed while specimen kept intact.