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Analysis of coherent surface wave dispersion and attenuation for non-destructive testing of concrete

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Abstract

Rayleigh waves measurements are used to characterise cover concrete and mortar in the frequency range 60-180 kHz. At these frequencies, the wavelength is comparable to the size of the aggregates, and waves propagate in a multiple scattering regime. Acquired signals are then difficult to interpret due to an important *incoherent* part. The method proposed here is the study of the *coherent* waves, obtained by averaging signals over several configurations of disorder. *Coherent* waves give information on an equivalent homogeneous medium. To acquire a large amount of measurements with accuracy, an optimised piezoelectric source is used with a laser interferometer for reception. Adapted signal processing techniques are presented to evaluate the coherent phase and group velocities and also the coherent attenuation parameter. The sensitivity of these three parameters with the properties of concrete is discussed, as well as the necessity to use coherent waves to obtain accurate results.

Key words: concrete, Rayleigh waves, ultrasounds, laser interferometer, scattering, effective medium, dispersion, attenuation, signal processing

1. Introduction

On-site non-destructive evaluation of concrete is a major issue for monitoring the durability of civil engineering structures. Concrete structures are subjected to aggressive attacks from the outside (water, chlorides, weathering variations, ...) which may minimise their durability. In particular, near surface concrete is directly in contact with these aggressive attacks. This cover concrete thickness is 30-50 mm and it essentially protects the steel reinforcing bars from corrosion [1], which can induce macro-cracks due to the expansion of the steel. An early diagnostic of the pathologies of cover concrete may prevent expensive repairs.

Among all non-destructive testing methods available for concrete [2], the use of ultrasonic waves is of great interest to evaluate mechanical properties. Velocity and attenuation of such waves can be used to determine the viscoelastic properties (such as Young Modulus, Poisson ratio, or Lamé coefficients), and also to characterise micro-structural properties of materials (porosity, grain size, micro-cracks, ...). The first method employed for over 50 years was the

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23 ultrasonic pulse velocity [2, 3, 4], consisting in measuring the time taken by an ultrasonic pulse
24 to travel through a concrete sample.

25 However, precise measurements and their interpretations are difficult due to the inherent
26 strongly heterogeneous nature of concrete. Concrete is basically composed of a mix of cement,
27 sand, water and coarse aggregates. Sand are small particles with a mean diameter below 4 mm,
28 while aggregates are the largest particles with dimensions varying from a few millimetres up
29 to 20 mm or larger. Mortar can be distinguished from concrete because it contains only the
30 small particles (sand, cement, water) without the coarser aggregates. Mortar and concrete also
31 contains pores and capillaries, with sizes from about 10^{-6} mm to a few millimetres. These pores
32 may be filled with air or water. Porosity of these cement paste materials can be directly linked
33 with the water to cement ratio by mass (w/c) of the mix proportions of the concrete. All these
34 heterogeneities, of various size range, strongly affects the propagation of ultrasonic waves, their
35 influence depending on the frequencies used.

36 In the past 10 years, with the improvements in transducer design, computing and signal
37 processing, several experimental studies, using through-transmission ultrasonic measurements,
38 with compression or shear waves, have been carried out on different cement paste materials:
39 cement, mortar or concrete.

40 On a pure cement matrix, measurements above 500 kHz show an increase of the attenuation
41 factor when 10% of entrained air voids of 1 mm diameter are present [5]. Measurements on
42 fresh mortar [6] shows that the influence of similar air voids is negligible below 500 kHz. In
43 the same experiment, it is shown that the influence of sand particles with a 1-4 mm diameter on
44 the attenuation factor is only noticeable above 500 kHz. Influence of air voids, represented by
45 expanded polystyrene spheres of 2 mm diameter, in a cement-paste matrix with small aggregates
46 (4-8 mm), is presented in [7]. All of these studies show that the influence of air voids and small
47 sand particles on the velocity or the attenuation factor at low frequencies (below 500 kHz) is very
48 low.

49 Influence of grain size (sand and aggregates) was particularly underlined in [8] and [9], com-
50 paring the frequency dependence of the attenuation and pulse velocity of compression waves on
51 cement, fine mortar, coarse mortar and concrete, over the range 50-1000 kHz. In particular, only
52 coarse aggregates with a diameter greater than 5 mm have a significant influence below 200 kHz.
53 The influence of grain size is clearly visible on the attenuation of the waves while the w/c ratio
54 mainly affects the pulse velocity.

55 All these studies [5, 6, 7, 8, 9] consider through-transmission measurements. Another way to
56 characterise concrete or mortar is to use surface measurements. Rayleigh waves are well adapted
57 to the characterisation of near surface deterioration of concrete, as their penetration depth is
58 close to the wavelength. Thus they are suitable to provide information about the first centimetres
59 of the concrete. Another advantage of surface waves is that they are more convenient for on-
60 site measurements than through-transmission measurements, since most concrete structures are
61 accessible only on one side.

62 Young modulus and Poisson ratio have been extracted from low frequency Rayleigh mea-
63 surements (50 kHz) in [10], using simple compression waves transducers. Wedge transducers
64 were used in [11, 13] to optimise the generation of Rayleigh waves on mortar, showing the high
65 sensitivity of these waves with the cover degradation of the samples for frequencies higher than
66 50 kHz. The potential use of lasers for generation and detection of Rayleigh waves on concrete
67 is presented in [14] and applied in [15, 16] on mortar slabs, allowing non-contact measurements
68 over the range 200-1000 kHz. In this frequency range, it is shown that the scattering by small
69 particles ($< 5\text{ mm}$) does not dominate attenuation compared to the absorption losses. A third

70 way to generate Rayleigh waves is the use of a pencil lead break in [17, 18], which produces a
71 point-like source with a bandwidth 0-200 kHz, but with very low energy : piezoelectric transduc-
72 ers were used for the reception at short distance away from the source. The medium was mortar
73 with small thin vinyl plate inclusions, simulating small cracks in cement. The study show that
74 Rayleigh waves are more sensitive to this kind of inclusions than compression waves, and that
75 the effect of the shape of these inclusions is important.

76 Another interest of Rayleigh waves is their ability to evaluate properties varying with depth,
77 especially in the case of layered media, for example a damaged layer over a sound material. This
78 approach is classically used in geophysics. Attempts of using this property of Rayleigh waves
79 on mortar have been envisaged in [19], and on concrete in [20].

80 All studies show the influence of the heterogeneities of mortar or concrete in different fre-
81 quency range. The objective of this paper is the evaluation of cover concrete with Rayleigh
82 waves. The depth of penetration of Rayleigh waves is close to the wavelength, therefore, to in-
83 vestigate the three first centimetres of concrete, frequencies over the range 50-200 kHz will be
84 used, providing wavelength from about 10 to 50 mm. In this frequency range, the effect of pores
85 and small particles ($< 5\text{ mm}$) on the attenuation and velocity is negligible compared to absorption
86 losses, but the coarser aggregates will interact strongly with the waves.

87 The first part of the paper introduces the process needed to focus on global properties of
88 concrete. Then experimental configuration will be described. In the third chapter particular
89 attention will be drawn to the acquisition setup, allowing the use of very precise methods to
90 evaluate phase and group velocity dispersion curves and attenuation factor. The last chapter give
91 results in terms of field properties for various concrete and mortar. All the following is written
92 trying to determine some mechanical and micro-structural signatures from the field properties.

93 **2. Homogeneous effective medium**

94 Concrete can be considered as a random distribution of scatterers (aggregates) of different
95 nature, shape and size in a cement matrix. Waves propagating in such media with a wavelength
96 comparable to the size of scatterers will propagate in a multiple scattering regime. As a result,
97 the measured signals will be composed of a coherent part independent to the specific position
98 of scatterers [21], and also of an important incoherent part specific to the given configuration of
99 heterogeneities encountered.

100 Then it is possible to take into account an aspect of the randomness by considering the aver-
101 age value of the measurements over a statistical ensemble of collections of scatterers. This notion
102 was introduced by Foldy in 1945 [22]. During the propagation, a part of the energy is transfered
103 from the coherent part into the incoherent part due to multiple scattering. When performing the
104 ensemble average the incoherent part is eliminated, and only the coherent part survives. The
105 energy transfered to the incoherent part is lost and this induce an additional attenuation of the co-
106 herent part. This field can be interpreted as the field propagating in an equivalent homogeneous
107 medium also called effective medium.

108 The incoherent part doesn't resists to the averaging of disorder. It is composed of all the late
109 arrivals of wave trains multiply scattered by the heterogeneities and is sometimes called "coda".
110 This "coda" is often considered as noise, but still contains exploitable information [23, 24]. This
111 paper will only focus on the coherent part of the signals.

112 In order to evaluate the mechanical properties of concrete, studying a single configuration
113 of disorder will lead to inaccurate results. Indeed, the signal containing an important incoherent

part, the results will mainly depend on the specific configuration of aggregates at the given point, and not on the general properties of the concrete. The evaluation of the coherent field allows to avoid this problem. In this case the phase velocity, group velocity and attenuation factor of the field will give information on the effective medium what can be interpreted as the average mechanical properties of the concrete.

It is then essential to perform measurements on numerous equivalent configurations of disorder, i.e. at different positions on the tested sample of concrete, using the same source and the same receiver and at the same distance of propagation. This approach have been used on concrete by [7] with through transmission measurements and [17, 18] with surface waves. [7] used 9 configurations of disorder, and [17, 18] used about 30 equivalent configurations to obtain the coherent part.

3. Experimental procedure

3.1. Concrete slabs

The measurements are carried out on concrete slabs of $60\text{ cm} \times 60\text{ cm} \times 12\text{ cm}$. There are two different series of concrete with different w/c and a maximum grain size ($D_{max} = 20\text{ mm}$). Two series of mortar ($D_{max} = 4\text{ mm}$) are made with the same w/c than the concretes. The characteristics of each series are summarised in table 1, and the granulometric curves are presented in Fig. 1. Each series is composed of 5 slabs.

	$w/c = 0.35$	$w/c = 0.65$
$D_{max} = 20\text{ mm}$	B1	B2
$D_{max} = 4\text{ mm}$	M1	M2

Table 1: Characteristics of each series of concrete and mortar.

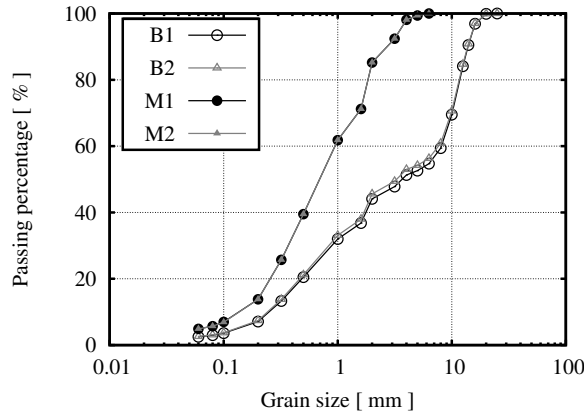


Figure 1: Granulometric curves of the concrete and mortar specimens.

The water content of concretes or mortars have been shown to have a significant influence on the propagation of ultrasound [12]. In order to guarantee a constant water content of the concrete slabs, they are stored immersed in water with additional lime. The water content ratio of the

135 slabs is then very close to 100%. The slabs are taken out of the water only during the ultrasonic
 136 measurements (a few hours). When the measurements were performed, the slabs had an age
 137 between 6 and 10 months. At this age, the mechanical properties of concrete are assumed to be
 138 stabilised.

139 3.2. Experimental setup

140 The experimental setup is similar to multi-station acquisition commonly used in geophysics
 141 : a source emits a wavefield and the measurements are performed with a linear array of receivers
 142 away from the source. In the present case, the source will be repetitive and the receiver will be
 143 moved along a line to reproduce an array of reception points.

144 Rayleigh waves are generated with a piezoelectric transducer (Imasonic). The transducer
 145 emits a compression wave and is equipped with a wedge to allow an incidence of the emitted
 146 wave with the concrete slab at an angle favouring the conversion to Rayleigh waves [13]. The
 147 wedge is coupled with the concrete with Gel D (Sofranel) over a thin scotch-tape. The scotch-
 148 tape avoids the gel to penetrate into the concrete, and makes the manual positioning of the wedge
 149 easier. The center frequency of the transducer is 120 kHz. It is excited with a Ricker wavelet
 150 amplified by a Ritec Gated RF amplifier. The bandwidth at -20 dB of the emitted Rayleigh waves
 151 ranges from 50 kHz to 200 kHz.

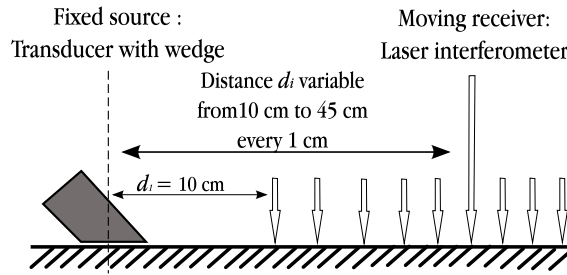


Figure 2: Experimental setup

152 The reception is performed with a laser interferometer (Tempo by BossaNova Tech.). It
 153 allows non contact acquisition of the normal displacement of the surface of the concrete slab. The
 154 beam diameter of the laser is around $50 \mu\text{m}$, so the measurements are point-like. A reflecting tape
 155 on the concrete enhance the quality of the signals [14]. The reflective tape is carefully positioned
 156 on the concrete surface to ensure that no voids are present. The laser interferometer is mounted
 157 on an automatic measurement bench. The laser is moved along a line in front of the transducer
 158 to have measurements at different distances of propagation d_i between 10 cm and 45 cm. The
 159 first reception point is taken at $d_1 = 10$ cm from the source to avoid near offset effects. A signal
 160 is acquired every $\delta d = 10$ mm, so that the whole profile is composed of 36 signals. Figure 2
 161 presents the experimental setup. To reduce the signal to noise ratio, each signal is time-averaged
 162 over 256 acquisitions at each reception point.

163 In order to have different configurations of disorder to evaluate the coherent field, 9 parallel
 164 profiles, separated of $L = 40$ mm, are acquired on both sides of the slabs. L was chosen so that
 165 $L > D_{max}$ and $L > \lambda_{max}/2$ to ensure that profiles are not correlated. As there are 5 slabs for
 166 each series, we acquire a data-set of 90 different multi-station profiles for each concrete series
 167 B1 and B2. Only 36 profiles were acquired for mortar series M1 and M2 as the heterogeneities

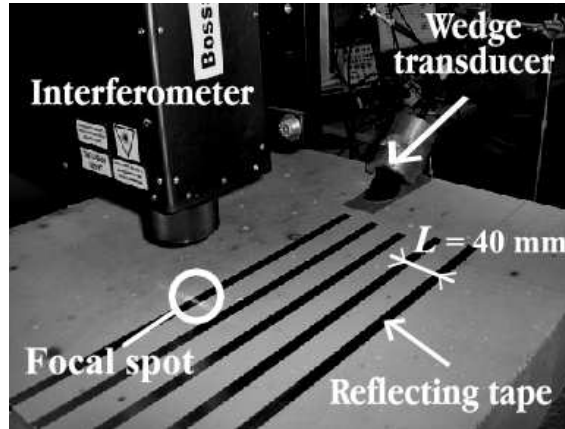


Figure 3: Acquiring parallel profiles to obtain different configurations of disorder

168 of mortar are too small to generate an important incoherent part for the frequencies considered.
 169 Figure 3 shows a picture of the setup, with the wedge transducer and the laser interferometer.
 170 The reflecting tapes shows the positions of different acquisition profiles.

171 4. Coherent field

172 4.1. Preprocessing

173 Before evaluating the dispersion and attenuation curves, some pre-processing have to be
 174 undergone to eliminate artifacts due to the experimental setup.

175 For each profile measured, the source transducer was placed by hand, and the focus of the
 176 laser beam was adjusted. The whole 36 signals of the profile were automatically acquired with
 177 the same adjustments, so that the amplitudes of these signals are comparable one from the others.
 178 On the contrary, from one profile to another the adjustments change and the amplitudes
 179 are not fully comparable. For example Fig. 4 presents the maximum amplitude of the measured
 180 displacement for each profile of the series B2 at the offset $d_1 = 10$ cm. The average maximum
 181 amplitude is about 100 \AA but the variation is very important, up to 750 \AA . This effect is corrected
 182 by normalising each profile by the maximum amplitude of its first signal (at offset $d_1 = 10$ cm).
 183 Doing so, the relative amplitude variation inside a given profile remains the same, but all dif-
 184 ferent profiles become comparable. The absolute displacement is not needed by the following
 185 signal processing methods, as they only use relative variations of phase or amplitude along the
 186 propagation path.

187 Another effect of the hand positioning of the source transducer is that the transducer can-
 188 not be positioned exactly at the same distance from the first reception point. The difference, a
 189 few millimetres, induce short time-lags between the signals from a profile to the others. These
 190 time-lags are evaluated doing cross-correlation between the first signals of each profile, and the
 191 correction is applied on all the signals of the profile.

192 Figure 5 presents two single seismograms for two given profiles on a concrete slab on the
 193 series B2. All signals present an important incoherent part that fluctuates from one seismogram
 194 to the other. Some of these individual signals are presented in gray on figure 6, along with the
 195 coherent signal.

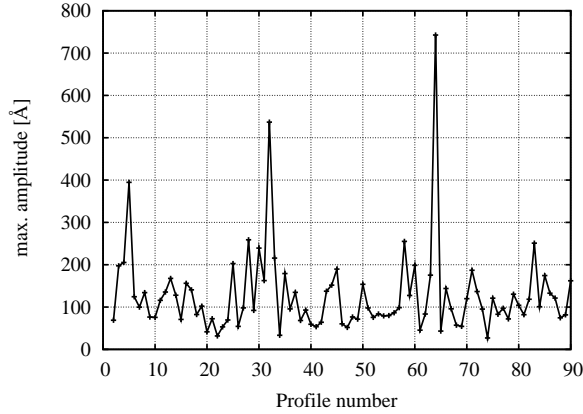


Figure 4: Maximum amplitude of displacement in Å for each signal of series B2 at the offset $d = 10$ cm.

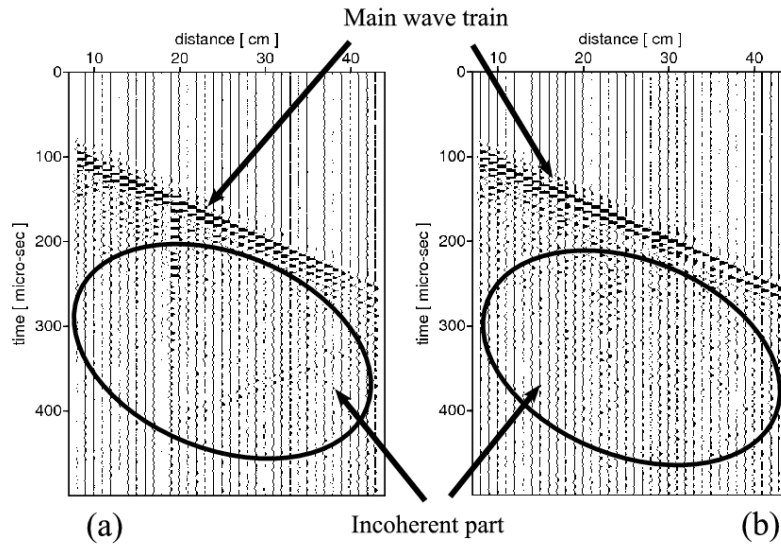


Figure 5: Comparison between two given profiles measurements for series B2.

196 The coherent field for each series is obtained by spatially averaging the different equivalent
 197 configurations of disorder (90 configurations for concretes B1 and B2, and 36 configurations
 198 for mortars M1 and M2). In elastic media the amplitude of surface waves decreases with the
 199 distance of propagation d as $1/\sqrt{d}$ due to geometrical spreading in the case of a point source or
 200 in the axis perpendicular to a line source. This approximation in $1/\sqrt{d}$ is still valid in the axis of
 201 our transducers. This decrease is contained in the attenuation measurements and is corrected on
 202 this coherent field to focus on the material properties (multiple scattering by heterogeneities and
 203 viscoelasticity effects).

204 The coherent field for series B2 is presented in figure 7-(a), incoherent contributions to the

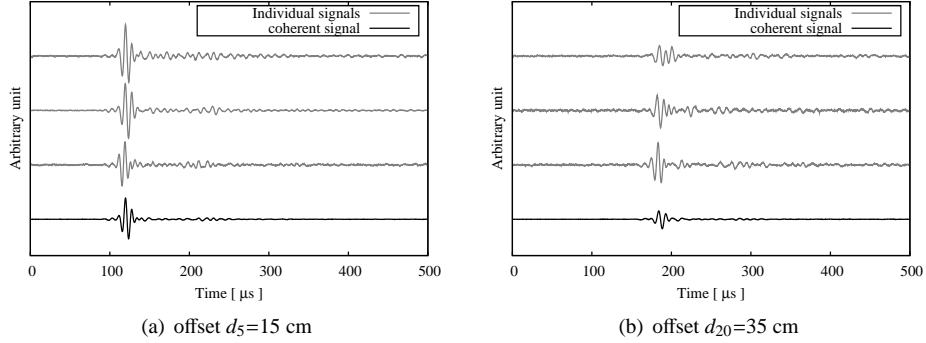


Figure 6: Visualisation of some individual signals, and the corresponding coherent field for B2.

205 field are no longer visible on the seismogram and two main wave trains can be noticed. The
 206 first one is the most important and corresponds to the coherent Rayleigh wave. The second one
 207 is parallel to the first one : it is a wave travelling in the same direction and with approximately
 208 the same velocity as the main wave train. This second wave train corresponds to a reflection
 209 of the wave emitted by the transducer inside the wedge. To eliminate artifacts induced by this
 210 reflection, the main wave train is windowed with a flat top Hann window. The width of the
 211 window was kept constant for all distances of propagation. The resulting coherent seismogram
 212 for B2 is presented on figure 7-(b).

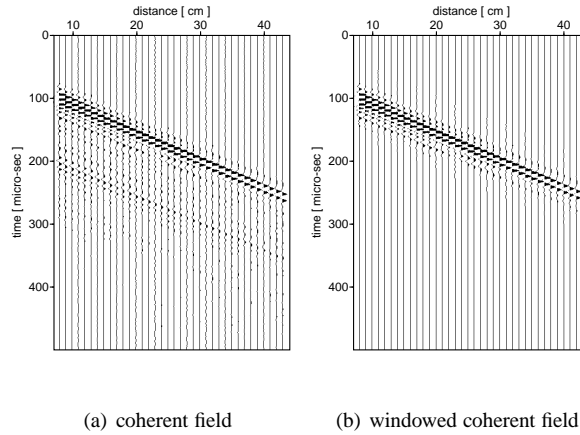


Figure 7: Averaged profile over 90 configurations for B2. (a) non windowed coherent field, (b) coherent field windowed around the main wave train.

213 4.2. Amplitude spectrum

214 The amplitude spectrum provides useful information about the propagation. The major part
 215 of all the processing to evaluate phase and group velocity and the attenuation factor will be done
 216 in the frequency domain.

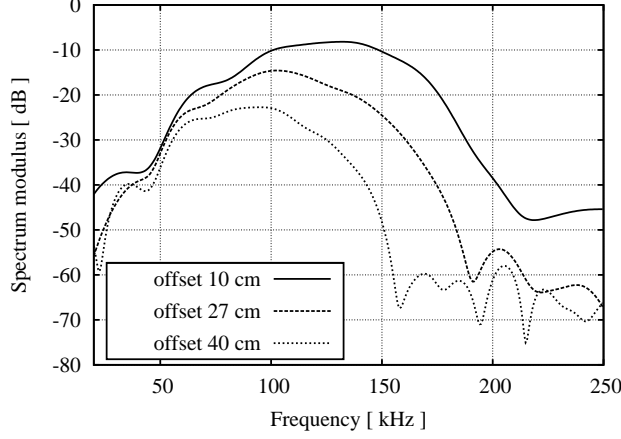


Figure 8: Spectrum modulus of the windowed coherent field at different distances of propagation for series B2.

217 Figure 8 presents an example of the spectrum modulus of the windowed coherent field for
 218 the concrete series B2, at different distances of propagation; the first reception point at 10 cm, in
 219 the middle of the profile at 27 cm, and the last reception point at 45 cm. The transducer center
 220 frequency is 120 kHz, and its bandwidth ranges from 60 kHz to 180 kHz. Figure 8 shows that the
 221 higher frequencies are more attenuated as the distance of propagation increases; the last reception
 222 points will not be suitable to evaluate the effective parameters for the higher frequencies.

223 5. Signal processing methods

224 5.1. Phase velocity

225 The coherent phase velocity $v_\varphi(\omega)$ is computed using the $p-\omega$ transform. This method
 226 is commonly used to study the dispersion of surface waves in geophysics [26, 27, 28, 36]. It
 227 consists in transforming the entire data wave field into the slowness-frequency domain, where
 228 p represents the slowness of the waves ($p = 1/v_\varphi$) and ω the angular frequency. It was first
 229 described by McMechan and Yedlin (1981) in the time domain [25]. Mokhtar (1981) proposed
 230 another formulation of this method entirely in the frequency domain which is used here [26].

231 In the case of media with a single mode of propagation of the waves with the slowness $p_0(\omega)$,
 232 the Fourier transform over time of the coherent field $s(\omega, d_i)$ at the angular frequency ω and at
 233 the distance of propagation d_i can be written as:

$$s(\omega, d_i) = A(\omega, d_i)e^{-i\omega p_0(\omega)d_i}, \quad (1)$$

234 where $A(\omega, d_i)$ is the amplitude spectrum at d_i . The $p-\omega$ stack $\hat{s}(\omega, p)$ is

$$\hat{s}(\omega, p) = \sum_{i=1}^N A(\omega, d_i)e^{i\omega(p-p_0(\omega))d_i}. \quad (2)$$

235 The computation of $\hat{s}(\omega, p)$ is performed for several values of p . Given ω , the maximum of the
 236 modulus $|\hat{s}(\omega, p)|$ is reached for $p = p_0(\omega)$; the $|\hat{s}(\omega, p)|$ map is plotted as a 2-D function of p and
 237 ω and the maximum locus is extracted for each frequency.

238 Some problems of aliasing and limited resolution may be encountered as in any spectral
 239 analysis of discrete data. All these artifacts were described by Forbriger (2003) [27]. Aliasing
 240 occurs when the distance δd between two reception points is too large compared to the shortest
 241 wavelength considered, while resolution is limited by the total length of the acquisition setup
 242 (i.e. the distance between the first and the last receiver). In general, the longest wavelength
 243 accessible (corresponding to the lowest desired frequency) is assumed to be shorter than 40-50%
 244 of the total length of the acquisition setup. If this setup is too short, the estimated phase velocity
 245 for the lower frequencies will be inaccurate.

246 Experimental setup presented in Sec. 3.2 was designed to take account of all these artifacts
 247 and to provide accurate measurements in the bandwidth 60kHz-180kHz. For the lowest frequen-
 248 cies, all the reception points will be used to evaluate $v_\varphi(\omega)$, to have an acquisition setup long
 249 enough. For the highest frequencies, only the reception points containing enough energy at these
 250 frequencies compared to the noise level will be used, as seen in Fig. 8.

251 5.2. Group velocity

252 It is theoretically possible to deduce the group velocity dispersion curve $v_g(\omega)$ from $v_\varphi(\omega)$, as
 253 these two quantities are linked in elastic mediums by the following relation [29] :

$$v_\varphi = \frac{\omega}{k} \quad \text{and} \quad v_g = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial k} \quad (3)$$

254 However, in the case of experimental measurements, the numerical derivation of $v_\varphi(\omega)$ is per-
 255 turbed by the quick small fluctuations in measured values. Using another processing method to
 256 evaluate the coherent group velocity from the measurements provide additional complementary
 257 information on the propagation.

258 $v_g(\omega)$ provides information about the velocity of wave-packets centered around a given fre-
 259 quency. It is classically obtained by the calculation of spectrograms, or through the Multiple
 260 Filter Analysis (MFA) [30]. The principle is the following: the signal is filtered in the frequency
 261 domain by a series of narrow Gaussian filters centered around various frequencies f_i . The width
 262 of each filter i is chosen at $\Delta f_i = 0.7f_i$. Each filtered signal produces a wave-packet in the time
 263 domain. It is then possible to draw a time-frequency representation of the signals. The time
 264 of flight Δt_i of the maximum of the envelope of each wave-packets is then evaluated between
 265 two acquisition points separated by a distance Δd , providing an evaluation of the group velocity
 266 around the frequency f_i .

267 This method lead to systematic errors as with many time-frequency representations. Kodera
 268 *et al* [31] present a method called reassignment to improve the accuracy of time-frequency rep-
 269 resentations, using the fact that these kind of errors are predictable if the filters are known. This
 270 notion was later developed in a practical way and generalised by Auger and Flandrin [32]. Clas-
 271 sical time frequency methods such as MFA allocate the energy of the signal at a point in the
 272 time-frequency plane. Due to the width of the filters used, at a given frequency the energy is
 273 spread around its real location. The principle is to change the attribution point of this energy
 274 and to assign it to the center of gravity of all these energy contributions. Then the reassignment
 275 method improves the sharpness of the localisation of the signal components by reallocating its
 276 energy distribution in the time-frequency plane. The efficiency of this method applied on sur-
 277 face waves was presented by Pedersen [33]. The development of the method is fully presented
 278 in [32, 33] and is over the goal of this paper.

279 Only two reception points are theoretically needed to compute the reassigned MFA maps. As
 280 we use an array of 36 reception points, it is possible to produce a variety of time-frequency maps.

281 We choose to take the first reception point at d_1 as a reference and then compute reassigned MFA
 282 maps with the signals from reception points number 10 ($d_{10} - d_1 = 9$ cm) to the number 30
 283 ($d_{30} - d_1 = 29$ cm) and then compute the average of the maps. Reception signals acquired too
 284 close to the reference signal are not used as too small Δd and Δt_i induce great fluctuations in the
 285 result. The farthest reception points do not contain enough energy compared to the noise level
 286 and are also eliminated. The coherent $v_g(\omega)$ is then picked from the maxima of this average map.

287 5.3. Attenuation factor

288 The attenuation factor is estimated from the decrease of the amplitude spectrum of the coher-
 289 ent field during propagation.

290 In the frequency domain, the amplitude $A(\omega, d_i)$ in equation (1)-(2) is assumed to take the
 291 following expression (Eq. 4):

$$A(\omega, d_i) = A_1(\omega)e^{-\alpha(\omega)(d_i-d_1)}, \quad (4)$$

292 where $A_1(\omega)$ is the amplitude of s at the first receiver located at the offset d_1 . The attenuation
 293 parameter $\alpha(\omega)$ is determined by the slope of a least-square linear fit of $\ln(A(\omega, d_i))$. To elimi-
 294 nate small noise variation in the spectrums, a light smoothing was performed on each coherent
 295 amplitude spectrums with a moving average over f . Geometrical spreading was corrected by
 296 multiplying the signals by $\sqrt{d_i}$ (see Sec. 4.1).

297 In the same way as for the phase velocity, the attenuation factor for lower frequencies will be
 298 estimated using the whole reception points of the setup (36 reception points), while for the higher
 299 frequencies only the first reception points containing enough energy will be used, according to
 300 the study of Sec. 4.2.

301 6. Results and discussion

302 6.1. Phase velocity

303 Experimental coherent phase velocity dispersion curves are presented in Fig. 9. The two
 304 concretes are represented with the empty circle and triangles, while the mortars are presented
 305 with the filled items. Series with the same item share the same w/c ratio; triangles correspond to
 306 $w/c = 0.65$ and circles correspond to $w/c = 0.35$.

307 The curves are clearly distinguishable the one from the other. For a given w/c ratio of the
 308 cement paste, the presence of the aggregates increases the phase velocity of about 10%. The fact
 309 that the phase velocity also decreases with the increase of w/c is commonly observed [9], as a
 310 high w/c ratio induces higher porosity and hence lower mechanical strength.

311 For the series with the higher w/c ratio (B2 and M2), a slight decrease can be noticed on
 312 the dispersion curves of the phase velocity. This decrease can also be noticed on concrete B1,
 313 but is less important. For Rayleigh waves, this is in general due to a gradient of properties of
 314 the material with depth; larger wavelengths penetrate deeper whereas short wavelengths are only
 315 sensitive to the upper part of the material, leading to different phase velocity values if a gradient
 316 is present. It is known that aggregate distribution with depth is non uniform due to wall effects, as
 317 the bigger aggregates cannot be as close to the surface as half their dimension [34]. However, as
 318 this phenomenon occurs either on concrete B2 or mortar M2, containing only small particles, this
 319 aggregate distribution effect is not the main cause of this dispersion behaviour. A change of free
 320 water content may be envisaged, due to a drying of the surface of the slabs during the experiment,
 321 but weight measurements showed that the water loss was negligible. It is also remarkable that

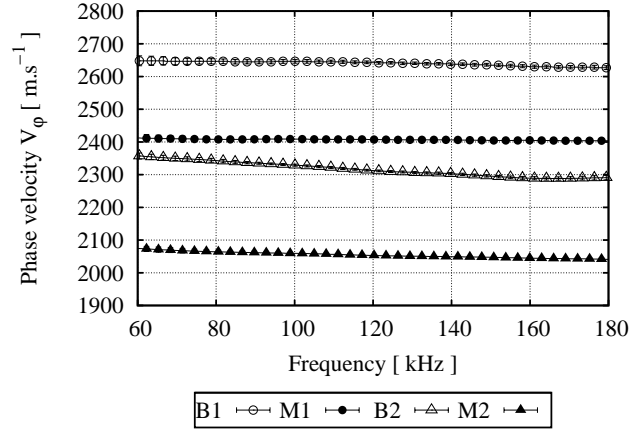


Figure 9: Dispersion curves for the coherent phase velocity $v_\varphi(\omega)$.

322 this decrease is less important in the case of low w/c , with low porosity. Then the reason of the
 323 dispersive behaviour for M2 and B2 can be a change of porosity with depth.

324 *6.2. Group velocity*

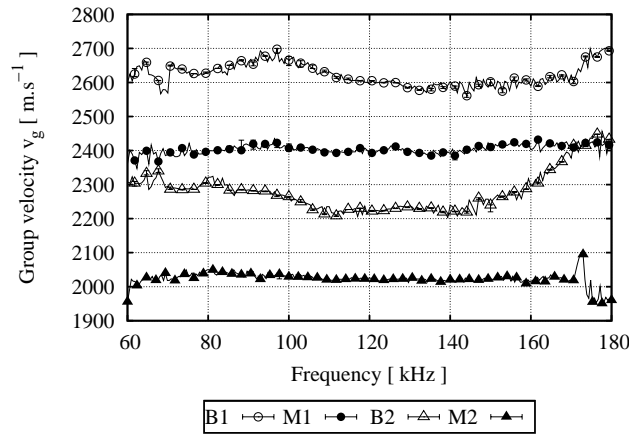


Figure 10: Dispersion curves for the coherent group velocity $v_g(\omega)$.

325 Coherent group velocities dispersion curves show additional information about the propaga-
 326 tion of waves. For non-dispersive materials, group and phase velocities should be equal, but their
 327 values differ in dispersive media. Experimental results (Fig. 10) show some similarities with the
 328 phase velocity dispersion curves (Fig. 9). The 4 series are clearly distinguishable the one from
 329 the others, and the average group velocity is close to the average phase velocity.

330 The main difference is the behaviour of the two concrete series B1 and B2. While the mortar
 331 series M1 and M2 show a nearly constant group velocity, both concrete series show similar varia-
 332 tions with frequency. Group velocity decreases around 100 kHz of about 100 m.s^{-1} , stabilises,

333 and increases again after 150 kHz. B1 and B2 containing the same amount, nature and size of ag-
 334 gregates, the presence of the aggregates clearly modifies the coherent group velocity dispersion
 335 of Rayleigh waves.

336 In this frequency range, the presence of aggregates is more clearly visible on the coherent
 337 group velocity dispersion curves than on the coherent phase velocity, as $v_g(\omega)$ shows a particular
 338 signature when aggregates are present. On the contrary, a change in the w/c ratio is more visible
 339 on the coherent phase velocity measurements by the dispersion of $v_\varphi(\omega)$. These two coherent
 340 velocity measurements provide complementary information on the concrete or mortar. It is then
 341 important to make a distinction between phase and group velocity measurements to characterise
 342 concrete as their sensitivity are different in this frequency range.

343 6.3. Attenuation factor

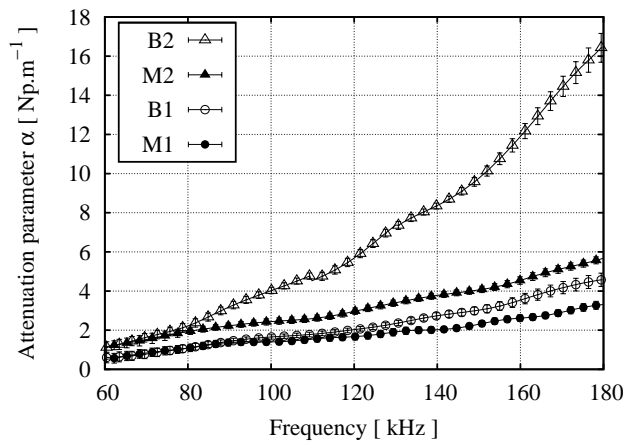


Figure 11: Coherent attenuation parameter $\alpha(\omega)$.

344 Attenuation parameter measurements are of great interest in non-destructive evaluation, as
 345 attenuation is sensitive both to microstructural and viscoelastic parameters of the media. How-
 346 ever, interpretation is complex because the attenuation parameter measured (i.e. the decrease
 347 of the frequency component with the distance of propagation) contains information about all
 348 the attenuative processes : geometrical spreading, scattering by large and small heterogeneities
 349 (aggregates, sand, air voids, pores,...), and intrinsic attenuation due to the viscoelasticity of
 350 the materials. All these effects are mixed together and it is difficult to evaluate the contribu-
 351 tion of a single effect. Geometrical spreading effects were corrected in Sec.4.1. Thus, coherent
 352 attenuation parameter curves presented in Fig. 11 contain information about the scattering by
 353 aggregates, attenuation due to porosity and micro-cracks of the cement paste, and attenuation
 354 due to viscoelasticity.

355 For the mortar series M1 and M2, the attenuation factor curves are almost linear with fre-
 356 quency, and a higher w/c (higher porosity) logically induces a higher values of the attenua-
 357 tion parameter. When aggregates are present, the effect of scattering by the aggregates are added to
 358 the other effects. The contribution of the multiple scattering can be deduced by comparing the
 359 mortar and concrete sharing the same w/c and mix properties (B1-M1 or B2-M2).

360 At low frequencies, no difference is visible between a concrete and its corresponding mortar
 361 (below 80 kHz for B1-M1, and below 120 kHz for B2-M2), the effect of the aggregates is
 362 negligible comparing to all other effects. As the frequency increases, the wavelength becomes
 363 comparable with the aggregate size, and the attenuation parameter increases due to scattering.
 364 For $w/c = 0.35$ (B1-M1), these scattering effects are not important, and the attenuation parameter
 365 increases only of about 1 Np.m^{-1} . On the contrary, for $w/c = 0.65$, the change in the
 366 attenuation factor due to aggregates is very important. It is difficult to distinguish the three series
 367 B1, M1 and M2, while B2 is clearly different.

368 Concretes series B1 and B2 share the same kind and quantity of aggregates, and differ only
 369 by their w/c . Multiple scattering does not only depend on the shape and size of the scatterers,
 370 but also on the contrast between the mortar and the aggregates. For various w/c the macroscopic
 371 properties of mortar are different what can explain the change of attenuation. Moreover, when
 372 porosity of the cement paste is high, contact between aggregates and mortar may be non perfect,
 373 this modification of the microstructure in the interface zone may cause the distinct behaviour of
 374 the attenuation curves. This investigation can not distinguish between these two hypotheses, but
 375 highlight that evaluation of attenuation of wave in concrete looks very efficient to evaluate and
 376 characterise concrete.

377 7. Configurations of disorder

378 Coherent phase velocity, group velocity, and coherent attenuation parameter studied in the
 379 section before were measured using a voluntarily high number of configuration of disorder N_{dis}
 380 for the evaluation of the coherent field : $N_{dis} = 90$ for the concrete series and $N_{dis} = 36$ for
 381 the mortar series. As a result, the evaluation of the coherent propagation parameters are very
 382 accurate and correctly take into account the heterogeneous nature of the materials. In particular,
 383 coherent attenuation parameters measurements show that the difference between B1, M1 and M2
 384 is very low (less than 2 Np.m^{-1}), but all three series can still be compared due to the accuracy of
 385 the measurements. However, it is usually not possible to acquire 90 different configurations of
 386 disorder, for economic or time reason. Fig. 12 and 13 show the influence of N_{dis} on the value of
 387 the phase velocity and the attenuation factor at low frequencies (60 kHz) and high frequencies
 388 (180 kHz).

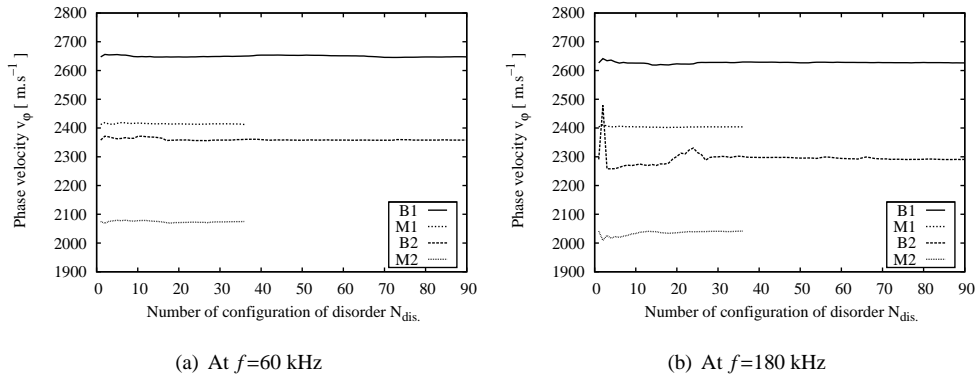


Figure 12: Influence of the number of configurations of disorder on the evaluation of the phase velocity v_ϕ .

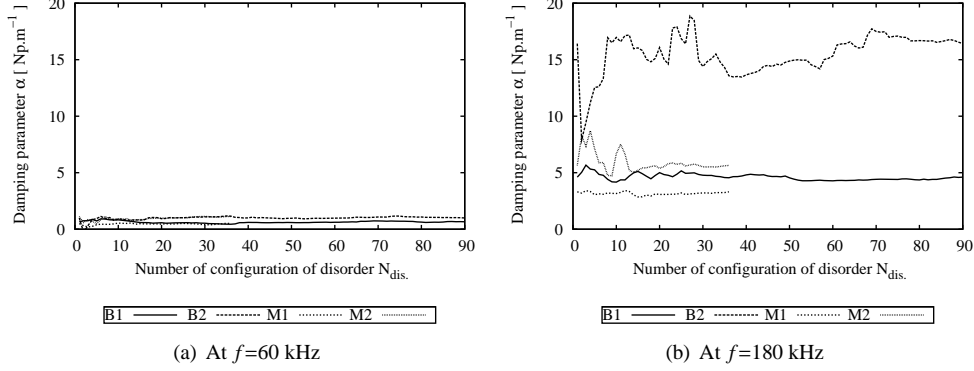


Figure 13: Influence of the number of configurations of disorder on the evaluation of the attenuation parameter α .

389 Both v_φ and α present fluctuations as the number of configurations of disorder increases,
 390 and comes to a stabilisation. The number of configurations required to get to this stabilisation
 391 depends strongly with the frequency : for low frequency, the values of v_φ and α stabilise quickly,
 392 while a relatively high value of N_{dis} is needed to reach a complete stabilisation at 180 kHz.

	B1	M1	B2	M2
$N_{opt.}$ for v_φ	20	1	30	10
$N_{opt.}$ for α	50	5	70	15

Table 2: Optimal number of configurations of disorder required to get stabilisation of the attenuation parameter α with N_{dis} at $f = 180$ kHz.

393 The value of α is much more sensitive to N_{dis} than v_φ , because the relative amplitude of
 394 the fluctuation of α is important compared to the stabilised value. Table 2 shows the optimal
 395 number of independent configurations of disorder $N_{opt.}$ required to get a stable value of α (at
 396 ± 0.5 Np.m⁻¹) or v_φ (at ± 10 m.s⁻¹) at the frequency $f = 180$ kHz. It is clear that the evaluation
 397 of coherent v_φ requires less configurations of disorder than the evaluation of α . These values
 398 of $N_{opt.}$ can be directly linked with the degree of heterogeneity of the material at the frequency
 399 considered. In particular, concrete series need more configurations of disorder than mortar and
 400 an increase of w/c increases the $N_{opt.}$ required. If the value of N_{dis} chosen for the measure-
 401 ments is too low, the coherent field will not be properly evaluated and the error on α or v_φ will
 402 increase; comparison between two series with very similar propagation parameters (for example
 403 comparing the attenuation parameter α for B1 and M1) will not be possible.

404 8. Concluding remarks

405 Surface waves are well adapted to characterise cover concrete. Coherent phase velocity,
 406 group velocity and attenuation parameter show sensitivities to different properties of concrete:
 407 w/c ratio, presence of aggregates, ... The accuracy of the estimations of the propagation param-
 408 eters v_φ , v_g and α is primordial to characterise properly the materials, as many phenomena are
 409 involved in the propagation of Rayleigh waves in concrete.

410 Geophysical methods provide appropriate signal processing tools for the treatment of Rayleigh
411 waves. Particular attention has to be drawn to the acquisition setup required by these signal pro-
412 cessing tools. Another key point is the use of coherent waves, obtained by averaging the signals
413 over a large amount of configurations of disorder. Propagation parameters of the coherent waves
414 provide information on the mean mechanical properties of the concrete, avoiding effects due to
415 a particular configuration of the concrete that are non representative of the average structure.

416 The experimental procedure presented in this paper has proved to be very efficient to under-
417 line differences between different concrete and mortar samples. However these differences come
418 from different phenomena coupled together. Then a better understanding of the propagation of
419 Rayleigh waves in such complex media is needed, to be able to evaluate mechanical parameters
420 such as Young modulus, Poisson ratio, or porosity. In particular, a model of the multiple scattering
421 process by the heterogeneities have to be studied to distinguish the attenuation process due
422 to scattering and the one due to porosity or viscoelasticity [35]. Dispersion of the coherent phase
423 and group velocity of Rayleigh waves can be used to estimate variations of properties with depth.
424 This approach is commonly used in geophysics [36].

425 Subsequently, the case of damaged concrete, for example carbonation, cracks or micro-
426 cracks, have to be studied to show the ability of our method to detect and identify some defaults.
427 Furthermore, a special robot equipped with a smaller laser interferometer is being developed to
428 be used *in situ* on real concretes structures.

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