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Corrosivity Zones in New Zealand - Definition, Interpretation and Measurement

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Corrosivity Zones in New Zealand - Definition, Interpretation and Measurement

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New Zealand has long fought to protect its structural steelwork from corrosion, perhaps the best-known defence in the battle being the ubiquitous PWD No.2 primer, developed by the public works department largely by trial-and-error. Its effectiveness was undisputed, but its reliance on the (still not fully understood) corrosion inhibiting effect of red lead oxide meant that it was phased out for health reasons.

However, the newer generations of protective coatings were not as tolerant of incomplete surface preparation, and to be fully exploited had to be specified for use in environments whose characteristics were understood, if not totally defined.

In the early 1980s, work on classifying the corrosivity of the New Zealand environment began to take a more ordered approach than the previously scattered efforts¹⁻⁶ made by workers interested in one particular site or area. References 1-4 reported measurements of chloride in rainwater, whilst Claridge⁵ measured dry deposition rates. Only Shaw and Alcan (NZ) made any cohesive attempt to measure corrosion rates, and this data was not published until 10 years after it had been obtained⁶. The appearance of AS2312⁷ in 1980 focussed attention on the issue.

The first big step came in 1982, when a map proposing corrosion zone classification of New Zealand was published⁸. This was derived from measurements of sodium levels in grass, the implication being that since the sodium was probably from sea-salt, an indication of chloride levels would be obtained. This was indeed the case, and the map was later adopted by SANZ as one of the principal elements of MP2312⁹. Before this was released, studies of the New Zealand environmental corrosivity continued, using CLIMAT galvanic test units¹⁰. These were exposed along with steel coupons, to record actual corrosion rates as weight loss measurements, but were limited in their coverage.

In 1987, BRANZ began a study of atmospheric corrosivity at approximately 180 sites around New Zealand. Four panels each of mild steel, galvanised steel, and aluminium were exposed on racks, with the rack minders being asked to return one panel of each metal at 1, 2, 5, and 10 years after exposure. Results have been reported¹¹⁻¹³ after 1, 2 and 6 years, confirming the original assumptions made in the production of the salt map in 1982. However, the results obtained for aluminium panels have been erratic, confirming that for this metal exposed outdoors, microclimatic factors are more important than gross atmospheric corrosivity. This suggested that a new direction in the research was necessary. In the meantime, however, the standards into which the work was feeding results had been keeping pace, and had become more useful.

Notes of talk given at Structural Steelwork - "Recent Developments in Design, Durability Assessment & Coating Protection" symposium. August 14 1996, Carlton Hotel.

Similar talk given to Auckland Division of Australasian Corrosion Association, May 16, 1996.

Corrosion standards in Australasia.

Much of this material will be covered elsewhere (see W. Mandeno's paper), so should only be touched on here. MP2312/ AS2312-84 covered most of Australia and New Zealand in limited detail, because the corrosion zones/categories proposed therein were estimated from atmospheric factors such as rainfall and chloride deposition levels. As such, their usefulness in describing an environment was relative only, to other environments described.

The International Standards Organisation (ISO) became active in the area of corrosivity classification in the mid-1980s, driven by committee TC/156 WG/4. Their first act was to establish a global experiment, known as ISOCORRAG, with some 30 countries taking part. This involved the atmospheric exposure of various samples, identical in each country, to establish a global ranking and also to gain an understanding of the various factors influencing corrosion rates.

Analysis of the results led to the publication of a range of atmospheric corrosivity classification standards, dealing with measurement of pollution, measurement of corrosion rates, and classification of environments. A method of predicting corrosion rates using measured atmospheric parameters was also introduced.

ISO 9225:1992¹⁴ introduced a new standard method for determining chloride deposition rates, using a wet candle. Using the results provided by this, and combining them with humidity (approximating Time-of-Wetness, TOW), ISO 9223:1992¹⁵ provided a method of predicting the corrosion rate for that location, and a classification scheme for assessing the severity of the derived rate. Atmospheres are ranked between C1 (benign, such as a desert) and C5 (extremely severe, such as in the marine splash zone).

New Zealand is fortunate to have both measured TOW, and chloride deposition rates, for sites where the flat panel corrosion rate had also been measured. This enabled workers to check the validity of the ISO prediction methods using real data, leading to the conclusion that they did not work reliably for all sites. In severe marine areas, the predicted corrosion rate was often one category too high compared to what was actually measured with exposed metal coupons. The problem is believed to be due to deficiencies in the TOW definition and measurement; in New Zealand the relative humidity on a dry day is often higher than it is in some countries where rain would fall. That is, in New Zealand the metal coupons are expected to be wet at high humidities, but are actually not.

The categories introduced in ISO 9223 were too broad to cover New Zealand and Australia adequately, and in the revised version of AS/NZS 2312¹⁶, released in 1994, a finer classification scale is used. The most important difference between this and earlier versions of the standard was that the corrosivity zones were now defined by corrosion rates, which could be established independently in each country, rather than by inference from other measurements. The zone descriptions have been realigned to remove needless duplication, such as the old arid/mild delimitation (replaced with a single MODERATE zone), and split the single marine zone into MARINE and SEVERE MARINE. TROPICAL and INDUSTRIAL zones can not just be defined by corrosion rate, however, as factors such as humidity, temperature, and pollution may not show a similar effect on bare steel corrosion rates as they do on coating durability. Care is required when assessing these zones. In New Zealand, there are few true industrial zones, those which do exist being extremely localised to the obvious source of pollution. However, the geothermal region centered on Rotorua is usually classified as industrial, and extreme care is needed when assessing steel performance in this zone. Background corrosion rates are in the mild/moderate categories, but locations near

fumaroles, or plant which draws on geothermal energy will usually be in extremely aggressive environments, extending into ISO C4 or above. The effect of the recent Mt Ruapehu ash eruptions on corrosion rates of roofs, gutters, bridges, and cars is yet to be felt, but the affected regions have probably moved from mild to industrial classifications.

A list of first year mild steel coupon corrosion rates is given in Table 1, covering most of the inhabited parts of the country. A conversion between $\mu\text{m}/\text{yr}$ and $\text{g}/\text{m}^2/\text{yr}$ is shown for each relevant AS/NZS 2312 environment, below.

MILD	0 - 10 $\mu\text{m}/\text{yr}$ (0 - 80 $\text{g}/\text{m}^2/\text{yr}$)
MODERATE	10 - 25 $\mu\text{m}/\text{yr}$ (80 - 200 $\text{g}/\text{m}^2/\text{yr}$)
MARINE	25 - 50 $\mu\text{m}/\text{yr}$ (200 - 400 $\text{g}/\text{m}^2/\text{yr}$)
SEVERE MARINE	> 50 $\mu\text{m}/\text{yr}$ (> 400 $\text{g}/\text{m}^2/\text{yr}$)
INDUSTRIAL	> 25 $\mu\text{m}/\text{yr}$ (> 200 $\text{g}/\text{m}^2/\text{yr}$)

As can be seen, much of the country falls in to the moderate zone, including most residential areas. However, many of the larger buildings found in the main centres' CBDs will be in a marine zone. Care must therefore be taken in obtaining the correct environmental information before even beginning to design such a building.

Microclimates

All of the standards mentioned above have dealt with measurements of gross atmospheric corrosivity; in other words, items exposed fully to the weather. However, reality is that most building products are exposed in a semi-sheltered manner across part of their surface. The areas which are not fully rainwashed are referred to as influenced by microclimates. The definition of the size of a microclimate is blurry, depending on application. For instance, a city street can be thought of as a microclimate, and so can the unwashed top part of a garage door. In the present paper, the latter definition is used.

The beneficial effects of rainwashing are not always fully recognised. Basically, the problem is that salt and dirt deposited on a metal surface and not washed off will accelerate corrosion. This is true for any common building metal, including stainless steel (as discovered by WRC on the Michael Fowler Centre), painted or not. Corrosion is accelerated because sea-salt absorbs water from the air when the relative humidity exceeds about 75%, creating a very concentrated salt solution on the surface. Chloride ions are particularly aggressive towards steel, zinc and aluminium, and will rapidly cause corrosion. Protective coatings delay this by various methods, and to varying degrees of success.

Thus, a method is needed of predicting the aggressiveness of a microclimate, quickly and reliably. The most sensible way is to measure the parameters which affect corrosion, and use them to predict the corrosiveness, *cf.* ISO 9223¹⁵. However, it is understood in both ISO 9223 and AS/NZS 2312¹⁶ that this is not currently possible, as further work is needed to define the formulae/algorithms needed, and both standards warn about the effects of microclimates.

BRANZ is currently looking at the problem in some detail, as is CSIRO¹⁷. BRANZ research is focussed on measuring corrosion rates (with flat panels) in microclimatically-influenced areas, as well as measuring the chloride deposition rates and humidities. From this it should be possible to derive a predictive formula for corrosion rates of steel. The important point to note is that the steel panels used are identical to those used in the nationwide atmospheric corrosion survey, meaning that it is possible relate gross measurements directly to

microclimatically-influenced ones. Until the formula(e) become available, however, comparisons will have to be empirical, via expert interpretation. A further caveat, and an extremely important one, is that it is not possible to use corrosion rates for one metal to predict corrosion rates for another. For example, steel corrosion rate measurements can not be used as a predictor of galvanising performance, because of the difference in corrosion mechanism between the two metals. Steel corrodes at the interface between the metal, and the corrosion product (ie, under the rust), whereas zinc (and hence galvanising) corrodes at the interface between the corrosion product and the atmosphere. Thus, zinc surfaces react to changes in atmospheric conditions quicker than do steel ones.

The subfloor space of houses with suspended (pile) floors is a classic microclimate. The space must be ventilated to keep the humidity low, and the timbers dry, to prevent corrosion of steel fasteners and fungal growth on, and rot of, timbers. However, at the same time, the ventilation arrangements must exclude salt as much as possible, for houses near the coast. These two conflicting requirements, combined with the building code requirement that subfloor fasteners be durable for 50 years, led to the establishment of a dedicated research project, looking at salt deposition in subfloor spaces as a function of ventilation type and area. An enclosure containing eight model subfloors has been built in a severe marine environment on the south coast of Wellington. Each model subfloor has different ventilation arrangements, ranging from totally closed to totally open. In each enclosure, ISO chloride wicks measure salt levels at three places in the enclosure, and humidity levels are monitored by moisture content measurements of a "calibrated" piece of 100x50mm Pinus radiata. The open enclosure is also fully instrumented with humidity and temperature sensors. Each enclosure also has a set of flat panel steel and galvanised steel coupons, to tie the results back to the earlier corrosion survey. Zinalume coupons are also included, as the chance to obtain further exposure information on this new (to New Zealand) material had to be taken.

The information obtained from this experiment has already led to some changes in thinking about subfloor fastener durability, especially for pole houses, and houses with open subfloors. The implications for any steel structure are also plain; any design must identify areas of the structure which may be microclimatically influenced, especially during construction, and eliminate them, or impose a maintenance schedule.

Concluding comments

The corrosivity of the New Zealand environment has been assessed, and can be classified according to ISO 9223:1992, or AS/NZS 2312:1994. For the purposes of material and coatings selection, the latter standard, with its finer classification scale, is more suitable for use in New Zealand.

Much of urban New Zealand is in the Moderate zone, but care must be taken in main centres, as waterfront buildings may well be in a Marine area.

The geothermal area bounded by Te Puke, Kawerau, Ohakune, and Waiouru consists largely of moderate areas, but isolated "hot spots" can cause steel corrosion rates of up to 5000 g/m²/yr (625 µm/yr). The local authorities in these regions should be consulted before planning and building work, as they have reasonable information on localised geothermal activity.

Extreme caution should be taken in design work to avoid details which expose metallic items to salt and dirt but allow no natural rainwashing. These microclimatic situations can cause

rapid corrosion of exposed steel, often in critical areas, failure often only being noticed after a structure collapses.

Table 1

First year mild steel corrosion rates (g/m²)

NORTHLAND		TARANAKI		WAIRARAPA		MARLBOROUGH	
Kaitia	188	New Plymouth	247	Dannevirke	114	Riwaka	95
Kerikeri Aero	203	Stratford	188	Castlepoint	232	Tapawera	97
Waiotemarama	179	Kapuni	230	Tauherenikau	124	Appleby	104
Waipoua Forest	158	Patea	218	Mt Bruce	128	Nelson Aero	162
Dargaville	212			Waingawa	142	Rai Valley	105
Whangarei Aero	234	MANAWATU AND WANGANUI				Brancott Valley	58
Marsden Point	285			WELLINGTON		Lake Grassmere	270
Leigh	304	Ohakune	85	Avalon	164	Lake Rotoroa	34
Warkworth	191	Waiouru	155	Judgeford	153		
Woodhill Forest	191	Ahu Ahu	112	Kelburn	128	WEST COAST	
Muriwai	440	Taihape	71	Thorndon	173	Westport Aero	375
		Wanganui Aero	352	Thorndon (sheltered)	194	Hokitika Aero	235
AUCKLAND		Flockhouse	208	Somes Island	243	Reefton	253
Whenuapai	248	Kairanga	203	Gracefield	167	Greymouth	511
Takapuna	142	Palmerston North Aero	168	Wainuiomata	165	Otira	102
Albert Park	152	Waitarere Forest	224	Wellington Aero	268	Springs Junction	66
Auckland City	259	Levin	194	Kaitoke	146	Harihari	150
Parnell	165			Wallaceville	145	Franz Josef	118
Auckland Harbour	390	BAY OF PLENTY		Paraparaumu Aero	240	CANTERBURY	
Owairaka	152	Whangapoua Forest	158			Hanmer Forest	37
Penrose	229	Tairua Forest	170			Kaikoura	223
Ellerslie	190	Waihi	163			Arthurs Pass	49
Auckland Aero	298	Katikati	146			Culverden	76
Ardmore	209	Tauranga Aero	195			Cheviot	108
South Head	327	Te Puke	154			Craigieburn Forest	25
		Rotoehu Forest	155			Highbank	76
WAIKATO		Edgecumbe	146			Ashburton	138
Pukekohe	192	Whakatane Aero	196			Eyrewell Forest	74
Glenbrook	155	Kawerau	294			Christchurch Aero	206
Maioro Forest	181	Kaingaroa	109			Christchurch	152
Hunua	180	Murupara	96			Bromley	207
Maramarua Forest	150					Lincoln	175
Te Kauwhata	217	HAWKES BAY					
Thames	136	Manutuke	141			SOUTHLAND	
Paeroa	160	Gisborne Aero	194			The Hermitage	30
Te Aroha	115	Onepoto	90			Kelman Hut	23
Ruakura	130	Wharerata Forest	175			Lake Tekapo	18
Hamilton Aero	142	Esk Forest	86			Fairlie	53
Cambridge	131	Napier Aero	153			Twizel	22
		Havelock North	101			Geraldine	75
TAUPO AND KING COUNTRY		Taradale	82			Timaru Aero	144
Mohakatino	267	Mohaka Forest	114			Waimate	74
Arapuni	104	Frasertown	153			Kurow	55
Waikeria	128	Waipukurau	119			Omarama	17
Te Kuiti	124					Ranfurlly	34
Wairere	163	ROTORUA				Palmerston	90
Pureora Forest	107	Tikitere	243			Taiaroa Head	239
Taumarunui	105	Rotorua Aero	207			Dunedin Aero	127
Kinleith	308	Lynmore	153			Musselburgh	243
Atiamuri	74	Koutu	117			Alexandra	34
Taupo	120	Ngapuna	2293			Tapanui	73
Wairakei	155	Springfield	218			Winton	148
Taupo Aero	104	Ohinemutu	222			Gore	121
Waimihia Forest	91	Lake Rotoatamaheke	4800			Invercargill Aero	253
Turangi	107	Waiotapu Forest	111			Tiwai Point	341
Chateau, Mt Ruapehu	96					Finegand	145
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