



# Fracture mechanics parameters of autoclaved aerated concrete

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## Abstract

The influence of the expanding direction of Autoclaved Aerated Concrete (AAC) on the nonlinear fracture mechanics parameters is determined on three different types of AAC. The nonlinear fictitious crack model introduced by Hillerborg et al. [1] is used. Based on the RILEM recommendation AAC 13.1 [2], wedge-splitting tests have been carried out on three different types of AAC. For each AAC type, specimens were prepared so that the ligament area was parallel or vertical to the expanding direction. It was found that the specific fracture energy  $G_f$  and the tensile strength  $f_t$  differ in the two directions. All three concrete types show less brittle behaviour when the ligament area is parallel to the expanding direction. © 1999 Elsevier Science Ltd. All rights reserved.

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Until now many fracture mechanics tests have been carried out on AAC (see for example [3,4]). It was found that cracking in AAC can be described with nonlinear fracture mechanics models like the fictitious crack model from Hillerborg et al. [1] in a realistic way. With a slightly modified wedge-splitting test setup based on the RILEM recommendation AAC 13.1 [2], tests have been carried out on AAC specimens in order to study the influence of the direction of expansion on the nonlinear fracture mechanics parameters and the ductility. Three different kinds of AAC have been tested.

## 1. Experimental procedure

Nonlinear fracture mechanics parameters were obtained by means of the wedge-splitting test [5]. A schematical illustration of the test setup is given in Fig. 1. Two wedges are pressed symmetrically between four roller bearings in order to split the specimen into two halves. The test setup is similar to the RILEM recommendation AAC 13.1 [2] with one difference: the specimen is placed on two line supports, not only on one single line support in the centre of the specimen (see Fig. 2). The supports are right under the mass

concentration points of each half specimen. An advantage of this loading arrangement is that a multiaxial stress distribution at the end of the crack path is avoided. A similar experimental arrangement has also been used by Guofan et al. [6] and van Gils et al. [7]. Otherwise, the crack is forced to propagate through the damaged material. This damage certainly will influence the measured fracture energy  $G_f$ .

The crack mouth opening displacement (CMOD) at both sides of the specimen immediately under the loading points (see Fig. 1) and the applied vertical load  $F$  are measured. From the measured vertical load and the wedge angle the horizontal splitting force is calculated. The measured CMOD is the mean value of the two displacement transducers on the two opposite sides of the specimen. All tests were run under CMOD control. The rate of CMOD was 60  $\mu\text{m/s}$ .

The work of fracture is calculated from the area under the splitting force CMOD diagram. The specific fracture energy  $G_f$  is the work of fracture divided by the ligament area  $A_{lig}$ . The ligament area  $A_{lig}$  is the projected area on a plane parallel to the ideal crack direction; in other words, the ligament height multiplied by the specimen thickness.

To determine the nonlinear fracture mechanics parameters from all experimental results of one series, a mean load deflection diagram is calculated as described by Brühwiler [8]. With an inverse analysis based on finite element calculations as described by Roelfstra and Wittmann [9], the bilinear approximated strain-softening diagram is obtained. The nonlinear finite element program SOFTFIT initially implemented by Roelfstra [10] is used. In Fig. 3 an example of a

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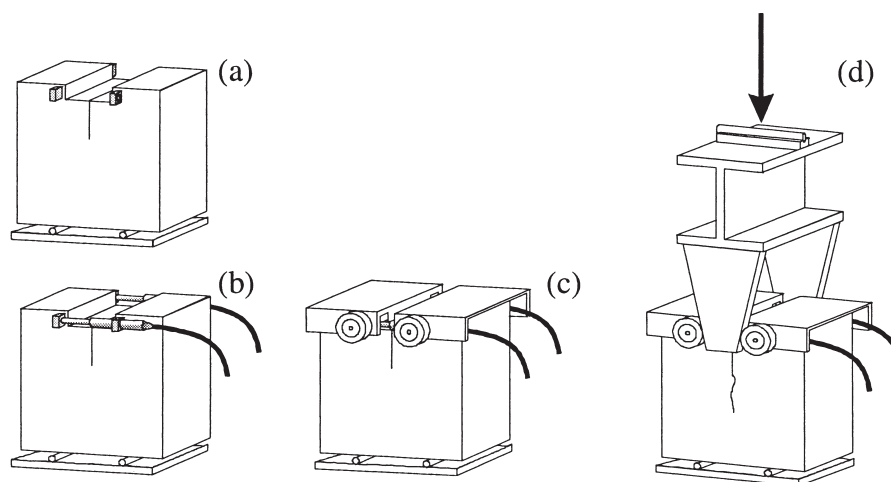


Fig. 1. Principle of the wedge-splitting test: (a) specimen on two linear supports, (b) displacement transducers on both sides of the specimen, (c) steel loading devices with roller bearings, (d) traverse with wedges.

bilinear approximated strain-softening diagram with all significant parameters is given. The specific fracture energy  $G_f$  is equal to the area under the strain-softening curve.

The modulus of elasticity  $E$  for each AAC type and ligament direction has been calculated from the initial slope of the load deflection curves.

## 2. Preparation of specimens

All tested specimens had the same dimensions and these are given in Fig. 4. The dimensions were the same as recommended by RILEM AAC 13.1 [2]. The specimens were sawed from bigger blocks and stored under constant climatic conditions of 60% relative humidity and 20°C. For each type of AAC and each direction, six specimens were tested.

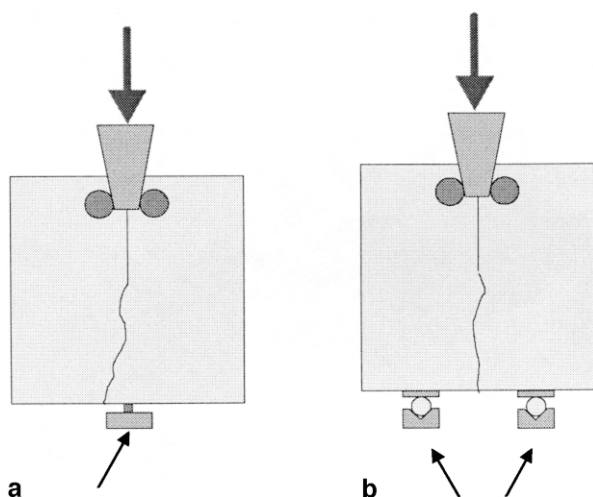


Fig. 2. Modified wedge-splitting test setup according to RILEM: AAC 13.1 [2]. (a) One single line support at the end of the theoretical crack path. (b) Two line supports under the mass concentration points under each half specimen.

After performing the wedge-splitting tests the density  $\rho$  and water content  $w$  were determined. For this purpose, the tested wedge-splitting specimens were sawed into pieces of  $150 \times 100 \times 50$  mm and stored at 105°C until constant weight. The results are summarized in Table 1.

In Table 2 the experimental results are summarized. The numerical specific fracture energy  $G_f^{\text{num}}$  is determined from the area under the strain-softening diagram. The experimental specific fracture energy  $G_f^{\text{exp}}$  is determined from the work of fracture and the nominal ligament area as described above. In Fig. 5 the experimental and calculated load deflection curves are given. From Fig. 5 and from the agreement between the numerical and experimental specific fracture energy it can be seen that there is a good agreement between the bilinear approximated strain-softening curve and the experimental results. It can be assumed that the bilinear approximation of the strain-softening behaviour is realistic to describe crack formation and propagation in AAC. In Fig. 6 the bilinear approximated strain-softening relations are illustrated.

It can be seen that for all three AAC types the fracture energy  $G_f$  of the specimens with the ligament area parallel to the expanding direction is higher than when vertical to it. In contrast to this fact, the tensile strength of the specimens with the ligament in the vertical direction is higher than in the expanding direction. Except for AAC type A2 the modulus of elasticity is independent of the expanding direction. The Young's modulus of AAC type A2 differs slightly only within the experimental scatter in the two tested directions.

## 3. Evaluation of results

In order to characterize the ductility of a material, Petersson [11] and Hillerborg [12] introduced the characteristic length  $l_{ch}$  [Eq. (1)]:

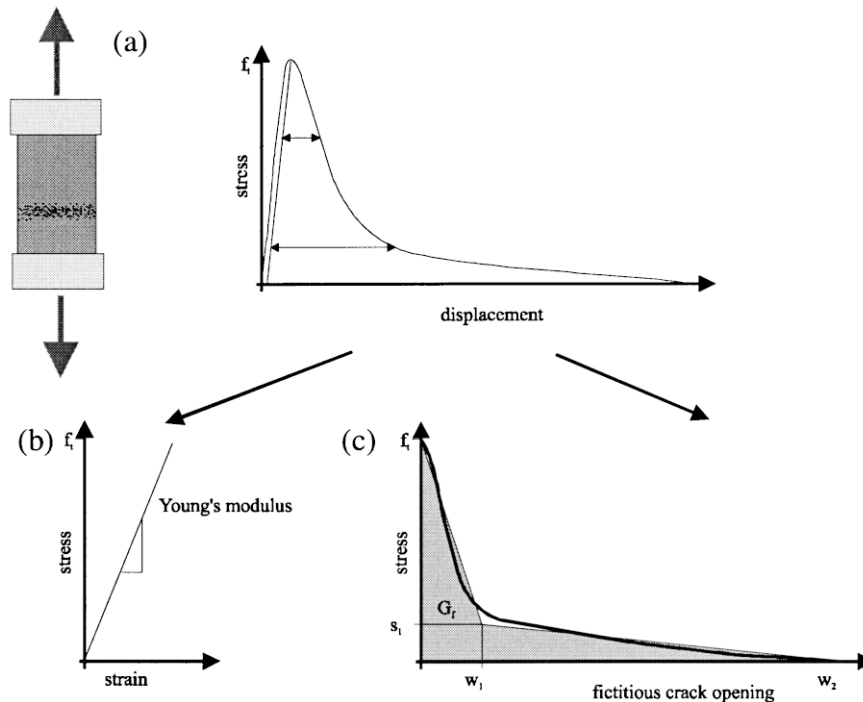


Fig. 3. Parameters of the bilinear approximated strain-softening relation: (a) stress displacement curve for a direct tension test; (b) linear elastic material behaviour, before the tensile strength is reached; (c) strain-softening relation with a bilinear approximation.

$$l_{ch} = \frac{E \cdot G_f}{f_t^2} \quad (1)$$

The characteristic length  $l_{ch}$  does not take the slope of the strain softening diagram into consideration and for that reason it is essentially a technological quantity. Materials with a similar strain-softening behaviour can be compared. The smaller the characteristic length  $l_{ch}$  the more brittle and the less resistant against cracking is the material. So it can be

seen that a high tensile strength  $f_t$  leads to more brittle material behaviour. On the other hand, a high value of the Young's modulus  $E$  or a high specific fracture energy  $G_f$  will cause a more ductile behaviour.

Another possibility to characterise the ductility of a material is to take the steepest slope of the strain-softening diagram into consideration. This leads to the following formulation for a critical specimen length  $l_{crit}$  under direct tension [11,13] [Eq. (2)]:

$$l_{crit} = \left. \frac{\partial \sigma(w)}{\partial w} \right|_{\min} = \frac{f_t - s_1}{w_1} \quad (2)$$

In Table 2 the characteristic and critical lengths  $l_{ch}$  and  $l_{crit}$  for each AAC type and ligament direction are given. Both the characteristic and critical lengths  $l_{ch}$  and  $l_{crit}$  show that all three AAC types are less brittle when the ligament area is parallel to the direction of expansion.

#### 4. Conclusions

From the test results obtained on all three types of AAC it can be seen that the direction of expansion has a signifi-

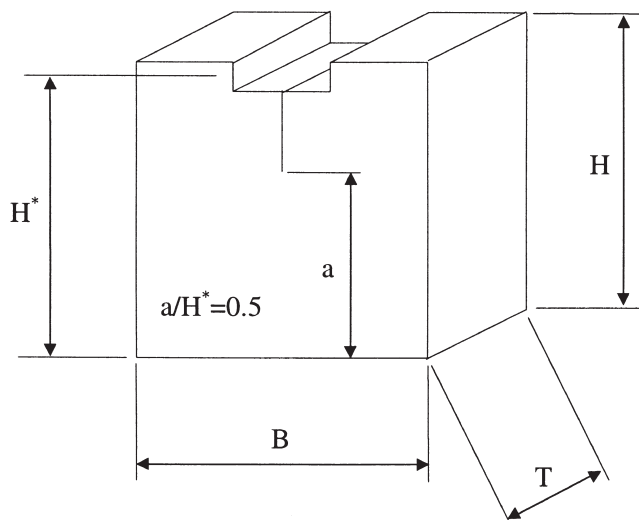


Fig. 4. Dimensions of the wedge-splitting specimens.  $H = 200$  mm,  $H^* = 185$  mm,  $B = 200$  mm,  $a = 97.5$  mm,  $T = 100$  mm.

Table 1  
Density and water content of the three types of AAC tested

Type	Density $\rho$ (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Water content $w$ (%)
A1	398.3	4.3
A2	413.7	4.4
A3	397.5	4.1

Table 2  
Fracture mechanical parameters

Type	$E$ (N/mm <sup>2</sup> )	$G_f^{\text{exp}}$ (N/m)	$G_f^{\text{num}}$ (N/m)	$f_t$ (N/mm <sup>2</sup> )	$s_1$ (N/mm <sup>2</sup> )	$w_1$ (mm)	$w_2$ (mm)	$l_{ch}$ (mm)	$l_{crit}$ (mm)
A1									
	1300	6.234	6.3	0.272	0.089	0.02	0.080	109.5	142.3
⊥	1300	5.984	5.9	0.304	0.070	0.02	0.080	84.2	111.3
A2									
	1500	6.516	6.7	0.314	0.090	0.02	0.080	99.13	134.2
⊥	1400	6.336	6.15	0.326	0.068	0.02	0.085	83.5	108.5
A3									
	1500	6.195	6.5	0.368	0.036	0.03	0.085	68.6	124.1
⊥	1500	5.614	6.1	0.377	0.057	0.02	0.080	59.2	93.8

cant influence on the ductility of AAC. The specific fracture energy  $G_f$  is higher and the tensile strength  $f_t$  is lower when measured parallel to the expanding direction. The maximum splitting force, which is caused by the tensile strength  $f_t$ , the strain softening behaviour  $\sigma(w)$ , and the fracture energy  $G_f$  show the same tendency as the fracture energy  $G_f$ . There is no significant influence of direction of testing on the modulus of elasticity  $E$ . The characteristic and critical lengths  $l_{ch}$  and  $l_{crit}$  show that all three types of AAC are less brittle when tested parallel to the expanding direction as compared to the normal direction. From Table 2 it can also be seen

that ductility of the three types of AAC vary considerably. While type A1 can be considered to be comparatively ductile, type A3 is much more brittle.

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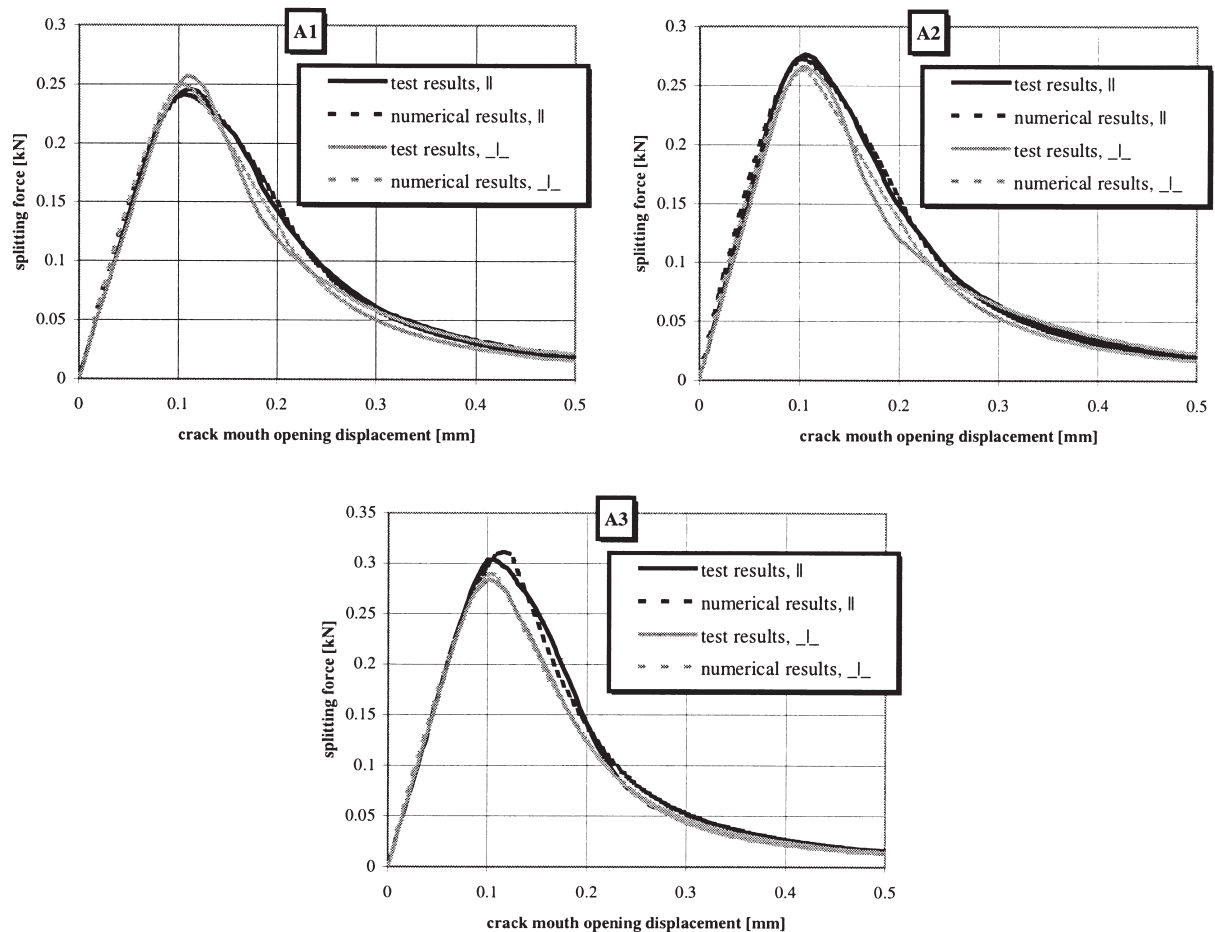


Fig. 5. Test results and numerical simulation.

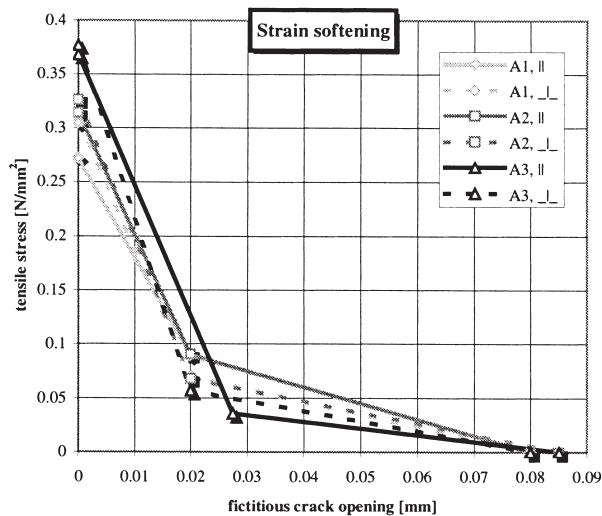


Fig. 6. Bilinear approximated strain-softening relations for each test series.

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