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1	Size effect on fracture properties of concrete after sustained loading
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25 ABSTRACT

To investigate the size effect on the fracture properties of concrete after sustained loading, concrete 26 beams with three heights of 100 mm, 200 mm and 300 mm were first subjected to 30% peak load 27 over 115 days. Thereafter, they were moved out from the loading frames and tested under standard 28 static three-point bending (TPB) loading until failure. The initial fracture toughness, unstable fracture 29 toughness, fracture energy and evolution of the fracture process zone were then derived based on the 30 experimental results, and the size effect on these fracture properties of concrete after sustained 31 loading were evaluated. The experimental results indicated that compared with the specimens under 32 the static TPB tests without pre-sustained loading, the cracking initiation resistance for the concrete 33 after sustained loading increased, resulting in the increase of the initial cracking load and initial 34 fracture toughness. In particular, the tendency was more significant for the larger size specimens. By 35 36 contrast, the effects of sustained loading on the unstable fracture toughness, fracture energy, critical crack length and FPZ evolution could be neglected. Furthermore, the size effects on the fracture 37 characteristics, including the fracture energy, and the FPZ evolution were obvious for the concrete 38 specimens both under static loading and after sustained loading. 39

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<sup>Keywords: concrete beam, three-point bending, sustained loading, fracture toughness, fracture
energy, size effect</sup>

47 Introduction

Delayed failure of concrete structures under sustained loading has a significant effect on the service 48 performance and durability of the structures. Generally, it is considered that linear creep occurs in 49 concrete structures under low load levels, which is caused by viscoelasticity of concrete. By contrast, 50 51 under high load levels, crack growth interacts with viscoelasticity of the material, resulting in occurrence of nonlinear creep [1]. The crack rate dependence was introduced by Van Zijl et al. [2], 52 which is characterised by the inverse analysis to calculate the time to failure under high sustained 53 loading. The predicted results agreed well with the experimental observations [3]. In fact, creep has 54 55 two potential effects on the fracture behaviour of concrete structures. Firstly, creep could lead to degradation of structural serviceability, including crack propagation, increase of crack width and 56 deformation. On the other hand, it could decrease the local high stress due to stress re-distribution 57 58 mechanism in structures [4,5]. Under low sustained loading, there is no crack propagation so that the stress re-distribution at the pre-notch tip governs the variations of fracture properties in concrete. The 59 effects of low sustained loading on the fracture properties at the critical cracking status, such as the 60 critical crack length a_c , the unstable fracture toughness K_{IC}^{un} and the fracture energy G_f , are not clearly 61 clarified. In practice, the size effect on the concrete fracture under sustained loading has attracted 62 attention to academic and engineering communities. According to the research by Barpi and Valente 63 [6], the lifetime of concrete structures appeared to be an increasing function of size, and a critical 64 height of 59 cm was observed. Far from the critical dimension, the size effect on the lifetime 65 appeared to be negligible, as indicated by Bažant and Xiang [7]. 66

67 The fracture parameters, e.g. the fracture toughness and facture energy, represent the cracking68 resistance and fracture characteristics of concrete and are generally considered as material properties

for fracture analysis. The double-K fracture theory was proposed by Xu and Reinhardt [8, 9] as a 69 modified linear elastic fracture mechanics (LEFM) model to distinguish different cracking stages of 70 concrete, where the fracture process of concrete can be divided into three stages using the initial 71 fracture toughness $K_{\rm IC}^{\rm ini}$ and the unstable fracture toughness $K_{\rm IC}^{\rm un}$. According to the experimental and 72 theoretical studies under static loading [8-11], these two fracture toughness parameters were 73 size-independent and can be regarded as the material parameters to determine the cracking initiation 74 and unstable propagation in concrete structures. Based on the initial fracture toughness, a crack 75 propagation criterion [12-14] was proposed to determine the crack propagation during the fracture 76 77 process of concrete. Meanwhile, the effects of loading rate on the double-K fracture parameters were investigated and the results indicated that both $K_{\rm IC}^{\rm ini}$ and $K_{\rm IC}^{\rm un}$ increased with the increased loading 78 rates [15]. In the case of low sustained loading, stress relaxation and re-distribution occur at the crack 79 tip, even though there is no crack propagation at the creep stage. The variations of the stress field at 80 the crack tip would change the cracking resistance of concrete and also affect the initial fracture 81 toughness. However, it is not clarified whether or not the sustained loading affects the crack 82 83 propagation length and the unstable fracture toughness corresponding to the critical fracture status. Besides fracture toughness, fracture energy is also a significant fracture parameter to characterize the 84 crack propagation resistance of concrete. Previous experimental studies [16-18] showed that the 85 tested fracture energy would increase with the increased specimen size. Accordingly, two theories 86 can be employed to explain the size effect: the size effect law [19] and the boundary effect model 87 [20]. According to the fictitious crack model [21], there exists a fracture process zone (FPZ) ahead of 88 a traction-free crack, where the cohesive stresses are transferred and energy is dissipated. Therefore, 89 fracture energy is directly related to the FPZ, so that the size effect on fracture energy would be 90

involved in the FPZ evolution. Based on the research by Wu et al. [22], the FPZ would increase 91 linearly until the full length was reached, and then decrease when the crack tip approached to the 92 surface of the specimen. Meanwhile, the ratio of the crack length a to the specimen depth D, 93 corresponding to the full FPZ length, would decrease with the increased specimen size [23]. 94 Accordingly, the size effect of the fracture energy could also be reflected when determining the 95 tension-softening constitutive law of concrete [24, 25]. Under sustained loading conditions, based on 96 the researches by Omar et al. [26] and Carpinteri et al. [27], the values of fracture energy under 97 sustained loading and static loading were similar. However, Saliba [28, 29] indicated that, due to the 98 99 consolidation of hardened cement paste, concrete could be strengthened under sustained loading so that the measured fracture energy and strength slightly increased after sustained loading. 100

101 **Research significance**

The investigations from different researchers indicate that it still remains controversial whether the 102 103 fracture energy is affected by sustained loading or not. Meanwhile, it is not clarified whether the size effect on the fracture energy of concrete under sustained loading exists. In addition, there are no 104 reports on the size effect on the double-K fracture parameters under sustained loading. Therefore, to 105 assess the cracking stability of concrete structures, it is essentially important to carry out further 106 investigations on the size effect on the fracture properties under sustained loading to obtain a 107 comprehensive understanding of the fracture mechanism of concrete structures in service. Hence, the 108 109 aim of this paper was to investigate the effects of specimen size on the fracture properties of concrete after low sustained loading. The TPB specimens with the depths of 100 mm, 200 mm and 300 mm 110 were subjected to 30% of the peak load for 115 days. Thereafter, the standard TPB tests were 111 conducted on these specimens. In comparison with the experimental results under static loading, the 112

effects of sustained loading on the fracture properties of the concrete specimens with different sizeswere evaluated.

115 Experimental program

116 Specimen preparations

To investigate the size effect on the fracture properties of concrete, three series of TPB specimens 117 with similar geometries were measured in this study. The beam heights were 100 mm, 200 mm and 118 119 300 mm, respectively, with the ratio of the initial notch length to the depth, a_0/D , as 0.3 and the ratio of the depth to the spans as 0.25. The effect of the width was not considered here, so that the width of 120 all specimens was chosen as 100 mm and the distance from the support to the edge of the specimen 121 122 was chosen as 50 mm. In this study, the specimen sizes were adopted as length \times width \times depth (L \times $B \times D$ = 500 mm \times 100 mm \times 100 mm, 900 mm \times 100 mm \times 200 mm and 1300 mm \times 100 mm \times 123 300 mm, respectively. After demolding, all the beam specimens were polished mechanically until the 124 125 designed sizes were achieved. Thereafter, the beam specimens were processed by using a diamond saw to form the initial notch with the wide of 2 mm and the length of 30% of the beam height. The 126 mix proportions of the concrete were 1 : 0.60 : 2.01 : 3.74 (cement : water : sand : aggregate) by 127 weight and the maximum coarse aggregate size was 10 mm. The specimens were demoulded 24 128 hours after casting and then stored in the standard curing room with 23° and 90% relative humidity 129 for three months to avoid the effects of the autogenous shrinkage at early age and the increased 130 131 strength on the experimental investigations. The experimental data (Exp.) of the mechanical properties including the elastic modulus E, the splitting tensile strength f_t , and the uniaxial 132 compressive strength f_c at the ages of 28 and 90 days are listed in Table 1. In addition, their statistical 133 results including the average values (Av.) and the standard deviations (S.D.) are calculated 134

accordingly. It can be seen that the standard deviations of the experimental data in Table 1 are relatively small compared with the average values and the calculated average values show the coincident tendency, i.e. the mechanical properties of concrete at the age of 90 days are slightly larger than those at the age of 28 days. Meanwhile, comparing these material properties between the ages of 90 and 205 days shows that there are no significant variations observed. This indicates that the mechanical properties of concrete fairly kept constant after the 90-day curing.

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Table 1 Mechanical properties of concrete

-	Age	E (GPa)					ft (MPa)				f _c (MPa)					
	(days)	Exp.1	Exp.2	Exp.3	Av.	S.D.	Exp.1	Exp.2	Exp.3	Av.	S.D.	Exp.1	Exp.2	Exp.3	Av.	S.D.
-	28	31.9	32.1	34.7	32.9	1.28	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.2	0.14	36.8	38.6	36.2	37.2	1.02
	90	36.2	35.8	37.2	36.4	0.59	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.5	0.08	45.9	47.2	45.8	46.3	0.64
_	205	35.8	33.6	33.5	34.3	1.06	2.7	2.4	2.4	2.5	0.14	44.8	47.5	45.1	45.8	1.21

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In addition, to calibrate the applied load in the followed creep tests, the standard TPB tests were 143 conducted on concrete specimens with three sizes at the age of 90 days. For each series, three 144 specimens were prepared and the average results of the P-CMOD curves for S-, M- and L-series are 145 shown in Fig 1. The average values of the peak load P_{max} were determined as 3.81 kN, 7.01 kN and 146 10.34 kN, respectively, which were used to pre-set P_{max} on the creep specimens with the same 147 148 geometry. Meanwhile, three more specimens for each condition were cast at the same time and kept under the same curing conditions without being loaded, named as "aging specimens". The specimens 149 with depths of 100 mm, 200 mm and 300 mm were denoted as S-, M- and L-series. For example, 150 "M-30-1" denotes the TPB beam specimen 1 with sizes of 900 mm \times 100 mm \times 200 mm under the 151 $30\%P_{\text{max}}$ loading level. 152







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Fig. 1. *P-CMOD* curves for TPB specimens with different sizes

156 Creep tests

The basic creep tests under TPB loading were performed first. In order to ensure only the basic creep 157 to be measured in the tests, a double-layer aluminium tape was used to seal all the surfaces of the 158 159 specimens to prevent the moisture dissipation. It has been proved that the use of a double-layer aluminum tape to seal the specimens can effectively prevent the dissipation of the interior moisture 160 from the specimen surface [1]. Also, this method is adopted by the American Association of State 161 Highway and Transportation Officials (i.e. AASHTO PP34-99: Standard Practice for Cracking 162 Tendency Using a Ring Specimen) and American Society for Testing Material (i.e. the ASTM 163 C1581/C1581M-09a: Standard Test Method for Determining Age at Cracking and Induced Tensile 164 Stress Characteristics of Mortar and Concrete under Restrained Shrinkage) to assess the cracking 165 tendency of concrete under restrained shrinkage. Meanwhile, the steel loading frames with different 166 sizes were designed for performing the creep tests. Fig.2 illustrates the typical set-up for Specimen 167 S-30-1 under the creep test. The load cell was put between the frame and the specimen and 168 connected to a bolt, and the load was applied by turning the bolt. For the S-, M- and L series 169 specimens subjected to $30\%P_{max}$, the bolts were turned until the load levels of 1.14 kN, 2.10 kN and 170

3.10 were reached, respectively. The data acquisition system with a digital display was used to record the real-time load readings. The loading point displacement (δ) and CMOD were measured using the dial gauges (see Fig. 2). The creep tests were conducted inside an environmental chamber with 23° and 60% relative humidity. During the creep tests, the loads would be increased to the pre-set values if they decreased by 2%. The loading duration for the creep tests was 115 days, and the mechanical properties of concrete at the age of 205 days (90 + 115 days) are also listed in Table 1.



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Fig. 2. Set-up for Specimen S-30-1 under the creep test

Fig. 3 illustrates the loading point displacement versus time curves ($\delta - t$ curves) for the S-, M- and 179 L-series specimens. It can be seen that the creep deformation increased with the increased specimen 180 size. For each size specimen, the creep deformation increased significantly in the first 10 days of 181 182 loading, and then the increase became slow until an approximate stable status was reached two months after the loading. As shown in Fig. 2, the mechanical dial gauges were used to measure the 183 loading point displacements during the creep tests, whose measurement resolution is 1 micrometer. 184 From Fig. 3, it can be seen that the variations of the loading point displacements could be detected 185 for both the rapid growth stage at early age and the stabilization stage at later age. Therefore, this 186 resolution of 1 micrometer would allow for accurate measurements of the loading point 187 displacements during the creep tests. It should be noted that, due to the effect of the measurement 188

resolution of the device, the displacement variations could not be monitored when the deflected values were smaller than 1 micrometer. Meanwhile, the B3 model [30] was utilised to predict the creep deformation over time for the S-, M- and L-series specimens. The predicted results showed reasonably good agreements with the experimental data, which indicates that the B3 model is appropriate for assessing the creep deformation of concrete specimens with different sizes under low sustained loading.



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Fig. 3. Loading point displacement versus time curves in the creep tests

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198 Standard TPB tests

After 115 days of sustained loading, the specimens in the creep tests were moved out from the 199 loading frames and then immediately tested under the standard TPB loading. A 250 kN closed loop 200 servo-controlled MTS testing machine was used for loading the TPB beams, including the creep and 201 aging specimens prepared in this study, at a displacement rate of 0.048 mm/min. A clip gauge was 202 mounted on the bottom of each beam to measure the CMOD during loading. In order to obtain the 203 204 crack propagation length, the clip gauges were placed equidistantly along the ligament length to measure the crack opening displacements. The experimental set-up for the standard TPB tests and the 205 arrangements of the clip gauges are illustrated in Figs. 4(a) and (b), respectively. 206



(a) Measuring loading point displacement and *CMOD*

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Fig. 4. Experimental set-up for the standard TPB tests

(b) Measuring crack opening displacement

The displacement at the crack initiation, w_{ini} , could be calibrated by measuring the crack tip opening 212 displacement (CTOD) with respect to the initial cracking load on the aging specimen. According to 213 the research by Xu et al. [8], the crack tip opening displacement (CTOD) at the crack initiation can 214 be regarded to be size-independent. Therefore, the average displacement at the crack initiation, w_{ini} , 215 determined from the S-series TPB specimens as 8.423×10^{-6} m, was used to characterize the crack 216 initiation for all the S-, M- and L-series specimens. To measure the initial cracking load, four strain 217 gauges were symmetrically pasted on both sides of the specimen surface, 5 mm away from the tip of 218 219 the pre-notch. Once a new crack began to initiate, the measured strains from the strain gauges would drop rapidly due to the sudden release of the stored strain energy at the tip of the pre-crack. Based on 220 the measured CMODs and crack opening displacements (w) at the different positions along the 221 222 ligament, an approximately linear distribution of the crack opening displacements was obtained. Taking Specimen S-30-1 as an example, the crack opening displacements approximately linearly 223 distributed along the crack surface, as shown in Fig. 5. Furthermore, by comparing w_{ini} and w, the 224 crack tip can be determined, which is marked as Point "O" in Fig. 5. Accordingly, the crack 225 propagation lengths with respect to various loading points could also be obtained from the positions 226 of the derived crack tip during the complete fracture process. By introducing the tension-softening 227



Fig. 5. Determination of the crack tip using clip gauges

231 **Results and discussion**

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232 Effects of sustained loading on the fracture properties

According to the creep deformations illustrated in Fig. 3, the initial cracks did not propagate in the 233 creep tests because the stable displacements for the specimens were observed. For some concrete 234 structures, the load capacity could increase after a low sustained loading, e.g. the variations of the 235 water lever for the gravity dams. Therefore, the cracking resistance of concrete structures after a 236 sustained loading is of concern to engineering and academic fields. Based on the sudden drop of the 237 strain around the initial crack tip, the values of the initial cracking load P_{ini} for different specimen 238 sizes were determined from the standard TPB tests, as shown in Table 2. Taking Specimen 239 M-aging-1 as an example, Fig. 6 illustrates the strain variations at the pre-notch tip, where Points A 240 241 and B correspond to the initial and peak loads, respectively. Compared with the aging specimens, Table 2 indicates that the initial cracking load increased for the specimens subjected to pre-sustained 242 loading. Meanwhile, the increase is more significant for the specimens with larger sizes. For the S-, 243 M- and L-series specimens, the growths in P_{ini} were 7.5%, 54.2% and 62.7%, respectively. By 244

contrast, the effect of sustained loading on the peak load is not significant, compared with the aging specimens, the changes in P_{max} being -1.95%, 18.23% and 11.17% for the S-, M- and L-series specimens, respectively.

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Table 2. Experimental results for the TPB tests

Spaaimans		P _{ini}	$P_{\rm max}$	$a_{\rm c}$ (r	nm)	$K_{ m \scriptscriptstyle IC}^{ m ini}$	$K^{ ext{un}}_{ ext{IC}}$	$G_{ m f}$	L_{ch}
Specifie		(kN)	(kN)	Cal.	Exp.	$(MPa \cdot m^{1/2})$	$(MPa \cdot m^{1/2})$	(N/m)	(mm)
S-aging	5-1	2.66	3.56	52.08	55.15	0.51	1.42	81.71	464.02
S-aging	g-2	2.53	3.68	48.10	50.63	0.49	1.27	102.22	580.50
S-aging	g-3	2.51	3.61	49.13	50.25	0.49	1.22	87.43	496.51
Mean	l	2.55	3.59	49.77	52.01	0.50	1.28	90.45	513.66
S.D.		0.07	0.05	1.69	2.23	0.01	0.08	8.64	49.07
C I Lov	ver	2.49	3.56	47.75	49.34	0.49	1.20	80.11	454.91
Upl	per	2.62	3.68	51.79	54.68	0.51	1.41	100.80	572.44
S-30-1	1	2.88	3.79	50.98	52.78	0.55	1.31	88.64	503.38
S-30-2	2	2.61	3.25	54.36	54.90	0.50	1.29	85.64	486.34
Mean	l	2.74	3.52	52.67	53.84	0.53	1.30	87.14	494.86
S.D.		0.135	0.27	1.69	1.06	0.03	0.01	1.5	8.52
C I Low	wer	2.55	3.12	50.19	52.29	0.49	1.29	84.94	482.37
U.I. Upj	per	2.94	3.92	55.15	55.39	0.56	1.31	89.34	507.35
M-aging	g-1	4.13	6.76	79.72	83.66	0.56	1.19	97.07	551.25
M-aging	g-2	4.14	7.40	87.60	91.23	0.56	1.46	100.98	573.45
M-aging	g-3	4.46	6.70	79.54	86.51	0.61	1.18	88.22	500.99
Mean	l	4.24	6.95	82.29	87.13	0.58	1.28	95.42	541.88
S.D.		0.15	0.32	3.76	3.12	0.02	0.13	5.34	30.31
	ower	4.06	6.57	77.79	83.40	0.55	1.12	89.03	505.60
U.I. U	pper	4.43	7.33	86.79	90.87	0.60	1.43	101.81	578.19
M-30-	1	6.59	8.53	76.78	80.17	0.90	1.45	90.62	514.62
M-30-2	2	7.11	8.77	81.31	86.68	0.97	1.58	102.96	584.70
M-30-	3	5.93	8.21	82.14	89.87	0.81	1.50	90.12	511.78
Mean	l	6.54	8.50	80.08	85.57	0.89	1.51	94.57	537.05
S.D.		0.48	0.23	2.36	4.04	0.06	0.05	5.94	33.73
	ower	5.97	8.23	77.26	80.74	0.81	1.45	87.46	496.65
C.I. U	pper	7.12	8.78	82.90	90.41	0.97	1.57	101.68	577.41
L-aging	g-1	4.54	9.00	128.17	134.40	0.54	1.40	132.53	752.62
L-aging	g-2	4.99	9.98	127.76	129.67	0.55	1.55	141.63	804.30
Mean	l	4.77	9.49	131.63	132.04	0.55	1.47	137.08	778.46
S.D.		0.23	0.49	0.21	2.37	0.01	0.075	4.55	25.84
	ower	4.44	8.77	127.66	128.57	0.54	1.37	130.41	740.57
C.I. U	pper	5.09	10.21	128.27	135.50	0.55	1.58	143.75	816.35
L-30-1	1	7.39	9.65	126.90	127.54	0.82	1.49	146.81	833.72

]	L-30-2	8.14	10.46	130.93	136.02	0.90	1.68	147.63	838.37
Mean		7.76	10.06	128.28	131.78	0.86	1.59	147.22	836.05
S.D.		0.38	0.41	2.02	4.24	0.04	0.10	0.41	2.33
C	Lower	7.22	9.46	125.96	125.56	0.80	1.45	146.62	832.64
C.I	.1. Upper	8.31	10.64	131.87	138.00	0.92	1.72	147.82	839.45

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Fig. 6. Strain variations at the pre-notch tip of Specimen M-aging-1

The values of the critical crack length a_c obtained from the experimental measurements and analytical method [9] are also included in Table 2. The equation for analytically calculating a_c is given as follows:

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$$a_{c} = \frac{2}{\pi} (D + H_{0}) \operatorname{arct} \sqrt{\frac{B \cdot E \cdot C M Q}{3 2 P_{max}^{6}}} = 0.-11E$$
(1)

where $CMOD_c$ is the critical crack mouth opening displacement measured in the tests, and H_0 is the thickness of the knife edge and is equal to 3 mm in this study.

The values of a_c in Table 2 indicate that the analytical and experimental results are in a reasonably good agreement, and confirm that the analytical equation from LEFM is appropriate for determining the critical crack length after low sustained loading. After obtaining the peak loads and the critical crack propagation lengths from the tests, the initial and unstable fracture toughnesses, $K_{\rm IC}^{\rm ini}$ and $K_{\rm IC}^{\rm un}$ can be calculated [9] as

$$K_{\rm IC}^{\rm ini} = \frac{3P_{\rm ini}S}{2D^2B}\sqrt{a_0}F_2\left(\frac{a_0}{D}\right) \tag{2}$$

$$K_{\rm IC}^{\rm un} = \frac{3P_{\rm max}S}{2D^2B}\sqrt{a_{\rm c}}F_2\left(\frac{a_{\rm c}}{D}\right)$$
(3)

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where *S* is the span of the specimens and $F_2\left(\frac{a}{D}\right)$ can be calculated from the following equation:

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$$F_{2}\left(\frac{a}{D}\right) = \frac{1.99 - \left(\frac{a}{D}\right) \left(1 - \frac{a}{D}\right) \left[2.15 - 3.93 \left(\frac{a}{D}\right) + 2.7 \left(\frac{a}{D}\right)^{2}\right]}{\left(1 + 2\frac{a}{D}\right) \left(1 - \frac{a}{D}\right)^{3/2}}$$
(4)

Noted that a in Eq. (4) should be substituted by a_0 and a_c for the solution of K_{IC}^{ini} and K_{IC}^{un} , respectively. 268 The values of $K_{\rm IC}^{\rm ini}$ and $K_{\rm IC}^{\rm un}$ for all specimens are listed in Table 2. It can be seen that there are no 269 significant size effects on the two fracture toughnesses obtained under static loading, which confirms 270 the finding obtained by Xu et al. [8]. However, the scenarios are different for the specimens with 271 various sizes after sustained loading. Compared with the aging specimens, the values of $K_{\rm IC}^{\rm ini}$ for the 272 S-, M- and L-serials specimens after sustained loading increased by 6.0%, 53.5% and 56.4%, 273 respectively. With the increased specimen size, the initial fracture toughness was significantly 274 enhanced. By contrast, the effect of the specimen size on the unstable fracture toughness $K_{\rm IC}^{\rm un}$ was not 275 prominent, with net increases of 1.6%, 18%, and 0.8% for the S-, M- and L-serials specimens only. 276 It should be noted that the double-K theory [9] was employed in the analyses, so that the variation 277 tendencies for K_{IC}^{ini} and K_{IC}^{un} matched those for P_{ini} and P_{max} . Comparing the measured and calculated 278 values of a_c indicates that the double-K theory is fairly appropriate for determining the fracture 279

properties of concrete at the critical status after low sustained loading. Accordingly,
$$K_{\rm IC}^{\rm un}$$
 is a fracture

parameter governing the crack unstable propagation. Thus, the calculated K_{IC}^{un} using the double-K 281 theory would be available if considering the negligible effect of low sustained loading. However, $K_{\rm IC}^{\rm ini}$ 282 is a fracture parameter governing the resistance on the crack initiation. Even under a low sustained 283 loading, the stress re-distribution would occur at the tip of the pre-notch and this cannot be reflected 284 in the analyses based on the double-K theory. Consequently, in the case of K_{IC}^{ini} , the double-K theory 285 may be not appropriate, i.e. the calculated results of $K_{\rm IC}^{\rm ini}$ may not be convincing. The work 286 considering the effect of stress re-distribution at the tip of the pre-notch will be conducted in the 287 further study. 288

Besides the initial and unstable fracture toughnesses, the fracture energy $G_{\rm f}$ is also an important fracture parameter for concrete, which is defined as the required energy for creating the cracking area and can be calculated using the following equation recommended by RILEM [31] as:

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$$G_{\rm f} = \frac{W_{\rm f}}{A_{\rm hig}} = \frac{W_0 + mg\delta_0}{B(D - a_0)}$$
(5)

where $W_{\rm f}$ is the total absorbed energy, $A_{\rm lig}$ is the ligament area, W_0 is the area under the measured load-deformation curve, mg is the self-weight of the specimen, and δ_0 is the loading-point displacement at failure.

The obtained values of $G_{\rm f}$ are listed in Table 2. With the increased specimen size, the values of $G_{\rm f}$ increased under the static loading, and this can be explained by the models for the size and boundary effects [19, 20]. Compared with the results under static loading, the fracture energy was not affected by low sustained loading but increased with the increased specimen sizes.

To verify the reliability of the conclusions on the size effect of fracture properties, the standard deviations (S.D.) and the confidence intervals (C.I.) with a confidence level of 95% are calculated

for all the configurations, which are listed in Table 2. It can be seen from the table that the standard

deviations are relatively small, i.e. less than 10% of the corresponding average values for all the configurations. In addition, by comparing the confidence intervals (the lowers or the uppers) between different configurations, the conclusions on the size effect of fracture properties can also be obtained, which agree well with those obtained based on only the average values.

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308 Effects of sustained loading on the FPZ evolution

309 According to the measuring method introduced in this study, the crack propagation lengths and the opening displacements with respect to various loading stages can be determined using clip gauges. 310 Furthermore, a tension softening constitutive law was introduced to characterise the relationship 311 between the crack opening displacement w and the cohesive stress σ . According to the fictitious 312 crack model [21], the nonlinear softening characteristics of the FPZ in concrete can be described 313 314 using the σ -w relationship, where the stress-free crack opening displacement w_0 governs the FPZ ending. Thus, the FPZ length can be determined as the distance from the crack tip to the position of 315 stress-free crack. In this study, the bilinear σ -w relationship was adopted, as illustrated in Fig. 7. 316



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Fig. 7. Bilinear σ -w concrete softening curve

According to Petersson [32], the parameters σ_s , w_s and w_0 in this figure can be determined as:

$$\sigma_{\rm s} = f_{\rm t}/3 \tag{6}$$

$$w_{\rm s} = 0.8G_{\rm f}/f_{\rm t} \tag{7}$$

$$w_0 = 3.6G_{\rm f}/f_{\rm t} \tag{8}$$

where w_s and σ_s are the crack opening displacement and the cohesive stress at the break-point of the 323 bilinear σ -w relationship. According to the experimental results of $G_{\rm f}$ and $f_{\rm t}$, the bilinear σ -w 324 relationship can be determined, which could be employed to quantify the FPZ length during the 325 loading process. Figs. 8 (a) to (c) illustrate the FPZ evolution for the S-, M- and L-series specimens, 326 respectively. For a vibrant comparison between the static and creep loading conditions, the average 327 curve was used for each loading condition. From Fig. 8, it can be seen that for each specimen size, 328 329 the FPZ length increased linearly with the crack propagation, and then decreased after reaching a full evolution of the FPZ. The values of $\Delta a/(D-a_0)$ for the full FPZ length of the S-aging-, M-aging- and 330 L-aging-series specimens were 0.89, 0.83 and 0.77, respectively. Accordingly, the full FPZ lengths 331 332 for the three series specimens were determined as 61.5 mm, 116.7 mm and 161.4 mm. Although the ratio of $\Delta a/(D-a_0)$ decreased due to the boundary effect for the larger specimens, the full FPZ length 333 still increased with the increased specimen size. Hence, the crack propagation in larger size 334 335 specimens needs to overcome more resistance caused by the cohesive characteristics of concrete, resulting in the enhancement of fracture energy. Comparing with the aging specimens indicates that 336 the FPZ evolution for the creep specimens showed similar variation trends. Thus, it can be seen that 337 the effects of low sustained loading on the fracture energy and the FPZ evolution could be neglected, 338 while the size effects still exist for the concrete after low sustained loading. Moreover, vertical cracks 339 formed along the ligament length for all S-, M- and L-series specimens under TPB loading. To show 340 341 the final crack patterns of the TPB specimens, the patterns for the S-creep specimens, as an example, have been illustrated in Fig. 9. 342



(b) M-series specimens



351 352

Fig. 9. Final crack patterns of the S-creep specimens

The characteristic length L_{ch} in mm was used to quantify the brittleness of the concrete specimens and is defined as

$$L_{\rm ch} = \frac{EG_{\rm F}}{f_{\rm t}^2} \tag{9}$$

A small characteristic length indicates a larger brittleness of the material. The results of L_{ch} are listed 356 in Table 2. It can be seen that the values of L_{ch} increased with the increased specimen size. For the 357 aging specimens with the depths of 100 mm, 200 mm and 300 mm, the mean values of L_{ch} were 358 obtained as 513.66 mm, 541.88 mm and 778.46 mm, respectively. Comparatively, for the creep 359 specimens, the mean values were obtained as 494.86 mm, 537.05 mm and 836.05 mm, respectively. 360 Although the value of L_{ch} was significantly affected by the specimen size, the effects of low 361 sustained loading on L_{ch} can be reasonably ignored. Accordingly, under higher sustained loading, the 362 brittleness of concrete has been found to increase by Omar et al. [26] if the size effect law is 363 364 introduced [33].

365 **Conclusions**

The concrete specimens with three sizes were prepared to investigate the size effect on the fracture properties of concrete after sustained loading. The creep tests were conducted on the TPB specimens by applying a sustained load of $30\% P_{max}$ over 115 days. Thereafter, the standard TPB tests were conducted to measure the initial cracking load, the peak load, the critical crack propagation length and the fracture energy, and the FPZ evolution during the fracture process was determined from the experimental results. By comparing the results of the concrete specimens under static loading with those after sustained loading, the following conclusions can be drawn:

(a) Low sustained loading had a significant effect on the crack initiation, resulting in the increase of
the initial cracking load and initial fracture toughness. Also, with the increased specimen size, the
initial fracture toughness increased, showing significant variations compared with the results
under static loading. However, it should be noted that the derivation of the initial fracture
toughness was still based on the LEFM theory and the stress re-distributions were not considered

in the analyses.

(b) Comparing the experimental and analytical results indicates that the peak load, the critical crack
length and the unstable fracture toughness were not affected by the applied sustained loading,
while the unstable fracture toughness was still size-independent. Therefore, the calculated
method based on the double-*K* theory is still appropriate for determining the fracture parameters
of concrete at the critical fracture status under low sustained loading.

(c) Under the applied low sustained loading, the fracture energy appeared to be size dependent,
which is similar to the case under static loading. Meanwhile, the FPZ evolution was affected by
the boundary of the specimen and its full length increased with the increasing specimen size, due
to the size effect on the fracture energy. In general, the crack initiation was significantly affected
by low sustained loading, while this effect can be neglected for the complete crack propagation
and the unstable fracture analysis because of no crack propagation at this stage.

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