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Micromechanical contributions to the behaviour of cement-based materials:
Two-scale modelling of cement paste and concrete in tension at high temperatures

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1. Introduction

The service-life of concrete structures depends on the behaviour of concrete in their environment and on the concrete mixture. Indeed, the choice of the cement type, the aggregate type or the water-to-cement (w/c) ratio influence concrete behaviour. To prevent an accident in concrete structures (for instance in reactors cells of nuclear power plants), civil engineers have to build structures which can resist thermal increases and mechanical load due to the formation of a high volumetric pressures at high temperatures. This study is devoted to the behaviour of cement-based materials in tension within the range 20–600 °C of high temperature.

In order to predict the degradation of concrete under fire conditions, many studies have been performed to identify the presumed causes [1–4]. Experimental tests have confirmed concrete brittleness at high temperatures, particularly under a mechanical load [5,6]. Experimental observations have allowed to localize damage in the concrete microstructure and to assess the diverse origins in damage: mechanical, thermal and chemical [7,8]. From 100 °C, the capillary pore water changes into water vapor and the cement hydrates begin to dessicate. Then, from 200 °C the water vapor fills out the concrete which leads to a shrinkage phenomenon of the cement paste. At higher temperature values, the dehydration of cement hydrates takes place which leads to the nucleation of cracks in the cement paste. Also, aggregates are sensitive to temperature increases. According to their physical properties they can swell with temperature (limestone aggregates) or shrink (silicious aggregates). The difference in the behaviour of aggregates and the cement paste contributes to the cracking process of the material at high temperatures. Several experimental studies have shown that the deformation of concrete during heating is strongly influenced by the simultaneous presence of an external mechanical (compressive) loading. An additional strain component denoted “Transient Thermal Creep” (TTC) has been measured. Several hypotheses have been advanced to explain the mechanism behind the TTC. Parrot [9] considers that this phenomenon is due to an accelerated polymerization in the Calcium Silicate Hydrates (C–S–H) by the effect of compression and increase of temperature. Anderberg and Thelandersson [10] introduce the concept of the thermo-mechanical interaction. Khoury et al. [3] attribute the TTC to a relaxation and a redistribution of the thermal stresses. Sabeur and Meftah [11] consider that the combined effect of creep and drying creep of dehydration is the basis for the development of the TTC. Bazant et al. [12] explain the transient thermal creep by...
two mechanisms, the first operating at the macroscopic scale due to microcracking and thermal damage; the second mechanism is due to incompatibilities at the nanomaterial scale (C–S–H). Gawin et al. [13] connect the TTC to the thermo-chemical damage of the cement paste and to the induced micro-cracks during heating. Studies performed at the mesoscale by Grondin et al. [14,15] and Menou et al. [16,17] have shown that this phenomenon is mainly attributed to the aggregates-paste incompatibility.

However, most of these studies have concerned the behaviour of concrete at high temperatures under a compressive load and there has been little analysis on its tensile behaviour under the same thermal conditions [18–20]. Experimental tests for concrete in tension are not common. So, the tests devices are not adapted for the characterization of the failure properties of concrete in tension. The few results given in the literature [18–20] show a deformation evolution vs. the load. In these tests, when the critical stress is reached the concrete shows a fragile behaviour. Therefore, no experimental tests have been suggested to measure the permeability of concrete under these conditions.

Numerical approaches seem to be the best way to characterize the failure properties of concrete in tension at high temperatures. Some numerical models have been adapted to predict the thermo-hydro-mechanical behaviour of concrete under different conditions from the pioneering works of Coussy [21] and Schrefler [22]. Some of these models have been used to calculate the strain and damage of concrete at high temperatures under a compressive load [13,23–26] and its permeability [27]. Other models have been performed considering thermal, chemical and mechanical degradation [28,29] or chemo-plasticity [30]. But, these models are based on a macroscopic representation of concrete and on a semi-empirical behaviour law. In this context some parameters are calibrated on experimental tests and it is not possible to show the influence of the microstructure on the damage and the hydraulic flow evolutions. In recent works, multiscale approaches coupled with homogenization methods have been applied to studying the behaviour of concrete and granular material; see for example [15,31–33]. These approaches give the possibility to access to local strain at the microstructure scale. Coupled to damage models, they enable simulation of the progressive deterioration of the microstructure at different temperature levels [34,15].

Some numerical methods have been proposed to study specific behaviour of cement-based materials [35–39]. But these models are not performed to couple the calculation of permeability with a damaged thermomechanical behaviour law. In this study, a close method presented in [15] is used. The model (Digital Concrete Model [40]) is based on a computation, by the finite element method, of the microstructure of the material. All heterogeneities (aggregates, sand grains or pores) are computed in a Representative Elementary Volume (REV) and are distributed by a random process according to their real size distribution. One of specificities is the simplicity of the finite element mesh reduced to a regular grid. So, the model can be either applied at different scales: mesoscopic (concrete) and microscopic (cement paste). From this mesh, various behaviour laws can be chosen for the different phases, in particular thermo-hydro-mechanical laws with damage have been implemented. We consider distributions included in a matrix with different properties according to the scale of the study. The approach is based on the knowledge of the microstructure properties. On the cement paste scale, the complex microstructure is formed by different phases which are the porosity, the residual unhydrated phases (cement clinker) and hydrated phases created during the chemical reaction between clinker and water. Different microstructure of cement pastes at the end of the hydration process have been computed. Homogenization calculations have been made to assess the elastic properties and the hydro-mechanical properties which are difficult to determine experimentally; for instance, the Biot’s coefficient [41]. Also, the permeability coefficient, which depends highly on the injected fluid, has been calculated. On the concrete scale, a coupling of the model with a damage model [42] has been made to study the failure properties of concrete. The damage and the effective permeability of High Strength Concrete (HSC) at high temperatures have been calculated.

First of all, the Digital Concrete model and the solved mechanical and hydraulic problems are described. Secondly, analyses at the cement paste scale are conducted to demonstrate the capabilities of the model to give effective properties to concrete phases on an upper scale. A description of the cement paste microstructure with hydraulic and geometrical properties of each of the phases is given in detail. In the next section, an application to concrete in tension subjected to high temperatures is presented and the results are compared to experimental measurements: total strain, homogenized mechanical properties and the effective permeability. Finally, local analyses of the damage variable and of the fluid flow are presented.

2. The digital concrete model

2.1. The representative elementary volume

The Digital Concrete Model has been developed with the objective to have a ‘realistic’ representation of cement-based materials by taking into account the random size distribution of heterogeneities. So, in previous applications on the behaviour of concrete, the concrete microstructure is represented as a multi-phase material with successions of three material phases (cement paste, pores, aggregate of various sizes) spatially distributed in a random way. Each phase is characterized by a set of physical and geometrical parameters such as: the volume fraction, the unit size (aggregate or pore diameter), and physico-mechanical properties. A specific algorithm has been developed to make a spatial and random distribution of these phases on the basis of a F.E. grid. Details are given in [15].

The REV dimensions and the finite element size are chosen in accordance with the material characteristics and the problem type. Generally the REV dimensions are taken equal to four times the largest inclusion diameter and the finite element size is equal to 0.8 times the smallest inclusion diameter. Calculations have been performed to check the stability of results with these dimensions for different inclusion distributions [15].

2.2. The non-linear thermo-hydro-mechanical behaviour

The REV $V$ of a heterogeneous material is formed by two media: a matrix defined by the medium $V_m$ and inclusions defined by the medium $V_s$. With the objective to model the behaviour of damaged cement-based materials, phases have a damage elastic behaviour. An uniform temperature $\Delta T$ and an uniform strain field tensor $\varepsilon$ are applied on the surface of $V$. These loads imply local displacements fields $u(y)$, local strain fields $\varepsilon(y)$ and local stress fields $\sigma(y)$ in each point $y$ of $V$ which are linked by the following behaviour law:

$$\sigma(y) = C(y, \varepsilon(y)) : (\varepsilon(y) - \varepsilon(T)) - p_0\delta$$  

(1)

where $C(y, \varepsilon(y))$ is the stiffness tensor of the material phases depending on the strain of phases and $\varepsilon(T)$ the thermal expansion tensor of the material phases depending on the temperature. $p_0$ is the capillary pressure which is equal to 0 in a solid medium. The stiffness tensor is depending on the strain state as follow [15]:

$$C(y, \varepsilon(y)) = [1 - \eta d(\varepsilon(y)) - (1 - \eta)d(\varepsilon(y))] C(y)$$  

(2)
where $C(y)$ is the initial stiffness tensor of the material phases and $d^s$ and $d^d$ the spherical and the deviatoric damage variables which correspond respectively to the local slip in micro-cracks and the hydrostatic state. $d^s$ and $d^d$ vary between 0 (undamaged material) and 1 (total damage). The variable $\eta$ is calibrated according to the material and to the test. According to the Mazars’ model [43], Ung Quoc and Mounajed [42] have developed the damage model MODEV and have suggested these following evolutions of the spherical and the deviatoric damage variables:

\[
d^s = 1 - \frac{\tilde{d}^s}{\tilde{d}^s_0} \exp[-B_t(\tilde{d}^s - \tilde{d}^s_0)] \\
d^d = 1 - \exp[-B_t(\tilde{d}^d - \tilde{d}^d_0)]
\] (3)

(4)

where $B_t$ is a damage parameter related to the fracture energy to limit the mesh sensitivity, $B_c$ a material parameter associated to the compressive strength and $\tilde{d}^s$ and $\tilde{d}^d$ are respectively the spherical and the deviatoric equivalent strains given in [42] and in [15].

In this work, the effective moduli method [44] is retained and the macroscopic strain $\tilde{e}$ is applied through a given displacement $\mathbf{u}$ on the boundary $\partial V$ of the REV:

\[
\tilde{e} = \frac{\mathbf{E}}{\mathbf{C}} \cdot \mathbf{y} \quad \text{on} \quad \partial V
\] (5)

The non-linear homogenized behaviour law is defined by the relation between the average stress fields $\overline{\mathbf{\sigma}} = \overline{\mathbf{\sigma}}_V$ and the average strain fields $\overline{\mathbf{e}}_V$, where $\overline{\mathbf{\sigma}}$ and $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ are solutions of the cellular problem. The secant formulation of the homogenized thermo-hydro-mechanical behaviour law can be written as follows:

\[
\overline{\mathbf{\sigma}} = \frac{\mathbf{E}}{\mathbf{C}} : \overline{\mathbf{e}}_V = \overline{\mathbf{\sigma}}_V + \mathbf{p} \mathbf{B} - \mathbf{p} \mathbf{B}_c
\] (6)

where $\mathbf{C}^{\text{hom}}(\mathbf{E})$ is the homogenized stiffness tensor, $\mathbf{p}^{\text{hom}}(T)$ the homogenized thermal expansion tensor, $\mathbf{p}$ the average pressure and $\mathbf{B}$ the homogenized Biot’s tensor. A direct estimation of this latter tensor has been proposed for [45] from an estimation of the homogenized stiffness tensor $\mathbf{C}^{\text{hom}}$:

\[
\mathbf{B} = (I - \mathbf{C}^{\text{hom}} : \mathbf{S}) : \mathbf{\delta}
\] (7)

where $\mathbf{S}$ is the compliance tensor of the solid medium ($= 1/C$), $\mathbf{\delta}$ the second-order identity tensor and $I$ the fourth-order identity tensor. In the same way, the effective hydraulic properties can be calculated.

2.3. The non-linear hydraulic behaviour

Multiscale approaches can be also used to define the permeability of saturated or unsaturated porous media [47–51]. These works show that the fluid movement can be supposed Newtonian in small pores and satisfied Navier–Stokes equations. In neglecting friction in the fluid phase and inertial effects, the relation between the average of the local speed fields and pressures average leads to the Darcy’s law [52]. That is why we have supposed in this study the hydraulic transport defined by the Darcy’s law on the elementary volume scale. So, if a homogeneous macroscopic hydraulic load is applied on $\partial V$, a local speed field $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{y})$ and a local hydraulic potential $h(\mathbf{y})$ are linked by the following behaviour law:

\[
\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{y}) = -k(\mathbf{y}, h(\mathbf{y})) \cdot \mathbf{T} \nabla h(\mathbf{y}) \quad \forall \mathbf{y} \in V
\] (8)

where $k$ is the permeability tensor of phases (matrix or inclusion) depending on the local strains. Experimental tests on damaged cement-based materials have shown a modification of the microstructure and therefore a permeability variation. Under severe conditions (thermal and or mechanical), the permeability of cement-based materials can greatly increase [53–56]. To take into account this phenomenon in the multiscale approach proposed in this work, the permeability of the concrete phases is supposed to be dependent on the local strain state. This model has been retained at the mesoscopic scale by supposing that all concrete phases are continuous at this scale. A permeability function, suggested by J. Arsenault in [57], according to the volumetric damage has been retained for a continuous cement paste in concrete:

\[
k(\mathbf{y}, h(\mathbf{y})) = k_0(h(\mathbf{y})) \exp(k_0(h(\mathbf{y}))) = \tilde{h}(\mathbf{y}) \cdot \mathbf{\delta}
\] (9)

where $k_0(h(\mathbf{y}))$ is the initial permeability coefficient of the local phase and $\kappa$ and $\beta$ are constant material parameters which have been calibrated to the material studied. This empirical relation has been obtained experimentally by considering concrete is homogenous. Picandet et al. [56] have shown the influence of $\kappa$ and $\beta$. In this work, these constant parameters have been calibrated for a high-performance concrete at high temperatures. In the temperature range studied here, the damage is preponderant in the cement paste. The evolution of the macroscopic permeability highly depends on the increase of the cement paste permeability. So, we consider the relation (9) is valid and active at mesoscale for the cement paste. The relation is not used for aggregate because we consider that aggregates are slightly porous and their damage is not sufficient to create a network flow until the temperature of 500 °C.

It is supposed that the volumetric damage is responsible of the evolution of the capillary volume according to a hydrostatic strain, and that the deviatoric damage is only responsible of the orientation of the capillary network according to a shear strain.

A macroscopic speed $U$ is applied through the following boundary condition:

\[
\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{y}) \cdot \mathbf{n} = U \cdot \mathbf{n} \quad \text{on} \quad \partial V
\] (10)

where $\mathbf{n}$ is the outer normal vector of the area $V$.

The homogenized permeability tensor is then defined by the following relation between average fields:

\[
(\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{y})) = -\mathbf{C}^{\text{hom}}(\mathbf{T}) (\nabla h(\mathbf{y})) \quad \forall \mathbf{y} \in V
\] (11)

3. Application on the microscopic scale: study of cement pastes

3.1. The cement paste microstructure

The Digital Concrete Model is used to generate the REV of the cement paste microstructure. The cement paste is supposed to be composed of two phases: the capillary porosity and a solid phase formed by the hydrated products and unhydrated cement particles. In the homogenization process, the solid inclusions are supposed to embed in the porosity. Here, the porosity plays the role usually taken by the matrix in the homogenization of composite materials, as a softer phase. Because it is difficult to simulate the smallest particles with diameter <1 μm, we suppose these particles contained in the first phase. So, these particles give an elastic property to create a network flow until the temperature of 500 °C.

To simplify the calculation, in this paper, hydrated phases will be represented only by C–S–H and CH by considering negligible the other hydrated phases. They are given here at the end of the other hydrated phases. They are given here at the end of this work. The evolution of the macroscopic permeability highly depends on the increase of the cement paste permeability. So, we consider the relation (9) is valid and active at mesoscale for the cement paste. The relation is not used for aggregate because we consider that aggregates are slightly porous and their damage is not sufficient to create a network flow until the temperature of 500 °C.
calculated by the Rosin–Rammler model according to experimental tests [60] (Table 2).

By considering this particle size distribution which not distinguish the inclusions type, each cement particle are now modeled by an assembly of an unhydrated particle surrounded by the hydrated products (Fig. 1 where C–S–H contains respectively the low and the high density C–S–H: C–S–H and C–S–H, with a ratio of 30–70% [61]).

3.2. Mechanical behaviour of phases

The solid inclusions formed by the main hydrated products (C–S–H and CH) and unhydrated cement particles are supposed to be elastic and isotropic. The local behaviour law is governed by the relation (1) where \( \sigma = 0 \) and \( C(\gamma) \) is constant with \( d^d = 0 \) and \( d^r = 0 \) (in relation (2)). The matrix formed by the capillary porosity containing the smallest cement particles (diameter <1 \( \mu \)m) has a small stiffness with a shear modulus \( \mu \) taken arbitrarily equal to \( 1 \times 10^{-5} \) MPa. So, its behaviour is essentially governed by the capillary pressure \( p_c \). In addition, we suppose that the fluid sweeps the pore surface and the interface pressure in pores between the solid medium and the fluid phase is taken equal to zero [62]. The behaviour law of the capillary network is taken as follow:

\[
\sigma(\gamma) = -p_c \delta + 2 \mu \gamma
\]

(12)

where \( p_c \) is calculated by the Laplace’s law:

\[
p_c - p_0 = \frac{RT}{V_w} \ln(R_h)
\]

(13)

where \( R (=8.314 \) J K\(^{-1}\) mol\(^{-1}\)\) is the perfect gas constant, \( T (=293.15 \) °K\) the absolute temperature, \( V_w (=1.8 \times 10^{-5} \) m\(^3\) mol\(^{-1}\)\) the specific molar volume of water, \( p_0 (=0.1 \) MPa\) the reference pressure and \( R_h \) the internal relative humidity. In this study, \( R_h \) is supposed to be constant and arbitrarily equal to 95%.

The mechanical properties of the solid inclusions are obtained by two successive homogenization calculations by applying the Mori–Tanaka method (Fig. 1). The homogenized Young’s moduli and Poisson’s ratios of the solid medium have been obtained for different \( w/c \) ratios and are presented in Table 3.

3.3. Hydraulic properties of cement paste phases

In the same way, the local hydraulic properties are calculated. The hydraulic behaviour is taken linear for each phases. The local permeability tensor \( k(y, C(\gamma)) \), defined in the relation (8), is taken constant and equal to \( k_0 \) in the capillary network and \( k_l \) in the solid phase. These permeability coefficients are deduced from the works of Bentz and Garboczi [35,63] based on the Katz–Thompson model [64]. The solid part of the cement paste is a low permeable phase and by exploiting the Katz–Thompson relation, its permeability can be taken equal to [59]:

\[
k_l = k_{CSH} \left[ 1 - \frac{1 - f_{CSH}(w/c)}{1 - f_c} \right]^2
\]

(14)

where \( f_c = 0.17 \) [35] is the critical volume fraction of C–S–H obtained by percolation, \( f_{C-S-H} \) the volume fraction of C–S–H in the solid phase and \( k_{C-S-H} = 7 \times 10^{-16} \) m s\(^{-1}\) [65] the water permeability of C–S–H pore gels.

Table 2

Volume fraction of solid inclusions for different cement pastes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>w/c</th>
<th>Diameter (( \mu ))</th>
<th>0.3 ( V_c (%) )</th>
<th>0.4 ( V_c (%) )</th>
<th>0.5 ( V_c (%) )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>7.32</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>80.3</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>82.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>58.2</td>
<td>63.7</td>
<td>60.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.171</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3

Calculated elastic properties of the solid particles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>w/c</th>
<th>( E (\text{GPa}) )</th>
<th>( v (-) )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>0.255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>0.257</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 1. Homogenization of the solid medium.
The capillary network is a high-permeable phase and, by identifying to the Katz–Thompson relation, its permeability is written as follow:

\[
k_h = \frac{1.8}{226} \frac{\rho^2}{l_c^2} (1-f_c)^2
\]

where \( f_c = 0.18 \) is the volume fraction of the porosity if a connectivity exists and \( l_c \) the critical pore radius which is the pore radius assuming a connectivity of the capillary network. \( l_c \) is obtained by measuring the pore size distribution and it corresponds to the first peak in the logarithm curve for pore radius greater than 1 nm. In this study, the permeability has been calculated at the end of the hydration process, because the Katz–Thompson model has not been performed for cement-based materials at early age. According to the relations (14) and (15), the permeability of the capillary network \( k_h \) and the permeability of the solid medium of the cement paste \( k_l \) are given for different cement pastes in Table 4.

### 3.4. Equivalent mechanical and hydraulic behaviour of cement pastes

The effective Young’s modulus and the Poisson’s ratio of different cement pastes have been calculated by solving cellular problems (1) with the Digital Concrete model and the F.E. code Symphonie. Calculated Young’s moduli are compared in a good agreement to experimental measurements [66,67] for various w/c ratios (Fig. 2). The calculation of the homogenized Poisson’s ratios in two main directions shows the possibility of the model to reproduce the isotropic behaviour of a cement paste (Table 5).

#### Table 4
Calculated permeability of the cement pastes phases at 210 days.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>w/c</th>
<th>( k_h ) (m²)</th>
<th>( k_l ) (m²)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>( 2.04 \times 10^{-23} )</td>
<td>( 5.46 \times 10^{-19} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>( 2.85 \times 10^{-23} )</td>
<td>( 5.46 \times 10^{-19} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>( 2.93 \times 10^{-23} )</td>
<td>( 5.46 \times 10^{-19} )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The equivalent permeability is also compared in a good agreement to experimental tests [59] for two w/c ratios, 0.3 and 0.4 (Table 6). The permeability depends on the cement composition and the maturity of the cement paste. In Fig. 3 the ratio \( K/K_{0.3} \) between the calculated permeability of different w/c ratios on that of a cement paste with w/c = 0.3 is presented. For a high w/c ratio, the water permeability takes a very high value. The evolution of the water permeability with w/c can be represented following an exponential curve. Similar results are observed in experimental tests [68]. In experimental procedures, before measuring the permeability, the cement paste is dried (until to 105 °C) in order to unsaturate the capillary pores. But there is always a small volume of residual water after drying which influences the hydraulic flow during the permeability test. In the calculation, we have supposed that pores do not contain water. Results could be improved by taking into account the hydration process of each cement particles and to take into account the residual water in the capillary porosity. Such developments are in progress [58].

#### Table 5
Poisson’s coefficients of different cement pastes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>w/c</th>
<th>( \nu_{xx} )</th>
<th>( \nu_{yy} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.247</td>
<td>0.248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.254</td>
<td>0.256</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Table 6
Comparisons between calculated results and experimental tests for the equivalent intrinsic permeability of cement pastes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>w/c</th>
<th>Simulation (m²)</th>
<th>Tests [59] (m²)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>( 2.46 \times 10^{-23} )</td>
<td>( &lt;2.69 \times 10^{-23} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>( 4.07 \times 10^{-23} )</td>
<td>( 12.2 \times 10^{-23} )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 2. Comparison of effective calculated Young moduli and experimental measurements for different w/c at 210 days.
3.5. Equivalent hydro-mechanical behaviour of cement pastes

The behaviour of porous media are governed by a lot of physical and mechanical parameters. Their experimental characterization is sometimes difficult according to their coupled evolution [69]. Among these macroscopic parameters, the hydraulic expansion coefficient, also called Biot’s modulus $M$ [70], is an example of these multi-physics parameters difficult to identify experimentally. See for instance the work of Obeid and Mounajed [41] for cement mortars. Therefore, the determination of the hydro-mechanical behaviour of porous media requires the knowledge of $M$. The Biot’s modulus $M$ is then defined by the following relation:

$$\frac{1}{M} = \frac{b - \phi}{K_s} + \frac{\phi}{K_{fl}}$$

(16)

where $K_s$ (MPa) is the compressive modulus of the solid medium, $K_{fl}$ (MPa) the compressive modulus of the fluid, $\phi$ the porosity and $b$ the Biot’s coefficient used for an isotropic material as $b = b_0$. The Biot’s coefficient represents the fraction of the volume variation of the material corresponding to the volume variation of the pore

![Fig. 3. Relationships between calculated intrinsic permeability and w/c for mature cement pastes.](image)

![Fig. 4. The Biot’s coefficient and the Skempton coefficient versus w/c.](image)
space. Its expression can be generalized to several fluids in the pore space [41]. Under the same conditions, the Skempton’s coefficient $B_s$, which represents the ratio of the pore pressure increment to the mean stress increment under undrained conditions, is written as follow:

$$1 \frac{B_s}{M_b} = \frac{K_0}{M_b} + b$$

where $K_0$ is the compressive modulus of the drained material.

By using the relation (7), the Biot’s tensor is calculated according to the homogenized stiffness tensor calculated below and the compliance tensor of the solid cement particles. The calculated Biot’s tensor is isotropic and its value increases with the $w/c$ ratio according to a higher capillary porosity. Calculated results of the Biot’s coefficient and the Skempton’s coefficient for different cement pastes are presented in Fig. 4. Calculated values for $w/c$ ratios equal to 0.3, 0.4 and 0.5 are around 0.2. It is a good result in comparison to experimental values measured for ordinary cement-based materials (with $w/c < 0.5$) which are unsaturated with a relative humidity greater than 80% [41].

4. Application on the mesoscopic scale: a high-performance concrete in tension at high temperatures

4.1. The concrete components properties and the loading

Applications concern the behaviour of a High Strength Concrete studied in experimental fire tests [19,71]. Tested concrete have been mixed with a Portland cement (type CPA CEM I 52.5 PM ES CP2 of Le Havre) with a $w/c$ ratio equal to 0.3, crashed limestone aggregate 0/20 (Boullonnais) and sand-lime 0/4 (La Seine). The aggregate size distribution is presented in Table 7 where $V_f$ is the volume fraction of each aggregate in % and $D$ their diameter in mm. In the experimental tests, cylindrical concrete specimens of size $16 \times 32 \text{ cm}^2$ have been tested.

The mechanical properties of the concrete phases at 28 days are given by experimental measurements [72,19,8,73] and are summarized in Table 8 where $f_c$ is the compressive strength. $f_t$ and $f_s$ have been identified by an inverse method on a representative elementary volume under a constant unit mechanical load. The thermal expansion coefficient of the cement paste and of aggregate are given by experimental measurements [2,19] and are presented in Fig. 5.

A uniform tensile load combined with a uniform temperature $\Delta T$ are applied on the specimen in the same conditions as the experiments. The initial tensile strength of the material is given equal to 5 MPa and the tensile load (TL) applied on the concrete specimen is taken equal to 0 MPa, 1 MPa and 2 MPa which correspond respectively to a load-to-strength ($L/S$) ratio equal to 0%, 20% or 40%. The rate of temperature is equal to 1 °C/min and the test starts at 20 °C up to 600 °C. To make strain measurements at high temperatures, Hager and Pimienta [19] have retained an ori-
original method, called ‘lateral grip’: metal jaws are fixed at the concrete cylinder tips. But the authors have been observed that the clamping develops a biaxial stress state which can lead to damage of the concrete cylinder tips. They have neglected this damage in measurements and have supposed that damage occurs only in the centre of the specimen.

In experimental tests, why the speed of temperature increasing was 1 °C/min, no pressure gradient occurred [8]. That is why in simulations, the speed of temperature increasing is not taken into account. So, the temperature is not transient. Also, in simulation we have considered material parameters for drying concrete as suggested in the experiments to prevent the influence of the gas pressure during the temperature increasing [19]. Hager and Pimenta have shown that drying at 105 °C to have a total moisture-loss leads to a decrease of the gas pressure from 4 MPa to 0.28 MPa. So, the capillary pressure in relation (1) is taken equal to 0, by supposing that the pressure is not influent on damage.

4.2. Strain and damage of concrete

The REV is computed in two dimensions and a plane strain condition is assumed. It is computed by taking into account the real aggregate size distribution of concrete (Table 7). The volume dimensions are chosen according to the ratio with the maximum aggregate diameter. The validity of this two dimensional simulation has been discussed in previous work [15]. Effective mechanical characteristics obtained by this approximation are in good agreement with experimental data or classical 3D models. Elsewhere, the interfacial transition zone (ITZ) is not modelled because it has been observed that the chemical bonds between crushed limestone aggregates and the cement paste are strong [74]. So the interface between the cement paste and the aggregates is supposed to be perfect in the model and concrete can be modelled by only two phases.

The macroscopic loads are applied in the REV boundary in the same conditions as the experimental tests where \( U_0 \), respectively \( U_n \), is the horizontal displacement, respectively the vertical displacement, \( T \) the temperature imposed in the boundaries and \( F \) the tensile load (Fig. 6). In this work, three configurations have been used and, as explained in [15], homogenized elastic properties do not vary with the configuration. In the previous paper [15], we have shown that the REV configuration does not influence the macroscopic strain values until the temperature of 500 °C, however damage has nucleated just before 100 °C. Up to 500 °C, low damage occur in the aggregate surfaces and beyond this temperature they begin to fail, but the model does not take into account this failure mechanism. In the case of tensile load with temperature, damage begins before 100 °C whatever the tested tensile load. The difference of results for different geometries is not significant in comparison with the computer relative error and with the experimental tests variability. The local strain fields are induced by the macroscopic loading. Calculated results for the strain evolution are compared to experimental measurements in Fig. 7. The strain evolutions with the temperature for the ratio \( L/S = 20\% \) and \( L/S = 40\% \) are very close to each other. It can be explained by the fact that in tension (with or without temperature) deformation evolves similarly in concrete. Therefore, differences are observed for the time of failure. The load force has no influence on the shape of the strain curve but only on the total failure which appears rapidly for \( L/S = 40\% \).

We have shown that the random distribution of inclusions has an influence on the time of failure of concrete in compression at high temperatures in a recent work [15]. So it would be interesting to model different geometries to analyze the influence of the random microstructure on the degradation due to a tensile load. In this study, we focus on the stiffness degradation and on the increase of the permeability of the damaged material.

The strength of concrete at high temperatures decreases due to local damage in the microstructure [15]. Concrete has a low tensile strength. Therefore, in experimental tests it is very difficult to measure the Young’s modulus of concrete which have been submitted to high temperatures and to a tensile load. There are very few results about this subject in the literature review. The concrete specimens used by Felicetti and Gambarova [18] have respectively tensile and compressive strengths close to that presented in this paper, respectively 4.5 MPa and 5.5 MPa for \( f_t \) and 72 MPa and 95 MPa for \( f_c \). Calculated results are presented in Fig. 8. For \( L/S = 20\% \) Felicetti and Gambarova have obtained a residual elastic modulus equal to 70% of its initial value at 250 °C. Which is similar to calculated results obtained in this work.

4.3. Relations between damage and permeability

The macroscopic permeability is explicitly dependent on the damage value. Because the brittle zone of the material (the cement paste) has a low surface, the influence of the REV configurations is not significant on the macroscopic permeability as for the macroscopic strain. As for the Young modulus, experimental measurements are limited by the fragile behaviour of concrete at high temperatures under a tensile load. In fact, no results have been found in the literature review. No devices to measure the permeability under these conditions exist. That is the interest of the development of a modelling approach.

Calculated results are presented in Fig. 9. Results obtained for \( L/S = 0\% \) are in a good agreement to experimental measurements [75,76]. The evolution of the effective permeability (which corresponds to the intrinsic permeability) seems to follow the evolution of the macroscopic total strain observed on Fig. 7. So, the evolution of the permeability is similar in the two tests \( L/S = 20\% \) and \( L/S = 40\% \). In comparison to calculations performed on the same material at high temperatures under a compressive load [15], the permeability increases more rapidly in the tensile case. Physically, it can be explained by the separation of the CSH layers (formed during the cement hydration) imposed by the thermal expansion of the cement paste and by the tensile load.

Fig. 6. The Digital Concrete REV and the boundary conditions.
After these two calculations, mechanical and hydraulic results obtained can be interpreted as follow. The total strain seems to be mainly due to the thermal expansion which contributes to the separation of the C–S–H layers. And, the tensile load leads to the total failure of the material, but not contributes, or very few, to the strain evolution.

### 4.4. The micromechanics analysis

In recent works, we have showed the influence of the micro-structure geometry on the deterioration of concrete at high temperatures under a mechanical load [15]. In this study the loss of rigidity of concrete at high temperatures in tension is attributed
Fig. 9. The permeability evolution of concrete at high temperatures under a tensile load.

Fig. 10. Localization of damage in concrete at 100 °C and 140 °C for L/S = 40%.

Fig. 11. Localization of flux in concrete at 100 °C and 140 °C for L/S = 40%.
to the degradation of the microstructure too. Fig. 10 shows the damage localization in the microstructure of concrete at 100 °C and 140 °C. The damage level is defined by colors which change between blue (no damage) to yellow (cracked). Fig. 10 clearly shows higher damage in the cement paste at 140 °C. The aggregates are less affected. And the damage average value is around 0.5 which is sufficient to increase the local porosity. At the same time, we observe the local hydraulic flux in Fig. 11. The effective permeability is the average of the local permeability. And it confirms results presented below on the increase of the effective permeability (Fig. 9).

5. Conclusions

In this paper, we have presented a numerical multiscale approach to model the thermo-hydro-mechanical behaviour of cement-based materials. A coupling of a homogenization method with the Digital Concrete Model of the finite element code Symphonie has been performed. The Digital Concrete Model allows to generate, following a random process, all heterogeneities in a Representative Elementary Volume. The volume geometry approaches the reality of the material microstructure. The homogenized behaviour laws of the equivalent material are obtained as the relation of the local fields averages calculated by the finite element method.

First of all, applications have been made on the determination of the mechanical, poro-mechanical and hydraulic properties of cement pastes with different water-to-cement ratios. Calculated results have been compared and are in good agreement with experimental measurements.

Secondly, analyses have been made to study the damage behaviour of concrete at high temperatures under a tensile load. Regarding the compressive behaviour at high temperatures, damage nucleates in the concrete microstructure due to different dilatations of the cement paste and aggregate [15]. Multiscale approaches seem to be well suited to model the behaviour of concrete under these conditions. Then, the calculation of the permeability of the damaged material has been computed. Calculations of the equivalent thermo-mechanical properties and the equivalent permeability are in a good agreement with experimental measurements. The specificity of this numerical approach is to follow the evolutions of local fields. The localization of the strains, respectively the hydraulic flows, has been allowed to follow the influence of the evolution of the porosity on the macroscopic mechanical behaviour, respectively on the effective permeability. We have observed an influence of the microstructure of concrete on the deterioration. The validity of this two dimensional simulation has been discussed in previous work [15]. Effective mechanical characteristics obtained by this approximation are in good agreement with experimental data.

In future works, we will implement diverse physico-mechanical responses of cement-based materials under different conditions, such as the self-dessication of concrete at early age [58], the chemical deterioration (external sulfate attacks, lixiviation, chloride ingress, etc.) [77] and the creep behaviour. To complete the model, we expect to implement the interfacial transition zone between aggregate and cement paste in concrete. To take into account the influence of crack shape on the permeability, we expect to implement a mathematical formulation of this relation [78]. Furthermore, calculations similar to those presented in this study are in course in three dimensions to show the influence of geometry on the computed results.

References


