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1 **Three-dimensional modeling and numerical predictions of multimodal**  
2 **nonlinear behavior in damaged concrete blocks.**

3

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5

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13

1

**2 Abstract**

3

4 In this paper, the multimodal nonlinear elastic behavior of concrete, which is representative of  
5 a consolidated granular material, is modeled numerically. Starting from a local three-  
6 dimensional softening law, the initial stiffness properties are re-estimated according to the local  
7 strain field. The experiments deal with samples of thermally damaged concrete blocks  
8 successively excited around their first three modes of vibration. The geometry of these samples  
9 cannot be described by a one-dimensional approximation in these experiments where  
10 compressional and shear motions are strongly coupled. Despite this added complexity, the  
11 nonlinear behavior for the three modes of vibration of the samples is well captured by the  
12 simulations using a single scalar nonlinear parameter appropriately integrated into the elasticity  
13 equations. It is shown that without sufficient attention payed to the latter, the conclusions would  
14 have brought erroneous statements such as nonlinearity dispersion or strain type dependence.

## 1 **I. Introduction**

2

3 Geomaterials exhibit mechanical softening under dynamic loading, usually combined with  
4 hysteresis and slow-dynamics effects (Johnson *et al.*, 1996; TenCate *et al.*, 2000). These effects  
5 are reversible and deterministic. From a micro-structure standpoint, a recent study has  
6 established a correlation between micro-crack density and softening effects (Payan *et al.*,  
7 2014a,b). From an energy balance point of view, it means that some potential energy disappears  
8 when the material is loaded dynamically and is slowly recovered when the material is at rest.  
9 These properties are relevant to various natural processes and industrial applications including  
10 the onset of earthquake and avalanches in geophysics (Johnson and Jia, 2005), the aging of civil  
11 infrastructure (Eiras *et al.*, 2016; Payan *et al.*, 2007; Vu *et al.*, 2016), the design of acoustic  
12 meta-materials with extreme stiffness (Diani *et al.*, 2009; Wang and Lakes, 2004), or the  
13 assessment of bone fragility in the medical field (Hauptert *et al.*, 2014).

14

15 The dynamic response of these materials has been first modeled by Guyer *et al.* (1995) using  
16 the Preisach formalism, which is a phenomenological description borrowed from the field of  
17 electromagnetics. This model has then been refined to include slow-dynamics effects through  
18 thermally activated random transitions between the open and closed states of the hysteretic  
19 elements of the Preisach system (Delsanto and Scalerandi, 2003; Nobili and Scalerandi, 2004).  
20 More recently, Pecorari (2015) proposed a hysteretic model sharing some features with the  
21 Jiles-Atherton model (also borrowed from the field of electromagnetics), which he enhanced to  
22 capture the slow-dynamics effects. It is also worth mentioning the soft-ratchet model of slow-  
23 dynamics originally proposed by Vakhnenko *et al.* (2004) and recently modified by Favrie *et*  
24 *al.* (2015) to include classical nonlinearity and viscoelasticity. All these models, however, have  
25 been derived in the one-dimensional (1D). Three-dimensional (3D) effects are an essential part  
26 of the dynamic response observed in geomaterials and cannot be ignored (Egle and Bray, 1976;  
27 Payan *et al.*, 2007, 2009; Tournat *et al.*, 2004). Lyakhovskiy *et al.* (2009) proposed a two-  
28 dimensional continuum damage rheology model capturing hysteretic nonlinearity and some of  
29 the features observed in nonlinear resonance experiments. A similar model was used by Hamiel  
30 *et al.* (2009) to describe stress-induced anisotropy in damaged geomaterials. Note that in these  
31 models, damage is not recoverable and slow-dynamics effects are not considered. The recent  
32 modeling work of Berjamine *et al.* (2017) includes slow-dynamics effects, but although it can  
33 be naturally extended to 3D analysis, the simulations are carried out only for a 1D case.

1  
2 Attempting to develop a predictive tool to link the microstructural properties of the material to  
3 the nonlinear elastic response observed experimentally is a challenging task. Despite a high  
4 sensitivity to microstructures, amorphous condensed matter arrangement, and environmental  
5 conditions (e.g., temperature, pressure) (Lott *et al.*, 2016; Payan *et al.*, 2009; TenCate *et al.*,  
6 2000), the elastic nonlinear parameters seem to depend on the choice of the experimental setup  
7 in much of the previous work reported in the literature. For instance, Renaud *et al.* (2013)  
8 showed that material softening effects in Berea sandstone may vary by up to an order of  
9 magnitude depending on the probing direction while the material is isotropic. In the work of  
10 Payan *et al.* (2014a,b) on concrete, two techniques were used to estimate a parameter of  
11 nonlinearity. The two techniques showed the same trends but the magnitudes of the measured  
12 parameter differ by an order of magnitude. These experimental data were derived using the  
13 most common 1D approximation. However, a complex strain field leads to a 3D problem from  
14 a mechanical point of view and using a 1D approximation to describe this problem may lead to  
15 erroneous conclusions.

16  
17 Recently, Lott *et al.* (2016, 2017) show that conditioning can be properly accounted in 3D using  
18 a single scalar nonlinear parameter into the appropriate set of elasticity equations using  
19 uncoupled single mode resonance type of experiments, i.e., shear and compressional. The aim  
20 of this paper is to study the validity of this model to nonlinear resonance experiments, involving  
21 strong coupling between shear and compressional motion types. Numerical simulations are  
22 compared to experimental data from nonlinear resonances in gradually thermally damaged  
23 concrete blocks. Using a single scalar nonlinear parameter appropriately introduced in elasticity  
24 equations, the validity of the model is demonstrated and discussed.

25

## 26 **II. Theoretical framework**

27

28 In continuum mechanics, the parameters needed to compute the linear dynamic response of an  
29 elastic body are the mass density, the linear elastic tensor, and the damping parameters. If the  
30 geometry of the sample is complex and/or the material is heterogeneous, numerical techniques  
31 (e.g., finite-element method) should be used and the distribution of these parameters should be  
32 known for all computation cells discretizing the sample. In this paper, we study consolidated  
33 granular materials, which may be described as a disordered network of mesoscopic-sized “hard”

1 elements (e.g., grains with characteristic lengths ranging from tens to hundreds of microns)  
 2 cemented together by a “soft” bond system (e.g., amorphous silica, calcite) (Guyer and Johnson,  
 3 1999). Despite the complexity of the structure, the linear elastic response of these materials at  
 4 macroscopic scale is well captured by the model of a continuum. This continuum may have  
 5 heterogeneous properties under dynamic loading as a combined result of the complex spatio-  
 6 temporal distribution of the strain field in the sample and the strain-induced material softening  
 7 (Payan *et al.*, 2007; Remillieux *et al.*, 2015; Renaud *et al.*, 2013). Material softening is thought  
 8 to originate from the microscopic-sized defects (e.g., micro-cracks) in the “soft” subsystem and  
 9 at the interfaces between the “hard” and “soft” subsystems (Payan *et al.*, 2014a). To incorporate  
 10 these defects in the macroscopic continuum model, we consider a volume  $dV$  that is small  
 11 enough to satisfy the requirements of the numerical schemes but large enough to ensure a  
 12 constant micro-crack density from one volume to the next. Furthermore, we assume that the  
 13 defects are randomly distributed and oriented within the volume  $dV$ , with a length-scale much  
 14 smaller than the typical acoustic wavelengths used in this study. With  $dV$  being on the order of  
 15  $1\text{mm}^3$ , the above criteria are satisfied.

16

17 The approach used in this paper is similar to the one used by Zubelewicz (1990) in transient  
 18 numerical simulations of rock fractures. Each contact within the medium brings softening  
 19 effects through nonlinear cohesive mechanisms. These effects are then integrated over an  
 20 elementary volume  $dV$  and used for a mesoscopic mechanical implementation within a  
 21 continuum with possible heterogeneous properties.

22

23 Recently, the authors (Lott *et al.*, 2016, 2017) proposed a general formulation to include  
 24 material-softening effects in the equations of elasticity. This formulation is an extension of that  
 25 proposed by Hughes and Kelly (Hughes and Kelly, 1953). The tensorial product between the  
 26 strain and stress vector bases,  $\delta_{ij} = n_i^{stress} \otimes n_j^{strain}$ , is the natural basis for the elastic tensor and  
 27 should now include softening effects as,

28

$$29 \quad \Lambda_{ij} = \delta_{ij} (1 - \alpha \Delta \varepsilon_{ij}^*), \quad (1)$$

30

31 or equivalently in matrix form as,

32

$$33 \quad \mathbf{\Lambda} = \mathbf{I}_3 - \alpha \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}^*, \quad (2)$$

1  
2 where  $n_i$  is the principal strain direction,  $\Delta\varepsilon_{ij}^*$  the strain amplitude, the star symbol denotes the  
3 basis formed by the principal strain axes, and  $\alpha$  is a scalar quantifying the softening effect. The  
4 stiffness tensor is then expressed as,

$$5$$

$$7 \quad C_{ijkl}^* = [\lambda + 2(l - \lambda - m)Tr(\varepsilon) + 2(\lambda + m)(\varepsilon_i^* + \varepsilon_k^*) - 2\mu\varepsilon_i]\Lambda_{ij}\Lambda_{kl} +$$

$$8 \quad [\mu + (\lambda + m - \mu)Tr(\varepsilon) + 2\mu(\varepsilon_i + \varepsilon_j + \varepsilon_l)](\Lambda_{ik}\Lambda_{jl} + \Lambda_{il}\Lambda_{jk})$$

$$6 \quad + \frac{1}{2}n \sum_v (\Lambda_{jvk}^{ivl} + \Lambda_{jvl}^{ivk})\varepsilon_v \quad (3)$$

9  
10 where  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  are the Lamé constants and  $l, m, n$  are the Murnaghan constants (Murnaghan,  
11 1937). Practically, the material-softening law is applied in the basis formed by the principal  
12 strain axes. This basis is obtained from an eigen decomposition of the strain field  $\varepsilon$  measured  
13 in the geometric basis. This decomposition,  $\varepsilon = \mathbf{P} \varepsilon^* \mathbf{P}^{-1}$ , is always possible because the strain  
14 tensor is always real and symmetric. Once the softening law has been applied to the stiffness  
15 tensor in the basis formed by the principal strain axes, the following transformation is used to  
16 express the conditioned stiffness tensor in the geometric basis:  $C_{ijkl} = P_{ir}P_{js}P_{kt}P_{lu}C_{rstu}^*$ . This  
17 result is equivalent to classical acoustoelasticity theory when the term quantifying softening is  
18 equal to the identity matrix.

19  
20 In this study, the validity of the model will be assessed using nonlinear resonance experiments  
21 or more commonly referred to in the literature as nonlinear resonant ultrasound spectroscopy  
22 (NRUS). In these experiments, a sample is subjected to sequences of periodic signals at various  
23 frequencies around a resonance frequency and at increasing amplitudes while, for each periodic  
24 signal, data are recorded when the sample vibrates at or near a steady state. Under these  
25 conditions, the effects of the first-order term of nonlinearity in the classical description, i.e.,  
26 terms involving  $\beta$  in 1D and  $(l, m, n)$  in 3D, average to zero over one cycle of the harmonic  
27 excitation. This is not the case with the second-order term of nonlinearity  $\delta$  but the proposed  
28 model does not go beyond the first order. As a result, Eq. (3) can be simplified by removing the  
29 terms involving third-order elastic constants (i.e., only the linear version of the elastic tensor is  
30 used to apply the softening law),

$$31$$

$$32 \quad C_{ijkl}^* = \lambda\Lambda_{ij}\Lambda_{kl} + \mu(\Lambda_{ik}\Lambda_{jl} + \Lambda_{il}\Lambda_{jjk}). \quad (4)$$

1 Finally, each cell (dV) of the sample can be conditioned by the strain amplitude at that cell. This  
2 means that the stiffness tensor is no longer uniform over the volume of the sample but depends  
3 on the local strain tensor. The sample experiences softening with a complex distribution (i.e.,  
4 that of the strain field), which in turns lowers its resonance frequencies. Because of the  
5 heterogeneity, the resonance frequencies have to be computed numerically.

6  
7

### 8 **III. Numerical application to experimental data**

9

10 The validity of the model is examined against experimental data collected during resonance  
11 experiments. The samples are those described by Payan et al. (2014b). The three samples used  
12 in this study consist of concrete blocks with dimensions  $6 \times 10 \times 10 \text{ cm}^3$ . One sample is kept  
13 intact and used as a reference. The other two samples are thermally damaged at 120 and at  
14  $250^\circ\text{C}$  using a slow increase then decrease in temperature to prevent from eventual mechanical  
15 damage induced by thermal gradients. Thermal damage allows the density of micro-cracking  
16 within the concrete samples to be increased as needed. Below  $300^\circ \text{C}$ , microcracks are  
17 essentially caused by drying as well as differential thermal dilatation between cement paste and  
18 aggregates. In concrete the most brittle zone is the interface between the aggregates and the  
19 cement paste. This zone, commonly referred to as Interfacial Transition Zone (ITZ), is the most  
20 porous and crystallized region. It is thus quite natural to assume that most of the thermal damage  
21 will occur in the ITZ. With an arbitrary grain distribution, thermal damage of concrete can  
22 reasonably be considered as isotropic.

23

#### 24 **A. Experimental protocol and results**

25

26 The samples are excited with an ultrasonic cleaning transducer (Ultrasonics World, DE, USA)  
27 powered by a function generator (National Instrument PXI-5406 function generator) coupled  
28 to a voltage amplifier (TEGAM 2350). The vibrational responses of the samples are recorded  
29 by a Polytec laser vibrometer (OFV 5000, 1.5 MHz bandwidth) using a digitizer (National  
30 Instrument PXI-5122). Both generation and acquisition lines are managed by the NRUS module  
31 of the Resonance Inspection Techniques and Analysis (RITA) software designed and  
32 implemented by T. J. Ulrich and Pierre-Yves Le Bas at Los Alamos National Laboratory. More

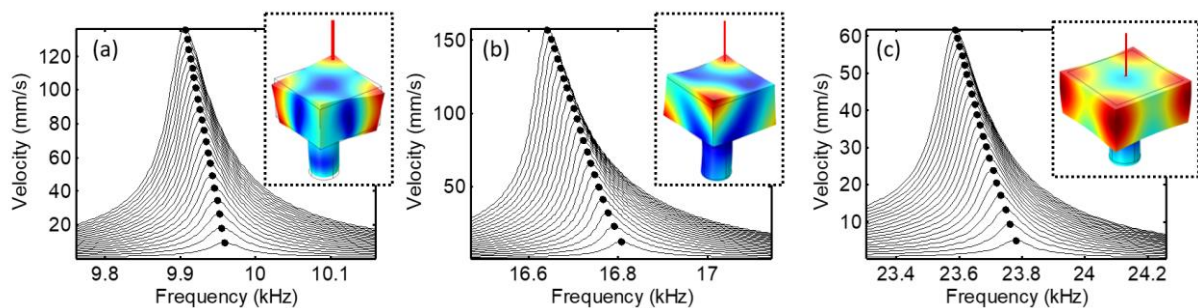


1 details about the signal processing for these experiments may be found in the paper of Payan et  
 2 al. (2014b).

3

4 Three resonant modes are then considered for NRUS. The mode shapes, source, and receiver  
 5 positions are shown in Fig.1 for the sample thermally damaged at 120°C. Two of the modes are  
 6 dominated by a bending motion and require the source and receiver to be located near the  
 7 corners of the sample, where the amplitude is the highest, to enhance the signal to noise ratio.  
 8 The third mode studied here consists of a “bulk/breathing” motion which is excited by placing  
 9 the source transducer at the center of one large face and recorded by pointing the laser beam at  
 10 the center of the opposite face.

11



12

13

14 FIG. 1. (Color online) Experimental (a) first, (b) second and (c) third NRUS curves for the  
 15 120°C damaged sample. Insets are the corresponding modal shapes.

16

## 17 B. Numerical protocol

18

19 The relatively large mass added by the transducer is accounted for in the model by an aluminum  
 20 cylinder with a perfect contact between the transducer and the sample. The following protocol  
 21 is applied (Fig.2) to describe the numerical process. The simulations are carried out using the  
 22 “Structural Mechanics” module of the commercial finite-element software package Comsol®  
 23 Multiphysics.

24 • Step 1 : A first eigenvalue problem is solved to compute the resonance frequencies of the  
 25 samples with linear elastic properties (before the material-softening law is applied), which  
 26 were already measured by Payan *et al.* (2014b) in previous work. The predicted and  
 27 measured resonance frequencies of the systems with linear elastic properties that are  
 28 reported in Table. I are in excellent agreement. Having a representative and accurate linear  
 29 model is essential to the numerical protocol in this problem because the maximum values

of strain amplitudes in the samples are recovered from the linear model, based on the laser measurement at a single point.

- Step 2 : In the second step of the numerical protocol, a frequency-domain simulation is conducted by imposing a normal force on the free flat surface where the transducer is mounted. The amplitude of the normal force is tuned to match the particle velocity at the measured position on the sample.
- Step 3 (Fig.2) : The strain tensor is extracted at all nodes of the mesh discretizing the sample and used for the conditioning step. As the media is initially considered isotropic and homogeneous, the initial local stiffness is independent of the choice of basis and usually written  $C_{ijkl} = \lambda \delta_{ij}\delta_{kl} + \mu (\delta_{ik}\delta_{jk} + \delta_{il}\delta_{jk})$ . Using Eq. (1) and Eq. (4), the material softening effect is applied to the stiffness tensor  $C_{ijkl}^*$  through the tensors  $\Lambda_{ij}$  in the eigen basis.
- Step 4 (Fig.2) : The conditioned elastic tensor is then transposed back to the “geometrical” basis. After this numerical procedure, the sample, initially homogeneous and isotropic, becomes heterogeneous and anisotropic.
- Step 5 : A final eigenvalue problem is solved to compute the resonance frequencies of the samples with conditioned elastic properties. Steps 2 to 5 are repeated for several amplitudes to provide a curve of the relative shift of the resonance frequency.

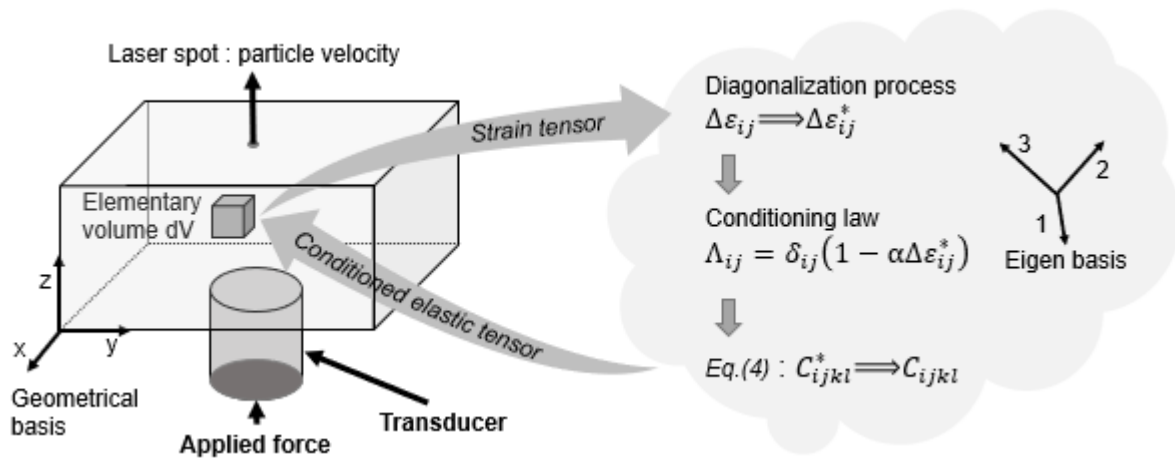


FIG. 2. Scheme of the numerical and experimental protocols.

Resonance frequencies $f_0$ (kHz)						
Sample	Mode 1		Mode 2		Mode 3	
	Exp	Num	Exp	Num	Exp	Num
Ref	10.16	10.09 (-0.7%)	17.33	17.36 (+0.2%)	24.02	24.43(+1.7%)

120°C	9.95	9.96 (+0.1%)	16.86	16.81 (-0.3%)	23.30	23.79 (+2.1%)
250°C	9.43	9.53 (+1%)	15.97	14.739 (-7.7%)	22.31	22.30 (-0.1%)

1 Table. I. Resonance frequencies obtained experimentally and numerically with linear RUS.

#### 3 IV. Results and discussion

5 Predicted and measured material softening in NRUS are shown in Fig.3 for the three samples.

6 The values of  $\alpha_0$  used in the simulations to match the experimental data are reported in Table.

7 II.

Sample	$\alpha_0$
Reference	300
120°C	520
250°C	1000

9 Table. II. Values of the parameter  $\alpha_0$  used in the NRUS simulations for the three concrete  
10 samples.

11  
12 Note that this value increases by more than 300% between the reference sample and the most  
13 damaged sample, which seems to be consistent with the evolutions of the nonlinear parameters  
14 reported in the literature. To highlight the efficiency of the present model, the “apparent”  
15 nonlinear parameters are measured by linear regression of the relative frequency shift as a  
16 function of the strain amplitude for the three modes studied. This apparent nonlinear parameter  
17 changes with the mode order and the type of strain (e.g., volumetric and deviatoric) used in the  
18 analysis. For each mode and each sample, the apparent nonlinear parameters obtained with  
19 volumetric and deviatoric strains are reported in Fig.4. Tying this apparent nonlinear parameter  
20 to a 1D description will lead to erroneous conclusions including that the nonlinearity is  
21 dispersive (i.e., depends on the order of the mode) or is dependent on the type of strain involved  
22 (e.g., shear or compressional components). It is important to stress that the nonclassical  
23 nonlinearity should be handled by a local parameter appropriately integrated within the  
24 elasticity equations.

25  
26 Numerical simulations using a single scalar parameter  $\alpha_0$  reproduce well the experimental  
27 observations, independently from the type of strain used or the mode order employed in the

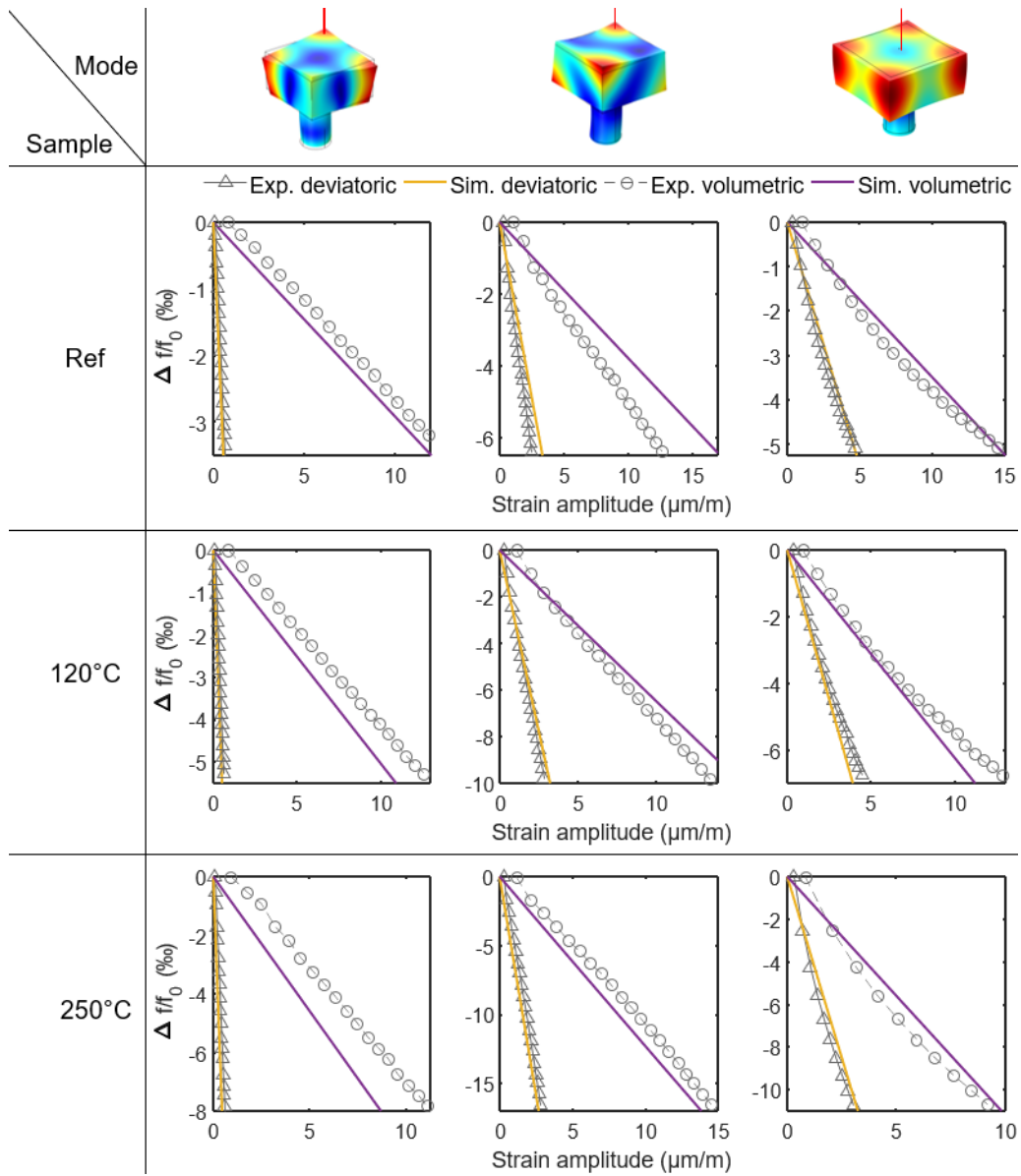
1 nonlinear analysis. There are some discrepancies between numerical simulation and  
2 experiments for some cases, but it does not seem to be consistent with the type of mode or a  
3 particular sample. Discrepancies are most likely due to the complexity of the experiment and  
4 the presence of a large transducer mounted at various positions on the sample to excite the  
5 various modes. Also, the sample do not have the perfect parallelepiped geometry used in the  
6 model. Even if the sample size was precisely measured using a caliper, parallelisms deviations  
7 are not accounted for in the simulations.

8

9 For the third mode, all the frequency shifts flatten a little bit at increasing amplitude (Fig.3).  
10 This behavior may be induced by some hidden resonant peaks which could appear at high  
11 amplitude. This can happen especially at “high” frequency when the resonance frequency  
12 density becomes high. Even if the location of the transducer was chosen so as to favor a given  
13 mode shape, other nearby resonances may alter these curves.

14

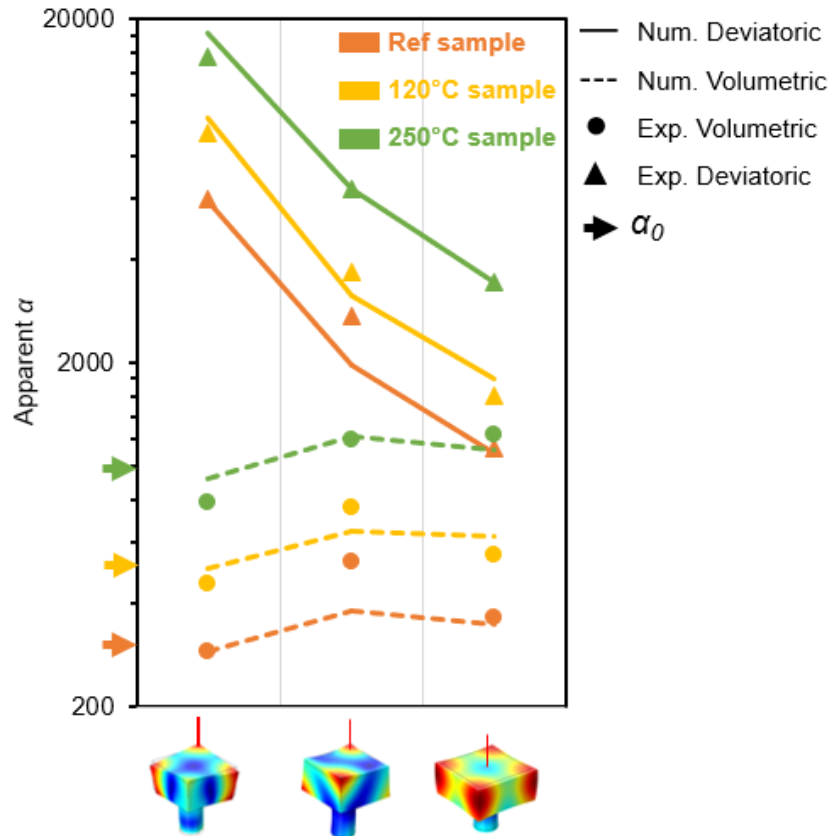
15 More importantly, the simulation results indicate that, in the case of concrete the nonlinear  
16 behavior of the material for both compressional and torsional motions is well captured by a  
17 single local scalar parameter. These results are in agreement with the fact that the distribution  
18 of defects in the thermally damaged concrete samples is isotropic.



1

2 FIG. 3. (Color online) Experimental and numerically predicted resonances curves for the whole  
 3 set of samples and modal shapes.

4



1  
2 FIG. 4. (Color online) Experimental and numerically derived apparent nonlinear parameters.  $\alpha_0$   
3 is also reported for comparison.

4

## 5 V. Conclusion

6

7 A tensorial interpretation of the softening effects under dynamic stress was integrated in a  
8 numerical scheme using a single scalar parameter. The key feature of the model relies on locally  
9 applying a softening law to the elastic tensor in the eigenbasis of the strain field and  
10 transforming this tensor back to the geometrical basis once the softening has been applied.  
11 Numerical simulation results were compared to nonlinear multi-modal resonance experiments  
12 on thermally damaged concrete samples. In these samples, it was well adapted to predicting  
13 nonlinear behavior of their complex mode shapes involving coupling between shear and  
14 compressional components. This is in good agreement with the fact that an isotropic distribution  
15 of defects is expected in these materials.

16

17 It also shown that without accounting for these issues, the derived apparent nonlinear parameter  
18 can lead to erroneous interpretations. In this study, one could conclude to frequency dispersion

1 or strain type dependences of nonlinearity. However, none of these statements are supported by  
2 the appropriate description of nonlinearity in the elasticity equations.

3

4 Future improvements of the model will aim at accounting for textured type of microcracking  
5 using the more general framework of a vectorial nonlinear parameter. Indeed, experimental data  
6 reported in the literature (Remillieux *et al.* 2016; Lott *et al.* 2017) show that many sedimentary  
7 rocks (e.g., Berea sandstone) exhibiting preferred oriented micro cracking features would  
8 require such a description.

9

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1 **TABLES**

2

3

Resonance frequencies $f_0$ (kHz)						
Sample	Mode 1		Mode 2		Mode 3	
	Exp	Num	Exp	Num	Exp	Num
Ref	10.16	10.09 (-0.7%)	17.33	17.36 (+0.2%)	24.02	24.43(+1.7%)
120°C	9.95	9.96 (+0.1%)	16.86	16.81 (-0.3%)	23.30	23.79 (+2.1%)
250°C	9.43	9.53 (+1%)	15.97	14.739 (-7.7%)	22.31	22.30 (-0.1%)

4 Table. I. Resonance frequencies obtained experimentally and numerically with linear RUS.

5

6

Sample	$\alpha_0$
Reference	300
120°C	520
250°C	1000

7 Table. II. Values of the parameter  $\alpha_0$  used in the NRUS simulations for the three concrete  
8 samples.

9

1 **FIGURE CAPTION**

2

3 FIG. 1. (Color online) Experimental (a) first, (b) second and (c) third NRUS curves for the  
4 120°C damaged sample. Insets are the corresponding modal shapes.

5

6 FIG. 2. Scheme of the numerical and experimental protocols.

7

8 FIG. 3. (Color online) Experimental and numerically predicted resonances curves for the whole  
9 set of samples and modal shapes.

10

11 FIG. 4. (Color online) Experimental and numerically derived apparent nonlinear parameters.  $\alpha_0$   
12 is also reported for comparison.