



HAL
open science

Effect of flax fibers on early age shrinkage and cracking of earth concrete

Nathalie Kouta, Jacqueline Saliba, Nadia Saiyouri

► To cite this version:

Nathalie Kouta, Jacqueline Saliba, Nadia Saiyouri. Effect of flax fibers on early age shrinkage and cracking of earth concrete. *Construction and Building Materials*, 2020, 254, pp.119315 -. 10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2020.119315 . hal-03490666

HAL Id: hal-03490666

<https://hal.science/hal-03490666>

Submitted on 22 Aug 2022

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial 4.0 International License

Effect of flax fibers on early age shrinkage and cracking of earth concrete

KOUTA Nathalie *, SALIBA Jacqueline , SAIYOURI Nadia

Université de Bordeaux, UMR 5295, Institut de Mécanique et d'Ingénierie (I2M), CNRS, Esplanade des Arts et Metiers, 33405 Talence, France

Abstract. Earth concrete or concrete based on soil materials presents a high percentage of fine particles (clay) which makes it susceptible to plastic shrinkage cracking in its fresh state that affects its durability. In this study, natural flax fibers with different mass percentages (0%, 0.3% and 0.6%) and lengths (12 mm, 24 mm, 50 mm) have been added to earth concrete in order to study their effect on plastic shrinkage and cracking at early age. The effect of flax fibers on the mechanical properties of hardened earth concrete has been first investigated. Free horizontal plastic shrinkage has also been measured in parallel with the evaporation rate, the capillary pressure and the temperature of earth concrete at early age. Furthermore, restrained plastic shrinkage tests have been conducted according to ASTM C1579-13 standard. The Digital Image Correlation technique have been used to monitor the strain distribution and crack width during the first 24 hours after casting. The results show a reduction of the total free plastic shrinkage at early age with the addition of flax fibers. In addition, flax fibers reduce the strain localization of restrained shrinkage and the plastic shrinkage cracking.

Keywords: earth concrete; flax fibers; plastic shrinkage; cracking; Digital Image Correlation.

1. Introduction

During the last decades, a large quantity of natural resources has been consumed by the construction sector. In addition, a large quantity of waste and an intensive emission of CO₂ have been generated [1] which have a significant impact on the environment and participate in climate change [2,3]. Thus, the need of using ecological and sustainable materials is becoming an obligation in the construction field in order to reduce its contribution in the global pollution and the danger that can result from it. Earth concrete is an ecological material and can be an alternative to conventional concrete for

28 structures that do not require high mechanical performances but rather good thermal and acoustic
29 characteristics [4].

30 Earth construction has been used for thousands of years in different forms such as: wattle and daub,
31 cob, rammed earth, adobe, compressed earth blocks... [4, 5]. Currently, more than two billion people
32 live in earth constructions [6]. The majority of these constructions are located in less developed
33 countries and rural areas due to the low cost of earth-based materials and its availability [7, 8]. Earth
34 constructions are essentially composed of a raw material, the soil which is a non-manufactured,
35 recyclable, inexpensive and local material which allows to reduce the cost and the energy for
36 transportation and production [5]. In addition, the air and temperature regulation properties of earth
37 concrete promote to a healthier and more comfortable indoor environment by moderating the indoor
38 humidity variations in comparison to conventional construction materials [5]. Consequently, the
39 economic benefits and ecological properties of earth materials incite new research in this field in
40 many developed countries (Europe, US, UK...) [8].

41 The stabilization of soil has been first realized with lime then with cement and other pozzolanic
42 materials (fly ash, silica fume, geopolymer, etc.) or even a mix of several binders together [9, 10, 11,
43 12]. The lime is essentially used to enhance the maneuverability and the geotechnical properties of
44 the soil [13, 14, 15, 16]. The treatment of clay with lime is primarily responsible of the improvement
45 of soil workability, the increase of the plastic limits and the reduction of the clays volume change
46 [15]. In addition, the lime increases the durability of the soil as it influences the soil permeability [17]
47 and the durability of the soil in contact with water [18]. In addition, it allows to increase the cohesion
48 and the long term strength due to pozzolanic reactions [13, 19]. In fact, many studies have showed
49 the formation of hydrates during the treatment of soil with lime [13, 15, 20, 21]. The same hydrates
50 that are formed during the hydration of cement and more specifically the hydration of calcium
51 silicates (C3S, C2S) and calcium aluminates (C3A, C4AF) are observed: calcium silicate hydrates
52 (CSH), calcium aluminate hydrates (CAH) and calcium alumina silicate hydrate (CASH). Pozzolanic
53 reactions begin to occur between the calcium from the lime and the tetrahedral and octahedral layers
54 of the clay sheets as a result of cation exchange reactions. Consequently, these reactions take place at

55 the edges of clay particles with an excess of cations in the solution. These hydrates increase the
56 cohesive strength between the clay particles and thus the mechanical properties [21, 22].

57 On the other hand, the cement is used to enhance the mechanical properties and the durability of earth
58 concrete due to hydration reactions [22, 24]. In fact, earth concrete is a vulnerable material mainly
59 when it is in contact with water. The use of cement and other binders is a common practice [25] and
60 has been recommended by many researchers. Note here, that the effect of cement on the mechanical
61 properties depends highly on the mineral composition of soil; while the kaolinite increased slightly
62 the compressive strength, the montmorillonite lowered it same as biedellite but with a lower rate [26].
63 In addition, even though in some cases the addition of binders can decrease the mechanical
64 properties, however it decreases the possibility of biological development [27].

65

66 In recent years, researchers have focused on finding easier and more common methods to use
67 stabilized earth materials in the construction field and on the characterization of their mechanical,
68 physical and thermal properties [9, 12, 28, 29]. However, few research studied the behavior of earth
69 concrete at early age [30]. Thus, additional studies are required to better understand the behavior of
70 earth concrete in its fresh state.

71 Earth based materials present a high shrinkage rate due to the presence of fine particles and thus
72 cracking sensibility during drying when concrete is restrained [29, 30]. Early age shrinkage of
73 concrete starts directly right after concrete casting due to plastic settlement, autogenous shrinkage
74 and plastic shrinkage. This shrinkage can lead to an early age cracking that can, in addition to the
75 aesthetical problem, affect the long-term durability of the concrete [31]. During the fresh state of
76 concrete and before its hardening, plastic shrinkage can be explained by different mechanisms and
77 different phases can be distinguished [32]. The phenomena begin when the solid particles begin to
78 settle accompanied with the rise of water to the surface leading to a plastic settlement [33]. Then,
79 when bleeding water evaporates, plastic shrinkage starts [33]. In fact, the drying surfaces generate a
80 hydraulic pressure in the porous network due to the development of water menisci. Capillary pressure
81 leads to both vertical and horizontal deformations in concrete. If tensile stresses caused by restrained
82 shrinkage exceed the maximum stress capacity of concrete, cracks occur [34]. Plastic shrinkage

83 cracking depends on the environmental conditions where concrete is conserved after casting in
84 addition to structure geometry and material composition [33, 35, 36]. The cracking risk of earth
85 concrete at early age is high because of its relatively low strength and the significant plastic shrinkage
86 rate.

87 The addition of fibers with arbitrary distribution is a successful technique to control crack initiation
88 and propagation in concrete at its early age due to plastic and autogenous shrinkage [33]. Adding
89 fibers to concrete allows to disperse cracking, to improve the strain capacity of fresh concrete by
90 providing bridging forces across the cracks, to reduce aggregate segregation and to increase the
91 tensile strength of concrete at its early age [37, 38, 39]. Natural fibers have been widely used in earth
92 construction with the aim to enhance the performance of earth concrete. The addition of fibers may
93 increase the strength and the ductility, lighten the earthen construction materials and reduce plastic
94 shrinkage at early age by limiting the crack development due to stress redistribution [9, 29, 40].
95 These fibers vary in type, chemical properties, shape, size, source, strength, elasticity, water
96 absorption rate ... [41] which may affect the plastic shrinkage cracking in addition to the effect of the
97 fibers percentage and the cohesion between fibers and concrete matrix [9, 33]. Several studies have
98 tested the effect of different types of fibers on the physical and mechanical properties of earth-based
99 concrete [28, 42, 43]. Flax fibers are natural ecological fibers with low-cost in comparison to other
100 types of fibers as steel fibers and synthetic fibers. They are generally produced as waste materials
101 during the agriculture process with a low transformation process. Thus, flax fibers have been used in
102 this study due to their ecological properties and their good compatibility with earth concrete
103 properties.

104

105 The aim of this paper is to study the effect of the percentage and the length of flax fibers on the early
106 age behavior of earth concrete. First, the experimental program is presented. Then, the results
107 concerning the evolution of the horizontal plastic shrinkage, the evaporation rate and the capillary
108 pressure are exposed. Finally, the effect of fibers on the plastic shrinkage cracking of earth concrete
109 is investigated based on the DIC data.

110

111

112 2. Experimental program

113 2.1. Materials

114 2.1.1. *Soil and Hydraulic binders*

115 Earth concrete mixture used in this study is based on an artificial soil composed of 30% of bentonite
116 clay (75% of Smectite, 15% of Illite and 10% of Kaolinite) and 70% of sand. This clay was supplied
117 by Lafare quarry. Its characteristics are presented in Table 1. This clay has been chosen in order to
118 taken into account variability of the soil on site considering unfavorable properties. In addition, as the
119 objective of this work is to study the efficiency of fibers in the reduction of shrinkage, choosing a
120 clay responsible of a higher shrinkage rate was convenient. In fact, this clay is known for its high
121 swelling properties. It attracts water into the voids due to suction, causing a change in the voids
122 volume. During hydration, the confined layer of dry bentonite changes into a dense monolithic mass
123 with no discernable individual particles [44]. An artificial soil has been used to limit the variability of
124 natural soil and thus to better distinguish the effect of flax fibers. The artificial soil has been
125 stabilized with 3% of natural hydraulic lime (NHL5/ EN 459-1 [45]) and 8% of cement (CEM 1, 52.5
126 N PM-CP2 / EN197-1 [46]) based on the clay and sand mixture mass. Those percentages have been
127 fixed according to other studies presented in the literature that showed that 2% to 4% of lime are
128 sufficient to stabilize the soil [15, 47], and the optimal percentage of cement to ensure a sufficient
129 strength for the earth concrete is 8% [48]. The mineralogical composition of cement is presented in
130 Table 2. The pure Portland cement CEM 1 composed mainly of clinker is chosen to prevent the effect
131 of any additional component, present in other types of cement, on the mixture.

132

133

Table 1. Bentonite clay properties

Natural water content	Liquid limit	Plastic limit
6.7%	84.6%	29.2%

134

135

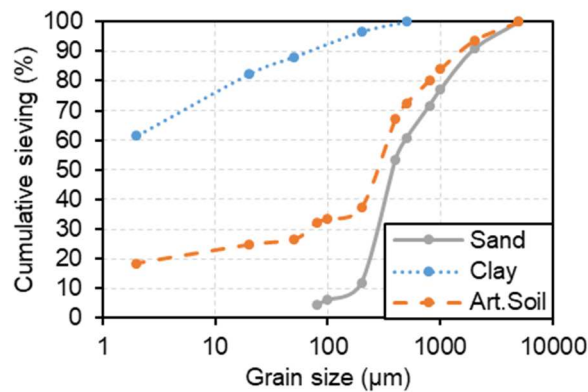
Table 2. Mineralogical composition of cement

Main components	C ₃ S	C ₂ S	C ₄ AF	C ₃ A	SO ₃ , NA ₂ O, S
Percentages (%)	65	12	6	12	>5

136

137 Figure 1 presents the grain size distribution of the sand, the bentonite and their mixture that constitute
 138 the artificial soil. This analysis has been carried out by sieving according to the standard (XP P 94-
 139 041 [49]) for particles having a diameter greater than 0.08 mm and by sedimentation according to the
 140 standard (NF P94-057 [50]) for fine particles (<0.08 mm).

141



142

Figure 1. Grain size distribution of sand, clay and the resultant artificial soil

143

144

145 2.1.2. Flax fibers

146 Flax fibers are natural fibers, bio-renewable, recyclable and biodegradable. The fibers were cut at
 147 constant lengths of 12, 24 and 50 mm and their diameter is equal to $14.66 \mu\text{m} \pm 2.95$ [49] (Figure 2).
 148 These fibers are rich in cellulose, more than 60% of their constitution, which gives them good tensile
 149 strength properties [52]. However, one of the main problems of natural fibers is their hydrophilicity
 150 propertie which is linked to their high-water absorption that can have an important effect on the
 151 workability and on the behavior of earth concrete at early age. In addition, the presence of water or
 152 moisture in the pore system of natural fibers decreases their strength and stiffness and modifies their
 153 chemical composition [53, 54]. The fibers used in this study were not treated in order to keep these

154 materials natural and easy to use. In fact, different types of treatment for natural fibers have been
155 tested in the literature (Alkaline treatment, acetylation, hydrothermal treatment, water repellent
156 coating, ect...) with the aim to improve their properties and the adhesion with earth concrete matrix.
157 However, each treatment can enhance some properties and at the same time has negative effects on
158 the others [9].

159 The absorption test has been also conducted based on the experimental protocol developed by the
160 RILEM TC 236-BBM group [55]. The coefficient of absorption has been determined for the three
161 fibers lengths used in this study (Figure 3). The obtained results are in the same range of those found
162 in [51]. The coefficient of absorption increased with an important rate in the first few minutes due to
163 the high specific surface area of these fibers. The absorption coefficient stabilizes after approximately
164 60 minutes. A slight difference has been observed between the three lengths of flax fibers used with
165 an increase of the absorption coefficient for the smaller length which may be explained by the
166 increase of their specific surface area. The water added in the mixtures has been adjusted according
167 to this value.

168 The adsorption/desorption curves (NF EN ISO 12571) [56] have been also plotted (Figure 4). The
169 results show that the behavior of fibers with three different lengths is almost the same. The quantity
170 of water loss during desorption is not the same as that absorbed at the same moisture. This
171 hysteresis between adsorption and desorption curves is related to the content of lignin presented in
172 the fibers and to the microporous structure of fibers that influences the retention of the water [57,
173 58].

174

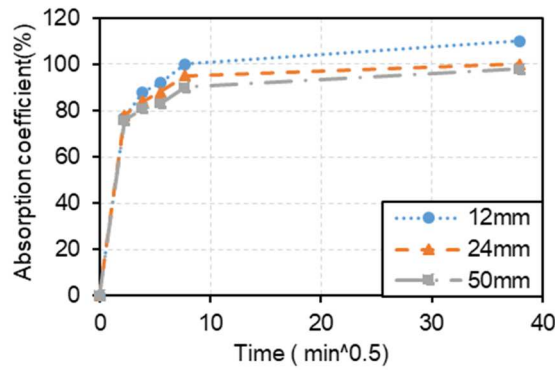


175

176

Figure 2. Different lengths of flax fibers

177



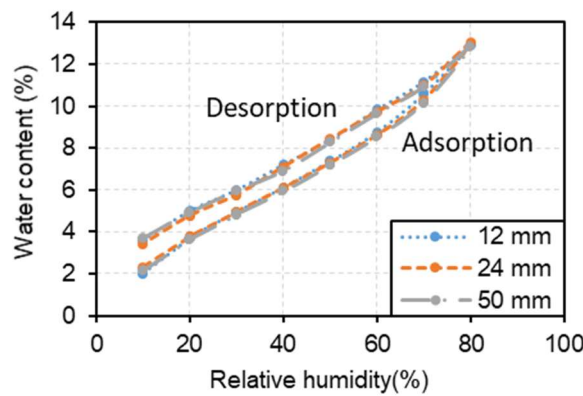
178

179

Figure 3. Evolution of the absorption coefficient in function of time for fibers with a length of 12, 24 and 50 mm

180

181



182

183

Figure 4. Variation of water content in fonction of the relative humidity for fibers with a length of 12, 24 and 50 mm

184

185

186

2.1.3. Mixtures

187

Seven mixtures have been tested by varying the percentage (0, 0.3 and 0.6%) and the length (12, 24 and 50 mm) of fibers. Clay and sand have been mixed first during 3 minutes to ensure a certain homogeneity of the artificial soil. Then, the lime and the cement have been added to the dry mixture and mixed during 2 minutes. The water and the superplasticizer have been then added and mixed for 3 minutes. The superplasticizer Tempo 10 has been used in this study due to its efficiency as a water reducer admixture in earth concrete [30]. Finally, the fibers have been progressively added and mixed during 3 minutes. The mixtures have been named by presenting the % of fibers followed by the

189

190

191

192

193

194 length of fibers. For example, SA03F12 represents the formulation containing 0.3% of flax fibers
 195 with a length of 12 mm. Table 3 presents the components of these mixtures. The quantity of added
 196 fibers is subtracted from the artificial soil mass to keep an equivalent solid mass. The effective water
 197 to binder ratio has been kept constant and equal to 0.45. Additional water has been added to take into
 198 account the water absorbed by flax fibers.
 199 The slump (EN 12350-2) [59] and air entrained (EN 12350-7) [60] tests have been conducted on
 200 fresh earth concrete for each mixture.

201 **Table 3.** Mixtures components and composition

Components (kg/m ³)	Sand	Bentonite	Cement	Lime	Effective water	Total water	Super- plasticizer	Flax fibers
SA0F0	931	405	152	34.2	83.8	367	1.6	0
SA03F12/24/50	929	401	152	34.2	83.8	370	1.6	5.7
SA06F12/24/50	925	399	152	34.2	83.8	375	1.6	11.4

202

203 **3. Methods**

204 **3.1. Compressive strength test**

205 Unconfined compressive tests have been conducted using an electromechanical machine with a
 206 capacity of 100 kN and a constant loading displacement rate of 0.6 mm/min. This test has been
 207 realized on cubic specimens of 10×10×10 cm³ at the age of 7, 28 and 180 days. These specimens
 208 have been cured in a climatic chamber with a relative humidity of 80-95%.

209 **3.2. Horizontal plastic shrinkage**

210 The horizontal free plastic shrinkage has been measured on fresh earth concrete samples placed in a
 211 prismatic teflon mold of 7 x 7 x 28 cm³ using two LVDT sensors with a precision of 3 μm (Figure 5).
 212 Tests have been carried out in an air-conditioned room at 20 ± 1 °C and a RH of 60 ± 2 % [34]. This
 213 test has been realized under sealed and drying conditions. Under sealed condition, the top of the
 214 specimen has been covered by a plastic sheet to prevent the drying of earth concrete. The weight loss,

215 the temperature and the capillary pressure have been also measured in parallel. Two thermocouples
216 have been used to measure the temperature evolution. The first has been inserted in the middle of
217 concrete specimen immediately after casting and the second has been used to monitor the external
218 temperature. These thermocouples were connected to a data-logger to record the temperature after
219 concrete casting. The weight loss of earth concrete during drying has been also monitored after
220 casting by measuring continuously the weight of a concrete sample with a height of 70 mm. During
221 drying, the relative humidity of earth concrete decreases which induces a drop-in pressure in the
222 liquid phase. A meniscus is thus formed at the interface with the gaseous phase generating a capillary
223 pressure. The capillary pressure was measured using a tensiometric sensor placed in the middle of a
224 cylindrical mold (with a diameter of 11 cm and a height of 7 cm). The sensor pores have been
225 saturated in water before being integrated in concrete. The data acquisition of all these measurements
226 starts after 1 hour of adding water to the mixture and lasts for 24 hours.

227



228

229

Figure 5. Plastic shrinkage and capillary pressure measurement devices

230

231 **3.3. Plastic shrinkage cracking**

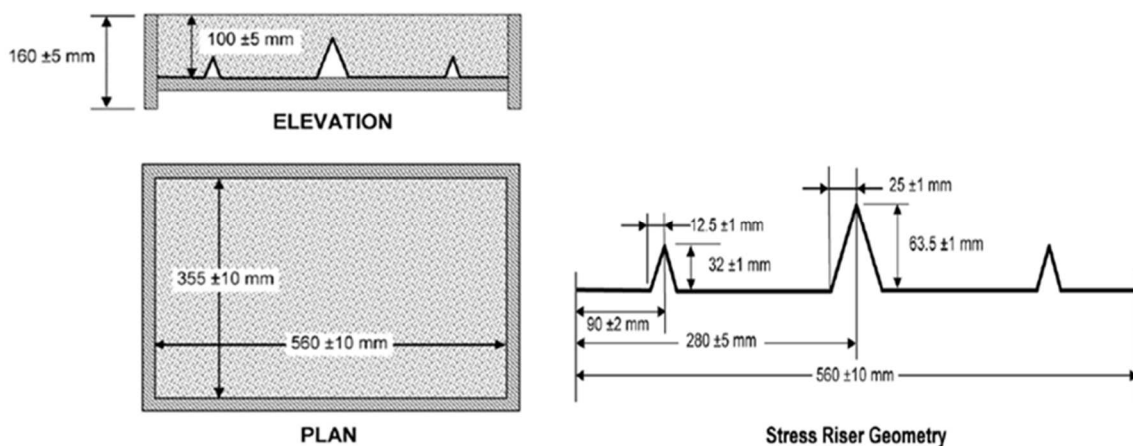
232 The susceptibility of earth concrete to plastic shrinkage cracking has been studied according to
233 ASTM C1579-13 [61]. The test presented in figure 6 includes a mold with a large metal notch in the
234 middle, which acts as a stress riser and thus responsible of crack initiation due to restrained concrete.
235 The other two smaller metal notches on the sides serve as internal retainers. The molds were filled
236 with concrete to the top and the surface finishing is done using a darby tool.

237 The tests have been conducted in a climate-controlled room with a constant temperature of 34 ± 1 °C
 238 and a relative humidity of $33 \pm 6\%$. The wind velocity must be sufficient to obtain a minimum
 239 evaporation rate of (1 kg/(m²h)). For this reason, a fan with a wind speed of 6 ± 1 m/s has been used
 240 and directed to the surface of the specimens to obtain the desired evaporation.

241 The tests have been monitored with the DIC technique during 24 hours after casting in order to study
 242 the effect of the percentage and length of fibers on the behavior of earth concrete at early age. A
 243 speckle pattern of black and white paint has been sprayed onto the surface of the specimen to
 244 improve the displacement resolution. Images have been captured using a digital camera with a
 245 resolution of 2560×2048 pixels. Two lamps have been used to improve the luminosity of the
 246 images. Each pixel stores a grey scale value ranging from 0 to 255 according to the intensity of the
 247 reflected light by the surface of the target. Images have been taken at a rate of one image each 8
 248 seconds during the test with a resolution of 0.17 mm per pixel. The images have been treated later
 249 using the commercial software Vic 2D.

250 To calculate the deformation on the surface of the specimens, the grey patterns of pixel subsets on the
 251 reference image have been compared with those of the deformed specimen. The displacement result
 252 expressed in the center point of the subset is an average of the displacement of the pixels inside the
 253 subset. The crack width and area have been also measured using image J software.

254



255
 256
 257

Figure 6. Specimen and stress riser geometry

258 **3.4. Mercury intrusion porosimetry**

259 The effect of flax fibers on the pore size distribution of earth concrete with and without fibers after 28
260 days has been also evaluated using mercury intrusion porosimetry (MIP). In this test, pressure was
261 used to press non-wetting liquid mercury into the pores of earth concrete. These tests have been
262 realized on a little cube of $1.4 \text{ cm} \pm 0.1$ of earth concrete with a mass of almost 6 g at the age of 28
263 days. MIP measurements were performed with an Autopore III 9420 from Micrometrics®. The
264 amount of pressure needed to force the mercury into pores of certain sizes is inversely proportional to
265 the pore size. The range of low and high pressure was respectively 0.0007 and 420.5 Mpa. The
266 measurements have been recorded and used to draw the pore volume against the pore radius.

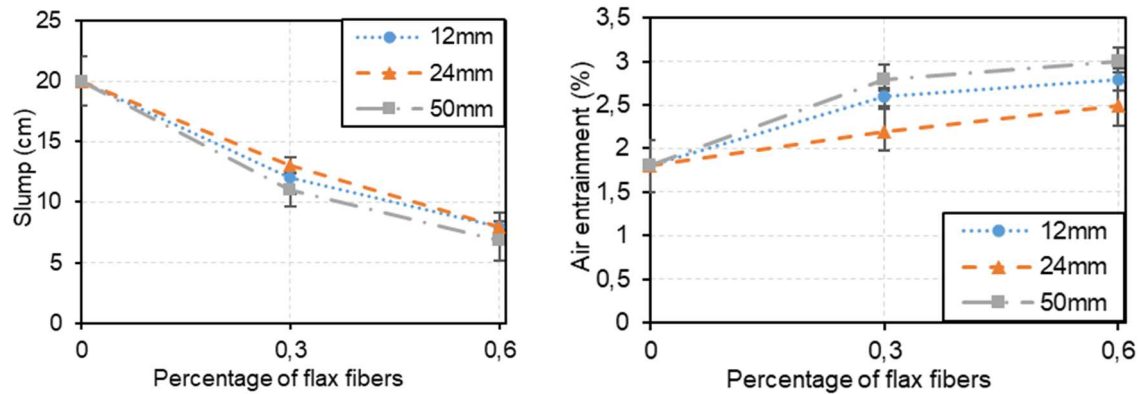
267

268 **4. Results and Discussions**

269 **4.1. Properties of fresh concrete**

270 The slump test shows that adding fibers affects highly the workability of earth concrete (Figure 7).
271 This is due to the high specific surface, the small diameter and the hydrophilic property of these
272 fibers. The maneuverability or slump of earth concrete decreases with the percentage of fibers
273 content. However, the length of flax fibers did not present a significant influence on concrete
274 workability, which may be due to the high flexibility of flax fibers. Even though, a small reduction
275 of the slump value has been observed for the longest fibers (50 mm). Note that in some cases, long
276 fibers provoked segregation during mixing of earth concrete. In addition, the air content increased
277 with the incorporation of flax fibers in earth concrete especially for longer fibers.

278



279

280 **Figure 7.** Slump and air content of fresh earth concrete with different percentages and lengths of
 281 flax fibers

282

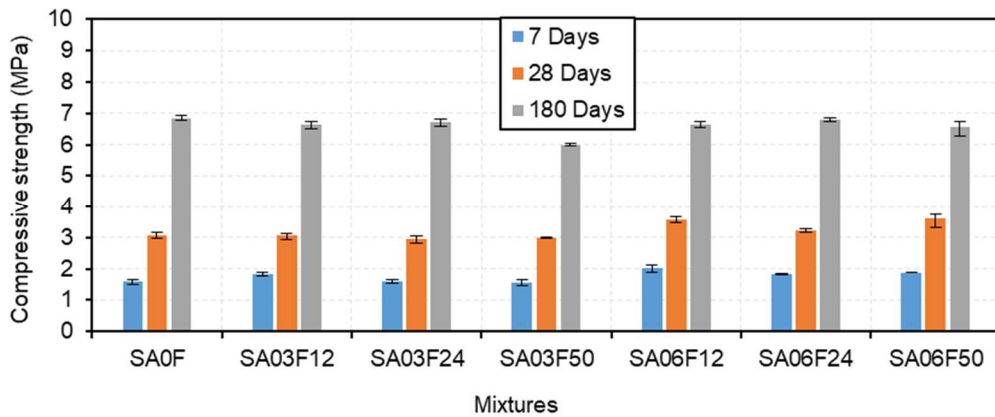
283 **4.2. Compressive strength**

284 Three specimens have been tested for each mixture to study the repeatability. Figure 8 presents the
 285 maximum compressive strength of the different mixtures at 7, 28 and 180 days. At the 7th and the
 286 28th days, the compressive strength increased with the addition of fibers and is more significant with
 287 the addition of 0.6% of flax fibers [9]. This can be associated to the good adhesion between fibers
 288 and earth concrete matrix that prevented the spreading of cracks and improved the mechanical
 289 properties [9]. The length of fibers did not show a significant effect on the compressive strength.
 290 Note that, no generalized conclusion can be made on the effect of natural fibers on the compression
 291 strength. The results depend on the type and the percentage of the used soil and fibers, in addition to
 292 the testing method and many other criteria [9]. For example, while the addition of 20% of oat straw
 293 reduced the compression strength, the addition of the same percentage of typha fiber-wool increased
 294 it [62].

295

296 The compressive strength increases significantly even after 28 days and doubled at 180 days, which
 297 may be due to pozzolanic and hydration reactions related to lime and cement. These reactions
 298 increase the cohesive force between the clay particles and thus the mechanical properties of earth
 299 concrete [13, 20, 28]. Note that, the clay mineralogy has an important influence on the physical and
 300 mechanical properties of earth concrete [63].

301



302

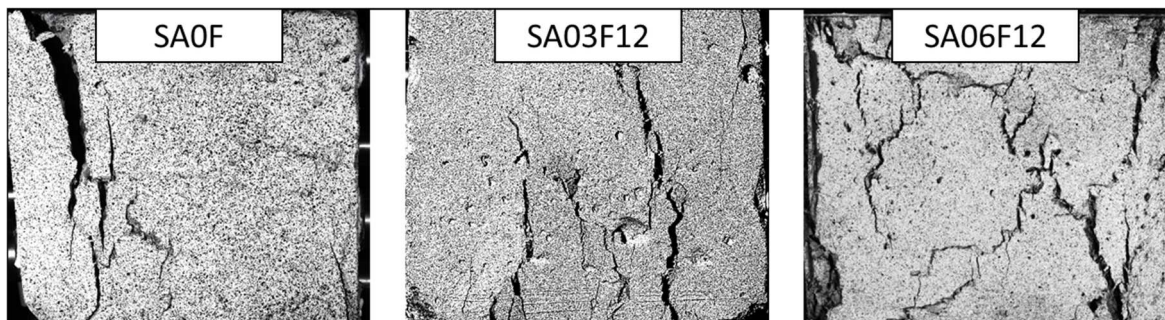
303 **Figure 8.** Compressive strength of earth concrete with different percentages and lengths of flax fibers
304 at 7, 28 and 180 days of curing

305

306 Figure 9 presents the fracture behavior of earth concrete specimens with different percentages of
307 fibers (0%, 0.3% and 0.6%). A brittle behavior has been observed for SA0F, accompanied with the
308 propagation of a large crack from the bottom to the top of the specimen during the compressive test.
309 However, for specimens containing fibers, a multi cracking has been observed with a crack length
310 way smaller than that obtained with SA0F. The same observation has been found with [28, 64]. Thus,
311 the addition of flax fibers improved greatly the compressibility, the fracture energy and the ductility
312 of earth concrete [9]. This is due to the bridging effect of the fibers and to their high compressibility
313 [9].

314

315



316

317 **Figure 9.** Fracture behavior of earth concrete specimens for SA0F, SA03F12 and SA06F12 mixtures
318 at the age of 28 days

319

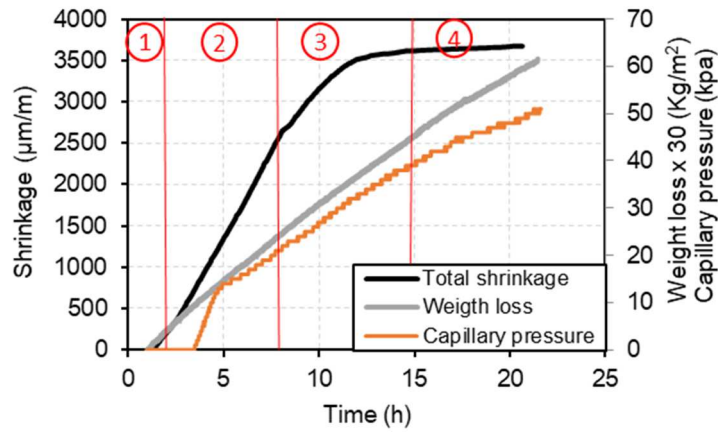
320 **4.3. Plastic shrinkage results**

321 Plastic shrinkage tests started one hour after the contact between the water and the mixture of solid
322 materials. The horizontal shrinkage was calculated as the mean value of the data collected from the
323 displacement of the two sensors. Figure 10 shows the crossed curves of the early age/drying
324 shrinkage development, the weight loss and the capillary pressure for SA0F. The weight loss is
325 expressed in kg/m^2 and is multiplied by a coefficient of 30 to be compatible with the secondary axis
326 of the capillary pressure.

327 The maximum plastic shrinkage value of earth concrete is much higher than the shrinkage of ordinary
328 concrete due to the presence of the clay [34, 65, 66].

329 Based on the analysis of the early age shrinkage curves, four phases can be distinguished. In the first
330 phase, plastic shrinkage starts to develop almost immediately after casting with a small rate and a low
331 capillarity at the surface of concrete. This indicates a very thin layer of bleeding water on the surface
332 which may be due to the absorption of water by fine particles and fibers. In the second phase,
333 shrinkage increases with an important rate, which may be related to the increase of the capillary
334 pressure due to the evaporation and the consumption of water by the hydration reactions. The
335 increase of the capillary pressure indicates that the meniscus started to appear in the pores of the
336 mixture near the sensor placed in the middle of the sample. During the third phase, the rate of plastic
337 shrinkage started to decrease until reaching its stabilization where the plastic shrinkage attends its
338 limit and the volumetric contraction stops. This occurs when the solid skeleton of earth concrete
339 stiffens enough due to the different hydration reactions and can resist to the capillary pressure. The
340 rate of the weight loss decreases with the different stages to attend almost 1% of evaporation (2
341 kg/m^2) after 24 h of concrete casting.

342



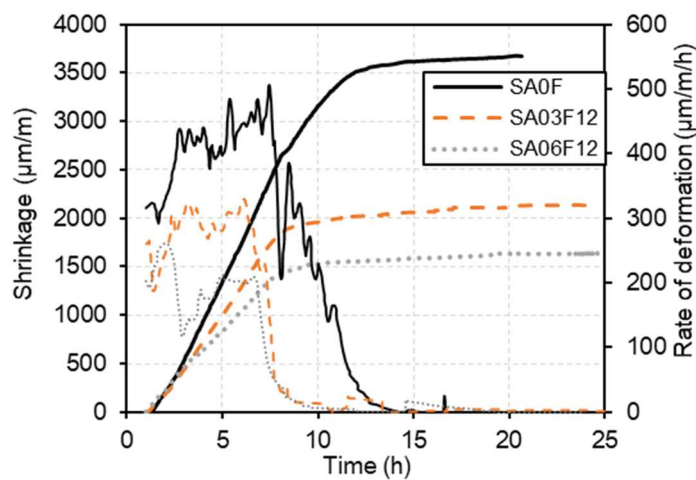
343

344 **Figure 10.** Development of plastic shrinkage, weight loss and capillary pressure for SA0F

345

346 Figure 11 shows the comparison between the horizontal early age shrinkage development for SA0F,
 347 SA03F12 and SA06F12 mixtures. The rate of the development of the shrinkage has been also plotted.
 348 The results show that the rate of development of plastic shrinkage for SA0F is much higher than that
 349 for specimens with fibers. In the first 7.5 h for SA0F, 6.7 h for SA03F12 and 6.2 h for SA06F12, the
 350 velocity of the deformation was high and almost constant. However, the rate of displacement
 351 decreases with the percentage of fibers. Then, the rate of deformation decreases to reach zero. For
 352 SA0F, this decrease is slow and progressive before it vanishes after 14 hours. However, the rate of
 353 deformation for the mixtures with 0.3 and 0.6% of fibers decreases quickly and stabilizes after 10
 354 hours.

355



356

357 **Figure 11.** Evolution of the plastic shrinkage and the deformation rate for SA0F, SA03F12 and
 358 SA06F12 mixtures

359

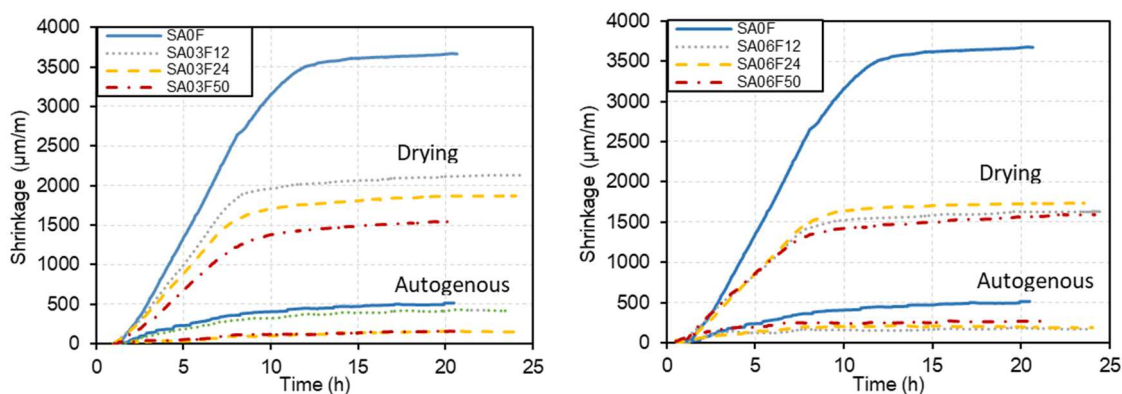
360 Figure 12 and 13 present the evolution of early age plastic and autogenous shrinkage for all the
 361 mixtures with 0, 0.3 and 0.6% of fibers and considering the three lengths of 12, 24 and 50 mm. The
 362 rate and amplitude of autogenous shrinkage is low with a maximum value of 500 $\mu\text{m}/\text{m}$ for SA0F.
 363 This may be due to different hydration reactions of cement and lime or chemical shrinkage in
 364 addition to self-desiccation shrinkage, which occurs in moisture-sealed conditions as water is
 365 internally removed from the capillary pores by chemical combination during hydration.

366 The plastic shrinkage started directly after casting for all the mixtures under drying. The plastic
 367 shrinkage is reduced 2 to 2.4 times with the addition of 0.3% and 0.6% of fibers respectively
 368 compared to SA0F.

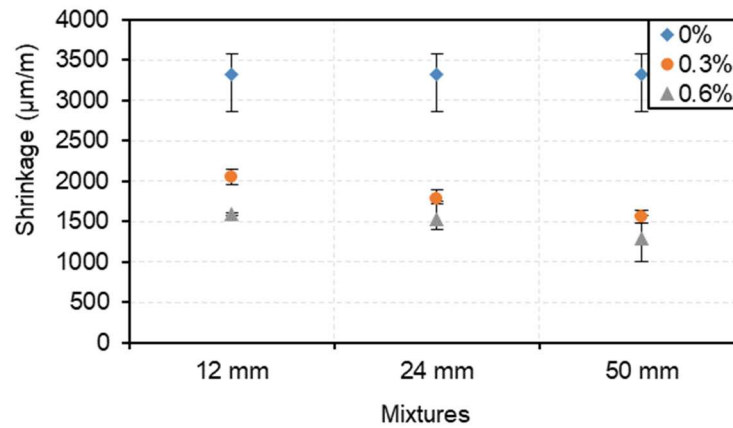
369 All the mixtures with fibers attend the plastic shrinkage stabilization at the same age earlier then
 370 SA0F. The effect of fiber lengths is more pronounced for the formulation with 0.3% of fibers. In fact,
 371 the increase of fiber lengths leads to the reduction of the rate and amplitude of plastic shrinkage,
 372 which may be due to the large surface that can be occupied by each fiber holding back the particles of
 373 concrete together.

374 Figure 13 presents the average maximum value of plastic shrinkage for the different mixtures
 375 considering the repeatability of the results. Plastic shrinkage decreases with an important rate with
 376 the addition of fibers. In addition, it decreases slightly with the percentage and length of fibers.

377



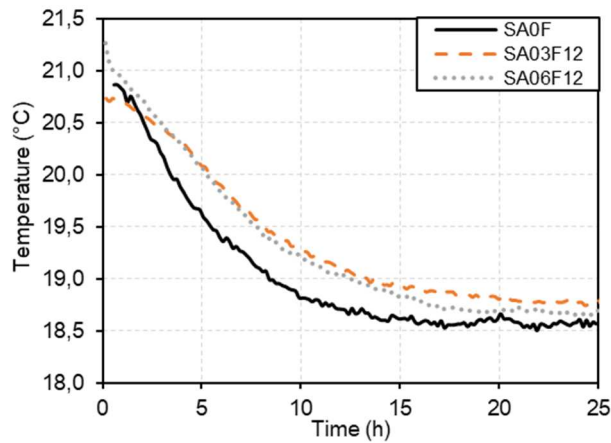
379 **Figure 12.** Evolution of plastic and autogenous shrinkage for mixtures without and with 0.3% a) and
 380 0.6% b) of fibers with different lengths
 381



382
 383 **Figure 13.** Maximum plastic shrinkage values of earth concrete specimens with different percentages
 384 and lengths of flax fibers
 385

386 The evolution of temperature for earth concrete samples is presented in Figure 14. The temperature
 387 varies slightly between 18.5°C and 21°C. The temperature decreases in function of time with a higher
 388 rate for SA0F compared to the mixtures containing fibers until it stabilizes. It is also interesting to
 389 note that the temperature gradient of the specimens was not very significant. The temperature
 390 evolution of earth concrete is different from that of ordinary concrete as no temperature peak related
 391 to the exothermic hydration reactions is observed which may due to the small quantity of added
 392 cement [67, 68].

393

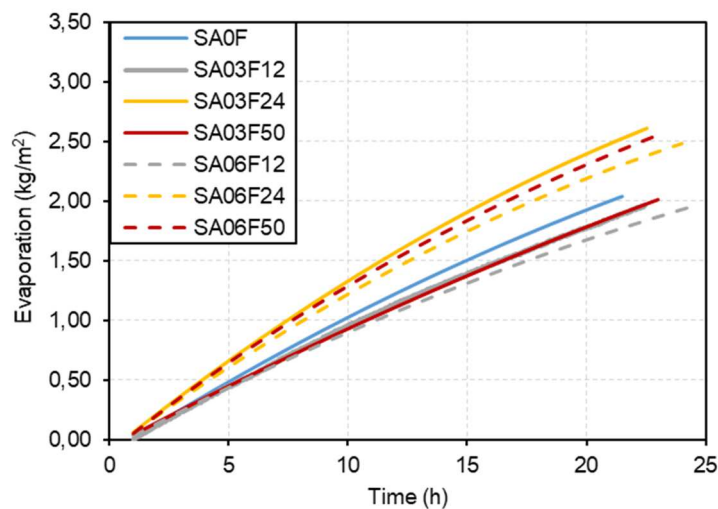


394

395 **Figure 14.** Evolution of the ambient and concrete temperature for the mixtures SA0F, SA03F12 and
 396 SA06F12 at early age

397

398 The evaporation rate for the mixtures with different lengths and percentages of fibers is presented in
 399 figure 15. The results show that there is no clear tendency of the evolution of the evaporation rate in
 400 function of different percentages and lengths of fibers. Note that the evaporation rate is considered
 401 low according to ACI 305.R-99 [69]. Many research in the literature showed also a contradiction
 402 between the evolution of the evaporation rate at early age for concrete with and without fibers [33].
 403 The observed variability can be related to many factors such as the distribution of fibers in concrete,
 404 its surface finishing, the number of interconnected capillary voids that allows water to rise easily, in
 405 addition to the hydrophilicity properties of fibers that may be responsible of the water retention and
 406 the reduction of the segregation and thus the quantity of bleeding water [33, 37].



407

408 **Figure 15.** Evolution of the weight loss for all the mixtures at early age

409

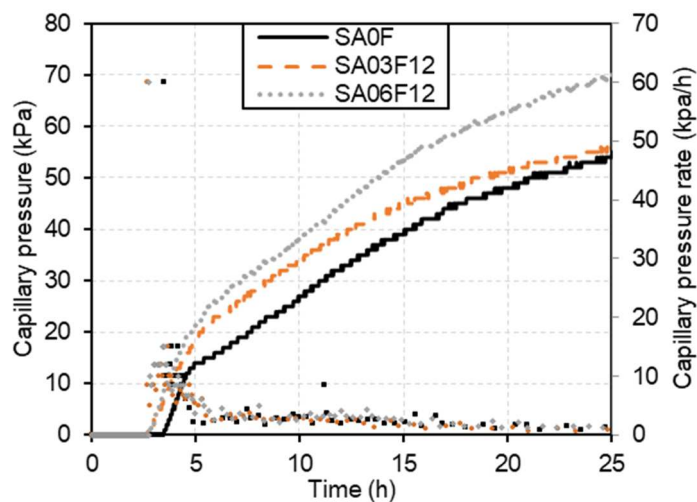
410 Figure 16 presents the evolution of the capillary pressure during the first 24 hours. The capillary
411 pressure is directly related to the pore distribution in the matrix. According to Laplace's equation,
412 the capillary pressure increases when the pore radius decreases:

413
$$(P = -(2\gamma)/R) \cdot \cos \theta$$
 Equation 1

414 where P is the pressure in the pore liquid, θ is the wetting angle, R is radius of the pore containing
415 the meniscus and γ is the surface tension of the liquid/water.

416 The capillary pressure was delayed for all the formulation for few hours; 2.5 hours for the
417 formulations containing fibers and 3.5 hours for SA0F. This is related to the transfer properties and
418 kinetic of drying that control the saturation of concrete pores system along the height of the
419 specimens as the sensor is placed in the middle of the mold [35]. For the mixtures containing
420 fibers, the capillary pressure developed earlier than SA0F. This may be due to the low amount of
421 bleeding water with mixtures containing fibers and different transfer properties related to the
422 percentage and distribution of pores that can affect the value of the capillary pressure in concrete in
423 addition to the absorption of water by the different materials presented in concrete as clay and
424 fibers.

425

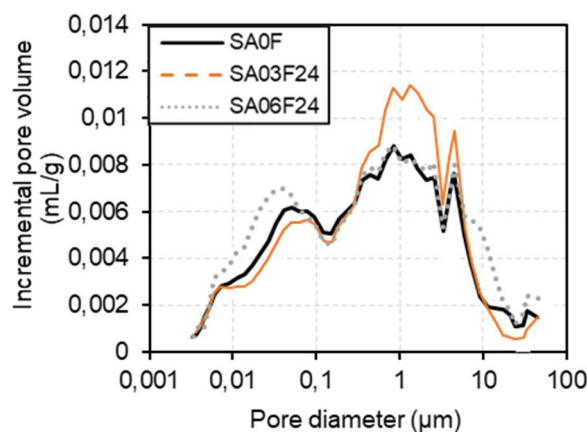


426 **Figure 16.** Evolution of the capillary pressure and its rate for SA0F, SA03F12 and SA06F12
427 mixtures

428 **4.4. Results from mercury intrusion porosimetry**

429 In order to have a better understanding of those differences between the mixtures with and without
430 fibers, the effect of fibers on the pore size distribution has been evaluated using a high-pressure
431 mercury intrusion porosimeter. Figure 17 shows the evolution of the increment pore volume with
432 respect to the logarithm of the pore radius in function of the pore radius r for SA0F, SA03F24 and
433 SA06F24. The results show that the total porosity is equal to 35% for the fiber-free formulations,
434 36% for the SA03F24 and 40% for the SA06F24 formulations. The pore distribution range varies
435 between 0.005 μm to 70 μm . From a dynamic point of view, the experiments take place from right to
436 left i.e, large access radii (Washburn's law) towards small access radii. The distribution is largely
437 dominated by a main mode centered at 1 μm for the three mixtures. Two secondary modes have been
438 also observed at 0.05 μm on small pore side and 8 μm on large pore side. The results show that the
439 volume of small pores (smaller than 0.1 μm) is slightly higher for SA06F24, which explains the
440 higher capillary pressure. The volume of the pores with a diameter between 0.1 and 5 μm is highest
441 for SA03F24. However, the volume of pores with a diameter larger than 5 μm is bigger for
442 specimens with 0.6% of fibers, which may be due to the effect of fibers distribution in the specimen
443 in large quantities. The differences between the total porosity and the pore distributions may explain
444 the capillary pressure development delay and the different evaporation rate observed with the
445 different mixtures and are responsible of the modification of mechanical and transfer properties of
446 earth concrete.

447



448

449 **Figure 17.** Pore size distribution for SA0F, SA03F24 and SA06F12

450

451 **4.5. Plastic shrinkage cracking**

452 Plastic shrinkage cracking tests started one hour after mixing earth concrete. The images taken during
453 the test (first 24 hours) are used to compute the displacement and the strain fields with the DIC
454 technique. Figure 18 presents the evolution of the strain field in the x-direction (ϵ_{xx}) for the SA0F.
455 The crack initiated after almost 3.8 hours of casting the earth concrete and spreaded in 20 min along
456 the large notch in the middle of the mold to form a continuous macro-crack. Figure 19 presents the
457 evolution of the strain along the x-axis of the mold. The strain increases in the area near the notch.
458 The tensile strength is at its maximum value near the cracking area for the formulation SA0F where
459 strain values are red. The crack occurred due to the restrained shrinkage of earth concrete, which
460 generates tensile stresses responsible of cracking when they exceeded the maximum stress capacity
461 of concrete. The image j software has been used to characterize the crack that reached an area of 434
462 $\pm 55 \text{ mm}^2$ and a width of $1.7 \pm 0.2 \text{ mm}$ after 24 hours.

463

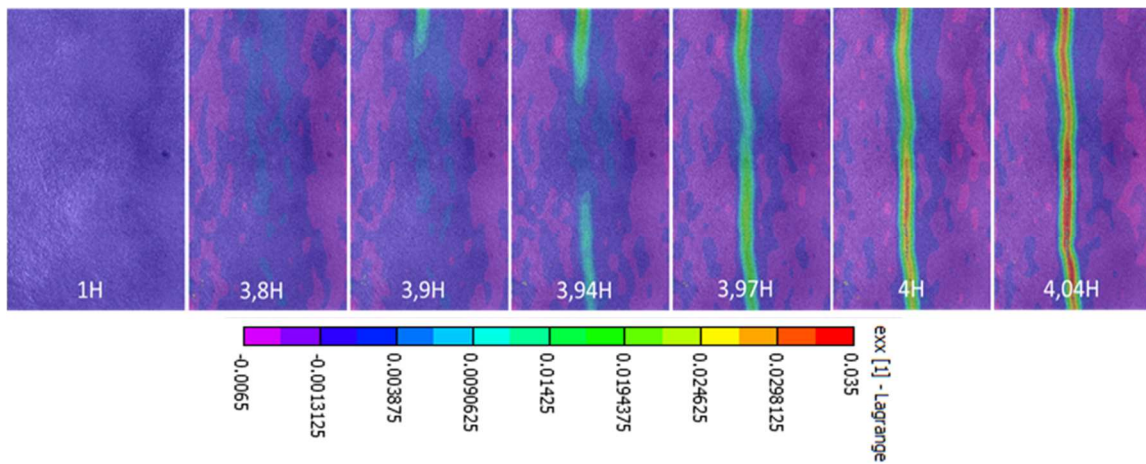
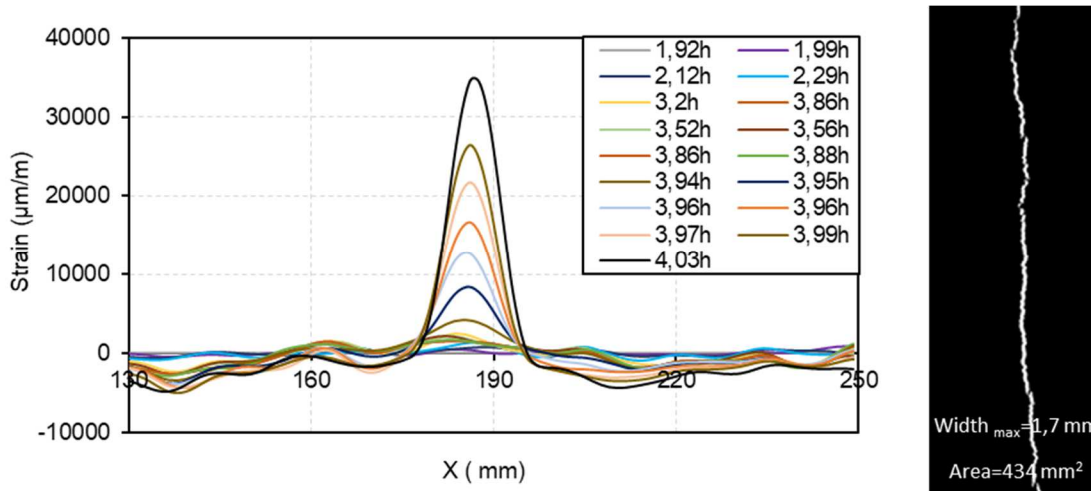


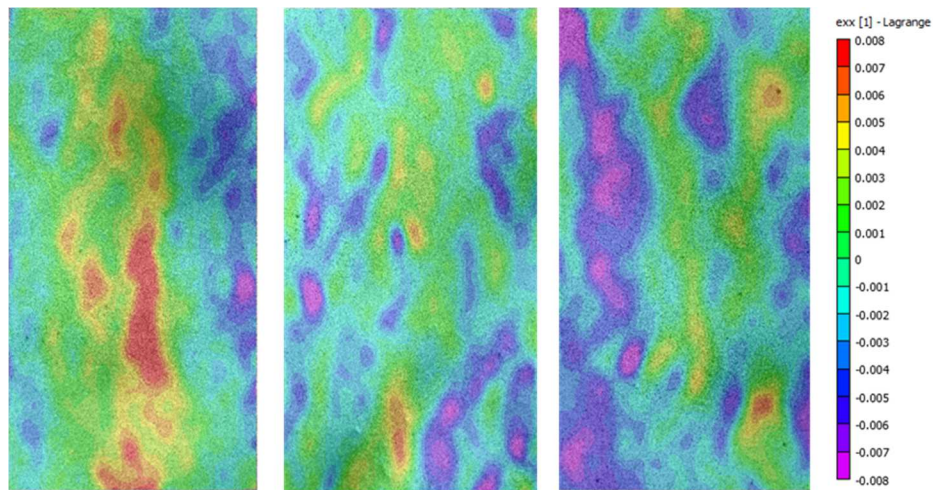
Figure 18. Evolution of the strain field for SAF in function of time



467
 468 **Figure 19.** a) Evolution of the strain field in function of the x axis in function of time (per hour)
 469 measured in the middle of the mold b) Crack area and width for SA0F

470
 471 For the formulations containing flax fibers with a length of 12, 24 and 50 mm, no macro-cracks have
 472 been observed during the first 24 hours after casting. Figure 20 shows the strain fields for the
 473 mixtures SA06F12, SA06F24 and SA06F50. The results show that the zone of concentration of strain
 474 fields is larger than the one obtained with SA0F. In addition, the strain values were significantly less
 475 important indicating the reduction of plastic shrinkage cracking due concrete reinforcement with flax
 476 fibers. In fact, flax fibers increase the early age tensile strength [39] which make it more difficult to
 477 reach the strength of concrete at this age [31]. New bridging forces are developed due to the presence
 478 of fibers, which prevent crack propagation [37, 70]. In addition, the presence of flax fibers tends to
 479 reduce the quantity of bleeding water, which enhance the concrete stiffness at its early age [9].

480 In addition, the DIC results showed that the strain concentration localized above the stress riser using
 481 the shorter length of fibers (12 mm) is higher than that using the longest length of flax fibers (50
 482 mm). This may be due to the larger space occupied by the longest fibers, which is responsible of
 483 stress redistribution and thus a decrease of the maximum strain values. In fact, longer fibers allow
 484 obtaining a sufficient stress transfer and a reduction of the stress concentration across the crack
 485 position [33, 71, 72].



487

488 **Figure 20.** Evolution of the strain field for SA06F12, SA06F24 and SA06F50 mixtures 24 hours
 489 after casting

490 **5. Conclusion**

491 The earth concrete studied in this article is a building material that can be created on site using
 492 excavated soil and local materials in regions with few natural resources for different applications in
 493 the construction field. It can be used to construct load bearing walls or slabs for small structures or
 494 for non-structural elements and plasters with a lower thickness. In addition to its environmental and
 495 ecological properties, the use of this material in building envelope can provide a certain insulation
 496 level and thermal inertia. The effect of incorporation of flax fibers with different lengths and
 497 percentages on the early age behavior of earth concrete has been studied. The evolution of plastic
 498 shrinkage has been studied in parallel to the evaporation and the capillary pressure during the first 24
 499 hours after casting of earth concrete. The stain and displacement fields of the restrained earth
 500 concrete specimens with and without fibers have been evaluated using DIC technique. The main
 501 conclusions of this study are:

- 502 – Flax fibers increase slightly the compressive strength at 28 days of earth concrete and
 503 enhance the ductility by generating a multi-cracking propagation in the specimen.
- 504 – The horizontal plastic shrinkage of earth concrete decreases with the increase of the
 505 percentage and length of flax fibers.
- 506 – The addition of fibers reduces the cracking risk of restrained earth concrete at the early age.
 507 No macro-cracks have been observed with mixtures containing flax fibers due to the

508 reduction of stress concentration above the stress riser of the mold. An increase in the strain
509 distribution has been also observed at the specimen surface with the increase of the fiber
510 length indicating a better stress transfer.

511 Additional studies will be realized in the future in order to study the effect of these fibers on the
512 fracture behavior, the durability and the hydrothermal properties of earth concrete.

513

514 **References**

515 [1] H. Dahlbo, J. Bachér, K. Lähtinen, T. Jouttijärvi, P. Suoheimo, T. Mattila, S. Sironen, T.
516 Myllymaa, K. Saramäki, Construction and demolition waste management – a holistic evaluation of
517 environmental performance, *J. Clean. Prod.* 107 (2015) 333-341,
518 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2015.02.073>.

519 [2] C. Llatas, A model for quantifying construction waste in projects according to the European
520 waste list, *Waste Manag.* 31 (6) (2011) 1261-1276, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2011.01.023>.

521 [3] L. Perez-Lombard, J. Ortiz, C. Pout, A review on buildings energy consumption information,
522 *Energy Build.* 40 (3) (2008) 394–398, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2007.03.007>.

523 [4] H. Van Damme, H. Houben, Earth concrete. Stabilization revisited, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 114
524 (2017) 90–102 , <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cemconres.2017.02.035>.

525 [5] F. Pacheco-Torgal, S. Jalali, Earth construction: lessons from the past for future eco-efficient
526 construction, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 29 (2012) 512–519,
527 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2011.10.054>.

528 [6] L. Eloundou, Earthen Architecture in today's World, in Proceedings of the UNESCO
529 International Colloquium on the Conservation of World Heritage Earthen Architecture, Paris
530 UNESCO. 36 (2013), <http://whc.unesco.org/document/126549>

531 [7] C. Williams, S. Goodhew, R. Griffiths, L. Watson, The feasibility of earth block masonry for
532 building sustainable walling. United Kingdom. *J. Build. Apprais.* 6 (2) (2010) 99–108,
533 <https://doi.org/10.1057/jba.2010.15>.

- 534 [8] M.S. Zami, A. Lee, Economic benefits of contemporary earth construction in low-cost urban
535 housing. *State-of-the-art review*, *J. Build. Apprais.* 5 (3) (2010), 259–271,
536 <https://doi.org/10.1057/jba.2009.32>.
- 537 [9] A. Laborel-Préneron, J.E. Aubert, C. Magniont, C. Tribout, A. Bertron, Plant aggregates and
538 fibers in earth construction materials: A review, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 111 (2016) 719–734,
539 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2016.02.119>.
- 540 [10] S.M. Rao, P. Shivananda, Role of curing temperature in progress of lime-soil reactions,
541 *Geotech. Geol. Eng.* 23 (2005) 79–85, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10706-003-3157-5>.
- 542 [11] F. Sariosseiri, B. Muhunthan, Effect of cement treatment on geotechnical properties of some
543 Washington State soils, *Eng. Geol.* 104 (1–2) (2009) 119–125,
544 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enggeo.2008.09.003>.
- 545 [12] B. Taallah, A. Guettala, The mechanical and physical properties of compressed earth block
546 stabilized with lime and filled with untreated and alkali-treated date palm fibers, *Constr. Build.*
547 *Mater.* 104 (2016) 52–62, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2015.12.007>.
- 548 [13] J.L. Eades, R.E. Grim, Reaction of hydrated lime with pure clay minerals in soil stabilization.
549 *Highway Research Board*, (262) (1960) 51–63.
- 550 [14] F.G. Bell, Lime stabisation of clay soils, *Bulletin of the International Association of*
551 *Engineering Geology.* 39 (1) (1989) 67–74.
- 552 [15] F.G. Bell, Lime stabilization of clay minerals and soils, *Eng. Geol.* 42 (1996) 223–237,
553 [https://doi.org/10.1016/0013-7952\(96\)00028-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0013-7952(96)00028-2).
- 554 [16] K. Lemaire, D. Deneele, S. Bonnet, M. Legret, Effects of lime and cement treatment on the
555 physicochemical, microstructural and mechanical characteristics of a plastic silt, *Eng. Geol.* 166
556 (2013) 255–261, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enggeo.2013.09.012> .
- 557 [17] S. Andavan, Vamsi Krishna Pagadala, A study on soil stabilization by addition of fly ash and
558 lime, *Mater. Today Proc.* 22 (3) (2020) 1125–1129, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matpr.2019.11.323>.
- 559 [18] J.L. Parracha, A. Santos, M. Cotrim, P.Faria, Mineralogical and microstructural
560 characterisation of rammed earth and earthen mortars from 12th century Paderne Castle, *J. Cult.*
561 *Herit.* 42, (2020) 226–239, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.culher.2019.07.021>.

- 562 [19] D.I. Boardman, S. Glendinning, C.D.F. Rogers, Development of stabilisation and
563 solidification in lime–clay mixes, *Géotechnique*. 51 (6) (2001) 533–543,
564 <https://doi.org/10.1680/geot.2001.51.6.533>.
- 565 [20] S. Diamond, J.L. White, W.L. Dolch, Transformation of Clay Minerals by Calcium Hydroxide
566 Attack, *Clays Clay Miner.* 12 (1) (1963) 359–379.
- 567 [21] J. Locat, M.A. Berube, M. Choquette, Laboratory investigations on the lime stabilizations of
568 sensitive clays: shear strength development, *Can Geotech J.* 27 (3) (1990) 294–304.
- 569 [22] B. Le Runigo, V. Ferber, Y. J. Cui, O. Cuisinier, D. Deneele, Performance of lime-treated silty
570 soil under long-term hydraulic conditions, *Eng. Geol.* 118 (1–2) (2011) 20–28,
571 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enggeo.2010.12.002> .
- 572 [23] B.V. Reddy, P. Kumar, Embodied energy in cement stabilised rammed earth walls, *Energy*
573 *Build.* 42 (3) (2010) 380-385, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2009.10.005>.
- 574 [24] A. Kumar, D. Gupta, Behavior of cement-stabilized fiber-reinforced pond ash, rice husk ash–
575 soil mixtures, *Geotextiles Geomembr.* 44 (3) (2016) 466–474,
576 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geotexmem.2015.07.010>.
- 577 [25] M. Carmen, Jimenez Delgado, I. Canas Guerrero, Earth building in Spain, *Constr. Build.*
578 *Mater.* 20 (2006) 679-690, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2005.02.006>.
- 579 [26] P. Narloch, P. Woyciechowski, J. Kotowski, I. Gawriuczenkow, E. Wójcik, The Effect of Soil
580 Mineral Composition on the Compressive Strength of Cement Stabilized Rammed Earth, *Materials*,
581 13 (2) (2020) 324, <https://doi.org/10.3390/ma13020324>.
- 582 [27] T. Santos, L. Nunes, P. Faria, Production of eco-efficient earth-based plasters: influence of
583 composition on physical performance and bio-susceptibility, *J. Clean. Prod.* 167 (2017) 55-67,
584 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.08.131>.
- 585 [28] M. Bouhicha, F. Aouissi, S. Kenai, Performance of composite soil reinforced with barley
586 straw, *Cem. Concr. Compos.* 27 (5) (2005) 617–621,
587 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cemconcomp.2004.09.013>.

588 [29] J. Eid, S. Taibi, J.M. Fleureau, M. Hattab, Drying, cracks and shrinkage evolution of a natural
589 silt intended for a new earth building material: Impact of reinforcement, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 86
590 (2015) 120–132, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2015.03.115>.

591 [30] J.M. Kanema, J. Eid, S. Taibi, Shrinkage of earth concrete amended with recycled aggregates
592 and superplasticizer: Impact on mechanical properties and cracks, *Mater. Des.* 109 (2016) 378–389,
593 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.matdes.2016.07.025>.

594 [31] J. Branston, S. Das, S.Y. Kenno, C. Taylor, Influence of basalt fibres on free and restrained
595 plastic shrinkage, *Cem. Concr. Compos.* 74 (2016) 182–190,
596 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cemconcomp.2016.10.004>.

597 [32] V. Slowik, M. Schmidt, R. Fritsch, Capillary pressure in fresh cement-based materials and
598 identification of the air entry value, *Cem. Concr. Compos.* 30 (7) (2008) 557–565,
599 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cemconcomp.2008.03.002>.

600 [33] I.M.G. Bertelsen, L.M. Ottosen, G. Fischer, Influence of fibre characteristics on plastic
601 shrinkage cracking in cement-based materials: A review, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 230 (2020) 116769,
602 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2019.116769>.

603 [34] J. Saliba, E. Rozière, F. Grondin, A. Loukili, Influence of shrinkage-reducing admixtures on
604 plastic and long-term shrinkage, *Cem. Concr. Compos.* 33 (2) (2011) 209–217,
605 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cemconcomp.2010.10.006>.

606 [35] [Sayahi 2016] Sayahi, F.; Plastic Shrinkage Cracking in Concrete, PHD thesis of Luleå
607 University of Technology, 2016, 10.3929/ETHZ-B-000249246.

608 [36] P.J. Uno, Plastic shrinkage cracking and evaporation formulas, *ACI Mater. J.* 95 (4) (1996)
609 365-375, <https://www.concrete.org/publications/acimaterialsjournal.aspx>.

610 [37] P. Soroushian, F. Mirza, A. Alhozaimy, Plastic shrinkage cracking of polypropylene fiber-
611 reinforced concrete. *ACI Mater. J.* 92 (5) (1995), 553-560.

612 [38] Z. Bayasi, M. McIntyre, Application of fibrillated PP fibres for restraint of plastic shrinkage
613 cracking in Silica Fume Concrete, *ACI Mater. J.* 99 (4) (2002) 337-344.

614 [39] E. Boghossian, L.D. Wegner, Use of flax fibres to reduce plastic shrinkage cracking in
615 concrete, *Cem. Concr. Compos.* 30 (2008) 929–937,
616 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cemconcomp.2008.09.003>.

617 [40] S. Imanzadeh, A. Jarno, A. Hibouche, A. Bouarar, S. Taibi, Ductility analysis of vegetal-fiber
618 reinforced raw earth concrete by mixture design. *Constr. Build. Mater.* 239 (2020) 117829,
619 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2019.117829>.

620 [41] C. Baley, M. Gomina, J. Breard, A. Bourmaud, P. Davies, Variability of mechanical properties
621 of flax fibres for composite reinforcement. A review, *Ind. Crops Prod.* 145 (2019) 111984,
622 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2019.111984>.

623 [42] K. Ghavami, R.D. Toledo Filho, N.P. Barbosa, Behaviour of composite soil reinforced with
624 natural fibres, *Cem. Concr. Compos.* 21 (1999) 39–48, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0958-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0958-9465(98)00033-X)
625 [9465\(98\)00033-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0958-9465(98)00033-X).

626 [43] A.E.M.K. Mohamed, Improvement of swelling clay properties using hay fibers. *Constr. Build.*
627 *Mater.* 38 (2013) 242–247, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2012.08.031>.

628 [44] S. F. Diman, C. Wijeyesekera, Swelling characteristics of bentonite clay mats. *The School of*
629 *Computing and Technology 3rd Annual Conference.* (2008), <http://hdl.handle.net/10552/781>.

630 [45] EN (European Standards), Lime: Definitions, Specifications and Conformity criteria. EN 459-
631 1, (2015).

632 [46] EN (European Standards), Composition, Specifications and Conformity criteria of common
633 cements. NF EN197-1, (2012)

634 [47] S. Khattab, M. Al-Mukhtar, J.M. Fleureau, Long-term stability characteristics of a lime-treated
635 plastic soil. *J. Mater. Civil Eng.* 19 (2007) 358–366.

636 [48] C.A. Anagnostopoulos, Strength properties of an epoxy resin and cement stabilized silty clay
637 soil, *Appl. Clay Sci.* 114 (2015) 517–529, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clay.2015.07.007>.

638 [49] Standard AFNOR, Reconnaissance and testing - Size identification -Wet sieving method. XP
639 P94-041, (1995).

640 [50] NF (French Standards), Reconnaissance and testing - Particle size analysis - Sedimentation
641 method. NF P94-057, (1992).

642 [51] J. Page, F. Khadraoui, M. Gomina, M. Boutouil, Influence of different surface treatments on
643 the water absorption capacity of flax fibres: Rheology of fresh reinforced-mortars, mechanical
644 properties in the hardened state. *Constr. Build. Mater.* 199 (2019) 424-434,
645 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2018.12.042>.

646 [52] J. Page, F. Khadraoui, M. Boutouil, M. Gomina, Multi-physical properties of a structural
647 concrete incorporating short flax fibers, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 140 (2017) 344-353,
648 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2017.02.124>.

649 [53] L. Yan, N. Chouw, K. Jayaraman, Flax fibre and its composites – A review, *Compos. Part B*
650 *Eng.* 56 (2014) 296-317, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compositesb.2013.08.014>.

651 [54] U. Huner, Effect of Water Absorption on the Mechanical Properties of Flax Fiber Reinforced
652 Epoxy Composites, *ASTRJournal.* 9 (26) (2015) 1-6.

653 [55] S. Amziane, F. Collet, M. Lawrence, C. Magniont, V. Picandet, M. Sonebi, Recommendation
654 of the RILEM TC 236-BBM : characterisation testing of hemp shiv to determine the initial water
655 content, water absorption, dry density, particle size distribution and thermal conductivity, *Materials*
656 *and Structures* 50. (2017).

657 [56] AFNOR, Hygrothermal performance of building materials and products - Determination of
658 hygroscopic sorption properties, *NF EN ISO 12571*, (2013), 28 p.

659 [57] C.A. S. Hill, A. Norton, The water vapor sorption behavior of natural fibers, *J. App. Polym.*
660 *Sci.* (2009).

661 [58] A. Stamboulis, C. A. Baillie, S. K. Garkhail, H. G. H. Van Melick, T. Peijs, Environmental
662 durability of flax fibres and their composites based on polypropylene matrix, *Appl. Compos.*
663 *Mater.* 7 (5–6) (2000) 273–294.

664 [59] EN (European Standards), Tests of fresh concrete. Part 2: Slump test (in Portuguese). *EN*
665 *12350-2*, (2009).

666 [60] EN (European Standards), Testing of Fresh Concrete. Part 7: Air Content – Pressure Methods.
667 *EN 12350-7* (2009)

668 [61] ASTM C1579-13, Standard Test Method for Evaluating Plastic Shrinkage Cracking of
669 Restrained Fiber Reinforced Concrete (Using a Steel Form Insert), (2013) 1–7.

670 [62] J. Lima, P. Faria, Eco-efficient Earthen Plasters: the Influence of the Addition of Natural
671 Fibers, (eds) Natural Fibres: Advances in Science and Technology Towards Industrial
672 Applications. RILEM Bookseries, Springer, Dordrecht.12 (2016).

673 [63] J. Lima, P. Faria, A. Santos Silva Earth Plasters: The Influence of Clay Mineralogy in the
674 Plasters' Properties, *Int. J. Arch. Herit.* (2020), <https://doi.org/10.1080/15583058.2020.1727064>.

675 [64] E. Quagliarini, S. Lenci, The influence of natural stabilizers and natural fibres on the
676 mechanical properties of ancient Roman adobe bricks, *J. Cult. Herit.* 11 (3) (2010) 309-314,
677 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.culher.2009.11.012> .

678 [65] P. Turcry, A. Loukili, Evaluation of Plastic shrinkage Cracking of self-compacting concrete.
679 *Materials Journal, ACI.* 103 (4) (2006) 272-280.

680 [66] J. Mora-Ruacho, R. Gettu, A. Aguado, Influence of shrinkage-reducing admixtures on the
681 reduction of plastic shrinkage cracking in concrete, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 39 (3) (2009) 141-146,
682 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cemconres.2008.11.011>.

683 [67] G. Olivier, R. Combrinck, M. Kayondo, W.P. Boshoff, Combined effect of nanosilica, super
684 absorbent polymers, and synthetic fibres on plastic shrinkage cracking in concrete, *Constr. Build.*
685 *Mater.* 192 (2018) 85–98, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2018.10.102>.

686 [68] I.M.G. Bertelsen, C. Kragh, G. Cardinaud, L.M. Ottosen, G. Fischer, Quantification of plastic
687 shrinkage cracking in mortars using digital image correlation, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 123 (2019),
688 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cemconres.2019.05.006> 105761.

689 [69] ACI 305R-99, Hot Weather Concreting, ACI Manual of Construction Practice, Part 2,
690 Farmington Hills: American Concrete Institute International, (1999).

691 [70] J.H.J. Kim, C.G. Park, S.W. Lee, S.W. Lee, J.P. Won, Effects of the geometry of recycled
692 PET fiber reinforcement on shrinkage cracking of cement-based composites, *Compos. Part B Eng.*
693 39 (3) (2008) 442–450, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compositesb.2007.05.001>.

694 [71] N. Banthia, R. Gupta, Influence of polypropylene fiber geometry on plastic shrinkage cracking
695 in concrete, *Cem. Concr. Res.* 36 (7) (2006) 1263–1267,
696 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cemconres.2006.01.010>.

697 [72] R. Paul Borg, O. Baldacchino, L. Ferrara, Early age performance and mechanical
698 characteristics of recycled PET fibre reinforced concrete, *Constr. Build. Mater.* 108 (2016) 29-47,
699 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2016.01.029>.