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#### ARTICLE



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# Early-age cracking due to restraint: Laboratory and field investigations on the predictive capacity of the simplified method in Annex D of the future EC2

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#### Abstract

The Annex D of the future EC2 draft gives guidance on the evaluation of earlyage cracking of large structures due to restraint. In case of restrained conditions, compressive stresses are firstly generated in massive structures due to temperature increase, then tensile stresses are generated due to temperature decrease and shrinkage. Due to these tensile stresses, there is a risk of cracking which may be evaluated by the simplified method in Annex D. This method is currently verified against laboratory tests performed in the temperature-stress testing machine and field cases on restrained concrete elements. The laboratory verification consisted of five approaches to consider different available input (modeled, assumed, or measured). The field investigation focused on the relation between the calculated cracking risk and the observed damage. The results show that the method has very good accuracy and captures with reasonable simplicity the mechanisms and the relations between the parameters involved.

#### KEYWORDS

concrete, cracking, early age, EC2, field test, restrained strains, SCMs, TSTM

#### 1 | INTRODUCTION

Cracks influence the aesthetics, durability, and tightness of concrete structures, often resulting in economic and sustainability consequences. $<sup>1</sup>$  It is therefore important to</sup> evaluate the cracking risk throughout the whole life span of a structure by accurate and relevant methods (e.g., References 2–5).

In this paper we consider the cracking risk  $(R_{cr})$  of restrained concrete elements at early ages, as proposed by Annex D in Reference 2:

$$
R_{\rm cr}(t) = \frac{\sigma_{\rm ct}(t)}{0.8f_{\rm ct,eff}(t)} \begin{cases} < 1 \text{ no cracking} \\ \geq 1 & \text{cracking} \end{cases} \tag{1}
$$

where  $\sigma_{\rm ct}(t)$  is the maximum tensile stress in the element and  $f_{\text{ct,eff}}(t)$  is the tensile strength at time t. The coefficient 0.8 is a safety factor accounting for sustained loading, in which case the coupling between creep and damage of concrete, in form of microcracking, rapidly reduces the concrete resistance. Several experimental evidences show that this coupling (tertiary creep) generally occurs when the stress is higher than 80% of the strength. $\frac{6}{10}$ 

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FIGURE 1 (a) Typical temperature history of a structural concrete element, and (b) related stress history.<sup>1</sup> Starting from the temperature of the fresh concrete ( $T_{\text{ci}}$ ), the temperature increases due to the heat of hydration up to  $T_{\text{c,max}}$  (heating phase). In the cooling phase, the temperature decreases until thermal equilibrium with the restraining structure  $(T_0)$  at time  $t_{\rm crit}$ . Additional temperature drop ( $\Delta T_{\rm min}$ ) due to daily and seasonal temperature variations is also considered. The restraining structure prevents the thermal expansion and following contraction of the newly cast concrete member, allowing for compressive and later tensile stresses to occur. The time when the generated stresses change from compression to tension is indicated with  $t_2$ .  $T_2$  is the temperature of the concrete element at  $t_2$ , while  $t_{\text{dor}}$  is the start time for stress development.

The focus is on through-cracks, which involve the whole thickness of the element. They occur in case of restrained conditions and are strongly related to the temperature situation in a newly-cast concrete element: the temperature first increases due to the released heat of hydration and then drops until thermal equilibrium with the restraining system (Figure 1a). Simultaneously, the concrete expands in the heating phase and contracts in the cooling phase. Through-cracks typically occur in the latter, when the restrained thermal contraction produces tensile stresses (Figure 1b). For this reason, suggested measures to reduce through-cracking are based on the reduction of the restraint and/or the temperature difference between the concrete element and the restraining system.<sup>1</sup>

Through-cracks mostly affect massive structures with small surface-to-volume ratio, which makes negligible the drying of the structure and the dispersion of the hydration heat. As a result, drying shrinkage and drying creep are neglected and the concrete can be assumed to be in quasi-adiabatic conditions.

The phenomenon of early-age cracking (EAC) is however more complex than this. Self-induced volume changes are caused by thermal dilation (TD) but also by autogenous deformation (AD), a more general term to indicate basic shrinkage (autogenous contraction) and autogenous expansion. Basic shrinkage increases the tensile stress while autogenous expansion decreases it. Moreover, during the hardening phase, the concrete exhibits strong viscoelastic behavior and its mechanical properties develop rapidly, resulting in higher stiffness (hence higher stress) in the cooling than in the heating phase.

Therefore, the evaluation of  $\sigma_{\rm ct}(t)$  may be challenging. Time-dependent analyses can be used but are complex and not always convenient. Conversely, simplified

methods (SMs) are generally easier to interpret, faster, and may be utilized as part of a more comprehensive solution regime.<sup>7</sup> However, their limits (e.g., assumptions, models simplification, applicability to new concretes $8,9$ ) must be clearly highlighted and considered.

The current paper is a combined and enhanced version of the conference papers, $\frac{10,11}{10}$  presented at the 6th fib International Congress. The aim is to assess the SM for the evaluation of early-age and long-term cracking due to restraint, proposed in Annex D of Reference 2. In this paper, the method is considered in relation to early age only. It is briefly presented, and then verified and discussed against laboratory tests performed in the temperature-stress testing machine (TSTM), and field cases on restrained concrete elements. The paper concludes with an analysis of the cracking risk test results.

## 2 | THE SIMPLIFIED METHOD

Annex D of Reference 2 guides on the evaluation of earlyage and long-term cracking due to restraint, proposing a SM to calculate  $R_{cr}$ . The method includes TD and AD as driving forces to EAC, considers creep through the ageadjusted effective E-modulus method, $12$  and accounts for the boundary conditions with a degree of restraint  $(R_{\text{av-1}})$ . This factor is defined as the stiffness of the restraining structural system  $(k)$  divided by the stiffness of the total system (Figure 2).  $R_{ax,1}$  varies between 0 and 1, where 1 indicates a fully restrained system and 0 an unrestrained one.

$$
R_{\text{ax},1} = \frac{k}{E_{\text{c}}A_{\text{c}} + k}.\tag{2}
$$



FIGURE 2 Illustration of the degree of restraint.<sup>9</sup> The structural system is represented by a concrete element with E-modulus  $E_c$  and cross-sectional area  $A_c$ , restrained by two springs (restraining system) of stiffness  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ . The stiffness of the restraining system is hence  $k = k_1 + k_2$ .

Alternatively:

$$
R_{\text{ax},1} = 1 - \frac{\varepsilon_{\text{restr}}}{\varepsilon_{\text{imp}}},\tag{3}
$$

where  $\varepsilon_{\text{restr}}$  is the strain developed in the restrained element and  $\varepsilon$ <sub>imp</sub> is the imposed strain. Input data to Equations (2) and (3) should be estimated with complex analyses, preferably including 3D realistic models. $9,13$ 

The degree of restraint in principle varies in time due to the E-modulus development, but experience has shown that the variation is small at early ages.<sup>7,9</sup> A constant value of  $R_{ax,1}$  is thus assumed throughout the SM domain.

In SM, the compressive stress occurring in the heating phase is neglected, although its influence on the stress history is accounted for through the parameter  $t_2$  where the stress changes from compression to tension. Furthermore, the tensile stress in the cooling phase is assumed constant and totally applied in one step at  $t_2$  (Figure 1). As for the strain, contraction is assumed positive and expansion negative since the concrete contracts in the cooling phase.

In this paper, the method is applied to the early-age case only, at the time when temperature-equilibrium between the restrained and restraining structural concrete member is achieved  $(t_{\text{crit}})$ . The corresponding stress generated inside the newly-cast element,  $\sigma_{\rm ct}(t_{\rm crit})$ , is expressed by the following equation:

$$
\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit}) = R_{\rm ax,1} \frac{E_{\rm c}(t_2)}{1 + \chi \varphi_{\rm st}} \left\{ k_{\rm Temp} \alpha_{\rm cth}(T_{\rm c,max} - T_0) \right\}
$$
 (4)  
+ 
$$
[\varepsilon_{\rm obs}(t_{\rm crit}) - \varepsilon_{\rm obs}(t_2)] \left\},
$$

where  $\chi \varphi_{st}$  accounts for short-term creep relaxation, significant due to the low maturity of concrete and the presence of hydration heat. Annex D suggests a value of  $0.55.E<sub>c</sub>(t<sub>2</sub>)$  is the modulus of elasticity of concrete at time

 $t_2$ ,  $t_2$  is the time when the tensile stress is applied according to SM, corresponding to the time of stress change from compression to tension. Annex D suggests a value of 2 days if no experimental value is provided.  $\alpha_{\rm ch}$  is the coefficient of thermal expansion of concrete. Annex D suggests a value of  $10 \times 10^{-6}$  °C<sup>-1</sup> if no experimental value is provided.  $k_{\text{Temp}}(T_{\text{c,max}} - T_0) = (T_2 - T_0) = \Delta T$  is the part of the temperature decrease causing tensile stresses.  $k_{Temp}$  is a thermal factor accounting for the reduction in temperature from  $T_{c,\text{max}}$  to  $T_2$  (see Figure 1), and may be taken as 0.9.  $k_{Temp}\alpha_{\rm cth}(T_{c,max} - T_0)$  is the TD in the cooling phase.  $[\varepsilon_{\text{cbs}}(t_{\text{crit}}) - \varepsilon_{\text{cbs}}(t_2)] = \Delta \text{AD}$  is the AD of the concrete between  $t_2$  and  $t_{\text{crit}}$ . TD + AD is the total volume changes or total free deformation (FD).

#### 3 | LABORATORY VERIFICATION

In this section, SM is applied to results of laboratory tests from the literature, suited for the determination of selfinduced stress at early ages. The tests are grouped in a reference database, against which the method is verified according to five approaches that consider the availability of input in practical applications.

The results of the laboratory verification are discussed at the end of the section.

## 3.1 | Reference database

The numerous factors involved, make the phenomenon of through-cracking quite challenging to be reproduced in the laboratory. Nevertheless, various test methods are described in the literature<sup>14–16</sup> (plate test, substrate restrained test, ring test, longitudinal test). Among them, the TSTM test is recognized as the most advanced and reliable one.<sup>17</sup> It is in fact able to measure the strain and stress development of a concrete element under varying temperature, restraint, and curing conditions (sealed or drying), allowing for the evaluation of the crack sensitivity of cementitious mixes. The TSTM can also be used to test fiber reinforced and reinforced concrete (see for instance References 18,19) although studies in this field (especially reinforced concrete) are scarce. $15$  Other applications of the TSTM test include monitoring of elastic and viscoelastic properties from setting time, and testing of concrete in its plastic state.<sup>16</sup>

A TSTM (Figure 3) is a longitudinal restraining device consisting of a metal formwork with a fixed and a movable end. The movable end can return to its original position periodically, once a certain deformation threshold is reached. This is achieved by a screw or a hydraulic mechanism manually or automatically activated. The force





FIGURE 3 Scheme of the TSTM at the Norwegian University of Science and Technology.<sup>20</sup>

induced during such an operation is measured by a load cell or is computed from a deformation measurement of the rig. A TSTM system usually comprises a restrained rig with enlarged ends and an unrestrained rig used for the measurement of FD in which the concrete can be directly cast. Both rigs are generally provided with a temperature-control system.

TSTM systems are sophisticated and expensive, and not many institutes have the resources to afford one. The equipment is also difficult to control, operate, and maintain, and cannot be found on the market, so it must be manufactured. As a result, there are not many TSTMs worldwide (about  $22^{15}$ ), and even though they have similar operating principle and test set-up, they also have differences about the custom-made parts and mechanisms (e.g., sensors type and positioning, size of specimen).

In this study, selected TSTM tests found in the literature are used to build a reference database to verify SM.

The database covers 58 tests which meet the following criteria:

- The test is conducted on unreinforced concrete.
- The test occurred in sealed conditions, under varying temperature (adiabatic and semi-adiabatic temperature histories are preferred). The value of  $T_{\rm c,max} - T_0$  must be stated or be deductible. Cases with temperature below  $0^{\circ}$ C are excluded.

Isothermal tests are excluded because, even though SM could be applied assuming  $t_2 = t_{\text{dor}}$ , it would result  $E_c(t_2) = E_c(t_{\text{dor}}) = 0$ , making the method de facto not applicable.

- $R_{ax,1}$  is kept constant throughout the test.
- The mechanical properties of the concrete (compressive strength, tensile strength, and E-modulus) at different ages are provided.
- FD is measured and/or the deduced AD is provided.

• Stated or deductible values of  $t_2$ ,  $t_{\text{crit}}$ , and  $\sigma_1(t_{\text{crit}})$  are provided.

The tests are grouped in investigations, in turn arranged according to the institute they belong to (Table 1): Norwegian University of Science and Technology (NTNU), Tsinghua University (TU), Hohai University (HU), Institute of Water Resources and Hydropower Research (IWHR), and University of Tokyo (UTokyo). Each of the institutes is equipped with a unique TSTM system, described in Table 2.

The values of the input parameters for SM are reported in Table 3 for each test. They are:

- mean compressive strength at 28 days,  $f_{cm}(28d)$ ;
- degree of restraint,  $R_{ax,1}$ ;
- coefficient of thermal expansion,  $\alpha_{\rm cth}$ ;
- starting time of the generated tensile stress,  $t_2$ ;
- time at failure or time at thermal equilibrium between the restrained structure and the restraining system<sup>7</sup>  $(t_{\rm crit});$
- E-modulus at time  $t_2$ ,  $E_c(t_2)$ ;
- Temperature variation causing the tensile stress,  $T_{c,max} - T_0;$
- AD variation from  $t_2$  to  $t_{\text{crit}}$ ,  $\varepsilon_{\text{cbs}}(t_{\text{crit}}) \varepsilon_{\text{cbs}}(t_2)$ .

Table 3 also includes experimental values of  $\sigma_{\rm ct}(t_{\rm crit})$ and  $f_{\text{cteff}}(t_{\text{crit}})$ . The effective tensile strength is taken as the mean tensile strength of direct tension tests according to Reference 2. In cases where the tensile strength was measured through splitting tests, the splitting strength values  $(f_{ts})$  have been converted to direct strength values  $(f_t)$  according to Reference 46:

$$
ft = 0.79 \cdot fts + 0.53 \quad \text{test on } 100 \times 200 \text{ mm cylinders},
$$
\n(5)

TABLE 1 Summary of the investigations included in the reference database.

Institute	Investigation	Concrete type	Number of tests
Norwegian University of Science and Technology, NTNU (Norway)	Bjøntegaard <sup>21</sup>	OPC, FA, SF	9
	Klausen <sup>20</sup>	OPC, FA	4
	Cementa $22-26$	OPC, FA	5
	Schwenk <sup>27,28</sup>	<b>GGBFS</b>	$\overline{2}$
	$VPI^{29-31}$	OPC, VPI	3
Tsinghua University, TU (China)	Tao and Weizu <sup>32</sup>	OPC, SF, FA	3
	Zhu et al. $33$	OPC, FA	5
Hohai University, HU (China)	Shen et al. $34$	OPC, GGBFS	$\overline{4}$
	Shen et al. <sup>35</sup>	OPC, SF	$\overline{\mathbf{4}}$
Institute of Water Resources and Hydropower	Xin et al. $36$	FA	6
Research, IWHR (China)	Xin et al. $37$	OPC, FA	$\overline{4}$
University of Tokyo, UTokyo (Japan)	Lim et al. $38$	OPC, FA, GGBFS, EA	$\overline{\mathbf{4}}$
	Ou et al. $39$	<b>OPC</b>	$\overline{2}$
	Ou et al. $40$	<b>OPC</b>	$\mathbf{1}$
	Ou et al. <sup>41</sup>	OPC, EA	$\overline{2}$
Total	15	OPC, FA, SF, GGBFS, VPI, EA	58

Note: Each investigation is associated to the number of tests considered in the present work and to the related concrete type containing: Portland cement (OPC), fly ash (FA), silica fume (SF), ground granulated blast furnace slag (GGBFS), volcanic pozzolan from Iceland (VPI), or expansive agent (EA).

$$
f_t = 0.77 \cdot f_{ts} + 0.21
$$
 test on 100 mm cubes. (6)

Table 3 shows only the direct strength values. Additionally, it indicates if the tests failed, and whether the data were explicitly stated in the literature, assumed according to Annex D, or deduced by the authors.

Tables 2 and 3 show that the tests included in the database were performed using different (but analogous) TSTM systems, approaches, and materials, considerably influencing the test results. Nevertheless, a representative and homogeneous database is necessary to evaluate SM. Therefore, the database was checked for the presence of outliers before proceeding to the verification of SM through the Hampel's test (described in Reference 47). This test is quite simple, has very good efficiency in finding even mild outliers, $47$  and has been successfully applied to a Round-Robin investigation on early-age concrete.<sup>48</sup> No outliers were found in the current database.

#### 3.2 | Verification approaches

Available input may vary in the practical application of SM. To consider this, five verification approaches were introduced in Table 4. The approaches are explained in the following, and their results are presented and discussed in Section 3.3.

In the first approach, the input parameters are experimentally determined, except for  $\alpha_{\rm ch}$  assumed to be  $10 \times 10^{-6}$  °C<sup>-1</sup> according to Annex D, and AD, modeled according to the basic shrinkage formula in Reference 2:

$$
\varepsilon_{\rm obs}(t) = \varepsilon_{\rm obs, f_{\rm cm}} \cdot \beta_{\rm bs, t} \cdot \alpha_{\rm NDP, b},\tag{7}
$$

where  $\alpha_{\text{NDP},b}$  is a Nationally Determined Parameter assumed equal to 1 in the current study;

$$
\beta_{\text{bs,t}} = 1 - \exp(-0.2\sqrt{t})\tag{8}
$$

is a time-development function;

$$
\varepsilon_{\rm cbs, f_{\rm cm}} = -\alpha_{\rm bs} \left( \frac{f_{\rm cm, 28}}{60 + f_{\rm cm, 28}} \right)^{2.5} \cdot 10^{-6} \tag{9}
$$

is the basic shrinkage coefficient;  $\alpha_{\rm bs}$  is a coefficient which depends on the early strength development of concrete (Table B.3 in Reference 2), which is related to the concrete class (Table D.1 in Reference 2). This in turn depends on the concrete characteristic compressive strength  $f_{ck}$  and given values of  $t_{dor}$ .

The second approach is taken from References 1,10. It is identical to the first one with the exception that  $t_2$  is assumed to be 2 days (value according to Reference 2 and



TABLE 2 Comparison between the TSTM systems considered in the study.



Note: More details can be found in the referred literature.

deriving from the average of measured  $t_2$  values from various experimental results, e.g., References 20,21). The approach showed good accuracy when verified against Cementa (2019) test results, $^{10}$  so the aim of the current paper is to verify whether 2 days appropriately estimates  $t_2$  in a broader and more various database, especially for concretes with high AD development before 1 day (as in References 21,34,35). In fact, SM neglects FD in the heating phase (before  $t_2$ ) and only uses FD produced in the cooling phase (after  $t_2$ ) as driving force to  $\sigma_1(t_{\text{crit}})$ . Assuming a low value of  $t_2$  will thus increase this driving force but will conversely decrease  $E_c(t_2)$ .

TD is calculated as  $k_{Temp}(T_{c,max} - T_0)$  in all cases, resulting independent of  $t_2$  variations, which are









 $\underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}$   $\underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}$   $\underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}$   $\underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}$   $\underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}$   $\underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}$   $\underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}$   $\underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}$   $\underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}$ 





Note: Each test is identified by the code "XXyy\_zz\_mix," where "XX" represents the institute, "yy" is the number of the investigation in the institute, "zz" is the number of the test in the investigation, and "mix" is the Note Each test is identified by the code "XXy, zz\_mix," where "XX" represents the institute, "yy" is the number of the institute, "zz" is the number of the test in the investigation, and "mix" is the type of concrete mix indicated by positive values of  $e_{\rm obs}(t_{\rm crit})$  –  $e_{\rm cbs}(t_2)$ indicated by positive values of  $\varepsilon_{\text{cls}}(t_{\text{crit}}) - \varepsilon_{\text{cbs}}(t_2)$ .

 $\mathbf{r}$ 

<sup>a</sup>Values assumed according to Annex D.<sup>2</sup> <sup>a</sup>Values assumed according to Annex D.<sup>2</sup> <sup>b</sup>Values deducted by the authors from data given in the reviewed literature. The 28 days value of  $f_{\rm cm}$ ,  $E_c$ , and/or  $f_{\rm c,eff}$  is calculated according to Table 3.1 in Reference 45 from one of these values provided i  $V_{\text{values}}$  deducted by the authors from data given in the reviewed literature. The 28 days value of  $f_{\text{max}} E_2$  and/or  $f_{\text{max}} E_3$  and/or  $f_{\text{max}}$  is calculated according to Table 3.1 in Reference 45 from one of these v estimated. Moreover, for cases where the tensile strength was measured by splitting tests, the splitting values have been converted to direct tension values according to Equations (5) and (6)<sup>46</sup> prior to the calculation estimated. Moreover, for cases where the tensile strength was measured by splitting tests, the splitting values have been converted to direct tension values according to Equations (5) and (6) the ralculation according to  $e_{\rm chs}(t_{\rm crit})$  –  $e_{\rm chs}(t_2)$  is calculated by subtracting TD from the measured free strain.  $\varepsilon_{\rm{cls}}(t_{\rm{crit}})$  –  $\varepsilon_{\rm{cls}}(t_2)$  is calculated by subtracting TD from the measured free strain.

 $fib$ 



TABLE 4 Verification approaches.



Note: The assumptions characterizing each approach are reported in bold.

considered in  $k_{Temp} = 0.9$  for simplicity reasons. Taking this into account and manipulating Equation  $(4)$ , the following relation between  $E_c(t_2)$ , AD, and  $\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit})$  is obtained:

$$
\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit}) = C_1[E_{\rm c}(t_2)] + C_2[E_{\rm c}(t_2) \cdot \Delta \text{AD}], \quad (10)
$$

where

$$
C_1 = R_{\text{ax},1} \frac{\text{TD}}{1 + \chi \varphi_{\text{st}}},\tag{11}
$$

$$
C_2 = R_{\text{ax},1} \frac{1}{1 + \chi \varphi_{\text{st}}},\tag{12}
$$

 $C_1 > C_2$  are positive coefficients (in the cooling phase) which stay constant between the first and the second approaches. This means that  $\sigma_1(t_{\text{crit}})$  changes according to how  $E_c$  and  $\Delta$ AD vary between the approaches, and that  $E_c$  has a greater weight in the stress production.

Assuming a monotonous increasing development of AD in the cooling phase, the following is expected:

- For  $t_{2exp}$  <2 days, the second approach gives higher values of  $E_c$  and lower values of  $\Delta AD$  than the first approach. We thus expect higher stress in the second approach, almost proportional to the  $E_c$  increase, which in turn depends on  $t_{2exp}$  and on the exponential development of  $E_c$ .
- For  $t_{2exp} > 2$  days, the second approach returns lower values of  $E_c$  and higher values of  $\Delta AD$  than the first approach. We thus expect lower stress in the second approach.

The third approach evaluates the influence of the modeled AD on the stress development in hardening concrete. To do so, the first approach is modified to consider experimental values of AD.

The fourth approach evaluates the influence of the assumed  $\alpha_{\rm cth}$  on the stress development in hardening concrete. To do so, the first approach is modified to consider experimental values of  $\alpha_{\rm cth}$ .

In the fifth approach all input parameters are experimentally determined.

The mentioned approaches were chosen to investigate the key parameters involved in the production of  $\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit})$ . In fact, assuming the first approach as reference, the second approach studies  $t_2$  (or better  $E_c(t_2)$ ), the third AD, the fourth  $\alpha_{\rm ch}$  (hence TD), and the fifth FD.

#### 3.3 | Results and discussion

In this section, SM is applied to the reference database according to the five approaches. The results are shown in Figures 4–8 and Table 5.

The figures show the ratio  $(\theta)$  between the stress calculated according to the approach considered and the corresponding experimental value for each test data. For  $\theta > 1$  ( $\theta < 1$ ), the approach overestimates (underestimates)  $\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit})$  and  $R_{\rm cr}$ .

Table 5 reports the average value  $(\mu_{\theta})$  and the standard deviation  $(s_{\theta})$  of  $\theta$ , calculated according to the five approaches for each investigation and institute.

#### 3.3.1 | The first approach

Considering the whole database, the first approach predicts  $\sigma_1(t_{\text{crit}})$  very well in average, but with high  $s_\theta$  (0.43), evident in Figure 4 especially for results coming from HU and UTokyo.

The stress of the tests conducted at NTNU is slightly underestimated by this approach ( $\mu_{\theta} = 0.87$ ), yet the distribution is satisfactory ( $s_\theta = 0.24$ ). In Figure 4, tests NTNU01\_03\_20%SF  $(\theta = 0.22)$  and NTNU04\_02\_70%







FIGURE 5 Calculated-to-experimental-stress ratio  $(\theta)$  of the tests included in the reference database according to the second approach. The approach overestimates (underestimates) the experimental stress for  $\theta > 1$  ( $\theta < 1$ ). The tests are grouped in investigations (listed in the upper part of the figure), which are in turn arranged according to the institute they belong to. The reference institutes are separated by vertical dotted lines.









Fourth approach ( $\alpha_{\rm cth}$  experimental)

FIGURE 7 Calculated-to-experimental-stress ratio (θ) of the tests included in the reference database according to the fourth approach. The approach overestimates (underestimates) the experimental stress for  $\theta > 1$  ( $\theta < 1$ ). The tests are grouped in investigations (listed in the upper part of the figure), which are in turn arranged according to the institute they belong to. The reference institutes are separated by vertical dotted lines.



#### Fifth approach (experimental)

FIGURE 8 Calculated-to-experimental-stress ratio  $(\theta)$  of the tests included in the reference database according to the fifth approach. The approach overestimates (underestimates) the experimental stress for  $\theta > 1$  ( $\theta < 1$ ). The tests are grouped in investigations (listed in the upper part of the figure), which are in turn arranged according to the institute they belong to. The reference institutes are separated by vertical dotted lines.

GGBFS ( $\theta = 0.41$ ), respectively from Bjøntegaard<sup>21</sup> and Schwenk<sup>27,28</sup> investigations, stand out for being overly underestimated. This is most probably due to the high content of supplementary cementitious materials (SCMs) of the mixes (plus the low  $w/b = 0.23$  of NTNU01\_03\_20%SF), that yield to experimental values of AD of two orders of magnitude greater than those given by Equation (7). The approach seems thus unable to predict this strong AD production.

The first approach results give good agreement with tests from TU, both in terms of average and distribution. However,  $\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit})$  measured for the HU tests is completely overestimated ( $\mu_{\theta} = 1.78$  and  $s_{\theta} = 0.40$ ). The high scatter is mostly due to the investigation by Shen et al.  $(2020)$ ,  $34$ conducted on tests with increasing GGBFS addition, while the high average value is due to both the HU investigations. Figure 4 shows that  $\theta$  decreases with increasing SCMs presence but in this case, SM greatly overestimates the stress for all the tests, especially HU01\_01\_OPC  $(\theta = 2.59)$  and HU01\_02\_20%GGBFS ( $\theta = 1.99$ ).

This trend recurs for the IWHR tests, with high  $\mu_{\theta} = 1.30$  but acceptable  $s_{\theta}$ . The tests are performed on FA concrete, with a constant 35% amount of FA in the investigation by Xin et al., $36$  and with increasing FA content in the one by Xin et al.<sup>37</sup> In this case,  $\theta$  decreases with increasing FA presence, but  $\theta$  is evidently

influenced by other factors as well, since it varies also when FA is constant.

The high dispersion of the UTokyo results is probably caused by tests UTokyo01\_04\_7.5%EA ( $\theta$  = 1.61) and UTokyo04\_02\_10%EA ( $\theta = 1.91$ ), including calcium sulfoaluminate as expansive agent. $41$  In fact, when excluding these cases,  $s_{\theta}$  is reduced from 0.40 to 0.19 for the UTokyo tests (Table 5).

The first approach can hence be considered satisfactorily accurate and in agreement with previous results by Reference 8, even though  $\theta$  decreases with increasing SCMs content, and the approach is not able to predict the stress of mixes with high amounts of SCMs. Moreover, Bjøntegaard (1999) and Cementa (2019)—the only investigations where  $w/b$  was changed—showed the tendency for  $\theta$  to decrease with decreasing w/b value. The data are however too limited to generalize this behavior.

#### 3.3.2 | The second approach

In the second approach  $t_2$  is assumed to be 2 days for all tests. Changing  $t_2$  affects  $E_c(t_2)$  and AD according to Equations (4) and (7), with  $E_c$  having greater weight in the stress evaluation (see section3.2). Moreover, the stress calculated by the second approach is expected to be

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TABLE 5 Average value and standard deviation ( $\mu_\theta$  and  $s_\theta$ , respectively) of  $\theta$  calculated according to the five approaches for each investigation and institute.

			1st approach		2nd approach		3rd approach		4th approach		5th approach
Institute	Investigation	$\mu_{\theta}$	$S_{\theta}$	$\mu_{\theta}$	$S_{\theta}$	$\mu_{\theta}$	$S_{\theta}$	$\mu_{\theta}$	$S_{\theta}$	$\mu_{\theta}$	$S_{\theta}$
NTNU (Norway)	Bjøntegaard (1999)	0.80	0.26	0.84	0.30	0.99	0.07	0.80	0.24	0.99	0.07
	Klausen (2016)	1.00	0.14	0.99	0.14	1.00	0.08	0.91	0.12	0.91	0.07
	Cementa (2019)	1.07	0.08	1.04	0.08	1.01	0.08	0.99	0.07	0.96	0.07
	Schwenk (2022)	0.69	0.27	0.67	0.24	0.82	0.17	0.72	0.27	0.87	0.22
	VPI (2023)	0.69	0.09	0.68	0.08	0.79	0.07	0.66	0.06	0.77	0.06
	<b>Total</b>	0.87	0.24	0.88	0.25	0.95	0.12	0.83	0.21	0.93	0.12
TU (China)	Tao and Weizu (2006)	1.05	0.15	1.20	0.18	0.97	0.05	1.05	0.15	0.97	0.05
	Zhu et al. (2020)	0.92	0.15	0.70	0.12	0.85	0.10	0.92	0.15	0.85	0.10
	<b>Total</b>	0.97	0.16	0.89	0.28	0.90	0.10	0.97	0.16	0.90	0.10
HU (China)	Shen et al. (2020a)	1.79	0.55	1.66	0.62	1.79	0.45	1.01	0.15	1.01	0.06
	Shen et al. (2020b)	1.78	0.13	1.54	0.11	1.72	0.12	1.16	0.05	1.10	0.05
	<b>Total</b>	1.78	0.40	1.60	0.45	1.75	0.33	1.09	0.13	1.06	0.07
IWHR (China)	Xin et al. (2018)	1.13	0.13	0.90	0.09	1.01	0.14	0.87	0.10	1.01	0.14
	Xin et al. (2022)	1.57	0.21	1.11	0.16	1.01	0.20	1.21	0.21	1.01	0.20
	<b>Total</b>	1.30	0.27	0.99	0.16	1.01	0.17	1.01	0.23	1.01	0.17
UTokyo (Japan)	Lim et al. (2009)	1.18	0.28	1.18	0.28	1.02	0.14	1.18	0.28	1.02	0.14
	Ou et al. (2021)	0.84	0.05	0.76	0.10	0.95	0.19	0.84	0.05	0.95	0.19
	Ou et al. (2023a)	0.59	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$	0.68	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$	0.88	$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$	0.59	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$	0.88	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$
	Ou et al. (2023b)	1.46	0.45	1.69	0.40	1.02	0.04	1.46	0.45	1.02	0.04
	Total	1.10	0.40	1.14	0.44	0.99	0.14	1.10	0.40	0.99	0.14
<b>Total</b>		1.12	0.43	1.04	0.40	1.07	0.33	0.96	0.26	0.97	0.13

higher (lower) than that predicted by the first approach for  $t_{2exp}$  <2 days ( $t_{2exp}$  >2 days).

Figure 5 shows that changing  $t_2$  does not impact significantly the stress calculated for the tests conducted at NTNU, HU, and UTokyo. However, it significantly increases the scatter for the TU tests ( $s_{\theta}$  is 0.28 from 0.16). This is because  $\mu_{\theta}$  of the two TU investigations is respectively increased from 1.05 to 1.20 and decreased from 0.92 to 0.70 by the second approach, compared to the first one. The results are as expected since  $t_{2\text{exp}}$  <2 days (1 day in average) for the tests by Tao and Weizu,<sup>32</sup> and  $t_{2exp} > 2$  days (6.25 days in average) for the tests by Zhu et al. $33$  Conversely, the approach predicted the tests performed at IWHR with much better average and  $s_\theta$  than the first ( $\mu_\theta$  is now 0.99 from 1.30 and  $s_\theta$  is 0.16 from 0.27).

The second approach provided expected results for all the tests included in the database, with significant difference from the first approach only when  $E_c$  varied more than 25% between the approaches, regardless of how much  $\triangle$ AD changed. This showed that  $t_2 = 2$  days can be assumed also for mixes with initial strong AD development, without modifying the accuracy of the method, as long as  $1 < t_{2exp} < 3.4$  days (corresponding to the  $E_c$  limits). This recommended time range is not centered at 2 days due to the exponential nature of the E-modulus development function, whose rate influences the range width: more slowly  $E_c$  develops, the wider the range, and vice versa.

### 3.3.3 | The third approach

The first approach was not able to evaluate the stress of mixes with high amounts of SCMs, probably due to limits of the AD model (Equation 7) for mixes with cement types different than CEM  $I<sup>49</sup>$  Moreover, many authors in the literature (e.g.,  $^{20,21,45,50-52}$ ) reported the inadequacy of current AD models for tests performed under varying temperature conditions, which is always the case at early ages. The third approach thus uses experimental values of AD as input to SM to evaluate the accuracy of Equation (7). It must be highlighted that EC2 recommends using equivalent age (maturity) in Equation (7) to



FIGURE 9 Measured and modeled (calculated by Equation 7) AD development of test NTNU03\_01\_OPC. Contraction is assumed positive.

consider the effects of varying temperature on AD. Maturity data were however provided only for some of the NTNU tests,  $20,22-31$  so to have homogeneous and comparable results, real time was used in Equation (7) for all the test results included in the reference database. Nonetheless, Figure 9 shows that Equation (7) is not able to predict the AD development even for test NTNU03 01 OPC (first test of the Cementa (2019) investigation) in which the equivalent time was used and the first approach returned accurate results.

Figure 6 and Table 5 show that the third approach has better accuracy than the first approach, especially in terms of  $s_{\theta}$  (0.33 from 0.42). This holds true especially for mixes with high SCMs content—tests NTNU01\_03\_20% SF ( $\theta$  is 0.97 from 0.22) by Bjøntegaard<sup>21</sup> and NTNU04\_02\_70%GGBFS  $(\theta$  is 0.65 from 0.41) by Schwenk<sup>27,28</sup>—or with expansive agent—tests UTokyo01\_04\_7.5%EA ( $\theta$  is 1.19 from 1.56) by Lim et al.<sup>38</sup> and UTokyo\_04\_02\_10%EA ( $\theta$  is 0.98 from 1.91) by Ou et al. $41$ 

However,  $\sigma_1(t_{\text{crit}})$  still tends to decrease with increasing SCMs content, and the approach continues to not properly evaluate the stress for the HU tests.

An explanation to the first matter is that SCMs influence the whole concrete hydration chemistry, not only AD, and the current models (e.g., Equation 7) are based on Portland cement behavior. Hence, it could be expected that their accuracy decreases with increasing SCMs content in the mix.<sup>2</sup> Also, SCMs especially influence the heat evolvement of a concrete mix and hence its semiadiabatic temperature history, under which the tests in the current database have been performed. This means that Equation (7) has even more difficulty in modeling the AD development of SCMs mixes under their

semi-adiabatic temperature conditions, because of the coupling with the temperature variation.

Regarding the HU tests stress prediction, it should be remembered that AD produces EAC together with TD, which usually has a bigger role. $^{21}$  In this regard, the HU tests show very low experimental values of  $\alpha_{\rm ch}$ (Table 3), thus lower experimental values of TD than those calculated by SM. This affects the HU results much more than the inaccuracy of the AD model. This is also one of the reasons why  $\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit})$  of test NTNU03\_01\_OPC was accurately predicted by the first approach even though Equation (7) was not able to predict its AD development.

#### 3.3.4 | The fourth approach

In the fourth approach, experimental values of  $\alpha_{\rm cth}$  ( $\alpha_{\rm exp}$ ) are used as input to SM, instead of assuming  $\alpha_{\rm ch} = 10 \times 10^{-6} \degree \text{C}^{-1}$  (the  $10^{-6} \degree \text{C}^{-1}$  part is omitted in the following for clarity reasons).  $\alpha_{\rm exp}$  was not provided in the literature for tests performed at TU and UTokyo. A value of 10 was hence assumed, making the fourth approach identical to the first for these tests.

The approaches are similar for the NTNU tests, with  $\alpha_{\rm exp}$  values close to 10. Conversely, very low values of  $\alpha_{\rm exp}$ (Table 3) were reported for the HU tests (in average 6.10), with values of 4.38 and 5.58 for tests HU01\_01\_OPC and HU01\_02\_20%GGBFS, respectively, whose stress is adequately predicted by the fourth approach but not by the first ( $\theta$  is now 1.17 and 1.14, from 2.59 and 1.99). Also significant is the difference between the approaches for the IWHR tests ( $\mu$ <sub>0</sub> = 1.01 from 1.30).

A reason for this behavior could be that the assumption  $\alpha_{\rm ch} = 10$  in SM was based on European experience<sup>2</sup> which differs in terms of materials and traditions from the Asian one.<sup>53,54</sup>

The fourth approach shows that it is better to use  $\alpha_{\rm exp}$ when available. If this is not possible, the assumption  $\alpha_{\rm cth}$  = 10 in SM can be made considering that what actually influences  $\sigma_1(t_{\text{crit}})$  is TD =  $\alpha_{\text{cth}}\Delta T$ , so the  $\alpha_{\text{cth}}$ assumption shall consider the variation of  $\Delta T$ .

In this regard, Figure 10 showed that the stress of the IWHR tests varied between the first and second approach even with moderate values of  $\Delta T$  (between 6.50 and 15.70 $\degree$ C). Conversely, the NTNU test prediction did not change much regardless of the  $\Delta T$  value. This means that for European mixes  $\alpha_{\rm cth} = 10$  can be safely assumed regardless of the  $\Delta T$  value, but this results overly conservative for Asian mixes even in cases of low  $\Delta T$  values. Based on the current database,  $\alpha_{\rm ch} = 7$  can be safely assumed for Asian mixes if  $\alpha_{\text{exp}}$  is not available.



FIGURE 10  $\Delta T = T_{\text{c,max}} - T_0$  of the tests included in the reference database. The tests are grouped in investigations (listed in the upper part of the figure), which are in turn arranged according to the institute they belong to. The reference institutes are separated by vertical dotted lines.



FIGURE 11 Accuracy of the five approaches in terms of  $\mu_{\theta}$  – 1 and  $s_{\theta}$ . The accuracy increases if  $\mu_{\theta}$  – 1 and  $s_{\theta}$  tend to zero. For  $\mu_{\theta}$  –  $1>0(\mu_{\theta}-1<0)$  the approaches overestimate (underestimate) the stress development and hence the cracking risk. The values are shown for the total reference database and for the tests performed at NTNU, HU, and IWHR, for which  $\propto_{\exp} \neq 10^{-5} {\degree}C^{-1}$ .

## 3.3.5 | The fifth approach

In the fifth approach, only experimentally determined inputs are used, leading to very good accuracy ( $\mu$ <sub>0</sub> = 0.97 and  $s_{\theta} = 0.13$ ) for the total database.

Figure 11 shows the variation in accuracy between the five approaches. Values of  $\mu_{\theta}$  – 1 and  $s_{\theta}$  are presented

for the total database and for the tests performed at NTNU, HU, and IWHR, for which  $\alpha_{exp} \neq 10$ . The optimum is reached for  $\mu_{\theta}$  – 1 and  $s_{\theta}$  equal to zero. According to the figure, the accuracy increases with increasing approach number in terms of  $s_{\theta}$ , but the second approach is the second with the best accuracy in terms of average.

This can be explained by associating the accuracy of each approach to how much their key parameter contributes to  $\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit})$ . Assuming the first approach as reference, the second approach is related to  $t_2$  (or better  $E_c(t_2)$ ), the third to AD, the fourth to  $\alpha_{\rm ch}$  (or better TD), and the fifth to FD. Except for the second approach, the parameters are substituted with their experimental values in the other approaches. The accuracy of each approach related to the first, thus represents the accuracy of the parameter's model or assumption, and the influence of the parameter in the stress build-up.

Looking at Equation  $(4)$  and Figure 11, the highest accuracy (compared to the first approach) of the fifth approach means that FD is the parameter that contributes more to  $\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit})$ , as expected, since FD is the driving force of the stress build-up process. FD is the sum of AD and TD, but AD alone influences  $\sigma_1(t_{\text{crit}})$  less than TD, as showed by the accuracies of the third and fourth approaches. However, the sum of these two approaches accuracies (related to the first approach) is lower than the fifth approach accuracy, meaning that the way AD and TD combine to form FD needs further study to clarify the relation between the two parameters.

It is also worth mentioning that the fourth and fifth approach, despite their good accuracy, in average underestimate  $\sigma_1(t_{\text{crit}})$  and thus  $R_{\text{cr}}$ . This is probably due to the stress assumptions in SM, which affect among others the creep development model. The underestimation is however not severe and is balanced by the 0.8 coefficient in Equation (1).

In the second approach, the assumption about  $t_2$  leads to variations in  $E_c(t_2)$  and AD. An assumed value of  $t_2$ , and consequently a somewhat assumed value of  $E_c(t_2)$ and AD, are used in this approach. Hence, contrary to the results in Figure 11, we expect the second approach to show lower accuracy than the first, where  $E_c(t_2)$  and AD are instead measured. Moreover, the second approach shows contradictory accuracies in terms of average and standard deviation. This makes the interpretation of the second approach more complex than the others, so three cases are considered:

- a. The assumption about  $t_2$  affects only AD, so  $E_c(t_2)$  $=E_c(t_{2exp})$ . In this case,  $\mu_\theta = 1.14$  and  $s_\theta = 0.40$  for the whole database.
- b. The assumption about  $t_2$  affects only  $E_c(t_2)$ , so AD is calculated as in the first approach. In this case  $\mu_{\theta} = 1.03$  and  $s_{\theta} = 0.41$  for the whole database.
- c. The assumption about  $t_2$  affects both AD and  $E_c(t_2)$ . This is the current second approach, with  $\mu_{\theta} = 1.04$ and  $s_\theta = 0.40$  for the whole database.

Only case (a) shows expected accuracy values (lower than the first approach). Instead, cases (b) and (c) have very similar accuracy, proving that  $E_c$  is the key parameter of the second approach, but higher than the first approach.  $E_c(2$ days) was estimated by the authors for most of the tests,

TABLE 6 Input parameters used in SM for the Civaux walls and calculated

cracking risk  $(R_{cr})$ .

since insufficient data were provided in the literature to calculate  $E_c(2 \text{ days})$  with the EC2 model. The unexpected accuracy found for the second approach could therefore just be a coincidence produced by this estimation.

Nevertheless, Figure 11 and the discussion above highlighted that  $E_c$  contributes to the stress production more than AD and less than FD (approach with the best accuracy), but it is not clear whether  $E_c$  contributes more or less than TD. Still, according to the results presented in the current paper, SM looks able to capture and explain with reasonable simplicity and good accuracy the mechanisms and relations between the parameters involved in the early-age stress build-up.

# 4 | FIELD VERIFICATION

In this section, SM is applied to some well documented field cases on restrained concrete elements. The cases are briefly described, while the related input parameters for SM and the calculated  $R_{cr}$  are collected in Tables 6–8 and discussed at the end of the section.

#### 4.1 | Field cases

#### 4.1.1 | Case of the Civaux walls

During the construction of the Civaux nuclear power plant, two reinforced concrete walls were built to evaluate the risk of cracking of the containment at early ages.<sup>55</sup> The walls were 1.2 m wide, 1.9 m high, 20 m long, and were made with two different concrete mixes—an ordinary concrete (OC) and a high-performance concrete  $(HPC).$ <sup>11</sup>



Note: The walls have same geometry, but are made with different concrete mixes—an ordinary concrete (OC) and a high performance concrete (HPC).

Abbreviation: SM, simplified method.



TABLE 7 Input parameters used in

SM for the Bjørvika double-wall structure and calculated cracking risk  $(R_{cr})$ .

Note: The walls are made with different concrete mixes—a high performance concrete (SV 40) and a low heat concrete.

Abbreviation: SM, simplified method.

TABLE 8 Input parameters used in SM for beam RG8 studied in the CEOS project and calculated cracking risk  $(R_{cr})$ .

Calculated <sup>11</sup> 0.55 $R_{ax,1}(-)$ $\alpha_{\rm cth} (\times 10^{-6} {\rm \degree C^{-1}})$ Measured <sup>57</sup> 12 Measured <sup>57</sup> $t_2$ (days) $\mathfrak{D}$ Measured <sup>57</sup> $t_{\rm crit}$ (days) $\mathbf{3}$ Provided in $E_c(t_2)$ (MPa) 39,000 Reference 11 Measured <sup>57</sup> $53 - 21.5 = 31.5$ $T_{\text{c,max}} - T_0$ (°C) Provided in 0.83 $k_{\text{Temp}}$ Reference 11 $\varepsilon_{\text{cbs}}(t_{\text{crit}}) - \varepsilon_{\text{cbs}}(t_2)$ (-) Provided in $1.0E - 0.5$ Reference 11 $\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit})$ (MPa) 4.5 Calculated by SM Provided in $f_{\text{ct eff}}(t_{\text{crit}})$ (MPa) 4.6 Reference 11 <b>Calculated by SM</b> $R_{cr}(-)$ 1.22	Input parameter	R <sub>G</sub> <sub>8</sub>	<b>Notes</b>

Abbreviation: SM, simplified method.

Thermocouples were embedded at various locations to follow the temperature evolution of the walls (Figure 12).

## 4.1.2 | Case of the Bjørvika walls

As part of the Bjørvika submerged tunnel project in Norway, a double-wall test structure (Figure 13) was built to evaluate the cracking risk at early ages of the low-heat concrete to be used in the tunnel.<sup>56</sup>

The structure consisted of two reinforced walls 2 m high, 1 m wide, and 15 m long, made of two different



FIGURE 12 Geometry of the Civaux walls and locations of the embedded thermocouples. The dimensions are in cm.<sup>55</sup>

concrete mixes—a high performance concrete with 0.42  $w/b$  (SV 40) and a low-heat concrete with 0.46  $w/b$ , 36% FA and 5% SF (as percentage of binder weight). The walls were cast on a 2-week-old slab made with SV 40.

Vibrating wire strain gauges were embedded in two sections of the walls (Figures 13 and 14), to measure both temperature and strain. Mechanical properties and AD development were measured through parallel laboratory testing.<sup>56</sup>

#### 4.1.3 | Case of the CEOS project beam

In the French national research project CEOS, $57$  massive I-shaped beams composed of a central part (5.1 m long, 0.5 m wide, and 0.8 m high) and two massive heads (0.9 m long, 2.2 m wide, and 0.9 m high) were tested (Figure 15) Two steel struts (diameter 32.4 cm and thickness 5.5 cm) were placed laterally between the heads to prevent almost all FD. The mentioned configuration



FIGURE 13 Geometry of the Bjørvika double-wall test structure.<sup>56</sup> The red lines represent the sections of the walls with embedded strain gauges.



FIGURE 14 Middle cross-section of the double-wall structure and positioning of the strain gauges. Dimensions in mm.<sup>56</sup>

The specimen was fully instrumented, with thermocouples, vibrating wire extensometers on the struts and in the concrete, and electrical strain gauges on the reinforcement. From the strain measured on struts and reinforcement, it is possible, through elastic analysis, to exactly know the force in the struts and reinforcement, and to calculate that in the concrete by balancing the forces.

Mechanical properties and AD development were measured through parallel laboratory testing.<sup>57</sup>

## 4.2 | Discussion

Table 6 presents the input values for SM and cracking risk of the Civaux walls. Both the used concretes show  $R_{cr} > 1$ , but with large difference between them, meaning that higher damage is expected with higher  $R_{cr}$ . This result is confirmed by the experimental crack pattern (Figure 17). The largest  $R_{cr}$  (OC) provided the highest number of cracks and the largest crack widths. This was expected since HPC was designed to have lower temperature increase (hence lower TD, see Table 6) than OC.

The same occurred for the Bjørvika test walls (Table 7), with the SV 40 concrete showing higher  $R_{cr}$ and higher damage than the low-heat one.<sup>56</sup>

Note that in the Bjørvika and CEOS cases (Table 8) the structures cracked even though  $\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit}) < f_{\rm ct, eff}(t_{\rm crit})$ . This can be due to the assumptions of SM, but also to the numerous measuring difficulties in the field and the inhomogeneity of the concrete. In fact, in the CEOS case, the experimental stress was lower than  $f_{\text{ct,eff}}(t_{\text{crit}})$ . Buffo-Lacarrière et al. $57$  attributed this matter to various causes: the scale effect of tensile strength, $58,59$  the presence of dead weight and of a high number of sensors which produced a non-homogeneous stress profile in the central





section of the restrained beam, the temperature gradient in the section during hydration, and creep-induced micro damage.



FIGURE 16 Reinforcement of beam RG8. The cover is 30 mm (50 mm for longitudinal rebars). $57$ 

Moreover, Figure 18 shows that the average experimental-failure-stress-to-experimental-tensile-

strength ratio of the cracked TSTM specimens included in the current database is 0.81, instead of being greater than 1. This means that the measured failure stress is in average approx. 20% lower than the tensile strength, and that this deviation cannot be attributed to the inaccuracies of SM.

This is most probably due to different test conditions in the test methods used to measure  $f_{\text{ct,eff}}(t_{\text{crit}})$  and  $\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit})$ .<sup>8,33,36</sup> The tensile strength can be measured by direct tension or splitting tests (converted into direct tensile strength values in this paper). In both cases, virgin, relatively small specimens are rapidly loaded until failure. On the other hand,  $\sigma_1(t_{\text{crit}})$  is measured in the TSTM, where the specimen (measuring length up to 1500 mm, see Table 1) is subjected to sustained loading from an



FIGURE 17 Crack pattern of OC (at the bottom) and HPC (at the top) walls on site (Ithurralde, 1989). The cracks are represented by a straight line. Eight major cracks have been noticed for the OC ( $1 \times 40 \mu m + 4 \times 100 \mu m + 2 \times 200 \mu m + 1 \times 500 \mu m$ ). One major crack has been noticed for the HPC ( $1 \times 100 \mu m$ ).<sup>55</sup> HPC, high-performance concrete; OC, ordinary concrete.



Failure stress / tensile strength

FIGURE 18 Experimental failure stress/tensile strength ratio of the tests included in the reference database. The tests are divided in two series according to whether they cracked or not, and are grouped in reference institutes separated by vertical dotted lines.

early age until final testing. Under sustained loading, tertiary creep damage $60$  can occur, decreasing the failurestress-to-tensile-strength ratio both in compression $61-65$ and in tension. $66,67$  Furthermore, microcracking is generated due to temperature variations and displacement adjustments to keep  $R_{cr}$  constant, resulting in fatigue and internal damage accumulation,  $36$  hence decreasing  $\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit})$ .

Another parameter contributing to the premature failure of the TSTM tests is a possible eccentricity of the load applied by the  $TSTM$ , $^{8}$  which is more significant than that occurring during the measurement of  $f_{\text{ct,eff}}(t_{\text{crit}})$  due to the different specimen dimensions. The eccentricity effect on  $\sigma_1(t_{\text{crit}})$  has been investigated by Reference 33 at TU, where the multi-TSTM system allowed to parallelly measure both stress and strength in two identical TSTM rigs, so that the asymmetry effects on  $\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit})$  and  $f_{\rm ct\,eff}(t_{\rm crit})$ were identical. The study concluded that the eccentricity was not the primary cause of lower failure stress.

The lower cracking stress is hence a product of sustained loading, tertiary creep, and temperature variations occurring during the stress-build-up process and must be accounted for in the evaluation of  $R_{cr}$ . In the case of Annex  $D<sub>1</sub><sup>2</sup>$  this is considered by the coefficient 0.8 in Equation (1). Alternatively, CIRIA  $CT66<sup>3</sup>$  recommends to replace  $f_{\text{ct,eff}}(t_{\text{crit}})$  with the characteristic tensile strength, equal to 0.7 times the average tensile strength recommended by Reference 2.

# 5 | CONCLUSIONS

The Annex D of the new EC2 includes a simplified method (SM) to estimate the stresses generated when the deformations of concrete are restrained by boundary conditions. In this paper, SM was verified against laboratory tests performed in various TSTMs, and three field cases of restrained real structures at early ages.

In the laboratory verification, SM was applied according to five approaches considering different available inputs (assumed, measured, or modeled). In the field verification, SM was used to calculate the cracking risk  $(R_{cr})$ of the structures with the available inputs.

The stress  $(\sigma_1(t_{\text{crit}}))$  calculated by SM for the TSTM tests was compared to the experimental stress for each approach, and  $R_{cr}$  of the structures was related to the observed crack pattern, leading to the following considerations pertaining the current database:

• The accuracy of SM varies depending on the type of available inputs and on the accuracy of the models used to describe them. However, it is in general very good, especially when experimentally determined inputs are used.

- The fourth and fifth approaches slightly underestimated  $\sigma_1(t_{\text{crit}})$  and hence  $R_{\text{cr}}$ , despite their good accuracy. This is probably due to the SM stress assumptions, that are however balanced by the 0.8 coefficient in Equation (1). SM can thus be safely adopted.
- The method tended to give lower  $\sigma_1(t_{\text{crit}})$  with increasing SCMs content. This is because SCMs influence the whole chemistry of hardening concrete, moving away from the behavior predicted by current Portland-based models. It is hence easily expected that their accuracy decreases the more SCMs the mix contains. It is therefore recommended to update the models implemented in SM, so that they can describe SCMs-based mixes especially under varying temperature conditions which are always the case at early ages.
- The SM can capture and explain with reasonable simplicity the mechanisms and relations between the parameters involved in the stress build-up during early ages. The accuracy of each approach gives in fact an indication of how much the parameters contribute to the stress. The most important is the FD, the driving force of the phenomenon. FD is the sum of TD and AD, with TD contributing more than AD to the stress. It is thus of interest to further investigate how AD and TD combine to form FD. The stiffness of the concrete element, represented by the E-modulus, contributes to  $\sigma_1(t_{\rm crit})$  more than AD and less than FD, but it was not possible to determine its relationship with TD due to lack of data in the current database.
- The calculated  $R_{cr}$  well indicated the extent of the damage in the field cases, with higher  $R_{cr}$  corresponding to more severe damage.
- Three out of five studied structures cracked even for stress values lower than the tensile strength, and the failure stress of the failed TSTM tests was in average 20% lower than the tensile strength. The difference does not seem to be related to SM but it was attributed to measuring difficulties on site, inhomogeneous nature of concrete, and different test conditions in the test methods used to measure the stress and the strength in the laboratory (size effect, sustained loading, tertiary creep, temperature variations).

#### DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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