



NUMERICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL ANALYSIS OF LOAD FAILURE AND DISPLACEMENTS FOR SMALL WALLS OF CONCRETE BLOCKS

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a comparison between experimental and numerical analysis of concrete block small walls (Wallets) under compression loads. The main goal of the study is to simulate the behavior of the walls based on the behavior of blocks and mortar joints using a numerical non-local damage model specially developed for quasi-brittle materials. First, blocks and mortar specimens are submitted to compression tests in order to evaluate damage parameters values. Then, Wallets built with the same blocks and mortar are also tested to evaluate their behavior. All tests are carried out with displacement control in order to obtain the complete load-displacement diagram for the specimens: the initial linear behavior, the failure load and the post-peak softening regime. After the experimental program, numerical models are developed for analyzing blocks, mortar specimens and Wallets. Eight-node brick finite elements with secant stiffness matrix are used and the load is applied by displacement control, achieving the complete load-displacement diagram. Obtained results show that the non-local damage model considered in this paper is able to predict not only the load and the displacement at the failure point but also the softening in the post-peak regime of the Wallets.

KEYWORDS: structural masonry, small walls, compression, damage model.

INTRODUCTION

Damage numerical models can be pivotal to evaluating the non-linear behavior of some structural elements. When assessing brittle materials, damage-based procedures may be indispensable to simulate the medium loss of rigidity due to micro-cracks formation, which can lead it to failure. Kachanov [1] was perhaps the first to have mentioned the damage concept as it is currently known. Another important contribution can be ascribed to Rabotnov [2], who proposed a damage variable that could be used to reduce initial rigidity and the strength of the material. Recently, after the formalization of the so-called Continuum Damage Mechanics (Lemaitre and Chaboche [3]), the development of this research field was quick and varied. It is noteworthy that for this study the damage mechanics applied to brittle materials, for instance structural masonry, is especially important.

About the importance of the study presented here, it is worth highlighting that some codes, for instance the new Brazilian masonry code, adopt the structural masonry strength based on small walls (also called Wallets) strength. Therefore, the numerical evaluation of the Wallet behavior based on its components behavior, units and mortar, is a very interesting way to obtain important information about the masonry behavior itself. Obviously, if this knowledge is obtained based only on experimental results for the masonry components this procedure will save a significant amount of time and money.

EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM

The experimental program was accomplished at the Department of Structural Engineering of University of São Paulo (USP). The tests were carried out both on masonry components, blocks and mortar specimens, and on Wallets built with the same components.

The hollow concrete blocks had a nominal strength of 4.5 MPa and the dimensions were 140, 190 and 390 mm (width, height and length), Figure 1a. The cylindrical mortar specimens dimensions were 50 and 100 mm (radius and height), Figure 1b. Two mortar mix proportions, in volume, were considered: 1:0.5:4.5 (Type ii of BS 5628 1992 [4]) and 1:1:6 (Type iii of BS 5628 1992 [4]).



Figure 1: Components: a) Concrete blocks; b) Mortar specimens

All the axial compression tests for components and Wallets were performed in order to obtain the complete force-displacement curve for the specimens, in other words, the behavior of the specimens from the initial loading stage until the complete failure of the material. Therefore, a hydraulic servo-controlled press under displacement control at $1 \mu\text{m/s}$ was used. Despite the fact that the press had an internal displacement control, four additional devices for displacement measurement (LVDT) were also used in all the performed tests, see Figure 2.



Figure 2: Additional devices for displacement measurement: a) Block; b) Mortar specimen; c) Wallet

In order to characterize the units, eight concrete blocks were tested. From the obtained load-displacement diagrams it was possible to define a representative behavior for the units. Figure 3 demonstrates all of the obtained results for the blocks and the adopted block diagram that will be used for all the numerical Wallet models, as can be observed in details in a following section.

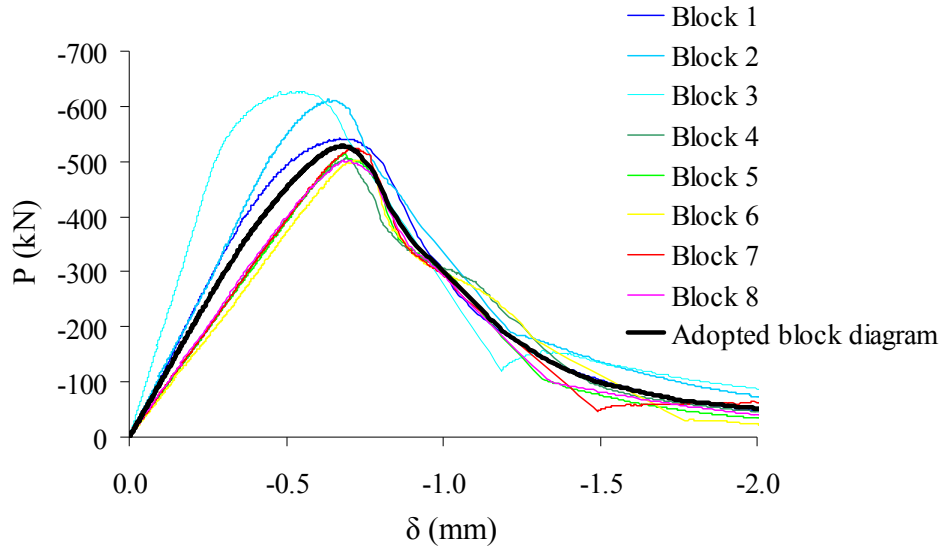


Figure 3: Load-displacement diagrams for the units

Six Wallets were tested under axial compression. Three of them were built using the BS 5628 type ii mortar and the other ones with the type iii mortar. For all of the Wallets the mortar bed joint was 10 mm thick. The complete load-displacement diagrams were obtained for all the Wallets in order to facilitate comparing them to those obtained numerically. The obtained diagrams are presented in a following section, where the numerical and experimental results are compared.

It is worth noting that for each tested Wallet a mortar specimen was taken to be considered representative of the Wallet mortar joint. Each one of those mortar specimens was also tested in order to obtain the complete load-displacement diagram. Those diagrams will be used to obtain the damage parameters for the mortar, which can be seen in detail in a following section. In fact, the cylindrical mortar specimen prepared in a steel mould does not capture the in-situ properties of the mortar bed joint. However, this type of specimen was adopted because it is a standard test and one of the aims of the present research project was the validation of the proposed procedure considering only standard tests for the masonry components.

DAMAGE MODEL

The numerical analysis performed in the present paper is based on a damage model procedure originally developed by Papa and Taliercio [5]. This model was adapted by Ramalho et. al. [6] and implemented in the FEAP® program [7]. The obtained local damage procedure is reliable and efficient for evaluating the stress-strain behavior from the initial loading stage until the peak load of the structural element, especially when it is submitted to loadings in which the compression is the main effect.

However, the numerical local damage procedure, considering brittle materials under a non-constant strain field and using finite elements analysis, usually leads to a strong strain localization. It means to obtain spurious results and strong mesh sensitivity (Jirásek [8]). Typically, the inelastic strains are concentrated in an element or in narrow bands of elements, whereas the major part of the structure is nearly unstrained. As a consequence, it is impossible to evaluate the complete load-displacement diagram, especially for the softening region, i.e. from the peak load to the complete failure of the material.

Considering these numerical problems, the damage procedure was changed and a non-local damage model based on a strain averaging procedure was implemented. In this case the strains at each point are calculated by means of a weighted averaging over a spatial neighborhood of the point (Ramalho et al. [9]).

Obviously, it is not the main goal of this paper to discuss in detail the damage model used in the numerical analysis. However, some of the model's features are explained in order to show the main parameters that should be considered. Hence, it is important to mention that the damage phenomena are macroscopically taken into account through a symmetric, second-order tensor D . In finite form, the nonlinear stress-strain law of the material reads:

$$\varepsilon = C(D) \sigma \quad (1)$$

where $C(D)$ is the fourth-order flexibility matrix of the damaged material that depends on the damage tensor D .

The eigenvalues and the normalized eigenvectors of the damage tensor will be denoted by D_α and \mathbf{n}_α ($\alpha = I, II, III$), respectively. Any one of the planes of damage-induced orthotropy is somehow associated to a plane micro-crack that forms in the solid. Once any damage direction is activated, its orientation is supposed to remain fixed throughout the rest of the stress history.

The damage process driving variable is supposed to be an equivalent strain measure, $y = \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon^2$. As the maximum eigenvalue of y attains a critical value; y_{0T} or y_{0C} , according to the sign of the associated strain; the first damage direction (\mathbf{n}_I) is activated. An additional damage direction, \mathbf{n}_{II} , can be activated in the plane orthogonal to \mathbf{n}_I if the maximum direct component of y , that is, $y_{hh} = \mathbf{n}_h \cdot (y \cdot \mathbf{n}_h)$, with $\mathbf{n}^h \perp \mathbf{n}_I$, attains the damage threshold. The third possible damage direction is necessarily $\mathbf{n}_{III} = \mathbf{n}_I \wedge \mathbf{n}_{II}$.

Neglecting creep-induced damage, each principal value of the damage tensor is supposed to evolve according to the law:

$$D_\alpha = 1 - \frac{C_H}{1 + A_H \langle y_{hh} - y_{0H} \rangle^{B_H}}, \quad \alpha = I, II, III. \quad (2)$$

Here, $\langle * \rangle$ are McAuley brackets and A_H , B_H and C_H are material parameters, which take different values according to the sign of the strain component that activates damage ($H=T$ for tension; $H=C$ for compression).

It is worth mentioning that in the initial stages of the loading, before any damage direction is activated, the material can be considered as elastic-linear and in this case the Young's modulus and the Poisson coefficient are also necessary.

Besides the local damage parameters, it is also pertinent defining the spatial neighborhood of the point so that is possible to consider the non-local damage procedure. This spatial region is usually a sphere, characterized by its radius. In this paper its radius is adopted as the smallest value for which the numeral procedure does not present strain concentration, i.e. mesh dependency effects.

Basically there are two procedures to verify the event of strain concentration in the analysis. First, the load-displacement diagram presents a clear discontinuity just after the peak load. Second, the number of iterations increases suddenly for the load step just after the load peak and sometimes it is not even possible to reach the convergence value. On the other hand, if the strain concentration phenomenon is not present, then the load-displacement diagram does not present any discontinuity and there is not a significant difference between the number of iterations for the several load steps of the analysis.

DAMAGE PARAMETERS

Initially, finite element meshes were assembled for the concrete block and the mortar specimens, Figure 4. Displacements were restrained according X, Y and Z axes, both at the top and at the bottom of the meshes, while the displacements that simulated the test loading scheme were applied parallel to the Z axis at the top of the model. Four-noded tetrahedra finite elements were adopted for the mortar specimens meshes while eight-noded hexahedra finite elements were used for the block mesh. The number of elements was 663 and 1608, respectively, for the mortar specimens and for the block.

The Young's modulus (E) and Poisson coefficient (ν) were adopted taking only into account the obtained values of the experimental program for each component. However, the damage parameters A_c , B_c and C_c , see Equation 2, were evaluated so that the numerical diagram of a component, block or mortar specimen, would be as similar as possible to the experimental load-displacement diagram obtained for the same component. Note that for the block the adopted block diagram, shown in Figure 3, was considered, while the six mortar specimens had their own diagram to be considered.

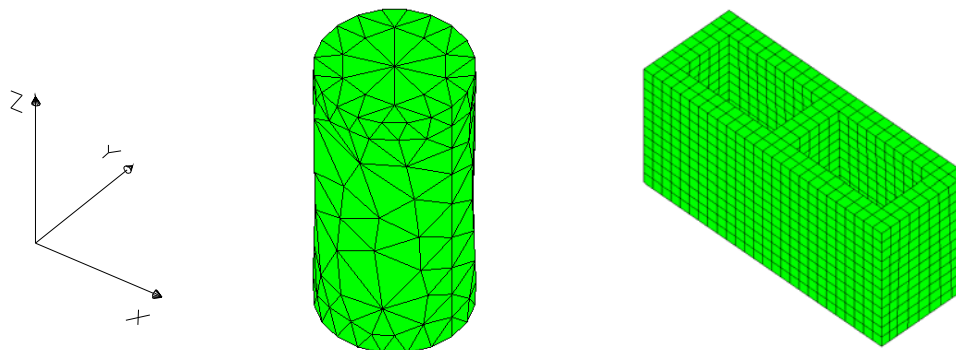


Figure 4: Finite element meshes: a) Mortar specimen; b) Block

After assessing the local damage parameters it was possible to evaluate the spatial neighborhood radius (r_{nl}) for considering non-local damage. As previously described, in this paper this radius was considered as the smallest value for which the numeral procedure does not present strain concentration.

Table 1 presents the obtained parameter values for the block and the mortar specimens used to build the Wallets. It is relevant to mention that the mortar specimens M1, M2 and M3 can be classified as type ii and specimens M4, M5 and M5 were type iii (BS 5628 1992). Additionally, it is also important to highlight that the mortar specimen “Mi” was representative of the bed joint of the Wallet “Wi”.

Table 1: Damage parameters for components

Parameter	Block	Mortar					
		M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6
E (N/mm ²)	6700	5660	3400	3150	3530	4410	3500
A_c	8.75E+09	9.68E+04	2.62E+05	1.86E+05	2.15E+05	1.44E+05	1.84E+05
B_c	2.00	0.87	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.90	1.00
C_c	1.00	1.00	1.20	1.30	1.00	0.90	1.00
y_0	1.0E-15	1.0E-10					
r_{nl} (mm)	150	30					
ν		0,20					

In order to exemplify the appearance of the experimental and numerical diagrams, Figure 5 illustrates the obtained results for the block and Figure 6 presents the results for the mortar specimens. The numerical diagrams were obtained using the parameters shown in Table 1 and they will be used to model the Wallets presented in the following section.

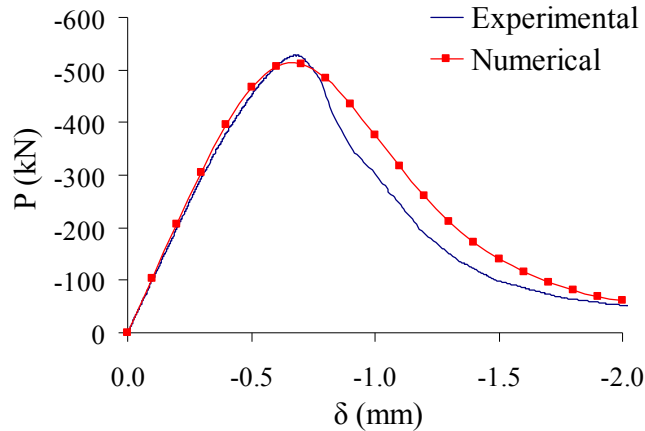


Figure 5: Load-displacement diagram for the representative block

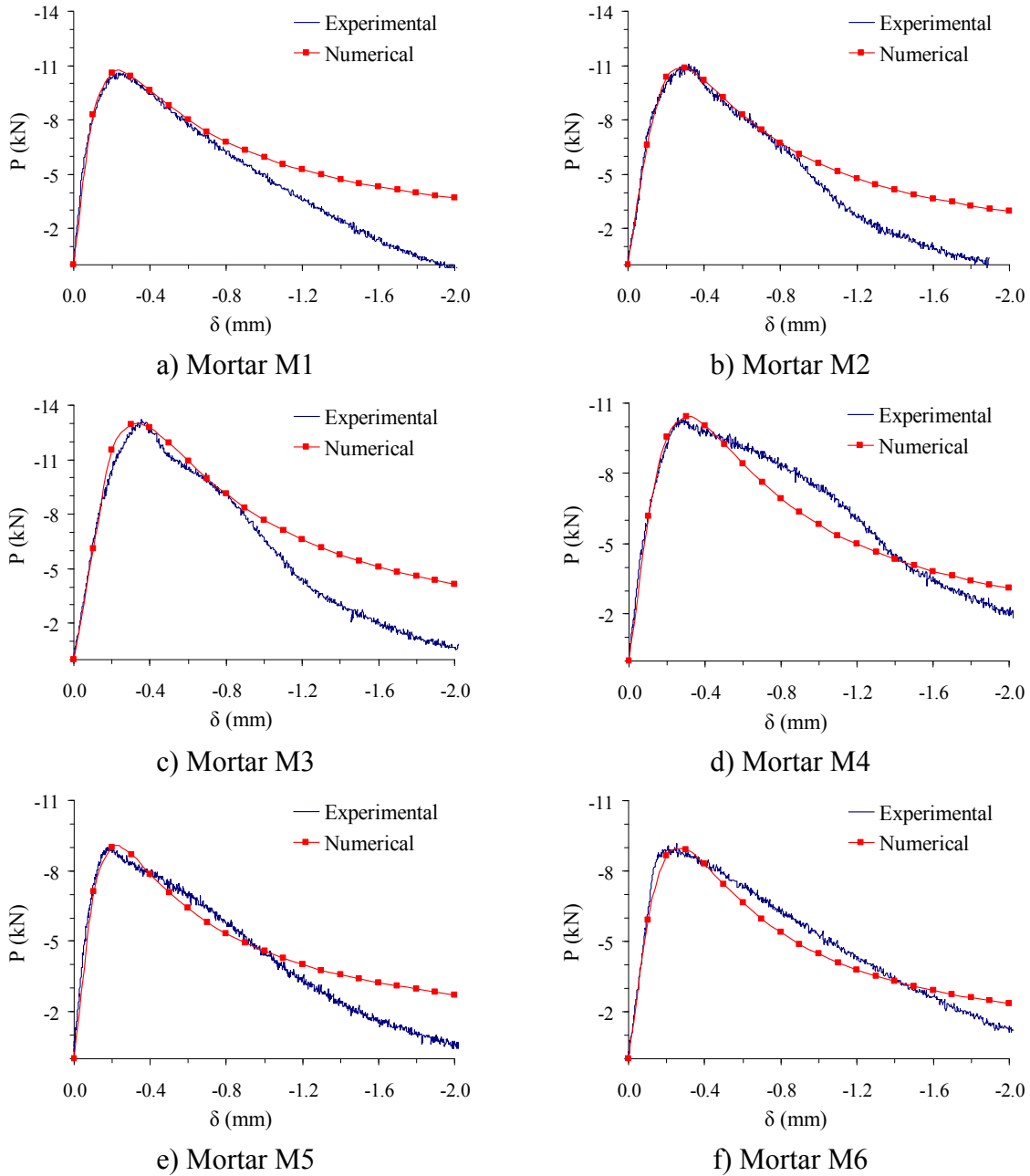


Figure 6: Load-displacement diagrams for the mortar specimens

OBTAINED RESULTS FOR THE WALLETS

The assembled mesh for the Wallets had 8908 eight-noded hexahedra finite elements and is shown in Figure 7. The parameters shown in Table 1 for the block and the respective mortar were used to model each Wallet. Similarly to the mortar specimen and the block models, displacements were restrained according X, Y and Z axes, both at the top and at the bottom of the meshes, while the displacements that simulated the test loading scheme were applied according to the Z axis at the top of the model.

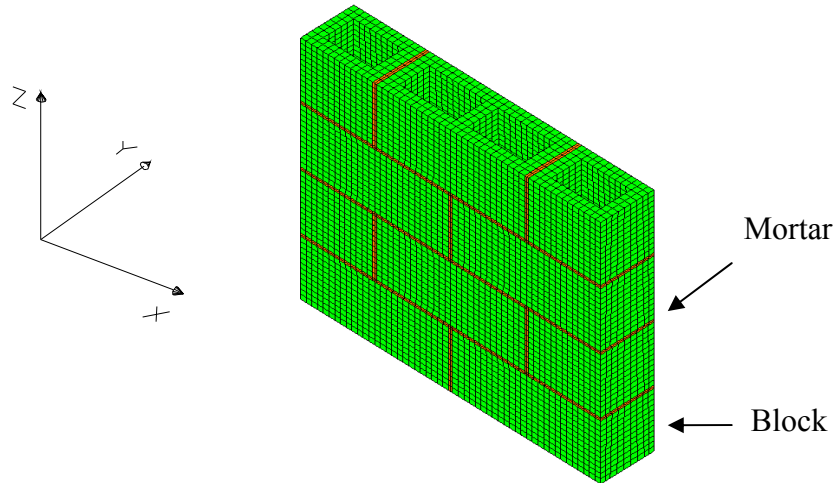


Figure 7: Finite element mesh for the Wallets

Table 2 shows the maximum loads and displacements at maximum load obtained through the numerical model and the experimental program for all the tested Wallets. In this table it is possible to see that the numerical and experimental values are in fact quite close for most of the cases, presenting a maximum difference of 26.4% between the foreseen numerical value and the measured experimental value. However, for the Wallets W1, W3, W4 and W6 the values were almost identical, with the difference between experimental values and numerical foreseen around 5%. When the average values are considered the difference between numerical and experimental values is only -2.2%. Table 2 also shows the displacement at the maximum load. In this case it is possible to observe that the foreseen obtained by the numerical procedure is always less than the obtained experimental values. The maximum difference is 35.9% for the Wallet W4, while for the Wallet W5 the difference is only 2.2%. The average difference is also quite good, 14.4%.

Table 2: Maximum load and corresponding displacements for the Wallets

Small Wall	Maximum Load			Displacement at maximum load		
	Num (kN)	Exp (kN)	Diff. %	Num. (mm)	Exp. (mm)	Diff. %
W1	509.3	530.8	-4.1	2.00	2.48	-19.4
W2	512.6	696.4	-26.4	2.00	2.21	-9.5
W3	613.0	580.3	5.6	2.50	2.68	-6.7
W4	509.4	480.9	5.9	1.25	1.95	-35.9
W5	441.2	380.0	16.1	1.75	1.79	-2.2
W6	414.5	398.4	4.0	1.75	2.03	-13.8
Average	500.00	511.13	-2.2	1.88	2.19	-14.4

Another significant point to be highlighted is the aspect of the obtained load-displacement diagram from the initial loading stages until the complete failure of the Wallets. Figure 8 shows the mentioned diagrams obtained by means of experimental program and numerical model for the six tested Wallets. It is possible to deduce that the aspect of the numerical and experimental

diagrams is similar for most of the Wallets. For some of them, for instance Wallets W2, W3, W5 and W6, the aspect is almost identical.

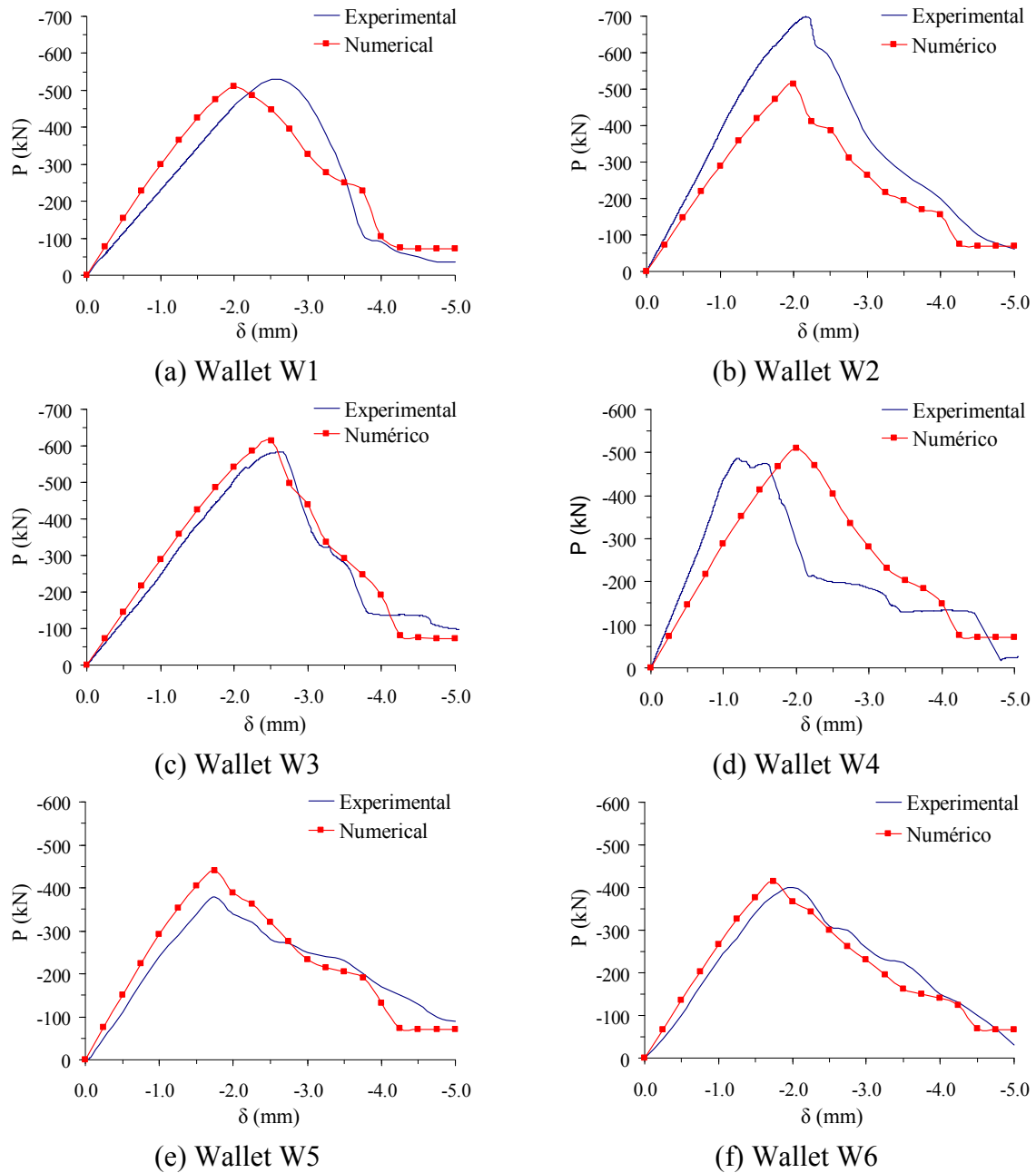


Figure 8: Numerical and experimental load-displacement diagrams for the Wallets

CONCLUSIONS

The main conclusion is that considering only the parameters obtained by means of the experimental program for its components, i.e. blocks and mortar specimens, it was possible to evaluate numerically the behavior of the Wallets under compression with good accuracy.

Actually, the used non-local numerical model is able to predict different stages of the load-displacement diagram, from its elastic-linear stage until the complete failure of the material. Especially the maximum compressive load and its correspondent displacement can be evaluated with reasonable precision, demonstrating that the proposed numerical procedure is efficient and reliable to model structural masonry under compression.

Based on the obtained results, it seems clear that the described numerical procedure can be used to evaluate the strength of the structural masonry provided the behavior of the block and the mortar are known in advance.

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