FRACTURE STUDIES ON SYNTHETIC FIBER REINFORCED CELLULAR CONCRETE USING ACOUSTIC EMISSION TECHNIQUE

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ABSTRACT

Cellular lightweight concrete (CLC) is increasingly used for low strength non-structural and 14 structural applications. The effects of synthetic fiber reinforcement on the fracture behavior of 15 CLC is investigated. In particular, acoustic emission (AE) technique is employed to study the 16 influence of macro (structural), micro polyolefin synthetic fibers and their combinations on the 17 18 fracture behavior of CLC beams. Notched fiber reinforced CLC beams were tested to study the 19 crack initiation and propagation characteristics using AE sensors. Different AE parameters are 20 correlated with the crack growth and damage accumulation. An attempt has been made to 21 correlate the crack mouth opening displacement (CMOD) with the number of AE hits. The 22 variation of cumulative acoustic energy release of the cracks is studied with respect to applied 23 load and CMOD. Three dimensional source location of cracks is carried out based on the AE 24 events picked by the sensors bonded to the CLC specimens. The analysis of AE results indicates that the crack source location identification from AE is consistent with the actual crack 25 development. Analysis of AE signals reveal that the CLC matrix cracking produces signals 26 27 with less number of hits that lie in the notched plane in bending. Moreover, the signals from 28 the post peak regime correspond to more number of hits which tend to be scattered around the 29 plane of notch due to the fiber pull out.

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31 Keywords: Acoustic Emission; Crack propagation; Fracture Behavior; Health Monitoring;

32 Hybrid Fibers; Non-destructive testing; Polyolefin fibers;

33 1. INTRODUCTION

Cellular lightweight concrete (CLC) is increasingly used in various low strength structural and 34 non-structural applications due to its properties like low density, termite resistance, high 35 thermal and acoustic insulation [1]. CLC is widely used in infill masonry construction, soil 36 stabilisation, solid fills for hollow aluminium doors and window frames, thermal insulation on 37 roof slabs, and in tunnel linings [2], [3]. Moreover, CLC can be classified as sustainable and 38 39 green building material due to the usage of high volume of fly ash during the manufacturing process [4]. The low carbon footprint involved in manufacture of CLC makes it an eco-friendly 40 41 building material. However, the low tensile strength and brittle nature of CLC raises concerns 42 when subjected to flexure, tensile and shear loading and limits its different applications.

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44 Usage of synthetic fiber as a reinforcement in cellular concrete has increased in the recent years due to its ability to transform the brittle behavior of CLC into ductile under various modes 45 of testing such as compression, flexure, tension, shear and impact [5]. Fiber reinforced CLC 46 47 (FRCLC) is one such special concrete which has enhanced toughness, better composite behavior, durability and impact resistance compared to their unreinforced counterpart [6], [7]. 48 Improvement of mechanical properties of high performance concrete by addition of synthetic 49 fiber reinforcement has been confirmed by many researchers [8]-[12]. Although steel fibers 50 have superior mechanical properties compared to that of synthetic fibers, they decrease the 51 52 workability and creates a balling effect at higher dosage. On the other hand, structural synthetic 53 fibers, being non-corrosive and malleable, have gained attention in the recent years. They are also used for reinforcing cementitious materials to control the crack propagation and improve 54 55 the overall structural performance [8], [9]. Synthetic plastic fibers used in this study are not green and a sustainable mateiral. Use of natural fibers may be a sustainable option. 56 Nevertheless, the fiber volume fraction used in this study is very minimum of up to 0.55%. 57

This is relatively a low proportion compared to the volume of the matrix. In addition, recycled 58 plastic wastes can also be used as fiber reinforcement in CLC. Besides, the synthetic fibers 59 used in this study have well defined mechanical properties, which the natural fibers and other 60 recycled fibers lack. Therefore, to reduce the variability in the experimental program, synthetic 61 fibers with relatively low dosages are used. Polyolefin fibers used in this study comes under 62 the category of synthetic fibers. They are manufactured in two different types (a) Mono-63 64 filament and (b) fibrillated. Monofilament fibers have constant cross sectional area along its length. Fibrillated fibers are produced as films or tapes which can transform like net when 65 66 mixed with concrete. Synthetic Polyolefin fibers can also be classified as micro or macro (structural) fibers. Micro-synthetic fibers are typically 12 mm long and 0.018 mm in diameter. 67 Macro ones are typically longer (40 to 50 mm) and larger (0.3 to 1.5 mm) in size. Better 68 69 bonding characteristics is now possible by the virtue of surface improvement on the fiber. Low 70 density, better corrosion resistance and chemical inertness makes synthetic fibers a better choice for FRC when compared to the steel fibers. However, the low modulus of elasticity of 71 72 synthetic fibers restricts them to be used as primary reinforcement. Nevertheless, these fibers 73 can be used for special applications like cold storage walls, slab on-grade, ballast less subgrade track, tunnel linings and non-load bearing precast partition walls in high rise framed structures/ 74 load bearing walls of appropriate thickness in low rise buildings [13]. Therefore, it is important 75 to understand the effect of fiber reinforcement on the fracture behavior of CLC to increase its 76 77 wide spread usage.

Fracture parameters for CLC has been investigated in the past [14]. Indirect tensile strength, strain softening and fracture energy of different types of aerated autoclaved concrete (AAC) has also been reported [15]. Crack nucleation is a phenomenon where cracks at micro scale coalesce to from a macro crack, which eventually leads to the failure of concrete under flexure. The three dimensional region where this process happens is referred to as fracture process zone (FPZ) [16]. In particular, acoustic emission (AE) technique is used to quantitatively assess the crack growth in structural elements by correlating it with the AE hits encountered. It can be argued that the pores in the cellular concrete can hinder the propagation of elastic waves emanating from the crack source, thereby weakening the signal strength. This is true in case of porous concrete materials where the matrix media is predominantly disconnected. Whereas in cellular concrete material, the pore structure is disconnected. This makes the CLC medium continuous and does not hinder the wave propagation.

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91 Attempts have been made in the past to qualitatively define the damage accumulation in concrete using acoustic emission (AE) technique [17]. Berthelot et al. [18] performed 92 frequency analysis on concrete specimens to identify AE events by deducing its spectrum from 93 94 detected signal. Sause and Stefan [19] modelled AE crack source using finite element 95 modelling approach which calculates the dynamic displacement field during crack formation. Landis and Shah [20] conducted experimental study on flexural behavior of mortar beams to 96 97 evaluate micro-crack parameters using AE technique. They found that the predominant mode of fracture in micro-cracks of mortar is mode II. Recent study has confirmed that AE activity 98 99 increases with the amount of steel fiber reinforcement [21]. Qualitative fatigue crack 100 classification on reinforced concrete beams was studied by Noorsuhada et al. [22]. Two indices 101 of AE parameters were used and the relationship indicated the transition of crack mode 102 corresponding to the damage development. Hu et al. [23] conducted fracture tests on notched 103 concrete beams and illustrated that AE technique can be employed effectively to determine the 104 crack propagation until the complete failure of specimen. In addition, they also noted that AE 105 technique could help in obtaining the initial fracture load and unstable load at a slow loading rate. Cracking due to corrosion has been detected and located [24]–[30] using AE technique. 106 107 Aggelis et al. [31] conducted the shear and tensile fracture test on cementitious materials by 108 altering the loading equipment. It was observed that different modes of fracture process can be 109 identified using AE technique. Aldahdooh and Bunnori [32] tested reinforced concrete beams 110 under flexure and showed that the initial level of damage was associated with the tensile mode and gradually shifted towards shear mode of failure with increase in damage levels. The test 111 results from AE technique has also been verified by researchers [33]–[35] using digital image 112 correlation (DIC) technique. The focus of this investigation is to understand the fracture 113 114 behavior of FRCLC under flexure. Notched FRCLC specimen were tested under three-point bending configuration with AE sensors attached on the surfaces. Generally, the AE sensors can 115 116 range from 5 kHz upto 2000 kHz. Studies from past reveals that for studying normal concrete narrow band sensors are sufficient. However, since the CLC material has been investigated 117 using AE sensors for the first time, the authors wanted to make sure that, any higher frequency 118 119 wave is not eliminated by the use of only narrow band sensors. Finally, the analysis of the 120 results shows that the average frequency lies in the range of 50kHz to 350kHz. Therefore, usage of two different kind of sensors results in overlap of frequency range of 200kHz with a 121 122 difference of ±50kHz. Crack formation modes can be distinguished into shear and tensile modes based on the two methods viz., Parameter based method and simplified Green function 123 for moment tensor analysis (SiGMA) procedure [36]. 124

In the recent years, continuous monitoring of structures in-service has been highlighted 125 around the world. Thus, development of non-destructive evaluation (NDE) techniques for the 126 127 inspection of concrete structures is currently in high demand. Varieties of innovative NDE techniques are actively under development in concrete engineering, which are closely 128 associated with fracture mechanics. Fracture in a material takes place with the release of stored 129 130 strain energy, which is consumed by nucleating new external surfaces (cracks) and emitting elastic waves. The latter phenomenon is defined as acoustic emission (AE). The elastic waves 131 propagate inside a material and are detected by an AE sensor. By analyzing the detected signals, 132

more useful information associated with the damage location and extent of internal damage can be assessed successfully. Thus, the AE technique can be a viable non-destructive and reusable tool compared to the conventional mechanical testing for health monitoring. In this way, the authors believe that with proper calibration and in-depth scientific reasoning, AE technique can be an indispensable tool for non-destructive evaluation of new sustainable materials such as fiber reinforced CLC explored in this study.

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140 2. RESEARCH SIGNIFICANCE

141 Number of investigation in the past have focused on understanding the behavior of fiber reinforced concrete using AE technique. However, the acoustic emission behavior of fiber 142 reinforced CLC has not been adequately investigated in the past. To fill in the existing 143 144 knowledge gap, the current study aims at the following: (i) study the fracture parameters of 145 fiber reinforced CLC material under flexure, (ii) qualitative analysis of various AE parameters for the corresponding crack initiation and propagation in CLC, (iii) quantification of damage 146 147 accumulation by studying the crack growth against the cumulative acoustic emission counts and (iv) identification of fracture process zone (FPZ) using AE source location and 148 differentiating the type of failure modes by correlating AE parameters with crack mouth 149 opening displacement (CMOD). 150

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152 **3. EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM**

153 **3.1. Materials**

The material ingredients used for casting CLC consisted of ordinary Portland cement (OPC), class F-flyash, potable water and foaming agent (Table 1). Design mix proportions used for achieving a characteristic density of $950 \pm 20 \text{ kg/m}^3$ are given in Table 1. Water-binder ratio is kept constant at 0.38, considering the fly ash also acts as binder. Fiber dosage of 5 kg/m^3 is

kept as the upper value based on the observed stress strain behaviour under compression. For 158 a particular batch of specimen, the amount of fiber is added in addition to control mixture 159 proportion. For instance, the addition of fiber for 0.55% volume fraction is 5kg of fibers per 160 cubic meter of concrete. The volume fraction of fiber is very less compared to the total volume 161 of the mix. Therefore, the impact of addition of fiber in the mix proportion volume was found 162 to be negligible on workability. CLC mix used in this study does not have any aggregates. The 163 164 mix contained only cement, fly ash, foaming agent, water and different dosages of fibers. Therefore, the mix remained in liquid state even after adding fibers. Patty tests showed the 165 166 spread was more than 500 mm even at addition of higher fiber dosages of 0.55%. CLC mix 167 used in the study flowed into the moulds like self-compacting concrete and remained unaffected by addition of fibers. It showed equally good mobility into the moulds even after 168 169 addition of high volume of fiber dosages. Improved workability tests like slump flow test and 170 flowability test on CLC with different fiber dosages would be interesting and are scope for further work. 171

172 Fly ash procured from national thermal power plant corporation (NTPC) is used in the CLC mix. It had a minimum of 20% of fines for obtaining the optimum strength to weight ratio. 173 Organic content and other impurities in the fly ash were found to be within tolerance limits. 174 Siliceous fly ash of class F is used and its basic chemical composition is provided in Table 2. 175 176 OPC 53 grade is used in the preparation of CLC mix. For early demolding of CLC blocks, high 177 early strength cements can also be used as suggested by IS 2185 Part 4 [37]. However, it has been observed that slower the hardening rate, the better will be the final quality of CLC blocks. 178 The addition of fly ash serves as an economical substitute for cement, reduces its shrinkage, 179 180 and slows down the hardening rate of the mix. Keeping in view of all these requirements, OPC is used with the fly ash in the ratio of 1:3. 181

TABLE 1. List of proportions (kg/m³) in Design Mix

Component	Cement	Flyash	Water	Foam
Proportion (kg/m ³)	277	715	277	1.4

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TABLE 2. Basic chemical composition of Class F fly ash

Component	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	CaO	Fe ₂ O ₃	MgO	Alkalies	Organic impurities
Proportion (%)	50-60	24-27	6-8	10-13	1	1.5	3-4

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187 Maintaining the stability of foam is essential for achieving the desired density of CLC mix and to have a closed pore structure. Protein hydrolyzed foaming agents impart the desired 188 characteristics to the foam generated. For the purpose of this study, a commercially available 189 190 foaming agent was used. Foaming agent and water was mixed in a ratio of 1:40 and fed into 191 foam generator to achieve a density of 70g/litre of the pre-formed foam. The volume fraction of foam in the mix is 16% of the total volume. Total volume of the pores in the CLC is 35%. 192 193 Care has to be taken that the water or foaming agent should not come into contact with oily/waxy agents due its harmful effect on the surface tension of water. This could destroy the 194 pore structure of CLC mix, thereby reducing the stability of the foam. Oil/wax used for coating 195 196 the moulds will have no effect on the CLC mix, as the foam will already get embedded in the 197 mortar at that stage.

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Test series with one control and seven different specimen series with different dosage of macro and hybrid-synthetic polyolefin fibers (Figure 1) were prepared. Properties of macro and micro fibers are given in Table 3. The plain concrete mix contains no fibers. FRCLC mix had macro (ma) polypropylene fiber contents equal to 0.22%, 0.33%, 0.44% and 0.55% respectively. Similarly, hybrid fiber (macro + micro(mi)) dosage consists of the following combinations 0.22% ma + 0.02% mi; 0.33% ma +0.02% mi and 0.44% ma + 0.02% mi,

respectively. Three beam specimens of dimension 600 mm x 200 mm x 150 mm were cast for 205

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each fiber dosage.
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(a) Macro fiber

Figure 1: Polyolefin fiber

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210	Auxiliary specimens like cylinders of dimension 200 mm height and 100 mm diameter were
211	cast in addition during casting process and tested to determine the behavior under compression.
212	Similarly, dog-bone shaped specimens were tested under uni-axial tension. Summary of
213	compression and tension test results is given in Table 4. Compression toughness index (CTI)
214	and tension toughness index (TTI) values were calculated from the area under stress-strain
215	curves from the respective tests. Therefore, the unit of TTI and CTI will be those of energy per
216	unit volume that is N-mm per cubic millimeter which turns out to be MPa. Complete details of
217	uniaxial compression and tension tests and results can be found elsewhere [8], [10].
218	

TABLE 3. Characteristics of the synthetic fibers

	Macro	Micro
Specification	Bi-component fiber	Inter-linked fiber
Length (mm)	50	19
Diameter (mm)	0.5	0.08
Density (g/cm ³)	0.91	0.91
Tensile Strength (N/mm ²)	618	400
Tensile Modulus (kN/mm ²)	10	4.9
Aspect ratio	100	237.5
Shape	Oval	Circle
Decomposition Temp (°C)	360	360

221 **TABLE 4.** Test Results of CLC under Compression and Tension with and without Fibers

Series	Mean CompressiveCTI (10-3MPa)SpecimenStrength (Standard Deviation) MPa		CTI (10 ⁻³ MPa)	Mean Tensile Strength (Standard Deviation) MPa	TTI (MPa)
Ι	Control	3.89(0.30)	6.99	0.13(0.37)	0.16
II	ma-0.22-mi-0.00	5.94(0.92)	47.20	0.21(0.32)	30.2
(only	ma-0.33-mi-0.00	6.16(0.98)	54.90	0.32(0.73)	47.9
macro)	ma-0.44-mi-0.00	6.58(0.52)	66.00	0.36(0.34)	58.1
	ma-0.55-mi-0.00	6.49(0.71)	63.50	0.44(0.18)	85.5
III	ma-0.11-mi-0.02	3.91(0.15)	57.55	-	-
(hybrid)	ma-0.22-mi-0.02	6.67(0.84)	68.27	0.28(0.14)	34.6
	ma-0.33-mi-0.02	8.39(0.90)	72.13	0.34(0.25)	52.5
	ma-0.44-mi-0.02	8.44(1.40)	78.46	0.41(0.25)	63.6

222 <u>Note:</u>

227

I. More details on compression and tension test results on CLC can be found in other paper of authors [8], [10]

II. ma- macro fiber; mi- micro fiber; 0.11, 0.22, 0.33, 0.44, 0.55 – volume fraction of fibers in
 %. CTI-Compressive toughness index, TTI- Tension toughness index.

228 **3.2. Test Setup**

229 Different codal provisions are available for determination of fracture energy of concrete

230 under flexure. RILEM committee report [38] has given recommendations for performing the

231 fracture test on notched concrete specimens under flexure. Based on these recommendations,

EN 14651:2005 [39] and JCI [40] standards has given test procedures for determination of

233 fracture parameters of concrete. For the purpose of this study, flexural testing was conducted

on notched beams as per the guidelines given in EN 14651:2005 [39]. CLC beams of size 600

 $235 \times 200 \times 150$ mm were tested in the three-point bending configuration. A notch of 50 mm depth and 5 mm width was introduced at the mid-span using a circular saw as per the guidelines given in EN 14651 [39]. The flexure test was conducted in a crack mouth opening displacement control mode at a rate of 0.05 mm/min. A photograph of the test setup is shown in Figure 2.

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240 **3.3. Fracture Energy**

Fracture energy (G_F) is the measure of energy absorbed by the specimen to undergo a unit area of crack formation through a predefined path. The area of crack is defined as the projected area on the plane parallel to main crack direction. The fracture energy of FRCLC were calculated using the guidelines provided in JCI-S-001-2003 [40]. The equations used for calculation of fracture energy are listed below.

246
$$G_F = \frac{0.75W_o + W_1}{A_{lig}}$$
 Equation (1)

247
$$W_1 = 0.75 \left(\frac{s}{L}m_1 + 2m_2\right) g. CMOD_C$$
 Equation (2)

248

where G_F=Fracture Energy (N/mm²); W_o= area below CMOD curve upto failure; W₁= work done by self-weight of specimen and loading jig; A_{lig}= Area of broken ligament; m₁= mass of specimen (kg); S= loading span (mm); L= total length of the specimen (mm); m₂= mass of jig not attached to testing machine but placed on machine until rupture (kg); g= gravitational acceleration (9.807m/s²); CMODc=crack mouth opening displacement at failure (mm)

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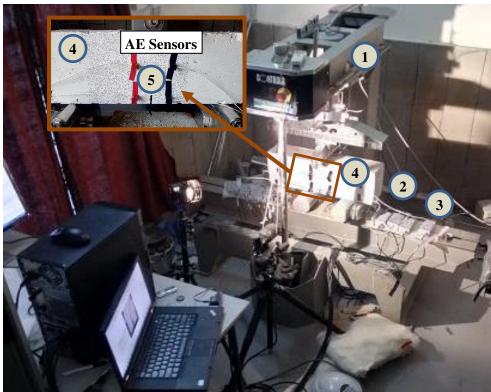
255 **3.4. Acoustic Emission Monitoring**

During the fracture test on notched specimens, four narrow band (50 kHz to 300 kHz) and four wide band (100 kHz to 1 MHz) AE sensors supplied by Physical Acoustics Corp. (PAC), USA were used. As far as the literature review done by authors is concerned, this study uses AE sensors to investigate the damage propagation in CLC for the first time. Therefore, two 260 types of sensors covering a wide spectrum of frequency is used in order to capture signals at large range of frequency. Analysis of AE data reveals that the average frequency of hits varied 261 from 50kHz upto 350kHz. These sensors were attached to the beams at the locations defined 262 by the coordinates given in Table 5. The test set-up along with the AE equipment is shown in 263 the Figure 2. A close-up of AE sensors and amplifier is shown in Figure 3. In addition, a 264 schematic of sensor placement is depicted in Figure 4. In this study, three dimensional 265 event/source location of damage is attempted. The preamplifier gain was set to 40 dB. After 266 performing a pilot test, the threshold was set to 40 dB in order to nullify the effect of 267 268 electronic/environmental noise. Calibration of sensors was performed before each test to ensure 269 proper bonding of the AE sensors to the surface. The signals were recorded in an eight-channel AE data acquisition (DAQ) card and the signals were recorded at a sampling rate of 5 MHz. 270 271 For the purpose of calibration, lead pencil break test were performed on different locations on 272 the surface of specimen. These calibration results showed the source location is within a range of 5% error. Therefore, the source location results remained less effected from the impedance 273 274 difference between the foam, fibers and the concrete matrix.

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- 276

TABLE 5. Co-ordinates of the AE sensors

TABLE 5. CO-ordinates of the AE sensors										
Sensor number	X-co-ordinate (mm)	Y-coordinate (mm)	Z-coordinate (mm)							
1.	175	0	50							
2.	175	0	150							
3.	275	0	50							
4.	275	150	150							
5.	175	150	50							
6.	175	150	150							
7.	275	150	50							
8.	275	150	150							



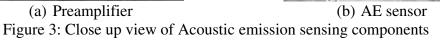
279 280 1. Controls Flexure Testing Machine 2. Notched FRCLC Specimen 3. Amplifier for AE Sensors 4. Positions of AE Sensors 5. Notch

Figure 2: Flexural Test Setup with Acoustic Emission Sensors









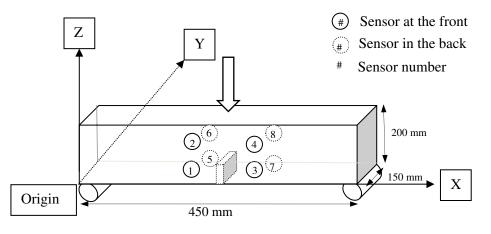


Figure 4: Schematic sketch for Acoustic Emission Sensor placement on notched FRCLC specimen

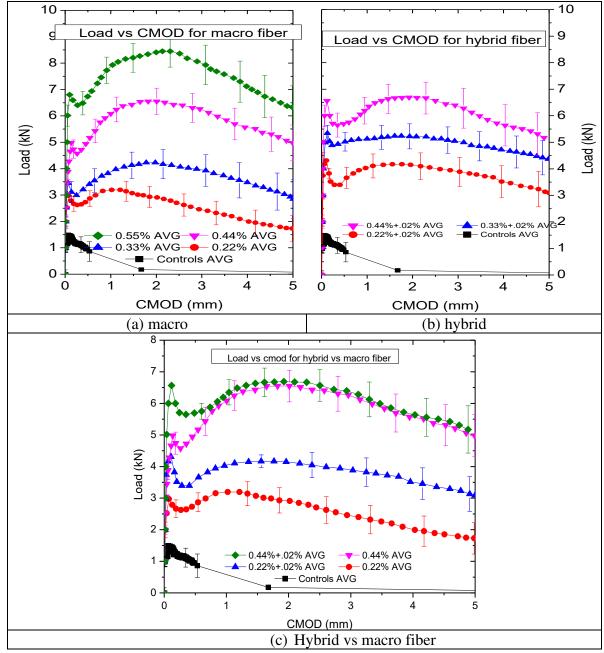
288 4. TEST RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

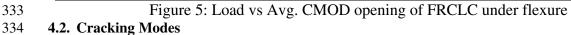
289 4.1. Flexural Fracture Test

The fracture properties state the structural contribution of the fibres in the load resistance of 290 CLC. Residual strengths obtained from fracture tests are typically used in the structural design. 291 The post-cracking properties are important to understand the efficiency of fibers in improving 292 293 the ductility of CLC. Figure 5 shows the load versus crack mouth opening displacement 294 response of notched FRCLC beams for different fibe dosages. Figure 5a and 5b shows the fracture behavior for CLC with macro and hybrid fibers, respectively. Upto the cracking of 295 concrete matrix, the fiber reinforcement increases the cracking load of fiber reinforced CLC. 296 297 After initiation of crack, the plain concrete exhibits decline in the load displacement response, whereas the fiber reinforced CLC performs better in terms of ductility and post-peak toughness. 298 When macro fibers are elongated and pulled out from matrix, the energy would be consumed 299 continuously in overcoming the interface strength between the fiber and the matrix resulting in 300 significant improvement of the ductility of CLC. The post cracking load resistance is from fiber 301 302 elongation followed by a combination of fiber pull-out and rupture. There is softening in the 303 load response immediately after the peak load due to significant cracking and loss of stiffness. In FRCLC specimens, there is an increase in the load carrying capacity with increasing crack 304 305 opening (Figure 5a and 5b). The load recovery after the first cracking is initiated at a smaller value of crack opening displacement and a higher resistance is achieved during the load 306 307 recovery with increase in the volume fraction of fibers. The increase in the residual load carrying capacity with increasing CMOD indicates that the macro synthetic fibers are efficient 308 309 in providing crack closing stresses with increasing CMOD. The test results are summarized in 310 Table 6. First cracking and peak loads increased with increasing fiber dosage. Moreover, the 311 difference between cracking and peak load increased in beams with macro fiber dosage with 312 increase in fiber dosage. However, the first cracking load increase in hybrid fiber reinforced

specimens and the difference between cracking and peak load reduced with increase in fiberdosage.

315 Hybrid combination of macro and micro fiber as reinforcing components could increase effectively the toughness and ability of CLC in resisting fracture. This is reflected in the load 316 317 vs CMOD curves (Figure 5c) that synergistic reinforcing effect between macro and micro fibers were good. This is due to the fact that hybrid fibers with different lengths and diameter played 318 319 their corresponding roles at different scales. In micro-crack phase (CMOD ≤ 0.1 mm), micro fiber can restrain crack development and restrict the propagation of micro-crack in matrix. In 320 321 macro-crack phase (CMOD > 0.1mm), micro fibers appeared to be less effective in controlling 322 the CLC matrix crack opening due to complete pull-out of micro fibers [41]. However, due to relative larger interface strength between macro fiber and CLC matrix, the efficiency of macro 323 324 fibers in arresting the structural/macro cracks would be higher. When macro fibers are 325 elongated and pulled out from the CLC matrix, the energy would be consumed continuously, and the ductility of CLC fiber reinforced composite improves significantly. When the total 326 327 fiber volume fractions are kept the same, the reinforcement effects of hybrid combination of macro and micro fibers is much better than the CLC specimens with only macro fibers. For 328 example, the addition of 0.02% of micro fibers with 0.4% macro fiber resulted in improvement 329 of 34% in fracture load. However, no difference in peak load was observed between hybrid and 330 331 macro fiber reinforced CLC (Table 6, Figure 5c).

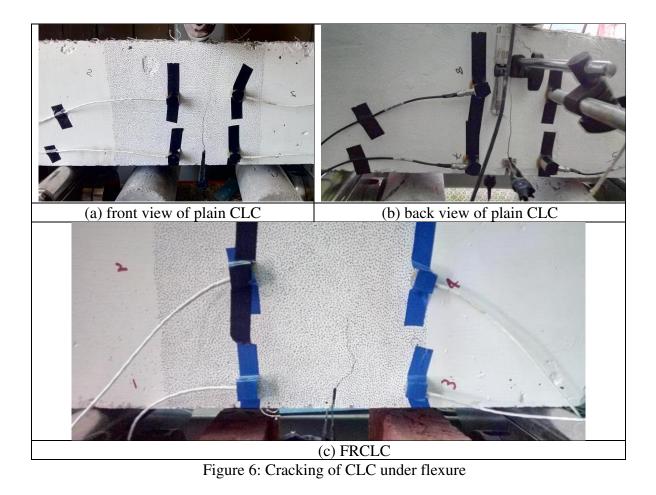




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Change in crack patterns with increase in fiber dosage at failure indicates the change in 335 336 failure mode. Figure 6 shows the visual crack opening modes of the tested specimens. Figure 6(a) and 6(b) shows the front and back view of visual crack opening modes in plain CLC. 337 338 Control specimen showed a brittle response in flexure, wherein the crack path was observed to be perpendicular to the bending axis of the specimen. This may be a result of very little 339 340 resistance offered by matrix in post-crack formation stage. On the other hand, crack growth in FRCLC specimen was observed to be meandering along the plane of notch. This can be attributed to the low strength of the matrix and high strength of fiber, which makes the crack path to search for the path of least resistance inside the matrix where fibers are randomly distributed (Figure 6c).

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348 **4.3. Acoustic hits and Energy Dissipation**

In order to clarify the fracture resistance, acoustic emission (AE) monitoring is employed during fracture tests. Acoustic energy emission is the phenomenon where the strain energy stored inside the specimen gets transmitted through the material, when it is subjected to stress generated by load application or thermal gradient. This energy is transmitted in the form of elastic waves and gets picked up by AE sensors. The first part of AE analysis deals with the plotting of cumulative AE energy and AE counts with respect to load vs CMOD. This results

in a quantitative estimate of crack opening and load when a certain value of AE energy and 355 counts are obtained. Failure in CLC can be due to matrix cracking and interface failure between 356 357 the voids and CLC matrix. The possibility of delaying the crack growth due to fibre action increases with increasing fibre volume content. Consequently, the material toughness is 358 enhanced. In fiber reinforced CLC, the fibre pull-out also contributes to the final failure. The 359 distinct fracture mechanisms emit AE signals with different characteristics. Therefore, many 360 361 AE parameters of the recorded waves such as rise time, count, amplitude and duration are studied in order to understand the distinct failure mechanisms in CLC. 362

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The number of counts in a particular hit gives the idea of relative difference within the 364 domain of hits. The authors have observed a smooth trend when cumulative number of counts 365 were plotted against the CMOD. The plot of AE energy vs CMOD showed a couple of hikes 366 in the curve due to the fiber breaking instances. Hence to ascertain the crack width at a 367 particular instant of AE counts number of counts are considered in a cumulative approach.AE 368 369 activity is very important as high rate of AE recording is linked to high rate of crack propagation. Similarly, very little or limited AE activity implies lesser crack propagation. Thus, 370 371 the total number of AE hits recorded with respect to the measurement time is the fundamental parameter for understanding the role of fibers in crack arresting. Figure 7a & 8a shows the 372 variation of cumulative acoustic energy against the applied load with respect to increasing 373 374 value of CMOD for macro fibers and hybrid fibers, respectively. For both cases, three different 375 fiber dosages such as 0.33%, 0.44% and 0.55% are considered for evaluation. Hybrid fiber dosage included a constant dosage of 0.02% micro fibers in addition to macro fibers. 376

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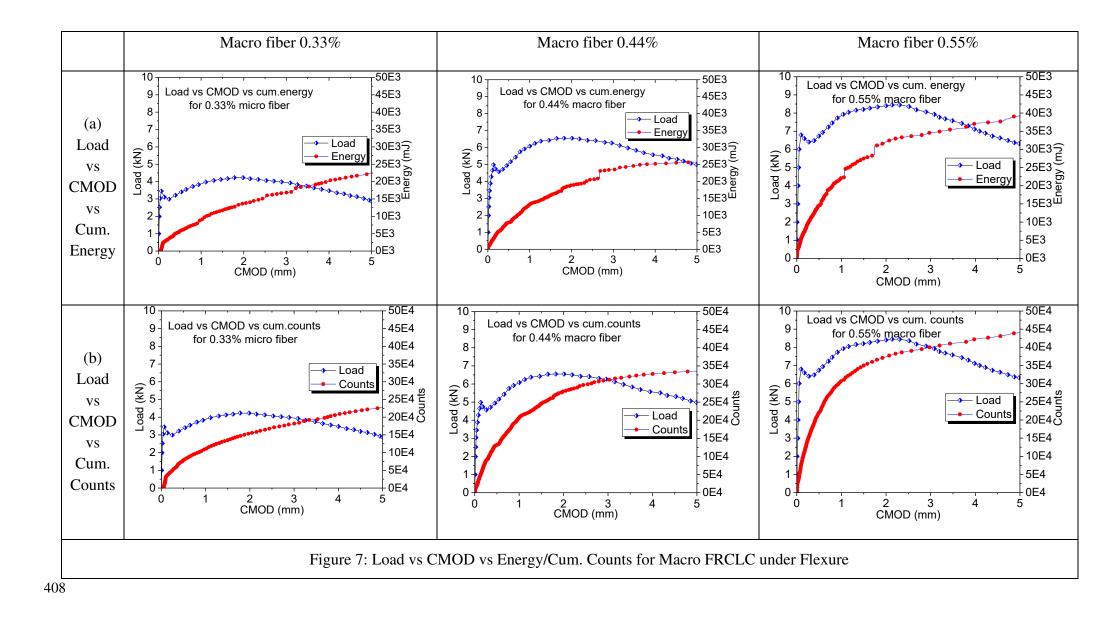
The recorded energy at both sensors is combined for the calculation of cumulative energy.The combined energy is a superposition of the energy received from both types of sensors. The

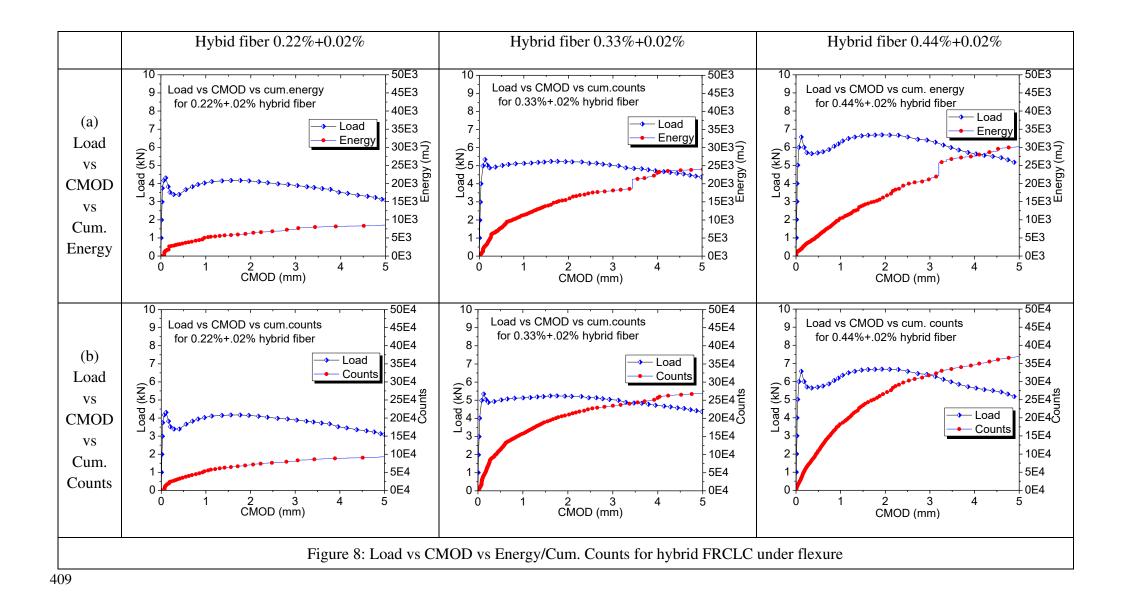
380 trend of energy recorded vs CMOD remains the same even if only one type of sensors are used. However, the numbers may vary accordingly. Energy and counts are plotted using data from 381 382 all the sensors rather than just the source location data. The source location points are generated for hits where at least three sensor data coincides at a point. This may not be recorded for all 383 the hits generated. Energy and counts from the source location data alone are lesser compared 384 to the overall data captured which can under predict the actual AE energy and the generated 385 386 counts. Therefore, all the data recorded by the eight sensors are used to investigate the AE energy and the cumulative number of counts. Cumulative AE counts with load vs CMOD are 387 388 compared in Figure 7b and 8b for macro and hybrid fibers, respectively. Number of AE events 389 increased significantly up to the peak load and the rate of increase in AE events reduced after 390 peak load in both the beams with macro and hybrid fibers. Before cracking, lesser number of 391 AE hits and AE energy was recorded. After the load drop, the increase in AE rate decreases 392 but it does not cease completely. Concerning the mechanical behavior, soon-after the first macro-crack develops, load typically drops by several kN. The AE energy is found to increase 393 394 with increase in fiber dosage (Figure 7a & 8a). Using this information, the damage behavior of 395 structural element can be quantified for the average crack opening recorded between the AE 396 sensor configuration.

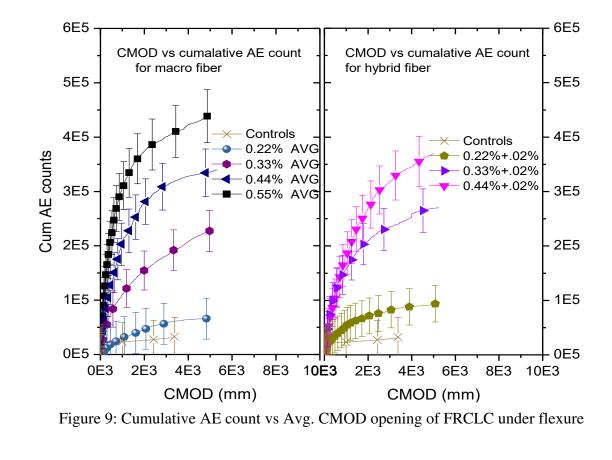
397

Figure 9a and 9b shows the plot of CMOD against the number of cumulative AE counts for macro and hybrid fibers, respectively. The increase in number of AE hits and AE energy in the post-cracking region can be attributed to the fiber pull-out and breaking of fibers. Normalized AE energy vs fracture energy of FRCLC under flexure is plotted in Figure 10. It clearly shows that the addition of synthetic fibers significantly improved the fracture behavior of CLC. Addition of even a small amount of micro fibers in hybrid fiber combination significantly increased the fracture energy of CLC when compared to only macro fiber addition. For

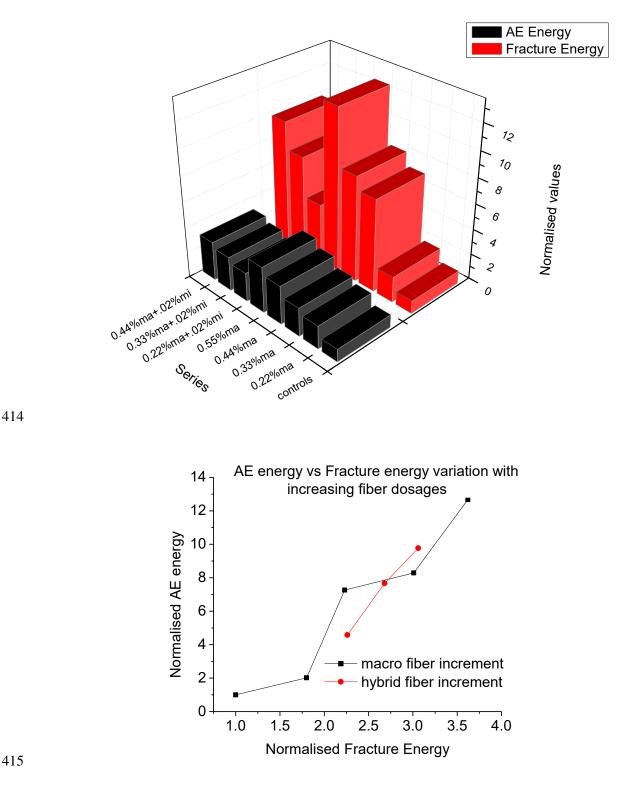
- 405 example, the fracture energy (GF) of CLC with 0.44% volume fraction of macro fibers
- 406 increased by a factor of three when compared to control beam.











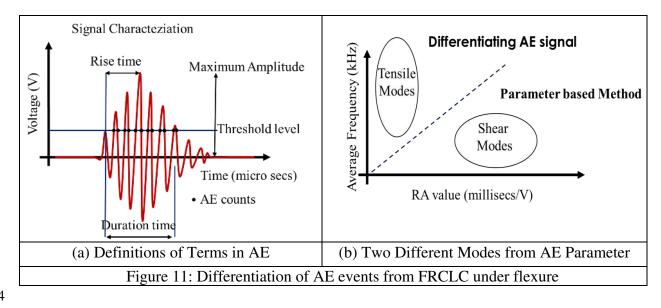
- 416 Figure 10: Normalized AE energy vs fracture energy of FRCLC under flexure
- 417

418 5. IDENTIFICATION OF 3D-CRACK LOCATION AND DIFFERENTIATION OF 419 CRACKING MODE

420 Identification of fracture process zone (FPZ) is of prime importance in structural health

421 monitoring and retrofitting of structural elements. AE source location can be potentially applied

to identify FPZ. Furthermore, the mode of failure has to be properly distinguished in order to 422 understand the global failure mechanism in a structural element. The dimension of specimen 423 i.e, 450 mm length 150 mm width and 200 mm height during the test were simulated for 3D 424 crack location and differentiation of cracking modes using a MATLAB program. The second 425 part of AE analysis deals with the detection of source location. Every sensor generates a 426 distance from which it is picking up a particular signal, which may be visualized in the form 427 428 of a hollow sphere. At the same time, if two or more signals are picking up the same signal, the overlap of these three signals results in the hit source location which can be visualized as 429 430 intersection point between three hollow spheres. For the located signal, the corresponding RA value and Average Frequency values are calculated and their ratio is used to differentiate the 431 localized mode of failure. The initiation of AE event and its mode of failure at a local level 432 433 may correspond to matrix cracking or fiber pull-out, which then can be correlated to mode I or 434 mode II, respectively. The differentiation of different AE events was done based on the parameter based method. Definitions of different terms used in AE analysis is defined in Figure 435 436 11a. RA value is defined as the ratio of the rise time to the waveform amplitude. Average frequency is defined as the number of threshold crossings (counts) divided by the duration of 437 the signal (Figure 11a). It is expressed in kHz. Analysis of AE results based on parameter 438 based method (Figure 11b) helps to differentiate the tensile and shear mode. The parameter 439 based method involves calculation of two parameters viz,. RA value and Average Frequency 440 441 (AE ring-down counts/Duration time) and plotting them on X and Y axis respectively as shown in Figure 11a. The events are then classified based on the region which they lie as shown in the 442 Figure 11b. 443



445

446 In general, the tensile cracks in mode I produces AE signals with high frequency. However, the shear type of crack (mode II) produces AE signals of lower frequency. Initially, tensile 447 matrix cracking (mode 1) initiated on the tension side (bottom surface) due to tensile stresses. 448 449 At higher loads, with extension of crack to the compression side, occurrence of fiber friction and pull-out events (shear, mode II) begins. In the final stages close to failure, the fibre pull-450 451 out events dominate the process when the two parts of the CLC specimen separates completely. Previous studies on crack classification in concrete based on AE has shown that the value of 452 453 slope of line, which differentiates the modes of failure, can be kept as 200 for a good correlation 454 with SiGMa procedure. For the purpose of this study of FRCLC, the slope value of 200 gives a good correlation with SiGMa procedure [9,10,14]. 455

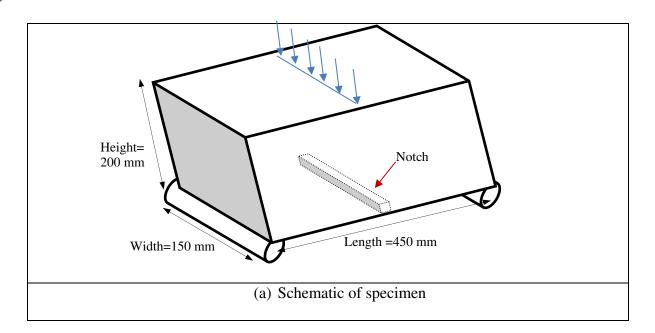
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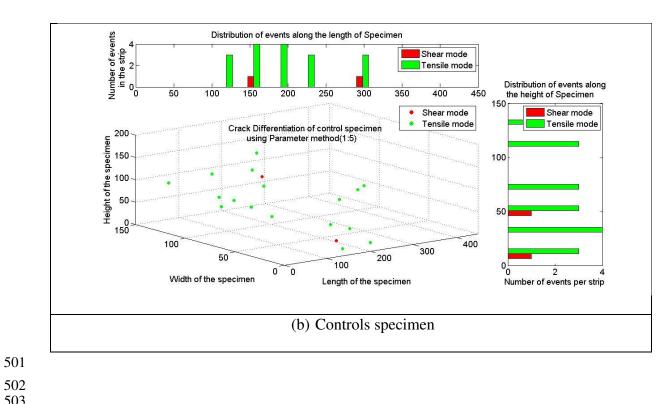
457 Normalized values of AE and fracture energy shows a trend with AE energy values close 458 to almost three times that of fracture energy values for higher fiber dosages. Summary of results 459 including cracking load, peak load, fracture energy and AE energy are summarized in Table 6. 460 This shows that the measurement of AE energy has a direct correlation with the fracture energy 461 and toughness of the CLC. Moreover, addition of fibers increases the cumulative AE energy.

AE energy for hybrid fiber reinforced CLC was higher than that of CLC beams with only macro 462 fibers. Figure 12 shows the AE crack source location in three dimensional space for fiber 463 464 reinforced CLC for different fiber dosages. Figure 12a shows the schematic of specimen which is taken as a reference in subsequent figures for source location. Figure 12b shows the crack 465 source location for controls specimen. It is clearly observed that the dominant event in AE 466 source location is mode I. Figure 12c and 12d shows the crack source location for macro fiber 467 468 reinforced CLC with 0.55% and 0.44% respectively. Similarly, the Figure 12e and 12f show the crack source location for hybrid fiber reinforced CLC with 0.33% and 0.44% of macro fiber 469 470 dosage with a constant micro fiber dosage of 0.02%. The corresponding distribution of events and their failure modes were plotted on histograms along the length and height of the specimen 471 and placed on the top and right side, respectively. The events that were recorded during the 472 473 testing were differentiated as two modes of failure viz., shear and tensile mode. Plain CLC 474 failure failed in tensile mode of failure. FRCLC showed a predominant shear mode of failure at high fiber dosages (Figure 12). Failure of FRCLC can be observed from the histograms of 475 476 number of events corresponding to shear and tensile modes that are plotted alongside the AE hits. It can also be identified from the histograms that there is a normal distribution trend of 477 AE events followed along the length of the specimen. The relative ratio of contribution from 478 shear modes is shown to increase along the length as well as along the height directions. The 479 tensile modes increase towards the downward region of the notch, whereas the shear modes 480 481 increase from top, reaches a maximum value and then decreases towards the downward region. 482 It is also observed that the fiber reinforcement tends to shift the mode of failure from tensile to shear mode. 483

484

The results of this analysis shows that the amount of AE activity is proportional to the fiber dosage and fracture toughness. Parameter based analysis of AE data shows that the tensile 487 mode of fracture is dominant for plain CLC. The mode of fracture is changing to shear with increase in fiber dosage. This demonstrates the reinforcing effect of the fibres against the weak 488 tensile behavior of CLC. The study of AE indices implies that the mode of fracture changes 489 490 during the experiment from tensile (initial stage) to shear (final fracture). This is 491 macroscopically shown by the crack splitting and deflection from parallel to perpendicular direction relatively to the loading axis. In addition, the fracture process zone increases 492 493 simultaneously with increasing fiber content. Though limited specimens were tested, the results are promising and provide confidence that acoustic emission technique can be used for the 494 495 identification of the different fracture modes. Source location and identification of cracking 496 behavior provides valuable insight for choosing optimum fiber dosage at a given stress state. 497 Moreover, crack classification using suitable AE descriptors shown in in Figure 11b can assist 498 in the evaluation of the severity of the condition as the shear mode typically follows the tensile mode in fiber reinforced CLC. 499





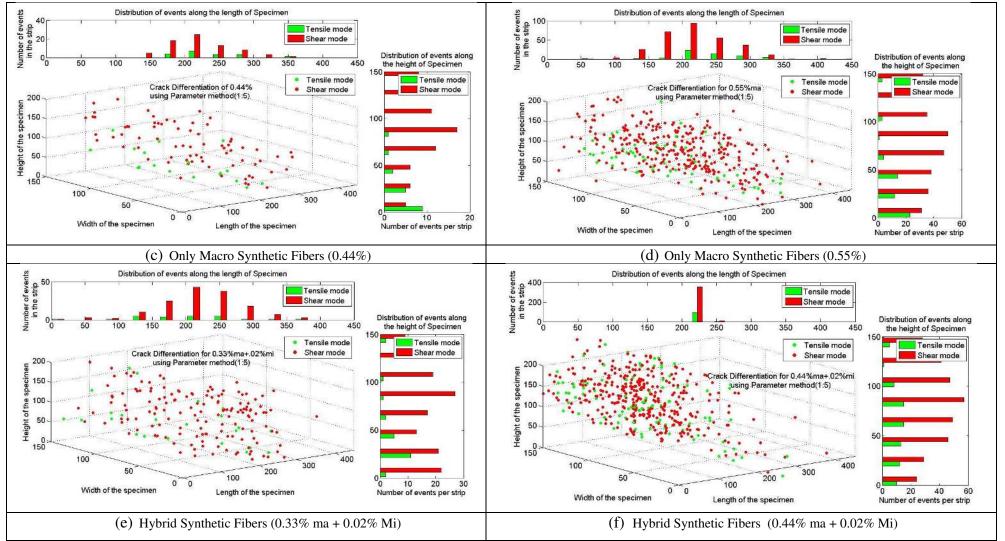




Figure 12: AE hit source location of FRCLC using AE sensors under flexure

TABLE 6.	Fracture	parameters and	AE energy va	lues.
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Series	Specimen		ak Load (k	KN)	Mean Peak Load	Standard Deviation		Wo (N/mm²)	G _F (N/mm ²)	Normalized G _F	Emission Energy	Normalized Acoustic Emission
		1	2	3	(kN)	(kN)						Energy
Ι	Control	1.75	1.22	1.48	1.49	0.37	1.49	1.71	605.7	1.00	3.1	1.00
	ma-0.2-mi-0.0	3.26	3.46	2.83	3.19	0.32	2.96	12.65	1091.9	1.80	7.9	2.02
II (only	ma-0.3-mi-0.0	3.48	4.26	4.94	4.23	0.73	3.44	18.49	1351.5	2.23	22.5	7.26
(only Macro)	ma-0.4-mi-0.0	5.88	6.79	6.96	6.55	0.58	4.98	28.99	1818.2	3.01	25.7	8.29
	ma-0.5-mi-0.0	9.35	8.20	7.79	8.45	0.81	6.80	37.40	2191.9	3.62	39.3	12.67
	ma-0.2-mi-0.02	4.98	3.92	4.02	4.31	0.59	4.31	18.92	1370.7	2.26	14.2	4.58
III (hybrid)	ma-0.3-mi-0.02	5.01	4.89	6.11	5.34	0.67	5.34	24.61	1623.5	2.68	23.8	7.67
	ma-0.4-mi-0.02	7.01	5.69	6.97	6.56	0.75	6.69	29.73	1851.1	3.06	30.3	9.77

Note:

ma- macro fiber; mi- micro fiber; 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5 – volume fraction of fibers in %.
G_F-Fracture Energy (N/mm²); W₀ – area below CMOD curve up to rupture of specimen

511 6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

512 Notched fiber reinforced CLC beams were tested under flexure to understand the fracture and acoustic emission behavior. Fracture tests for FRCLC has been performed and variation of 513 CMOD with respect to different fiber dosages was studied. Various AE parameters such as 514 515 energy and cumulative counts were plotted against the applied load and CMOD. Cumulative AE count is established against the CMOD in an attempt to quantify the crack opening using 516 the AE technique. In addition to this, 3D source location of cracks and cracking modes was 517 518 carried out. Based on the limited results presented in this study, the following major conclusions can be drawn: 519

Addition of synthetic fibers significantly improves the fracture behavior of CLC.
 Addition of even a small amount of micro fibers in hybrid fibers, significantly improves
 the toughness and ductility of CLC when compared to only macro fiber addition. For
 instance, the fracture energy of CLC beams with 0.44% volume fraction of macro fibers
 increased by a factor of three when compared to control CLC beams.

- Acoustic emission energy increases with increase in fiber dosage. This directly correlates to the increase in strain energy absorbed during the fracture process.
- Crack width can be measured indirectly through the number of AE hits observed.
 CMOD measurement correlated with the number of AE hits.

3D source analysis gave a consistent result when compared to the actual crack growth
 observed in the test results. With increase in fiber dosage, a clear shift of failure from
 tensile to shear mode was observed.

532

533 Density is a very important parameter that affects the mechanical properties of CLC. Future 534 work should focus on understanding the AE monitoring of CLC elements by including

- 535 various parameters such as different types and volume fractions of fibers and the effect of
- 536 density on the fracture behavior of fiber reinforced CLC.

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