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Numerical modelling of ellipsoidal inclusions

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Abstract: Within the framework of numerical algorithms for the threedimensional random packing of granular materials this work presents an innovative formulation for polydispersed ellipsoidal particles, including an overlapping detection algorithm for an optimized simulation of the mesostructure of geomaterials, particularly concrete. Granular composite cement-based materials can be so reconstructed with adequate precision in terms of grain size distribution. Specifically, the algorithm performance towards the assumed inclusion shape (ellipsoidal or spheric) and degree of regularity (round or irregular) is here discussed. Examples on real grading curves prove that this approach is effective. The advantages of the proposed method for computational mechanics purposes are also disclosed when properly interfaced with visualization CAD (Computer Aided Design) tools.

## Cover Letter

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# DIPARTIMENTO DI INGEGNERIA CIVILE, EDILE E AMBIENTALE - I C E A 

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Padua, December $5^{\text {th }} 2017$
To the Editor of
Construction and Building Materials

Dear Editor,
Please find enclosed the revised version of the original manuscript:
Numerical modelling of ellipsoidal inclusions
By G. Mazzucco, B. Pomaro, V.A. Salomoni, C.E. Majorana
for possible publication in Your Journal.

Yours Sincerely,
Collutro folonoui
Valentina Salomoni
on behalf of all authors

## CONBUILDMAT-S-17-07052

## Response to Reviewer \#2

The paper deals with the proposal of a numerical algorithm for spatially generating ellipsoidal inclusions within a three-dimensional domain. Different packing densities are obtained following real grading curves.

Some aspects need to be better explained:

- Can this method be applied to other different aggregate types besides natural aggregates, e.g. graded aggregates?

At this stage, the algorithm is able to handle ellipsoidal geometries only and for this reason the method is more reliable when the inclusions are given by natural aggregates. Anyway it can be applied even if graded aggregates are considered, having in mind that a slightly higher error in calculating volumes could occur.

- Please clarify why three different shape ratios have been considered in the example of Section 5.1

Based on the grading curves developed in Ref. [30], the aggregate shape ratios are not given. For this reason, when numerically reproducing this experimental case, we have assumed three different shape ratios for each sieve: two characterized by the maximum and minimum dimension, respectively, which are necessary to retain the corresponding passing of a given aggregate, and a third shape ratio which is an average between the first two configurations. Three shape ratios have been considered for each sieve in order to realistically diversify the aggregate shape ratios of the grading curve in a reasonable way.

- Why have coarse aggregates been taken into account only? Is it possible to consider also the fine part of a grading curve in the analyses?

In principle the described procedure is able to reproduce the whole grading curve, i.e. coarse and fine aggregates. However, considering that the fine part would lead to a very large number of inclusions and a huge computational effort without a considerable benefit in the numerical simulation of the real grading curve, the coarse part only has been taken into account.

Moreover, as explained at the end of Section 1, the algorithm is aimed to reproduce samples at a meso-scale level; at this scale the coarse fraction is the one referred as aggregates, being particles of diameter less than 5 mm generally included within the cement paste.

## CONBUILDMAT-S-17-07052

## Response to Reviewer \#3

The paper is interesting and only few modifications are required.
There should be a space between a number and the appropriate unit, for example 1 mm , not 1 mm . Moreover, the units should not be in italic font.

The manuscript has been corrected
page 3, line 45: ... and the the divide ...
page 5, line 85: approximated to -> approximated by
page 7, above equation (11): ... there exists a position vector exists satisfying ...
page 8, lines 103 and 104: it is not clear that \/ambda is from the space $R^{\wedge} 3$. \/ambda is a value, it is not a vector.
page 9, line 119: mesostracture -> mesostructure
page 11, line 168: algorith -> algorithm
page 18, line 247: originary > originally
Please consider the corrections within the paper
> Algorithm for randomly distributing 3D inclusions. > Employment of real grading curves. > Effective simulation of different packing densities. > Novel dislocation procedure. > Procedure suitable for modelling composite materials.

# Numerical modelling of ellipsoidal inclusions 

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#### Abstract

Within the framework of numerical algorithms for the three-dimensional random packing of granular materials this work presents an innovative formulation for polydispersed ellipsoidal particles, including an overlapping detection algorithm for an optimized simulation of the mesostructure of geomaterials, particularly concrete.

Granular composite cement-based materials can be so reconstructed with adequate precision in terms of grain size distribution. Specifically, the algorithm performance towards the assumed inclusion shape (ellipsoidal or spheric) and degree of regularity (round or irregular) is here discussed. Examples on real grading curves prove that this approach is effective.

The advantages of the proposed method for computational mechanics purposes are also disclosed when properly interfaced with visualization $C A D$ (Computer Aided Design) tools.


Keywords: Random ellipsoidal inclusions, mesostructure, random packing algorithm, grain size distribution.

[^0]
## 1. Introduction

The packing density can strongly influence the performance of granular materials like concrete and the costs related to its production. The basic concept of a packing method is to minimize the voids content by studying an optimum binder and water in the mix. The packing of a cementitious material depends basically on the aggregates size and shape and on the applied packing method itself. While the first parameter is determined by choosing recommended grading curves and the latter is easily guaranteed by a satisfactory vibration during 10 casting, the second one can not always be optimized since it is strictly related to aggregate availability. He et al. [1 demonstrated for mono-sized particles that polyhedra with larger sphericity can be packed to a higher density. Sphericity is defined as the surface area ratio of a sphere with a particle, equivalent in volume. Xu and Chen [2] reached a similar conclusion for polydispersed ellipsoidal particles. Similarly in 2D, Xu et al. 33 found that, when ellipses slightly deviate from circles, the packing fraction rises to the maximum value, otherwise it decreases.

When numerically modeling concrete at the mesoscopic scale, i.e. at the scale of its constituents, it is significant to reproduce the real particle packing which final strength.

The packing of spheres was first theoretically and experimentally investigated in [4] for mixes with very large size difference between the fine and coarse particles. Later Stovall et al. [5] developed a model to predict the packing density of multi-sized grain mixtures, including the loosening and wall effects, i.e. taking into account particle interactions and interactions of the particles at the boundaries.

With the advances in computer simulations many works have focused on the development of algorithms for the random distribution of non-overlapping particles. In most studies the assumption of spherical aggregates is made for sake
of simplicity [6\| $\sqrt{6}$, however some works deal with more complex geometries, e.g. Wittmann et al. 9] generated 2 D rounded aggregates by using the morphological law developed by Beddow and Meloy [10] and angular aggregates as polygons, of randomly varying number of edges and angles; more recently Wang et al. [11 developed a procedure for generating random aggregate structures for rounded and angular aggregates based on Wittmann's findings but here angular aggregates are generated as polygons with prescribed elongation ratios, rather than just as randomly shaped polygons. Three-dimensional studies involving ellipsoids are reported in [12-15], while Williams and Philipse [16] used spherocylinders to better simulate the elongation of real particles, such as fibers. As regards the packing algorithm, two are mainly adopted in the scientific literature: the take-and-place method [9, 11, 17], which consists in randomly positioning a number of particles necessary to satisfy the sieving classes in which the grading curve can be divided, proceeding from large to small particles; and 45 the divide-and-fill method [18, which consists in subdividing the whole domain in 2 D or 3 D into sub-regions and fill them with grain particles, based on the grading curve and the aggregate fraction. An optimized algorithm to pack very large volumes of spherical entities, enriched by a genetic module, has been more recently developed in [7]: this method is derived from [19] and it is found to sig${ }_{50}$ nificantly improve the speed of convergence of the sequential packing algorithm of spheres. In line with a "parent-child" model, it adaptively shifts and shrinks the search space in the control volume by employing feasible (with satisfied constraints) and infeasible (with unsatisfied constraints) spheres in the population of "children" to find a sphere with maximum radius. By doing so the modspheres among the previously packed ones, in an optimal way.
Within this framework the work proposes an original, mathematically-based formulation for the ellipsoidal particle size distribution within a 3D space and it discusses its performance when spherical inclusions are employed. The method
${ }_{60}$ takes inspiration from the divide-and-fill method but it is improved by the introduction of a control step of new concept and implementation, which allows
further packing and an optimized use of the free available space. The study is directed towards a three-dimensional modeling of cement-based composite materials at the mesocopic scale in order to manage space discretization in agreement with the Finite Element Method (FEM) and perform numerical analyses in the context of continuum mechanics [20].

## 2. Grading curves in concrete materials

The size distribution of aggregate particles in concrete can be defined either by means of grading curves or from sieve analyses.

Several types of ideal grading curves can be applied, the most known and acceptable of them is Fuller's curve [21, which is described by a simple equation relating the percentage of aggregates passing through one sieve $P_{i}$ to the corresponding sieve diameter $d_{i}$ and the maximum dimension of the aggregates $D_{\max }$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{i}=100 \sqrt{d_{i} / D_{\max }} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is well known that Fuller's curve gives good results for low-workability mixes. To obtain a better compaction maintaining a good workability, Bolomey's curve [22] is to be preferred. Equation (1) is modified according to Bolomey into:

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{i}=A+(100-A) \sqrt{d_{i} / D_{\max }} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the parameter $A$ accounts for the impact of adding fine particles in the mix and it derives from imposing an arbitrary percentage $A$ at the $80 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ sieve. In general, grading curves do not consider the geometry of aggregates, but only the maximum diameter and that related to the current passing percentage. However the geometry must play a role in the compaction process which can not be neglected when modeling a mesoscopic structure that resembles the real one.
${ }_{75}$ European standards [23] give some indications on how to determine the shape index of coarse aggregates; the method applies for natural or artificial aggregates, including lightweight aggregates, and it classifies an aggregate according
to two main dimensions: the length of a grain $L$ and its thickness $E$, defined respectively as the maximum and the minimum distance between two parallel planes tangential to the particle surface. An aspect ratio $L / E$ greater than 3 accounts for non-cubic particles and, in this sense, the test leads to the evaluation of the percentage of cubic or non-cubic grain fractions of a given mix.


Figure 1: Aggregate ratio $L / E=1$; aggregate ratio $L / E=3$.

If one accepts that, in line with the European standard, the non-cubic condition defines the usability limit of aggregates in a mix, particles with ratio
${ }_{85} 1 \leq L / E \leq 3$ can be conveniently approximated by ellipsoids more than spheres (for which $L / E=1$ ) and in this range an ellipsoidal representation is still acceptable; it may be not so for higher $L / E$ ratios.


Figure 2: Spheric aggregate a); ellipsoidal aggregate b).

## 3. Theoretical background

### 3.1. Ellipsoidal formulation

An ellipsoid surface satisfies the following equation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(\mathbf{x})=\frac{x^{2}}{l_{x}^{2}}+\frac{y^{2}}{l_{y}^{2}}+\frac{z^{2}}{l_{z}^{2}}-1=0 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

${ }_{90}$ where $x, y, z$ are the position vector components of vector: $\mathbf{x}=[x, y, z]^{T}$ while $\mathbf{l}=\left[l_{x}, l_{y}, l_{z}\right]$ are the semidiameters of the ellipses obtained by sectioning the ellipsoids with the coordinate planes.





Figure 3: Sectioned ellipsoid.

Equation (3) in matrix notation yields [24]:

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(\mathbf{x})=\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{x} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mathbf{B}$ is the associated matrix:

$$
\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{l})=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
1 / l_{x}^{2} & 0 & 0 & 0  \tag{5}\\
0 & 1 / l_{y}^{2} & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 / l_{z}^{2} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -1
\end{array}\right]
$$

rescaling the position vector $\mathbf{x}$ as $\mathbf{x}^{T}=[x, y, z, 1]^{T}$.
In this "standard" notation, the ellipsoid is centered in the Cartesian reference system and the principal axes are the coordinate axes.

Any rotated or translated ellipsoid is obtained by applying the rotational $\mathbf{R}$ and
translational $\mathbf{T}$ operators to this initial configuration:

$$
\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{e})=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
e_{1 x} & e_{2 x} & e_{3 x} & 0  \tag{6}\\
e_{1 y} & e_{2 y} & e_{3 y} & 0 \\
e_{1 z} & e_{2 z} & e_{3 z} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right] \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{o})=\left[\begin{array}{cccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
-o_{x} & -o_{x} & -o_{z} & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $\mathbf{e}=\left[\mathbf{e}_{1}, \mathbf{e}_{2}, \mathbf{e}_{3}\right]$ is the base vector for the new reference system and $\mathbf{o}$ is the new centre.

95 Therefore the most general expression for the equation of an ellipsoid arbitrarilly oriented in a 3D space is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{x}=0 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mathbf{M}$ is the generic ellipsoid matrix after roto-translation, which can be defined as $\mathbf{M}=\mathbf{R}\left(\mathbf{T B} \mathbf{T}^{T}\right) \mathbf{R}^{T}$ in agreement with [25].

### 3.2. A criterion for detecting overlapping of ellipsoidal particles

At this step, given two ellipsoids $E_{0}$ and $E_{1}$ defined by their associated matrices $\mathbf{M}_{0}$ and $\mathbf{M}_{1}$, respectively, the functions of the external surfaces are defined by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{M}_{0} \mathbf{x}=0 \quad ; \quad \mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{M}_{1} \mathbf{x}=0 \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

while the solid volumes satisfy the following inequalities:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{M}_{0} \mathbf{x}<0 \quad ; \quad \mathbf{x}^{T} \mathbf{M}_{1} \mathbf{x}<0 \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

The $E_{0}$ function can be rewritten with a multiplying scalar factor $\lambda$ without loss in generality:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{x}^{T} \lambda \mathbf{M}_{0} \mathbf{x}=0 \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

If the two ellipsoids $E_{0}$ and $E_{1}$ overlap on a region in space it means that there exists a position vector $\mathbf{x}^{*}$ satisfying both Equations (9) which yields to:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{x}^{* T}\left(\lambda \mathbf{M}_{0}-\mathbf{M}_{1}\right) \mathbf{x}^{*}=\mathbf{x}^{* T} \mathbf{M}_{0}\left(\lambda \mathbf{I}-\mathbf{M}_{0}^{-1} \mathbf{M}_{1}\right) \mathbf{x}^{*}=0 \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

This relationship admits a solution if:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{det}\left(\mathbf{M}_{0}\left(\lambda \mathbf{I}-\mathbf{M}_{0}^{-1} \mathbf{M}_{1}\right)\right)=0 \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

but 12 represents an eigenvalues/eigenvectors problem where the parameters $\lambda_{i}$ are the eigenvalues. Based on the values they assume, specific relationships between the ellipsoidal inclusions are envisaged [25, 26]: if all the $\lambda_{i}>0 \in \mathbb{R}$, then one ellipsoid properly contains the other, i.e. they totally penetrate each other; if some $\lambda_{i}<0 \in \mathbb{R}$, then the two ellipsoids are separated (a plane exists for which the ellipsoids are on opposite sides); finally, if all the $\lambda_{i}$ are complex (all $\lambda_{i} \in \mathbb{C}$ ), then the two ellipsoids intersect, i.e. they overalp in some parts.


Figure 4: Penetration condition between two ellipsoids in 2D.

An algorithm aimed to randomly distribute in space non-intersecting ellipsoidal inclusions should prevent the occurrence of the first and the third case above. Particularly, to exclude the condition in which an ellipsoid contains the other, as reported in Fig. 4, a simple check can be implemented: given the position vectors of the centres of the two ellipsoids, $\mathbf{x}_{0}$ and $\mathbf{x}_{1}$, if the distance $d$ between the two centres is less than the sum of the two minimum radii $l_{\min , 0}$, $l_{m i n, 1}$, i.e.:

$$
\begin{equation*}
d=\left|\mathbf{x}_{1}-\mathbf{x}_{0}\right|<l_{\min , 0}+l_{\min , 1} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

then the two ellipsoids penetrate each other and one contains the other.
The second unforeseen event is avoided by applying the overlapping detection algorithm represented by Equation $\sqrt{12}$ and more directly by analysing the

### 3.3. Random distribution of the mesostructure

The grading curve for a specific mix design determines the maximum number of ellipsoids that can be randomly placed in a sample, i.e. a control volume $C V$, in relation to the real volume fraction. dom distribution is guaranteed provided that each ellipsoid is characterized by a randomly defined position of its centre in space and random rotations of the principal axes, which can be easily obtained via a random generator tool.

The location of a particle which is non-intersecting may require a maximum number of trials ( $N_{\max }$ ) and if the trials overcome $N_{\max }$ then the $N_{\max }$-th aggregate is discarded. At this point two ways are possible: i) another ellipsoid is randomly generated and the positioning scheme is repeated until a first randomly defined ellipsoid with successful placement, or ii) the discarded ellipsoid is actually retained, provided that the intersecting particles in the neighbourhood are shifted of a certain amount in a way that no intersection occurs with the retained inclusion and the sorrounding particles.

The latter approach, called dislocation procedure, is here implemented; it is inspired by the "Metropolis scheme" reported in [27] and it is proved to be more efficient than the first one, for particle distribution purposes.
${ }_{140}$ For sake of simplicity a 2D dislocation sequence is reported in Fig. 5 starting from an initial configuration (Fig. 5 a), the last possible $N_{\text {max }}$-th randomly
generated trial inclusion is found to intersect some surrounding particles (Fig. $55 \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{c})$, therefore this inclusion is retained even if not successful, and the intersecting particles in the neighbourhood are moved opposite to the centre of the "unlucky" inclusion (the shift direction given by the unit vector $\mathbf{n}$ ), until the non-intersecting check is satisfied, i.e. the imposed shifts of the surrounding particles equal the sum of the radius of the sphere circumscribed to the "unlucky" inclusion and the radius of the sphere circumscribed to the intersecting particle itself (i.e. tangency condition between circumscribed spheres, (Fig. 5 d). A translation is retained if, in the new configuration, the shifted inclusion does not overlap to any particle nearby; this must be satisfied by all the replaced surrounding particles (Fig. 5e) before the trial inclusion is finally added (Fig. $5 \mathrm{f})$.


Figure 5: Dislocation sequence in a 2D configuration a)-f).

## 4. Numerical implementation

Once the dimensions of the parallelepiped sample, or $C V$, are defined, the proposed algorithm divides the domain in sub-domains in which the real grading curve has to be satisfied. The code can handle mesostructure simulations for cubic samples of 75 mm minimum edge, which is reasonable for cementitious materials, and a Bolomey's grading curve with a maximum sieve of 16 mm in diameter.

For each sub-domain the algorithm tries to place a specific ellipsoid, defined by Equations (36), with a random approach, i.e. with random position of centre and orientation of axes; the inclusions are defined in number for each sieve diameter by the grading curve. For each trial inclusion a check against intersection with prior particles is made through Equation 12 and against penetration through Equation $\sqrt{13}$, and the dislocation procedure is activated if some interferences between inclusions are detected when the trials to insert a new ellipsoid overcome $N_{\text {max }}$.

The illustrated algorithm has been implemented in Visual Basic language, which 70 has allowed also the production of a user-friendly graphical interface for this tool (Fig. 6).


Figure 6: Graphical interface of the random generation tool for ellipsoidal inclusions created in Visual Basic language.

Once the non-intersecting ellipsoidal mesostructure is characterized in a set of vectors for each inclusion: $\mathbf{o}$ (centre), e (axes orientation) and $\mathbf{l}$ (axes dimensions), the solid geometry has been generated using the OPEN CASCADE library [28], the specific one for $C A D$ processing. Specifically, Phyton programming language has been employed, by means of the pythonOCC library [29], which allows to generate ellipsoids of given centre, orientation and dimension (starting from a sphere and scaling it along the three axes) and operate in a sions, so to distinguish it from the volume occupied by the aggregates.
An example of the code programmed in Phyton language, generating and visualizing spheres in a sample, is reported in box. 1.

```
for i in range(len(sp)):
    center=gp_Pnt(sp[i][0],sp[i][1],sp[i][2])
    agg = BRepPrimAPI_MakeSphere(center,sp[i][6]/2)
    aggSh = agg.Shape()
    boxTrim = OCC.BRepAlgoAPI.BRepAlgoAPI_Cut(boxSh,aggSh)
    boxSh = boxTrim.Shape()
#-
```

Box 1: sphere generation into the sample in Phyton language using phytonOCC library

The corresponding output is shown in Fig. 7f the sample at the mesoscopic scale is made by coarse aggregates of various dimensions (Fig. 7 a) and the matrix (cement paste and fine aggregate fractions, Fig. 7 b). The matrix has voids in correspondence of the aggregate position in such a way that no solid interference occurs when the two parts are assembled into a unique solid biphasic model and are assigned to them two different material properties.

a)

b)

Figure 7: Aggregates a); matrix b).

## 5. Example

### 5.1. Concrete with natural gravel aggregates

The efficiency of the algorithm has been tested on the real grading curve reported in 30 for a mix design using natural gravel as aggregates. The coarse
fraction has been assumed ranging between 25 mm to 5 mm in diameter, subdi-
$\square$ considered embedded into the matrix.

| Diameter $[\mathrm{mm}]$ | Passing [\%] |
| :---: | :---: |
| 25.0 | 100.0 |
| 16.0 | 64.3 |
| 12.5 | 46.6 |
| 8.0 | 19.2 |
| 4.0 | 7.9 |

Table 1: Grading curve of concrete with gravel aggregates, derived from [30].

The grading curve has been divided into 7 different diameters $D_{i}: \mathbf{D}=(22$ $\mathrm{mm} ; 19 \mathrm{~mm} ; 16 \mathrm{~mm} ; 13 \mathrm{~mm} ; 10 \mathrm{~mm} ; 7 \mathrm{~mm} ; 5 \mathrm{~mm})$ and the corresponding passing percentages have been obtained by interpolatig the data in Tab. 1. A maximum shape ratio $L / E=2.5$ has been considered and to each nominal $D_{i}$ three different particles $\left(M_{i}^{0}, M_{i}^{1}, M_{i}^{2}\right)$ have been associated, to reasonably differentiate in shape the inclusions: a sphere ( $M_{i}^{0}$, with $2 l_{x}=2 l_{y}=2 l_{z}=D_{i}$ ); an ellipsoid with the maximum allowed shape ratio $\left(M_{i}^{2}\right.$, with $2 l_{x}=D_{i} ; 2 l_{y}=$ $\left.D_{i+1} ; 2 l_{z}=D_{i} / 2.5\right)$ and an ellipsoid $M_{i}^{1}$ with average dimensions between $M_{i}^{0}$ and $M_{i}^{2}$.


Figure 8: Aggregate-types for a nominal sieve diameter $\left.\left.\left.M_{i}^{0} \mathrm{a}\right) ; M_{i}^{1} \mathrm{~b}\right) ; M_{i}^{2} \mathrm{c}\right)$.

Each fraction of diameter $D_{i}$ has a volume $V_{i}$ determined in relation to the grading curve. The volume fraction for the three ellipsoids $V_{a, i}$ is obtained by defining a frequency parameter for each one of the three ellipsoidal prototypes in the mesostructure, $M_{i}^{0}, M_{i}^{1}, M_{i}^{2}$, through a coefficient $\gamma$, which accounts for the variation in shape of the particles in a same grain fraction. This parameter must be assumed, as in this case, if no information are given on the shape of the aggregates, i.e. in the majority of situations.
${ }_{215}$ Then $V_{a, i}=\gamma V_{i}$. Particularly, particles $M_{i}^{0}$ have been assumed to fill each volumetric fraction $V_{i}$ by $50 \%$ (i.e. $\gamma=50 \%$ ), while particles $M_{i}^{1}$ and $M_{i}^{2}$ by $25 \%$ of each volume fraction $V_{i}$. In principle, any shape at any percentage can be assigned to each $V_{i}$.

The parameters characterizing the ellipsoids of each volume fraction are listed 220 in Tab. 2.

| $\begin{gathered} D_{i} \\ {[\mathrm{~mm}]} \end{gathered}$ | Passing <br> [\%] | $\begin{gathered} V_{i} \\ {[\%]} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \gamma \\ {[\%]} \end{gathered}$ | $V_{a, i}$ <br> [\%] | $\begin{gathered} 2 l_{x} \\ {[\mathrm{~mm}]} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 2 l_{y} \\ {[\mathrm{~mm}]} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 2 l_{z} \\ {[\mathrm{~mm}]} \end{gathered}$ | Type |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 22 | 97.21 | 2.7896 | 1.00 | 2.789 | 22.0 | 22.0 | 16.0 | $M_{0}^{1}$ |
| 19 | 90.57 | 6.636 | 0.50 | 3.318 | 19.0 | 19.0 | 19.0 | $M_{1}^{0}$ |
|  |  |  | 0.25 | 1.659 | 19.0 | 18.0 | 13.3 | $M_{1}^{1}$ |
|  |  |  | 0.25 | 1.659 | 19.0 | 17.0 | 7.6 | $M_{1}^{2}$ |
| 16 | 81.44 | 9.1344 | 0.50 | 4.567 | 16.0 | 16.0 | 16.0 | $M_{2}^{1}$ |
|  |  |  | 0.25 | 2.283 | 16.0 | 15.0 | 11.2 | $M_{2}^{2}$ |
|  |  |  | 0.25 | 2.283 | 16.0 | 14.0 | 6.4 | $M_{2}^{3}$ |
| 13 | 71.26 | 10.1748 | 0.50 | 5.087 | 13.0 | 13.0 | 13.0 | $M_{3}^{1}$ |
|  |  |  | 0.25 | 2.543 | 13.0 | 12.0 | 9.1 | $M_{3}^{2}$ |
|  |  |  | 0.25 | 2.543 | 13.0 | 11.0 | 5.2 | $M_{3}^{3}$ |
| 10 | 61.50 | 9.7572 | 0.50 | 4.878 | 10.0 | 10.0 | 10.0 | $M_{4}^{1}$ |
|  |  |  | 0.25 | 2.439 | 10.0 | 9.0 | 7.0 | $M_{4}^{2}$ |
|  |  |  | 0.25 | 2.439 | 10.0 | 8.0 | 4.0 | $M_{4}^{3}$ |
| 7 | 53.62 | 7.8816 | 0.50 | 3.940 | 7.0 | 7.0 | 7.0 | $M_{5}^{1}$ |
|  |  |  | 0.25 | 1.970 | 7.0 | 6.5 | 4.9 | $M_{5}^{2}$ |
|  |  |  | 0.25 | 1.970 | 7.0 | 6.0 | 2.8 | $M_{5}^{3}$ |
| 5 | 50.1 | 3.4924 | 0.50 | 1.746 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 5.0 | $M_{6}^{1}$ |
|  |  |  | 0.25 | 0.873 | 5.0 | 4.5 | 3.5 | $M_{6}^{2}$ |
|  |  |  | 0.25 | 0.873 | 5.0 | 4.0 | 2.0 | $M_{6}^{3}$ |

Table 2: Input data for determinig the expected numerical grading curve of the concrete mix with gravel aggregates characterized in 30.

Only to particles with the biggest diameter ( $D_{0}=22 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) one unique geometry ( $M_{0}^{1}$ ) has been assigned, due to the low volume fraction, which may be reasonably represented by few particles, if not just one.
The data in Tab. 2 are the input data for determining the expected numerical grading curve.
The real grading curve has been reproduced via both ellipsoids of different shape
spheres, to compare the efficiency of the algorithm (Fig. 9). The grading curve has been reconstructed by including the dislocation procedure illustrated above. Since the algorithm necessarily makes use of a maximum number of attempts to insert a new inclusion, $N_{\max }=100$, not all of the expected aggregates can be inserted, so a certain percentage of error is envisaged, compared to the experimental data (real grading curve).


Figure 9: Experimental-numerical comparison of the real and simulated grading curve; experimental results from 30.

The maximum error obtained with ellipsoids occurs in the fine fraction and it is equal to $5 \%$, with an average error of $3 \%$. By using only spheric particles, a more refined distribution of diameters is necessary to estimate the same error, which is computationally more expensive. In this example a diameter variations of 1 mm for spheres has been implemented, in the range $5-22 \mathrm{~mm}$, obviously neglecting in this case the aggregate shape ratio.

240 This result seems also in line with the finding that ellipsoidal inclusions allow to fill a volume in a better way than spheric inclusions.

### 5.2. Concrete with recycled aggregates

Sometimes sustainable solutions are preferred in concrete mix design to preserve natural resources such as gravel. One example is represented by the use
to its porous structure 31.
The following example takes into consideration a concrete mix with recycled aggregates satisfying the Bolomey's law, computed for a maximum size of aggregates in the mixture of 22.4 mm and an $A$ coefficient in Equation (2), depending on the shape of the aggregates and on the consistency of the class, equal to 12 (32.

The mixture is composed by $350 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{3}$ of cement CEM I 52.5 R with a $w / c$ ratio equal to 0.45 . The global volume of aggregates is distributed as follows: $9.2 \%$ of recycled aggregates, $39.8 \%$ of coarse natural aggregates (gravel) and $51 \%$ of fine natural aggregates (sand), the overall aggregates representing $73 \%$ of the total sample volume, with the coarse fraction equal to $36 \%$ of the total aggregate volume.

The grading curve of the coarse fraction is reported in Tab. 3

| Diameter [mm] | Passing [\%] |
| :---: | :---: |
| 16.0 | 100.0 |
| 14.0 | 93.3 |
| 12.5 | 88.0 |
| 10.0 | 78.3 |
| 8.0 | 69.6 |
| 6.3 | 61.4 |

Table 3: Grading curve of a concrete with recycled aggregates.

The algorithm, inclusive of the dislocation procedure, has been used to repro- duce the real grading curve with spheric particles only. This example compares the results obtained by considering two possible maximum numbers of attempts to collocate an inclusion, i.e. 100 and 150.

The comparison between the real and the numerical solution (Fig. 10) shows again a fairly good agreement, despite the expected irregular shape of these type of aggregates partially included in the mix.

The grading curve has been divided into 11 different aggregate diameters, with dimension ranging from 15 to 5 mm , with an interval of 1 mm ; the maximum volume fraction at each diameter has been obtained by interpolating the passing through each sieve reported in Tab. 3 .


Figure 10: Experimental-numerical comparison of the real and simulated grading curve of a concrete mix with recycled aggregates.

The maximum error is again encountered in placing the finest aggregates, equal to $6.7 \%$ for the optimal algorithm considering 150 maximum attempts, with an average error equal to only $1.62 \%$. Despite the negligible increase in the number of attempts, the higher $N_{\max }$ the more reliable the simulated grain packing.

## Conclusions

An algorithm to randomly distribute in space ellipsoidal inclusions and in agreement with real grading curves for concrete materials has been outlined; the simulated packing densities are proved to be very close to the experimental - values both for regular round aggregates, which can be better approximated with ellipsoids, and aggregates of irregular shape, like crushed particles from demolition waste.

The novelty of the approach stands on the dislocation procedure introduced into the algorithm to minimize voids and enhance packing between particles without overlapping.

The same algorithm applied to polydispersed spheres reaches similar packing density values, though with a more refined grain size distribution in input if compared to ellipsoidal inclusions, which is more expensive from the computational point of view. Such an algorithm appears to be particularly suitable for being implemented into FE codes devoted to analyse composite materials via continuum models.

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