1	Flexural impact response of textile reinforced cementitious composites
2	(TRC)
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12	Keywords: impact behaviour, cement composites, high performance, glass fibres, textile
13	reinforced cement, TRC
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15	
16	Abstract
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18	This work presents the characterisation of the local low velocity impact behaviour
19	of a high performance fibre reinforced cementitious composite (HPFRCC) made of
20	phosphate cement and different types of E-glass textile reinforcements. The so called
21	"energy profiling method" that was used for quantitative characterisation is adopted from
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Liu et al. (2004) who introduced this methodology on polymer matrix composites (PMC). A series of plates reinforced with chopped strand E-glass fibre mats (fibre volume fraction of 24%) was impacted during drop weight tests, showing that this methodology is as well applicable to textile reinforced cementitious composites. Further, the effects of impactor size and plate thickness were investigated experimentally, and finally the obtained results were compared to literature data for polymer matrix composites.

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29 1. Introduction

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31 It is known from literature that laminated polymer matrix composite structures, 32 eventually stiffened or in sandwich form, present superior specific energy absorption 33 compared to their metallic counterparts. The different damage mechanisms such as 34 delamination, fibre debonding, and fibre and matrix cracking, make them suitable 35 candidates for high energy absorption applications such as protecting structures against 36 low velocity impacts [1]. Besides the composite materials with polymer matrix (PMC), a 37 new generation composites with a cementitious matrix has been developed during recent 38 years, the so called High Performance Fibre Reinforced Cementitious Composites 39 (HPFRCC). A definition for these cementitious composite materials was presented by 40 Naaman and Reinhardt [2,3]. HPFRCC materials are characterised by their distinct tensile 41 strain hardening behaviour which leads to an increased energy absorption capacity. Their 42 characteristics can even be enhanced when making use of well-oriented and well-43 structured fibre textile reinforcement, as in textile reinforced cement or concrete (TRC) 44 [4-7]. High tensile strength and post-cracking stiffness, as well as strict crack control, can 45 be obtained with high volume fractions (over 20%) of different fibres (glass, carbon, 46 aramid, ...) [8,9]. Some differences with polymer matrix composites can however be 47 expected in the damage and failure mechanisms under impact loading: indeed, the 48 cementitious matrix is stiffer but more brittle than most polymeric matrices, presenting a 49 small failure strain in tension and shear; moreover, the bond strength between fibres and 50 matrix is much lower. Several studies of TRC under dynamic tensile loading [10-12] or 51 flexural impact loading [13-16] were published in recent years. They are however 52 restricted to beam configurations, and the information on energy absorption capacity and 53 damage mechanisms is limited.

54 Low velocity impact behaviour is often assessed using drop weight impact tests. 55 Even though a standard ASTM impact test, describing a single drop weight impact test 56 and its configuration, is available for polymer matrix composites (PMC) [17], it does not 57 allow the complete and objective characterisation of the impact behaviour of the 58 composite plate material in relation with the occurring damage. In this paper, it is 59 investigated whether a testing and analysis methodology, originally developed for PMC, 60 can be applied to TRC composites in order to quantitatively and objectively characterise 61 and compare their low velocity impact behaviour.

62 This methodology, called the energy profiling technique, was developed by Liu 63 [18,19], and allows to link the quantitative results to the observed damage phenomena. A 64 total of around 10 to 15 identical plate specimens of the composite material of interest are 65 manufactured. Each specimen is tested in a drop weight impact test at a different impact energy level. The force and displacement histories are measured during the complete 66 67 impact event, and are used for the interpretation of the results with regard to the occurring 68 damage phenomena. Essentially, the produced data are processed in order to obtain a 69 "master curve" that contains all force-deflection curves of the tested plates, and a so called "energy profile" in which the absorbed energy for each test is compared to the impactenergy as determined from the potential energy of the impactor before the test.

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73 2. Experimental program

74 **2.1. Test set-up**

75 The used testing device is a drop weight tower which is schematically drawn in Figure 2, and which was developed at the Department of Materials Science and 76 77 Engineering at the University of Ghent [20]. The drop weight tower consists of an 78 impactor, sliding along two guiding bars which are supported horizontally against a wall. 79 The roller bearings are designed in order to minimize friction along the sidebars. The 80 level of impact blow can be varied by changing the drop height of the impactor, with a 81 maximum height of 3 m. It can be noticed that this changes simultaneously both the 82 impact energy and the impact velocity. The end part of the impactor can be equipped with 83 a hemispherical head with a diameter according to the user's needs. In order to enable the 84 evaluation of the effect of the impactor head diameter, two hemispherical heads are used 85 in this work. Their respective diameters are 50 mm and 70 mm. Results for a head 86 diameter of 20 mm were reported elsewhere, and will be used as comparison [21]. The 87 total mass of the impactor is around 7.9 kg. The square plate specimens are clamped along 88 their four edges within a 250 mm by 250 mm square steel frame. Homogeneous clamping 89 is obtained using 20 bolts equally divided over the four edges. The bolts are screwed with 90 a torque key to assure an equal tightening at all positions.



Figure 1: drop weight impact test set-up

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94 As is shown in Figure 1, the set-up is equipped with three sensors which are all 95 placed on the impactor. The load sensor (blue), Isotron type Endevco model 2311-1 with a full range of +22000/-2200 kN, is positioned as close as possible to the head of the 96 97 impactor in order to avoid interference of joints and bolted parts. The acceleration sensor 98 (red), an ICP Accelerometer model 350B03 with a full scale of ± 10000 g, is placed on 99 top of the impactor. The third sensor, which is indicated in green, is a magnetic 100 displacement sensor Kübler Limes LI20/B1. The data obtained from this sensor were 101 however not sufficiently accurate to measure the deflections. These were obtained by 102 double integration over time of the acceleration signal, the accuracy of which was verified 103 by comparison with digital image correlation measurements on the impactor.

Furthermore, all drop weight tests are recorded with a high speed camera (Photron
APX-RS) which is placed in front of the impactor, providing a view on the plate during
the impact event. The different damage mechanisms can be linked to the camera footage
of the impact. The frame rate was limited to 4500 fps in order to ensure a maximum 5/24

resolution of 1024x1024. The data measurements from the equipment on the impactor are synchronised with the data capturing of the camera. Triggering is performed based on a load threshold level of 200N. The total time window for the measurements is set to 3 seconds (0.5 s before, and 2.5 s after the trigger point), which is sufficiently long to capture the impact event.

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114 **2.2 Test series - specimens**

Four series of at least 11 plate specimens are manufactured by means of hand layup as described in [22]. A constant fibre volume fraction V_f of 24% was targeted. Their characteristics (average and standard deviation) are given in Table 1.

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Table 1: overview of the test series

series name	average thickness (mm)	average mass (kg)	Vf (%)	Øi (mm)	h (mm)	max Ei (J)
CSM-20	4.01 (0.18)	503 (26)	23.7 (0.9)	20	50-1000	77.7
CSM-50	3.83 (0.11)	484 (18)	24.7 (0.7)	50	50-750	58.0
CSM-70	3.95 (0.06)	503 (9)	23.9 (0.4)	70	50-850	65.7
CSM-70-4	2.17 (0.11)	256 (14)	21.8 (1.1)	70	50-350	27.1

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CSM in the name stands for the used reinforcement: emulsion bonded glass fibre chopped strand mat type M705 manufactured by European Owens Corning Fiberglas, with nominal mat weight of 300 g/m^2 . The numbers 20, 50 and 70 in the name stand for the impactor diameter \emptyset in mm. Each laminate is build up with 8 layers of fibre mat, except series CSM-70-4, which contains only 4 layers. The range of drop heights h, and the corresponding maximum impact energy E_i are also given in Table 1.

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127 **3. Results and discussion**

In the first part of this section, the damage phenomena and damage mechanisms during a low velocity impact event on IPC-TRC composite plates are studied using the energy profiling method proposed by Liu [18,19], supported by the high speed camera images. Subsequently, the effect is investigated of changing test and specimen parameters on the impact characteristics. In the last part of this section, the obtained results for TRC are compared to results from literature obtained for PMC.

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135 **3.1 Damage characterisation**

The data resulting from the impact tests are presented in Figures 3 to 6 and Tables 2 to 5 in the next section 3.2. In the present section, the general impact behaviour of IPC-TRC composite plates will be described, based on an excerpt of the data from series "CSM-20" (Figure 3), which is represented in Figure 2. The synchronisation of the camera footage (not represented here) with the test data is used to support the following observations:

all force-deflection curves are quite similar in their ascending loading stage and
 descending unloading stage, except the rebounding stage (decreasing deflection
 in the unloading stage). As such, they form a mountain-shape master curve. The
 main damage in the plate occurs locally, even though the deflections of the plate
 can become relatively large;

none of the force-deflection curves are returning to the origin after the impact, and
 are therefore not fully closed. This implies that for none of these impact events
 the energy absorption is fully elastic. Nevertheless, curves 1a and 1b of Figure 2
 (low impact energies) could be considered as closed curves, because of their
 pronounced rebounding section and the small contribution of the matrix damage.

The absorbed energy for curves 1a and 1b remains less than half of the impact energy, and is resulting from local matrix indentation at the contact area and local debonding and slip between fibres and matrix. It is proposed to call this the indentation range;



156 157

Figure2: typical force-deflection curves extracted from master curve

158 at an impact energy of around 23 J (curve 1b in Figure 2), local damage starts to 159 occur at the back side of the laminate at the point of impact. This could be called 160 the damage initiation threshold. For impact energies higher than this one, the peak 161 force remains constant: it is directly related to the bending- and shear resistance 162 of the material. The deflection at peak load also remains constant, followed by a 163 softening range increasing with impact energy, accompanied by a decreasing 164 rebound. With increasing impact energy, additional damage will develop caused 165 by fibre breakage at the backside due to local bending, and cracks will form under 166 the impactor (curve 2 in Figure 2). An increasing fraction (over 50%) of the impact 167 energy is absorbed. It is proposed to call this the damage development range;

at an impact energy higher than 42 J, the impactor starts to penetrate in the
laminate, corresponding to the penetration threshold. This is indicated by an
increasing deflection (actually: the maximum displacement of the impactor) at
constant low contact force caused by friction between the impactor and the
specimen, before a very limited elastic rebound (curve 3). Finally, the impactor
will not rebound anymore and will perforate the plate at the so-called perforation
threshold.

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176 **3.2 Effect of varying parameters**

177 Four series of tests are executed, while varying some parameters (Table 1): for 178 series CSM-20, CSM-50 and CSM-70, the diameter of the impactor was varied from 20, 179 over 50, to 70 mm in order to investigate its influence on the impact response; when 180 comparing series CSM-70 with CSM-70-4, the influence of the thickness of the laminates 181 is investigated. The test results are summarized in Tables 2 to 5. The drop height h, the 182 impact velocity v_0 , and the theoretical impact energy E_i are given in the first three 183 columns. The next column represents the corrected impact energy, Eir, taking into account 184 the energy losses, amongst others, due to friction during the fall of the impactor. The 185 remaining columns show the main impact characteristics, i.e. absorbed energy E_a, peak 186 force F_{peak} , maximum deflection d_{max} , deflection at the peak force d_{peak} , and contact 187 duration T.

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Table 2: results of	CSM-20 series [21]
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speci-	h	V 0	Ei	Eir	Ea	Fpeak	dmax	dpeak	Т
men	(mm)	(m/s)	(J)	(J)	(J)	(N)	(mm)	(mm)	(ms)
1	50	0.99	3.9	3.7	1.2	1143	6.6	6.6	20.1
2	100	1.40	7.8	7.2	2.8	1750	9.8	9.8	19.6
3	200	1.98	15.5	14.2	6.6	2812	11.9	11.8	16.7
4	250	2.22	19.4	17.9	8.7	3208	13.3	13.2	16.5
5	325	2.53	25.3	23.0	11.5	3904	13.3	13.2	14.9
6	350	2.62	27.2	24.6	16.0	3782	14.5	13.8	16.2
7	400	2.80	31.1	27.9	22.5	3863	15.6	13.9	16.6

8	450	2.97	35.0	32.3	27.9	3739	17.4	14.0	17.3
9	500	3.13	38.8	35.9	32.4	3639	20.0	14.9	19.1
10	550	3.29	42.7	39.0	36.8	3325	22.2	13.9	22.2
11	575	3.36	44.7	40.5	37.2	3978	21.0	14.4	20.5
12	600	3.43	46.6	42.2	41.6	3776	24.6	13.7	29.2
13	700	3.71	54.4	49.0	48.6	3813	32.6	14.1	35.4
14	900	4.20	69.9	55.3	54.8	4235	-	13.4	-
15	1000	4.43	77.7	69.5	65.0	4115	-	13.8	-

Table 3: results of CSM-50 series

Ea

(J)

0.5

2.4

3.8

7.0

9.0

12.0

15.9

19.3

26.0

31.6

Fpeak

(N)

1093

1531

2026

2828

3149

3439

3470

3702

4079

4749

dmax

(mm)

6.7

8.6

10.9

13.2

14.5

14.9

15.2

16.3

17.9

18.2

dpeak

(mm)

6.7

8.6

10.9

13.2

14.5

14.8

14.9

15.6

16.8

16.5

Т

(ms)

20.2

18.9

17.8

16.2

15.6

14.8

14.8

15.0

14.9

14.5

Eir

(J)

3.0

6.1

9.0

14.7

17.7

20.6

23.8

26.8

32.7

38.3

Ei

(J)

3.9

7.7

11.6

19.3

23.2

27.1

30.9

35.0

42.5

50.3

V0

(m/s)

0.99

1.40

1.72

2.22

2.43

2.62

2.80

2.97

3.29

3.57

189 190

speci-

men

1

2

3

10

h

(mm)

50

100

150

250

300

350

400

450

550

650

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	11	750	3.84	58.0	44.3	38.4	4520	19.9	17.2	15.1
-				Table 4	: results	of CSM	[-70 serie	S		
	speci-	h	V 0	Ei	Eir	Ea	Fpeak	dmax	dpeak	Т
	men	(mm)	(m/s)	(J)	(J)	(J)	(N)	(mm)	(mm)	(ms)
	1	50	0.99	3.9	3.4	1.4	1129	5.9	5.9	18.5
	2	100	1.40	7.7	6.8	3.2	1746	8.2	8.2	17.3
	3	200	1.98	15.5	13.3	6.7	2764	10.7	10.6	15.5
	4	250	2.22	19.3	16.6	8.1	3173	12.7	12.7	15.9
	5	300	2.43	23.2	19.9	10.5	3630	12.9	12.7	14.6
	6	350	2.62	27.1	23.0	12.4	3959	13.5	13.5	14.3
	7	400	2.80	30.9	26.3	14.7	4262	14.9	14.7	14.4
	8	450	2.97	34.8	29.1	15.4	4617	15.4	15.3	14.0
	9	550	3.29	42.5	35.9	23.2	4788	17.2	16.6	13.8
	10	650	3.57	50.3	43.1	33.9	5304	18.7	18.1	14.0
	11	750	3.84	58.0	49.3	38.3	5828	19.2	18.5	13.4
	12	850	4.08	65.7	55.5	45.1	6387	19.8	18.8	13.7

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Table 5: results of CSM-70-4 series

speci-	h	V 0	Ei	Eir	Ea	Fpeak	dmax	dpeak	Т
men	(mm)	(m/s)	(J)	(J)	(J)	(N)	(mm)	(mm)	(ms)
1	50	0.99	3.9	3.5	1.6	943	10.1	10.0	25.8
2	100	1.40	7.7	6.8	3.4	1463	12.7	12.7	22.5
3	150	1.72	11.6	10.1	5.3	1924	14.4	14.3	20.5
4	200	1.98	15.5	13.4	7.4	2396	15.3	15.2	18.8
5	350	2.62	27.1	23.1	20.3	2557	21.0	16.4	23.3

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The master curves, combining all individual force-deflection curves, as well as the corresponding energy-time curves, are depicted in Figures 3 to 6. 197



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Figure 4: a) master curve and b) energy-time curves of CSM-50 series

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Figure 5: a) master curve and b) energy-time curves of CSM-70 series



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Figure 6: a) master curve and b) energy-time curves of CSM-70-4 series

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The results from test series CSM-20 will be used as reference for the discussion, after which the influence of the varying parameters will be addressed. The following observations can be made for CSM-20, making use of the camera footage and visual observations after impact:

214 regarding the energy-time curves, (Figure 3b), a clear change can be observed in 215 the shape of the curves with increasing impact energy: in the first five tests (impact 216 energy less than 23 J, up to curve 1b in Figure 2) a bell-shaped curve is observed. 217 This indicates that the main part of the impact energy is elastically stored and 218 returned to the impactor, causing it to rebound; thus only minor matrix crushing 219 is observed besides indentation. The absorbed energy E_a is defined as the 220 inelastically absorbed energy (final point of the curve), thus omitting the elastic 221 energy used to rebound the impactor. Once impact energies higher than 23 J are 222 applied, the curves start to flatten out. The elastic energy even approaches zero 223 (horizontal tail of the curve) for the tests performed with an impact energy of 224 42.2 J and 49 J. This indicates that the extent of damage is increased dramatically. 225 In the case of an impact energy of 69.5 J, perforation even takes place. This can

be detected in the energy-time curve: the absorbed energy keeps increasing at a very low rate. This increase is however only due to friction between the impactor and the edges of the hole which is made in the plate. The energy absorption due to friction is therefore not taken into account for the energy absorption capacity.

- Another clear trend in the energy-time curve can be found in the contact duration: this decreases first due to higher impact speed, but it starts to increase again when increasing energy absorption due to damage is observed;
- 233 analogous to Liu's work [18], the threshold values for penetration and perforation 234 can be calculated by using the energy profile (Figure 7). Penetration starts when 235 the absorbed energy becomes equal to the impact energy, while the penetration 236 threshold is the point where the absorbed energy again becomes lower than the 237 impact energy. Liu suggests fitting a second order polynomial through all data 238 points that are situated before reaching the equal energy line in Figure 7, in order 239 to exactly determine the penetration threshold. A good correlation ($R^2 = 0.99$) is 240 found and a penetration threshold of 42.5 J is calculated. It is not possible to 241 exactly determine the perforation threshold from these tests, since only the last 242 measuring point is situated again under the equal energy line. The perforation 243 threshold is therefore assumed to lie in between these two measured points (55.3 J 244 to 69.5 J);

finally, the energy absorption efficiency can be calculated as the ratio between the area surrounded by the fitted curve and the impact energy-axis, and the area under the equal energy line up to the penetration threshold (see Figure 7). A value of 68.0% is obtained, which means that over the tested range of impact energies 68% of the impact energy can be absorbed by the tested material for the given impact conditions.



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Figure 7: energy profile CSM-20 series

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The most important impact characteristics of all series are summarised in Table 6. The peak force is given as an average value of the maximum forces of the curves that showed local damage. Its standard deviation, which is around 5 %, is also given in between brackets, except for CSM-70 where only one measurement is available.

Table 6: comparison between results obtained from different test series								
series name	F _{peak} (N)	Damage initiation threshold (J)	Penetration threshold (J)	Energy efficiency coefficient (%)				
CSM-20	3758 (189)	23.0	42.5	68.0				
CSM-50	4634 (162)	20.6	56.0	79.2				
CSM-70	6387	29.0	75.8	77.8				
CSM-70-4	2477 (114)	15.5	26.6	75.0				

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The following observations can be made from the measurements (Figures 3 to 6, Tables 2 to 5) and computed impact characteristics (Table 6), together with the camera footage:

the type of occurring local damage remains the same for all tested impactor sizes:
 after indentation, the damage mechanisms are local crushing and fibre-matrix
 debonding or delamination; further damage is caused by fibre breakage at the non impacted side due to bending. However, larger impactor sizes lead to higher

267 impact forces: the peak force and the penetration threshold are nearly doubled for 268 an increase of impactor diameter from 20 mm to 70 mm. At the same time, matrix 269 cracking becomes more globally distributed over the test plates. Furthermore, the 270 energy efficiency is higher for the larger impactor sizes, since the damage 271 development stage in the energy profile is larger: with the investigated impact 272 energies, the energy-time curves remain bell-shaped (Figures 4 and 5), indicating 273 that it was even impossible to reach the penetration threshold for impactor sizes 274 of 50 mm and 70 mm; the values in Table 6 are obtained by extrapolation, 275 following the procedure of Figure 7 which is on the conservative side since the 276 real value is in between this value and the one next to it with higher impact energy;

277 the effect of decreasing the laminate thickness is as expected: the peak force as 278 well as the range of indentation and the penetration threshold decrease. However, 279 the energy efficiency does not seem to be influenced by the thickness. This implies 280 that in case of a given material combination, different impact energies can be 281 absorbed with a constant efficiency by only adapting the thickness. However, 282 when the peak force is a crucial design parameter, the situation becomes more 283 complex: the peak force is found to increase more than linearly with thickness, 284 due to the quadratic relation between elastic stresses and thickness. Finally, the 285 matrix cracking density over the whole plate is found to be larger for thinner plates 286 because of higher global deflections.

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288 4. Comparison with polymer matrix composites

In general, the test results for IPC-TRC composites are qualitatively very similar to those reported for PMCs [18,19,23,24]. The shape of TRC and PMC master curves is 15/24 comparable: above a critical impact energy, a constant peak force is reached and the subsequent unloading part exhibits two different stages: a first stage in which local damage is caused by the impactor, and a second in which the excess energy is returned to the impactor resulting in a rebound. The damage phenomena are however slightly different, indicated by the absence of closed curves for TRC. This is due to the low tensile strength of the cementitious matrix, leading to matrix damage and thus residual deflection from a relatively low impact energy on.

298 In order to situate the results obtained on the impact characteristics of IPC-TRC 299 laminates in a broader context and to compare with PMC, a short overview of several 300 experimental investigations from literature, based on the data given in Table 7, is provided 301 in this section. The examples that are given below are chosen because their similarity in 302 testing procedure and interpretation methodology with the ones that were applied in this 303 work. Nevertheless, the test configurations are not equal for all cases, which complicates 304 the interpretation. The specimen dimensions, the impactor diameter Φ_i and the fibre 305 reinforcement architecture are presented in the first three columns of Table 7, followed 306 by the computed parameters damage initiation threshold E_{dmg} , penetration threshold E_{pen} , 307 perforation threshold E_{per} and energy efficiency coefficient η_E , as defined above. The 308 first row of Table 7 contains the results for the glass fibre reinforced IPC composites from 309 series CSM-20, the following ones results from literature on PMC.

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Table 7: comparison between TRC and PMC composites

material	dimensions (mm)	Øi (mm)	fibre arch.	Edmg (J)	Epen (J)	E _{per} (J)	ηε (%)
CSM-20	250x250x4.0	20	CSM	23.0	42.5	69.5	68.0
glass/epoxy [23] carbon/epoxy [23]	270x270x4.0 270x270x2.8	19 19	woven UD	15.0 30.0	-	-	-
glass/polyester [24] glass/polyester [24]	100x100x4.0 100x100x4.0	10 10	UD woven	10.0 15.0	30.0 40.0	32.3 50.0	-
glass/epoxy [18] glass/epoxy [19]	125x100x3.2 125x125x6.3	12.5 12.5	crossply crossply	-	38.0 127.9	45.5 143	- 76.1

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312 It is clear from Table 7 that the reported specimen dimensions, as well as the size of 313 the impactor, are not equal in all cases. It was observed above that an increasing 314 impactor diameter causes the threshold values to be shifted to higher energies as a 315 consequence of the larger contact area. On the other hand, the impactor size did not 316 have an unambiguous effect on the energy absorption efficiency. A similar trend was 317 reported by Liu [19]. Consequently, results for impactors with a similar size should 318 be compared. On the other hand, the plate thickness obviously influences the force-319 deflection curves and the damage threshold values, but was found to have no 320 significant effect on the energy absorption efficiency. For a good comparison of the 321 results, the thickness should thus be similar except for the efficiency parameter. The 322 effect of changing dimensions of the specimens has not been investigated in this work. 323 Given the results that were discussed earlier, which clearly showed that the damage 324 is occurring mainly locally, it can be assumed that the in-plane specimen dimensions 325 do not have a significant effect on the energy absorption as long as the impact damage 326 is local and does not reach to the boundaries.

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328 Hosseinzadeh et al [23] investigated glass and carbon fibre reinforced epoxy 329 laminates with different thicknesses (4.0 mm for glass/epoxy and 2.8 mm for 330 carbon/epoxy). The specimen dimensions of the glass/epoxy specimens as well as the 331 used impactor are very similar to those used in this work: specimens with dimensions 332 270 mm by 270 mm were clamped at 4 edges and impacted using a hemispherical 333 impactor with a diameter of 19 mm. The mass of the impactor was also similar (5.5 kg). 334 The damage initiation energy of the CSM-20 series (23 J) was found to be higher than the 335 values reported by Hosseinzadeh et al for glass/epoxy composites, but lower than for 336 carbon/epoxy composites (30 J) with a thickness of only 2.8 mm. Finally, it should be 17/24

noted that the values reported by Hosseinzadeh et al are obtained on either woven or UD
fabrics, which are assumed to perform better than CSM reinforcements due to the long
fibre length.

340 Damage initiation thresholds are reported by Evci and Gülgeç [24] for woven and 341 UD glass fibre reinforced polyester. Taking into account the smaller impactor size 342 (diameter 10 mm) compared to the one used for the CSM-20 series, the damage initiation 343 threshold can again be considered as comparable. Evci and Gülgec also report penetration 344 and perforation thresholds for these materials. Again, taking into account on one hand the 345 smaller diameter of the impactor and on the other hand the more than double fibre volume 346 fraction, the results can be considered as comparable with those obtained for the CSM-20 347 series.

It is more difficult to compare the results reported by Liu [18,19] to those obtained within this work, due to the differences as well in specimen thickness, impactor diameter and fibre architecture. Nevertheless, the reported values are still in the same order of magnitude when taking into account these differences and their effect on the threshold values.

353 Overall, it can be stated that the behaviour of IPC-TRC composites under low 354 velocity impact as tested in a drop weight impact test, is very similar to that of PMCs. 355 Taking into account several differences in the test configurations, all threshold values as 356 well as the energy absorption efficiency were observed to be situated in the same order 357 of magnitude. It can therefore be concluded that the low velocity impact performance of IPC-TRC composites can be characterised well with Liu's energy profiling method, and 358 359 that IPC-TRC composites show a similar potential as PMCs for structures that can be 360 subjected to accidental loadings.

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362 **5.** Conclusions

The results obtained by drop weight impact testing of textile reinforced cement laminates reinforced with chopped strand glass fibre mats, allow the following conclusions to be drawn:

- 366 Drop weight impact behaviour of textile reinforced cement laminates can be 367 quantitatively described by the energy profiling technique, which has been 368 proposed for polymer matrix composites [19]. The load-deflection curves for 369 different impact energies show a mountain-like shape with a common master 370 curve: a first loading stage up to the peak force is followed by a stage of 371 descending force, first with increasing deflection resulting from local damage 372 development, and secondly with decreasing deflection indicating rebounding of 373 the impactor, unless perforation takes place.
- The observed damage mechanisms are similar to those of polymer matrix
 composites. In the first stage, local matrix crushing and indentation occur, while
 in the second stage fibre-matrix debonding and delamination occur, followed by
 fibre failure at the non-impacted side.
- The master curves as well as the energy-time curves and energy profiles are comparable to those for polymer matrix composites. The numerical values reported here for damage initiation threshold (23 J), penetration threshold (42 J), perforation threshold (69 J) and energy efficiency (75%) compare favourably with those from similar polymer matrix composites. A difference however is the absence of closed load-deflection curves due to early damage in the brittle

384 cementitious matrix. This implies that the impact is almost never fully elastic, 385 although the absorbed energy in the ascending stage of loading is quite small. 386 Changing the impactor size influences the peak force and the penetration 387 threshold, which are nearly doubled for an increase of the impactor diameter from 388 20 mm to 70 mm. Also the energy absorption efficiency increases with larger 389 impactor diameter. This implies that the investigated IPC-TRC laminates will 390 perform better when subjected to larger impacting bodies. 391 In case of a given material combination, different impact energies can be absorbed 392 with a constant efficiency by only adapting the thickness. If however the peak

force is a crucial parameter, the situation becomes more complex: the peak force
is found to increase more than linearly with thickness, due to the nonlinear relation
between stresses and thickness.

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