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1 **3D mesoscale modeling and fracture property study of rubberized**
2 **self-compacting concrete based on uniaxial tension test**

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11

12 **Abstract:** Rubberized concrete is a new type of building material intended to utilise
13 waste rubber with a potential for significant economic and environmental benefits.
14 However, its strength is lower than the strength of ordinary concrete due to the
15 introduction of rubber material, which might affect its application in practical
16 engineering. To improve the mechanical performance of rubberized self-compacting
17 concrete (RSCC), it is a necessary to study the internal mechanisms of strength
18 formation, degradation and failure. Based on the uniaxial tensile test of RSCC, this
19 work reports on the development and validation of a mesoscale model of RSCC, which
20 accounts for its heterogeneity. RSCC is considered to be composed of mortar, coarse
21 aggregate, rubber particles, aggregate-mortar interface transition zone (A-M ITZ),
22 rubber particle-mortar interface transition zone (R-M ITZ), and initial defects. The
23 mesoscopic model is validated by comparing the simulation results with test results.

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24 The model is then used to analyse the mechanical properties, crack generation and
25 propagation, and expansion of self-compacting concrete (SCC) and RSCC are
26 compared and analysed. Further, the effects of different volume fractions of rubber on
27 the mechanical properties of RSCC are studied. It is found that the mechanical
28 properties and final fracture surface morphology of RSCC with different rubber content
29 are significantly different, and the causes of these differences are discussed.

30 **Keywords:** RSCC; R-M ITZ; Uniaxial tensile test; 3D mesoscale model; Fracture
31 property; Crack morphology

32 **1. Introduction**

33 Nowadays, waste rubber, predominantly from used tires, has become the second-largest
34 polymer pollutant and its disposal has attracted increasing attention across countries
35 and governments. The treatment of waste rubber generally included physical processing,
36 chemical decomposition, stacking, landfill, and combustion. Among these, landfill,
37 burning, and chemical decomposition are very harmful to the environment, and natural
38 placement cannot clear up the waste rubber for a short period. An effective method to
39 deal with the waste rubber is by crushing used tires and adding them into rubberized
40 concrete after physical processing. Rubberized concrete can effectively solve the
41 problem of disposal of rubber products such as used tires and has unique advantages in
42 environmental protection.

43 In the production process of rubberized concrete, rubber powder or rubber particles

44 are used to replace the coarse and fine aggregates inside the concrete by equal volume
45 or equal mass. The incorporation of rubber particles changes concrete properties from
46 the known properties of plain concrete. Eldin [1], Toutanji [2], Topcu [3], Guoqiang li
47 [4], F. Hernandez [5,6] demonstrated experimentally that with the increase of rubber
48 content, the compressive strength, flexural strength and tensile strength of concrete
49 specimens decreased, while plastic properties improved significantly. L.Zheng [7],
50 Feng Liu [8] studied the seismic performance of rubberized concrete by vibration test.
51 The test results showed that the damping ratio of rubber concrete was much higher than
52 the ordinary concrete, and the dynamic elastic modulus was lower than the ordinary
53 concrete. Wang her Yung [9] studied the durability of RSCC through experiments. The
54 results showed that the toughness and durability of RSCC could be significantly
55 improved when the rubber content was 5%. These scholars have made many
56 contributions to explore the property of rubberized concrete and expand the engineering
57 utilization of rubberized concrete. A common conclusion from their research is that the
58 incorporation of rubber can significantly improve the apparent density, durability, shock
59 absorption, impact resistance, heat insulation, sound insulation, and other properties of
60 concrete but at the same time its strength will decline substantially. To improve the
61 strength of rubberized concrete, the crack pattern and failure mechanism need to be
62 studied and understood in sufficient detail, e.g. via explicit representation of its
63 constituents using meso-scale models. However, little attention has been given to this
64 type of modelling of rubberized concrete[10]. One of the very few contributions is the

65 work by Feng Liu [11] who considered the rubberized concrete as a composite of
66 aggregate, rubber and mortar, which however is quite different from the actual
67 rubberized concrete where interfacial transition zones(ITZs) are known to control
68 damage initiation and propagation. Another notable work is by ZH Xie [12], who
69 analysed the mechanical properties of rubberized concrete by a 2D model, where the
70 material contained four phases: aggregate, rubber, mortar, and aggregate-mortar
71 interface. This work, however, omitted explicit representation of the phase with weakest
72 mechanical properties, namely R-M ITZ. Furthermore, 2D analysis is not a reliable
73 approach to studying the complex crack patterns forming in real materials. To the best
74 of our knowledge, a study regarding rubberized concrete as a six-phases material
75 composed of aggregate, rubber, mortar, voids, A-M ITZ, R-M ITZ, in a 3D mesoscale
76 heterogeneous model has not been proposed to date. Such a study would allow for
77 substantially more realistic representation of the rubberized concrete mesostructure and
78 correspondingly more reliable analysis and discussion of its mechanical properties. In
79 this paper, appropriate 3D meso-scale model is proposed and validated using uniaxial
80 tensile tests. The model is used to investigate the crack formation mechanism and
81 mechanical properties of rubberized concrete.

82 The paper is organised as follows. Uniaxial tension tests of rubberized self-
83 compacting concrete with different rubber particle content are presented in Section 2.
84 Based on the test results, a 3D mesoscale model of rubberized self-compacting concrete
85 is established and presented in Section 3. The parameters and constitutive law of the

86 3D model are determined by the test results and trial calculations. Model validation is
87 performed in Section 4, where comparison between simulations and experiments is
88 shown. Section 5 presents parametric studies investigating the effects of rubber content
89 on the strength, crack initiation, crack propagation and fracture morphology. Both test
90 results and simulation results show that the toughness of RSCC is improved compared
91 with that of SCC without rubber particle. The incorporation of rubber particles reduces
92 the failure rate of the whole prism and controls the final fracture morphology of the
93 uniaxial tensile cracks of RSCC.

94 **2. Experiment programme**

95 **2.1 Materials**

96 The exact mix proportions of RSCC used in this paper are shown Table 1. The materials
97 used are listed as follows: P.O.42.5 plain Portland cement with a density of 2600
98 kg/m³ ; gravel with size distribution shown in Table 2; river sand; rubber particles
99 with a density of 1050 kg/m³ ; fly ash; silica fume; highly efficient polycarboxylate
100 water reducer; tap water. Fine rubber particles were produced by mechanical shredding
101 of waste tire. These particles were sieved, and the particles with a size ranging from
102 3~5mm retained. The fine aggregate of concrete is replaced by the sieved rubber
103 particles in the volume of 0%, 5%, 10%, and 15 %, respectively. The specimens with
104 fine aggregates was replaced with 0%, 5%, 10%, 15% rubber particles were designated
105 by RSCC-0, RSCC-5, RSCC-10 and RSCC15, respectively.

106 **2.2 Specimen production**

107 Prescribed amounts of material according to the mix proportion - fine aggregate, cement,
108 fly ash and silica fume - were added and mixed for the 30s in the concrete mixer. This
109 was followed by coarse aggregate addition and to thorough stirring. Finally, the tap
110 water, water reducer and rubber particles were added and mixed for 3 minutes. The
111 produced fresh concrete was discharged and poured into plastic molds with dimensions
112 of $100\text{mm} \times 100\text{mm} \times 400\text{mm}$. The molds were removed after 24h. Then
113 specimens were cured in water for 28 days. As mentioned before, four groups specimen
114 with different rubber content were prepared.

115 **2.3 Specimen processing**

116 According to the previous studies [13,14], when the cross-section of a prism specimen
117 is kept constant, the measured tensile strength of the prism decreases with the increasing
118 of prism length of the prism due to size effect. However, when the aspect ratio of
119 prismatic specimens is 3~4, the measured tensile strength tends to be a constant. At the
120 same time, due to the clamping method used in this paper, the stress distribution in the
121 test piece is very uniform for a specimen with a length greater than 200 mm. Thus, the
122 length of the specimen was selected to be 300mm. Before the test, the specimens were
123 taken out from the curing pool and their lengths reduced by cutting off 50mm from both
124 ends. The specimens were cleaned up and steel plates with the same size were attached
125 at both ends using adhesive glue. The tensile strength of the glue used is not less than

126 10MPa, which is higher than the tensile strength of the concrete specimen, ensuring that
127 it will not be degummed during the tensile test. The steel plate was connected to the
128 testing machine through the ball hinge, as shown in Fig. 1. The horizontal ruler was
129 used for calibration in the process of pasting the steel plate to avoid the influence of
130 eccentricity. The positioning hole on the pasted steel plate was located at the section
131 centroid of the specimen to ensure the geometric alignment of the tensile test.

132 **2.4 Experimental procedure**

133 A 500kN MTS322 electro-hydraulic servo testing machine was adapted for loading,
134 and the specimen was connected to the testing machine through ball hinge. The test
135 machine was equipped with an extensometer (standard gauge 280mm, measuring range
136 $\pm 2.5\text{mm}$), which could measure the deformation of the recorded test piece and could
137 also be used to control the test loading process. The extensor installation diagram is
138 shown in Fig. 1.

139 The deformation of the specimen was used as a control signal in the test loading to
140 obtain the full tensile stress-strain tensile curve. During the test, the load sensor of MTS
141 was used to measure the direct tension of the specimen, and the extensometer was
142 adopted to measure the deformation of the specimen.

143 3. 3D mesoscale model generation process and numerical simulation

144 setup

145 3.1 CDP Constitutive model

146 Under the external load of the concrete, in addition to the stiffness degradation
147 phenomenon caused by damage, unrecoverable permanent plastic deformation will
148 also occur. In recent years, many researchers have applied the two theoretical
149 frameworks of plasticity and damage to characterize the mechanical behavior of
150 concrete, such as Grassl [15], Badel [16], and Kim et al. [17]. The plastic-damage
151 model of concrete proposed by Lubliner et al. [18] and improved by Lee and Fenves
152 [19] can not only characterize the permanent plastic deformation of concrete under
153 external load but also describe the stiffness degradation caused by damage
154 accumulation of concrete and the mechanical behavior of material softening after
155 reaching peak strength. The main idea of the concrete damage model is to assume that
156 the failure pattern of concrete is cracking during tension and crushing under
157 compression. The isotropic damage variable is used to characterize the stiffness
158 degradation and unrecoverable plasticity caused by a tensile fracture and compression
159 failure of concrete. This is described mathematically by:

$$160 \quad \sigma = (1 - D)D_0^{el} : (\varepsilon - \varepsilon^{pl}) \quad (1)$$

161 where D represents the isotropic damage variable; D_0^{el} is the initial linear isotropic
162 elastic modulus; ε^{pl} represents the plastic strain tensor. The evolution of plasticity is

163 described by two hardening parameters, $\tilde{\epsilon}_t^{Pl}$ and $\tilde{\epsilon}_c^{Pl}$, where footers "t" and "c"
164 respectively represent tension and compression. Figures 2 (a) and (b) respectively
165 show the mechanical behaviour of concrete under uniaxial compression and tension.
166 Under tension, the material is linear elastic before reaching its strength f_t , and the
167 stiffness degradation occurs after exceeding the tensile strength. The softening stress-
168 displacement relation characterizes the stiffness degradation behaviour. Under
169 compression, the material is linear elastic before reaching a yield strength, typically
170 40%~60% of the compressive strength. When the stress is larger than the yield stress
171 but less than the peak stress, the material is in a strain hardening regime. After
172 exceeding the compressive strength (peak stress), strain softening, and stiffness
173 degradation occur. Uniaxial tensile and compressive stress-strain relationships can be
174 described in the form of stress and plastic strain, as follows:

$$175 \quad \sigma_t = \sigma_t(\tilde{\epsilon}_t^{pl}, \dot{\tilde{\epsilon}}_t^{pl}, \theta, f_i) \quad (2a)$$

$$176 \quad \sigma_c = \sigma_c(\tilde{\epsilon}_c^{pl}, \dot{\tilde{\epsilon}}_c^{pl}, \theta, f_i) \quad (2b)$$

177 where $\dot{\tilde{\epsilon}}_t^{pl}$ and $\dot{\tilde{\epsilon}}_c^{pl}$ is the equivalent plasticity strain rate of tension and compression,
178 respectively; θ is temperature; f_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots$) is custom field variable.

179 Under uniaxial tension and compression, the stiffness degradation of concrete
180 materials is defined by two independent uniaxial damage variables, namely the tensile
181 damage factor d_t and the compression damage factor d_c . The stress-strain
182 relationship of the material under uniaxial tension and compression conditions
183 corresponds to Fig. 2, and the expressions are:

184
$$\sigma_t = (1 - d_t)E_0(\varepsilon_t - \tilde{\varepsilon}_t^{pl}) \quad (3a)$$

185
$$\sigma_c = (1 - d_c)E_0(\varepsilon_c - \tilde{\varepsilon}_c^{pl}) \quad (3b)$$

186 **3.2 Generation of RSCC 3D mesoscale model**

187 Since the study of RSCC mesoscale model is uncommon, this paper attempts to
188 simulate the RSCC uniaxial tension test with a 3D mesoscale model for the first time
189 and explores other mechanical properties of RSCC through the established model.

190 The difficulty in establishing the 3D mesoscale model is that due to the
191 incorporation of rubber particles, a transitional zone between the rubber and the mortar
192 will be formed which is similar to the interface between the mortar and the coarse
193 aggregate. The nature of the interface transition zone between mortar and aggregate has
194 always been a hot topic of scholars. Nowadays, many scholars [17,20–24] regard the
195 interface transition zone between mortar and aggregate as a material similar to mortar,
196 but its porosity is much higher than mortar. Due to the existence of natural defects such
197 as voids and pores, it has always been a weak area of the overall structure. According
198 to the research of [5], the thickness of R-M ITZ is around 60 microns. And the thickness
199 of A-M ITZ is about 10~50 microns [25–27]. Therefore, the thickness of the R-M ITZ
200 is similar to that of the A-M ITZ. During the process of simulation, the most common
201 way is to treat the A-M ITZ as a thin layer of a certain thickness outside the aggregate.
202 Most scholars believed that the thickness of the A-M ITZ is fixed [21,23,28,29], while
203 H. Chen [30] thought that the thickness of the A-M ITZ varies with the size of the

204 aggregate. The larger the aggregate size, the thicker the A-M ITZ. Since this paper aims
205 to explore the mesoscale model of RSCC, the influence of the ITZ on the properties of
206 the material is not the focus. Therefore, the thickness of A-M ITZ and R-M ITZ are all
207 taken as 0.25mm to facilitate mesh generation and simulation calculation. In this paper,
208 coarse aggregate and rubber are assumed to be linear elastic materials, while mortar, A-
209 M ITZ, and R-M ITZ are defined as plastic-damaged materials, which all obey the CDP
210 constitutive model described above albeit with different parameters [28,29].

211 Many scholars have explored the method of establishing the mesoscale concrete
212 model [31–34] and used a variety of ways to generate aggregate particles and voids in
213 the concrete matrix. Generally, there are two specific methods to build the mesoscopic
214 model, one is a synthetic parameterization method, and the other is an image-based
215 modelling method. In the first method, the particles are randomly placed in the space
216 according to a pre-arranged particle distribution. The limitation of this method is the
217 position and size distribution of the aggregate are different from the actual concrete
218 specimen. But it has the advantage of an easy implement. The most significant
219 advantage of the second method is that the model is generated by X-ray tomography
220 (XCT) 2D image, and the created model has the same mesostructure with the test
221 sample. This method can reconstruct a series of 2D images into a 3D structure, and
222 further mesh and rebuild them into finite element models. The most significant
223 disadvantage of the second method is time-consuming and expensive, and the
224 reconstructed finite element model tends to be unable to perform further numerical

225 simulation and analysis due to a large number of elements. In this paper, the synthetic
226 parameterization method is used to generate the model with insufficient aggregate and
227 rubber particle distribution information, and then the generated 3D mesostructure is
228 transformed into a pixel-based image. Finally, the finite element model is generated by
229 an image-based method. The shape of the particles in this paper is all spheres to simplify
230 the mesoscale model.

231 The aggregate in concrete can be divided into coarse aggregate and fine aggregate,
232 only coarse aggregate is considered in the model, and fine aggregate is composed of
233 mortar together with cement. The particle size distribution of the coarse aggregate in
234 the model is consistent with the experimental gradation setting, as shown in Table 2.
235 The rubber particles are also kept consistent with the experimental setup; all the rubber
236 particle size is in the range of 3~5mm. Pores and voids are weak areas of concrete, and
237 the presence of pores and voids can provide a channel for the development of cracks.
238 Therefore, to fully reflect the mesostructure of concrete, the pores and voids should also
239 be included in the mesoscopic model. According to the CT scan results [35], the pore
240 size range is 1~2mm, and the porosity of SCC is 1%~3%. So, in this paper, the porosity
241 of the mesoscale model is set as 1%. Similarly to Ref. [24], finite-thickness A-M ITZ
242 and R-M ITZ elements are generated by enlarging aggregates and rubber particles
243 before the model is tessellated into voxels. Enlargement by radius increment of 0.25
244 mm is used for A-M ITZ and R-M ITZ.

245 The critical technology for model generation is the need to repeatedly generate

246 aggregates, rubber particles, and voids until the content of these three components
247 reaches a predetermined volume fraction. The whole process of particle filling consists
248 of three procedures: input- taking- placing. The input procedure is to input the dominant
249 information to generate randomly distributed aggregate, rubber particles, and voids
250 structure. The taking process produces aggregates, rubber particles, and pores
251 consistent with the random size and distribution demand. All the generated particles are
252 then placed into pre-defined areas irregularly and randomly according to pre-set
253 physical boundaries of the specimen. When placing particles into a given area, the
254 essential principle is that the aggregate, rubber particles, and pores cannot intersect or
255 overlap. In this paper, a direct, effective and easy method to implement 3D spherical
256 overlap detection is proposed which can be easily fulfilled by meeting the following
257 three requirements: (1) each particle must be contained within the volume of the
258 concrete, which can be satisfied by controlling the maximum and minimum values of
259 the particle coordinates; (2) there is no overlapping and intersect between all particles;
260 (3) the distance between all particles and the boundary of the concrete specimen should
261 be within a specific range, and the particles do not intersect with the concrete boundary.
262 As shown in Equation (4), for two sphere particles, the intersection and overlap
263 conditions can be easily checked by comparing the particle centre distance and the sum
264 of the two radii.

$$265 \quad \sqrt{(x'_0 - x_0)^2 + (y'_0 - y_0)^2 + (z'_0 - z_0)^2} \leq r + r' \quad (4)$$

266 x_0, y_0, z_0 are the center coordinates of the existed sphere, r is the radius of the sphere,

267 x'_0, y'_0, z'_0 are the center coordinates of the newly generated sphere, and r' is the
268 radius of the newly generated sphere.

269 Based on the above algorithm, a MATLAB code is compiled to generate concrete
270 specimens with randomly distributed aggregates, rubber particles, and voids. The flow
271 chart of the code to generate random particles is shown in Fig. 3.

272 To reduce the number of three-dimensional model elements and improve the
273 computational efficiency, the size of the 3D model specimens was set as
274 $50\text{mm} \times 50\text{mm} \times 150\text{mm}$, half of the test specimens. In this paper, four groups of
275 mesoscale numerical models were generated with the same composition and particle
276 gradation as in the test specimens. As shown in Fig. 4, the aggregate and rubber content
277 of the mesoscale model is the same in the test specimen.

278 **3.3 Uniaxial tensile simulation of the concrete prism**

279 The uniaxial tensile test of the concrete prism is conducted by the electro-hydraulic
280 servo tester simultaneously applies a tension force to the specimen at both ends
281 through a ball hinge. In the numerical simulation, to obtain the stress-strain
282 relationship from the simulation results, the specimen was fixed at one end, and the
283 displacement load was applied on all nodes at the other end. The solution was
284 obtained through the standard analysis of Abaqus. The simulation parameters used in
285 this paper are shown in Table 3. Similar to previous works [13,15,21,31–33], it is
286 assumed that the aggregate is linear elastic material which will not be damaged, and

287 the crack will not develop inside the aggregate. The rubber is originally an elastic
288 material, and its material parameters maintain its inherent material properties. The
289 selection of mortar parameters is inferred from the test results of SCC without adding
290 rubber. The study on the R-M ITZ parameters is not so common, but the study of [5]
291 shows the porosity of the R-M ITZ is quite larger than that of the A-M ITZ, and the
292 microstructure is worse than that of the A-M ITZ. It can be inferred that the
293 mechanical properties of the R-M ITZ are worse than the A-M ITZ. The parameters of
294 the A-M ITZ and the parameters of the R-M ITZ are obtained by referring to the
295 parameters in literature [11,12,15,24,33] and through trial calculation. The rationality
296 of the parameters used in this paper is verified by comparing the test and the
297 simulation results in section 4.

298 **4. Comparison of test results with numerical simulation results**

299 One of the RSCC-0 tensile tests failed during the testing process, so there was only
300 one effective test result of the RSCC-0 specimen. All the other specimen group has
301 two sets of test results, which can be used for validation. To prevent the low reliability
302 of simulation results caused by the difference in composition and the random
303 distribution of aggregate and rubber particle of a single model, three random
304 mesoscale models of each component were selected for numerical simulation. The
305 comparison of numerical simulation results and test results of each specimen group is
306 shown in Fig. 5, and the crack pattern and location of the test specimen and simulation
307 specimen are shown in Fig. 6.

308 As can be seen from Fig. 5, the consistency between the simulated result and the
309 test result is very high before the peak stress, indicating that the selected elastic modulus
310 is appropriate. The uniaxial tensile strength of the numerical simulation results is
311 basically within the range of the two groups of tests results. Moreover, the dispersion
312 of the uniaxial tensile strength of the three random mesoscale models is minimal,
313 indicating that the numerical model has a superior performance for predicting the
314 uniaxial tensile strength. The concrete specimen is damaged quickly after the peak
315 stress, and the strength decreases rapidly, but due to the diverse distribution of aggregate
316 and rubber particles, the difference between the mesoscale model and actual
317 components of the concrete prism, the simulation results of the post-peak period has
318 slight difference with the test results. It can also be seen from the test curves of Fig. 5
319 (b), (c) and (d) that due to the different internal composition and aggregate, rubber
320 particle distribution, the test results of two concrete specimens of the same component
321 also have dispersion in the post-peak section. After reaching the ultimate strength, the
322 micro-cracks in the concrete gather rapidly, nucleation, develop into macroscopic
323 cracks, and eventually lead to the final failure of the whole structure. The development
324 of cracks is closely related to the distribution of aggregates, rubber particles, defects
325 and voids of the specimen itself. The existence of defects and voids can provide a
326 development channel for cracks and promote its development rate. So the stress-strain
327 response after the peak stress of different specimen will be different, but the overall
328 development trend of the stress-strain curve is similar. In conclusion, the proposed

329 3D mesoscale model can reflect the properties and the overall performance of RSCC;
330 the simulation elastic modulus is very consistent with the elastic modulus of the
331 material itself; the material strength floats in a certain error range. The material
332 performance of the post-peak section has slight discrepancy due to the different
333 components and aggregate distribution of the specimen. The global trend of the stress-
334 strain curve is consistent with the test results, which shows that the proposed 3D
335 mesoscale model in this paper can produce the overall performance of RSCC and
336 verified the feasibility of the proposed model. As can be seen from Fig. 6, the position
337 and morphology of the cracks in the numerical simulation results are very close to the
338 experimental results, which supports that the 3D mesoscale simulation results are
339 reasonable and reliable.

340 **5. Discussion**

341 **5.1 Effect of rubber content on the tensile strength of RSCC**

342 Figure 7 shows all the test results of RSCC under uniaxial tension. A conclusion
343 can be drawn from the figure that as the rubber content increases, the peak stress of
344 the specimen decreases, while the strain corresponds to the peak stress of the
345 specimen increases, indicating that with the increase of rubber content, the material
346 strength decreases, and toughness slightly increases. Due to the test conditions, the
347 environment influence, and the different structure of each specimen, the test results
348 have a certain degree of dispersion. From Fig. 6, the numerical simulation results

349 of the RSCC of each component have a small dispersion and maintain a high degree
350 consistent with the test results. A numerical simulation result was randomly selected
351 from each group of all the simulation results and plotted in Fig. 8 (a) to facilitate
352 the discussion and analysis of the simulation results. It can be seen in Fig. 8(a) that
353 the elastic modulus of the material decreases with the increase of rubber content
354 before the peak stress. The material strength decreases clearly with the increase of
355 rubber content, while the corresponding peak strain increases, and the material
356 toughness increases. With the increase of rubber content, the failure speed of the
357 material decreased during the post-peak period. The strength of the RSCC is
358 decreased, and the peak strain is significantly improved as compared with the
359 reference SCC (concrete without rubber particles). For all RSCC specimens, the
360 strength of the specimen decreases as the rubber content increases, and the peak
361 strain increases as the rubber particle content increases. The reason for the above
362 test and simulation results is that the addition of rubber particles in the concrete can
363 increase the toughness of the concrete but reduce the strength simultaneously. The
364 reason for the toughness enhancement of concrete is that the size of rubber particles
365 is small, which can fill the defects and voids of concrete. Besides, the rubber
366 particles can also play a role in optimizing the gradation of fine aggregate and coarse
367 aggregate. The elastic modulus of rubber is smaller than all the other components;
368 rubber can effectively relieve the stress concentration at the tip of the crack, thus
369 slowing down the expansion of cracks and enhancing the toughness of concrete

370 during the process of loading. Besides, the incorporation of rubber particles is
371 equivalent to introducing new initial defects into the concrete due to the small
372 elastic modulus of rubber. Rubber belongs to the organic materials; the concrete
373 belongs to the inorganic materials. The different material type makes the cohesion
374 at the interface transition zone between rubber and mortar weaker. The rubber
375 particle can also play the role of air-entraining agent; the addition of rubber particle
376 will increase the gas content in concrete. With the increase of rubber content, the
377 concrete porosity increases, resulting in the reduction of the overall strength of the
378 material.

379 **5.2 Effect of rubber content on crack development**

380 **5.2.1 Analysis of microcrack development**

381 Due to the limitation of test detection technology, it is impossible to observe and
382 analyze the development of internal cracks of concrete in the process of tensile
383 failure. Therefore, the development process of internal cracks of concrete is
384 compared and analyzed using mesoscale simulation technology. After verifying the
385 reliability of the simulation results through the comparison between the above test
386 results and the simulation results, the simulated specimens which are consistent
387 with the specimen setting and have good crack morphology development are
388 selected for comparative analysis on the development of micro-cracks. Figures 9,
389 10, 11, and 12 show the development and distribution of microcracks in the four

390 specimen types. The points in Figures. 9 (a), 10 (a), 11 (a) and 12 (a) mark the same
391 loading times for the four different models under uniaxial tension. Figures 10 (a),
392 11 (a) and 12 (a) have one additional point, p_0 , compared with Figure. 9(a). This is
393 the point where microcracks appear in specimens containing rubber, while no
394 microcracks that can be seen by the naked eye at the same loading time in ordinary
395 SCC. This is further demonstrated in Figs. 9 (b), 10 (b), 11 (b) and 12 (b), where
396 microcracks of RSCC appear earlier than the SCC specimen under the same load.
397 The green and red parts in these figures represent increasing degree of damage, i.e.
398 microcrack generation. Additionally, it is shown that the number of microcracks in
399 RSCC specimen is great than that of SCC specimen, and the degree of damage in
400 RSCC is larger at the same loading time point.

401 During the initial stage, shown by points p_1 , p_2 , p_3 in Figs. 9 (b), 10 (b), 11 (b)
402 and 12 (b), microcracks appear in the weakest parts of the specimens – the ITZs.
403 With microcracks extension and coalescence one of these develops into the main
404 crack, which eventually leads to destruction of the specimen. It can be seen from
405 the figures that the concrete specimen is not destroyed immediately after the peak
406 stress, as the internal cracks are still in the microcrack stage, a macrocrack has not
407 been formed yet. This illustrates that concrete is a quasi-brittle heterogeneous
408 material, not an entirely brittle material, where its microstructure controls the
409 development of cracks. After reaching the tensile strength, the development of
410 internal cracks is intensified and aggravated, and the material performance

411 significantly declines, underpinned by the formation of macrocracks. After this
412 point, the energy required for crack development is much less than the energy
413 required for crack propagation before the peak stress. Comparing Fig. 9 (b) and Fig.
414 10 (b), it is seen that time for microcracks generation in RSCC specimen is less than
415 in the ordinary SCC before the peak stress, and the microcrack development in
416 RSCC before the peak stress is faster. This shows that the incorporation of rubber
417 particles increases the overall defects in the structure and weakens the material
418 performance of the pre-peak phase, which also supports the conclusion in section
419 5.1. In the initial phase, microcracks appear throughout the specimen, not just
420 located at the position which will lead to macrocrack and the final failure of the
421 specimen. The macrocrack location is closely related to the spatial distribution of
422 the concrete components as suggested by the crack location in Figs. 10 (b), 11 (b)
423 and 12 (b); different realisation of the randomly distributed components will result
424 in a different crack pattern.

425 **5.2.2 Effect of rubber content on the development of macroscopic cracks**

426 Based on the analysis of 5.2.1, this section selects RSCC-0 and RSCC-15 specimen to
427 conduct a comparative analysis on the development process of macroscopic cracks to
428 further analyse the influence of rubber incorporation on the development of
429 macrocracks in concrete. The crack development after the peak stress of the selected
430 mesoscale specimen, corresponding to time points of $s_1 \sim s_4$, is shown in Figs. 9 (c) and
431 12 (c). As can be seen from these figures, the rate of macrocrack propagation after the

432 peak stress is higher in RSCC-0 than in RSCC-15. The microcracks in RSCC-0
433 specimens have been clustered into nuclei at the time s_1 after the peak, while the
434 microcracks in RSCC-15 are more dispersed at the same time. At the moment s_4 , the
435 concentrated internal damage in specimen RSCC-0 is very high and the overall failure
436 of the material is observed, while the concentrated internal damage in specimen RSCC-
437 15 is lower, indicating that the addition of rubber improves the overall toughness of the
438 material and reduces the rate of macrocrack propagation.

439 **5.3 Effect of rubber content on crack morphology**

440 Figure 13 shows the morphology of the final failure surfaces for the four specimen types.
441 As can be seen in Fig. 13(a), the crack in RSCC-0 mainly occurs at the transition
442 interface between aggregate and mortar. During the crack development process, some
443 big voids will appear in the crack surface, as the crack avoids aggregates which cannot
444 be damaged. The number of such voids in Figs. 13 (b), (c) and (d) is significantly
445 smaller, indicating that the addition of rubber optimizes the gradation of concrete
446 aggregate, and the area of the interface transition zone is significantly increased. As can
447 be seen from Figs. 13(b), (c), (d), the number of large voids in the whole crack surface
448 of the specimen decreases, and more small size voids appear with the increase of rubber
449 content. This is due to the increase of the number of rubber particles, which enables the
450 crack to develop and extend at both A-M ITZ and R-M ITZ. The size decrease of the
451 voids indicates that the crack will preferentially develop at the R-M ITZ, and the smaller
452 size rubber particles can be easily bypassed. At the same time, because of the size of

453 the rubber particle is smaller, the energy needed to bypass a rubber particle is much
454 lower than a bigger size aggregate. Therefore, the crack surface will produce some
455 smaller size voids when the specimen contains many rubber particles. The final crack
456 pattern also conforms to the hypothesis and setting of the mechanical parameters of the
457 material. Rubber particles and coarse aggregate are linear elastic materials, which will
458 not be damaged. Elastoplastic damage can occur in the mortar, A-M ITZ, and R-M ITZ.
459 The mechanical properties of A-M ITZ and R-M ITZ are inferior to mortar, so the
460 cracks mainly occur in these two areas. Since rubber is an organic material and mortar
461 is an inorganic material, the mechanical properties of the interface transition zone
462 between two different types of materials are inferior to the interface transition zone
463 between the same type of material. And it is known that the porosity of R-M ITZ is
464 significantly higher than that of A-M ITZ [4]. It is further known that the strength of
465 mortar materials is closely related to the porosity [36,37]. When the porosity is high,
466 the material strength is low, and when the porosity is low, the material strength is high.
467 Therefore, the interfacial transition zone between rubber and mortar is the weakest
468 interface in the material; the crack will preferentially develop at the R-M ITZ, followed
469 by the A-M ITZ.

470 **6. Conclusions**

471 Based on uniaxial tension test results of rubberized concrete, this paper explores the
472 application of mesoscale modelling to improve understanding of damage and failure of

473 such materials in view of their potential for economic and environmental benefits. The
474 following conclusions can be drawn from the work:

475 1. By comparing test and numerical simulation results for stress-strain response and
476 crack pattern and location, it is demonstrated that the proposed 3D mesoscale model
477 can be used to analyse damage evolution and crack development in RSCC. In addition,
478 the mesoscale model has the potential to be used in analysis of other mechanical
479 properties of RSCC.

480 2. The results of the RSCC prism test and numerical simulation show that the
481 toughness of RSCC is improved compared with that of SCC, and the bearing capacity
482 is reduced. When the rubber particle gradation is the same, with the increase of rubber
483 content, the strength of the specimen decreases, the toughness of the specimen increases,
484 and the overall damage rate of the material is reduced.

485 3. The final morphology of the uniaxial tensile cracks of RSCC shows that the
486 incorporation of rubber particle reduces the failure rate. Due to the incorporation of
487 rubber particles, the pores and defects of the concrete are filled, the gradation of the
488 concrete sand and aggregate is optimized, and the porosity of the test piece is reduced
489 to some extent. However, the total area of the interfacial transition zone is increased
490 significantly. The special properties of rubber materials lead to extremely high
491 interfacial porosity between rubber particles and mortar. The porosity brought by the
492 increased interfacial transition zone is much higher than that reduced by the
493 optimization of particle grading, so the overall strength of the material will still decline.

494 4. The R-M ITZ is the weakest constituent of rubberized concrete due to high porosity
495 and weak cohesion between two different types of material. Microcracks are easy to
496 nucleate and grow in this region, and eventually develop into macrocracks resulting in
497 the overall failure of the material.

498 **Acknowledgments**

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603 **List of figure captions**

604 **Fig. 1.** Test device and specimen

605 **Fig. 2.** The uniaxial stress-strain curve with damage plasticity

606 **Fig. 3.** Flowchart of random aggregates, rubber particles and voids generation

607 **Fig. 4.** Concrete mesoscale models with different compositions

608 **Fig. 5.** Stress-strain curve of each group RSCC specimen under uniaxial tension

609 **Fig. 6.** Crack pattern and location of each group RSCC specimen under uniaxial tension

610 **Fig. 7.** Stress-strain curve of RSCC under tension test

611 **Fig. 8.** Simulation result of RSCC with different rubber content under uniaxial tension

612 **Fig.9.** Simulation result of RSCC-0 specimen under uniaxial tension

613 **Fig.10.** Simulation result of RSCC-5 specimen under uniaxial tension

614 **Fig.11.** Simulation result of RSCC-10 specimen under uniaxial tension

615 **Fig.12.** Simulation result of RSCC-15 specimen under uniaxial tension

616 **Fig. 13.** Final crack morphology of RSCC specimens with different rubber content

617 **List of table captions**

618 Table 1 The mix proportion of RSCC (kg/m^3)

619 Table 2 Coarse aggregate size distribution

620 Table 3 Material parameters for RSCC mesoscale model

621

622

Table 1 The mix proportion of RSCC (kg/m^3)

Specimen	Cement	Fly ash	Silica Fume	Water	Water Reducer	Rubber particle	Sand	Gravel
RSCC-0	385	139	26	200	7.5	0	1080	800
RSCC-5	385	139	26	200	7.5	52	1080	672
RSCC-10	385	139	26	200	7.5	104	1080	542
RSCC-15	385	139	26	200	7.5	156.5	1080	413

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Table 2 Coarse aggregate size distribution

Sieve size (mm)	Total passed percentage (%)
10	100%
8	60%
6	0

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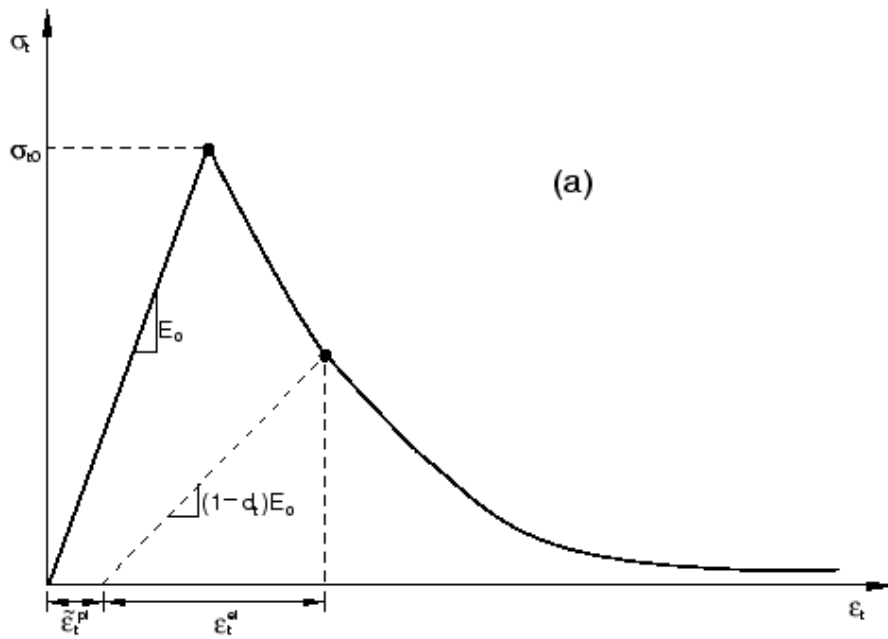


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Fig. 1. Test device and specimen

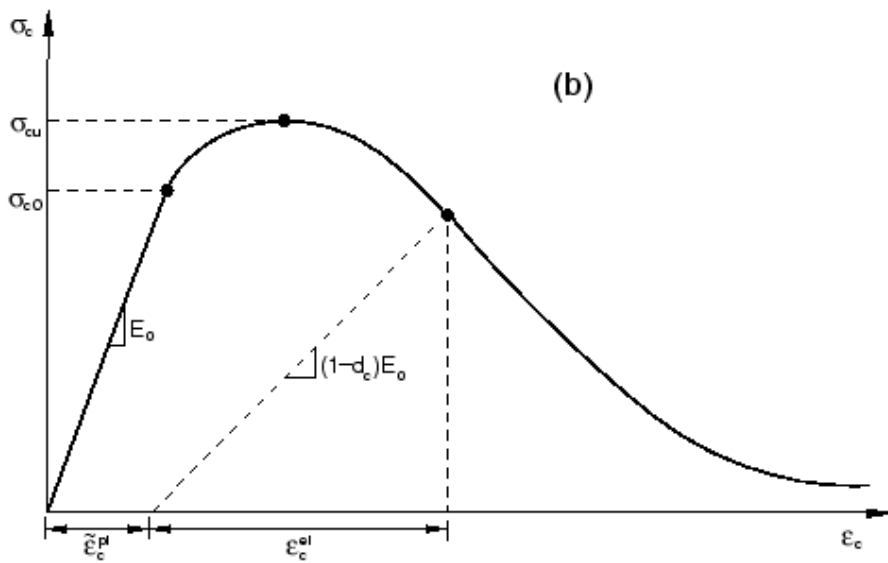
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(a) Concrete response under uniaxial tension



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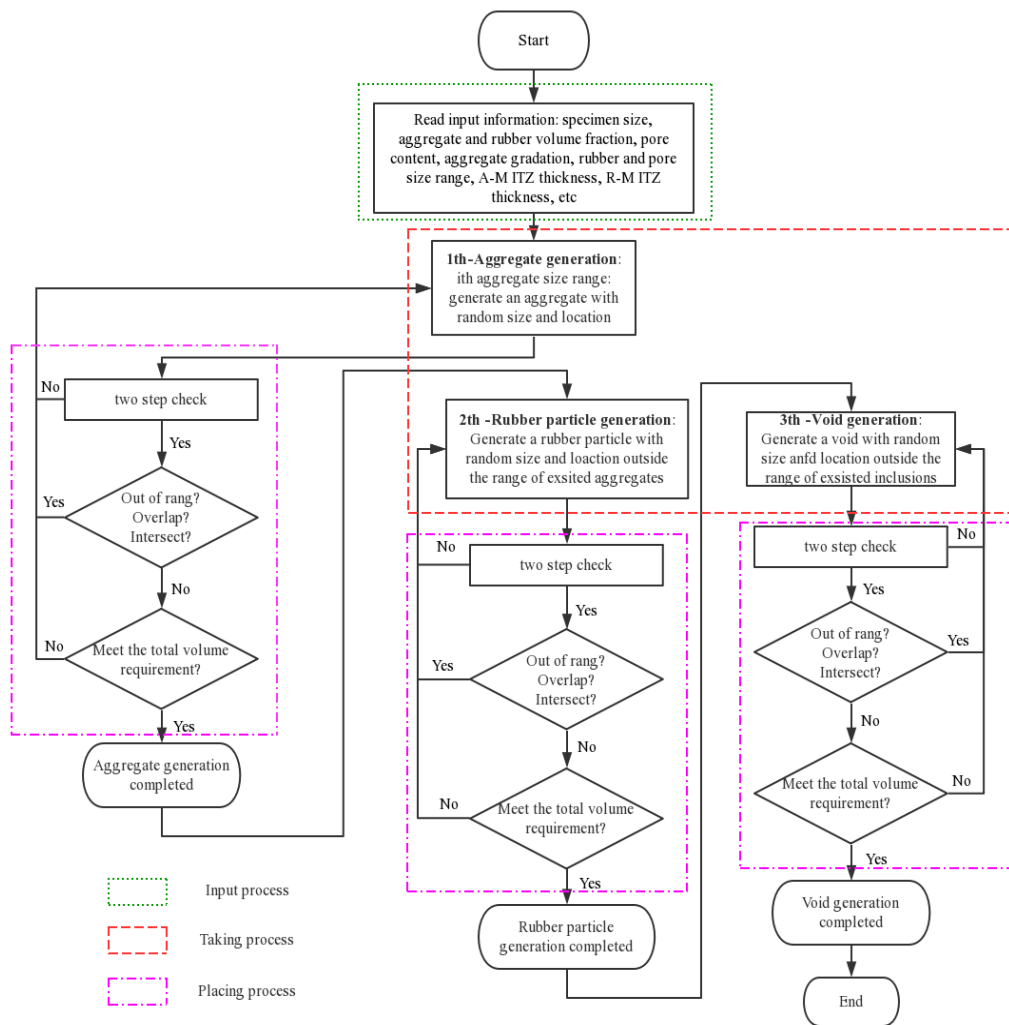
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(b) Concrete response under uniaxial compression

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Fig. 2. The uniaxial stress-strain curve with damage plasticity

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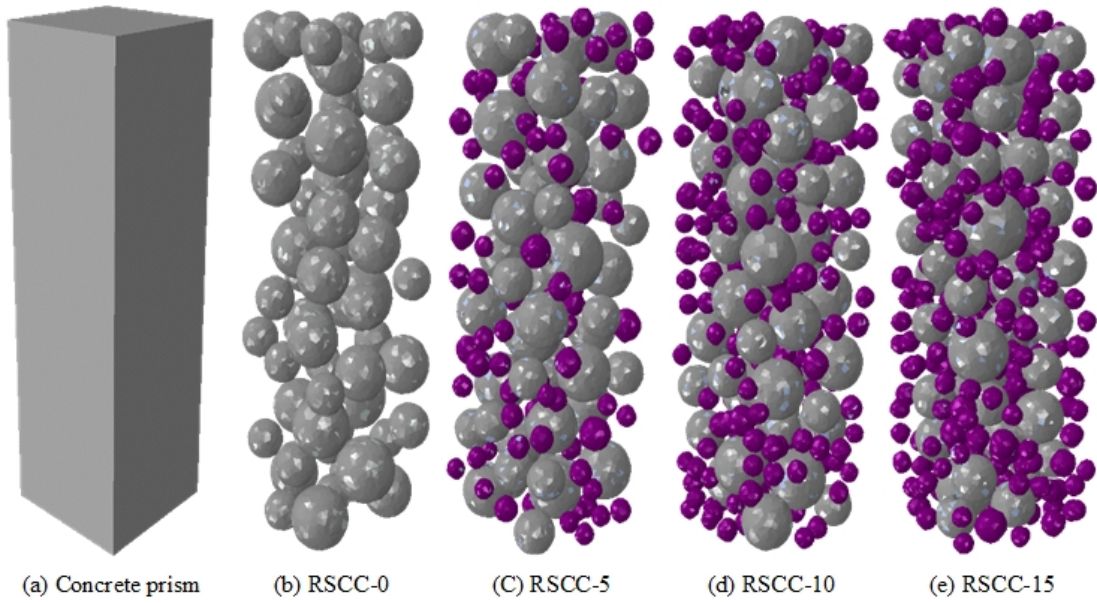


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Fig. 3. Flowchart of random aggregates, rubber particles and voids generation

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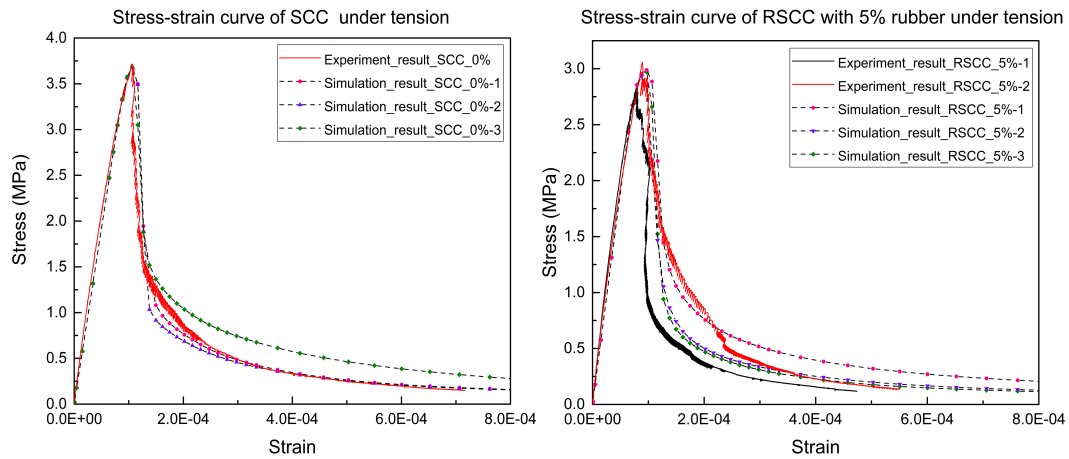
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Fig. 4. Concrete mesoscale models with different compositions. Gray spheres are coarse aggregate, and purple spheres are rubber particles

Table 3 Material parameters for RSCC meso-scale model

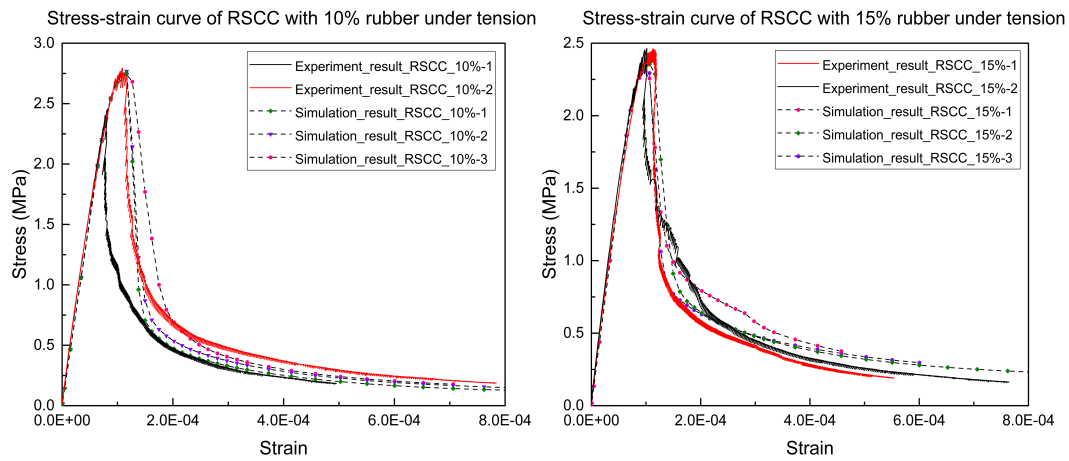
	Tensile strength (MPa)	Compressive strength (MPa)	Young's modulus (GPa)	Poisson's ratio	Density (Kg/m ³)
Mortar	4.4	60	42	0.2	2200
Coarse aggregate	--	--	40	0.2	2600
Rubber particle	--	--	7	0.4	1050
A-M ITZ	3	45	21	0.2	1800
R-M ITZ	1.5	25	12.5	0.2	1500

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647 (a) Stress-strain curve of RSCC-0

(b) Stress-strain curve of RSCC-5

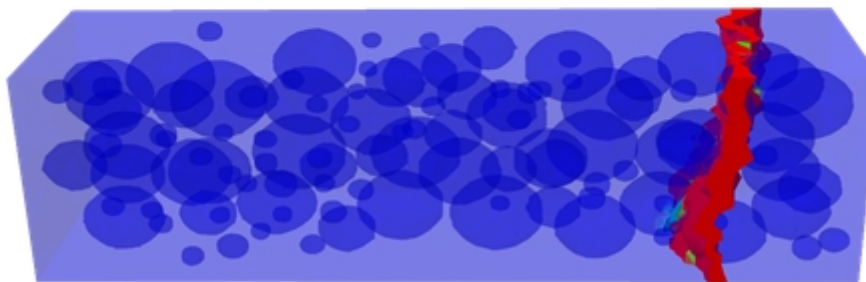


649 (c) Stress-strain curve of RSCC-10

(d) Stress-strain curve of RSCC-15

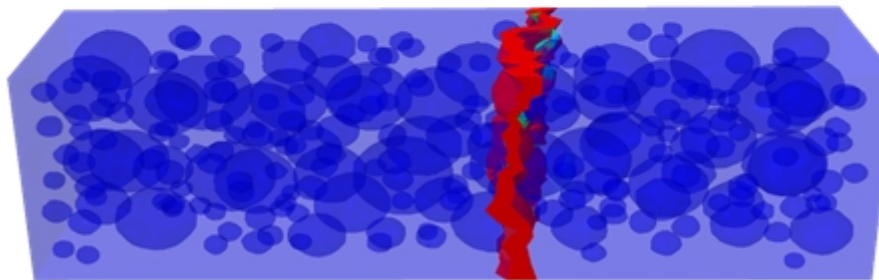
650 **Fig. 5.** Stress-strain curve of each group RSCC specimen under uniaxial tension

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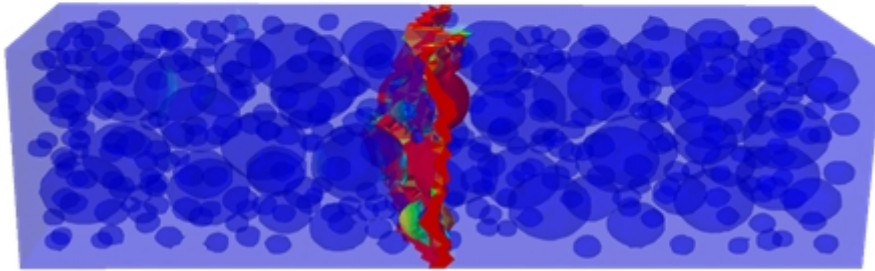
(a) RSCC-0 specimen with no rubber particle content

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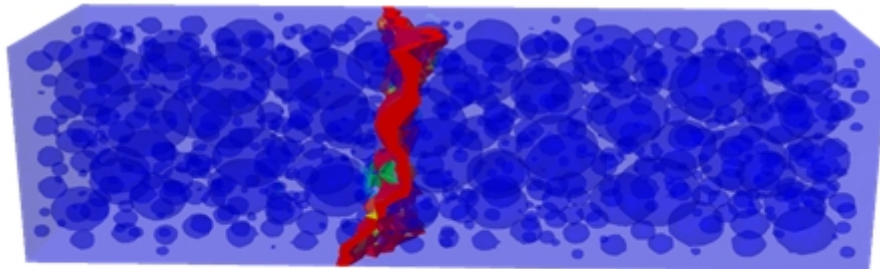
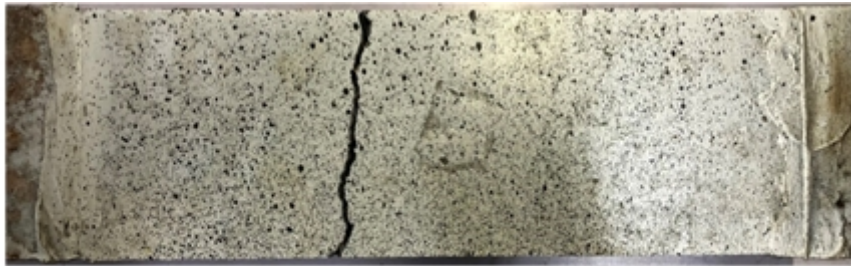
(b) RSCC-5 specimen with 5% rubber particle content

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(c) RSCC-10 specimen with 10% rubber particle content

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(d) RSCC-15 specimen with 15% rubber particle content

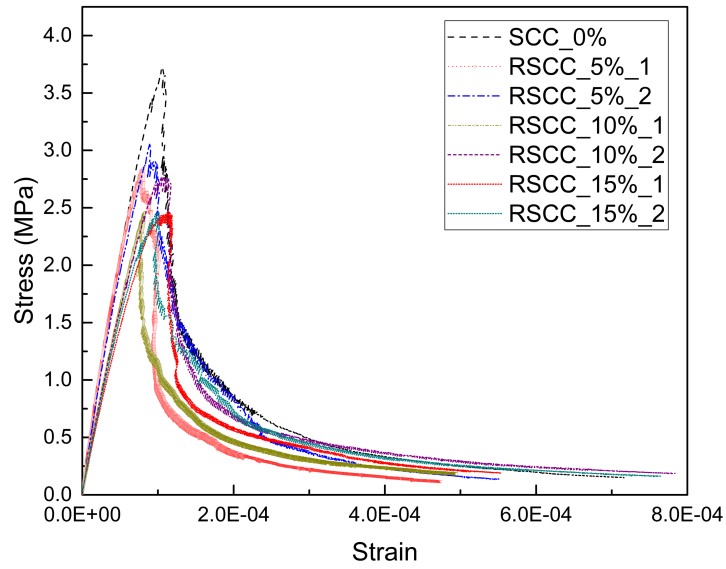
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Fig. 6. Crack pattern and location of each group RSCC specimen under uniaxial tension

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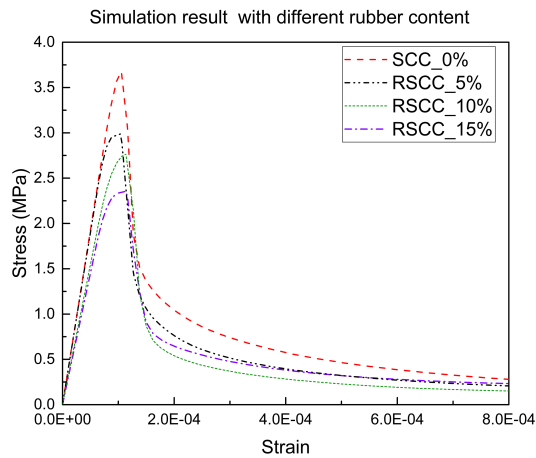
Experiment result of concrete specimen with different content



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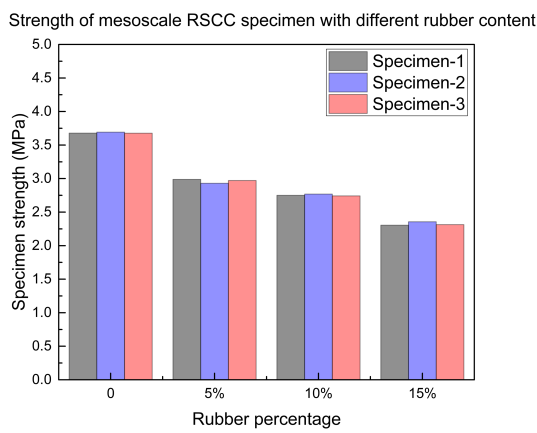
Fig. 7. Stress-strain curve of RSCC under tension test



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(a) Stress-strain curve of RSCC under tension simulation



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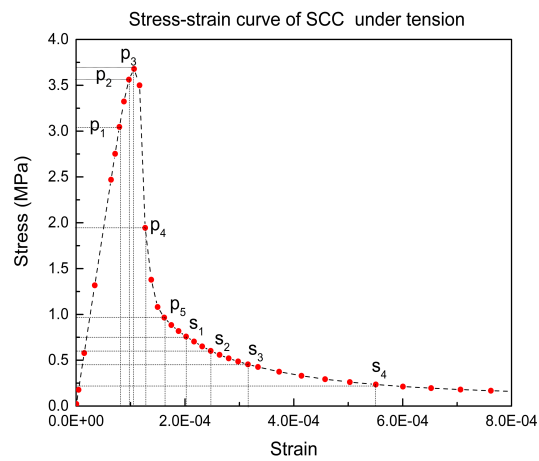
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(b) Column chart of specimen strength with different rubber content

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Fig. 8. Simulation result of RSCC with different rubber content under uniaxial tension

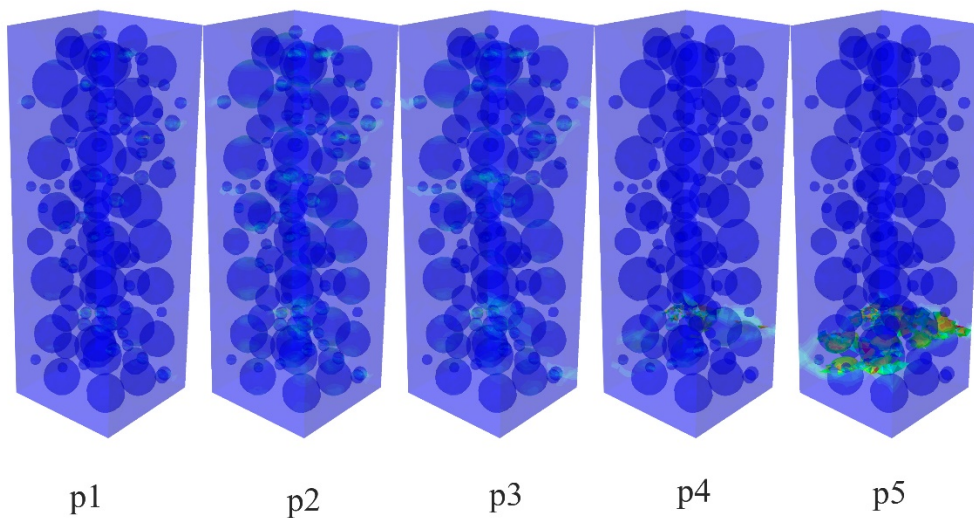
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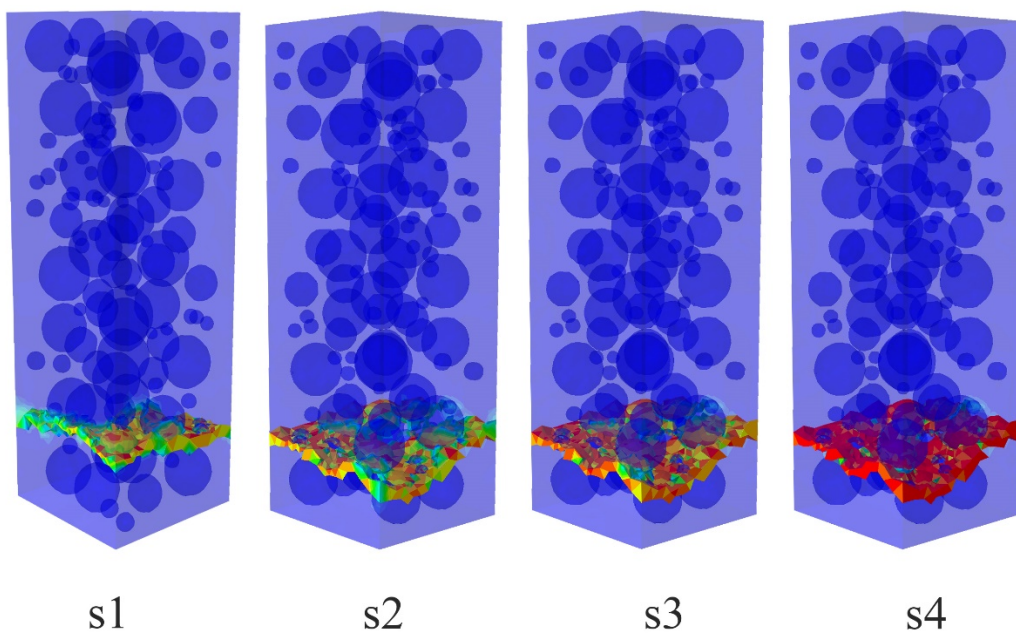
(a) Stress-strain curve of RSCC-0



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(b) Microcrack development status of mesoscale RSCC-0 specimen at time p0, p1, p2, p3, p4, p5

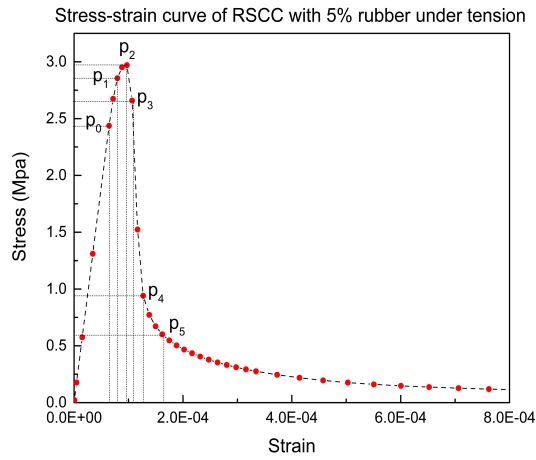


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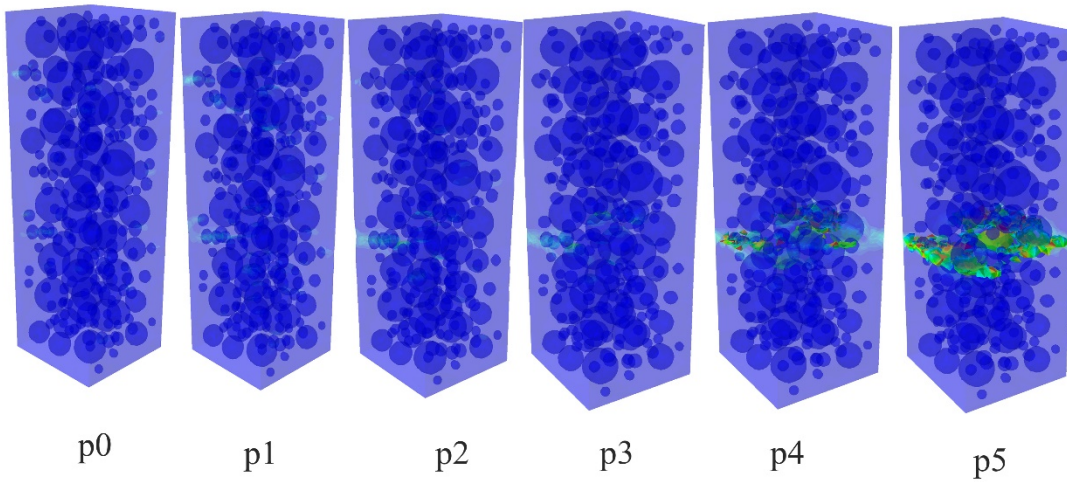
(c) Macrocrack development status of mesoscale RSCC-0 specimen at time s1, s2, s3, s4

Fig. 9. Simulation result of RSCC-0 specimen under uniaxial tension



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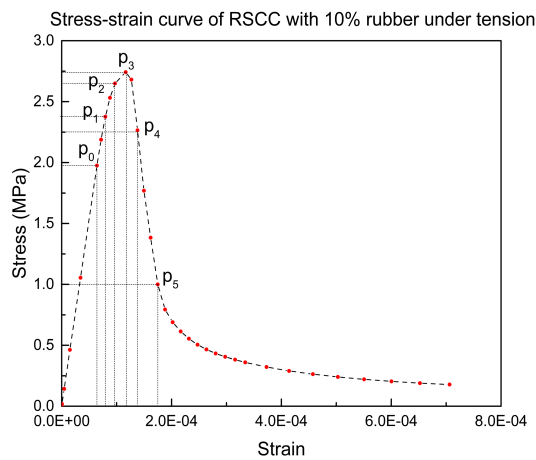
(a) Stress-strain curve of RSCC-5



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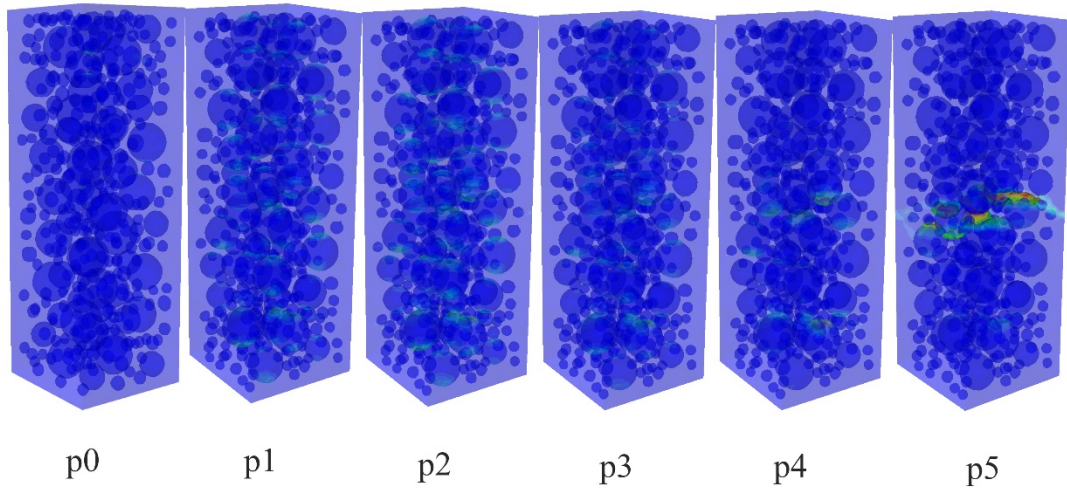
(b) Microcrack development status of mesoscale RSCC-5 specimen at time p0, p1, p2, p3, p4, p5

Fig. 10. Simulation result of RSCC-5 specimen under uniaxial tension



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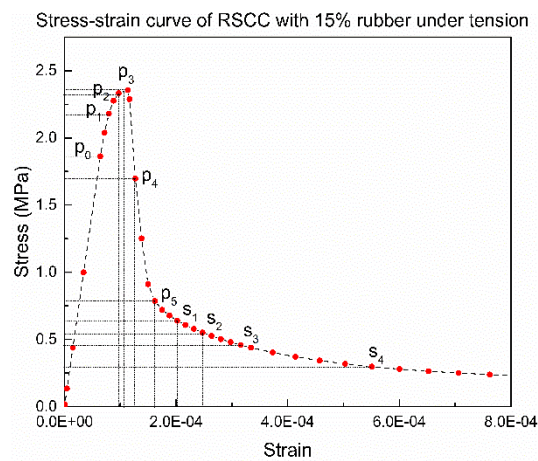
(a) Stress-strain curve of RSCC-5



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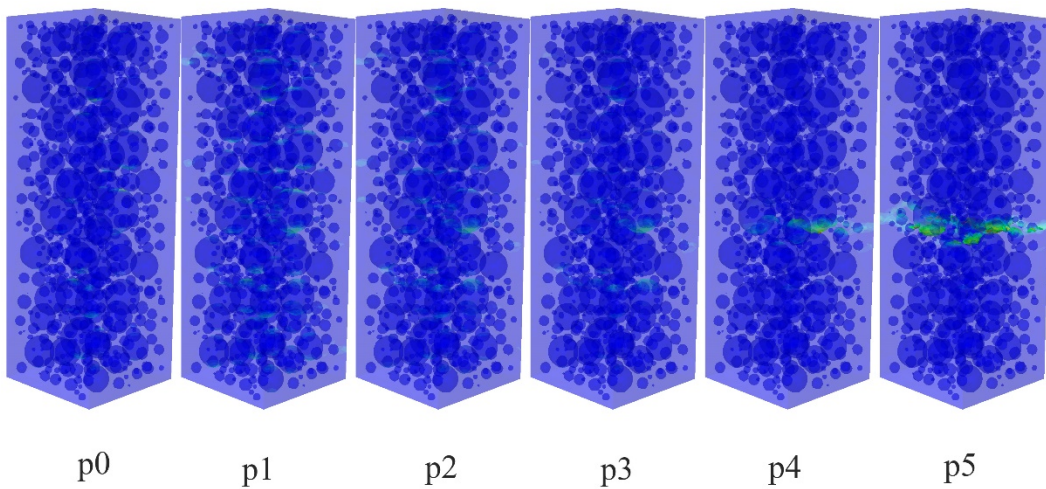
(b) Microcrack development status of mesoscale RSCC-10 specimen at time p0, p1, p2, p3, p4, p5

Fig. 11. Simulation result of RSCC-10 specimen under uniaxial tension



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(a) Stress-strain curve of RSCC-5

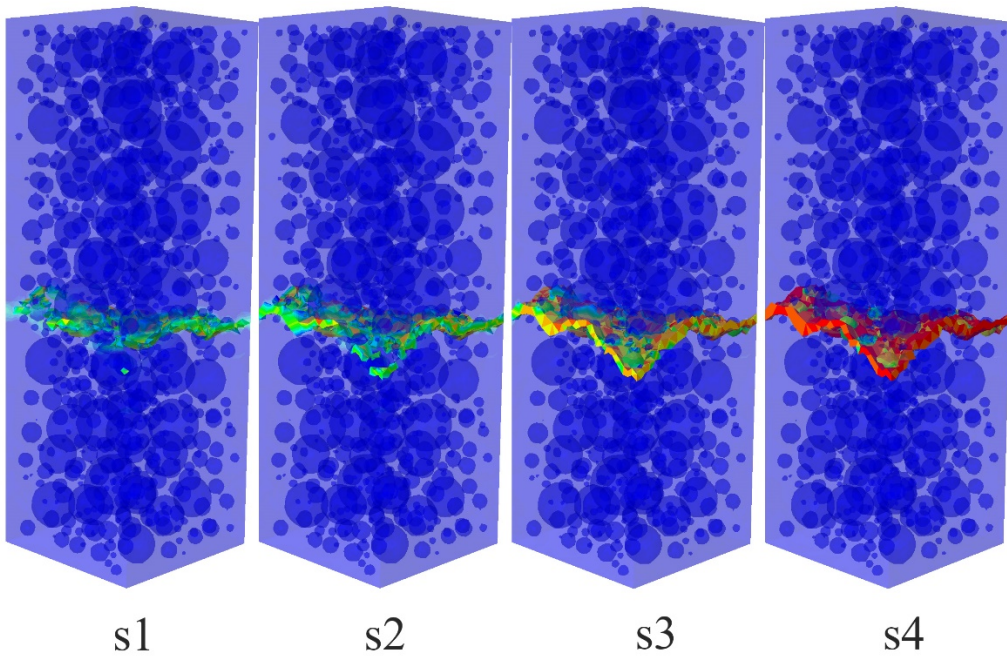


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(b) Microcrack development status of mesoscale RSCC-15 specimen at time p0, p1, p2, p3, p4, p5

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p5



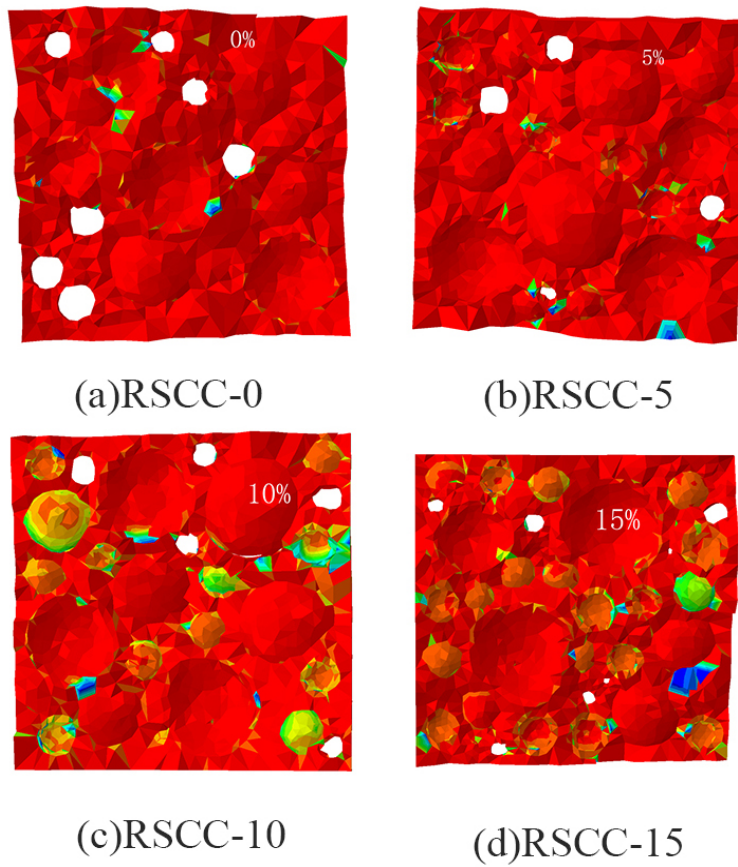
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(c) Macrocrack development status of mesoscale RSCC-15 specimen at time s1, s2, s3, s4

Fig. 12. Simulation result of RSCC-15 specimen under uniaxial tension



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Fig. 13. Final crack morphology of RSCC specimens with different rubber content