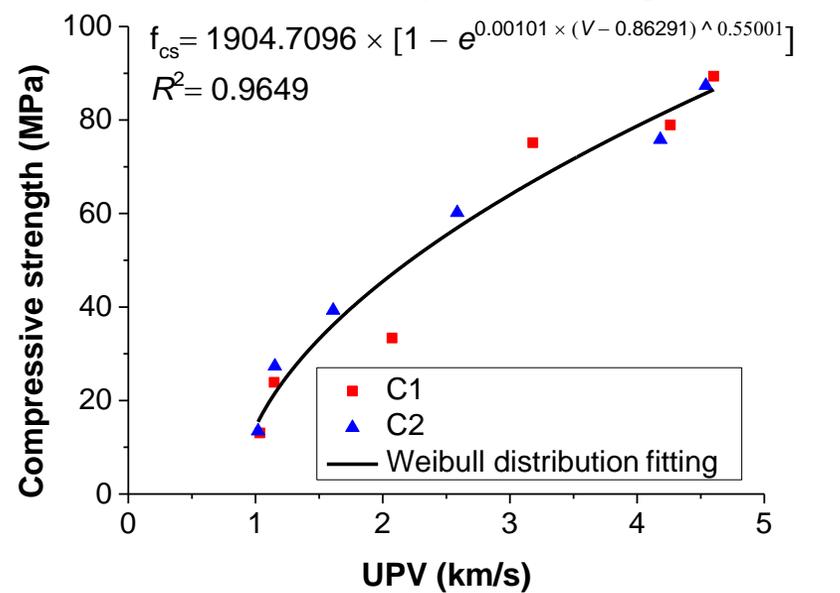
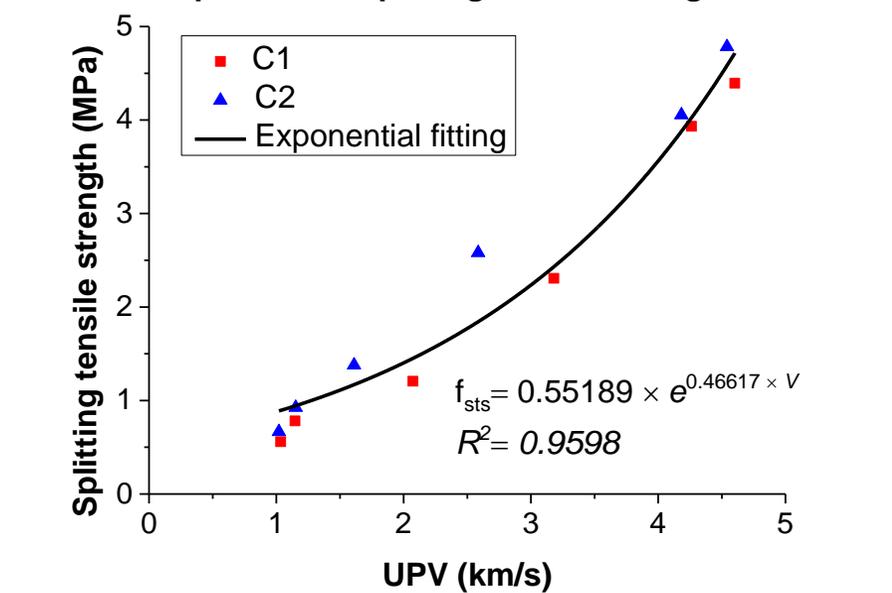


Relationship between compressive strength and UPV

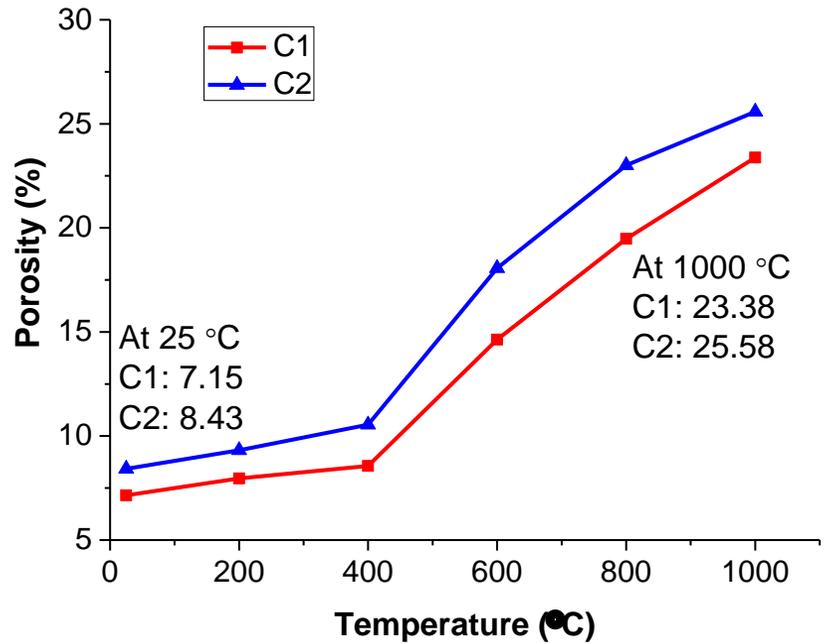


Relationship between splitting tensile strength and UPV

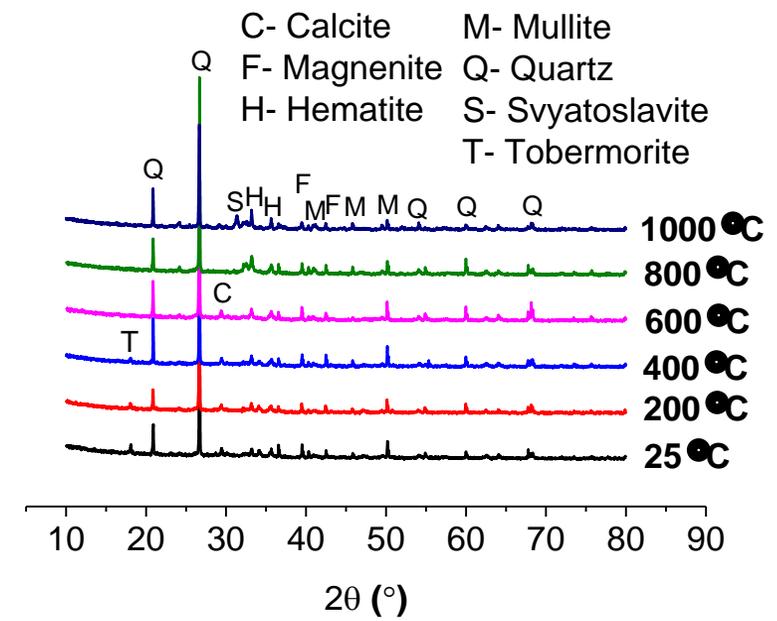


UPV: Ultrasonic pulse velocity

Porosity of FSCs



XRD patterns of FSC with PP fibers



FSC: Ferro-siliceous concrete

22 thermal analysis; ultrasonic pulse velocity

23 **1. Introduction**

24 Ferro-siliceous concrete (FSC) is a key component of European Pressurized Water Reactor which
25 is the typical representative of the third generation nuclear technique. The significant innovations of
26 this technique are severe accident mitigation and security improvements of nuclear power plant by
27 utilization of FSC [1]. For the convenience of construction, FSC has high flowability and
28 deformability, so it can be called self-consolidating concrete (SCC). Moreover, its 28 d compressive
29 strength is higher than 80 MPa, thus it can be termed as high strength concrete (HSC) in this sense.
30 Due to its special service environment, the behavior of FSC subjected to elevated temperatures has
31 in particular to be evaluated. In addition, its coarse and fine aggregates are greatly different from
32 normal strength concrete (NSC), which may result in material properties distinctions between these
33 2 kinds of concretes when exposed to high temperatures.

34 In case of fire or severe nuclear accident, concrete is subjected to elevated temperature that
35 induces dramatic physical and chemical changes, leading to material deterioration: strength and
36 stiffness decrease [2], cracking, and in certain circumstances spalling can occur [3]. Up to now, the
37 effect of high temperatures on NSC and HSC has been studied extensively. The behavior of NSC
38 under elevated temperatures has been clearly understood according to the results of researches
39 carried out since 1950s [4, 5]. In recent years, there have been numerous studies on the thermal
40 behavior of HSC and on the differences between HSC and NSC. The investigation on the behavior
41 of concrete subjected to elevated temperatures by Phan and Carino [6] has indicated that the rate of
42 strength loss is different between NSC and HSC. Poon et al. [7] carried out a comprehensive
43 research on the behavior of 3 series of HSCs with different cementitious material constitutions. The

44 results suggested that after the HSCs exposure to high temperatures, the loss of stiffness is far
45 quicker than that of compressive strength. Behnood and Ghandehari [8] have concluded that the
46 range of 300—600 °C is more critical for HSC than NSC. They also found that the splitting tensile
47 strength of concrete is more sensitive to elevated temperatures than the compressive strength. Xiao
48 and Falkner [9] have pointed that the residual compressive strength of HSCs is decreasing sharply
49 at 400 °C. In addition, finding a relationship between the strength and ultrasonic pulse velocity
50 (UPV) for concretes or structures subjected to high temperatures can provide a convenient method
51 to assess concrete or structural damage in terms of strength.

52 Although the strength, workability, and durability of HSC are usually much superior to NSC at
53 ambient temperature [10], its failure is sometimes rapid and dramatic when subject to elevated
54 temperatures, characterized by spalling [11]. Many researches have confirmed that HSC is more
55 prone to spalling than NSC when exposed to high temperature [12–15]. However, some inconsistent
56 results have been reported concerning the characteristics of spalling, in which different critical
57 temperatures for appearance of this phenomenon have been reported. Also, 3 different failure
58 mechanisms have been put forward as the possible causes for spalling of HSC. The first theory that
59 called bulid-up theory [16, 17] goes back to 1990s. The second mechanism of spalling is described
60 by the thermal stress theory [18]. The third theory is a combination of the above 2 mechanisms,
61 which is proposed by Bazant and Kaplan [3]. Now, the addition of polypropylene (PP) fibers to
62 concrete is an effective method to reduce and even eliminate the spalling of HSC subjected to high
63 temperatures, which has been recommended by many researchers [19-21]. PP fibers contribute to
64 the pore pressure release, and limit the formation of thermal stress [18] resulting from an increase of
65 concrete permeability through their melting at approximately 170 °C.

66 Currently, SCC, as a new building material with various excellent properties, has been widely
67 applied in modern concrete structures, while scarce investigation results have been reported as to
68 properties of SCC subjected to high temperatures. Based on the experimental research, Liu et al. [22]
69 have concluded that the addition of PP fibers can reduce the thermal damage of self-compacting
70 cement paste. A research on the microstructural changes of self-compacting cement paste subjected
71 to high temperatures by Ye et al. [23] has indicated that its porosity shows a bigger change than that
72 of high strength cement paste. An experimental investigation on the performance of SCC exposed to
73 elevated temperatures conducted by Uysal [24] has concluded that a dramatic compressive strength
74 loss is observed for SCC after subjecting to above 400 °C. Fares et al. [25] have carried out a
75 research on the properties of SCC exposed to elevated temperatures, and the findings demonstrated
76 that the mechanical and physical properties of SCC decrease dramatically after heating up to 300 °C.
77 But, the behavior of FSC having characteristics of both HSC and SCC is not well understood when
78 it subjects to elevated temperatures. In addition, there is no published investigation on the
79 correlation between strength and UPV of FSC exposed to high temperatures.

80 The objective of this study is to analyze the mechanical and physicochemical properties of FSC
81 with and without PP fibers subjected to elevated temperatures, and establish 2 relationships between
82 strengths and UPV of FSCs. To this end, the occurrence of spalling, compressive strength, splitting
83 tensile strength, mass loss, porosity, chemical composition, crystalline phase, and thermal analysis
84 of FSCs before and after exposure to different high temperatures up to 1000 °C were
85 comprehensively investigated. Per ultrasonic testing technique, UPV propagation in FSCs at
86 different temperatures was determined, and the relationships between strengths and UPV of FSCs
87 were eventually obtained.

88 2. Materials

89 2.1. Cement and mineral admixture

90 [Table 1](#) presents the chemical composition of the cement and mineral admixture used. Density,
91 specific surface, and 28 d compressive strength of cement were 3150 kg/m^3 , $362.20 \text{ m}^2/\text{kg}$, and
92 62.80 MPa , respectively. Fly ash and silica fume were used as mineral addition in the experiment.
93 Moreover, all indexes of the fly ash can meet Class I according to the Chinese standard GB/T
94 1596—2005, and the specific surface of the silica fume was $2.72 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^2/\text{kg}$.

95 2.2. Aggregate

96 The fine and coarse aggregates were composed of quartz and iron ore, which were obtained from
97 Nuclear Science and Technology (Tongchang) Co., Ltd. Notes that the quartz contained 2 ranges,
98 namely, 0—5 mm and 5—8 mm, and the content of them were 56 wt.% and 44 wt.%, respectively.
99 Similar to the quartz, there were also 2 ranges in the iron ore, that is, 0—4 mm and 4—8 mm,
100 whose weight percentage were 78% and 22%, respectively. [The particle size distribution of the](#)
101 [aggregates is shown in \[Table 2\]\(#\).](#)

102 2.3. Superplasticizer

103 A superplasticizer of polycarboxylate obtained from local supplier was employed to gain a
104 satisfactory fluidity of FSCs. [Water-reducing rate, air content, and density of the superplasticizer](#)
105 [were, 33.9%, 3.8%, and \$1050 \text{ kg/m}^3\$ at \$20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}\$, respectively.](#)

106 2.4. Polypropylene fiber

107 The characteristics of PP fibers utilized in this research are presented in [Table 3](#).

108 2.5. Mixture proportion

109 The 2 FSCs mixes investigated in the paper are given in detail in [Table 4](#).

110 According to the above mixture proportions, the specimens (shape: cubic; size: 100×100×100
111 mm) of FSCs were cast. After casting, the molds were covered with tinfoil papers, and cured 24 h at
112 ambient condition, after which point the molds were removed, and the specimens were placed into
113 concrete standard curing room for curing over a span of 28 d with a temperature range of 21 ± 1 °C
114 and relative humidity of above 95%. 60 cubic specimens were prepared for each mix.

115 **3. Experimental methodology**

116 3.1. Elevated temperature test

117 A computer-controlled radiant electrically furnace was applied to heating specimens from
118 ambient temperature (25 °C) to 200, 400, 600, 800, and 1000 °C, respectively, at an average heating
119 rate of 5 °C/min. According to literature [26], the specimens were held at the target temperature for
120 2 h so as to ensure uniform temperature throughout each specimen. After that, the furnace was
121 turned off, and the specimens were cooled to ambient temperature in it. Note that the moisture in
122 the tested specimens was allowed to escape freely from the furnace during the heating process.

123 For each mixture, 9 cubic (100×100×100 mm) specimens were placed in the furnace at each
124 target temperature. All the specimens stored in the furnace were in the same condition so as to have
125 a uniform temperature. The layout of the furnace with the specimens is shown in Fig. 1.

126 3.2. UPV test

127 The experiment on UPV was carried out according to literature [27].

128 3.3. Mechanical tests

129 3.3.1. Compressive strength

130 A universal testing machine was used to determine the compressive strength of specimens before
131 and after heating to target temperatures of each mixture. According to the Chinese standard GB/T

132 50081-2002, the loading rate was set as 0.80 MPa/s (0.80—1.00 MPa/s) in the compressive strength
133 test.

134 3.3.2. Splitting tensile strength

135 The splitting tensile strength of each mix at ambient and each target temperature was determined
136 by the universal testing machine equipped with a splitting tensile setup at a loading rate of 0.08
137 MPa/s.

138 3.4. Physical and chemical properties

139 3.4.1. Mass loss

140 The mass of each mixture was measured at ambient and each target temperature by 3 cubic
141 specimens (about 25×25×25 mm) split from 100×100×100 mm specimens. Notes that those
142 specimens were heated from ambient temperature (25 °C) to 200, 400, 600, 800, and 1000 °C in turn
143 at an average heating rate of 5 °C/min, and they were placed in the furnace immediately after
144 weighing in order to avoid absorbing moisture in the air. In this way, the mass loss of each mix
145 could be determined.

146 3.4.2. Porosity

147 Porosity and pore size distribution of different mixtures at ambient and each target temperature
148 were analyzed by mercury intrusion porosimetry (MIP) measurement.

149 3.4.3. Chemical composition

150 The chemical and elemental composition of mortar of C2 mixture was determined by X-ray
151 fluorescence (XRF) technique. Considering that the only difference between the 2 mixtures is the
152 PP fibers which should have a meaningless effect on the chemical composition of FSCs, the
153 experiment was only performed on C2 mix.

154 3.4.4. X-ray diffraction (XRD)

155 The crystalline phase of FSC was determined by XRD. XRD was performed by using a Bruker
156 D8-Discover diffractometer. The specimens were scanned between 10° and 80° (2θ). Similar to
157 XRF, the XRD was also just performed on C2 mixture.

158 3.4.5. Thermal analysis

159 Thermal analysis of FSCs was carried out by differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and
160 thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), which was performed using a simultaneous thermal analyzer.
161 The testing conditions were as follows: heating rate $10^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$, up to 1000°C , in nitrogen
162 circumstance, at standard atmospheric pressure.

163 It should be pointed out that 3 replicate measurements were tested at each target temperature
164 on the UPV, compressive strength, splitting tensile strength, and XRF experiments, and only the
165 average values were reported in order to improve the accuracy of experimental results. In addition,
166 all the specimens used in the XRF, XRD and thermal analysis experiments were ground by hand to
167 a particle size of below $80\ \mu\text{m}$ using an agate mortar.

168 **4. Results and discussion**

169 4.1. Occurrence of spalling

170 Of the 2 types of FSCs subjected to elevated temperatures, only 1 of the specimens without PP
171 fibers suffered spalling at about 900°C , which could be concluded that the addition of PP fibers can
172 prevent FSC from spalling. However, the phenomenon could not be explained by the 3 spalling
173 mechanisms mentioned in introduction. Because those mechanisms are depending crucially on the
174 moisture distribution and the formation of moisture clog under high temperatures [16-18], while
175 there is no moisture contained in the specimens at such high temperature (900°C). Thus, the

176 spalling mechanism of FSC without PP fibers may be due to thermal damage, inner expansion force
177 of closed voids, and incompatible deformation between aggregates and cement paste, so unlike the
178 spalling mechanisms of NSC, HSC, and SCC, which requires further investigation. Fig.2 presents
179 the specimens before and after high temperatures treatment.

180 4.2. Residual compressive strength

181 The residual compressive strength and the relative residual compressive strength of FSCs at
182 ambient and after heating to high temperatures are shown in Fig.3. The relative residual
183 compressive strength defines as the ratio of residual compressive strength at high temperature to
184 compressive strength at ambient temperature.

185 As illustrated in Fig.3a, the compressive strength of FSC with and without PP fibers decreased
186 continually with the increase of temperature, which is consistent with the results of HSC with PP
187 fibers subjected to high temperatures [28]. The residual compressive strengths of FSC without
188 fibers were higher than those of FSC with fibers during 25—400 °C, while a contrary tendency was
189 presented in 600—1000 °C. In the range of 600—1000 °C, the results obtained in this study are
190 similar to literatures [8, 9, 11], though the highest temperature is 900 °C in these literatures.

191 The compressive strength of FSC without PP fibers was higher than that of FSC with PP fibers at
192 ambient temperature (25 °C), because the multifilament structure [8] forms in the FSC owing to the
193 insufficient dispersing of PP fibers, which results in the increase of local porosity and then leading
194 to decrease of compressive strength. In the range of 200—400 °C, PP fibers are in molten state, but
195 they are still in fiber morphology [22], so the addition of them cannot reduce thermal damage of
196 FSC effectively, which causes the degradation of compressive strength of FSC with and without
197 fibers in the same degree. Therefore, the compressive strength of FSC without PP fibers was higher

198 than that of FSC with PP fibers in 200—400 °C. PP fibers are vaporized in the range of 600—1000
199 °C, and the vaporized fibers can increase the porosity, and create additional pores and escape
200 channels. Furthermore, the disappearance of PP fibers may decrease the thermal incompatibility
201 between aggregates and cement paste owing to more free space. Hence, the thermal damage of FSC
202 can be decreased effectively in these ways. Accordingly, the compressive strength of FSC without
203 PP fibers was lower than that of FSC with PP fibers during 600—1000 °C.

204 As shown in Fig.3b, the changing trends of relative residual compressive strength of FSC with
205 and without PP fibers were accordant with those of residual compressive strength of FSCs. The
206 relative residual compressive strengths of FSC with and without PP fibers did not change
207 significantly at 200 °C, at which the relative residual compressive strengths of FSCs were 88.33%
208 (C1) and 86.77% (C2). However, they dropped drastically in the range of 400—600 °C. The relative
209 residual compressive strengths of them were only 37.35% (C1) and 44.98% (C2) at 600 °C.
210 Moreover, they decreased slowly during 800—1000 °C, but their relative residual compressive
211 strengths were merely 14.61% (C1) and 15.43% (C2) at 1000 °C. Consequently, the critical
212 temperature range of FSCs was 400—600 °C, in which their compressive strength decreased
213 drastically.

214 4.3. Residual splitting tensile strength

215 Fig. 4 illustrates the residual splitting tensile strength and the relative residual splitting tensile
216 strength of FSCs at ambient and after heating to 200, 400, 600, 800, and 1000 °C. Note that the
217 relative residual splitting tensile strength is defined as the ratio of residual splitting tensile strength
218 at elevated temperature to splitting tensile strength at ambient temperature.

219 With temperature increasing, the residual splitting tensile strength of FSCs was monotonically

220 decreased as shown in Fig. 4a. Previous investigation [8] on HSC with and without PP fibers
221 indicates the similar trends. In the whole range of 25–1000 °C, the residual splitting tensile
222 strengths of FSC without PP fibers were lower than those of FSC with PP fibers.

223 At ambient temperature (25 °C), the addition of PP fibers can introduce an increased resistance to
224 crack growth for concrete materials [29], so the splitting tensile strength of FSC without PP fibers
225 was lower than that of FSC with PP fibers. In this study, the splitting tensile strength of FSC with
226 PP fibers was 8.87% higher than that of FSC without PP fibers at 25 °C. In addition, the reasons for
227 variations of residual splitting tensile strengths of FSCs during 200–1000 °C are similar to those of
228 their residual compressive strengths in the same temperature range.

229 As illustrated in Fig. 4b, the relative residual splitting tensile strengths of FSCs were decreased
230 continually with the rise of temperature. The relative residual splitting tensile strength of FSC with
231 PP fibers was higher than that of FSC without PP fibers at 200 °C, while the opposite results were
232 observed in the range of 400–1000 °C. The relative residual splitting tensile strengths of FSC with
233 and without PP fibers dropped slightly to 89.52% (C1) and 84.75% (C2) at 200 °C. However, they
234 decreased sharply in the range of 400–600 °C with a magnitude of 27.43% (C1) and 28.84% (C2)
235 at 600 °C. In addition, they declined slowly during 800–1000 °C, but their relative residual
236 splitting tensile strengths were barely 12.74% (C1) and 13.93% (C2) at 1000 °C. Thus, the range
237 400–600 °C could also be considered the critical temperature range for splitting tensile strength
238 loss of FSCs.

239 Furthermore, a comparative investigation on the relative mechanical properties of 2 FSCs was
240 carried out. Table 5 presents the relative compressive strength and relative splitting tensile strength
241 of FSCs at ambient (25 °C) and after heating to 200, 400, 600, 800, and 1000 °C.

242 As shown in [Table 5](#), the relative residual compressive strengths of FSCs were higher than those
243 of their relative residual splitting tensile strengths in the range of 200–1000 °C, except for C1 mix
244 at 200 °C. In particular, the former were 60.22% (C1) and 22.70% (C2) higher than the latter at 400
245 °C, respectively. Therefore, the elevated temperature has a more severe effect on the splitting tensile
246 strength of FSCs than that of the compressive strength. On one hand, the cracks are prone to open
247 under tensile loading, while they are prone to close up subjected to compressive loading. Thus, the
248 impact of crack coalescence is more crucial on the splitting tensile strength than that on the
249 compressive strength of FSCs. On the other hand, the increasing temperature has a significant
250 influence on the crack propagation and the localization of micro-cracks into macro-cracks caused
251 by the moisture clog [\[30\]](#), decomposition of the hydration products, and incompatible thermal
252 deformation between aggregates and cement paste.

253 4.4. UPV

254 The UPV of FSC with and without PP fibers before and after exposure to elevated temperatures is
255 presented in [Fig.5](#).

256 As shown in [Fig.5](#), the UPV of FSCs decreased continually with the increase of temperature,
257 which is in line with the results of reference [\[14\]](#). This phenomenon corresponded with the
258 changing trends of the compressive strength ([Fig.3a](#)) and splitting tensile strength ([Fig.4a](#)), the
259 result of which indicated that the deterioration of FSCs could be evaluated by the means of UPV
260 test. There was an accelerating process in the decrease of UPV of FSCs in the range of 200–800 °C,
261 and the UPV of FSC with and without PP fibers at 1000 °C was 1.04 km/s and 1.02 km/s,
262 respectively. The decrease of UPV with the increase of temperature is due to the damaged
263 microstructure and the induced thermal damage in concrete [\[31\]](#).

264 The UPV of FSC without PP fibers was always higher than that of FSC with PP fibers in the
265 whole range of 25—1000 °C. At ambient temperature, the increase of local porosity [8] results from
266 the insufficient dispersing of PP fibers, which leads to the decrease of UPV propagation in FSC
267 with PP fibers. At elevated temperatures, the PP fibers in concrete have double effects on the UPV.
268 As for accelerating effect, channels left by molten PP fibers are helpful to reduce the thermal
269 damage, which finally results in the increase of the UPV. However, decelerating effect means that
270 channels caused by molten PP fibers themselves are material defects (damage) due to high
271 temperature, which leads to the UPV drop. In the range of 200—1000 °C, the reason for the
272 phenomenon can be attributed to that the decelerating effect of PP fibers outweighs their
273 accelerating effect.

274 4.5. Relationships between strengths and UPV

275 The relationships between strengths and UPV for FSCs before and after exposure to elevated
276 temperatures are shown in Fig.6.

277 As illustrated in Fig.6a, with the increase of UPV, the compressive strength of FSCs increased
278 monotonically, and the compressive strength evolution of them was consistent, the result of which
279 could be described by a Weibull distribution model, as the full cure in Fig.6a. The equation of the
280 Weibull distribution model was shown as follows,

$$281 \quad f_{cs} = 1904.7096 \times [1 - e^{0.00101 \times (V - 0.86291)^{0.55001}}] \quad (1)$$

282 where f_{cs} is the compressive strength of FSCs, and V is the UPV propagation in FSCs.

283 As shown in Fig.6b, the splitting tensile strength of FSC with and without PP fibers increased
284 continually with the increase of UPV, and the splitting tensile strength evolution of them was
285 accordant. The results indicated that an exponential relationship provided an approximation to

286 evaluate the splitting tensile strength of FSCs through UPV. The following was the relationship,

$$287 \quad f_{sts} = 0.55189 \times e^{0.46617 \times V} \quad (2)$$

288 where f_{sts} is the splitting tensile strength of FSCs.

289 The *R*-Square of the Weibull distribution and exponential fitting was 0.9649 and 0.9598,
290 respectively, which suggested that the fitting results matched rather well with the experimental data,
291 and that Eqs. (1) and (2) could be used to assess the compressive strength and the splitting tensile
292 strength of FSCs by UPV.

293 It should be noted that the empirical formulas may not precisely assess the strengths (both
294 compressive and splitting tensile strength) of FSCs with different compositions (e.g. different
295 aggregate types). On the whole, however, the models established in the study were reasonably
296 accurately to evaluate the strengths of FSCs subjected to elevated temperatures. In practice, the
297 established models can provide a convenient method to assess concrete or structural damage in
298 terms of strengths in case of fire hazard, engulfment by lava flow, or nuclear accident.

299 4.6. Mass loss

300 [Fig.7](#) presents the mass loss evolutions of FSC with and without PP fibers obtained from cubic
301 specimens (about 25×25×25 mm) after exposure to high temperatures. Note that ratio of mass loss
302 equals to the mass loss divided by its initial mass.

303 It was observed that the evolution of mass loss as a function of temperature was very close for the
304 2 FSCs. Between ambient temperature and 200 °C, the variation of mass was significantly
305 corresponding to more than half of the total mass loss. Between 200 and 800 °C, a moderate
306 variation was observed for 2 FSCs. However, the variation of mass was rather weak during 800—
307 1000 °C. These results are similar with published data of [\[23\]](#), in which the evolution of mass loss

308 versus temperature is also very close for the 2 SCCs, although the maximum temperature is 600 °C
309 in the study.

310 As illustrated in Fig. 7, the mass loss of the FSC without PP fibers was slightly higher than that of
311 the FSC with PP fibers in the range of 200–600 °C. However, the mass loss of them was nearly the
312 same during 800–1000 °C with a magnitude of 7.07% (C1) and 7.09% (C2) at 1000 °C.

313 The initial water contents in the 2 mixtures were the same. So, as the heating rate was moderate
314 (5 °C /min), and in spite of the fact that the porosity and permeability of FSCs were different due to
315 the addition of PP fibers, water or moisture could have time to escape from the FSCs independent of
316 their composition. The mass loss for the 2 FSCs s was therefore very similar.

317 4.7. Porosity

318 The porosity and pore size distribution of FSCs at ambient temperature (25 °C) and after heating
319 to 200, 400, 600, 800, and 1000 °C are presented in Fig. 8, respectively.

320 As shown in Fig. 8a, with temperature increasing, a monotonous increase of porosity for FSC
321 with and without PP fibers was observed. In the range of 25–400 °C, the porosity increased
322 gradually for the two FSCs with a magnitude of 19.70% (C1) and 23.82% (C2), which could
323 explain the slight decrease of the compressive strength and the splitting tensile strength of these
324 concretes during this temperature range. However, a sharp increase in porosity was observed after
325 heating to 600 °C, confirming a severe material deterioration that can have an impact on the
326 mechanical properties of FSCs. In particular, with reference to unheated FSCs, the porosity values
327 were more than trebled after exposure to 1000 °C.

328 The porosity of FSC without PP fibers was lower than that of FSC with PP fibers in the whole
329 range of 25–1000 °C, as illustrated in Fig. 8a. However, no big difference could be observed for

330 the porosity of FSC with and without PP fibers at ambient temperature and each target temperature,
331 which is consistent with the observation by Liu et al. [22].

332 As to pore size distribution, there were multi peaks during 25–1000 °C, and the critical pore
333 diameter increased with the increase of temperature (Fig.8b, c). In C1 mixture (Fig.8b), most of the
334 pores size at 25, 400, and 1000 °C were within two peaks interval (0.004310, 0.02460), (0.005934,
335 0.9822), and (0.5388, 27.32) respectively, all in μm . A similar trend was observed in C2 mixture
336 (Fig.8c), but to a larger degree, from 0.02627–0.05296 μm at 25 °C, to 0.07706–2.081 μm at
337 400 °C, to 0.4633–30.22 μm at 1000 °C. These results could justify that the porosity of FSCs
338 increased slowly in the range of 25–400 °C, while the porosity increased rapidly after heating to
339 400 °C.

340 Kalifa et al. [20] attribute the increase in porosity with temperature to the escape of bound water
341 and to the micro-cracks generated by incompatible expansion between the aggregates and cement
342 paste. In addition, Fares et al. [25] point out the evolution of porosity of concrete subjected to high
343 temperature due to the departure of absorbed water in capillary pores and the release of bound water
344 in the hydration products of cement paste. The research carried out by Ye et al. [23] indicates that
345 the increase in porosity of concrete subjected to high temperatures is due to the decomposition of
346 C–S–H and CH. Many micro-cracks and decomposition of hydration products at 600 °C were
347 observed in the study, as shown in Fig. 9, which could be related to the evolution of porosity of
348 FSCs.

349 4.8. Chemical composition

350 The chemical and elemental compositions of mortar of C2 mixture is shown in Table 6.

351 As shown in Table 6, the content of hematite (Fe_2O_3) was 14.08 wt.%, which is different from

352 ordinary concretes [32]. The content of SiO_2 in FSC was slightly lower than that of
353 hematite-containing concrete used in VULCANO experiment [32], while the content of Fe_2O_3 in the
354 former was higher than that of the latter, which indicated that the content of key chemical
355 composition (SiO_2 and Fe_2O_3) of FSC is similar to hematite-containing concrete used in
356 VULCANO experiment. In addition, the elemental compositions of FSC contributed to analyze
357 crystalline phase of the concrete.

358 4.9. XRD

359 The XRD patterns of mortar of C2 mixture at ambient and different elevated temperatures are
360 presented in Fig. 10.

361 The main crystalline phases of mortar of C2 mixture at ambient temperature were tobermorite,
362 calcite, quartz, hematite, magnenite, and mullite, as illustrated in Fig. 10, and the occurrence of
363 hematite was due to the iron ore in the aggregates of FSCs. In addition, the quartz, hematite, and
364 mullite phases were also found in geopolymer foam concrete subjected to elevated temperatures
365 [33]. With the increase of temperature, the peak amplitude of tobermorite decreased gradually, and
366 disappeared at 600 °C. The peak amplitude of calcite nearly did not change in the range of 25–600
367 °C, while it vanished at 800 °C, which is in line with the observation by Bazant and Kaplan [3].
368 Moreover, a new crystalline phase, namely, svyatoslavite, was observed at 1000 °C. This new
369 crystalline phase might be conducive to the residual mechanical strengths of FSCs.

370 4.10. Thermal analysis

371 The effect of temperature on the heat absorption/desorption (DSC) and thermal decomposition
372 behavior (TGA) of the investigated materials, are shown in Fig. 11.

373 As illustrated in Fig.11a, the DSC patterns of mortar of C1 and C2 mixtures were very similar,

374 because the hydration products of the 2 mixtures were the same. The dehydration of FSCs took
375 place at about 100 °C characterized by loss of evaporable water and part of physically bound water,
376 which is consistent with the observation by Bazant and Kaplan [3]. In the range of 400–600 °C, the
377 decomposition of CH occurred. This is in line with the reference [3]. At about 580 °C, the
378 crystalline of quartz transformed from β - to α - quartz, which is in good agreement with research
379 results of Chase [34]. The decarbonation of calcium carbonate arose at approximately 700 °C. This
380 is consistent with the conclusion that the decomposition of calcium carbonate occurs during 600–
381 900 °C drawn by Bazant and Kaplan [3]. In general, the dehydration of hydration products (such as
382 C–S–H, CH, and so on) is an ongoing process in the range of 100–850 °C. In a word, the
383 chemical process of FSCs subjected to high temperatures is similar to that of normal concrete (as
384 indicated in literature [3]) exposed to elevated temperatures.

385 The weight loss of 2 studied FSCs was very close, as shown in Fig.11b, since the mix proportions
386 (Table 4) of them were nearly the same. Between ambient temperature and 150 °C, a quick weight
387 loss was observed in the TGA for the 2 studied FSCs, the result of which is similar to reference [23].
388 This is due to the loss of evaporable water and part of physically bound water. In the range of 105–
389 700 °C, the weight loss indicated from TGA related to the loss of chemically bound water and the
390 dehydration of hydration products [3]. A dramatic loss in the weight of FSCs was displayed again at
391 700 °C, which is because of the decarbonation of calcium carbonate. After that temperature, a
392 moderate variation was presented in the TGA. In addition, the weight loss of FSC without PP fibers
393 was invariably lower than that of FSC with PP fibers in the whole range of 25–1000 °C, the result
394 of which accorded fairly well with the mass loss evolution of FSCs (Fig.7).

395 At 1000 °C, the total weight loss of FSCs was higher than the total mass loss of FSCs, because

396 the former was 10.09% (C1) and 9.99% (C2), while the latter was 7.07% (C1) and 7.09% (C2). The
397 only difference of these 2 experiments is the shapes of the specimens, namely, the specimens used
398 in the thermal analysis experiment were micronized powder (particle size below 80 μm), and the
399 samples utilized in mass loss experiment were massive (about 25×25×25 mm). In essence, however,
400 these 2 experiments were the same. Maybe that was because when the micronized specimens were
401 ground, they absorbed moisture in the air.

402 **5. Conclusions**

403 This investigation concerns the behavior of FSCs at elevated temperatures. The mechanical and
404 physicochemical properties of FSCs were studied at 25, 200, 400, 600, 800, and 1000 °C, and the
405 relationships between strengths and UPV for FSCs were obtained. The main conclusions drawn in
406 this study are as follows:

- 407 1) The addition of PP fibers can prevent FSC from spalling, and its spalling mechanisms is unlike
408 those of NSC, HSC, and SCC. The spalling mechanism of FSC may be due to thermal damage,
409 inner expansion force of closed voids, and incompatible deformation between aggregates and
410 cement paste.
- 411 2) The compressive strength of FSC with and without PP fibers decreases continually with the
412 increase of temperature. The residual compressive strengths of FSC without fibers are higher
413 than those of FSC with fibers during 25—400 °C, while a contrary tendency is presented in
414 600—1000 °C.
- 415 3) With temperature increasing, the residual splitting tensile strength of FSCs is monotonically
416 decreased. In the whole range of 25—1000 °C, the residual splitting tensile strengths of FSC
417 without PP fibers are lower than those of FSC with PP fibers.

- 418 4) The critical temperature range of FSCs is 400–600 °C, in which their compressive and
419 splitting tensile strength decrease drastically. And the elevated temperatures have a more severe
420 effect on the splitting tensile strength of FSCs than that of compressive strength.
- 421 5) The UPV of FSCs decreases continually with the increase of temperature, and the UPV of FSC
422 without PP fibers is always higher than that of FSC with PP fibers in the whole range of 25–
423 1000 °C.
- 424 6) The compressive strength—UPV and splitting tensile strength—UPV relationships are Weibull
425 distribution and exponential form, respectively. In practice, the established models can provide
426 a convenient method to assess concrete or structural damage in terms of strengths.
- 427 7) The evolution of mass loss as a function of temperature is very close for the 2 studied FSCs,
428 and the mass loss of them was nearly the same with a magnitude of 7.07% (C1) and 7.09% (C2)
429 at 1000 °C.
- 430 8) A monotonous increase of porosity for FSC with and without PP fibers is observed with
431 temperature increasing. The porosity of FSC without PP fibers is lower than that of FSC with
432 PP fibers in the whole range of 25–1000 °C. Compared to unheated FSCs, the porosity values
433 were more than trebled after exposure to 1000 °C.
- 434 9) Svyatoslavite that is a new crystalline phase is observed at 1000 °C. This new crystalline phase
435 may be conducive to the residual mechanical strengths of FSCs.
- 436 10) At 1000 °C, the total weight loss of FSCs is higher than the total mass loss of FSCs, because the
437 former is 10.09% (C1) and 9.99% (C2), while the latter is 7.07% (C1) and 7.09% (C2). Maybe
438 that is because when the micronized specimens are ground, they absorb moisture in the air.

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Table 1 The chemical composition of cement, fly ash, and silica fume (wt.%)

Chemical composition	Cement	Fly ash	Silica fume
CaO	64.70	8.38	0.77
SiO ₂	20.40	47.96	96.18
Al ₂ O ₃	4.70	30.46	0.96
Fe ₂ O ₃	3.38	5.91	0.85
MgO	0.87	2.60	0.74
SO ₃	1.88	1.32	0.50
K ₂ O	0.83	1.61	
Na ₂ O		1.76	
Loss	3.24		

Table 2 The particle size distribution of the aggregates (wt.%)

Particle size (mm)	0—0.15	0.15—0.30	0.30—0.63	0.63—2.36	2.36—4.75	4.75—8.00
Quartz	6.30	7.60	13.50	14.60	11.50	46.50
Iron ore	5.20	7.10	12.70	39.00	17.80	18.20

Table 3 Characteristics of PP fiber

Length (mm)	Diameter (μm)	Density (kg/m^3)	Melting temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Burning temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Elastic modulus (MPa)
12	18	910	169	590	>3500

Table 4 Mix proportions of FSCs (kg/m³)

Mix	Cement	Fly ash	Silica fume	Quartz	Iron ore	Water	Superplasticizer	PP fiber
C1	388	135	20	1060	980	181	7.60	0
C2	388	135	20	1060	980	181	7.60	1.20

Table 5 The relative compressive strength and relative splitting tensile strength of FSCs at different temperatures (%)

Mechanical strength	Mix	200 °C	400 °C	600 °C	800 °C	1000 °C
Relative residual compressive strength	C1	88.33	84.10	37.35	26.72	14.61
Relative residual splitting tensile strength	C2	86.77	68.87	44.98	31.30	15.43
Relative residual compressive strength	C1	89.52	52.49	27.43	17.77	12.74
Relative residual splitting tensile strength	C2	84.75	53.93	28.84	19.33	13.93

Table 6 The chemical and elemental compositions of mortar of C2 mixture (wt.%)

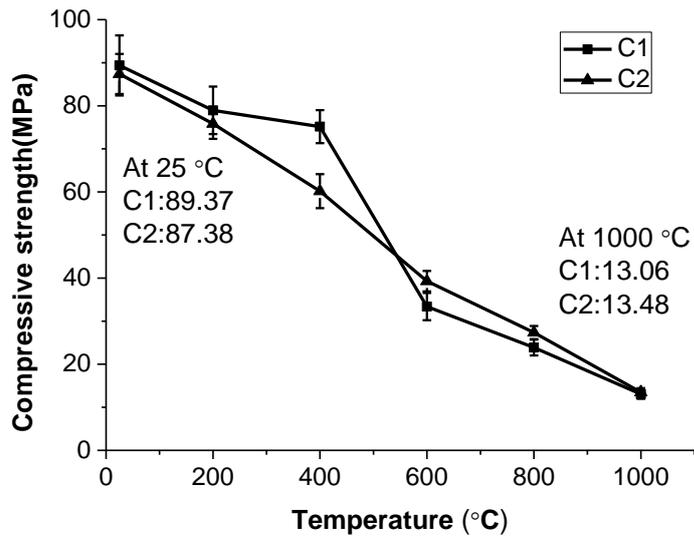
Chemical composition	Content	Elemental composition	Content
Na ₂ O	2.90	Na	2.90
MgO	1.94	Mg	1.64
Al ₂ O ₃	9.98	Al	7.63
SiO ₂	44.20	Si	31.76
P ₂ O ₅	3.37	P	2.53
SO ₃	1.90	S	1.34
CaO	20.73	Ca	28.41
K ₂ O	0.45	K	0.69
Cr	0.01	Cr	0.03
V ₂ O ₅	0.01	V	0.02
TiO ₂	0.24	Ti	0.30
Cl	0.15	Cl	0.27
Fe ₂ O ₃	14.08	Fe	22.37
MnO	0.08	Mn	0.13



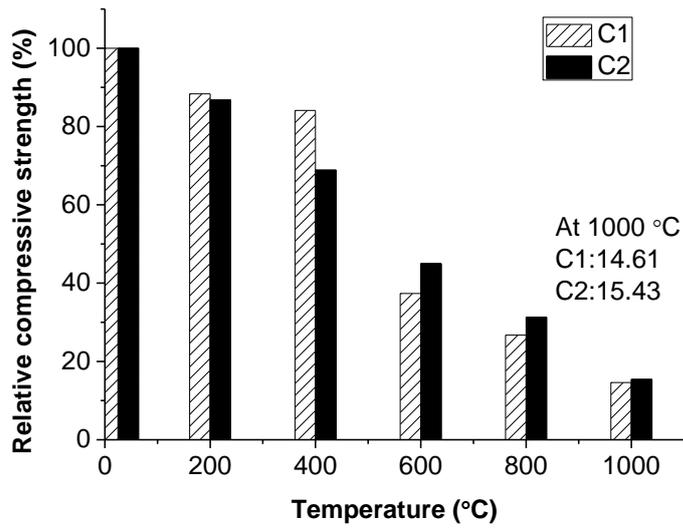
Fig. 1. The layout of specimens in the furnace



Fig. 2. Specimens (partial) before and after high temperatures treatment.

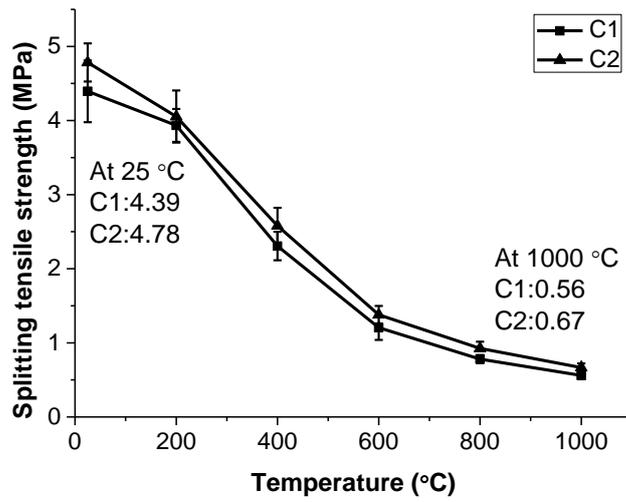


(a)

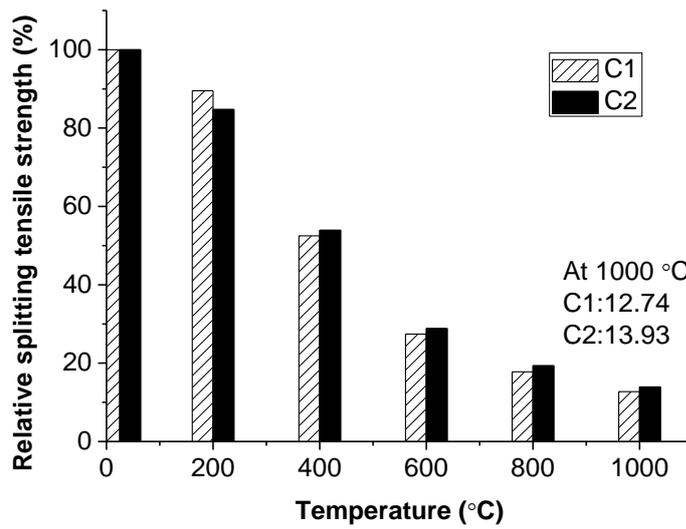


(b)

Fig. 3. The strength of FSCs at ambient and after heating to high temperatures: (a) residual compressive strength and (b) relative residual compressive strength (compared to strength at 25 °C)



(a)



(b)

Fig. 4. The strength of FSCs at ambient and after heating to high temperatures: (a) residual splitting tensile strength and (b) relative splitting tensile strength (compared to strength at 25 °C)

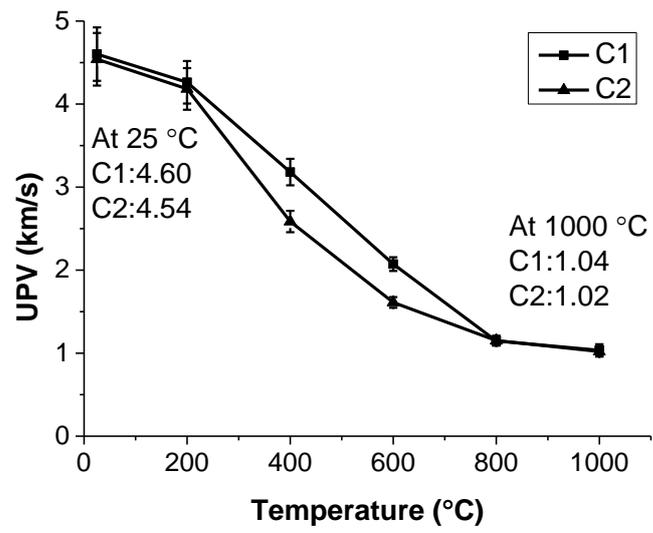
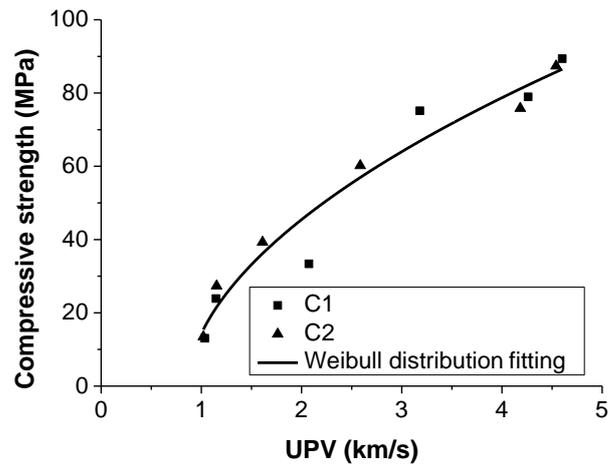
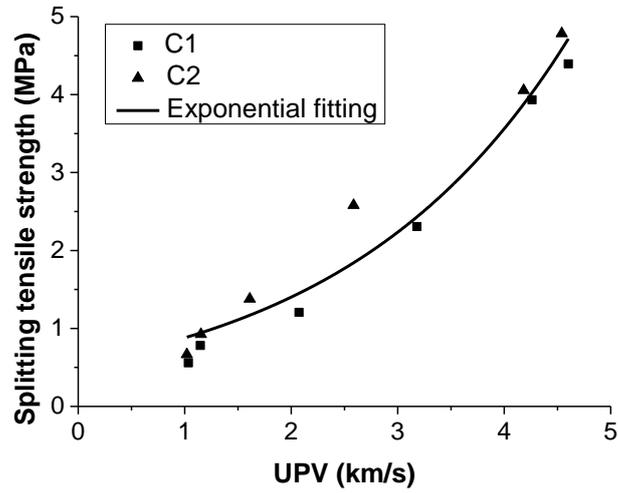


Fig. 5. The UPV of FSCs before and after exposure to high temperatures



(a)



(b)

Fig. 6. The relationships between strengths and UPV for FSCs before and after exposure to high temperatures: (a) compressive strength versus UPV and (b) splitting tensile strength versus UPV

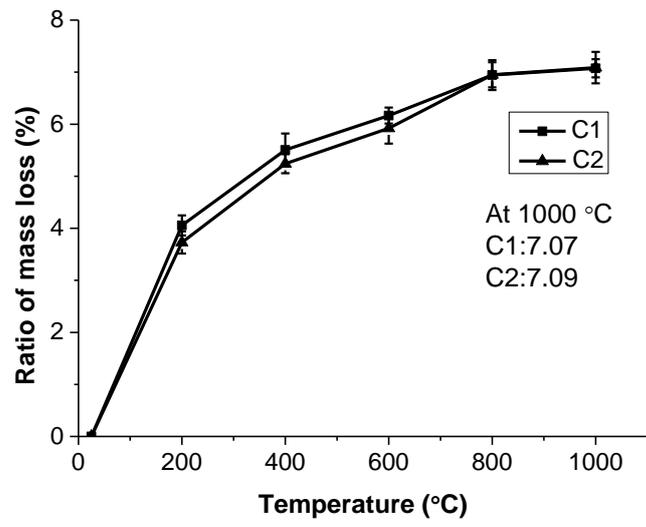
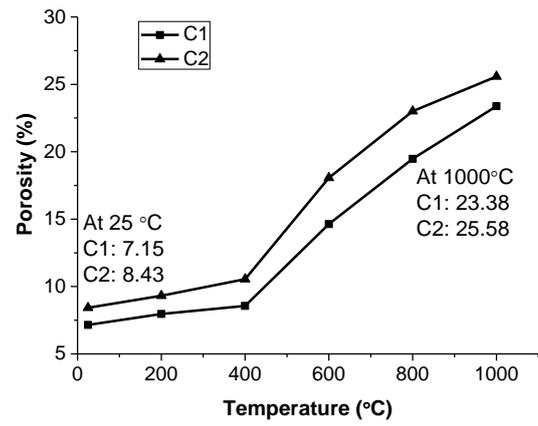
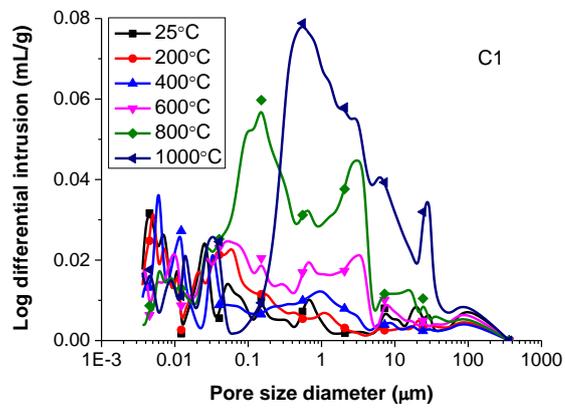


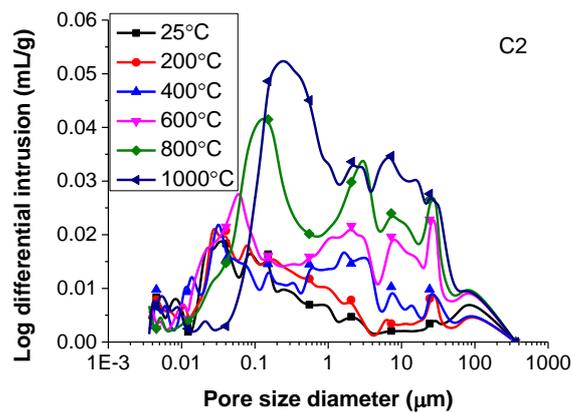
Fig. 7. Ratio of mass loss of FSCs at different temperatures



(a)



(b)



(c)

Fig. 8. The porosity (a) and pore size distribution (b), and (c) of FSCs at ambient (25 °C) and after heating to high temperatures

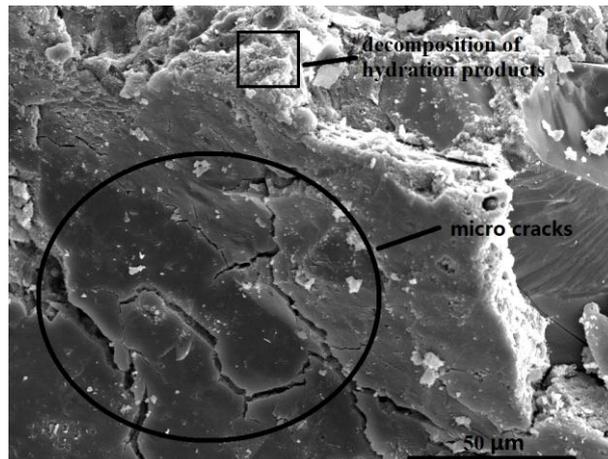


Fig. 9. SEM image of FSC with PP fibers after heating to 600 °C

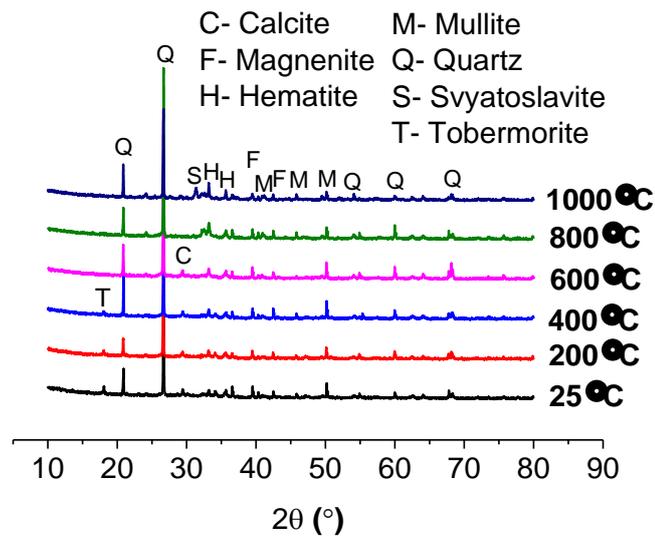
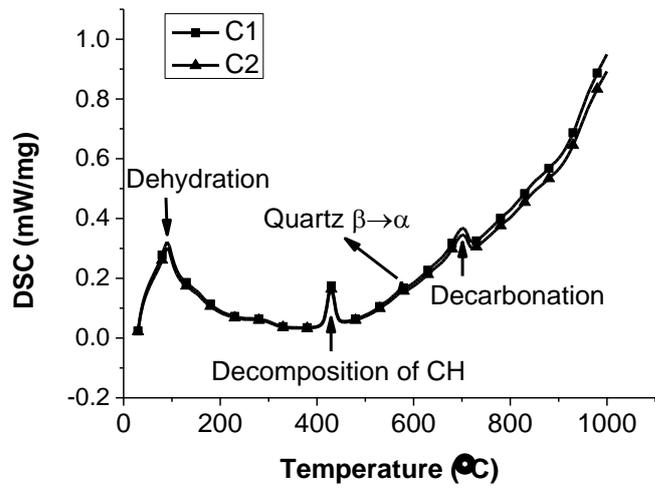
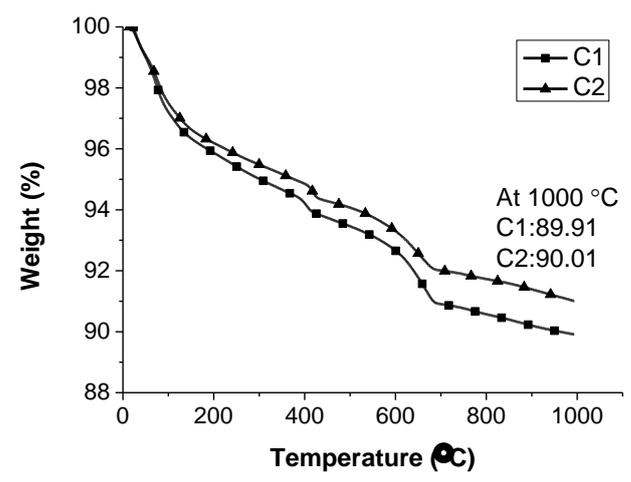


Fig. 10. XRD patterns of FSC with PP fibers before and after high temperatures exposure. Phases identified: calcite, CaCO_3 ; magnetite, Fe_3O_4 ; hematite, Fe_2O_3 ; mullite, $\text{Al}_{4.8}\text{Si}_{1.2}\text{O}_{9.5}$; quartz, SiO_2 ; svyatoslavite, $\text{CaAl}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_8$; tobermorite, $\text{Ca}_5(\text{HSi}_3\text{O}_9)_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$.



(a)



(b)

Fig.11. Thermal analysis of FSCs: (a) DSC spectrums and (b) TGA curves