

# **An experimental study on crack propagation at rock-concrete interface using digital image correlation technique**

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## **ABSTRACT**

The digital image correlation (DIC) technique is employed to investigate the fracture process at rock-concrete interfaces under three-point bending (TPB), and four-point shearing (FPS) of rock-concrete composite beams with various pre-crack positions. According to the displacement fields obtained from experiment, the crack width, and propagation length

24 during the fracture process can be derived, providing information on the evolution of the  
25 fracture process zone (FPZ) at the interface. The results indicated that under TPB, the  
26 fracture of the rock-concrete interface is mode I dominated fracture although slight sliding  
27 displacement was also observed. Under FPS, the mode II component may increase in the  
28 case of a small notched crack length-to-depth ratio, resulting in the crack kinking into the  
29 rock. It was also observed that the FPZ length at the peak load is far longer for a specimen  
30 under FPS than under TPB.

31

32 **Keywords:** Rock-concrete interface; digital image correlation; fracture process zone; crack  
33 propagation; fracture mode

34

## 35 **1. Introduction**

36 For concrete structures built on a rock foundation, e.g. concrete dams, the interface between  
37 concrete and rock is usually considered as the weakest structural zone, enabling cracks to  
38 initiate and propagate along the interface under the hydrostatic loading. Similar to  
39 cement-based materials, a rock-concrete interface exhibits a typical quasi-brittle behaviour,  
40 i.e. there is a fracture process zone (FPZ) ahead of the interfacial crack, which features  
41 strain softening and strain localization behavior. Both the FPZ length and the crack opening  
42 displacement in the FPZ are essential parameters for characterizing the nonlinear behavior  
43 of concrete. Considering the small size of the FPZ compared with the large size of structures,  
44 some researchers [1, 2] have employed linear elastic fracture mechanics to analyze the  
45 fracture behavior of rock-concrete interfaces, in which the FPZ length was ignored. However,

46 based on the linear elastic fracture mechanics, once a crack initiates, it will immediately  
47 enter the unstable propagation stage, i.e. the nonlinear response of a structure cannot be  
48 reflected without an FPZ. Meanwhile, it is well known that fracture energy plays an important  
49 role in the fracture analysis of cementitious materials [3] and is significantly affected by the  
50 size of the FPZ [4]. By comparing the linear and nonlinear fracture methods (with/without  
51 FPZ), Červenka et al. [5] demonstrated that performing a nonlinear analysis of a  
52 cementitious material interface could increase the critical fracture energy by approximately  
53 20% compared to a linear analysis. Therefore, with regards to the safety assessment of  
54 rock-concrete structures such as concrete dams built on a rock foundation, nonlinear  
55 fracture mechanics is more reliable for fracture analysis of a rock-concrete interface in the  
56 field.

57 So far, both experimental and numerical methods have been utilized to study FPZ evolution  
58 in quasi-brittle materials. Some studies have shown that the FPZ length of concrete  
59 decreases rapidly when a crack approaches the top surface of a specimen [6-8]. This is  
60 often called the boundary effect and has been successfully explained through the concept of  
61 local fracture energy [6, 9, 10]. Based on the experimental results of mode I fracture, it was  
62 found that the maximum FPZ length of concrete increases with the increase of the specimen  
63 height, and decreases with the increase of the notched crack length-to-depth ratio ( $a_0/D$ ) [11].  
64 Dong et al. arrived to the same conclusion [12] by introducing the initial fracture toughness  
65 criterion in the analysis of concrete fracture. It has also been found in this study, that the FPZ  
66 length may continue increasing even after the FPZ has fully developed. Meanwhile, taking  
67 sandstone as an example, the FPZ evolution under mixed mode fracture was studied

68 through experiment [13]. It should be noted that the aforementioned studies aimed at  
69 investigating the FPZ evolution in single materials, such as concrete and sandstone. In the  
70 case of a composite material such as a rock-concrete interface, to the best of the authors'  
71 knowledge, no study regarding its FPZ evolution has been reported. In the few studies which  
72 have been made on crack propagation along a rock-concrete interface [14-16], the main  
73 objective was to develop a numerical method to effectively simulate the fracture process at  
74 the interface rather than to investigate crack evolution. In those studies, usually the curves of  
75 load vs. crack mouth opening and sliding displacements (P-CMOD, P-CMSD) obtained from  
76 experiment were compared with the ones from simulation to verify the proposed numerical  
77 methods. In fact, for the purpose of an in-depth insight into a fracture mechanism, the  
78 verification of a numerical method using the FPZ evolution in various fracture stages is more  
79 significant and convincing. Therefore, together with the fracture behavior, it is important to  
80 investigate the FPZ evolution at the rock-concrete interface.

81 Digital image correlation (DIC) is an optical technique that is used to visualize the surface  
82 displacements of a specimen. Through a comparison of digital images of specimen surfaces  
83 before/after deformation, the displacements of the regular grid points on the specimen  
84 surface can be obtained, so that the FPZ evolution during fracture process can be derived if  
85 combined with a softening constitutive law for crack opening displacement and cohesive  
86 force. Due to its convenience, high responsiveness, accuracy and non-destructive nature,  
87 the DIC technique has been widely used for investigating a number of processes, including  
88 the fracture and fatigue behavior of strengthened reinforced concrete beams [17], the mode I  
89 fracture in cementitious materials [11, 18-20], the mixed mode fracture in sandstone [13], the

90 fracture properties at concrete-concrete interfaces [21], and the interfacial debonding  
91 properties in concrete [22]. The results of the above research have demonstrated that the  
92 DIC technique can be used to carry out the fracture analysis of concrete with reasonable  
93 accuracy.

94 In this study, the DIC technique is employed to investigate the fracture properties and  
95 characterize the FPZ length under three-point bending (TPB) for the rock-concrete interface.  
96 Also, in the case of four-point shearing (FPS), the crack opening and sliding displacements  
97 at various stages before the peak loads are obtained using the DIC technique with respect to  
98 different mode mixity ratios. Based on the experimental results, the FPZ evolution during  
99 crack propagation and the effects of the mode mixity ratio on fracture properties are  
100 discussed. It is expected that the experimental results presented here can lead to a better  
101 understanding of the fracture properties and failure characteristics of rock-concrete  
102 interfaces so that the nonlinear fracture mechanics can be more efficiently employed to  
103 crack propagation analysis. Meanwhile, it may be helpful to verify the previously developed  
104 numerical method for simulating the fracture process of different material interfaces by  
105 providing experimental evidence of the FPZ evolution and crack opening/sliding  
106 displacements.

107

## 108 **2. Experimental Program**

### 109 ***2.1 Specimen Preparation and Experimental Setup***

110 The two types of specimens tested in this study were 100 × 100 × 500 mm  
111 (width×depth×length) beams with a 400 mm span. One specimen featured an interfacial

112 notch at the geometric center of the composite, i.e. both the concrete and rock blocks have  
 113 the same length, for the TPB test (See Fig. 1(a)). The other specimen featured an eccentric  
 114 interfacial notch, i.e. the concrete and rock blocks have unequal lengths, for FPS test (See  
 115 Fig. 1(b)). Here,  $a_0$  is the initial crack length;  $D$ ,  $B$ , and  $L$  are the depth, width and length of  
 116 the beams, respectively;  $L_1$ ,  $L_2$ , and  $C_1$  are the distances from the two loading points and  
 117 pre-notch to the geometric center of the rock-concrete composite specimens, respectively.  
 118 The specimen number "TPB 30" denotes a TPB beam with  $a_0=30$  mm. The specimen  
 119 number "FPS10-5-60" denotes an FPS beam with  $L_1/L_2=10$ ,  $C_1=5$  mm, and  $a_0=60$  mm. To  
 120 obtain the various mode mixity ratios, i.e.  $K_1/K_2$ , in the interfacial fracture, the values of  $a_0$ ,  
 121  $L_1/L_2$ , and  $C_1$  vary, which are listed in Table 2. Here,  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are the stress intensity factors  
 122 of the bi-material interface crack. In this paper, SIFs for a rock-concrete interface crack are  
 123 calculated by the displacement extrapolation method [23] using the ANSYS finite element  
 124 code with the formulas shown as below:

$$125 \quad K_1 = C \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{r}} \left[ \delta_y (\cos Q + 2\varepsilon \sin Q) + \delta_x (\sin Q - 2\varepsilon \cos Q) \right] \quad (1)$$

$$126 \quad K_2 = C \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{r}} \left[ \delta_y (\cos Q + 2\varepsilon \sin Q) - \delta_x (\sin Q - 2\varepsilon \cos Q) \right] \quad (2)$$

127 where,

$$128 \quad C = \frac{2 \cosh(\varepsilon \pi)}{(\kappa_1 + 1) / \mu_1 + (\kappa_2 + 1) / \mu_2} \quad (3)$$

$$129 \quad Q = \varepsilon \ln r \quad (4)$$

$$130 \quad \varepsilon = \frac{1}{2\pi} \ln \left( \frac{\frac{\kappa_1}{\mu_1} + \frac{1}{\mu_2}}{\frac{\kappa_2}{\mu_2} + \frac{1}{\mu_1}} \right) \quad (5)$$

131 
$$\mu_i = \frac{E_i}{2(1+\nu_i)} \quad (i = 1,2) \quad (6)$$

132 
$$\kappa_i = \begin{cases} (3 - \nu_{ui}) / (1 + \nu_{ui}) & \text{(Plane stress)} \\ (3 - 4\nu_{ui}) & \text{(Plane strain)} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

133  $E$  and  $\nu_u$  are the Young's modulus and Poisson's ratio, respectively, while  $i=1, 2$  representing  
 134 concrete and rock respectively.

135 To obtain the natural surface of the rock, TPB test was carried out on rock beams with a  
 136 notch. Once a notched rock beam is broken into two halves under bending, each half will  
 137 have a natural surface. Mix proportions of the concrete for this study were 1:0.62:1.8:4.2  
 138 (cement: water: sand: aggregate) by weight and the maximum aggregate size was 10 mm.

139 To make rock-concrete composite beams, a rock block was placed inside the mould and  
 140 concrete was cast against it. After curing in sealed conditions for 2 days, the composite  
 141 specimens were de-moulded and moved into a curing room with 23°C and 90% RH for  
 142 further curing to 28 days. The measured material properties of concrete, rock, and  
 143 rock-concrete interface are listed in Table 2, in which  $E_t$ ,  $\nu_u$ ,  $f_c$ ,  $f_t$  and  $G_f$  denote Young's  
 144 modulus, Poisson's ratio, uniaxial compressive strength, uniaxial tensile strength and  
 145 fracture energy, respectively.

146 A closed loop servo-controlled testing machine with a compression loading capacity of 250  
 147 kN was employed for loading the beam specimens in this study. For each specimen, a clip  
 148 gauge was mounted on the bottom of the beam to measure the crack mouth opening  
 149 displacement (CMOD). The tests were performed under CMOD control mode with a rate of  
 150 0.005mm/s.

151

152 **2.2 Digital Image Correlation Technique and Determination of Opening/Sliding**  
 153 **Displacements along the FPZ**

154 Digital image correlation is an optical, non-contact measurement technique, which is usually

155 employed to analyze the displacement field on a specimen surface. By comparing images of  
156 the specimen before and after deformation, the deformation of a specimen caused by the  
157 applied load can be evaluated using the DIC technique. In this study, the camera was placed  
158 perpendicular to the rock-concrete specimen side surface 1.5 m away. The speckled pattern  
159 was made on the specimen surface using ordinary black spray paint. One digital image per  
160 second was recorded using a digital camera with a resolution of 1024×768 pixels during  
161 loading. Taking Specimen TPB30 as an example, a computational domain with 62×80 mm<sup>2</sup>  
162 was employed to cover its full ligament length. By picking up one out of each five pixels (1  
163 pixel=0.0877 mm in this case), a computational grid of 22143 (121×183) points was selected  
164 to conduct the deformation analysis in the X (perpendicular to the crack surface) and the Y  
165 (parallel to the crack surface) directions (See Fig. 2). In Fig. 2, Line MN is just above the tip  
166 of the pre-notch, and Lines M<sub>1</sub>N<sub>1</sub>, M<sub>2</sub>N<sub>2</sub>...M<sub>n</sub>N<sub>n</sub> (n=182) are parallel to Line MN with an  
167 interval of 5 pixels. The opening displacement  $u$  along the X direction and sliding  
168 displacement  $v$  along the Y direction corresponding to various loadings can be derived using  
169 the DIC technique, which is elaborated as following:

170 Based on the *P-CMOD* curve of Specimen TPB30 (See Fig. 3) obtained from experiment,  
171 Point P8, at the loading level of 5.5% of the post-peak load, is selected as an example to  
172 elaborate how to derive the opening/sliding displacements. Fig. 4(a) and (b) illustrate the  
173 deformation of line MN along the  $u$  and the  $v$  directions at Point P8, i.e., the opening and  
174 sliding displacements at the tip of a notch. In Fig. 4(a), the opening displacements were  
175 significantly increased in the 6-pixel points near the origin, which is caused by crack initiation.  
176 Here, the points at the boundary of displacement jump are denoted as Points R and Q. By  
177 calculating the distance between Points R and Q, the opening displacement 0.107 mm on  
178 line MN is obtained. Correspondingly, the sliding displacement 0.0087 mm is derived based  
179 on the experimental results. Then, the opening/sliding displacements on lines M<sub>1</sub>N<sub>1</sub>,



180  $M_2N_2\dots M_nN_n$  can be derived until both displacements reach zero, i.e. the crack tip is  
181 captured. Moreover, according to the obtained opening/sliding displacements in Fig. 4, the  
182 Points Q and R, which represent the deformation edges, can be used to define the crack  
183 profile on line MN corresponding to the loading Point P8. At that moment, the X-values of the  
184 profile on line MN correspond to the opening displacements of Points Q and R, respectively.  
185 Accordingly, the Y-values in Fig. 5 correspond to the sliding displacements of Points Q and R,  
186 respectively. Then, since the opening/sliding displacements on line MN are obtained at Point  
187 8, the crack profile on line MN corresponding to Point 8 can be derived. Accordingly, the  
188 crack profile at Point 8 is obtained using the above-mentioned process by deriving the  
189 opening/sliding displacements on lines  $M_1N_1$ ,  $M_2N_2\dots M_nN_n$ . In a similar manner, both the  
190 opening/sliding displacements and the crack profile can be obtained at any point of the  
191 P-CMOD curve. Therefore, the crack propagation and the FPZ evolution during the fracture  
192 process of the rock-concrete interface can be recorded using the DIC technique. To  
193 demonstrate, Fig. 5 illustrates the crack profile corresponding to Points  $P_2$ ,  $P_4$ , and  $P_9$ , and  
194 the final failure image of the specimen TPB30.

195

### 196 **3. Results and Discussions**

#### 197 **3.1 Effects of Crack Length on Interface Mode Fracture Under TPB**

198 Under TPB, due to the materials being asymmetric on both sides of a crack, the  
199 rock-concrete interface is a mixed mode fracture rather than a single mode opening fracture.  
200 Figs. 6 (a) to (j) illustrate crack evolution in Specimen TPB 30 with respect to points 1 to 10.  
201 In each figure, the opening displacement  $u$  and sliding displacement  $v$  along the crack are  
202 shown on both sides of the crack. It can be seen from these figures that, both the opening  
203 and sliding displacements increase almost linearly along the crack surface. Compared with  
204 the opening displacement, the sliding displacement is obviously smaller. For the purpose of

205 quantitative analysis, Fig. 7 presents the relationship of the ratio of  $v/u$  vs. the crack ratio  $a/D$ .  
206 Here,  $a$  is the overall crack length, which is the sum of the initial crack length and the crack  
207 propagation length. It can be seen from this figure that the ratios of  $v/u$  approximately  
208 showed a plateau when the crack tip was far from the free surface of the specimen, i.e.  $a/D$   
209 is less than 0.6 in this study. Since  $v$  and  $u$  are caused by a bending moment and shear force,  
210 respectively, the ratio of  $v/u$  reflects the proportion of Modes II to I components, which has  
211 the similar physical meaning to the ratio of  $K_2/K_1$ . According to the result from literature [24],  
212 the ratio of  $K_2/K_1$  also kept a plateau when there was no boundary effect at a rock-concrete  
213 interface. However, the ratio of  $v/u$  decreased rapidly when the crack tip was close to the  
214 free surface, i.e.  $a/D$  is close to 1, which may be attributed to the free surface effect. In the  
215 case of small size specimen in this study, the sliding displacement is 15% less than the  
216 opening displacement at the interfacial surface. It should be noted that the value of 15% is  
217 based only on the observation of this test, and more tests need to be carried out to get a  
218 sound conclusion.

219

### 220 **3.2 FPZ Evolution at Rock-concrete Interface**

221 According to the fictitious crack model proposed by Hillerborg [24], the tension-softening  
222 behaviors of the FPZ in cement-based materials can be described using the normal stress  
223 acting on the crack surface ( $\sigma$ ) vs. crack opening displacement ( $w$ ). In the relationship of  $\sigma$ - $w$ ,  
224 stress-free crack opening displacement  $w_0$  is a significant parameter, which can determine  
225 the end of the FPZ. Taking the bilinear  $\sigma$ - $w$  relationship of concrete [25] as an example,  $w_0$  is  
226 set as  $3.6G_{\#}/f_t$ . Thus, the FPZ length can be determined by the distance from the crack tip to  
227 the stress-free crack position. However, in the case of rock-concrete interface, the  
228 constitutive relationship of concrete was employed for describing the behavior of the  
229 rock-concrete interface as there is very limited reliable knowledge on the constitutive

230 relationship of rock-concrete interface from literature. Recently, aiming to understand the  
231 softening behavior of the rock-concrete interface, a bilinear  $\sigma$ - $w$  relationship was determined  
232 by Dong et al. [26], and the relationship of  $w_0 = 6G_f/f_t$  was proposed according to their  
233 research, which is also employed in this study. Based on the experimental results,  $f_t$  and  $G_f$   
234 of the rock-concrete interface are 1.371 MPa and 19.3 N/m, respectively. Thus,  $w_0$  is equal  
235 to 0.0844 mm.

236 When the initial crack tip opening displacement is less than  $w_0$ , no stress-free crack is  
237 formed so the FPZ length can be determined by positioning the crack tip. In comparison,  
238 when the displacement just reaches  $w_0$ , the FPZ is fully formed. Its length is 57.89 mm in this  
239 study, which is approximately corresponding to Point P7 (See Fig. 8). When the crack  
240 continuously propagates, the crack opening displacement keeps increasing, and the end of  
241 the FPZ will move forward and so will the crack tip. Therefore, according to the crack profile  
242 from experiment, the FPZ lengths can be derived, which are 41.44 and 24.69 mm with  
243 respect to Points P9 and P10 (See Fig. 8).

244 Fig. 9 illustrates the FPZ evolution during the fracture process in which  $\Delta a$  denotes the  
245 crack propagation length. It can be seen that the FPZ length increases as the crack  
246 propagates until it has fully developed at Point A, which corresponds to the length of 60.09  
247 mm. After that, the FPZ length decreases rapidly, showing the same variation trend as  
248 concrete [11]. The ratios are approximately 0.86 and 0.91 for the rock-concrete interface and  
249 concrete itself respectively, which are close to each other. After the development of a full  
250 FPZ, the effective crack consists of the newly formed stress-free crack, and the FPZ. If the  
251 ligament is long enough, the increase of newly formed crack is approximately equal to the  
252 increase of stress-free crack, so that the FPZ will keep a plateau. However, in the case of  
253 small-size specimens, the crack tip may be close to the specimen boundary when the FPZ  
254 fully develops. At that moment, the crack opening will increase sharply, which results in the

255 ending point of the FPZ moving forward rapidly. In this case, the increase of new crack  
256 initiation is less than the one of the new stress-free zone, resulting in the decrease of the  
257 FPZ length. It has been accepted that the boundary effect causes the decrease of the FPZ  
258 length in concrete [3]. Accordingly, the concept of local fracture energy was introduced  
259 based on the boundary effect model, and the bi-linear distribution of local fracture energy  
260 along the ligament was proposed [10]. Since the FPZ evolution of concrete and  
261 rock-concrete interface exhibited similar variation tendency, it may be concluded that the  
262 decrease of the FPZ length at the interface is caused by the boundary effect. The local  
263 fracture energy will decrease as well when the crack tip is close to the boundary. Certainly, it  
264 is worthy to conduct a study on the boundary effect at the rock-concrete interface in order to  
265 draw a sound conclusion.

### 266 **3.3 Variation of FPZ Length in Rock-concrete Composite Specimens under TPB and** 267 **FPS** 268

269 In the case of the FPS series beams, the relationship of opening and sliding displacements  
270 on the crack surface is different from that of the TPB series beams discussed previously. It  
271 should be noted that the crack propagation at the post-peak load stage was not captured in  
272 the experiment due to the sudden break of FPS series specimens at the peak load.  
273 Meanwhile, although under FPS, the crack continuously propagates along the interface until  
274 reaching the top surface of the specimen for Specimens FPS 10-5-60, 4-15-30 and 4-10-20.  
275 For each FPS series specimen, four digital images were derived corresponding to different  
276 loads during the loading process from crack initiation to reaching peak load. In each image,  
277 the crack surface opening/sliding displacements can be derived through comparing with the  
278 reference image before loading. Together with the crack profiles, evolutions of the  
279 microcracks at the four selected loading moments are illustrated for each specimen in Figs.

280 10 to 12. The FPZ in the three specimens was not fully formed at the peak load since no  
281 stress-free cracks are formed at that moment. Meanwhile, there is a significant difference in  
282 the FPZ length of the TPB and the FPS series specimens at the peak load. The FPZ length  
283 is 7.89 mm for the Specimen TPB 30 while, for FPS specimens, the lengths are 36.84, 44.66  
284 and 61.75 mm for FPS 10-5-60, 4-15-30 and 4-10-20, respectively. A natural rock surface  
285 obtained by fracturing a prismatic rock specimen by TPB was used for preparing the  
286 rock-concrete composite samples investigated in this study. Since there is no aggregate  
287 bridging mechanism at the rock-concrete interface, in the case of TPB, the rough surface  
288 only increases the contact area between rock and concrete, which improves the cohesive  
289 tension effect of the interface on a limited scale. However, in the case of FPS, the rough  
290 surface not only increases the contact area between the two materials but also increases the  
291 shear cohesive effect due to the interlocking from the naturally rough interface. Therefore,  
292 due to the existence of mode II component under FPS, the peak load significantly increases  
293 compared with under TPB. According to the experimental results, the peak load is 2.23 kN  
294 for Specimen TPB30. With respect to Specimens FPS 10-5-60, FPS 4-15-30 and FPS  
295 4-10-20, the peak load are 18.84, 26.93 and 41.25 kN, respectively (See Table 1). It can be  
296 seen that with regards to the same size specimens (TPB30 and FPS 4-15-30), the peak load  
297 under FPS (Specimen FPS 4-15-30) is more than 10 times greater than the one under TPB  
298 (Specimen TPB30). From a qualitative estimation, the fracture energy at the peak load under  
299 FPS is far more than under TPB. From the viewpoint of the energy balance, the longer FPZ  
300 is needed, which can provide more tension and shear cohesive effects, to dissipate the  
301 fracture energy caused by the high peak load under FPS. This is why the FPZ length is

302 higher under FPS than under TPB as observed in this study. A longer FPZ provides a higher  
303 cohesive effect and increased cracking resistance. Therefore, if the linear elastic fracture  
304 mechanics is employed to predict the peak load of the interface, the underestimation of peak  
305 load on the fracture analysis of mixed mode dominant is more significant than the one of  
306 mode I dominant. Further, it is not appropriate to use linear elastic fracture mechanics to  
307 analyze mixed-mode fracture.

### 308 **3.4 Variation of the Fracture Mode in Beams under FPS**

309 According to the experimental setup shown in Fig. 1(b), the initial mode mixity ratio,  $K_2/K_1$ ,  
310 before crack initiation can be derived as 0.595, 0.649 and 2.855 for specimens FPS 10-5-60,  
311 4-15-30 and 4-10-20, respectively. Because no crack propagation occurs at that moment,  
312 linear elastic interfacial fracture mechanics can be employed to calculate the stress intensity  
313 factors (SIFs) at the tip of the pre-notch.

314 In the case of the FPS test of beams made of a single material, the crack will form and  
315 propagate perpendicular to the principle tensile stress. Therefore, even though a large ratio  
316 of  $K_{II}/K_I$  exists before crack initiation, the ratio will rapidly decrease after the crack is formed  
317 and the fracture mode will be dominated by Mode I [27]. The phenomenon can be explained  
318 by the fact that the crack usually propagates along the trajectory of the least cracking  
319 resistance. However, the scenario is different in the case of the rock-concrete interface. The  
320 crack propagation trajectory depends on the competition between the driving force and  
321 resistance with respect to the interface and the rock. It has been verified experimentally [28],  
322 that the crack can kink into rock even the interface is weaker than the rock (in this study, the  
323 initial fracture toughness' are  $1.0 \text{ MPa}\cdot\text{m}^{1/2}$  for rock vs.  $0.2 \text{ MPa}\cdot\text{m}^{1/2}$  for the interface). It  
324

325 should be noted that, in the case of a crack kinking into the rock, the crack propagates  
326 perpendicular to the principal tensile stress. Therefore, it is similar to the mixed mode  
327 fracture of a single material in which the fracture mode will be dominated by Mode I as the  
328 crack propagates. In contrast, the fracture mode is still I-II mixed if the crack propagates  
329 along the interface. In this case, it is possible for the crack to kink into the rock after some  
330 propagation along the interface.

331 The relationship of  $v/u$  vs.  $a/D$  at Points  $P_1$  to  $P_4$  for each specimen is shown in Fig. 13. It is  
332 interesting to notice that the ratio of  $v/u$  remains almost constant for specimen FPS 4-10-20.  
333 It should also be noted that  $v$  and  $u$  can appropriately reflect the proportions of Modes II and  
334 I components, respectively, in the mixed mode fracture because they are caused by bending  
335 moment and shear force, respectively. From this point of view, the proportion of the mode II  
336 component in specimen FPS 4-10-20 does not decrease as the crack propagates as it does  
337 in concrete. Rather it keeps stable before the peak load is reached. Similarly, in the case of  
338 Specimen FPS 4-15-30, the ratio of  $v/u$  even slightly increases as the crack propagates  
339 before the peak load is reached. However, when  $a_0/D$  increases to 0.6, i.e. Specimen FPS  
340 10-5-60, the scenario is different with the condition of  $a_0/D=0.2$  and 0.3. At the early stage of  
341 crack propagation, i.e. Point  $P_1$  of Specimen FPS 10-5-60, the ratio of  $v/u$  is 0.7. When the  
342 crack propagates from  $P_2$  to  $P_4$ , the ratio decreases to around 0.2 and remains stable. It is  
343 worth pointing out that, the ratios of  $a_0/D$  corresponding to Points  $P_2$  to  $P_4$  exceed 0.9 at that  
344 moment, i.e. the specimen is almost broken even before the peak load is reached. It can be  
345 seen that the ratio of  $v/u$  changes as the crack propagates under a certain stress condition,  
346 e.g. Specimen FPS 10-5-60. Meanwhile, since the ratio of  $v/u$  reflects the proportion of

347 Modes II to I components, it has the similar physical meaning to the ratio of  $K_2/K_1$ . Therefore,  
348 it can be concluded that the ratio of  $K_2/K_1$  will change as the crack propagates. Then, the  
349 initial mode mixity ratio,  $K_2/K_1$ , cannot reflect the proportion of variation in the Modes II and I  
350 components during crack propagation. Instead, the ratio of  $a/D$  has a significant effect on the  
351 fracture mode. In line with this, with the increase of Mode II component during a fracture  
352 process, the crack may divert into the rock after propagating a certain distance along the  
353 interface. Fig. 14 shows the failure mode of Specimen FPS 6-5-40, in which the crack  
354 propagated along the interface for about 25 mm, then diverted into the rock block. Moreover,  
355 the fracture mode will be dominated by Mode I when the ratio of  $a/D$  exceeds 0.9, i.e. the  
356 final fracture of the rock-concrete composite specimen is almost caused by bending.  
357 Therefore, in general, it is not reasonable to employ the initial mode mixity ratio to predict the  
358 crack trajectory, because the variation of  $K_2/K_1$  is affected by the ratio of  $a/D$  as well.  
359 Particularly, in the case of a concrete dam with a crack along the interface between concrete  
360 and rock foundation, the mode mixity ratio with respect to crack initiation cannot be used to  
361 determine whether the crack will propagate along the interface or not. The ligament of the  
362 dam is long enough so that the crack may divert into the rock foundation and change the  
363 failure mode of the dam.

364

#### 365 **4. Conclusions**

366 In this paper, the DIC technique is employed to investigate crack propagation at the  
367 rock-concrete interface under TPB and FPS. By deriving the opening/sliding displacement  
368 field of the crack surface, the FPZ evolution during a fracture process is discussed.  
369 Meanwhile, based on the variation of opening/sliding displacements under FPS, the fracture



370 mode during crack propagation is analyzed. According to the experimental study, the  
371 following conclusions can be drawn:

- 372 1. For the TPB series specimens, the interface FPZ length increases as a crack propagates  
373 until the full FPZ has developed, exhibiting the same variation trend as concrete. For the  
374 small size specimens in this study, the ratios of  $a/D$  corresponding to the total FPZ are  
375 0.86 and 0.91 with respect to the rock-concrete interface and concrete itself, which  
376 showed the similar boundary effects.
- 377 2. There is a very short FPZ (7.89 mm) at the peak load under TPB, while the FPZ reaches  
378 36.84, 44.66 and 61.75 mm long under FPS with  $a_0/D=0.6$ , 0.3 and 0.2, respectively.  
379 Therefore, the short FPZ length results in the less nonlinear fracture characteristic of  
380 rock-concrete interface with Mode I dominant fracture, while the nonlinear fracture  
381 characteristic is more significant for mixed mode fracture of the rock-concrete interface.
- 382 3. The fracture mode varies as the crack propagates in the following manner: for the TPB  
383 series specimens, the ratio of  $u/v$  at the tip of the notch of the interface remains at a  
384 plateau until the crack tip is close to the specimen boundary. For the FPS series  
385 specimens with a small  $a_0/D$  (i.e.  $a_0/D \leq 0.4$ ), the Mode II component may increase as the  
386 crack propagates, resulting in the crack diverting into the rock. Finally for the FPS series  
387 specimens with large  $a_0/D$  (i.e.  $a_0/D \geq 0.6$ ), the fracture mode rapidly falls into Mode I until  
388 the beam is broken into two halves.

389

### 390 **Acknowledgement**

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392 of NSFC 51478084, NSFC 51421064 and NSFC 51109026, and partial financial support  
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462 **Appendix I Table**

463

464 Table 1. Specimen Geometries and Experimental Results

Name of specimens	$L \times D \times B$ (mm <sup>3</sup> )	$a_0$ (mm)	$C_1$ (mm)	$L_1: L_2$	$P_{max}$ (kN)	$K_2/K_1$
TPB30		30	-	-	2.23	-
FPS 4-10-20		20	10	4	41.25	0.595
FPS 4-15-30	500×100×100	30	15	4	26.93	0.649
FPS 10-5-60		60	5	10	18.84	2.855
FPS 6-5-40		40	5	6	32.97	3.740

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466 Table 2. Materials Properties of Concrete, Rock and Interface

Materials	Density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	$E_t$ (GPa)	$\nu$	$f_c$ (MPa)	$f_t$ (MPa)	$G_f$ (N/m)
Concrete	2400	30.26	0.24	36.1	2.88	87
Rock	2668	64.39	0.20	119.2	8.65	119.7
Interface	—	—	—	—	1.37	19.3

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480 **Captions of figures**

481 **Fig. 1.** Experimental setup: (a) Three-point bending test; and (b) Four-point shearing test

482 **Fig. 2.** Computational domains of Specimen TPB 30

483 **Fig. 3.** *P-CMOD* curve of Specimen TPB 30

484 **Fig. 4.** Displacement along Line MN on Specimen TPB 30: (a) Crack tip opening

485 displacement of Point P8; and (b) Crack tip sliding displacement of Point P8

486 **Fig. 5.** Crack profiles of Specimen TPB 30 and final failure mode

487 **Fig. 6.** Evolution of the microcrack of Specimen TPB 30: (a)  $P_1=78\%P_{max}$  (pre-peak); (b)

488  $P_2=P_{max}$ ; (c)  $P_3=83.03\%P_{max}$  (post-peak); (d)  $P_4=49.3\%P_{max}$  (post-peak); (e)  $P_5=32\%P_{max}$

489 (post-peak); (f)  $P_6=15.5\%P_{max}$  (post-peak);  $P_7=11\%P_{max}$  (post-peak); (h)  $P_8=5.5\%P_{max}$

490 (post-peak); and (i)  $P_9=3.18\%P_{max}$  (post-peak)

491 **Fig. 7.** Relationship of  $v/u$  vs.  $a/D$  in three-point bending beam

492 **Fig. 8.** FPZ evolution after the initiation of a full FPZ

493 **Fig. 9.** FPZ evolution in Specimen TPB 30

494 **Fig. 10.** Evolution of the microcrack in Specimen FPS 10-5-60: (a)  $P_1=63.1\%P_{max}$ ; (b)

495  $P_2=76.5\%P_{max}$ ; (c)  $P_3=82.6\%P_{max}$ ; and (d)  $P_4=98.3\%P_{max}$

496 **Fig. 11.** Evolution of the microcrack in Specimen 4-15-30: (a)  $P_1=65.1\%P_{max}$ ; (b)

497  $P_2=84.8\%P_{max}$ ; (c)  $P_3=95.9\%P_{max}$ ; and (d)  $P_4=97\%P_{max}$

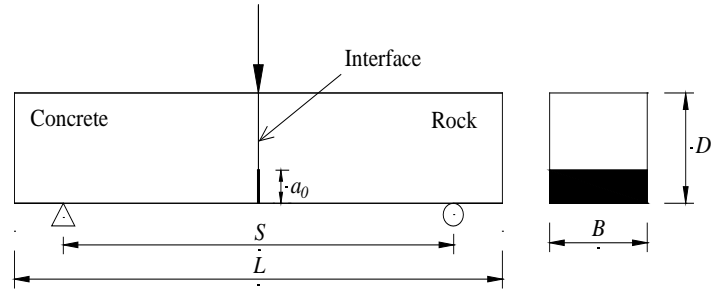
498 **Fig. 12.** Evolution of the microcrack in Specimen FPS 4-10-20: (a)  $P_1=74.8\%P_{max}$ ; (b)

499  $P_2=90.9\%P_{max}$ ; (c)  $P_3=96.3\%P_{max}$ ; and (d)  $P_4=98.2\%P_{max}$

500 **Fig. 13.** Relationship of  $v/u$  vs.  $a/D$  for FPS beams

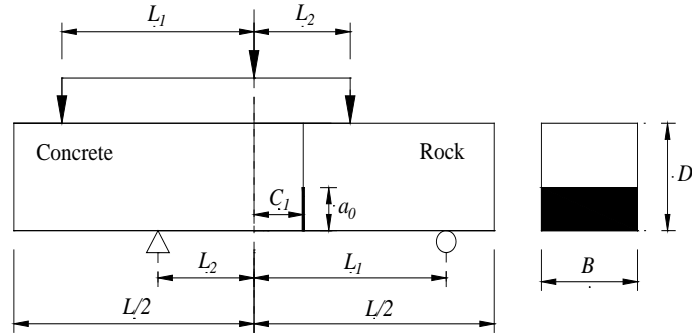
501 **Fig. 14.** Failure mode of Specimen FPS 6-5-40

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(a) Three-point bending test

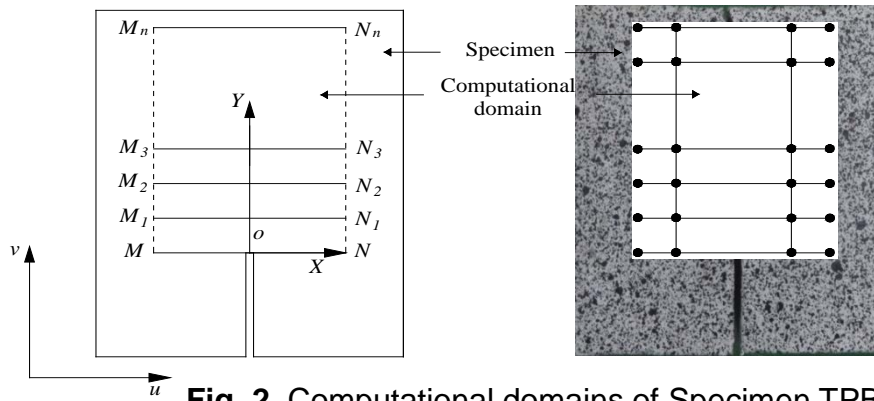
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(b) Four-point shearing test

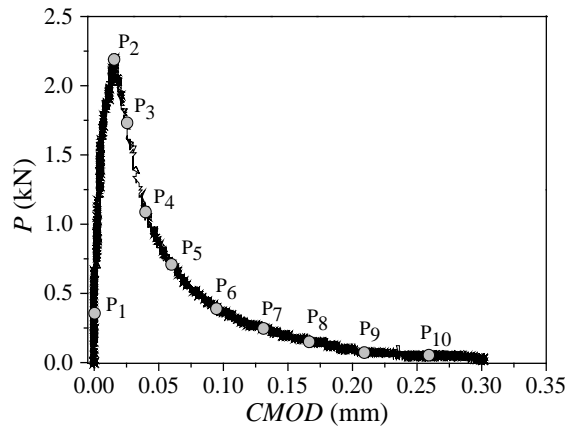
**Fig. 1.** Experimental setup

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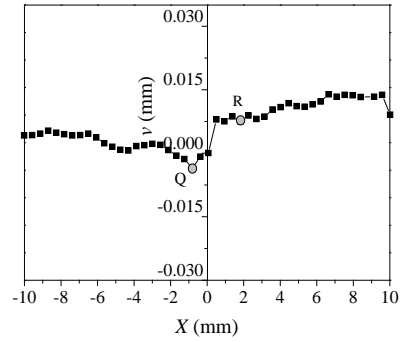
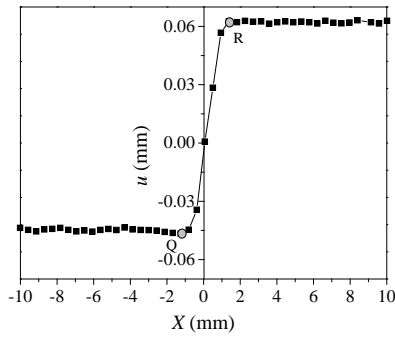


**Fig. 2.** Computational domains of Specimen TPB 30

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**Fig. 3.** *P*-*CMOD* curve of Specimen TPB 30



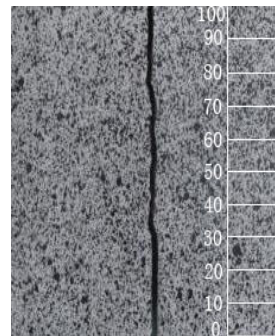
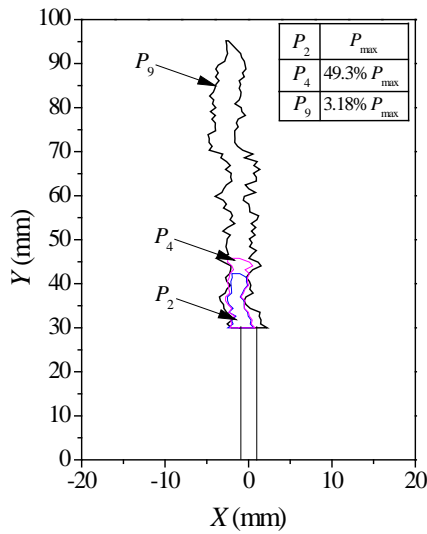
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(a) Crack tip opening displacement of Point P8 (b) Crack tip sliding displacement of Point P8

**Fig. 4.** Displacement along Line MN on Specimen TPB 30

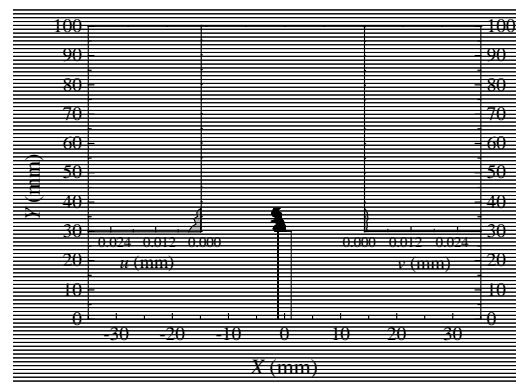
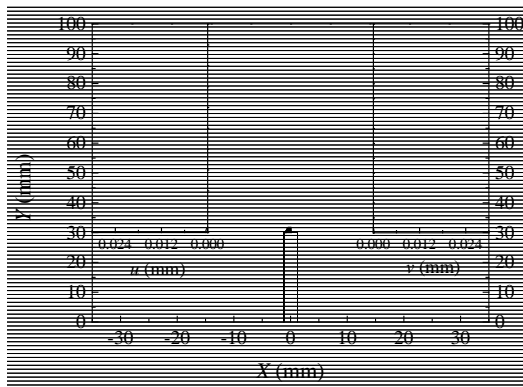


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(a) Crack profiles at Points  $P_2$ ,  $P_4$  and  $P_9$  (b) Failure mode  
**Fig. 5.** Crack profiles of Specimen TPB 30 and final failure mode



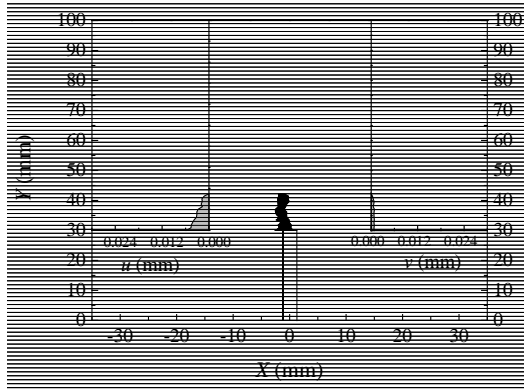
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(a)  $P_1=15.5\%P_{max}$  (pre-peak)

(b)  $P_2=P_{max}$

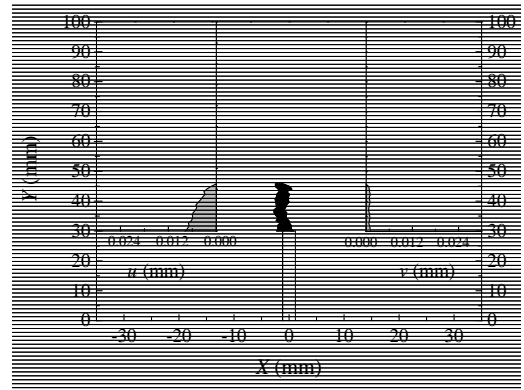




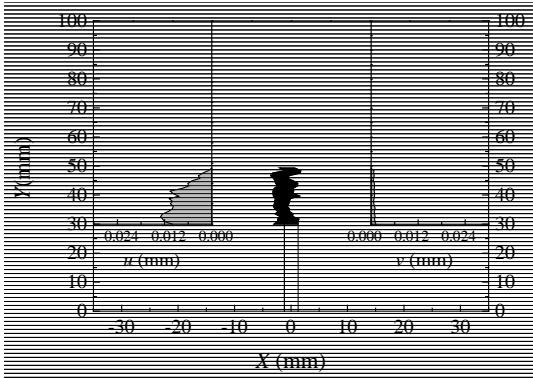
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(c)  $P_3=83.03\%P_{\max}$  (post-peak)



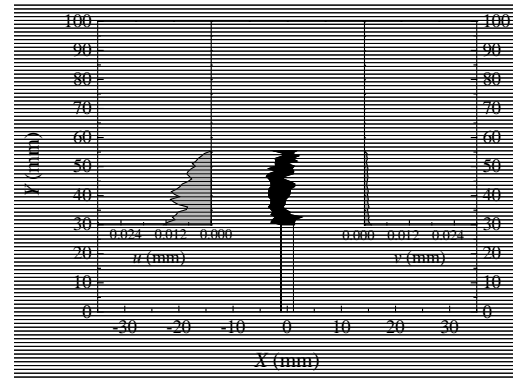
(d)  $P_4=49.3\%P_{\max}$  (post-peak)



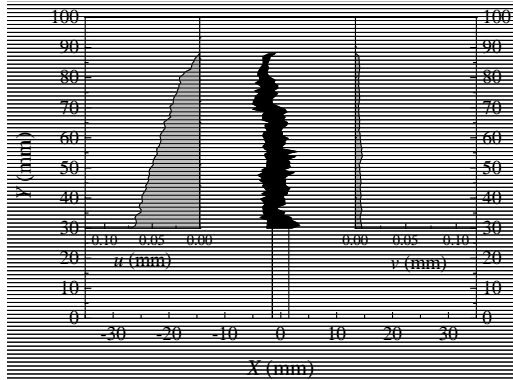
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(e)  $P_5=32\%P_{\max}$  (post-peak)



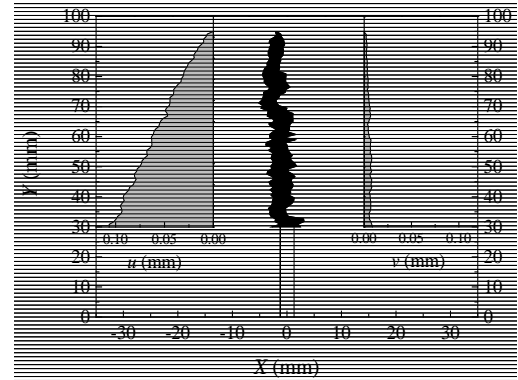
(f)  $P_6=15.5\%P_{\max}$  (post-peak)



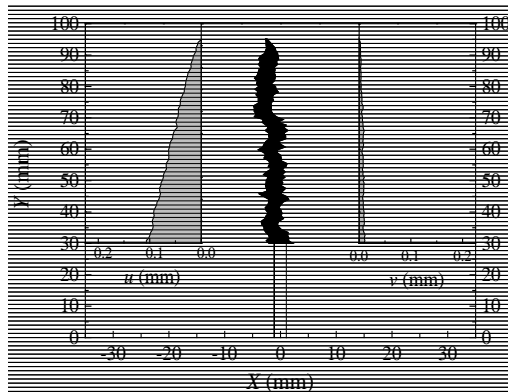
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(g)  $P_7=11\%P_{\max}$  (post-peak)



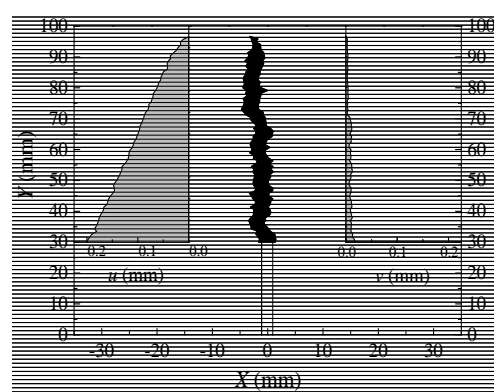
(h)  $P_8=5.5\%P_{\max}$  (post-peak)



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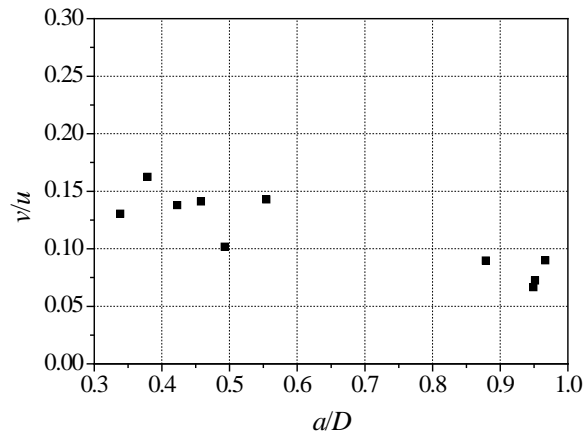
(i)  $P_9=3.18\%P_{\max}$  (post-peak)



(j)  $P_{10}=2.2\%P_{\max}$  (post-peak)

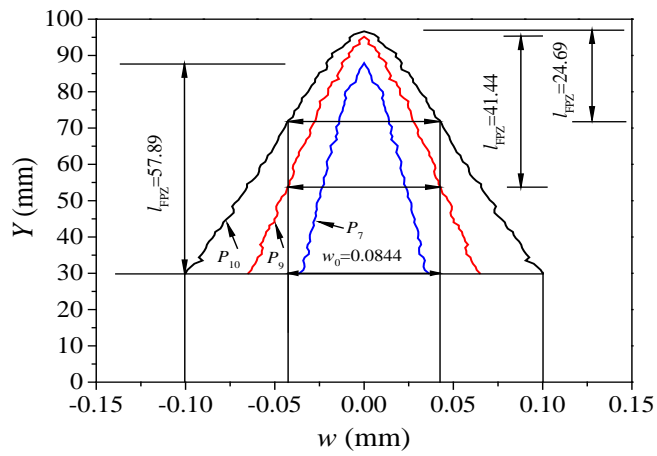
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**Fig. 6.** Evolution of microcrack of Specimen TPB 30



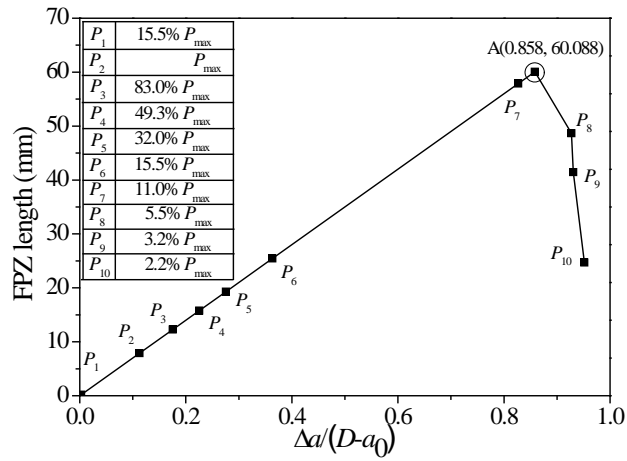
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**Fig. 7.** Relationship of  $v/u$  vs.  $a/D$  in three-point bending beams



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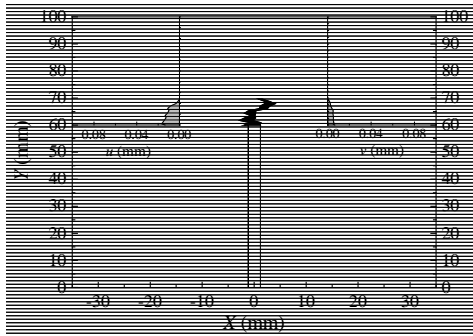
**Fig. 8.** FPZ evolution after the initiation of a full FPZ



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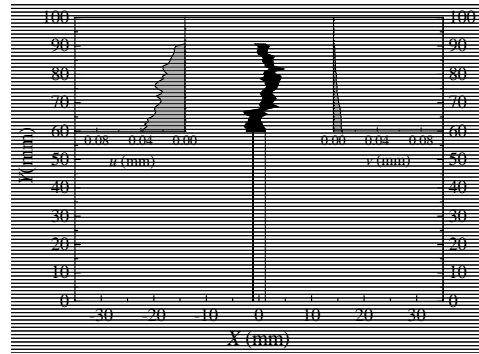
**Fig. 9.** FPZ evolution in Specimen TPB 30

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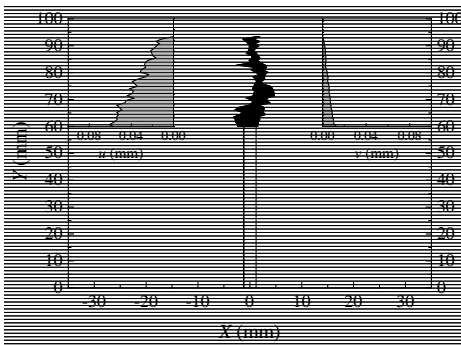
(a)  $P_1=63.1\%P_{max}$

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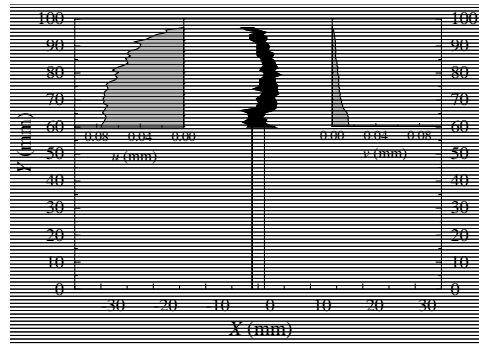
(b)  $P_2=76.5\%P_{max}$

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(c)  $P_3=82.6\%P_{max}$

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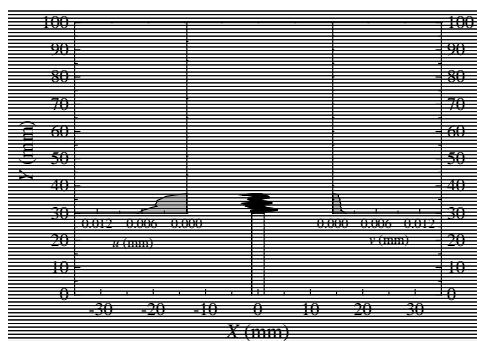


(d)  $P_4=P_{max}$

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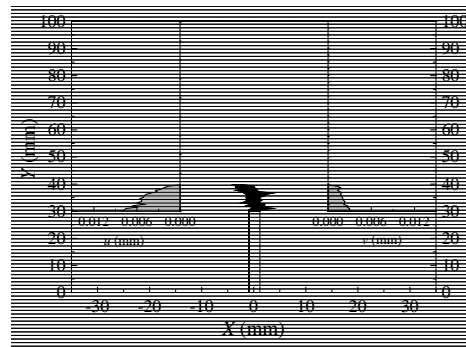
**Fig. 10.** Evolution of the microcrack in Specimen FPS 10-5-60

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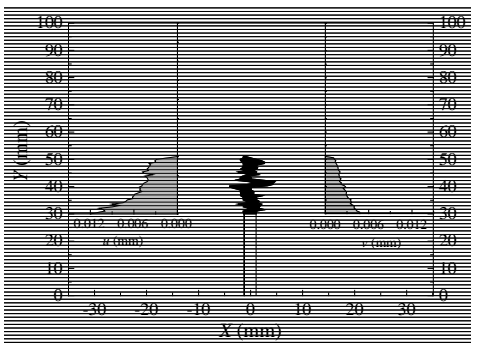
(a)  $P_1=65.1\%P_{max}$

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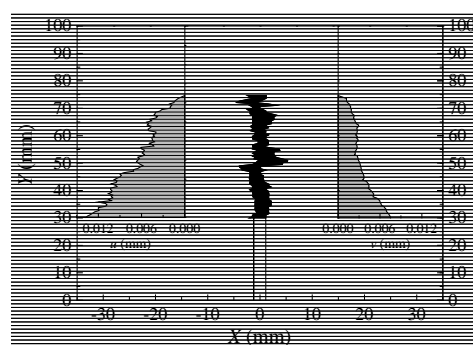
(b)  $P_2=84.8\%P_{max}$

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(c)  $P_3=95.9\%P_{max}$

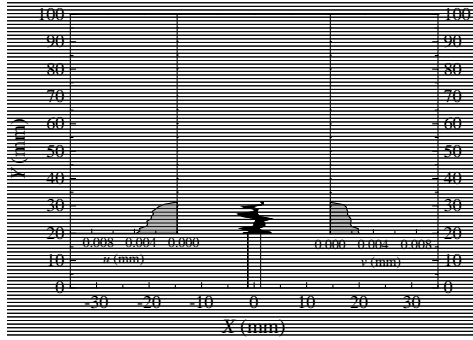
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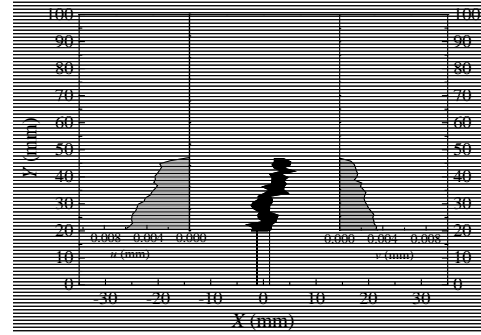
(d)  $P_4=P_{max}$

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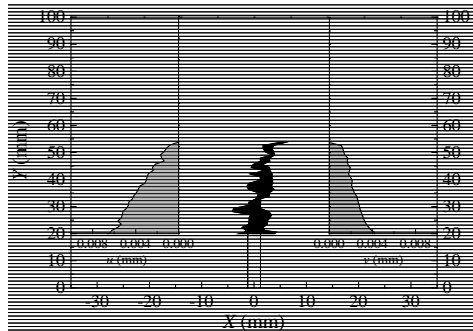
**Fig. 11.** Evolution of the microcrack in Specimen 4-15-30



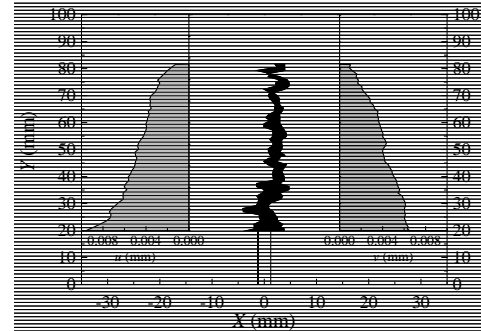
(a)  $P_1=74.79\%P_{max}$



(b)  $P_2=90.9\%P_{max}$

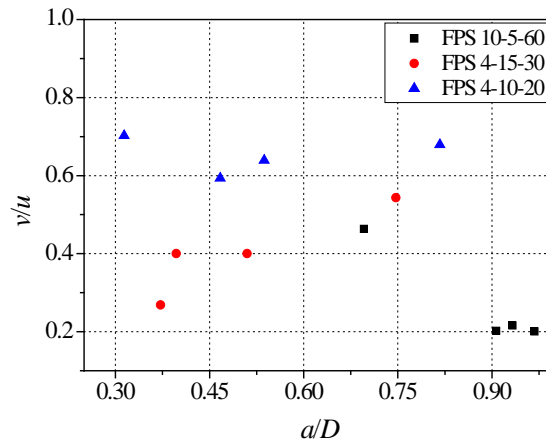


(c)  $P_3=96.25\%P_{max}$

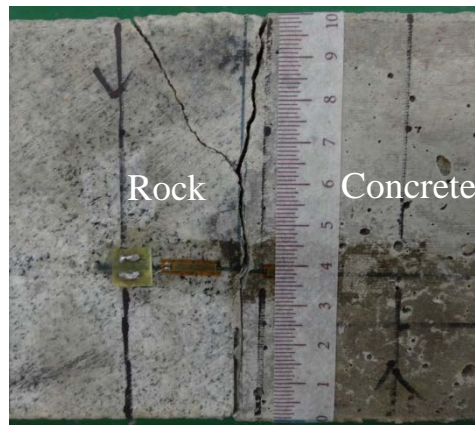


(d)  $P_4=P_{max}$

**Fig. 12.** Evolution of the microcrack in Specimen FPS 4-10-20



**Fig. 13.** Relationship of  $v/u$  vs.  $a/D$  for FPS beams



**Fig. 14.** Failure mode of Specimen FPS 6-5-40