

NEW MODEL FOR COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH LOSS OF LIGHTWEIGHT CONCRETE EXPOSED TO ELEVATED TEMPERATURES

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This study proposes a new model for the residual compressive strength of structural lightweight concrete after exposure to elevated temperatures up to 1000 °C. For this purpose, a database of residual compressive strengths of fire exposed lightweight concrete was compiled from the literature. Database consisted a total number of 289 data points, used for generating training and testing datasets. Symbolic regression was carried out to generate formulations by accounting for various input parameters such as heating rate, cooling regime, target temperature, water content, aggregate type and aggregate content. Afterwards, predictions of proposed formulation is compared to experimental results. Statistical evaluations verify that the prediction performance of proposed model is quite high.

Key Words: Lightweight concrete, high temperature, compressive strength, symbolic regression, modeling

1. Introduction

High temperature exposure is one of the most severe conditions to which the structures can be subjected. Physical and mechanical properties of structures such as volume stability, compressive strength and elastic modulus can be deteriorated significantly after fire exposure, resulting in undesirable failures [1-5]. Previous research has shown that various parameters such as peak exposure temperature, concrete type and strength, aggregate type and content have significant effect on the residual properties of concrete after high temperature exposure. High temperature initiates the internal stress caused by dehydration-induced microstructural change. This is generally followed by the separation and spalling of hot surface layers from the cooler interior [6-8].

Structural lightweight aggregate concrete (LWAC) is used in many applications of modern construction due to its advantages over normal concrete such as lower density, allowing to choose smaller cross sections for load carrying members [9]. Lightweight aggregate concretes are usually classified as natural and artificial. Natural type LWAC is produced using aggregates such as pumice, volcanic cinders, diatomite etc., whereas perlite, expanded clay, shale etc. are used for the production of artificial type LWAC [10]. Structural LWAC has advantages such as lower thermal expansion coefficient, tensile strain capacity and, most importantly, higher strength-to-weight ratio [11, 12].

A number of researchers have studied the residual mechanical properties of lightweight concrete subjected to elevated temperatures. Demirel and Gönen (2008) carried out tests on the compressive strength and porosity of lightweight concrete with pumice aggregate and silica fume after exposure to elevated temperatures [13]. Sancak *et al.* (2008) have investigated the residual properties of fire exposed

lightweight concrete incorporating silica fume [14]. Tanyıldızı (2009) studied the residual compressive and splitting tensile strength of fire exposed lightweight concrete incorporating fly ash and developed a model via fuzzy logic [15]. Tanyıldızı and Cevik (2010) investigated the mechanical performance of lightweight concrete exposed to high temperature and proposed a model based on genetic programming. They tested the fire exposed lightweight concrete incorporating silica fume for compressive and splitting tensile strengths [16]. Bideci (2016) conducted tests to assess the effect of high temperature on lightweight concrete produced using colemanite and cement coated pumice aggregates [17]. Toric *et al.* (2016) analyzed the short term mechanical properties of lightweight concrete after temperature exposures up to 600 °C [18]. They also investigated the effect of cooling regime after peak temperature is achieved. Akçaözoğlu and Akçaözoğlu (2017) studied the residual physical and mechanical properties of fire exposed lightweight concrete produced with expanded clay aggregate or calcium aluminate cement, tested using different cooling regimes [19]. Baloch *et al.* (2018) studied the residual mechanical properties of fire exposed lightweight concrete incorporating carbon nanotubes [20].

Predicting the physical and mechanical properties of fire-damaged structures is of significant importance to assess the usability of such structures after exposure to fire. Therefore, various are available models for predicting such properties of concrete exposed to fire exposure. Knaack *et al.* (2010) [21] proposed several models depending on the aggregate type, test method and maximum temperature exposure. In this study, the model considered was the one proposed for lightweight aggregate concrete and residual test type, which is expressed as:

$$\frac{f_{cm}}{f_{cmo}} = \kappa_{fm0} + \kappa_{fm1} T + \kappa_{fm2} T^2 + \kappa_{fm3} T^3 \quad (1)$$

where f_{cm} is the residual compressive strength after exposure to peak temperature, f_{cmo} is the strength at room temperature and T is the temperature in degrees Fahrenheit. For lightweight concrete and residual test type, κ_{fm0} , κ_{fm1} , κ_{fm2} and κ_{fm3} are given as 1.037, -5.483E-04, 3.686E-07 and -2.208E-10, respectively.

Despite there are available formulations for modeling the mechanical properties such as compressive strength and elastic modulus of fire-exposed lightweight concrete, there formulations generally do not account for significant contributions of parameters such as aggregate type, heating rate, cooling regime, water content and silica fume or fly ash-incorporated cement content etc. Thus, there is still lack of a unified, explicit and simple-to-use formulation for residual compressive strength of fire-exposed lightweight concrete.

2. Description of database

A total of 289 data points compiled from eight papers [13-20] were used to develop an empirical formulation for relative compressive strength (f_c/f_{co}) of lightweight concrete after exposure to high temperatures. Residual test type where the specimen is placed in the furnace after the water curing is completed was used by all eight papers. For the collection of data, followed considerations are: (i) all experiments followed the residual test type, not stressed or unstressed, (ii) lightweight concrete mixtures with fibers are not included.

Fig. 1 shows the distribution of compressive strength values at room temperature (f_{co}) from eight data sources used in this research. Compressive strength at room temperature varies approximately between 16.6 – 62.6 MPa.

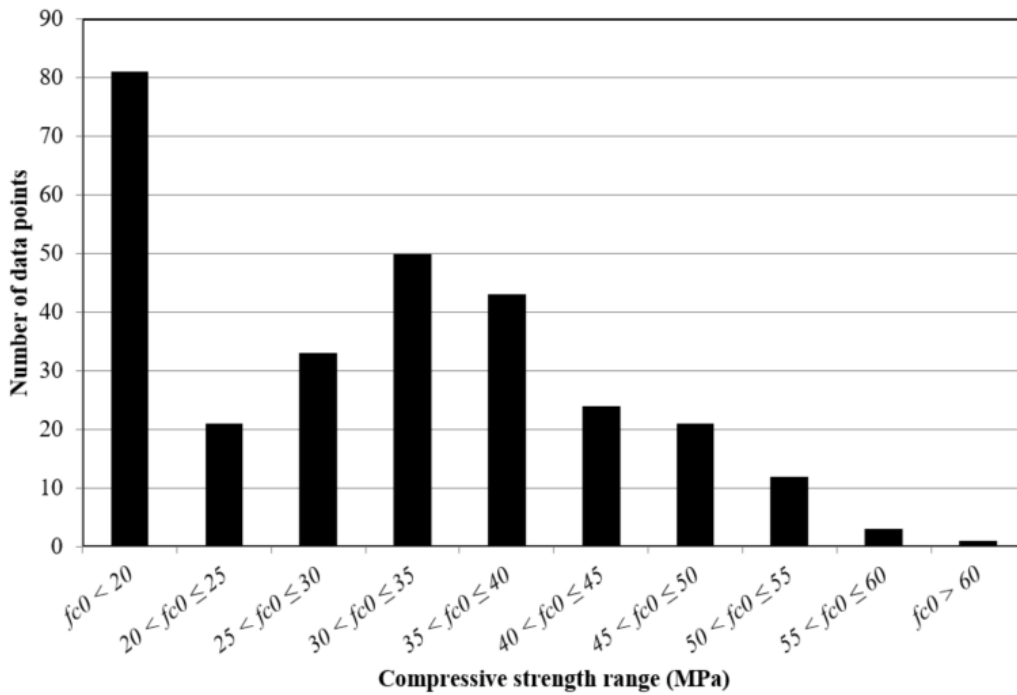


Figure 1. Data distribution for compressive strength at room temperature.

Database consist of numeric and non-numeric variables. Non-numeric design variables (e.g., Aggregate type and cooling regime) are converted to numeric values. For instance; 1, 2 and 3 are assigned for pumice aggregate, expanded clay aggregate and expanded shale aggregate, respectively. Similar process is followed for variables of cooling regime, as listed in Tab. 1. Some researchers used natural cooling regime where the specimen was removed from the furnace and allowed to cool naturally. Furnace cooling, on the other hand, is based on the cooling of specimen inside the furnace by decreasing the temperature with a specified rate. Some researchers used water cooling where they put the specimen into water tank after the peak temperature exposure is completed.

Table 1. Conversion of nonnumeric properties.

	Nonnumeric designation	Numeric designation
Aggregate type	Pumice	1
	Expanded Clay	2
	Expanded Shale	3
Cooling regime	Natural	1
	Furnace	2
	Water	3

Tab. 2 summarizes the data ranges on which the proposed formulation is based. Data includes mixtures with partial replacement of cement with silica fume or fly ash. On the other hand, different sample shapes (cylinder or cubic) and sizes were used. Water curing and total curing durations were also included in the database, as some papers followed a curing regime where they kept the specimens in room temperature after water curing, until a specified day. Heating rate denotes the increase rate of temperature up to desired peak temperature. Target temperature exposure time stand for the duration in which the specimen was exposed to peak temperature, in hours. Mixture properties concrete such as the contents of binder, water, aggregate, superplasticizer and water/cement (W/C) was also included in the database.

Table 2. Summary of data and data ranges.

Source	Tanyıldızı and Cevik (2010) [16]	Tanyıldızı (2009) [15]	Toric <i>et al.</i> (2016) [18]	Akçaözöğlü and Akçaözöğlü (2017) [19]	Demirel and Gönen (2008) [13]	Sancak <i>et al.</i> (2008) [14]	Bideci (2016) [17]	Baloch <i>et al.</i> (2018) [20]
Data points	96	96	36	12	10	30	4	5
Agg. Type	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	3
Spec. Grav.	2	2	Not reported	0.43	Not reported	1.926	Not reported	1.36
Water Absorption 24h (%)	23	23	Not reported	20.1	Not reported	5.83-8.25	Not reported	7.12
Binder	Cement Cement+Silica Fume	Cement Cement+Fly Ash	Cement Cement+Silica Fume	Cement	Cement Cement+Silica Fume	Cement Cement+Silica Fume	Cement	Cement
Cube/Cylinder	Cube 100x100x100	Cube 100x100x100	Cylinder 75x225	Cube 71x71x71	Cube 100x100x100	Cylinder 50x100	Cube 100x100x100	Cylinder 100x200
Water Curing (days)	28	28	7	60	365	28	28	28
Total Curing (days)	28	28	90	120	365	90	28	28
Heating rate (C.min ⁻¹)	2.5	2.5	2	8	6	5	5	5
Target Temp. Exposure (hours)	1	1	2.5	1	1	Not reported	1	2.5
Cooling Regime	Natural	Natural	Furnace	Natural, Water	Natural	Furnace	Natural	Natural
Temperature (°C)	20-800	20-800	20-600	22-1000	20-1000	20-1000	20-600	23-800
Cement (kg.m ⁻³)	280-500	280-500	350-470	400	405-450	387-430	400	297
Silica fume (kg.m ⁻³)	0-150	0	0-50	0	0-45	0-43	0	0
Fly ash (kg.m ⁻³)	0	0-150	0	0	0	0	0	0
Aggregate (kg.m ⁻³)	775-1038	780-1038	1024-1160	955	935	1330-1332	1362.48	1097
Water (kg.m ⁻³)	308-385	308-385	175-190	200	310-315	187-202	207	148.5-151.5
W/C (water/cement)	0.77-1.1	0.77-1.1	0.40-0.50	0.5	0.68-0.70	0.43-0.47	0.52	0.50-0.51
Superplast (kg.m ⁻³)	4.8-6	4.8-6	3.5-4.7	4.88	0-3.6	0-8.6	Not reported	5.94
f_c/f_{c0}	0.13-1.09	0.09-1.09	0.36-1.05	0.23-1.00	0.09-1.00	0-1.03	0.53-1.08	0.38-1.00

3. Symbolic regression

Symbolic regression (SR) is evolutionary computing-based method for exploring the space of mathematical formulations while minimizing numerous error metrics [22].

The symbolic regression algorithm is unlike the traditional regression techniques that are based on parameter-fitting to an equation of a preset structure. Unlike those established regression techniques, symbolic regression searches for the parameters as well as the structure of equations. Random combination of mathematical expressions such as algebraic operators (+, -, ÷, ×), constants, analytical functions (e.g., *sine* and *cosine*) and state variables is utilized to generate initial expressions. In the next step, new equations are produced by recombination of former equations and probabilistically changing sub-expressions of produced equations. The equations that fit the experimental data with minimum error are kept and the other solutions are eliminated. The algorithm returns the set of equations that reached to a desired level of accuracy. Although it is possible to use symbolic regression for the purpose of finding explicit [23] and differential equations [24], finding conservation laws and invariant equations using symbolic regression approach may not be as effective [25].

The unary operations (e.g., *exp*, *abs*, *log*) or binary operations (e.g., *add*, *div*, *mult.*) can be used. The operation types can be narrowed down in case some information about the problem is known [26, 27].

The change of operation type (e.g. *mult.* to *div.*) is possible by mutation in symbolic regression method such as changing an operation argument (e.g. change $x+1$ to $x+x$), adding an operation (e.g. change $x+x$ to $x+(x*x)$) or deleting an operation (e.g., change $x+x$ to x).

The exchange of sub-trees (or sub-graphs) from two parents can be implemented by crossover function. In order to illustrate it better, this example can be considered: Crossing $f_1(x) = x^3 + 3$ and $f_2(x) = x^4 + \cos(x) + x^2$ could produce a child $f_3(x) = x^3 + \cos(x)$. In this example, the leaf node $+3$ was exchanged with the $\cos(x)$ term [28].

3.1. Fitness Prediction

Minimization of error on the training set is the main objective of the fitness in symbolic regression [29-32].

For the calculation of error, numerous ways such as squared error, absolute error, log error are available. Despite the fact that the choice of fitness measurement method is not critical, it is known that different metrics work better on different problems. In this paper, we utilize the mean absolute error (MAE) for fitness measurement:

$$fitness(s) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |s(x_i) - y_i| \quad (2)$$

where s is a possible solution (algebraic expression), x_i and y_i are training data input and outputs, and N is the total number of training examples in training data set.

Fitness prediction is considered to be a new method that is applied to determine the performance of different mathematical expressions on explanation of the experimental data more efficiently and optimization of the pressure to fit multiple aspects of data [33, 34]. Fig. 2 illustrates solution sizes and bloat for fitness prediction and exact fitness.

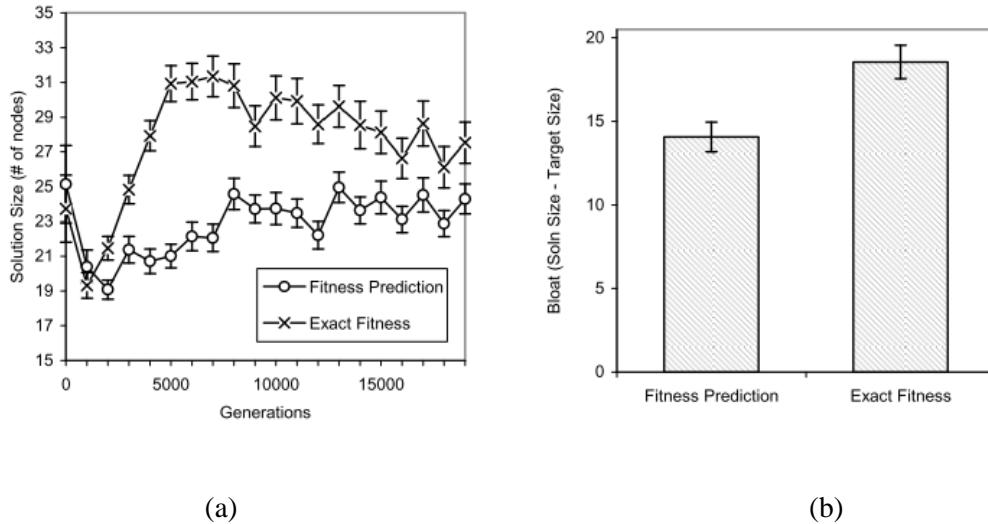


Figure 2. (a) The size of best solution during regression averaged over 100 test runs, (b) Total average bloat averaged over 500 randomly generated expressions.

3.2. Proposed model

Main objective of the current study is to produce an empirical formulation based on symbolic regression, to predict the relative compressive strength (f_c/f_{c0}) of lightweight concrete exposed to high temperatures. The model is produced based on experimental results described in section 2. For the development of this model, 75% of data is used as training set whereas remaining 25% is used for testing the validity of proposed model. The selection process is implemented on a random basis.

Proposed formulation is given by Eq. 3 for the relative strength (f_c/f_{c0}) obtained by symbolic regression modeling.

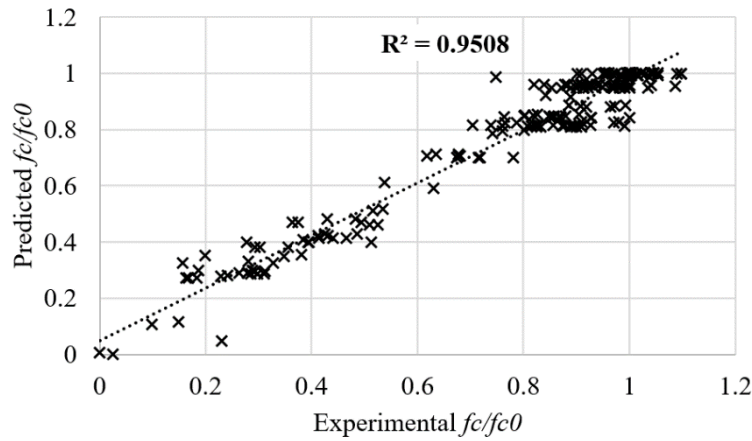
$$f_c / f_{c0} = k_1 + k_2 \times HR \times CL \times T \times W + k_3 \times T^2 \times W^2 + k_4 \times AT \times CL \times T + k_5 \times A \times W \times T^2 \quad (3)$$

where, HR is heating rate ($^{\circ}\text{C} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$), CL is cooling regime (defined in Tab. 1), T is target temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), W is water content ($\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$), AT is the aggregate type (defined in Tab. 1) and A is the aggregate content ($\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$). The constants are $k_1 = 1.00156$, $k_2 = 1.071 \cdot 10^{-7}$, $k_3 = 2.437 \cdot 10^{-12}$, $k_4 = -0.00013$ and $k_5 = -4.0995 \cdot 10^{-12}$.

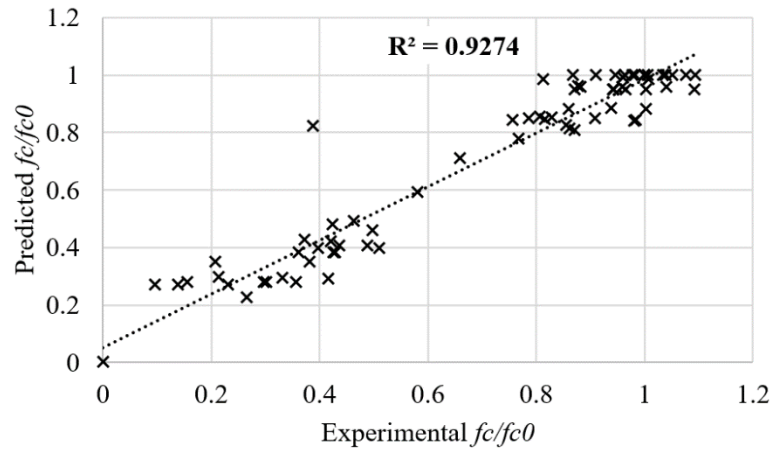
4. Discussion and results

4.1. Performance of proposed model

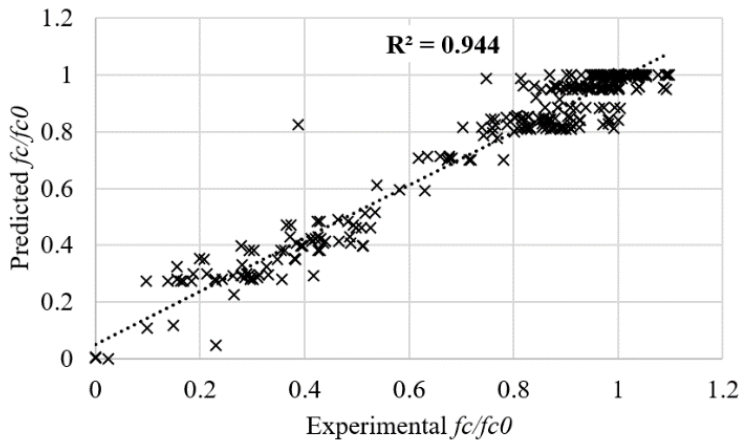
Fig. 3 compares the predictions of proposed formulation with that of experimental results for relative compressive strength. As can be observed, compared data points are clustered around a 45° line and the coefficient of determination (R^2) whose mathematical expression is given in Eq. 4, is calculated as 0.9508, 0.9274 and 0.944 for training set, testing set and total set, respectively.



(a) Training set



(b) Testing set



(c) Total set

Figure 3. Comparison of experimental and predicted results.

Fig. 4 compares the experimental data with the predictions of proposed formulation and Knaack *et al.* model given in Eq. 1. As observed, the predicted values generally follow a similar trend with that of experimental dataset.

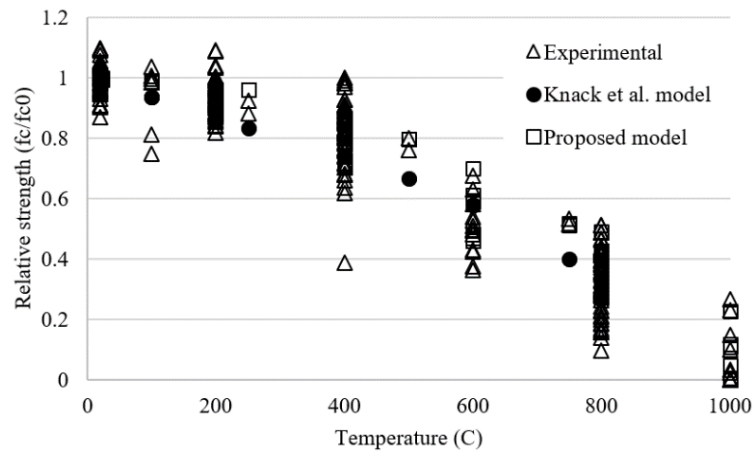


Figure 4. Comparison of proposed model and Knaack *et al.* model.

4.2. Model validation

The model was validated through the comparison of statistical results of the predicted values and Knaack *et al.* model. For this purpose, statistical norms, namely as, coefficient of determination (R^2), mean absolute error (MAE), mean squared error (MSE) and coefficient of variation (CoV) were used. Mathematical expressions of these norms are given in Eq.s 4-7.

$$R^2 = 1 - \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - P_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - O_{ort.})^2} \right) \quad (4)$$

$$MSE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - P_i)^2}{N} \quad (5)$$

$$MAE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |O_i - P_i| \quad (6)$$

$$\text{Coefficient of Variation (CoV)} = \frac{\sigma}{\bar{X}} \quad (7)$$

where N is the number of data, O_i is the experimental value of i_{th} data, P_i is the predicted value of i_{th} data, σ is the standard deviation and \bar{X} is the mean value.

Table 3 Performance of Knaack *et al.* model and proposed model

	Knaack <i>et al.</i> model (Eq. 1)	Proposed model (Eq. 3)
R^2	0.890	0.944
MAE	0.082	0.049
MSE	0.011	0.005
COV	0.396	0.373

As seen in Tab. 3, proposed formulation estimates match fairly well with experimental results.

5. Conclusions

In this study, an empirical model is proposed to predict the relative compressive strength of lightweight concrete with or without partial cement replacement by silica fume/fly ash, after exposure to elevated temperature. Proposed formulation is based on symbolic regression and the used database includes the experiments conducted using residual testing type only. Following conclusions are drawn from the current study:

1. Proposed symbolic regression formulation is based on wide range of experimental database provided in this paper. The formulation appears to have high prediction capability, i.e., high coefficient of determination (R^2) of 94.4% was obtained, which is higher than that of Knaack *et al.* model. Also, other statistical norms such as MAE, MSE and CoV confirms the superior prediction accuracy of proposed model.

2. In addition to the significant effect of peak temperature, proposed model accounts also for the independent parameters such as heating rate, cooling regime, water content, aggregate content and aggregate type, which apparently improves the prediction performance.
3. Proposed formulation has the capability to predict residual strength of both cement-only mixture lightweight concrete and silica fume/fly ash based lightweight concrete.
4. Symbolic regression is an effective and robust tool for generating easy-to-use predictive models. The findings of this study may lead to the further use of this technique for civil engineering problems in the future.

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