Influence of beam cross-section, loading arrangement and aggregate type on shear strength

J. Sagaseta
Ecole Polytechnique Federale de Lausanne (EPFL), Lausanne, Switzerland

R. L. Vollum
Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Imperial College London, London, UK

This paper describes 14 tests on simply supported and continuous reinforced concrete beams which were designed to investigate the influences of aggregate type, loading arrangement and shear reinforcement ratio on shear strength. The beams were rectangular in cross-section with \( a/d \), \( 3.5 \) (where \( a \) is the shear span and \( d \) the effective depth). Marine dredged gravel was used in ten beams (two without shear reinforcement) and limestone in the remaining four (two without shear reinforcement). The cracks typically passed around the gravel aggregate but through the limestone aggregate. Aggregate fracture was found only to reduce the shear strength of the beams without shear reinforcement. The factors of safety for shear failure implicit in Eurocode 2, BS 8110 and CSA A.23.3-04 are examined with data from this project and elsewhere. Eurocode 2 is shown to provide the lowest factor of safety for most beams. This is particularly significant for rectangular sections where Eurocode 2 can give lower factor of safety for shear than flexural failure which is undesirable. An amendment is proposed to address this.

Notation

- \( a \) maximum aggregate size
- \( b \) beam width
- \( b_t \) width of compression flange
- \( C \) cohesion
- \( d \) effective depth
- EC2 Eurocode 2
- FOS factor of safety (FOS for shear = 1.0 divided by overall load factor)
- \( f'_c \) concrete cylinder strength
- \( f'_k \) concrete cube strength
- \( f_y \) yield strength of reinforcement (subscript \( k \) = characteristic value)
- \( h_t \) depth of compression flange
- \( P_{cr} \) load at which first cracks originated
- \( P_{ult} \) ultimate failure load
- SI stirrup index \( SI = \rho_w f_y / (bf'_c) \)
- \( s \) stirrup spacing
- \( V \) shear force
- \( V_c \) concrete component of shear resistance
- \( V_{cd} \) shear carried by the compression zone
- \( V_{design} \) design ultimate shear resistance divided by overall load factor
- \( V_{Edc} \) EC2 design shear resistance for beams without shear reinforcement
- \( V_s \) stirrup contribution to shear resistance
- \( VSI \) EC2 variable strut inclination design method
- \( z \) lever arm for shear (0.9d unless noted otherwise)
- \( \gamma_c, \gamma_s \) partial factors for concrete and steel respectively
- \( \theta \) inclination of compressive stress field to the longitudinal axis of the beam
- \( \mu \) coefficient of friction along crack plane
- \( \nu \) strength reduction factor for concrete cracked in shear \( \nu = 0.6(1 - f'_c / 250) \)
- \( \rho_l \) longitudinal reinforcement ratio \( \rho_l = A_{sl} / (bd) \)
- \( \rho_w \) shear reinforcement ratio \( \rho_w = A_{sw} / (bs) \)
- \( \sigma_n \) normal stress to crack plane
- \( \tau \) shear stress along crack plane

Introduction

Shear is resisted in beams through the combined contributions of the compression zone at the head of the shear crack, aggregate interlock, dowel action and stirrups if present. The contribution of each mechanism has been keenly debated since pioneering work by Taylor (1970) and others showed that aggregate interlock contributes up to 50% of the shear strength of beams without stirrups. This paper considers the influences of aggregate fracture and beam cross-section geometry on the factors of safety (FOS) for shear implicit in EC2 (Eurocode 2) (BSI, 2004), BS 8110-1: 1997 (BSI, 2007) and CSA A.23.3-04 (CSA, 2004). These design methods are refinements of the classical 45° truss analogy in which the shear strength is taken as \( V = V_c + V_s \), where \( V_c \) and \( V_s \) represent the contributions of the concrete and shear reinforcement respectively. BS 8110-1:1997 (BSI, 2007) takes \( V_s \) as the...
shear strength of beams without stirrups and calculates $V_s$ with a $45^\circ$ truss. EC2 (BSI, 2004) uses a variable strut inclination method in which the shear force is assumed to be entirely resisted by the shear reinforcement (i.e. $V_c = 0$). The Canadian code CSA A.23.3-04 (CSA, 2004) is derived from the modified compression field theory (MCFT) of Vecchio and Collins (1986). The latter two methods relate $V_c$ to the strain in the flexural reinforcement as described by Collins et al. (2008).

Influence of aggregate fracture on shear strength
In high-strength (HSC) and lightweight aggregate concrete (LWAC), the bond between the aggregate particles and the cement paste can be strong enough for the aggregate to fracture at cracks, as shown in Figure 1. Aggregate fracture results in smoother crack surfaces and can reduce shear transfer through aggregate interlock. A similar situation arises in self-compacting concretes (SCC) where cracks are relatively smooth owing to the reduced content of coarse aggregates (Lachemi et al., 2005).

The literature provides conflicting views on the effect of aggregate fracture on shear strength. For example, Walraven and Stroband (1994) found that aggregate fracture reduced the shear strength of their HSC push-off specimens. Conversely, Walraven and Al-Zubi (1995) and Walraven and Stroband (1999) tested LWAC and HSC beams with stirrups and found no reduction in shear strength owing to aggregate fracture. They explained this behaviour in terms of irregularities in the crack surface at a macro-level. On the other hand, Hamadi and Regan (1980) found that the shear strength of their beams with stirrups made from expanded clay LWAC was reduced by aggregate fracture. More recently, Regan et al. (2005) tested a series of beams without stirrups and found that the shear strength was reduced if the coarse aggregate fractured at cracks. They speculated that the shear strength of beams with stirrups would be reduced by aggregate fracture but were unable to quantify the reduction owing to insufficient experimental data.

Code provisions for influence of crack roughness on shear strength
Regan’s work (Regan et al., 2005) led to the UK national annex to EC2 (BSI, 2005) limiting the maximum allowable concrete cylinder strength to be used in the shear provisions of the code to 50 MPa unless justified otherwise. More rational alternatives to limiting the concrete strength are the MCFT of Vecchio and Collins (1986) and the critical shear crack theory of Muttoni and Fernández Ruiz (2008) which are incorporated into the Canadian CSA A.23.3-04 (CSA, 2004)) and Swiss SIA262 (SIA, 2003) codes respectively. Both these methods express the crack roughness in terms of the maximum aggregate size ($a$) and account for aggregate fracture by reducing the aggregate size linearly to zero for concrete cylinder strengths between 60 MPa and 70 MPa (Angelakos et al., 2001).

Even so, the MCFT neglects the influence of previous cracks since it is a fully rotational crack approach in which shear stresses are checked along fictitious cracks which are assumed to be oriented parallel to the principal compressive stress field.

Contribution of compression flange to shear strength
EC2, BS 8110 and CSA A.23.3-04 assume that the shear force is entirely carried by the web in ‘I’ and ‘T’ sections and attribute the contribution of the compression flange to the web. Therefore, it is striking that the variable strut inclination (VSI) method in EC2 was validated with data from tests on highly stressed simply supported beams with ‘I’ and ‘T’ sections (Walraven, 2004) in which the compression flange contributed significantly, but

Figure 1. Failure surface at critical shear crack in beams without stirrups: (a) rough crack surface in beam BG0 ($f'_c = 80.2$ MPa) with gravel aggregate; and (b) smooth crack surface due to aggregate fracture in beam BL0 ($f'_c = 68.4$ MPa) with limestone aggregate.
indeterminately, to shear strength. There is a scarcity of tests on continuous beams which is unfortunate since continuous beam tests have several advantages over simply supported beam tests as noted by Leonhardt and Walther (1961). First, the compression zone contributes less to shear strength in continuous than simply supported beams. It follows that tests on simply supported ‘T’ and ‘I’ sections are not directly applicable to continuous beams owing to the reversal of bending moment within the critical section for shear. Second, the stress state in continuous beams is closer to pure shear than in simply supported beams. Third, shear failure is obtainable at much greater shear reinforcement ratios in continuous than simply supported beams with rectangular sections. The greater $M/V$ ratio in simply supported beams necessitates the use of ‘T’ or ‘I’ cross-sections with relatively thin webs at high shear reinforcement ratios. The present paper examines the consequences of not explicitly considering the contribution of the compression flange to shear strength by comparing measured and predicted shear strengths for rectangular, ‘T-’ and ‘I’-shaped cross-sections with similar shear reinforcement ratios.

**Experimental investigation**

The authors tested 14 beams (four without shear reinforcement) to investigate the influences of aggregate fracture, beam cross-section and loading arrangement on shear strength. Marine dredged gravel was used in ten beams and limestone in the remaining four. The maximum size of the aggregate was 10 mm in all the beams. The cracks typically passed around the gravel aggregate but through the limestone aggregate. The primary aim of the tests was to determine whether (a) the shear strength of beams with shear reinforcement is significantly reduced by aggregate fracture and (b) to assess the safety of code guidelines for shear in highly stressed beams without compression flanges.

**Beams without shear reinforcement**

Four beams were tested without stirrups to determine whether the reduction in shear strength owing to aggregate fracture was comparable to that found by Regan et al. (2005). Figure 2 shows the geometry of the tested beams and the loading configuration. Two beams were cast from concrete with marine (siliceous) gravel aggregate and two with limestone (calcareous) crushed aggregate. The main characteristics of the beams and their failure loads are summarised in Table 1 in which ‘G’ denotes gravel and ‘L’ denotes limestone aggregate. The concrete cylinder strengths were 80.2 MPa and 68.4 MPa for the BG0 and BL0 beams respectively. The ratio of the shear span to the effective depth ($a/d$) was 3.44. The flexural reinforcement was the same in all the beams and consisted of 2T20 bars ($\rho_l = 1\%$) with a yield strength of 580 MPa.

All the beams failed in shear as shown in Figure 3. The critical shear crack initiated at a previous flexural-shear crack and propagated suddenly to the load and support plates. Figure 1 shows that the angle between the longitudinal reinforcement and the critical diagonal crack was steeper in the BL than the BG specimens. The top halves of the beams were removed after testing to inspect the crack surfaces. Figure 1 shows that the aggregate fractured completely in the BL beams ($f'_c = 68.4$ MPa) but not in the gravel beams ($f'_c = 80.2$ MPa) where the crack went through around 30% of the aggregate. Figure 1 shows that the crack
roughness depends on the aggregate type and not just the concrete strength as commonly assumed in codes of practice.

Comparison between measured and predicted shear strengths of beams BG0 and BL0
The shear strengths of the BG0 and BL0 beams are not directly comparable due to unintended differences in concrete strength. Therefore, the effect of aggregate fracture was determined indirectly by comparing the strengths of the beams with the predictions of various design methods including Eurocode 2 (BSI, 2004) which takes the shear strength as

\[ V_{Rd,c}(EC2) = \frac{0.18}{\gamma_c} \left( 100 \rho_l f'_c \right)^{1/3} \left( 1 + \sqrt{200/d} \right) bd \]

where \( \rho_l \) is the longitudinal reinforcement ratio, \( f'_c \) is the cylinder compressive strength, \( d \) is the effective depth, \( \gamma_c \) is the partial

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Beam</th>
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<th>( f_y ) (long.): MPa</th>
<th>( \rho_l )</th>
<th>a/d</th>
<th>( \delta_{centre} ): mm</th>
<th>( P_{cr} ): kN</th>
<th>( P_{ult} ): kN</th>
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Notes: \( \delta_{centre} \) central deflection at failure load; \( P_{cr} \) load at which cracks were first observed; all beams failed in diagonal tension

Table 1. Experimental data for beams without shear reinforcement

Figure 3. Crack patterns in beams B0 (the numbers along the cracks denote the load at which the cracks were first observed in kN; critical cracks are highlighted in bold): (a) BG01; (b) BL02; and (c) relative position of main diagonal shear cracks
factor for concrete which is taken as 1.5 for design, and $b$ is the beam width.

The measured and calculated shear strengths are compared in Table 2 which gives strengths calculated with the partial factor $\gamma_c$ equal to both 1.0 and 1.5 with the latter values shown in parentheses. $V_{\text{calc}}$ was calculated with both the actual concrete strength and the maximum strength of $f_{\text{ck}} = 50$ MPa allowed by the UK national annex to EC2. Table 2 shows that $V_{\text{test}}/V_{\text{calc}}$ (with $\gamma_c = 1.0$) was less than 1 for all the beams and furthermore, $V_{\text{test}}/V_{\text{calc}}$ was 16% lower for the limestone than for the gravel beams. Limiting the concrete cylinder strength to 50 MPa noticeably improved the predictions for the gravel beams, which had a concrete strength of 80.2 MPa. This was less so for the limestone beams where the concrete strength of 68.4 MPa is closer to the cut-off of 50 MPa in the UK national annex to EC2. Table 2 also shows that limiting the concrete cylinder strength to 50 MPa gives safe results when $\gamma_c = 1.5$. The main drawback with limiting the concrete strength is that the influence of aggregate type is neglected.

Regan et al. (2005) used the interpolated surfaces ($V_{\text{test}}/V_{\text{calc}} = f_c/d$) shown in Figure 4 to illustrate the worsening predictions of Equation 1 for their beams, with limestone and gravel aggregates, with increasing member depth ($d$) and concrete strength ($f'_c$). Figure 4 shows $V_{\text{test}}/V_{\text{calc}}$ is lower for the authors’ beams with limestone than gravel aggregate and the authors’ data lie close to the interpolated surfaces of Regan et al. (2005).

The shear strengths of the B0 beams were also calculated with the MCFT using the programme Response 2000 (Bentz, 2000). Shear strengths were calculated with maximum aggregate sizes of $a = 10$ mm and $a = 0$. Table 2 shows that the MCFT predicted the shear strengths of the tested beams more accurately than Equation 1 from EC2 but $V_{\text{test}}/V_{\text{calc}}$ was less than 1 for all the beams tested by the authors. The percentage improvement in $V_{\text{test}}/V_{\text{calc}}$ owing to taking $a = 0$ was similar for all the beams which was not the case when the concrete cylinder strength was limited to 50 MPa in Equation 1 from EC2. The strengths calculated with $a = 10$ mm are theoretically appropriate for beams BG0 since the aggregate did not fracture. It is interesting to note that the $V_{\text{test}}/V_{\text{calc}}$ ratios obtained with the MCFT are very similar for beams BG0 and BLO if $a$ is taken as 10 mm for the gravel and zero for the limestone beams, as implied by the observed behaviour.

Beams with shear reinforcement

Experimental investigation

Ten beams were tested to investigate the effect of varying the aggregate type, loading arrangement and shear reinforcement ratio on the shear strength and cracking pattern. Six continuous and four simply supported beams were tested. Figure 5 gives details of the loading arrangement for the continuous beams which were statically determinate with a point of contraflexure at the centre of the critical shear span. Table 3 and Figure 6 give details of the beam dimensions, material properties and reinforcement. The width of beams C and D was increased to 160 mm to accommodate the 10 mm diameter stirrups used in these beams. The flexural reinforcement in the continuous beams consisted of two layers of 2T25 bars placed at the top and bottom of the section to resist the anti-symmetric bending moment distribution shown in Figure 5(d). The corresponding flexural reinforcement ratios ($100A_{sl}/bs$) were 3.32% in beams B and 2.80% in beams C. A third layer of flexural reinforcement was provided in the simply supported D series to prevent flexural failure which reduced the effective depth $d$ from 437 mm to 412 mm. The stirrup spacing in the critical shear spans varied between 90 mm and 300 mm as shown in Figure 6 which corresponds to stirrup ratios ($100A_{sw}/sw/$...
bs) between 0.33% and 0.83%. Sufficient shear reinforcement was provided in the shorter shear spans of the continuous beams to prevent shear failure. The shear reinforcement ratio and stirrup spacing were the same in the critical shear spans of the beams in the C1 and D1 series. Gravel aggregate was used in all the beams except the BL series in which limestone aggregate was used. The CA, DA, CB and DB beams were cast together and can be regarded as duplicate sets A and B. The BL and BG beams were intended to have the same concrete strength to assess the influence of aggregate type on shear strength. In reality, the concrete cylinder strength was significantly less in the BG (31.7 MPa) than the BL beams (53.1 MPa) which are comparable in strength to the CA and CB beams (49.35 MPa).

**Instrumentation**

Deflections were measured with linear variable differential transformers (LVDTs) and digital photogrammetry. Crack opening and sliding displacements were also derived from displacements measured between crosses of Demec points and LVDTs positioned as shown in Figure 5(a). The beams were pre-cracked before the instrumentation was positioned along the critical shear cracks. Transverse and longitudinal strains were also measured in the surface of the concrete between Demec points. Strains were measured in the flexural reinforcement in tests BG2 and BL2 at the position of maximum span moment.

**Test results**

Table 3 summarises the loads at failure and when shear cracks first formed. The maximum tensile strains in the flexural reinforcement were 1.79‰ and 2.5‰ respectively in beams BG2 and BL2, which were the most heavily loaded. Full details of the strain and displacement measurements are given elsewhere (Sagaseta, 2008). The shear cracks developed differently in the continuous and simply supported beams as shown in Figure 7 which highlights the critical shear cracks at failure. Figure 7(a) shows that shear cracks initially formed near mid-height at 45° in the simply supported beams and that, subsequently, additional shear cracks formed at flatter angles mobilising more stirrups. Strain measurements showed that the flatter cracks formed after the stirrups yielded. The ‘crack rotation’ evident in Figure 7(a) is well documented and is implicit in the plasticity truss used in EC2. The crack development was similar in all the continuous beams up to failure with little if any evidence of crack rotation. The shear cracks initially formed in the continuous beams around an effective depth from the loading points. Subsequently, additional cracks formed near the loading points in a fan shape as shown in Figures 7(b) and (c). Cracks only formed in the centre of the shear span in beams BG2, BL2, CA2 and CB2 towards the end of the test. The lack of crack rotation in the continuous beams would seem to suggest that aggregate interlock plays a greater part in transferring shear stresses through pre-existing cracks in simply supported than continuous beams.

The failure mode of the continuous beams was clearly influenced by the stirrup index SI = ρw/fu/(0.6f′c) where ρw = A_w/(bs), s is the stirrup spacing and v = 0.6(1 − f′c/250). The failure of the beams with the lowest SI (CA1, CB1 and BL1) appears to have been triggered by loss of aggregate interlock resulting from the development of excessive strain in the stirrups crossing the critical diagonal crack. The critical shear crack in these beams (see Figure 7(b)) extended to the loading point, at the peak load,
and widened considerably under almost constant load. Beams CA2 and CB2 behaved similarly with several shear cracks widening simultaneously at failure (see Figure 7(c)). Reducing the stirrup spacing from 300 mm in beam CB1 to 200 mm in beam CB2 led to a significant reduction in the spacing of the inclined cracks as shown in Figure 7(c). The maximum width of the critical shear crack in beam CB1 was 1.2 mm, which was approximately twice that in CB2. Beams BG2 and BL2 had the highest SI and failed in shear-compression. The diagonal strut split in the out-of plane direction in beam BL2 leading to the concrete spalling at the top and bottom of the beam. The main crack extended along the flexural reinforcement towards the ends of the beam immediately after failure in beams BG1 and BG2. Analysis of the beams in the next section provides no evidence that the longitudinal cracking, which is indicative of bond failure, precipitated failure. This conclusion is consistent with Hamadi and Regan’s (1980) observation that bond failure frequently occurs in combination with shear failure.

**Analysis of test results**

Influence of aggregate fracture

Table 3 shows beams CA2 and CB2, with gravel aggregate, had similar concrete strengths and shear reinforcement ratios to beam BL1 with limestone aggregate. Aggregate fracture does not appear to have reduced the shear strength of beam BL1 since its shear strength \([V/\beta d = 5.94 \text{ MPa}]\) is very similar to that of beams CA2 (6.12 MPa) and CB2 (5.98 MPa). Interestingly, push-off tests (Sagaseta and Vollum, 2011) showed that significant shear stresses could be transferred through cracks in the limestone concrete even though the aggregate fractured. Sagaseta and Vollum (2011) has shown that significant shear stresses were
transferred through the cracks in beam BL2 despite the aggregate fracturing.

Contribution of compression flange

Figure 8 compares the shear strengths of the tested beams with the predictions of EC2 and the shear strengths of beams with rectangular, ‘T’- and ‘I’- shaped cross-sections tested by others. Figure 8 is similar to the figure used to demonstrate the validity of the EC2 design method in the background document for shear in EC2 (Walraven, 2004). The main difference between the figures is that Walraven (2004) only included data from ‘I’ and ‘T’ sections which fail at significantly higher shear stresses than the rectangular sections shown in Figure 8. The beams from Watanabe and Lee’s (1998) database in Figure 8 were tested in Japan in the late 1980s and failed in shear. The beams were continuous and rectangular in cross-section with similar dimensions and flexural reinforcement ratios to the B and C series of continuous and rectangular sections in Figure 8. It is also striking that the shear strengths of comparable flanged and rectangular sections in Figure 8 is principally attributable to the reduced contribution of the compression zone in the rectangular beams.

Figure 8 shows that the authors’ results are broadly consistent with those of Watanabe and Lee (1998) despite the unusually high reinforcement strengths in the latter. The increased shear strength of the ‘T’ and ‘I’ beams, relative to the rectangular beams, is attributed to the contribution of the compression flange which can be estimated as follows (Placas, 1969)

\[ V_{c2} = 0.1 f_{cu}^{2/3} (b_w + 1.5 \lambda h_f) h_f \]

where

\[ \lambda = 1.0 \text{ if } \left[ (h_f - b_w) > 3 h_f \right] \]

and

\[ \lambda = (h_f - b_w)/3 h_f \text{ if } \left[ (h_f - b_w) < 3 h_f \right] \]

Equation 2 implies that the compression flange increased the shear strength of the ‘I’ and ‘T’ beams in Figure 8 by between 10% and 20%. This estimate is consistent with the findings of Leonhardt and Walther (1961), Regan (1971) and Pansuk and Sato (2007) and is of the same order as the difference between the shear strengths of comparable flanged and rectangular sections in Figure 8. It is also striking that the shear strengths of the authors’ simply supported beams DA1 and DB1 were very similar to those of the equivalent continuous beams CA1 and CB1. This suggests that the difference between the strengths of the rectangular and flanged sections in Figure 8 is principally attributable to the reduced contribution of the compression zone in the rectangular beams.

Evaluation of shear strength with EC2

The variable strut inclination (VSI) method in EC2 was used to assess the shear strength of all the rectangular beams in Figure 8. The VSI method is based on the work of Nielsen and Baestrup (1976) and Muttoni et al. (1989) among others. The method assumes that the shear force is resisted by a truss consisting of concrete struts equilibrated by shear reinforcement with \( f_v = 0 \). The angle between the concrete struts and the longitudinal axis of

\[ V = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \left( \frac{f_v}{f_{y}} \right)^{1/2} + 1 \right] (b_w + \delta_{c\text{C}138}) h_f \]

where

\[ \delta_{c\text{C}138} = \frac{P_c}{f_{y} b_w} \]

and

\[ \delta_{c\text{C}138} = \frac{P_c}{f_{y} b_w} \]

Table 3. Experimental data for beams with shear reinforcement

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<th>Beam</th>
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<th>b: mm</th>
<th>( \rho_c ): %</th>
<th>( f_y ): MPa</th>
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Notes:

\( f_v \) (stirrups) = 550 MPa; \( f_y \) (longitudinal) = 580 MPa

Failure modes: shear compression (SC); crack widening (CW)

(*) shear failure accompanied by bond failure

\( \delta_{c\text{C}138} \): Vertical deflection under the central load at failure load

\( P_c \): load at which shear cracks were first observed
the beam is allowed to vary between 21.8° to 45° depending upon the applied shear force. In reality, the angle of the compression field in the truss is steeper than assumed in EC2 as part of the shear force is resisted by $V_c$. For members with vertical shear reinforcement, the design value of the shear strength is given by

$$V_{Rd,s} = A_{sw} f_{ywd} \cot \theta / s$$

where $A_{sw}$ is the area of shear reinforcement, $f_{ywd} = f_{yk}/\gamma_s$ is the design yield strength of the shear reinforcement, and $s$ is the stirrup spacing.

3. $V_{Rd,s} = A_{sw} f_{ywd} \cot \theta / s$
Ł is the angle between the compressive stress field and the longitudinal axis of the beam, 1 < cotŁ < 2.5 and z is the lever arm for shear for which EC2 recommends a value of 0.9d. EC2 defines the maximum shear capacity as follows for beams with vertical stirrups

\[ V_{Rd,max} = \frac{b_0 \nu f_{cd}}{(\cot \theta + \tan \theta)} \]

where \( \nu = 0.6(1 - f_{\text{c,k}}/250) \) is a strength reduction factor for concrete with skew cracks and \( f_{\text{c,k}} = f_{\text{c,d}}/\gamma_c \) is the design concrete strength.

Table 4 shows that the shear strengths of the tested beams were typically less than predicted by EC2 with \( z = 0.9d \) and partial material factors \( \gamma_c \) and \( \gamma_s = 1.0 \). For example, the shear strengths of beams BG1 and BG2, for which \( \cot \theta \) is less than 2.5, are overestimated by 15% and 22% respectively. Figure 8 shows that EC2 systematically underestimates the shear strength of rectangular beams with SI = \( \rho_w f_s / \nu f_c \) > ~0.05 when the material partial factors equal 1. However, EC2 gives a reasonable lower bound to the test data when shear strengths are calculated with partial factors of \( \gamma_c = 1.5 \) for concrete and \( \gamma_s = 1.15 \) for steel.

Comparison of shear strength predictions of EC2, BS 8110, MCF and CSA A.23.3-04

The relative performance of the design methods in EC2, BS 8110 and CSA A.23.3-04 (CSA, 2004) was evaluated, with and without material partial factors, for the beams tested in this programme.
and 62 continuous beam tests from Figure 8 where sufficient data were available to apply the CSA method. The shear strength of the authors’ beams was also calculated with the MCFT using Response 2000 (Bentz, 2000). The 62 beams consisted of 54 from Watanabe and Lee’s database (Watanabe and Lee, 1998), seven from the normal-weight concrete tests by Ramirez et al. (2004) and one from Regan (1971). The concrete cylinder strengths in the 62 beam tests considered varied from 21.2 MPa to 75.2 MPa.

Figure 8. Comparison of test data with shear strengths calculated with EC2 for simply supported beams with ‘T’ and ‘I’ sections and continuous beams with rectangular sections. Tests marked with (*) failed prematurely due to bonding. Tests marked with (+) had a very high concrete strength $f_{cu} = 140$ MPa. Simply supported beams: Sorensen (1974), Regan and Reza-Jorabi (1987), Placas (1969), Leonhardt and Walther (1961), Moayer and Regan (1974), Hamadi and Regan (1980), Muhidin and Regan (1977), Levi and Marro (1993), Walraven and Stroband (1999) and 62 continuous beam tests from Figure 8 where sufficient data were available to apply the CSA method. The shear strength of the authors’ beams was also calculated with the MCFT using Response 2000 (Bentz, 2000). The 62 beams consisted of 54 from Watanabe and Lee’s database (Watanabe and Lee, 1998), seven from the normal-weight concrete tests by Ramirez et al. (2004) and one from Regan (1971). The concrete cylinder strengths in the 62 beam tests considered varied from 21.2 MPa to 75.2 MPa. The maximum possible design shear strength was taken as $0.8 \gamma_s f_{cu}$ in BS 8110 but not more than 8 MPa as recommended in Concrete Society technical report 49 (Concrete Society, 1998).

Table 4 presents results for the beams tested in this programme. It shows that the MCFT predicted the strengths most accurately and BS 8110 most conservatively. As expected, the predictions of CSA A.23.3-04 were more conservative than the rigorous implementation of the MCFT in Response 2000 (Bentz, 2000). Reducing the aggregate size to zero in Response 2000 only reduced the predicted strength of the BL beams with limestone aggregate by around 2% since the concrete component of shear resistance ($V_c$) was relatively small compared with the stirrup component ($V_s$). These results are consistent with the authors’ test data which, as previously discussed, show no noticeable influence of aggregate fracture on the shear strengths of beams with shear reinforcement.

Figures 9(a) and 9(b) show results for all the beams with material partial factors equal to 1. The figures show that BS 8110 and CSA A.23.3-04 performed reasonably well independently of the stirrup index but EC2 overestimated the strength of a significant number of beams. Figure 9(c) suggests that the accuracy of the shear strength predictions is relatively independent of the stirrup yield strength for strengths as high as 1478 MPa. Table 5(a) shows that EC2 (with $\gamma_s = 1$) underestimates the strength of 67% of the beams with SI < 0.5 which is the maximum SI at which stirrups yield in EC2. Furthermore, BS 8110 and CSA A.23.3-04 performed significantly better giving similar values for $V_{calc}/V_{design}$. Table 5(a) and Figure 9 also show that the EC2 predictions improve significantly for SI > 0.05 if the lever arm $z$ is taken as 0.8d in Equations 3 and 4. The corresponding flexural lever arms were calculated for comparison using the rectangular parabolic stress block in EC2 and were found to be 0.8d for the BL and BG beams. The mean flexural lever arm was 0.84d for the beams of Watanabe and Lee (1998) with a coefficient of variation of 2.4%.

Comparison of design shear strengths
A direct comparison of the shear capacities without partial factors is somewhat misleading since their effect varies between the codes and depends on the proportion of shear stress resisted by the shear reinforcement. For example, the shear strength is independent of the concrete strength in EC2 if cot $\theta = 2.5$, and is only reduced by the multiple $1/\gamma_s = 0.87$ (where $\gamma_s$ is the partial factor for steel) when partial material factors are introduced. The reduction in strength due to partial factors can be significantly greater in CSA A.23.3-04 and BS 8110 since $V_r$ reduces by multiples of 0.65 and 0.8 respectively. Therefore, notional overall FOS equal to $V_{calc}/V_{design}$ (where $V_{design}$ is the design ultimate shear resistance divided by the overall load factor) were calculated for all the continuous beams in Figure 9 using EC2, BS 8110 and CSA A.23.3-04 assuming equal dead and imposed loads. The results are plotted against the stirrup index in Figure 10 which lists the partial load and material factors used for each code. Table 5(b) shows that EC2 gives significantly lower FOS than BS 8110 or CSA A.23.3-04 for 0.05 < SI < 0.25 if $z$ is taken as 0.9d as recommended in the code.

Influence of flexural reinforcement ratio on design shear strength
Shear strengths calculated with EC2 are independent of the flexural reinforcement ratio ($\rho_f = A_f/bd$) for beams with shear reinforcement unlike strengths calculated with BS 8110 or CSA A.23.3-04. Shear strengths calculated with CSA A.23.3-04 reduce with increasing strain in the flexural reinforcement at the critical section, which is typically at a distance $d$ from the loading point for the beams considered in this paper. Figure 9(d) shows the influence of the longitudinal strain at the mid-height of the critical section (as defined in CSA A.23.3-04) on $V_{calc}/V_{design}$ for EC2 and CSA A.23.3-04. Figure 9(d) suggests that EC2 may progressively overestimate shear strength as a result of neglecting the influence of longitudinal strain but this was not the case for

![Figure 8](image_url)
the authors’ continuous beams, which are highlighted in Figure 9(d). It is, however, striking that the critical shear cracks in the authors’ tests (see Figure 7) passed through the critical section assumed in CSA A.23.3-04 at $d$ from the loading point. Further tests, in which just the area of flexural reinforcement is varied, are required to establish the influence of axial strain definitively.

The influence of the flexural reinforcement ratio on the code predictions was explored in a series of parametric studies on continuous beams with the dimensions used in the tests of (a) Ramirez et al. (2004) (with $f_{ck} = 46$ MPa) and (b) this programme (with $f_{ck} = 40$ MPa). The concrete strengths were chosen to be representative of those used in the corresponding test programmes. The following analyses were made for beams with each configuration. First, the flexural reinforcement was designed to yield at the design ultimate load which was assumed to be governed by the shear strength calculated with EC2. Second, the area of flexural reinforcement was increased by a multiple of 2 to replicate tests in which excess flexural reinforcement is provided. Third, shear strengths were calculated with the flexural reinforcement ratio of 100.400/$bd = 3:3$ used in the BG and BL beams tested in this programme.

The results (for $\gamma_s = \gamma_t = 1.0$) are presented in Figures 11(a) and 11(b) along with test data from Ramirez et al. (2004) and this programme. The figures show that the difference between the EC2 and CSA A.23.3-04 predictions depends on the strain in the flexural reinforcement and is greatest when (a) the area of reinforcement provided for flexure equals that required for shear and that furthermore the strength increased almost linearly in proportion with SI = $\rho_w f_{cy}/f_{ck}^2$ as predicted by CSA A.23.3-04. Figure 11(a) shows that EC2 predicts the shear strength of the Ramirez et al. (2004) beams, in which SI = $\rho_w f_{cy}/f_{ck}^2$ was less than 0.1, reasonably well. Figure 11(b) shows that EC2 tends to overestimate the shear strength of the authors’ beams which were more heavily reinforced in shear and that furthermore the strength increased almost linearly in proportion with SI = $\rho_w f_{cy}/f_{ck}^2$ as predicted by CSA A.23.3-04. Figure 11(b) shows that the MCF (Response 2000) accurately predicts the influence of SI on the shear strength of the tested beams with the exception of beam BG2 which had a surprisingly low strength. The inset to Figure 11(b) shows that the orientation of the inclined compressive stress field assumed in EC2 is typically skew to the cracks. It follows that the validity of the VSI model in EC2 is dependent on shear stresses being transferred through the crack. Sagaseta (2008) has shown that the trend of test data in Figure 11(b) is consistent with the predictions of the EC2 design model if the compressive strength of the concrete in the inclined stress field is limited by shear transfer through the cracks as illustrated diagrammatically in Figure 11(b).
Figure 12 shows maximum permissible (i.e. unfactored) design shear stresses calculated with each code for the beam considered in Figure 11(b). The permissible shear stresses were calculated for equal dead and imposed loads with the load factors appropriate to each code listed below Figure 10. The area of flexural reinforcement was taken as (a) $A_{sreq}$, (b) $2A_{sreq}$ and (c) $A_s = 0.033bd$. Figure 12(a) shows that BS 8110 and CSA A.23.3-04 tend to give significantly lower permissible shear stresses than EC2 with $z = 0.9d$ when $A_{prov} = A_{req}$ (where $A_{prov}$ is the area of flexural reinforcement provided and $A_{req}$ is the area required for strength) and $SI = \rho_{sfv}/f'c > 0.05$. Conversely, Figure 12(b) (with $A_s/bd = 3.3\%$) shows that EC2 (with $z = 0.9d$) can give lower design shear strengths than CSA A.23.3-04 or BS 8110 when $SI < 0.05$.

**Design recommendations for EC2**

The EC2 design method for shear is safe for all the beams in Figure 10 in the sense that the minimum FOS (calculated with mean material strengths) is greater than the mean load factor of 1.43. It is, however, striking that EC2 gives significantly lower FOS for shear than BS 8110 or CSA A.23.3-04. The authors believe that the FOS should be greater for shear than flexural failure, when the areas of shear and flexural reinforcement equal that required for strength, owing to the sudden and potentially catastrophic nature of shear failure. CSA A.23.3-04 appears to share this philosophy (Collins et al., 2008).

The FOS for flexural failure in EC2 ($FOS = M_{test}/M_{design}$ where $M_{design}$ is the design ultimate moment of resistance divided by the...
overall load factor) is at least \(1.15 \frac{(1.35 + 1.5)}{2} = 1.64\) for equal dead and imposed loads and greater if allowance is made for the effects of (a) strain hardening and (b) the difference between the design and actual flexural lever arms. Therefore, it is concerning that the EC2 FOS for shear (with \(z = 0.9d\)), \(\frac{V}{V_{design}}\) is below 1.64 for 35% of the beams in Figure 10 with SI \(= 0.5\) compared with 5% for BS 8110 and 16% for CSA A.23.3-04 (see Table 5(b)). It should also be noted that the shear strengths of many of the beams in Figure 10 may have been increased by the provision of surplus flexural reinforcement though further tests are required to confirm this.

Therefore, the authors propose that the EC2 FOS for shear should be increased for sections without compression flanges by reducing the lever arm for shear \(z\). They propose that \(z\) should be taken as \(0.8d\) for \(\rho_w f_y / f'_c \leq 0.025\), \(0.9d\) for \(\rho_w f_y / f'_c > 0.05\) for sections without compression flanges, and be calculated by linear interpolation for intermediate values of \(\rho_w f_y / f'_c\). Figures 9 and 10 and Tables 5(a) and 5(b) show that this recommendation significantly improves the EC2 shear strength predictions for the rectangular beams studied in this paper. The effect of the proposed amendment is illustrated in Figures 11 and 12 which show that the proposed amendment to EC2 still allows greater shear strengths than CSA A.23.3-04 or BS 8110 when \(A_{prov} = A_{req}\) for flexure.
Conclusions
The experimental results presented in this paper show that the shear strength of beams without shear reinforcement is reduced by aggregate fracture. Similar findings have been reported by Regan et al. (2005) among others. The UK national annex to EC2 (BSI, 2004) accounts for aggregate fracture by limiting the concrete cylinder strength to 50 MPa in the design equations for shear. This restriction was found to be necessary but only just...
sufficient for the safe prediction of the design shear strength of the authors’ beams without stirrups. The authors found no evidence that the shear strength of their beams with stirrups was reduced by aggregate fracture.

The authors tested ten rectangular beams with stirrups of which eight were continuous. The shear strengths of the tested beams are shown to be consistent with the strengths of similar beams tested in Japan but significantly less than the strengths of the ‘I’ and ‘T’ section beams used to validate the EC2 design method for shear (Walraven, 2004). The increased strength of the ‘I’ and ‘T’ sections (10–20%) results from the contribution of the flexural shear capacity in the validation of EC2 (Walraven, 2004). This is significant since EC2 assumes, like BS 8110 and CSA A.23.3-04, that shear is entirely carried by the web. EC2 tends to overestimate the shear strength of the rectangular beams tested in this project if the lever arm for shear is taken as 0.9d as recommended in the code.

Sixty-two continuous beams with rectangular cross-sections were analysed to compare the factors of safety (FOS) for shear failure implicit in EC2, BS 8110 and CSA A.23.3-04. The analysis showed (see Table 5(b)) that EC2 can have a lower FOS for shear in rectangular sections than flexure when Sl = ρwfy/C237 > 0.05 which seems undesirable. The authors believe that the FOS for shear should be greater than for flexure (when the areas of flexural and shear reinforcement equal that required for strength) as shear failure occurs suddenly with little if any warning. Therefore, the authors propose that the FOS for shear should be increased in sections without compression flanges by reducing the lever arm for shear from z = 0.9d to z = 0.8d for sections with ρwfy/C237 ≥ 0.05. This amendment makes the FOS for shear in EC2 more comparable to that in CSA A.23.3-04.

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