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Case study

# Data-enabled comparison of six prediction models for concrete shrinkage and creep

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## ABSTRACT

Modeling the shrinkage and creep of concrete is a demanding task due to the large number and high complexity of the parameters that contribute to these two mechanisms. A range of models have been developed to date to predict shrinkage and creep over time. Among them, this study focused on some of the most widely used models, including those developed by the American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials, the American Concrete Institute, the European Committee for Standardization, the Fédération Internationale du Béton, and the Comité Européen du Béton. This holistic investigation aimed to provide in-depth insights into the input requirements and prediction capabilities of the identified models. For this purpose, using various data sets selected from the NU-ITI database, the performance of each shrinkage and creep model was first assessed, and a calibration approach was then employed to further refine their outputs. The calibration was performed with the objective of adjusting the short- and long-term prediction accuracy, including the rate of shrinkage and creep development over time. The models were evaluated side by side through comparing the outputs of each calibrated model to data from shrinkage and creep experiments. The calibration steps explored in this study were found to improve the performance of the shrinkage and creep prediction models by up to 20%. This helped reduce the possibility to deviate from the expected strains and stresses. The outcome of this detailed study paved the way to properly select and utilize shrinkage and creep models, taking into consideration the key contributing factors for the highest accuracy.

# **1. Introduction**

Concrete is known to exhibit time-dependent deformations mainly due to shrinkage and creep. The effects of shrinkage and creep can directly impact the performance of concrete structures by the formation and propagation of cracks, redistribution of stresses, and loss of prestressing forces [\[1,2\]](#page-22-0). Such effects are pronounced particularly in situations that large deflections due to shrinkage and creep can cause various strength and serviceability issues [3–[5\].](#page-22-0) Shrinkage and creep are, therefore, crucial factors in the design and analysis of concrete structures, especially for long-term performance. Shrinkage of concrete is a time-dependent process that results in volumetric contraction with the risk of generating cracks in the presence of constraints [\[6\]](#page-22-0). Various types of shrinkage are commonly observed in the concrete. Among them, autogenous shrinkage and drying shrinkage are the most critical types of shrinkage from a structural design and assessment standpoint [\[7\]](#page-22-0). Autogenous shrinkage is the macroscopic reduction in dimension under a constant

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temperature without any moisture exchange with the environment [\[8\]](#page-22-0). It results from water consumption during the hydration reactions that reduce the overall relative humidity in the cementitious matrix (also referred to as self-desiccation), inducing stresses linked to capillary depression  $[9,10]$ . Autogenous shrinkage is most critical in the concrete mixtures that have a low water-to-binder ratio [\[11,12\]](#page-22-0). This type of shrinkage is prominent during the first month after casting the concrete since it is linked to the cement hydration process. Thus, 60–90% of the concrete's autogenous shrinkage commonly takes place within the first 28 days  $[7,13]$ .

Drying shrinkage is the other main type of shrinkage that induces time-dependent volumetric changes. The volumetric changes are primarily caused by water evaporation from the concrete's pore spaces. Thus, the concrete's mixture properties (in terms of water-tobinder ratio and aggregate type, size, and shape), concrete's microstructure characteristics (in terms of porosity, pore size distribution, and the mean radius of capillary menisci), surrounding environmental conditions (in terms of relative humidity, temperature, and air flow), and exposed surface-to-volume ratio are among the key parameters to consider [\[14\]](#page-23-0). Drying shrinkage often continues over a much longer time period than autogenous shrinkage and is generally several times more significant than autogenous shrinkage in conventional concretes, resulting in various performance issues [15–[17\].](#page-23-0) In unrestrained reinforced concrete (RC) members, drying shrinkage is known to cause stresses in such a way that the embedded steel reinforcement can experience compressive stresses, while the concrete can undergo tensile stresses. In restrained members, such as multi-layer concrete composites, the drying shrinkage induces tensile stresses in the restrained overlay, leading to shear (friction) and normal (delamination) stresses at the interface between the overlay and the substrate [\[18,19\].](#page-23-0) The formation of tensile stresses is critical since concrete is susceptible to cracking under tension [\[20\].](#page-23-0) The magnitude of such effects is dependent on the shape of the RC member, amount of embedded steel reinforcement, and intensity of mechanical and environmental stressors [\[21](#page-23-0)–23].

Creep is a time-dependent property of concrete, resulting in continuous deformations over time under sustained loads. Creep strain is stress-dependent, and thus, influenced by stress history. Specifically, the creep strain's magnitude increases as the stress increases. Under certain loading and structural configurations, creep can act as a stress relaxation mechanism. Creep is often quantified in one of two ways: creep coefficient or specific creep. The creep coefficient is the ratio of creep strain to elastic strain. On the other hand, specific creep, also known as creep compliance, is the total stress-dependent strain per unit stress. The two components of creep are basic creep and drying creep. Basic creep is the creep measured in a condition where drying is avoided. Specifically, this creep component can be determined based on the total strain of a sealed loaded specimen minus the instantaneous elastic strain caused by the external load and the strain due to the autogenous shrinkage [\[24\].](#page-23-0) Basic creep is considered a constitutive material property independent of geometry and environmental conditions [\[25\]](#page-23-0). When drying is allowed, drying creep also occurs and can be determined by subtracting the basic creep strain, the instantaneous elastic strain caused by the load, and the shrinkage strain from the total strain.

A range of models have been proposed in the literature to predict shrinkage and creep. Empirical and physical law models have both been used in codes and the practice. Overall, these models were established based on the fittings applied to various subsets of experimental test data. Compared to the empirical models, the physical law models (semi-empirical) are derived from physical theories, such as the microprestress solidification theory [\[26,27\]](#page-23-0). They can, therefore, be employed for complex shrinkage and creep situations after proper calibration. Such calibrations are, however, proven to be challenging, mainly due to the large number of variables that must be considered in the predictive models. Although progress has been made in modeling shrinkage and creep, past studies have reported overestimations and underestimations [\[28](#page-23-0)–30]. To improve prediction accuracy, emerging data-driven analysis approaches have been considered. Among them are deep learning models represented by convolutional neural networks [\[31,32\]](#page-23-0), ensemble machine learning models [\[33\]](#page-23-0), multiscale microstructure-based models [\[34\],](#page-23-0) and multi-objective genetic programming-based models [\[35\].](#page-23-0) Despite the advances made through the data-driven models, such approaches often have a black-box nature and are too complex for the common use of civil engineers and concrete practitioners.

To address the outlined fundamental and practical issues, this study aimed to provide holistic insights into the most common shrinkage and creep models used for RC structures. To achieve this goal, the models developed by the American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials (AASHTO) [\[36\]](#page-23-0), American Concrete Institute (ACI 209) [\[37\],](#page-23-0) Comité Européen du Béton (CEB MC90-99) [\[38\]](#page-23-0), European Committee for Standardization (EN) Eurocode 2 (EC2) [\[39\],](#page-23-0) Fédération Internationale du Béton/International Federation for Structural Concrete (fib Model Code 2010) [\[40\]](#page-23-0), and Bazant-Baweja (B3 Model) [\[26\]](#page-23-0) were systematically considered. Using various data sets selected from the NU-ITI database [\[41,42\],](#page-23-0) the performance of each shrinkage and creep model was first assessed, and then a calibration approach was employed to further refine their outputs. The calibration was performed with the objective of adjusting the short- and long-term prediction capabilities of the identified shrinkage and creep models, including their rate of shrinkage/creep development over time. The shrinkage and creep models were evaluated side by side through comparing the outputs of each calibrated model to the data from shrinkage and creep experiments. The outcome of this holistic study provides in-depth insights into the performance of the most common concrete shrinkage and creep prediction models. Such insights ensure the proper selection and use of such models, depending on target applications.

## **2. Shrinkage and creep models**

## *2.1. AASHTO model*

The AASHTO shrinkage and creep models are empirical models that predict the shrinkage strain and creep coefficient of concrete as a function of time [\[36\]](#page-23-0). Shrinkage strain in the AASHTO model is predicted based on the concrete age, time of drying, relative humidity, volume-to-surface ratio, and compressive strength. Shrinkage strain according to the AASHTO model is calculated following [Eq. \(1\)](#page-2-0).

<span id="page-2-0"></span>Correction factors for shrinkage strain in the AASHTO model.



**Table 2** 

Correction factors for creep coefficient in the AASHTO model.



$$
\varepsilon_{sh}=0.48k_sk_{hs}k_fk_{td}(10^{-3})
$$

where  $\varepsilon_{sh}$  is the shrinkage strain as a function of time, and  $k_s$ ,  $k_{hs}$ ,  $k_f$ , and  $k_{td}$  are correction factors defined in Table 1.

The creep coefficient in the AASHTO model is predicted based on the concrete age, time of loading, relative humidity, volume-tosurface ratio, and compressive strength. The creep coefficient according to the AASHTO model is defined following Eq. (2).

$$
\phi = 1.9k_{s}k_{hc}k_{f}k_{td}t_{i}^{-0.118} \tag{2}
$$

where  $\phi$  is the creep coefficient as a function of time,  $t_i$ , and  $k_s$ ,  $k_{hc}$ ,  $k_f$ , and  $k_{td}$  are correction factors defined in Table 2.

The AASHTO shrinkage and creep models are among the simplest models available in the literature. This is partly because the models are primarily intended for use on a specific set of structures (i.e., bridges) with regulated concrete mixtures, curing regimes, and overall geometries. Under the conditions that the models are intended (e.g., for concretes with compressive strengths of up to 15 ksi (103.4 MPa), including minimum and maximum reinforcement thresholds), the AASHTO models can quickly provide shrinkage and creep values. However, if conditions differ from what the models are geared toward, they likely provide inaccurate predictions. The AASHTO models lack constants with a recommended value and/or range to tune them so that they can be fitted to experimental and/or field data. However, the models can easily be tuned to match long-term shrinkage and creep behavior by introducing factors into shrinkage strain and creep coefficient equations.

## *2.2. ACI 209 model*

The ACI 209 shrinkage and creep models are empirical models that predict the shrinkage strain and creep coefficient of the concrete as a function of time [\[25,37\].](#page-23-0) Shrinkage strain is predicted based on the concrete age, curing method (moist or steam curing), time of drying, relative humidity, volume-to-surface ratio, slump, fine aggregate to total aggregate ratio, cement content, and air content. Shrinkage strain according to the ACI 209 model is calculated following Eq. (3).

$$
\varepsilon_{sh}(t,t_c) = \frac{\left(t - t_c\right)^{\alpha}}{f + \left(t - t_c\right)^{\alpha}} \varepsilon_{shu}
$$
\n(3)

where  $\varepsilon_{sh}(t,t_c)$  is the shrinkage strain at a concrete age of *t* (in days),  $t_c$  is the concrete age at the time when drying starts (in days),  $\alpha$  is a constant between 0.90 and 1.10 to tune the model to experimental test and/or field data, *f* is a constant between 20 and 130 days to tune the model further, and *εshu* is the ultimate shrinkage strain. The ultimate shrinkage strain, *εshu*, is defined according to Eqs. (4) and (5).

$$
\varepsilon_{\textit{shu}} = 780 \gamma_{\textit{sh}} \left( 10^{-6} \right) \tag{4}
$$

) (1)

Correction factors for shrinkage strain in the ACI 209 model.



#### **Table 4**

Correction factors for creep coefficient in the ACI 209 model.



$$
\gamma_{sh} = \gamma_{sh,c} \gamma_{sh,RH} \gamma_{sh,s} \gamma_{sh,s} \gamma_{sh,s} \gamma_{sh,t} \gamma_{sh,c} \gamma_{sh,a} \tag{5}
$$

where  $\gamma_{\text{sh}}$  is a product of a series of correction factors. The correction factors included in Eq. (5) for the ultimate shrinkage strain have been summarized in Table 3.

In the ACI 209 model, the creep coefficient is predicted based on the concrete age, curing method, time of loading, relative humidity, volume-to-surface ratio, slump, fine aggregate to total aggregate ratio, and air content. The creep coefficient at any time is estimated according to Eq. (6).

$$
\phi(t,t_0) = \frac{(t-t_0)^{\Psi}}{d + (t-t_0)^{\Psi}} \phi_u
$$
\n(6)

where  $\phi(t, t_0)$  is the creep coefficient at the concrete age of *t* (in days),  $t_0$  is the concrete age at the time of loading (in days),  $\psi$  is a constant between 0.40 and 0.80 to tune the model to experimental test and/or field data, *d* is a constant between 6 and 30 days to tune the model further, and  $\phi_u$  is the ultimate creep coefficient. The ultimate creep coefficient is defined according to Eqs. (7) and (8).

$$
\phi_u = 2.35 \gamma_c \tag{7}
$$

$$
\gamma_c = \gamma_{c,\nu} \gamma_{c,RH} \gamma_{c,v} \gamma_{c,s} \gamma_{c,\nu} \gamma_{c,\alpha} \tag{8}
$$

where  $\gamma_c$  is the product of a series of correction factors for the ultimate creep coefficient. These correction factors for the ultimate creep coefficient have been summarized in Table 4.

A significant benefit of the ACI 209 models is their relative simplicity while yet allowing tuning to available data. For example, the *α*, *f*, ψ, and *d* constants from [Eqs. \(3\) and \(6\)](#page-2-0) can be tuned to capture the shape of the shrinkage strain and creep coefficient curves. Additional factors can be applied to the ultimate shrinkage strain and ultimate creep coefficient to modify the ultimate values. Such features allow the models to accurately match nearly any set of data. The models also provide recommended ranges for all the constants, ultimate shrinkage strain, and ultimate creep coefficient to ensure an accurate estimate is obtained.

#### *2.3. B3 model*

The Bazant-Baweja (B3) model is a hybrid of empirical and theoretical models that predict the shrinkage strain and creep compliance of concrete as a function of time [\[26\].](#page-23-0) This model provides ultimate values of shrinkage strain and creep compliance, while distinguishing between the basic and drying components of creep. Shrinkage strain in this model is predicted based on the concrete age, curing method, time of drying, relative humidity, concrete strength, cement type, water content, cross-section shape, and volume-to-surface ratio. Shrinkage strain according to the B3 model is defined following [Eq. \(9\)](#page-4-0).

<span id="page-4-0"></span>Factors and constants for shrinkage strain in the B3 model.



# **Table 6**

Factors and constants for creep compliance in the B3 model.



# $\varepsilon_{sh}(t,t_c) = \varepsilon_{\text{show}}k_hS(t-t_c)$  (9)

where  $\varepsilon_{sh}(t, t_c)$  is the shrinkage strain at the concrete age of *t* (in days),  $t_c$  is the concrete age at the start of drying (in days),  $\varepsilon_{sh\infty}$  is the ultimate shrinkage strain,  $k_h$  is a humidity dependence factor as defined in Table 5, and  $S(t-t_c)$  is the time curve. The time curve is calculated following Eqs. (10) and (11).

$$
S(t - t_c) = \tanh\sqrt{\frac{(t - t_c)}{\tau_{sh}}} \tag{10}
$$

$$
\tau_{sh} = 190.8t_c^{-0.08}f_{cm28}^{-0.25}[2k_s(V/S)]^2
$$
\n(11)

where *τsh* is the shrinkage half-time (in days), *fcm*28 is the concrete mean compressive strength at 28 days, *ks* is a factor to account for the member shape as defined in Table 5, and *V*/*S* is the volume-to-surface ratio. The ultimate shrinkage strain is defined according to Eq. (12).

$$
\varepsilon_{\rm show} = \varepsilon_{\rm sw} \frac{E_{cm(607)}}{E_{cm(t_c+\tau_{th})}}
$$
(12)

where *εs*<sup>∞</sup>is a constant as defined in Table 5, and *Ecm*(607) and *Ecm*(*tc*+*τsh*) are the elastic moduli at their corresponding times, as defined in Table 5.

Creep compliance in the B3 model is predicted based on the concrete age, curing method, time of drying, time of loading, compressive strength, relative humidity, cement content, water-to-cement ratio, aggregate-to-cement ratio, cross-section shape, and

<span id="page-5-0"></span>Factors and constants for shrinkage strain in the CEB model.



volume-to-surface ratio. Creep compliance according to the B3 model is defined following Eq.  $(13)$ .

$$
J(t, t_0) = q_1 + C_0(t, t_0) + C_d(t, t_0, t_c)
$$
\n(13)

where  $J(t, t_0)$  is the creep compliance at the concrete age of *t* (in days),  $t_0$  is the time of loading (in days),  $q_1$  is a constant defined in [Table 6,](#page-4-0)  $C_0(t,t_0)$  is to account for basic creep, and  $C_d(t,t_0,t_c)$  is to account for drying creep.  $C_0(t,t_0)$  and  $C_d(t,t_0,t_c)$  are defined according to Eqs. (14) and (15), respectively.

$$
C_0(t, t_0) = q_2 Q(t, t_0) + q_3 \ln[1 + (t - t_0)^n] + q_4 \ln(t/t_0)
$$
\n(14)

$$
C_d(t, t_0, t_c) = q_5 \left[ e^{-8H(t)} - e^{-8H(t_0)} \right]^{1/2} \tag{15}
$$

As presented in [Table 6](#page-4-0), the multiplying functions, i.e.,  $q_2$ ,  $q_3$ , and  $q_4$ , represent the nondimensionalized forms of the aging viscoelastic compliance, nonaging viscoelastic compliance, and flow compliance, respectively. Function *Q*(*t, t*0) can be calculated from an approximate explicit formula presented in [Table 6](#page-4-0). The empirical parameter *n* is taken as 0.1, and  $H(t)$  and  $H(t_0)$  are spatial averages of pore relative humidity, which can be obtained from Eqs. (16) through (19).

$$
H(t) = 1 - (1 - h)S(t - t_c)
$$
\n(16)

$$
H(t_0) = 1 - (1 - h)S(t_0 - t_c) \tag{17}
$$

$$
S(t-t_c) = \tanh\sqrt{\left(\frac{t-t_c}{\tau_{sh}}\right)^{1/2}}\tag{18}
$$

$$
S(t_0 - t_c) = \tanh\sqrt{\left(\frac{t_0 - t_c}{\tau_{sh}}\right)^{1/2}}
$$
\n(19)

where *h* is the relative humidity,  $S(t - t_c)$  and  $S(t_0 - t_c)$  are time curves, and  $\tau_{sh}$  is the shrinkage half-time (in days).

The B3 models offer advantages due to their ties to theory. For example, basic and drying creep, as well as specific components of shrinkage, are calculated separately. Additionally, the B3 models are well suited for general use over a wide range of parameters that can affect shrinkage and creep. However, the B3 models do not provide a significant advantage over simple empirical models when calibrating a model to experimental test and/or field data. The models are also relatively complex, especially in comparison to the ACI 209 or AASHTO shrinkage and creep models.

## *2.4. CEB model*

The CEB MC90–99 offers empirical shrinkage and creep models that predict the shrinkage strain and creep compliance of concrete, respectively, as a function of time [\[38\].](#page-23-0) Similar to the B3 model, the CEB model differentiates between autogenous and drying shrinkage. Additionally, the creep compliance function is calculated from a creep coefficient. Shrinkage strain in this model is predicted based on the concrete age, time of drying, relative humidity, volume-to-surface ratio, cement type, and compressive strength.

<span id="page-6-0"></span>Factors and constants for creep compliance in the CEB model.



Shrinkage strain according to the CEB model is defined following Eq. (20).

$$
\varepsilon_{sh}(t,t_c) = \varepsilon_{cas}(t) + \varepsilon_{cds}(t,t_c)
$$
\n(20)

 $a_2$  = Defined below.

where  $\varepsilon_{sh}(t, t_c)$  is the total shrinkage at the concrete age of *t* (in days),  $t_c$  is the concrete age at the start of drying (in days),  $\varepsilon_{cas}(t)$  is the autogenous component of shrinkage, and *εcds*(*t, tc*) is the drying component of shrinkage. The autogenous component of shrinkage is defined according to Eqs.  $(21)$  and  $(22)$ .

$$
\varepsilon_{cas}(t) = \varepsilon_{caso}(f_{cm28})\beta_{as}(t) \tag{21}
$$

$$
\beta_{as}(t) = 1 - e^{\left[-0.2\left(\frac{t}{t_1}\right)^{0.5}\right]}
$$
\n(22)

where *εcaso*( *fcm*28) is the notional autogenous shrinkage coefficient defined in [Table 7,](#page-5-0) *βas*(*t*) is the time development factor for autogenous shrinkage, and  $t_1$  is equal to one day. The drying component of shrinkage is defined according to Eqs. (23) and (24).

$$
\varepsilon_{cds}(t,t_c) = \varepsilon_{cdso}(f_{cm28})\beta_{RH}(h)\beta_{ds}(t-t_c)
$$
\n(23)

$$
\beta_{ds}(t-t_c) = \sqrt{\frac{(t-t_c)/t_1}{350[(V/S)/(V/S)_0]^2 + ((t-t_c)/t_1)}}
$$
\n(24)

where *εcdso*( *fcm*28) is the notional drying shrinkage coefficient defined in [Table 7](#page-5-0), *βRH*(*h*) is to account for relative humidity as defined in [Table 7,](#page-5-0)  $\beta_{ds}(t - t_c)$  is the time development factor for drying shrinkage,  $V/S$  is the volume-to-surface ratio, and  $(V/S)_0$  is 2 in. (5.08 cm).

Creep compliance in the CEB model is predicted based on the concrete age, time of loading, relative humidity, volume-to-surface ratio, cement type, and compressive strength. Creep compliance according to the CEB model is defined following Eq. (25).

$$
J(t, t_0) = \frac{1}{E_{cm28}} [\eta(t_0) + \phi_{28}(t, t_0)] = \frac{1}{E_{cm0}} + \frac{\phi_{28}(t, t_0)}{E_{cm28}}
$$
(25)

where  $J(t, t_0)$  is the creep compliance at the concrete age of *t* (in days),  $t_0$  is the time of loading (in days),  $E_{cm28}$  is the modulus of elasticity at the age of 28 days (in psi),  $E_{cmto}$  is the modulus of elasticity at the time of loading (in psi),  $\eta(t_0)$  is the ratio of  $E_{cm28}$  to  $E_{cm00}$ , and  $\phi_{28}(t,t_0)$  is the 28-day creep coefficient. The 28-day creep coefficient is calculated according to Eqs. (26) and (27).

$$
\phi_{28}(t, t_0) = \phi_0 \beta_c (t - t_0) \tag{26}
$$

Factors and constants for shrinkage strain in the EC2 model.



$$
\beta_c(t - t_0) = \left[\frac{(t - t_0)/t_1}{\beta_H + (t - t_0)/t_1}\right]^{0.3} \tag{27}
$$

where  $\phi_0$  is the notional creep coefficient,  $\beta_c(t-t_0)$  is a coefficient that accounts for the time development of creep, and  $\beta_H$  accounts for relative humidity as defined in [Table 8.](#page-6-0) Similar to the B3 model, the CEB model differentiates between basic and drying creep. The CEB model also allows for modifications to capture unusual temperatures and stress levels.

# *2.5. EC2 model*

The EC2 proposes two approaches to predict shrinkage and creep [\[39\]](#page-23-0). First is a simplified approach to estimate time-dependent deformations where high accuracy is not required. The shrinkage and creep coefficients are extracted from empirical graphs and tables mainly based on the concrete strength class, humidity, nominal size, and type of cement. In the second approach, which provides improved accuracy, a set of equations to determine the drying shrinkage strain and creep coefficient are presented as a function of time, similar to the other presented models. Shrinkage strain in the detailed model is predicted based on the concrete age, time of drying, relative humidity, volume-to-surface ratio, cement type, compressive strength, and temperature. Shrinkage strain according to the EC2 model is defined following Eq. (28).

$$
\varepsilon_{cs}(t, t_s) = \varepsilon_{cd}(t, t_s) + \varepsilon_{ca}(t) \tag{28}
$$

where  $\varepsilon_{cs}(t, t_s)$  is the total shrinkage at the concrete age of t (in days),  $t_s$  is the concrete age at the beginning of drying (in days),  $\varepsilon_{cd}(t, t_s)$ is the drying component of shrinkage, and *εca*(*t*) is the autogenous component of shrinkage. The drying component of shrinkage is calculated according to Eqs. (29) and (30).

$$
\varepsilon_{cd}(t,t_s) = \varepsilon_{cd,0}(f_{cm28}, RH)k_h\beta_{ds}(t,t_s)
$$
\n(29)

$$
\beta_{ds}(t,t_s) = \left(\frac{(t-t_s)}{(t-t_s) + 0.04\sqrt[3]{h_0}}\right)
$$
\n(30)

where *εcd,*<sup>0</sup> ( *fcm*28*, RH*) is the basic drying shrinkage coefficient defined in Table 9, *βds*(*t, ts*) is the time development factor for drying shrinkage, and *h*<sub>0</sub> is the notional size of the cross-section defined in Table 9. The autogenous component of shrinkage is defined according to Eqs. (31) and (32).

$$
\varepsilon_{ca}(t) = \varepsilon_{ca, \infty}(f_{c428})\beta_{as}(t) \tag{31}
$$

$$
\beta_{as}(t) = 1 - e^{\left[-0.2(t)^{0.5}\right]}
$$
\n(32)

where  $\varepsilon_{ca,\infty}(f_{ck})$  is the notional autogenous shrinkage coefficient defined in Table 9,  $\beta_{as}(t)$  is the time development factor for autogenous shrinkage, and  $f_{ck}$  is the characteristic compressive strength of the concrete.

<span id="page-8-0"></span>Factors and constants for creep compliance in the EC2 model.



# **Table 11**

Factors and constants for shrinkage strain in the fib model.



Creep compliance in the EC2 model is predicted based on the concrete age, time of loading, relative humidity, volume-to-surface ratio, cement type, compressive strength, and temperature. According to this model, the creep coefficient at the concrete age of *t* (in days) is estimated following Eqs. (33) and (34).

$$
\phi(t, t_0) = \phi_0 \beta_c(t, t_0) \tag{33}
$$

$$
\beta_c(t,t_0) = \left[\frac{(t-t_0)}{\beta_H + (t-t_0)}\right]^{0.3} \tag{34}
$$

where  $\phi_0$  is the notional creep coefficient,  $\beta_c(t,t_0)$  is a coefficient that accounts for the time development of creep,  $t_0$  is the concrete age at the time of loading (in days), and *βH* is to account for relative humidity as defined in Table 10. The EC2 model also allows for

<span id="page-9-0"></span>Factors and constants for creep compliance in the fib model.



modifications to account for unusual temperature ranges.

# *2.6. fib model*

In the fib model, a set of equations are presented to determine drying shrinkage strain and creep coefficient as a function of time [\[40\].](#page-23-0) Shrinkage strain in this model is predicted based on the concrete age, time of drying, relative humidity, volume-to-surface ratio, cement type, compressive strength, and temperature. Shrinkage strain according to the fib model is defined following Eq. (35).

$$
\varepsilon_{cs}(t, t_s) = \varepsilon_{cds}(t, t_s) + \varepsilon_{cbs}(t) \tag{35}
$$

where  $\varepsilon_{cs}(t, t_s)$  is the total shrinkage at the concrete age of t (in days),  $t_s$  is the concrete age at the beginning of drying (in days),  $\varepsilon_{cds}(t, t_s)$ is the drying shrinkage component, and *εcbs*(*t*) is the basic shrinkage component. The drying component of shrinkage is defined according to Eqs. (36) and (37).

$$
\varepsilon_{cds}(t, t_s) = \varepsilon_{cds,0}(f_{cm2s})\beta_{RH}(RH)\beta_{ds}(t - t_s)
$$
\n(36)

$$
\beta_{ds}(t-t_s) = \left(\frac{(t-t_s)}{(t-t_s) + 0.035h^2}\right)^{0.5}
$$
\n(37)

where *εcds,*<sup>0</sup> ( *fcm*28) is the notional drying shrinkage coefficient, *βRH*(*RH*) is the coefficient of ambient relative humidity defined in [Table 11,](#page-8-0)  $\beta_{ds}(t - t_s)$  is the time development factor for drying shrinkage, and *h* is the notional member size defined in [Table 11.](#page-8-0) The basic component of shrinkage is defined according to Eqs. (38) and (39).

$$
\varepsilon_{\text{obs}}(t) = \varepsilon_{\text{obs},0}(f_{\text{cm28}})\beta_{\text{bs}}(t) \tag{38}
$$

$$
\beta_{bs}(t) = 1 - e^{\left[-0.2(t)^{0.5}\right]}
$$
\n(39)

where  $\varepsilon_{\text{cbs,0}}(f_{cm})$  is the notional basic shrinkage coefficient defined in [Table 11,](#page-8-0) and  $\beta_{bs}(t)$  is the time development factor for basic shrinkage.

Creep compliance in the fib model is predicted based on the concrete age, time of loading, relative humidity, volume-to-surface ratio, cement type, compressive strength, and temperature. The creep coefficient at the concrete age of *t* (in days) is determined according to Eq. (40).

$$
\phi(t, t_0) = \phi_{dc}(t, t_0) + \phi_{bc}(t, t_0)
$$
\n(40)

where  $\phi(t, t_0)$  is the total creep coefficient at the concrete age of *t* (in days),  $t_0$  is the concrete age at the beginning of drying (in days),  $\phi_{dc}(t,t_0)$  is the drying creep coefficient, and  $\phi_{bc}(t,t_0)$  is the basic creep coefficient. The drying and basic components of the creep coefficient are defined according to [Eqs. \(41\) and \(42\)](#page-10-0), respectively.

<span id="page-10-0"></span>Overview of the input parameters used in various shrinkage and creep prediction models.



$$
\phi_{dc}(t,t_0) = \beta_{dc}(f_{cm})\beta(RH)\beta_{dc}(t_0)\beta_{dc}(t,t_0)
$$
\n(41)

$$
\phi_{bc}(t,t_0) = \beta_{bc}(f_{cm})\beta_{bc}(t,t_0) \tag{42}
$$

The coefficients of compressive strength,  $\beta_{dc}(f_{cm})$  and  $\beta_{bc}(f_{cm})$ , relative humidity,  $\beta(RH)$ , and time development,  $\beta_{dc}(t,t_0)$  and  $\beta_{bc}(t,t_0)$ , are listed in [Table 12](#page-9-0). Similar to the B3, CEB and EC2 models, the fib model differentiates between basic and drying creeps. The fib model also allows for modifications to account for unusual temperature ranges.

# **3. Comparison of model variables**

#### *3.1. Model Inputs*

A summary of the input parameters required for each of the presented models is provided in Table 13. The age of concrete at the start of drying and loading, relative humidity, and specimen volume-to-surface ratio are the common input parameters directly considered by the six models investigated in the current study. Moreover, all models, except the CEB model, take the curing method into account. Despite overall similarities, there are also differences between the input parameters of these models. Specifically, the models start to differ in their accounting of the water contained in the concrete mixture. The amount of water affects the fresh state properties, microstructural porosity, hardened state performance, and thus, the time-dependent behavior of the concrete. The B3 model is the only model that directly receives the water content as an input. In fact, water content, slump, and strength are all related. Hence, all the models, except ACI 209, account for water content through the 28-day mean compressive strength of the concrete. The ACI 209 model, however, considers water content by taking the slump value as input.

The aggregate properties (e.g., type, shape, size, and content) are known to affect the concrete's shrinkage and creep behavior through various mechanisms, such as restraining volumetric change, causing excessive water absorption, while changing the mixture's elasticity and stiffness. Among the six models investigated in the current study, only two models directly consider aggregate content and size as inputs. The fine aggregate ratio and total aggregate content are the inputs specifically taken into consideration in the ACI 209 and B3 models, respectively. Focusing on binders, the properties of cement, including particle size distribution, setting time, and strength, play a pivotal role in the concrete's time-dependent properties. Except for the AASHTO model, all models directly take the type of cement into account, among which ACI 209 and B3 models consider the cement content as well. In addition to relative humidity, the temperature is an environmental stressor, mostly impacting the drying shrinkage behavior. The temperature effect is taken as input by the CEB, EC2, and fib models. The modulus of elasticity and specimen shape are specific inputs only considered in the B3 model. The ACI 209 model is the only model that takes into consideration the impact of air content.

Reviewing the number of inputs required for each model sheds light on the overall complexity and possible flexibility of that model. Among the six models investigated, the AASHTO model is the simplest model, requiring only six input parameters to predict both shrinkage and creep. The only input for the AASHTO model that represents the concrete mixture is the 28-day mean compressive strength. The CEB, EC2, and fib models require 8 inputs, among which only three inputs of 28-day mean compressive strength, cement type, and 28-day modulus of elasticity are linked to the concrete mixture. This still makes them seemingly simple models. The ACI 209 model utilizes 10 inputs to predict shrinkage and creep. This model includes 5 inputs related to the concrete mixture, i.e., slump, fine aggregate ratio, cement type, cement content, and air content. Lastly, the B3 model requires the most inputs, i.e., 12 inputs, including 6 inputs related to the concrete mixture, i.e., water content, 28-day mean compressive strength, total aggregate content, cement type, cement content, and 28-day mean modulus of elasticity. Concerning the number and variety of inputs that each model requires, it can be inferred that the ACI 209 and B3 models are the most robust models among the models considered.

#### *3.2. Model outputs*

The outputs of all the models are similar, as they all calculate shrinkage strain and creep compliance or creep coefficient as a function of time. Since creep compliance and creep coefficient are related, this does not constitute a significant difference between the models. The models also share some notable limitations with respect to their outputs. First, they predict a mean value for shrinkage strain. The drawback to this approach is disregarding the fact that shrinkage varies throughout the cross-section of a concrete member. This means that internal strains caused by differential shrinkage are not accounted for in the models. Another limitation shared by all the models is that their creep predictions are valid for relatively low stress levels, i.e., around 40% or less of the concrete compressive strength at the time of loading. Furthermore, the models predict creep only under a constant sustained load. Loads that vary with time are not captured by the discussed models.

In addition to predicting shrinkage and creep as a function of time, all the models, except for the AASTHO model, provide ultimate values of shrinkage and creep. Regarding shrinkage, only the CEB, EC2, and fib models break down the calculation of shrinkage into autogenous and drying shrinkage. For creep, only the B3 and fib models break down the calculation of creep into two components of basic creep and drying creep. Since all the models share certain limitations that can influence the accuracy of the predictions, the use of data-enabled prediction strategies is recommended. Such models take into consideration a range of inputs, especially those associated with mixture properties, and build on a set of testing and training to determine the variables that contribute the most. It should be noted that the current study covered investigations and side-by-side comparisons of six shrinkage and creep prediction models primarily utilized in the United States and Europe. There are, however, other capable prediction models available. Among them are the B4 model [\[43\]](#page-23-0), GL2000 model [\[44\],](#page-23-0) and JSCE model [\[45\].](#page-23-0) While the referenced models were not included in this study, they are worthy of consideration for the prediction of shrinkage and creep effects.

# **4. Data selection and model calibration**

There is an abundance of shrinkage and creep experiments that have been performed and published to date. Among them, this study utilized experimental test data from the NU-ITI database  $[41,42]$  to calibrate and analyze the introduced six models. This database, formerly known as the RILEM database, was established 40 years ago and currently hosts a suite of data from shrinkage and creep tests. Over its life, this database has been expanded in collaboration with the ACI, CEB, and RILEM and is now maintained by the Northwestern University Infrastructure Technology Institute. The expanded database hosts data for (approximately) 490 shrinkage tests and 620 creep tests, along with their supporting references [\[41,42\]](#page-23-0). The primary purpose of the referenced database is to evaluate prediction models, making it suitable for calibrating and comparing the models explored in the current study. Given the wealth of data available in the NU-ITI database, a set of selection criteria must be employed. For concrete mixtures, the current study focused on Class A concrete specified by AASHTO [\[36\]](#page-23-0). This concrete class was a suitable choice, as it is commonly used for a wide range of structural elements (with only a few exceptions, e.g., for concrete directly exposed to saltwater). Hence, this class is deemed as the most inclusive class of concrete, which can be made with any conventional cement (regardless of the source/origin). For curing, the datasets were selected from the concrete specimens that had been subjected to moist curing for at least two full days. For relative humidity, the selected experiments had been performed at a relative humidity of 50%−80% and at a constant temperature of around 20 degrees of Celsius.

A number of shrinkage and creep experiments were evaluated to ensure meeting the selection criteria, while providing appropriate statistical representations. The shrinkage models were investigated for unrestrained shrinkage by utilizing available experimental test data from the NU-ITI database. Ten experiments from the NU-ITI database were selected to calibrate the shrinkage models with experimental conditions presented in Table A.1. The average 28-day compressive strength of all selected specimens for shrinkage calibration and analysis was 4.88 ksi (33.7 MPa). The concrete's average age at the start of drying was 6.2 days. Additionally, all selected shrinkage experiments had been performed at a relative humidity of 65%. The creep models were also assessed for compressive creep by utilizing available experimental test data from the NU-ITI database. Twenty experiments from the NU-ITI database were selected to calibrate the creep models. The properties of each experiment selected are presented in Table A.2. The selected specimens for creep calibration and comparison had an average 28-day compressive strength of 4.86 ksi (33.5 MPa). The average age of the concrete at the start of loading was 22.6 days. The selected creep experiments had an average relative humidity of 57%. As the NU-ITI database does not report the concrete slump, which is needed for the ACI 209 model, a uniform slump of 3.5 in. (8.9 cm) was assumed for all the experiments considered.

The performance of each shrinkage and creep model was first investigated with no model calibration. Then, to further refine the outputs, a calibration approach was employed such that each model was calibrated to the data obtained from the NU-ITI database. This approach introduced 2 calibration factors for each model. Among the six models, only the ACI 209 model provided direct guidance for this type of calibration. To determine the calibration factors for shrinkage and creep models, the calibration process was performed to first adjust the long-term shrinkage/creep behavior and then the rate of shrinkage/creep development over time. For this purpose, a single factor was first applied to the ultimate value of shrinkage/creep strain in each model. This factor was adjusted for each model to best match the model to the experiments. For example, if a model was found to predominantly underestimate the shrinkage recorded in the experiments, this factor was set to a value higher than unity to improve the model. A second factor was then applied to the time development component of each model. This second factor modified the shape of the shrinkage/creep curve for each model. As an example, if the long-term predicted shrinkage/creep of a model closely matched that of the experiments but the rate of shrinkage/creep development differed notably, this factor was set to values different than unity to alter the rate at which shrinkage/creep development was predicted. The ACI 209 model had two well-defined, built-in coefficients that serve as this second factor. Similarly, in the EC2

<span id="page-12-0"></span>

**Fig. 1.** Performance of the six uncalibrated shrinkage models.

model, a calibration procedure was allowed, in which a parameter for the amplitude and a parameter for the kinetics can be adjusted for each component of shrinkage and creep. In this study, Eq. (43) was utilized as the main expression for the calibration process:

$$
Y = UX\beta(t - t_0)^T \tag{43}
$$

where *Y* is the calibrated value, *X* is the original value predicted by the model (uncalibrated), *U* is the ultimate calibration factor, *β* is the time development function included in each model, and *T* is the time development calibration factor. The required factors were calibrated such that each model had only one value for each factor that covered every experiment. Those values were obtained through an iterative approach to achieve the best match between the models and recorded test data. The following section provides the calibration factors and the prediction performance of the introduced shrinkage and creep models.

<span id="page-13-0"></span>

**Fig. 2.** Performance of the six uncalibrated creep models.

# **Table 14**  Performance of the uncalibrated shrinkage prediction models.



<span id="page-14-0"></span>Performance of the uncalibrated creep prediction models.





**Fig. 3.** Performance of the six calibrated shrinkage models.

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#### **Table 16**

#### Calibration factors and performance of the calibrated shrinkage prediction models.





Fig. 4. Comparison of the coefficient of determination  $(R^2)$  of the calibrated shrinkage prediction models in different time periods.

# **Table 17**  Residuals of the calibrated shrinkage prediction models.



# **5. Results and discussion**

### *5.1. Original uncalibrated models*

For each of the six models, data from the selected experiments were plotted against the predicted values of the original uncalibrated models. A graphical comparison of the uncalibrated shrinkage and creep models to data from the NU-ITI database is presented in [Figs. 1 and 2,](#page-12-0) respectively. A predicted data point perfectly matches the experimental value if it lands on the line with a slope of one beginning from the origin. Residuals were calculated for each point by subtracting the experimentally measured shrinkage values from the predicted values. When the residual value is positive, the model is overestimating, and when it is negative, the model is underestimating. The coefficient of determination  $(R^2)$  was also used to measure the performance of the models by quantifying the corre-lation between the predicted and recorded values for each model. [Tables 14 and 15](#page-13-0) present the  $R^2$  values and residuals in each of the six shrinkage and creep models, respectively. Considering the overall performance of the uncalibrated models in shrinkage and creep prediction, the ACI 209 model outperformed other models with the  $R^2$  values of 0.81 and 0.84 for the shrinkage and creep models, respectively. This superior performance can be attributed to the large variety and number of parameters (10 inputs), as well as the built-in tuning time-ratio constant included in the ACI 209 model.

#### *5.2. Calibrated shrinkage models*

Following the approach described in Section 4, each of the six models was calibrated and their performance was studied. A graphical comparison of the calibrated models (i.e., models with a single value for each calibration factor) to data from the NU-ITI database is presented in [Fig. 3.](#page-14-0) Table 16 presents the  $R^2$  values, residuals, and calibration factors for the ultimate shrinkage strain (*Ush*) and time development (*Tsh*) in each of the six model. Overall, The B3 and ACI 209 models were found to perform the best of all the

<span id="page-16-0"></span>

**Fig. 5.** Performance of the six calibrated creep models.

# **Table 18**  Calibration factors and performance of the calibrated creep prediction models.



<span id="page-17-0"></span>

 $\blacksquare$ AASHTO  $\blacksquare$ ACI  $\blacksquare$ B3  $\blacksquare$ CEB  $\blacksquare$ EC2  $\blacksquare$ fib

**Fig. 6.** Comparison of the coefficient of determination  $(R^2)$  of the calibrated creep prediction models in different time periods.

Table 19
Residuals of the calibrated creep prediction models.



shrinkage models with the  $R^2$  values of 0.89 and 0.86, respectively. This can be supported by the fact that these two models incorporate more parameters related to the concrete mixture, resulting in higher accuracy. On the other hand, the AAHTHO model had the lowest prediction accuracy with the  $R^2$  value equal to 0.77. Previous studies showed similar findings/trends for the original uncalibrated form of these prediction models. Therefore, it can be inferred that even the calibration of shrinkage rate and ultimate values cannot completely compensate for the shortage of model inputs, revealing the pivotal role of relevant input parameters in selecting appropriate models. Considering the residuals calculated for each model, it can be noted that the AASHTO, CEB, EC2, and fib models tend to overestimate the shrinkage strain values. The ACI 209 and B3 models, however, exhibited a more balanced distribution between the positive and negative residuals and were considered the best performing models.

Additionally,  $R^2$  and residual values were calculated over a set of time periods for each model. This allowed insights into how the models behave during just the early-age period or the long-term period of shrinkage. The early-age period considered was the first 30 days of a specimen being exposed to drying and the long-term period considered was any time after the first 90 days of being exposed to drying. As shown in [Fig. 4](#page-15-0), during the early-age and long-term periods, the B3 and ACI 209 models outperformed other models. This observation was consistent with their overall performance over the entire time. For the early-age period, which is crucial to shrinkage sensitive structures, all models except the CEB model, performed comparable to the B3 model with an average  $R^2$  value of 0.95, compared to the  $R^2$  value of 0.99 in the B3 model. Although the result obtained from the CEB model demonstrated a high  $R^2$  and balanced distribution between the positive and negative residuals in long term (*>* 90 days), it was observed that this model tends to overestimate the shrinkage strain in the first 30 days (as reflected in [Table 17](#page-15-0)), resulting in the lowest  $R^2$  at the early-age period. This can be associated with the fact that the CEB model predicted a higher shrinkage rate in the early stage than actual values. The lowest calibration factor for the rate of shrinkage (*Tsh*) corresponded to the CEB model [\(Table 16](#page-15-0)), justifying the need for applying a lower shrinkage rate to this model. As presented in [Table 17,](#page-15-0) the fib model mostly overestimated the shrinkage strain values in early stage (*<* 30 days). Overall, after the first 90 days of being exposed to drying, all the six models showed a more balanced distribution between the positive and negative residuals compared to that of the first 30 days.

# *5.3. Calibrated creep models*

Similar to shrinkage-related investigations, data from the selected creep experiments were plotted against the predicted values of the calibrated models (i.e., models with a single value for each calibration factor). A graphical comparison of the calibrated models to data from the NU-ITI database is presented in [Fig. 5](#page-16-0). As with the shrinkage model analysis, the  $R^2$  value was used to measure the performance of the models by quantifying the correlation between the predicted values and recorded values for each model. Residuals were also calculated for each point by subtracting the experimentally measured creep values from the predicted values. [Table 18](#page-16-0) presents the R<sup>2</sup> values, residuals, and calibration factors for the ultimate creep strain  $(U_{cr})$  and time development  $(T_{cr})$  in each of the six model. Overall, the performance of all calibrated creep prediction models was similar, having the  $R^2$  value in the range of 0.87–0.89.

<span id="page-18-0"></span>

**Fig. 7.** Comparison of the performance between the original (uncalibrated) and the calibrated shrinkage prediction models.

The calibration factors that influenced time development (*Tcr*) were found to barely differ from unity among the models. All calibrated models, except the AASHTO model, indicated almost a balanced distribution between the positive and negative residuals. Thus, it can be inferred that the calibrated creep prediction models provided higher accuracy and less dispersion compared to the shrinkage prediction models.

 $R^2$  and residual values were also calculated over various time periods for each model. The  $R^2$  values for each creep model are presented in [Fig. 6.](#page-17-0) Despite having similar overall  $R^2$ , creep predictive models show different performances in the early-age and longterm periods. The ACI 209 and AASHTO models exhibited almost the same accuracy at both early age and long term  $(R^2$  between 0.85



**Fig. 8.** Distribution of residuals for the original and calibrated shrinkage prediction models. Positive and negative values represent the percentage of overestimated and underestimated shrinkage effects, respectively.

and 0.89). However, over the early-age period, the AASHTO and ACI 209 models had a notably lower  $R^2$  values of 0.87 and 0.91, respectively, compared to the other models with the average  $R^2$  values approaching 0.95. It is important to note that the ACI 209 shrinkage model relies on slump as its only input regarding the concrete water content, making it the only model considered in this study that does not utilize the 28-day mean compressive strength to account for water content. Since this factor affects the magnitude and rate of shrinkage and creep, the constant slump of 3.5 in. (8.9 cm) assumed in the current study required the ACI 209 model to utilize the same water content for all the experiments, while the other models were able to consider the actual water contents recorded for each experiment. However, even with this situation, the ACI 209 shrinkage model compared reasonably well with the other models.

Apart from these two models, other models showed higher accuracy during the early-age period (i.e., first 30 days), achieving  $R^2$ values above 0.94. However, during the long-term period, they showed lower  $R<sup>2</sup>$  values compared to the early stage and overall performance. This can be associated with the fact that the early-stage creep strains are mainly affected by the creep rate, and all the studied creep models exhibited a close correlation with experimental creep rate values and did not require significant calibration. This is reflected in the  $T_{cr}$  calibration factors, which were found to be close to one [\(Table 18\)](#page-16-0). However, these creep models struggle with an accurate prediction of ultimate creep strain, which, in turn, adversely affects their long-term performance, despite the calibration factors introduced. As presented in [Table 19,](#page-17-0) all calibrated models, except the AASHTO and ACI 209 models, provided an almost balanced distribution between the positive and negative residuals in both early-age and long-term stages. The AASHTO and ACI 209 models, however, mostly underestimated the creep strain values in the early stage (*<* 30 days).

# *5.4. Improvements introduced by calibration factors*

Using the same database, the performance of the models calibrated in this study was compared to their original uncalibrated forms. [Fig. 7](#page-18-0) shows that the calibration approach used in this study enhanced the performance of the shrinkage prediction models and increased their  $R^2$  values. Specifically, the improvement was highest for the CEB model, increasing its  $R^2$  from 0.66 to 0.84 (i.e., 27%) growth). On average, the  $R^2$  value improved by 13% upon calibrating the shrinkage rate and its ultimate value. Comparing the original and calibrated models, the distribution of residuals was also evaluated, as shown in Fig. 8. It can be noted that the employed calibration approach decreased the tendency of all the models, except the CEB model, to either overestimate or underestimate the shrinkage strain values.

[Fig. 9](#page-20-0) shows the impact of calibration on the creep prediction models. Similar to the trend observed in the shrinkage prediction models, the calibration approach improved the performance of the creep prediction models and increased their  $R^2$  values. Specifically, it had the highest positive impact on the performance of the AASHTO model, increasing its  $R^2$  from 0.61 to 0.87 (i.e., 43% growth). On average, the  $R^2$  value increased by 19% upon calibrating the creep rate and its ultimate value. It must be highlighted that, although original creep models showed various performance levels with a broad range of  $R^2$  values (i.e., from 0.61 to 0.84), their calibrated forms exhibited almost similar accuracy. The original and calibrated models were also compared in terms of the distribution of re-siduals, as shown in [Fig. 10](#page-21-0). It can be observed that the employed calibration approach successfully decreased the tendency of all the models to either overestimate or underestimate the creep strain values. The calibrated creep models almost showed a balanced distribution between the positive and negative residuals.

## **6. Conclusions**

A set of shrinkage and creep models were systematically examined to determine their prediction capabilities and limitations. The investigated models included some of the most commonly used models, including AASHTO, ACI 209, B3, CEB, EC2, and fib models. All

<span id="page-20-0"></span>

**Fig. 9.** Comparison between the performance of the original (uncalibrated) and the calibrated creep prediction models.

these models share the same fundamental basis. Thus, the preference for using a specific model heavily relies on its accuracy and simplicity (especially if only limited input parameters are known/available). In the absence of any similar holistic study in the literature, the performance of each model was quantified in the current study by comparing the model outputs to the experimental test data from the NU-ITI shrinkage and creep database. Calibration factors were then introduced for each model to improve their performance. Based on this investigation, the following conclusions were drawn:

• Considering the overall performance of the uncalibrated models in shrinkage and creep prediction, the ACI 209 model was found to outperform the other five models. This performance can be attributed to the large variety and number of parameters (10 inputs), as well as the built-in tuning time-ratio constant included in the ACI 209 model.

<span id="page-21-0"></span>

**Fig. 10.** Distribution of residuals for the original and calibrated creep prediction models. Positive and negative values represent the percentage of overestimated and underestimated creep effects, respectively.

- The calibrated B3 and ACI 209 models were generally identified as the most performant models with the  $R^2$  values of 0.89 and 0.86, respectively. Furthermore, they exhibited a balanced distribution between the positive and negative residuals (overestimated and underestimated values). However, for the early-age period, which is crucial to shrinkage sensitive structures, all the other calibrated models, except the CEB model, performed similar to the B3 model with the average  $R^2$  value of 0.95, compared to the  $R^2$ value of 0.99 obtained for the B3 model.
- Concerning creep, the investigated calibrated models provided the  $R^2$  values in the range of 0.87–0.89, with no model lagging significantly behind the others. The calibration factors that influence time development were found to barely differ from unity among the models. All calibrated models, except the AASHTO model, indicated an almost balanced distribution between the positive and negative residuals. Overall, it can be inferred that the calibrated creep prediction models offer higher accuracy and less dispersion compared to the shrinkage prediction models.
- The calibration approach used in this study enhanced the performance of the shrinkage and creep prediction models by increasing their accuracy and decreasing their tendency to either overestimate or underestimate strain values. On average, the  $R<sup>2</sup>$  values increased by 13% and 19% upon calibrating the studied shrinkage and creep prediction models, respectively.
- Another factor to consider when selecting shrinkage and creep models is the simplicity of the models. Comparing the top two performant models, i.e., ACI 209 and B3, the former was clearly the simpler model. While maintaining the second-highest number of inputs, the ACI 209 model required fewer steps and simpler calculations compared to the B3 model, which had the highest number of inputs. In this regard, the ACI 209 model was found to be a well-suited model for the purpose of shrinkage and creep analyses in practical applications.

With a side-by-side review and comparison of various shrinkage and creep models, the outcome of this study offers fundamental and practical insights to properly select and utilize shrinkage and creep models, taking into consideration their key contributing factors for maximum accuracy.

# **Declaration of Competing Interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

## **Data Availability**

Data will be made available on request.

## **Acknowledgments**

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#### <span id="page-22-0"></span>**Appendix**

**Table A.1** 



Experiments selected from the NU-ITI to calibrate and compare the shrinkage models (w/c is the water-to-cement ratio, a/c is the aggregate-tocement ratio, and VS is the volume-to-surface ratio).

## **Table A.2**

Experiments selected from the NU-ITI database to calibrate and compare the creep models (w/c is the water-to-cement ratio, a/c is the aggregate-tocement ratio, and VS is the volume-to-surface ratio).



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