

Loss of prestress

1. loss due to Elastic shortening of concrete

المقدّمات فيه الم (لا يصح) في الكبدات بسبب الانضغاط المرن للخرسانة والمقدّمات

a) pre-tensioned concrete

1. يتم تقييد الكبدات على abutment أو stressing beds

2. يتم سحب الكبدات

3. يتم سحب الخرسانة

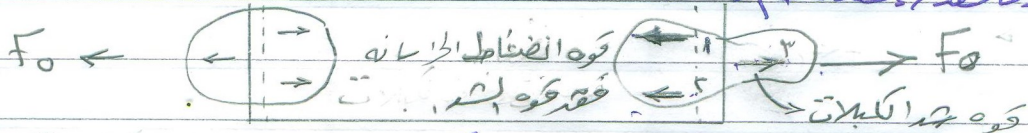
4. يتم حركتها إلى abutment أو stressing bed

5. تنقل قوة الضغط للخرسانة (من الكبدات إلى الخرسانة)

6. يحدث Elastic shortening للخرسانة

7. لا ينضغط الخرسانة بسبب الكبدات مع زيادة مقدار فقد قيمته لا يتعدى في الكبدات

يساوي مقدار انضغاط الخرسانة



1. قوة انضغاط الخرسانة عند الحد الأقصى والمقدّمات لا تنقل قوة الخرسانة

2. لا ينضغط الخرسانة بسبب الكبدات مع زيادة مقدار فقد قيمته لا يتعدى في الكبدات

3. قوة شد الكبدات

4. F_0 هو مقدار قوة شد الكبدات

$$\text{Strain } E = \frac{f_{\text{stress}}}{E \text{ modulus of elasticity}}$$

$$\text{Modular ratio } n = \frac{E_s}{E_c} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{modulus of elasticity of steel} \\ \text{modulus of elasticity of concrete} \end{array} \quad (6.5-5)$$

$$E_s = (6.5-5) E_c$$

- F_0 : final prestress force after shortening

- E_c : concrete strain due to axial prestress (F_0)

$$E_c = \frac{f_c}{E_c} = \frac{F_0}{A_c E_c}$$

$$- E_s : \text{steel strain} = \boxed{E_s = E_c} = \frac{F_0}{A_c E_c}$$

المقدّمات فيه الم

مقدار الانضغاط

Loss of prestress in steel

$$\Delta f_s = E_s \epsilon_s \leftarrow \text{elasticity}$$

Stress \leftarrow

Strain \leftarrow

$$= \frac{F_o E_s}{A_c E_c}$$

$$= n \frac{F_o}{A_c}$$

$$\text{Loss} = A f_s = n f_{co}$$

max allowable concrete stress C_{28}

- مقدار الانضغاط المرن (Elastic shortening) ليس مبدع

بعد ختم الاكتمال وابتدأ الاجهاد المرن سرياً كما في
المرحلة الثانية. يساوي مقدار القصر في الجهد المرن المكتسب

$$\text{مقدار الانضغاط} = \text{القصر في الجهد المرن}$$

مثال: إذا كانت الخرسانة المستعملة في جسر إيجي ذات
 إيجي ديسين = 12 = 12 كجم/سم²
 وكان إيجي ديسين الطوب ليكيدت = 10 كجم/سم²
 أصب عليه الفقد إيجي ديسين ليكيدت = 10 كجم/سم² (Elastic shortening)

الحل

assuming $n = 6$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ave } f_{co} &= \frac{1}{2} \max f_{co} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \times 12 = 6 \text{ Kg/cm}^2 \\ \text{Loss} = \Delta f_s &= n \cdot f_{co} \\ &= 6 \times 6 = 36 \text{ Kg/cm}^2 \end{aligned}$$

∴ مقدار الانقضا + إيجي ديسين (Elastic shortening) = الفقد إيجي ديسين

$$= 36 \text{ كجم/سم}^2$$

إذا كان إيجي ديسين ليكيدت = 10 كجم/سم²

(tensile strength) $f_s \max = 10,000 \text{ Kg/cm}^2$

$$\Delta f_s = \frac{36}{10,000} \times 100 = 3.6\%$$

مثال: إذا كانت الخرسانة المستعملة في جسر إيجي ذات إيجي ديسين = 12 = 12 كجم/سم²
 وكان إيجي ديسين الطوب ليكيدت = 10 كجم/سم²
 أصب عليه الفقد إيجي ديسين ليكيدت = 10 كجم/سم² Elastic shortening

الحل

assuming $n = 6$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ave } f_{co} &= \frac{1}{2} \max = 200 \text{ Kg/cm}^2 \\ \text{Loss} = \Delta f_s &= n \cdot f_{co} = 6 \times 200 = 1200 \text{ Kg/cm}^2 \\ \text{∴ مقدار الانقضا + إيجي ديسين (Elastic shortening)} &= \text{الفقد إيجي ديسين} \\ &= 1200 \text{ كجم/سم}^2 \\ \text{إذا كان إيجي ديسين ليكيدت} &= 15000 \text{ كجم/سم}^2 \\ \Delta f_s &= \frac{1200}{15000} \times 100 = 8\% \end{aligned}$$

b) post-tensioned concrete

بالنسبة الى post-tensioning فان هناك حركته
i) If we have only single tendon

1- لا يحدث فقدان في جهاز الشد ينتج من Elastic shortening وذلك
لأنه الكبل يكون مثبت على المراسم انه المجهوبه نفس
وسيم قيا من قوة الشد في الكبل بعد حدوث Elastic shortening

ii) If we have more than tendon

1- فانه فيه الضغط (prestress) ينتقل الى الخرسانه تدريجياً
وذلك بعد كبل تكونوا آخر
2- shortening of concrete يزيد تدريجياً وذلك بعد كبل تكونوا الآخر
3- بالتالي فان عليه الفقد في قوة الشد (loss) بالتالي من
Elastic shortening مختلف من كبل الى آخر.

4- أول كبل يتم شده : يتعرض الى أكبر قيمه فقدان في الشد من Elastic shortening
عبر باقي الكبلات

وذلك لأنه عند شد الكبل الثاني يتعرض الخرسانه الى ضغط
وذلك Elastic shortening وتسمى الكبل الأول معي مقدار الضغط - مقدار الفقد في
الشد في الكبل الأول

وكذلك في الكبل الثالث يتعرض الخرسانه الى ضغط
وذلك Elastic shortening وتسمى الكبل الأول والثاني معي (الضغط - الفقد
في الشد في الكبل الأول والثاني)
بالمثل باقي الكبلات (مثل pre-tensioned)

5- آخر كبل يتم شده : لا يتعرض الى فقدان في الشد من Elastic shortening

وذلك لأنه يتم قيا من قوة الشد في الكبل بعد حدوث
ال Elastic shortening (مثل single tendon)

6- حساب قيمه الفقد في الشد (loss) يعني حساب قيمه الفقد في الشد للكبل الأول فقط
تتم الفقد في الشد لها نصف من ضغط الفقد في باقي الكبلات

Example: Consider that the prestressing steel stress in post-tensioned member is 10 t/cm^2 and carried by 4 Cables which are tensioned one after another the ultimate compressive strength is 120 kg/cm^2 . Calculate loss due to Elastic shortening of concrete.

الـ : الفقد في الجهد في الكبل الأول وبقية الكبلات بعد توتره الأول
 يتم حساب متوسط الفقد في الجهد في الكبل الأول فقط

= نصف متوسط الفقد في باقي الكبلات

$$\text{ave } f_{co} = \frac{1}{2} \max f_{co} = 60 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

عدد الكبلات في الجهد

$$\text{Loss} = \Delta f_s = n f_{co}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (6 \times \frac{3}{4} \times 60) = 135 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

 الفقد في الجهد في الكبلات الباقية
 إذا كان الجهد في الكبلات = 1.5

$$f_{s \max} = 10,000 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

$$\Delta f_s = \frac{135}{10000} \times 100 = 1.35 \%$$

* عند التنفيذ يتم أخذ الطريقة
 لتقدير الجهد في الكبلات في لحظة الفقد في الجهد
 Elastic short - الفقد في الجهد

الأولى : إذا كان التجهيز يسرع بإجهال فيه متوسط الفقد في الجهد في الكبلات
 Elastic Shortening

يتم التجهيز في الجهد في الكبلات في لحظة الفقد في الجهد Initial specified prestress

التي : إذا كان التجهيز لا يسرع بإجهال فيه متوسط الفقد في الجهد في الكبلات E-s
 يتم إجهالها في لحظة الفقد في الجهد في الكبلات في لحظة التجهيز

يتم إجهالها في لحظة أكبر من لحظة التجهيز Initial specified prestress
 مقدار الفقد في الجهد عن Elastic shortening

$$10000 \text{ kg/cm}^2 + 135 \text{ kg/cm}^2 = 10135 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

2- Loss due to creep & shrinkage in concrete

١- قيمة الفقد في الجهد الناتج عن Creep = (١-٢) في الفقد

في الجهد الناتج عن Elastic shortening

٢- لا يتم بينهم أن الفقد في الجهد الناتج عن Creep لا يتم تعويضه

بشيء الفقد في الجهد الناتج عن Elastic shortening في

أن يوازن في post-tensioned members

٣- الفقد في الجهد الناتج عن Creep $\approx 0.7 - 1\%$

$$\Delta f_{s_{cr}} = (1-2) n f_{c0} \quad -٤$$

الفقد في الجهد الناتج عن الشد

Example :- Modular ratio $n = 6$

- Max allowable concrete stress = 120 kg/cm^2

- Prestressing steel stress = 10 t/cm^2

Req: Calculate loss due to creep in concrete

Solu :- $n = 6$

$$av f_{c0} = \frac{1}{2} \max f_{c0} = 60$$

$$\text{loss} = \Delta f_{s_{cr}} = (1-2) n f_{c0}$$

$$= 1.5 \times 6 \times 60 = 540 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

- إذا كان الجهد الناتج عن الشد = 10 t/cm^2

$$f_s = 10,000 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

$$\Delta f_{s_{cr}} = \frac{540}{10000} \times 100 = 5.4\%$$

معامله حساب القصر في الجدران الخرسانية Creep في الزمان

Coefficient of Creep : $C_{cr} = 2.5$

$$C_{cr} = \frac{\epsilon_t}{\epsilon_i}$$

الانفعال في الزمان عند التحميل المستمر ϵ_t : الانفعال في الزمان عند التحميل المؤقت ϵ_i

$$\Delta f_{s_{cr}} = (C_{cr} - 1) \frac{f_{co}}{E_c} \cdot E_s = (C_{cr} - 1) n f_{co}$$

Example: assuming $C_{cr} = 2.5$ $n = 6$ $f_{co} = 60 \text{ kg/cm}^2$

show : loss = $\Delta f_s = 1.5 \times 6 \times 60 = 540 \text{ kg/cm}^2$

Loss due to shrinkage in concrete

ϵ_{sh} : shortening strain due to shrinkage = 0.2 - 0.3 mm/m

$$\Delta f_{s_{sh}} = \epsilon_{sh} \times E_s$$

Example : - shrinkage strain = 0.3 mm/m

- Modulus of elasticity of steel = 2000 000 kg/cm²

- prestressing steel stress = 10 t/cm²

Req: Calculate loss due to shrinkage in concrete

show :

$$\epsilon_{sh} = 0.3 \text{ mm/m} \quad \& \quad E_s = 2000 \text{ 000 kg/cm}^2$$

$$\Delta f_{s_{sh}} = \epsilon_{sh} \times E_s$$

$$= \frac{0.3}{1000} \times 2000 \text{ 000} = 600 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

المقدار في 1000 = 1000

$$\Delta f_{s_{sh}} = \frac{6000}{10000} \times 100 = 6\%$$

3 - Loss due to Creep in steel

- ١- يفترض أن فيه الفقد في الشد العالي لم creep في الكبارت = ٣-٤ %
- ٢- يحكم أن تقل قيمة الفقد في الشد على كونها إذا تم
- ٣- زيادة قيمة الشد في الكبارت مع القيمة التصميمية بمقدار ٥-١٠ %
- ٤- إذا تم الشد خلال ٢-٣ دقائق

4. Loss due to Anchorage Take-Up

- ١- في معظم نظم شد الكبارت الـ Post-tensioning يتم تثبيت الكبارت بكامل حركته الشد التصميمية
- ٢- عند إصرار فدي الجاكات تستعمل حركه الشد الـ wedge (التي) وبالطبيعي لأن تجهيزات الـ wedge تتعرض لإجهادات ممتدة وتتحمل لشد كل ريشة في كفاي طفيف للكبارت
- ٣- وبالطبيعي فإن الـ Friction Wedges (جدا لا يمكن إبطاء) الشد الكبارت تتعرض لشد تحليله قبل أن يتم تثبيت الكبارت بالحكا
- ٤- حيث أن حركه الانزلاق قد تصل ٢-٣ مم
- ٥- ونقدر هذه الحركه على ٤ مم في الجلب ٥-٦ مم في الشد

طريقة حساب فيه الفقد في الشد نتيجة فدي الجاكات

Δa : Anchorage deformation

$$\Delta f_s = \frac{\Delta a E_s}{L}$$

Example: A post-tensioned concrete beam is with its span length 40 m & deformation of anchorage and slippage of wires estimated at = 0.5 cm & $E_s = 2000000 \text{ kg/cm}^2$

$$\text{slou: } \Delta f_s = \frac{\Delta a E_s}{L} = \frac{0.5 \times 2000000}{4000} = 250 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

يتمثل في

The loss of prestress for the entire length of a tendon can be considered from section to section, with each section consisting either a straight line or a simple circular curve. The reduced stress at the end of a segment can be used to compute the frictional loss in the next segment etc..

Since, for practically all prestressed concrete members, the angle α is small compared with the length, the projected length of tendon measured along the axis of the member can be used when computing frictional losses. Similarly, the angular change θ is given by the transverse deviation of the tendon divided by its projected length, both referred to the axis of the member.

Coefficients of Friction μ & k

Values of μ may be taken as :

0.55	for steel moving on concrete
0.30	" " " " steel
0.25	" " " " lead.

In circular construction where circumferential tendons are tensioned by means of jacks, the losses due to friction may be calculated from the formulae given before, but the values of μ may be taken as :

0.45	for steel moving on smooth concrete
0.25	" " " " steel bearers fixed to concrete
0.10	" " " " rollers.

Value of k per meter length should generally be taken as not more than $32 \times 10^{-4}/m$ length but where strong sheaths or duct formers are used closely supported so that they are not displaced during concreting operation, the value of k may be taken as 16×10^{-4}

Example :

A prestressed-concrete beam, Fig. IV-3, is continuous over 2 spans and its curved tendon is to be tensioned from both ends. Compute the percentage loss of prestress due to friction from one end to the centre of the beam (A to E). The coefficient of friction between the cable and the duct is taken as 0.4, and the average or length effect is represented by

$$k = 32 \times 10^{-4}/m$$

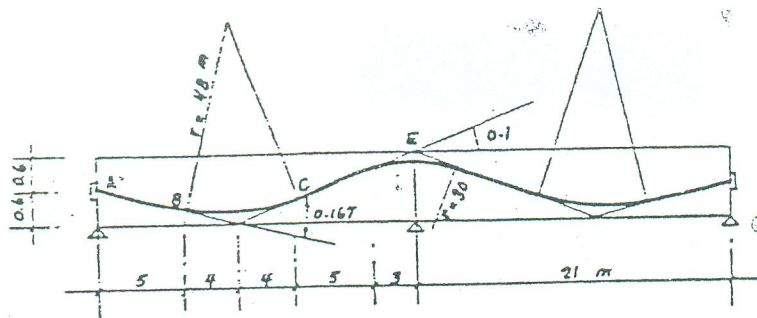


FIG. IV-3

Solution 1 : A simple approx. solution will 1st. be presented :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{F_A - F_E}{F_A} &= -kl - \mu\theta \\ &= -32 \times 10^{-4} \times 21 - 0.4 (0.167 + 0.1) \\ &= -0.067 - 0.107 = 0.174 \text{ i.e. loss} = 17.4\% \end{aligned}$$

Solution 2 : The above solution does not take into account the gradual reduction of stress from A toward E. A more exact solution would be to divide the tendon into 4 portions from A to E and consider each portion after the loss has been reduced from the preceding portions. Thus, for stress at A = F_1 ,

AB, length effect	$kl = 0.0032 \times 5 = 0.016$
Stress at B	$= 1 - 0.016 = 0.984 F_1$
BC, length effect	$kl = 0.0032 \times 8 = 0.026$
Curvature effect	$\mu\theta = 0.4 \times 0.167 = 0.067$
total	$0.026 + 0.067 = 0.093$

Using the reduced stress at B of 0.984,

the loss is $0.093 \times 0.984 = 0.091$

Stress at C $= 0.984 - 0.091 = 0.893 F_1$

CD, length effect	$kl = 0.0032 \times 5 = 0.016$
Using the reduced stress of 0.893 at C,	
the loss is	$0.016 \times 0.893 = 0.014$
Stress at D	$= 0.893 - 0.014 = 0.879 F_1$
DE, length effect	$kl = 0.0032 \times 3 = 0.010$
Curvature effect	$\mu\theta = 0.4 \times 0.1 = 0.040$
total	$= 0.01 + 0.04 = 0.050$
loss	$= 0.05 \times 0.879 = 0.044$

Stress at E $= 0.879 - 0.044 = 0.835 F_1$

The loss according to this method is slightly less than the approx. method.

6 Total Amount of Losses

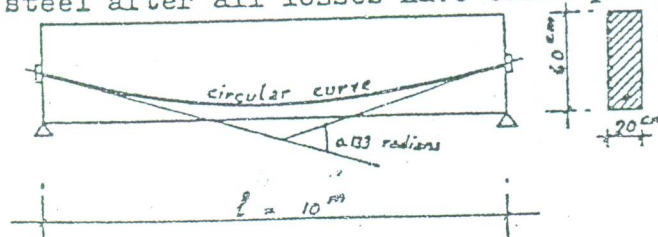
From the previous investigations we may conclude that for age steel and concrete properties, cured under average air conditions, the following tabulated percentages may be taken as representative of the average losses :

	<u>Pre-tensioning</u>	<u>Post-tensioning</u>
Elastic shortening	3	1
Creep of concrete	6	5
Shrinkage of concrete	7	6
Creep in steel	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>
Total loss	18 %	15 %

The table assumes that proper overtensioning has been applied to reduce creep in steel and to overcome friction and anchorage losses.

Example :

A post-tensioned concrete beam (fig. IV-4) with a cable of parallel wires (total steel area $7,2 \text{ cm}^2$) is tensioned with 2 wires at a time. The jacking stress is to be measured by jack gage pressure. The wires are to be stressed from one end to a value of f_2 so to overcome frictional loss, then released to a value of f_1 so that immediately after anchorage an initial prestress of 10 t/cm^2 would be obtained. Compute f_1 & f_2 . Then compute the final design stress in the steel after all losses have taken place.



Use the following : **FIG. IV-4**

Coeff. of friction $\mu = 0.55$ between steel and concrete

$k = 32 \times 10^{-4}$ for length effect.

Deformation of anchorage and slippage of wires estimated at 1.5 mm. $E_s = 2000 \text{ 000 kg/cm}^2$

Elastic shortening of concrete is to be computed for

$E_c = 100 \text{ 000 kg/cm}^2$

- 4) Creep coeff. of concrete $C_{cr} = 2.5$
- 5) Shrinkage of concrete $\epsilon_{sh} = 0.2 \text{ mm/m}$
- 6) Creep of steel $\approx 3\%$ of initial steel stress

Solution :

- 1) Loss due to friction :

$$\text{Length effect} = kl = 0.032 \times 10 = 0.032$$

$$\text{Curvature effect} = \mu \theta = 0.55 \times 0.133 = 0.072$$

$$\text{Total} = 0.032 + 0.072 = 0.104$$

Hence it is necessary to tension the steel to $f_1 = 10\,000 / (1 - 0.104)$
 $= 11\,160 \text{ kg/cm}^2$

at one end in order to overcome the friction and obtain a stress of $10\,000 \text{ kg/cm}^2$ at the unjacked end.

- 2) The anchorage slippage of $\Delta = 1.5 \text{ mm}$. occurs only on one end, since the unjacked end would have its slippage taking place before the release of jack.

$$\text{The loss is given by } \Delta f_s = \frac{a}{l} E_s = \frac{0.15 \times 2000\,000}{1000} = 300 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

Hence, by tensioning the steel to $f_1 = 11\,160 \text{ kg/cm}^2$ and then releasing it to $f_2 = 10\,300 \text{ kg/cm}^2$ for anchoring, the min. stress after anchorage will be $10\,000 \text{ kg/cm}^2$. This min. stress will occur at both ends of the beam.

- 3) Since the wires are tensioned two by two, the first pair will loose some stress due to the elastic shortening of concrete under the action of the subsequent 11 pairs, and the average amount of loss will be approx.

$$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{11}{12} \times \frac{10\,000 \times 7.2}{20 \times 60} \times \frac{2000\,000}{300\,000} = 183 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

- 4) The force F_0 in the steel is : $10 \times 7.2 = 72 \text{ tons}$
the corresponding elastic shortening is

$$\frac{72\,000}{20 \times 60 \times 300\,000} = 0.2 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$\text{Creep of concrete } (2.5 - 1) 0.2 \times 10^{-3} = 0.3 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$\text{Loss due to creep} = 0.3 \times 10^{-3} \times 2000\,000 = 600 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

5) For $\epsilon_{sh} = 0.2 \text{ mm/m}$

$$\text{Loss due to shrinkage} = 0.2 \times 10^{-3} \times 2000 \ 000 = 400 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

6) Creep of steel 3%

$$\text{Loss due to creep of steel} = 10 \ 000 \ 3/100 = 300 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

The total loss :

Elastic shortening	183
Creep of conc.	600
Shrinkage of conc.	400
Creep of steel	300
	<hr/>
	1483 kg/cm ²

Eventual loss of prestress $\approx 15 \%$

$$f = \frac{72000}{1200} + \frac{72000 \times 10}{12000} = -60 + 60 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

i.e. $f_{\text{top}} = -120$ and $f_{\text{bot}} = 0 \text{ kg/cm}^2$ same answers as before.

I-3 Classification and Types

Prestressed concrete structures can be classified in a number of ways depending upon their features of design and construction :

1) Pre-Tensioning & Post-Tensioning. The term pre-tensioning is used to describe any method of prestressing in which the tendons are tensioned before the concrete is placed. It is evident that the tendons must be temporarily anchored against some abutments or stressing beds when tensioned and the prestress transferred to the concrete after it has set. This procedure is employed in precasting plants or laboratories where permanent beds are provided for such tensioning; it is also applied in the field where abutments can be economically constructed. In contrast to pre-tensioning, post-tensioning is a method of pre-stressing which the tendon is tensioned after the concrete has hardened. Thus the prestressing is almost always performed against the hardened concrete, and the tendons are anchored against it immediately after prestressing. This method can be applied to members either precast or cast in place.

2) End Anchored or Non-End. Anchored Tendons. When post-tensioned, the tendons are anchored at their ends by means of mechanical devices to transmit the prestress to the concrete. Such a member is termed end-anchored. In pretensioning, the tendons generally have their prestress transmitted to the concrete by their bond action near the ends. The effectiveness of such stress transmission is limited to wires of small size.

3) Bonded or Unbonded Tendons. Bonded tendons denote those bonded throughout their length to the surrounding concrete. Nonend-anchored tendons are necessarily bonded ones; end-anchored tendons may be either bonded or unbonded to the concrete. In general, the bonding of post-tensioned tendons is accomplished by subsequent grouting; if unbonded, protection of the tendons from corrosion must be provided by galvanising, greasing, or some other means.

4) Partial or Full Prestressing: When a member is designed so that under the working load there are no tensile stresses in it, then the concrete is said to be fully prestressed. If some tensile stresses are produced in the member under working load, then it is termed

partially prestressed. For partial prestressing additional mild steel bars are frequently provided to re-inforce the portion under tension.

5) Precast, Cast-in-place, Composite Construction

Precasting permits better control in mass production and is of economical. Cast-in-place requires more form and falsework per unit product but saves the cost of transportation and erections; it is a necessity for large and heavy members. Often-times, it is economic to precast part of a member, erect it, and then cast the remaining portion in place. This procedure is called composite construction. The precast elements in a composite construction can be more easily jointed together than those in a totally precast structure. By this type of construction it is possible to save much of the form work required for cast in place construction.

I-4 Advantages of Prestressed Concrete as a Building Material

The most outstanding advantage of prestressed concrete is the possibility of the effective use of high strength concrete and steel producing concrete structural elements free from cracks.

In reinforced concrete, the concrete is effectively used only in the compression zone of the sections and high strength concrete cannot be fully utilized so long as we use low percentages of tension reinforcement. Even if it is possible to use high strength concrete, the sections will be smaller and the required reinforcement will be correspondingly bigger giving a more costly design. Furthermore, the use of high grade steels for the tension reinforcements is limited by the allowed width of cracks.

In prestressed concrete, the high tensile steel is freely stretched to any possible desirable amount and anchored against the concrete creating desirable strains and stresses which serve to eliminate or reduce cracks in concrete. Thus the entire section of the concrete becomes effective and the higher the strength of the concrete, the smaller is the section. Stronger concrete is also necessary to resist high stresses at the anchorages and to give strength to the thinner sections frequently employed for prestressed concrete.

Prestressed concretes free from cracks possess bigger elasticity bigger stiffness, higher resistance to external and climatic actions and bigger gas and water tightness.

By convenient prestressing, it is possible to eliminate or reduce inconvenient undesirable strains and stresses as will be shown in the

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owing cases in addition to what has been explained.

By prestressing the tie of an arch one can eliminate its elongation and thus undesirable bending moments in the arch.

The prestressing of the footing of a concrete surface of revolution (a dome or a cone) or the edge beam of a cylindrical shell, eliminates or reduces undesirable stresses and strains at the edges.

) Prestressing reduces the elastic and plastic deformations caused by shrinkage and creep of beams due to the negative deflections which take place at transfer under the action of dead loads.

) The use of curved or inclined tendons create upward forces which counterbalance a part of the downward dead and working loads and hence reduce the shearing forces in the beam. In addition, precompression in the concrete reduces the diagonal tension. Thus it is possible in prestressed concrete to use smaller webs and in many cases to dispense with most of the web reinforcements to carry the same amount of external shear in a beam.

Prestressed-concrete design is more suitable for structures of long span and those carrying heavy loads, principally because of the higher strengths of materials employed.

Prestressed structures are more slender due to smaller dimensions. They do not crack under working loads, and what ever cracks may be developed under over loads will be closed up as soon as the load is removed, unless the load is excessive. Under dead load the deflection is reduced, owing to the cambering effect of prestress. This becomes an important consideration for such structures as long cantilevers. Under live load, the deflection is also smaller because of the effectiveness of the entire uncracked concrete section, which has a much bigger moment of inertia than that of the cracked section. Prestressed elements are more adaptable to precasting because of the lighter weight.

In spite of the previous advantages, it has to be noted that stronger materials will have a higher unit cost. More auxiliary materials are required for prestressing, such as end anchorages, conduits and grouts. The price of the end anchorage per cable is fixed, hence, its cost per m decreases for longer cables. Prestressed concrete projects require more elaborate design and continual engineering supervision. Such over-head charges will decrease if the same typical design is repeated many times. The use of high strength wires is more economic than the use of normal mild and high grade steels because the rate of increase of the price is smaller than that of the strength.

From the above discussion, it can be concluded that prestressed concrete design is more likely to be economical when the same unit is repeated many times or when heavy loads are acting on long spans. Its application may also be suitable for pre-cast and semi-precast composite elements. The economy of each case must be considered individually.

Prestressed-concrete can however only be used by specialized designers and contractors having special pre-tensioning factories and experienced executing crew.

II - MATERIALS

The most effective use of prestressing can only be obtained if the concrete and the steel are of a very high quality.

II-1 Concrete

Special care shall be given to the properties of individual materials used for the production of concrete for structural members in prestressed concrete and their effect on such properties of concrete as compressive strength, modulus of elasticity, shrinkage, creep and bond. The aim shall be produce high quality concrete not only for the sake of obtaining higher crushing strength but also in order to avoid serious reductions in the prestressing force. High quality concrete can be achieved through careful selection of aggregates, suitable granular composition, use of low water cement ratio, the eventual addition of convenient admixtures, sufficient cement content and through proper mixing compaction and curing.

The minimum cement content for prestressed concrete work shall be 350 kg. per m^3 of finished concrete. The cement content shall preferably be within 500 kg/m^3 . In no case shall it exceed 600 kg/m^3 .

The expected crushing strength of the different mixes may be :

Cement dose	350	400	450	500	kg/m^3
Strength f_{c28}	300	400	500	600	kg/cm^2

For pre-tensioned concrete min.

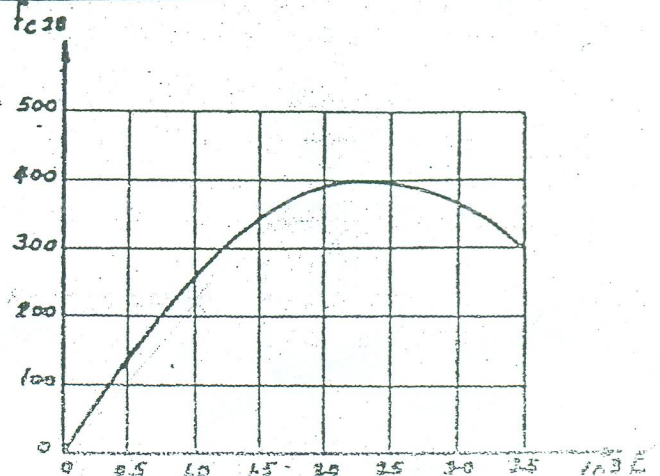
$$f_{c28} = 400 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

For post-tensioned concrete min.

$$f_{c28} = 300 \text{ kg/cm}^2$$

The stress-strain relation for a C400 concrete (i.e concrete with a minimum crushing strength of 400 kg/cm^2 at 28 days) is shown in figure II-1.

The modulus of elasticity



and the modular ratio $n = E_s / E_c$ for the different concrete qualities may be assumed as follows :

strength	f_{c28}	300	400	500	600 kg/cm^2
"	f_{cp}	240	310	380	450 " "
of elasticity	E_c	300	340	370	400 t/cm^2
ratio n		6.5	6	5.5	5

← ۱.۸، ۱.۶، ۱.۵

← حاصل البرزخه

elastic strain of concrete ϵ_c

$$\epsilon_c = f_c / E_c$$

even values of E_c may be used for $f_c \leq 0.3$ to $0.4 f_{c28}$

age strain ϵ_{sh}

for purposes of design, the shrinkage strain ϵ_{sh} may be assumed as

$$\epsilon_{sh} = 0.20 \text{ to } 0.30 \text{ mm/m}$$

ϵ_{cr} and coefficient of creep C_{cr}

The term coefficient of creep C_{cr} is employed to indicate the ratio of the strain ϵ_t after a lengthy period of constant stress to the instantaneous strain ϵ_i immediately obtained at the application of stress. Hence

$$C_{cr} = \epsilon_t / \epsilon_i$$

For purposes of design it is considered safe to take C_{cr} around 3. For post-tensioned members, where the prestress is applied late, the coefficient could be a little less, for pre-tensioned members, where prestress is applied at an early age, the coefficient could be a little more.

For a creep coefficient of 3, the amount of creep strain is two times the instantaneous elastic strain. Of this, two, it can be rough-estimated that about 1/4 takes place within the first two weeks, after application of prestress, another 1/4 within 2 to 3 months, another 1/4 within a year or two, and last 1/4 within the course of many years.

Expansive Cement

Types of cement that expand chemically after setting and during drying are known as expansive or self-stressing cements. When these are used to make concrete with embedded steel, the steel is

elongated by the expansion of the concrete. Thus the steel is prestressed in tension, which in turn produces compressive prestress in the concrete, resulting in what is known as chemical prestressing or self stressed concrete.

When concrete made with expanding cement is unstrained, the amount of expansion produced by the chemical reaction between the cement and water amount to 30-50 mm/m and the concrete would then disintegrate by itself. When restrained either internally or externally with steel or other means, the amount of expansion can be controlled.

When high-tensile steel is used to produce the prestress, say corresponding to tensile stress at 10 t/cm^2 and an $E_s = 2000 \text{ t/cm}^2$, an expansion of

$$\frac{10}{2000} = \frac{5}{1000} = 5 \text{ mm/m}$$

is required. For other stress levels, varying amounts of expansion will be required.

Because of the expansion in all three directions, it seems difficult to use this cement for complicated structures cast in place, such as buildings.

Expanding cement has been successfully applied for many interesting projects, especially in France. However, many problems concerning the use of expanding cement for self-stressing such as the exact control of the stresses and strains are still unsolved but its extensive application in the near future is expected.

II-3 Steel

The steel to be used for the prestressing members shall be one of the 2 types described below :

- a) Hard drawn wire of an ultimate strength not less than 15 t/cm^2 supplied in coils as given in the following table :

ϕ of wire m/m	Ultimate Strength t/cm^2	Min. diam. of Coil cm.
7 - 5	15 - 16	180
4 - 3	18 - 20	150
2 - 1	22 - 24	90

If diam. of coil is smaller, the wires must be mechanically straightened.

- b) Silicon chrome or other alloy steel of an ultimate strength of at

st 10 t/cm².

of stress : If the steel has no definite yield point as is general-
the case for hard drawn wires, the proof stress shall be assumed as
tensile stress producing a permanent elongation of 0.2%. The proof
stress shall not be less than 80% of the ultimate tensile strength.

The min. elongation at rupture: For hard drawn wires 4% in a 25 cm
gauge and for high strength steel alloy bars 4% in a gauge of 20 diam-
eters. Wires and bars used for prestressing shall not be spliced by
welding. The stress-strain relation for hard drawn wires is shown in
Figure II-2.

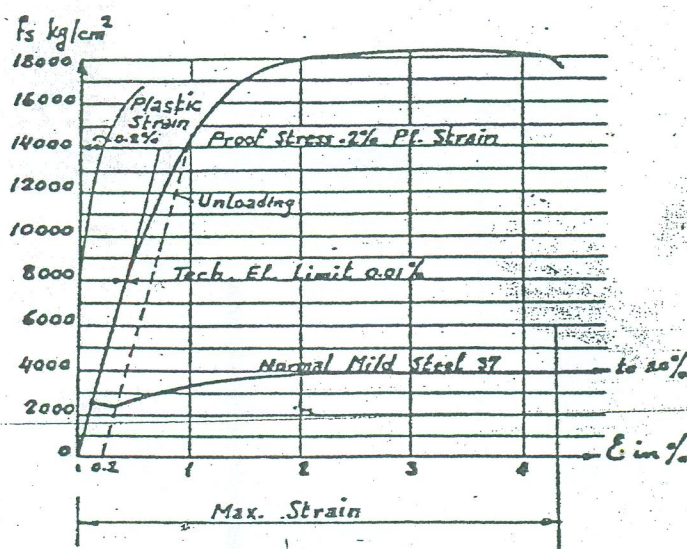


FIG. II-2

Creep of Steel

Creep of steel due to normal prestressing forces may be assumed
design purposes between 3 & 4%. While creep in steel is a func-
tion of time, there is evidence to show that under the ordinary work-
stress for high-tensile steel, creep takes place mostly during the
first few days. Under constant strain, creep ceases entirely after
about 2 weeks. If the steel is stressed to a few per cent above its
initial prestress and the overstress is maintained for a few minutes,
eventual creep can be greatly lessened, and it practically stops
within 3 days.

Fiberglass Tendons

Fiberglass is manufactured by drawing fluid glass into fine fila-
ments. Although this new material has not yet been commercially appli-
ed in prestressed-concrete construction, it has been proved by tests
that it possesses certain superior qualities that indicate high promise

for prestressing. An Ultimate tensile strength of 70 t/cm^2 is quite commonly obtained. Values as high as 350 t/cm^2 have been reached for individual silica fibers 0.0003 mm. in diameter, it being known that the strength varies approximately inversely as the diameter of the fiber.

Fiberglass can be made in three formes: parallel chords, twisted strands and parallel fibers embedded in plastic. The last form in the shape of fiberglass rods is considered most suitable for prestressing because of its relative simplicity for handling, gripping and anchoring. As bonding agent in the manufacture of fiberglass rods, epoxy resin has proved to be superior. Their tensile strength is generally $> 16 \text{ t/cm}^2$ based on the gross area of the rod.

Another advantage of fiberglass is its low modulus of elasticity which ranges between 450 and 750 t/cm^2 . With its high strength and low modulus, the percentage of loss of prestress would be quite small. Other advantages claimed for this material are high resistance to acids and alkalies and the ability to withstand high temperature. However some major problems must be solved before its commercial use in practice such as : its long-time ultimate strength, its dynamic fatigue, the best method of fabricating chords giving an even distribution of stress and the design of suitable end anchorages protecting the brittle fiberglass rods from failing in the grip under the effect of stress concentrations and combined stresses.

II-5 Grout

Steel installed in holes or flexible metal tubes cast in the concrete shall be bonded, in which case the annular space between the perimeter of the hole or tube and the steel shall be pressure grouted after the prestressing process has been completed. The grout shall be made to the consistency of thick paint and shall be mixed in the proportions, by volume, of one part portland cement to 0.75 part (max.) of sand and 0.75 part (max.) of water. It may be necessary to eliminate the sand from the mix and use neat cement grout.

II-6 Sheathing

Sheathing is used when the cables are put in the form and concrete is cast around them. The sheathing shall be metallic and completely water tight specially at joints so that fine concrete mortar cannot penetrate and hinder the free movement of the wires. Sheaths shall be strong enough to maintain their shape against the forces due to handling, placing and compaction of concrete and eventual rust effect. The dimensions of the sheath must permit the easy flow of grout around

III - P R E S T R E S S I N G S Y S T E M S

- 1 Pre-tensioning System

A simple way of stressing a pre-tensioned member is to pull the tendons between two bulkheads anchored against the ends of a stressing bed. The forms are there erected around the tensioned tendons and the concrete is poured and well compacted, effectively by the use of vibrators. After the concrete hardens, the tendons are cut off from the bulkheads and the prestress is transferred to the concrete by bond. Such stressing beds are often used in laboratories and prestressing factories.

The dependence on bond to transmit prestress between steel and concrete necessitates the use of small wires to ensure good anchorage.

Wires greater than about 3mm. diameter are to be used only if they are waved along their length or if they are corrugated. In any case, a certain length of transfer is required to develop the bond. If there be insufficient length of transfer, for example, when cracks occur near the end of a beam, the bond may be broken and the wires may slip. A more reliable method is to add mechanical end anchorages to the pre-tensioned wires.

- 2 Post-tensioning System

The methods used for post-tensioning can be classified under three main groups: 1) mechanical prestressing by means of jacks ; 2) electrical prestressing by application of heat ; 3) chemical prestressing by the use of expanding cement.

Mechanical Prestressing :

In both pre-tensioning and post-tensioning, the most common method for stressing the tendons is jacking. In post-tensioning, jacks are used to pull the steel against the hardened concrete as shown in Fig. I-1, in pre-tensioning, to pull it against some bulkheads or forms. Hydraulic jacks are often used, because of their high capacity and the relatively small force required to apply the prestress.

Pressure gauges for jacks are calibrated either to read the pressure on the piston or to read directly the amount of tension applied to the tendon. It is usual practice to measure the elongation of steel to be checked against the gauge indications.

In order to minimize creep in steel and also to reduce frictional loss of prestress, tendons are sometimes jacked a few per cent above their specified initial prestress. Over-jacking is also necessary to compensate for slippage and take-up in the anchorage at the release of jacking pressure. When tendons are long or appreciably curved, jacking should be done from two ends.

2) Electrical Prestressing :

The electrical method of prestressing dispenses with the use of jacks altogether. The steel is lengthened by heating with electricity. This electrical process is a post-tensioning method where the concrete is allowed to harden fully before the applications of prestress. It employs smooth reinforcing bars coated with thermoplastic material such as sulfur or low - melting alloys and buried in the concrete like ordinary reinforcing bars but with protruding threaded ends. After the concrete has set, an electric current of low voltage but high amperage is passed through the bars. When the steel bars heat and elongate, the nuts or the protruding ends are tightened against heavy washers. When the bars cool, the prestress is developed and the bond is restored by the resolidification of the coating.

However, this method has been found to be uneconomical in competition with prestressing using high tensile steel although it has found wide usage in the U.S.S.R. in pretensioning.

3) Chemical Prestressing :

As described previously, the chemical reactions which take place in expensive cements can stress the embedded steel which in turn compresses the concrete. This is often termed self-stressing, but can also be termed chemical prestressing (Refer to section II-2).