

1 **Scientific paper**

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3 **Microscopic and Macroscopic Physical Properties of Meta-chert**

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6 Koki Maekawa¹, Wei Wang², Hamza Samouh³, Shunsuke Ishikawa⁴, Osamu Kontani⁵,
7 Takahiro Ohkubo⁶, Kenta Murakami⁷, Kiyoteru Suzuki⁸, Ippei Maruyama^{9,10*}

8
9 ¹ Master Student, Graduate School of Environmental Studies, Nagoya University, Nagoya,
10 Japan.

11 ² Project appointed researcher, Graduate School of Engineering, The University of Tokyo,
12 Tokyo, Japan.

13 ³Project appointed researcher, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University
14 of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

15 ⁴ Engineer, Nuclear Power Department, Kajima Corporation, Tokyo, Japan.

16 ⁵ Principal Engineer, Nuclear Power Department, Kajima Corporation, Tokyo, Japan.

17 ⁶ Assoc. Prof., Graduate School of Engineering, Chiba University, Chiba, Japan.

18 ⁷ Assoc. Prof., Graduate School of Engineering, The University of Tokyo, Toyo, Japan.

19 ⁸ Research director, Societal Safety and Industrial Innovation Division, Mitsubishi Research
20 Institute, Inc., Tokyo, Japan.

21 ⁹ Professor, Graduate School of Environmental Studies, Nagoya University, Nagoya, Japan.

22 ¹⁰ Professor, Graduate School of Environmental Studies, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan.

23 *Corresponding author, *E-mail*: i.maruyama@bme.arch.t.u-tokyo.ac.jp

24
25 **Abstract**

26 Herein, to determine the methods of obtaining various properties of aggregates, quartz-rich
27 quartzite is selected, two types of different regions in aggregate, a region (white region) where
28 quartz grains are densely compacted and another region (gray region) where quartz grains are
29 secondarily formed coarsely, are tested for the linear expansion coefficient, and the tensile
30 strength and Young's modulus. The microscopic data were compared with macroscopic data.
31 Young's modulus is not significantly different between that of macroscopic compression and
32 that of microscopic tension loading in the white region. Macroscopic splitting tensile strength
33 shows bimodal behavior due to the failure mechanisms dominated by two different regions,
34 which was experimentally confirmed by the data of the microscopic direct tensile loading test.
35 The coefficients of thermal expansion of the macroscopic test are similar to that of the
36 microscopic experiment for the white region, which is well reflected by the nature of quartz, on
37 the contrary, the microscopic coefficient of thermal expansion of the gray region shows
38 completely different behavior.

39 **Keywords:** Digital image correlation method; Coefficient of thermal expansion; Aggregate;
40 Direct tensile test; Natural fracture.

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Nuclear power supply is defined as an important base-load electricity that is unable to
44 utilize renewable energy efficiently (Ministry of energy trade and industry of Japan 2021); the
45 long-term operation of nuclear power plants is one of the options for Japan's energy strategy.
46 Therefore, aging management of concrete structures in nuclear power plants is a major research
47 area. Concrete structural members in nuclear power plants are difficult to replace or incur
48 considerable replacement cost; hence, evaluation methods for the soundness of concrete
49 members in the current as well as in the future states are crucial. Neutron and gamma-ray
50 irradiation environments are among the characteristic environments in nuclear power plants,
51 and the impact of neutrons and gamma rays on concrete members is of concern (Kontani *et al.*
52 2010).

53 Previous studies have elucidated that neutron irradiation-induced volume expansion of
54 rock-forming minerals in aggregates has a large influence on concrete degradation; additionally,
55 the mechanical properties of concrete deterioration with no restraint state were well correlated
56 with the expansion of the concrete (Elleuch *et al.* 1972; Hilsdorf *et al.* 1978; Maruyama *et al.*
57 2017). Therefore, the volume change in rock-forming minerals, as an input for the evaluation
58 of concrete expansion due to radiation-induced volume expansion (RIVE), (Simon 1957;
59 Primak 1958; Bates *et al.* 1974; Bykov *et al.* 1981; Douillard and Duraud 1996; Yuan *et al.*
60 2001; Mota *et al.* 2005; Denisov *et al.* 2012; Wang *et al.* 2015; Hsiao *et al.* 2017; Krishnan,
61 Wang, Le Pape, *et al.* 2017; Krishnan, Wang, Yu, *et al.* 2017; Silva *et al.* 2018, 2022; Le Pape
62 *et al.* 2020; Okada *et al.* 2020) as well as crack behavior through mineral grains and inter-grain
63 boundaries (Elleuch *et al.* 1972; Hilsdorf *et al.* 1978; Denisov *et al.* 2012; Maruyama *et al.*
64 2017; Khmurovska and Štemberk 2021a, 2021b) are critical issues. However, data on aggregate
65 properties at the scale of grains are scarce; this contributes to the development of constitutive
66 laws for numerical calculations as well as validation of calculation results. Therefore, tensile
67 and thermal expansion tests were conducted at the microscope scale.

68 In this study, meta-chert samples irradiated by neutrons and/or gamma rays elsewhere were
69 tested to provide microscope-scale information under the conditions of heating and tensile
70 loading.

72 **2. Materials and methods**

73 **2.1 Materials**

74 The rock used in this study was obtained from the Aichi Prefecture, Japan. The mineral
75 composition identified by powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) and the chemical composition
76 measured by X-ray fluorescence-based oxide composition are summarized in Table 1 and
77 Table 2, respectively.

78 Based on a geological survey, the rock was identified as a meta-chert, whereas in our
79 previous study (Maruyama *et al.* 2017), it was called a thermally altered tuff. In the following

80 experiment, except for the compressive loading test, the specimens were obtained from a lump
 81 of this rock.

82
 83 **Table 1 Mineral composition (mass %) (Maruyama *et al.* 2017)**

Mineral	Quartz	Albite	Anorthite	Anorthoclase	Orthoclase	Microcline	Biotite	Chlorite	Total
Mass %	91.85	0.77	2.3	0.61	0.5	3.03	0.44	0.5	100
1 σ	1.92	0.21	0.58	0.4	0.4	0.63	0.7	0.27	

84
 85 **Table 2 Chemical composition (mass %) (Maruyama *et al.* 2017)**

LOI	Chemical composition											
	SiO ₂	Al ₂ O ₃	Fe ₂ O ₃	CaO	MgO	SO ₃	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	TiO ₂	P ₂ O ₅	MnO	Total
0.93	86.99	5.09	2.25	0.68	0.98	0.69	0.49	1.25	0.24	0.1	0.17	99.86

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 87 **2.2 Macroscopic compression loading test**

88 Specimens with a size of $\varnothing 45$ mm \times 90 mm cut from aggregates were used for compression
 89 test employing a universal testing machine (Matest, E161N). To confirm the accuracy of the
 90 testing machine, the standard test specimen was used for a trial in advance, and the results had
 91 a margin of error of $\pm 2.5\%$. Subsequently, the compressive strength and compressive Young's
 92 modulus were measured at a rate of 0.6 MPa/s for each specimen. Each reported value is the
 93 average of five replicates. Part of this experiment has been reported elsewhere (Maruyama *et*
 94 *al.* 2017).

95
 96 **2.3 Macroscopic splitting tensile strength test (Brazilian test)**

97 Specimens with a size of $\varnothing 12$ mm \times 2 mm drilled and cut from aggregate lump were used
 98 for splitting tensile test loaded via a universal testing machine (Imada Seisakusyo, SV 201NA
 99 SH). The loading procedure was as follows. First, 20 N was loaded as an initial load to stabilize
 100 the disk specimen; subsequently, additional load was loaded at a rate of 0.6 MPa/s until the
 101 maximum load was achieved. The disk diameter and thickness were measured using a
 102 micrometer with a precision of 0.001 mm, and the splitting tensile strength of the specimens
 103 was calculated. Ten specimens were tested.

104
 105 **2.4 Microscopic tensile loading test**

106 The tensile Young's modulus, tensile strength, and stress–strain behavior of very small
 107 aggregates that do not contain large faults or cracks were conducted on tiny specimens (2×10
 108 $\times 0.5$ mm³). The tiny specimens were fabricated by core-drilling from a lump of rock with a
 109 diameter of 15 mm and then cut into rectangular shapes (2 mm \times 10 mm) with a thickness of
 110 approximately 5 mm using a low-speed precision cutter (IsoMet, BUEHLER). Finally, tiny
 111 specimens (0.5-mm thickness) were obtained after polishing (#400, #1000, #2000, and #3000
 112 grade). To control the cracking position during the loading experiment, notches (approximately

113 0.5 mm) were placed at the center of the specimens, as shown in Fig. 1. As there are two
114 different regions (gray and white) in the meta-chert rock, as shown in Fig. 2, which might
115 comprise minerals of different sizes, the specimens used for the tensile test were prepared based
116 on the two regions separately. The dimensions of each specimen were measured using an image
117 dimension measurement system (IM-8000, EYENCE Co.; precision: 0.1 μm), whereas the
118 thickness of each specimen was measured using a micrometer (Mitutoyo, MDC-25SX;
119 precision: 1 μm).

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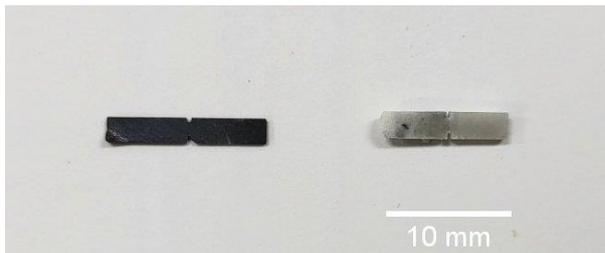


Fig. 1 Specimens for tensile loading

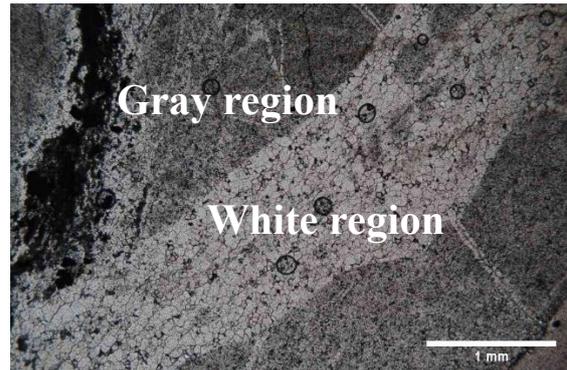
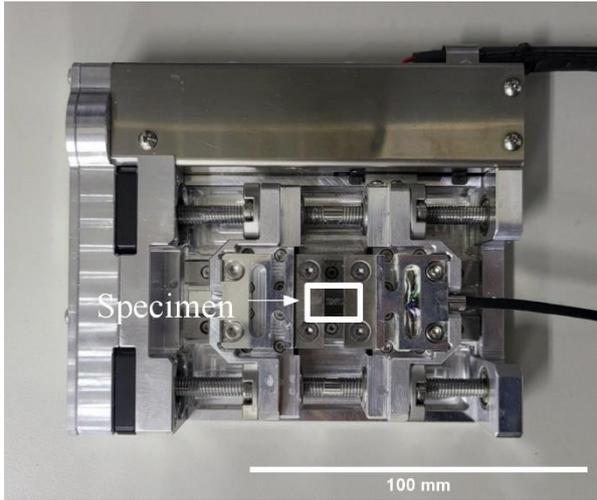


Fig. 2 Two distinct regions in aggregate

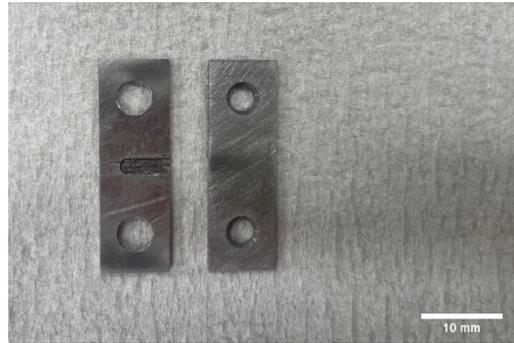
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122 A micro-tension-compression testing device (Sanko, ISL-T3000) was used to conduct the
123 tensile test (Fig. 3(a)). Both ends of the specimen were fixed using two newly designed jigs
124 (Fig. 3(b)) and glue, and both jigs were attached to an actuator and a load cell. As the tensile
125 behavior of the rock is dependent on the loading rate (Wu *et al.* 2015), the actuator of the device
126 was set to the lowest speed (5 rpm) with a constant displacement rate of 2 $\mu\text{m/s}$ to capture the
127 micro-behavior of the aggregate. The corresponding value of the load cell was recorded every
128 200 ms, and the stress in the specimen was calculated by dividing the load by the cross-sectional
129 area. Before formal loading, an initial compressive load (0.5 MPa) and tensile load (1.5 MPa)
130 were applied to the specimens to ensure that they were placed well.

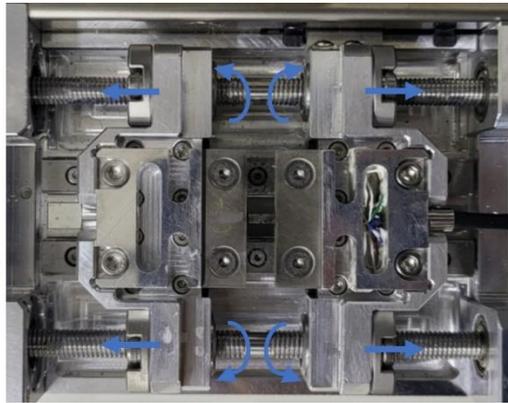
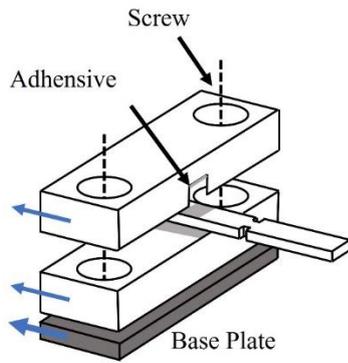
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(a) Micro-tension-compression device with the specimen



(b) Newly designed jigs for rock specimen



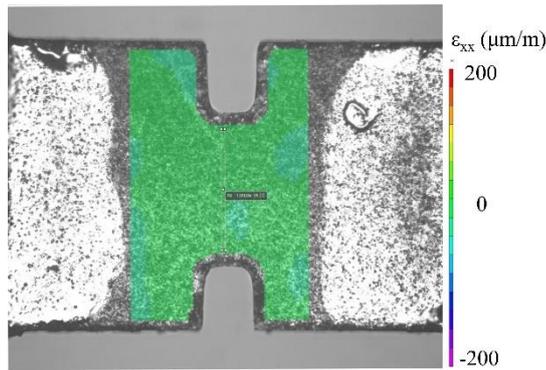
(c) Schematic of test apparatus



(d) Overall set-up of tensile loading experiment
 Fig. 3 Tensile test of tiny aggregate specimens

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134 Because the deformation of the adhesive glue between the jig and specimen was large, the
 135 deformation obtained from the displacement sensors would be imprecise. Therefore, the digital
 136 image correlation method (DICM) was used with a charge-coupled device camera (GS3-U3-
 137 51S, FLIR, resolution: 5M pixels) installed on the microscope. The exposure time was 7 ms for
 138 each image, and the interval was consistent with the loading measurement time (200 ms). The
 139 total number of images per loading test was approximately 1000. The software Vic-2D
 140 (Correlated Solutions Inc.) was used to analyze the images. Fig. 4 shows the target analysis
 141 area, which is green in the picture, and the detailed setting is summarized in Table 3.
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143 Fig. 4 Target area of DICM in the specimen
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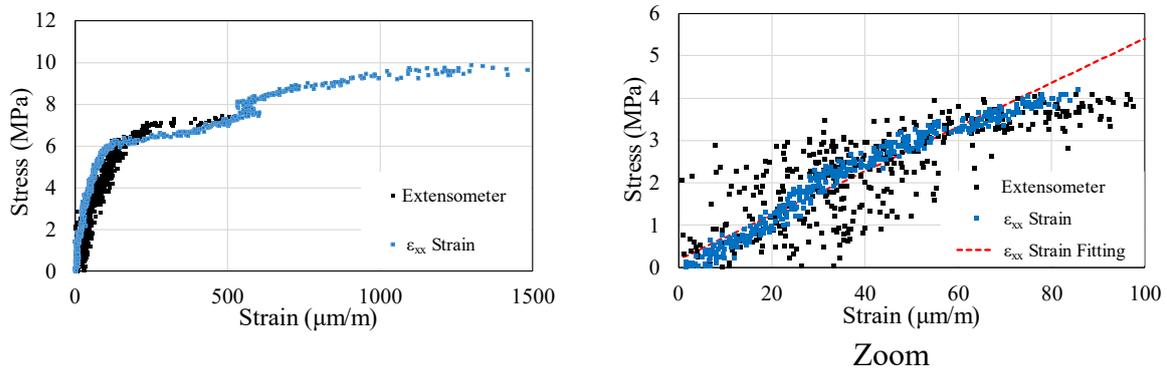
145 Table 3 Setting parameters used in DICM
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Subset	89
Steps	24
Subset weights	Gaussian weights
Interpolation	Optimized 6-tap
Criterion	Normalized squared differences
Exhaustive search	On
Consistency threshold maximum margin	0.02 pixel
Confidence margin maximum margin	0.02 pixel
Matchability threshold maximum margin	0.10 pixel

147 Several methods can be used to calculate the strain from DICM. To precisely obtain the
 148 strain, a comparison was made between the ϵ_{xx} strain and extensometer methods. The ϵ_{xx} -
 149 strain method uses the average strain value parallel to the loading direction for all pixels in the
 150 selected area, whereas the extensometer method uses the average calculated value of the
 151 displacement between two points in 17 vertically divided parts of the same selected area. As
 152 shown in Fig. 5, although the overall stress–strain relation exhibits a similar trend in both cases,
 153 the ϵ_{xx} strain is more convergent and can be fitted well within the elastic range. Therefore, the
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155 ϵ_{xx} strain was used in this study.

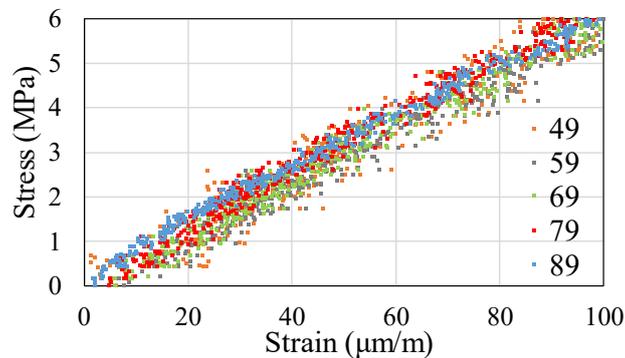
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157 Fig. 5 Comparison between ϵ_{xx} strain and extensometer

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159 In addition, to determine the value of the subset, the strain was calculated with subsets 49,
160 59, 69, 79 and 89, and the corresponding stress–strain curves are shown in Fig. 6. As the stress–
161 strain curve with subset 89 converged sufficiently to confirm linearity, this value was used in
162 the following analysis. Furthermore, the strains with large deviations were removed using a
163 median filter. Based on the obtained stress–strain curves, the Young’s modulus of the specimens
164 was calculated through linear approximation fitting of the curves within the elastic range (<50
165 μm).



166 Fig. 6 Stress–strain curves with different subsets

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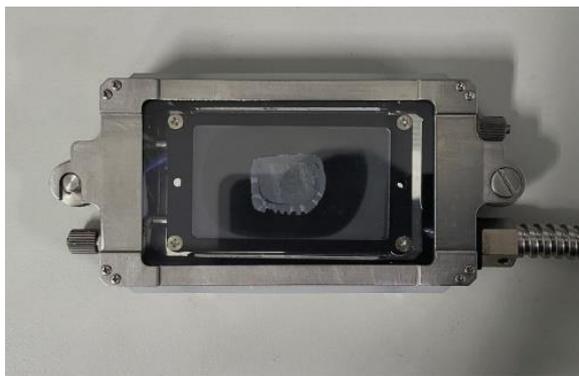
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169 2.5 Macro- and micro-scale measurements of the coefficient of thermal expansion

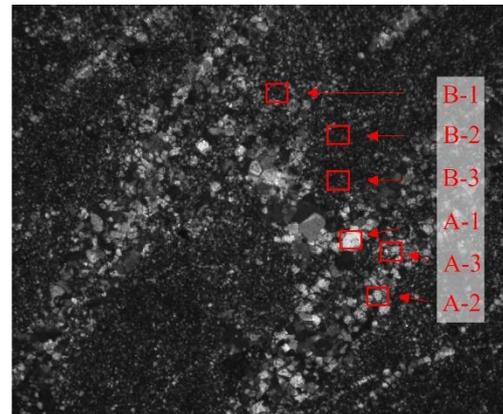
170 Six cylindrical specimens with dimensions of $\Phi 10 \text{ mm} \times 10 \text{ mm}$ were prepared from the
171 rock to measure the macro-scale coefficient of thermal expansion (CTE) using a
172 thermomechanical analyzer (SHIMAZU Corporation, TMA-60HS). A rate of $1 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ was
173 selected and a 5-N force was applied to the center of the specimen to maintain stability during
174 the measurement.

175 In addition, a part of the rock was cut and glued to rectangular glass and then polished until
176 a thickness of $30 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ was achieved. Subsequently, a polarizing microscope was used to identify
177 the shapes and sizes of the minerals under cross-polarized light (XPL) and plane-polarized light

178 (PPL) at 400× magnification. The micro-scale CTE was measured using the same specimens
179 for the polarizing microscope with the heating stage (PN121-D, MSA Factory Co., Ltd.), which
180 can regulate the temperature through its monitor. The heating stage had a small hole at its center
181 and a glass cover to protect the micrograph lens, and the maximum temperature was 200 °C.
182 As shown in Fig. 7(a), both sides of the specimen were fixed to a glass cover with double-sided
183 tape. Thereafter, the temperature was increased from 25 °C to 100 °C at intervals of 5 °C at a
184 rate of 1 °C/min; additionally, one image was captured at each interval. Considering the
185 temperature distribution, images were captured after 1 min of each target temperature interval
186 to ensure that the specimens reached the same temperature as the hotplate. Similarly, the DICM
187 method with Vic-2D was used to measure and analyze the strain of the specimens with settings
188 similar to those in Section 2.3. For the strain analysis, three rectangular areas were selected for
189 the gray and white regions, as shown in Fig. 7(b); subsequently, the averaged e_{xx}/e_{yy} strain was
190 obtained. Finally, the linear expansion coefficient was calculated based on the strain curves with
191 respect to the temperature.



(a) Heating stage



(b) Image taken by a polarizing microscope (50×) and area selected for analysis

Fig. 7 Micro-CTE measurement set-up and selected analysis areas

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193 3. Experimental results

194 3.1 Macroscopic compression and tensile test

195 The compressive strength was 56 ± 5.0 MPa and compressive Young's modulus of the
196 specimens was 74 ± 15 GPa.

197 The splitting tensile strengths of the disk-shaped specimens are shown in Fig. 8. The
198 average strength was 11.9 MPa, and the standard error was 6.7 MPa. The minimum value was
199 3.7 MPa, and the maximum value are 20.9 MPa.

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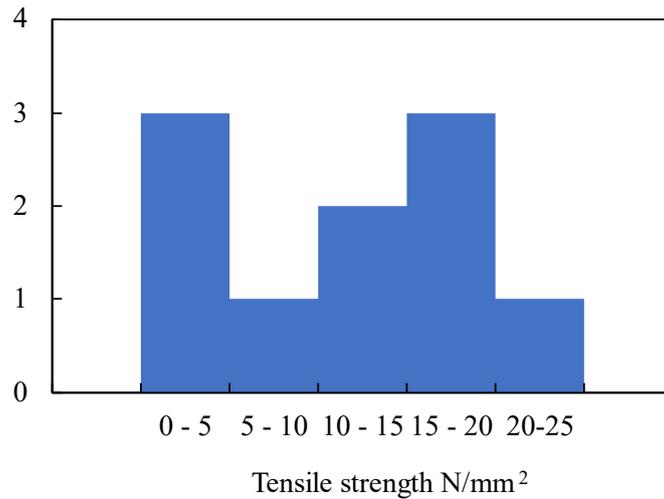


Fig. 8 Histogram of splitting tensile strength test

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204 **3.2 Microscopic tensile loading test**

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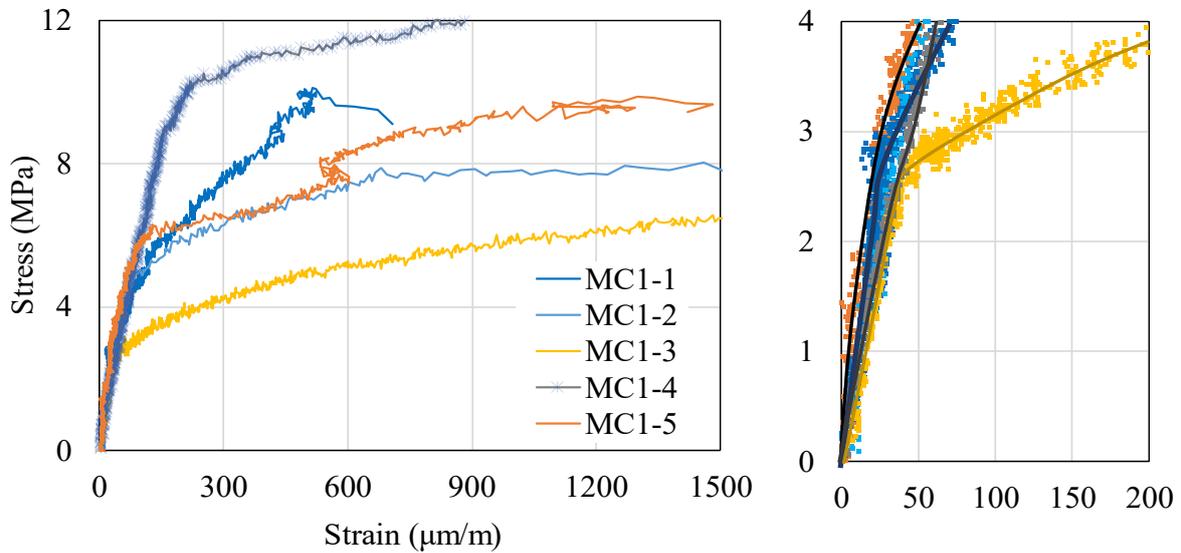
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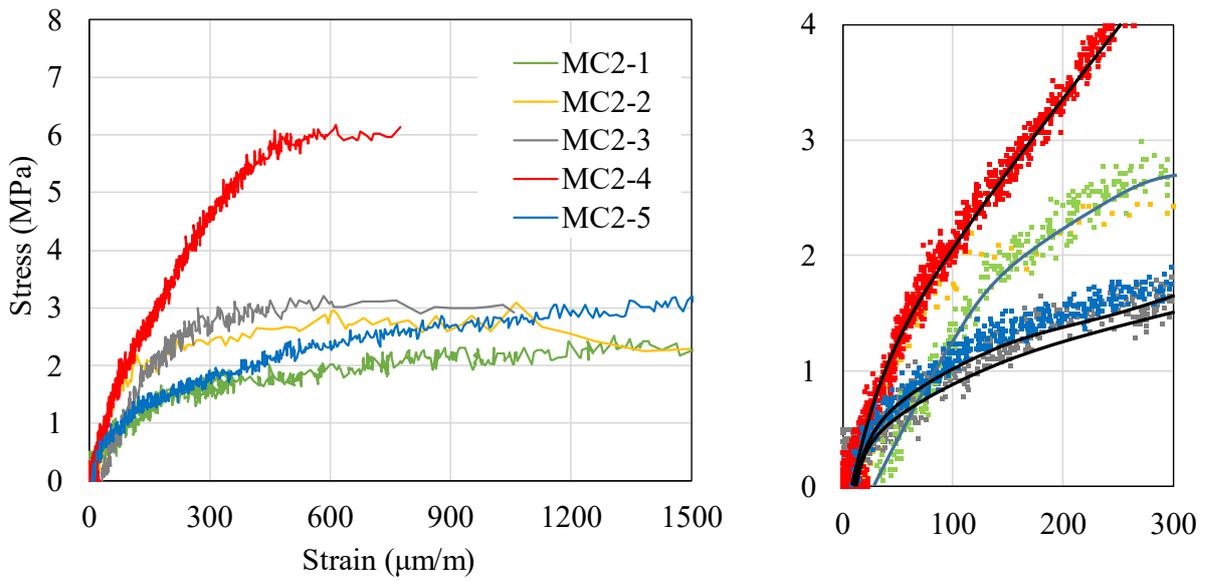
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The stress–strain curves, tensile strength, and tensile Young’s modulus of the two distinct regions are presented in Fig. 9 and Table 4, respectively. Here, MC1 represents the specimens taken from the white region of the rock, whereas MC2 represents the gray region. The tensile strength of the gray region specimen was approximately twice that of the white region specimen, whereas the Young’s modulus of the gray region was approximately four times that of the white region.



(a) Gray region specimens



(b) White region specimen

Fig. 9 Stress–strain curves relative to direct tensile test

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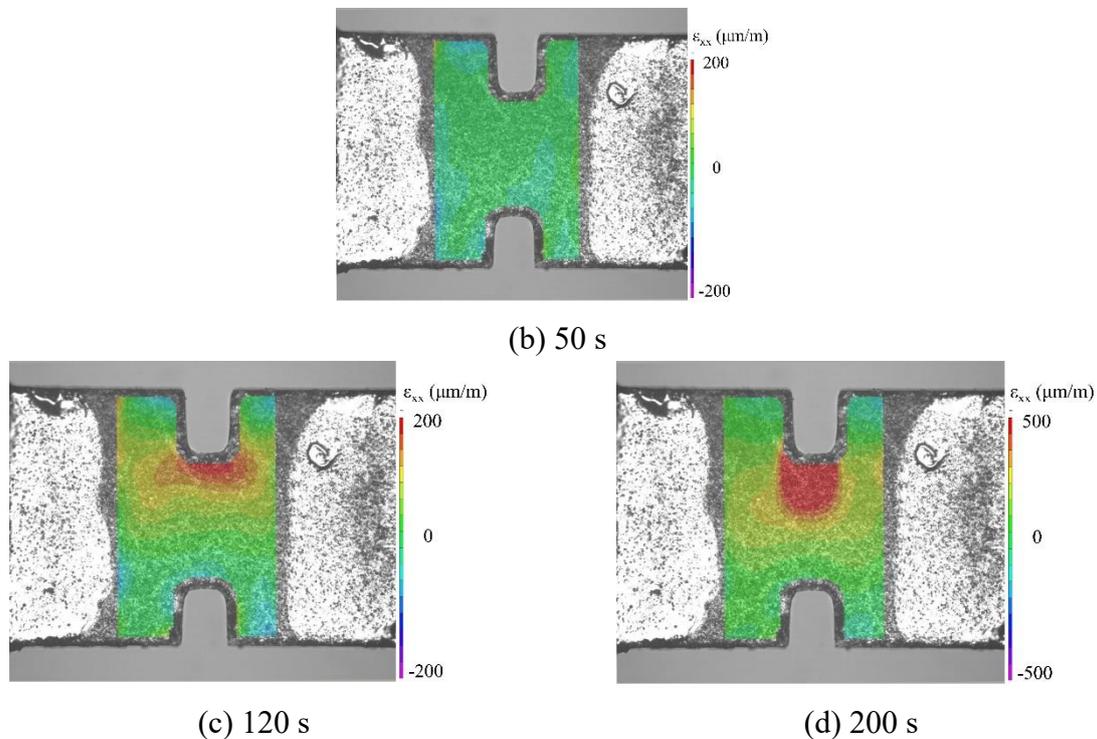
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Table 4 Microscopic tensile loading test results

	Tensile strength (MPa)	Young's modulus (GPa)
MC1 Gray region, small grains densely packed	9.6 ± 2.7	62 ± 5.0
MC2 White region, Large grains coarsely packed	4.1 ± 2.2	17 ± 10.4

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Fig. 10 shows the development of the strain fields of the specimens during the tensile test; evidently, the strain increased from the edge to the center of the specimen. As the development of the strain field in the white and gray specimens was almost the same, only one example is provided here. At 50 s, the strain of all specimens was still very low. At 120 s, the strain at the edge of the specimen exceeded 2×10^{-4} . When the time continued to increase from 120 s to 200 s, the strain spread from the edge to the center of the specimen and exceeded 5×10^{-4} , as well as some small cracks occurred at the edge and propagated to the center of the specimens. Subsequently, the specimens failed. This implies that when the specimen was subjected to tensile loading, the strain initially generated at the edge of the specimen and distributed to the center; after a certain point, cracking at the edge of the specimen led to the final damage of the specimen.



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Fig. 10 Strain field of specimens during tensile test

3.3 Macro-scale coefficient of thermal expansion

The temperature–strain curves and macro-CTEs of the specimens in the three directions are presented in Fig. 11 and Table 5, respectively. The CTEs in the Y- and Z-axes were almost the same, and the TEC in the X-axis was smaller than those in the Y- and Z-axes, which is similar to the trend exhibited by pure quartz (c-axis: $0.78 \times 10^{-5} / ^\circ\text{C}$, and a-, b-axes: $1.44 \times 10^{-5} / ^\circ\text{C}$). This similarity in the trend may be owing to the high quartz content in the specimens (Rosenholtz and Smith 1941).

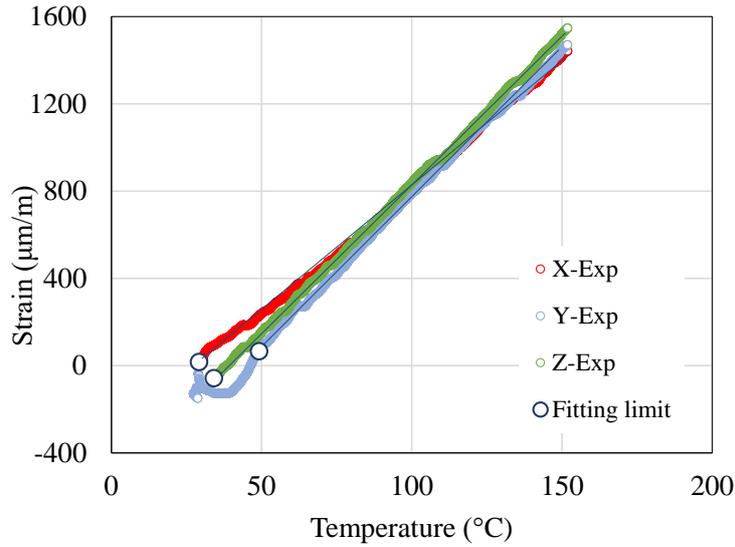


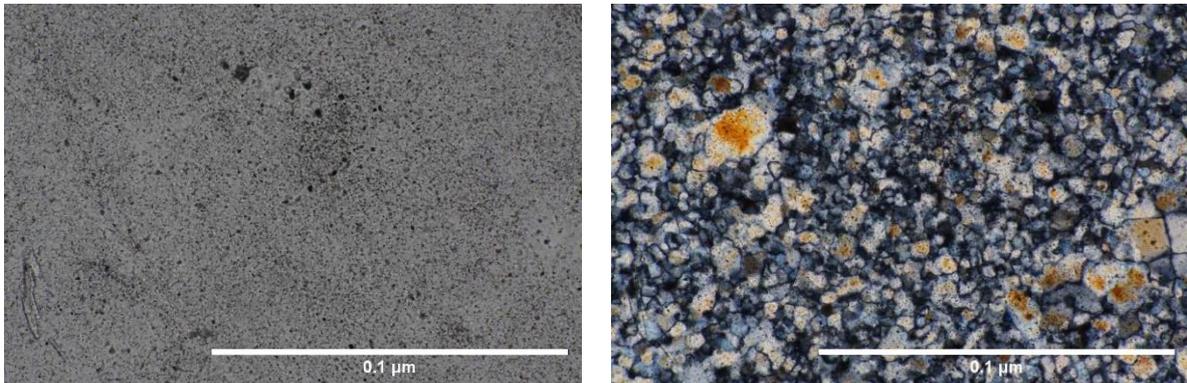
Fig. 11 Strain of quartzite according to different directions versus the temperature

Table 5 Measured CTE for quartzite based on different directions

Direction	CTE $10^{-6}/^{\circ}\text{C}$
X	11.6
Y	13.6
Z	13.5

3.4 Micro-scale coefficient of thermal expansion

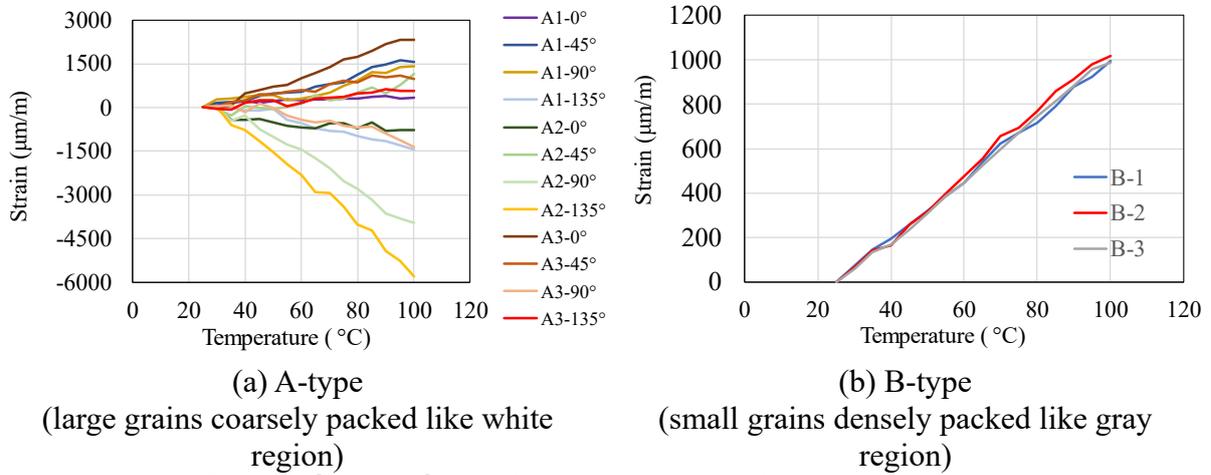
Polarized micrographs are shown in Fig. 12; they suggest that the minerals in the meta-chert were composed primarily of quartz with different sizes and shapes. This is shown in Fig. 7(b). Micro-CTE measurements were conducted in two types of areas. Area A represents a group of minerals with large grain sizes, whereas area B represents minerals with small grain sizes. This corresponds to the classification applied in the microscopic tensile loading test, where the white region comprises large minerals, whereas the gray region comprises small minerals.



PPL XPL
 Fig. 12 Polarized micrographs of meta-chert samples

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The temperature–strain curves and micro-CTEs of the selected areas are presented in Fig. 13 and Table 6, respectively. Compared with the strain of the B-type areas, the strain of the A-type areas was unstable and not constant, and different temperature–strain curves were obtained at different locations. To further investigate the reason behind this type of instability, the strain between the two points in the A-type area was measured by deviating the angle by 45°, as shown in Fig. 14, and the deformation behavior was elliptical. For example, in the case of A-1, a positive strain (tensile direction) occurred at 45° and 90°, whereas a negative strain (compression direction) occurred at 135°.



(a) A-type (b) B-type
 (large grains coarsely packed like white region) (small grains densely packed like gray region)
 Fig. 13 Strain of selected areas versus the temperature

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Table 6 CTE of B-type areas

	CTE $10^{-6}/^{\circ}\text{C}$	
	ϵ_{xx}	ϵ_{yy}
B-1	13.3	14.4
B-2	14.2	14.1
B-3	13.7	11.6
Average	13.7	13.4

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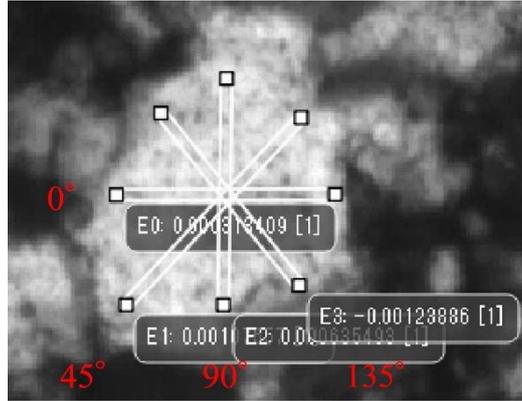


Fig. 14 Strain measurement points in A-type area (large grain size, like white region)

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268 4. Discussion

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270 4.1 Mechanical behavior of aggregate about compression and tensile stress

271 Owing to the difficulty in preparing the specimens and natural fractures in the rocks,
 272 research on the tensile behavior of rocks is limited; to the best of our knowledge, research on
 273 the difference in the tensile behavior and compressive behavior of aggregates is lacking.

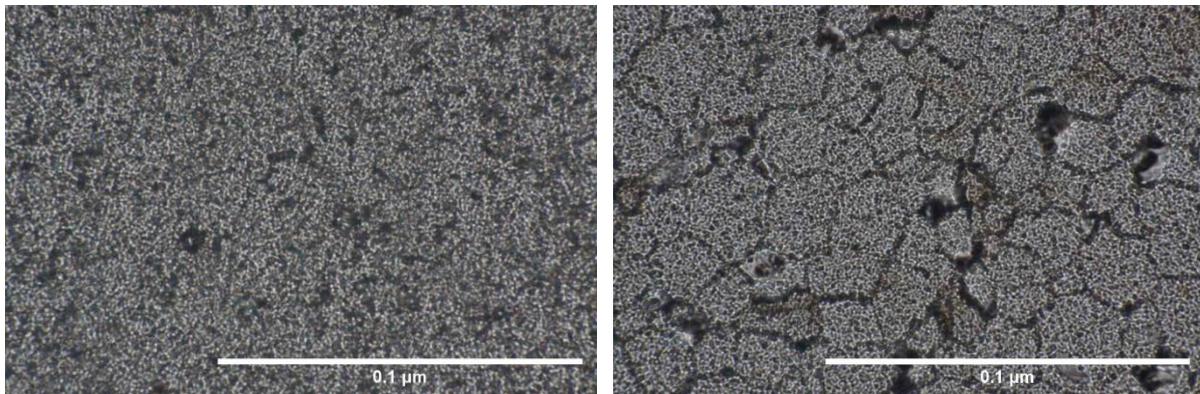
274 First, Young's modulus in compression and tension was discussed. The macroscopic
 275 compressive Young's modulus was 74 GPa, whereas the microscopic tensile Young's moduli
 276 were 62 GPa for the gray region (small grains and densely packed) and 17 GPa for the white
 277 region (large grains and coarsely packed). A large number of cracks were observed in the
 278 aggregate lumps. During compressive loading, these cracks were closed and could transfer the
 279 stress, whereas they were difficult to tension. In the microscopic experiment, these cracks were
 280 avoided to prepare sound specimens. However, the specimens were prepared such that an
 281 impact of voids and fine cracks on the tensile Young's modulus was still observed. Therefore,
 282 in both cases, Young's modulus under tension was smaller than that under compression. The
 283 detailed textures of the gray and white regions are shown in Fig. 15. In the white region, large
 284 quartz grains were coarsely re-precipitated in a vein and had large pores. Based on this figure,
 285 the low Young's modulus can be easily explained.

286 The stress–strain curves exhibited a monotonic decrease in stiffness, as shown in Fig. 9.
 287 This trend can be explained by the increase in the number of defects and fine cracks as well as
 288 the continuous crack opening (Hawkes *et al.* 1973). In the current experiments, as shown in Fig.
 289 10, it was generally one of the sides of the notch, thus exhibiting a larger strain increase than
 290 that of the other notch side. This indicates a gradual crack opening from one side to the other,
 291 which could be the reason for nonlinear stress development.

292 The splitting tensile strength of the disk specimens was 11.9 MPa, whereas the direct tensile
 293 strength was approximately 4.1 MPa (white region, large quartz grains coarsely packed) and

294 approximately 9.6 MPa (gray region, small quartz grains densely packed). The splitting tensile
295 strength presented bimodal results, as shown in Fig. 8. This result was consistent with the fact
296 that the aggregates contains two distinct regions; moreover, it reflects that each region has
297 inherent strength. However, the splitting tensile strength overestimates the direct tensile
298 strength, as reported by numerous researchers (Li and Wong 2013). The discrepancy between
299 the splitting tensile strength and microscopic direct tensile strength can be explained by the
300 stress development and resultant defect creation process in the specimen, as follows. In the case
301 of the splitting tensile strength, horizontal tensile stress occurs during vertical loading. Owing
302 to the large area of the section, even if defects are created, other stress paths exist in the middle
303 part of the specimen. Therefore, the result was reflected by the average specimen texture. In the
304 case of microscopic direct tensile loading, the impact of one defect is more pronounced and a
305 crack develops easily, starting from the defect to across the specimen; this crack breaks the
306 specimen rapidly. Therefore, the microscopic direct tensile loading result is well reflected by
307 the local strength of concrete, and the Brazilian test cannot provide local strength information.

308 The tensile strength of the white region was lower than those of the gray specimens. As
309 shown in Fig. 15, their structures were different, and numerous defects existed in the white
310 specimens. Combined with natural fractures, such a defect area can hardly bear any tensile
311 stress; consequently, the tensile strength of the specimens decreased with the number and size
312 of the defected areas.



(a) Gray-region based specimen (b) White-region based specimen
Fig. 15 Micrographs of specimens taken with a polarized microscope at 400×.

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315 4.2 Comparison of the results of two types of experiments on CTE

316 Generally, rocks are composed of several minerals, and their thermal expansion is
317 anisotropic. Considering the different atomic structures, the orthorhombic, monoclinic, and
318 triclinic crystal systems have different CTEs in three directions. In this case, the thermal
319 expansion of minerals composed of these systems was anisotropic. Furthermore, quartz is
320 considered to have considerable influence on the thermal expansion of rocks owing to its high-
321 temperature sensitivity and anisotropic expansion (Johnson and Parsons 1944; Igarashi *et al.*
322 2015).

323 The macro-CTEs of the specimens in this study were different in the x-, y-, and z-directions.
324 Compared with the macro-CTE, the micro-CTE was slightly larger, and the average values in
325 the x and y directions were similar to those in the y and z directions, as presented in Tables 6
326 and 7. The CTE of the pure quartz was larger than that of the specimens used in this
327 study(Rosenholtz and Smith 1941). The difference in the CTE of minerals and aggregates
328 depends not only on the texture but also on the natural fractures and stress. Compared with the
329 specimens with small quartz grains, the strain of the specimens with large quartz grains was not
330 stable. Under a polarizing microscope (400×), black streaks at the boundaries of the large quartz
331 grains were observed, as shown in Fig. 12. With regard to the quartz grains, the small quartz
332 grains were densely bonded and almost no boundaries could be observed, whereas the large
333 quartz grains had a boundary area of approximately 0.003 mm. Therefore, the small quartz
334 grains were not affected by defects and expanded the same way in all areas, whereas the large
335 quartz grains were affected by the large size of the quartz grains and the boundaries or defects
336 that existed around them. These results indicate that local stress can be produced in the
337 aggregate owing to the inhomogeneous contacts around the grains, which may also influence
338 the fracture process of the aggregate.

339

340 **5. Conclusion**

341 The macroscopic compressive Young's modulus and splitting tensile strength were
342 compared with the microscopic tensile Young's modulus, and the direct tensile strength of two
343 different characteristic regions of the aggregate were compared. In general, the compressive
344 Young's modulus is larger than that in tension; this can be explained by the originally existing
345 defects and cracks, which can transfer the compressive stress and cannot transfer the tensile
346 stress. The macroscopic splitting tensile strength was greater than the local direct tensile
347 strength. This is due to the difference in crack development and resultant loading path creation
348 after crack development. A microscopic direct tensile loading experiment can detect the local
349 strength, which is well reflected by the grain-based texture.

350 The macroscopic and microscopic thermal expansion coefficients were sometimes very
351 consistent, particularly when the quartz grains were densely packed; in contrast, the trend was
352 different in the region where large grains were coarsely packed. The inhomogeneous contact of
353 grains causes different stress fields and results in completely different thermal deformation
354 behaviors. Therefore, the local stress, which has a large influence on the crack development, is
355 determined by the local grain-based texture. This information should contribute to the
356 understanding of physical property changes due to alternation, such as neutron irradiation-
357 induced volume expansion of minerals.

358

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362

363 **Conflicts of Interest**

364 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

365

366 **CRedit author statement**

367 KM: Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing - original draft

368 WW: Investigation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing

369 HS: Methodology, Writing - review & editing

370 DK: Methodology, Writing - review & editing

371 OK: Funding acquisition, Methodology, Writing - review & editing

372 SI: Methodology, Writing - review & editing

373 TO: Methodology, Writing - review & editing

374 KM: Methodology, Writing - review & editing

375 KS: Funding acquisition, Project administration, Writing - review & editing

376 IM: Project administration, Conceptualization, Resources, Methodology, Funding acquisition,
377 Supervision, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing

378

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