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Interfacial Transition Zone Modelling for Characterisation of Masonry under Biaxial Stresses

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Abstract

This paper presents a concept of Interfacial Transition Zone (ITZ) enrichment for the characterisation of masonry under biaxial stress states to a nonlocal transient damage representative volume element (RVE) model developed by the authors (Jelvehpour et al, 2019). ITZ enrichment has been realised through a series of transition layers on either side of the unit - mortar interface with gradually varying properties of the constituent materials so that weaker mortar – stronger brick and stronger mortar – weaker brick combinations can be considered. Two model parameters, viz., the thickness and the stiffness degradation of the ITZ have been introduced to control the thickness and stiffness degradation of the transition layers; these parameters have been calibrated to fit the experimental data available in the literature. The calibrated ITZ enriched RVE model was then applied to conventional clay brick, concrete block and drystack (mortarless) masonry by simulating the experimental tests reported in the literature; good agreement was obtained. The RVE was then applied to predict the failure envelope of various masonry types subject to biaxial stress states. The ITZ enriched RVE eliminates the need for introduction of either interface element or contact nonlinearity between the masonry unit and the mortar or between drystack masonry units with wide ranging benefits of analysing masonry structures under various load cases.

Key Words: Interphases; Interfacial Transition Zone (ITZ); Transient-Gradient Damage; Representative Volume Element (RVE); Stiffness degradation; Conventional Masonry; Drystack Masonry.

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28 1 - Introduction

29 The authors recently reported a transient gradient damage model in the form of a
30 representative volume element (RVE) for quasi-brittle bi-material composites, which is
31 suitable for masonry applications (Jelvehpour et al, [1]). This model used a single-dissipative
32 formulation of the isotropic damage in masonry incorporating a concept of variable Poisson's
33 ratio in conjunction with a scalar damage definition. The model was shown to predict the
34 strength of masonry reasonably well even when perfect bond between the mortar and the unit
35 was enforced; however, stiffer responses were observed for the stress-strain predictions. To
36 overcome the stiffer predictions, a concept of an interfacial transition zone (ITZ), inspired
37 from the successful usages of ITZ in several multiphase materials and composites in the
38 literature [2-10], is proposed in this paper. The ITZ essentially accounts for stiffness
39 degradation of the weaker zone emanating from the physical interfaces between the
40 constituents of the composites.

41 ITZ has been extensively used for more than two decades for the determination of the elastic
42 properties of the cementitious composites such as concretes and mortar in the literature [2 –
43 14]; in all these articles, transitional layers between the aggregate inclusions and the cement
44 matrix were formulated for the prediction of the elastic properties of the concretes. In the
45 recent times, some advanced applications, such as the micro cracking and thermo-elastic field
46 distribution have emerged [15, 16].

47 To the best of the knowledge of the authors, Giambanco and Mroz [17] appear to be the first
48 to introduce the concept 'interphase' for masonry applications. Interphase is defined as a thin
49 layer of a finite thickness (greater than zero) between two different materials assumed to have
50 been bonded perfectly. Interface, on the other hand, refers to a zero-thickness boundary layer
51 (or surface-to-surface contact interaction) between two materials with weak bonding
52 properties [18 - 20]. Thus, within an ITZ, many interphases can be defined depending on the
53 accuracy desired. Giambanco et al [21] and Scimemi et al [22] have further developed the
54 interphase model into a finite element formulation and application to masonry structures
55 respectively. In [17, 21, 22], only a single interphase between the surfaces of masonry units
56 (i.e., the whole of the mortar layer) was considered. The novelty of the current paper is that it
57 allows for gradual decrease in stiffness and strength of the transitional layers emanating on
58 either side of the physical boundary between the two constituents (unit and mortar as in
59 masonry – shown in Fig. 1). This novelty allows the ITZ proposed in this paper can account

60 for weak mortar – strong brick or strong mortar – weak brick combinations and predict
 61 failure of either brick or mortar or both, whereas the works in [17, 21, 22] can only account
 62 for the weak mortar – strong brick combination (which is most common type of masonry).
 63 With the emergence of high bond strength masonry [18, 19, 23 – 26] and drystack masonry
 64 [27-29], it is timely to present a more generalised model such as the ITZ in this paper.

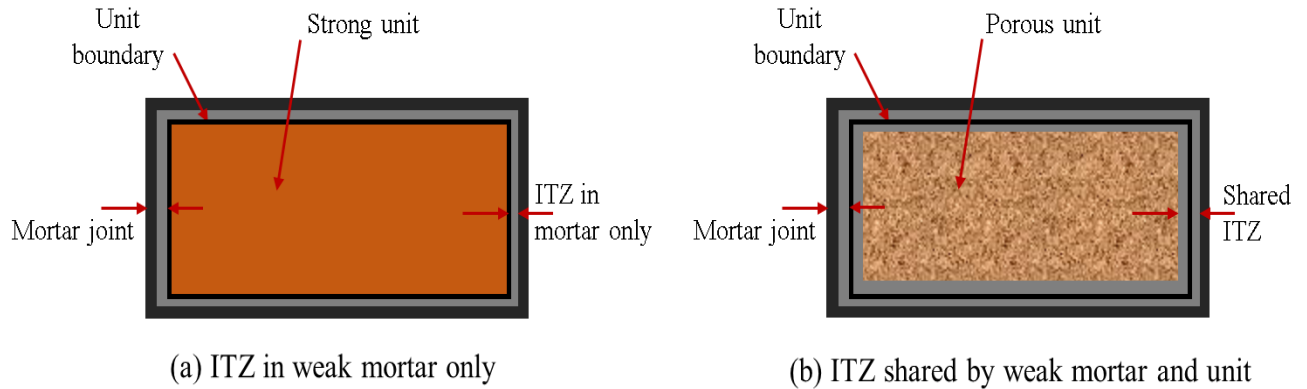


Figure 1: Representation of the Interfacial Transition Zone (ITZ) for masonry

67 Figure 1(a) shows the most common masonry containing strong bricks/ blocks/ stone units
 68 embedded within a surrounding weaker mortar layer - in such masonry ITZ would only exist
 69 in the weak mortar layer. In case of weak/porous masonry units, the ITZ would be shared
 70 between the units and mortar as shown in Figure 1(b). In high bond strength (usually in thin
 71 layer mortared masonry [23- 26, 35]), the ITZ may exclusively be in the unit (not illustrated
 72 in the figure). In the latter cases, both the units and mortar share damage due to similar
 73 strength and stiffness, for example in tuff stone masonry [30-31] or adobe masonry [32-33]
 74 built with mud mortar.

75 The idea of defining ITZ between the mortar and the unit through varying thickness and
 76 degrading stiffness of the ITZ was incorporated in the existing RVE damage model
 77 developed by Jelvehpour et al, [1]. Utilising this concept can eliminate the need for the
 78 introduction of an interface element/ nonlinear contact concept between the two constituents
 79 which would add to the complexity of the model as was used in [18 - 20]. The sensitivity of
 80 this damage variable and the thickness of ITZ layers to the RVE was studied first and then
 81 the RVE was validated using experimental data for brick masonry from Dhanasekar [34], for
 82 block masonry from Barbosa et al, [36] and for drystack masonry from Oh et al, [37]. A good
 83 comparison was obtained and model results matched well with the experiments. The
 84 validated RVE was then employed to predict the biaxial failure envelope of masonry.

85 This paper is structured as follows: Enrichment of the RVE with an ITZ is discussed in
 86 Section 2. Sensitivity of ITZ parameters is presented in Section 3. Validation of ITZ enriched
 87 RVE under uniaxial loading is demonstrated in Section 4. The model application for
 88 predicting biaxial failure envelopes of various masonry types is discussed in Section 5.
 89 Conclusions and recommendations for further research are presented in Section 6.

90 2- Enrichment of the RVE with an Interfacial Transition Zone (ITZ)

91 Original RVE developed in [1] was based on the laws of classical damage mechanics
 92 principles of stiffness degradation of materials through $E = (1 - \omega)E_o$, with ω as a scalar
 93 damage variable ranging from zero (undamaged material) to one (fully damaged material), in
 94 which E and E_o are the effective and the initial elastic modulus, respectively. The damage
 95 variable ω for the RVE is defined in the form of:

$$96 \omega = \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{\kappa_i}{\kappa} \left[(1 - \alpha) + \alpha e^{-\beta(\kappa - \kappa_i)} \right] & \text{if } I_1 > 0 \\ \frac{\omega_c \zeta \kappa}{\omega_c \kappa - (\omega_c - \zeta) \kappa_c} & \text{if } I_1 \leq 0 \text{ and } \kappa \leq \kappa_c \\ \frac{(\kappa - \kappa_c) + \omega_c (\kappa_c - \gamma)}{\kappa - \gamma} & \text{if } I_1 \leq 0 \text{ and } \kappa > \kappa_c \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

97 Where, α , β and ζ are material parameters, ω_c and κ_c are the threshold damage and
 98 threshold strain, respectively to control the damage commencement, κ_i is the threshold for
 99 damage initiation with κ as the maximum equivalent strain ε_{eq} at any loading instant and is
 100 expressed as given in Eq. (2) and parameter γ is defined as shown in Eq. (3).

$$101 \varepsilon_{eq} = \frac{(k-1)}{2k(1-2\nu)} I_1 + \frac{1}{2k} \sqrt{\frac{(k-1)^2}{(1-2\nu)^2} I_1^2 + \frac{12k}{(1+\nu)^2} J_2} \quad (2)$$

$$102 \gamma = \frac{\kappa_c \omega_c^2 - 2\zeta \kappa_c \omega_c + \zeta \kappa_c}{\omega_c^2 - \zeta \omega_c} \quad (3)$$

103 In Eq. (2) and Eq. (3), k is the ratio between uniaxial compressive and tensile strength of the
 104 material, ν is the Poisson's ratio and I_1 and J_2 are the first invariant of the strain tensor and
 105 the second invariant of the deviatoric strain tensor, respectively. For drystack masonry an
 106 additional damage evolution law is introduced for initial seating behaviour of dry joints due

107 to crushing of interstices or surface roughness in compression as given in Eq. (4).

$$108 \quad \omega = \Phi \kappa^2 + S_j \kappa + I_0 \quad (4)$$

109 In which I_0 is the initial imperfection (unevenness) parameter between the units with a
 110 condition $0 \leq I_0 \leq 1$. The higher the joint surface unevenness I_0 , the lower the contact
 111 between the two neighbouring units. When I_0 is equal to zero, the two neighbouring units are
 112 in full contact. Damage slope parameter S_j controls the rate of damage evolution in the joint
 113 closure due to crushing of interstices/unevenness under compressive loads. Parameter Φ in
 114 Eq. (5) controls the joint closure based on the level of strain in the joint represents as κ_{jc}
 115 compared with the threshold damage initiation strain κ_c for the unit.

$$116 \quad \Phi = \begin{cases} \frac{\omega_c \zeta}{(\omega_c \kappa_{jc} - (\omega_c - \zeta) \kappa_c) \kappa_{jc}} - \frac{I_0 + S_j \kappa_{jc}}{\kappa_{jc}^2} & \text{if } \kappa_{jc} \leq \kappa_c \\ \frac{(\kappa_{jc} - \kappa_c) + \omega_c (\kappa_c - \gamma)}{(\kappa_{jc} - \gamma) \kappa_{jc}^2} - \frac{I_0 + S_j \kappa_{jc}}{\kappa_{jc}^2} & \text{if } \kappa_{jc} > \kappa_c \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

117 The model is non-localised by introducing a transient gradient formulation as shown in Eq.
 118 (6).

$$119 \quad \frac{\bar{\mathcal{E}}_{eq}}{\mu} - \nabla^2 \bar{\mathcal{E}}_{eq} = \frac{\mathcal{E}_{eq}}{\mu} \quad (6)$$

120 In which \mathcal{E}_{eq} and $\bar{\mathcal{E}}_{eq}$ are the local and nonlocal equivalent strains, respectively and μ is the
 121 transient gradient parameter - expressed in Eq. (7), with a condition $\mu \neq 0$.

$$122 \quad \mu = \begin{cases} c_0 + (c - c_0) \left(\frac{\bar{\mathcal{E}}_{eq}}{\mathcal{E}_\mu} \right)^{n_\mu} & \bar{\mathcal{E}}_{eq} \leq \mathcal{E}_\mu \\ c & \bar{\mathcal{E}}_{eq} > \mathcal{E}_\mu \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

123 In the above equation, \mathcal{E}_μ is a limiting strain to mobilise the nonlocal interaction, n_μ is the
 124 nonlocal gradient parameter with c_0 as an arbitrary positive number selected so that at the
 125 initial time step, local and nonlocal strains remains the same between the integration points.
 126 All of the above-mentioned damage parameters and the transient-gradient parameters were

127 calibrated in Jelvehpour et al, [1] using the experimental data of Thamboo et al, [23-26]. The
 128 details on the RVE modelling, periodic boundary conditions and meshing for application to
 129 masonry can be seen in [1]. This paper concentrates on enriching this RVE with ITZ.

130 The concept of ITZ enrichment in Figure 1 shows transitional layers possessing different
 131 properties in the RVE between the two constituents (mortar and unit). In traditional mortared
 132 masonries containing stronger clay brick or concrete block, the ITZ is assumed to commence
 133 from the edge of the unit and progresses into the mortar layer as shown in Figure 1(a). The
 134 cases where weak units are used (for example unburnt mud bricks) the ITZ layers are
 135 assumed to progress both into the unit and mortar as shown in Figure 1(b). In drystack
 136 masonry, interstices are analogised as mortar layer and the ITZ is assumed to exist as shown
 137 in Figure 1(b). All three cases have been analysed in this research.

138 The ITZ is divided into several layers (or, interphases, 1 to n) of varying properties for better
 139 simulation of damage in this zone as shown in Figure 2.

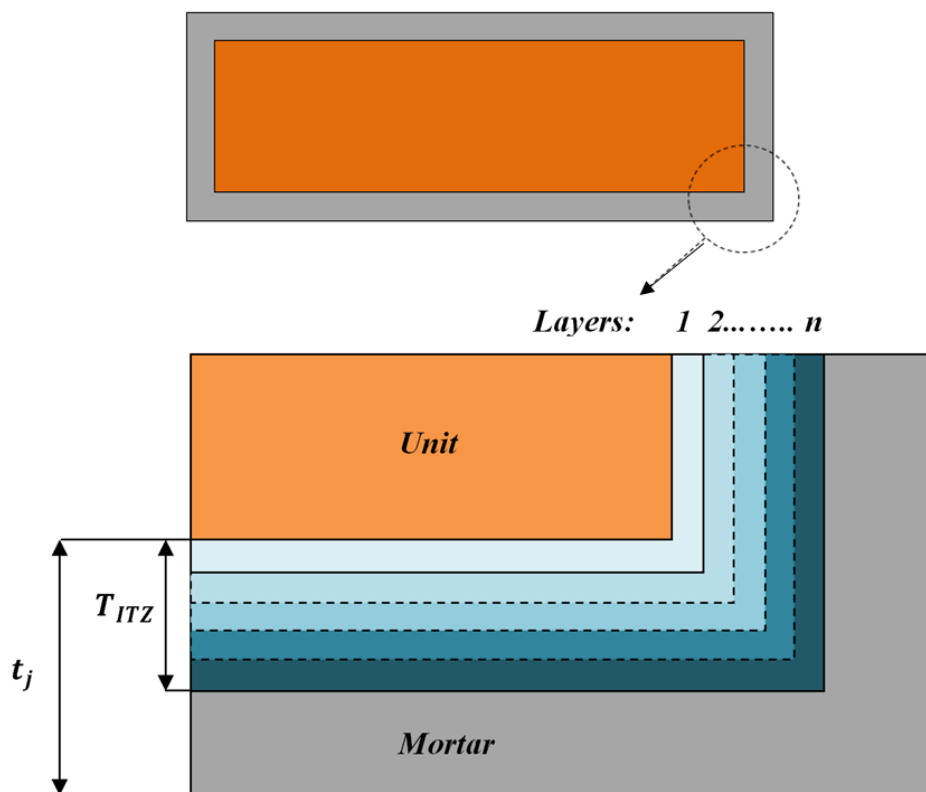


Figure 2: Division of ITZ into n layers

142 The strength and stiffness properties of these layers were allowed to gradually vary, from the
 143 weakest (highly damaged state) at the physical interface between the mortar and unit towards

144 the strongest mortar layer. The maximum strength of this layer was set equal to the strength
145 of mortar.

146 The properties of each layer within the ITZ vary based on the type and strength of the two
147 materials that create bond. Numerous interface effects such as friction, distributed
148 dislocations and delamination [38 – 40] further complicate the prediction of these properties
149 for the ITZ layers. Depending on the materials considered and the thickness and the number
150 of layers in the ITZ, different authors have considered different formulations for the
151 properties of this zone in concretes [6, 9, 15, 41]. However, in this work for masonry RVE, a
152 power law was introduced for the initial Young's modulus of each layer of the ITZ as
153 presented in Eq. (8) to simulate reduced stiffness of the mortar-unit interface.

$$154 \quad E_0(n) = E_M \left(\frac{(2n-1)(t_j - T_{ITZ}) + 2NT_{ITZ}}{2Nt_j} \right)^{\lambda_E} \quad (8)$$

155 Where,

156 n is the number of the specific layer from the interface between the two materials

157 N is the total number of layers within the ITZ

158 $E_0(n)$ is the initial Young's modulus of a specific layer

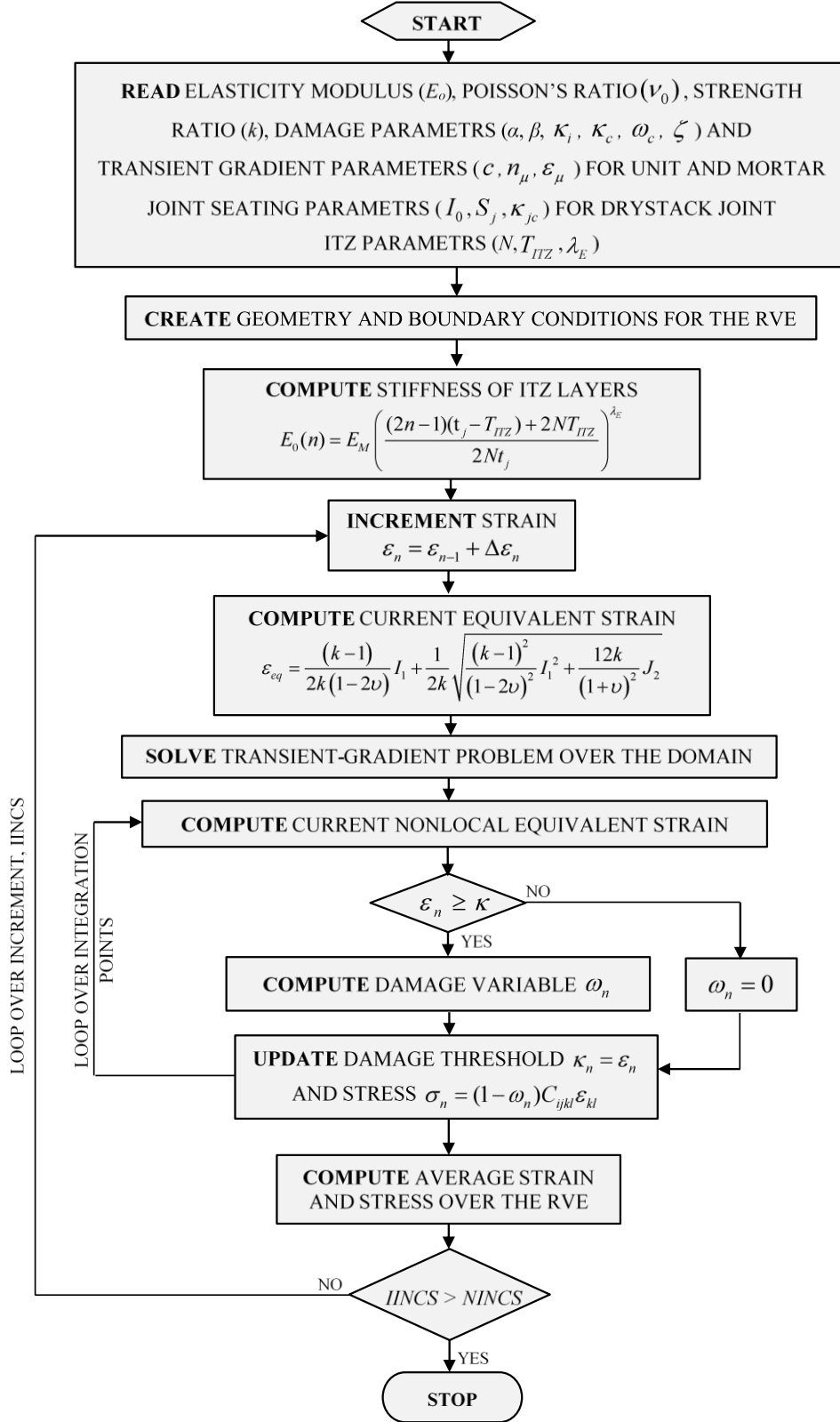
159 E_M is the Young's modulus of the mortar layer

160 t_j is the thickness of the mortar joint

161 T_{ITZ} is the thickness of the total ITZ and

162 λ_E is a parameter controlling the stiffness degradation.

163 From Eq. (8), it can be inferred that the stiffness of layers, and hence, the model predictions
164 would be sensitive to thickness of ITZ, number of layers and stiffness degradation parameter
165 λ_E . The sensitivity of these parameters to the model is discussed in the Section 3. The steps
166 to simulate an ITZ enriched RVE are depicted in Figure 3 in the form of an algorithm.

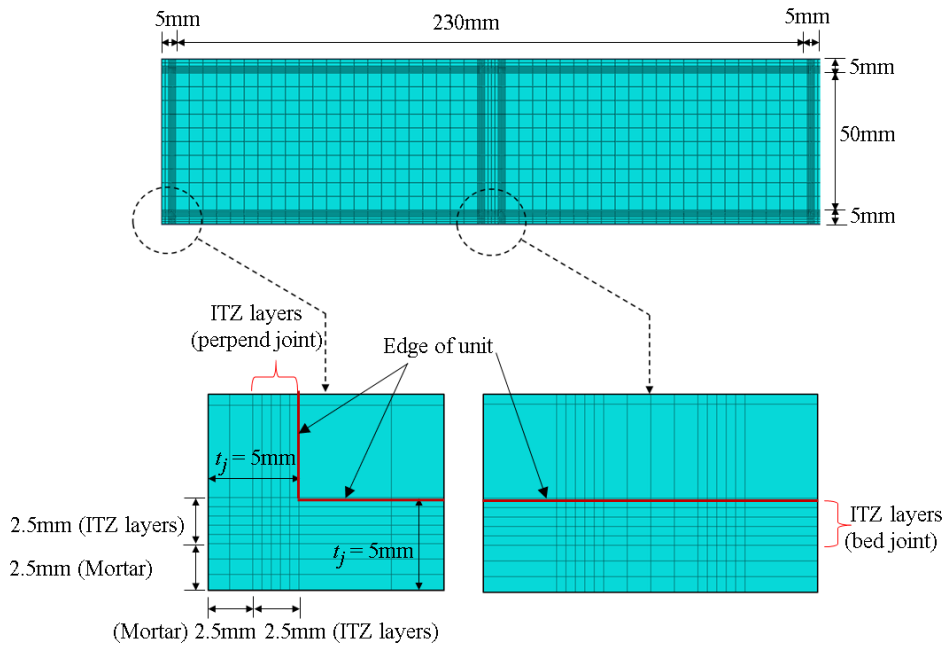


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171
172

Figure 3: Algorithm to simulate ITZ enriched RVE

173 3. Sensitivity analysis of ITZ parameters

174 With a view to verifying the performance of the present ITZ enriched RVE, the effect of the
 175 ITZ parameters to the overall response of the system was examined. The RVE in Figure 4
 176 was taken from Jelvehpour et al, [1]. The RVE was analysed under compression and tension
 177 perpendicular and parallel to bed joints as well as pure shear loading. The influences of
 178 overall thickness of the ITZ, thickness of the individual layers in ITZ and stiffness
 179 degradation parameter λ_E were considered in this sensitivity analysis. The elastic and
 180 damage parameters for brick and mortar used in this analysis are summarised in Table 1. This
 181 Table also shows the transient-gradient nonlocal properties, viz, the length factor (c), the
 182 limiting strain (ε_μ) and the gradient parameter (n_μ) of the constituents.



183
184 **Figure 4: Finite Element discretisation of the RVE**

185 Two-dimensional (2D) finite element analysis was carried out using reduced integration eight
 186 noded plane stress elements (CPS8R) to discretise the entire RVE. The finite element
 187 discretisation of the RVE is illustrated in Figure 4. The model could not be used with fully
 188 integrated elements, as the model could only solve the boundary value problem by taking an
 189 input of strain increment at a single integration point for each element in the mesh for the
 190 calculation of the corresponding output stress at that point as shown in algorithm in Figure 3.
 191 Therefore, reduced integration elements were required.

Table 1: Properties of the constituent materials

Property	Unit	Mortar
E_o (MPa)	15650	4000
ν_0	0.2	0.18
k	10	10
α	1.0	1.0
β	1000	1000
κ_i	0.00009	0.00012
κ_c	0.000162	0.00021
ω_c	0.4	0.4
ζ	-0.25	-0.25
c (mm ²)	5	5
n_μ	1	1
ε_μ	0.0009	0.0012

3.1 Effect of thickness of the Interfacial Transition Zone (ITZ) layers/ Interphases

In this section, the influence of the thickness of the Interfacial Transition Zone (ITZ) layers to the stress-strain behaviour of the masonry is discussed. For this purpose, five thicknesses (T_{ITZ}) were considered. The thickness of each layer (interphase) within the ITZ was kept constant (equal to 0.5 mm) in each of the five tests. The magnitude of the parameters selected for each test are presented in Table 2. Using these properties, Young's modulus for each transition layer was calculated from Eq. (8) and is listed in Table 3. A constant initial Poisson's ratio of 0.18 was considered for each layer of the ITZ.

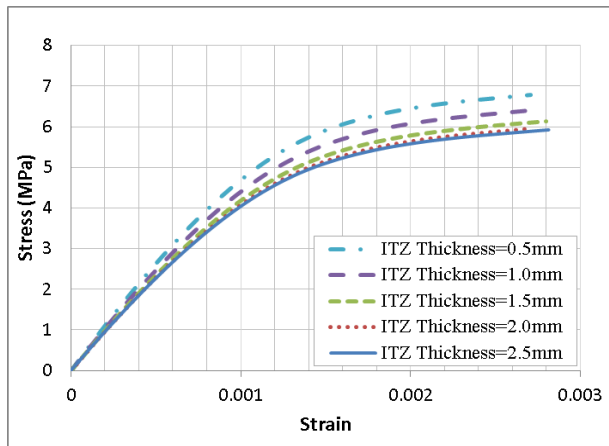
Table 2: The ITZ parameters for each test

Test #	T_{ITZ} (mm)	t_j (mm)	N	λ_E
1	2.5	5	5	1.0
2	2.0	5	4	1.0
3	1.5	5	3	1.0
4	1.0	5	2	1.0
5	0.5	5	1	1.0

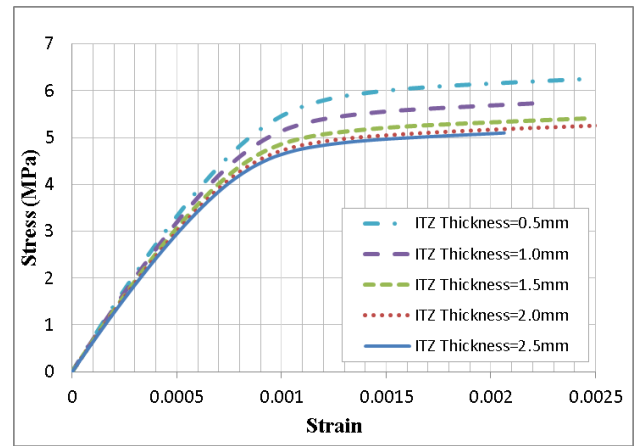
Figure 5(a) to 5(e) illustrates the influence of the ITZ layer thickness to the stress-strain behaviour of the masonry under uniaxial compression perpendicular and parallel to the bed joint, uniaxial tension perpendicular and parallel to the bed joint and pure shear, respectively.

Table 3: Stiffness of each transition layer of ITZ

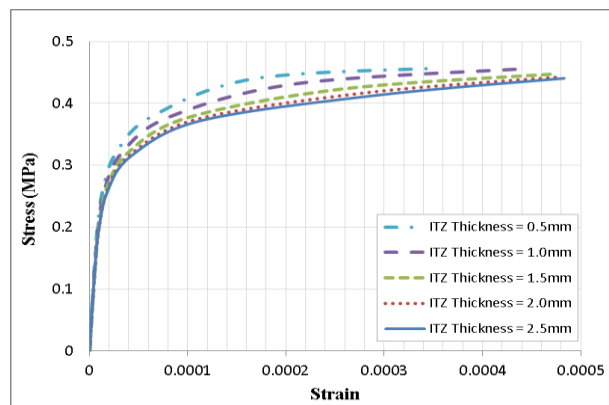
Test #	E_M (MPa)	$E_0(1)$ (MPa)	$E_0(2)$ (MPa)	$E_0(3)$ (MPa)	$E_0(4)$ (MPa)	$E_0(5)$ (MPa)
1	4000	2200	2600	3000	3400	3800
2	4000	1900	2500	3100	3700	
3	4000	1667	2600	3533		
4	4000	1600	3200			
5	4000	1760				



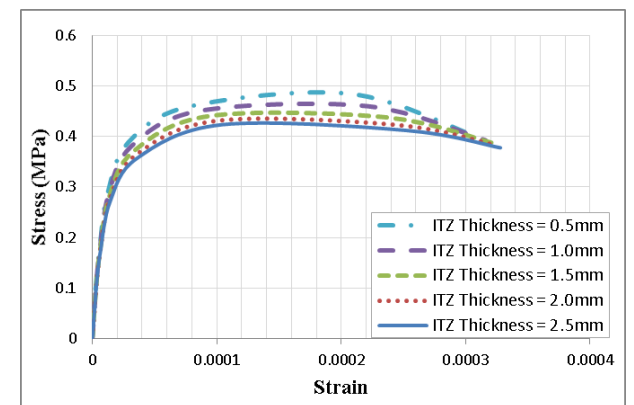
(a) compression perpendicular to bed joints



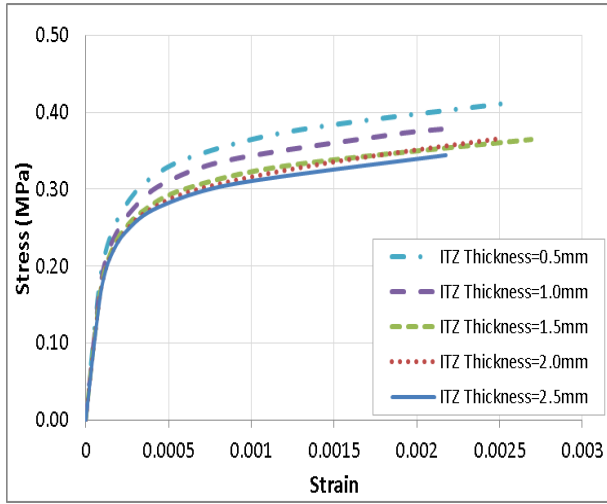
(b) compression parallel to bed joints



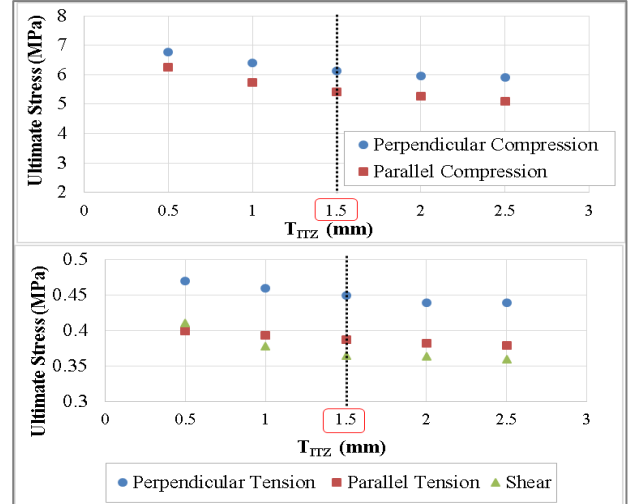
(c) tension perpendicular to bed joints



(d) tension parallel to bed joints



(e) Pure shear



(f) Effect of T_{ITZ} on ultimate stress of masonry

Figure 5: Influence of ITZ thickness on stress-strain behaviour of the RVE

It can be observed that with the increase in the thickness of the ITZ, the response of masonry has softened, which is consistent to the logical expectation. Five thicknesses of ITZ were tested and similar observations can be seen on the effect of ITZ thickness for all loading cases depicted in Figure 5. Thickness of ITZ larger than 1.5mm has no significant effect on reducing the deformation and strength characteristics of masonry as shown in Figure 5(f). Thus, from this sensitivity analysis for the ITZ thickness effects, it can be concluded that a total thickness between 0.5 to 1.5mm is desirable for the ITZ with at least 5 layers within the ITZ.

3.2 Effect of stiffness degradation parameter λ_E

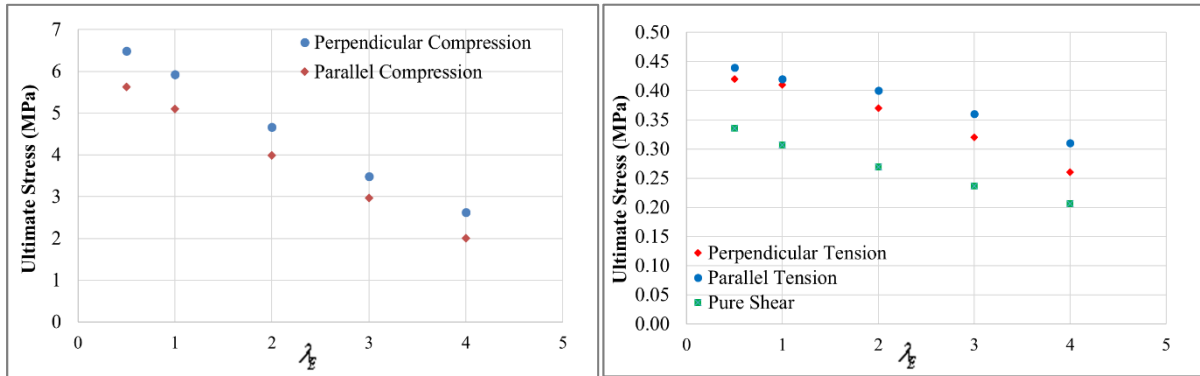
Influence of the ITZ stiffness parameter λ_E to the behaviour of masonry was investigated for five different cases. The magnitude of λ_E was varied from 0.5 to 4.0 as shown in Table 4; while all other parameters were kept constant. Based on the sensitivity analysis of ITZ thickness presented in the previous section, the total thickness of the ITZ was selected as 1.25mm divided into 5 layers (each layer was 0.25mm thick). A constant initial Poisson's ratio of 0.18 was considered for this analysis. The young's modulus of each layer was calculated from Eq. (8) for all ITZ layers for each test and is also presented in Table 4.

Figure 6(a) to 6(e) demonstrates the influence of the parameter λ_E to the ultimate stress of the masonry under uniaxial compression perpendicular and parallel to the bed joint, uniaxial tension perpendicular and parallel to the bed joint and pure shear for five different values. It

227 can be observed in these figures that the larger the value of λ_E , the weaker the response of
 228 RVE. This behaviour is also obvious from Table 4, the higher the stiffness degradation
 229 parameter, the bigger the range of stiffness change within the ITZ.

Table 4: Properties of ITZ layers to study the effect of λ_E

<i>Test #</i>	λ_E	E_M (MPa)	$E_0(1)$ (MPa)	$E_0(2)$ (MPa)	$E_0(3)$ (MPa)	$E_0(4)$ (MPa)	$E_0(5)$ (MPa)
1	0.5	4000	2966	3225	3464	3688	3899
2	1.0	4000	2200	2600	3000	3400	3800
3	2.0	4000	1210	1690	2250	2890	3610
4	3.0	4000	665	1098	1687	2456	3429
5	4.0	4000	366	714	1266	2088	3258



(a) Compression

(b) Tension and shear

Figure 6: Influence of λ_E on the ultimate stress of masonry

233 It was determined through calibration for different types of masonry that a magnitude of
 234 $\lambda_E = 0.5$ fitted most of the available experimental data from the literature [23, 24, 29, 30]. In
 235 section 4, validation of Interfacial Transition Zone (ITZ) enhanced RVE is presented for a
 236 number of uniaxial experimental datasets available in the literature for conventional mortared
 237 and drystack masonry.

238 4. Validation of the ITZ enriched damage model of RVE

239 The predictions of the ITZ enriched RVE were validated using several experimental datasets
 240 reported in the literature and presented in this section. The validation was carried out for clay
 241 brick masonry, concrete block masonry and drystack masonry subjected to uniaxial loading.

242

4.1 Validation for traditional clay brick masonry

Dhanasekar et al [38] conducted tests on solid clay brick masonry samples made of half scale bricks having dimensions of 55 mm (width), 25 mm (height) and 115 mm (length) with a mortar joint thickness of 5 mm. The RVE was developed of the same dimensions as shown in Figure 7 to predict the behaviour under uniaxial compression and tensile loads. The damage model parameters and material properties were as listed in Table 1. The selected elastic modulus of each ITZ layer (shown in Figure 7) is listed in Table 5. The initial Poisson's ratio for all layers was considered as 0.18. Within the RVE a 1.25 mm ITZ was considered as shown in Figure 8. Each ITZ layer had a thickness of 0.25 mm and the stiffness degradation parameter was kept as $\lambda_E = 0.5$.

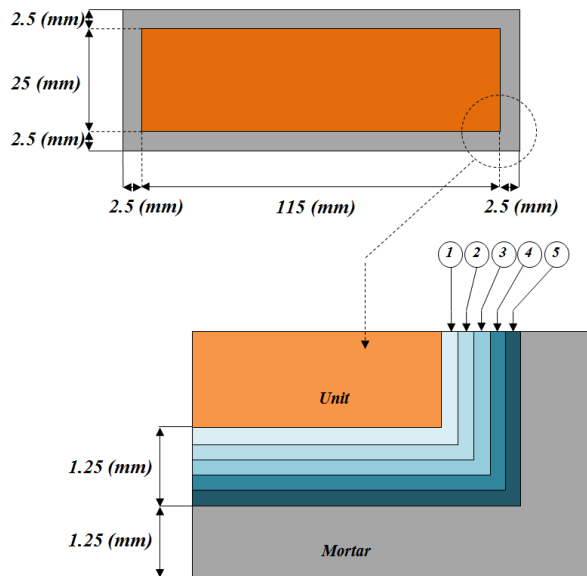


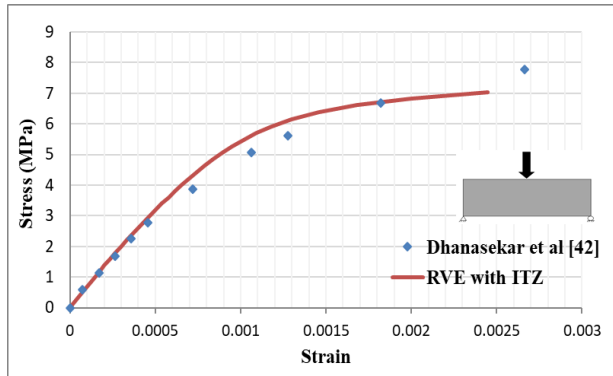
Figure 7: Dimensions of the modelled RVE and its ITZ for experiments conducted by Dhanasekar et al [42]

Table 5: Elastic Modulus of ITZ layers

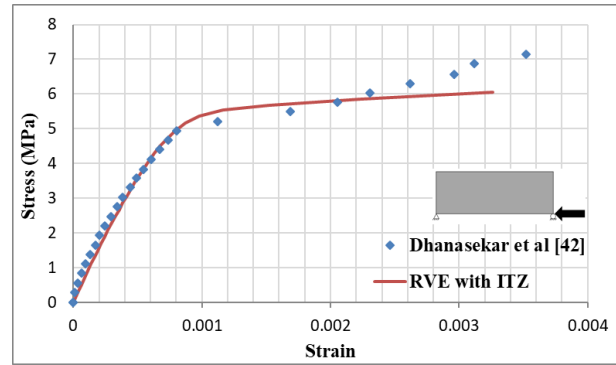
$E_0(1)$ (MPa)	$E_0(2)$ (MPa)	$E_0(3)$ (MPa)	$E_0(4)$ (MPa)	$E_0(5)$ (MPa)
2200	2600	3000	3400	3800

Figure 8 shows the predicted stress-strain behaviour by the RVE compared with the experimental datasets for compression perpendicular and parallel to the bed joint as well as

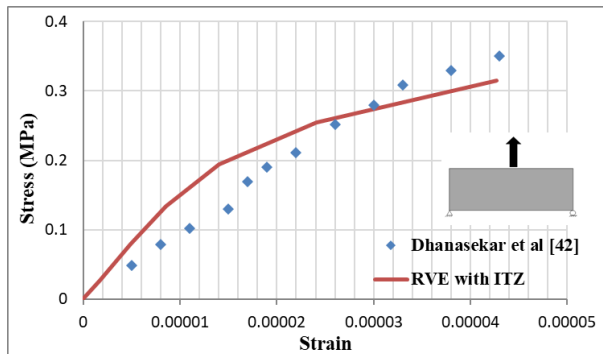
258 uniaxial tension perpendicular and parallel to the bed joint of samples. Globally good
 259 agreement was found for the model and experimental data. It can be observed from the
 260 above-mentioned tests that ITZ enriched RVE damage model can predict the stress-strain
 261 behaviour of clay brick masonry that closely matched to the experiments. However, it should
 262 be noted that a slight under-estimation of the final strength of the RVE can be seen in all
 263 cases, which is desirable for computational models as the predictions are conservative and
 264 can be used in design.



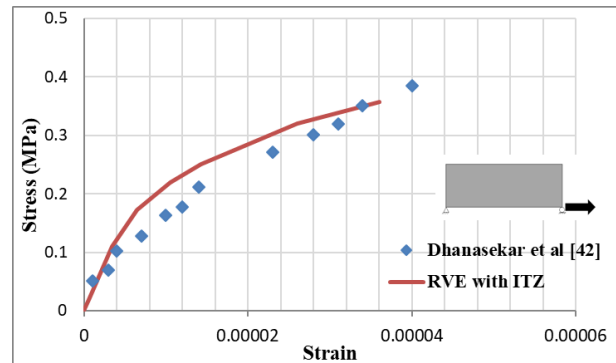
(a) compression perpendicular to bed joints



(b) compression parallel to bed joints



(c) tension perpendicular to bed joints



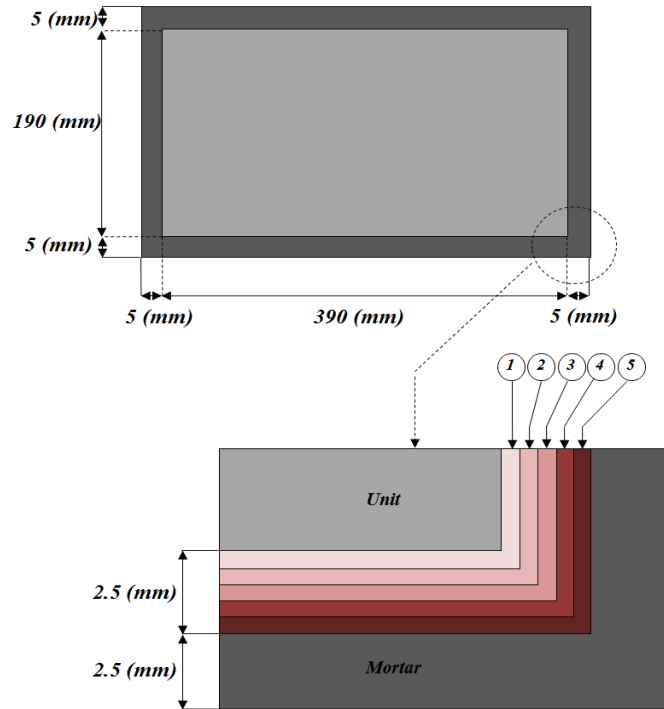
(d) tension parallel to bed joints

Figure 8: Comparison of the RVE predictions with uniaxial tests of Dhanasekar [42]

4.2 Validation for traditional concrete block masonry

Barbosa et al, [36] conducted a series of uniaxial compression tests on hollow concrete block prisms with four different unit strengths. The dimensions of the RVE modelled to represent their testing sample is shown in Figure 9. Their block dimensions were 140 mm (width), 190 mm (height) and 390 mm (length) bonded with a mortar joint thickness of 10 mm. Table 6 summarises the tested elastic properties of mortar and concrete blocks, considered for each prism test. An Interfacial Transition Zone (ITZ) with 5 layers was considered with 2.5 mm

273 thickness as shown in Figure 9. Each ITZ layer had a thickness of 0.5 mm and the ITZ
 274 parameter was taken as $\lambda_E = 0.5$. For each of the four prism tests (P1, P2, P3 and P4), initial
 275 elastic modulus $E_0(n)$ of all ITZ layers was determined using Eq. (8) and was input in the
 276 RVE model.



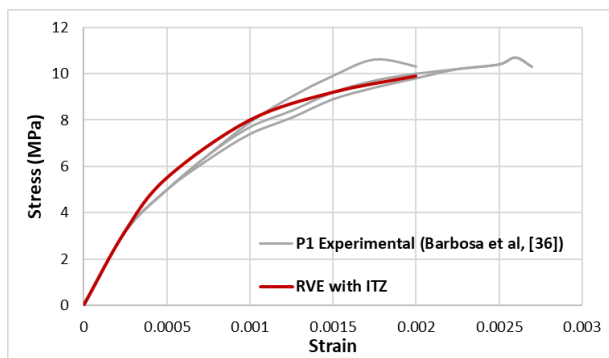
277
 278 **Figure 9: Dimensions of the modelled RVE and its ITZ for experiments**
 279 **conducted by Barbosa et al, [36]**

30
 31
 32 **Table 6: Properties of constituents for prisms tests of Barbosa et al, [36]**

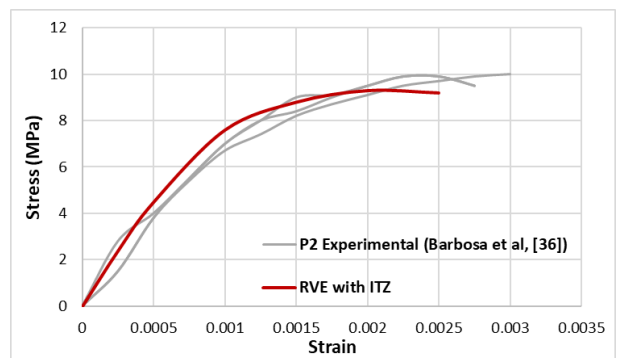
Parameter	P1		P2		P3		P4	
	Block	Mortar	Block	Mortar	Block	Mortar	Block	Mortar
E (MPa)	20595	9745	17449	8121	22175	13195	27104	16672
ν_0	0.203	0.127	0.195	0.134	0.204	0.151	0.207	0.153
k	10	9	11	9	10	9	12	10
α	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
β	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000
κ_i	0.00011	0.00011	0.00011	0.00011	0.00011	0.00011	0.00011	0.00011
κ_c	0.00017	0.000165	0.000155	0.000165	0.00017	0.000165	0.00017	0.00025
ω_c	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
ζ	-0.25	-0.25	-0.25	-0.25	-0.25	-0.25	-0.25	-0.25
c (mm ²)	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5

n_μ	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
ε_μ	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001

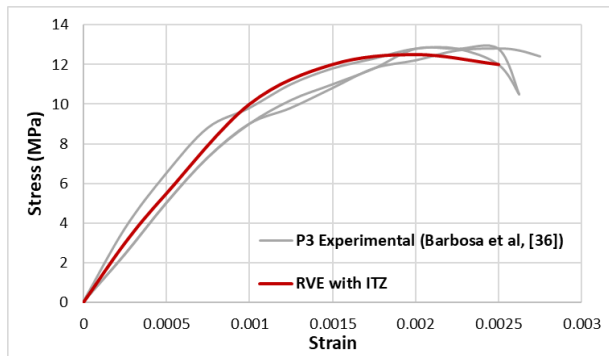
The stress-strain behaviour of masonry under uniaxial compression perpendicular to bed joints was compared with the experimental data of Barbosa, et al. [36] as shown in Figure 10. Globally good agreement was observed for the model and experimental data. Moreover, the model predictions are conservative which is expected of the numerical models to ensure safety. The model favourably predicts the overall stress-strain behaviour of the masonry prisms under uniaxial compression.



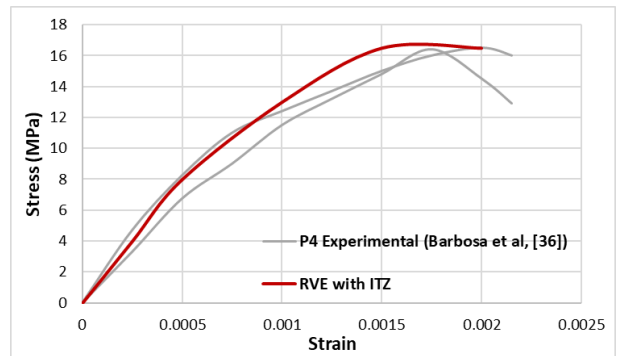
(a) P1



(b) P2



(c) P3



(d) P4

Figure 10: Comparison of the RVE predictions with the experimental tests of Barbosa et al, [36]

4.3 Validation for drystack masonry

The RVE was also validated with the experimental work reported by Oh et al, [37]. Two types of drystack blocks were used in this set of experiments: Interlocking blocks and modified H-blocks. The compressive strength of blocks was considered same as was

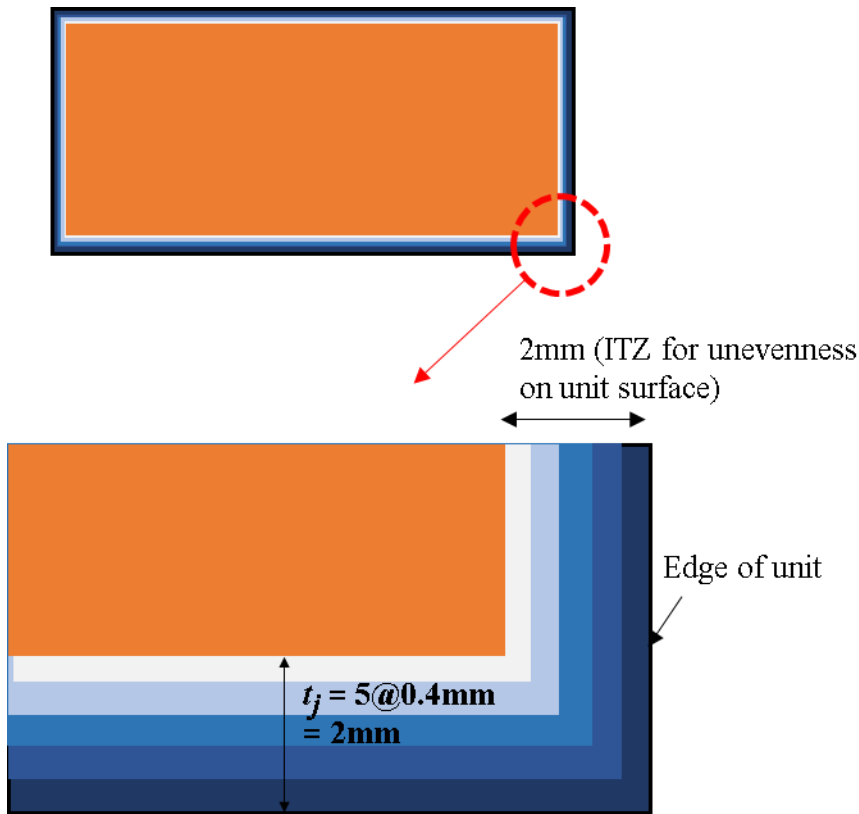
293 mentioned in [37], all other model parameters and material properties were chosen based on
 294 the parametric studies conducted in [1] and section 3 of this paper and are listed in Table 7.
 295 The properties used for simulating the joint unevenness in the ITZ across the drystack unit
 296 namely: initial imperfection (unevenness) parameter (I_0), Damage slope parameter (S_j) and
 297 limiting damage strain in the joint (κ_{jc}) are also listed in Table 7.

Table 7: Input properties for drystack masonry

Properties	Modified H-Block	Interlocking Block
E (MPa)	21000	10000
ν_0	0.2	0.2
k	10	10
α	1.0	1.0
β	1000	1000
κ_i	0.00005	0.00005
κ_c	0.00023	0.0002
ω_c	0.4	0.4
ζ	-0.25	-0.25
I_0	0.5	0.9
S_j	-1000	-1000
κ_{jc}	0.0002	0.00018

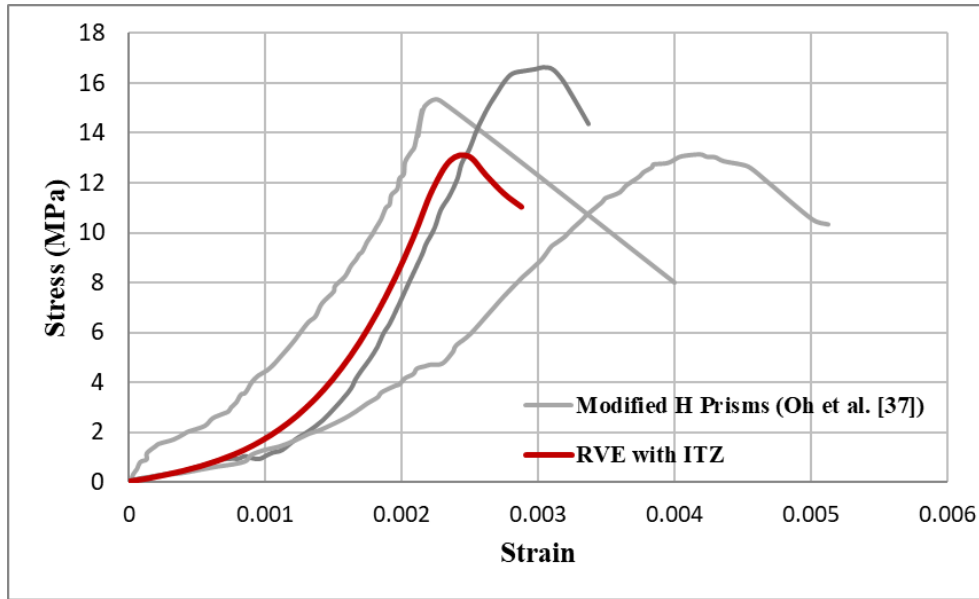
298
 299 The dimensions of the modified H-blocks were 136mm (Long) \times 68mm (High) \times 68mm
 300 (Thick) and for the interlocking blocks were 128mm (Long) \times 64mm (High) \times 64mm (Thick).
 301 An idealised RVE modelled for these drystack prisms is presented in Figure 11. ITZ of total
 302 thickness of 2mm was considered all around the blocks to simulate the weak zone due to
 303 surface unevenness between the drystack bed and perpend joints. The ITZ was divided into 5
 304 equal layers each of 0.4mm thickness as shown in Figure 11. The ITZ parameter was taken as

305 $\lambda_E = 0.5$. The RVE was analysed under uniaxial compression perpendicular to bed joints to
 306 simulate the experimental tests conducted by Oh et al, [37].

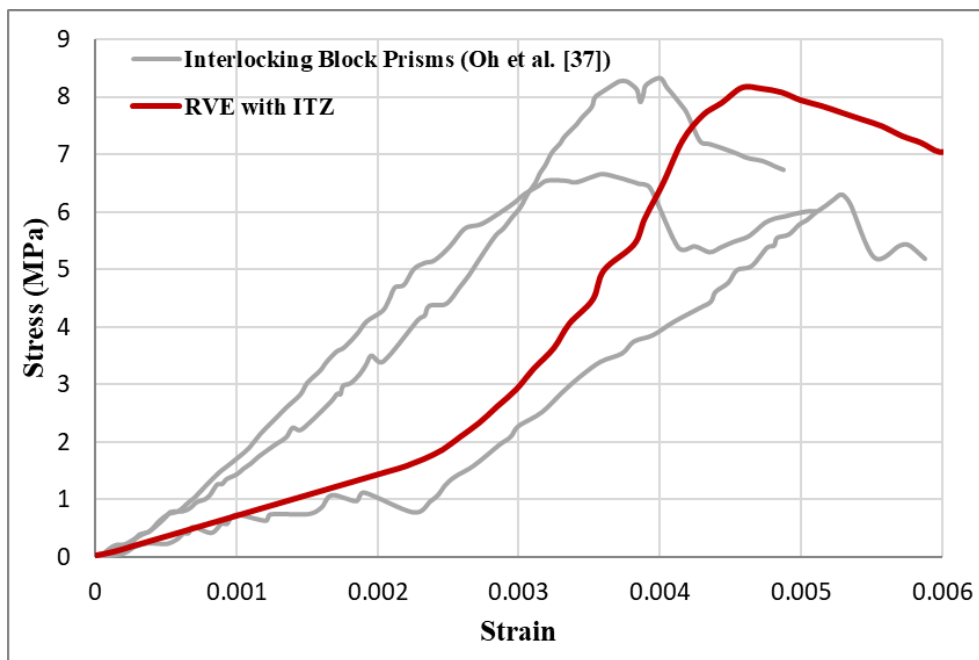


308 **Figure 11: Modelled RVE and its ITZ for experiments conducted by Oh et al, [37]**

309 The results for RVE simulations for modified H-block prisms and the interlocking block
 310 prisms are shown in Figures 12 and 13 respectively. From Figure 12 and 13 it can be
 311 concluded that RVE is able to predict the behaviour of drystack masonry with reasonable
 312 accuracy. The predicted stress-strain behaviour matches well with the experimental data with
 313 initial progressive seating behaviour of joints under compression due to crushing of
 314 interstices within the RVE controlled by introduced imperfection parameters.



316
317 **Figure 12: Validation results for modified H-Block prisms by Oh et al, [37]**

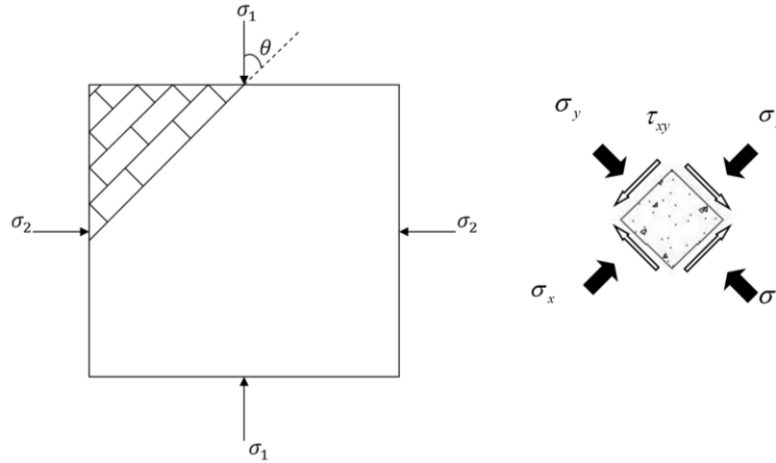


318
319 **Figure 13: Validation results for the interlocking block prisms by Oh et al, [37]**

320 **5. Application of ITZ enriched RVE for predicting biaxial behaviour of masonry**

321 From a phenomenological perspective, masonry is an anisotropic composite material in spite
 322 of its constituents can be regarded isotropic. This anisotropy is mainly due to the geometrical
 323 arrangements of units and mortar. Considering the anisotropy of masonry, the failure
 324 envelope for the in-plane stress state should be represented in terms of all plane stress

325 components σ_x, σ_y and τ_{xy} , where x-axis considered parallel to the bed joints direction and
 326 y-axis parallel to the head joints direction. Alternatively, the failure envelope can also be
 327 represented in terms of the principal stresses and an angle θ which is the angle between the
 328 material axes and the principal axes as is shown in Figure 14.



329
330 **Figure 14: Representation of material and principal axes in masonry**

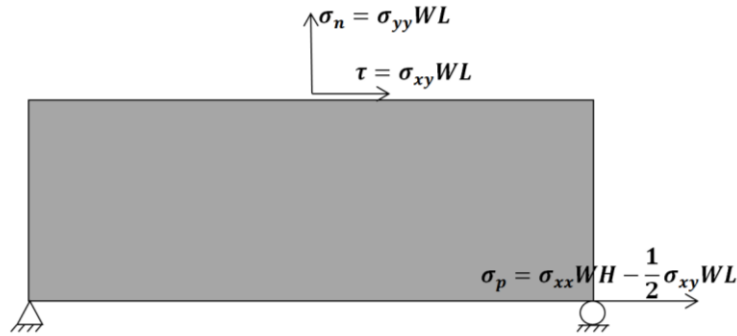
331 The ability of the present RVE model to predict the failure envelope of conventional masonry
 332 under in-plane loading was demonstrated through a comparison with available experimental
 333 data of Dhanasekar et al, [42]. The considered loading configurations were uniaxial tension,
 334 uniaxial compression, biaxial tension-compression and biaxial compression-compression. In
 335 total 22 combinations for these stress states were simulated using the developed RVE model
 336 for bed joint angles of $0^\circ, 22.5^\circ, 45^\circ, 67.5^\circ$ and 90° to determine the principal stresses for
 337 each case. Table 8 illustrates these loading combinations which were applied to the RVE
 338 shown in Figure 15 for each bed joint orientation angle. Values shown in this table are the
 339 ratio between normal ($\sigma_1 = \sigma_n$) and parallel loads ($\sigma_2 = \sigma_p$) for each load case. Mohr circle
 340 of stress transformation was used to obtain the corresponding σ_{xx}, σ_{yy} and τ_{xy} for all loading
 341 combinations of Table 8. These loads are then applied to RVE with periodic boundary
 342 conditions as shown in Figure 15.

346

Table 8: Load factors for each load combination

Load Case	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
σ_n / σ_p	∞	0	∞	0	+1	+0.5	+0.25	+0.125	+0.083	+2	+4
Load Case	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
σ_n / σ_p	+8	+12	-4	-2	-1	-0.25	-0.5	-1	+1	+0.5	+2

347

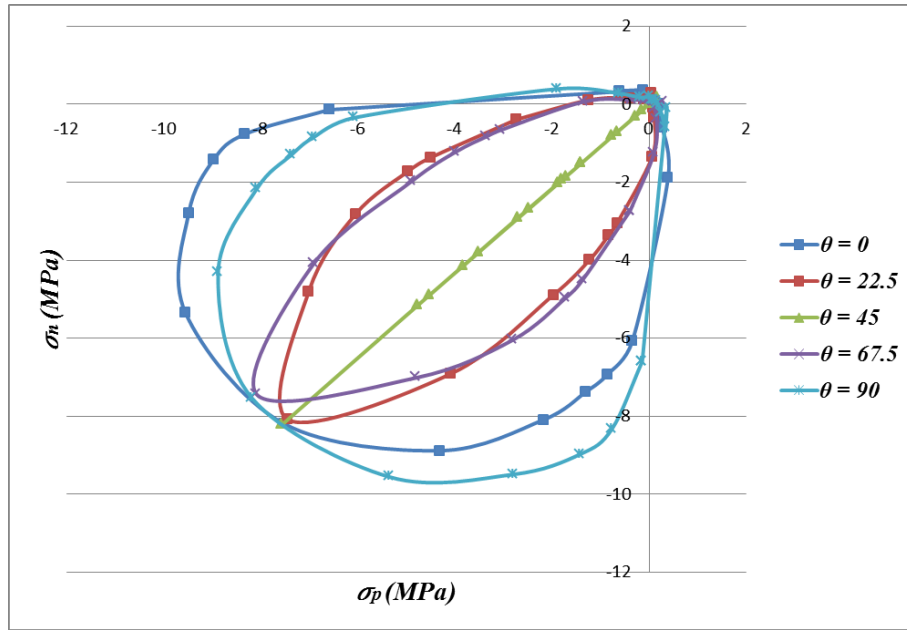


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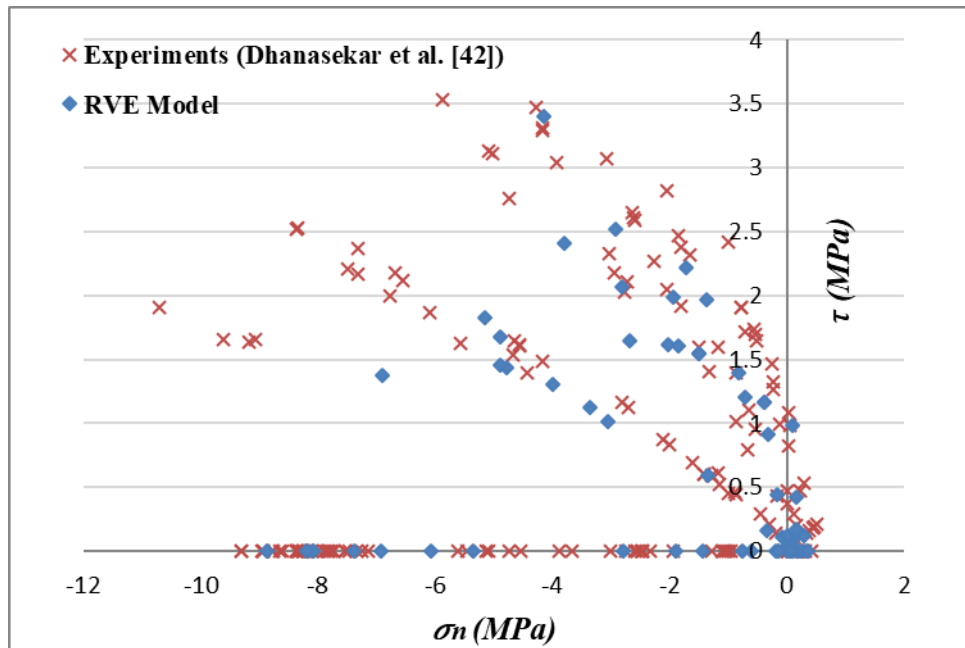
Figure 15: Biaxial Loading configuration and boundary conditions of the RVE

349

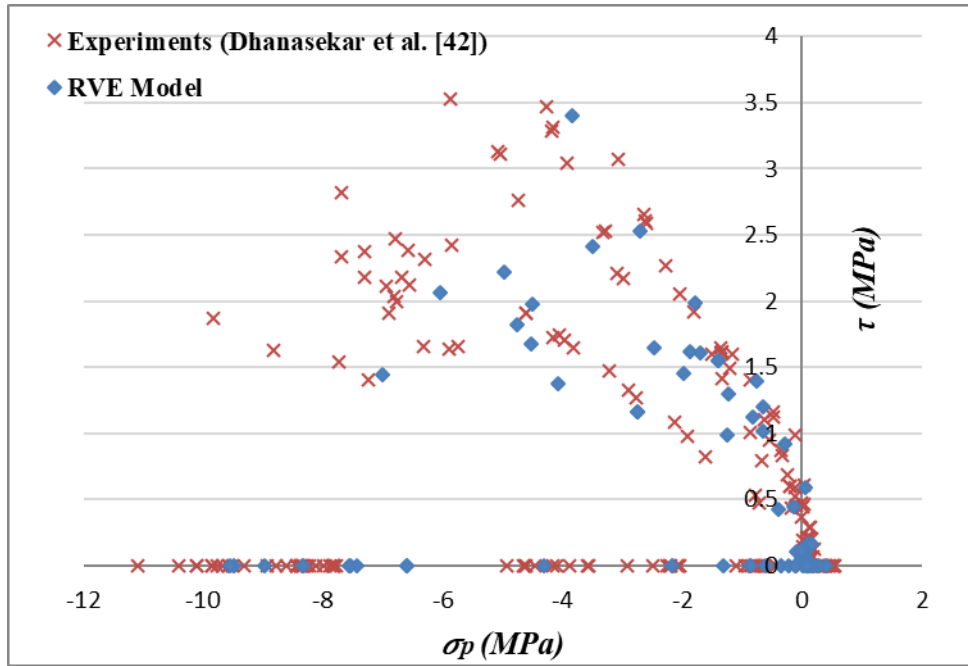
350 The material properties employed are shown in Table 1 and simulated RVE dimensions are
 351 shown in Figure 7 which were taken from Dhanasekar et al, [42]. A full failure envelope of
 352 masonry in the normal-parallel stress plane (principal plane) for the bed joint orientations of
 353 0° , 22.5° , 45° , 67.5° and 90° to validate the experimental results of Dhanasekar et al, [38] is
 354 plotted in Figure 16. These results were then also verified by plotting the failure stress
 355 predicted by the ITZ enriched RVE of all of these cases against the experimental results
 356 presented by Dhanasekar et al, [42] for normal-shear stress plane and parallel-shear stress
 357 plane in Figures 17 and 18, respectively. Good agreement can be observed between the
 358 model's numerical predictions and the experimental datasets with slight under-estimation of
 359 strength which is desirable for design purposes [43 - 45].



360
361 **Figure 16: Biaxial failure envelope of the RVE in terms of principal stresses for bed**
362 **joint angles 0° , 22.5° , 45° , 67.5° and 90°**



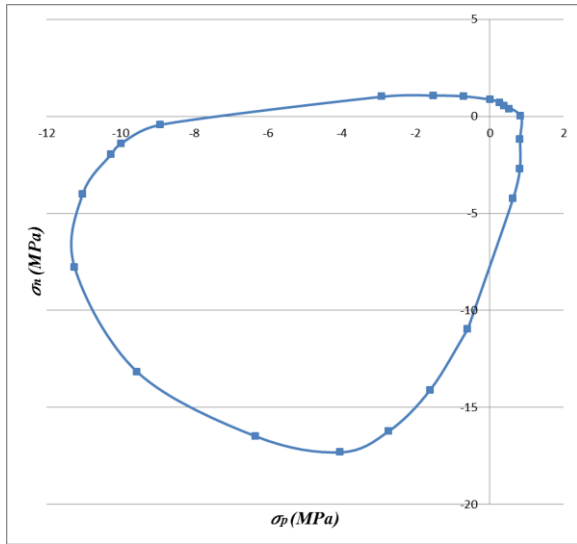
363
364 **Figure 17: Failure envelope of the RVE in terms of shear stress τ and stress normal to**
365 **bed joint σ_n for bed joint angles of 0° , 22.5° , 45° , 67.5° and 90°**



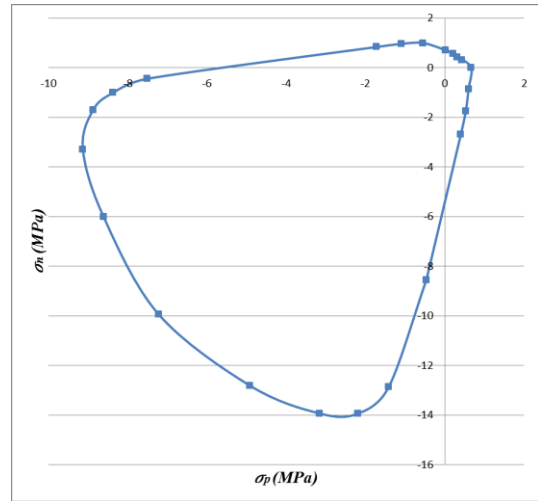
366
367 **Figure 18: Failure envelope of the RVE in terms of shear stress τ and stress parallel to**
368 **bed joint σ_p for bed joint angle of 0° , 22.5° , 45° , 67.5° and 90°**

369 The capability of predicting in-plane behaviour of clay brick masonry from the developed
370 ITZ enriched RVE has been proven from Figures 16, 17 and 18 with comparison to the
371 experimental results of Dhanasekar et al, [42].

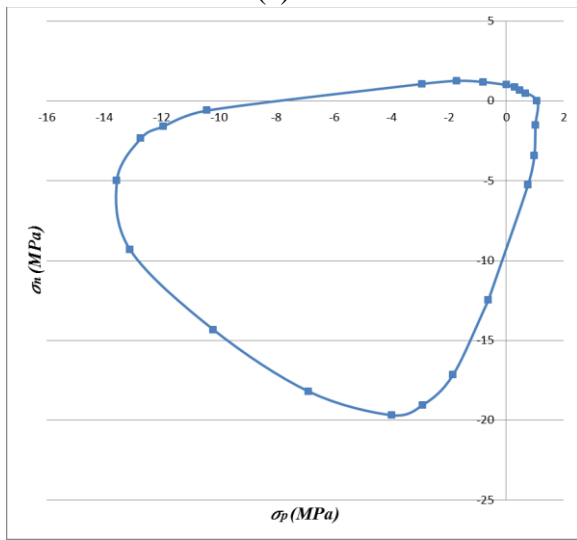
372 In order to predict the biaxial behaviour of concrete block masonry, the RVE developed for
373 uniaxial compression testing in Section 5.2 (to validate Barbosa et al, [36] experiments) was
374 employed and simulated for different biaxial principal stress ratios for orientation angles of
375 0° and 90° , which represents the case of zero shear. The results are shown in Figure 19 for all
376 the four prisms P1, P2, P3 and P4 tested earlier in Section 4.2 under uniaxial compression.



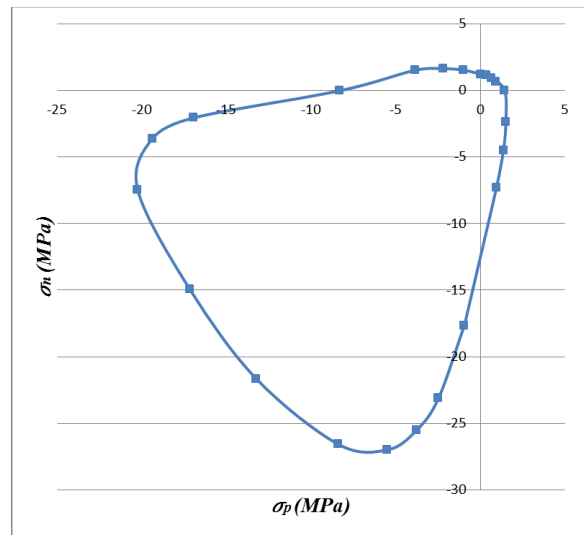
(a) P1



(b) P2



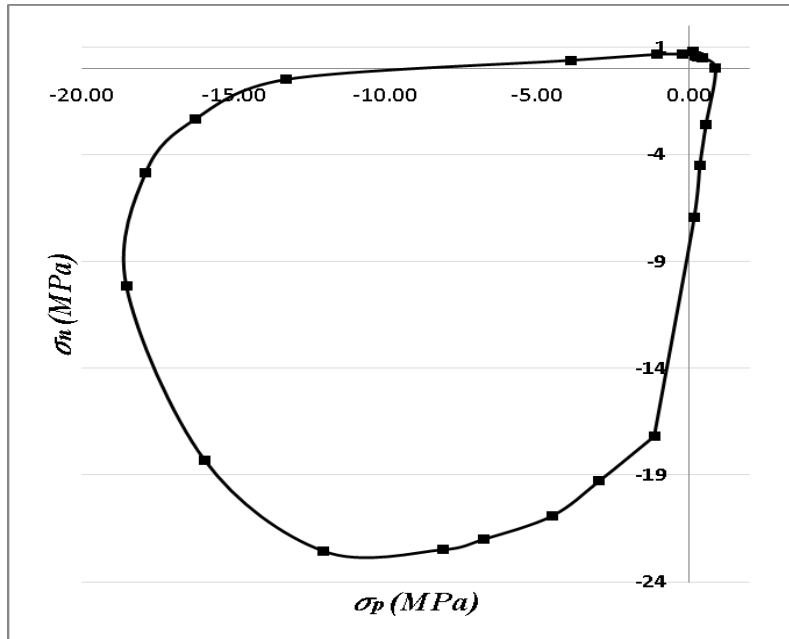
(c) P3



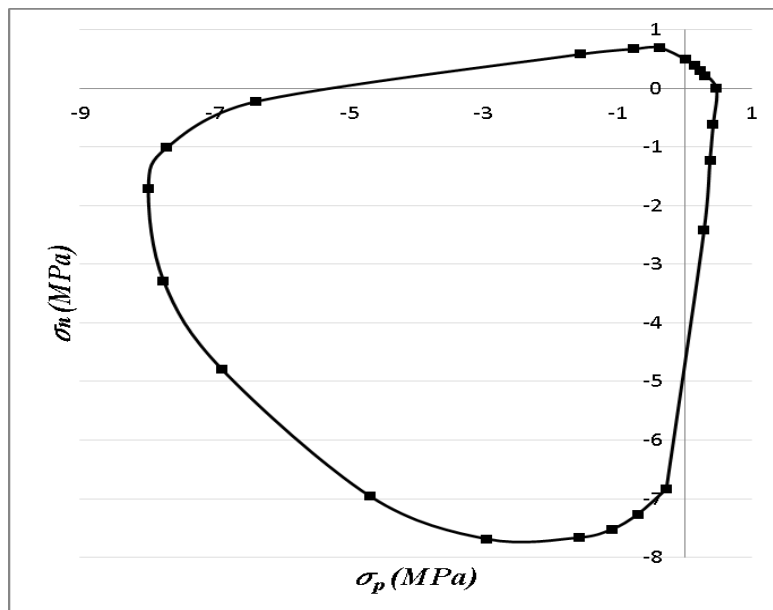
(d) P4

Figure 19: Biaxial failure envelope of the RVE in terms of principal stresses for concrete block masonry

The biaxial failure envelope of drystack masonry was also predicted using the RVE developed in Section 4.3 to validate the results of Oh et al, [37]. The RVE shown in Figure 11 was employed and simulated for different biaxial principal stress ratios shown in Table 8 for orientation angles of 0° and 90° , which represents the case of zero shear. The results are shown in Figure 20 for modified H-blocks and the interlocking drystack prisms.



(a) Modified H-block prisms



(b) Interlocking block prisms

Figure 20: Biaxial failure envelope of the RVE in terms of principal stresses for drystack masonry

Finally, to compare the biaxial failure of various masonry systems, the biaxial failure envelopes shown in Figures 16, 19 and 20 for clay brick, concrete block and drystack masonry respectively, were non-dimensionalised. Stresses in both orientations for all loading cases were divided by their respective unit strength to non-dimensionalise the ultimate strength of masonry. The mean strength of the units from each test is reported in Table 9.

395 These results are plotted in Figure 21 to depict the projection of strength in the $\sigma_n - \sigma_p$
 396 principal stress space.

Table 9: Mean strength of the units in different experiments

Reference	Mean Strength (f_u) (MPa)
Clay brick wallettes (Dhanasekar et al, [42])	15.41
Concrete Block prism, P1 (Barbosa et al, [36])	22.8
Concrete Block prism, P2 (Barbosa et al, [36])	18.6
Concrete Block prism, P3 (Barbosa et al, [36])	24.9
Concrete Block prism, P4 (Barbosa et al, [36])	36.2
Drystack H-block Prism, (Oh et al, [37])	30.7
Drystack Interlocking block Prism, (Oh et al, [37])	12.89

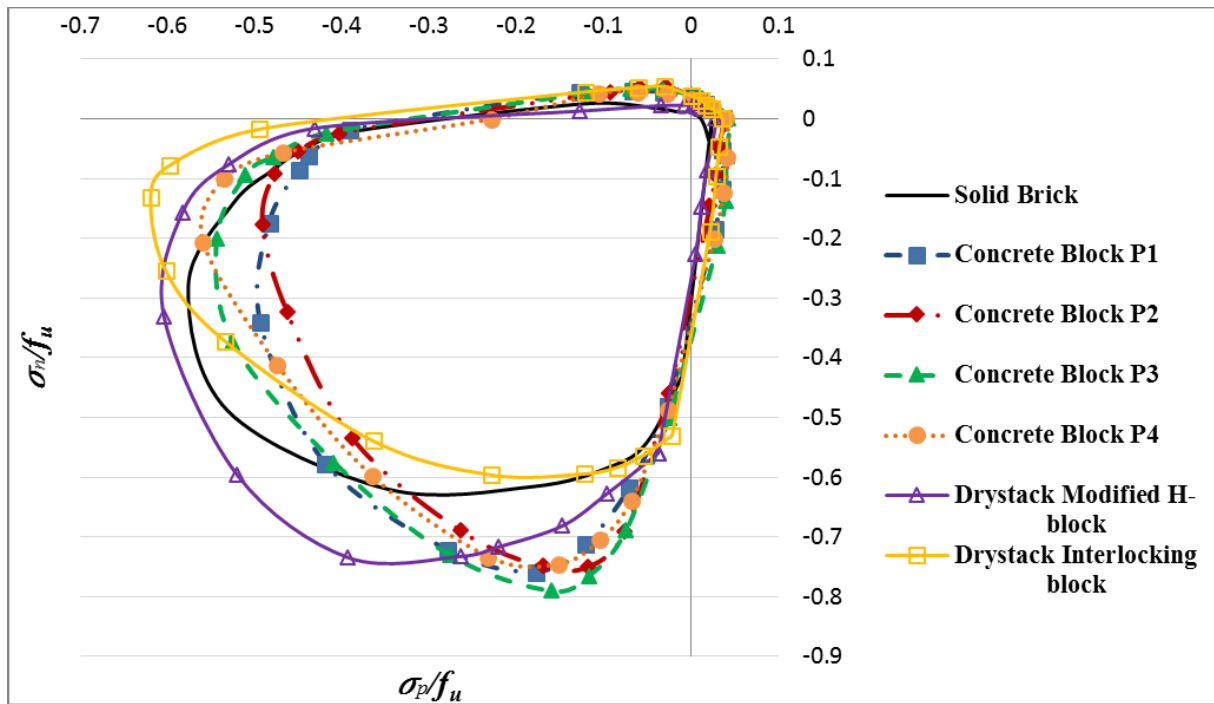


Figure 21: Combined biaxial failure envelopes of various types of masonry

400 The behaviour of all masonry types is quite similar, that is, higher strength in biaxial
 401 compression while very low strength in biaxial tension which is logical for masonry. From
 402 Figure 21 it can also be inferred that the failure envelope of the concrete block masonry has
 403 exhibited higher compressive strength than that of the clay brick masonry in the direction of

perpendicular to the bed joint. In contrast, clay brick masonry has shown slightly higher failure strength for compression parallel to bed joint.

6- Conclusions and Observations

An interfacial transition zone (ITZ) enriched representative volume element (RVE) has been reported in this paper to predict the biaxial behaviour of various types of masonry. The ITZ was introduced between the two materials through several transition layers of varying thickness and degrading stiffness. Although the concept of ITZ is not new, the novelty of the formulation provided in this paper allows its application to combinations of weak mortar – strong unit (as in conventional masonry) and strong mortar – weak unit (as in high-bond strength masonry) to simulate the progressively damaging interface. By considering the interstices at the contacting interfaces between the dry-stacked blocks as a weak interface, the ITZ enriched RVE has also been shown to be effective in predicting the response of drystack (mortarless) masonry. The model was validated using three experimental datasets under uniaxial loadings for clay brick, concrete block and drystack masonry respectively. The validated RVEs for all of these types of masonry were then employed to predict the response of masonry subject to in-plane biaxial stress state for various loading ratios and bed joint angles. Good comparison between the model predictions and experimental data was obtained. Some specific conclusions from this study are:

- The ITZ enrichment with stiffness degrading properties between the masonry unit and mortar interface for a typical masonry RVE has been shown to predict the deformation and failure characteristics of masonry accurately without any need for interface elements or surface contact nonlinearities between the constituents.
- The developed ITZ enriched RVE is capable of predicting the uniaxial and biaxial failure envelope and deformation characteristics of various types of masonry including conventional clay brick, concrete block and drystack masonry accurately.
- Minimum thickness of the interphase (or, ITZ layer) should be at least 1.5mm to accurately predict the masonry behaviour.
- ITZ should be divided into a minimum of five layers of gradually degrading stiffness to simulate the damage in the unit-mortar interface.

The ITZ enriched RVE model analysis takes about 20-30 min of CPU time on a standard 3.4GHz, 8GB RAM desktop PC as an average, which is quite economical and comparable to

435 macro-modelling of masonry. This RVE model can be employed in FE packages to analyse
436 masonry walls and structures subjected to various in-plane loads without any need for
437 complex contact nonlinearities or zero-thickness contact elements. Full-scale masonry walls
438 can be analysed using the developed meso-scale RVE through multi-scale modelling
439 technique. In the multi-scale modelling technique, full scale wall models are developed at a
440 macro-scale with a course mesh incorporating a mesoscopic RVE (with finer mesh) to predict
441 the material properties of masonry from the constituent materials (for example, brick and
442 mortar). The properties of masonry are constantly updated consistent with the strain levels in
443 the RVE (integration points) as predicted by the macro model of the modelled wall. This type
444 of modelling will obviously be more expensive than a conventional FE model where the
445 properties of masonry are directly tabulated. The advantage, however, is that there is no need
446 for the analyst to know the properties of masonry as a priori – the properties are evaluated
447 online from the basic properties of the constituents. In this way, overall, this modelling
448 method can be regarded economical as complex experimental testing of masonry can be fully
449 eliminated. The usefulness of the RVE for predicting out-of-plane response using layered
450 shell element formulation to reproduce results in [46, 47] and for damage accumulation under
451 seismic loading in [48-50] is being examined.

452 **Acknowledgment**

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454 Australia for providing high performance computing facilities to conduct this research.

455 **References**

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