

## Article

# Applying the cracking elements method for analyzing the damaging processes of structures with fissures

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**Abstract:** In this work, the recently proposed cracking elements method (CEM) is used for simulating the damaging processes of structures with initial imperfections. CEM is built in the framework of conventional FEM which is formally like a special type of finite element. The disconnected piecewise cracks are used for representing crack paths. Taking the advantages of CEM that both the initiations and propagations of cracks can be naturally captured, we numerically study the uni-axial compression tests of specimens with multiple joints and fissures, where the cracks may propagate from the tips, or from some other unexpected positions. Though uni-axial compression tests are considered, mainly tensile damage criteria are used in the numerical model. On one hand, the results demonstrate the robustness and effectiveness of the CEM while on the other hand, some drawbacks of the present model are demonstrated, showing the future work.

**Keywords:** Quasi-brittle material; Cracking elements method; Uni-axial compression tests

## 1. Introduction

Great engineering practices refer to prediction and prevention of propagation and initiation of cracks in the structures with complex initial imperfection, such as rock mass with joints and concrete structures with early age cracks. When these structures are subjected to complex loading conditions, the existed cracks does not certainly further propagate and the undamaged parts are not naturally safe. For these structures, analytical and empirical analysis are not enough for assuring their safety and durability. Numerical tools with robustness and great efficiency are highly preferable.

With the understanding of continuum-discontinuous theory and developments of computing power, many sophisticated numerical methods are proposed in last decades. These methods can be built in the continuum or discrete framework [1–3], introducing damage degrees [4,5] or crack openings (crack widths) [6,7] as the new freedom degrees. They can localize the damage [8,9] or consider the nonlocal effects [10,11], or even assume the long range forces [12,13]. The crack can be explicitly represented by moving boundaries [14–17] or implicitly embedded for avoiding remeshing [18–21]. The cracked domain can be discretized with elements [6,22,23] or particles [24–26]. In summary, these methods show advantages as well as disadvantages for different problems. Hence, a problem oriented selection procedure would be helpful.

Back to our problem, for analyzing the damaging processes of structures with initial imperfection we need a method capable of capturing initiation as well as propagation of cracks. Since we do

not focus on the stress state such as stress intensity factor around specific crack tips, numerical methods using remeshing [15,27,28], nodal enrichment such as eXtended Finite Element Method (XFEM) [18,29–31] and Numerical Manifold Method (NMM) [32–35] are not considered for simplicity. Furthermore, the crack openings are very important for analyzing the durability of structures and the quasi-static loading conditions are considered. Hence, we did not use the damage degree based methods such as phase field method [36–39], mixed mode model [40–43], equivalent lattice models [44–47] and peridynamic based methods [48–51]. Finally, we hope multiple cracks can be efficiently and simultaneously tracked and complicated crack tracking strategies [52,53] can be avoided. The Cracking Elements Method (CEM) [54–57] is the chosen numerical tool.

The CEM is a novel numerical approach belonging to the family of the Strong Discontinuity embedded Approach (SDA) [58–62]. Different from the other SDAs, it introduces disconnected piecewise cracking segments appearing in the center point of each cracked element for representing crack paths, similar to the Cracking Particle Method (CPM) [63–66]. Hence, it does not need to distinguish crack tip element and crack passing element, which naturally captures initiation as well as propagation of cracks. The crack orientation is determined locally, greatly reducing the computing efforts. Moreover, [56] shows that the cracking elements can be treated as a special type of finite element, which is formally like the 9-node quadrilateral element (or 7-node triangular element). Hence, it can be easily implemented in the conventional FEM framework.

In this work, CEM is used for simulating the damaging processes of brittle structures with joints and fissures. The numerically-obtained results are compared the experimental results, where the cracks do not always propagate from the tips of joints. Especially, uni-axial compression tests are considered while we only use tensile damage criteria in our numerical model. On one hand, agreeable results are obtained in most cases, demonstrating the robustness and applicability of CEM. On the other hand, the differences between the numerical and experimental results will guide us to do our future researches.

The remaining parts of this paper are organized as follows. In Section 2 the constitutive relationship, the formulation of the CEM are presented. The elemental stiffness matrix and residual vector are provided, showing that CEM is very similar to the conventional finite element. The numerical studies are provided in Section 3, comparing to the experimental results. This paper closes with concluding remarks in Section 4.

## 2. Methods

Since the details of CEM were proposed before in [56,57] with the matrix form, only brief introductions will be provided in this section. By providing the elemental stiffness matrix and residual vector of un-cracked and cracked elements, we will demonstrate the ease of implementing CEM into the FEM framework.

### 2.1. Traction-separation law

Mixed-mode traction-separation law [67–71] is used in the CEM. Under 2D conditions, the equivalent crack opening is defined as

$$\zeta_{eq} = \sqrt{\zeta_n^2 + \zeta_t^2}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\zeta_n$  and  $\zeta_t$  are the crack openings (as unknowns) along the normal and parallel directions, respectively, of the crack path and the corresponding unit vectors are denoted as  $\mathbf{n} = [n_x, n_y]^T$  and

$\mathbf{t} = [t_x, t_y]^T$ . Obviously  $n_x t_x + n_y t_y = 0$ . The traction components along  $\mathbf{n}$  and  $\mathbf{t}$ , namely,  $T_n$  and  $T_t$ , respectively, are obtained as

$$T_n = T_{eq} \frac{\zeta_n}{\zeta_{eq}}, \quad T_t = T_{eq} \frac{\zeta_t}{\zeta_{eq}}$$

with

$$T_{eq}(\zeta_{eq}) = \begin{cases} TL(\zeta_{eq}) = f_t \exp\left(-\frac{f_t}{G_f} \zeta_{eq}\right), & \text{loading,} \\ TU(\zeta_{eq}) = \frac{T_{mx}}{\zeta_{mx}} \zeta_{eq}, & \text{unloading/reloading,} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

where  $f_t$  is the uni-axial tensile strength,  $G_f$  is the fracture energy,  $\zeta_{mx}$  is the maximum opening the crack has ever experienced, and  $T_{mx} = TL(\zeta_{mx})$  is the corresponding traction. The traction-separation law indicates that CEM is consistent with the conventional cohesive zone model, as a crack opening-based model but not a damage degree-based model.

Correspondingly, the relationship between the traction differentials  $dT_n$  and  $dT_t$  and the crack openings  $\zeta_n$  and  $\zeta_t$  are described by

$$\mathbf{D} \begin{bmatrix} d\zeta_n \\ d\zeta_t \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} dT_n \\ dT_t \end{bmatrix}, \quad (3)$$

with

$$\mathbf{D} = -\frac{T_{eq}}{\zeta_{eq}} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\zeta_n^2}{\zeta_{eq}^2} + \frac{f_t \zeta_n^2}{G_f \zeta_{eq}} - 1 & \frac{\zeta_n \zeta_t}{\zeta_{eq}^2} + \frac{f_t \zeta_n \zeta_t}{G_f \zeta_{eq}} \\ \frac{\zeta_n \zeta_t}{\zeta_{eq}^2} + \frac{f_t \zeta_n \zeta_t}{G_f \zeta_{eq}} & \frac{\zeta_t^2}{\zeta_{eq}^2} + \frac{f_t \zeta_t^2}{G_f \zeta_{eq}} - 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for loading,} \quad (4)$$

and

$$\mathbf{D} = \frac{T_{mx}}{\zeta_{mx}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{for unloading/reloading,}$$

in which  $\mathbf{D}$  obviously remains symmetric.

On the other hand, some other types of the traction-separation law, such as linear, bilinear and hyperbolic, can also be applied but have not yet been attempted. We prefer the exponential law because i) it only needs two parameters:  $f_t$  and  $G_f$  both of which have strong physical meanings and can be experimentally obtained in the standard tests; ii) it has  $C^\infty$  continuity, make  $\mathbf{D}$  very simple.

## 2.2. Elemental formulation

In our early work such as [54,55], we focused on the deduction processes of CEM framework by introducing the strain localization [72,73] and Enhanced Assumed Strains (EAS) [74–76] in which process many complicated tensors are assumed. This on one hand paved the basis of this method which on the other hand reduced the readability. In this work, only 2D condition is considered. We use Voigt notation for representing all second- and fourth-order tensors with corresponding vector and matrix forms [77]. Moreover, from a practical point of view we will directly provide the elemental formulation of un-cracked and cracking element for comparisons.

Firstly, for nonlinear analysis the standard Newton-Raphson (N-R) iteration procedure is used. The global vector of freedom degrees are represented with symbol  $\mathbf{U} = \bigcup \mathbf{U}^{(e)}$ , where  $\bigcup(\cdot)$  denotes the assemblage of elemental matrix or vector to the global form. Considering the load step  $i$  in iteration step  $j$ , the following equation is introduced:

$$\mathbf{U}_{i,j} = \underbrace{\mathbf{U}_{i-1} + \Delta \mathbf{U}_{j-1}}_{\text{known}} + \underbrace{\Delta \Delta \mathbf{U}}_{\text{unknown}}, \quad (5)$$

Then, the linearized balance equation is represented as

$$\mathbf{K}_{j-1} \Delta \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{R}_{j-1}, \quad (6)$$

where  $\mathbf{K}_{j-1}$  is the global stiffness matrix, with  $\mathbf{K} = \bigcup \mathbf{K}^{(e)}$ .  $\mathbf{R}_{j-1}$  is the residual vector, with  $\mathbf{R} = \bigcup \mathbf{R}^{(e)}$ .  $\mathbf{R}_{j-1}$  is a function of  $(\mathbf{U}_{i-1} + \Delta \mathbf{U}_{j-1})$ . Then for the elemental stiffness matrix  $\mathbf{K}^{(e)}$  and the residual vector  $\mathbf{R}^{(e)}$  of un-cracked element and cracking element, we have

### 2.2.1. Un-cracked element

For an un-cracked element  $e$ , its unknown vector  $\mathbf{U}^{(e)} = [\mathbf{u}_1 \cdots \mathbf{u}_n]^T$  in which  $n$  is the node number. Its shape function is denoted as  $\mathbf{N}^{(e)}$  with  $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{N}^{(e)}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{U}^{(e)}$  and its  $B$  matrix is corresponding denoted as  $\mathbf{B}^{(e)} = \nabla \mathbf{N}^{(e)}$ . When ignoring the material nonlinear effects, its elemental stiffness matrix  $\mathbf{K}^{(e)}$  is obtained as

$$\mathbf{K}_{j-1}^{(e)} = \mathbf{K}^{(e)} = \int (\mathbf{B}^{(e)})^T \mathbf{C}^{(e)} \mathbf{B}^{(e)} d(e), \quad (7)$$

where  $\mathbf{C}^{(e)}$  is the matrix form of the elastic tensor. Its residual vector at iteration step  $j-1$ ,  $\mathbf{R}_{j-1}^{(e)}$  is obtained as

$$\mathbf{R}_{j-1}^{(e)} = \mathbf{F}^{(e)} - \mathbf{K}^{(e)} (\mathbf{U}_{i-1} + \Delta \mathbf{U}_{j-1}), \quad (8)$$

where  $\mathbf{F}^{(e)}$  is the loading forces on corresponding nodes. Because  $\mathbf{K}^{(e)}$  will not change during the iteration, only one iteration step is needed for convergence.

### 2.2.2. Cracking element

On the other hand, for cracking element, its unknown vector is defined as  $\mathbf{U}^{(e)} = [\mathbf{u}_1 \cdots \mathbf{u}_n, \zeta_n, \zeta_t]^T$ . Its  $B$  matrix is extended to

$$\mathbf{B}^{(e)} = [\nabla \mathbf{N}^{(e)}, \mathbf{B}_\zeta], \quad (9)$$

where  $\mathbf{N}^{(e)}$  is the original shape function and

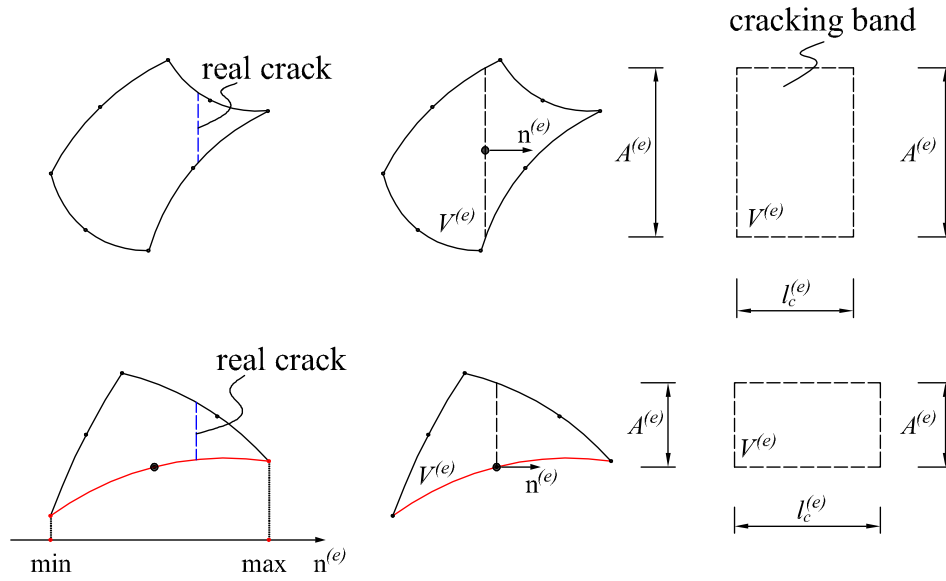
$$\mathbf{B}_\zeta^{(e)} = - \left( l_c^{(e)} \right)^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} n_x^{(e)} \cdot n_x^{(e)} & n_x^{(e)} \cdot t_x^{(e)} \\ n_y^{(e)} \cdot n_y^{(e)} & n_y^{(e)} \cdot t_y^{(e)} \\ 2 n_x^{(e)} \cdot n_y^{(e)} & n_x^{(e)} \cdot t_y^{(e)} + n_y^{(e)} \cdot t_x^{(e)} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (10)$$

where the element-dependent parameter  $l_c^{(e)}$  is obtained as  $l_c^{(e)} = V^{(e)} / A^{(e)}$ , where  $V^{(e)}$  denotes the volume of element  $e$  and  $A^{(e)}$  stands for the surface area of an equivalent crack parallel to the real crack. Actually  $l_c$  corresponds to the classic characteristic length [78,79]. Here, the determination of  $A^{(e)}$  for 8-node quadrilateral (Q8) and 6-node triangular (T6) element is slightly different insofar as the equivalent crack passes through the center point of Q8 but through the midpoint of one edge of T6; see Figure 1. More details can be found in [56,57]. Its elemental stiffness matrix  $\mathbf{K}^{(e)}$  can be obtained as

$$\mathbf{K}_{j-1}^{(e)} = \int (\mathbf{B}^{(e)})^T \mathbf{C}^{(e)} \mathbf{B}^{(e)} d(e) + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & A^{(e)} \mathbf{D}^{(e)} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (11)$$

Because the crack orientation ( $\mathbf{n}$ ) and crack openings will change during the iteration.  $\mathbf{K}_{j-1}^{(e)}$  of cracking element is not constant. Its residual vector at iteration step  $j-1$ ,  $\mathbf{R}_{j-1}^{(e)}$  is obtained as

$$\mathbf{R}_{j-1}^{(e)} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{F}^{(e)} \\ -A^{(e)} \mathbf{T}^{(e)} \end{bmatrix} - \mathbf{S}_{j-1}^{(e)} (\mathbf{U}_{i-1} + \Delta \mathbf{U}_{j-1}). \quad (12)$$



**Figure 1.** Relationships between  $l_c$ ,  $V^{(e)}$  and  $A^{(e)}$  of Q8 and T6

where  $\mathbf{T}^{(e)} = [T_n^{(e)}, T_t^{(e)}]^T$  (see Eq. 2) and  $\mathbf{S}_{j-1}$  is a designed unsymmetrical matrix as

$$\mathbf{S}_{j-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \int (\nabla \mathbf{N}^{(e)})^T \mathbf{C}^{(e)} (\widehat{\nabla \mathbf{N}}^{(e)}) d(e) & \int (\nabla \mathbf{N}^{(e)})^T \mathbf{C}^{(e)} \mathbf{B}_\zeta^{(e)} d(e) \\ V^{(e)} (\mathbf{B}_\zeta^{(e)})^T \mathbf{C}^{(e)} (\widehat{\nabla \mathbf{N}}^{(e)}) & V^{(e)} (\mathbf{B}_\zeta^{(e)})^T \mathbf{C}^{(e)} \mathbf{B}_\zeta^{(e)} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (13)$$

where  $\widehat{\nabla \mathbf{N}}^{(e)}$  is value of  $\nabla \mathbf{N}^{(e)}$  at the center point of element  $e$ .

In summary, the elemental formulations of un-cracked element and cracking element are very similar. Once an un-crack element becomes cracking element, by replacing its elemental stiffness matrix and residual vector provided in Eqs. 7 and 8 into the new form provided in Eqs. 11 and 12, the cracks can be captured. Formally, the quadrilateral cracking element is similar to 9-node quadrilateral element (transformed from Q8) and the triangular cracking element is similar to 7-node triangular element (transformed from T6). The displacement freedom degrees of the center point is now used for representing the normal and shear crack openings.

### 2.3. Determination of $\mathbf{n}$ , crack propagation and initiation

A local criterion is firstly proposed in [54] for determining  $\mathbf{n}$ , that  $\mathbf{n}$  is assumed to be the first eigenvector of the total strain  $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{(e)}$ , which is determined by

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}}^{(e)} = \begin{bmatrix} \widehat{\varepsilon}_x^{(e)} \\ \widehat{\varepsilon}_y^{(e)} \\ \widehat{\gamma}_{xy}^{(e)} \end{bmatrix} = \widehat{\nabla \mathbf{N}}^{(e)} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad (14)$$

which is independent of  $\zeta_n$  and  $\zeta_t$ . After solving the eigenvalue and eigenvector, we obtain

$$\begin{bmatrix} n_x^{(e)} \\ n_y^{(e)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a / \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \\ b / \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$a = \frac{\hat{\gamma}_{xy}^{(e)}}{2}$$

$$b = \frac{\hat{\varepsilon}_y^{(e)} - \hat{\varepsilon}_x^{(e)} + \sqrt{(\hat{\varepsilon}_x^{(e)} - \hat{\varepsilon}_y^{(e)})^2 + (\hat{\gamma}_{xy}^{(e)})^2}}{2}.$$
(15)

In the framework of CEM, the element will experience cracking one after another. Crack propagation is always checked first; then, crack initiation is considered. This procedure is based on an idea that when the extensions of the existed cracks cannot fully release the extra stresses, new cracks will appear. This procedure was used for capture the dynamic crack propagation in [55], showing robustness as well.

Firstly an index  $\phi_{RK}^{(e)}$  is introduced as

$$\phi_{RK}^{(e)} = \begin{bmatrix} n_x^{(e)} \cdot n_x^{(e)} \\ n_y^{(e)} \cdot n_y^{(e)} \\ 2 n_x^{(e)} \cdot n_y^{(e)} \end{bmatrix}^T \mathbf{C}^{(e)} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\varepsilon}_x^{(e)} \\ \hat{\varepsilon}_y^{(e)} \\ \hat{\gamma}_{xy}^{(e)} \end{bmatrix} - f_t^{(e)}$$
(16)

Then, following computing procedure is conducted

1. The un-cracked domain is divided into two sub-domains as i) propagation domain, ii) crack root domain, base on a simple rule: when the elements share at least one edge with the cracking elements, they belong to the propagation domain, otherwise they are in the crack root domain. Obviously in the beginning the whole domain is crack root domain;
2. Find  $\left\{ \max \left\{ \phi_{RK}^{(e)} \right\} \right\}$  in the propagation domain. If  $\left\{ \max \left\{ \phi_{RK}^{(e)} \right\} \right\} > 0$ , the element becomes cracking element, then two sub-domains will be updated, the N-R iteration will be run and this step will be conducted again. If  $\left\{ \max \left\{ \phi_{RK}^{(e)} \right\} \right\} \leq 0$ , do the next step;
3. Find  $\left\{ \max \left\{ \phi_{RK}^{(e)} \right\} \right\}$  in the crack root domain. If  $\left\{ \max \left\{ \phi_{RK}^{(e)} \right\} \right\} > 0$ , the element becomes cracking element, then two sub-domains will be updated, the N-R iteration will be run and step 2 will be conducted again. If  $\left\{ \max \left\{ \phi_{RK}^{(e)} \right\} \right\} \leq 0$ , this loading step is considered to converge.

A detained flowchart can be found in [56].

### 3. Numerical investigations

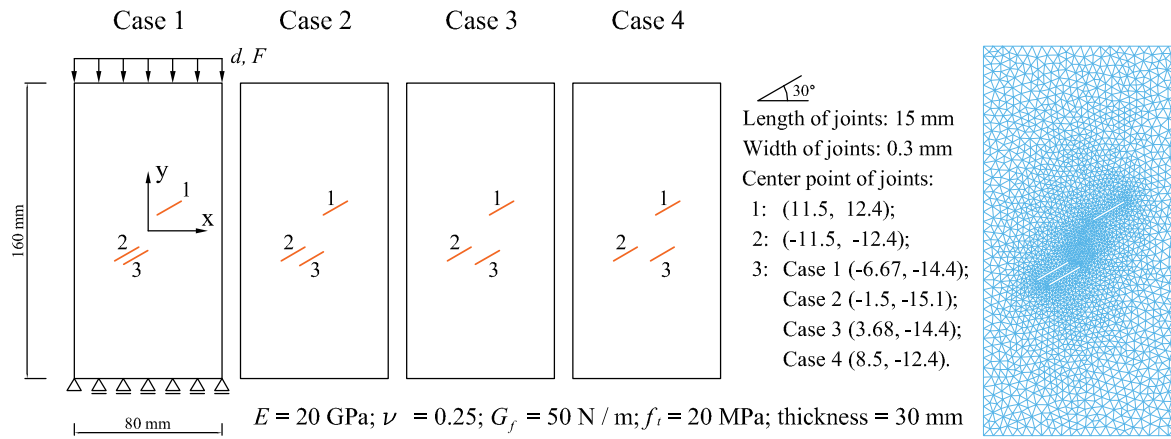
The plane stress condition is considered for all the examples provided in this section.

#### 3.1. Sandstone containing three pre-existing fissures

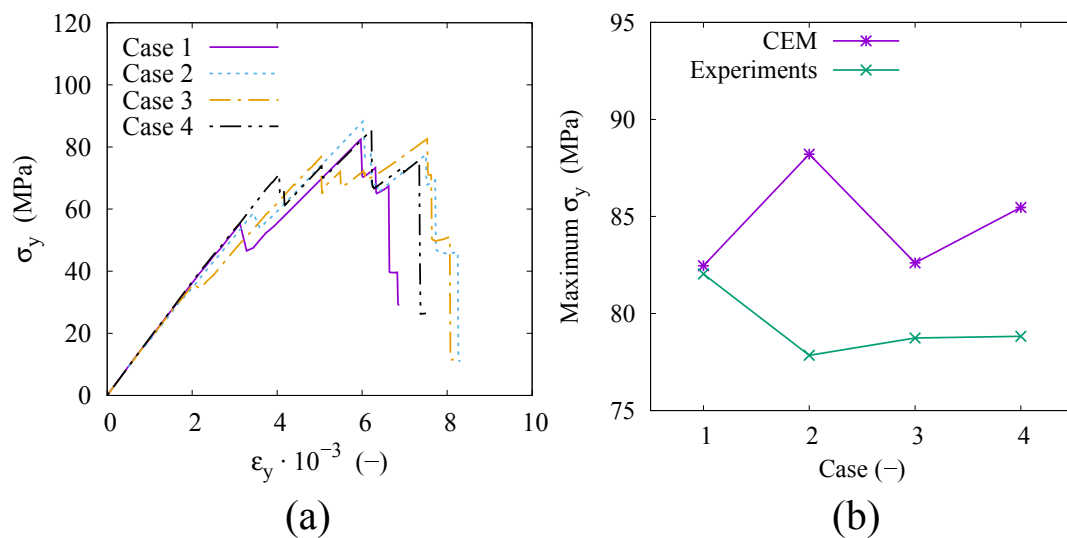
The first example is the uni-axial compression tests of sandstone specimens with three fissures, which was experimentally studied in [80]. This example was numerically studied by bond-based peridynamic model in [81], as a damage degree based model. To the best of our knowledge, this example has not been numerically studied by a crack-opening based model in published literatures. The model, material, and discretization are shown in Figure 2. The meshes will slightly change with different setup of the fissures. Although the specimens are subjected to compression loading, they experience mainly tensile damages.

The force-displacement curves and the maximum vertical loads comparing to the experimental results are show in Figure 3. In the force-displacement curves, oscillations correspond to the connecting

of different fissures by propagating cracks. Furthermore, considering the maximum vertical loads, similar to the experimental results, we found the position of the fissure No.3 has limited influences on the maximum  $\sigma_y$ . The crack openings plots comparing to the experimental results are shown in Figures 4 to 7, indicating that CEM is capable of simulating multiple crack propagations and the connections of different fissures.



**Figure 2.** Sandstone containing three pre-existing fissures: model, material, and discretization



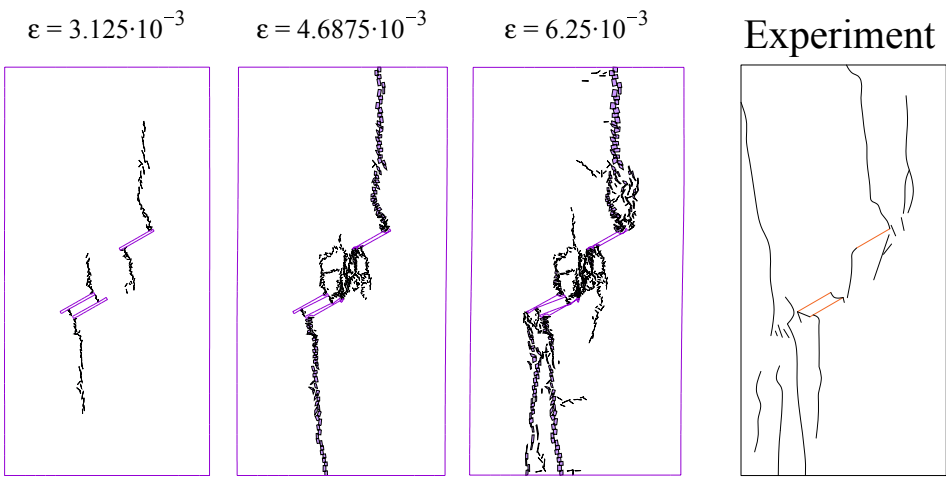
**Figure 3.** Sandstone containing three pre-existing fissures: (a) force-displacement curves, (b) maximum vertical loads comparing to the experimental results provided in [80]

### 3.2. 3D-printed materials with two intermittent fissures

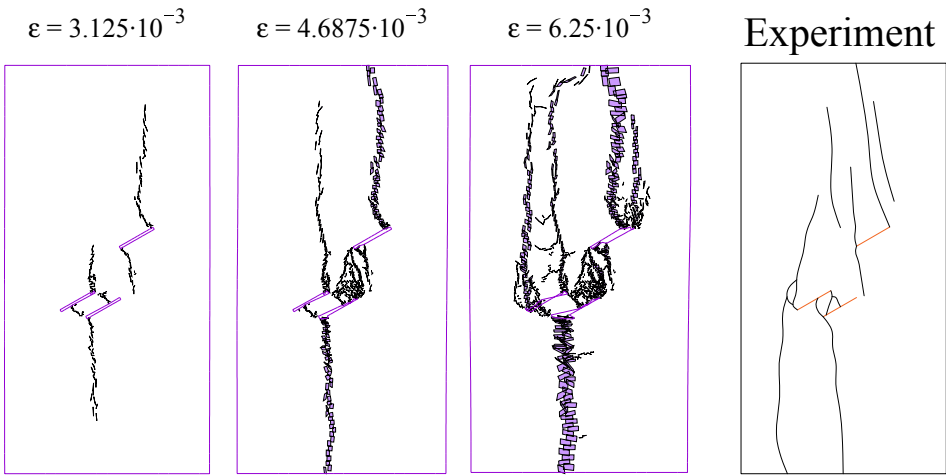
The second example is the uni-axial compression tests of 3D-printed materials with two intermittent fissures, which was experimentally studied in [82]. The model, material, and discretization are shown in Figure 8, with width of fissures: 0.3 mm. It can be found that only elastic modulus, Poisson's ratio, fracture energy, and uni-axial tensile strength are needed in our model.

The force-displacement curves and the maximum vertical loads comparing to the experimental results are shown in Figure 9. Generally the numerically-obtained results are agreeable. Parts of the crack openings plots comparing to the experimental results are shown in Figures 10 to 13. It can be found that in most cases of the simulations, the two fissures are not connected by the propagating cracks, which is not very agreeable to the experimental results. We attribute the differences to two reasons: i) the shearing damage is not accounted in the present model and ii) the free horizontal boundary conditions on the top and bottom sides of the specimens cannot be assured in the experimental investigations.

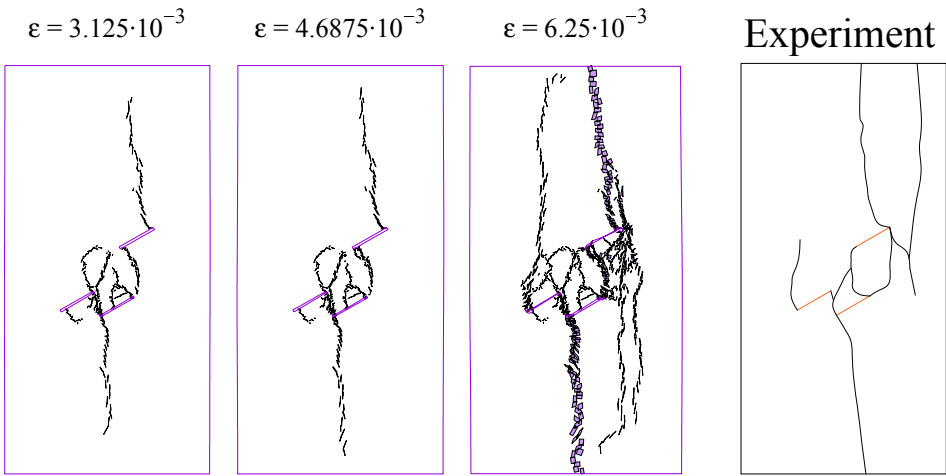




**Figure 4.** Sandstone containing three pre-existing fissures (Case 1): crack openings plots (deformation scale 1:1) comparing to the experimental results provided in [80]

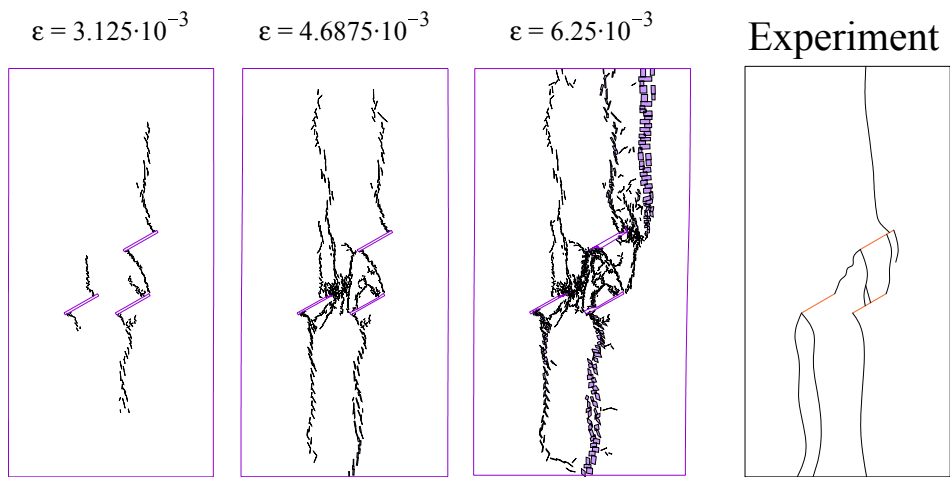


**Figure 5.** Sandstone containing three pre-existing fissures (Case 2): crack openings plots (deformation scale 1:1) comparing to the experimental results provided in [80]

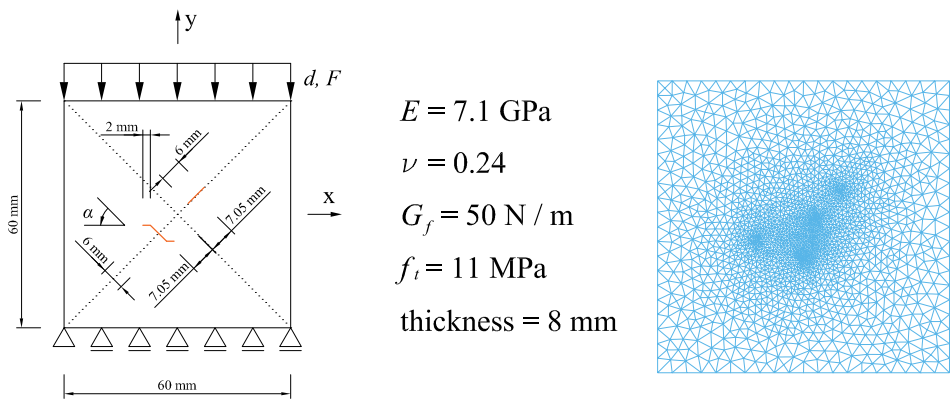


**Figure 6.** Sandstone containing three pre-existing fissures (Case 3): crack openings plots (deformation scale 1:1) comparing to the experimental results provided in [80]

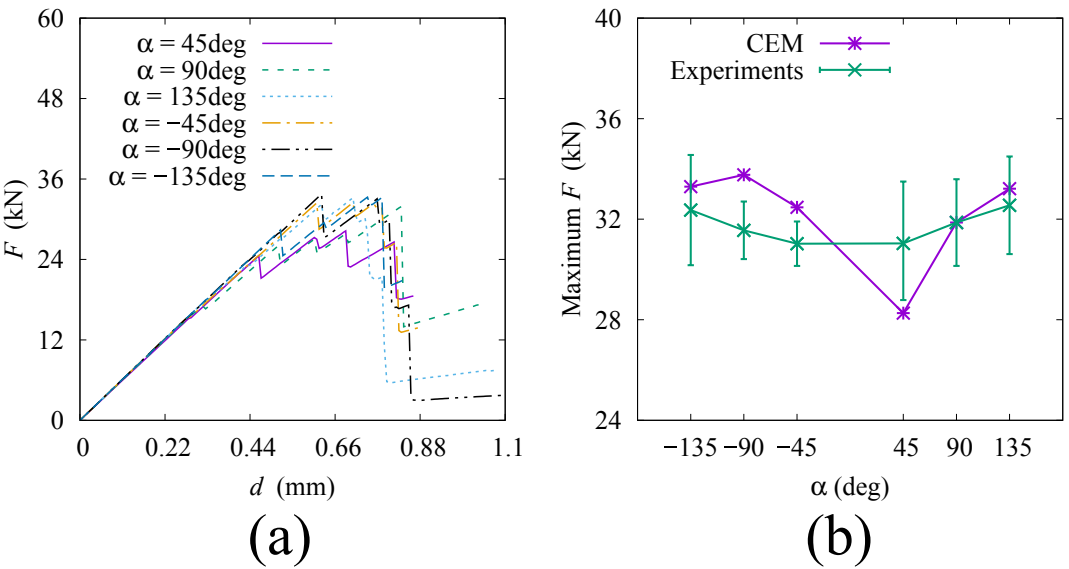




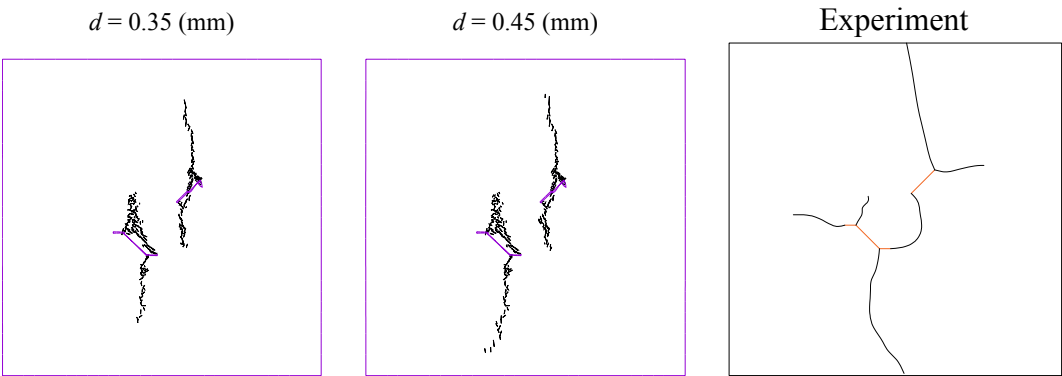
**Figure 7.** Sandstone containing three pre-existing fissures (Case 4): crack openings plots (deformation scale 1:1) comparing to the experimental results provided in [80]



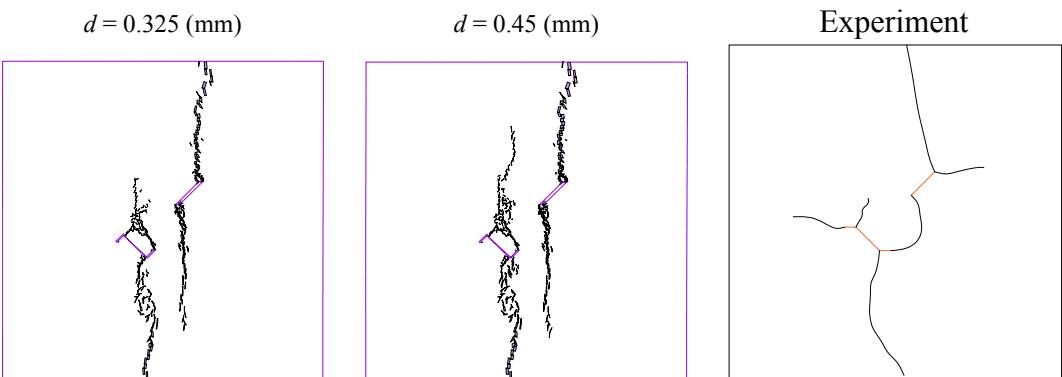
**Figure 8.** 3D-printed materials with two intermittent fissures: model, material and meshes



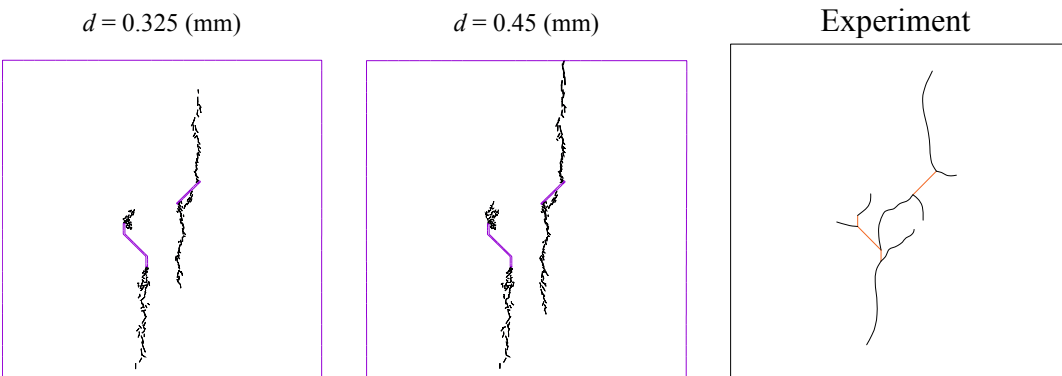
**Figure 9.** 3D-printed materials with two intermittent fissures: (a) force-displacement curves, (b) maximum vertical loads comparing to the experimental results provided in [82]



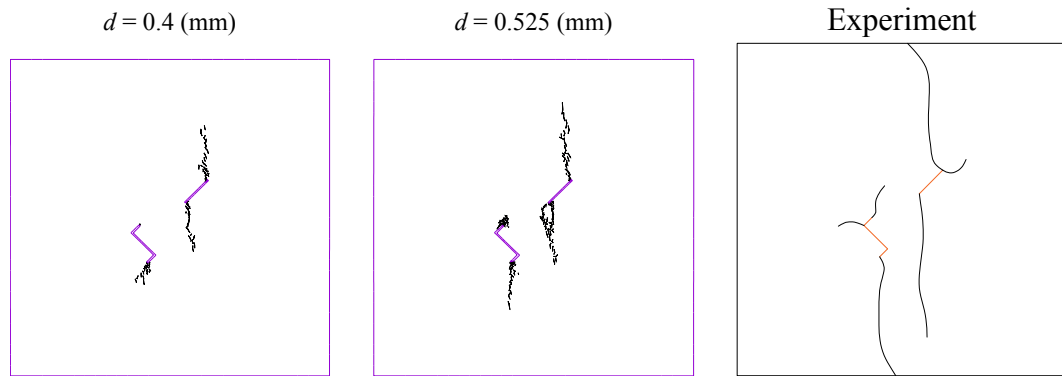
**Figure 10.** 3D-printed materials with two intermittent fissures ( $\alpha = 45^\circ$ ): crack openings plots (deformation scale 1:1) comparing to the experimental results provided in [82]



**Figure 11.** 3D-printed materials with two intermittent fissures ( $\alpha = 90^\circ$ ): crack openings plots (deformation scale 1:1) comparing to the experimental results provided in [82]



**Figure 12.** 3D-printed materials with two intermittent fissures ( $\alpha = -45^\circ$ ): crack openings plots (deformation scale 1:1) comparing to the experimental results provided in [82]



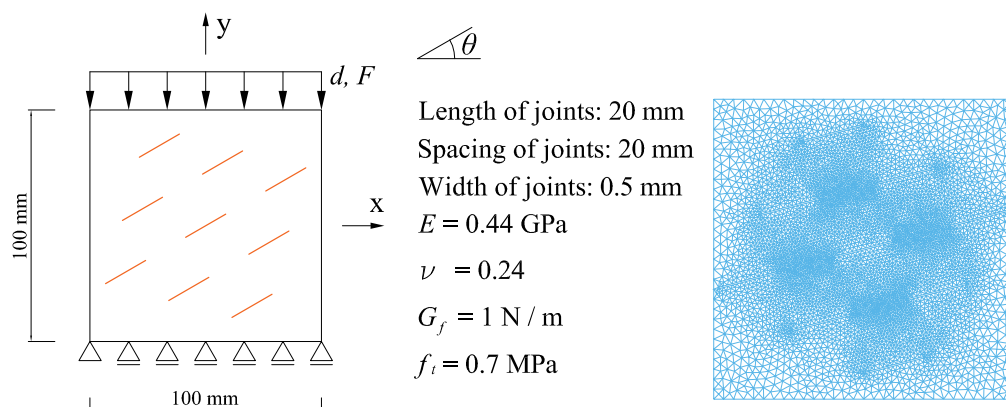
**Figure 13.** 3D-printed materials with two intermittent fissures ( $\alpha = -90^\circ$ ): crack openings plots (deformation scale 1:1) comparing to the experimental results provided in [82]

### 3.3. Rock-like materials with nine parallel fissures

The third example is the uni-axial compression tests of rock-like brittle materials with nine parallel fissures, which was experimentally studied in [83]. The model, material, and discretization are shown in Figure 14. Five cases regarding different values of  $\theta$  are considered as  $\theta = 15^\circ$ ,  $\theta = 30^\circ$ ,  $\theta = 45^\circ$ ,  $\theta = 60^\circ$ , and  $\theta = 75^\circ$ .

We only compare the numerically and experimentally obtained results of crack opening (crack paths). The crack openings plots are shown in Figure 15. Comparing to the experimental results shown in Figure 16, it can be found that the tensile induced cracks are successfully captured by CEM, including some branching and nucleation of cracks. Especially for the cases with small values of  $\theta$ , the tensile damages are dominate. However, some drawbacks of our model are indicated as

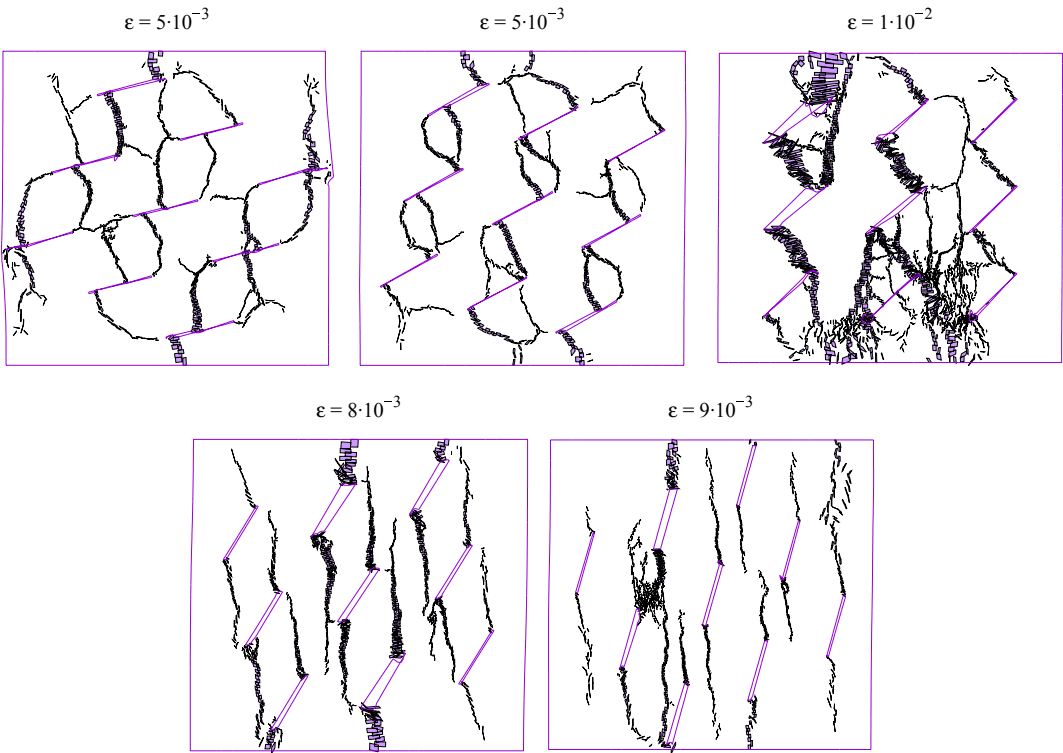
- When the fissures are explicitly modeled, the contacts between the two surfaces of fissures shall be taken into account. When taking advantage of CEM, implicit modeling of fissures shall be developed. In other words, fissure shall be treated as embedded cracks, where the closing of cracks can be modeled easier.
- With the increasing of  $\theta$ , shearing damages become dominant. For shearing damages, orientation of the shear bonds depend on the properties of the acoustic tensor [84,85]. Corresponding shearing damage criteria and model shall be developed and implemented in the CEM.



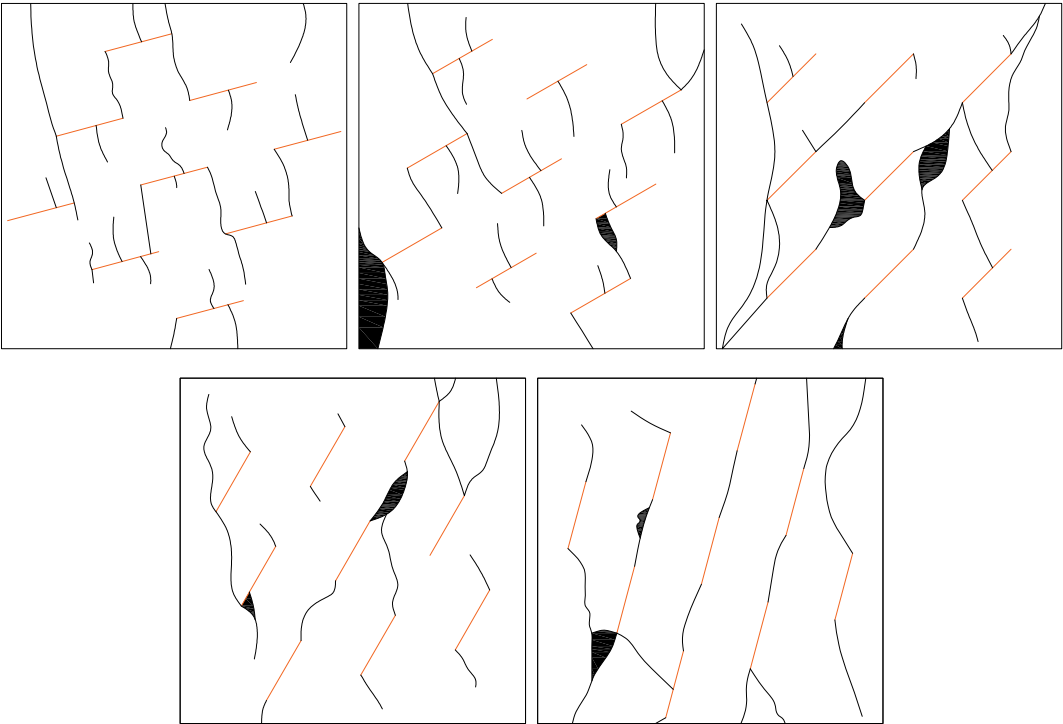
**Figure 14.** Rock-like materials with nine parallel fissures: model, material and meshes

## 4. Conclusions and outlooks

In this work, the damage processes of structures with fissures are analyzed with the Crack Elements Method (CEM). Uni-axial compression tests are considered while tensile damage model is



**Figure 15.** Rock-like materials with nine parallel fissures: numerically-obtained crack openings plots (deformation scale 1:1)



**Figure 16.** Rock-like materials with nine parallel fissures: experimentally-obtained crack paths (the shadows indicate broken surfaces)

used in the model. For such structures and loading conditions, the crack may propagate from the tips or some other positions of the fissures. The cracks will connect several fissures or propagate independently. Sometimes, new cracks may initiate from unexpected positions. The results demonstrate the advantages of the CEM, which is capable of capturing both initiations and propagations of cracks. On the other hands, some drawbacks of the present model are also revealed, indicating our future work about the CEM, including the implicit modeling of the fissures and the implementation of shearing damage models.

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**Abbreviations**

The following abbreviations are used in this manuscript:

CEM	Cracking Elements Method
FEM	Finite Element Method
XFEM	eXtended Finite Element Method
NMM	Numerical Manifold Method
SDA	Strong Discontinuity embedded Approach
CPM	Cracking Particle Method
EAS	Enhanced Assumed Strains

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