

Zhang, P., & Dai, J.-G. (2024). New Mesoscale Phase Field Model for Analysis of FRP-to-Concrete Bonded Joints. *Journal of Composites for Construction*, 28(3), 04024007.

This material may be downloaded for personal use only. Any other use requires prior permission of the American Society of Civil Engineers. This material may be found at <https://ascelibrary.org/doi/10.1061/JCCOF2.CCENG-4255>.

# 1 A new meso-scale phase field model for analysis of

## 2 FRP-to-concrete bonded joints

3 Peng Zhang<sup>a</sup> and Jian-Guo Dai<sup>b</sup>

*<sup>4</sup> Post doctoral fellow, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, The  
<sup>5</sup> Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong, China*

<sup>6</sup> *<sup>b</sup> Professor, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, The Hong Kong*

7 *Polytechnic University, Hong Kong, China (Corresponding author, E-mail address:*

8 cejgdai@polyu.edu.hk)

9

10 **Abstract** Externally bonded fiber-reinforced polymer (EB-FRP) laminates have  
11 become a popular technique for strengthening existing reinforced concrete (RC)  
12 structures. However, the high tensile strength of the FRP laminate is often not fully  
13 utilized due to premature debonding failure of the FRP-to-concrete interface, typically  
14 occurring in a thin layer beneath the bond interface. Numerical simulations have gained  
15 significant attention as a supplement to experimental tests, as they have the ability to  
16 provide valuable insights into the debonding process. However, most existing  
17 numerical models for EB-FRP joint debonding are unable to explicitly consider cracks  
18 within different concrete phases (i.e., mortar and interfacial transition (ITZ)), or  
19 precisely capture the corresponding failure mechanisms involving mortar cracking, ITZ  
20 debonding and kinking. This study proposes a novel meso-scale phase field model for

21 concrete, which is capable of accurately modeling complex failure behaviors, including  
22 mixed-mode fracture in both the mortar and ITZ, as well as friction on cracked surfaces.  
23 The ITZ is regularized using an auxiliary interface phase field and then the overall  
24 mixed-mode failure behaviors in both the mortar and ITZ are modeled using a unified  
25 damage phase field. To validate the proposed meso-scale model, three pull-off tests of  
26 FRP-to-concrete bonded joints, which were well reported in existing literature, are  
27 simulated. Moreover, the model is used to investigate the effects of adhesion and the  
28 FRP laminate on the debonding behavior of the FRP-to-concrete joints.

29 **Keywords:** FRP-to-concrete bonded joints; meso-scale modeling; phase field model;  
30 Pull-off test

## 31 **Introduction**

32 Externally bonded fiber-reinforced polymer (EB-FRP) laminates have become one  
33 of the most favored techniques for strengthening reinforced concrete (RC) structures.  
34 In comparison to traditional strengthening materials, such as steel plates, FRP laminates  
35 can offer some outstanding advantages such as high strength-to-weight ratio, superior  
36 corrosion resistance, and customizable material properties. However, numerous studies  
37 have shown that the high tensile strength of the FRP laminate is often not fully utilized  
38 due to premature debonding failure of the FRP-to-concrete interface (Chen and Teng,  
39 2001, Teng et al., 2002, Teng et al., 2003, Dai et al., 2005, Lu et al., 2005a, Ali-Ahmad  
40 et al., 2006, De Lorenzis and Teng, 2007). This debonding failure is influenced by

41 various factors, such as bond length, FRP to concrete width ratio, FRP axial stiffness,  
42 adhesive modulus and concrete strength (Chen and Teng, 2001, Yao et al., 2005, Dai et  
43 al., 2009, Wu and Jiang, 2013). Additionally, Pan and Leung (2007) found that the  
44 debonding process was also affected by concrete composition, as the interfacial friction  
45 resulting from aggregate interlocking within the fracture process zone could prevent  
46 damage evolution. However, it is very challenging to precisely evaluate the effect of  
47 aggregate distribution, shape and size on the bond capacity through experimental tests  
48 due to uncertainties that might be involved in preparation and test processes, such as  
49 surface treatment, adhesive thickness control, and load eccentricity. Therefore,  
50 advanced numerical simulation can serve as a supplement to experimental tests in  
51 investigating the underlying debonding mechanisms of FRP-to-concrete bonded joints  
52 (Yang et al., 2003, Lu et al., 2005b, Wu and Jiang, 2013, Tao and Chen, 2015, Kai et  
53 al., 2022). Despite significant efforts dedicated to this research area, the influence of  
54 adhesive properties, bending stiffness of the FRP laminate, and concrete composition  
55 on debonding mechanisms, particularly the complex mixed-mode fracture in the thin  
56 layer and the resultant interfacial fracture energy, which is defined as the area beneath  
57 the shear stress-slip relationship of the FRP-to-concrete interface assuming an overall  
58 Mode II loading condition, remains controversial (Dai et al., 2005, Lu et al., 2005a, Wu  
59 and Jiang, 2013).

60 Extensive research indicates that debonding of FRP laminates usually occurs  
61 within a thin layer in the concrete prism, approximately 1-5 mm away from the adhesive

62 interface.(Lu et al., 2005b, Yao et al., 2005). Considering the commonly employed  
63 coarse aggregate size distribution in concrete, this debonding behavior clearly occurs  
64 within the mesoscopic length scale. Therefore, many mesoscale modellings of FRP-to-  
65 concrete debonding tests have been conducted over the last two decades. Those  
66 simulations can be broadly classified into two groups: homogeneous and heterogeneous  
67 meso-scale models. In homogeneous models, the concrete is assumed to be a uniform  
68 material with properties determined using homogenization techniques. Then to capture  
69 the meso-scale failure patterns beneath the adhesion layer, failure modellings are  
70 conducted using very small element sizes. This modeling strategy has been employed  
71 in several studies, including (Lu et al., 2005b, Lin and Wu, 2016, Wu and Jiang, 2013,  
72 Tao and Chen, 2015, Li and Guo, 2019), which have shown good agreement with  
73 experimental results. Although using elements that are one-order smaller than the  
74 thickness of the fracture layer seems to be a plausible approach for modeling debonding  
75 behaviors, there are still some concerns that need to be addressed. For instance, it  
76 remains unclear whether the homogenized material properties can accurately capture  
77 localized failures, such as small cracks that are parallel or inclined to the adhesion layer.  
78 Additionally, it is uncertain whether this modeling strategy can effectively describe the  
79 influence of aggregates near the bonded surface. Some of these factors were  
80 investigated by Coronado and Lopez (2010). They employed a crack band model to  
81 simulate the debonding process and assigned distinct properties to the crack band level  
82 and the concrete. An alternative modeling strategy is the heterogeneous model, which

83 treats concrete as a multi-phase material comprising of mortar, aggregate and the  
84 interfacial transition zone (ITZ). By considering the debonding failure length scale, this  
85 strategy can provide a more precise and comprehensive understanding of the debonding  
86 process in FRP-to-concrete joints. However, there are currently only a limited number  
87 of numerical studies available in this field. Li et al. (2021) investigated the impact of  
88 coarse aggregate distribution on debonding behavior using a meso-scale model.  
89 However, they did not account for the ITZ, which significantly contributes to concrete  
90 damage. In fact, one major factor limiting the wide application of the heterogeneous  
91 model is the numerical difficulty. To be an effective heterogeneous model, it should  
92 possess the following characteristics based on the debonding behavior of the FRP-to-  
93 concrete joint: (1) the ability to handle complex failure patterns, including branching  
94 and connecting; (2) the ability to account for mixed-mode failure and subsequent  
95 friction; and (3) the ability to consider the interaction of failure within different phases,  
96 such as interfacial cracking and kinking into the mortar. One of the most promising  
97 methods that can fulfill these requirements is the phase field model of fracture.

98 The phase field model of fracture is a non-local smeared crack model based on the  
99 Francfort-Marigo variational principle (Francfort and Marigo, 1998). This model  
100 utilizes a continuous scalar damage phase field to regularize cracks and treats damage  
101 evolution as a competition between deformation and fracture energies. As a result, it  
102 can handle complex failure patterns without requiring additional failure criteria or crack  
103 tracking strategies. This makes it one of the most promising methods in computational

104 fracture mechanics. Furthermore, one prominent advantage of the phase field model of  
105 fracture, compared to traditional smeared crack models, is its ability to theoretically  
106 reproduce the discrete crack surface area by integrating the crack surface density  
107 function, which enables the model to quantitatively investigate the failure process of  
108 materials. Phase field models of fracture have been successfully applied to various  
109 fracture problems, including brittle fracture (Bourdin et al., 2000, Miehe et al., 2010b,  
110 Ambati et al., 2015b), ductile fracture (Borden, 2012, Miehe et al., 2015, Ambati et al.,  
111 2015a) and composites fracture (Zhang et al., 2019a, Quintanas-Corominas et al., 2019,  
112 Bui and Hu, 2021) problems. The author recently proposed a meso-scale phase field  
113 model for multi-phase materials (Zhang et al., 2019b, Zhang et al., 2020, Zhang et al.,  
114 2023), which has been demonstrated to accurately hand complex failure patterns and  
115 the interactions of failure between different phases. However, this model is primarily  
116 designed for analyzing tensile-dominated failure.

117 This paper aims to propose a new meso-scale phase field model capable of  
118 considering mixed-model failure and the resulting friction between crack surfaces. The  
119 next section presents the proposed phase field model, which incorporates the effect of  
120 crack angle into the constitutive law and the damage phase field driving force, which  
121 distinguishes it from traditional phase field models of fracture. The proposed model  
122 constructs energy densities that contribute to the evolution of both tensile and shear  
123 failure by using a local crack coordinate. These densities are integrated into the  
124 variational principle (Francfort and Marigo, 1998) to derive a non-local damage phase

125 field evolution equation. It is important to note that, to improve computational  
126 efficiency and mitigate convergence issues, the crack angle is only calculated at the  
127 onset of damage, such calculation is only valid under monotonic loads. Then, the  
128 construction of a phase field model-based meso-scale modeling framework is presented.  
129 A total of 17 pull-off tests from existing literature are simulated to validate the proposed  
130 model. The influences of adhesion and FRP properties on FRP-to-concrete joints are  
131 then investigated. Finally, the conclusions of the present study are provided.

## 132 **Proposed phase field model for mixed mode failure**

### 133 ***Constitutive law***

134 Consider a continuum solid material occupying a domain  $\Omega \in R^{\text{dim}}$  as shown in  
135 Fig. 1(a), where *dim* is the dimension.  $\Omega$  is subjected to a prescribed traction  $\bar{t}(x, t)$   
136 and a prescribed displacement  $\bar{u}(x, t)$ . The domain may be subjected to a body force  
137 per volume  $\bar{b}(x, t)$ . Assuming that the material is isotropic and linear elastic, the  
138 constitutive relationship is

$$139 \quad \sigma = \mathbf{C} : \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad (1)$$

140 where  $\sigma$  is the stress tensor.  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  is the strain tensor, and  $\mathbf{C}$  is the fourth-order  
141 elasticity tensor.

142 Then, consider a cohesive crack  $\Gamma_c \in R^{\text{dim}}$  as shown in Fig. 1(a). For a point  $x$  at  
143 the crack surface, Fig. 1(b) gives the corresponding 2D stress state. Within the phase  
144 field model framework, the influence of cracks on the constitutive law can be

145 considered using the damage phase field  $d$ , which characterizes the material's damage  
 146 state, as

147 
$$\boldsymbol{\sigma} = \mathbf{C}_d(d, \theta) : \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \quad (2)$$

148 where  $\mathbf{C}_d$  is termed as the damaged elasticity tensor.

149 To simplify the derivation of the damaged elasticity tensor  $\mathbf{C}_d$ , the principal  
 150 stresses  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  are considered with  $\mathbf{n}_1$  and  $\mathbf{n}_2$  the corresponding principal stress  
 151 axes and assume that the crack angle is  $\alpha$  with respect to  $\mathbf{n}_2$ . As shown in Fig. 2(b), a  
 152 local coordinate system  $x'oy'$  can be built, through which the vectors that are along and  
 153 normal to the crack can be specified by

154 
$$\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{n}_1, \quad \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{R} \cdot \mathbf{n}_2 \quad (3)$$

155 where  $\mathbf{R}$  is the rotation matrix. Accordingly, the stress and strain vectors at the local  
 156 coordinate can be specified as

157 
$$\begin{Bmatrix} \sigma_{x'} \\ \sigma_{y'} \\ \tau_{x'y'} \end{Bmatrix} = \mathbf{T}_\sigma \cdot \begin{Bmatrix} \sigma_x \\ \sigma_y \\ \tau_{xy} \end{Bmatrix}, \quad \begin{Bmatrix} \epsilon_{x'} \\ \epsilon_{y'} \\ \gamma_{x'y'} \end{Bmatrix} = \mathbf{T}_\epsilon \cdot \begin{Bmatrix} \epsilon_x \\ \epsilon_y \\ \gamma_{xy} \end{Bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

158 where the stress and strain rotation matrices are

159 
$$\mathbf{T}_\sigma = \begin{bmatrix} l^2 & k^2 & 2kl \\ k^2 & l^2 & -2kl \\ -kl & kl & l^2 - k^2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{T}_\epsilon = \begin{bmatrix} l^2 & k^2 & kl \\ k^2 & l^2 & -kl \\ -2kl & 2kl & l^2 - k^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5)$$

160 in which  $l = \mathbf{n}_1(1)$  and  $k = \mathbf{n}_1(2)$ . At the local coordinate, the softening of the material  
 161 stiffness resulting from tensile and shear damage can be characterized by the damage  
 162 phase field  $d$  using two degradation functions:  $g_t(d)$  for tensile failure and  $g_\eta(d)$   
 163 for shear failure and friction. Explicit forms of the two degradation functions will be

164 discussed in the following sections. Accordingly, the damaged elasticity matrix at the  
 165 local coordinate can be specified by

$$166 \quad \mathbf{C}_d^{loc}(d, \alpha) = \begin{bmatrix} C_{11} & g_I g_H C_{12} & 0 \\ g_I g_H C_{21} & g_I C_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & g_H C_{33} \end{bmatrix} \quad (6)$$

167 where  $C_{ij}$  ( $i,j=1,2,3$ ) is the  $(i,j)$ th value of the intact elasticity matrix. Therefore, the  
 168 damaged elasticity matrix at the global coordinate can be obtained as

$$169 \quad \mathbf{C}_d(d, \alpha) = \mathbf{T}_\sigma^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{C}_d^{loc} \cdot \mathbf{T}_\varepsilon \quad (7)$$

170 **Phase field model for mixed-mode failure**

171 This section proposes a phase field model for mixed-mode failure. The main feature  
 172 that distinguishes the present model from tradition phase field models of fracture is the  
 173 incorporating of the mixed-model failure constitutive law constructed in the previous  
 174 section. The determination of the crack angle and energy densities driving different  
 175 failure patterns will be given in the following derivations.

176 Consider a system as shown in Fig. 3(a) and the corresponding smeared crack case  
 177 characterized by the damage phase field  $d$  as shown in Fig. 3(b), in which  $d=0$  and  $d=1$   
 178 represent intact and totally damaged states, respectively. The elastic energy  $W_e$  and the  
 179 external energy  $W_t$  can be specified as

$$180 \quad W_e = \int_{\Omega} \psi_e(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, d, \alpha) dV, \quad W_t = \int_{\Gamma_t} \bar{\mathbf{t}} \cdot \mathbf{u} dS + \int_{\Omega} \bar{\mathbf{b}} \cdot \mathbf{u} dV \quad (8)$$

181 where  $\psi_e$  is the strain energy density. For a time-depended system, the kinetic energy  
 182  $W_k$  can be specified as

183 
$$W_k = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} \rho \mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{d} dV \quad (9)$$

184 where  $\rho$  is the mass density.

185 According to (Bourdin et al., 2000) the fracture energy with respect to the smeared  
186 crack description can be given by

187 
$$W_f = \int_{\Omega} G_c \gamma_d(d, \nabla d) dV \quad (10)$$

188 where  $\gamma_d(d, \nabla d)$  is termed as the crack surface density function, whose integration  
189 over the entire domain gives the real crack surface area.  $G_c$  is the critical energy release  
190 rate. It should be noticed that Eq. (10) is the fracture energy for the traditional phase  
191 field model, which can only consider the tensile failure. In the following, a modified  
192 form will be proposed to consider the mixed-mode failure. Following (Bourdin et al.,  
193 2000), the general form of the crack surface density function can be given by

194 
$$\gamma_d(d, \nabla d) = \frac{1}{c_0} \left[ \frac{1}{l_0} \omega(d) + l_0 \nabla d \cdot \nabla d \right] \quad (11)$$

195 where  $l_0$  is the damage phase field internal length scale characterizing the width of the  
196 smeared crack.  $\omega(d)$  and  $c_0$  are the crack geometry function and model parameter,  
197 respectively (Wu, 2017).

198 An viscosity part related to the rate of the damage phase field can be given by  
199 (Zhang et al., 2021)

200 
$$W_v^d = \int_t \int_{\Omega} \frac{1}{2} \kappa \cdot \langle d \rangle^2_+ dV dt \quad (12)$$

201 where the bracket operator is defined as  $\langle x \rangle_{\pm} = (x \pm |x|)/2$ .  $\kappa$  is the artificial phase field  
202 viscosity (Miehe et al., 2010b).

203 The Lagrange functional of the considered system can be specified as

204  $L(\mathbf{q}, \dot{\mathbf{q}}) = W_k + W_v^d + W_t - W_e - W_f$  (13)

205 where  $\mathbf{q} = [\mathbf{u}, d]$ . Then according to the Lagrange dynamical equations

206  $\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\mathbf{q}}} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{q}} = \mathbf{0}$  (14)

207 the governing equations and the boundary conditions can be obtained as

208  $\nabla \cdot \frac{\partial \psi_e(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, d, \alpha)}{\partial \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} + \bar{\mathbf{b}} = \rho \ddot{\mathbf{u}}, \text{ in } \Omega$  (15)

209  $-\frac{\partial \psi_e(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, d, \alpha)}{\partial d} \cdot G_c - \frac{\partial \gamma_d(d, \nabla d)}{\partial d} = \kappa \langle d \rangle_+, \text{ in } \Omega$  (16)

210  $\frac{\partial \psi_e(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, d, \alpha)}{\partial \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}} \cdot \mathbf{p} = \bar{\mathbf{t}}, \text{ at } \Gamma_t$  (17)

211  $\nabla d \cdot \mathbf{p} = 0, \text{ at } \Gamma$  (18)

212 where  $\mathbf{p}$  denotes the outward unit normal vector of the boundary  $\Gamma$ . It is noteworthy that

213 the crack angle  $\alpha$  in Eqs. (15)-(17) is an internal variable that depends on the stress

214 state. The expression for calculating this angle will be given in the following sections.

215 Therefore, it is not considered in the variational operation.

216 As discussed previously, the fracture energy  $W_t$  in Eq. (10) is defined for the

217 traditional phase field model (Francfort and Marigo, 1998, Bourdin et al., 2000, Miehe

218 et al., 2010a). In order to extend the traditional phase field model to account for mixed-

219 mode failure, a modified phase field evolution equation is introduced to replace Eq.

220 (16).

221  $F - \frac{\partial \gamma_d(d, \nabla d)}{\partial d} = \kappa \langle d \rangle_+$  (19)

222 where  $F$  is the driving force for damage phase field evolution. To account for different

223 failure modes, a mixed driving force form is adopted as

224

$$F = -\frac{\partial g_I(d)}{\partial d} \cdot \frac{\psi_I^n(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})}{G_I} - \frac{\partial g_{II}(d)}{\partial d} \cdot \frac{\psi_{II}^n(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon})}{G_{II}} \quad (20)$$

225 where  $G_I$  and  $G_{II}$  are the critical energy release rates for tensile and shear damage,  
 226 respectively.  $g_{II}(d)$  is the degradation function used to characterize the softening of  
 227 the material stiffness due to shear failure. Therefore,  $g_{II}(d)$  is a component of the  
 228 shear-friction degradation function  $g_{II}(d)$  introduced in Eq. (6), and the explicit  
 229 expression will be given in the following sections. The elastic energy densities  
 230 corresponding to tensile and shear failure are denoted as  $\psi_I^n$  and  $\psi_{II}^n$ , respectively.  
 231 These energy densities can be determined using the constitutive law. Referring to the  
 232 local coordinate illustrated in Fig. 2(b), the elastic stress components parallel and  
 233 perpendicular to the crack surface are denoted as  $\tau_m^n = \tau_{x'y'}$  and  $\sigma_n^n = \sigma_{y'}$ , respectively.  
 234 Accordingly, the tensile energy density can be specified as

235

$$\psi_I^n = \frac{\langle \sigma_n^n \rangle_+^2}{2E} \quad (21)$$

236 The shear strength of materials can be characterized by Mohr-Coulomb criterion  
 237 based on the relationship between shear stress and normal stress on a plane of failure  
 238 as

239

$$\bar{Y}_{sh} = g_I(d) \langle \sigma_n^n \rangle_- \cdot \tan \phi + Y_o \quad (22)$$

240 where  $\phi$  is the friction angle and  $Y_o$  is the cohesion strength. The first term of the right-  
 241 hand side of the equation represents the contribution due to the normal compressive  
 242 stress at the plane of failure, which is referred to as the reduced friction stress  
 243  $\tau_f = g_I(d) \langle \sigma_n^n \rangle_- \cdot \tan \phi$  in this study. Accordingly, the shear energy density can be

244 defined by

$$245 \quad \psi_H^n = \frac{(\tau_H^n)^2}{2G} \quad (23)$$

246 where

$$247 \quad \tau_H^n = \left\langle \left| \tau_m^n \right| - \left| \tau_f \right| \right\rangle_+ \quad (24)$$

248 is the component of shear stress that excludes the contribution from friction stress. As  
249 the evolution of damage in a material is closely related to the contact condition between  
250 crack surfaces, the shear energy density should be calculated incrementally during this  
251 process, which can be given by

$$252 \quad (\psi_H^n)^k = (\psi_H^n)^{k-1} + \int_{\gamma_{x,y}^{k-1}}^{\gamma_{x,y}^k} \tau_H^n d\gamma \quad (25)$$

253 where the superscripts  $k$  and  $k-1$  denote the current and previous loading increments,  
254 respectively.

255 To prevent physically unrealistic self-healing resulting from local unloading, two  
256 history-dependent variables are introduced as

$$257 \quad H_I = \max_{j \in [0,t]} \{ \psi_I^n(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, j) \}, \quad H_H = \max_{j \in [0,t]} \{ \psi_H^n(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, j) \} \quad (26)$$

258 Accordingly, the new phase field driving force in Eq. (20) can be rewritten as

$$259 \quad F = -\frac{\partial g_I(d)}{\partial d} \cdot \frac{H_I}{G_I} - \frac{\partial g_H(d)}{\partial d} \cdot \frac{H_H}{G_H} \quad (27)$$

260 ***Crack angle, damage initiation and evolution***

261 The unified phase field model of fracture proposed by Wu (2017) suggests that the  
262 influence of tensile-dominated cohesive damage on the softening of the material  
263 stiffness can be characterized by a parametric degradation function, which is defined as

264 
$$g_I(d) = \frac{(1-d)^2}{(1-d)^2 + a_I d - 0.5 a_I d^2} \quad (28)$$

265 where  $a_I$  is related to material properties. For tensile failure, it can be defined by

266 
$$a_I = \frac{4EG_I}{c_0 l_0 Y_I^2} \quad (29)$$

267 where  $G_I$  and  $Y_I$  are the tensile critical energy release rate and strength, respectively.

268 According to the constitutive law in Eq. (2) and shear energy density in Eqs. (22)

269 -(25), an interpolative degradation for shear-friction failure is defined by

270 
$$g_{II}(d) = g_{II}(d) + [1 - g_{II}(d)] \cdot \left| \frac{\tau_f}{\tau_{\max}} \right| \quad (30)$$

271 where  $\tau_{\max} = \max_{j \in [0, t]} \{ \tau_m^n(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, j) \}$  is the historical maximum shear stress and  $a_I$  can be

272 defined as

273 
$$a_I = \frac{4GG_{II}}{c_0 l_0 Y_o^2} \quad (31)$$

274 Eq. (30) shows that when the friction stress vanishes (i.e.,  $\tau_f = 0$ ),  $g_{II} = g_{II}$ ,

275 indicating that  $g_{II}$  is related only to shear failure. On the other hand, when  $\tau_f \neq 0$

276 and  $g_{II} = 0$  (indicating total damage),  $g_{II}$  is only dependent on frictional sliding.

277 These relationships highlight the dependence of  $g_{II}$  on both shear failure and

278 frictional sliding and demonstrate how it varies under different conditions.

279 Eq. (27) shows that the damage driving force  $F$  is closely related to the crack

280 angle  $\alpha$ . To determine  $\alpha$ , two assumptions are made in this paper. First, it is assumed

281 that the crack will always evolve in the direction of the maximum damage driving force.

282 Second, to improve computational efficiency and mitigate convergence issues, it is

283 assumed that the crack angle is only calculated at the onset of damage. This means that  
 284 the proposed model considers monotonic loads only. Accordingly, the crack angle can  
 285 be determined by

$$286 \quad \alpha = \arg \max_{\alpha} \{F\} = \arg \max_{\alpha} \left\{ -\frac{\partial g_I(d)}{\partial d} \cdot \frac{H_I}{G_I} - \frac{\partial g_{II}(d)}{\partial d} \cdot \frac{H_{II}}{G_{II}} \right\}_{d=0} \quad (32)$$

287 Substituting the degradation functions and energy densities into Eq. (32), the above  
 288 equation can be rewritten as

$$289 \quad \alpha = \arg \max_{\alpha} \left\{ \frac{2}{c_0 l_0} \cdot \left[ \frac{\langle \sigma_n^n \rangle_+^2}{Y_I^2} + \frac{\langle |\tau_m^n| - |\tau_f^n| \rangle_+^2}{Y_0^2} \right] \right\} \quad (33)$$

290 It is noteworthy that for traditional phase field models of fracture, the damage  
 291 initiation criterion is implicitly embedded in the damage evolution equation (Bourdin  
 292 et al., 2000). However, we have proven that by properly defining the energy densities  
 293 and the degradation functions, some widely adopted initiation criteria (such as Hashin  
 294 damage criterion) can be implicitly embedded into the phase field model (Zhang et al.,  
 295 2021). For the present model, the corresponding damage initiation criterion can be  
 296 obtained through

$$297 \quad F \Big|_{d=0} - \frac{\partial \gamma_d(d, \nabla d)}{\partial d} \Big|_{d=0} = 0 \quad (34)$$

298 Substituting the driving force (Eq. (27)) into Eq. (34), a damage initiation criterion  
 299 that is implicitly embedded in the proposed phase field model can be obtained as

$$300 \quad \frac{\langle \sigma_n^n \rangle_+^2}{Y_I^2} + \frac{\langle |\tau_m^n| - |\tau_f^n| \rangle_+^2}{Y_0^2} = 1 \quad (35)$$

301 The above equation indicates that a quadratic stress-based damage initiation criterion

302 is automatically embedded in the model. If friction stress is not considered, Eq. (35)  
303 will degenerate into the widely used stress-based initiation criterion for cohesive zone  
304 models (Turon et al., 2006). Moreover, by comparing Eq. (35) and the equation used  
305 to determine the crack angle (i.e., Eq. (33)), it can be seen that the embedded damage  
306 initiation criterion is consistent with the crack angle determination procedure. This  
307 consistency indicates that the potential crack direction is also where the damage tends  
308 to initiate, which is physically reasonable.

309 **Meso-scale phase field model**

310 ***Meso-scale concrete model and ITZ regularization***

311 Concrete is a heterogeneous material composed of different components: mortar,  
312 aggregates and the ITZ. These components have different properties and can be  
313 modeled as isotropic materials at the meso-scale (Ren et al., 2015, Kai et al., 2023b,  
314 Kai et al., 2023a). However, the material heterogeneity can significantly affect the  
315 internal failure pattern of concrete. To addressed this, we propose a meso-scale phase  
316 field model that can capture the failure of both the mortar and the ITZ within a unified  
317 phase field framework. For simplicity, only coarse aggregates larger than 2.4 mm are  
318 considered, while other fine aggregates, along with cement are regarded as the mortar  
319 phase (Xi et al., 2018, Hu et al., 2022). A typical three-segment gradation size  
320 distribution is employed, as described by (Neville, 1995, Xi et al., 2018): 2.40-4.76mm  
321 (8.08%), 4.76-9.52mm (15.96%), and 9.52-19.05mm (15.96%). In the simulations,

322 aggregates are represented using polygons with 5 to 8 sides. And the corresponding  
323 random aggregate distribution is generated by a put and take algorithm, with further  
324 details available in (Xi et al., 2018).

325 Consider a domain  $\Omega$  containing an aggregate as shown in Fig. 4. In typical  
326 normal strength concrete, the aggregates are generally stronger than the mortar and the  
327 ITZ. As a result, this paper only considers mortar cracking and ITZ debonding (Fig.  
328 4(a)). The mixed mode phase field model, which is proposed in the previous section,  
329 can be directly used to simulate mortar cracking. However, accurately modeling ITZ  
330 debonding remains challenging due to the ITZ's thickness, which is normally tens of  
331 microns (Barnes et al., 1979). Such a thin ITZ thickness necessitates the use of a very  
332 dense element mesh, which may distort elements in adjacent areas. Currently, there are  
333 two modeling categories for ITZ debonding: (a) using zero-thickness cohesive elements  
334 (Ren et al., 2015, Yilmaz and Molinari, 2017, Xi et al., 2018), and (b) using an  
335 approximate ITZ thickness of about 0.1 mm – 1 mm (Šavija et al., 2013, Du et al., 2014,  
336 Huang et al., 2015, Zhou et al., 2017). In this paper, we adopt a combined ITZ modeling  
337 strategy. During the elastic stage, ITZ is regarded to have zero thickness, which implies  
338 that the mortar and the aggregate are perfectly bonded. During the debonding evolution  
339 stage, the ITZ's fracture properties, such as its strengths, critical energy release rates,  
340 and friction angle, are regularized in the adjacent mortar phase. This interface  
341 regularization method is inspired by the traditional phase field model of fracture and  
342 can be naturally integrated into the current modeling framework. Previous numerical

343 results have demonstrated that this strategy is capable accurately capturing ITZ  
 344 debonding (Nguyen et al., 2016, Zhang et al., 2019b, Zhang et al., 2020, Li et al., 2020,  
 345 Hu et al., 2022).

346 Fig. 4(b) shows that an interface phase field, denoted as  $\eta$ , is introduced to  
 347 regularize the ITZ. The corresponding governing equation and boundary conditions for  
 348  $\eta$  are (Zhang et al., 2019b)

$$349 \quad \eta - l_i^2 \Delta \eta = 0, \quad \text{in } \Omega \quad (36)$$

$$350 \quad \eta(\mathbf{x}) = 1, \quad \text{at } \Gamma_i \quad (37)$$

$$351 \quad \nabla \eta \cdot \mathbf{p} = 0, \quad \text{at } \Gamma \quad (38)$$

352 where  $l_i$  is internal length scale of the the interface phase field, which generally can be  
 353 set to be the same as that of the damage phase field, i.e.,  $l_i = l_0$  (Zhang et al., 2019b, Hu  
 354 et al., 2022).  $\Gamma_i$  is the aggregate boundary. It is important to note that the interface  
 355 phase field can be solved using either an implicit or an explicit solution scheme.  
 356 However, once  $\eta$  is determined, no further updates are necessary, regardless of the  
 357 solution scheme used. As a result, this additional degree of freedom (DOF) will have  
 358 minimal impact on the overall computational efficiency. For more details of the  
 359 interface phase field, refer to (Zhang et al., 2019b, Zhang et al., 2020).

360 Following the work conducted by Hu et al. (2022) a sharp transition between  
 361 different phases is employed as

$$362 \quad \begin{cases} \eta(x) \geq \bar{\eta} & \text{ITZ} \\ \text{Otherwise} & \text{Mortar} \end{cases} \quad (39)$$

363 We would like to reiterate that in Eq. (39), the ITZ and the mortar only represent the

364 corresponding fracture properties, as the ITZ is not considered during the elastic stage.  
 365  $\bar{\eta}$  is a specified value that controls the boundary between different phases. In this paper,  
 366 we set the thickness of the ITZ to be the same as the smeared crack width. It is well  
 367 known that in phase field models, the sharp crack surface area can be reproduced by  
 368 integrating the crack density function  $\gamma_d$  over the smeared crack region. Therefore,  
 369 the current approach to treating ITZ thickness ensures that the ITZ's fracture energy  
 370 can be accurately captured during the modeling. According to (Wu, 2017), the width of  
 371 the fully developed smeared crack can be given by

372 
$$D = c_0 \cdot l_0 \quad (40)$$

373 Using the one-dimensional analytical solution of the interface phase field,

374 
$$\eta = \exp\left(-\frac{|x|}{l_i}\right) \quad (41)$$

375 the specified value  $\bar{\eta}$  can be obtained as  $\bar{\eta} = \exp(-c_0)$ .

## 376 **Meso-scale modeling**

### 377 ***Material properties determination and verification***

378 According to Euro Code (2005), the Young's modulus of the aggregate can be  
 379 determined by

380 
$$E_a = 22\left(\frac{f_a}{10}\right)^{0.3} \quad (42)$$

381 where  $f_a$  is the cubic compressive strength of the aggregate.

382 The Young's modulus of the homogenized concrete can be determined using the

383 Chinese code for design of concrete structures as (Lu et al., 2005a)

384

$$E_c = \frac{100}{2.2 + 34.74 / f_c} \quad (43)$$

385 where  $f_c$  is the cubic compressive strength of the concrete.

386 According to the Mori-Tanaka homogenization theory (Mori and Tanaka, 1973, Li

387 et al., 2021), the Young's modulus of the mortar  $E_m$  can be determined using the following

388 relationship

389

$$E_c = E_m + \frac{V_a(E_a - E_m)}{1 + (1 - V_a)f_m} \quad (44)$$

390 where  $V_a$  is the aggregate volume fraction and the parameter  $f_m$  is

391

$$f_m = \frac{E_a - E_m}{E_m + 4\mu_m / 3}, \quad \mu_m = \frac{E_m}{2(1 + \nu_m)} \quad (45)$$

392 in which  $\nu_m$  is the Poisson's ratio of the mortar.

393 As shown in earlier sections, the meso-scale modeling requires knowledge of the

394 fracture properties of the mortar and the ITZ. According to (Sideris et al., 2004), the

395 cylinder compressive strength of the mortar can be specified by

396

$$f_m' = \frac{E_m - 12.4147}{0.2964} \quad (46)$$

397 Then according to the work conducted by Nagai et al. (Nagai et al., 2005), the tensile

398 strength and the critical energy release rates for tensile failure of the mortar can be

399 specified by

400

$$Y_I^m = 1.4 \cdot \ln(f_m') - 1.5 \quad (47)$$

401

$$G_I^m = \left( 0.0469d_a^2 - 0.5d_a + 26 \right) \cdot \left( \frac{f_m'}{10} \right)^{0.7} \quad (48)$$

402 where  $d_a=2.36$  mm is adopted (Li et al., 2021). According to (Pina - Henriques and  
 403 Lourenço, 2006, Prakash et al., 2020), the critical energy release rate for shear failure  
 404 of the mortar can be taken as four times that of the tensile failure, i.e.,  $G_H^m = 4G_I^m$ .  
 405 According to (Nagai et al., 2005), the tensile strength  $Y_I^i$  and the cohesion strength  
 406  $Y_o^i$  of the ITZ can be obtained by

$$407 \quad Y_I^i = -1.44C_w + 2.3 \quad (49)$$

$$408 \quad Y_o^i = -2.6C_w + 3.9 \quad (50)$$

409 where

$$410 \quad C_w = \frac{1}{0.047f_m' + 0.5} \quad (51)$$

411 It is important to note that, to the best of the authors' knowledge, there is currently no  
 412 available method to directly evaluate the cohesion strength  $Y_o^m$  of the mortar.  
 413 Therefore, in this study, this parameter is determined by  $Y_o^m = Y_I^m / Y_I^i \cdot Y_o^i$ . Furthermore,  
 414 following the suggestions in (López et al., 2008, Huang et al., 2016), the critical energy  
 415 release rates of the ITZ are set to be half that of the mortar, i.e.,  $G_I^i = 0.5G_I^m$  and  
 416  $G_H^i = 0.5G_H^m$ . In this study, the aggregate cubic compressive strength  $f_a=122.63$  MPa  
 417 used in (Contrafatto et al., 2016, Li et al., 2021) is adopted. A typical friction angle  
 418  $\phi=35^\circ$  is adopted for both the mortar and the ITZ (Nagai et al., 2005).

419 This section outlines the relationships among different material properties of  
 420 concrete as adopted in existing literature. To further validate these relationships, three-  
 421 point bending tests conducted by Hoover et al. (2013) are simulated here by the  
 422 proposed meso-scale phase field model. According to (Hoover et al., 2013), the

423 concrete used in these tests had a cylinder compressive strength of 55.6 MPa, a Young's  
424 modulus of 41.24 GPa and a Poisson's ratio of 0.172. By utilizing these known  
425 properties, the other material properties of concrete required for the simulations can be  
426 obtained based on the above-mentioned relationships.

427 The geometry and boundary conditions for the tests are depicted in Fig. 5. Four  
428 different cases are considered for the verification, including two specimen sizes:  $D=40$   
429 mm and  $D=93$  mm, and two crack lengths:  $\lambda=0.15$  and  $\lambda=0.3$  for each specimen size.

430 The predicted force versus crack mouth opening displacement (CMOD) curves, along  
431 with the corresponding crack patterns, are illustrated in Fig. 6. Experimental results  
432 reported by Hoover et al. (2013) are also included as grey regions for comparison. It  
433 can be seen that the predicted force-CMOD curves exhibit an initial elastic stage,  
434 followed by a softening stage after reaching the maximum value. These stages align  
435 well with the experimental data, indicating not only the validation of the proposed  
436 meso-scale phase field model but also the effectiveness of the material properties  
437 obtained through the relationships outlined in this section.

438 ***Pull-off test FE model***

439 In the references (Lu et al., 2005b, Tao and Chen, 2015, Lin and Wu, 2016, Li and  
440 Guo, 2019), numerical simulations were conducted for the pull-off test, in which an  
441 FRP laminate is bonded to a concrete prism and subjected to tension. It should be noted  
442 that, for the sake of simplicity, most of the simulations were conducted using two-  
443 dimensional models with the plane stress hypothesis. However, it is important to

444 acknowledge that the debonding of the FRP-to-concrete joint is not a two-dimensional  
445 case in theory, as the bond width of the FRP laminate is typically smaller than the width  
446 of the bonded surface of the concrete prism. Experimental results have demonstrated  
447 that the ratio between the widths of the FRP laminate and the prism concrete  
448 significantly influences the bond strength. To account for this three-dimensional width  
449 effect, it is common practice to incorporate a width factor  $\beta_w$  into a two-dimensional  
450 model. According to Lin et al. (2017) this width factor can be given by

451 
$$\beta_w = 1 + f_{co}^{0.385} \left[ 8(E_f t_f)^{-0.438} + 0.001 \right] \left( 1 - b_f / b_c \right)^{0.5} / \left( 1 + 0.01 b_f^{1.7} \right) \quad (52)$$

452 where  $f_{co}$  is the compressive strength of concrete;  $E_f$  and  $t_f$  are the Young's modulus and  
453 thickness of FRP laminate, respectively;  $b_f$  and  $b_c$  are the widths of the FRP laminate  
454 and concrete prism, respectively.

455 The FE model and boundary conditions are depicted in Fig. 7. In this study, a  
456 displacement-controlled loading mode is employed. The proposed meso-scale phase  
457 field model is implemented in the commercial software ABAQUS (Version, 2011)  
458 through the users' subroutine VUEL. For more details regarding the implementation  
459 and source codes, please refer to (Hu et al., 2023). As depicted in the figure, the concrete  
460 prism has a thickness of 45 mm. Along the thickness direction, it is divided into two  
461 distinct parts: the meso-scale part, which comprises aggregates, mortar and ITZ, and  
462 the homogenized concrete part. Extensive research indicates that debonding usually  
463 occurs within a thin layer in the concrete prism, approximately 1 - 5 mm away from the  
464 adhesive interface. Hence, to ensure the computational efficiency while allowing

465 sufficient depth for debonding evolution, the thickness of the meso-scale part is set to  
466 be  $t_m=15$  mm. Another critical consideration in meso-scale modeling is the three-  
467 dimensional distribution of aggregates within the concrete prism. This heterogeneity  
468 cannot be adequately represented by a two-dimensional meso-scale model.  
469 Consequently, in this section, four different aggregate distributions are employed.  
470 These distributions can be viewed as two-dimensional slices extracted from the three-  
471 dimensional pull-off test, specifically along the width direction. Each slice case uses  
472 the plane stress hypothesis and the width factor given in Eq. (52). As a result, the load-  
473 slip curve of the pull-off test can be obtained by averaging the curves from the four  
474 aggregate distributions. The lengths of the FRP laminate and the concrete prism are  
475  $L_f=150$  mm and  $L_c=190$  mm, respectively. There is an unbonded zone between the the  
476 loaded end and the right edge of the concrete prism, which has a length of  $L_r=25$  mm.  
477 The restrained height, as shown in Fig. 7, is  $t_u=15$  mm. When bonding FRP to concrete,  
478 there are two common methods: using a prefabricated laminate bonded with adhesive  
479 or utilizing dry fiber sheets using a wet lay-up process (Teng et al., 2002, Lu et al.,  
480 2005b). In the former method, the FRP laminate and the adhesive can be clearly  
481 distinguished. However, in the more widely adopted wet lay-up method, the boundary  
482 between the FRP laminate and the adhesive cannot be clearly distinguished. Hence,  
483 following the approach in (Lu et al., 2005b, Tao and Chen, 2015, Lin and Wu, 2016),  
484 we assume that the FRP laminate is perfectly bonded to the concrete prism. Of course,  
485 explicitly considering the interface effect would provide a more precise understanding

486 of the related failure mechanisms. For instance, Jawdhari and colleagues (Jawdhari et  
487 al., 2018, Jawdhari et al., 2019, Kadhim et al., 2021, Kadhim et al., 2022) conducted  
488 both experimental and numerical investigations on the bond characteristics of carbon  
489 FRP rod panels adhered to concrete. They adopted interfacial elements to simulate the  
490 interfacial behavior to reproduce test results. In this study, cohesive elements (CEs) are  
491 also used to investigate the effect of adhesive on the bond behavior as shown in the  
492 parametric study section. The FRP laminate is treated as an isotropic elastic material,  
493 with a Poisson's ratio  $\nu_f = 0.3$ , as suggested by (Li et al., 2021). The element size in  
494 the meso-scale part is set to  $h_e=0.125$  mm, hence the corresponding internal length  
495 scales are set to be 0.25 mm.

496 ***Verification and discussion***

497 To validate the efficacy of the proposed meso-scale phase field model in predicting  
498 the ultimate loads of FRP-to-concrete joints, a total of 17 tests (Takeo et al., 1997, Ueda  
499 et al., 1999, Tan, 2002, Yao et al., 2005, Ali-Ahmad et al., 2006, Wu and Jiang, 2013)  
500 are simulated. Fig. 8 presents a comparison between the predicted results and  
501 experimental data, showing a good agreement between the numerical predictions and  
502 the test results. Furthermore, in order to showcase the capacity of the model in capturing  
503 more detailed characteristics of FRP-to-concrete joints, i.e., the load-slip curve, load  
504 FRP axial strain, and crack pattern within the concrete prism, four tests (Ali-Ahmad et  
505 al., 2006, Yao et al., 2005, Wu and Jiang, 2013) are chosen from the aforementioned  
506 database as illustrative examples. The material properties and geometric information

507 for these tests are given in Table 1.

508 Fig. 9 showcases the predicted load-slip curves for the considered tests. As

509 discussion in the previous section, four different aggregate distributions are employed

510 to approach the mechanical behavior of the three-dimensionally distributed aggregates.

511 It can be observed that the mean curves (represented by solid black lines) obtained from

512 various distributions exhibit similar characteristics as slip increases: an initial linear

513 stage followed by nonlinear growth with a gradually reduced rate, indicating the

514 initiation of damage at this stage. Subsequently, the external load reaches a plateau,

515 indicating a stable debonding propagation behavior. Finally, a sharp decrease in the

516 loading capacity occurs, indicating complete debonding of the FRP laminate from the

517 concrete prism. These stages are consistent with the observations from pull-off tests on

518 FRP-to-concrete joints (Lu et al., 2005a, Yao et al., 2005). Moreover, the mean curves

519 show a quantitative agreement with experimental results (referred to red dotted lines

520 and dots).

521 Fig. 10 illustrates the predicted distributions of axial strains in FRP laminates for

522 different tests. For the sake of clarity, only the mean strain obtained by averaging the

523 strains from the four different distributions is provided, similar to Fig. 9. At low external

524 load/slip, the strain distribution gradually decreases as the location moves away from

525 the loaded end, indicating a linear or initiation of debonding stage. As the external

526 load/slip increases, the strain distribution approaches a plateau near the loaded end,

527 followed by a decrease as the location moves away, indicating a debonding propagation

528 process. Moreover, Fig. 10 includes comparisons between the distributions of strains  
529 obtained from simulations and experimental measurements, demonstrating a good  
530 agreement between the predictions and experimental results. It is important to note that  
531 in Fig. 10(c), the strain distributions under different external loads are compared.  
532 However, considering certain characteristics of the debonding of the FRP-to-concrete  
533 joints, such as the inevitable differences in ultimate loads between simulations and  
534 experiments, as well as the significant variation in slip with a small change in external  
535 load during the debonding process, the comparison should be conducted carefully.  
536 During the elastic stage, a numerical strain distribution corresponding to a load level  
537 that is equal to the experimental load is selected. During the debonding propagation  
538 stage, the strain distribution used for comparison is chosen to ensure a similar effective  
539 stress transfer length to that of the experimental strain distribution. This treatment is  
540 similar to that employed in (Lu et al., 2005b, Lin and Wu, 2016).

541 Fig. 11(a) and (b) illustrate the predicted crack patterns for the tests conducted  
542 by Ali-Ahmad et al. (2006) and Wu and Jiang (2013), respectively. It is important to  
543 note that due to the lack of accurate information regarding the adhesive between the  
544 FRP laminate and mortar/aggregate, as well as the fact that debonding typically occurs  
545 within the concrete prism, a perfect bonding condition is assumed, as adopted in (Lu et  
546 al., 2005b, Tao and Chen, 2015, Lin and Wu, 2016). Furthermore, to avoid  
547 unrealistically deep debonding cracks caused by the assumption of perfect bonding  
548 between the big aggregates and FRP laminate, the aggregate distribution algorithm is

549 modified to ensure that the depth of the aggregate bonded to the FRP laminate is less  
550 than 8 mm, a value close to the maximum crack depth reported by Lin and Wu (2016).  
551 In Fig. 11(a) and (b), only regions with the phase field value  $d \geq 0.9$  are displayed to  
552 provide a clear representation of the crack patterns. It can be seen that in all cases, the  
553 debonded portion consisting of aggregates and mortar has a height less than 8 mm  
554 which is consistent with the findings reported in (Yao et al., 2005, Lin and Wu, 2016).  
555 Furthermore, several distinct failure behaviors associated with aggregates can be  
556 observed. Firstly, cracks tend to deviate from their original propagation paths and are  
557 significantly influenced by adjacent ITZ regions on the left sides of the aggregates, due  
558 to the weaker fracture properties of these regions. Secondly, the mortar on the right side  
559 of the aggregates is more prone to peel off, forming inclined cracks to the FRP laminate,  
560 as indicated by the yellow rectangle in the figure. These distinctive crack patterns are a  
561 result of considering the influence of compression and friction in these areas. In fact,  
562 similar crack patterns can also be observed in simulations conducted using  
563 homogeneous models (Lu et al., 2005b, Lin and Wu, 2016, Li and Guo, 2019), as shown  
564 in Fig. 11(c), although these models cannot explicitly illustrate the influence of  
565 aggregate on the debonding behavior.

## 566 **Parametric studies**

567 In the previous section, the proposed meso-scale model is verified through three  
568 pull-off tests. The corresponding results indicate that the debonding behavior of FRP-

569 to-concrete joints is influenced by various factors. To gain a general understanding of  
570 how these different components affect the debonding behavior, parametric studies on  
571 adhesive properties, as well as the thickness and modulus of the FRP laminate are  
572 conducted in this section.

573 ***The effect of adhesive on the debonding behavior***

574 The objective of this section is to investigate the influence of adhesive properties  
575 on the debonding behavior. We would like to reiterate that in the simulations in previous  
576 sections, a perfect bonding assumption, as suggested by Lu et al. (2005b), is adopted.  
577 In this section, to consider the effect of the adhesive layer, a layer of cohesive elements  
578 is embedded between the FRP laminate and the concrete prism, as depicted Fig. 7.  
579 Specifically, we consider three different adhesive moduli: (a)  $E_{ad}/E_f=3.3\times10^{-3}$ ; (b)  
580  $E_{ad}/E_f=9.7\times10^{-3}$ ; (c)  $E_{ad}/E_f=9.7\times10^{-2}$ , where  $E_{ad}$  and  $E_f$  are the Young's modulus of the  
581 adhesive and the FRP laminate, respectively. An adhesive strength of 52 MPa from (Shi  
582 et al., 2019) is adopted for all cases.

583 Fig. 12(a) illustrates the predicted load-slip curves for different cases. It can be  
584 seen that the ultimate slip, corresponding to the complete debonding of the FRP  
585 laminate from the concrete prism, exhibits a decreasing trend as the adhesive Young's  
586 modulus increases, indicating that weaker adhesion can lead to a higher ultimate slip.  
587 One advantage of phase field models of fracture, is their ability to theoretically  
588 reproduce the discrete crack surface area. This is achieved by integrating the crack  
589 surface density function  $\gamma_d$  across the entire computational domain. This characteristic

590 allows for the introduction of a normalized crack length in the current simulation,  
591 representing the ratio between the crack surface area and the length of the FRP laminate.  
592 Fig. 12(b) depicts the normalized crack lengths for various cases. It can be observed  
593 that the smallest Young's modulus case has the largest normalized crack length,  
594 indicating that the concrete beneath the bonded FRP laminate experiences more damage.  
595 As the Young's modulus increases, the normalized crack length decreases and  
596 eventually approaches the perfectly bonding case. This trend is supported by the local  
597 crack patterns depicted in Fig. 13, where the case with the lowest Young's modulus  
598 tends to exhibit additional and deeper cracks compared to the other cases, as indicated  
599 by the yellow rectangle.

600 ***The effect of FRP thickness and axial stiffness on the debonding behavior***

601 In pull-off tests, the thickness of the FRP laminate is typically much smaller than  
602 that of the concrete prism. To address meshing issues in the finite element (FE) model,  
603 previous studies (Lu et al., 2005b, Lin and Wu, 2016, Shi et al., 2019) have proposed  
604 using a nominal FRP laminate thickness, such as 1.0 mm. However, to maintain a  
605 constant axial stiffness ( $E/t$ ) of the FRP laminate, the Young's modulus needs to be  
606 adjusted accordingly. As shown in (Lu et al., 2005b, Lin and Wu, 2016, Shi et al., 2019),  
607 this approach of using a nominal thickness can increase the element size of the FRP  
608 laminate, reducing computational costs. This section aims to evaluate the validity of the  
609 nominal FRP thickness assumption in the meso-scale model and explore the impact of  
610 varying FRP thickness while keeping a constant Young's modulus on the debonding

611 behavior.

612 To assess the validity of the nominal FRP thickness assumption, three thicknesses,  
613 i.e.,  $t_f=0.25$  mm,  $t_f=0.5$  mm and  $t_f=1.0$  mm, are considered, with the Young's moduli  
614 adjusted to maintain a constant axial stiffness. Fig. 14(a) illustrates the predicted load-  
615 slip curves. It shows that the curves for different thicknesses exhibit similar behavior  
616 until the slip reaches 0.75 mm. Beyond that point, clear deviations between the curves  
617 occur, with thicker laminate cases tending to have larger ultimate slips. One possible  
618 reason for this phenomenon could be the variation in bending stiffness, which can affect  
619 the stress conditions during debonding propagation. Fig. 14(b) depicts the  
620 corresponding normalized crack lengths. The increase in the normalized crack length  
621 quantitatively indicates that the thickness of the FRP laminate still influences the crack  
622 pattern, even when maintaining a constant axial stiffness. This trend is supported by the  
623 local crack patterns depicted in Fig. 15, where the thickest case exhibits more and  
624 deeper cracks compared to the other cases, as indicated by the yellow rectangle.

625 To investigate the impact of the thickness of the FRP laminate while keeping the  
626 Young's modulus constant, three different thickness cases, i.e.,  $t_f=0.25$  mm,  $t_f=0.5$  mm  
627 and  $t_f=1.0$  mm, are considered. Fig. 16(a) illustrates the predicted load-slip curves  
628 corresponding to various thicknesses. It can be observed that increasing the thickness  
629 of the FRP laminate leads to a notable increase in the maximum load but a decrease in  
630 ultimate slip, aligning with the experimental findings reported by (Zhang and Smith,  
631 2013). In Fig. 16(b), the normalized crack length is depicted, revealing a consistent

632 decrease with increasing FRP thickness. Fig. 17 illustrates the local crack patterns. It  
633 can be seen that the trend in normalized crack length is influenced by the smoothness  
634 of the crack pattern. The thicker laminate case (Fig. 17 (c)) exhibits fewer dentiform  
635 cracks compared to thinner cases (i.e., Fig. 17 (a) and (b)), as indicated by yellow  
636 rectangles.

637 **Conclusions**

638 This paper proposes a novel meso-scale phase field model for accurately  
639 simulating the debonding behavior of FRP-to-concrete joints under monotonic loads.  
640 The proposed model has been successfully validated using pull-off tests reported in  
641 existing literature. The predicted results, including load-slip curves, axial strain  
642 distributions in FRP laminates, and debonding crack patterns, exhibit good agreement  
643 with experimental findings. One notable advantage of the proposed meso-scale phase  
644 field model, when compared to existing homogeneous models, is its explicit  
645 consideration of aggregate distribution. This feature enables the capture of complex  
646 failure mechanisms, such as mortar failure, ITZ failure, and frictional effects, leading  
647 to a more comprehensive understanding of the debonding process in FRP-to-concrete  
648 joints. Moreover, the incorporation of a crack density function within the phase field  
649 model allows for accurate reproduction of the surface area of cracks, facilitating  
650 quantitative investigations of crack density-related behaviors. Through numerical  
651 investigations, it has been found that the damage per unit area in the concrete beneath

652 the bonded surface is influenced by the adhesive modulus. A smaller adhesive modulus  
653 will lead to more damage, and as the modulus increases, it tends to approach the  
654 perfectly bonding case. When the tensile/axial stiffness (i.e., Young's modulus  $\times$   
655 thickness) of the FRP laminate is kept constant, different FRP laminate thicknesses will  
656 lead to different debonding behaviors. Such differences become more significant when  
657 changing the laminate thickness while keeping the Young's modulus of the FRP  
658 laminate constant, indicating a prominent influence of the axial stiffness of the FRP  
659 laminate on the debonding behavior of FRP-to-concrete joints. It should be noted that  
660 while the pull-off test in this paper is simulated under a plane stress hypothesis, the  
661 actual debonding behavior is three-dimensional. Therefore, a nature extension of the  
662 proposed meso-scale model to three-dimensional cases can be pursued. The relevant  
663 work will be carried out in the future.

## 664 **Data Availability Statement**

665 Data will be made available on request from the corresponding author.

## 666 **Acknowledgements**

667 This research was supported by Guangdong Province R&D Plan for Key Areas (Project  
668 code: 2019B111107002), the Hong Kong Research Grants Council – Theme-based  
669 Research Scheme (Project code: T22-502/18-R), and The Hong Kong Polytechnic  
670 University through the Post-doctoral Fellowship (Project code: 1-W21R) and the

672 **Nomenclature**


---

$\bar{b}, \bar{t}$	Body and boundary forces
$b_f, b_c$	Widths of the FRP laminate and concrete prism
$\mathbf{C}_d, \mathbf{C}_d^{loc}$	Global and local damaged elasticity matrices
$d, \dot{d}$	Damage phase field and its time derivative
$E_a, E_m, E_c$	Young's moduli for aggregates, mortar and concrete
$E_f, E_{aa}$	Young's moduli for FRP laminate and adhesive
$f_a, f_c$	Cubic compressive strengths for aggregates and concrete
$f_m, f_c'$	Cylinder compressive strengths for mortar and concrete
$g_I, g_{II}$	Tensile and shear failure degradation functions
$\vartheta$	Shear-friction failure degradation function
$G_I, G_{II}$	Tensile and shear critical energy release rates
$l_0, l_i$	Length scales of damage and interface phase fields
$\mathbf{n}_1, \mathbf{n}_2$	Principal stress directions
$t_f$	Thickness of FRP laminate
$\mathbf{T}_\sigma, \mathbf{T}_\varepsilon$	Stress and strain rotation matrices
$\mathbf{u}$	Displacement field
$Y_I, \bar{Y}_{sh}$	Tensile and shear strengths
$Y_o$	Cohesion strength

$\alpha$	Crack angle
$\beta_w$	Width factor
$\gamma_d$	Crack surface density function
$\varepsilon$	Strain tensor
$\eta$	Interface phase field
$\kappa$	Artificial damage phase field viscosity
$\rho$	density
$\sigma$	Stress tensor
$\sigma_n^n, \tau_m^n$	Normal and shear stresses at crack surfaces
$\tau_{\max}$	Historical maximum shear stress
$\tau_f$	Reduced shear stress at crack surfaces
$\tau_{II}^n$	The component of shear stress that excludes friction stress
$\phi$	Friction angle
$\psi_I^n, \psi_{II}^n$	Elastic energy densities governing tensile and shear damage

---

## 673      References

674      Ali-Ahmad, M., Subramaniam, K. and Ghosn, M. (2006) 'Experimental investigation  
 675      and fracture analysis of debonding between concrete and FRP sheets', *Journal  
 676      of engineering mechanics*, 132(9), pp. 914-923.

677      Ambati, M., Gerasimov, T. and De Lorenzis, L. (2015a) 'Phase-field modeling of ductile  
 678      fracture', *Computational Mechanics*, 55(5), pp. 1017-1040.

679 Ambati, M., Gerasimov, T. and De Lorenzis, L. (2015b) 'A review on phase-field  
680 models of brittle fracture and a new fast hybrid formulation', *Computational  
681 Mechanics*, 55(2), pp. 383-405.

682 Barnes, B., DIAMOND, S. and Dolch, W. (1979) 'Micromorphology of the interfacial  
683 zone around aggregates in Portland cement mortar', *Journal of the American  
684 Ceramic Society*, 62(1-2), pp. 21-24.

685 Borden, M. J. (2012) *Isogeometric analysis of phase-field models for dynamic brittle  
686 and ductile fracture*. PhD dissertation, The University of Texas at Austin.

687 Bourdin, B., Francfort, G. A. and Marigo, J.-J. (2000) 'Numerical experiments in  
688 revisited brittle fracture', *Journal of the Mechanics and Physics of Solids*, 48(4),  
689 pp. 797-826.

690 Bui, T. Q. and Hu, X. (2021) 'A review of phase-field models, fundamentals and their  
691 applications to composite laminates', *Engineering Fracture Mechanics*, pp.  
692 107705.

693 Chen, J. F. and Teng, J. (2001) 'Anchorage strength models for FRP and steel plates  
694 bonded to concrete', *Journal of structural engineering*, 127(7), pp. 784-791.

695 Code, P. (2005) 'Eurocode 2: design of concrete structures', *British Standard Institution,  
696 London*.

697 Contrafatto, L., Cuomo, M. and Gazzo, S. (2016) 'A concrete homogenisation technique  
698 at meso-scale level accounting for damaging behaviour of cement paste and  
699 aggregates', *Computers & Structures*, 173, pp. 1-18.

700 Coronado, C. A. and Lopez, M. M. (2010) 'Numerical modeling of concrete-FRP  
701 debonding using a crack band approach', *Journal of composites for construction*,  
702 14(1), pp. 11-21.

703 Dai, J.-G., Yokota, H. and Ueda, T. (2009) 'A hybrid bonding system for improving the  
704 structural performance of FRP flexurally strengthened concrete beams',  
705 *Advances in Structural Engineering*, 12(6), pp. 821-832.

706 Dai, J., Ueda, T. and Sato, Y. (2005) 'Development of the nonlinear bond stress-slip  
707 model of fiber reinforced plastics sheet-concrete interfaces with a simple  
708 method', *Journal of composites for construction*, 9(1), pp. 52-62.

709 De Lorenzis, L. and Teng, J.-G. (2007) 'Near-surface mounted FRP reinforcement: An  
710 emerging technique for strengthening structures', *Composites Part B:*  
711 *Engineering*, 38(2), pp. 119-143.

712 Du, X., Jin, L. and Zhang, R. (2014) 'Modeling the cracking of cover concrete due to  
713 non-uniform corrosion of reinforcement', *Corrosion Science*, 89, pp. 189-202.

714 Francfort, G. A. and Marigo, J.-J. (1998) 'Revisiting brittle fracture as an energy  
715 minimization problem', *Journal of the Mechanics and Physics of Solids*, 46(8),  
716 pp. 1319-1342.

717 Hoover, C. G., Bažant, Z. P., Vorel, J., Wendner, R. and Hubler, M. H. (2013)  
718 'Comprehensive concrete fracture tests: Description and results', *Engineering  
719 fracture mechanics*, 114, pp. 92-103.

720 Hu, X., Tan, S., Xia, D., Min, L., Xu, H., Yao, W., Sun, Z., Zhang, P., Bui, T. Q. and

721 Zhuang, X. (2023) 'An overview of implicit and explicit phase field models for  
722 quasi-static failure processes, implementation and computational efficiency',  
723 *Theoretical and Applied Fracture Mechanics*, pp. 103779.

724 Hu, X., Xu, H., Xi, X., Zhang, P. and Yang, S. (2022) 'Meso-scale phase field modelling  
725 of reinforced concrete structures subjected to corrosion of multiple  
726 reinforcements', *Construction and Building Materials*, 321, pp. 126376.

727 Huang, Y., Yang, Z., Chen, X. and Liu, G. (2016) 'Monte Carlo simulations of meso-  
728 scale dynamic compressive behavior of concrete based on X-ray computed  
729 tomography images', *International Journal of Impact Engineering*, 97, pp. 102-  
730 115.

731 Huang, Y., Yang, Z., Ren, W., Liu, G. and Zhang, C. (2015) '3D meso-scale fracture  
732 modelling and validation of concrete based on in-situ X-ray Computed  
733 Tomography images using damage plasticity model', *International Journal of  
734 Solids and Structures*, 67, pp. 340-352.

735 Jawdhari, A., Fam, A. and Harik, I. (2018) 'Numerical study on the bond between CFRP  
736 rod panels (CRPs) and concrete', *Construction and Building Materials*, 177, pp.  
737 522-534.

738 Jawdhari, A., Semendary, A., Fam, A., Khoury, I. and Steinberg, E. (2019) 'Bond  
739 characteristics of CFRP rod panels adhered to concrete under bending effects',  
740 *Journal of Composites for Construction*, 23(1), pp. 04018077.

741 Kadhim, M. M., Jawdhari, A., Adheem, A. H. and Fam, A. (2022) 'Analysis and design

742 of two-way slabs strengthened in flexure with FRCM', *Engineering Structures*,  
743 256, pp. 113983.

744 Kadhim, M. M., Jawdhari, A. and Peiris, A. 'Evaluation of lap-splices in NSM FRP rods  
745 for retrofitting RC members'. *Structures*: Elsevier, 877-894.

746 Kai, M.-F., Ji, W.-M. and Dai, J.-G. (2022) 'Atomistic insights into the debonding of  
747 Epoxy–Concrete interface with water presence', *Engineering Fracture  
748 Mechanics*, 271, pp. 108668.

749 Kai, M.-F., Li, G., Yin, B.-B. and Akbar, A. (2023a) 'Aluminum-induced structure  
750 evolution and mechanical strengthening of calcium silicate hydrates: an  
751 atomistic insight', *Construction and Building Materials*, 393, pp. 132120.

752 Kai, M.-F., Sanchez, F., Hou, D.-S. and Dai, J.-G. (2023b) 'Nanoscale insights into the  
753 interfacial characteristics between calcium silicate hydrate and silica', *Applied  
754 Surface Science*, 616, pp. 156478.

755 Li, G., Yin, B., Zhang, L. and Liew, K. (2020) 'Modeling microfracture evolution in  
756 heterogeneous composites: A coupled cohesive phase-field model', *Journal of  
757 the Mechanics and Physics of Solids*, 142, pp. 103968.

758 Li, W. and Guo, L. (2019) 'Dual-horizon peridynamics analysis of debonding failure in  
759 FRP-to-concrete bonded joints', *International Journal of Concrete Structures  
760 and Materials*, 13(1), pp. 1-15.

761 Li, Y.-Q., Chen, J.-F., Yang, Z.-J., Esmaeeli, E., Sha, W. and Huang, Y.-J. (2021) 'Effects  
762 of concrete heterogeneity on FRP-concrete bond behaviour: Experimental and

763 mesoscale numerical studies', *Composite Structures*, 275, pp. 114436.

764 Lin, J.-P. and Wu, Y.-F. (2016) 'Numerical analysis of interfacial bond behavior of  
765 externally bonded FRP-to-concrete joints', *Journal of Composites for  
766 Construction*, 20(5), pp. 04016028.

767 Lin, J.-P., Wu, Y.-F. and Smith, S. T. (2017) 'Width factor for externally bonded FRP-  
768 to-concrete joints', *Construction and Building Materials*, 155, pp. 818-829.

769 López, C. M., Carol, I. and Aguado, A. (2008) 'Meso-structural study of concrete  
770 fracture using interface elements. II: compression, biaxial and Brazilian test',  
771 *Materials and structures*, 41(3), pp. 601-620.

772 Lu, X., Teng, J., Ye, L. and Jiang, J. (2005a) 'Bond-slip models for FRP sheets/plates  
773 bonded to concrete', *Engineering structures*, 27(6), pp. 920-937.

774 Lu, X., Ye, L., Teng, J. and Jiang, J. (2005b) 'Meso-scale finite element model for FRP  
775 sheets/plates bonded to concrete', *Engineering structures*, 27(4), pp. 564-575.

776 Miehe, C., Hofacker, M., Schänzel, L.-M. and Aldakheel, F. (2015) 'Phase field  
777 modeling of fracture in multi-physics problems. Part II. Coupled brittle-to-  
778 ductile failure criteria and crack propagation in thermo-elastic-plastic solids',  
779 *Computer Methods in Applied Mechanics and Engineering*, 294, pp. 486-522.

780 Miehe, C., Hofacker, M. and Welschinger, F. (2010a) 'A phase field model for rate-  
781 independent crack propagation: Robust algorithmic implementation based on  
782 operator splits', *Computer Methods in Applied Mechanics and Engineering*,  
783 199(45-48), pp. 2765-2778.

784 Miehe, C., Welschinger, F. and Hofacker, M. (2010b) 'Thermodynamically consistent  
785 phase-field models of fracture: Variational principles and multi-field FE  
786 implementations', *International journal for numerical methods in engineering*,  
787 83(10), pp. 1273-1311.

788 Mori, T. and Tanaka, K. (1973) 'Average stress in matrix and average elastic energy of  
789 materials with misfitting inclusions', *Acta metallurgica*, 21(5), pp. 571-574.

790 Nagai, K., Sato, Y. and Ueda, T. (2005) 'Mesoscopic simulation of failure of mortar and  
791 concrete by 3D RBSM', *Journal of Advanced Concrete Technology*, 3(3), pp.  
792 385-402.

793 Neville, A. M. (1995) *Properties of concrete*. Longman London.

794 Nguyen, T. T., Yvonnet, J., Zhu, Q.-Z., Bornert, M. and Chateau, C. (2016) 'A phase-  
795 field method for computational modeling of interfacial damage interacting with  
796 crack propagation in realistic microstructures obtained by microtomography',  
797 *Computer Methods in Applied Mechanics and Engineering*, 312, pp. 567-595.

798 Pan, J. and Leung, C. K. (2007) 'Effect of concrete composition on FRP/concrete bond  
799 capacity', *Journal of Composites for Construction*, 11(6), pp. 611-618.

800 Pina-Henriques, J. and Lourenço, P. B. (2006) 'Masonry compression: a numerical  
801 investigation at the meso-level', *Engineering computations*.

802 Prakash, P. R., Pulatsu, B., Lourenço, P. B., Azenha, M. and Pereira, J. M. (2020) 'A  
803 meso-scale discrete element method framework to simulate thermo-mechanical  
804 failure of concrete subjected to elevated temperatures', *Engineering Fracture*

805        *Mechanics*, 239, pp. 107269.

806        Quintanas-Corominas, A., Reinoso, J., Casoni, E., Turon, A. and Mayugo, J. (2019) 'A  
807                phase field approach to simulate intralaminar and translaminar fracture in long  
808                fiber composite materials', *Composite Structures*, 220, pp. 899-911.

809        Ren, W., Yang, Z., Sharma, R., Zhang, C. and Withers, P. J. (2015) 'Two-dimensional  
810                X-ray CT image based meso-scale fracture modelling of concrete', *Engineering  
811                Fracture Mechanics*, 133, pp. 24-39.

812        Šavija, B., Luković, M., Pacheco, J. and Schlangen, E. (2013) 'Cracking of the concrete  
813                cover due to reinforcement corrosion: A two-dimensional lattice model study',  
814                *Construction and Building Materials*, 44, pp. 626-638.

815        Shi, J.-W., Cao, W.-H. and Wu, Z.-S. (2019) 'Effect of adhesive properties on the bond  
816                behaviour of externally bonded FRP-to-concrete joints', *Composites Part B:  
817                Engineering*, 177, pp. 107365.

818        Sideris, K., Manita, P. and Sideris, K. (2004) 'Estimation of ultimate modulus of  
819                elasticity and Poisson ratio of normal concrete', *Cement and concrete  
820                composites*, 26(6), pp. 623-631.

821        Takeo, K., Matsushita, H., Makizumi, T. and Nagashima, G. (1997) 'Bond  
822                characteristics of CFRP sheets in the CFRP bonding technique', *Proceedings of  
823                Japan concrete institute*, 19(2), pp. 1599-1604.

824        Tan, Z. (2002) 'Experimental research for RC beam strengthened with GFRP',  
825                *Graduation thesis, Tsinghua Univ., Beijing, China (in Chinese)*.

826 Tao, Y. and Chen, J.-F. (2015) 'Concrete damage plasticity model for modeling FRP-to-  
827 concrete bond behavior', *Journal of composites for construction*, 19(1), pp.  
828 04014026.

829 Teng, J., Chen, J.-F. and Yu, T. (2002) 'FRP-strengthened RC structures'.  
830 Teng, J. G., Chen, J., Smith, S. T. and Lam, L. (2003) 'Behaviour and strength of FRP-  
831 strengthened RC structures: a state-of-the-art review', *Proceedings of the  
832 institution of civil engineers-structures and buildings*, 156(1), pp. 51-62.

833 Turon, A., Camanho, P. P., Costa, J. and Dávila, C. (2006) 'A damage model for the  
834 simulation of delamination in advanced composites under variable-mode  
835 loading', *Mechanics of materials*, 38(11), pp. 1072-1089.

836 Ueda, T., Sato, Y. and Asano, Y. 'Experimental study on bond strength of continuous  
837 carbon fiber sheet'. *4th International Symposium on Fiber Reinforced Polymer  
838 Reinforcement for Reinforced Concrete Structures*: American Concrete Institute,  
839 407-416.

840 Version, A. (2011) '6.11 Documentation', *Dassault Systemes Simulia Corp., Providence,  
841 RI, USA*.

842 Wu, J.-Y. (2017) 'A unified phase-field theory for the mechanics of damage and quasi-  
843 brittle failure', *Journal of the Mechanics and Physics of Solids*, 103, pp. 72-99.

844 Wu, Y.-F. and Jiang, C. (2013) 'Quantification of bond-slip relationship for externally  
845 bonded FRP-to-concrete joints', *Journal of Composites for Construction*, 17(5),  
846 pp. 673-686.

847 Xi, X., Yang, S., Li, C.-Q., Cai, M., Hu, X. and Shipton, Z. K. (2018) 'Meso-scale  
848 mixed-mode fracture modelling of reinforced concrete structures subjected to  
849 non-uniform corrosion', *Engineering Fracture Mechanics*, 199, pp. 114-130.

850 Yang, Z., Chen, J. F. and Proverbs, D. (2003) 'Finite element modelling of concrete  
851 cover separation failure in FRP plated RC beams', *Construction and Building  
852 Materials*, 17(1), pp. 3-13.

853 Yao, J., Teng, J. and Chen, J. F. (2005) 'Experimental study on FRP-to-concrete bonded  
854 joints', *Composites Part B: Engineering*, 36(2), pp. 99-113.

855 Yilmaz, O. and Molinari, J.-F. (2017) 'A mesoscale fracture model for concrete', *Cement  
856 and Concrete Research*, 97, pp. 84-94.

857 Zhang, H. and Smith, S. T. (2013) 'Fibre-reinforced polymer (FRP)-to-concrete joints  
858 anchored with FRP anchors: tests and experimental trends', *Canadian Journal  
859 of Civil Engineering*, 40(11), pp. 1103-1116.

860 Zhang, P., Dai, J.-G., Das, C. S. and Zheng, J.-J. (2023) 'A fully coupled meso-scale  
861 electro-chemo-mechanical phase field method for corrosion-induced fracture in  
862 concrete', *International Journal of Solids and Structures*, 267, pp. 112165.

863 Zhang, P., Hu, X., Bui, T. Q. and Yao, W. (2019a) 'Phase field modeling of fracture in  
864 fiber reinforced composite laminate', *International Journal of Mechanical  
865 Sciences*, 161, pp. 105008.

866 Zhang, P., Hu, X., Yang, S. and Yao, W. (2019b) 'Modelling progressive failure in multi-  
867 phase materials using a phase field method', *Engineering Fracture Mechanics*,

868 209, pp. 105-124.

869 Zhang, P., Yao, W., Hu, X. and Bui, T. Q. (2020) '3D micromechanical progressive  
870 failure simulation for fiber-reinforced composites', *Composite Structures*, 249,  
871 pp. 112534.

872 Zhang, P., Yao, W., Hu, X. and Bui, T. Q. (2021) 'An explicit phase field model for  
873 progressive tensile failure of composites', *Engineering Fracture Mechanics*,  
874 241, pp. 107371.

875 Zhou, R., Song, Z. and Lu, Y. (2017) '3D mesoscale finite element modelling of  
876 concrete', *Computers & Structures*, 192, pp. 96-113.

877 **Tables**

878 Table 1 Material properties and geometric details of the pull-off tests.

Experiment	$f_c'$ (MPa)	$b_c$ (mm)	$b_f$ (mm)	$t_f$ (mm)	$E_f$ (GPa)
Ali-Ahmad et al. NO. 1	38.0	125	46	0.167	230.0
Yao et al. II-5	23.0	150	25	0.165	256.0
Wu and Jiang C50-250-1	46.1	150	50	0.167	248.3
Wu and Jiang C60-250-1	56.4	150	50	0.167	248.3

879 **Figure Captions**

880 Fig. 1 (a) Considered continuum domain with boundary conditions and a crack and (b) stress state  
881 at the point depicted in right figure.

882 Fig. 2 (a) Principal stress and (b) stress components at the local coordinate system with  $x'$ -axis along

883 crack direction.

884 Fig. 3 Sharp and diffusive crack topology. (a) Shape crack embedded in the continuum domain  $\Omega$   
885 and (b) the regularized crack  $\Gamma_d$  represented by crack phase field  $d$ .

886 Fig. 4 Sketches of mortar cracking and ITZ debonding: (a) the discrete representation and (b) the  
887 regularized representation.

888 Fig. 5 Geometry and boundary condition of the TPB test.

889 Fig. 6 The experimental (Hoover et al., 2013) and predicted force-CMOD relationships, along with  
890 simulated crack patterns in meso-scale regions: (a) specimen of  $D=40$  mm and  $\lambda=0.15$ ; (b) specimen  
891 of  $D=40$  mm and  $\lambda=0.3$ ; (c) specimen of  $D=93$  mm and  $\lambda=0.15$ ; and (d) specimen of  $D=93$  mm and  
892  $\lambda=0.3$ .

893 Fig. 7 Two-dimensional pull-off test FE model.

894 Fig. 8 Comparison of the predictions with experimental results.

895 Fig. 9 Predicted and experimental load-slip curves: (a) specimen No. 1 in (Ali-Ahmad et al., 2006);  
896 (b) specimen II-5 in (Yao et al., 2005); (c) specimen C50-250-1 in (Wu and Jiang, 2013); (d)  
897 specimen C60-250-1 in (Wu and Jiang, 2013).

898 Fig. 10 Predicted and experimental axial strain distributions in FRP: (a) specimen No. 1 in (Ali-  
899 Ahmad et al., 2006); (b) specimen II-5 in (Yao et al., 2005); (c) specimen C50-250-1 in (Wu and  
900 Jiang, 2013)

901 Fig. 11 Predicted crack patterns: (a) proposed model for specimen No. 1 in (Ali-Ahmad et al., 2006);  
902 (b) proposed model for specimen C60-250-1 in (Wu and Jiang, 2013); (c) numerical simulations  
903 from (Lin and Wu, 2016, Lu et al., 2005b, Li and Guo, 2019) by using homogeneous models.

904 Fig. 12 Numerical predictions of the proposed model for various adhesions: (a) load-slip curves; (b)  
905 normalized crack lengths.

906 Fig. 13 Predicted crack patterns near the loaded end for various adhesions: (a)  $E_{ad}/E_f=3.3\times 10^{-3}$ ; (b)  
907  $E_{ad}/E_f=9.7\times 10^{-3}$ ; (c)  $E_{ad}/E_f=9.7\times 10^{-2}$ .

908 Fig. 14 Numerical predictions of the proposed model for various FRP thicknesses (constant FRP  
909 axial stiffness): (a) load-slip curves; (b) normalized crack lengths.

910 Fig. 15 Predicted crack patterns near the loaded end for various FRP thicknesses (constant FRP axial  
911 stiffness): (a)  $t_f=0.25$  mm; (b)  $t_f=0.5$  mm; (c)  $t_f=1.0$  mm.

912 Fig. 16 Numerical predictions of the proposed model for various FRP thicknesses (constant FRP  
913 Young's modulus): (a) load-slip curves; (b) normalized crack lengths.

914 Fig. 17 Predicted crack patterns near the loaded end for various FRP thicknesses (constant FRP  
915 Young's modulus): (a)  $t_f=0.25$  mm; (b)  $t_f=0.5$  mm; (c)  $t_f=1.0$  mm.

916