

1 **Strain-softening response and failure prediction in notched oriented**
2 **strand board (OSB)**

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13 **Abstract**

14 The strain-softening response and failure of oriented strand boards (OSB) are investigated both
15 experimentally and numerically. Standard tests are used to characterize the elastic (MOE) as well
16 as damage properties (damage height, damage initiation strain and fracture energy) of OSB in
17 two principal (parallel and perpendicular) directions. Experimental data are then used in
18 conjunction with a recently developed physically-based damage model to simulate the nonlinear
19 response of notched OSB samples under tension using the finite element (FE) method.
20 Acceptable agreement between the FE simulations and experimental data are found. The results
21 suggest that a strain-softening approach is capable of accurately modelling the damage
22 progression in notched OSB samples.

23

24 **Keywords**

25 Oriented strand board, wood, composite, strain-softening, finite element method, fracture

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28 **Introduction**

29 The motivation for this work comes from the needs of the engineered wood products industry
30 where wood strands are widely being used in products such as oriented strand board (OSB) and
31 oriented strand lumber (OSL). Due to their high stiffness and strength properties at reasonable
32 costs, compared to conventional construction materials such as plywood, strand-based wood
33 composites are manufactured using a wide range of wood species around the world (Akrami et al.,
34 2014). For instance, in North America, Europe, and Australia, OSB is widely being used as wall
35 and roof sheathing, and web of I-joists in wood framed buildings (Guan and Zhu, 2009; Akrami et
36 al., 2014). In Europe, OSB is very popular for other structural applications in modular buildings
37 such as structural insulated panels (SIP), as well as trailer liners and vehicle flooring (Akrami et
38 al., 2014; Chen and Hao, 2015; Meng et al., 2018). Similar to wood, bamboo culms may be cut
39 and used as strands for fabricating similar products such as bamboo oriented strand boards in
40 South-East Asia and Latin America (Sumardi et al., 2008; Malanit et al., 2011; Febrianto et al.,
41 2012; Chen et al., 2015; Chaowana and Barbu, 2017).

42 The use of strand-based wood and bamboo OSBs in structural products demands certain
43 requirements of their structural performance under various loading conditions. There are many
44 parameters and variables that affect the mechanical properties and ultimately the structural
45 response of strand-based composites, such as strand size and orientation distribution, type and
46 species, resin type and content, void content, moisture content, etc. (Malekmohammadi, 2014;
47 Malekmohammadi et al., 2015). The elastic properties, including the modulus of elasticity (MOE),
48 of strand-based composites have been investigated extensively in the literature (Painter et al., 2006;
49 Yadama et al., 2006; Benabou and Duchanois, 2007; Chen et al., 2010; Stürzenbecher et al., 2010;
50 Sebera and Muszyński, 2011; Zhang and Lu, 2014). Gereke et al. (Gereke et al., 2012) proposed a

51 two-step numerical multi-scale framework for predicting the flexural modulus of a PSL beam.
52 Malekmohammadi et al. (2015) extended the multi-scale model of Gereke et al. (2012) by
53 developing a more comprehensive multi-scale analytical framework for predicting elastic response
54 of strand-based composites under bending loads. Several parameters were considered including
55 wood species and their combination; strand dimensions, orientation, compaction and density
56 profile; void content; fines content; as well as resin type, content, and distribution. The
57 methodology has recently been applied to bamboo OSBs (Dixon et al., 2017) to predict their
58 flexural MOE by accounting for the different microstructures of wood and bamboo.

59 Although the elastic response of various wood and bamboo based OSBs have been well
60 investigated in the literature, there is a paucity of information on the nonlinear stress-strain
61 behaviour of such materials (especially around notches). It is well known that OSBs can withstand
62 loads even after reaching their maximum strength values (Chen and Hao, 2015; Chen and He,
63 2017), especially under bending and compression. Analysing the nonlinear structural response of
64 elements that contains OSB (e.g. I-joists and hybrid floor systems with OSB panels) requires
65 having an improved understanding of stress-strain behaviour of strand-based composites up to
66 failure. Nevertheless, only few researchers have studied the stress-strain response of OSB under
67 axial tension and compression recently (Chen and He, 2017). Empirical relations were established
68 between stresses and strains using experimental data and it was found that the loading directions
69 had a significant effect on failure response of OSB. A refined empirical model was suggested by
70 Chen and He (2017) to simulate the behaviour of OSB panels. The above works did not consider
71 the effect of sharp cracks, holes or notches on the structural response of OSB. Openings such as
72 holes in OSB are often encountered in OSB webbed I-joists (Guan and Zhu, 2009; Morrissey et

73 al., 2009; Chen et al., 2015). These openings could affect the structural performance of beams
74 significantly depending on their size, location, and the member geometry.

75 From a materials viewpoint, structural wood products, such as OSB (Chen and He, 2017), Glulam
76 (Blank et al., 2017) and LVL (Franke and Quenneville, 2014) exhibit quasi-brittle behaviour
77 similar to advanced fibre-reinforced composites (e.g. CFRP or GFRP) and concrete. This is due to
78 inherent inhomogeneities in wood and its composites (Blank et al., 2017). It is well known that
79 during damage propagation in notched samples of quasi-brittle materials such as concrete and
80 advanced fibre reinforced composites in general, a failure process zone (FPZ) is formed in front
81 of the notch within which material properties including stiffness are degrading. Unlike brittle type
82 failure, there is a characteristic length (i.e. damage height also known as damage width) associated
83 with FPZ that is independent of testing geometry and loading conditions (Bazant and Planas, 1998;
84 Bažant and Le, 2017). It should be noted that the size of the FPZ, related to the scale of the material
85 heterogeneity, leads to a deterministic-type size effect which is different from a statistical
86 (Weibull-type) size effect (see e.g. (Bazant and Planas., 1998)). Therefore, determining the
87 characteristic length of FPZ is crucial for analysing the damage response of such materials.
88 Considering multitude of failure mechanisms and their associated interactions in quasi-brittle
89 materials, many established models are available for analysis of damage growth and failure. These
90 range from simple models with few parameters to characterize (e.g. maximum stress/strain
91 theories) to complex multi-damage mode models.

92 From a computational viewpoint, three main categories of numerical approaches exists for
93 damage simulation in these materials: Continuum Damage Models (CDM), discrete damage
94 models and embedded crack models (Forghani et al., 2015). Among these approaches, CDM and
95 smeared crack methods have enjoyed wide popularity due to their ease of implementation in

96 commercial finite element codes. In this approach, the damage behaviour of material across the
97 FPZ is represented in a smeared manner using strain-softening curves (i.e. degradation of
98 apparent stiffness with progressive loading). Although such an approach does not include micro-
99 details of damage progression including interaction of discrete damage modes (e.g. splitting and
100 delamination), it provides an effective response of the damaged material on the macro-scale.

101 Strain-softening models have been applied successfully to a variety of applications including
102 prediction of global damage response in concrete structures (Bazant and Oh, 1983; Bažant et al.,
103 1984; Bažant and Pijaudier-Cabot, 1988) and progressive damage growth in advanced
104 composites under both static and dynamic loads (Williams and Vaziri, 2001; Zobeiry et al., 2015,
105 2017). Usually, shape of the strain-softening curve is either assumed (e.g. simple linear or
106 bilinear (Bazant et al., 1991; Elices et al., 2002), exponential (Jirásek and Patzák, 2002) or higher
107 order polynomials (Williams et al., 2003; McGregor et al., 2008) or determined experimentally
108 (Zobeiry et al., 2015, 2017). Based on this initial assumption, several damage parameters have to
109 be measured to characterize the strain-softening response. This may include damage initiation
110 strain(s), damage saturation strain(s), damage height, fracture energy and associated fracture
111 energy density for a representative volume element (RVE). Damage initiation strains are usually
112 obtained by conducting ASTM standard tests such as tensile or bending tests. Fracture energies
113 are obtained using established test methods such as Compact Tension (CT), Over-height
114 Compact tension (OCT) and Compact Compression (CC) (Kongshavn and Poursartip, 1999;
115 Zobeiry et al., 2015, 2017). In these tests, positive geometries of notched specimens are used to
116 ensure a controlled and self-similar damage growth. This allows for accurate measurement of
117 damage parameters.

118 OSBs are increasingly being used in several structural members (e.g. OSB webbed I-joists) and
119 the effects of notches and holes need to be taken into account in the design of such members as
120 well as design standards (Guan and Zhu, 2009; Morrissey et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2015). A
121 methodology that considers size effects in such composites is therefore needed for analysing their
122 failure response. Characterization and simulation of the nonlinear response of strand-based
123 composites up to failure would enable us to better evaluate the structural response of OSB with
124 openings for design purposes. Furthermore, it will help materials engineers to optimize the
125 microstructure of these green materials and improve their performances under extreme loading
126 conditions such as earthquakes and impacts.

127 According to (Chen and He, 2017), OSB could carry significant amount of load within the
128 nonlinear region of its stress-strain curve. However, the fracture energy and damage properties of
129 OSB have never been quantified rigorously in the literature. In the following section, we present a
130 methodology to examine the damage response of notched OSB up to failure. Furthermore, we
131 illustrate how a multi-scale modelling approach could be combined with a sub-laminate based
132 damage model to simulate the damage response of notched OSB in Results and Discussion section.
133 In Summary and Conclusions section, we compare the OSB fracture energies (parallel and
134 perpendicular to grain directions) with those reported for other structural wood products (Glulam
135 and LVL) in the literature.

136 **Methodology**

137 The methodology presented in this paper uses a combination of experiments (bending and OCT
138 tests) and numerical simulations to describe the nonlinear response of OSB under tensile loading.

139 Experiments involve tests to determine the behaviour of un-notched samples under bending as well
140 as notched ones under uniaxial tension.

141 *Experiments*

142 The flexural stiffness and strength of OSB panels in their two main directions are measured
143 using a three-point bending test setup following the ASTM standard. In total, 20 tests parallel to
144 grain and 25 tests perpendicular to grain directions were carried out. The OSB samples were
145 made from Aspen strands and provided by FPInnovations. The specimen nominal dimensions for
146 the three-point bending tests as well as the main findings from the three point bending tests
147 conducted (Standard deviations are in brackets) are given in Table 1. The modulus of rupture
148 (MOR) and MOE values were calculated using ASTM test standard formulae in ASTM D1037
149 (ASTM, 2013).

150 As shown in Table 1, for anisotropic samples, the MOR and MOE for loadings parallel to grain
151 are higher compared to loadings perpendicular to grain. Even though loading parallel to grain
152 provides a higher MOR and MOE, such loading causes the standard deviation to rise
153 significantly, probably due to higher values of Young's modulus of wood in its longitudinal
154 direction and its significant effect on the panel MOE in its parallel direction (see
155 (Malekmohammadi et al., 2013)). Such higher standard deviations for parallel to grain MOE are
156 consistent with experimental data reported in (Chen et al., 2010; Malekmohammadi et al., 2015).

157 The mechanical behaviour of OSB depends on the vertical density profile (e.g. see (Chen et al.,
158 2010)). Therefore, a series of density profile measurements were conducted on a commercially
159 available QMS QDP-01X Density Profiler at FPInnovation. The measured density profiles are

160 shown in Figure 1. Profiler had a resolution of 0.05 mm and step sizes ranging from 0.025 mm to
161 0.5 mm. The step size used for these measurements was 0.08 mm.

162 Considering the vertical density profiles and the input data provided in (Malekmohammadi et al.,
163 2015), Malekmohammadi's multi-scale model was employed to estimate the elastic properties of
164 the panels. Multi-scale model predictions are given in Table 2. Note that parallel face layers are
165 considered as 1/3rd of the total panel thickness. Some important input parameters used in the
166 multi-scale model are listed in Table 3. As measuring the shear properties is quite challenging,
167 we use the predicted values from the multi-scale model for both MOE and shear modulus, G , in
168 damage simulations. Additionally, the effective elastic modulus, E , of the face layer combined
169 with strength value (or MOR) has been used to estimate the damage initiation strain required for
170 the simulations.

171 The damage properties of notched OSB panels were characterized using OCT tests. Schematic of
172 the OCT test geometry is shown in Figure 2. Tests were performed with a 20 kips (89 kN) screw-
173 driven Instron uniaxial testing machine. During each test, pin-opening-displacement (POD) was
174 measured using an Instron 2620-825 extensometer (± 5 mm travel). The specimens were loaded
175 under a displacement-controlled mode at a rate of 0.25 mm/min. All tests were conducted at
176 ambient temperature and humidity.

177 After each test, the specimen was sectioned using a slow-speed diamond saw. Cross-sections were
178 then analyzed to identify the extent of damage zone in front of the initial notch.

179 ***Modelling***

180 Having determined the elastic properties and fracture energies of OSB in both directions, its
181 nonlinear response is simulated using a sublaminar-based damage model. To predict the non-

182 linear damage response of notched OSB panels, a simplified version of the established damage
 183 model CODAM and its second variant CODAM2 which were originally developed for laminated
 184 composite materials (Forghani et al., 2013; Zobeiry et al., 2017) is used.

185 The damage law is based on a simple linear softening curve as shown in Figure 3(a). The damage
 186 model is characterized by damage initiation strain, ε_i and fracture energy density, g_f . Fracture
 187 energy density is calculated based on the experimentally measured fracture energy, G_f and
 188 characteristic damage height, h_c as follows:

$$g_f = \frac{G_f}{h_c} \quad (1)$$

189

190 Damage saturation strain is then defined as:

191

$$\varepsilon_s = \frac{2g_f}{E\varepsilon_i} \quad (2)$$

192

193 where E is the Young's modulus in the direction of loading. It should be noted that for
 194 orthotropic materials such as OSB panels, separate damage laws have to be defined for each
 195 direction of the material. In this study, CODAM2 which is implemented as a built-in material
 196 model, MAT_219, in the explicit finite element code LS-DYNA (LSTC, 2015) was used. A
 197 structured mesh with an element size of 0.25 mm in front of the initial notch was used as shown
 198 in Figure 4. Bazant's crack band theory was applied to modify the strain-softening curve based
 199 on this element size.

200 It should be noted that the problem of localization and mesh sensitivity attributed to all
 201 continuum damage models are usually dealt with methods such as crack band theory (Bazant and
 202 Oh, 1983) or nonlocal averaging techniques (Forghani et al., 2013; Zobeiry et al., 2017). While
 203 crack band theory is used to remedy mesh size sensitivity, nonlocal averaging is used to remedy
 204 both mesh size and orientation dependencies. In this study, due to the local nature of damage
 205 propagation in OCT loading geometry, the local form of MAT_219 in LS-DYNA (LSTC, 2015)
 206 with crack band theory was used. In this approach, the strain-softening curve is modified based
 207 on the size of the element, h_e , to ensure that the total amount of energy dissipated due to damage
 208 propagation is preserved regardless of the element size. As shown in Figure 3(b), in crack band
 209 theory, the damage saturation strain is modified using a scale factor, n , given by:

$$n\varepsilon_s = \frac{2G_f}{h_e E \varepsilon_i} \quad (3)$$

210 Using this method, however, a small element (i.e. small h_e) may undergo large strains during
 211 damage propagation leading to its fracture energy capacity being fully consumed. Since in LS-
 212 DYNA (LSTC, 2015) strains are treated as true strains, the above value has to be further
 213 modified (scaled) as shown in Figure 3(c) in order to account for the effect of large deformations
 214 (Zobeiry, 2010):

$$(\varepsilon_s)_{scaled} = \ln(1 + n\varepsilon_s) \quad (4)$$

215

216 **Results and Discussion**

217 In the following, the failure responses of OSB specimens are presented and compared to model
 218 predictions. Differences between the model and experimental data are discussed.

219 As described in the Introduction section, unlike uniaxial tension or bending tests, the OCT loading
 220 geometry produces stable damage initiation and self-similar crack growth. The load-displacement
 221 response of the three notched specimens obtained from OCT tests are presented in Figure 5. Two
 222 of those (E1 and E2) were tested in their strong (parallel to face grain) directions while the third
 223 one (E3) was tested in its weak (perpendicular to face grain) direction. To better understand the
 224 damage mechanism and identify the damage characteristics, OCT specimens were sectioned after
 225 testing. Several cross-sections and the identified damage zone in specimen E2 are shown in Figure
 226 6.

227 The damage zones for each specimen were identified using the line analysis techniques as
 228 described in (Kongshavn and Poursartip, 1999). The extent of the damage zone is depicted for
 229 three different specimens in Figure 7. It should be noted that the extent of the highlighted damage
 230 zones are approximately similar in shape.

231 From these zones, a characteristic damage height was determined to be roughly in the range of h_c
 232 = 19 to 22 mm. The fully damaged length or crack length (Δa) was also found to vary from 21 to
 233 28 mm. Once the damage zone was identified, the fracture energy, G_f , was calculated using the
 234 following equation:

$$G_f = \frac{W}{b\Delta a} \quad (5)$$

235

236 in which W is the dissipated work of fracture corresponding to the area below the load-POD
 237 curve (Figure 5) and bounded by the linear elastic unloading path to the origin, b is the thickness
 238 of the specimen and Δa is the damage length as shown in Figure 7. The reader is referred to
 239 (Zobeiry, 2010) for more details on calculating the fracture energy, G_f .

240

241 Using Equation 5, a fracture energy of about 2.9 to 5.8 kJ/m² was obtained for OSB in its parallel
242 direction. In the perpendicular direction, a fracture energy of about 8.9 kJ/m² was obtained. It
243 should be noted that to the best of the authors' knowledge the fracture energy of OSB has never
244 been reported in the literature. Experimental results from OCT tests are summarized in Table 4.

245

246 Having determined the elastic properties and fracture energies of OSB panels, simulations were
247 performed on notched samples using the built-in material model MAT_219 in LS-DYNA.
248 Bazant's crack band theory described in the Methodology section was applied to modify the
249 strain-softening curve based on this element size. A damage initiation strain of 2.6% was
250 assumed based on the bending tests. This value was estimated from MOR tests knowing the face
251 layer's effective modulus. The effective modulus of the OSB face layer was determined from the
252 multi-scale model based on the vertical density profile of the panel. The damage saturation
253 strains were then estimated using Equations 2. Three sets of simulations were performed based
254 on loading direction and the elastic moduli of samples presented in Table 1. The input values for
255 parameters used in FE simulations are summarized in Table 5. Simulation results for load-POD
256 curves are superposed on the corresponding experimental results in Figure 5 to facilitate the
257 comparison between the predictions and test results.

258 Results show that the sub-laminate modelling approach, originally developed for fibre-reinforced
259 composites, is capable of predicting the nonlinear damage response of notched OSB samples in
260 both parallel and perpendicular directions. The post-peak behaviour of wood composites is not
261 well known and has rarely been reported in the literature. The results suggest that extracting the

262 strain-softening behaviour of wood composites is necessary in order to predict the failure
263 response of notched samples with relatively good accuracy.

264 The variability observed in Figure 5 could be related to the natural variability of wood arising
265 from the distribution of growth characteristics such as knots and defects (Blank et al 2017) as
266 well as variability of process conditions which lead to presence of micro voids and variable resin
267 distribution between wood strands. Blank et al. (2017) reported a relatively higher ($\sim 10 \text{ kJ/m}^2$)
268 fracture energy for glued laminated timber (GLT). Considering the much lower cost and
269 relatively high fracture energy of OSB ($\sim 3\text{-}9 \text{ kJ/m}^2$ obtained in this study) compared to wood
270 ($\sim 0.1\text{-}0.8 \text{ kJ/m}^2$, e.g. see (Stanzl-Tscheegg et al., 1994; Dourado et al., 2015)) and other structural
271 wood products such as LVL ($\sim 0.6\text{-}1.8 \text{ kJ/m}^2$ according to (Franke and Quenneville, 2014))
272 makes OSB an attractive structural material and one that demands more rigorous study. For
273 instance, the vertical density profile and the effect of strand orientations on the fracture energy
274 could be explored more systematically using the strain-softening approach described in this
275 paper.

276

277 **Summary and Conclusions**

278 In this study, the damage response and failure behaviour of notched oriented strand board (OSB)
279 samples were studied using a combined experimental and numerical approach. Established
280 experiments for advanced composites including overheight compact tension (OCT) tests were
281 conducted to characterize OSB damage properties such as fracture energy and damage height.
282 The positive notched geometry in OCT tests allows for self-similar damage growth and
283 observation of post-peak response in OSB panels. This means that after an initial period for

284 formation of process zone and growth of damage height, damage progresses in a self-similar
285 manner with a constant characteristic damage height. During the initial period of FPZ formation,
286 the critical fracture energy is small due to the small damage height. During the self-similar
287 damage growth, however, when damage height is at its maximum value (about 20 mm in this
288 study), the fracture energy is large. This is referred to as the R-Curve of the material. It should be
289 noted that the energy value measured in this study is the fracture energy for self-similar damage
290 growth. To measure the full R-Curve of the material, interruptive tests have to be conducted
291 where the damage zone is measured at more intervals.

292 Aside from damage properties, elastic properties were also determined using a multi-scale
293 analytical approach that utilizes the measured density profile as input. Using the combined
294 elastic and damage properties, strain-softening responses of OSB in both parallel and
295 perpendicular directions were constructed. Numerical simulations of notched samples were then
296 performed using an established damage model for composite materials, CODAM2, which is
297 implemented in the commercial FE code, LS-DYNA, as MAT219. The successful prediction was
298 used as a validation of the approach.

299 Through this study, the fracture energy of OSB panels in Mode I failure was measured from
300 OCT tests for the first time in both parallel and perpendicular directions. The wide range of
301 fracture energy was associated to differences between parallel and perpendicular directions,
302 variability of wood strands, and processing-induced defects including micro voids and variation
303 of resin distribution. It should be noted that the estimated fracture energy of OSB ($3\text{-}9\text{ kJ/m}^2$) is
304 higher than wood ($\sim 0.1\text{-}0.8\text{ kJ/m}^2$) and LVL ($0.6\text{-}1.8\text{ kJ/m}^2$), and is comparable to that of Glulam
305 ($\sim 10\text{ kJ/m}^2$). This can be attributed to the large failure process zone and damage height of about
306 20 mm observed in OSB panels. Cross sectioning of the specimens showed a multitude of

307 delamination and matrix cracking across the damage zone which combined with multiple strand
308 failures, increases the fracture energy of OSB well beyond that of wood and LVL.
309 The successful approach presented here instils confidence in employing a similar approach to
310 characterize and predict the damage behaviour and size effect in other wood-based products. It
311 also suggests that a strain-softening approach is well suited to describe the nonlinear inelastic
312 behaviour of wood composites.

313

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456 **Tables**

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458 **Table 1: Summary of three point bending tests. The overall panel density is 0.64 g/cm³.**

Sample orientation	Dimensions (mm)			MOE (GPa)		MOR (MPa)	
	Thickness	Width	Length	Mean	STD	Mean	STD
Parallel (PAR)	11	76	319	5.0	0.85	33.1	7.1
Perpendicular (PER)	11	76	319	2.9	0.72	22.2	6.1

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469 **Table 2: Predicted elastic properties from the multi-scale model for OSB. The predicted**
470 **mean values are used in damage simulations.**

Sample orientation	MOE (GPa)		Shear Modulus (GPa)	
	Mean	STD	Mean	STD
Parallel (PAR)	5.17	0.17	0.41	0.012
Perpendicular (PER)	2.98	0.10	0.38	0.010

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481 **Table 3: Summary of input parameters used in the multi-scale framework**
 482 **(Malekmohammadi et al., 2015).**

No	Variable	Symbol	Value
1	Moisture Content	MC	7%
2	Fines Content by weight	W_{f_fines}	10%
3	Resin Content by weight	W_{f_resin}	3.0%
4	Max void content in the core	Void	5%
5	Resin Density (kg/m ³)	ρ_{resin}	1400
6	Wax density (kg/m ³)	ρ_{wax}	780
7	Strand length (mm)	L	100
8	Strand thickness (mm)	t	0.69
9	Strand width (mm)	W	14.25
10	Resin properties (MPa)	E_r	7000
11	Resin properties (MPa)	ν_r	0.3

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488 **Table 4: Summary of OCT experimental results.**

Experiment #	Loading Direction	Damage Length Δa (mm)	Damage Height h_c (mm)	Fracture Energy G_f (kJ/m ²)
E1	PAR	25.6	21.8	2.90
E2	PAR	21.8	21.8	5.73
E3	PER	27.8	19.6	8.95

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499 **Table 5: Input parameters used in MAT_219 for FE simulations.**

Simulation #	Damage Initiation Strain	Fracture Energy (kJ/m ²)	Damage Saturation Strain	Loading Direction	E_x (GPa)	E_y (GPa)	G_{xy} (GPa)
S1	2.6%	2.90	14%	PAR	2.98	5.17	0.41
S2	2.6%	5.84	28%	PAR	2.98	5.17	0.41
S3	2.6%	8.95	65%	PER	5.17	2.98	0.41

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