

UNIT V

DESIGN OF FLEXIBLE AND RIGID PAVEMENTS

Design principles – pavement components and their role - Design practice for flexible and rigid Pavements (IRC methods only) - Embankments .

3.1 Flexible pavements

Flexible pavements will transmit wheel load stresses to the lower layers by grain-to-grain transfer through the points of contact in the granular structure (see Figure 19:1). The wheel load acting on the pavement will be distributed to a wider area, and the stress decreases with the depth. Taking advantage of this stress distribution characteristic, flexible pavements normally has many layers. Hence, the design of flexible pavement uses the concept of layered system. Based on this, flexible pavement may be constructed in a number of layers and the top layer has to be of best quality to sustain maximum compressive stress, in addition to wear and tear. The lower layers will experience lesser magnitude of stress and low quality material can be used. Flexible pavements are constructed using bituminous materials. These can be either in the form of surface treatments (such as bituminous surface treatments generally found on low volume roads) or, asphalt concrete surface courses (generally used on high volume roads such as national highways). Flexible pavement layers reflect the deformation of the lower layers on to the surface layer (e.g., if there is any undulation in sub-grade then it will be transferred to the surface layer). In the case of flexible pavement, the design is based on overall performance of flexible pavement, and the stresses produced should be kept well below the allowable stresses of each pavement layer.

3.2 Types of Flexible Pavements

The following types of construction have been used in flexible pavement:

Conventional layered flexible pavement,

Full - depth asphalt pavement, and

Contained rock asphalt mat (CRAM).

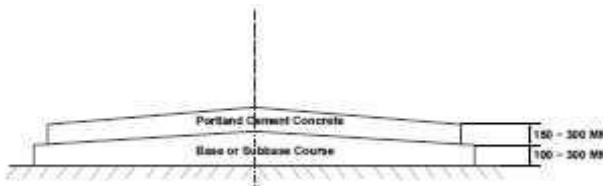
Conventional flexible pavements are layered systems with high quality expensive materials are placed in the top where stresses are high, and low quality cheap materials are placed in lower layers.

Full - depth asphalt pavements are constructed by placing bituminous layers directly on the soil sub-grade. This is more suitable when there is high traffic and local materials are not available.

Contained rock asphalt mats are constructed by placing dense/open graded aggregate layers in between two asphalt layers. Modified dense graded asphalt concrete is placed above the sub-grade will significantly reduce the vertical compressive strain on soil sub-grade and protect from surface water.

3.3 Types of Failure in flexible pavements

The major flexible pavement failures are fatigue cracking, rutting, and thermal cracking. The fatigue cracking of flexible pavement is due to horizontal tensile strain at the bottom of the asphaltic concrete. The failure criterion relates allowable number of load repetitions to tensile strain and this relation can be determined in the laboratory fatigue test on asphaltic concrete specimens. Rutting occurs only on flexible pavements as indicated by permanent deformation or rut depth along wheel load path. Two design methods have been used to control rutting: one to limit the vertical compressive strain on the top of subgrade and other to limit rutting to a tolerable amount (12 mm normally). Thermal cracking includes both low-temperature cracking and thermal fatigue cracking.



Typical Cross section of Rigid pavement

3.4 Rigid pavements

Rigid pavements have sufficient flexural strength to transmit the wheel load stresses to a wider area below. A typical cross section of the rigid pavement is shown in Figure. Compared to flexible pavement, rigid pavements are placed either directly on the prepared sub-grade or on a single layer of granular or stabilized material. Since there is only one layer of material between the concrete and the sub-grade, this layer can be called as base or sub-base course.

In rigid pavement, load is distributed by the slab action, and the pavement behaves like an elastic plate resting on a viscous medium. Rigid pavements are constructed by Portland cement concrete (PCC) and should be analyzed by plate theory instead of layer theory, assuming an elastic plate resting on viscous foundation. Plate theory is a simplified version of layer theory that assumes the concrete slab as a medium thick plate which is plane before loading and to remain plane after loading. Bending of the slab due to wheel load and temperature variation and the resulting tensile and flexural stress.

3.5 Types of Rigid Pavements

Rigid pavements can be classified into four types:

- Jointed plain concrete pavement (JPCP),
- Jointed reinforced concrete pavement (JRCP),
- Continuous reinforced concrete pavement (CRCP), and
- Pre-stressed concrete pavement (PCP).

Jointed Plain Concrete Pavement: are plain cement concrete pavements constructed with closely spaced contraction joints. Dowel bars or aggregate interlocks are normally used for load transfer across joints. They normally has a joint spacing of 5 to 10m.

Jointed Reinforced Concrete Pavement: Although reinforcements do not improve the structural capacity significantly, they can drastically increase the joint spacing to 10 to 30m. Dowel bars are required for load transfer. Reinforcements help to keep the slab together even after cracks.

Continuous Reinforced Concrete Pavement: Complete elimination of joints are achieved by reinforcement.

3.6 Material characterization for pavement construction

The following material properties are important for both flexible and rigid pavements.

When pavements are considered as linear elastic, the elastic moduli and poisson ratio of subgrade and each component layer must be specified.

If the elastic modulus of a material varies with the time of loading, then the resilient modulus, which is elastic modulus under repeated loads, must be selected in accordance with a load duration corresponding to the vehicle speed.

When a material is considered non-linear elastic, the constitutive equation relating the resilient modulus to the state of the stress must be provided.

However, many of these material properties are used in visco-elastic models which are very complex and in the development stage. This book covers the layered elastic model which require the modulus of elasticity and poisson ratio only.

3.7 The Environmental factors that affect the pavement materials

Environmental factors affect the performance of the pavement materials and cause various damages. Environmental factors that affect pavement are of two types, temperature and precipitation and they are discussed below:

Temperature

The effect of temperature on asphalt pavements is different from that of concrete pavements. Temperature affects the resilient modulus of asphalt layers, while it induces curling of concrete slab. In rigid pavements, due to difference in temperatures of top and bottom of slab, temperature stresses or frictional stresses are developed. While in flexible pavement, dynamic modulus of asphaltic concrete varies with temperature. Frost heave causes differential settlements and pavement roughness. Most detrimental effect of frost penetration occurs during the spring break up period when the ice melts and subgrade is a saturated condition.

Precipitation

The precipitation from rain and snow affects the quantity of surface water in filtrating

into the subgrade and the depth of ground water table. Poor drainage may bring lack of shear strength, pumping, loss of support, etc.

3.8 Factors which affects pavement design

Traffic and Loading

There are three different approaches for considering vehicular and traffic characteristics, which affects pavement design.

Fixed traffic: Thickness of pavement is governed by single load and number of load repetitions is not considered. The heaviest wheel load anticipated is used for design purpose. This is an old method and is rarely used today for pavement design.

Fixed vehicle: In the fixed vehicle procedure, the thickness is governed by the number of repetitions of a standard axle load. If the axle load is not a standard one, then it must be converted to an equivalent axle load by number of repetitions of given axle load and its equivalent axle load factor.

Variable traffic and vehicle: In this approach, both traffic and vehicle are considered individually, so there is no need to assign an equivalent factor for each axle load. The loads can be divided into a number of groups and the stresses, strains, and deflections under each load group can be determined separately; and used for design purposes. The traffic and loading factors to be considered include axle loads, load repetitions, and tyre contact area.

3.9 Typical layers of a flexible pavement

Typical layers of a conventional flexible pavement includes seal coat, surface course, tack coat, binder course, prime coat, base course, sub-base course, compacted sub-grade, and natural sub-grade.

Seal Coat: Seal coat is a thin surface treatment used to water-proof the surface and to provide skid resistance.

Tack Coat: Tack coat is a very light application of asphalt, usually asphalt emulsion diluted with water. It provides proper bonding between two layer of binder course and must be thin, uniformly cover the entire surface, and set very fast.

Prime Coat: Prime coat is an application of low viscous cutback bitumen to an absorbent surface like granular bases on which binder layer is placed. It provides bonding between two layers. Unlike tack coat, prime coat penetrates into the layer below, plugs the voids, and forms a water tight surface.

Surface course

Surface course is the layer directly in contact with traffic loads and generally contains superior quality materials. They are usually constructed with dense graded asphalt concrete(AC). The functions and requirements of this layer are:

It provides characteristics such as friction, smoothness, drainage, etc. Also it will prevent the entrance of excessive quantities of surface water into the underlying base, sub-base and sub-grade,

It must be tough to resist the distortion under traffic and provide a smooth and skid- resistant riding surface,

It must be water proof to protect the entire base and sub-grade from the weakening effect of water.

Binder course

This layer provides the bulk of the asphalt concrete structure. It's chief purpose is to distribute load to the base course The binder course generally consists of aggregates having less asphalt and doesn't require quality as high as the surface course, so replacing a part of the surface course by the binder course results in more economical design.

Base course

The base course is the layer of material immediately beneath the surface of binder course and it provides additional load distribution and contributes to the sub-surface drainage It may be composed of crushed stone, crushed slag, and other untreated or stabilized materials.

Sub-Base course

The sub-base course is the layer of material beneath the base course and the primary functions are to provide structural support, improve drainage, and reduce the intrusion of fines from the sub-grade in the pavement structure If the base course is open graded, then the sub-base course with more fines can serve as a filler between sub-grade and the base course A sub-base course is not always needed or used. For example, a pavement constructed over a high quality, stiff sub-grade may not need the additional features offered by a sub-base course. In such situations, sub-base course may not be provided.

Sub-grade

The top soil or sub-grade is a layer of natural soil prepared to receive the stresses from the layers above. It is essential that at no time soil sub-grade is overstressed. It should be compacted to the desirable density, near the optimum moisture content.

3.10 Important factor in the pavement design

Traffic is the most important factor in the pavement design. The key factors include contact pressure, wheel load, axle configuration, moving loads, load, and load repetitions.

Contact pressure: The tyre pressure is an important factor, as it determine the contact area and the contact pressure between the wheel and the pavement surface. Even though the shape of the contact area is elliptical, for sake of simplicity in analysis, a circular area is often considered.

Wheel load: The next important factor is the wheel load which determines the depth of the pavement required to ensure that the subgrade soil is not failed. Wheel configuration affect the stress distribution and deflection within a pavemnet. Many commercial vehicles have dual rear wheels which ensure that the contact pressure is within the limits. The normal practice is to convert dual wheel into an equivalent single wheel load so that the analysis is made simpler.

Axle configuration: The load carrying capacity of the commercial vehicle is further enhanced by the intro-duction of multiple axles.

Moving loads: The damage to the pavement is much higher if the vehicle is moving at creep speed. Many studies show that when the speed is increased from 2 km/hr to 24 km/hr, the stresses and deflection reduced by 40 per cent.

Repetition of Loads: The influence of traffic on pavement not only depend on the magnitude of the wheel load, but also on the frequency of the load applications. Each load application causes some deformation and the total deformation is the summation of all these. Although the pavement deformation due to single axle load is very small, the cumulative effect of number of load repetition is significant. Therefore, modern design is based on total number of standard axle load (usually 80 kN single axle).

3.11The construction of WBM

Sub-base

Sub-base materials comprise natural sand, gravel, laterite, brick metal, crushed stone or combinations thereof meeting the prescribed grading and physical requirements. The sub-base material should have a minimum CBR of 20 % and 30 % for traffic upto 2 msa and traffic exceeding 2 msa respectively. Sub-base usually consist of granular or WBM and the thickness should not be less than 150 mm for design traffic less than 10 msa and 200 mm for design traffic of 1:0 msa and above.

Base

The recommended designs are for unbounded granular bases which comprise conventional water bound macadam

(WBM) or wet mix macadam (WMM) or equivalent conforming to MOST specifications. The materials should be of good quality with minimum thickness of 225 mm for traffic up to 2 msa and 150 mm for traffic exceeding 2 msa.

Bituminous surfacing

The surfacing consists of a wearing course or a binder course plus wearing course. The most commonly used wearing courses are surface dressing, open graded premix carpet, mix seal surfacing, semi-dense bituminous concrete and bituminous concrete. For binder course, MOST specifies, it is desirable to use bituminous macadam (BM) for traffic upto 5 msa and dense bituminous macadam (DBM) for traffic more than 5 msa.

3.12 Equivalent single wheel load.

To carry maximum load within the specified limit and to carry greater load, dual wheel, or dual tandem assembly is often used. Equivalent single wheel load (ESWL) is the single wheel load having the same contact pressure, which produces same value of maximum stress, deflection, tensile stress or contact pressure at the desired depth. The procedure of finding the ESWL for equal stress criteria is provided below. This is a semi-rational method, known as Boyd and Foster method, based on the following assumptions:

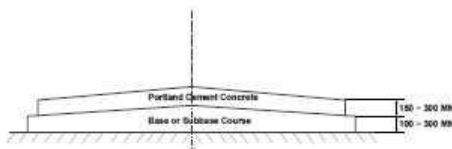
equalancy concept is based on equal

stress; contact area is circular;

influence angle is 45° ; and

soil medium is elastic, homogeneous, and isotropic half space.

The ESWL is given by:



where P is the wheel load, S is the center to center distance between the two wheels, d is the clear distance between two wheels, and z is the desired depth.

3.13 Requirements of Bituminous mixes

Stability

Stability is defined as the resistance of the paving mix to deformation under traffic load. Two examples of failure are (i) shoving - a transverse rigid deformation which occurs at areas subject to severe acceleration and (ii) grooving - longitudinal ridging due to channelization of traffic. Stability depends on the inter-particle friction, primarily of the aggregates and the cohesion offered by the bitumen. Sufficient binder must be available to coat all the particles at the same time should offer

enough liquid friction. However, the stability decreases when the binder content is high and when the particles are kept apart.

Durability

Durability is defined as the resistance of the mix against weathering and abrasive actions. Weathering causes hardening due to loss of volatiles in the bitumen. Abrasion is due to wheel loads which causes tensile strains. Typical examples of failure are (i) pot-holes, - deterioration of pavements locally and (ii) stripping, lost of binder from the aggregates and aggregates are exposed. Disintegration is minimized by high binder content since they cause the mix to be air and waterproof and the bitumen lm is more resistant to hardening.

Flexibility

Flexibility is a measure of the level of bending strength needed to counteract traffic load and prevent cracking of surface. Fracture is the cracks formed on the surface (hairline-cracks, alligator cracks), main reasons are shrinkage and brittleness of the binder. Shrinkage cracks are due to volume change in the binder due to aging. Brittleness is due to repeated bending of the surface due to traffic loads. Higher bitumen content will give better flexibility and less fracture.

Skid resistance

It is the resistance of the finished pavement against skidding which depends on the surface texture and bitumen content. It is an important factor in high speed traffic. Normally, an open graded coarse surface texture is desirable.

Workability

Workability is the ease with which the mix can be laid and compacted, and formed to the required condition and shape. This depends on the gradation of aggregates, their shape and texture, bitumen content and its type. Angular, flaky, and elongated aggregates workability. On the other hand, rounded aggregates improve workability.

3.14 Design procedures for flexible pavement

For flexible pavements, structural design is mainly concerned with determining appropriate layer thickness and composition. The main design factors are stresses due to traffic load and temperature variations. Two methods of flexible pavement structural design are common today: Empirical design and mechanistic empirical design.

Empirical design

An empirical approach is one which is based on the results of experimentation or experience. Some of them are either based on physical properties or strength parameters of soil

subgrade. An empirical approach is one which is based on the results of experimentation or experience. An empirical analysis of flexible pavement design can be done with or without a soil strength test. An example of design without soil strength test is by using HRB soil classification system, in which soils are grouped from A-1 to A-7 and a group index is added to differentiate soils within each group. Example with soil strength test uses McLeod, Stabilometer, California Bearing Ratio (CBR) test. CBR test is widely known and will be discussed.

Mechanistic-Empirical Design

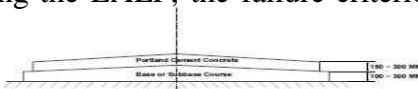
Empirical-Mechanistic method of design is based on the mechanics of materials that relates input, such as wheel load, to an output or pavement response. In pavement design, the responses are the stresses, strains, and deflections within a pavement structure and the physical causes are the loads and material properties of the pavement structure. The relationship between these phenomena and their physical causes are typically described using some mathematical models. Along with this mechanistic approach, empirical elements are used when defining what value of the calculated stresses, strains, and deflections result in pavement failure. The relationship between physical phenomena and pavement failure is described by empirically derived equations that compute the number of loading cycles to failure.

3.15 Equivalent single axle load

Vehicles can have many axles which will distribute the load into different axles, and in turn to the pavement through the wheels. A standard truck has two axles, front axle with two wheels and rear axle with four wheels. But to carry large loads multiple axles are provided. Since the design of flexible pavements is by layered theory, only the wheels on one side needed to be considered. On the other hand, the design of rigid pavement is by plate theory and hence the wheel load on both sides of axle need to be considered. Legal axle load: The maximum allowed axle load on the roads is called legal axle load. For highways the maximum legal axle load in India, specified by IRC, is 10 tonnes. Standard axle load: It is a single axle load with dual wheel carrying 80 KN load and the design of pavement is based on the standard axle load.

Repetition of axle loads: The deformation of pavement due to a single application of axle load may be small but due to repeated application of load there would be accumulation of unrecovered or permanent deformation which results in failure of pavement. If the pavement structure fails with N_1 number of repetition of load W_1 and for the same failure criteria if it requires N_2 number of repetition of load W_2 , then $W_1 N_1$ and $W_2 N_2$ are considered equivalent. Note that, $W_1 N_1$ and $W_2 N_2$ equivalency depends on the failure criterion employed.

Equivalent axle load factor: An equivalent axle load factor (EALF) defines the damage per pass to a pavement by the i^{th} type of axle relative to the damage per pass of a standard axle load. While finding the EALF, the failure criterion is important. Two types of failure criterias are commonly used. The fatigue cracking model has the following form:



$$N_f = f_1 (\epsilon_t)^{-f_2} \times (E)^{-f_3} \text{ or } N_f \propto \epsilon_t^{-f_2}$$

where, N_f is the number of load repetition for a certain percentage of cracking, ϵ_t is the tensile strain at the bottom of the binder course, E is the modulus of elasticity, and f_1 ; f_2 ; f_3 are constants. If we consider fatigue

3.16 Design criteria as per IRC

The flexible pavements has been modeled as a three layer structure and stresses and strains at critical locations have been computed using the linear elastic model. To give proper consideration to the aspects of performance, the following three types of pavement distress resulting from repeated (cyclic) application of traffic loads are considered:

vertical compressive strain at the top of the sub-grade which can cause sub-grade deformation resulting in permanent deformation at the pavement surface.

horizontal tensile strain or stress at the bottom of the bituminous layer which can cause fracture of the bituminous layer.

pavement deformation within the bituminous layer.

While the permanent deformation within the bituminous layer can be controlled by meeting the mix design requirements, thickness of granular and bituminous layers are selected using the analytical design approach so that strains at the critical points are within the allowable limits. For calculating tensile strains at the bottom of the bituminous layer, the stiffness of dense bituminous macadam (DBM) layer with 60/70 bitumen has been used in the analysis.

Failure Criteria

A and B are the critical locations for tensile strains (ϵ_t). Maximum value of the strain is adopted for design. C is the critical location for the vertical subgrade strain (ϵ_z) since the maximum value of the (ϵ_z) occurs mostly at C.

Fatigue Criteria:

Bituminous surfacings of pavements display flexural fatigue cracking if the tensile strain at the bottom of the bituminous layer is beyond certain limit. The relation between the fatigue life of the pavement and the tensile strain in the bottom of the bituminous layer was obtained as



in which, N_f is the allowable number of load repetitions to control fatigue cracking and E is the Elastic modulus of bituminous layer. The use of equation 28.1 would result in fatigue cracking of 20% of the total area.

Rutting Criteria

The allowable number of load repetitions to control permanent deformation can be expressed as



3.17 Design procedure of IRC for flexible pavement.

Based on the performance of existing designs and using analytical approach, simple design charts and a catalogue of pavement designs are added in the code. The pavement designs are given for subgrade CBR values ranging from 2% to 10% and design traffic ranging from 1 msa to 150 msa for an average annual pavement temperature of 35 C. The later thicknesses obtained from the analysis have been slightly modified to adapt the designs to stage construction. Using the following simple input parameters, appropriate designs could be chosen for the given traffic and soil strength:

Design traffic in terms of cumulative number of standard axles; and CBR value of subgrade.

Design traffic

The method considers traffic in terms of the cumulative number of standard axles (8160 kg) to be carried by the pavement during the design life. This requires the following information:

- Initial traffic in terms of CVPD
- Traffic growth rate during the design life
- Design life in number of years
- Vehicle damage factor (VDF)

Distribution of commercial traffic over the carriage way.

Initial traffic

Initial traffic is determined in terms of commercial vehicles per day (CVPD). For the structural design of the pavement only commercial vehicles are considered assuming laden weight of three tonnes or more and their axle loading will be considered. Estimate of the initial daily average traffic flow for any road should normally be based on 7-day 24-hour classified traffic counts (ADT). In case of new roads, traffic estimates can be made on the basis of potential land use and traffic on existing routes in the area.

Traffic growth rate

traffic growth rates can be estimated (i) by studying the past trends of traffic growth, and (ii) by establishing econometric models. If adequate data is not available, it is recommended that an average annual growth rate of 7.5 percent may be adopted.

Design life

For the purpose of the pavement design, the design life is defined in terms of the cumulative number of standard axles that can be carried before strengthening of the pavement is necessary. It is recommended that pavements for arterial roads like NH, SH should be designed for a life of 15 years, EH and urban roads for 20 years and other categories of roads for 10 to 15 years.

Vehicle Damage Factor

The vehicle damage factor (VDF) is a multiplier for converting the number of commercial vehicles of different axle loads and axle configurations to the number of standard axle-load repetitions. It is defined as equivalent number of standard axles per commercial vehicle. The VDF varies with the axle configuration, axle loading, terrain, type of road, and from region to region. The axle load equivalency factors are used to convert different axle load repetitions into equivalent standard axle load repetitions. For these equivalency factors refer IRC:37 2001. The exact VDF values are arrived after extensive field surveys.

Vehicle distribution

A realistic assessment of distribution of commercial traffic by direction and by lane is necessary as it directly affects the total equivalent standard axle load application used in the design. Until reliable data is available, the following distribution may be assumed.

Single lane roads: Traffic tends to be more channelized on single roads than two lane roads and to allow for this concentration of wheel load repetitions, the design should be based on total number of commercial vehicles in both directions.

Two-lane single carriageway roads: The design should be based on 75 % of the commercial vehicles in both directions.

Four-lane single carriageway roads: The design should be based on 40 % of the total number of commercial vehicles in both directions.

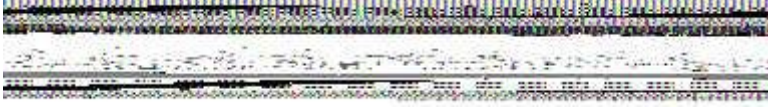
Dual carriageway roads: For the design of dual two-lane carriageway roads should be based on 75 % of the number of commercial vehicles in each direction. For dual three-lane carriageway and dual four-lane carriageway the distribution factor will be 60 % and 45 % respectively.

Design the pavement for construction of a new bypass with the following data:

1. Two lane carriage way
2. Initial traffic in the year of completion of construction = 400 CVPD (sum of both directions)
3. Traffic growth rate = 7.5 %
4. Design life = 15 years
5. Vehicle damage factor based on axle load survey = 2.5 standard axle per commercial

vehicle

6. Design CBR of subgrade soil = 4%.



$$= 7200000$$

$$= 7:2 \text{ msa}$$

4. Total pavement thickness for CBR 4% and traffic 7.2 msa from IRC:37 2001 chart1 = 660 mm

5. Pavement composition can be obtained by interpolation from Pavement Design Catalogue (IRC:37 2001).

(a) Bituminous surfacing = 25 mm SDBC + 70 mm DBM

(b) Road-base = 250 mm WBM

(c) sub-base = 315 mm granular material of CBR not less than 30 %

Design the pavement for construction of a new two lane carriageway for design life 15 years using IRC method. The initial traffic in the year of completion in each direction is 150 CVPD and growth rate is 5%. Vehicle damage factor based on axle load survey = 2.5 std axle per commercial vehicle. Design CBR of subgrade soil=4%.

1. Distribution factor = 0.75



2.

$$= 4430348:837$$

$$= 4:4 \text{ msa}$$

4. Total pavement thickness for CBR 4% and traffic 4.4 msa from IRC:37 2001 chart1 = 580 mm

5. Pavement composition can be obtained by interpolation from Pavement Design Catalogue (IRC:37 2001).

(a) Bituminous surfacing = 20 mm PC + 50 mm BM

(b) Road-base = 250 mm Granular base

(c) sub-base = 280 mm granular material.