LONG-TERM PERFORMANCE OF RECYCLED STEEL FIBRE REINFORCED CONCRETE FOR PAVEMENT APPLICATIONS

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CHAPTER 11

11. CLOSURE

This chapter deals with the main conclusions arrived from the results presented in this thesis. The chapter provides answers for the research questions asked in Chapter I. It also provides some recommendations for future work, aiming to understand the aspects of the durability of recycled SFRC that were not addressed in this work.

11.1 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

This thesis aimed at understanding the long-term performance of concrete reinforced with recycled steel fibres recovered from post-consumer tyres. The main conclusions that can be drawn from the work carried in the thesis are presented in this section.

For the literature review described in Chapters 2 and 3, the following can be concluded:

- Sustainability is a key element that is increasingly taken into account in the design of concrete structures. The use of recycled steel fibres recovered from post-consumer tyres as reinforcement for concrete pavements can make construction more sustainable. The fibres are a good quality manufactured product that can be reused to improve some properties of plain concrete. By improving the mechanical properties of the concrete, this leads to other sustainable benefits, such as the reduction of the pavement depth, which uses less natural resources. In addition, the energy consumed to sort and process the recycled fibres is much lower than the energy used to produce new fibres.
- The design codes for road pavements do not take into account the post-cracking behaviour of SFRC, and more work should be undertaken to include the advantages of SFRC in design procedures. The TR 34 (The Concrete Society, 2003) considers the post-cracking behaviour of SFRC for industrial floors. However, it does not account for the fatigue and other concrete pavement failure criteria. More studies in this field would encourage the extended use of steel fibres in concrete, including the ones recovered

from post-consumer tyres, and also lead to indirect benefits, such as cost reductions and minimal use of natural resources.

The literature review on the use of recycled steel fibres as reinforcement for concrete shows that very few studies were undertaken on the subject. The University of Sheffield is leading the studies on the use of recycled fibres in concrete, and no studies prior to this thesis can be found on the durability and long-term performance of recycled SFRC.

The results from this study in terms of mechanical properties of control specimens show that recycled fibres tend to enhance some of the properties of the concrete, especially in terms of flexural post-cracking behaviour.

- Compressive strength is slightly increased by the addition of fibres and fibres (approximately by 10%), especially in wet mixes, and fibres help to keep the integrity of the specimens even after failure.
- Flexural behaviour is greatly affected by the inclusion of recycled fibres. When they are added at higher amounts (e.g. 6% by mass), the concrete has similar behaviour as that containing 2% industrial fibres, in both flexural strength and post-cracking behaviour. The amount of 2% recycled fibres shows a well-defined post-cracking behaviour, however much lower than 6% (residual flexural strength results are less than half the strength observed for 21 and 6R).
- The use of recycled fibres (for both fibre contents analysed -2% and 6%) fulfil the BS EN 14889-1 (2006a) requirements in terms of the effect of fibres on the strength of concrete, which says that the residual strength at 0.5 mm and 3.5 CMOD should be higher than 1.5 and 1.0 MPa, respectively.
- LEC mixes have higher flexural strength (ultimate and at the limit of proportionality) than CIP mixes (usually around 5-20% higher), which is probably due to enhanced adhesion between the fibres and the matrix. On the other hand, CIP and LEC mixes show similar flexural post-cracking behaviour, which means that LEC presents a more brittle pull-out behaviour than CIP cementitious material, especially when the fibre starts debonding from the matrix (friction phase).

The results for some pore-structure related properties (density, porosity and free-shrinkage) show that the inclusion of recycled fibres, in general, does not influence the pore structure of the concrete. Exceptions apply for situations where the high amount of fibres (around 6%) leads to compaction limitations and high amount of trapped air, for RCC mixes, and to a reduction of air entrained bubbles, for wet mixes. Other findings related to pore-structure related properties are described below:

- The LEC mixes seem to have finer pore size than CIP mixes, based only on indirect measurements of pore fineness. More accurate tests should be undertaken to obtain the influence of the cementitious material on the pore structure of concrete.
- LEC mixes are up to 10% denser than CIP mixes, which is probably due to LEC mixes having finer size of pores than CIP mixes, and also because the LEC itself may be denser than CIP. On the other hand, porosity results show that LEC mixes are sometimes up to 50% more porous than CIP mixes. This is probably because LEC has less reactivity than CIP, which leads to less C-S-H products at the age they were tested (28 days). This probably changes with age as further hydration takes place for LEC mixes.
- 6R wet mixes have higher density (approximately 3%) than the corresponding mixes with lower amount of fibres. This is due to the higher amount of steel in the mix, which has higher specific density compared to the other constituents of the mix. However, the opposite is observed for the 6R RCC mixes (a reduction in approximately 3%). This is because of the boundary conditions of RCC specimens wh ich, due to the *springiness* of the fibres and to the compaction procedures, lead to a more porous area in the outer parts of the specimens.
- RCC mixes can have more than 2 times higher porosity than wet mixes. This is due to the high amount of trapped air in the mix, caused by compaction limitations, especially close to boundaries of the specimens.
- The mechanical properties are more easily correlated with density than other porestructure-related properties, and this is especially true for wet mixes.
- Regarding the temperature for the preconditioning of specimens prior to density, porosity and other transport mechanisms properties, it could be observed that the temperature does play an important role on the results. Higher temperatures are more effective in eliminating water from the pores, while lower temperatures allow more water to remain in the concrete thus blocking the pores and affecting the results. Based on experimental data, the temperature of 80 C appears to be the most appropriate for the preconditioning of specimens.

The transport mechanisms results show that steel fibres do not influence the transport of aggressive agents into concrete. Exceptions apply when high contents of fibres lead to compaction limitations and to changes in the rheological characteristics of the mix. The main factors influencing the transport mechanisms are the mix constituents (other than fibres), compaction and curing procedures. In particular, the tests carried out in this thesis showed that the cementitious material plays an important role in the transport mechanism results, as explained below.

- LEC mixes are considerably more permeable than CIP mixes (which can be up to 100 times more). Sorptivity results of LEC mixes are also slightly higher than CIP mixes. This is probably due to the lower amount of C-S-H products of LEC mixes at 28 days and also due to the size of CIP particles, which seems to fit better the RCC aggregate gradation curve, thus contributing to a better packing of the particles. However, the size of the LEC and CIP particles was not investigated in this thesis and further studies should be carried out on the characterisation of the cementitious materials. The higher values of permeability and sorptivity of LEC mixes may lead to durability problems of mixes using such cementitious material type. This is mainly because the specimens were tested at 28 days and, hence, this behaviour should change due to further hydration of the cement.
- LEC mixes have, in general, lower diffusion coefficient than CIP mixes, which appears \overline{a} to be due to the lower reactivity and lower C_3A of the cement, which binds less chloride than CIP. Diffusion coefficient of CIP mixes are less than half of the diffusion coefficient of the corresponding LEC mixes.
- RCC mixes have usually 2-3 times more sorptivity than wet mixes. Again, this is due to the higher amount of trapped air during casting.

The corrosion analysis shows that, after 10 months of wet-dry cycles, only superficial rust in fibre reinforced concrete could be observed. Other findings are explained as follows.

The mechanical properties were enhanced due to 5 and 10 months of wet-dry cycles, however, they seem to stabilise after 5 months of wet-dry cycles. This is due to further hydration of the cementitious material. The increase in the compressive strength varied from 15-50%, with the LEC mixes being the ones that presented the highest increase in strength. The increase in the flexural strength was lower than in the compressive strength, and maximum increase was up to 35% compared to control specimens (at 28 days).

- Pre-cracked specimens were also exposed to wet-dry cycles and the results show that cracks with a maximum width of 0.2 mm appear to regain some of the concrete continuity due to autogeneous healing of the concrete.
- There seems to be a correlation of mechanical properties after wet-dry cycles with porestructure and transport mechanisms properties. Higher penneability, porosity and sorptivity leads to a higher rate of moisture transport into concrete, which improves curing, and enhances the hydration rate of the cement, thus leading to higher increase in the mechanical properties.
- Specimens exposed to 10 months of wet-dry cycles showed lower residual flexural strength results after 2.5 mm of crack mouth opening displacement than the ones exposed at 28 days and 5 months. This is probably not due to corrosion but to the higher hydration level and improved curing of the specimens, that appears to lead to a more brittle pull-out behaviour, especially when the fibre starts debonding from the matrix.
- Specimens were exposed up to 10 months of wet-dry cycles, which is not sufficient to provide full understanding of the corrosion behaviour of SFRC. Longer periods of exposure and combined effects with loading and other deterioration processes may give a better understanding of the real effects of chloride ingress into SFRC.

The freeze-thaw results are affected by the inclusion of recycled fibres. The way fibres affect the freeze-thaw behaviour is not in tenns of avoiding the ingress of water and other freeze-thaw aggressive agents into concrete, but by restraining the stresses caused by freezing of the pore solution, thus controlling crack propagation. This occurs mainly in concrete with advanced level of freeze-thaw deterioration (higher than 2% scaling). At the superficial scaling, fibres are not knitted in such a way to keep the integrity of the concrete. This effect is mainly observed for recycled SFRC, due to the high amount and shape of fibres. Other conclusions on the freezethaw results are explained below.

- RCC specimens are more susceptible to deterioration (up to 10 times higher scaling) than wet mixes due to the larger amount of voids caused by trapped air, which are coarser and not well spaced as air-entrained pores. The larger sorptivity and penneability of RCC mixes also contributes for the high freeze-thaw deterioration.
- The inclusion of 6R in RCC mixes keeps the integrity of the concrete at an accelerated level of deterioration, thus slowing down the degradation process. In this case, 6R had better performance than 21 mixes.
- The addition of 6R in wet mixes reduced the air entrained content of the fresh mix by 50% (probably by mechanically breaking the fresh formed bubbles), which led to higher deterioration than the corresponding 21 wet mix. However, since wet mixes had much lower deterioration than RCC mixes, in this case the knitted effect of the fibres was not triggered.
- Both wet and RCC mixes had their flexural behaviour reduced after freeze-thaw exposure. The latter was more severely affected, with flexural strength reductions varying from 50% to 85% compared with the non-damaged specimens. This is because damage caused by freeze-thaw is also observed in terms of internal damage. Even though measurements of internal damage were not taken, the residual flexural behaviour gives a good indication of such damage.
- The mechanical freeze-thaw resistance of concrete is clearly influenced by the characteristics of the pore structure of the material. High values of porosity, sorptivity and permeability increase the degree of saturation of specimens during freeze-thaw cycles, which leads to higher stresses during freezing of concrete, accelerating the damage and reducing strength.
- The method used to accelerate freeze-thaw cycles is quite aggressive since specimens are fully-immersed in chloride solution during the tests, which is not realistic, especially when dealing with concrete pavements. Hence, a less aggressive test should be considered in future works.

The fatigue analysis shows that steel fibres improve the behaviour of both wet and RCC mixes. Other issues on the fatigue behaviour were also raised:

- There seems to be an optimum fibre content that gives the best fatigue performance, which seems to be between 2 and 6% for recycled fibres. However, since only these two fibre contents were examined, further studies should be undertaken.
- The aggregate interlock effect improves the fatigue resistance of RCC mixes compared with wet mixes, especially at high stress levels (higher than 0.7).
- Recycled fibres are more efficient in arresting the propagation of micro-cracks, while industrial fibres are more effective in controlling the propagation of macro-cracks. Thus, a combination of both recycled and industrially produced fibres should give the best fatigue performance, and increase the fatigue life of the concrete. Further

investigations should be carried to find out the ideal combination of both fibres that gives the longest fatigue life.

- Recycled fibres show a more brittle pull-out behaviour than for industrially produced \mathbf{L}^{max} fibres, caused by their low ability in arresting meso and macro-cracks. For this reason, the use of recycled fibres alone as reinforcement is more effective when the concrete is subjected to lower stress levels (such as when the concrete is not initially cracked).
- A simplified practical example explained some advantages of considering the fatigue post-cracking behaviour and the probabilistic analysis in the design guidelines of concrete pavements. This showed that, if the inclusion of fibres is taken into account, especially by allowing pavements to be subjected to higher stress levels, this could diminish the thickness of the pavements up to around 20% and contribute for less use of resources.

The analysis in terms of probabilistic analysis leads to the following findings:

- A simplified probabilistic method was proposed to correlate results of chloride ingress from wet-dry cycles with fully-saturated conditions. The method is not fully validated in this thesis and requires some further investigations in this subject. If validated, the method may be used to estimate a correlation between wet-dry cycles and specific environments.
- The fully-saturated condition of chloride ingress (based on Fick's second law of diffusion) was used to perform a parametric study to compare the depth of chloride ingress into concrete for various mixes. The results show that the amount of 2% of fibres has the lowest chloride ingress depth compared to other fibre contents. Same behaviour was observed from wet over RCC mixes and from LEC over CIP mixes.
- The freeze-thaw probabilistic analysis proposes a methodology for calculating the service life of concrete pavements exposed to freeze-thaw cycles. The method is based on the scaling resistance of the concrete, and also takes into account climate data. A practical example was used for the model, based on the mixes tested experimentally. However, there is still a need to understand the correlation between the accelerated tests with more realistic situations. Other input parameters are still unknown in the model. and should be determined in the future to fully validate the model.
- The fatigue probabilistic analysis can be used used in practice, for design purposes. However, the low of data prevented clearer conclusions.

11.2 ANSWER TO QUESTIONS

This section provides answers to the research questions raised in Chapter I. The following responses can be drawn from the understanding of the thesis.

On the use of recycled fibres as reinforcement for concrete pavements: Recycled fibres improve the post-cracking flexural behaviour of the concrete and, when used at a higher content, they can lead to similar mechanical performance as for industrially produced fibres. If well sorted (e.g. ideal fibre length distribution and textile-free) and up to a certain content, recycled fibres can be added to concrete without causing agglomeration. For these reasons and for many others described in the next responses, recycled fibres appear to be a suitable alternative for reinforcement for both conventional and RCC pavements.

On the use of recycled SFRC against asphalt and common used pavement technique: Even though asphalt pavements are the most widely used pavement technique, the use of concrete pavements is increasing significantly due to the improvement of concrete technology and to durability benefits compared to asphalt pavements. The use of recycled steel fibres in concrete pavements shows similar benefits as for conventional concrete pavements, with the addition of collaborating with the sustainability in road construction. Fibres can be added to conventional concrete and placed with concrete pavers or they can also be added to RCC and placed with asphalt pavers. The inclusion of fibres does not need any alteration in the paving system, except for an extra step of adding and mixing the fibres into the concrete. If the design guidelines start accounting for the post-cracking behaviour of recycled SFRC (pavement can be cracked while in operation), the design depth will reduce and, as a result, the use of natural resources could be reduced and the costs diminished. This could lead to a more competitive use for concrete pavements.

On the influence of recycled fibres in the pore structure of the concrete: Recycled fibres affect the pore structure of the concrete only when used at higher contents, as for any other steel fibre type. For wet and RCC mixes, fibre contents higher than 6% lead to balling of the fibres, which causes large voids and discontinuities in the pore structure of the concrete. RCC is more affected by higher amounts of recycled fibres due to the 'springiness' effect of the fibres combined with the compaction procedures used, especially close to the boundaries of the specimens, which lead to discontinuities and voids in those regions. The influence of recycled fibres in the pore structure properties of the concrete are associated with the amount of trapped air, the formation of balling and the compaction procedures when high amount of fibres are added to the concrete. There seems to be an ideal fibre content that does not affect the pore structure of the concrete. This seems to be in-between 2 and 6% for both wet and RCC mixes ,

since 2% did not cause any changes in both mixes and 6% caused compaction limitation in RCC and reduction of air content in fresh wet mixes.

On the response of recycled SFRC against the main deterioration processes of concrete pavements: Recycled SFRC reacted well against the three deterioration processes investigated in this thesis. 1) The corrosion of fibres is not an issue since fibres do not get corroded while inside the concrete, and only superficial rust can be observed. Corrosion through the cracks may be a problem depending on the crack width. For cracks opening smaller than 0.2 mm, autogeneous healing seems to heal the cracks after certain period of time. Larger crack widths were not studied in this thesis and for this reason should be analysed in further investigations. 2) The addition of recycled fibres in wet mixes does not influence the freeze-thaw performance of the concrete, whilst in RCC mixes, the recycled fibres control cracking, keep the integrity of the material and slow down the deterioration process. 3) Recycled fibres contribute to avoid propagation of micro-cracks into meso-cracks when subjected to fatigue and, for this reason, improve the fatigue behaviour of the concrete. However, the ideal situation would be the combination of both recycled and industrial fibres in order to significantly increase the fatigue life of the concrete.

On models to predict service life of recycled SFRC pavements: Specific models to predict the service life of concrete pavements subjected to specific deterioration processes can be used. Due to many uncertain factors influencing the deterioration processes, probabilistic models seem to be the most appropriate. In this thesis, a new model to predict the service life of concrete pavements subjected to freeze-thaw is proposed. A model based on the fully-saturated condition is also discussed to evaluate the depth of chloride ingress into concrete. Fatigue probabilistic analysis is also shown based on the number of cycles that pavements can endure for a certain stress level. Due to a lack of methods specific for recycled SFRC, the models are based on experimental results carried out in this thesis, and further investigation should be carried out to verify the accuracy of the models. There is also a need to combine the various deterioration processes in a single deterioration model for recycled SFRC.

On the benefits of recycled SFRC on the design and maintenance of concrete pavements: If the post-cracking and the fatigue behaviours of SFRC (including both recycled and industrially produced) are accounted for in the design guidelines, the depth of the concrete pavements would reduce and this would lead to a reduction of costs and natural resources. In terms of maintenance procedures, the addition of fibres does not seem to reduce the long-term performance of concrete pavements. On the contrary, in some cases such as when subjected to freeze-thaw attack, fibres seem to slow down the deterioration process. They also improve the fatigue performance of the concrete. Fibres are protected inside the concrete against corrosion and no major effect on the structural performance is observed in un-cracked or thinned cracked concrete. If the concrete is well designed to account for the addition of fibres in a rational way, this could lead to a reduction in the maintenance procedures of the concrete structures.

11.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE WORK

The following items are recommendations for future work, aiming to understand some issues that, mainly by time restriction, were not addressed in this thesis.

On the variables of the research: More recycled fibre contents should be studied to find out the ideal content that provides the best performance in terms of mechanical and durability behaviour. More fibre types from other recycling units should be considered, to account for various sorting processes and fibre geometries, which may significantly influence the results.

Apart from the recycled fibre content and type, there is a need to understand the influence of the various constituents of the mix proportions on the long-term and mechanical performance of recycled SFRC, such as the use of different *w/c* ratios and cement contents. Curing and casting procedures should also be accounted for. This could be carried out by a parametric study.

The use of LEC should be further investigated, especially in terms of characterisation of the cement and strength development of concrete and its pore structure.

On the casting procedures: When dealing with RCC, another casting procedure should be developed since it seems that the boundary conditions of the specimens influence the results. Ideally, cores should be extracted from a real RCC slab and compared with the results obtained by the compaction procedure used in this thesis.

On the mechanical performance: Ageing development in the strength of LEC mixes should be examined in more details. Aspects on the bond behaviour of LEC matrix and fibres should also be better understood.

The assumed brittle bond behaviour in recycled SFRC due to improved curing conditions and/or enhanced adhesion between the fibres and the matrix should be investigated in more detail. Pullout tests could be performed to assess such characteristics.

On the pore structure-related properties: The pore size distribution of reinforced and plain concrete should be studied by specific experimental procedures such as the use of MIP (mercury intrusion porosimetry), electronic microscopy, etc. This contributes to find out if the inclusion of fibres causes discontinuities in the concrete matrix. Moreover, this could provide a better understanding of the influence of the cementitious material on the pores structure of the concrete. It could also provide more precise information on the boundary conditions of RCC mixes.

There is a need to understand the restrained shrinkage behaviour of recycled SFRC. Shrinkage behaviour is an important parameter for the design of concrete pavements.

On the deterioration processes: Deterioration processes other than the ones studied in this thesis should be taken into account. This includes sulphate attack, corrosion due to carbonation, roughness deterioration, shrinkage stresses, among others.

Diffusivity should be evaluated by using a larger number of samples to account for the variability usually encountered when dealing with experimental tests. Moreover, the new released draft standard DD CEN/TS 12390-11 (2010) for the calculation of diffusion should be followed.

The coupled effects of different deterioration processes should be understood. This includes, for example, the simulation of corrosion, fatigue and freeze-thaw simultaneously.

On the corrosion analysis: The use of wet-dry cycles should be studied in further detail to understand how accelerated is the method compared to real situations. This can be done by modelling the non-saturated ingress of chloride into concrete by considering the coupled effect of diffusion and convection. Other methods of accelerating chloride ingress should also be considered, such as the exposure to mist chambers.

Specimens should be exposed to longer periods of corrosion accelerated methods, to verify whether longer periods may lead to deterioration other than superficial rust.

The effect of different crack widths on the corrosion resistance of SFRC through the cracks should be investigated. This is especially important when dealing with the coupled effect of fatigue and corrosion.

On the freeze-thaw analysis: Efforts should be made to verify the correlation between the accelerated tests with real conditions. This would contribute for a better use of the proposed service life method. In addition, more work should be performed on other parameters affecting the service life prediction of freeze-thaw exposed specimens, such as the resistance temperature and the limit scaling.

A more realistic method to simulate freeze-thaw in concrete pavements should be used other than the fully-saturation method chosen in this thesis.

On the fatigue analysis: The combination of both industrially produced and recycled fibres should be investigated to verify whether the fatigue life of the concrete increases or not, as it was postulated in Chapter 10.

More efforts should be undertaken to understand the toughness behaviour during fatigue cycles. For that, a specific methodology should be developed to accurately and simultaneously measure the load and displacements of specimens.

On the design guidelines recommendations: This thesis was mainly focused on the experimental tests carried out to understand the long-term behaviour of recycled SFRC. However, there is a need to apply the experimental findings in terms of guidelines for the design of concrete pavements. For that, a larger database of results should be grouped together to provide accurate recommendations for the design codes.

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APPENDIX A

APPENDIXA. ECOLANES PROJECT

A.I DESCRIPTION AND OBJECTIVES

EcoLanes (Economical and Sustainable Pavement Infrastructure for Surface Transport) was a three year European Union Funded Project (2006-2009) on the Sixth Framework Programme (contract number 031530).

The strategic objectives of the project were to reduce the manufacturing costs of surface transport by 10% to 20%, the production times by 15% and energy by 40% based on the use of new materials, advance design and new processes.

The main objectives of EcoLanes was to develop: I) techniques and equipment for postprocessing steel fibres extracted from tyres to use them as suitable reinforcement for concrete; 2) techniques and equipments for dispersing the fibres into wet and RCC mixes; 3) SFRC mixes suitable for slip forming and roller compaction; 4) models for the design of long-lasting rigid pavements made with SFRC; 5) life-cycle tools to determine cost, energy, efficiency and environmental impact of the new infrastructure; 6) full-scale demonstration projects.

A.2 PARTNERS

EcoLanes was a consortium composed of 11 partners described below.

- 1) The University of Sheffield, United Kingdom
- 2) Akdeniz University, Turkey
- 3) Technical University 'Gheorghe Asachi' Iasi, Romania
- 4) European Tyre Recycling Association, France
- 5) Aggregate Industries UK LTD, United Kingdom
- 6) Antalya Greater Municipality, Turkey
- 7) Compania Nationala di Drumuri Nationale din Romania, prin DROP Iasi, Romania
- 8) Adriatica Riciclagio e Ambiente s.r.l, Italy
- 9) Ministry of Communications and Works Cyprus, Public Works Department, Cyprus
- 10) Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus
- 11) Scott Wilson LTD, United Kingdom

A.3 WORK-PACKAGES AND TASKS

EcoLanes was composed of 9 work-packages, which were divided in 32 tasks (in total), described in Table A.l.

Work-package	Table A_{11} – work-packages and tasks of Ecollanes Project. Tasks
$1 -$ Fibre sorting	1.1 Composition and classification study 1.2 Fibre cleaning and sorting 1.3 Hardware prototypes 1.4 Fibre supply
2 – Fibre-reinforced concrete	2.1 Fibre characteristics 2.2 Concrete optimisation 2.3 SFRC experimental characterisation 2.4 Chemical durability 2.5 Modelling of SFRC
3 – Pavement testing, analysis and design	3.1 Development of the concept of long lasting rigid pavements 3.2 Laboratory accelerated load testing (ALT) 3.3 Numerical analysis and parametric study 3.4 Design of pavements
4 – Environmental studies and site processes	4.1 Environmental impact and energy consumption 4.2 Life-cycle methodology 4.3 Fibre dispersing in concrete 4.4 Roller compaction of SFRC 4.5 Hardware prototypes
5 - Demonstration in Western European Environment	5.1 Problem investigation 5.2 Design and construction of demonstration 5.3 Monitoring and testing of pavement behaviour
6 – Demonstration in Eastern European Environment	6.1 Problem investigation 6.2 Design and construction of demonstration 6.3 Monitoring and testing of pavement behaviour
7 – Demonstration in Eastern Mediterranean Environment	7.1 Problem investigation 7.2 Design and construction of demonstration 7.3 Monitoring and testing of pavement behaviour
8 – Dissemination and exploitation of results	8.1 Dissemination website and industrial seminars 8.2 Technology implementation plan
9 - Project management	9.1 Project coordination 9.2 Technical and management meetings

Table A.I - Work-packages and tasks of EcoLanes Project.

A.4 DELIVERABLES

Dl.l - Tyre Recycling Technologies and Environmental Issues. Authors: Kyriacos Neocleous, Valerie Shulman, Harris Angelakopoulos.

DI.l - Classification of fibres from different mechanical treatments and the reasons for fibre balling. Authors: Ettore Musacchi, Pierluigi Iacobucci, Kyriacos Neocleous, Harris Angelakopoulos and Kypros Pilakoutas.

DI.3 - Potential process for cleaning and sorting the fibres. Authors: Ettore Musacchi, Pierluigi Iacobucci and Marco Pierfelice.

D1.4 - A prototype attachment for producing fibres suitable for concrete. Authors: Ettore Musacchi and Marco Pierfelice.

DI.4b - A prototype attachment for producing fibres suitable for concrete. Author: Ettore Musacchi.

D1.4c - Attachment - Fibre production guideline. Author: Ettore Musacchi.

DI.4d - Specification for Classifying Steel Tyre-Cord Fibres. Authors: Kyriacos Neocleous, Kypros Pilakoutas, Peter Waldron and Jim Goulding.

D1.S - Fibre Supply. Author: Ettore Musacchi.

D2.1a - Use and Design of Steel Fibres in Concrete Pavements. Authors: Harris Angelakopoulos, Kyriacos Neocleous and Kypros Pilakoutas.

D2.lb - State-of-the-art on roller-compacted concrete. Authors: Angelakopoulos, Kyriacos Neocleous and Kypros Pilakoutas.

D2.2 - Characteristics of fibres from post-consumer tyres and other sources. Authors: Angelakopoulos, Kyriacos Neocleous, Kypros Pilakoutas.

D2.3 - Wet Concrete Mix Optimisation for Selected Fibres. Authors: Nicolae Vlad, Nicolae Taranu, Radu Andrei, Marius Muscalu, Radu Cojocaru, Oana Ionita and Mioara Nerges.

D2.3b - Wet Concrete Mix Optimisation for Selected Fibres. Authors: Angelakopoulos, Kyriacos Neocleous and Kypros Pilakoutas.

D2.4 - Concrete Mix Optimisation for Roller Compacted Concrete. Authors: Harris Angelakopoulos, Kyriacos Neocleous and Kypros Pilakoutas.

Ť

D2.4b - Parametric investigation on the compressive strength of Steel Fibre Reinforced Roller Compacted Concrete. Authors: Harris Angelakopoulos, Kyriacos Neocleous and Kypros Pilakoutas.

D2.5 - Flexural testing of SFR-RCC and SFRC for all different types of fibres supplied. Authors: Harris Angelakopoulos, Kyriacos Neocleous and Kypros Pilakoutas.

D2.5b - Parametric investigation on the flexural behaviour of plain and SFR-RCC. Authors: Harris Angelakopoulos, Kyriacos Neocleous and Kypros Pilakoutas.

D2.5c - Fatigue Tests on SFR-RCC with Recycled Fibres. Authors: Angela Graeff, Kyriacos Neocleous and Kypros Pilakoutas.

D2.6 - Chemical Durability for Dry and Wet Steel Fibre Reinforced Concrete. Authors: Angela Graeff, Kyriacos Neocleous and Kypros Pilakoutas.

D2.6b - Durability properties of SFRC and SFR-RCC with recycled fibres. Authors: Angela Graeff, Kyriacos Neocleous and Kypros Pilakoutas.

D2.7 - Modelling of SFRC. Authors: Harris Angelakopoulos, Angela Graeff, Naeimeh Jafarifar, Kyriacos Neocleous and Kypros Pilakoutas.

D2.7b - Modelling of SFRC. Authors: Harris Angelakopoulos, Angela Graeff, Kyriacos Neocleous and Kypros Pilakoutas.

D3.1 - State-of-the-art report on design and construction of LLRP. Authors: R. Andrei, N. Taranu, H. Gh. Zarojanu, N. V. Vlad, V. Boboc and I. D. Vrancianu.

D3.2 - Accelerated load testing 1-200K passes. Authors: B. Cososchi, N. Taranu, H. Gh. Zarojanu, R. Andrei, V. Boboc, M. Muscalu and O. M. Ionita.

D3.3a - Numerical and Analytical Study of Long-Lasting-Rigid-Pavements - Linear Elastic Analysis. Authors: Naeimeh Jafarifar, Kypros Pilakoutas and Kyriacos Neocleous.

D3.3b – Numerical and Analytical Study of Long-Lasting-Rigid-Pavements – Non-Linear Analysis. Authors: Naeimeh Jafarifar and Kypros Pilakoutas.

D3.3c - Numerical analysis and parametric study of SFRC pavements subjected to traffic. Authors: Nicolae Taranu, Horia Gh. Zarojanu, Radu Andrei, Vasile Boboc, Radu Cojocaru, Marius Muscalu, Oana Mihaela Banu and Elena Puslau.

D3.4 - Algorithms and software for the design of SFRC pavements. Authors: Nicolae Taranu, Horia Gh. Zarojanu, Radu Andrei, Vasile Boboc, Radu Cojocaru, Marius Muscalu, Oana Mihaela Banu and Elena Puslau.

D3.S - Accelerated load testing 200K-1.5m passes. Authors: B. Cososchi, N. Taranu, H. Gh. Zarojanu, R. Andrei, V. Boboc, M. Muscalu and O. M. Banu.

D3.6 - Developing of guidelines for the design of SFRC pavements. Authors: Nicolae Taranu, Horia Gh. Zarojanu, Radu Andrei, Vasile Boboc, Radu Cojocaru, Marius Muscalu, Oana Mihaela Banu and Elena Puslau.

D4.1a - Environmental Impact and Energy Consumption of Transport Pavements. Authors: Laura Dumitrescu, Nicolae Taranu and Mioara Nerges.

D4.1b - Methodology for environmental impact and energy consumption of transport pavements. Authors: Diofantos Hadjimitsis and Kyriacos Themistocleous.

D4.2a - Life Cycle Costing. Authors: Laura Dumitrescu, Nicolae Taranu and Mioara Nerges.

D4.2b - Methodology for Life Cycle Costing. Authors: Diofantos Hadjimitsis, Kyriacos Themistocleous and Laura Dumitrescu.

D4.3 - Fibre dispersion techniques. Author: Kostas Koutselas.

D4.4 - Roller Compaction Equipment. Author: Kostas Koutselas and John Donegan.

D4.4b - Specification for Production of Steel Fibre-reinforced Roller Compacted Concrete Pavements. Authors: Kostas Koutselas, Kyriacos Neocleous and Kypros Pilakoutas.

D4.S - Prototype Machines or Attachments to Disperse Fibres and Compact SFRC. Author: Kostas Koutselas.

D4.6 - Environmental impact and energy consumption of demonstrations. Authors: Constantia Achilleos, Diofantos Hadjimitsis and Kyriacos Themistocleous.

D4.7 - Life-cycle costing of demonstrations. Authors: Constantia Achilleos, Diofantos Hadiimitsis and Kyriacos Themistocleous.

DS.l - Problems in the specific environment. Author: Kostas Koutselas.

D5.2 - Design of the road using new techniques to solve the defined problems. Author: Kostas Koutselas, John Donegan and Paul Phillips.

D6.1 - Problems in specific environment. Authors: Camelia Bulau, Tudor Varian, Constantin Zbamea, Irina Lungu, Vasile Boboc, Nicolae Taranu, Radu Cojocaru and Marius Muscalu.

D6.2 - Design of the road using new techniques to solve the defined problems. Authors: Camelia Bulau, Tudor VarIan, Constantin Zbamea, Irina Lungu, Vasile Boboc, Andrei Radu, Nicolae Taranu, Radu Cojocaru and Marius Muscalu.

D6.3 – Construction of road using new techniques. Authors: Camelia Bulau, Tudor Varlan and Constantin Zbamea.

D6.4 - Feedback on the design, construction and service of the new road. Assessment of the cost, environmental and energy benefits of the project. Authors: Camelia Bulau, Tudor Varian, Constantin Zbarnea and Laura Dumitrescu.

 $D7.1a$ – Problems in the specific environment (Turkey). Author: Gülbahar Budak.

D7.1b - Problems in the specific environment (Cyprus). Section of the old road to Galataria village - F624. Author: Pavlos Neofytou.

D7.2a - Design of the road using new techniques to solve the defined problems (Turkey). Author: Gülbahar Budak.

D7.2b – Design of the road using new techniques to solve the defined problems. (Section of the old road to Galataria village - F624, Pafos, Cyprus). Author: Pavlos Neofytou.

D7.3a - Construction of the road in Turkey using new techniques. Author: Gülbahar Budak.

D7.3b – Construction of the road using new techniques to solve the defined problems. (Section of the old road to Galataria village - F624, Pafos, Cyprus). Author: Pavlos Neofytou.

D8.1- Dissemination Website. Authors: Kypros Pilakoutas and Kyriacos Neocleous.

D8.1b - Dissemination Website. Authors: Kypros Pilakoutas and Kyriacos Neocleous.

D8.2 - Industrial Seminar. Authors: Kypros Pilakoutas, Valerie Shulman, Kyriacos Neocleous, Radu Andrei, Laura Dumitrescu.

D8.2b - Industrial Seminar. Authors: Kypros Pilakoutas, Valerie Shulman, Kyriacos Neocleous, Radu Andrei, Laura Dumitrescu, Kyriacos Themistocleous, John Donegan and Tudor Varian.

D8.4 - Technology Implementation Plan. Authors: Jim Goulding, Valerie Shulman, Kyriacos Neocleous, Kypros Pilakoutas and and Radu Andrei.

D8.5 - Partnership Agreement on Detailed Business Plans and Funding Routes. Authors: Jim Goulding, Kyriacos Neocleous, Kypros Pilakoutas, Valerie Shulman, and Radu Andrei.

D9.1- Management Website. Authors: Kypros Pilakoutas and Kyriacos Neocleous.

D9.2 - Minutes of management meetings and progress reports. Authors: Kypros Pilakoutas and Kyriacos Neocleous.

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B. EQUATIONS AND CHARTS OF RIGID PAVEMENT DESIGN METHODS

B.1 WESTERGAARD (1926) EQUATIONS

The main equations proposed by Westergaard (1926) to calculate stresses in concrete pavements are shown below, converted to International System of Units (SI).

$$
\sigma = \frac{0.316 \times Q}{h^2} \times \left[4 \log \left(\frac{l}{b}\right) + 1.069\right] \text{ [N/mm²]}
$$
\n(B.1)

$$
\sigma = \frac{0.572 \times Q}{h^2} \times \left[4 \log \left(\frac{l}{b}\right) + 0.359\right] \text{ [N/mm²]}
$$
\n(B.2)

$$
\sigma = \frac{3 \times Q}{h^2} \times \left[1 - \left(\frac{a\sqrt{2}}{l}\right)^{0.6}\right] \text{ [N/mm²]}
$$
\n(B.3)

Where:

- b = equivalent radius of the effective resisting section: b = $(1.6a^2 + h^2)^{0.5}$ 0.675h [mm]
- $a =$ radius of distributed load [mm]
- $h =$ thickness of concrete slab [mm]

$$
Q = Total load [N]
$$

 $L =$ radius of relative stiffness (relation between the radius of plate stiffness and the module of subgrade reaction k) $(l = \sqrt[4]{\frac{Exh^3}{12x(1-\mu^2)xk}})$

Each one of the above equation refers to a specific load position in the concrete plate, as shown in Figure 8.1. The "a" arrow refers to load at considerable distance from the edges (Equation 8.1), "b" arrow refers to load in one of the plate edges (Equation 8.2) and the "c" arrow represents the wheel load in the comer of the plate (Equation B.3).

Figure B.1 - Three cases of loading investigation according to Westergaard (1926).

B.2 DESIGN CHARTS AND TABLES OF PCA (1984)

Table B.2 - Equivalent stress - concrete shoulder (single axle/tandem axle).

Slab thickness.				k of subgrade-subbase, pci			
in.	50	100	150	200	300	500	700
4	640/534	559/468	517/439	489/422	452/403	409/388	383/384
4.5	547/461	479/400	444/372	421/356	390/338	355/322	333/316
5	475/404	417/349	387/323	367/308	341/290	311/274	294/267
5.5	418/360	368/309	342/285	324/271	302/254	276/238	261/231
6	372/325	327/277	304/255	289/241	270/225	247/210	234/203
6.5	334/295	294/251	274/230	260/218	243/203	223/188	212/180
7	302/270	266/230	248/210	236/198	220/184	203/170	192/162
7.5	275/250	243/211	226/193	215/182	201/168	185/155	176/148
8	252/232	222/196	207/179	197/168	185/155	170/142	162/135
8.5	232/216	205/182	191/166	182/156	170/144	157/131	150/125
9	215/202	190/171	177/155	169/146	158/134	146/122	139/116
9.5	200/190	176/160	164/146	157/137	147/126	136/114	129/108
10	186/179	164/151	153/137	146/129	137/118	127/107	121/101
10.5	174/170	154/143	144/130	137/121	128/111	119/101	113/95
11	164/161	144/135	135/123	129/115	120/105	112/95	106/90
11.5	154/153	136/128	127/117	121/109	113/100	105/90	100/85
12	145/146	128/122	120/111	114/104	107/95	99/86	95/81
12.5	137/139	121/117	113/106	108/99	101/91	94/82	90/77
13	130/133	115/112	107/101	102/95	96/86	89/78	85/73
13.5	124/127	109/107	102/97	97/91	91/83	85/74	81/70
14	118/122	104/103	97/93	93/87	87/79	81/71	77/67

Slab				k of subgrade-subbase, pci		
thickness. in.	50	100	200	300	500	700
\boldsymbol{A}	3.74/3.83	3.73/3.79	3.72/3.75	3.71/3.73	3.70/3.70	3.68/3.67
4.5	3.59/3.70	3.57/3.65	3.56/3.61	3.55/3.58	3.54/3.55	3.52/3.53
5	3.45/3.58	3.43/3.52	3.42/3.48	3.41/3.45	3.40/3.42	3 38/3.40
5.5	3.33/3.47	331/3.41	3.29/3.36	3.28/3.33	3.27/3.30	3.26/3.28
6	3.22/3.38	3.19/3.31	3.18/3.26	3.17/3.23	3.15/3.20	3.14/3.17
6.5	3.11/3.29	3.09/3.22	3.07/3.16	3.06/3.13	3 05/3 10	3.03/3.07
7	3.02/3.21	2.99/3.14	2.97/3.08	2.96/3.05	2.95/3.01	294/298
7.5	2.93/3.14	2.91/3.06	2.88/3.00	287/297	2.86/2.93	2.84/2.90
8	2.85/3.07	2.82/2.99	2.80/2.93	2.79/2.89	2.77/2.85	2 76/2 82
8.5	2.77/3.01	2.74/2.93	2.72/2.86	2.71/2.82	2 69/2 78	2.68/2.75
$\overline{9}$	2,70/2.96	2.67/2.87	2.65/2.80	2.63/2.76	2.62/2.71	2.61/2.68
9.5	2.63/2.90	2.60/2.81	2.58/2.74	2.56/2.70	2.55/2.65	2.54/2.62
10	2.56/2.85	2.54/2.76	2.51/2.68	2.50/2.64	2.48/2.59	2.47/2.56
10.5	2.50/2.81	2.47/2.71	2.45/2.63	2.44/2.59	2.42/2.54	2.41/2.51
11	2.44/2.76	2.42/2.67	2.39/2.58	2.38/2.54	2.36/2.49	2 3 5 / 2 4 5
11.5	2.38/2.72	2.36/2.62	2.33/2.54	2.32/2.49	2.30/2.44	2.29/2.40
12	2.33/2.68	2.30/2.58	2.28/2.49	2.26/2.44	2.25/2.39	2 2 3 / 2 3 6
12.5	2.28/2.64	2.25/2.54	2.23/2.45	2.21/2.40	2.19/2.35	2.18/2.31
13	2.23/2.61	2.20/2.50	2.18/2.41	2.16/2.36	2.14/2.30	2.13/2.27
13.5	2.18/2.57	2.15/2.47	2.13/2.37	2.11/2.32	2.09/2.26	2.08/2.23
14	2.13/2.54	2.11/2.43	2.08/2.34	2.07/2.29	205/223	2.03/2.19

Table B.3 - Erosion factors - doweled joints, no concrete shoulder (single axle/tandem axle).

Table B.4 - Erosion factors - aggregate-interlock joints, no concrete shoulder (single axle/tandem axle).

Slab thickness.	k of subgrade-subbase, pci									
in.	50	100	200	300	500	700				
4	3.94/4.03	3.91/3.95	3.88/3.89	3.86/3.86	3.82/3.83	3.77/3.80				
4.5	3.79/3.91	3.76/3.82	3.73/3.75	3.71/3.72	3.68/3.68	3.64/3.65				
5	3.66/3.81	3.63/3.72	3.60/3.64	3.58/3.60	3.55/3.55	3 52/3.52				
5.5	3.54/3.72	3.51/3.62	3.48/3.53	3.46/3.49	3.43/3.44	3.41/3.40				
6	3.44/3.64	3.40/3.53	3.37/3.44	3.35/3.40	3.32/3.34	3.30/3.30				
6.5	3.34/3.56	3.30/3.46	3.26/3.36	3.25/3.31	3.22/3.25	3.20/3.21				
$\overline{7}$	3.26/3.49	3.21/3.39	3.17/3.29	3.15/3.24	3.13/3.17	3.11/3.13				
7.5	3.18/3.43	3.13/3 32	3.09/3.22	3.07/3.17	3.04/3.10	3.02/3.06				
8	3.11/3.37	3.05/3.26	3.01/3.16	2.99/3.10	2.96/3.03	2.94/2.99				
8.5	3.04/3.32	2.98/3.21	2.93/3.10	2.91/3.04	2.88/2.97	2.87/2.93				
9	2.98/3.27	2.91/3.16	2.86/3.05	2.84/2.99	2.81/2.92	2.79/2.87				
9.5	2.92/3.22	2.85/3.11	2.80/3.00	2.77/2.94	2.75/2.86	2.73/2.81				
10	2.86/3.18	2.79/3.06	2.74/2.95	2.71/2.89	2.68/2.81	2.66/2.76				
10.5	2.81/3.14	2.74/3.02	2.68/2.91	2.65/2.84	2.62/2.76	2.60/2.72				
11	2.77/3.10	2.69/2.98	2.63/2.86	2.60/2.80	2.57/2.72	2.54/2.67				
11.5	272/3.06	2.64/2.94	2.58/2.82	2.55/2.76	2.51/2.68	2.49/2.63				
12	2.68/3.03	2.60/2.90	2.53/2.78	2.50/2.72	2.46/2.64	2.44/2.59				
12.5	2.64/2.99	2.55/2.87	2.48/2.75	2.45/2.68	2.41/2.60	2.39/2.55				
13	2.60/2.96	2.51/2.83	2.44/2.71	2.40/2.65	2.36/2.56	2.34/2.51				
13.5	2.56/2.93	2.47/2.80	2.40/2.68	2.36/2.61	2.32/2.53	2.30/2.48				
14	2.53/2.90	2.44/2.77	2.36/2.65	2.32/2.58	2.28/2.50	2.25/2.44				

Table B.5 - Erosion factors - doweled joints, concrete shoulder (single axle/tandem axle).

Slab thickness.	k of subgrade-subbase, pci									
in.	50	100	200	300	500	700				
4	3 46/3 49	3 42/3.39	3.38/3.32	3.36/3.29	3.32/3.26	3.28/3.24				
4.5	3 3 2 / 3 3 9	3.28/3.28	3.24/3.19	3.22/3.16	3.19/3.12	3.15/3.09				
5	3.20/3.30	3.16/3.18	3.12/3.09	3.10/3.05	3.07/3.00	3.04/2.97				
5.5	3.10/3.22	3.05/3.10	3.01/3.00	2.99/2.95	2.96/2.90	2.93/2.86				
6	3.00/3.15	2.95/3.02	2.90/2.92	2.88/2.87	286/281	2.83/2.77				
6.5	2.91/3.08	2.86/2.96	2.81/2.85	2.79/2.79	2.76/2.73	2.74/2.68				
$\overline{7}$	2.83/3.02	2.77/2.90	2.73/2.78	2.70/2.72	2.68/2.66	2.65/2.61				
7.5	2.76/2.97	2.70/2.84	2.65/2.72	2.62/2.66	2.60/2.59	2.57/2.54				
8	2.69/2.92	2.63/2.79	2.57/2.67	2.55/2.61	2.52/2.53	2 50/2 48				
8.5	2.63/2.88	2.56/2.74	2.51/2.62	2.48/2.55	2.45/2.48	2.43/2.43				
a	2.57/2.83	2.50/2.70	2.44/2.57	2.42/2.51	2.39/2.43	2 36/2 38				
9.5	2.51/2.79	2.44/2.65	2.38/2.53	2.36/2.46	2 3 3 / 2 3 8	2 30/2 33				
10	2.46/2.75	2.39/2.61	2.33/2.49	2.30/2.42	2.27/2.34	2.24/2.28				
10.5	2.41/2.72	2.33/2.58	2.27/2.45	2.24/2.38	2.21/2.30	2.19/2.24				
11	2.36/2.68	2.28/2.54	2.22/2.41	2.19/2.34	2.16/2.26	2.14/2.20				
11.5	2.32/2.65	2.24/2.51	2.17/2.38	2.14/2.31	2 11/2 22	209/2.16				
12	2.28/2.62	2.19/2.48	2.13/2.34	2.10/2.27	2.06/2.19	2.04/2.13				
12.5	2.24/2.59	2.15/2.45	2.09/2.31	2.05/2.24	2.02/2.15	1.99/2.10				
13	2.20/2.56	2.11/2.42	2.04/2.28	2.01/2.21	198/2.12	1.95/2.06				
13.5	2.16/2.53	2 08/2 39	2.00/2.25	1.97/2.18	1.93/2.09	1.91/2.03				
14	2.13/2.51	2 04/2 36	1.97/2.23	1.93/2.15	1.89/2.06	1.87/2.00				

Table B.6 - Erosion factors - aggregate-interlock joints, concrete shoulder (single axle/tandem axle).

Table B.7 - Simplified method - allowable ADTT, Axle-load category 1 - Pavements with aggregate-interlock joints

			No Concrete Shoulder or Curb				Concrete Shoulder or Curb		
	Slab thickness. in.	Low		Subgrade-subbase support Medium High		Low	Subgrade-subbase support Medium	High	
	4.5			0.1	4 4.5	$\overline{2}$	0.2 8	0.9 25	
psi 650 \mathfrak{n} g	5 5.5	0.1 3	0.8 15	3 45	5 5.5	30 320	130	330	
	6 6.5	40 330	160	430					
psi	5 5.5	0.5	0.1 з	0.4 9	4 4.5	0.2		0.1 5	
800 ×	6 6.5	8 76	36 300	98 760	5 5.5	6 73	27 290	75 730	
WR	\mathbf{r}	520			6	610			
psi	5.5	0.1	0.3	1	4.5		0.2	0.6	
550	6 6.5	1 13	6 60	18 160	5 5.5	0.8 13	4 57	13 150	
Ħ Ę	7.5	110 620	400		6	130 ž	480		

Table B.9 – Simplified method – allowable ADTT, Axle-load category 2 – Pavements with aggregate-interlock joints

Table B.10 - Simplified method - allowable ADTT, Axle-load category 3 - Pavements with doweled joints

			No Concrete Shoulder or Curb					Concrete Shoulder or Curb		
	Slab thickness.		Subgrade-subbase support			Slab thickness.		Subgrade-subbase support		
	in.	Low	Medium	High	Very high	in.	Low	Medium	High	Very high
ğ	7.5				250	6.5			83	320
650 ä	8 8.5	160	130 640	350 1,600	1,300 6.200	7 7.5	52 320	220 1,200	550 2,900	1,900 9,800
¥	9 9.5	700 2.700	2.700 10.800	7,000	11.500**	\bf{B} 8.5	1.600 6,900	5,700 23.700**	13,800	
	10	9,900								
						6.5				67
600 psi	8 8.5		140	73 380	310 1.500	, 7.5		270	120 680	440 2,300
$\mathfrak n$	$\bf{9}$ 9.5	160 630	640 2,500	1,700 6.500	6.200	8 8.5	370 1,600	1,300 5,800	3.200 14,100	10,800
$\frac{\alpha}{2}$	10 10.5	2.300 7,700	9.300			9	6.600			
	8.5			70	300	7.5			130	82 480
š 550	9 9.5	120	120 520	340 1,300	1.300 5,100	8 8.5	67 330	270 1,200	670 2.900	2,300 9,700
ü £	10 10.5	460 1,600	1,900 6,500	4.900 17,400	19.100	$\overline{\mathbf{9}}$ 9.5	1,400 5,100	4.900 18,600	11,700	
	11	4.900								

			No Concrete Shoulder or Curb					Concrete Shoulder or Curb		
	Slab thickness,		Subgrade-subbase support			Slab thickness.		Subgrade-subbase support		
	in.	Low	Medium	High	Very high	in.	Low	Medium	High	Very high
	7.5			60	250"	7 7.5	320	$220**$ 640	510 890	750 1.400
	8 8.5	160	$130**$ 640**	350 900	830 1.300	8 8.5	610 950	1.100 1,800	1.500 2,700	2.500 4.700
g 650	$\bf{9}$ 95	680 960	1.000 1,500	1,300 2,000	2,000 2,900	9 9.5	1,500 2,300	2.900 4.700	4.600 8,000	8.700
n Ę	10 10.5	1,300 1,800	2.100 2,900	2,800 4,000	4,300 6,300	10 10.5	3,500 5,300	7.700		
	11 11.5	2,500 3,300	4,000 5,500	5.700 7.900	9.200	11	8.100			
	12	4,400	7,500							
	8 8.5		$140**$	73 380	310 1,300	$\frac{7}{7}$ ₅	67	270	120 $680 -$	440** 1.400
ā	9 9.5	160 630**	640** 1,500	1.300 2.000	2,000 2,900	\overline{a} 6.5	370 950	1,100 1.800	1.500 2.700	2,500 4,700
88 u	10 10.5	1.300 1,800	2,100 2,900	2.800 4.000	4,300 6,300	9 9.5	1,500 2,300	2.900 4.700	4.600 8.000	8,700
š	11 11.5	2,500 3,300	4,000 5,500	5,700 7,900	9,200	10 10.5	3.500 5,300	7.700		
	12	4,400	7,500			11	6,100			
	8 8.5			$70 - 1$	56 300	$\overline{ }$ 7.5			130	82 480**
É	0 9.5	120	120 520	340 1.300	$1.300**$ 2.900	8 8.5	67 330	270 1.200	$670**$ 2,700	2.300 4.700
550	10 10.5	460** $1.600**$	1.900 2.900	2.800 4.000	4,300 6,300	9 9.5	1,400 2,300	2.900 4.700	4,600 8,000	8,700
g	11 11.5	2.500 3,300	4,000 5.500	5,700 7,900	9.200	10 10.5	3,500 5,300	7.700		
	12	4.400	7.500			11	8.100			

Table B.11 - Simplified method - allowable ADTT, Axle-load category 3 - Pavements with aggregate interlock joints

Table B.12 - Simplified method - allowable ADTT, Axle-load category 4 - Pavements with doweled joints

			No Concrete Shoulder or Curb			Concrete Shoulder or Curb						
	Slab thickness. in.	Subgrade-subbase support Very high High Medium Low				Sleb thickness. in.	Subgrade-subbase support Very high High Medium Low					
	\mathbf{a} 8.5		120	340	270 1,300	7 7.5		240	620	400 2.100		
ã	9 9.5	140 570	580 2,300	1.500 5,900	5,600 14,700	8 8.5	330 1.500	1,200 5,300	3,000 12,700	9,800 41.100**		
650 k	10 10.5	2.000 6.700	8.200 24,100**	18.700** 31,800**	25.900** 45,800**	9 9.5	5.900 22,500	21,400 52.000**	44,900**			
$\frac{a}{2}$ 11	11.5	21.600 39,700**	39,600			10	45,200**					
	8.5				300	7.5			130	490		
ë	9 9.5	120	120 530	340 1.400	1,300 5.200	6 8.5	340	270 1,300	690 3.000	2,300 9.900		
8 i.	10 10.5	480 1.600	1.900 6.500	5.100 17.500	19,300 45.900**	9 9.5	1,400 5,200	5,000 18,800	12,000 45,900	40.200		
$\frac{\alpha}{2}$	11 115	4,900 14.500	21,400 65.000**	53,800**		10	18,400					
	12	44.000										
	9 9 ₅			280	260 1,100	\bf{B} 85		250	130 620	480 2.100		
Ř 550	10 10.5	320	390 1.400	1,100 3.600	4.000 13,800	9 9.5	280 1.100	1.000 3.900	2.500 9.300	8.200 30.700		
18 $\frac{\alpha}{2}$	11 11.5	1,000 3,000	4.300 13.100	11,600 37,200	46,600	10 105	3.800 12.400	13.600 46.200	32,900			
	12	8.200	40.000			11	40.400					

Table B.13 - Simplified method - allowable ADTT, Axle-load category 4 - Pavements with aggregate interlock joints

Figure B.2 - Fatigue analysis - allowable load repetitions based on stress ratio (with and without concrete shoulder).

Figure B.3 - Erosion analysis - allowable load repetitions based on erosion factor (without concrete shoulder).

Figure B.4 - Erosion analysis -allowable load repetitions based on erosion factor (with concrete shoulder).

Long-term Performance of Recycled Steel Fibre Reinforced Concrete for Pavement Applications

B.3 DESIGN EQUATION OF AASHTO (1993)

The main equation for the thickness design of concrete pavements, according to the guide, is shown below (in Imperial Units):

$$
\log_{10} W_{18} = Z_R S_o + 7.35 \log_{10}(D+1) - 0.06 + \frac{\log_{10} \left(\frac{\Delta PSI}{4.5 - 1.5}\right)}{1 + \frac{1.624 \times 10^7}{(D+1)^8.46}} + (4.22 - 0.32p_t) \times \log_{10} \left[\frac{S_c' C_d [D^{0.75} - 1.132]}{215.63 / \left[D^{0.75} - \frac{18.42}{\left(\frac{E_c}{K}\right)^{0.25}}\right]}\right]
$$
(B.4)

Where:

 W_{18} = traffic in ESALs (Equivalent Single Axle Load)

 Z_R = normal standard deviation for a specific reliability

 S_{O} = overall standard deviation

 $D =$ pavement thickness [in]

 \triangle PSI = change in the serviceability index \triangle *PSI* = $p_o - p_t$

 p_o = initial serviceability index

 p_t = terminal serviceability index

 S_c = concrete flexural strength at 28 days [psi]

 C_d = drainage coefficient

 $J =$ load transfer coefficient

E_c = elastic module of concrete $E = 57000\sqrt{f'_c}$ [psi]

 $k =$ module of subgrade reaction [psi/in]

The traffic parameter W_{18} converts the various axles (simple, tandem and triple) to a standard axle of 80 kN. The equivalence factors are obtained through the guide specific tables.

The structure reliability is considered in the Equation B.4 through Z_RS_O parameters. Z_R can be obtained through Table B.14 and S_0 depends on the local conditions, varying from 0.3 to 0.4. The guide suggests 0.39 when traffic is variable and 0.34 for the opposite.

	Recommended level of reliability						
Functional classification	Urban		Rural				
	Percentage	Z_{R}	Percentage	Z_{R}			
		-1.037		-0.841			
Interstates and other freeways	$85 - 99,9$	-3.75	$80 - 99,9$	-3.75			
	$80 - 99$	-0.841	$75 - 95$	-0.674			
Principal arterials		-2.327		-1.645			
	$80 - 95$	-0.841	$75 - 95$	-0.674			
Collectors		-1.645		-1.645			
	$50 - 80$	0	$50 - 80$	0			
Local		-0.841		-0.841			

Table B.14 - Reliability and normal standard deviation Z_n [AASHTO, 1993].

The initial and final PSI (present serviceability index) depends on how smooth the pavement can be constructed and on how long it takes for the pavement to be repaired, respectively. According to the AASHTO Guide (1993), p_0 should be equal to 4.5 and p_1 equal to 2.0, 2.5 and 3.0, which means that 85, 55 and 12% (respectively) of users consider the pavement as condemned.

Drainage coefficient varies from 0.7 to 1.2 (very poor to excellent), according to Table B.15. The load transfer factor varies from 2.3 to 4.4 and is influenced by the use of load transfer bars, asphalt or concrete hard shoulders and type of pavement used, as shown in Table B.16.

***** P.I.		D							
Drainage quality		Percentage of time exposed to moisture levels approaching saturation							
	1%	$1 - 5%$	$5 - 25%$	>25%					
Excellent	$1.25 - 1.20$	$1.20 - 1.15$	$1.15 - 1.10$	1.10					
Good	$1.20 - 1.15$	$1.15 - 1.10$	$1.10 - 1.00$	1.00					
Regular	$1.15 - 1.10$	$1.10 - 1.00$	$1.00 - 0.90$	0.90					
Poor	$1.10 - 1.00$	$1.00 - 0.90$	$0.90 - 0.80$	0.80					
Very poor	$1.00 - 0.90$	$0.90 - 0.80$	$0.80 - 0.70$	0.70					

Table B.15 - Drainage coefficient C. [AASHTO, 1993].

According to the guide, the modulus of resilience M_R is the main property that characterises the soil. However, concrete pavement design requires the module of subgrade reaction k , which can be correlated to M_R by equations and charts proposed by the guide.

B.4 HIGHWAYS AGENCY (2006) DESIGN CHART AND EQUATIONS

The method considers four classes of foundation stiffness and only the number 3 and 4 classes can be used for concrete pavements.

- Foundation class $1 \geq 50$ MPa
- Foundation class $2 \ge 100$ MPa
- ω . Foundation class $3 > 200$ MPa
- Foundation class $4 \ge 400$ MPa \overline{a}

The method prefers the design of CRCP with an asphalt overlay of 30 mm; or the design of CRCB (continuously reinforced concrete base) with an asphalt overlay of 100 mm. JPCP and JRCP are also allowed subjected to approval by the regulation authority. Minimum concrete plate thickness should be 200 mm for CRCP and ISO mm for CRCB.

Life-cycle is estimated to 40 years for high and heavy traffic roads. The roads subjected to light traffic can be designed to resist to 20 years if allowed by the regulation authority.

The design thickness for CRCP and CRCB can be calculated according to Figure B.S, which is based on the flexural strength of concrete and on the number of standard axles $(= 80 \text{ kN})$. Thickness value obtained is valid for pavement with concrete hard shoulder, otherwise 30 mm should be added to the concrete plate thickness.

Figure B.5 - Design thickness for CRCP and CRCB.

JPCP are designed according to the following equations. Equation 8.5 is used for plain concrete pavement with load transfer through aggregate interlock while Equation 8.6 is used for JPCP with dowel bars.

$$
Ln(H_1) = \frac{Ln(T) - 3.466Ln(R_c) - 0.484Ln(E) + 40.483}{5.094}
$$
 (B.5)

$$
Ln(H_1) = \frac{Ln(T) - R - 3.171Ln(R_c) - 0.326Ln(E) + 45.150}{4.786}
$$
 (B.6)

Where:

R = 8.812 (for 500 mm²/m reinforcement); 9.071 (for 600 mm²/m reinforcement); 9.289 (for 700 mm²/m reinforcement) and 9.479 (for 800 mm²/m reinforcement)

 H_1 = thickness of the concrete plate without a tied shoulder (minimum = 150 mm) [mm]

 H_2 = thickness of concrete plate with a tied shoulder $H_2 = 0.934H_1 - 12.5$ [mm]

$$
T = design traffic (maximum = 400 msa) [msa - millions of standard axles]
$$

$$
R_c = average compressive strength from concrete cubes at 28 days [MPa]
$$

 E = foundation stiffness class (= 200 MPa for foundation class 3 and = 400 MPa for foundation class 4) [MPa]

The method also includes few more concerns for the design of concrete pavements:

- Foundations must be at least 150 mm of non-granular material;
- Steel area to control longitudinal cracks should be 0.6% and 0.4% of the concrete plate transverse section for CRCP and CRCB, respectively;
- Flexural strength of concrete should be higher than 5.5 MPa.

- --

B.S TR 34 (THE CONCRETE SOCIETY, 2003) DESIGN EQUATIONS

The load capacity P_u of an industrial floor subjected to single applied loads can be obtained by the following equations:

$$
P_{u} = 2\pi (M_{p} + M_{n})
$$
 for internal load and $\alpha/l = 0$ (B.7)

$$
P_{u} = 4\pi (M_{p} + M_{n}) / (1 - \frac{\alpha}{3l})
$$
 for internal load and $\alpha/l \ge 0.2$ (B.8)

 $P_u = [\pi (M_p + M_n)/2] + 2M_n$ for edge load and $\alpha/l = 0$ (B.9)

$$
P_{u} = \left[\pi \left(M_{p} + M_{n} \right) + 4M_{n} \right] / \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{31} \right) \text{ for edge load and } \alpha/1 \ge 0.2 \quad (B.10)
$$

$$
P_{u} = 2M_{n} \text{ for corner load and } \alpha/l = 0 \tag{B.11}
$$

$$
P_{u} = 4M_{n}/\left[1 - \left(\frac{\alpha}{l}\right)\right]
$$
 for corner load and $\alpha/l \ge 0.2$ (B.12)

Where:

$$
1 = radius of relative stiffness 1 = [E_{cm}h3/12(1 - v2)k]^{0.25}
$$

 $k =$ modulus of subgrade reaction [N/mm³]

 $h =$ slab thickness [mm]

 $v = Poisson ratio$

 E_{cm} = Modulus of elasticity of concrete

 α = equivalent contact radius of the load: $\alpha = \sqrt{\frac{P}{\pi G}}$ for circular loads and $\alpha = \sqrt{\frac{LW}{\pi}}$ for rectangular loads

$$
P = \text{wheel load [N]}
$$

- $G =$ tyre pressure [N/mm²]
- $L =$ length of plate [mm]
- $W = width of plate [mm]$

The positive bending moment capacity M_p is obtained by Equation B.13 whilst the negative bending moment capacity M_n is described in Equation B.14.

$$
M_p = \frac{f_{\text{ctk,fl}}}{\gamma_c} \left(R_{e,3} \right) \left(\frac{h^2}{6} \right) \tag{B.13}
$$

$$
M_p = \frac{f_{\text{ctk,fl}}}{\gamma_c} \left(\frac{h^2}{6}\right) \tag{B.14}
$$

Where:

 $f_{\text{ctk},\text{fl}} =$ characteristic flexural strength of plain concrete

 y_c = partial factor for the strength of concrete

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C. FLEXURAL BEHAVIOUR

C.I CONTROL SPECIMENS - 28 DAYS

C.I.l Flexural properties

C.1.1.1 f_{LOP} and f_{ult} [MPa]

Mix	$F_{R,0.5}$	$F_{R,1.5}$	$F_{R,2.5}$	$F_{R,3.5}$	Mix	$F_{R,0.5}$	$F_{R,1.5}$	$F_{R,2.5}$	$F_{R,3.5}$
	0.96				R -CIP-0	1.75			
W -CIP-0	0.62	$\qquad \qquad \blacksquare$	۰			1.50	٠	٠	\bullet
	7.37	4.22	3.10	2.95	$R-CIP-2I$	10.74	10.27	6.73	8.10
W-CIP-2I	7.02	4.79	2.73	2.85		7.96	7.49	6.71	6.30
	2.76	2.12	1.55	1.15	R-CIP-2R	3.21	2.19	1.75	2.08
W-CIP-2R	2.95	1.96	1.34	1.05		3.29	2.13	1.5	1.95
W-CIP-6R	7.43	5.84	4.22	2.90	R-CIP-6R	6.16	5.03	3.89	4.25
	6.58	5.65	4.34	3.27		6.51	5.17	3.95	4.71
	0.5	\bullet	۰		R-LEC-0	1.32			
W-LEC-0	0.54	\blacksquare	۰			1.22	\bullet	\blacksquare	\bullet
	6.02	5.61	3.06	2.44	R-LEC-2I	6.48	7.16	7.39	6.36
W-LEC-2I	7.96	7.07	4.95	3.15		5.71	5.74	5.94	5.60
	3.49	2.39	1.58	1.23	R-LEC-	2.57	1.67	1.28	1.89
W-LEC-2R	3.33	2.34	1.73	1.54	2R	2.60	1.64	1.29	1.64
	5.86	3.81	2.63	1.86	R-LEC-	6,94	5.43	4.27	4.60
W-LEC-6R	5.25	3.38	2.35	1.77	6R	6.20	4.38	3.46	4.02

C.1.1.2 f_{R,i} [MPa] at 0.5 mm, 1.5 mm, 2.5 mm and 3.5 mm

C.1.1.3 f_{eq3} [MPa] and $R_{e,3}$

Mix	f_{eq3}	$R_{e,3}$	Mix	f_{eq3}	$R_{e,3}$
W-CIP-0			R -CIP-0		
W-CIP-2I	4.35	0.77	$R-CIP-2I$	8.10	1.15
	4.60	0.81		6.30	1.01
W-CIP-2R	1.87	0.37	$R-CIP-2R$	2.08	0.48
	1.85	0.39		1.95	0.35
W-CIP-6R	4.88	0.68	R-CIP-6R	4.25	0.75
	4.69	0.77		4.71	0.83
W-LEC-0	٠		R-LEC-0		\blacksquare
					\bullet
W-LEC-2I	4.01	0.65	R-LEC-2I	6.36	0.91
	5.57	0.81		5.60	0.74
W-LEC-2R	2.25	0.37	R-LEC-2R	1.89	0.27
	2.33	0.34		1.64	0.22
W-LEC-6R	3.45	0.47	R-LEC-6R	4.60	0.70
	2.97	0.43		4.02	0.60

C.1.2 Flexural Curves

C.1.2.1 W-CIP-0

C.1.2.3 W-CIP-2R

C.1.2.4 W-CIP-6R

C.1.2.5 W-LEC-0

C.1.2.6 W-LEC-2I

C.1.2.7 W-LEC-2R

C.1.2.8 W-LEC-6R

C.1.2.9 R-CIP-0

C.1.2.10 R-CIP-2I

C.1.2.11 R-CIP-2R

C.1.2.12 R-CIP-6R

C.1.2.13 R-LEC-0

C.1.2.14 R-LEC-2I

C.1.2.15 R-LEC-2R

C.1.2.16 R-LEC-6R

C.1.2.18 R-CIP-6R - pre-cracking before corrosion simulation (ambient temperature) tested up to 10 months of corrosion simulation

C.1.2.19 R-CIP-6R - pre-cracking before corrosion simulation $(40^{\circ}C)$ – tested up to 5 months of corrosion simulation

C.1.2.20 R-CIP-6R - pre-cracking before corrosion simulation $(40^{\circ}C)$ – tested up to 10 months of corrosion simulation

C.2 SPECIMENS EXPOSED TO WET-DRY CYCLES - 5 MONTHS

C.2.l Flexural properties

C.2.1.1 f_{LOP} and f_{ult} [MPa]

Mix	$F_{R,0.5}$	$F_{R,1.5}$	$F_{R,2.5}$	$F_{R,3.5}$	Mix	$F_{R,0.5}$	$F_{R,1.5}$	$F_{R,2.5}$	$F_{R,3,5}$
W-CIP-21	7.51	5.88	2.88	1.64	R-CIP-21	9.12	5.76	4.12	3.01
	4.58	4.61	2.98	1.78		12.79	9.80	5.63	4.18
	9.22	7.24	4.91	3.57		9.40	8.44	5.82	2.93
W-CIP-6R	6.10	4.19	2.82	2.16		9.14	7.47	5.83	4.53
	6.01	4.03	2.96	2.18	R-CIP-6R	8.98	7.66	6.05	4.82
	5.97	3.78	2.57	1.95		8.90	6.26	4.79	3.77
	10.61	7.65	2.77	2.86		10.14	10.39	8.87	8.47
W-LEC-2I	11.66	9.25	7.26	5.14	$R-LEC-2I$	8.00	8.15	7.50	5.25
	13.34	9.75	3.72	3.80		5.30	6.18	6.05	4.84
	8.42	5.66	4.01	2.99	R-LEC- 6R	6.44	4.48	2.93	2.00
W-LEC-6R	9.35	6.61	4.67	3.31		6.45	4.43	3.29	2.40
	8.45	5.36	3.44	2.46		6.72	4.86	3.30	2.32
	6.42	4.60	3.43	2.61	R-CIP-6R 40 °C	10.31	7.44	5.46	4.17
R-CIP-6R pre-cracked	6.72	4.02	2.96	2.17		9.91	8.52	6.45	4.88
	8.68	5.28	3.78	3.03		8.85	6.69	5.64	4.13
R-CIP-6R pre-cracked 40 °C	8.35	5.39	4.07	3.60					
	7.77	5.45	4.14	3.31					
	6.90	4.38	3.57	2.88					

C.2.1.2 f_{R,i} [MPa] at 0.5 mm, 1.5 mm, 2.5 mm and 3.5 mm

Mix	f_{eq3}	$R_{c,3}$	Mix	f_{eq3}	$R_{e,3}$
	4.18	0.81		5.09	0.65
W-CIP-2I	3.19	0.69	$R-CIP-2I$	7.46	0.87
	5.42	0.89		5.87	0.76
	3.70	0.55		6.72	0.92
W-CIP-6R	3.38	0.65	R-CIP-6R	6.70	0.87
	3.55	0.55		5.56	0.85
	5.56	0.83		9.10	1.17
W-LEC-21	7.64	1.07	$R-LEC-2I$	6.71	0.93
	7.27	1.04		5.43	0.88
	4.80	0.61		3.95	0.64
W-LEC-6R	5.47	0.68	R-LEC-6R	3.92	0.60
	4.46	0.64		4.04	0.59
	3.01	0.61		7.01	0.81
R-CIP-6R pre-cracked	3.54	0.95	R-CIP-6R 40 °C	7.26	0.77
	4.56	0.97		6.10	0.75
R -CIP-6 R	4.93	1.08			
pre-cracked	4.91	1.00			
40 °C	4.18	0.85			

C.2.1.3 f_{eq3} [MPa] and $R_{e,3}$

C.2.2 Flexural Curves

C.2.2.l **W -CIP-21**

C.2.2.2 **W -CIP-6R**

C.2.2.3 W-LEC-2I

C.2.2.5 R-CIP-2I

C.2.2.7 R-LEC-2I

C.2.2.9 R-CIP-6R, PRE-CRACKED

C.2.2.10 R-CIP-6R, 40°C

C.2.2.11 R-CIP-6R, PRE-CRACKED, 40°C

C.3 SPECIMENS EXPOSED TO WET-DRY CYCLES - 10 MONTHS

C.3.1 Flexural properties

C.3.1.1 f_{LOP} and f_{ult} [MPa]

Mix	$F_{R,0.5}$	$F_{R,1.5}$	$F_{R,2.5}$	$F_{R,3.5}$	Mix	$F_{R,0.5}$	$F_{R,1.5}$	$F_{R,2.5}$	$F_{R,3,5}$
W-CIP-21	6.75	5.25	2.64	2.04		9.01	6.21	5.04	3.46
	10.11	4.80	4.57	2.32	$R-CIP-2I$	9.90	6.50	4.20	3.31
	7.82	5.76	3.49	1.44		8.23	5.87	3.57	2.62
W-CIP-6R	6.97	4.45	2.66	1.83		9.35	6.77	4.69	3.89
	5.24	4.78	2.54	2.27	R-CIP-6R	8.66	6.40	4.87	3.65
	6.92	4.07	2.93	2.19		8.51	6.74	5.03	3.80
W-LEC-2I	9.97	9.34	3.48	1.68	R-LEC-21	10.53	9.88	7.80	7.63
	8.64	4.56	2.55	1.12		8.27	7.81	6.03	6.86
	8.81	6.24	2.99	1.51		8.50	7.86	5.84	4.45
	8.02	5.31	3.82	2.90	R-LEC- 6R	6.27	4.44	3.17	2.41
W-LEC-6R	8.08	5.38	3.97	2.26		4.80	3.32	2.39	1.87
	10.37	6.92	3.91	3.92		5.84	3.75	2.70	1.88
	5.69	4.22	3.22	2.65	R-CIP-6R 40 °C	10.00	6.98	5.02	3.73
R-CIP-6R pre-cracked	5.47	3.91	2.89	2.16		8.51	6.07	4.64	3.11
	7.41	5.80	4.13	3.05		8.35	6.71	5.19	4.02
R-CIP-6R pre-cracked 40 °C	7.74	5.50	3.60	3.49					
	7.57	4.39	4.00	3.25					
	7.31	5.11	3.72	2.89					

C.3.1.2 f_{R,i} [MPa] at 0.5 mm, 1.5 mm, 2.5 mm and 3.5 mm

C.3.1.4 E [GPa]

C.3.2 Flexural Curves

C.3.2.1 W-CIP-2I

C.3.2.3 W-LEC-2I

C.3.2.5 R-CIP-2I

C.3.2.7 R-LEC-2I

C.3.2.8 R-LEC-6R

C.3.2.9 R-CIP-6R, PRE-CRACKED

C.3.2.10 R-CIP-6R, 40°C

C.3.2.11 R-CIP-6R, PRE-CRACKED, 40°C

C.4 SPECIMENS EXPOSED TO FREEZE-THA W CYCLES

C.4.l Flexural properties

C.4.1.1 f_{LOP} and f_{ult} [MPa]

C.4.1.2 $f_{R,i}$ [MPa] at 0.5 mm, 1.5 mm, 2.5 mm and 3.5 mm

Mix	$F_{R,0.5}$	$F_{R,1.5}$		$F_{R,2.5}$ $F_{R,3.5}$	Mix	$F_{R,0.5}$	$F_{R,1.5}$	$F_{R,2.5}$	$F_{R,3.5}$
W-LEC-2I	3.82	2.09	1.12		0.85 $R-LEC-2I$	4.91	5.28	4.95	4.32
	7.45	3.45	1.29	1.40		4.74	4.51	4.67	4.13
W-LEC-6R	9.27	6.54	2.43	3.46	R-LEC- 6R	6.14 5.21		4.01	3.20
	8.18	5.98	4.26	3.16		6.39	5.45	4.27	3.30

C.4.1.3 f_{eq3} [MPa] and $R_{e,3}$

C.4.1.4 E [GPa]

C.4.2 Flexural Curves

C.4.2.2 W-LEC-2I

C.4.2.4 R-LEC-0

C.4.2.6 R-LEC-6R

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D. FEAANALYSIS

The FEA analysis was performed by using the Abaqus/CAE® software, version 6.9-1. Two analyses were carried out: 1) using the beam *E21* element type and 2) using the plane stress *CPS4I* element type.

D.l BEAM ELEMENT TYPE

This analysis was carried out to first verify the accuracy of the results of the modulus of elasticity obtained from the elastic beam theory (Equation 19, Section 4.4.2.3). A defonnable 20 planar wire-like element was created, with a cross section of 150 mm to 150 mm and length of550 mm (span of 450 mm).

The element type used was the $B21 - 2$ -noded linear beam in plane. The length of the finite elements was approximately 10 mm. Load was applied following the third-point load configuration as used in the experimental setup (Figure 64, Section 4.4.2.2).

The modulus of elasticity used was 32.5 GPa, the coefficient of poison was 0.18 and the total load applied to the system was 10 kN (divided into 2 concentrated loads of 5 kN). These parameters were obtained from mix W-CIP-O.

The vertical displacement contour graph is shown in Figure 0.1. The vertical displacement at the mid-span of the beam was 0.01464 mm, which matches with the vertical displacement measured in the experiments.

Figure D.1 – Vertical displacement contour graph for beam element type, considering concentrated loads.

Another analysis was carried out to consider the load-spreading effect. For that, the concentrated loads were substituted by pressure loads following the load configuration shown in Figure 99, Section 5.3.4. The magnitude of the total vertical load applied to the system remained the same as in the previous analysis (10 kN).

The vertical displacement contour graph obtained considering the pressure load is shown in Figure D.2. The vertical displacement in the mid-span is now reduced to 0.01439 mm (a 2% reduction compared to the analysis with concentrated loads).

Figure D.2 - Vertical displacement contour graph for beam element type, considering the loadspreading effect.

0 .2 PLANE STRESS ELEMENT TYPE

This analysis was carried to account for the load-spreading and other effects that may influence the modulus of elasticity of the material. A deformable 2D planar shell-like element was used for the model. The model dimension was 550 mm in length 150 mm in depth, with a span of 450 mm. The thickness of the element was considered to be 150 mm.

The element type used for the analysis was the $CPS4I - 4$ -noded bilinear plane stress quadrilateral, incompatible modes. The size of the finite elements was approximately 10 mm.

Two concentrated loads (5 kN each) were applied through steel plates in contact with the top of the specimen. The same load-configuration used in the experiments was used in this analysis (Figure 64, Section 4.4.2.2). The modulus of elasticity and Poisson ratio were the same used in the previous analysis (32.5 GPa and 0.18, respectively).

The vertical displacement contour graph is shown in Figure D.3. The mid-span vertical displacement in the top of the beam was equal to 0.01853 mm. However, due to the local deformation in the regions next to the supports (equal to 0.004149 mm), the real mid-span vertical displacement should be 0.01853 mm $- 0.004149$ mm $= 0.01438$ mm. This value is basically the same as the displacement obtained considering the load-spreading effect in the previous analysis (0.01439 mm). Hence, it is reasonable to assume that deep elements, such as the prism used in the experimental programme of this thesis (550 mm \times 150 mm \times 150 mm), is affected by the load-spreading effect. However, the reduction in the displacements caused by the load-spreading effect (approximately 2%) does not cause any significant change (also approximately 2%) in the modulus of elasticity of the material.

Finally, the effect of the notch was also investigated through FEA. A similar model as the previous one was used, with the inclusion of the notch in the bottom mid-span on the prism. The notch was 3 mm wide and 25 mm deep, following the same conditions used in the experiments.

Figure D.4 hows the ertical displacement contour graph for the notched beam. The mid-span ertical displacement in the top of the beam was equal to 0.02143 mm. Considering the effect of the local deformation near the supports, this displacement drops to 0.01690 mm.

Figure 0.4 - Vertical displacement contour graph for plane stress element type (notched beam).

If the effect of the notch is taken into account, there is a 17% increase in the displacements compared to the un-notched prism. However, as previously mentioned in section D.1 of this appendix, the experimental displacements were similar to the results of the FEA for the unnotched prism. Since the displacements obtained from the notched prism FEA analysis were higher than the experimental results (both analyses considered the same modulus of elasticity), the FEA analysis should consider a higher modulus of elasticity (of 17%) for the displacements to comply with the experimental results.

Nevertheless, it is not realistic to have even higher values of modulus of elasticity than the ones obtained experimentally. For this reason, the values of modulus of elasticity calculated based on the elastic beam theory (considering un-notched prisms) were considered as valid for the purpose of this study.

APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E. TABLE OF RESULTS - DENSITY, POROSITY AND FREE-SHRINKAGE

E.1 DENSITY AND POROSITY - 105°C

E.2 DENSITY AND POROSITY - 80°C

E.3 DENSITY AND POROSITY - 50°C

a
no measurements due to damaged stud

 b no measurements – compensated by measurement at 5 days.

APPENDIX F

APPENDIX F. RESULTS - PERMEABILITY, SORPTIVITY AND CHLORIDE CONTENT

F.1 PERMEABILITY (m²) – 50 °C, 80 °C AND 105 °C (RCC MIXES)

^a results not recorded due to high permeability of mix

 b specimen with compaction problem – permeability not measured</sup>

Mix	50 °C	80 °C	105 °C
W-CIP-0	$0.10E-16$	$0.26E-16$	$0.82E-16$
	0.15E-16	$0.32E-16$	$0.88E-16$
	$0.09E-16$	$0.23E-16$	
	$0.14E-16$	$0.27E-16$	
	$0.21E-16$	$0.29E-16$	
$W\text{-}CIP-2I$	$0.18E-16$	$0.38E-16$	$0.98E-16$
	$0.13E-16$	$0.39E-16$	0.98E-16
	$0.18E-16$	$0.31E-16$	
	$0.12E-16$	$0.28E-16$	
	$0.11E-16$	0.31E-16	
W-CIP-2R	$0.25E-16$	$0.22E-16$	$1.01E-16$
	$0.23E-16$	$0.17E-16$	$0.83E-16$
	$0.27E-16$	$0.19E-16$	
	$0.41E-16$	$0.23E-16$	
	0.35E-16	$0.25E-16$	
W-CIP-6R	$0.28E-16$	$0.19E-16$	0.76E-16
	0.18E-16	$0.17E-16$	$0.76E-16$
	$0.26E-16$	$0.17E-16$	
	$0.13E-16$	$0.20E-16$	
	0.31E-16	$0.23E-16$	
W-LEC-0	$0.24E-16$	$0.61E-16$	$1.21E-16$
	$0.30E-16$	$0.60E-16$	1.05E-16
	$0.16E-16$	$0.63E-16$	
	0.31E-16	$0.54E-16$	
	$0.17E-16$	$0.63E-16$	
W-LEC-2I	$0.20E-16$	$0.67E-16$	$0.65E-16$
	$0.17E-16$	$0.50E-16$	$0.94E-16$
	0.31E-16	$0.57E-16$	
	$0.14E-16$	$0.47E-16$	
	$0.16E-16$	$0.61E-16$	
W-LEC-2R	$0.30E-16$	$0.42E-16$	1.16E-16
	$0.25E-16$	$0.42E-16$	$1.21E-16$
	$0.49E-16$	$0.45E-16$	
	$0.54E-16$	$0.45E-16$	
	$0.44E-16$	$0.50E-16$	
W-LEC-6R	$0.10E-16$	$0.24E-16$	$0.66E-16$
	$0.08E-16$	$0.43E-16$	0.59E-16
	$0.07E-16$	$0.29E-16$	
	$0.10E-16$	$0.32E-16$	
	$0.13E-16$	$0.32E-16$	

F.2 PERMEABILITY (m²) – 50 °C, 80 °C AND 105 °C (WET MIXES)

F.3 SORPTIVITY $(kg/m^2h^{0.5})$ – TABLE OF RESULTS – 50°C AND 80°C

F.4 SORPTIVITY - GRAPHS OF SLOPE - 50°C

Long-term Perfo rmance of Recycled Stee l Fibre Re info rced Concrete fo r Pa veme nt Applications

Page | $F.6$

F.5 **SORPTIVITY - GRAPHS OF SLOPE - 80°C**

Long -t erm Performan ce of Recycled Steel Fibr e Reinforced Concre te fo r Pave ment Applications

Long-term Perfo rmance of Recyc led Stee l Fibre Reinforced Concrete fo r Pa vement Applica tions

P age I **F.9**

F.6 CHLORIDE CONTENT (% MASS OF CONCRETE) - TABLE OF RESULTS

F.7 CHLORIDE CONTENT - GRAPHS OF CONDUCTIVITY

x axis - *silver nitrate volume*

y axis - *change in conductivity*

P age I **F.13**

P age I **F.14**

APPENDIX G

APPENDIX G. COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH

G.l WET MIXES (MPa)

G.2 RCC MIXES (MPa)

APPENDIX H

APPENDIX H. FUNDAMENTAL OF CHLORIDE INGRESS

H.I CHLORIDE INGRESS IN FULLY-SATURATED CONDITION

The value of $C(x,t_{sl})$ from Equation 32 (Section 10.2.1) is obtained according to Equation 12, in Section 3.2.1.3, which describes the chloride ingress in fully-saturated condition, based on a one-dimensional ingress of chlorides. Due to the geometric characteristics of concrete pavements (large horizontal area versus minimum vertical area), it is reasonable to assume that the ingress of chlorides is an one-dimensional process (vertically from the horizontal surface towards the interior of concrete).

The parameters that govern the equation are the diffusion coefficient, the time of exposure to chloride environment, the depth of the concrete and the surface chloride concentration of the concrete.

The chloride diffusion coefficient of concrete governs the transport of chloride ions into concrete (Section 3.2.1.3). As already reported by various authors (Saetta *et al.,* 1993; Xi and Bazant, 1999; Martin-Pérez et al., 2001; Ababneh et al., 2003; Val and Trapper, 2008; Kwon et *al.*, 2009), the chloride diffusion coefficient D_c [m²/s] is influenced by various factors. The chloride diffusion coefficient can be estimated as follows:

$$
D_c = D_{c,ref} \times f_1(t) \times f_2(g_i) \times f_3(H) \times f_4(T) \times f_5(C_f) \times f_6(w)
$$
 (H.1)

Where:

 $D_{c,ref}$ is the value of D_c at reference conditions (e.g. temperature, time of curing, relative humidity), measured by experimental tests

- $f_1(t)$ = function that accounts for the age of concrete
- $f_2(g_i)$ = function that accounts for the composite action of aggregates and the cement paste
- $f_3(H)$ = function that accounts for the variations of relative humidity
- $f_4(T)$ = function that accounts for the variations of the temperature

 $f_5(C_f)$ = function that accounts for the concentration of free chloride in the pore solution

$$
f_6(w)
$$
 = function that accounts for the effect of cracks

Due to the lack of experimental results, models were developed from various authors to account for the various parameters that influence the chloride diffusion coefficient. Some of models are explained below.

Influence of age

Some of the most used $f(t)$ models that account for the effect of age on the diffusion coefficient are explained as follows.

Some authors (Martin-Perez *et al.,* 2001; fib, 2006; Val and Trapper, 2008) used the expression described in Equation H.2:

$$
f(t) = \left(\frac{t_{ref}}{t}\right)^s \tag{H.2}
$$

Where:

 t_{ref} = reference time [usually 28 days]

 $s = age$ factor, depending on the mix proportions. Commonly used values of m vary from 0.2 to 0.6 (fib, 2006; Kwon *et al., 2009).*

Kwon *et al.* (2009) used the method proposed by Luping and Gulikers (2007) to estimate the time-dependent diffusion. The equations are shown below.

$$
f(t) = \left(\frac{1}{1-m}\right) \left(\frac{t_{ref}}{t \times 365}\right)^s \qquad \qquad t < 30 \text{ years} \tag{H.3}
$$

$$
f(t) = \left[1 + \frac{30 \times 365}{t} \left(\frac{s}{1-s}\right)\right] \left(\frac{t_{ref}}{30 \times 365}\right)^s \qquad \text{t \geq 30 years} \tag{H.4}
$$

The diffusion coefficient after 30 years seems to stabilise, which explains the use of different equations.

Influence of composite action of aggregates and cement paste

The influence of composite action of the aggregates and the cement paste $f(g)$ is based on the composite theory proposed by Christensen (1979), shown in Equation H.S.

P age I **H.3**

$$
f(g_i) = D_{cp} \left\{ 1 + \frac{g_i}{\frac{1 - g_i}{3} + \frac{1}{D_{cp}} - 1} \right\}
$$
 (H.5)

Where:

 g_i = volume fraction of aggregates

 D_{cp} = chloride diffusion coefficient of the cement paste

 D_{agg} = chloride diffusion coefficient of the aggregates

D_{cp} and D_{agg} can be calculated based on the model proposed by Martys *et al.* (1994), shown in Equation H.6.

$$
D_{cp} \text{ or } D_{agg} = \frac{2[1 - (v_p - v_p^c)]}{S^2} (V_p - V_p^c)^{4.2}
$$
 (H.6)

Where:

 V_p = porosity

 $S =$ specific surface area $=$ $\frac{surface\ area}{bulk\ volume}$

 V_p^c = critical porosity (pore space that is first percolated) = 3% (Martys *et al.*, 1994)

It is important to note that not many authors account for the effect of composite action of aggregates and cement paste on the diffusion coefficient.

Influence of relative humidity

The model $f(H)$ developed by Bazant and Najjar (1972) is commonly used to account for the humidity H of the concrete (H = $0 \rightarrow 1$). The model is shown in Equation H.7.

$$
f(H) = \left[1 + \frac{(1-H)^4}{(1-H_c)^4}\right]^{-1}
$$
 (H.7)

Where:

 H_c = critical humidity level at which the diffusion coefficient drops halfway between its maximum and minimum value = 0.75 (75 %).

Influence of temperature

The expression that represents the influence of the temperature $f(T)$ is based on the Arrhenius' law (Equation H.8).

$$
f(T) = exp\left[\frac{U}{R}\left(\frac{1}{T_0} - \frac{1}{T}\right)\right]
$$
 (H.8)

Where:

- $U =$ activation energy of the chloride diffusion process [kJ/mol]
- $R = gas constant = 8.314E-3 kJ/mol.K$
- T_0 = reference temperature = 296 K (23 °C)
- $T =$ temperature of the concrete [K]

The activation energy depends on the w/c ratio of the concrete. According to Page et al. (1981), $U = 41.8 \pm 4.0$ kJ/mol for w/c = 0.4, $U = 44.6 \pm 4.3$ kJ/mol for w/c = 0.5 and $U = 32.0 \pm 2.4$ kJ/mol for $w/c = 0.6$.

Influence of the concentration of free chlorides in the pore solution

The movement of free chloride ions is restricted by the electrostatic field induced by the presence of other ions in the solution. According to Xi and Bazant (1999), the expression $f(C)$ that describes this effect is shown below.

$$
f(C_f) = 1 - k_{ion}(C_f)^m
$$
 (H.9)

Where:

 C_f = concentration of free chlorides in the pore solution [% by mass of concrete]

 k_{ion} = constant = 8.333 (Xi and Bazant, 1999)

 $m = constant = 0.5$ (Xi and Bazant, 1999)

Influence of cracks

Kwon et al. (2009) proposed the following empirical equation *f(w).* based on data of two cracked wharves of South Korea, for the determination of the influence of cracks on the chloride diffusion coefficient (Equation H.10).

$$
f(w) = 31.61w^2 + 4.73w + 1
$$
 (H.10)

Where:

 $w =$ crack width [mm]

H.2 CHLORIDE INGRESS IN NON-SATURATED CONDITION

Even though a large number of studies consider the fully-saturation condition for modelling the chloride ingress into concrete, this simplified assumption does not apply to real conditions as explained next.

The chloride ingress into concrete is governed by three mechanisms: diffusion, convection and electric potential (Ababneh *et al.,* 2003). The diffusion involves the transport of ions in fullysaturated condition, as explained in Section 3.2.1.3. The convection is responsible for the transport of ions due to the movement of the pore solution by moisture gradient, and is described in this subsection. The electric potential exists only when an external electric potential (e.g. electric current for accelerated tests) is applied to the structure and, for this reason, is usually not accounted to described chloride ingress into concrete.

To account for the coupled influence of diffusion and moisture movement, the chloride ingress into concrete (in a one-dimensional configuration) can be described as follows (e.g. Val and Trapper, 2008):

$$
\frac{\partial c_t}{\partial t} = D_c \left(\frac{\partial^2 c_f}{\partial x^2} \right) + D_h C_f \left(\frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial x^2} \right)
$$
\nDiffusion

\nMoisture

Where:

- C_t = total concentration of chlorides [kg/m³ of concrete]
- C_f = concentration of free chloride ions [kg/m³ of pore solution]
- H = pore relative humidity, ranging from $0(0\%)$ to $1(100\%)$
- D_c = chloride diffusion coefficient $[m^2/s]$
- D_f = humidity diffusion coefficient $[m^2/s]$

 $t = time$ [seconds]

 $x = depth of concrete [m]$

To solve the differential equation shown above, the first step is to account for the moisture movement effect alone, and then use the solution obtained from this analysis to solve the main equation shown above.

Moisture transport equation

The moisture transport in concrete, as a function of the gradient of the pore relative humidity H can be described as (e.g. Val and Trapper, 2008):

$$
\frac{\partial w_e}{\partial h} \frac{\partial H}{\partial t} = D_h \left(\frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial x^2} \right) \tag{H.12}
$$

Where:

 D_h = humidity diffusion coefficient $[m^2/s]$

 $rac{\partial w_e}{\partial h}$ = moisture capacity

 w_e = evaporable water content $[m^3$ pore solution/m³ concrete]

The humidity diffusion coefficient depends on a series of factors, including age, temperature and humidity of concrete (Saetta et al., 1993; Ababneh et al., 2003; Val and Trapper, 2008). The parameter $\frac{\partial w_e}{\partial h}$ can be determined according to the sorption and adsorption isotherms⁶⁰ of concrete. Some models to predict the isotherms are detailed elsewhere (Saetta *et al., 1993;* Ababneh *et al.,* 2003; Val and Trapper, 2008).

The solution of the non-linear equation is usually made numerically by finite-difference method. However, due to the fact that the parameters that influence the moisture transport into concrete are also non-linear (D_h and $\frac{\partial w_e}{\partial h}$ depend on the gradient of h), the numerical solution does not converge easily.

Moreover, the parameters D_h and $\frac{\partial w_e}{\partial h}$ are based on a large number of constants and variables that are not easy to obtain experimentally, which leads to various assumptions and a large degree of uncertainty of the model.

The non-saturated method to model the chloride ingress is more realistic in terms of describing most of the real conditions to which structures are exposed. Therefore, there is a need to

 60 Sorption and adsorption isotherms represent the relationship between water content and equilibrium humidity, for both processes of water penetration (sorption) and drying (desorption) of concrete.

understand the parameters that influence the model, especially when dealing with new concrete technologies, including the use of new cement types (such as the LEC) and the addition of recycled steel fibres into concrete.

Therefore, for practical implications, Fick's second law of diffusion was used in this thesis to predict the serviceability limit state of concrete pavements exposed to chloride environments, based on the fully-saturated condition.

Effect of biding capacity

Apart from the coupled effect of convection and diffusion, the models for non-saturated chloride ingress also account for the chloride binding capacity of the cement.

The threshold chloride limit (critical chloride content) of concrete is usually expressed as the total mass of chlorides per mass of concrete or per mass of cement. However, chloride-induced corrosion is only affected by the amount of free chlorides circulating in the concrete pore structure. Only the free chlorides are responsible for depassivation and corrosion initiation in RC structures (Luping and Nilsson, 1993).

The binding capacity of concrete is the slope of the relationship between free and bound chlorides ions in concrete, which is defined as binding isotherm (Val and Trapper, 2008). Two binding isotherms are commonly used to describe this relationship: Langmuir and Freundlich.

The Langmuir relationship is expressed by Equation H.l3, while Freundlich relationship is expressed in Equation H.14.

$$
C_{bc} = \frac{a_L c_{fc}}{1 + \beta_L c_{fc}}
$$
 (H.13)

$$
C_{bc} = \alpha_F C_{fc}^{\beta_F} \tag{H.14}
$$

Where:

 C_{bc} = concentration of bound chlorides [% mass of cement]

 C_{fc} = concentration of free chlorides [kg/m³ solution]

 $\alpha_L, \alpha_F, \beta_L, \beta_F$ = binding constants that can be found by fitting the isotherms to experimental data using regression analysis

The binding constants are influenced mainly by the amount of C_3A in the cementitious material. As reported in section 6.3, C_3A reacts with chlorides forming chloro-aluminates compounds.

APPENDIX I

APPENDIX I. MATLAB SCRIPTS

1.1 CHLORIDE INGRESS

```
% this file calculates the chloride ingress in concrete due to fully-
saturated condition 
Clear 
%disp('Resistance Component:')
A_Cr=5.31, B_Cr=18.58, 
%disp('Loading Component: ') 
mean Dref=4.68, var Dref=O.876 
mu Dref=log((mean Dref<sup>^2)</sup>/sqrt(var Dref+mean Dref<sup>^2</sup>));
sigma Dref=sqrt(log(var_Dref/(mean_Dref^2)+1));
mean ur=4800, std ur=700
A a=5.8, B_a=3.87
Co=0.0Cs = 0.89mean_CC=O.007, std CC=O.0014 
time=20 
width=O 
temperature=293 
n=40000 % ('please type number of simulations = ')
ur=normrnd(mean_ur,std_ur,n,1);
Cr=0.2+(2-0.2). *betarnd(A Cr, B Cr, n, 1);a=beta(A_a,A_a,n,1);
CC=normal(mean CC, std CC, n, 1);Dref=lognrnd(mu Dref,sigma_Dref,n,1);
ft = (58 / (time * 365)). <sup>2</sup>a;
fT=exp(ur.*((1/293)-(1/temperature)));
f_{w=31.61*} (width<sup>2</sup>)+4.73*width+1;
```
 $Dm=Dref.*10^ -12.*365.*86400.*ft.*fw.*fT:$

```
X=2.*sqrt(Dm.*time);
z=CC./Xi 
Y=erf(Z);
Ccl=Co+(Cs-Co) .*(l-Y) i
G=Cr-Ccli
```
Crl=mean (Cr) *i*

```
%histfit(Cr), hold on 
%histfit(Ccl) 
%xlabel('Capacity') ,ylabel('Frequency') 
\texttt{ileqend('Cr', 'Ccl')}
```
number failures=sum(G<0)

```
Probability of failure=number failures./n
```

```
%figure, histfit(G) 
%xlabel('Safety Margin') ,ylabel('Frequency') 
\text{Legend}('G')
```
1.2 FREEZE-THA W

```
%this file calculates the reliability of frost-salt induced surface 
scaling 
clear 
%number of simulations 
n=36500i 
%resistance temperature (assumed - Cai and Liu, 1998) 
mean_Tr=270.5, min_Tr=268, max_Tr=273 
TR = m\bar{1}n Tr+(max Tr-min Tr)*betarnd((mean Tr-min Tr)/(max Tr-
min_T), (max_T-mean_Tr)/(max_T-min_Tr),n,1);
%ageing coefficient (LEC) 
A_m=2.33, B_m=2.85 
m=betarnd(2.33,2.85) 
%time of exposure 
time=22i 
%NCP=cumulative number of cycles from previous years of exposure -
change 
%manually 
mean NCP=4.45, std NCP=O.445 
NCP=normal(mean NCP, std NCP, n, 1);%ageing equation 
fT=exp(m.*(1-((28/(time.*365)).^0.5));TR2 = (TR - 273) . * fT;TR3 = TR2 + 273;
%concrete temperature (Sheffield, UK) 
mean_Tair=275.9, std_Tair=3.2 
Tair=normrnd(mean_Tair,std_Tair,n,l) ;
```

```
Tsky=(1.2.*(Tair-273)-14)+273; 
ar=4.*0.9.*5.67E-8.* (((Tsky-Tair).<sup>^</sup>3)./2);
acv=6+4*4.12;Tt = (Tair) + (ar./(ar+acy)). * (Tsky-Tair);
%number of corresponding accelerated freezing wet cycles 
Ti = -15;for i=1:n<br>if Tt(i,:Tt(i,1) < TR3(i,1)end 
    N c(i, 1) = ((T t(i, 1) - 273) . 2) . / ((Ti) . 2);else 
    NC(i,1)=0;end 
Nc1=sum(Nc);%number of effective freezing cycles 
Ne2=Ne1/200; 
%number of effective wet cycles 
Nwd=85; 
Nwfc=(Ne2.*Nwd) ./(365/2); 
N=Nwfe+NCP; 
%('Scaling Resistance Component: ') 
mean_Ser=O.6, min_Scr=O.48, max_Scr=O.72 
Scr=min Scr+(max Scr-min Scr)*betarnd((mean Scr-min Scr)/(max Scr-
min Scr), (max Scr-mean Scr)/(max Scr-min Scr), n, 1);
%histfit(Scr), hold on 
%histfit (Sc1)
%xlabel('Capacity') ,ylabel('Frequency') 
%legend('Ser', 'Sel') 
%('Scaling Load Component: ') 
k=4%l=W-LEC-O, W-LEC-2I; 2=W-LEC-6R; 3=R-LEC-O, R-LEC-2I; 4=R-LEC-6R 
%for k=l 
     lSc=-0.0017.*(log(N))+0.0012;%for k=2 
% lSc=-0.0028. * (log(N)) +0.0023;
%for k=3 
% lSc=-0.0135. * (loq(N)) + 0.008;
for k=4 
end 
    lSc=-0.0085.*(log(N))+0.0063;Sc=(1-(10.^2 \text{1Sc})).*100;
%model uncertainty due to full-saturated condition 
mean mU1=O.8, var mu1=O.016 
mu mu1=log((mean mu1^2)/sqrt(var_mu1+mean_mu1^2));
sigma_mmul=sqrt(log(var_mul/(mean_mul^2)+1));
mu1 =lognrnd(mu_mul,sigma_mul,n,1);
Sc1=mul.*Sc; 
G=Ser-Sel;
```
number_failures=sum{G<O)i

probability_of_failure=number_failures./n

%figure, histfit(GI %xlabel('Safety Margin'l,ylabel('Frequency') %legend('G')

APPENDIX J

APPENDIX J. FATIGUE RESULTS

J.1 FLEXURAL STRENGTH CURVES CARRIED OUT AT UFRGS

J.1.1 W-CIP-O

J.1.2 W-CIP-2R

1.1.3 W-CIP-6R

1.1.4 R-CIP-O

J.1.5 R-CIP-21

J.1.6 R-CIP-2R

1.1.7 R-CIP-6R

J.2 NUMBER OF CYCLES UNTIL FAILURE FOR WET MIXES

k,

J.3 NUMBER OF CYCLES UNTIL FAILURE FOR RCC MIXES

J.4 PROCEDURES FOR THE GRAPHICAL METHOD PROBABILISTIC ANALYSIS

After ranking the specimens according to the number of cycles until failure per stress level, and after discarding some results based on the Chauvenet's criterion of rejection (see detailed information in Section 10.4), the graphs for the probabilistic analysis are plotted following the steps shown below:

Step 1) $p_f - log(N)$ curves: The $p_f - log(N)$ curves are plotted for each stress level investigated, by using data from Table J.I (mix R-CIP-O), grouped vertically as shown by the red rectangles. The $p_f - log(N)$ curves for mix R-CIP-0 is shown in Figure J.1.

Figure J.1 – $p_f - log(N)$ curves for mix R-CIP-0.

Step 2) $s - log(N)$ curves: The number of cycles until failure is then plotted against the stress level according to the probability of failure for each rank. This is performed by using the data from Table J.1, grouped horizontally as shown by the blue rectangles. The $s - log(N)$ curves for mix R-CIP-O is shown in Figure J.2.

Figure $J.2 - s - log(N)$ curves for mix R-CIP-0.

Step 3) $s - p_f$ curves: by graphical interpolation of the $s - log(N)$ curves obtained from step 2, the third graph correlating s and p_f can be plotted.

To obtain the values to plot the $s - p_f$ curves, some specific number of cycles were selected: 4000, 10000, 100000, 500000 and 1000000. The number of cycles chosen may vary depending on the circumstances. A vertical line should then be drawn regarding all the number of cycles selected (in terms of $log(N)$). This is exemplified by the red line in Figure J.3, for 10000 cycles. The red vertical line should reach the linear regression lines for each probability of failure. Horizontal lines are then drawn to obtain the stress level for each probability of failure, as shown by the blue arrows in Figure J.3.

Figure $J.3 - s - log(N)$ curves for mix R-CIP-0.

A table is then developed with the chosen values of log(N) and stress levels obtained by the graphical interpolation shown above, as shown in Table J.2 (mix R-CIP-0).

Finally, the graph $s - p_f$ is then plotted (Figure J.4) based on the values shown in the above table. Graphs from Figures J.1, J.2 and J.4 are then gathered together as shown in Figure 254 to Figure 260 in Chapter 10.

Figure K.4 – s – p_f curves for mix R-CIP-0.

K.5 PROCEDURES ON HOW TO OBTAIN THE EXPERIMENTAL COEFFICIENTS FOR THE FATIGUE MA THEMA TICAL MODEL

The procedures described below were obtained from personal notes provided by Singh (20 10).

Equation 42, in Chapter 10, is slightly changed to account for the probability of survival instead of the probability of failure p_f . The probability of survival L is equal to $I - p_f$. Equation 42 is then substituted by Equation 1.1, described below.

--- *Long -ferm Perfo rmance of Recycled Sf ee t Fibre Reinforced Co ncr ^e fe f or Pa vement Applications*

$$
L = 10^{-a(s)^b(\log N)^c} \tag{J.1}
$$

The above equation is subjected to a double log-operation as shown in Equation J.2.

$$
log(-logL) = log(a) + b log(S) + c log(logN)
$$
 (J.2)

EquationJ.2 can then be written as shown in EquationJ.3.

$$
Y = A + bX + cY \tag{J.3}
$$

Where:

 $Y = log(-logL)$ $A = log(a)$ $X = log(S)$ $Z = log(logN)$

The number of cycles until failure is a function of S and L, which means that Z has to be determined from X and Y . The above equation can then be rewritten as shown in Equation J.4.

$$
Z = A' + B'X + C'Y \tag{J.4}
$$

Where:

 $A' = -\frac{a}{c}$ $B'=-\frac{b}{c}$ $C'=\frac{1}{c}$

According to Singh (2010), it is more convenient to work with the averages of experimental values than with the original variables, and for this reason the following relationships can be formulated:

$$
\sum Z = \sum A' + B' \sum X + C' \sum Y \tag{J.5}
$$

$$
\frac{1}{n}\sum Z = A' + B'\frac{\sum X}{n} + C'\frac{\sum Y}{n}
$$
 (J.6)

$$
\overline{Z} = A' + B'\overline{X} + C'\overline{Y}
$$
 (J.7)

By subtracting Equation J.7 from Equation J.4, the following expression is obtained:

P a g. l' I **J.IO**

$$
Z - \overline{Z} = B'(X - \overline{X}) + C'(Y - \overline{Y})
$$
\n(J.8)

Equation 1.8 is then substituted by Equation 1.9.

$$
z = b'x + c'y \tag{J.9}
$$

Where:

$$
z=Z-\bar{Z}
$$

$$
x = X - \overline{X}
$$

$$
y = Y - \overline{Y}
$$

By means of least square normal equations, the following expressions are obtained:

$$
b' \sum x^2 + c' \sum xy = \sum xz \tag{J.10}
$$

$$
b' \sum xy + c' \sum y^2 = \sum yz \tag{J.11}
$$

The constants b' and c' can be calculated from the above equations, which is then substituted in Equation J.9 and in the modified form of Equation J.8, which takes us back to Equation J.3, where the coefficients a, b and c can be obtained.