EVALUATION AND GUIDELINES FOR DRAINABLE BASES

by

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ABSTRACT

Base materials are normally selected to achieve maximum density, and to possess enough stiffness and strength to carry the traffic loads. The poor drainability of these materials has been of concern. This report describes the characterization of base materials being commonly used throughout the State of Texas. This includes the characterization of stiffness and strength based on the resilient modulus and the static strength of compacted specimens. The drainability is evaluated based on the permeability coefficient and the water retention capacity. The water retention test was found to be easier to perform and it is believed to be more directly related to the drainability of the compacted base than the permeability test. Alternative materials evaluated consisted of open-graded bases and cement- stabilized gravel. The results of the present study indicate that cement stabilized gravel is the best alternative to achieve high stiffness and strength and at the same time minimize water retention capacity of the compacted base. Guidelines for design and construction of base layers are proposed based on properties of cement-stabilized gravel.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Base materials for pavements have been traditionally selected on their ability to distribute the traffic loads to a weaker underlying subbase layer or subgrade. Little or no emphasis has been focused towards drainability of base materials. The base materials commonly used in Texas have poor drainability. This has resulted in premature failure of pavements. The concern of poor drainability, a lack of guidelines for the design, and construction of drainable bases lead to the sponsoring of the presently reported project.

The objective of developing guidelines for design and construction of permeable bases was achieved in three phases. In the first phase, a literature search was performed to identify test procedures for the evaluation of stability and drainability of base materials. In the second phase, the existing base materials were evaluated for stability and drainability. In the third phase, new or alternative materials were developed and tested for stability and drainability. The goal for the new or alternative materials was to achieve higher drainability while maintaining stabilities similar to those of existing bases.

The existing base materials showed high water retention capacities and small coefficients of permeability, in general less than 100 m/day. The FHWA suggests permeability coefficients of more than 300 m/day. These results confirmed that the existing base materials have poor drainability.

To improve the drainability of base materials, it was decided to eliminate fines and fine, medium, and coarse sand. The tested materials showed improved drainability; however, these materials also exhibited drastic reductions of stability.

The gravel fraction of the existing base materials was used for the stabilized materials to retain a high level of drainability. Two cement contents 5 percent and 7 percent and two water-cement ratios 0.45 and 0.475 were used. Three sources of gravel were used: 1) limestone, 2) caliche, and 3) gravel and sand. The results of the laboratory program showed that gravels stabilized with Portland cement can provide highly drainable materials with also very high strength and stiffness.

IMPLEMENTATION STATEMENT

The results of the present study clearly illustrate the need to incorporate permeable bases in the construction of new pavements. The major concern is the poor drainability of bases constructed with the commonly used base materials throughout the State of Texas. The present report includes proposed guidelines for the design of permeable bases that improve drainability without adversely affecting strength and stiffness of the base. It is recommended that the Texas Department of Transportation considers the construction of pilot projects to evaluate field performance of these materials. The identified problem areas can then be used to modify the proposed guidelines. It is recommended that the Texas Department of Transportation considers these guidelines for implementation at the earliest possible time.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

PROBLEM STATEMENT

In Texas, the primary factor that determines the use of a base material is its availability. Base materials have been traditionally specified for construction using mainly strength, gradation, resistance to abrasion, and plasticity requirements. Almost all the base layers are constructed by compacting to maximum density with little or no emphasis placed on drainage characteristics.

The assumption behind this approach is that a base layer compacted to maximum density prevents water from entering and, at the same time, provides strength to the pavement. However, experience has shown that it is impossible to prevent water from entering pavement layers through cracks and joints. Nearly saturated base layers are not uncommon (due to poor drainability). The base material retains water like a sponge that cannot drain by gravitational forces alone. Under wheel loads the fines are pumped out through joints and cracks causing the formation of voids and loss of support at the edge of the pavement. Therefore, to increase the longevity of pavements, it is desirable to construct base layers that can allow the drainage of water by gravity.

Drainage specifications have not been required by the Texas Department of Transportation (TxDOT). The American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials (AASHTO) guide for the design of pavement structures provides inadequate guidance towards designing drainable bases. This guide provides criteria for assessing the quality of drainage of the pavement as a function of its exposure time to moisture levels approaching saturation. The AASHTO guide presents only definitions of drainage quality and leaves the engineer with the task of estimating what quality of drainage is achieved in the field. Accordingly, the design engineer needs to assess the contribution of the drainage facilities (e.g., pipes, filters, etc.) as well as the contribution of the pavement layers, namely the base and subbase courses, in order to estimate the overall quality of drainage of the pavement. Presently, this is a difficult task since very limited guidelines are available.

According to the Federal Highway Administration (FHW A) guidelines (Baumgardner, 1992), a permeable base must provide both permeability and stability. Aggregate materials for permeable bases must be hard, durable, angular with good aggregate interlock. The guidelines also suggest that permeable bases should have a minimum coefficient of permeability of 300 m/day (1,000 ft/day).

However, the guidelines do not suggest test methods to measure the permeability coefficients or suggest a test method to measure the stability of permeable base materials.

Various researchers have suggested that the use of drainable bases increases the life of pavements substantially by improving pavement performance. The economic advantages that the use of drainable bases may generate have not been quantified. Also, little is known about the drainage properties of the different base materials commonly used in Texas.

Consequently, it is essential to evaluate the base materials used in Texas, to assess their drainage and strength properties. This information can then be used to modify/stabilize the base materials such that optimum drainage could be achieved without loosing strength. As a result, it would be possible to propose guidelines for the design and construction of base layers possessing adequate strength and stability while the drainage of water infiltrated would also be ensured.

OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of this report is to propose guidelines for the design and construction of drainable base layers. This objective was approached by first identifying the drainage and stiffuess properties of base materials currently being used in Texas. New materials could then be proposed having strength and stability properties similar to those currently being used in Texas and at the same time improving the drainage properties; or if not possible, a compromise would have to be achieved between strength/stability and drainage properties. The steps taken to achieve this goal were the following:

- 1. perform resilient modulus and unconfined compressive strength tests on specimens of base materials currently used in Texas compacted at optimum conditions,
- 2. perform soil water retention and permeability tests on specimens of the same base materials,
- 3. perform resilient modulus and unconfined compressive strength tests on the modified/stabilized base materials and compare with those of existing base materials,
- 4. perform soil water retention and permeability tests on the modified/ stabilized base materials and compare these results to the properties of existing base materials,
- 5. select the base materials that can give optimum performance i.e., maximum drainage without loosing strength, and finally
- 6. propose guidelines for the design and construction of drainable bases.

ORGANIZATION

The report contains eight chapters. Chapter 2 discusses, the literature search, the proposed design parameters, and the research approach. Chapter 3 presents the laboratory test procedures followed and the data reduction. The selection of material and test results on the existing base materials are presented and discussed in Chapter 4. Chapters 5 and 6 contain the test results and the discussions for open-graded base materials (OGBM) and cement-stabilized base materials (CSBM), respectively. The Guidelines for Design and Construction of Base materials are proposed in Chapter 7. The final chapter consists of a summary, conclusions and recommended future directions. Several appendices are included which contain detailed descriptions of methodologies and the data collection and reduction procedures, as well as a complete set of the data recorded in the laboratory program.

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CHAPTER2

BACKGROUND

LITERATURE SEARCH

The presence of water, free and capillary held, in pavement layers has been documented by a number of investigators. The sources of this water are numerous, some sources are site specific (such as artesian groundwater) and others are common to any pavement structure. Among the latter ones is the infiltration of rainfall through unsealed cracks and through the matrix of the upper pavement layers. The measurements reported by Grogan (1992), on a newly constructed asphalt concrete pavement, indicate that this source of water can be very important. This study reported infiltration rates of up to 23% of the recorded rainfall. Similar findings have been documented in field and laboratory studies (Ridgeway, 1976) and in the field observations reported by Dempsey and Robnet (1979). These concerns are not only for asphalt concrete pavements, but are also applicable for Portland cement concrete pavements as described by Ridgeway (1976) and studied by Barksdale and Hicks (1977).

The presence of this water within the pavement layers accelerates the deterioration of the pavement structure by causing premature distress of the pavement. The mechanisms by which the pavement layers deteriorate has been attributed to loss of support, freeze-thaw effects, weakening ofthe subgrade, pumping of the subbase and/or subgrade, etc.

There is ample agreement in the existing literature about the need to remove the water in the pavement layers in the most expedient way possible. The new Federal Highway Administration (FHW A) guide for design of drainable pavement systems incorporates drainage as a key input (Baumgardner, 1992). The Corps of Engineers has incorporated drainage considerations to design pavements in military installations (Grogan, 1992).

The most common approach to provide drainability has been to include a layer within the pavement structure with a coefficient of permeability, or a hydraulic conductivity, adequate to permit the speedy removal of water percolating into the pavement layers. A large number of studies have been performed to analyze the minimum coefficient of permeability required in a drainable base, to permit the removal of excess water from the base layer (Randolph et al, 1996; Highlands and Hoffman, 1987; Zhou et al., 1993; Jones and Jones, 1989). A typical requirement laid down is a

minimum coefficient of permeability of 300 m/day (1000 ft/day). Grogan (1992) has also found requirements of this order of magnitude to ensure 85% drainage in one day. Nevertheless, the field test sections monitored by Highlands and Hoffman (1987) built using different drainable base layers show little effect of the coefficient of permeability of the drainable base (over several orders of magnitude) on the Present Serviceability Index (PSI) of the pavement surface over a period of more than seven years. These results seem to indicate that perhaps the permeability coefficient is not such an influential parameter as indicated by the technical literature.

The coefficient of permeability indicates the ability of the material to conduct water; however, it does not indicate the total volume of water that can be drained from a material (Grogan, 1992). In this sense, water is held by the solid particles as films and meniscii and filling the smaller capillaries. Therefore, not all water in the pores can drain by gravity flow. This fact has been recognized by most of the investigators (Grogan, 1992; Jones & Jones, 1989; and McEnroe, 1994) who have worked with this problem. However, most of the consideration given to this aspect deals with the "effective porosity" (or drainable porosity) and analyzes the time required to empty the effective porosity as a measure of how drainable a base might be.

The approach adopted by McEnroe (1994) is somewhat different. He attempted to define a minimum degree of saturation as a function of the material and the position of the layer within the pavement structure. He postulated that the best measure of the drainability of a granular base was the minimum degree of saturation that can be achieved through gravity drainage in the field.

The saturated coefficient of permeability is a parameter extremely sensitive to features that might not be representative of the average conditions of the matrix of the materials under question. In other words, a single macro pore can be responsible for the conduction of water that would indicate a high coefficient of permeability. Thus one macro pore can provide a high permeability coefficient, while the rest of the matrix has small pores with large capillary rises. This would imply high coefficient of permeability concurrent with a high water retention capacity of the material.

By way of contrast, the water retention properties of a soil matrix are influenced by the whole spectrum of pore sizes present in the base material. The presence of macro pores would be indicated by desaturation of the matrix at very low soil suctions. These considerations lead us to believe that the water retention properties of the base materials could be a more reliable approach to evaluate drainability of a base material than the saturated permeability coefficient of the same materials. These considerations have been used in the present study to perform water retention tests together with permeability tests to evaluate base materials commonly used in Texas.

Various researchers have made unsuccessful attempts to measure the permeability of both open-graded materials and stabilized open-graded materials. Zhou et al. (1993) reports coefficients of permeability of asphalt treated open-graded material anywhere from 150 to 1,260 m/day (500 to 4,130 ft/day). A study conducted by Randolph et al. (1996) showed less variations in permeability measurements from 1,500 to 2,400 m/day (5,000 to 8,000 ft/day). A study conducted by Jones and Jones (1989) suggested that laboratory permeability measurements are not accurate enough to obtain reasonable estimates.

To increase the permeability of base materials, researchers have usually suggested the use of AASHTO No. 57 or 67 grade aggregates. The gradations of both of these aggregates have 0-5% material passing No. 8 sieve. Aggregates of this gradation have lower strength as well as stiffness because of poor mechanical interlock between the aggregates due to the lack of finer aggregates. A

study conducted by Wisconsin DOT (Hall, 1994a) established that if an open-graded material is used in a base layer, it is necessary to build a haul road to prevent the base layer from being damaged by the construction traffic. The same study also indicated that in some cases, even stabilized opengraded materials show signs of damage due to construction traffic.

The FHW A has recently proposed new guidelines (Drainable Pavement Systems, 1992) to design and construct permeable bases. However, the design guidelines do not suggest test methods or procedures to measure the stability i.e. strength and stiffuess of the base materials. Hall (1994b) has performed stability tests on cement-stabilized open-graded materials. These included laboratorycured compressive and bending, field-cured compressive and split tensile, and core split tensile tests. However, these tests were performed only for static loads. Zhou et al. (1993) have measured resilient modulus of asphalt-treated open-graded materials in accordance with ASTM D4123 standard procedure.

It can be concluded from the above discussion that most of the research has been focused towards achieving higher permeability coefficients and less effort has been placed on measuring stability in the laboratory or the water retention capacity of bases. Existing guidelines have not suggested reliable tests to measure the saturated coefficient of permeability.

PROPOSED DESIGN PARAMETERS

The stiffness and strength evaluation of base materials is proposed to be implemented using the resilient modulus and unconfined compression tests. The main aspect to consider for the evaluation of drainability is how much and how fast the pore water that has accumulated into a base layer can be expected to drain out of the matrix by gravity alone.

In the movement of water through the base, there are two distinctive phases with quite different controlling parameters. In the first phase, the water percolates into the base and accumulates until it reaches a nearly saturated condition. At this moment, the water moves through the base under positive pressures. The saturated coefficient of permeability would then be the parameter that determines how fast the seepage moves towards the side drainage facilities.

As soon as the supply of water stops, the water in the pores of the base layer is under negative pore pressures. The water that is held by capillary action within the base will not drain under the influence of gravity alone no matter how high the saturated permeability coefficient might be. For this condition, the more relevant and direct parameter would be the water retention capacity of the compacted base material.

In this sense, it is important to realize that a base layer with only an adequate coefficient of permeability will act as a drain as long as the pore pressures are positive (above atmospheric pressure). However, as soon as the infiltration stops the water accumulated in the base layer and held by capillarity will remain in the base layer indefinitely unless some force other than gravity comes into play. Under these conditions, the base layer would act as a reservoir remaining nearly saturated after each rainy episode and supplying water to the subbase that can soak it depending on the soil suction of the subgrade soils.

These considerations indicate that the water retention capacity of the base would be a much more direct parameter to assess the capability of a base layer to empty the pore water after each

episode of infiltration. Furthermore, as discussed in subsequent sections of this report, the determination of the water retention capacity of the base layer is much easier to implement in the laboratory and it is subjected to fewer uncertainties for laboratory measurement. As such, the water retention is included as one of the parameters to assess drainability. These tests were complemented with measurements of permeability coefficient when feasible.

RESEARCH APPROACH

As a part of a study, Nazarian et al. (1996) conducted a survey to identify the base materials commonly used throughout the State of Texas. The ten most commonly used base materials were identified through the survey. Nine out of the ten base materials were used in the present study.

Common index tests were performed on the selected base materials. After characterization, compacted specimens were tested to evaluate the coefficient of permeability, water retention capacity, and strength and stiffness. The permeability and soil water retention tests were developed in the present study while stiffness and strength tests were performed using test procedures suggested by Nazarian et al. (1996). These properties were then compared with the properties of alternative materials. These materials were evaluated in such a way that the increase in permeability coefficient and the decrease in water retention capacity should not adversely affect strength and stiffness. In other words, the selected alternative material should have a balance of stiffness and drainability.

Two alternative materials were evaluated in the present study; open-graded base material (OGBM) and cement-stabilized base material (CSBM). The OGBM is an unbound material with reduced or negligible percentage of fines. The CSBM consist of gravel stabilized with three different cement contents using two water cement ratios.

CHAPTER3

TEST METHODOLOGIES

STIFFNESS AND STRENGTH

In the resilient modulus test (Nazarian et al., 1996), the specimen is subjected to several confining pressures and, for each pressure, several deviatoric stress cycles are applied. Upon completion of the resilient modulus test, the confining pressure is reduced to atmospheric pressure (zero effective confining pressure) and a quasi-static compression test is performed until failure of the specimen. The strength of some specimens of CSBM exceeded the capacity of the testing facility. These specimens were dismounted from the testing facility and placed in a concrete cylinder tester to measure the unconfined compressive strength.

The resilient modulus and the unconfined compression tests were performed on compacted specimens ISO mm (6 inches) in diameter and 300 mm (12 inches) in height. The specimen were prepared in a cylindrical split mold in six lifts. Each lift was compacted with 25 blows of a Proctor hammer. Small steel angles were placed on certain lifts to serve as supports for the targets of the non-contact probes used to measure axial as well as radial displacements during testing.

The resilient modulus of base materials is typically determined in a triaxial test set-up. The specimen is confined in a triaxial cell under a cell pressure and, then, repeated axial load pulses are applied on the specimen. The variables measured during the test are the axial deformation and the applied intensity of the load pulse. The resilient modulus is calculated from the following expression:

$$
M_R = \frac{\sigma_d}{\epsilon_{\alpha \alpha}} \tag{3.1}
$$

where: M_R is the resilient modulus, σ_A is the peak axial deviatoric stress, and ϵ_{av} is the resilient axial strain.

The axial deviatoric stress is calculated from the following expression:

$$
\sigma_d = \frac{P}{A_i} \tag{3.2}
$$

where P is the applied peak load and A_i is the original cross-sectional area of the specimen. The resilient axial strain, is calculated from the following expression:

$$
\epsilon_{\alpha\alpha} = \frac{\Delta L}{L_i} \tag{3.3}
$$

where ΔL is the recovered axial deformation along a gage length, L_i , after each load pulse.

A sketch showing the test setup is presented in Figure 3.1. The axial deformations are measured with six proximeters placed in pairs at 120 degrees around the specimen. In this fashion, three independent measurements of axial deformation are recorded. The targets for these proximeters are placed to measure the deformation of the middle third of the specimen. Two additional proximeters are placed on opposite ends of a diameter at the mid point of the specimen. These two proximeters are used to measure transversal deformations of the specimen. A detailed description of the testing sequence has been presented by Nazarian et al. (1996).

WATER RETENTION CAPACITY

The water retention capacity was determined on compacted specimens of base material. These specimens were first saturated and then were allowed to equilibrate at specified soil suction levels. These soil suction levels were selected to be representative of the conditions expected to occur in the field. For each level, equilibration was determined by making certain that the specimen had reached constant weight.

The water retention capacity set-up was specifically designed and constructed for the present application. The device is modelled after the pressure plate extractors used by soil scientist. A sketch of the device is shown in Figure 3.2. The mold consists of a section of schedule 40 PVC pipe of 150 mm (6 inches) inner diameter. The main purpose of using PVC pipe and fixtures was to reduce the total weight of the mold. This was intended to facilitate the weighing process. The mold that contains the specimen is closed by a high air entry porous stone on one end and a cap at the other end. The top cap has a connection to allow vacuum during saturation and air pressure for the equilibration phase. Furthermore, the cap incorporates a window of transparent plexiglass to allow the visual inspection of water levels during the saturation process.

The specimen is compacted inside the mold fixed in a specially designed mold holder. Compaction is performed in three lifts. Each lift is compacted with 25 blows of a standard Proctor hammer.

Figure 3.1 Resilient Modulus Test Setup

Figure 3.2 Water Retention Test Setup

Upon compaction, the mold with the specimen is removed from the mold holder. The high air entry porous stone (of 1 bar air entry value) is placed in a recess machined in the bottom of the mold. A special support for the porous stone (base fixture) is then attached to the bottom of the mold. To ensure proper hydraulic contact between the specimen and the porous stone, silica flour is sprinkled on the stone at the time of assembling the device. The pipe cap is placed on the mold, and sealed with silicone rubber. The assembled mold with the specimen is weighed and the mass is recorded. The mold with the specimen is then placed in a pan with a water level maintained above the high air entry porous stone. The specimen is saturated by applying a vacuum equivalent to a few centimeters of mercury to the top cap while the water access valve is opened. The vacuum is maintained until about 10 mm of water had been pulled above the surface of the specimen. At this time, the water access valve is closed and remains closed for the duration of the test. The low vacuum levels during the saturation process minimize the movement of fines within the specimen.

The next step is to release the vacuum from the top of the specimen. The specimen is allowed to drain under gravitational forces for a day. At the end of 24 hrs, the specimen and mold assembly is weighed and the mass recorded as the mass of the saturated specimen.

In the next phase of the test, air pressure is applied on top of the specimen. The water in the base pores is in contact with water in the pan under atmospheric pressure. The excess air pressure causes the pore water to recede in the pores and form meniscii. The difference between air and water pressure is the soil suction applied on the base specimen. The mass of the mold/specimen assembly is measured and recorded on a daily basis. The air pressure is maintained constant until the mold/specimen assembly reaches constant mass. At this time, the air pressure is increased to the next level.

The major goal of this test is to subject the pore water in the specimen to soil suctions similar to those that can reasonably be expected to occur in the field. Assuming that a continuous water column exists from the top of the base layer to the water in the pipe of the side drainage collection system, the soil suctions applied to the water within the base layer would be equivalent to the pressure of a column of water of height equal to the difference in elevation from the top of the base layer to the water level within the side drainage system. In most cases, this difference in elevation is only a few feet. In many cases, the water column would not be continuous and thus the soil suction imposed on the base would be even lower.

At the beginning of the test program the air pressure applied was 7 KPa (1 psi or equivalent to an 28 inch column of water). Upon equilibration, the air pressure was increased to 21 KPa (3 psi or equivalent to an 83 inch column of water). In the final step the air pressure was increased to 35 KPa (5 psi or equivalent to a column of water of 138 inches tall). As the test program progressed, it was clear that the major water losses were obtained with 7 KPa (1 psi) and, thus, further increases of the air pressure were deemed not necessary. In this fashion, the parameter that is proposed to evaluate drainability is the water retention capacity of the compacted base layer under 7 KPa (1 psi) of soil suction or capillary pressure.

The amount of water retained by the specimen under 7 KPa of soil suction is used to estimate the degree of saturation at the end of the test. The calculations are based on the following relationship:

 \sim

Saturation (%) =
$$
\frac{V_W}{V_V}
$$
 (3.4)

where V_w is the volume of water retained, and V_v is the volume of voids in the specimen. This volume of voids is calculated as follows:

$$
V_{\nu} = V_T - V_S \tag{3.5}
$$

where V_T is the total volume of the specimen and V_s is the volume of the solids. The degree of saturation obtained by this method for an applied soil suction of 7 KPa (1 psi) has been used to characterize the water retention capacity. Detailed protocols proposed for this test are presented in Appendices A and B. Appendix A includes the protocol for the test of dense-graded base materials. Appendix B includes the protocol for the test of cement-stabilized gravel.

PERMEABILITY CHARACTERISTICS

The determination of the saturated coefficient of permeability of base materials is difficult because almost each material requires an specific set-up to ascertain that the measurements of head loss and flow rates can be performed under reasonable conditions. Due to the large coefficient of permeability of base materials and the large diameter of the specimens (150 mm; 6 inches), one of the main logistics problems is the supply of the de-aired water needed to perform the test.

Sketches of the permeability setups assembled are shown in Figures 3.3 and 3.4. The deairing system consists of a 50 gallon steel drum with a line of misters. The de-aired water is prepared by misting water within the de-airing tank under a vacuum of250 mm (10 inches) column of mercury. The production of 20 gallons of de-aired water requires from four to six hours. Upon preparation of the 20 gallons of de-aired water the de-airing tank is kept under vacuum continuously. The water is removed from the drum to a water pumping system by alternatively applying vacuum and compressed air into a cell-bladder system. In this fashion, the de-aired water is pumped to storage tanks. From these storage tanks, the water moves by gravity to the constant head tank that supplies the inflow to the permeability cell. The de-aired water is prevented from corning in contact with atmospheric air until it reached the constant head tank.

Figure 3.3 Permeability Test Setup for Dense-Graded Base Materials

Figure 3.4 Permeability Test Setup for Cement Stabilized Base Materials

Different permeability cells are used for the different materials. For the dense-graded base materials, the cell consists of a 300 mm (12 inches) long section of schedule 40 PVC pipe of 150 mm (6 inches) inside diameter. The specimen is compacted in this mold in lifts similar to the specimen for the resilient modulus test. At the ends of the specimen, two manometer tubes are installed to measure piezometric head losses. The distance between centers of the manometer tubes is 220 mm (8.5 inches). At each manometer location, a mesh was embedded around the inside of the permeameter. The openings for the manometer tubes are further covered by a geotextile patch. The specimen is confined at the top and bottom with porous stones. The permeability cell is closed with pipe caps that are sealed with silicone rubber.

For the specimens of open-graded base materials, this set-up is insufficient to produce any measurable head loss between the two manometer tubes. The specimens of cement-stabilized gravel could not be compacted in the mold since the cement paste clogs the porous mesh and geotextile connections for the manometer tubes. For these specimens, the compaction, setting, and curing are performed in an auxiliary mold. The cured specimen is then wrapped with a rubber membrane that is confined on the specimen by producing negative pore water pressures (below atmospheric pressure) within the specimen. This effect is achieved by raising the specimen above the water level in the constant head tank as indicated in Figure 3.4.

Each specimen is first saturated and then subjected to the constant head permeability test. The saturation of each specimen is accomplished by applying vacuum to the top of the specimen while a minute flow of water is allowed by a valve on the bottom cap of the permeameter. Upon the water filling the top of the permeability cell, the vacuum is stopped, and the flow of water is started and maintained for some time. At the end of an hour or so, the outflow pipe is moved above the storage tanks to prevent any further flow and the specimen is left overnight under a column of water of about $2 m (6 ft)$.

The next morning, the water flow is initiated again and the manometer tubes are connected. Upon reaching an stable condition, the top and bottom valves are closed; thus, the specimen is isolated. The degree of saturation achieved in the specimen is checked by raising the specimen about 300 mm (1 ft) and measuring the associated rise of the water levels within the manometer tubes. Any rise of the water levels within the manometer tubes is attributed to expansion of air bubbles present within the system. The degree of saturation is calculated based on the ideal gas laws. It was systematically required that a 98% degree of saturation be achieved before proceeding with the constant head permeability test.

The constant head permeability test is initiated by allowing water into the bottom of the specimens and measuring the outflow on the top of the specimen. For the test on the dense graded bases the specimen is always kept under positive pore water pressure to ensure saturation at all times. The flow rates are measured for very small drops in head on the order of millimeters to produce hydraulic gradients of the same order of magnitude than those expected to occur in the base layers in service. The coefficient of permeability is calculated using Darcy's law:

$$
k = \frac{Q}{A \cdot t \cdot i} \tag{3.6}
$$

where "k" is the coefficient of permeability, "Q" is the volumetric flow, "A" is the bulk cross section area of the specimen, "t" is the time for the volumetric flow, and "i" is the hydraulic gradient. The hydraulic gradient is obtained by dividing the head loss between the manometer tubes by the distance travelled by the water between the centers of the two tubes at the connecting point on the permeameter wall. This equation (3.6) is valid only if the water flow occurs under laminar flow conditions.

The fluid flow through a porous medium can be characterized in terms of the dimensionless Reynolds Number, R_n and a friction factor, λ given by the following relationships (Jones and Jones, 1989):

$$
R_e = \frac{\rho \, q \, d}{\mu} \tag{3.7}
$$

and

$$
\lambda = \frac{(\frac{\Delta p}{\Delta L})d}{2\rho q^2}
$$
 (3.8)

For laminar flow, log λ varies linearly with log R_r. The linear relation breaks down for R_r greater than 10 but for some materials this threshold may be lower than 1. At higher velocities, a transitional flow occurs which can be characterized by the following equation:

$$
i = aq + bq^2 \tag{3.9}
$$

where "i" is the hydraulic gradient, "q" is the discharge velocity, and "a" and "b" are constants.

A fundamental difficulty in applying Reynolds Number to soils is the choice of the characteristic diameter "d". Thus the validity of Darcy's law for a particular compacted material is best examined from experiment. It has been shown (Jones and Jones, 1989) that Darcy's Law is valid only for hydraulic gradients less than about 0.05 for base materials. To identify the laminar flow region in the present study, it was decided to plot the hydraulic gradient "i" versus the discharge velocity "q" data and fit a curve of the type of equation 3.9 to identify the parameters "a" and "b".

The inverse of constant "a" is the saturated coefficient of permeability. Evidence of turbulent flow, even in dense-graded base materials, was manifested from the very early stages of the permeability test. This fact further imposed the need to measure flow rates under very minute head losses.

Proposed new protocols including detailed testing procedures to perform the permeability test are presented in Appendices C and D. Appendix C consist of the detailed test procedure to determine the saturated coefficient of permeability of dense-graded base materials. Appendix D includes the detailed test procedure for cement-stabilized gravel.

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CHAPTER4

DENSE-GRADED MATERIALS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the selection process followed to determine the base materials commonly used throughout the State of Texas. The results of the stability and drainability tests performed on the selected base materials are also reported in this chapter. Finally, a discussion of test results and selection of alternative materials are also included in this chapter.

MATERIAL SELECTION

This section describes the process followed to select the representative base materials used in the present study. *The selection process has been transcribed from Nazarian et a!. (1996). This material was included for the sake of completeness.*

The first step in the selection process was to identify the base materials most commonly used in the state. Based on this information, the type, source and quantity of materials needed were identified.

A questionnaire was first prepared and distributed to all district laboratory engineers. The results from the 23 responses was organized in a database and analyzed. The findings were as follows: out of approximately 80,000 miles of highway included in the survey, about 92 percent are flexible pavements and 8 percent are rigid pavements. As shown in Figure 4.1, approximately 74 percent of the bases are constructed using granular materials (i.e. limestone, iron-ore, gravel, caliche). The rest are either treated with lime (about 12 percent) or cement (about 8 percent) or asphalt (about 5 percent). Figure 4.2 shows the distribution of the granular base materials used in the state. Approximately one-half of the base materials are limestone. The other materials are iron-ore (about 15 percent), caliche (about 11 percent), and gravel (about 7 percent).

Figure 4.1 Distribution of Base Material Types Used in Texas Highways

Figure 4.2 Distribution of Granular Base Material Types Used in Texas Highways

The primary consideration in selecting a material for a base course is the availability of such material in the district. Other factors, such as the traffic volume, pavement type and subgrade type are also considered, especially when the base is destined to be treated or stabilized.

Based upon the information gathered, ten base samples were requested from ten different districts and nine of the ten districts graciously provided the materials. The index properties of these materials are described in the next section. The materials provided consisted of limestone in five cases, caliche in two cases, one iron-ore, and one sand and gravel.

CHARACTERIZATION OF BASE MATERIALS

For identification purposes, the nine base materials were subjected to the following index tests:

- 1) Sieve Analysis (Tex-110-E),
- 2) Liquid limit test (Tex-104-E),
- 3) Plasticity index (Tex-106-E), and
- 4) Moisture-Density Relationship (Tex-113-E).

The classification of these nine base materials along with index properties, such as Atterberg limits and gradation, maximum dry density, and optimum moisture content are presented in Table 4.1. The gradations of the selected nine base materials are shown in Figure 4.3. As per the AASHTO soil classification system, all the base materials can be classified as A-2-4. The USCS classification system classifies base materials as gravel (except Odessa which is classified as sand). Out of the five limestones, two (Paris and San Angelo Districts) were well-graded gravel, one (Brownwood District) was well-graded silty gravel, one (El Paso District) was well-graded clayey gravel, and the other one (San Antonio District) was clayey gravel. One caliche (Corpus Christi District) was classified as wellgraded gravel and the other caliche (Odessa District) as a silty clayey sand. The other two materials (iron-ore and sand and gravel) were classified as silty gravel (Tyler District) and the other one as wellgraded silty gravel.

The optimum moisture content for limestones ranged from 3.8 percent to 7.9 percent. The material from Brownwood District had the lowest optimum moisture content and the materials from Paris and San Antonio Districts had the highest values. The maximum dry unit weight of these materials ranged from 20.4 KN/m³ to 23.9 KN/m³. The material from the Paris District had the lowest dry unit weight and the one from San Antonio District had the highest dry unit weight.

For the caliche base materials, the material from Odessa District had an optimum moisture content of 4.3 percent and the one from Corpus Christi District 17.8 percent. The maximum dry unit weight of the former was 21.0 KN/ $m³$ and the latter was 16.6 KN/ $m³$. The iron-ore material from the Tyler District had a maximum dry unit weight of 22.9 KN/m³ at an optimum moisture content of 7.8 percent. The sand and gravel base (Childress District) had a maximum dry unit weight of 21.6 KN/m³ and an optimum moisture content of 5.5 percent.

The liquid limits for the limestone materials varied from 16 percent to 24 percent. The plasticity index for the limestone materials varied from 3 to 10 percent. The liquid limit and plasticity index for caliche material varied from 24 to 35 percent and 1 to 6 percent, respectively.

Figure 4.3 Gradation of the Nine Selected Texas Base Materials

			PI PL		Gradation (Percent Passing)		Optimum Moisture	Maximum Dry Unit	
District	Type	LL			Sieve Sieve #4	#40	Sieve #200	Content (%)	Weight, KN/m^3
Brownwood	Limestone	21	14	7	37	17	12	3.8	23.3
Childress	Sand and Gravel	14	12	$\overline{2}$	55	27	12	5.5	21.6
Corpus Christi	Caliche	35	34		54	31	16	17.8	16.6
El Paso	Limestone	24	16	8	36	19	10	5.4	22.9
Odessa	Caliche	24	18	6	62	36	22	4.3	21
Paris	Limestone	21	18	3	44	23	11	7.9	20.4
San Angelo	Limestone	16	13	3	48	23	19	6.5	22.9
San Antonio	Limestone	24	14	10	43	22	17	7.5	23.9
Tyler	Iron-Ore	19	7	っ	53	33	$\overline{\mathbf{5}}$	7.8	22.9

Table 4.1 Index Properties of the Selected Nine Base Materials

The maximum liquid limit (3 5%) was obtained for the caliche from Corpus Christi District. The minimum liquid limit (14%) was obtained for the sand and gravel material from the Childress District.

EVALUATION OF DENSE-GRADED BASE MATERIAL

Compacted specimens of the selected nine base materials were subjected to stability and drainability tests. The specimens were compacted at optimum water contents to simulate the dense-graded base layers built in the State of Texas.

The specimens prepared with base material from El Paso District were the first specimens subjected to all the evaluation tests. This material was more readily available and, thus, allowed to build numerous specimens needed to identify problems with test set-ups and/or procedures.

Water Retention Test Results

The partial results of the water retention tests performed on El Paso material are shown in Figure 4.4. This figure shows the changes in the amount of water retained in the specimen with time. The specimen lost approximately 500 grams of water under 7 KPa (1 psi) air pressure. However, the losses of water due to increasing air pressures to 21 KPa (3 psi) or 35 KPa (5 psi) amount to less than 25 grams. These results indicate that the specimens of El Paso material remained nearly saturated at all three air pressures. It is worth noticing that equilibration under 7 K.Pa took approximately 500 hours. This anomaly was attributed to migration of fines forming a layer on the high air entry porous stone. Nevertheless, this fact imposed the need to prolong equilibration times to make sure that constant mass had been reached.

Figure 4.4 Water Retention Test Results of El Paso Base Material

The complete set of results is presented in Appendix E. The degree of saturation, after equilibration to 7 KPa, of duplicate specimens of all the base materials are summarized in Table 4.2. All the specimens remained more than 50% saturated. On the average three materials showed 100% saturation, four materials showed more than 70 % saturation, and the rest showed more than 60% saturation.

The results obtained on repeated specimens shown in Table 4.2 indicate significant variability in some cases. In an attempt to identify potential sources of this variability, all the base material was recovered from the water retention test set-up after performing the test. Grain size distribution analyses were performed on all the material of each specimen. The comparison of the gradation charts for the duplicate specimens indicated some variability in the gradation that could explain the differences in water retention capacities reported in Table 4.2. The differences in gradation observed in the duplicate specimens can be indicative of the type of variability to be expected under field construction conditions. Thus, it is reasonable to expect that the water retention capacities of densegraded base layers compacted with these materials will have zones of very high water retention capacities and other areas with moderate to high water retention capacities.

These results indicate that the suction of a 71 em (28 inches) column of water cannot remove significant amounts of the pore water held in the specimens. The height of the water column inducing the emptying of the pores in the field is with a reasonable certainty not going to exceed the 71 em (28 inches) used in the present laboratory tests. Thus the results shown in Table 4.2 indicate that the majority of the water retained by the base specimens is held in small capillaries that will not empty by gravitational forces alone.

Table 4.2 Water Retention Capacity of the Selected Nine Base Materials

Permeability Test Results

The complete set of all the tests performed on the nine selected base materials are included in Appendix F. The results obtained on compacted specimens of El Paso base material are also shown in Figure 4.5. These results show that the coefficient of permeability decreases for increasing hydraulic gradient. According to AASHTO T 215-70, the hydraulic gradient should be between 0.2 and 0.5 to obtain a laminar flow. Jones and Jones (1989) have suggested that the hydraulic gradient should be lower than 0.05 to have a laminar flow when testing base materials. The results shown in Figure 4.5 suggest that the flow is turbulent even for hydraulic gradients well below 0.05.

To dwell more into this aspect, a plot of hydraulic gradient (i) versus discharge velocity (q) for El Paso base material was also generated and is shown in Figure 4.6. The data is for the same test illustrated in Figure 4.5. The discharge velocity (q) exhibits laminar flow (linear relationship) conditions at low hydraulic gradients and shows transitional flow (nonlinear relationship) at high hydraulic gradients. The results shown in Figure 4.6 suggest that the threshold is a discharge velocity of 0.01 cm/sec. The saturated coefficient of permeability is the inverse of constant "a" in equation (3.9). This equation (3.9) was fitted by regression to all the experimental data points obtained on each specimen.

The saturated coefficients of permeability obtained on replicate specimens of the nine selected base materials, are summarized in Table 4.3. The coefficient of permeability ranged from 0.07 to 1080 m/day (0.3 to 3543 ftlday). Except for one specimen of the San Antonio base material, the rest of materials had coefficients of permeability lower than recommended by FHW A (A minimum of 3 00 m/day [1,000 ft/day] is required for drainable bases). The specimens of Paris, San Angelo, and San Antonio materials showed coefficients of permeability higher than 100 m/day (328 ft/day). The rest of the base materials had very low permeabilities. On the average Corpus Christi, Odessa, and Tyler materials had coefficients of permeability lower than 5 m/day (16 ft/day). Corpus Christi and Tyler materials have also showed (Table 4.2) very high water retention capacities.

It is important to notice the amount of variability indicated by the coefficient of permeability (Table 4.3) as it compares to the variability observed for the water retention capacity test. The water retention capacities shown in Table 4.2 increased by 30 to 50 percent from one specimen to the replicate specimen. The same materials sampled and compacted in similar fashion yield coefficients of permeability that increase by factors of3, 4, even 10 in some cases. This comparison is indicating that the coefficient of permeability is much more variable or sensitive to features such as one or few macro pores than the water retention capacity. These features can conduct a lot of water through the specimen while on a volume bases only represent a small fraction of the total pore volume of the compacted base specimen. These observations also support the recommendation of the present study that the use of water retention capacity provides a more reliable measure of the drainability of a base layer.

The coefficient of permeability reported in Table 4.3 indicate that none of the nine selected base materials yield consistently a base layer that could be considered a drainable base by FHW A standards. Thus based on the results of this experimental program, it can be concluded that all base materials currently used in Texas should be modified to increase drainability.

Figure 4.5 Variation in Coefficient of Permeability with the Hydraulic Gradient for El Paso Base Material

Figure 4.6 Discharge Velocity and Hydraulic Gradient Relationship for El Paso Base **Material**

		Coefficient of Permeability, m/day (ft/day)				
District	Type	Specimen No.				
		1	$\mathbf{2}$	Average		
Brownwood	Limestone	59 (194)	21 (69)	40 (131)		
Childress	Sand and Gravel	0.3 (1)	75 (246)	37.7 (124)		
Corpus Christi	Caliche	0.1 (.3)	0.1 (.3)	0.1 (.3)		
El Paso	Limestone	1.1 (3.6)	130 (426)	66 (217)		
Odessa	Caliche	5 (16)	$\overline{2}$ (7)	3.5 (12)		
Paris	Limestone	796 (2,611)	26 (85)	411 (1, 348)		
San Angelo	Limestone	176 (577)	123 (403)	149.5 (1,608)		
San Antonio	Limestone	1,080 (3, 543)	213 (699)	646.5 (2,119)		
Tyler	Iron-Ore	0.3 (1)	6 (20)	3.2 (10)		

Table 4.3 Coefficient of Permeability of the Selected Nine Base Materials

Stiffness and Strength Test Results

Specimens were compacted and tested for stiffness and strength following the procedure described in the previous chapter. Specifically, the specimens were compacted at optimum water contents. The specimens were tested under dynamic loads to obtain resilient modulus of the material, and under static loads to obtain elastic modulus and ultimate strength of the material.

The constitutive used to describe the results of resilient modulus test is the following:

$$
M_R = k_1 \sigma_d^{k2} \sigma_c^{k3} \tag{4.1}
$$

where σ_d and σ_c are the deviatoric stress and confining pressure, respectively. The parameters K_1 , $K₂$, $K₃$ are statistically determined by fitting the experimental data.

Test parameters obtained for all the materials are summarized in Table 4.4. A more complete set of data can be found in Nazarian et al. (1996). A testing sequence for different deviatoric stresses and confining stresses was used to develop the constitutive model. The \mathbb{R}^2 for the regression analyses were high indicating good correlations. The parameter $k₂$ of the model shows very low positive or negative values, indicating that the resilient modulus is essentially independent of confining pressure " σ _c" in the range of confining pressures tested.

The results of the unconfined compressive strength on a specimen of El Paso material are shown in Figure 4.7. The initial tangent modulus was calculated from the stress strain relationship and the strength was recorded when the material failed. The base materials had been compacted at field moisture contents, which are significantly different than the optimum moisture contents listed in Table 4.1. The unconfined compressive strength data is summarized in Table 4.5. The numbers in parenthesis indicate the moisture content at which the specimens had been compacted.

The results presented in Tables 4.4 and 4.5 are thus not directly comparable. This is because the specimens of Table 4.4 had been compacted at the optimum water contents listed in Table 4.1. While the specimens used for the test listed in Table 4.5 had been compacted at field moisture contents.

It is interesting to notice the variability of the resilient modulus as judged by the variability of the K_1 parameter. The changes observed for replicate specimens range from almost identical values to increases of 30 to 50 %. These specimens had been sampled, moistened, and compacted in very similar fashion than the water retention and permeability test specimens. The variability described above is quite similar to the variability observed and described previously for the water retention test; but is in stark contrast to the variability described previously for the coefficient of permeability. This is attributed to the fact that the resilient modulus, as well as the water retention capacity, depend on average conditions of the specimen unlike the coefficient of permeability that is influenced by small features such as the presence of a few macro pores.

Material Type	District	Specimen	\mathbf{k}_1	k ₂	k_{3}	R^2
		1	12548	0.022	0.711	0.999
	Brown- wood	$\overline{2}$	12548	0.20	0.710	0.999
		Average	12548	0.021	0.711	
		1	58047	-0.010	0.420	0.999
	El Paso	$\overline{2}$	44670	0.000	0.460	0.999
		Average	51359	-0.005	0.440	
		1	67205	-0.010	0.330	0.996
Lime-stone	Paris	$\overline{2}$	39312	-0.010	0.430	0.999
		Average	53259	-0.010	0.380	
		1	77417	0.000	0.340	0.996
	San Angelo	$\overline{2}$	51330	-0.010	0.470	0.998
		Average	64374	-0.005	0.405	
	San Antonio	1	67845	-0.010	0.400	0.999
		$\overline{2}$	59695	-0.010	0.430	0.999
		Average	63770	-0.010	0.415	
	Corpus Christi	1	155258	-0.040	0.020	0.999
		$\overline{2}$	149874	-0.030	0.030	0.999
Caliche		Average	152566	-0.035	0.025	
		1	231694	-0.040	0.000	0.999
	Odessa	$\overline{2}$	230308	-0.040	0.000	0.999
		Average	231001	-0.040	0.000	
		1	128396	-0.030	0.080	0.999
Iron-Ore	Tyler	$\overline{2}$	129040	-0.020	0.070	0.999
		Average	128718	-0.025	0.075	
		1	39348	0.020	0.340	0.967
Sand & Gravel	Childress	$\overline{2}$	42748	0.010	0.350	0.946
		Average	41048	0.015	0.345	

Table 4.4 Constitutive Parameters from Resilient Modulus Tests on the Nine Selected Base Materials

 $\overline{}$

Notes:
1)

1) $\frac{k^2 - k^3}{2}$ $M_R = k_1 \sigma_d^{\infty} \sigma_c^{\infty}$

2) M_R in MPa and σ_d and σ_c in KPa.

Figure 4.7 Results of Unconfined Compressive Strength Test on El Paso Base Material

District	Type	Unconfined Compressive Strength, MPa	Elastic Modulus (Compression), MPa
Brownwood	Limestone	Not Tested	Not Tested
Childress	Sand and Gravel	0.16 $(3.2\%)^*$	578 (3.2%)
Corpus Christi	Caliche	0.19 (19.1%)	391 (19.1%)
El Paso	Limestone	0.11 (3.1%)	437 (3.1%)
Odessa	Caliche	0.215 (6.8%)	1119 (6.8%)
Paris	Limestone	0.17 (10.5%)	154 (10.5%)
San Angelo	Limestone		148 (7.8%)
San Antonio	Limestone	0.19 (7.0%)	145 (7.0%)
Iron-Ore Tyler		0.12 (10.2%)	76 (10.2%)

Table 4.5 Unconfined Compressive Strength Test Results on the Nine Selected Base Materials

• Numbers in parenthesis indicate the compaction moisture content

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CHAPTERS

OPEN-GRADED BASE MATERIALS

INTRODUCTION

The results of the tests perfonned on OGBM are presented in this chapter. The tests were performed only on OGBM from El Paso base material. The stiffuess and strength of these materials are too low to be a feasible alternative for permeable base.

MATERIAL SELECTION

To improve drainability, it was decided to remove fines from the existing base material. Four different types of OGBM were selected: 1) Type I (no fines i.e., no material passing sieve no. 200), 2) Type IT (no fines and no fine sand i.e., no material passing no. 40 sieve), 3) Type III (no fines and no fine and medium sand i.e., no material passing no. 10 sieve), and 4) Type IV (no fines and no sand i.e., no material passing no. 4 sieve).

The El Paso base material was dry sieved and then the material retained on each sieve was washed on sieve number 200 to remove fines. The washed material retained on each sieve were kept in separate bins. This process was continued until sufficient material had been stocked. This washed materials were then used for preparation of specimens, by mixing the corresponding percentages of the materials retained on the appropriate sieves. Nevertheless, at the beginning of the test program some specimens were prepared with components that had not been washed but exclusively dry sieved.

SOIL WATER RETENTION CAPACITY

The results of water retention capacity tests are summarized in Table 5.1. These results show a larger variability than the test performed on DGBM. To explain this variation, after completing the water retention test the specimen was recovered and subjected to a wet sieve analysis. The grain size distributions obtained from these analyses indicated that the specimens with higher content of the fraction passing number 200 sieve showed higher retention capacities. For example, specimen no.1 (Type I) had approximately 16% passing number 200 sieve, while it was only 3% for specimen number 2.

		Degree of Saturation (%)			
Type	OGBM Description	Specimen No.	Average		
	No Fines	56	37		
	No Fines and No Fine Sand	82	41	62	
ш	No Fines and No Medium and Fine Sand		22	16	
	No fines and No Sand	10	19		

Table 5.1 Water Retention Capacity of OGBM (El Paso)

Similarly, specimen number 1 (Type II) had 5% passing number 200 as compared to 1.6% for specimen number 2. The same reasoning is valid for the other two combinations as well. The results shown in Table 5.1 indicate higher water retention capacities for Type II materials than for the Type I; when it would be expected that the water retention capacities would be higher for Type I rather than Type II. The grain size distributions of Type I, II, III, and IV material for both specimens are shown in Figure 5 .1. The gradation chart clearly shows that the Type I is more open-graded than the Type II material. This indicates that poor sampling had caused the problem of higher water retention capacity for the Type II material.

The results shown in Table 5.1, in combination with the gradation data of Figure 5.1, indicate that if the fines have been removed (by washing the base material); it is possible to reduce the water retention capacity to degrees of saturation of 10 to 15 percent for the OGBM of Types III and IV. This implies the removal of all particles passing sieves number 10 or number 4.

STIFFNESS AND STRENGTH CHARACTERISTICS

Specimens of open-graded materials were compacted and tested to identify the stiffness and strength characteristics. First the resilient modulus test was performed on specimens of Type I material. The specimen failed during the testing sequence. The dense-graded material for El Paso had showed resilient moduli of up to 400 MPa at a confining pressure of 140 KPa and for deviatoric stresses of 210 KPa. The Type I material specimen failed under a confining pressure of 70 KPa and for a deviatoric stress of 42 KPa. The resilient moduli had reduced to 30 MPa.

Figure 5.1 Gradations of Recovered Specimens of El Paso OGBM

This loss of stiffness can be attributed to the removal of fines. To justify this line of reasoning, it was decided to prepare specimens using stock material dry sieved. Because, the soil water retention test results had indicated that this stock contained some fines. The specimens prepared with dry sieved material showed higher stiffhess, a resilient modulus of 100 MPa, but still failed upon the application of 60 KPa deviatoric stress under a confining pressure of 105 KPa. Since both specimens ofOGBM failed, no unconfined compressive strength tests were performed. Specimens of Type II, III, and IV materials were not prepared, because the removal of sand would have created an even less stable material.

These stiffness tests show an extensive reduction in the stability of the OGBM even with only the removal of fines i.e. the fraction passing number 200. This lead to the believe that OGBM without stabilization will fail during construction or prematurely under traffic.

PERMEABILITY CHARACTERISTICS

The setup used to measure the coefficient of permeability of the dense-graded specimens was not appropriate for the open-graded materials. The main problem was that no measurable head loss was occurring between piezometric tubes and, thus, no hydraulic gradient could be measured. Various researchers have tried different test setups for OGBM but repeatability of these tests has been extremely poor. The development of a new setup was prohibitive in view of the project time frame. Nevertheless, the results would have not been beneficial to this project due to poor stiffhess and strength of these materials. Hence, it was decided not to pursue any further the measurement of permeability characteristics of the open graded materials.

DISCUSSION

Four types of open-graded materials were selected to be used as potential permeable base materials. Only material from El Paso District was used as a source for this analysis. The test results indicated that the Type IV material (i.e., no material passing number 4 sieve) had a minimum water retention capacity and from the drainage point of view could be used as a permeable base material. However, the stiffuess test results indicated that the removal of the fraction passing number 200 sieve (TYPE I material) results in an extreme reduction of the stiffhess of compacted specimens. The loss of stiffness would be larger for a Type IV material than for Type I material. Thus, even though the Type IV material could be appropriate from a drainage point of view, the low stiffhess and strength of this material precludes it from being used as a base material. These considerations lead to believe that the improved drainability and sufficient stiffhess can only be achieved by stabilizing the OGBM.

CHAPTER 6

CEMENT -STABILIZED BASE MATERIALS

INTRODUCTION

The results of the tests performed on cement stabilized base material (CSBM) are presented in this chapter. The tests were performed on three different materials. The main reason being that since only the gravel fraction was used, there are only three different sources of material in the present study: 1) limestone, 2) caliche, and 3) sand and gravel.

MATERIAL SELECTION

The test results described previously on open-graded materials showed that the removal of fines and sand from the DGBM will improve drainability. However, the resilient modulus tests indicated that the removal of fines also reduces the stiffhess. This led to believe in the need for stabilization of the OGBM to retain drainability and increase stiffhess.

The base material could be stabilized either with portland or asphalt cements. The portland cement was selected as the stabilizing agent due to the following reasons:

- 1) Stabilization with portland cement was cheaper than using asphalt cement. The cost of cement stabilized material was roughly about \$39 per $m³$ (\$30 per yd³) while the asphalt stabilized material cost was roughly about \$47 per m^3 (\$36 per yd³). This cost analyses is based on information provided by Jobe Concrete of El Paso, Texas.
- 2) Another factor to consider was the potential stripping of asphalt from the asphalt concrete mixture. The asphalt stabilized material may not have been a problem for a rigid pavement, because the strength of the base material is of more importance during the construction rather then after the concrete layer has been poured. However, for asphalt concrete pavements, the base layer is designed to carry the traffic loads and stripping of the asphalt stabilized base layer could result in failure under the traffic loads.

After selection of stabilizing agent, it was necessary to identify the amount needed for a permeable base. A literature survey of existing practices (Hall, 1994b) indicated that most of the agencies have used 90-180 Kg/m³ (or 150-300 lb/yd³) of cement for the stabilization of permeable base materials. To prepare specimens in the laboratory, it was more convenient to identify the cement requirement as a percent by weight of the base material. The $Kg/m³$ information was converted to percent by weight of the OGBM material. Cement contents of3%, 5%, and 7% were selected for the evaluation of the cement-stabilized open-graded materials. The 5% cement by weight translates to 95 Kg/m³ (165 lb/yd³) and the 7% cement in the specimen translates to 130 Kg/m³ (230 lb/yd³). Both of these combinations are well within the range suggested by the existing literature. The 3% cement content was selected to identify the possibility of lowering the construction cost of the permeable base. Water-cement ratios of 0.45 and 0.475 were used in the present study. The selection of these ratios was also based on the ranges suggested by previous researchers (Hall, 1994b).

The OGBM results indicated that a Type IV material (no fines and no sand) can be used to improve drainability. However, the loss of stability made it necessary to stabilize the OGBM. The stabilization of the base material could reduce the drainability as compared to the open-graded base material alone. Hence it was decided to eliminate all the material passing sieve number 3/8. The selection of this sieve as the cut off point was also based on the review of existing literature (Hall, 1994b).

The removal of material passing sieve number 3/8 resulted in just the gravel fraction. The nine selected DGBM had only four types of gravel: 1) Limestone, 2) Caliche, 3) Sand and Gravel, and 4) Iron-ore. Further investigation revealed that the usage of Iron-ore base material is declining because Iron-ore is not available any more. Hence only three materials were used in the present test program. Three gravel, three cement percentages, and two water cement ratios were selected. Specimens were prepared and cured. Then the specimens were subjected to similar tests as implemented on the nine selected base materials. The procedures followed for specimen preparation are provided in Appendix B (for water retention test) and Appendix D (for permeability test). The specimens for stiffness tests were prepared as the permeability test specimens but had three sets of steel targets inserted into them during compaction. Also, the strength and stiffness specimens were cured for 28 days as compared to 24 hrs for permeability or water retention specimens.

While performing stiffness and strength tests on limestone gravel, it was observed that the specimens with 3% cement were producing a lean stabilized material and the aggregate coating was poor (Even though the strength and *stiffness were higher than for DGBM). This lead to the decision of not using 3% cement as an alternative material. Hence, soil water retention tests and permeability tests were not performed on specimens with 3% cement.*

STIFFNESS AND STRENGTH CHARACTERISTICS

The complete set of all the tests performed on the selected cement stabilized materials are presented in Appendix H. The results obtained on the compacted specimens of stabilized base materials are summarized in Table 6.1. The parameters K_2 and K_3 indicate the influence of the deviatoric stress " σ_d " and the confining pressure " σ_c " on the resilient modulus. The values obtained from the

regression analyses (Table 6.1) appear to have almost a random variability; some are positive, others are negative, and in general the absolute values are small. The correlation coefficients " R^{2n} are also listed in Table 6.1. They indicate quite a good fit of the regression line to the data points. All these considerations point to the fact that the variability of the results in the resilient modulus test cannot be explained by the dependence on deviatoric stress and/or confining pressure. From a phenomenological point of view, it can be expected that the resilient moduli of the CSBM should not be affected by confining pressure or deviatoric stress unless these can brake down the cement bonds. The stress levels applied during the test cannot break down the interparticle bonds and, thus, the variability observed can in all certainty be attributed to random testing errors.

Table 6.1 Constitutive Parameters from Resilient Modulus Tests of Cement Stabilized Gravels

* Specimen failed during testing Notes:

$$
1) \t M_R = K_1 \sigma_d^{K_2} \sigma_c^{K_3}
$$

2) M_R in MPa σ_d in KPa *oc* in KPa

3) All specimens were cured for 28 days.

These considerations suggested the need to fit a linear regression model to the stress versus induced strains data points irrespective of the confining or deviatoric stresses applied. The slope of the linear model is then an "average" resilient modulus for the material in Table 6.2. It is worth to point that the correlation coefficients for these linear regressions are very similar to those that had been obtained with the nonlinear regression model of Table 6.1.

The "average" resilient moduli of the dense-graded bases are shown in Table 6.2 in correspondence to the type of the material. These results clearly illustrate that the cement-stabilized gravel has resilient moduli 10 to 20 times larger than the dense-graded base. Thus according to these data, the cement stabilization has increased the stiflhess of the base to levels more than adequate for the base to carry construction or traffic loads.

The elastic moduli (in compression) measured in unconfined compression tests are listed in Table 6.3. It is revealing to notice that the elastic moduli of CSBM are almost identical to the average resilient moduli of CSBM listed in Table 6.2. This observation further confirms the fact that the variability in the resilient modulus test results was the result of random testing errors; rather then the effect of changes in confining or deviatoric stresses. In summary, these considerations allow to consider the CSBM with 5% or 7% of cement as a linearly elastic material.

The average elastic moduli measured in unconfined compression tests of DGBM are also listed in Table 6.3. The elastic moduli of the CSBM are from 10 to 20 times larger than the elastic moduli measured on the specimens of DGBM of corresponding base material type.

The unconfined compressive strength of CSBM are presented in Table 6.4 in correspondence with the ultimate strengths about 5 to 10 times lower than the other two types of base, i.e., limestone or sand and gravel. For the caliche type base, the strength of CSBM is only about three times larger than the DGBM specimens while for limestone or sand and gravel the CSBM is from 20 to 30 times stronger than the specimens of DGBM of the corresponding type.

The results of strength and stiflhess tests discussed have clearly shown that the cementstabilized gravel can perform as a base layer and carry construction and the traffic loads at even higher levels than the specimens of DGBM.

Gravel Type	Cement $(\%)$	Water-Cement Ratio	Average Resilient Modulus of CSBM (MPa)	Average Resilient Modulus of DGBM (MPa)	
		0.45	7000 $(0.95)^+$		
	5	0.475	6000 (0.91)		
Limestone		0.45	7000 (0.97)	315	
	$\overline{7}$	0.475	10000 (0.82)		
	5	0.45	1000 (0.90)		
		0.475	\ast		
Caliche	$\overline{7}$	0.45	2000 (0.96)	151	
		0.475	4000 (0.78)		
Sand and Gravel	5	0.45	6000 (0.98)		
		0.475	10000 (0.68)	184	
		0.45	10000 (0.82)		
	$\overline{7}$	0.475	2000 (0.97)		

Table 6.2 Comparison of Average Resilient Modulus of CSBM and DGBM

* Specimen failed before testing.

 $+$ Number in parenthesis indicate the $R²$ obtained from linear regression.

Table 6.3 Comparison of Elastic Moduli of CSBM and DGBM

* Specimen failed before testing

⁺Number in parenthesis indicate the compaction moisture content

Gravel Type	Cement (%)	Water-Cement Ratio	Average Ultimate Strength of CSBM (MPa)	Average Ultimate Strength of DGBM (MPa)	
		0.45	4.4		
	5	0.475	4.3		
Limestone	$\overline{7}$	0.45	4.6	$0.19(7.0\%)^+$	
		0.475	6.2		
		0.45	0.6		
	5	0.475	\ast		
Caliche	7	0.45	0.6	$0.19(19.1\%)$	
		0.475	2.5		
Sand and Gravel		0.45	4.0		
	5	0.475	5.7		
		3.3 0.45		0.16(3.2%)	
	7	0.475	4.3		

Table 6.4 Comparison of Unconfined Compressive Strengths of CSBM and DGBM

* Specimen failed during testing

⁺Number in parenthesis indicate the compaction moisture content

SOIL WATER RETENTION CHARACTERISTICS

The complete set of water retention test performed on the selected cement stabilized materials is presented in Appendix I. The water retention capacities are summarized in Table 6.5. The table shows a maximum degree of saturation of 18% for limestone gravel with 7% cement and 0.45 water cement ratio. The minimum water retention capacity of3% was observed for Caliche gravel with 7% cement and a 0.45 water-cement ratio. On the average the water retention capacities were around degrees of saturations of 12%. In general caliche gravel showed lower retention capacities than limestone or sand and gravel. It is worth noticing that the water retention capacities for CSBM are lower than those reported earlier for OGBM. To a certain extent the cement paste seams to occupy the grain-to-grain contacts such that they are not available for retention of capillary water.

It can be concluded that the water retention capacities of all the specimens are good and that the cement-stabilized material is an acceptable alternative for permeable bases.

PERMEABILITY CHARACTERISTICS

The complete set of permeability test on CSBM, is presented in Appendix J. A summary of test results is shown in Table 6.6. The minimum permeability coefficient measured was 20,000 m/day (Caliche 7% cement *.*45 water-cement ratio) and the maximum permeability coefficient of 89,500 m/day (Limestone *5%* cement and 0.45 water-cement ratio). All the permeability coefficients measured were higher than the minimum suggested by FHWA of 300 m/day. However, caliche gravel showed lower permeability coefficients than limestone or sand and gravel. In general, the cementstabilized materials with 7% cement had lower permeability coefficients than the specimens of cement-stabilized with *5%* cement.

DISCUSSION

The results of the evaluation of the cement-stabilized gravels indicate that cement contents of 5% and 7% cement and water-cement ratios of0.45 and 0.475 could be used for any of the three gravels to produce a permeable base material. The recommended materials are the following:

The caliche gravel stabilized with *5%* cement showed poor handling during testing. Even though the stability numbers were higher with *5%* cement than of those for the DGBM, the use of 7% cement is recommended to provide the strength expected from a base layer.

For the limestone or the sand and gravel base materials, the stability and drainability considerations suggests that 5% cement can provide a base material superior to the DGBM from every point of view. The results of the present study suggest that the stability of specimens of CSBM with water-cement ratio of 0.475 exhibit somewhat higher stability.

Gravel Type	Cement $(\%)$	Water-Cement Ratio	Saturation $(\%)$
		0.45	11
	5	0.475	11
Limestone		0.45	18
	7	0.475	12
		0.45	9
	5	0.475	12
Caliche		0.45	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$
	7	0.475	14
		0.45	11
	5	0.475	12
Sand and Gravel		0.45	12
	7	0.475	13

Table 6.5 Water Retention Capacities of Cement-Stabilized Base Material

Gravel Type	Cement (%)	Water-Cement Ratio	Permeability Coefficient (m/day)
		0.45	89,500
	5	0.475	59,710
Limestone	7	0.45	46,273
		0.475	47,485
		0.45	\ast
	5	0.475	\ast
Caliche		0.45	20,727
	7	0.475	22,360
		0.45	49,751
Sand and Gravel	5	0.475	48,948
		0.45	40,023
	7	0.475	34,424

Table 6.5 Permeability Coefficients of Cement Stabilized Base Material

* Specimen broke before testing

CHAPTER 7

DESIGN AND CONSTRUCTION OF DRAINABLE BASES

INTRODUCTION

The design of a penneable base consists of the design of three components: 1) base course material, 2) separator layer, and 3) drainage system. The base course material includes aggregates and cement stabilization. The design and construction of a separator layer is necessary to prevent the contamination of the base layer by the fines in the subgrade or sub-base layers. The drainage system is necessary to drain the water out of the permeable base. The guidelines presented in this chapter are the result of a literature survey, and the laboratory program described in the previous sections of the present report.

BASE COURSE MATERIAL

Aggregate

Aggregate gradations used for penneable bases by different highway agencies are summarized in Table 7.1. The gradation of the gravels used in the present study are also summarized in this table. It is recommended to use this gradation band when selecting base material with no percent passing sieve number 3/8. The gradation used should be based on wet sieve analysis to prevent the inclusion of fines with the gravel.

Other aggregate properties also specified by various highway agencies include to require 90 to 100 percent crushed aggregate with a maximum loss of 40 percent in the LA Abrasion Wear test. Furthermore, the crushed aggregates should have at least two mechanically fractured faces, as determined on the material retained on sieve No.4. When the penneable base will be subjected to freeze-thaw cycles, the durability of the aggregates should be tested by a soundness test. Typical specifications require that the soundness percent loss not to exceed 12 or 18 percent as determined by the sodium sulfate or magnesium sulfate tests, respectively.

	Percent Passing							
Sieve Size	AASHTO No. 57 Stone	AASHTO No. 67 Stone	Virginia	Army Corps of Engineers	UTEP			
37.5 mm $(1.5$ in.)	100				100			
25.0 mm $(1.0$ in.)	95-100	100	100	100	75-60			
19.0 mm $(3/4 \text{ in.})$		90-100		90-100	$25 - 40$			
12.7 mm. (0.5 in.)	25-60		$25 - 50$	40-80	$10 - 15$			
9.5 mm. $(3/8$ in.)		$20 - 55$		$30 - 50$	$\mathbf 0$			
4.75 mm. (No. 4)	$0 - 10$	$0 - 10$	$0 - 10$	$0 - 5$				
2.36 mm. (No. 8)	$0 - 5$	$0 - 5$	$0 - 5$	$0 - 2$				

Table 7.1 Typical Aggregate Gradations for Cement-Treated Permeable Bases

Cement

The recommended 5% cement content by weight in the laboratory specimen translates to 95 Kg/ $m³$ (or 165 lb/yd³) and the 7% cement in the specimen translates to 130 Kg/m³ (or 230 lb/yd³). The water-cement ratios of 0.45 and 0.475 yields 40 kg of water $/m³$ (or 70 lb/yd³) to mix with the cement and blend with the aggregate.

Curing

Curing is an important aspect of constructing cement stabilized bases. A possible method is to cover the permeable base with polyethylene sheeting for 3 to 5 days. Another method is to apply fine water mist several times of the day after the base has been poured.

Capillary Breaks

It is important to realize that if a perfect permeable base is placed in a pavement structure, care has to be exercised to ensure that the base layer is opened to the atmosphere whether in the drainage ditch or in special registers placed to achieve this goal. It is necessary to prevent that the base layer is in contact with the atmosphere only through crack and joints. In such case, the size of the cracks or joints will control, or could control, the drainability of an otherwise perfect permeable base. The concern is that if the base layer and the cracks or joints are saturated, the meniscii formed within the cracks will prevent the drainage of the pore water from the base, if the base does not have any other access to the atmosphere than minute fissures and cracks.

The solution is to not cover all the base with somewhat impermeable surface layers. An alternative is to have frequent breaks in the impermeable layer of a few inches in size, perhaps by leaving pipe sections embedded in the surface layers that expose the base layer to the atmosphere.

Base Thickness

A minimum base thickness of 100 mm (4 inches) is suggested for the permeable base. This thickness is adequate to overcome any construction variances and provide adequate hydraulic conduit to transmit the water to the edge drain. The material properties reported in Chapter 6 can also be used to estimate the minimum thickness necessary for the base layer.

SEPARATOR LAYER

A separator layer must be provided between the permeable base and the subbase/subgrade to keep soil particles from contaminating the permeable base. Either an aggregate separator layer or geomembrane can be used. The aggregate separator layer should consist of durable, crushed, angular aggregate material. The aggregate should at least meet the requirements for a Class C Aggregate in accordance with AASHTO M 283-83 Coarse Aggregate for Highway and Airport Construction. This means that the LA Abrasion Wear should not exceed 50 percent as determined by AASHTO T 96-87. The FHWA recommends that the soundness percent loss should not exceed 12 or 18 percent as determined by the sodium sulfate or magnesium sulfate tests, respectively. The material should be compacted at a 95 percent of the maximum density as determined by AASHTO T 180-90, Moisture Density Relationship Using a 4.5 Kg (10-lb) hammer and 45.7 em (18 in.) drop.

The gradation of the aggregate separator layer must meet the requirements for the aggregate separator layer/subgrade interface as listed below:

 D_{15} (Separator Layer) \leq 5 D_{85} (Subgrade)

D $_{50}$ (Separator Layer) \le 25 D $_{50}$ (Subgrade)

where the D_x is the size that corresponds to "X" percent finer on the gradation curve of the corresponding material. These equations must also be applied to the base/separator layer interface:

 D_{15} (Base) ≤ 5 D_{85} (Separator Layer)

D $_{50}$ (Base) ≤ 25 D $_{50}$ (Separator Layer)

The aggregate separator layer should contain a maximum percent of fines passing No. 200 sieve of 12 percent or less. A minimum thickness of 100 mm (4 inches) is recommended for the aggregate separator layer. This requirement is based on construction considerations. The aggregate separator layer is as important as the permeable base and the subgrade in developing a strong pavement section. A separator layer is not a substitute for a strong, uniform subgrade.

The presence of a granular separator layer under the drainable base layer has some disadvantages. The most obvious is that the separator layer will now be the trap of moisture. Thus
it will act as a reservoir supplying moisture to the subgrade or subbase layer. Furthermore, this water reservoir will also be providing a source of water vapor within the pavement structure. This vapor phase will provide a bridge for the water in the separator layer to evaporate/condensate (associated with daily temperature variations) in other pavement layers. Thus the ideal separator layer should not only prevent soil contamination but at the same time not cause water retention within the pavement.

An obvious alternative is to use a geomembrane as the separator layer. The initial cost of a geomembrane could be outweighed by the long term savings. Other alternatives seems possible but their feasibility has to be investigated. One of these alternatives, could be to form a solid Portland cement concrete separator layer at the time of pouring the base layer.

DRAINAGE SYSTEM

It is necessary to design the drainage system to be able to handle all the surface run-off plus all the contribution from the permeable base. If the capacity of the drainage system is not enough, backflooding will be caused in the base layer and the time to drain will be correspondingly increased.

Some State highway agencies have used 150 mm (6 inches) diameter flexible corrugated polyethylene tubing for longitudinal edge drain pipe. Other highway agencies have used rigid PVC slotted pipes. In general the initial cost of rigid pipe is higher, however, rigid PVC pipes are a long term solution. One of the main advantages is that the rigid PVC pipes provide more protection against crushing during construction or maintenance operations.

DESIGN AND CONSTRUCTION CONSIDERATIONS

Subsurface drainage design must be coordinated with surface drainage. The lateral outlet pipes should be placed on a minimum slope of 3 percent. The invert of the outlet pipe should be located 150 mm (6 inches) above the 10-year design flow of the ditch. This is needed to help prevent flooding of the permeable base by water from the ditch backing up into the edge drain system. Although outlet spacings between 90 to 150 m (300 to 500 ft) have been used, FHWA recommends a maximum of 75 m (250 ft) to ensure rapid drainage. The edge drain should be segmented so that each section drains independently.

MAINTENANCE

With all permeable base systems, a definite commitment of agency resources is required to maintain edge drains and outlet in good conditions. Otherwise the system becomes clogged and the advantage of drainage is lost. Fines and sediment collecting in the edge drains may reduce flow and eventually clog the outlet pipe. On the outside, debris mower clippings accumulating at the rodent screens may block the flow. Outlets and the edge drains should be inspected regularly. Clearing the outlets and flushing the edge drains should be performed as necessary. Paint marks on the shoulder can help maintenance personals to locate the outlets.

CHAPTERS

CLOSURE

SUMMARY

Base materials for pavements have been traditionally selected on their ability to distribute the traffic loads to the weaker underlying subbase layer or subgrade. Little or no emphasis has been focused towards drainability of the base materials. The base materials commonly used in Texas have poor drainability. This has resulted in premature failure of pavements. The concern of poor drainability, a lack of guidelines for the design, and construction of drainable bases lead to the sponsoring of the presently reported project.

The objective of developing guidelines for design and construction of permeable bases was achieved in three phases. In the first phase, a literature search was performed to identify test procedures for the evaluation of stability and drainability of base materials. In the second phase, the existing base materials were evaluated for stability and drainability. In the third phase, new or alternative materials were developed and tested for stability and drainability. The goal for the new or alternative materials was to have higher drainability and similar stability as of existing bases.

The existing base materials showed high water retention capacities and small coefficients of permeability, in general less than 100 m/day. The FHWA suggests permeability coefficient of more than 300 m/day. These results indicate that the existing base materials have poor drainability.

To improve the drainability of base materials, it was decided to eliminate fines and fine, medium, and coarse sand. The tested material showed improved drainability, but associated with a drastic reduction of stability indicating that the base material with no fines or sands needs to be stabilized.

The gravel fraction of the existing base materials was used for the stabilized materials to retain a high level of drainability. Two cement contents 5 percent and 7 percent and two water-cement ratios 0.45 and 0.475 were used. Three sources of gravel were used: 1) limestone, 2) caliche, and 3) gravel and sand. The results of the laboratory program showed that gravels stabilized with Portland cement can provide highly drainable materials with also very high strength and stiffhess.

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions can be drawn from this study:

- Base materials currently used in Texas have poor drainability.
- Base materials with no fines are not stable enough to be used as an alternative material.
- Cement stabilized material can be used for improving the drainability without loosing the stability of the base layer.
- Limestone or sand and gravel should be stabilized with 5% cement and a 0.475 watercement ratio. The caliche should be stabilized with 7% cement and a 0.475 watercement ratio.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The results of the present study indicate that the cement stabilized materials can be used to improve drainability of base layers without compromising the stability. It is recommended that the Texas Department of Transportation considers the implementation of a pilot project using the presently proposed guidelines. This step will help in identifying problems with the proposed guidelines. These problems can then be used to modify/improve the guidelines. The pilot project can also be monitored on a long term basis to document the benefits of using permeable base layers in pavements.

An additional aspect that needs further study is the feasibility of providing alternative separator layers to the granular separator layer being considered in the present study.

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APPENDIX A

DRAFT PROTOCOL FOR SOIL WATER RETENTION TESTING OF DENSE-GRADED BASE MATERIAL

 $\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)$

WATER RETENTION CAPACITY OF DENSE-GRADED BASE MATERIALS

This method covers a test procedure for determining water retention capacity of dense-graded base material.

Test **Conditions**

The following ideal test conditions are prerequisite for the water retention capacity of dense-graded base material:

- Continuous saturation of high air entry porous stone during a test.
- Continuous supply of air pressure for maintaining constant pressure.
- Removal of all the air bubbles inside the dense-graded base material voids.
- Slow saturation of dense-graded base material specimen to avoid any movement of fines within the specimen.

Apparatus

- Water retention specimen holder, as shown in Figure A.1, shall consist of a cylinder (preferably PVC) with an average diameter of ISO mm (6 inches) and a height of approximately I60 mm (6.25 inches). The cylinder shall have groves at the bottom for proper fitting of high air entry porous stone and threads on the outer side of the cylinder (top only). A cap with matching threads shall be used to properly seal the top of the cylinder. The caps shall also have a viewing window (Figure A.1) to see the level of water above the specimen. A base fixture, as shown in Figure A2, for preventing the movement of high air entry porous stone due to air pressure and continuous exposure of high air entry porous stone to the water.
- In general, tap water has salts and may alter the dense-graded base material composition. Hence, it is necessary to remove salts from the tap water and can be easily eliminated by deionizing water.
- A one bar high air entry porous stone.
- Specimen shall be compacted inside the cylinder using standard compaction equipment i.e. standard Proctor hammer and the compaction unit as shown in Figure A.3.
- Vacuum pump or water faucet aspirator, for evacuating and for saturating dense-graded base material specimens under full vacuum.
- Air compressor (or laboratory compressed air faucet), for applying constant air pressure on the specimen.
- Miscellaneous Apparatus, including, vernier calliper, pan, mixing pan, scoop, drying oven, balance, hydraulic press, moisture content cans, simple microscope, silicone gun and Teflon tape, pH and conductivity meter, valves, gages, tubes, fittings, and data sheets.

Specimen Preparation

 $\bar{\gamma}$

Specimen Preparation (continued)

Procedure

Procedure (continued)

Calculations

The level of saturation of the dense-graded base material specimen is defined based on the water retention capacity of the dense-graded base material and can be calculated as follows:

Saturation (%) -
$$
\frac{V_W}{V_V}
$$
 · 100 (A.1)

where:

 $V_{\rm V}$ = volume of voids in the specimen, V_w = volume of water in the specimen. Calculate the volume of voids V_v using the following equation:

$$
V_{\mathbf{v}} - V_{\mathbf{T}} - V_{\mathbf{S}} \tag{A.2}
$$

where:

 V_T = total volume of the specimen,

 V_s = volume of the dense-graded base material solids in the specimen.

The total volume of the specimen is equal to $\pi^*(D/2)^{2*}$ Height of the specimen and both height and diameter of the cylinder can be measured, as suggested in the step 3 of the specimen preparation. The volume of dense-graded base material solids can be calculated using following equation:

$$
V_s \cdot \frac{M_s}{\rho_s} \tag{A.3}
$$

where:

 M_s = mass of the dense-graded base material solids,

 p_s = density of the dense-graded base material solids.

The specific gravity of the dense-graded base material can be determined using Tex-108-E test method. The mass of the dense-graded base material solids can be calculated:

$$
M_{S} - \frac{M_{CS} - M_{C}}{1 + M_{MC} / 100}
$$
 (A.4)

where:

 M_{cs} mass of dense-graded base material plus mass of the cylinder,

 M_c = mass of the cylinder,

 M_{MC} = Actual moisture content of the specimen in percent.

The volume of water inside the voids, V_w , is equal to the mass of water, M_w , inside the specimen (assuming density of water equal to 1 g/cc). M_w can be calculated using the following equation:

$$
M_{\mathcal{W}} \cdot M_{T \cdot \mathcal{W}} \cdot M_{T} \cdot \left(\frac{M_{S} \cdot M_{MC}}{100}\right) \tag{A.5}
$$

where:

= mass of the water in the voids of the specimen, $\mathbf{M}_{\mathbf{w}}$ M_{T+W} = total mass of the specimen plus water from step 2 of the procedure, total mass measured in step 8 of the specimen preparation. $\rm M_{\scriptscriptstyle T}$

Report

The report of water retention capacity of dense-graded base material shall include the following information:

- water retention characteristics test data sheet,
- grain size analysis,
- specific gravity of the dense-graded base material,
- a statement of any departures from these test conditions, so the results can be evaluated and used, and
- a plot of mass of water, M_w versus elapsed time.

Figure A.l Water Retention Test Setup for Base Materials

Figure A.2 Base Fixture for Water Retention Test Setup for Base Materials

Figure A.3 Compaction Mold for Base Materials

Soil Water Retention Test of Dense-Graded Base Materials

Figure A.4 Soil Water Retention Test Data Sheet for Dense-Graded Base Material

APPENDIX B

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DRAFT PROTOCOL FOR SOIL WATER RETENTION TESTING OF CEMENT -STABILIZED BASE MATERIAL

 $\label{eq:2.1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^{2} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^{2} \left(\$

WATER RETENTION CAPACITY OF CEMENT-STABILIZED BASE MATERIALS

This method covers a test procedure for determining water retention capacity of cement-stabilized base material.

Test Conditions

The following ideal test conditions are prerequisite for the water retention capacity of cementstabilized base material:

- Continuous saturation of high air entry porous stone during a test.
- Continuous supply of air pressure for maintaining constant pressure.
- Removal of all the air bubbles inside the cement-stabilized base material voids.

Apparatus

- Water retention specimen holder, as shown in Figure A.1, shall consist of a cylinder (preferably PVC) with an average diameter of 150 mm (6 inches) and a height of approximately 160 mm (6.25 inches). The cylinder shall have groves at the bottom for proper fitting of high air entry porous stone and threads on the outer side of the cylinder (top only). A cap with matching threads shall be used to properly seal the top of the cylinder. The caps shall also have a viewing window (Figure A. 1) to see the level of water above the specimen. A base fixture, as shown in Figure A.2, for preventing the movement of high air entry porous stone due to air pressure and continuous exposure of high air entry porous stone to the water.
- In general, tap water has salts and may alter the cement-stabilized gravel composition. Hence, it is necessary to remove salts from the tap water and can be easily eliminated by de-ionizing water.
- A one bar high air entry porous stone.
- Specimen shall be compacted inside the cylinder using standard compaction equipment i.e. standard proctor hammer and the compaction unit as shown in Figure A.3.
- Vacuum pump or water faucet aspirator, for evacuating and for saturating cement-stabilized gravel under full vacuum.
- Air compressor (or laboratory compressed air faucet), for applying constant air pressure on the specimen.
- Miscellaneous Apparatus, including, vernier calliper, pan, mixing pan, scoop, drying oven, balance, hydraulic press, moisture content cans, simple microscope, silicone gun and Teflon tape, pH and conductivity meter, valves, gages, tubes, fittings, and data sheets.

Specimen Preparation

Procedure

Calculations

The level of saturation of the cement-stabilized specimen is defined based on the water retention capacity of the cement-stabilized base material and can be calculated as follows:

Saturation (%) -
$$
\frac{V_W}{V_V}
$$
 - 100 (B.1)

where:

 $V_{\rm v}$ = volume of voids in the specimen, V_w = volume of water in the specimen. Calculate the volume of voids V_v using the following equation:

$$
V_{\mathbf{v}} \cdot V_T \cdot V_S \tag{B.2}
$$

where:

 V_T = total volume of the specimen,

 V_s = volume of the cement-stabilized gravel in the specimen.

The total volume of the specimen is equal to $\pi^*(D/2)^{2*}$ Height of the specimen and both height and diameter of the cylinder can be measured, as suggested in the step 3 of the specimen preparation. The volume of cement-stabilized gravel can be calculated using following equation:

$$
V_s \cdot \frac{M_s}{\rho_s} \tag{B.3}
$$

where:

 M_s = mass of the cement-stabilized gravel,

 p_s = density of the cement-stabilized gravel.

The specific gravity of the cement-stabilized gravel can be determined using Tex-207-F test method. The mass of the cement-stabilized gravel can be calculated:

$$
M_S \cdot M_{CS} \cdot M_C \tag{B.4}
$$

where:

 M_{CS} = mass of cement-stabilized gravel plus mass of the cylinder, $\rm M_{\odot}$ = mass of the cylinder.

The volume of water inside the voids, V_w , is equal to the mass of water, M_w , inside the specimen (assuming density of water equal to 1 g/cc). M_w can be calculated using the following equation:

$$
M_{\mathcal{W}} \cdot M_{T \cdot \mathcal{W}} \cdot M_T \tag{B.5}
$$

where:

 M_{w} $=$ mass of the water in the voids of the specimen, M_{T+W} = total mass of the specimen plus water from step 2 of the procedure, = total mass measured in step 8 of the specimen preparation. $M_{\rm \tau}$

Report

The report of water retention capacity of cement-stabilized base material shall include the following information:

- water retention characteristics test data sheet,
- grain size analysis,
- specific gravity of the cement-stabilized base material,
- a statement of any departures from these test conditions, so the results can be evaluated and used, and
- a plot of mass of water, M_w versus elapsed time.

Soil Water Retention Test of Cement-Stabilized Base Materials

Figure B.l Soil Water Retention Test Data Sheet for Cement-Stabilized Base Material

APPENDIX C

DRAFT PROTOCOL FOR COEFFICIENT OF PERMEABILITY TESTING OF DENSE-GRADED BASE MATERIAL

(This test procedure is modified from the original AASHTO Test Procedure T 215-70)

PERMEABILITY OF DENSE GRADED-BASE MATERIALS (CONSTANT HEAD)

This method covers a test procedure for determining the coefficient of permeability by a constanthead method for the laminar flow of water through dense-graded base material.

Test Conditions

The following ideal test conditions are prerequisite for the laminar flow of water through densegraded base material under constant head conditions:

- Continuity of flow with little or no dense-graded base material volume changes during a test.
- Flow with the voids saturated with water and no air bubbles in the voids.
- Direct proportionality of velocity of flow with hydraulic gradients below certain critical values, where turbulent flow starts.
- All other types of flow involving partial saturation of voids, turbulent flow, and unsteady state of flow are transient in character and yield variable and time-dependent coefficients of permeability; therefore, they require special test conditions and procedures.

Apparatus

- Permeameter, as shown in Figure C.1, shall consist of a cylinder with an average diameter of 150 mm (6 inches) and a height of approximately 300 mm (12 inches) or higher. The permeameter cylinder shall have groves at the top and bottom for proper fitting of porous stones with openings sufficiently small to prevent movement of particles. Also, the permeameter shall have caps with stoppers (Figure B. 1) to prevent changes in the placement density and volume of specimen during the saturation and permeability testing. This step will satisfy the proposed test conditions.
- In general, tap water has air in solution and interferes with the fundamental test conditions of the test. Hence, it is necessary to remove air from the tap water. The air can be removed by allowing the water to pass through misters and apply vacuum to remove the air. This concept is used to develop a de-airing tank. De-airing tank, as shown in Figure C.l, shall be used to remove most of the air from tap water. The de-airing tank consists of a steel drum, a PVC drum, valves and fittings, and a series of misters. The steel drum shall have a minimum capacity of 0.19 m^3 (50 gallons) and PVC drum shall have a minimum capacity of 0.15 m³ (40 gallons). These requirements are to ensure sufficient supply of de-aired water. The PVC drum shall be kept inside the steel drum (if only PVC drum is used then the drum will collapse due to vacuum and if only steel drum is used then the life of steel drum is reduced because of rusting). Five to eight misters can be used for spraying the water in the tank. A constant vacuum of 130 mm of Hg (5 inch of Hg) shall be maintained in the tank for continuous removal of air and at the same time to store the de-aired water inside the tank.

The tank shall have four valves: 1) valve 1 is used to supply the tap water, 2) valve 2 is used to drain the de-aired water for constant head tank, 3) valve 3 is used for applying the vacuum inside the tank, and 4) valve 4 is used finding the level of water inside the tank. Usually, it takes about four to six hours to de-air 0.075 m^3 (20 gallons) of water.

- A water pumping system is required to pump the water to the water storage tank. This system is necessary to avoid any air contact before the water goes to the constant head tank. The water pumping system, as shown in Figure C.1 consists of a bladder, an acrylic cylinder, valves and fittings, and two end plates. The de-aired water is pumped in and out of the cylinder to the storage tank by alternating vacuum or air supply to the bladder.
- Water storage tanks, as shown in Figure C.1, shall be used to supply the water to constant head tank. Two water storage tanks are necessary to maintain constant head throughout the testing of a specimen.
- Constant Head Tank, as shown in Figure C.1, shall be used for maintaining the constant head on the specimen. The tank consists of two slits. The slits on both sides are to ensure the maintenance of constant head.
- Specimen shall be compacted inside the permeameter using standard compaction equipment i.e. standard proctor hammer and the compaction unit as shown in Figure A.3.
- Vacuum pump or water faucet aspirator, for evacuating and for saturating specimens under full vacuum.
- Air compressor (or laboratory compressed air faucet), for pumping the water from water pumping system to the water storage tank.
- Manometer tubes and a scale, as shown in Figure C.1, is needed for measuring the water head loss.
- Miscellaneous Apparatus, including thermometer, stop watch, vernier calipers, 500 ml graduate, quart jar, mixing pan, scoop, drying oven, balance, hydraulic press, moisture content cans, simple microscope, silicone gun and Teflon tape, pH and conductivity meter, geotextile patch, mesh, valves, gages, tubes, fittings, and data sheets.

Specimen Preparation

 \overline{a}

Specimen Preparation (Continued)

Procedure

Procedure (Continued)

Calculations

Calculate the permeability coefficient using Darcy's Law:

$$
k - \frac{Q \cdot L}{A \cdot t \cdot h} \tag{C.1}
$$

where:

 $k =$ permeability coefficient,

- $Q =$ quantity of water discharged,
- $L =$ distance between manometers,
- $A = \text{cross-sectional area of specimen}$,
- $t =$ total time of discharge,
- $h =$ difference in head on manometers (or head loss).

However, this equation is valid only if the water flow occurs under laminar flow conditions. At higher velocities, a transitional flow occurs which can be characterized by the equation:

> $i - aa + ba^2$ (C.2)

where:

- \mathbf{i} $=$ hydraulic gradient (h/L)
- $q =$ discharge velocity (Q/At)
- $a = \text{regression constant of the first order}$
- $b =$ regression constant of the second order

Using observed i and q data, regression constant a and b can be found. The inverse of regression constant a should be used as a permeability coefficient.

Report

The report of permeability test shall include the following information:

- Permeability test data sheet,
- Grain size analysis,
- A statement of any departures from these test conditions, so the results can be evaluated and used,
- A plot of permeability coefficient versus hydraulic gradient,
- A plot of hydraulic gradients versus discharge velocity. The plot should have three plotted data: 1) one data set should show the relationship between observed i and q, 2) the second data set should show relationship between predicted i (equation 2) and observed q, and 3) the third data set should show predicted i (using a of equation 2) and observed q. This plot will show both laminar and transitional flow.

Figure C.l Permeability Test Setup for Dense-Graded Base Material

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Permeability Test of Dense-Graded Base Materials

Figure C.2 Permeability Test Data Sheet for Dense-Graded Base Material

APPENDIX D

DRAFT PROTOCOL FOR COEFFICIENT OF PERMEABILITY TESTING OF CEMENT -STABILIZED BASE MATERIAL

(This test procedure is modified from the original AASHTO Test Procedure T 215-70)

PERMEABILITY OF CEMENT-STABILIZED BASE MATERIALS (CONSTANT HEAD)

This method covers a test procedure for determining the coefficient of permeability by a constanthead method for the laminar flow of water through cement-stabilized base material.

Test Conditions

The following ideal test conditions are prerequisite for the laminar flow of water through dense graded base material under constant head conditions:

- Continuity of flow with little or no specimen volume changes during a test.
- Flow with the soil voids saturated with water and no air bubbles in the voids.
- Direct proportionality of velocity of flow with hydraulic gradients below certain critical values, where turbulent flow starts.
- All other types of flow involving partial saturation of soil voids, turbulent flow, and unsteady state of flow are transient in character and yield variable and time-dependent coefficients of permeability; therefore, they require special test conditions and procedures.

Apparatus

- Permeameter, as shown in Figure D.1, shall consist of a top and bottom hollow cylinders (or end caps) with an average inside diameter of 15.56 em (6.125 inch) and a height of approximately 15.51 em (6.5 inch). Both cylinders shall have one end closed with a plate and an opening for inlet or outlet of water. Opening on both cylinders should have valves as shown in Figure D.1. Also, the hollow cylinders should have two grooves for O-rings and three set screws for properly securing the cylinders to the specimen, and opening and pipe fittings for manometer tubes.
- A split mold for specimen preparation, a hollow cylinder (stretcher) of size 155 mm by 300 mm (6.5 by 12 inch) for enclosing the specimen in latex membrane.
- In general, tap water has free air and interferes with the fundamental test conditions of the test. Hence, it is necessary to remove free air from the tap water. The free air can be removed by allowing the water to pass through misters and apply vacuum to remove the free air. This concept is used to develop a de-airing tank. De-airing tank, shown in Figure C.l, shall be used to remove most of the air from tap water. The de-airing tank consists of a steel drum, a PVC drum, valves and fittings, and a series of misters. The steel drum shall have a minimum capacity of 0.19 m³ (50 gallons) and PVC drum shall have a minimum capacity of 0.15 m³ (40 gallons). These requirements are to ensure sufficient supply of de-aired water. The PVC drum shall be kept inside the steel drum (if only PVC drum is used then the drum will collapse due to vacuum and if only steel drum is used then the life of steel drum is reduced because of rusting). Five to eight misters can be used for spraying the water in the tank. A constant vacuum of 12.7 cm of Hg (5 inch of Hg) shall be maintained in the tank for
continuous removal of air and at the same time to store the de-aired water inside the tank. The tank shall have four valves: 1) valve 1 is used to supply the tap water, 2) valve 2 is used to drain the de-aired water for constant head tank, 3) valve 3 is used for applying the vacuum inside the tank, and 4) valve 4 is used to find the level of water inside the tank. Usually, it takes about four to six hours to de-air 0.075 m³ (20 gallons) of water.

- \bullet Water storage tanks, as shown in Figure D.1, shall be used to supply the water to constant head tank. Five water storage tanks are necessary to maintain constant head throughout the testing of a specimen.
- Constant Head Tank, as shown in Figure D.1 shall be used for maintaining the constant head on the specimen. The tank incorporates two slits and two blocking plates. The slits on both sides is to ensure the maintenance of constant head and blockers are used for maintaining static head rather than dynamic head due to water currents. In other words, the greater amount of water flow for maintaining constant head can cause turbulence inside the constant head tank. This turbulence may not allow a constant head level on the specimen even though the water level inside the constant head remains the same.
- Specimen shall be compacted inside the permeameter using standard compaction equipment i.e. standard proctor hammer and the compaction unit as shown in Figure A.3.
- Vacuum pump or water faucet aspirator, for evacuating and for saturating specimens under full vacuum.
- Air compressor (or laboratory compressed air faucet), for pumping the water from water pumping system to the water storage tank.
- Manometer tubes and a scale, as shown in Figure D.1, is needed for measuring the water head loss.
- Miscellaneous Apparatus, including latex membrane, thermometer, stop watch, vernier calipers, 500 ml graduate, quart jar, mixing pan, scoop, drying oven, balance, hydraulic press, moisture content cans, simple microscope, silicone gun and Teflon tape, pH and conductivity meter, geotextile patch, mesh, valves, gages, tubes, fittings, and data sheets.

Specimen Preparation

Specimen Preparation (continued)

Procedure

Procedure (continued)

Calculations

Calculate the permeability coefficient using Darcy's Law:

$$
k - \frac{Q \cdot L}{A \cdot t \cdot h} \tag{25}
$$

where:

- $k =$ permeability coefficient,
- $Q =$ quantity of water discharged,
- $L =$ distance between manometers,
- $A = \csc$ -sectional area of specimen,
- t $=$ total time of discharge,
- $h =$ difference in head on manometers (or head loss).

However, this equation is valid only if the water flow occurs under laminar flow conditions. At higher velocities, a transitional flow occurs which can be characterized by the equation:

$$
i - aq + bq^2 \tag{26}
$$

where:

- i. $=$ hydraulic gradient (h/L)
- $q =$ discharge velocity (Q/At)
- $a =$ regression constant of the first order
- $b = \text{regression constant of the second order}$

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Using observed i and q data, regression constant a and b can be found. The inverse of regression constant a is the permeability coefficient.

Report

The report of permeability test shall include the following information:

- Permeability test data sheet,
- \bullet Specific Gravity of the specimen,
- A statement of any departures from these test conditions, so the results can be evaluated and used,
- A plot of permeability coefficient versus hydraulic gradient,

Figure D.l Permeability Test Setup for Cement-Stabilized Base Material

Permeability Test of Cement-Stabilized Base Materials

Test No.	Difference in Manometer Heads, h (cm)	Total Discharge, Q (m!)	Discharge Time, t (sec)	Discharge Velocity, $q=Q/At$ (cm/sec)	Hydraulic Gradient, $i = h/L$	Coefficient of Permeability, $k = q/i$ (cm/sec)	pH of Water	Temperature of Water $(^{\circ}C)$	Conductivity of Water (µSiemmens)

Figure D.2 Permeability Test Data Sheet for Cement-Stabilized Base Material

APPENDIXE

SOIL WATER RETENTION TESTS RESULTS OF DENSE-GRADED BASE MATERIALS

UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

Avg. Dia.=($\frac{15.08 \cdot 15.07}{15.01 \cdot 15.11}$ 15.07 = 15.07 cm.
Avg Ht. = ($\frac{15.01 \cdot 15.11}{15.11}$ 15.08) / 3 = 15.07 cm. Avg Ht. = $(\overline{15.01 \quad 15.11 \quad 15.08 \quad})/3$ = 15.07 cm.
Area of Specimen = 178.45 cm² Vol. of Specimen = Area of Specimen $=$ 178.45 cm² Vol. of Specimen = 2688.60 cm³
Wt. of Cylinder + Wt. of Base + Wt. of Ceramic Plate= 1431.20 gm. Wt. of Cylinder + Wt. of Base + Wt. of Ceramic Plate= 1431.20
Total Wt. (without the Cap)= 7509.6 gm. Target moisture cont. Total Wt. (without the Cap)= 7509.6 gm. Target moisture cont.
Total Wt. (with the Cap) = 8240 gm. Actual moisture cont. Total Wt. (with the Cap) $=$ 8240 gm. Actual moisture controller to the Cap) $=$ 8240 gm. Total Wt. (Sat.)= Dry Wt. of Soil Specimen $=$ Wt. of Water in Sat. Specimen= 651.53 gm. Initial Conductivity of Water= 5% 5.62% 8568.1 gm.

UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS;

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UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

Avg. Dia.=(15.09 15.04 15.07) / 3 = 15.07 cm. Avg Ht. = $\left(\frac{15.09 \text{ } 15.18}{15.03}\right)/3$ = 15.10 cm. Area of Specimen = 178.29 cm² Vol. of Specimen = 2692.16 cm³ Wt. of Cylinder + Wt. of Base + Wt. of Ceramic Plate= 1826.70 gm. Total Wt. (without the Cap)= 7699.5 gm. Target moisture cont. Total Wt. (with the Cap) = 8419.5 gm. Actual moisture cont. Dry Wt. of Soil Specimen = 5504.03 gm. Total Wt. (Sat.)= Wt. of Water in Sat. Specimen= 1218.17 gm.
Initial pH, of Water Initial pH of Water= 5% 6.7% 9268.90 gm.

UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

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UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

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UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

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UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

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APPENDIX F

PERMEABILITY TESTS RESULTS OF DENSE-GRADED BASE MATERIALS

UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

PERMEABILITY TEST DATA (DEGREE OF COMPACTNESS) Siemmens

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UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

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UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

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PERMEABILITY TEST DATA (DEGREE OF COMPACTNESS)

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UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

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UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

PERMEABILITY TEST DATA (DEGREE OF COMPACTNESS) Siemmens

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UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

PERMEABILITY TEST DATA (DEGREE OF COMPACTNESS) Siemmens

UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

PERMEABILITY TEST DATA (DEGREE OF COMPACTNESS) Siemmens

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EGREE OF COMPACTNESS) Siemmens **PERMEABILITY TEST DATA (DEGREE OF COMPACTNESS)**

UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

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PERMEABILITY TEST DATA (DEGREE OF COMPACTNESS) Siemmens

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24 0.883 208 123.00 0.0095 0.041 0.22802

UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

PERMEABILITY TEST DATA (DEGREE OF COMPACTNESS) Siemmens

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UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

PERMEABILITY TEST DATA (DEGREE OF COMPACTNESS) Siemmens

APPENDIX G

SOIL WATER RETENTION TEST RESULTS OF OPEN-GRADED BASE MATERIALS

UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

and the contract states

UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

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APPENDIX H

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RESILIENT MODULUS TEST RESULTS OF CEMENT -STABILIZED BASE MATERIALS

Description: San Antonio 5% Cement Specimen

Specimen: #1

Before testing:

Gradation :

 $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$ and $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$

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Description: San Antonio Specimen: #1

7% Cement Specimen

Before testing: The Contract of the Gradation of Gradation \overline{G} :

Before testing:

Gradation :

Specimen: #1

Specimen: #1

7% Cement Specimen

Before testing:

Gradation :

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 $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{A}}$

 $#2$

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Description: Childress

Specimen: #1

5% Cement Specimen

Before testing:

Gradation :

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5% Cement Specimen

Before testing:

Gradation :

 $\langle \hat{A}^{\dagger} \hat{A}^{\dagger} \rangle$

 $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$

 \mathcal{L}_{max} , where \mathcal{L}_{max}

7% Cement Specimen

Before testing:

Gradation :

 $#1$

 $\sim 10^{-11}$

7% Cement Specimen

Before testing: Gradation :

Specimen: #2

APPENDIX I

SOIL WATER RETENTION TEST RESULTS OF CEMENT -STABILIZED BASE MATERIALS

UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

 $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{A}}$ and $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{A}}$ are $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{A}}$. In the following the $\mathcal{A}^{\mathcal{A}}$

 $\omega = \omega$

UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

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UNIT WEIGHT DETERMINATIONS:

 $\langle \hat{z}_i, \hat{z}_j \rangle$, $\langle \hat{z}_j, \hat{z}_j \rangle$

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APPENDIXJ

PERMEABILITY TEST RESULTS OF CEMENT-STABILIZED BASE MATERIALS

 $\mathcal{A}=\mathcal{A}^{\mathrm{c}}$, \mathcal{A}^{c} ,

BROWNWOOD 5% CEMENT@ WATER .475

 \mathcal{L}^{max}

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0.21470 0.006 36.778
0.21400 0.005 43.989

 0.21400 0.005

 14

 $\overline{13}$

 $\overline{13}$

 463

449

 $\overline{23}$

 $\overline{24}$

 0.180

 0.150

470 13.62 0.20425 0.007 30.161 7.43 822

21 0.190 475 13.25 0.21219 0.006 32.983 7.43 821
22 0.120 475 12.59 0.22331 0.004 54.960

22 0.120 475 12.59 0.22331 0.004 54.960 23 0.210 474 12.06 0.23264 0.007 32.717 24 0.220 458 11.19 0.24226 0.007 32.522

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 \mathcal{L}_{max} and \mathcal{L}_{max} and \mathcal{L}_{max}

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24 0.200 485 12.88 0.22390 0.007 33.174

CHILDRESS 5% @ WATER .45

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$ is a subset of the set of \mathcal{A}

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0.210 479 14.03 0.20117 0.007 29.440
0.200 483 14.08 0.20212 0.007 31.060

 $\overline{23}$ $\overline{24}$

483 14.08 0.20212 0.007 31.060

 $\sim 10^6$

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 $\overline{0.170}$ 490 16.09 0.18699 0.006 33.145

 $\overline{20}$ $\overline{21}$ $\overline{22}$ $\overline{23}$ $\overline{24}$

 $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline 0.210 & & 486 & & 15.04 & & 0.19841 & & 0.007 & & & 28.471 \\ \hline 0.220 & & 491 & & 15.12 & & 0.19940 & & 0.007 & & & 27.311 \\ \hline \end{array}$ 0.220 491 15.12 0.19940 0.007 27.311

0.220 487 14.32 0.20882 0.007 28.602
0.230 484 13.96 0.21289 0.008 27.891

484 13.96 0.21289 0.008 27.891

