

Demonstration of Network Level Pavement Structural Evaluation with Traffic Speed Deflectometer in Idaho



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Abstract: The objective of this transportation pooled fund study was to carry out field demonstration of the Traffic Speed Deflectometer (TSD) and present an approach of how the results of TSD testing could be implemented within a pavement management system (PMS). This report summarizes the results from this field demonstration effort in Idaho. Specifically this report 1) describes the TSD and its measurement approach, 2) presents the structural condition of the tested pavements as part of the demonstration, 3) evaluates the repeatability of the TSD on a 28 mile repeated section, 4) comparison of TSD and FWD measurements 5) demonstrates how the information obtained from the TSD can be used ranging from a simple relative ranking of the pavement structural condition to more detailed approaches that calculate different indices (e.g. SCI300, effective structural number (SN_{eff}), tensile strain at the bottom of the asphalt layer), and 6) illustrates how the TSD measurements can be incorporated into a PMS decision process. A companion report documents the overall study effort and summarizes findings from nine participating states. The companion report also provides details on interpreting files associated with the TSD data, data processing method used in the study and the Profilograph program to view the TSD data. The TSD was found to be capable of differentiating between relatively structurally strong and weak sections and provide more detailed assessment when used in conjunction with SHA's PMS data.				

FIELD DEMONSTRATION OF THE TSD IN IDAHO

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INTRODUCTION

This report describes the results of the Traffic Speed Deflectometer (TSD) demonstration performed in Idaho (September 16, and 19, 2015) and how the results of the TSD testing can be implemented within a Pavement Management System (PMS). The focus in this report is on practical implementation of the TSD for production testing on flexible pavement sections with unbound bases (for an investigation that is more focused on accuracy and repeatability, Rada et al. 2016 and Flintsch et al. 2013 are recommended along with the references therein). As the research effort described in this report is part of a transportation pooled fund (TPF) study with nine state highway agencies participating, a companion report that highlights the results from the overall research effort has also been prepared and distributed to the nine participating states as well as posted to the TPF website. The focus of this report is on the results of tests performed in Pennsylvania and on answering the following key questions:

1. **What is the TSD and what does it measure?** The TSD data collection method and recorded measurements are different from those of the more familiar Falling Weight Deflectometer (FWD). The TSD is a continuously moving device that measures the instantaneous pavement vertical velocity under a moving load, whereas the FWD is a stationary device that measures the time history of the pavement's vertical velocity or acceleration at each sensor. The TSD reports instantaneous deflection slopes, while the FWD reports maximum deflections. This report presents the measuring principle of the TSD along with how deflection basin indices, including asphalt strain, can be estimated from the TSD measurements. The method of Rada et al. (2016) to temperature correct the estimated tensile strain at the bottom of the asphalt layer from TSD measurements is also presented.
2. **What is the structural condition of the tested roads?** This report presents the pavement structural condition of the tested roads in terms of the SCI300 surface curvature index (SCI) corrected to a reference temperature of 70°F (21.1°C) using the procedure developed by Rada et al. (2016). This includes SCI300 box plots of the roads tested, typical line plots of SCI300 versus distance, and Google Earth color-coded plots (good, fair, and poor). The colors used are green, yellow, and red to represent good, fair, and poor structural conditions. The thresholds used to classify the condition are based on the estimated remaining fatigue life of the asphalt layer (Katicha et al. 2017). Using typical default average daily truck traffic (ADTT) levels for interstate, primary, and secondary roads, and typical thicknesses (unless thickness is available), sections with an estimated

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remaining fatigue life less than 2 years are considered to have a poor structural condition, those with an estimated remaining fatigue life of between 2 and 5 years are considered fair, and those with an estimated remaining fatigue life more than 5 years are considered good. These thresholds are provided as initial default estimates, and it is recommended that each state highway agency adjust the thresholds to best represent their pavements and to meet their pavement management needs.

3. **How repeatable are TSD measurements?** Repeatability was estimated by comparing multiple measurements performed on the same sections on different days. This was evaluated for temperature-corrected SCI300.
4. **How do TSD measurements compare with FWD data?** TSD measurements were compared with FWD measurements to determine if the two devices showed similar trends in measured values along the tested sections. There are a number of differences between the TSD and FWD that lead to the two devices giving different measurement magnitudes though the trends are similar. Some of the most important differences are (1) the TSD applies a rolling load on the pavement, while the FWD applies an impact load on the pavement; (2) the TSD load is applied through flexible dual tires but the FWD load is applied through a circular plate; (3) the TSD measurements from all sensors are acquired at the same time whereas the FWD measurements often utilized are the peak deflections from each sensor, which do not occur at the same time (the peaks from sensors farther away from the loaded area occur at a later time compared to the peak from sensors closer to the loaded area) and (4) the TSD makes near continuous measurements and reports average values at 10m intervals while FWD measurement are made at discrete locations. Other issues that arise when comparing TSD and FWD measurements pertain to the fact that the two sets of measurements were obtained at different times and different pavement temperatures. Although temperature correction can be applied, the correction is based on empirical equations and therefore only approximate. For these reasons, the comparison between the two devices in this report is limited to comparing trends.
5. **How can we use the information obtained from TSD measurements?** Information from TSD measurements can help to better manage pavement sections. The best way to use TSD data mostly depends on each agency's approach to managing its pavement sections. In the short term, TSD data can be used to verify and/or adjust the decisions that are largely based on surface condition. TSD measurements can readily be used to obtain a relative ranking between different pavement sections or, with the use of appropriate thresholds, to identify structurally good, fair, and poor segments. When pavement thickness data are available, a more mechanistic approach can be used to estimate the effective structural number (SN_{eff}) or tensile strains at the bottom of the asphalt layer and a fatigue equation can be used to estimate remaining fatigue life. All these approaches are illustrated in detail in this report.

6. **How can we incorporate TSD measurements into a PMS?** The proposed approach to incorporate TSD into the PMS (for flexible pavements) consists of classifying the pavement structural condition into Good, Fair, and Poor categories based on temperature-corrected structural indices derived from TSD measurements. Both SCI300 and the Deflection Slope Index (DSI) were investigated. The results showed that similar conclusions are drawn whether SCI300 or DSI is used; therefore, only the results of SCI300 are presented in this report (results with DSI are provided in the Excel files). Preliminary thresholds that separate between the Good, Fair, and Poor structural condition categories are given in this report based on an estimate of the expected remaining fatigue life of the asphalt layer. This expected remaining fatigue life is related to the tensile strain at the bottom of the asphalt layer, which in turn is related to the SCI300 (or DSI) using the approach developed in Rada et al. (2016). It is recommended that each agency calibrate these thresholds based on their own experience and needs. A decision process based on the currently used process by the Virginia Department of Transportation (VDOT), which already includes structural condition in the PMS decision process for Interstate roads, is provided to illustrate how structural condition can be used in the PMS.

Why Measure the Structural Condition of the Pavement?

Pavement structural capacity has a big effect on the rate of pavement deterioration. In turn, the rate of deterioration of pavement sections is used to estimate the time and type of maintenance activities in a PMS. Due to (until recently) the relative difficulty of measuring the pavement structural condition at the network level, traditional PMS approaches have relied on observation of the pavement surface condition to assess rehabilitation needs. However, the pavement surface condition does not provide a full picture of the causes of deterioration; it is only the symptom. This has been confirmed by a number of studies that showed that the correlation between surface condition and structural measurements of pavement response is weak (Flora, 2009; Bryce et al., 2013) and that the rate of deterioration of pavement sections is affected by the structural condition (Katicha et al., 2016). Therefore, the pavement structural condition is an important aspect of overall pavement health and one of the driving causes of pavement deterioration.

The fact that the structural condition is an important factor alone may not be convincing enough for a highway agency to invest the resources to implement the TSD for network-level pavement structural assessments. Any such endeavor would first have to be justified from an economic perspective that demonstrates that the benefits of incorporating reliable pavement structural condition information in pavement management decision making far outweigh the data collection costs. The pooled fund study whose results are documented in this report grew from the belief that there is enough evidence in the literature that the TSD is a device that could provide valuable pavement structural information at relatively lower cost than deploying the FWD at the network level (Flintsch et al. 2013; Rada et al., 2016). In that respect, the Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) initiated the pooled fund project “*Demonstration of Network Level Pavement Structural Evaluation with Traffic Speed Deflectometer*” to assess the feasibility and demonstrate the use of

the TSD for network-level pavement structural evaluation for use in the participating agencies' pavement management application and decision making. This report summarizes the testing performed in the state of Idaho in terms of the research questions presented in the introduction.

RESEARCH QUESTION 1: WHAT IS THE TSD AND WHAT DOES IT MEASURE?

The TSD, shown in Figure 1, is an articulated truck with a rear-axle load that can be varied from 58.7 to 127.6 kN by using sealed lead loads. The TSD has a number of Doppler lasers mounted on a servo-hydraulic beam to measure the deflection velocity of a loaded pavement. The TSD evaluated in this study used seven Doppler lasers. Six Doppler lasers were positioned such that they measure deflection velocity at 100, 200, 300, 600, 900, and 1,500 mm (3.9, 7.9, 11.8, 23.6, and 59 inches) in front of the loading axle. The seventh sensor was positioned 3,500 mm (11.5 ft) in front of the rear axle, largely outside the deflection bowl, to act as a reference laser. The beam on which the lasers are mounted moves up and down in opposition to the movement of the trailer in order to keep the lasers at a constant height from the pavement's surface. To prevent thermal distortion of the steel measurement beam, a climate control system maintains the trailer temperature at a constant 20°C (68°F). Data are recorded at a survey speed of up to 96 km/h (60 mph) at a rate of 1000 Hz.



Figure 1. Picture of TSD used during testing and computer-generated schematic.

Measurement Technology

The TSD uses Doppler lasers mounted at a small angle to the vertical to measure the vertical pavement deflection velocity together with components of the horizontal vehicle velocity and the vertical and horizontal vehicle suspension velocity. Due to its location, midway between the loaded trailer axle and the rear axle of the tractor unit, the pavement under the reference laser is expected to be outside the zone of load influence (undeformed), and the reference laser response can therefore be used to remove the unwanted signals from the six measurement lasers. When accurately calibrated, the TSD measures pavement deflection velocities that depend on driving speed. To remove this dependence, the deflection velocity is divided by the instantaneous vehicle

speed to give a measurement of deflection slope, as illustrated in the Figure 2. Therefore, the deflection slope is calculated as follows:

$$S = \frac{V_v}{V_h} \tag{1}$$

where S is the deflection slope, V_v is the vertical pavement deflection velocity, and V_h is the vehicle horizontal velocity. Typically, the deflection velocity is measured in mm/s and the vehicle speed is measured in m/s; therefore, the deflection slope measurements are output in units of mm/m and generally reported at a 10-m (33-ft) interval. At a speed of 80 km/h (50 mph) and a data collection frequency of 1000 Hz, this corresponds to an average of 446 individual measurements over the 10 m section.

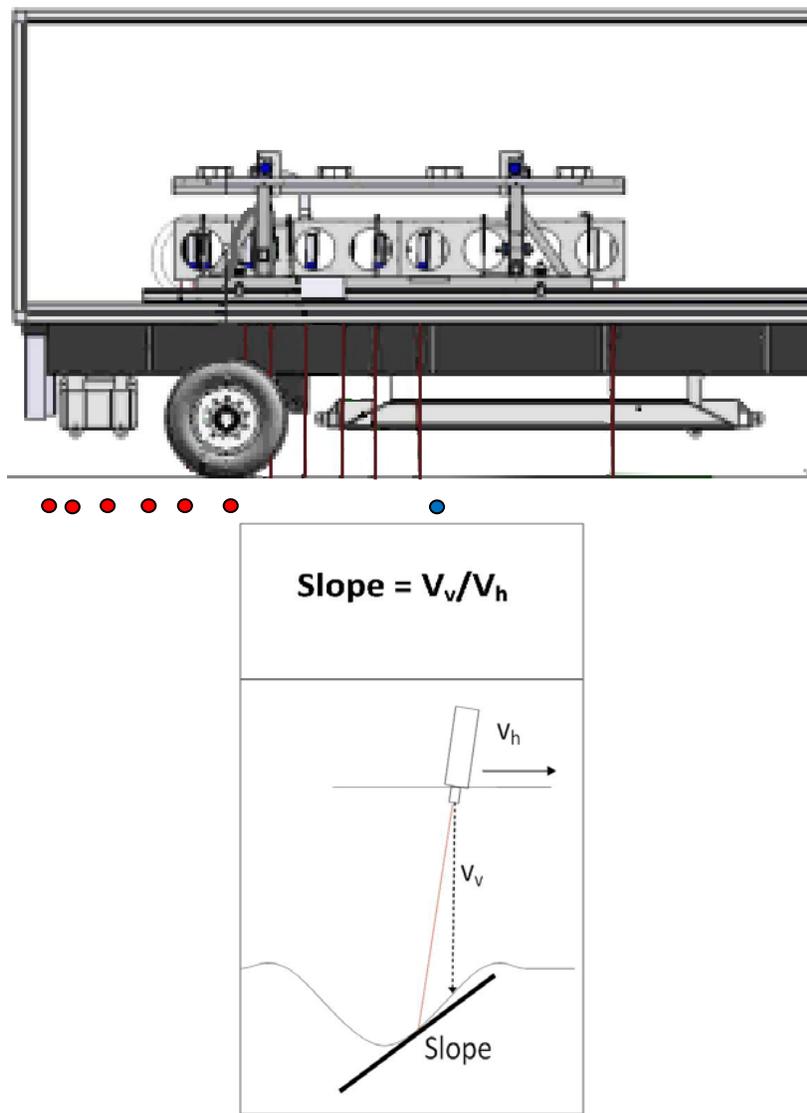


Figure 2. Schematic of the measurement principle of the TSD.

Relationship between Deflection Slope, Deflection, and Other Pavement Structural Condition Indices

As described, the TSD measures the deflection slope of the deflection basin rather than pavement deflection. Figure 3 shows how the deflections and deflection slopes relate to the deflection basin. The deflection at a position on the deflection basin is the vertical distance from that point to the reference undeformed pavement. The deflection slope is the tangent to the deflection basin (i.e., the derivative of the deflection basin). Since the deflection slope is the derivative of the deflection, the deflection can be obtained from the deflection slope by integration as follows:

$$d(x) = \int_x^{\infty} s(y) dy \quad (2)$$

where,

$s(y)$ = slope at distance y measured from the applied load;

$d(x)$ = deflection at distance x measured from the applied load.

Greenwood engineering uses a parametrized model for the shape of the deflection slope developed by Pedersen et al. (2013) to obtain deflections from the deflection slope by optimizing the model parameters to fit the deflection slope data. The deflections computed from this model are reported in the data file (with extension .tsd.tsddefl.xls). Nasimifar et al. (2017) evaluated few other integration models that are currently used or proposed in the literature. The study concluded that the current Greenwood's model is a robust solution and thus the corresponding deflection data was used in this report.

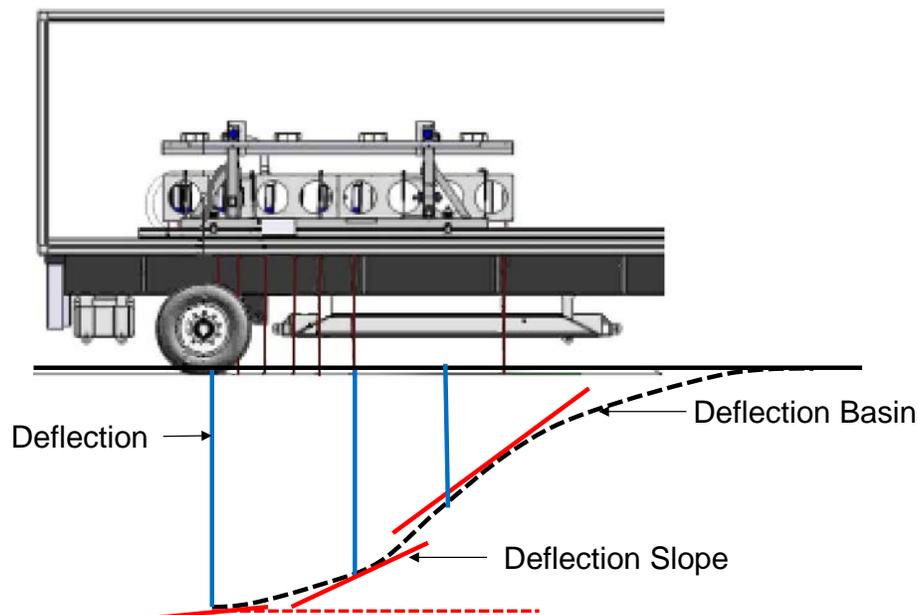


Figure 3. Relationship between the deflection basin, deflection, and deflection slope.

While deflections can directly be used to infer the structural condition and capacity of the tested pavement, a number of studies have shown that deflection-basin-related indices correlate better to the pavement responses that cause load-related distresses (Horak, 1987; Thyagarajan et al., 2011).

What Are Deflection-Basin-Related Indices?

Deflection-basin related indices are indices that are computed from two or more measured deflections . One of the widely used indices with the FWD is SCI300, which is the difference between the deflection under the applied load (i.e., D0) and the deflection 300 mm (12 in.) from the applied load (i.e., D300), shown in Equation 3.

$$SCI300 = D0 - D300 \quad (3)$$

The SCI300 can also be calculated from TSD measurements using the calculated deflections. However, it is very important to point out that while the TSD and FWD both attempt to measure the same metric—pavement structural condition—they are different in how they apply the load and record the pavement response. Although the SCI300 (or any other parameter) obtained from each device would qualitatively agree and have similar trends, quantitatively the two devices will, in general, give different results. Therefore, while this document compares and contrasts FWD- and TSD-based indices, the reader is advised to focus on trends and not the magnitudes. An important consequence of the two devices not giving the same quantitative values is that thresholds based on FWD-derived indices are not directly applicable to TSD-derived indices. The fact that the TSD does not give the same quantitative results as the FWD does not mean either device is not accurate. The accuracy of the TSD has been investigated by Rada et al. (2016) that validated TSD measurements with “ground truth” measurements performed on instrumented pavements.

In addition to SCI300, there are a large number of deflection-basin related indices that have been proposed by researchers; listing these indices is beyond the scope of this report. The interested reader is referred to Table 44 of Rada et al. (2016), where 75 indices, which were evaluated in that study, are listed. Although the number of indices is quite large, most are so highly correlated (some almost identical) that essentially only a small number of the indices are needed to meet the objectives of this effort. For this pooled fund study, the SCI300 and DSI, have been selected and reported. DSI, shown in Equation 4, was recommended by Rada et al. (2016), and is the difference between the deflection at 100 mm (4 in.) from the applied load and the deflection at 300 mm (12 in.) from the applied load.

$$DSI = D100 - D300 \quad (4)$$

The DSI and SCI300 were found to be correlated to the tensile strain at the bottom of the asphalt layer as follows:

$$\varepsilon = a(DSI)^b \quad \varepsilon = a'(SCI300)^{b'} \quad (5)$$

where a , b , a' , and b' are parameters obtained that depend on the thickness of the asphalt concrete layer and are provided in the summary final report of the pooled fund (summary of all states testing).

Temperature Correction of TSD Measurements

Pavement temperature is an important parameter that affects the results of flexible pavement structural evaluations. The deflection indices computed from TSD measurements are a function of pavement temperature at the time of data collection. Consistent evaluation and tracking of the indices computed from TSD measurements over the pavement service life requires that the indices be adjusted to a standard reference temperature. Due to the TSD being a relatively new device, currently there are no proven methods to correct TSD measurements for temperature. However, Rada et al. (2016) have proposed a method to correct the tensile strain at the bottom of the asphalt layer. The approach is based on the change of the asphalt concrete (dynamic) modulus, which affects the tensile strain at the bottom of the asphalt layer. The steps for this procedure are (from Rada et al. 2016):

1. Compute the asphalt layer dynamic modulus at the test temperature, E_f , based on the calculated strain (from DSI or SCI300 using Equation 5) using the following equation:

$$E_f = c \times \varepsilon^d \quad (6)$$

where c and d , are model parameters that depend on the asphalt layer thickness. When the thickness is not known, default values are provided.

2. Compute a temperature correction factor, T_c , for the dynamic modulus as follows:

$$T_c = 19.791 \left(e^{-0.043T_r} - e^{-0.043T_f} \right) \quad (7)$$

where T_r is the reference temperature (typically 70°F) and T_f is the asphalt temperature during the test.

3. Compute the dynamic modulus, E_r , at the selected reference temperature as follows:

$$E_r = \frac{E_f}{1 - T_c} \quad (8)$$

4. Compute the strain, ε_r , at the selected reference temperature by rearranging Equation 6 as follows:

$$\varepsilon_r = \left(\frac{E_r}{c} \right)^{\frac{1}{d}} \quad (9)$$

5. Calculate the temperature corrected TSD index using the inverse of Equation 5.

The asphalt temperature T_f is taken as the mid-depth temperature and calculated from the measured surface temperature using the Bells equation (BELLS3):

$$\begin{aligned} T_d = & 0.95 + 0.892 * IR + \{ \log(d) - 1.25 \} \{ -0.448 * IR + 0.621 * (1 - \text{day}) + 1.83 * \sin(\text{hr}18 - 15.5) \} \\ & + 0.042 * IR * \sin(\text{hr}18 - 13.5) \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

Where:

Td = Pavement temperature at mid-depth d, °C

IR = Pavement surface temperature, °C

log = Base 10 logarithm

d = mid-depth of the AC layer, mm

1-day = Average air temperature the day before testing, °C

sin = Sine function on an 18-hr clock system, with 2π radians equal to one 18-hr cycle

hr18 = Time of day, in a 24-hr clock system, but calculated using an 18-hr asphalt concrete (AC) temperature rise-and-fall time cycle

Greenwood reports GPS location and time at each interval (10m) in the file ending with “.gpsimp.xls”. Note GPS time is presented in Coordinated Universal Time, UTC. Pavement surface temperature are also reported along with the deflection values in the file ending with “tsd.tsd.xls”. The previous day average air temperature was obtained at the closest weather station from National Center for Environmental Information weather site <https://gis.ncdc.noaa.gov> and used in Bells equation to calculate mid-depth temperature. The computed mid-depth temperature is used with the temperature correction algorithm. The following points should be noted when the results from temperature correction and repeatability analysis are evaluated

- Temperature correction model should be considered as an intermediate solution until an accurate procedure is developed
- All sections used in the analysis are assumed as flexible pavements
- AC layer thickness is assumed based on the road category.
- M&R activities, if any, applied between the years are not considered in the repeatability analysis.

RESEARCH QUESTION 2: WHAT IS THE STRUCTURAL CONDITION OF THE TESTED ROADS?

Table 1 lists the roads tested with corresponding Google Maps[®] links. Clicking those links will show the corresponding tested road in a Web browser, as illustrated in Figure 3. In total 1040 miles were tested.

Overall Condition of Tested Roads

Data processing includes mapping data from different files provided by Greenwood in to one Excel file as explained in the pooled fund summary report. A methodology based on the number of remaining ESAL’s was used to arrive at a preliminary estimate for threshold between good/fair and fair/poor segments. It is expected that the estimated threshold will be revised based on the experience gained from implementation effort.

Initially, three road category – Interstate, primary and secondary roads were considered based on AC layer thickness as shown in Table 2. The database generated in Rada et al. (2016) was used. The database contains a range of pavement structures (layer thickness) and material

characteristics (layer moduli) values generated using Monte Carlo simulation and corresponding pavement responses (strain and deflections) computed using the layered linear elastic program JULEA. The pavement segments in the JULEA database was grouped in one of three road category based on AC layer thickness as shown in the Table 2. In each pavement segment, number of repetitions to failure, N_f was computed using Asphalt Institute equation (Asphalt Institute. 1982))

Table 1. TSD-Tested Roads with Test File Information and Google Maps Links

S.No	File Name	Road Name	Link	Start-End (length in miles)
1.	T7201509160001	SR33	https://goo.gl/maps/9BH2PADuUCm	I20BYU – US26 (78)
2.	T7201509160002	US26	https://goo.gl/maps/d5hvw8ZJ94n	SR33 – toward Carey (32)
3.	T7201509160003	US26	https://goo.gl/maps/EDqLLeSmaTt	After Carey - SR33 (32)
4.	T7201509160004	SR33	https://goo.gl/maps/5YeNvYoXHtA2	US26 – SR22 (24)
5.	T7201509160005	SR22	https://goo.gl/maps/uwa9M6LCLUq	SR33 – I15 (44)
6.	T7201509160006	I15	https://goo.gl/maps/3zxiJQcX4VR2	SR22 – Idaho Falls (47)
7.	T7201509170001	SR33	https://goo.gl/maps/4Wk2cuLCaT82	I15 – SR28 (15)
8.	T7201509170002	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/2wGf3ypSsyP2	SR33 – (8)
9.	T7201509170003	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/LHmnRLEBbK62	SR28 continue (1.8)
10.	T7201509170004	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/UscVvs1vwkn	SR28 continue (23)
11.	T7201509170005	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/wxYQbHYMkyx	SR28 continue (1.7)
12.	T7201509170006	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/PVEtBdigDys	SR28 continue (6)
13.	T7201509170007	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/AKnWB7DjHwM2	SR28 continue (8.7)
14.	T7201509170008	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/uMpfwhEt2zS2	SR28 continue (1.1)
15.	T7201509170009	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/ooyoYCB3Ar82	SR28 continue (3)
16.	T7201509170010	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/z2fC8J64fZx	SR28 continue (0.5)
17.	T7201509170011	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/3trttqDCmi32	SR28 continue (12.5)
18.	T7201509170012	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/yEqUhYCisS32	SR28 continue (2.3)
19.	T7201509170013	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/duWgWMfBzWj	SR28 continue (3.5)
20.	T7201509170014	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/dybcbbHEEyKx	SR28 - Salmon (20)
21.	T7201509170015	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/sHQSFcTfBV_s	After Salmon - (29)
22.	T7201509170016	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/KyQawbJSuYs	- toward Salmon (28)
23.	T7201509180001	US93	https://goo.gl/maps/Rno89U8mVbS2	Salmon – (8.6)
24.	T7201509180002	US93	https://goo.gl/maps/uXBR5SFoHxT2	Continue (11.1)
25.	T7201509180003	US93	https://goo.gl/maps/jiBvGgZXheM2	Continue – SR43 (24.5)
26.	T7201509180004	US93	https://goo.gl/maps/ZQcGvLMUXuN2	SR43 – Salmon (45.6)
27.	T7201509180005	US93	https://goo.gl/maps/vXkXU5nFM4r	Salmon – SR75 (60)
28.	T7201509180006	SR75	https://goo.gl/maps/GayCpsgNPjH2	US93 – SR21 (55)
29.	T7201509180007	SR75	https://goo.gl/maps/kGk37qsLrJ22	SR21 – US93 (55)
30.	T7201509180008	US93	https://goo.gl/maps/iu8ktF7LvCk	SR75 – US26 (78)
31.	T7201509180009	US26- US20	https://goo.gl/maps/bZiYyeWzAyk	US93 – I15 (65)
32.	T7201509190002	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/8UbpIQJhNP92	SR33 – Leadore (75)
33.	T7201509190003	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/K1N51HQ6LtK2	Leadore – Salmon (45)
34.	T7201509190004	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/wzhgU5GB5k92	Salmon – Leadore (45)
35.	T7201509190005	SR28	https://goo.gl/maps/DS22hXwtndT2	Leadore – SR33 (75)

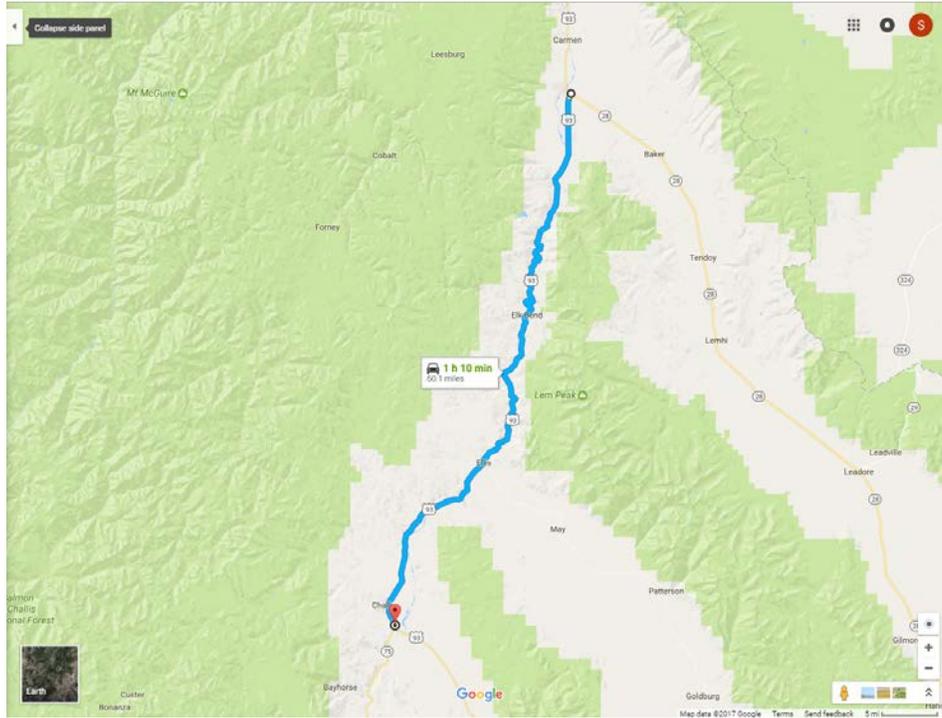


Figure 3. Example showing link for file T7201509180005 of US93 from Table 1

$$N_f = C \times 0.00432 \left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_t} \right)^{3.291} \left(\frac{1}{E} \right)^{0.854} \quad (11)$$

where C is the calibration coefficient, ε_t is the magnitude of the tensile strain repeatedly applied, and E is the stiffness of asphalt mixture (psi). The tensile strain at the bottom of AC layer corresponding to 9000 lb loaded dual tire configuration with 13.5 inch tire spacing and 116 psi tire pressure was used. The calibration factors that account for the effects of boundary difference between field and laboratory were 13.3 and 18.4 corresponding to the failure criteria of 10% and 45% of wheel-path cracking, respectively (Finn et al., 1977). C value of 13.3 was chosen for Interstate and Primary road category and 18.4 for secondary roads. In each road category the following level of annual traffic was considered

- Interstate: 1.4 million ESAL – equivalent of about 6500 ADTT (or 2000 singles, 4000 doubles and 500 trains or triples)
- Primary: 0.2 million ESAL – equivalent of about 950 ADTT (or 700 singles, 220 doubles and 30 trains or triples)
- Secondary: 0.07 million ESAL – equivalent of about 375 ADTT (or 300 singles, 75 doubles).

The pavement is considered as ‘poor’ or ‘fair’ condition when the computed N_f is lower than the traffic level the pavement can carry in the next 2 and 5 years, respectively in the corresponding road category. For example, an Interstate pavement segment will be considered ‘poor’ if the computed N_f is lower than 2.8 million ESAL’s (annual traffic * 2 years). Similarly, a secondary road is considered as ‘fair’ condition if the computed N_f is lower than 0.35 million ESAL’s (annual traffic * 5 years) but greater than 0.14 million ESAL’s (annual traffic * 2 years). Average indices values were computed within each group and reported as threshold values in the table.

Note that the current threshold cracking % being used to calculate N_f with AI equation would be incremental (delta) cracking not total cracking. Thus when we consider the existing damage, a pavement segment identified as poor could have a fatigue cracking higher than that defined in the table at the end of 2 years.

Once thresholds have been established, the temperature corrected indices (SCI or DSI) can be directly used to categories the pavement segment as good/fair/poor. For example in a Primary road section, if the SCI computed from TSD measurement is 5.0 mil then the pavement segment will be categorized as ‘Fair’.

Figure 4 shows the condition of the tested roads using this procedure with measurements corrected to a reference temperature of 70°F and normalized with the measured dynamic load during the TSD testing. For interstate, primary and secondary roads, the AC thickness was assumed to be in the range of 9 to 16, 6 to 9 and 3 to 6 inches, respectively. Figure 5 shows a closer look at US93 south near Ellis. Again, the conditions depicted in the figure are based on preliminary condition thresholds developed to illustrate the concept and should be adjusted to match agency specific thresholds. Note that the Google Earth files showing the color coded condition and the corresponding Excel files used to perform temperature correction and calculation of SCI300 and DSI for all measurements are provided separately in an external hard drive. Excel files allow changing of the thresholds which will be reflected in the color coded classification in the Excel plots.

Table 2. Thresholds for SCI300 (TSD) and DSI

Road Category	AC layer thickness, inch	Annual Traffic, million ESAL	Threshold for Fatigue Cracking at Wheelpath, %	Threshold for Poor			Threshold for Fair		
				N_f , million ESAL	SCI300, mil	DSI, mil	N_f , million ESAL	SCI300, mil	DSI, mil
Interstate	> 9	1.4	10	2.8	3.7	3.0	7.0	2.7	2.2
Primary	6 - 9	0.2	10	0.4	6.2	5.2	1.0	4.9	4.0
Secondary	3 - 6	0.07	45	0.14	9.7	7.7	0.35	7.3	5.8

Figure 6 and Figure 7 show the overall structural condition in box plot, as indicated by the temperature-corrected SCI300, for all tested roads. The (red) line represents the median of the

measurements, the (blue) box represents the 50-percent range (25 to 75 percent), and the (black) whiskers represent the 90-percent range (5 to 95 percent) of the collected data. Note that in general, roads tested in both directions do not necessarily consist of the same sections.

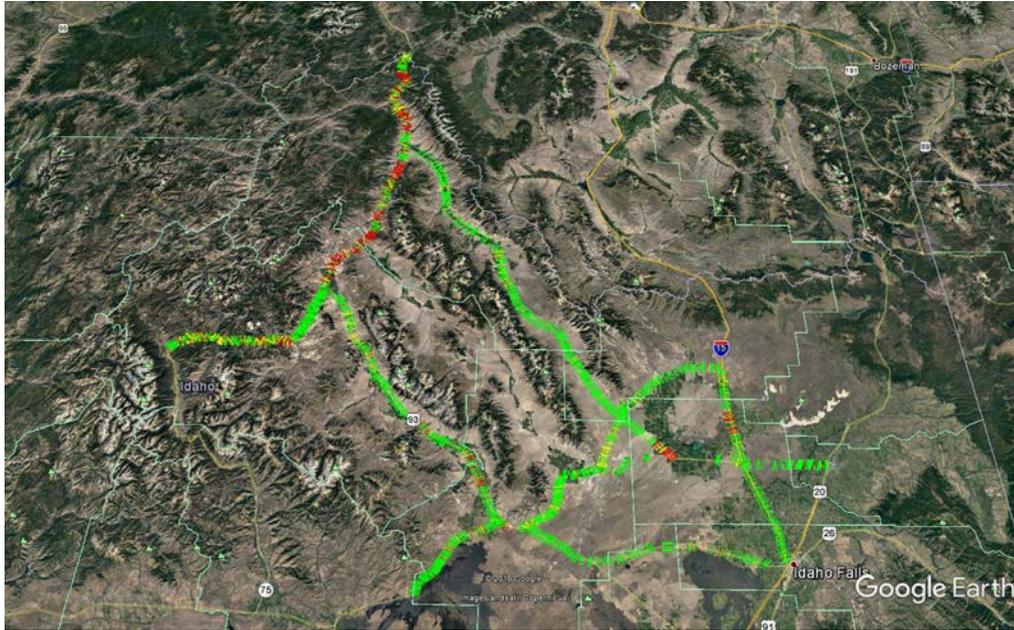


Figure 4. Color-coded estimated structural condition of tested pavements in 2015 with Good (green), Fair (yellow), and Poor (red) ratings (© 2016 Google Image Landsat / Copernicus).



Figure 5. Detail example of estimated structural condition: US93 south near Ellis (© 2016 Google).

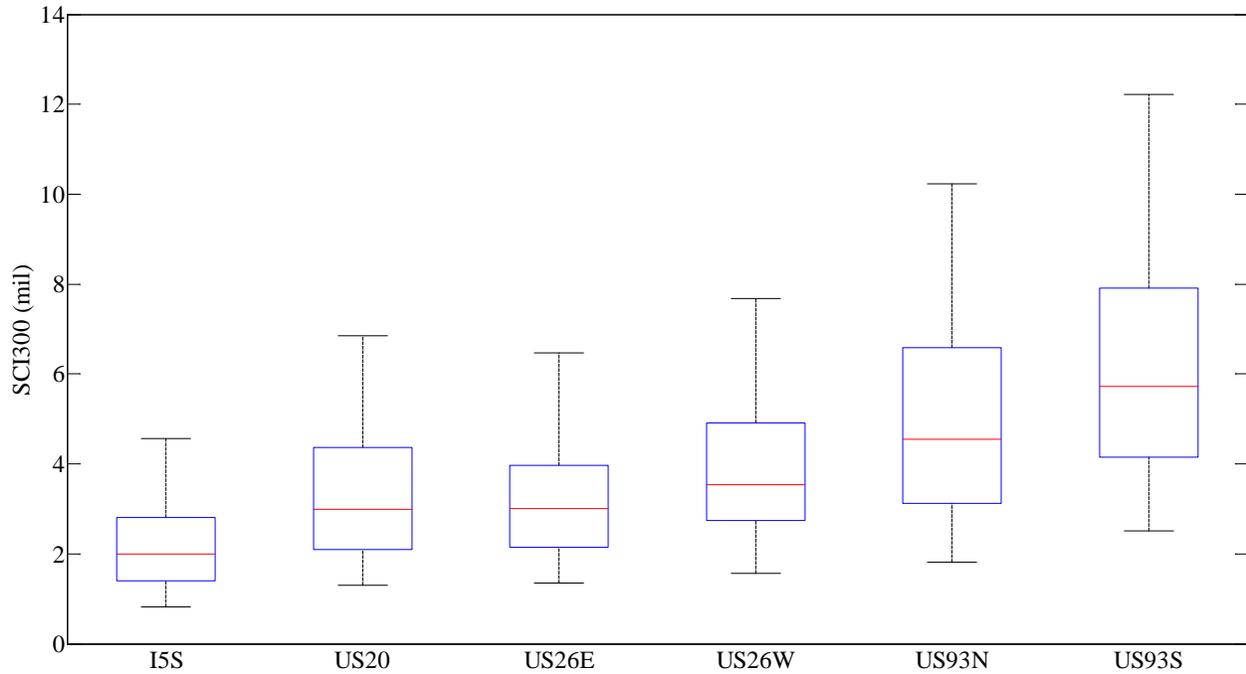


Figure 6. SCI300 box plot of Interstate and US routes tested in 2015.

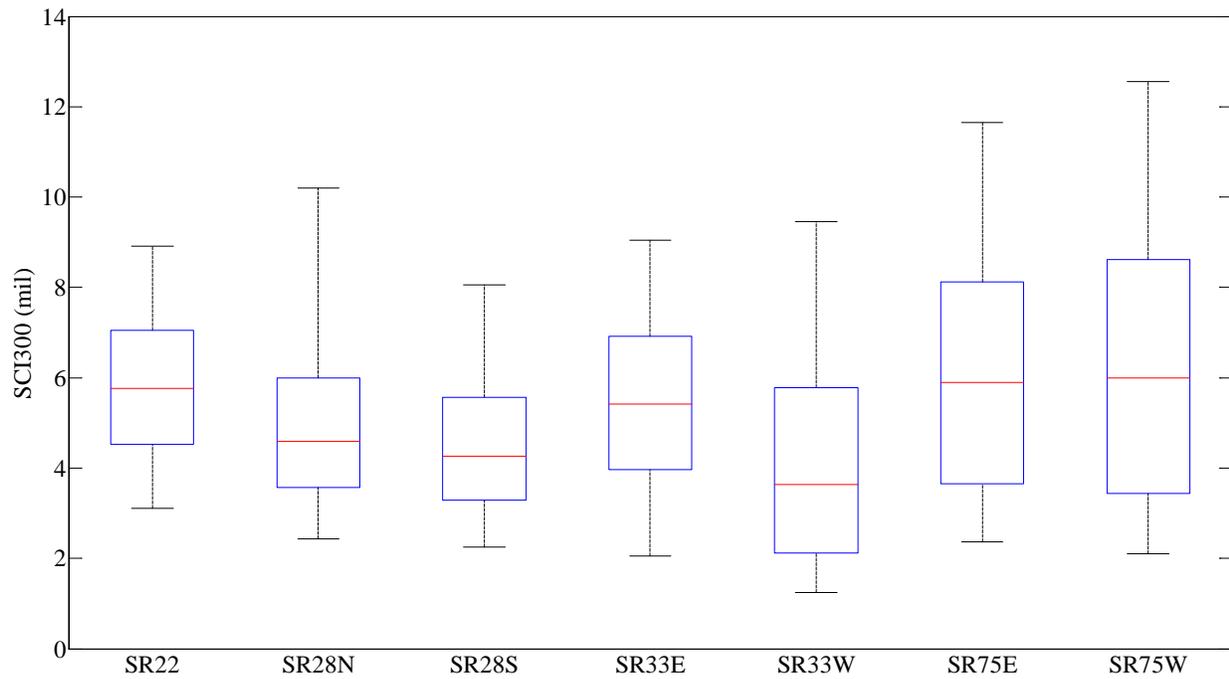


Figure 7. SCI300 box plot of state routes tested in 2015.

RESEARCH QUESTION 4: HOW DO TSD MEASUREMENTS COMPARE WITH FWD DATA?

Figure 10 shows TSD and FWD D0 measurements on Segment 4 of SR22. FWD measurements were collected at 100 feet intervals while TSD measurements are collected at 33 ft (10 m) intervals (TSD file name T720150916005). The moving average of TSD measurements shown in Figure 10 uses a 100 ft (30m) window to match the FWD test spacing. Figure 11 shows the SCI calculated from TSD and FWD measurements on the same section. Due to inherent difference between the two devices, the comparison should be limited to only trends as explained before. D0 magnitudes differ between the two devices but show similar trends. However, SCI computed from the two devices have similar trends and magnitudes. FWD test temperature is few degrees higher than TSD test temperature and FWD data was collected 5 weeks (27th October, 2015) after the TSD data. Note the measurements were not corrected for temperature or seasonal variation expected between the time of FWD and TSD tests.

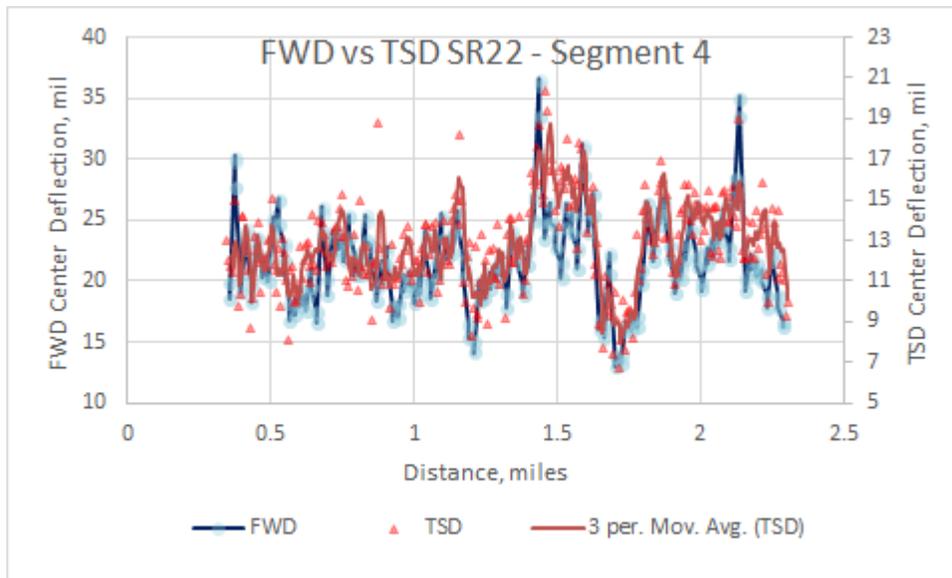


Figure 10. Comparison of TSD D0 and FWD D0 on SR 22 Segment 4

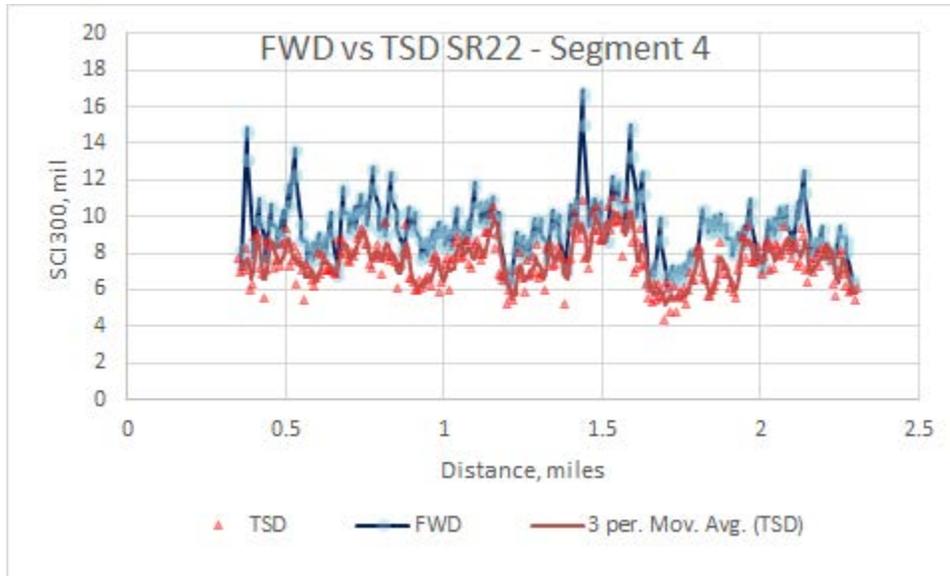


Figure 11. Comparison of TSD SCI300 and FWD SCI300 on SR 22 Segment 4

A fundamental difference between FWD and TSD measurements is how the load is applied and the pavement response to the load are measured by the sensors. Figure 12 shows the time history during a typical FWD test. Dynamic loading cause the peak deflections to lag the peak applied load with the effect becoming more pronounced for the sensors farther away from the applied load. For FWD calculations of AUPP, the peak deflection of each sensor is used. In the TSD calculations of AUPP, the measurements are made at the time of peak load when the pavement deflections are yet to reach their peak values. Therefore the results from each device represent a different stage of the pavement response to the applied load. Furthermore, the FWD applies an impact load at a static location while the TSD load is continuously moving. These differences among others lead to differences in the reported deflections and indices from each device. However, the two devices should show similar trends for deflections and indices as observed in the two figures (i.e. they are correlated).

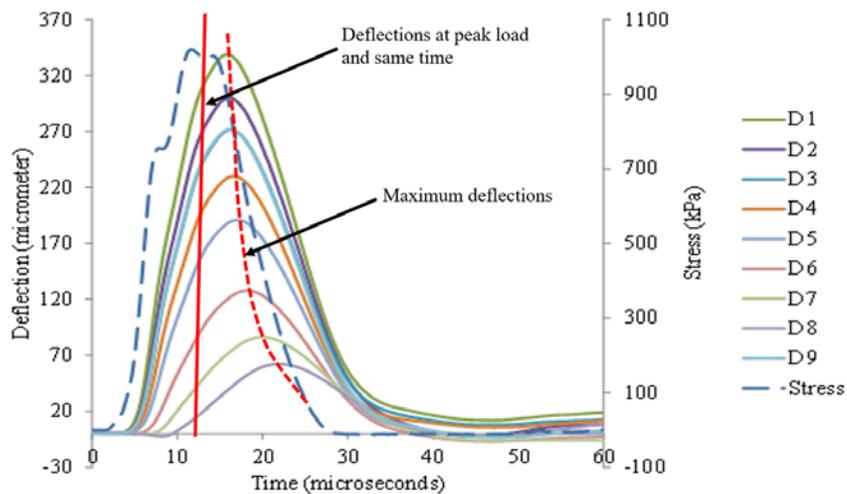


Figure 12 Example of FWD time history from LTPP section 169034 taken from Chatti et al. (2017)

RESEARCH QUESTION 5: HOW CAN WE USE THE INFORMATION OBTAINED FROM TSD MEASUREMENTS?

In this section we present examples on how TSD measurements can be used to help better manage pavement sections.

Identification of Strong and Weak Sections

TSD measurements can be used to classify pavement sections into structurally strong, fair, and weak categories (good, fair, and poor). Figure 13 shows an example of such a classification with measurements collected on US93 south in 2015 and thresholds based on expected remaining fatigue life obtained from Table 2 (similar figures are provided in Excel files for all tested roads). Another method to determine thresholds could be based on percentiles. Figure 14 shows a classification based on percentiles where the 25th percentile is used to separate Good and Fair sections, and the 90th percentile is used to separate Fair and Poor sections. The classification could be used to determine, at the network level planning state, the required type of treatments, if any. For example, identified weak sections could be assigned as candidate sections for heavier structural treatments; sections identified as fair could be assigned as candidates for lighter treatments, such as corrective or preventive maintenance or minor rehab based on surface distress measurements.

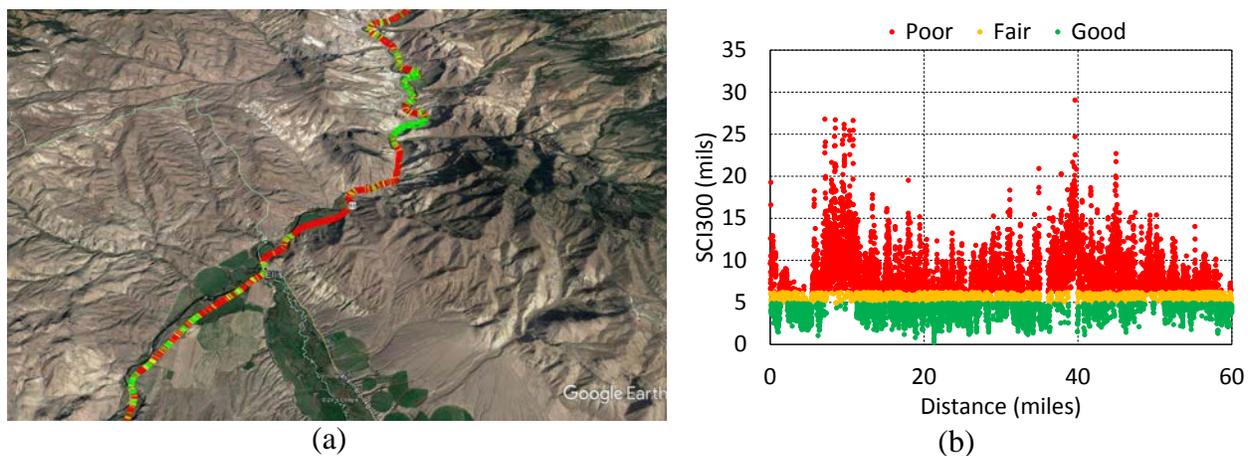


Figure 13. Identified Strong (green) and Weak (red) sections on US93 south based on thresholds obtained from Table 2: (a) Google Earth plot (© 2016 Google); (b) figure plot

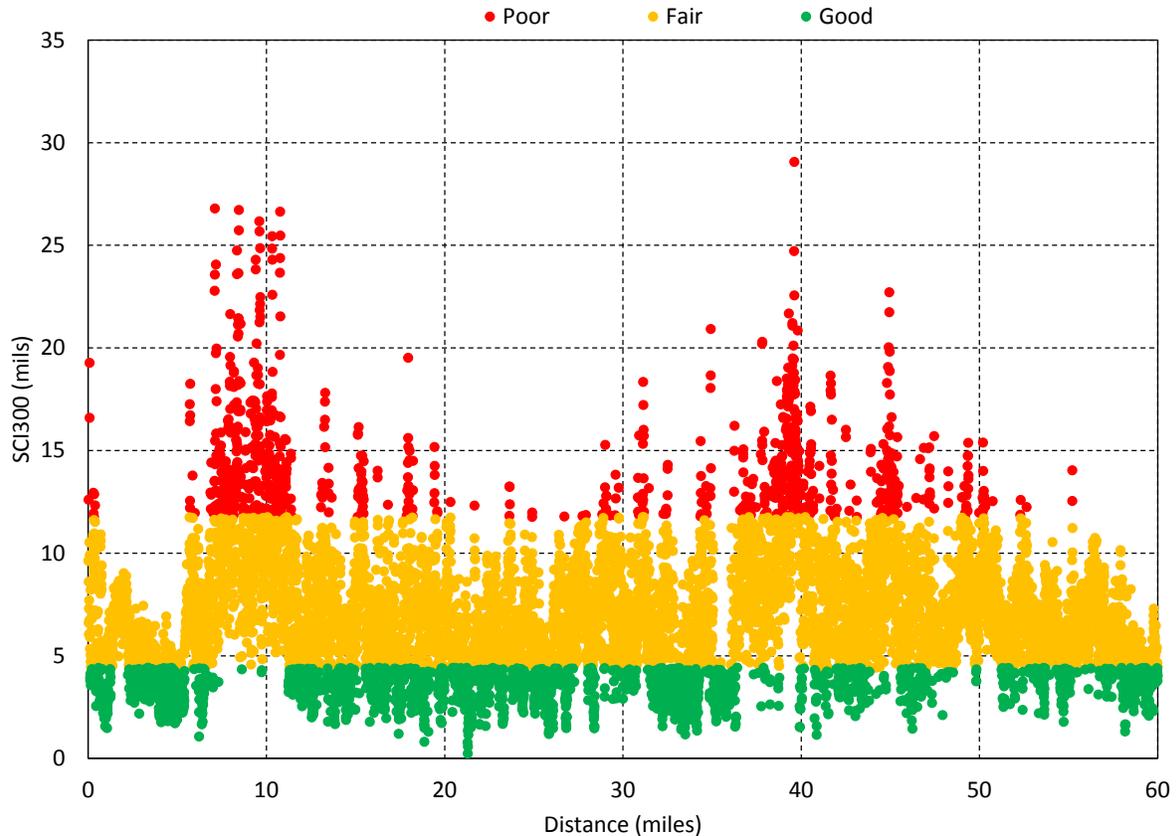


Figure 14 Classification of structural condition on US93 south based on percentile: 25th percentile and lower represents good structural condition and 90th percentile and higher represents poor structural condition

Calculation of Effective Structural Number

With pavement layer thickness information, the effective structural number (SN_{eff}) can be calculated and used as a structural condition index to be implemented in the PMS. Figure 15 shows an example of calculated SN_{eff} on US93S using the method developed Rohde (1994) as follows (see Figure 16 for corresponding route map):

1. Determine the structural index, SIP of the pavement as follows;

$$SIP = d(0) - d(1.5H_p)$$

where:

$d(0)$ = peak deflection under the 9,000 lb load

$d(1.5H_p)$ = deflection at lateral distance of 1.5 times the pavement depth.

H_p = Pavement depth – thickness of all layers above the subgrade.

2. Determine the existing pavement SN_{eff} as;

$$SN_{eff} = k_1 SIP^{k_2} H_p^{k_3}$$

where for asphalt pavements, $k_1 = 0.4728$, $k_2 = -0.4810$, $k_3 = 0.7581$

D_0 used in the calculation was corrected to a reference temperature of 68°F using the procedure described in Lukanen et al. (2000). $D_{1.5Hp}$ was assumed to be farther enough and less influenced by the AC layer, consequently less affected by AC layer temperature. Hence it was not temperature corrected. This assumption was necessary until a robust temperature correction method is developed for correcting SIP .

Figure 15 also include SN_{eff} computed using default layer coefficients as suggested in AASHTO 1993, which represents initial SN_{eff} of the pavement when constructed. The results shows that the TSD SN_{eff} is different from the one estimated based on layer thickness information and structural deterioration is non-uniform over the pavement segment length and the current structural condition, TSD SN_{eff} cannot be estimated with only layer thickness and default layer coefficients.

Figure 17 shows the computed structural number from TSD and FWD measurements on Segment 4 of SR22. The figure also include SN_{eff} computed using default layer coefficients as suggested in AASHTO 1993, which represents initial SN_{eff} of the pavement when constructed. The trend of SN is similar in all three cases, and SN calculated from both TSD and FWD are lower than AASHTO SN indicating deterioration from initial construction.

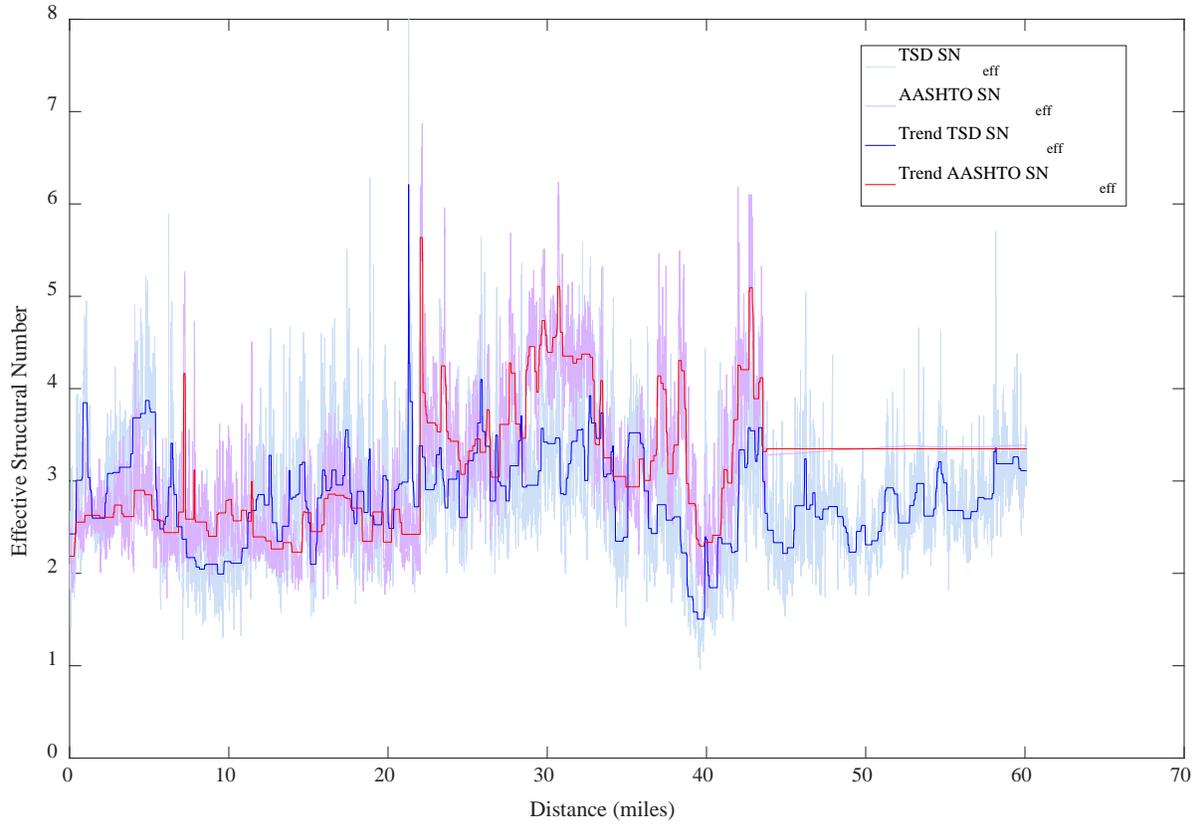


Figure 15 Example of calculated effective structural number on US93 south (see Figure 16 or following link <https://goo.gl/maps/vXkXU5nFM4r>)

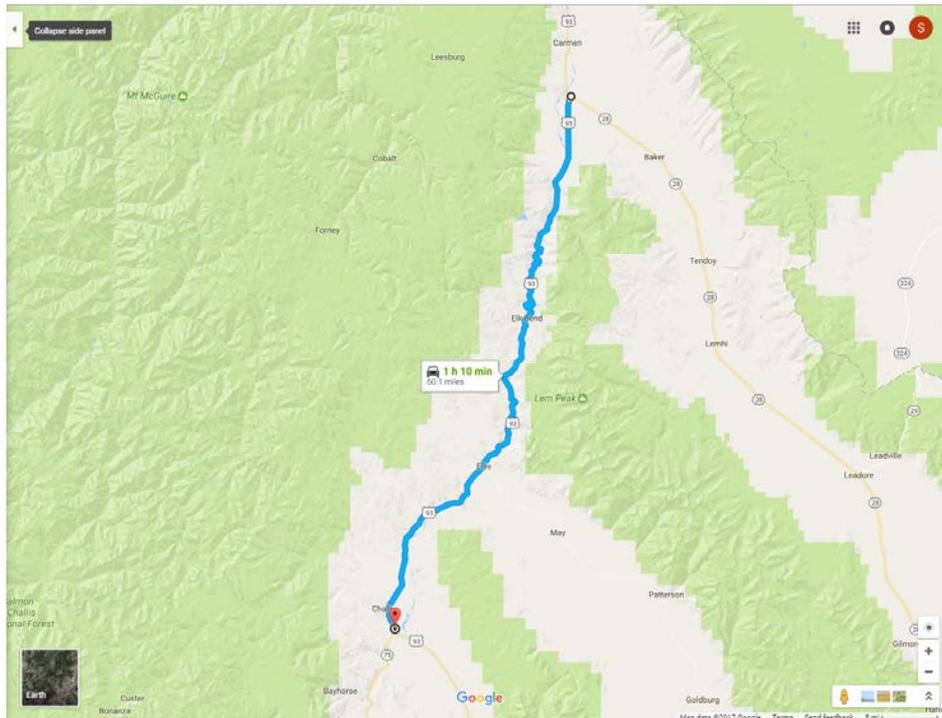


Figure 16 US93 south for which the effective structural number is presented in Figure 15

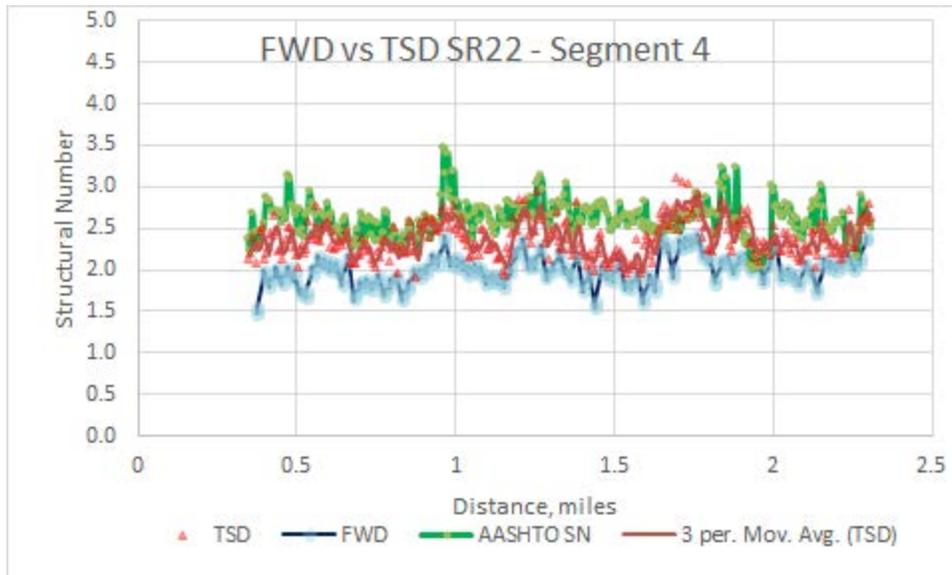


Figure 17. Comparison of Structural number computed from TSD and FWD on SR 22 Segment 4

Mechanistic Analysis with Asphalt Layer Tensile Strains

Work by Rada et al. (2016) has shown that the tensile strain at the bottom of the asphalt layer is highly correlated with pavement structural indices such as SCI300 or DSI that can be obtained from TSD measurements (see Equation 5 earlier). Figure 18 shows an example of the estimated tensile strain profile for US93 south (corrected to a reference temperature of 70°F). Thresholds of 100 and 300 microstrains, respectively, have been used to separate between good, fair, and poor structural conditions (although these thresholds are somewhat arbitrary, the 100 microstrain was chosen because it is the recommended microstrain for dynamic modulus testing of asphalt specimens to limit specimen damage). Again, the threshold should be based on the AC layer thickness and should be adjusted with experience.

Another advantage of the strain approach is that it can be used with a locally calibrated fatigue life equation to provide a better estimate of the remaining fatigue life of the pavement section than the estimate obtained using the generic Equation 11. This provides a link between the TSD-measured condition with an estimate of the remaining structural life of the pavement as illustrated in Figure 19. Practical implementation of this procedure would be in the development of a structural index relationship with remaining fatigue life as illustrated in Figure 20 for DSI.

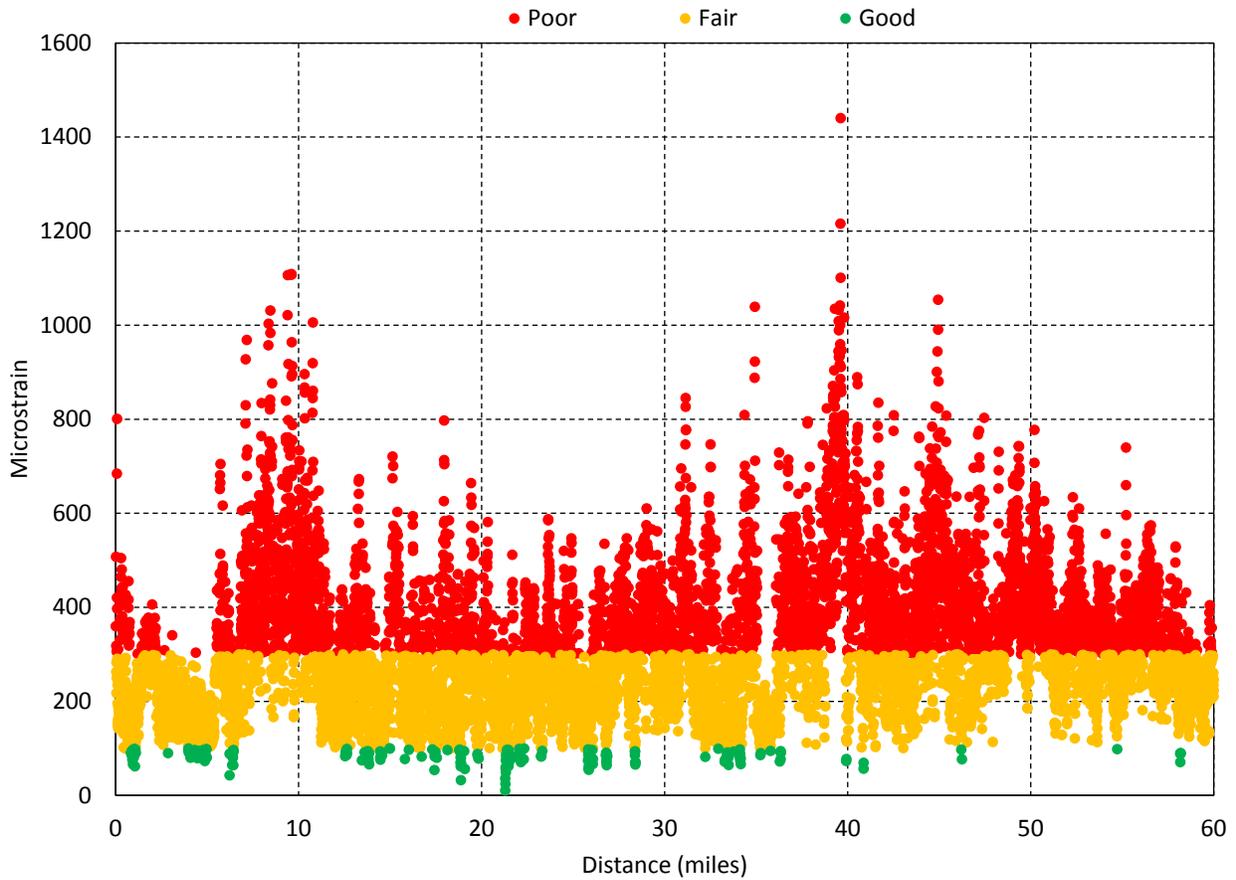


Figure 18. Estimated tensile strain at bottom of asphalt layer on US93 south.

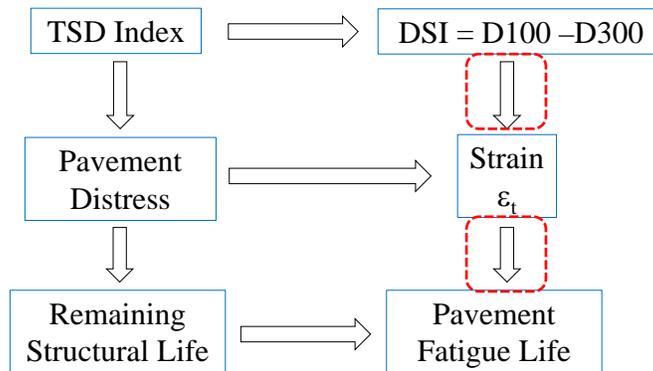


Figure 19. Link between DSI and estimated pavement fatigue life.

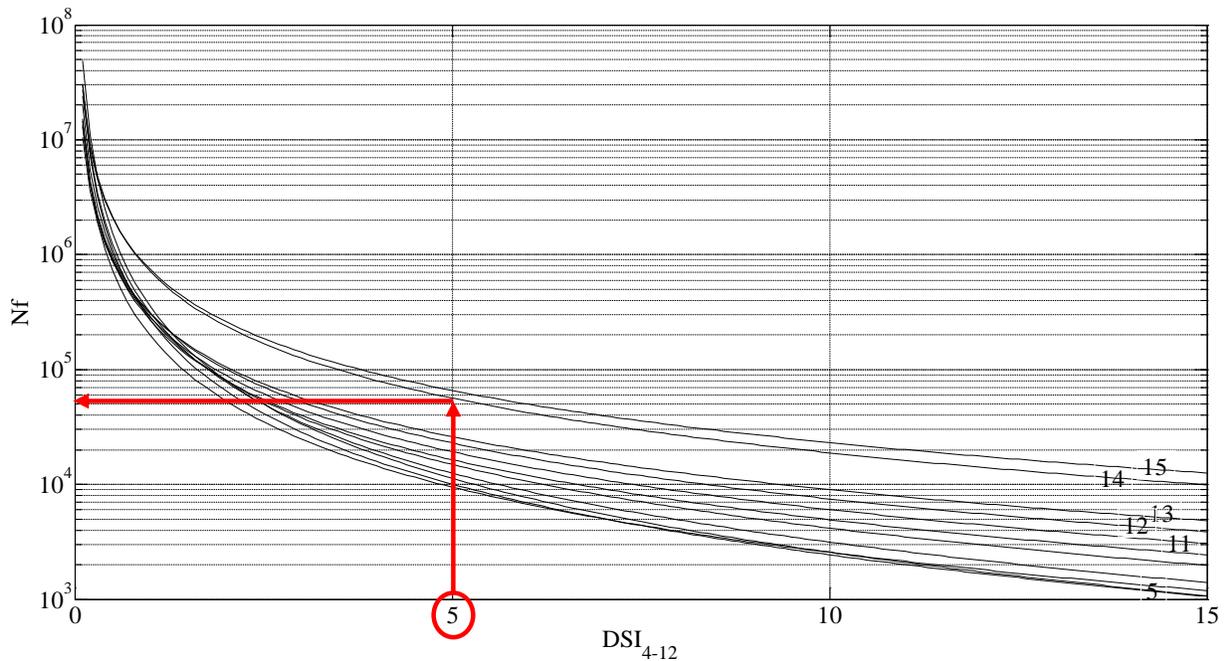


Figure 20. Fatigue life curves for TSD DSI.

RESEARCH QUESTION 6: HOW CAN WE INCORPORATE TSD MEASUREMENTS INTO A PMS?

The Virginia Department of Transportation (VDOT) pavement management decision process is used to illustrate how TSD measurements could be used into a PMS. VDOT uses a set of pavement management decision matrices with distresses as inputs and treatment activities as outputs. Different matrices are used for the following roadway classifications: Interstate Routes, Primary Routes, Secondary Routes, and Unpaved Roads, in addition to the following pavement types: bituminous-surfaced (BIT), bituminous-surfaced composite pavements (with jointed concrete pavement below the surface, BOJ), bituminous-surfaced composite pavements (with continuously reinforced concrete pavement below the surface, BOC), continuously reinforced concrete (CRC), and jointed concrete pavements (JCP). The decision process is a two-phase approach (Figure 21). In 2008, this two-phase approach was modified to include structural condition and truck traffic volumes, and the enhanced decision tree was integrated into the process. One of the main features of the approach is that the addition of the pavement structural information did not alter the core of the decision process already in place but provided an additional step that can be used when pavement structural condition is available. If structural information becomes unavailable, the decision process can revert to the core process already in place. VDOT currently uses the following five treatment categories (from do nothing to heavier treatments): Do Nothing (DN), Preventive Maintenance (PM), Corrective Maintenance (CM), Rehabilitation Maintenance (RM), and Reconstruction (RC). At the preliminary treatment stage, one of these five categories is selected based on the condition index and the decision matrices. In the enhanced decision process, based on the structural condition (and traffic level and

construction history), the selected preliminary treatment can be either retained or modified to a heavier or lighter treatment.

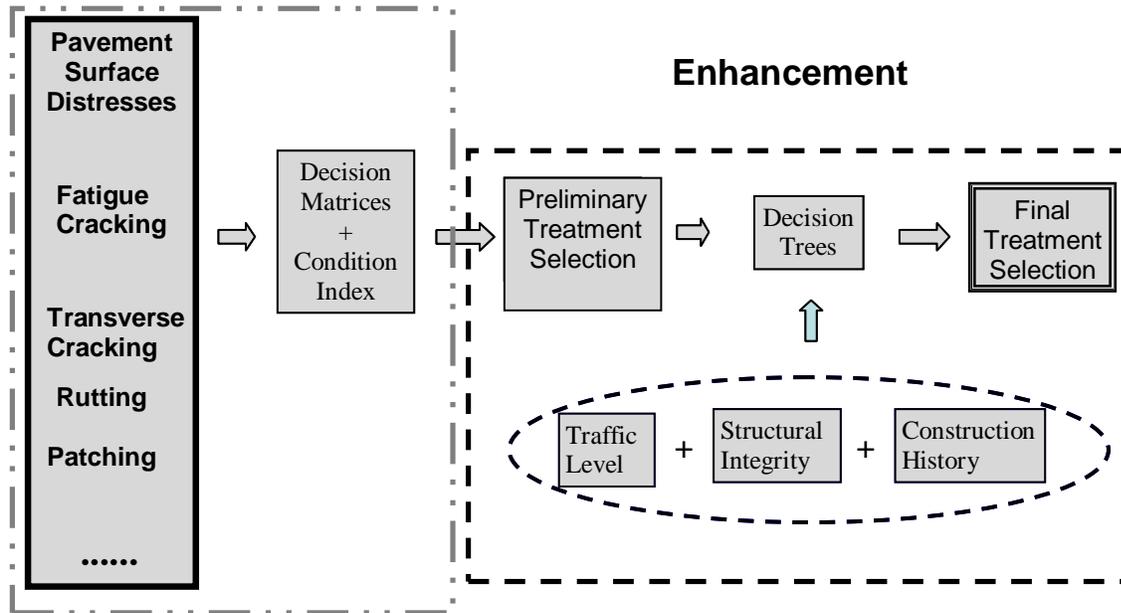


Figure 21. DOT two-phase decision process (Virginia Department of Transportation, 2008).

CONCLUSION

This report summarizes the results of TSD testing performed in Idaho. The report focuses on answering the following important questions:

1. What is the TSD and what does it measure?
2. What is the structural condition of the tested roads?
3. How repeatable are TSD measurements?
4. How can we use the information obtained from TSD measurements?
5. How can we incorporate TSD measurements into a PMS?

A summary of the answers to these questions follows.

1. **What is the TSD and what does it measure?** The TSD is an articulated truck with a loaded rear-axle that can measure the pavement structural condition at or near the traffic speed. Unlike the FWD, the TSD is a moving device (the FWD is stationary) and measures the deflection slope (the FWD measures the deflection) from which the deflections can be calculated.
2. **What is the structural condition of the tested roads?** Most tested roads had a structural condition classified (based on the SCI300) as good or fair except for US93 which had a significant portion of the tested sections classified as fair or poor compared to the other tested roads. The classification was obtained after temperature correcting the

measurements based on an experimental temperature correction equation developed for the TSD in Rada et al. (2016). It should be noted that the thresholds used for structural condition classification are preliminary (based on Table 2) and should further calibrated based on Idaho needs. The structural condition of the tested roads was also summarized in box plots showing the median, 50% range, and 90% range of SCI300. These give a quick overview of the pavement condition. Color coded Google Earth figures for pavements estimated to be in good, fair, and poor conditions are also provided showing the overall pavement condition of the tested roads.

3. **How repeatable are TSD measurements?** Repeated measurements on a 28 miles section of SR28N show good repeatability of TSD calculated SCI300. Some of the discrepancies between the repeated SCI300 could be due to the procedure used for temperature correction which is still preliminary.
4. **How do TSD measurements compare FWD data?** Comparison between the TSD and FWD shows the two devices produce similar trends of D0 and SCI300. This agreement with the FWD (de facto “reference device”) validates the use of the TSD to evaluate the network level structural condition
5. **How can we use the information obtained from TSD measurements?** TSD measurement information can help to better manage pavement sections. TSD measurements was used to identify strong and weak sections. From the VA study, the comparison with the FWD showed that identified weak and strong sections are compatible with FWD-identified sections. Furthermore, with pavement thickness data the SN_{eff} of the road can be calculated. An approach to estimate the remaining fatigue life of the pavement based on estimated temperature-corrected strains using the method developed by Rada et al. (2016) was also illustrated.
6. **How can we incorporate TSD measurements into a PMS?** The PMS approach of the VDOT was used to illustrate how structural information obtained from the TSD could be used to enhance the decision process from the PMS (more details of the proposed PMS approach can be seen in the pooled fund summary report).

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