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1 | **Modeling of cold mix asphalt evolutive behaviour based on nonlinear viscoelastic**
2 | **spectral decomposition**

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13 | **HIGHLIGHTS**

- 14 | - Develop an evolutive constitutive model for cold mixes treated with bitumen
15 | emulsion;
16 | - Develop an oedometric test to study the cold mix asphalt evolutive behaviour.

17 | **ABSTRACT**

18 | Given a political context in which energy and environmental stakes have become
19 | increasingly dominant, road engineering practices have favoured saving energy and
20 | protecting the environment. Among these practices, the use of cold mixes treated with
21 | bitumen emulsion has proven to be a suitable technique. Cold mix design, as well as the
22 | design of pavements including cold mix asphalt ([CMA](#)) layers, is highly empirical and
23 | based on local skills and tend to limit the development of this environmentally-friendly
24 | pavement technique. In the case of CMA, no mechanical behaviour law has been
25 | established to take into account its evolutive behaviour.

1 The paper is set in three parts. The CMA model is presented in Part I. The second part
2 of the paper illustrates the numerical response of the model on a compressive sinusoidal
3 load. The last part presents some first simulations of the cyclic oedometer laboratory
4 tests. By comparing then to the numerical simulations, they show the relevance of the
5 model to account for the CMA behaviour.

6
7 *Keywords:* emulsified bitumen, mechanical behaviour, oedometer test, cold mix asphalt.

8 **1. Introduction**

9 Given a political context in which energy and environmental stakes have become
10 predominant, road engineering practices have favored saving energy and protecting the
11 environment [1]. Among these practices, the use of cold mixes treated with bitumen
12 emulsion has proven to be a suitable technique. The design of pavements including cold
13 mix asphalt (CMA) layers [2] however remains highly empirical and based on local
14 skills. From prior experience, the transposition of established local rules from one site to
15 another and their application to pavements subjected to medium or heavy traffic are not
16 simple steps and tend to limit the development of this environmentally-friendly
17 pavement technique. With this objective in mind, a French project with partners from
18 industry and academia was launched a few years ago to promote the use of sustainable
19 road techniques, among which CMA, through defining a rational and coherent CMA
20 pavement design method and finding ways to expand its scope to higher traffic volumes
21 than those typically encountered by this type of material.

22 CMA displays an evolutive behaviour [3], [4], [5], due to the use of a bitumen emulsion
23 (i.e. mixture of water and bitumen) as binder. In the laboratory, the breaking of the
24 bitumen emulsion and water release are both observed under gyratory compaction [6].
25 These phenomena are found to be highly correlated with the emulsion formulation,

1 which must be adapted to the choice of aggregate. In pavements, after compaction the
2 CMA continues to evolve according of the remained water content in the material, in
3 exhibiting a behaviour that remains poorly understood [7]. In the fresh state, CMA
4 behaves like soft and quasi-unbound granular materials. Over time, the material
5 becomes increasingly stiffer with a mechanical behaviour resembling that of a bound
6 asphalt concrete material. The time required to achieve this stiffer mechanical state is
7 called "curing time".

8 The objective of this paper is to develop a generic curing model for CMA, derived from
9 "merging" the Boyce nonlinear elastic (NLE) model [8], which reflects the behaviour of
10 unbound granular materials at a very early age, with the Huet model [9], which reflects
11 the thermo-viscoelastic behaviour (VE) of hot mix asphalt (HMA) by means of a
12 "curing function". The obtained nonlinear viscoelastic model (NLVE) is based on the
13 use of spectral decomposition for both NLE and VE components. The paper is set in
14 three parts. The CMA model is presented in Part I. The second one of the paper
15 illustrates the numerical response of the model on a compressive sinusoidal load. The
16 last part presents some first simulations of the cyclic oedometer laboratory tests
17 undertaken in parallel to this modelling work.

18 **2. Development of a model to account of the NLVE and curing behaviour of CMA**

19 To design a pavement structure, the first step consists of computing the strain and stress
20 fields generated by the action of traffic loads. Those ones must then be compared with
21 the long-term performances of materials under cyclic mechanical loadings (fatigue tests,
22 cracking tests ...) and climatic conditions in relation with the specified pavement life.

23 The CMA model proposed herein is related to the first step.

24 **1.1.2.1. Two generic models to describe the behaviour of the CMA in fresh** 25 **and cured states**

1 Our objective is to develop a generic curing model of CMA, whose behaviour varies
 2 from an unbound granular material at a very early age to the thermo-viscoelasticity of
 3 asphalt mixes over the long term. To fulfil this objective, two well-known models are
 4 firstly considered. One is the Boyce nonlinear elastic (NLE) model for characterising
 5 unbound granular materials, while the second is the Huet viscoelastic (VE) model
 6 known for its accurate description of HMA.

7 1.1.1.2.1.1. **Boyce model (3D)**

8 The Boyce's model is a nonlinear extension of Hooke's Law and is based on the
 9 hardening dependence with stress of the compressibility K_B and shear G_B moduli, which
 10 is typical of the reversible behaviour of unbound granular materials [8]. Using the
 11 standard signs and notations of continuum mechanics (contraction strain < 0,
 12 compressive stress < 0), the model is written in 3D:

$$13 \quad \varepsilon_{vol} = -\frac{p}{K_B} \quad (1)$$

$$14 \quad \varepsilon_q = \frac{q}{3 G_B} \quad (2)$$

$$15 \quad \text{with: } K_B = K_a \frac{\left(\frac{p}{Pa}\right)^{1-n}}{1-\gamma\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^2} \quad (3)$$

$$16 \quad \text{and: } G_B = G_a \left(\frac{p}{Pa}\right)^{1-n} \quad (4)$$

17 where:

- 18 • $p = -\frac{1}{3} tr(\sigma)$: is the mean pressure;
- 19 • $q = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2} tr(s^2)}$: is the deviatoric stress with $s = \sigma + -\frac{1}{3} tr(\sigma)I$ ($\sigma, s \equiv$ stress and
 20 deviatoric stress tensors, $I \equiv$ unit 3x3 tensor);
- 21 • $\varepsilon_{vol} = tr(\varepsilon)$: is the volumetric strain;
- 22 • $\varepsilon_q = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3} tr(e^2)}$: is the deviatoric strain with $e = \varepsilon - \frac{1}{3} tr(\varepsilon)I$ ($\varepsilon, e \equiv$ strain and
 23 deviatoric strain tensors);
- 24 • Pa, K_a, G_a, γ are positive parameters;

- n is an exponent lying between 0 and 1.

As an example, figures 1 and 2 show the modelling of a cyclic oedometric triaxial test with Boyce model.

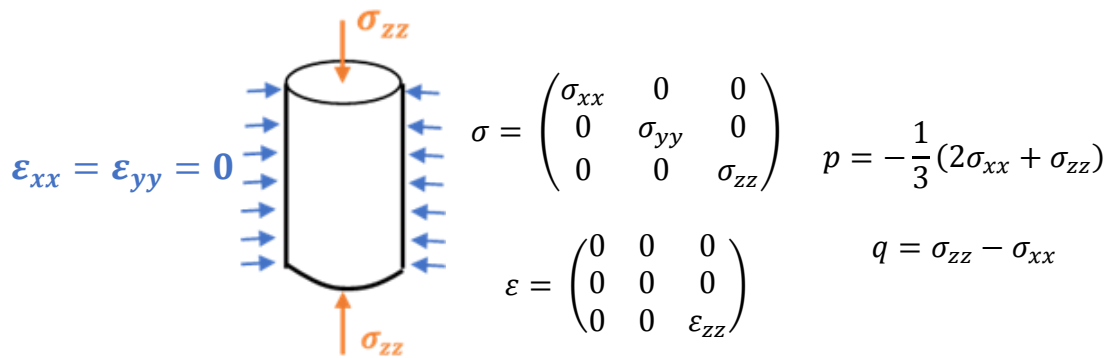


Figure 1. Illustration an oedometric triaxial test

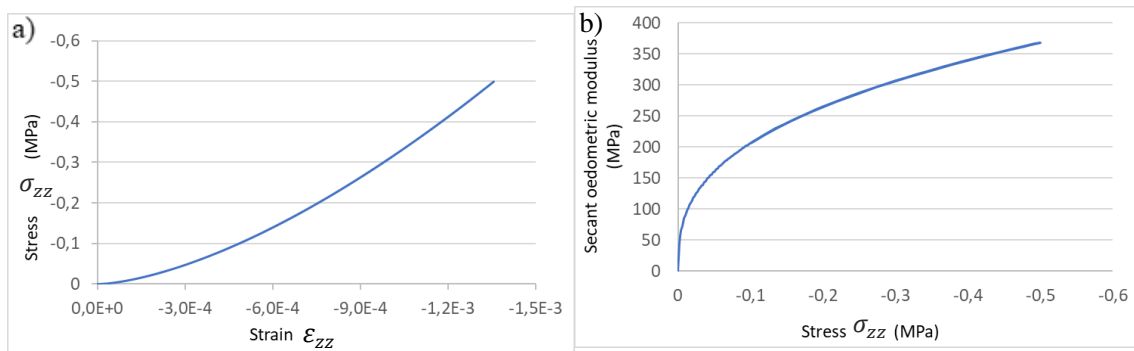


Figure 2. Illustration of Boyce model response in the case of an oedometric triaxial test, a) Stress vs strain hardening curve, b) Secant oedometric modulus vs axial stress sigma_zz

1.1.2.2.1.2. Huet model (1D)

The thermo-viscoelastic model as defined by Huet is composed of a series of elements: one spring E_∞ and two parabolic dashpots (h and k) (fig. 3).

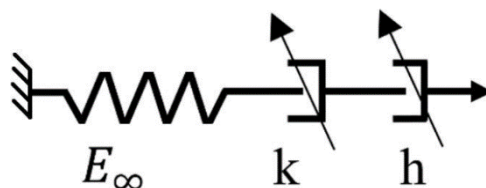


Figure 3. Representation of the Huet model

1 The complex modulus ($E_H^*(\omega)$) and creep function ($F_H(t)$) of the Huet model are
 2 expressed as:

$$3 \quad E_H^*(\omega) = \frac{E_\infty}{1 + \delta(i\omega a(\theta))^{-k} + (i\omega a(\theta))^{-h}} \quad (5)$$

$$4 \quad F_H(t) = \frac{1}{E_\infty} \left(1 + \frac{\delta}{\Gamma(k+1)} \left(\frac{t}{a(\theta)} \right)^k + \frac{1}{\Gamma(h+1)} \left(\frac{t}{a(\theta)} \right)^h \right) H(t) \quad (6)$$

5 where E_∞ is the elastic modulus, h, k are the exponents of parabolic dashpots lying
 6 between 0 and 1, δ is the weight of dashpot (k) (positive value), Γ is the Euler function,
 7 $a(\theta)$ is the function whose time dimension accounts for the dependence of the material
 8 behaviour on temperature θ (decreasing exponential type). $H(t)$ is the Heavyside
 9 function.

10 The relationship between stress and strain can be derived from the creep function by the
 11 usual time convolution equation:

$$12 \quad \varepsilon = F_H \otimes \dot{\sigma} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} F_H(t-u) \frac{d\sigma}{dt}(u) du \quad (7)$$

13 **1.1.3.2.1.3. Idea basis for the NLE + VE generic laws**

14 At the end our aim is to develop a 3D NLVE constitutive law to account for the real
 15 CMA behaviour by mixing NLE component of Boyce's type with VE component of
 16 Huet's type; this, in order to be able to compute strain stress fields in pavements
 17 submitted to traffic loads and to develop pavement design methodology. However, in
 18 this paper, we only present the first step of construction of the constitutive model in 1D
 19 that can be generalized in 3D latter on. For our purpose, we then use the 1D following
 20 approximations of the laws presented in part 2.1.1 and 2.1.2 that is:

$$21 \quad \sigma = -E_s(-\varepsilon)^\alpha \quad (8)$$

$$22 \quad F(t) = B \left(\frac{t}{A} \right)^\beta \text{ with } 0 < \beta < 1 \quad (9)$$

1 Equation (8) can be derived from Boyce model, using the relationship between the mean
2 pressure and the volumetric strain. Indeed, from equations (1) and (3), one obtains:

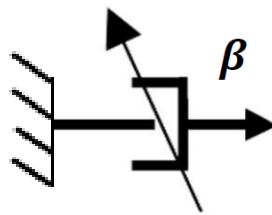
$$3 \quad p = P_a \left(\frac{K_a}{P_a} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} (-\varepsilon_{vol})^{\frac{1}{n}} \quad (10)$$

4 which is similar to equation (8) after a change of notation and with $\alpha = \frac{1}{n}$, thus $\alpha > 1$

5 and with $E_s = P_a \left(\frac{K_a}{P_a} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}}$, having the dimension of an elastic modulus.

6 Equation (9) is the creep function corresponding to a single parabolic dashpot (fig. 4)
7 considered as sufficient as generic model to describe the viscoelastic behaviour of
8 CMA. β value can be assumed to be close to Huet h exponent, representative of the
9 HMA behaviour for relatively low values of stiffness (at low frequency or at high
10 temperature) which corresponds to the case of CMA.

11 The A parameter accounts later on for the dependence of the viscosity of CMA both
12 with the age of the material since its manufacturing and with its actual temperature
13 $\theta(t)$. The evolution of this parameter both with curing and $\theta(t)$ is discussed further on
14 in 2.2.4.



15
16 Figure 4. Single parabolic dashpot used as the viscoelastic component of the CMA
17 model

18 Without restricting the model, B can be taken equal to $\frac{1}{E_s}$ (see equation (8)), just
19 changing $A(t, \theta)$ by a multiplicative constant.

20 In the following, we principally focus on the compressive behaviour of CMA which is
21 the expected response of the material in pavement at young age. But the model that we

1 present can also account for tensile stresses that may also arise on site after a certain
2 curing time.

4 **1.2.2.2. Derivation of the CMA model from the spectral decomposition of the** 5 **two-previous generic NLE and VE laws**

6 It is proposed herein to derive the CMA model from a "juxtaposition" of the two
7 previous equations (8) and (9), by assigning greater weight to the viscoelastic behaviour
8 over time due to parameter $A(t, \theta)$ increasing with the material age. To carry out the
9 "juxtaposition" of equations (8) and (9) without duplicating the elastic behaviour
10 displayed by both, the two laws are decomposed in spectrum series. The same non-
11 dimensional real variable l , ranging from 0 to $+\infty$, is initially used to continuously
12 index the spectral elements of the two series. In denoting $\varepsilon_l(\sigma, l)$ as the strain
13 distribution over the set of elements, the material strain obtained for such a spectrum
14 can be expressed as:

$$15 \quad \varepsilon(\sigma) = \int_0^{+\infty} \varepsilon_l(\sigma, l) dl \quad (11)$$

16 **1.2.1.2.2.1. Description of the NLE law (8) using a series of "linear spring** 17 **+ mechanical stop" elements**

18 The spectral decomposition of the NLE law, is based on a series of elements l (with
19 $l \in \mathbb{R}^+$) with two branches, a linear spring and a mechanical stop in the compressive
20 domain (fig. 5). The spring value is assumed to be constant across the set of elements
21 and taken equal to the value of parameter E_s in equation (8). The mechanical stops are
22 characterized by their "initial opening value" $b(l)$ considered as positive and which can
23 be presumed without restriction as a decreasing, monotonous function of l (figure 6).

Under compressive stress, the opening of the mechanical stops will decrease until possibly getting shut for the elements which strain is equal to $b(l)$. Then closing elements one after the other leads to the progressive stiffening of the series.

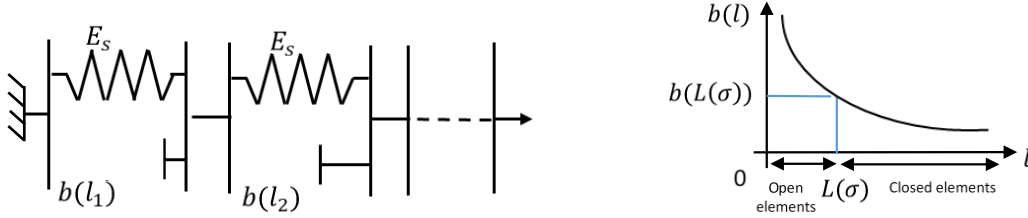


Figure 6. Evolution of the variable

Figure 5. Spectral decomposition for NLE $b(l)$

The function $b(l)$ can be defined for any given NLE law $\sigma(\epsilon)$ (computation [given in appendix A](#)). The following function is obtained in the case of equation (8):

$$b(l) = \frac{1}{(\alpha l)^{\alpha-1}} \text{ which satisfies the requisite assumptions for } \alpha > 1 \quad (12)$$

1.2.2.2.2. Representation of equation (9) by its spectral creep series

This type of representation is usual; it may be based on a series of Kelvin-Voigt elements, for which the elastic modulus E is set as a constant whereas the viscosity $\eta(l)$ varies with l (fig. 7).

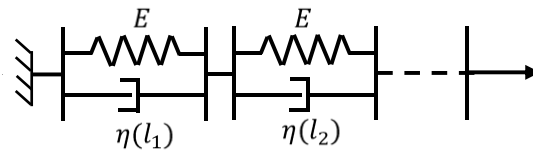


Figure 7. Viscoelasticity creep spectrum

The creep function can then be written as follows:

$$F(t) = \frac{1}{E} \int_0^{+\infty} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{E t}{\eta(l)}} \right) dl \quad (13)$$

which makes it possible to derive $\eta(l)$ from $F(t)$ (computation [given in appendix B](#)).

In the case of equation (9), with $E = E_s$, $\eta(l)$ is found equal to $\eta(l) = E_s \zeta(l)$, where $\zeta(l)$ is a non-dimensional function of l :

$$\zeta(l) = A(\Gamma(1 - \beta))^{\frac{1}{\beta}} l^{\frac{1}{\beta}} \quad (14)$$

1.2.3.2.2.3. "Juxtaposition" of the NLE + VE generic laws by series of 3-branch elements

In order to merge equations (8) and (9), a series of 3-branch elements is introducing, as illustrated in figure 8. To avoid duplicating the elastic components stemming from both NLE and VE spectra, the springs for each element are merged into a single one, whose value is set equal to E_s .

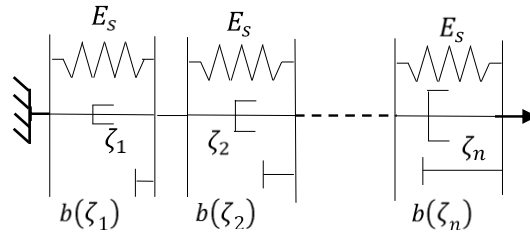


Figure 8. Series of 3-branch elements for CMA

In this model, the A parameter allows us to get a continuous transformation of the material from an unbound material at early age (small values for A) to an asphalt concrete material at cured state (after increase of *curing* parameter and A value).

In equation (12), the l variable can be replaced by the ζ variable (equation (14)) to simplify the spectral representation, in which case the spectrum is characterized solely by the function $b(\zeta)$:

$$b(\zeta) = \left(\frac{\alpha}{\Gamma(1-\beta)} \right)^{\frac{\alpha}{\alpha-1}} \left(\frac{A}{\zeta} \right)^{\frac{\beta\alpha}{\alpha-1}} \quad (15)$$

From typical values for exponents α and β , i.e. 1.4 for α (derived from typical values of Boyce exponent n for granular materials) and 0.6 for β (the "h" exponent in the Huet model for HMA), the exponent $\frac{\beta\alpha}{\alpha-1}$ is found to be greater than 1, which makes $b(\zeta)$ monotonically decreasing from $+\infty$ to 0 for ζ varying from 0 to $+\infty$.

1 Now, by denoting $\varepsilon_{\zeta}(\zeta, t)$ as the "elementary deformation" of element ζ at time t , the
2 total strain $\varepsilon(t)$ of the series is given by:

$$3 \quad \varepsilon(t) = \frac{\beta}{\Gamma(1-\beta)A^{\beta}} \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{\varepsilon_{\zeta}(\zeta, t)}{\zeta^{1-\beta}} d\zeta \quad (16)$$

4 1.2.4.2.2.4. Modeling of curing

5 In this model, the parameter A is meant to account for the evolution of viscosity of
6 CMA binders both with their curing state and the actual value of temperature θ . A first
7 approach, which will be developed in future work from the on-going experimental
8 campaign, will be to use the factorized form: $A(\theta, age, \{\theta\}) = a(\theta(t)) v(age\{\theta\}, t)$.
9 As in the case of usual asphalt materials, the function $a(\theta)$ where θ is the actual value
10 of temperature, is meant to account for the "immediate" change of viscoelastic
11 properties of CMA with temperature. The higher θ , the softer the material. This
12 function often called "function of translation in temperature" is generally taken close to
13 the shape of a decreasing exponential and can be represented, for example, by the
14 Williams-Landel-Ferry law [10]. Furthermore, it is generally found that the $a(\theta)$
15 function of asphalt concrete can be assimilated to the one of the bitumen used as binder
16 [11]. In the present case $a(\theta)$, it will have to be checked if $a(\theta)$ can be deduced from
17 the thermal behaviour of the bitumen used in the emulsion of CMA.

18 Beside $v(age)$ is meant to account for the curing of the material with its age since its
19 manufacturing. Supposed to be equal to 0 just after manufacturing ($age = 0$), $v(age)$
20 increases with the material age. A priori $v(age)$ is itself a function of the temperature
21 and moisture time histories $\{\theta\}: age \rightarrow \theta(age)$, $\{w\}: age \rightarrow w(age)$ that is $v(age) =$
22 $\mathcal{F}(age, \{\theta\}, \{w\})$. One of our objectives starting from the results of our experimental
23 campaign for which two different constant curing temperatures are used (20 and 35°C)

1 will be to identify the \mathcal{F} function by taking inspiration from Doyle's work [12] which
2 accounts for the acceleration of the curing process with temperature.

3 1.2.5.2.2.5. **Calculation of the stress-strain relationship for the NLVE**
4 **model**

5 Let's now examine the response of the previous spectrum model to a given stress
6 history, which constitutes a more direct problem than the inverse one (i.e. computation
7 of stress for a given strain history), although the method described below can easily be
8 adapted to the inverse case. This calculation is based on the numerical computation of
9 the integral appearing in equation (16) and can be performed in three steps, namely:

- 10 (1) Discretisation of time into regular time steps Δt defining the times $t_i = i \Delta t$;
- 11 (2) For each time step $[t_i, t_{i+1}]$ and for any element of the spectrum, an
12 incremental calculation of $\varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta, t_{i+1})$ in response to the given stress function
13 and to the strain value of $\varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta, t_i)$ at time t_i is assumed to be known and
14 stored in memory;
- 15 (3) Calculation of the integral in ζ by the trapezium rule, yielding the total
16 strain response $\varepsilon(t_{i+1})$.

17 Step (2) is based on equations (17) to (19), which are exact for continuous and piecewise
18 linear $\sigma(t)$ functions on intervals $[t_i, t_{i+1}]$. The equation to be used for any element ζ
19 among equations (17), (18), (19) depends upon the open or close state of element at time t_i .

20 First case: Element ζ open at time t_i

21 Its evolution following time t_i is given by Equation (17):

$$22 \quad \varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta, t) = \frac{\sigma_i}{E_s} + \frac{\dot{\sigma}_{i,i+1}}{E_s} (t - t_i - \zeta) + \left(\varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta, t_i) - \frac{\sigma_i}{E_s} + \frac{\dot{\sigma}_{i,i+1}}{E_s} \zeta \right) e^{-\frac{(t-t_i)}{\zeta}} \quad (17)$$

23 where $\dot{\sigma}_{i,i+1} = \frac{\sigma_{i+1} - \sigma_i}{\Delta t}$ is the stress rate imposed between times t_i and t_{i+1} .

24 Two subcases can then again occur depending on the value of $\varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta, t)$ obtained at time
25 t_{i+1} using equation (17):

1 (1) If $\varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta, t_{i+1}) \geq -b(\zeta)$, the element remains open throughout the time interval
 2 $[t_i, t_{i+1}]$ and the element deformation at time t_{i+1} is equal to $\varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta, t_{i+1})$.

3 (2) If $\varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta, t_{i+1}) < -b(\zeta)$, the element closes during the time interval (for a specific
 4 time value that does not need to be calculated in our algorithm), and the true
 5 element deformation at time t_{i+1} equals: $\varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta, t_{i+1}) = -b(\zeta)$.

6 Second case: Element ζ closed at time t_i

7 Now, the element will open between t_i and t_{i+1} only if the stress $\sigma(t)$ becomes smaller
 8 in absolute value terms than $E_s b(\zeta)$. Once again, two subcases are raised:

9 (1) If $\sigma(t_{i+1}) < -E_s b(\zeta)$, the element remains closed on the time interval $[t_i, t_{i+1}]$;
 10 the element deformation at time t_{i+1} is equal to $\varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta, t_{i+1}) = -b(\zeta)$.

11 (2) If $\sigma(t_{i+1}) \geq -E_s b(\zeta)$, the element opens at time t_{fo} , as defined by:

$$12 \quad t_{fo} = t_i - \frac{E_s b(\zeta) + \sigma_i}{\dot{\sigma}_{i,i+1}} \quad (18)$$

13 The element deformation at time t_{i+1} is then given by:

$$14 \quad \varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta, t_{i+1}) = -b(\zeta) + \frac{\dot{\sigma}_{i,i+1}}{E_s} (t_{i+1} - t_{fo} - \zeta) + \frac{\dot{\sigma}_{i,i+1}}{E_s} \zeta e^{\frac{-(t-t_i)}{\zeta}} \quad (19)$$

15 With these known values of $\varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta, t_{i+1})$, the total strain $\varepsilon(t_{i+1})$ of the spectrum can now
 16 be calculated by applying the trapezoidal rule to (16) and limiting the variation of ζ to
 17 the range $[0, \zeta_{max}]$ with $\zeta_{max} = \zeta_n$ being large enough. Then:

$$18 \quad \varepsilon(t_{i+1}) \approx \frac{\beta}{\Gamma(1-\beta)A^\beta} \left(\int_0^{\zeta_1} \frac{\varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta, t_{i+1})}{\zeta^{1-\beta}} d\zeta + \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \frac{(\zeta_{j+1} - \zeta_j)}{2} \left(\frac{\varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta_j, t_{i+1})}{\zeta_j^{1-\beta}} + \frac{\varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta_{j+1}, t_{i+1})}{\zeta_{j+1}^{1-\beta}} \right) \right) \quad (20)$$

19 To get an accurate precision, ζ_j values are taken into logarithmic progression between
 20 10^{-15} and 10^5 .

21 The first integral over the interval $[0; \zeta_1]$ is approximated by an analytical calculation to
 22 avoid the problem of singular integrand in $\zeta = 0$. For this, ζ_1 value is selected small
 23 enough with $b(\zeta)$ sufficiently high, being sure that all elements are open on the whole
 24 interval $[0, \zeta_1]$. Then:

$$\int_0^{\zeta_1} \frac{\varepsilon_\zeta(\zeta, t_{i+1})}{\zeta^{1-\beta}} d\zeta \approx \int_0^{\zeta_1} \frac{\frac{\sigma_i}{E_s} + \frac{\dot{\sigma}_{i,i+1}(t_{i+1}-t_i)}{E_s}}{\zeta^{1-\beta}} d\zeta = \left(\frac{\sigma_i}{E_s} + \frac{\dot{\sigma}_{i,i+1}(t_{i+1}-t_i)}{E_s} \right) \frac{\zeta_1^\beta}{\beta} \quad (21)$$

Finally, the entire procedure can easily be implemented into software for the step-by-step numerical computation of the material response $\varepsilon(t)$.

2.3. Examples of the strain-stress response of the 1D CMA model

A compressive sinusoidal test (fig. 9) was programmed using Visual Basic software to compute the strain response. Exponents β and α are taken equal to 0.6 and 1.4. The E_s parameter is defined by imposing $\varepsilon = 10^{-3}$ for $\sigma = 0.8 \text{ MPa}$ in equation (8), as typical values for unbound pavement materials. In these first calculations, which aim at representing a fresh material, A in equation (9) is taken equal to $2 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. This means that for a loading time of $2 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ s}$ and for a pressure of 1 MPa which are typical orders of magnitude associated with traffic loads, the VE law would lead to strains in the order of 10^{-3} .

With this condition, figure 9 shows the strain obtained for the CMA, as well as the NLE and VE curves calculated using the following relationships:

$$\text{Nonlinear elasticity: } \varepsilon(\sigma) = \left(\frac{\sigma}{E_s} \right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha}} \quad (22)$$

$$\text{Viscoelasticity: } \varepsilon(t) = F \otimes \dot{\sigma} \quad (23)$$

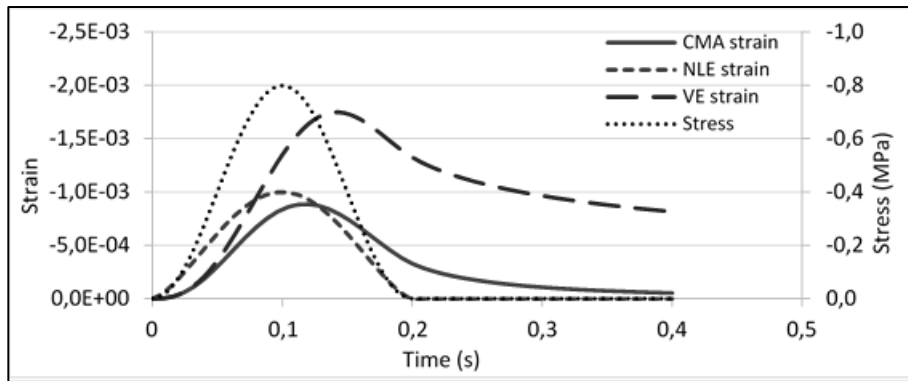


Figure 9. Strain response of CMA model to stress signal

1 As expected, the CMA strain curve looks equal to the VE deformation curve over a
 2 short time interval, but its maximum remains under the NLE curve. During the
 3 discharge, due to viscoelasticity, the CMA curve returns to zero well below the VE
 4 curve but more gradually than the NLE curve, which returns to zero at 0.2s.

5 **3.4. First comparison between the model response and oedometric tests on CMA**

6 **3.4.1. Experimental tests on CMA**

7 In parallel of this modelling work, an experimental campaign was managed to
 8 characterize the mechanical behaviour of CMA from fresh to cured state.

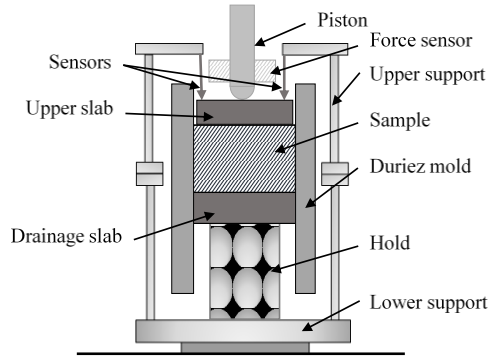
9 The tested material is a CMA (Table 1.), composed of basalt aggregate and a cationic
 10 emulsion with a binder content of 60% (including a 160/220 pen-grade bitumen).

11 Table 1. CMA formulation

Sieve (mm)	0.063	0.125	0.2	0.25	0.4	0.5	1	2	4	6.3	8	10	12.5	14	16
Passing (%)	7	9	11	13	16	19	28	43	62	73	79	86	95	99	100
Total water content (%)				Residual binder content (%)					Void ratio (%)						
7.9				4.2					15						

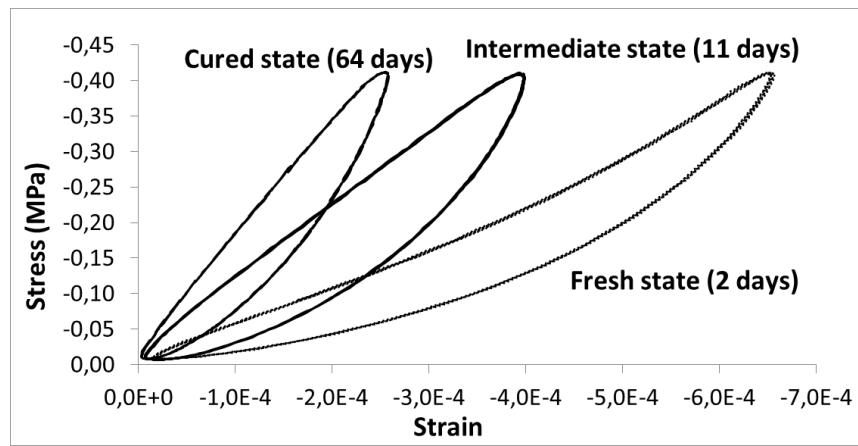
12 CMA has been compacted thanks to Duriez protocol. CMA specimens have been
 13 always kept in the Duriez molds for curing and mechanical testing. After compaction,
 14 CMA specimens have been stored in climatic chambers for three weeks under different
 15 controlled curing conditions (temperature of 20°C, 35°C and humidity ratio of 55%) to
 16 study the effect of these parameters on mechanical performance [13]. From time to
 17 time, the specimens will be shortly retrieved from the chambers to test them under
 18 cyclic oedometric conditions to measure their (complex) modulus. These tests are done
 19 at different frequencies (0.1, 1, 3, 6 and 10Hz) and temperatures in order to better assess
 20 their viscoelastic behaviour and possibly further characterize the curing parameter A of
 21 our model. Only mechanical performance measured at 20°C are shown in this article. A
 22 hundred of load cycles are applied on the whole life of the specimens to avoid

1 mechanical disturbance of the samples. To conduct these tests, a specific experimental
 2 device (fig. 10) was fully designed and manufactured specifically to study CMA
 3 mechanical behaviour.



4
 5 Figure 10. Device for the mechanical characterization test

6 The oedometric tests results presented in the following (fig. 11) were performed at
 7 different curing states at 20°C and 1 Hz for a sinusoidal stress of 0.4 MPa applied to the
 8 specimens. These first tests demonstrate a strong stiffening of the material with curing
 9 when comparing strain amplitude which decreases from $6,5 \cdot 10^{-4}$ in the fresh state to
 10 $2,3 \cdot 10^{-4}$ in the cured state.



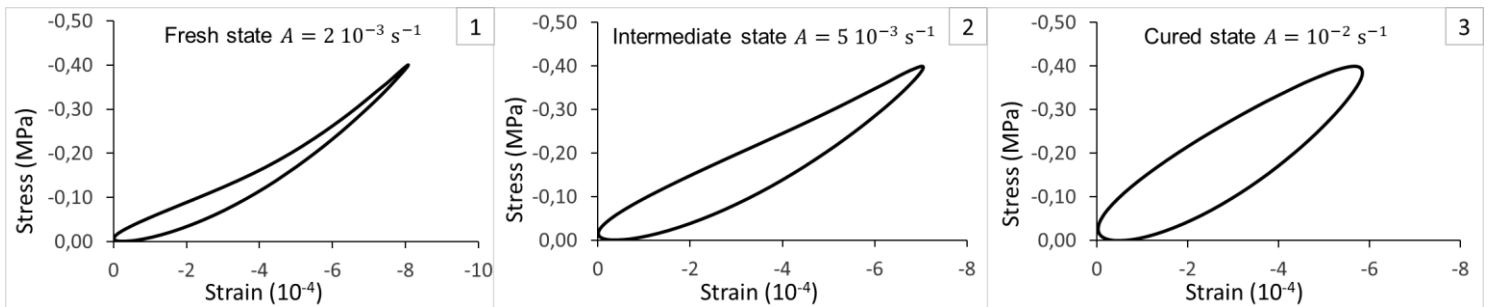
11
 12 Figure 11. Experimental stress-strain cycles measured at 20°C on specimens cured at
 13 35°C and 55% H.R

14 In the fresh state (2 days after manufacturing, compacting and curing at 35°C and 55%
 15 H.R), the CMA specimen displays at 20°C and 1 Hz an oedometric secant modulus

1 (calculated on the stabilized loading cycles) of 623 MPa. After 11 days and 64 days of
 2 curing, the modulus increases to 1038 MPa and 1761 MPa respectively. It can also be
 3 observed that with curing, the shape of the curves become less convex (fig. 11) which
 4 reflects the viscoelastic component increasing in the CMA behaviour. In the most cured
 5 state, the loading unloading loop even becomes elliptic.

6 | 3.2.4.2. Application of the CMA model for different values of “A”

7 To simulate these oedometric tests, a stress function $\sigma(t) = -0.4(1 - \cos \omega t)$ was run
 8 for few cycles in order to obtain the corresponding strain. The parameters β and α are
 9 kept equal to 0.6 and 1.4. The E_s parameter is defined by imposing $\varepsilon = 10^{-3}$ for the
 10 stress $\sigma = 0.4MPa$. The value of a is used to modify the model viscosity so as to
 11 observe the variation in material behaviour between the fresh and cured states (fig. 12
 12 and 13). To be closed to the experimental results shown on figure 11, the parameter A is
 13 chosen as $2 \cdot 10^{-3} s^{-1}$ (fresh state), $5 \cdot 10^{-3} s^{-1}$ (intermediate state) and $10^{-2} s^{-1}$ (cured
 14 state).



16 Figure 12. Simulation of three CMA loading cycles at the fresh state (1), at the
 17 intermediate state (2) and at the cured state (3)

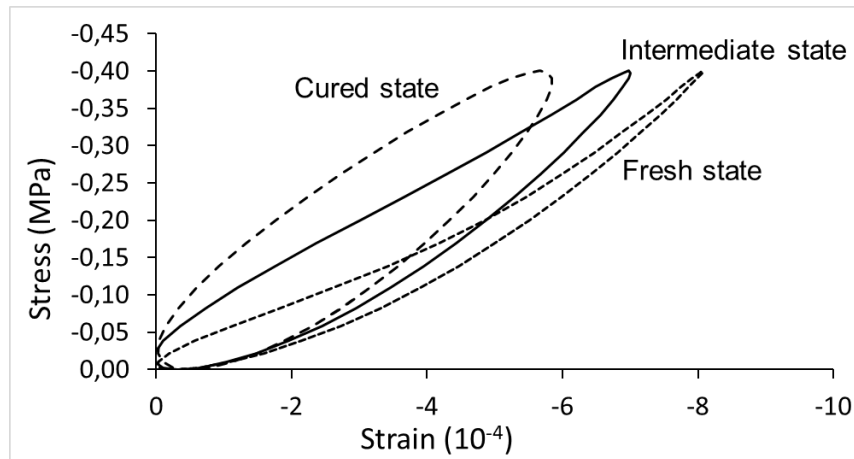


Figure 13. Simulation of 3 CMA loading cycles at the different states

Despite the fact that no specific attention has been given yet to optimise the fit between numerical and experimental curves, the qualitative comparison between figure 11 and figures 12 and 13 indicates that our 3 branches spectrum model looks promising to account for the evolutive behaviour (NLVE component) of CMA under curing.

4.5. Conclusion and outlook

This work has dealt with the need to develop a first-of-its-kind CMA constitutive model in order to introduce CMA as a structuring layer. The model is obtained as the juxtaposition of type Boyce model and a parabolic dashpot, using their spectral decomposition and the "curing function" $A(\theta, \text{age})$. Thus curing phenomenon is prone to be described by a dedicated function giving more and more weight with time to the viscous component. First comparisons between experimental results and numerical simulations show the relevance of the model to account for the CMA behaviour.

The experimental campaign launched in parallel to this work should make it possible to better define the values of the model parameters for an evolutive material. In particular, it is expected to be able to relate the function $A(\theta, \text{age})$ with the curing conditions. It is also planned to extend the model in 3D and to integrate it into a finite element software to compute the strain and stress fields induced in CMA pavement layers under traffic

1 and have a better knowledge of their mechanical behaviour over the pavement life.
2 Further, damage criteria will have to be added on this basis.

3 **5.6. Acknowledgements**

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6 experimental contribution to this study.

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7

Appendix A: Computation of the opening function $b(l)$

Let us examine the general computation of the opening function $b(l)$ linked to the nonlinear elastic relationship $\sigma(\varepsilon)$.

Let us start from equation (11) and figure 6. Considering the strain response to some given stress value σ , this integral (11) can be divided into two parts:

- the first one being related to the open elements for $0 \leq l \leq L(\sigma)$ where $L(\sigma)$ is the solution of the implicit equation:

$$b(L) = -\frac{\sigma}{E_s} \quad (A1)$$

- the second one being related to the closed elements for $L(\sigma) \leq l < +\infty$.

Thus:

$$\varepsilon(\sigma) = \frac{\sigma}{E_s} L(\sigma) - \int_{L(\sigma)}^{+\infty} b(l) dl \quad (A2)$$

Then by derivation with σ :

$$\frac{d\varepsilon}{d\sigma} = \frac{L(\sigma)}{E_s} \quad (A3)$$

Let us introduce the tangent flexibility modulus S defined by:

$$S(\sigma) = \frac{d\varepsilon}{d\sigma} \quad (A4)$$

Then:

$$S(\sigma) = \frac{L}{E_s} \quad (A5)$$

Then by elimination of σ between equations (A1) and (A5), it comes:

$$b(l) = -\frac{1}{E_s} S^{-1}\left(\frac{l}{E_s}\right) \quad (A6)$$

Let us apply this relationship to the particular case of the constitutive law (8). We have for this one:

$$\varepsilon = -\left(\frac{-\sigma}{E_s}\right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha}} \quad (A7)$$

1 | and so for the flexibility modulus:

2 |
$$S(\sigma) = \frac{d\varepsilon}{d\sigma} = \left(\frac{1}{E_s}\right)^{\frac{1}{\alpha}} \frac{1}{\alpha} (-\sigma)^{\frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha}} \quad \text{(A8)}$$

3 | Wherefrom:

4 |
$$S^{-1}(y) = -\left(\alpha E_s^{\frac{1}{\alpha}}\right)^{\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}} y^{\frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha}} \quad \text{(A9)}$$

5 | And then:

6 |
$$b(l) = \frac{1}{(\alpha l)^{\frac{\alpha}{\alpha-1}}} \text{ with } \alpha > 1 \quad \text{(A10)}$$

7 |

Appendix B: Computation of the spectral function $\zeta(l)$ linked to the creep function $F(t)$

Lets us start from the relationship (13).

By time derivation, it comes:

$$\dot{F}(t) = \frac{1}{E} \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\zeta(l)} e^{\frac{-t}{\zeta(l)}} dl \quad (B1)$$

Let us note: $\frac{1}{\zeta(l)} = u$

and let us assume that $\zeta(l)$ is an increasing function, being equal to 0 for $l = 0$ and tending to $+\infty$ for $l \rightarrow +\infty$.

Then:

$$\dot{F}(t) = \frac{1}{E} \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{e^{-ut}}{u} \frac{d\zeta^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{u}\right)}{du} du \quad (B2)$$

Then, it can be noticed that this relationship is similar to the Laplace transform of function $f(u)$:

$$\dot{F}(t) = TL[f(u)](t) = \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-ut} f(u) du \quad (B3)$$

with:

$$f(u) = \frac{1}{E u} \frac{d\zeta^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{u}\right)}{du} \quad (B4)$$

Then by inverse transform:

$$\frac{1}{E u} \frac{d\zeta^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{u}\right)}{du} = TL^{-1}\left(\dot{F}(t)\right)(u) \quad (B5)$$

Wherefrom:

$$\frac{dl}{dv} = \frac{E}{v} TL^{-1}\left(\dot{F}(t)\right)\left(\frac{1}{v}\right) \quad (B6)$$

That is:

$$\frac{l}{E} = \int_0^\zeta \frac{TL^{-1}\left(\dot{F}(t)\right)\left(\frac{1}{v}\right)}{v} dv \quad (B7)$$

Finally, the requested equation for $\zeta(l)$ can be obtained by inverting this relationship.

1 Let us apply this computation to the particular case of the creep function (9). We have

2 for this one with $B = \frac{1}{E_s}$:

3
$$\dot{F}(t) = \frac{\beta}{E_s A^\beta} \frac{1}{t^{1-\beta}} \quad \text{(B8)}$$

4
$$TL^{-1} \left(\dot{F}(t) \right) \left(\frac{1}{w} \right) = \frac{\beta}{E_s A^\beta} \frac{w^\beta}{\Gamma(1-\beta)} \quad \text{(B9)}$$

5
$$\frac{l}{E_s} = \int_0^\zeta \frac{TL^{-1} \left(\dot{F}(t) \right) \left(\frac{1}{w} \right)}{w} dw = \frac{1}{E_s A^\beta \Gamma(1-\beta)} \zeta^\beta \quad \text{(B10)}$$

6 And then:

7
$$\zeta(l) = A \Gamma(1-\beta)^{\frac{1}{\beta}} l^{\frac{1}{\beta}} \quad \text{(B11)}$$

8 Being given the inequality $\frac{1}{\beta} > 1$, it can be checked *a posteriori* that $\zeta(l)$ is equal to 0

9 for $l = 0$ and tends to $+\infty$ for $l \rightarrow +\infty$.