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Evaluation of Nanoclay Additives for Improving Resistance to Moisture Damage in Hot Mix Asphalt (HMA)

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Recommended Citation

Amro El Badawy and Ashraf Rahim. "Evaluation of Nanoclay Additives for Improving Resistance to Moisture Damage in Hot Mix Asphalt (HMA)" Mineta Transportation Institute Publications (2023). <https://doi.org/10.31979/mti.2023.2151>

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SJSU SAN JOSÉ STATE

Evaluation of Nanoclay Additives for Improving Resistance to Moisture Damage in Hot Mix

Amro El Badawy, PhD Ashraf Rahim, PhD, PE

CSU TRANSPORTATION CONSORTIUM

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Report 22-56

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January 2023

A publication of the Mineta Transportation Institute Created by Congress in 1991

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DOI: 10.31979/mti.2023.2151

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TECHNICAL REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE

Form DOT F 1700.7 (8-72)

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was funded by the Mineta Transportation Institute (MTI). The authors also thank Mr. Daniel Herrera of CalPortland for providing the research team with the aggregates and asphalt binder used throughout the experimental testing program.

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Executive Summary

Departments of Transportation spend substantial financial resources on various maintenance treatments to minimize pavement distresses and improve pavement life. Moistureinduced damage in hot mix asphalt (HMA) pavements is one of the most common problems encountered by departments of transportation. The goal of this project was to evaluate the use of surface-modified nanoclay as an alternative additive for enhancing HMA's moisture resistance. The specific objectives of the research were to: (a) evaluate the performance of innovative types of surface-modified nanoclays as modifiers for reducing the moisture sensitivity of hot mix asphalt; (b) compare the performance of the nanoclays adopted in this research to hydrated lime and liquid anti-stripping agents, which are the standard modifiers used by Caltrans for reducing moisture sensitivity of hot mix asphalt; and (c) conduct a multicriteria decision analysis to evaluate the feasibility of using nanoclays in large-scale applications for reducing moisture sensitivity of hot mix asphalt.

The crushed stone aggregate and asphalt binder used for laboratory testing were obtained locally from CalPortland's Santa Maria asphalt plant. The 64-10 performance grade (PG) asphalt and the aggregate used herein produce Hot Mix Asphalt (HMA) commonly used on the central coast of California. Fresh batches of asphalt were heated and separated into small containers on a weekly basis to allow for quicker heating during asphalt mixing. The additives tested for enhancing moisture resistance were: (a) surface-modified nanoclays (nanoclay01: surface modified with trimethyl stearyl ammonium and nanoclay02: surface modified with octadecylamine and aminopropyltriethoxysilane), (b) lime-treated aggregate, and (c) amine-based liquid anti-stripping agent chemicals, namely HP Plus and LOF 6500. The surface-modified nanoclays were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich, the aggregate treated with lime slurry was supplied by CalPortland ready for testing, and the amine-based chemicals, HP Plus and LOF 6500, were obtained from ArrMaz Custom Chemicals in Florida.

Important properties and performance tests were conducted on the aggregate used in the asphalt mix design. The tests performed included bulk and apparent specific gravities as well as performance tests for durability, angularity, and clay content. The modified and unmodified binder was tested in its virgin and aged states using the dynamic shear rheometer (DSR) test.

Aggregate gradation curves were established for the mix design following Caltrans standards, and an optimum binder content was determined to be 5.75% using the Superpave mix design procedure Asphalt Mix Design Methods MS-2, Asphalt Institute, hereinafter referred to as "Superpave mix design." Using this mix design, varying amounts of each additive (i.e., nanoclays, lime-treated aggregate, HP Plus, and LOF 6500) were introduced to specimens following two different application methods. Specimens were prepared and tested for indirect tensile strength before and after being conditioned.

It was observed that the nanoclays have a stiffening effect on the asphalt binder, according to DSR test results. The two types of nanoclays tested, nanoclay01 and nanoclay02, exhibited the same effect on binder stiffness. On the other hand, liquid anti-stripping additives had a softening effect on the binder. All additives tested in this study (except HP Plus) resulted in dry tensile strengths that were higher than that for the control mix. The wet tensile strength for all mixes modified with the additives (including HP Plus) was higher than the control mix. All mixes tested resulted in dry and wet tensile strengths that were higher than the minimum specified by Caltrans 2018 Standard Specifications (100 psi for dry tensile strength and 70 psi for wet tensile strength). Except for the 6% nanoclay02 mix, all HMA modified mixes exhibited a Tensile Strength Ratio (TSR) higher than 0.80 (the minimum specified by Superpave mix design). Furthermore, all HMA-modified mixes resulted in TSRs that were higher than the control mix. TSR for HMA mixes modified using nanoclays was comparable to that for HMA mixes modified using liquid antistripping and lime slurry treated aggregate. Overall, the liquid antistripping agents tested were the least costly additive.

In addition to the experimental testing conducted in this study, a systematic multi-criteria decision analysis (MCDA) was performed to rank alternatives additives (including nanoclays) studied in the literature for enhancing HMA's moisture resistance. The ranking was based on performance for enhancing the moisture resistance, cost, and methods of addition to HMA. The literature review analysis and MCDA results indicated that nanoclay outperforms other antistripping agents, but it had the lowest ranking because of materials cost and the cost of mixing the nanomaterials with HMA to achieve a homogenous mixture.

1. Introduction

Moisture damage in asphalt pavements, also known as stripping or moisture susceptibility, can be defined as the breaking of the aggregate-binder bond by the intrusion of water (Behbahani et al., 2020a). The water seeps through tiny cracks in the asphalt surface. According to Kringos and Scarpas (2008), asphalt pavements that are exposed to water infiltration often begin losing aggregates. Due to the chemical attractiveness that aggregates have towards water, the bond between the asphalt binder and aggregates weakens, washing away the binder. With the continued action of moisture-induced weakening and cyclic traffic loading, progressive dislodgement of aggregates becomes the dominant mode of failure in asphalt pavements. Esarwi et al. (2008) state that this failure can appear in the form of distresses such as rutting, shoving, raveling, or cracking.

A 1991 National Cooperative Highway Research Project (NCHRP) concluded that 70% of state and provincial Departments of Transportation in North America that responded to the survey experienced moisture damage-related problems in their pavements (Hicks, 1991). Moisture damage-related premature distresses reported in the NCHRP study included rutting in the wheel paths, bleeding, and alligator cracking.

Adhesion is the attraction force that occurs between the interface of the bituminous film and aggregate surface. Loss of adhesion is the primary mechanism of moisture damage (Terrel and Al-Swailmi, 1994, Behbahani et al., 2020a). Other mechanisms of moisture damage include loss of cohesion, when water weakens the intermolecular attraction between molecules; hydraulic scouring, when water rubs against pavement through cyclic pressure; and rupture of the bituminous film surrounding the aggregates, when pore water pressure increases internal stresses; failure of the bond between the aggregate and the binder; and degradation of individual aggregate particles (Terrel and Al-Swailmi, Chakravarty et al., 2020a). For aggregates that have affinity for water absorption (hydrophilic aggregate), the binder is stripped off the aggregate surface. This eventually leads to potholes and a failure of the under-layers (Terrel and Al-Swailmi, 1994).

Santucci (2010) discussed the importance of asphalt surface chemistry, describing aggregates ranging from basic (limestone) to acidic (quartzite) in pH and describing asphalt binder as having neutral to acidic tendencies. As a result, the binder would most likely form a stronger bond with limestone. Also, clay present on the surface of aggregates can expand in the presence of water and form a barrier to adhesion, thus weakening the mix.

The result of pavement exposure to moisture is premature failure through stripping of the pavement. Stripping typically begins at the bottom layer of the HMA and progresses upward over time, though it can be difficult to detect since stripping can also cause cracking, rutting, and corrugations. Stripping that begins at the surface and progresses downward over time is known as raveling (Kennedy et al. 1983, Roberts et al., 1996, Chakravarty and Sinha, 2020a).

Moisture-related damage normally leads to a significant reduction in asphalt pavement performance and an increase in maintenance costs. One of the main causes of moisture damage is poor drainage that allows water infiltration. While bearing in mind the need for subgrade drainage, the typical repair method is to remove and replace the pavement (Chakravarty et al., 2020a). However, such repairs and maintenance can be costly, which is why researchers have sought adding materials to improve pavement resistance to moisture damage and prevent premature failure.

Various liquid antistripping and solid additives have been historically used to improve adhesion between the binder and aggregate. These chemicals are added directly to the binder either at the refinery or binder terminal, or at the contractor's facility during production of the mix (Tunnicliff and Root, 1984). Anerson and Dukatz (1982) reviewed experimental studies on the effects of commercially available anti-stripping additives on the binder's physical properties. Anti-stripping additives have been reported to tend to soften the binder, enhance resistance to temperature susceptibility, and improve the aging characteristics of binder (Anerson and Dukatz, 1982). Liquid antistripping agents enhance HMA's moisture resistance by reducing the surface tension between the aggregate surface and the asphalt binder, therefore enhancing the binder's adhesion to the aggregate surface.

Other solid additives, including hydrated lime, Portland cement, fly ash, flue dust, and polymers have been used to provide resistance to moisture in hot-mix asphalt mixtures. These additives are typically added to the aggregate before mixing with the binder in the HMA production process. However, hydrated lime or Portland cement has been added in the drum mixing operation at the point of entry of the binder to the heated aggregate (Epps et al., 2003). Hydrated lime neutralizes the acidity in the asphalt binder and improves the bond between the binder and the aggregate. By treating aggregate using hydrated lime, both anionic and cationic surfactants naturally present in the bitumen strongly bond with calcium ions.

A research study in which 1.0% concentration of class F fly ash was added to the asphalt mix showed that a resilient modulus similar to that for the control mixture was obtained, but slightly lower than that for HMA treated with hydrated lime. TSR tests showed a 15% higher ratio in tensile strength over the control mixture, although hydrated lime increased the TSR by 25% over that for the control mix (Huang et al., 2010).

The asphalt binder requirements can be significantly reduced by mixing CKD with asphalt binder before it is introduced to the aggregate. It also has the potential to replace hydrated lime and reduce moisture damage in pavements due to its high lime content (Siddique, 2007). Huang et al. (2010) verified this behavior in their study testing various mineral fillers. Adding 1.0% CKD to the asphalt mix produced a TSR within a few percent of the hydrated lime variations and nearly 25% higher than the untreated control mixture.

1.1 Additives for Enhancing HMA Resistance to Moisture Damage

The California Department of Transportation (Caltrans) has been using hydrated lime and anti-stripping liquids to mitigate stripping in HMA (TRB, 2003). However, other additives, including nanomaterials, are being investigated in the literature to provide more improvements in moisture resistance than the commonly used ones. Research investigations showed that modification of asphalt binders with nanoclays improved the performance of the mix by, e.g., increasing the dynamic shear complex modulus, reducing the strain failure rate, improving rutting resistance, reducing the penetration value, increasing the softening point temperature and viscosity, and improving the fatigue life of the asphalt mix (Ezzat et al., 2016, Mansourian et al., 2019, You et al., 2011). Nanoclays have been reported to increase cohesion of the asphalt binder, which can increase the healing potential of micro-cracks (Hossain et al., 2015). In addition, amine-modified nanoclays contain alkyl amines, which are among the most commonly used chemicals in antistripping liquids for reducing HMA's moisture sensitivity. Table 1 outlines some of the studies on using nanoclay for HMA's moisture resistance. The table includes nanoclay types used, dosage, test methods, and results on stripping resistance and moisture susceptibility of the asphalt mixtures modified with nanoclays.

Analysis of Table 1 shows that nanoclays, in general, showed improvement in moisture susceptibility compared to non-modified asphalt binders. However, no evaluation exists comparing the improvements to standard stripping resistance additives used in California (e.g., hydrated lime and liquid antistripping) and no analysis has been conducted on the economic and practical feasibility of using nanoclays as asphalt binder modifier. Therefore, a need exists for a systematic investigation into the practicality and feasibility of using nanoclays as asphalt binder modifiers to resist moisture-related damages in the pavement. Furthermore, other types of surface-modified nanoclays could show better performance than those studied in the literature. Specifically, this research proposal investigated amine-modified nanoclay because alkyl amines are among the most commonly used chemicals additives for enhancing moisture resistance of asphalt binders.

Table 1. Literature Examples on Using Nanoclays for Reducing Moisture Susceptibility of Hot Mix Asphalt

1.2 Study Objectives

The goal of this project was to evaluate the use of surface-modified nanoclay additives for enhancing the resistance of HMA to moisture-related damage, which is considered one of the most common problems experienced by transportation agencies. The specific objectives of the proposed research were to: (a) evaluate the performance of innovative types of surface-modified nanoclays as modifiers for reducing moisture sensitivity of hot mix asphalt; (b) compare the performance of the nanoclays developed in this research to the standard modifiers used by Caltrans for reducing moisture sensitivity of hot mix asphalt; and (c) conduct a multi-criteria decision analysis to evaluate the feasibility of using nanoclays in large-scale applications for reducing moisture sensitivity of hot mix asphalt. Aggregates and asphalt binder commonly used in California's Central Coast were used herein to design the HMA in accordance with the Superpave mix design procedure. Both aggregate and binder tests required by Superpave mix design were conducted as well.

2. Impact of Nanoclay on Moisture Resistance of HMA

The moisture sensitivity was evaluated according to the modified Lottman indirect tensile test (AASHTO T 283). In addition, other performance tests were conducted on the aggregate, asphalt binder, and uncompacted specimens. All tests on aggregate, asphalt binder, loose mixtures, and compacted specimens were conducted according to respective AASHTO and ASTM testing standards.

2.1 Material Selection

Several materials were required to produce asphalt specimens. In addition to aggregate and asphalt binder, several additives were tested including nanoclay, aggregate treated with lime slurry, and two amine-based chemicals—HP Plus and LOF 6500.

The crushed stone aggregate and asphalt binder used for laboratory testing were obtained locally from CalPortland Construction's Santa Maria asphalt plant. This mixing plant produces the HMA used on the central coast of California. Over 250 kg (500 lb) of aggregate was required to produce the HMA specimens tested in this study. Aggregate was delivered in pre-sieved sacks, which helped significantly with the sieving process, even though all aggregate had to be sieved to meet gradations used in the lab and for quality control. Aggregate sizes passing ¾", ½", 3/8" and dust passing the #200 sieve were supplied. These aggregate gradations were used to develop the gradation curve presented in Section 2.2.7.

Approximately 30 liters (8 gallons) of PG 64-10 binder was required to produce the specimens. The 64-10 performance grade is a common type of asphalt used locally on the central coast of California. The asphalt was then heated and separated into small containers on a weekly basis to allow for quicker heating during asphalt mixing.

The additives tested for enhancing moisture resistance were surface-modified nanoclay, lime-treated aggregate, and two amine-based liquid anti-stripping agent chemicals. The surface-modified nanoclays were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (Table 2), the aggregate treated with lime slurry was supplied by CalPortland ready for testing, and the amine-based chemicals (HP Plus and LOF 6500) were obtained from ArrMaz Custom Chemicals in Florida.

Table 2. Types and Properties of Nanoclays Used in the Study

2.2 Aggregate Tests and Preparation

Important properties and performance tests were conducted for selecting the aggregate used in the asphalt mix design. The tests performed include bulk and apparent specific gravities as well as performance tests for durability, angularity, and clay content.

2.2.1 Flat and Elongated Particles in Coarse Aggregate (ASTM D 4791)

The flat, elongated, or flat and elongated particles tests were used to determine the percentage of flat and elongated particles in the coarse aggregate. This is a critical test since flat and elongated particles in HMA mixes have difficulty reorienting during compaction and thus, have a tendency to break along their thin, weak axis. This can cause issues achieving the correct air to void ratio in a pavement and lead to degradation. To conduct this test, a proportional caliper apparatus, shown in Figure 1, was used. This device has several pivot points, which may be adjusted to different ratios. The Superpave mix design specified a coarse aggregate testing ratio of 5:1 for both flatness (width to thickness) and elongation (length to width). None of the particles tested in the batch had a ratio this large, thus easily meeting the maximum batch limitation of 10%.

Figure 1. Flat and Elongated Particle Apparatus

2.2.2 Specific Gravity and Absorption of Fine Aggregate (AASHTO T 84)

This test was conducted to determine the bulk and apparent specific gravity, as well as the absorption of the fine aggregate (aggregate passing #4 sieve). In this test, one kg (2.2 lb) of dry fine aggregate was submerged into water, as shown in Figure 2, for a period of 15–19 hours. Then, excess water was removed, and the specimen was dried to a surface dry condition. A cone tamping test was used to ensure the correct moisture content. Then, half of the specimen was placed into a pycnometer partially filled with water and agitated to remove air bubbles. The total mass was then recorded and used for bulk specific gravity calculations as follows:

Bulk Specific Gravity = $A/(B + S - C)$

Where:

 $A =$ mass of oven-dry specimen in air (g);

 $B =$ mass of pycnometer filled with water (g);

 C = mass of pycnometer with specimen and water (g); and

 $S =$ mass of saturated-surface-dry specimen (g).

The percentage of water absorbed into the aggregate's pores was computed using the following equation, and the specific gravity and water absorption results are presented in Table 3.

Absorption (%) = $[(S - A) / A] \times 100$

Figure 2. Submerged Coarse and Fine Aggregate for Bulk Specific Gravity Test

Table 3. Specific Gravity and Absorption Test Results for Fine Aggregate

2.2.3 Specific Gravity and Absorption of Coarse Aggregate (AASHTO T 84)

The specific gravity and absorption of coarse aggregate (retained on the #4 sieve) was determined following a similar procedure to that of the AASHTO T 84. Two kg (4.4 lb) of coarse aggregate was sampled and immersed in water for 15–19 hours. Then the aggregate was removed from the water and placed on an absorbent cloth where it was dried to a saturated-surface-dry state and weighed. The specimen was placed in a basket and submerged in a water tank to acquire the saturated mass. The bulk specific gravity of the aggregate was calculated using the equation below:

Bulk Specific Gravity = $A / (B - C)$

Where:

 $A =$ mass of oven-dry specimen (g);

 $B =$ mass of saturated-surface-dry specimen (g); and

 C = mass of saturated specimen (g).

The %absorption was also determined using the following equation and the results are presented in Table 4.

Absorption (%) = $[(B - A) / A] \times 100$

Table 4. Specific Gravity and Absorption Test Results for Fine Aggregate

Bulk SG, $gm/cm3$ (pcf)	Bulk $SGSSD$, gm/cm ³ (pcf)	$SGApp, gm/cm3$ (pcf)	Water Absorption, %
2.58(161.10)	2.63(141.20)	2.71(169.20)	1.8

2.2.4 Los Angeles Abrasion Test (AASHTO T 96)

The Los Angeles abrasion test was conducted to evaluate the resistance of small-size coarse aggregates to degradation. This test involved placing the coarse aggregate in a mechanical rotating drum, as shown in Figure 3, along with steel spheres, which impacted and pulverized the aggregate. Approximately 5 kg (11 lb) of aggregate was needed for this test. For a $\frac{1}{2}$ " nominal size, grading B was used, which consisted of 2.5 kg (5.5 lb) of aggregate retained on a ½" sieve and 2.5 kg (5.5 lb) of aggregate retained on a 3/8" sieve. Also, for grading B, 11 spheres, 46.8 mm (1.84 in) in diameter, were required for the impact charge. Both the spheres and aggregate were placed in a standardized rotating drum for 500 revolutions at a rate of 30 revolutions per minute.

After completing the test, all material was removed from the drum and aggregate was sieved through a #12 sieve. The remaining coarse material was washed, oven dried at 110°C, and weighed. The percentage of aggregate lost was calculated by subtracting the difference between the tested specimen's original and final mass and dividing by the original mass. For the aggregate tested, this value was 24.0%, which was under the 40% maximum acceptable loss specified in Caltrans' Standard Specifications for HMA Type A (Caltrans 2018 Standard Specification).

Figure 3. Los Angeles Abrasion Machine

2.2.5 Uncompacted Void Content of Fine Aggregate (AASHTO T 304)

Determining the uncompacted void content of fine aggregate was essential to determine the aggregate's angularity and surface texture in comparison to other aggregates of the same gradation, as well as workability in a mix. With this test, there were three gradation options for fine aggregates to choose from. Method A (standard grading) was selected. A 190 g (0.42 lb.) specimen of aggregate passing the #8 sieve was tested. The aggregate was poured into a plugged funnel. Once the funnel was full and leveled on the top, the bottom hole was opened, and the aggregate was allowed to pour into the measuring cylinder (Figure 4). The mass of the cylinder was measured, and the uncompacted voids were determined using the following equation:

 $U = [V - (F/G)] / V \times 100$

Where:

 $V =$ volume of cylindrical measure (mL);

 $F = net mass of fine aggregate in measure (g);$

 G = bulk dry specific gravity of fine aggregate (g/cm3); and

 $U =$ uncompacted voids $%$.

The fine aggregate's uncompacted void content was calculated to be 44%, which was close to the recommended value of 45%.

Figure 4. Uncompacted Void Apparatus

2.2.6 Sand Equivalency Test (AASHTO T 176)

The sand equivalency test was conducted to determine the amount of dust or clay-like particles in the fine aggregate gradation. To conduct this test, approximately one kg of aggregate passing the #4 sieve was obtained and moistened until it could hold its shape in a cast. The aggregate was then thoroughly mixed and compacted in a three-ounce moisture tin. A graduated cylinder was filled to the 102 mm (4 in) mark with a calcium chloride solution, and the aggregate was poured in using

a funnel. After 10 minutes of standing, the cylinder was agitated to remove air bubbles, and the sides of the cylinder were washed down with solution. A calcium chloride solution was added until it reached the 381 mm (15 in) mark. After 20 minutes of settling, the clay reading was taken, followed by the sand reading. Dividing the sand reading by the clay reading resulted in a sand equivalent of 85%, which surpasses the Superpave mix design minimum requirement of 47%.

2.2.7 Gradation

After determining the acceptable quality of the aggregates, gradation curves were developed to meet the Caltrans standard specifications shown in Table 5 (Caltrans 2018 Standard Specifications), which dictated different sieve ranges for different nominal size mixes. Within the ½" nominal range, three mix blends were developed—coarse, intermediate, and fine—as shown in Figure 5. Properties such as specific gravity and air voids of these blends were determined as well.

2.3 Asphalt Binder Tests and Results

The PG 64-10 asphalt binder that is commonly used on the central coast of California and supplied by CalPortland was used herein for the mix design and in HMA-specimen preparation. The binder was tested in its virgin and aged states using the dynamic shear rheometer (DSR) test. The test results are presented in the following sections.

2.3.1 Dynamic Shear Rheometer (DSR) Test (AASHTO T 315)

The Dynamic Shear Rheometer (DSR) test, shown in Figure 6, was used for testing the properties of the asphalt binder, particularly the binder's dynamic shear modulus and phase angle. Asphalt binder is considered a viscoelastic material, which means it exhibits characteristics of both properties; it behaves like an elastic solid, rebounding after loading, and like a viscous liquid. The complex modulus represents the vector component of both the elastic and viscous portions, while the phase angle represents how viscous or elastic the asphalt binder is. To measure these properties, the asphalt binder was compressed between two parallel plates while the upper plate oscillates, exerting a shear force on the binder. Then, sensitive sensors in the DSR recorded the properties.

Figure 6. Dynamic Shear Rheometer

Since the nanoclay and the liquid anti-stripping agent were added to the asphalt binder directly as a percentage of the binder, the DSR test examined the effect of adding these to the PG 64-10 binder. At least two specimens with various additive concentrations were tested (Table 6). The binder was heated, and additives were thoroughly mixed into the asphalt binder manually before being poured into silicone specimen molds, as depicted in Figure 7, and tested at 64°C.

Table 6. Additive Concentrations¹

¹ Percentage of binder weight

Figure 7. DSR Specimens in Silicone Molds

2.3.2 Un-aged Asphalt Binder Results

Table 7 presents the DSR test results of un-aged binder for all asphalt additive concentrations tested. The properties of unmodified (control) asphalt binder are also presented for comparison.

Additive Concentration	Complex Modulus,	Elastic Modulus,	Viscous Modulus,	Phase Angle
	Pa (psi)	Pa (psi)	Pa (psi)	\circ
Control				
0%	1,434(0.208)	75.80 (0.011)	1,433 (0.208)	87.1
Nanoclay01				
1%	1,815(0.263)	110.80 (0.016)	1811 (0.263)	86.5
2%	1,860 (0.269)	123.27 (0.018)	1,856 (0.269)	86.2
4%	1,895 (0.274)	128.90 (0.019)	1,891 (0.274)	86.1
6%	2,265 (0.328)	158.00 (0.023)	2,259 (0.328)	86.0
Nanoclay02				
1%	1,823(0.264)	103.60 (0.015)	1,820 (0.264)	86.7
2%	1,848 (0.268)	115.00 (0.017)	1,843 (0.267)	86.4
4%	1,911 (0.277)	118.00 (0.017)	1,906 (0.276)	86.3
6%	2,323 (0.336)	153.00 (0.022)	2,318 (0.336)	86.2
HP Plus $(HP+)$				
0.25%	449 (0.065)	34.45 (0.005)	448 (0.065)	85.6
0.50%	331 (0.048)	30.00 (0.004)	330 (0.048)	84.8
0.75%	207 (0.030)	27.00 (0.004)	205 (0.029)	82.5
LOF 6500				
0.25%	837 (0.121)	12.80 (0.002)	836 (0.121)	89.1
0.50%	467 (0.068)	10.10(0.001)	467 (0.068)	88.8
0.75%	345 (0.050)	13.61 (0.002)	345 (0.050)	87.7

Table 7. DSR Test Results for Un-aged Asphalt Binder

2.3.3 Rolling Thin-Film Oven Test (AASHTO T 240)

The rolling thin-film oven (RTFO) test was used to measure the effect of heat and air on a moving film of asphalt binder to simulate asphalt aging. This conditioning method was used in conjunction with the DSR test to measure the change in asphalt binder properties.

Two asphalt specimens of 35 g (0.08 lb) were prepared in standardized glass jars for each additive variation and allowed to cool. Since there were eight spots in the oven's rotating carriage, up to eight specimens were tested at one time. Specimens were placed in a 163°C oven, shown in Figure 8, with the carriage and fan rotating, and the air jet on for 85 minutes. After the test, the remaining asphalt residue was quickly scraped out into containers so DSR specimens could be molded. A mass change calculation was also determined at this time. Specimens were then tested in the DSR, and the results for asphalt binder specimens conditioned by the RTFO test are shown in the following section.

Figure 8. A Rolling Thin-film Oven

2.3.4 RTFO Aged Asphalt Binder Results

The rheological properties of the unmodified binder and different combinations of the modified binder, after being aged in the RTFO, were tested and the results are shown in Table 8.

Additive	Complex Modulus,	Elastic Modulus,	Viscous Modulus,	Phase Angle,
Concentration	Pa (psi)	Pa (psi)	Pa (psi)	\circ
Control				
0%	3,082(0.45)	276 (0.04)	3,068(0.45)	84.5
Nanoclay01				
1%	3,698(0.54)	393 (0.06)	3,677(0.53)	83.9
2%	4,950 (0.72)	578 (0.08)	4,916 (0.71)	83.3
4%	7,455(1.08)	779 (0.11)	7,714(1.11)	84.0
6%	9,960 (1.44)	1,110(0.16)	9,898 (1.44)	83.6
Nanoclay02				
1%	3,883 (0.56)	344(0.05)	3,864(0.56)	84.3
2%	5,198(0.75)	543 (0.08)	5,170(0.75)	84.0
4%	7,828 (1.14)	845 (0.12)	7,782 (1.13)	83.8
6%	10,458 (1.52)	1,166(0.17)	10,393(1.51)	83.6
$HP+$				
0.25%	2,896 (0.42)	228 (0.03)	2,889 (0.42)	85.4
0.50%	2,503 (0.36)	172 (0.03)	2,496 (0.36)	86.1
0.75%	1,751(0.25)	90(0.01)	1,751(0.25)	87.1
LOF 6500				
0.25%	2,367(0.34)	133(0.02)	2,363(0.34)	86.8
0.5%	2,235 (0.32)	126 (0.02)	2,231(0.32)	87.0
0.75%	913 (0.13)	13 (0.002)	913 (0.13)	89.2

Table 8. DSR Test Results for RTFO Aged Asphalt Binder

2.4 Uncompacted Asphalt Mix Test

2.4.1 Theoretical Maximum Specific Gravity and Density (AASHTO T 209)

The theoretical maximum specific gravity and density of an asphalt mixture was an important parameter to determine the overall mix design process. This property was essential in calculating the percentage of air voids in the compacted asphalt mixture and the amount of binder absorbed by the aggregate particles. For this test, asphalt-mix specimens for each mix variation were prepared and cured for two hours. Mixes were then cooled in a loose, uncompacted state and placed in a vacuum container filled with water. A high-vacuum pump, shown in Figure 9, was attached to the container and activated for at least 15 minutes, removing entrapped air. Shaking was required to remove air bubbles. After vacuum saturation, the container was removed from the pump and filled to the calibrated level with water. Then, the mass of the container, specimen, and water was determined. This value, along with the dry mass of the specimen and mass of the container filled with just water, was used to determine the theoretical maximum specific gravity by the following equation:

Theoretical Maximum Specific Gravity = $A / (A + D - E)$

Where:

- $A =$ mass of oven dry specimen (g);
- D = mass of container filler with 25° C water (g); and
- E = mass of container filled with specimen and water (g).

Figure 9. Vacuum Saturating a Loose HMA Specimen

The theoretical maximum specific gravities were determined to be 2.46 g/cm^3 (153.75 lb/ft³), 2.48 g/cm³ (155 lb/ft³), and 2.45 g/cm³ (153.13 lb/ft³) for coarse, intermediate, and fine blends, respectively.

2.5 Asphalt Mix Design

2.5.1 Superpave Mix Design

The Superpave mix design procedure was developed by the Strategic Highway Research Program (SHRP) in the early 1990s. The goal was to develop a standardized method of asphalt mix design that accounts for traffic loading and environmental conditions and can evaluate asphalt binder and analyze the final mix design. The Superpave mix design procedure includes several steps: aggregate selection, asphalt binder selection, specimen preparation, performance testing, density and voids analysis, optimum binder content selection, and moisture susceptibility evaluation. Many of these steps incorporate the tests mentioned herein.

2.5.2 Specimen Preparation

Two specimens of each of the three gradation blends were oven dried. Then, 5% asphalt binder was added and thoroughly mixed until all aggregate surfaces were covered with binder. Specimens were placed in a 163°C oven for two hours of aging; mixing was conducted every half hour to ensure consistency. After aging, specimens were placed in a 150 mm (6 in) diameter compactor mold and compacted to appropriate parameters based on design equivalent single axle loads (ESALs). An ESAL of 3 to 30 million, which is common for most U.S. highways, was used here. The initial, design, and maximum compaction parameters are 8, 100, and 160 revolutions.

A Rainhart Superpave gyratory compactor, shown in Figure 10, was used to compact the asphalt specimens. This device was designed to simulate in the laboratory the kneading action of a smooth-wheeled roller used to compact asphalt in the field. It accomplished this by placing 600kPa (87 psi) vertical pressure on the specimen inside the mold. Rollers were then lifted which helped gyrate the mold at a 1.25° angle for the predetermined number of revolutions. Once the compaction was completed, the angle was removed, and the hydraulic ram was retracted. The specimens were then extracted and left to cool as shown in Figure 11.

Figure 10. Superpave Gyratory Compactor Ready to Compact a Specimen

Figure 11. Compacted Trial Specimen

Next, the bulk specific gravity and maximum specific gravity of the mix were determined by AASHTO tests T166 and T209, respectively. The compaction data for the three trial blends are shown in Table 9. The intermediate aggregate blend was selected from the three blends due to its compactibility (final height), air voids, and bulk specific gravity. These properties' values indicated that this blend would satisfy Superpave mix design 5% air void requirements after determining the optimum binder content.

Trial Specimen		Coarse 1	Coarse 2	Int 1.	Int. 2	Fine 1	Fine 2
% Binder	$\frac{0}{0}$	5	5	5	5	5	5
Dry Mass	(g)	4587.2	4582.9	4594.2	4588.4	4594.2	4588.4
Wet Mass	(g)	2578	2574.8	2592.5	2595.7	2592.5	2595.7
SSD Mass	(g)	4626.5	4619.4	4625.8	4620.1	4625.8	4620.1
Gmm	g/cm3	2.401	2.401	2.392	2.392	2.392	2.392
Height@N _{des}	Mm	118.19	118.44	117.3	116.64	117.3	116.64
$Gmb@N_{\text{des}}$ est.	g/cm3	2.196	2.190	2.216	2.226	2.216	2.226
Corr. Gmb $@$	g/cm3	2.217	2.219	2.232	2.239	2.232	2.239
N_{des} est.							
Corr. Air Voids	$\%$	7.67	7.58	6.70	6.41	6.70	6.41
\varnothing N _{des}							

Table 9. Mix Design Trial Specimen Results

* Superpave mix design recommends 5.0% air voids which was obtained after determining the optimum binder content
2.5.3 Optimum Binder Content

With an aggregate blend selected, the optimum binder content could be selected. This was achieved by preparing specimens of varying binder content. Superpave mix design recommends preparing two specimens with a binder content of \pm 0.5% and $+$ 1.0% of the estimated binder content. After evaluating specimens, a 5.75% optimum binder content was selected since it met the 5% air void requirement. This binder content was used for all subsequent specimen preparations for moisture susceptibility evaluation.

2.5.4 Additive Application Methods

Once the mix design was completed, the ranges of additives to be tested were determined based on previous research. Asphalt additives were introduced to the asphalt mix by two different methods. The first consisted of adding the nanoclay or liquid anti-stripping agent directly to the asphalt binder after being heated and thoroughly mixed for approximately 15 minutes. Then the modified binder was added to the aggregates and mixed as previously outlined. The second method was the lime slurry additive. The lime slurry modified aggregate was provided by CalPortland ready to mix. The additive concentrations tested are summarized in Table 10.

Table 10. Additive Concentrations Tested

2.6 Moisture Sensitivity Tests and Results

2.6.1 Modified Lottman Indirect Tensile Test (AASHTO T 283)

The modified Lottman indirect tensile test is an incorporated step in the Superpave mix design. Test specimens were produced and compacted in a 100 mm (4 in) diameter mold to air voids of approximately 7% and a height of approximately 63.5 mm (2.5 in), in accordance with AASHTO T 283. Specimens were weighed and separated into unconditioned and conditioned sets according to average air voids. The unconditioned specimens were set aside while the conditioned specimens were vacuum saturated and placed in a freezer for a minimum of 16 hours. After 16 hours, conditioned specimens were placed in a 160°C hot water bath for 24 hours and then in a 25°C bath with the unconditioned specimens for 2 hours as shown in Figure 12.

Figure 12. Asphalt specimens Conditioning in Water Bath

Once specimens reached the testing temperature, they were removed from the water bath and placed in the steel loading apparatus in the hydraulic test machine as shown in Figure 13. The indirect tensile strength (ITS) for each specimen was calculated using the following equation:

$$
\mathrm{St} = 2\mathrm{P} \mathbin{/} \left(\pi \, \mathrm{tD} \right)
$$

Where:

St = tensile strength (psi);

P = maximum force placed on specimen during loading (lbs.);

t = specimen thickness (in); and

D = specimen diameter (in).

Figure 14 illustrates a typical cross-section of a specimen after an indirect tensile test. Final results are included in the following section.

Figure 13. Specimen Ready to be Tested for Tensile Strength

Figure 14. Specimen after Indirect Tensile Test

2.6.2 Modified Lottman Indirect Tensile Test Results

Table 11 presents the results of the compacted asphalt specimens tested for tensile strength. The average strengths for both the unconditioned and moisture-conditioned sets are presented in the table along with the tensile strength ratios (TSRs). The 2018 Standard Specification for the California Department of Transportation does not specify a minimum indirect tensile strength ratio. However, it specifies a minimum indirect tensile strength of 100 psi for the unconditioned/dry specimens and a minimum of 70 psi for the conditioned/wet specimens. The TSR represents the proportion of tensile strength retained between the moisture damaged and unconditioned sets of a specific additive concentration. The TSR was calculated using the following equation:

Tensile Strength Ratio (TSR) = $ITS₂ / ITS₁$

Where:

 $ITS₂ = average tensile strength of the conditioned (moisture damaged) set (psi); and$

 $ITS₁$ = average tensile strength of the unconditioned set (psi).

The tensile strength for moisture-damaged specimens with each additive concentration was also compared with the unconditioned control tensile strength using the following equation:

Tensile Strength Ratio (TSR) = ITS_2/ITS_1 _{Unconditioned}

Where:

 $ITS₂ = average tensile strength of the conditioned (moisture damaged) set; and$

 $ITS_{1Unconditioned} = average tensile strength of the unconditioned control set.$

Nanoclay additives and liquid antistripping (HP+ and LOF 6500) were added directly to the binder and mixed thoroughly, while the lime slurry was added to the aggregate in the mixing plant that provided the materials (CalPortland).

Table 11. AASHTO T283 Indirect Tensile Strength (ITS) Rest Results

Even though the control mix passed the Caltrans requirements, it did not pass the 80% TSR specified by the Superpave mix design. In addition, the study's goal was to provide a comparison between unmodified (control) and modified mixes, rather than improving a failing control mix.

2.7 Summary

Section II discussed the materials and testing methods involved in this study. After obtaining the needed materials from their respective sources, the physical and mechanical properties of aggregates and asphalt binder were evaluated in accordance with AASHTO, ASTM, Caltrans, and Superpave mix design specifications. The asphalt binder was then combined with varying concentrations of each of the additive and tested using a Dynamic Shear Rheometer (DSR) before and after being aged in a Rolling Thin Film Oven (RTFO). Aggregate gradation curves were established for the mix design following Caltrans standards and an optimum binder content was

determined to be 5.75% using the Superpave mix design procedure. Using this mix design, varying amounts of each additive were introduced to specimens following two different application methods. Specimens were fabricated and tested for indirect tensile strength before and after being conditioned. Results were then organized and tabulated for moisture sensitivity analysis, which is presented in the following section (Section III).

3. Analysis and Discussion

3.1 Introduction

This section discusses the test results of all binder and moisture sensitivity tests conducted in this study. The binder complex modulus (G*), phase angle (δ), and rutting factor (G*/sin δ) graphs are presented for all additive concentrations tested, followed by a discussion of the results. Plots were created to graphically represent differences among the different additives, concentrations, and application methods. First, results from DSR tests for both unaged and aged binder are analyzed to determine asphalt binder-additive interactions. Then, moisture sensitivity test results presented in Section II are analyzed. Note that all specimens are compared to their unconditioned counterparts (not subjected to moisture damage) and to the unconditioned control specimens. An analysis of the results is incorporated into each group of graphs.

3.2 Asphalt Binder

Results from DSR tests for the asphalt binder before and after RTFO aging are discussed and analyzed in this section. The most important properties are the complex modulus (comprised of the elastic modulus and viscous modulus), phase angle, and rutting factor. These binder properties, before and after additive modification, are discussed.

3.2.1 Complex Modulus (G)*

The complex modulus (G^*) represents the total amount of resistance an asphalt binder specimen has against deformation. The complex modulus is simply the vector summation of both the elastic and viscous portions of the binder. Generally, the higher the complex modulus, the stiffer the binder will be against deformation. Figure 15 shows the relationship between additive concentration and complex modulus for different types of additives.

Figure 15. Complex Modulus (G*) of Asphalt Binder Specimens Before RTFO Conditioning

From the DSR tests, the complex modulus (G^*) for the control specimens (no additives) was 0.208 psi, which, when divided by the sine of the phase angle (δ) , meets the Superpave mix design requirement of 0.145–0.290 psi. The above graph shows the results for control (unmodified) binder as a horizontal straight line in order to compare with the varying additive concentrations. Since the DSR test was conducted at 64°C, the increase in G* for nanoclay-modified binder is an indication that the nano-modified binder has higher resistance to rutting (stability) than base original binder due to the higher complex shear modulus at high temperatures. Note that the two nanoclay additives exhibited nearly the same performance, as shown in Figure 15.

On the other hand, the two liquid antistripping (HP Plus and LOF 6500) additives had a significant softening effect on the asphalt binder. This explains the difficulty encountered while loading specimens into the DSR, which quickly began melting. It is normal for liquid antistripping additives to soften binder; however, HP Plus seemed to have a slightly higher pronounced effect than that of LOF 6500. It should be noted here that $G^* / sin \delta$ for binder modified using liquid antistripping additive falls below the minimum of 0.145 specified by Superpave mix design for the three additive concentrations tested in this study.

After conditioning binder specimens in a RTFO, DSR tests were again conducted, producing the results displayed in Figure 16. Some changes were observed in the complex modulus compared to unconditioned specimens. First, G^* for the control specimens increased to 0.447 psi, which continues to meet the minimum of 0.319 psi specified by Superpave mix design.

The complex modulus for binder specimens with nanoclay additives exhibited significant increase in G^* after aging in RTFO with G^* /sin δ that meets the minimum of 0.319 psi for all additive dosages. Note that the two nanoclay additives exhibited nearly the same performance as shown in Figure 16. This was also the case for binder modified by 0.25% and 0.5% liquid antistripping. As the liquid antistripping dosage exceeded 0.50% G*/sin δ decreased below the minimum of 0.319 psi specified by Superpave mix design.

Figure 16. Complex Modulus (G*) of Asphalt Binder Specimens After RTFO Conditioning

3.2.2 Phase Angle (δ)

The phase angle represents how elastic or how viscous an asphalt binder is. A phase angle of 0° represents a purely elastic binder, while a 90° phase angle represents a purely viscous binder. Table 12 shows the phase angle for binder with different additives concentration before and after RTFO conditioning. It is shown that the phase angle slightly decreased for binder modified using nanoclay and liquid antistripping (lower phase angle means more elastic binder). Also, the phase angle decreases between 1.4° and 5° for additives after RTFO aging, except for HP Plus for which the phase angle slightly increased after aging in RTFO.

Table 12. Phase Angle of Specimens Before and After RTFO Conditioning

3.2.3 Rutting Factor (G/sinδ)*

It is only one-sided to assess the properties of bitumen from the perspective of G^* or δ . If G^* is the same, their phase angle values may not be the same, and vice versa. Therefore, different indicators can be used to evaluate the performance of bitumen for various performances at different test temperatures. Rutting factor $(G^*/\sin\delta)$ of asphalt binder represents how well the binder can rebound to its original shape after removing a load and how resistant it is to deformation at high temperature. Binders with high rutting factors will have better resistance to permanent deformation (rutting).

Figures 17 and 18 present the relationship between additive concentration and rutting factor for all binder combinations before and after RTFO conditioning, respectively. From Figure 17, the two nanoclay additives increased the rutting factor $(G^*/sin\delta)$ above the maximum of 0.249 psi specified by Superpave mix design. However, G^* /sin δ for nanoclays with concentrations of 1% to 4% remain very close to the maximum limit of 0.249 psi. The two liquid antistripping agents reduced the rutting factor below the lowest limit specified by Superpave mix design for the binder tested in this study.

Figure 17. Rutting Factor of Asphalt Binder Unaged in RTFO

Figure 18 presents the effect of short-term aging in RTFO on G^* /sin δ for binder modified with different additive types and concentrations. The results show a G^* /sin δ that exceeds the 0.319 psi minimum requirements for a virgin binder and a binder modified with the two nanoclays at 1% to 6% concentrations. However, liquid antistripping with only 0.25% and 0.5% resulted in G^* /sin δ that stayed at or slightly above the minimum of 0.319 psi.

Figure 18. Rutting Factor of Asphalt Binder after Aging in RTFO

3.3 Performance Testing Resulting of Asphalt Concrete Mixes

For each mix, two subsets (three specimens for each subset with a total of 90 specimens) compacted with 7.0% ± 0.5% air voids and optimum binder content of 5.75% were tested. The first subset was tested in an unconditioned state and the second subset was subjected to partial vacuum saturation (a degree of saturation of 70% to 80%) followed by one freeze-thaw cycle in accordance with AASHTO T-283. Results for indirect tensile strength for unconditioned and conditioned sets were presented in Section II and are discussed in this section. The Tensile Strength Ratio (TSR) is calculated by two different methods. In the first, TSR is calculated by dividing the wet tensile strength by the dry tensile strength for each additive combination, which is the normal method in practice. However, the wet tensile strength, after adding the modifiers/additives, needs to be normalized by comparing it to the dry tensile strength for the mix before adding the modifiers (control mix) to standardize the comparison. Therefore, this second method is explored in this study, and TSR will be referred to as TSR_{normalized}.

3.3.1 Tensile Strength for Dry Mixes

The comparison for indirect tensile strength for unconditioned/dry specimens is presented in Figure 19. The figure shows that HMAs that contain a nanoclay01 modifier had higher tensile strength which increased at a very small rate as the percentage of nanoclay01 increased with an optimum nanoclay01 percentage of approximately 3%. Nanoclay02 exhibited a similar trend as nanoclay01 with an optimum percentage of approximately 3.0%.

Figure 19. Indirect Tensile Strength for Unconditioned/dry Specimens

Note: The limit for dry tensile strength is 100 psi.

HMA with lime-treated aggregate had tensile strength that was slightly lower than that of the control mix. Note that HMAs with lime-treated aggregate were tested only at a lime content of 1.3%. The performance of HMA treated with liquid antistripping exhibited mixed performance. It was observed that LOF 6500 liquid antistripping increased the tensile strength of HMA with an observed optimum at approximately 0.5%. On the other hand, HMA treated with HP+ liquid antistripping exhibited tensile strength that was lower than that for the control mix. All mixes tested resulted in dry tensile strengths that were higher than the minimum of 100 psi specified by Caltrans (Caltrans Standard Specification, 2018).

3.3.2 Tensile Strength for Conditioned Mixes

The comparison of indirect tensile strength for conditioned/wet specimens is presented in Figure 20. The results show that all mixes tested exhibited the same performance trends. The data show that mixes treated with nanoclay01 and nanoclay02 exhibited higher strengths than that for the control mix, except for nanoclay02 mix with 6% nanoclay. Also, it is noted that mixes treated with nanoclay01 and nanoclay02 additives had optimum additive percentages of approximately 2.5% and 3.5%, respectively. HMA mix with lime-treated aggregate had wet tensile strength higher than that for the control mix, which was not the case when this mix was tested for dry tensile strength. The two liquid antistripping agents exhibited similar trends with an optimum antistripping percentage of approximately 0.5%. Note that all mixes resulted in wet tensile strengths greater than the minimum of 70 psi specified by Caltrans.

Figure 20. Indirect Tensile Strength for Conditioned/wet Specimens

Note: The limit for conditioned tensile strength is 70 psi.

3.3.3 Tensile Strength Ratio (TSR)

The dry tensile strength divided by the dry tensile strength (TSR) for each specimen in the different subsets was calculated for comparison, and results are shown in Figure 21. This data show that TSR for all modified mixes outperformed the control mix and that all mixes exceeded the 0.70 minimum requirement specified by Caltrans. However, only the TSR for the control mix was slightly below the 0.80 specified by Superpave mix design. Among all the modifiers investigated in this study, mixes modified using HP+ liquid antistripping outperformed other modified mixes (nanoclays, lime-treated, and LOF 6500 liquid antistripping). It is noted that the peak TSR for mixes with nanoclay01, lime-treated aggregate, and LOF 6500 was equal. Among all modified mixes used in this study, HMA containing Nanoclay02 showed the least improvement in TSR. An optimum additive content was also observed for each of the mixes: 3.0% for Nanocaly01 and Nanoclay02 and 0.5% for both HP+ and LOF 6500. Note that an HMA with only one lime dosage (1.3%) was tested.

Figure 21. TSR for HMA with Different Additives

Note: The blue line is the Superpave mix design method's TSR requirement (0.8).

3.3.4 Wet Tensile Strength as Ratio of Dry Control (TSRnormalized)

To standardize the TSR, the tensile strength for conditioned/wet specimens was compared with the dry tensile strength for the control mix. This ratio is referred to as TSR_{normalized} throughout the report, and the results are presented in Figure 22. The TSR for all modified mixes outperformed the control mix, and all mixes exceeded the 0.80 minimum specified by Superpve (Figure 22). However, TSR_{normalized} and the optimum modifier content changed slightly for each of the mixes. The comparison between the two approaches used in calculating the TSR is shown in Table 4.2.

Figure 22. TSR_{normalized} for HMA with Different Additives

MODIFIER	TSR/MODIFIER OPTIMUM CONTENT, %	TSR _{NORMALIZED} /MODIFIER OPTIMUM CONTENT, %
NANOCLAY01	0.90 / 2.5	0.97 / 3.5
NANOCLAY02	0.84 / 3.0	0.87 / 3.5
LIME SLURRY	0.92 / N _{A1}	0.88 / NA
LOF 6500	0.87/0.5	0.95/0.4
$HP+$	0.96/0.5	0.83 / 0.5

Table 13. Comparison Between the Two Approaches Used in Calculating the Tensile Strength Ratio

¹ Not applicable since only one lime slurry percentage was used.

The use of the two different approaches in calculating TSR had mixed results. $TSR_{normalized}$ was higher than TSR for three of the mixes (nanoclay01, nanoclay02, and LOF 6500) and lower for the other two mixes (lime-treated and HP+). These results warrant discussion among the pavement engineering community to generate a consensus as to which approach is appropriate in analyzing the results of AASHTO T283.

3.3.5 Cost Analysis

Cost is an important factor in determining which additive to use in HMA preparation. The most cost-effective additive will likely vary from region to region due to availability and transportation costs, as well as binder and aggregate composition. The costs used in this analysis were estimated for asphalt production on the central coast of California. According to CalPortland Construction, the unit cost of lime is estimated at \$45 per ton of lime slurry, which equates to \$0.023 per pound of lime. Assuming an optimum lime content of 1.5%, the material cost of lime would be \$0.68 per ton of HMA mix. CalPortland also stated that the cost of stockpiling, hydrating, and adding lime to the HMA aggregates would add \$4.00 per ton of HMA. This brings the final cost of adding lime to \$4.68 per ton of HMA (Daniel Ortega, personal communication, August 2, 2022).

For HP Plus and LOF 6500, ArrMaz Chemicals quoted a price of \$3.00 per pound of additive (P. Whittey, personal communication, October 28, 2011). Using an optimum concentration of 0.50% of the binder weight, the chemical cost comes to \$1.73 per ton of asphalt mix. An in-line system is also required to add liquid anti-stripping agents to the HMA at the plant. These systems typically range between \$10,000 and \$25,000 in initial cost, which add about \$0.10 to \$0.20 per ton of HMA produced (Epps et al, 2003). Note that the cost for the in-line system is a one-time,

non-recurring cost. However, for liquid antistripping the authors suggest an added cost of \$2.0/ton of HMA. Lastly, for nanoclay01 and nanoclay02, assuming 3.0% of the binder content, about 3.5 lb of nanoclay is needed per ton of HMA. The average cost of nanoclay, including surface modification and mixing, is approximately \$2.0/lb nanoclay. Thus, the nanoclay additive cost becomes \$7.0 per ton of HMA.

3.4 Summary

Based on the DSR and RTFO tests, nanoclay01 and nanoclay02 had a stiffening effect on the binder, increasing complex and elastic moduli. Also, with increasing additive concentration, binder stiffness increased further. However, both liquid antistripping agents (HP+ and LOF 6500) had the opposite effect on the asphalt binder, decreasing both the elastic and complex modulus of the binder. After RTFO aging, similar trends for the additives were observed, except the binder became much stiffer in all cases, which is typical for this test. The phase angle also decreased for most additive concentrations, making the binder more elastic in nature. Only the 0.25% and 0.50% HP+ and LOF 6500 concentration met the minimum Superpave mix design requirement of 0.319 psi for RTFO aged binder.

Compacted specimens were molded and tested using the AASHTO T 283 indirect tensile test. Specimens were compared on the basis of unconditioned tensile strength, conditioned (after moisture damage) tensile strength, and tensile strength ratios. Dry tensile strength results for only nanoclay01, nanoclay02, and LOF 6500 modified mixes were higher than that for control mix. However, all modified mixes resulted in wet tensile strengths that were higher than that for control mix. TSRs for all modified mixes were higher than that for control mix and also exceeded the Superpave mix design minimum of 0.80 using the standard calculation method and as a ratio of the tensile strength of the unconditioned control mix.

4. Multi-Criteria Decision Analysis

One of the objectives of this study was to compare and rank HMA additives (from the literature) used to improve moisture resistance. A multi-criteria decision analysis (MCDA) was used to achieve this research objective. MCDA is a systematic approach that quantitatively ranks alternatives based on multi-criteria such as cost, performance, and the mixing method used for incorporating the additives into the HMA.

The first step towards the MCDA was conducting a comprehensive literature review to identify the alternatives used for modifying asphalt binders to resist moisture damage. The results of this literature review served as the inputs for the MCDA. The MCDA calculations were performed using the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) and the Technique for Order of Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution (TOPSIS). The AHP was used to determine the weights of each evaluation criterion and TOPSIS utilized those weights for ranking the alternatives. The basis of the TOPSIS method is that the highest ranked alternative should have the shortest distance from the ideal solution and the farthest from the negative ideal solution.

4.1 Methodology

4.1.1 Literature Review

Articles were collected from two databases, ScienceDirect and Engineering Village, using sets of two keywords (Table 15). In total, there were 10 sets of keywords used for each database. For each set of keywords, the number of results per page, the number of pages viewed, the total number of pages available, and the number of relevant articles were recorded. This ensured consistency during the article collection process. Only relevant articles published between 2015 and 2021 were considered herein.

Table 14. Keyword Combinations Used for Article Collection

The literature search resulted in the collection of 89 articles that were deemed relevant to the scope of the project. These 89 articles were analyzed by the following categories: additive material and amount used, mixing method, standard methods used to test improvements in moisture resistance, and improvement results. A summary of the outcomes of this literature search is presented in Appendix A.

4.1.2 AHP

The Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) is the process of assigning weights to multiple criteria through relative ranking. The hierarchical structure can be understood as the process of making a decision. In this study, the overarching decision or the first level in the structure was to choose the best additive to improve moisture resistance in pavement. The criteria considered in making this decision are additive material cost, mixing method to incorporate the additive in the HMA, equipment cost, and performance. Those criteria constituted the second level in the structure. The third level was the alternatives or possible additives that were being compared. The criteria being evaluated do not necessarily carry the same weight in the decision-making process. To determine the weight of each criterion, a scale of relative importance from 1 to 9 was incorporated, 1 meaning the criteria is of equal importance and 9 meaning the criteria is of extreme relative importance. The relative importance for criteria is inversely related as seen in Table 16. For example, since material cost is relatively important to the mixing method by a factor of 4, the mixing method is relatively important to material cost by a factor of ¼.

	Material Cost	Mix Method Equipment Cost		Performance
Material Cost				
Mixing Method	1/4			1/5
Equipment Cost				1/3
Performance				

Table 15. AHP-Relative Importance Criteria

The columns in Table 16 were summed, and then each cell was divided by their respective column's sum. Next, the rows were averaged. This average is the theoretical criterion weight, which was rounded to whole number percentages. Then, each column from Table 16 was multiplied by their respective criteria weights, and each row was summed to give the weighted sum value (Table 17). For each criterion, the ratio of weighted sum value to criteria weights was then calculated (Table 17). The average of these ratios gave the λ max value, which was used to find the consistency index as shown in the following equation:

C. I. =
$$
\frac{\lambda_{max} - n}{(n-1)}
$$

Where, C.I. is the consistency index and n is the number of criteria

Following the equation presented below, the consistency index was divided by the coefficient for the case $n = 4$, resulting in a consistency ratio of approximately 0.05 (Table 18). Since this consistency ratio was less than 0.10, the criteria weights could be considered consistent according to the AHP method. This means that the relative importance assigned to each criterion is consistent with the weight percentages assigned.

$$
C. R. = \frac{c \cdot I}{c}
$$

Where, C.R. is the consistency ratio, and c is the coefficient for n criteria

	Theoretical	Selected Criteria	Weighted Sum	Ratio of
	Criteria Weights	Weights	Value	Weighted Sum
				Value/Criteria
				Weights
Material Cost	0.38	0.35	1.60	4.57
Equipment Cost	0.12	0.15	0.50	3.33
Mixing Method	0.09	0.10	0.42	4.18
Performance	0.40	0.40	1.70	4.25

Table 16. AHP Criteria Weight Calculations

Table 17. AHP Consistency Calculation

\mathbf{v}_{max}	Consistency Index U.I.	Coefficient for $n = 4$	Consistency Ratio
4.08	$0.03\,$	0.58	

4.1.3 TOPSIS Analysis

The TOPSIS analysis is the process used for ranking the alternatives using the criteria weights determined by the AHP process. Values for each criterion consisted of the actual data retrieved from the studies for that criterion. There are two types of criteria: beneficial and non-beneficial. Beneficial criteria are evaluated by the maximum value since higher values are associated with the better option. Non-beneficial criteria are evaluated by the minimum value since lower values are associated with the better option. Cost would be an example of a non-beneficial criterion because the least expensive option is the better option.

For a column of a beneficial criteria, each row was divided by the maximum value in the column. For a column of a non-beneficial criteria, each row was divided by the minimum value in the column. Then, each column was multiplied by their respective weights. Finally, each row was summed to produce a score for the respective alternative. The score could then be used to rank the alternatives with the highest score being the best. A sample of MCDA calculations is presented in Table 18. For this study, the criteria used to compare alternatives were material cost, mixing method, equipment cost, and performance.

		Step 1: Setup matrix		Step 2: Divide by min or max	Step 3: Multiple by weight		Step 4: Sum score	Step 5: Rank scores
Alternative	Beneficial Criteria	Non- Beneficial Criteria	Beneficial Criteria	Non- Beneficial Criteria	Beneficial Criteria Weight 0.75	$Non-$ Beneficial Criteria Weight 0.25	Score	Ranking
A	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.25	0.75	0.06	0.81	4
B	$\overline{2}$	2	2	0.50	1.50	0.13	1.63	3
\mathcal{C}	3	3	3	0.75	2.25	0.19	2.44	2
D	$\overline{4}$	$\overline{4}$	$\overline{4}$	1	3.0	0.25	3.25	$\mathbf{1}$

Table 18. Sample MCDA Calculations

The TOPSIS method followed a list of sequential steps. Step 1 consisted of determining the normalized pairwise matrix, which was calculated using:

$$
\bar{x}_{ij} = \frac{x_{ij}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{ij}^2}}
$$

Where, x_{ij} is the row element and n is the number of elements in the row. Step 2 involved calculation of the weighted normalized matrix by multiplying the weights of the criteria obtained from the AHP using the following equation:

$$
v_{ij} = \bar{x}_{ij} \times w_j
$$

Where, w_i is the weight of the criteria, and v_{ij} is the value of the normalized element. Step 3 was then used to determine the positive and negative ideal solutions as follows:

$$
v_j^+ = (v_1^+, v_2^+, \dots, v_n^+) = (max v_{ij})
$$

$$
v_j^- = (v_1^+, v_2^+, \dots, v_n^+) = (min v_{ij})
$$

Where, v_j and v_j are the positive ideal and negative ideal solution, respectively. The positive ideal solution maximizes the beneficial criteria and minimizes the non-beneficial criterial, while the negative ideal solution does vice versa. Step 4 consisted of calculating the Euclidean distance from the positive and negative ideal solution using the following equations:

$$
S_i^+ = \left[\sum_{j=1}^m (\nu_{ij} - \nu_j^+)^2]\right]^{0.5}
$$

$$
S_i^- = \left[\sum_{j=1}^m (\nu_{ij} - \nu_j^-)^2]\right]^{0.5}
$$

Where, S_i^+ is the Euclidean distance from the ideal best solution, and S_i^+ is the Euclidean distance from the ideal worst solution. The performance index, or relative closeness to the ideal solution, was calculated using the following equation:

$$
P_i = \frac{s_i^-}{s_i^+ + s_i^-}
$$

The additives for improving moisture resistance of HMA were ranked by decreasing order (i.e., the best alternative has the shortest distance from the positive ideal solution and vice versa).

4.1.4 Sensitivity Analysis

Each criterion had an assigned weight determined by AHP. However, some assumptions were made by the authors, using engineering judgement, in order to determine these weights by the AHP method. Therefore, a sensitivity analysis was conducted to evaluate the effect of criteria weighting on the alternatives' rankings. This was achieved by testing a range of weights of each of the criteria used in order to determine if the results were heavily influenced by the criteria weights. For example, the weight of the material cost criterion was adjusted within 20% of the original AHP weight of 35%, and the TOPSIS was re-performed using these weights. From weightages (a) to (e), the material cost weightage was incrementally increased by 10% (Table 19). For each 10% increase for the material cost weight, a 10% decrease was distributed amongst the other criteria. The additive mixing method and equipment cost weights were decreased by 3% while the performance weight was decreased by 4% to keep the percentages as whole numbers. The performance weight took the greater decrease since their starting value was much larger. Tables 19–22 outline the weights used for sensitivity analysis for each criterion.

Criteria	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)
Material Cost	0.15	0.25	0.35	0.45	0.55
Equipment Cost	0.21	0.18	0.15	0.12	0.09
Mixing Method	0.16	0.13	0.1	0.07	0.04
Performance	0.48	0.44	0.4	0.36	0.32

Table 19. Material Cost Sensitivity

Criteria	(a)	(b)	(c)	$\rm ^{(d)}$	(e)
Material Cost	0.35	0.32	0.29	0.26	0.23
Equipment Cost	0.15	0.12	0.09	0.06	0.03
Mixing Method	$0.1\,$	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5
Performance	0.4	0.36	0.32	0.28	0.24

Table 20. Mixing Method Sensitivity

Table 21. Equipment Cost Sensitivity

Criteria	(a)	(b)	$\left(c\right)$	d',	ϵ
Material Cost	0.38	0.35	0.32	0.29	0.26
Equipment Cost	0.05	0.15	0.25	0.35	0.45
Mixing Method	0.13	0.1	0.07	0.4	0.01
Performance	0.44	0.4	0.36	0.32	0.28

Table 22. Performance Sensitivity

4.2 Literature Analysis

The literature analysis included 89 articles, as previously stated. Evotherm M1, Zycotherm, hydrated lime, styrene-butadiene-styrene (SBS) polymer, nanoclay, and crumb rubber were the most common additives used in these articles for enhancing moisture resistance (Figure 23). Evotherm M1 and Zycotherm are warm mix additives (WMA) whereas hydrated lime, SBS, nanoclay, and crumb rubber are HMA additives. Since the current study focused on HMA, Evotherm M1 and Zycotherm (Figure 24) were excluded from the MCDA. In the 89 studies analyzed, indirect tensile strength (ITS) and tensile strength ratio (TSR) were the most common metrics used for evaluating moisture resistance of HMA (Figure 25). The most common mixing method for incorporating the additives into the HMA was using mechanical or shear mixers (Figure 26). The placement of the additive in the asphalt mixtures varied by study, however, most mixed the additive with the binder as presented in Figure 27.

Figure 23. Additives Used in the Literature to Improve Resistance of Asphalt to Moisture

Figure 24. Types of Asphalt Mix Used in the Literature to Study Improvements in Resistance to Moisture-Related Damage

Figure 25. Indicator Parameters Used in the Literature to Evaluate Possible Improvement in Resistance of Asphalt Mixtures to Moisture Damage

Figure 26. Mixing Methods Used in Literature to Mix the Additives with HMA

Figure 27. Placement of the Additives in the Asphalt Mixture

4.3 Multi-Criteria Decision Analysis Discussion

Following the scope of the current study, the material additives had to meet the following criteria to be considered in the subsequent MCDA: (a) be used in hot mix asphalt and added to the binder (not the aggregate), (b) the research article included information on the amount of additive and binder used, and (c) the article included TSR and ITS results. From the 89 literature articles analyzed, only 4 additives from 27 articles met these requirements: hydrated lime, SBS, nanoclay, and crumb rubber. The use of hydrated lime in this context includes both nano-hydrated lime and regular hydrated lime. SBS is a thermoplastic elastomer, a type of polymer with high elasticity. Nanoclay includes different forms of cloisite, bentonite, and montmorillonite (MMT). Crumb rubber, also known as ground tire rubber, is recycled rubber from tires. For the analysis of each alternative under each criterion, only the 27 articles that met all the MCDA selection requirements were used. These articles will be referred to as the selected articles throughout the report.

4.3.1 Material and Equipment Cost Analysis

Cost estimates were taken from accessible online resources. The material cost was calculated as the cost in USD per kg of asphalt mix, so it accounts for the additive amount and binder amount in the asphalt mix. This makes it possible to compare alternatives with regards to cost since the cost per gram of material may be misleading for the amount actually used in the mix. For nanoclay, the cost varied based on the type, so the material cost for each nanoclay article was calculated, and then the average cost for all selected articles was used in the MCDA calculations. Similarly, the equipment cost was the average equipment cost for all selected articles of a certain alternative. The equipment cost was estimated based on the sum of the cost of each piece of equipment used in the mix method in each specific article.

4.3.2 Mixing Method Analysis

The mixing method refers to the method used to mix the additive with the binder. From the 89 articles initially analyzed, the following mixing methods were identified: using a shear/mechanical mixer, melt blending, syringe/drop method, using a magnetic stirrer, compacting, using a nanoparticle distributor, water-based foaming, manual/hand mixing, and ball milling. To convert these mixing methods into a numerical rating, they were given a weight using the AHP method (Table 18). Higher relative importance was given to mixing methods that were more common and/or more efficient. For instance, mechanical mixing is more efficient than hand mixing, so mechanical mixing would have greater relative importance and, thus, a higher rating. The mixing method rating for each alternative is the sum of the weights of the mixing methods used for that alternative.

Table 23. Mixing Method Weights

4.3.3 Performance Analysis

Performance in this context refers to the resistance of the asphalt mixture to moisture-related damage. The performance indicators used here were ITS and TSR. The research articles analyzed included ITS results for different conditions, including dry and wet conditions, unconditioned, conditioned, and aged conditions. For consistency, only ITS results presented for dry conditions, wet conditions, and unconditioned were used. For each alternative, the maximum TSR and ITS result for each alternative dose was recorded. The average TSR and ITS results for each alternative was used for MCDA calculations. ITS results were recorded in kPa while TSR results were recorded as a percentage.

4.3.4 MCDA Results

The four additives evaluated using MCDA for improving moisture resistance were hydrated lime, crumb rubber, SBS, and nanoclay. Overall, the MCDA ranked hydrated lime as the top option followed by crumb rubber, SBS, then nanoclay ranked fourth. The multi-criteria used for evaluation were additive material cost, equipment cost, mixing method, and TSR and ITS results. For performance (i.e., enhancing moisture resistance), nanoclay had the best average TSR (~85%) and the best average ITS (~1110 kPa). Although nanoclay had the best performance, it was a relatively expensive alternative, for both materials cost and equipment cost needed for achieving homogenous HMA mixtures. Material cost and equipment cost accounted for 50% of the total weight of the MCDA, so cost-efficiency had a major impact on the ranking of the alternative additives. The cost of nanoclay could reduce in the future provided the widespread use of nanoclay. It is noted that the HP Plus and LOF6500 additives that were experimentally evaluated in this research were not included in the MCDA because of the lack of ITS data to supplement the performance data needed for the MCDA. Nonetheless, according to results presented in this report, based on the experimental testing conditions used herein, the behavior of HP Plus and LOF6500 were comparable to those of nanoclay.

A sensitivity analysis was performed to evaluate the impact of assumptions made as part of the MCDA on the ranking of alternative additives for enhancing resistance to moisture damage of HMA. For each set of weights, two sets of MCDA calculations were performed, one with TSR as the performance metric, and the other with ITS as the performance metric. The weightages of the four criteria were varied in order to evaluate the consistency and validity of the MCDA results. Overall, the ranking remained mostly consistent, hydrated lime was the top among the four alternatives evaluated, with most changes occurring only once throughout the weightage changes.

Summary & Conclusions

This study evaluated the use of different additives (two nanoclay additives, lime slurry, and two liquid antistripping agents) to improve the resistance of HMA against moisture-induced damage. Using standardized testing procedures, aggregate was tested for specific gravity, absorption, abrasion resistance, void content, and gradation. Asphalt binder tests were conducted using a dynamic shear rheometer and a rolling thin film oven to first determine if the virgin binder used would meet Superpave mix design requirements. Second, these tests were used to determine how each additive interacted with the asphalt binder. For nanoclay additives, concentrations of 1%, 2%, 4%, and 6% were tested. One concentration of lime slurry (1.3%) treated aggregate that is typically used on the central coast was supplied by CalPortland. Concentrations of 0.25%, 0.50%, and 0.75% of HP Plus and LOF 6500 liquid antistripping agents were also tested. Overall, the mineral fillers had a stiffening effect on binder, while the liquid anti-stripping additives softened the binder.

The HMA was designed according to Caltrans gradation and Superpave mix design requirements. The optimum binder content was determined to be 5.75% of a medium gradation blend, which gave acceptable air void and specific gravity properties. Moisture sensitivity tests were then conducted on over 100 compacted asphalt specimens. Variations of all the additives were tested for indirect tensile strength before and after moisture conditioning. From these tests, optimum additive content was observed. Most additives were able to reduce moisture damage in the specimens to some degree.

5.1 Conclusions

The following conclusions can be drawn from the test results of this study:

- Nanoclays have a stiffening effect on the asphalt binder according to DSR test results. This was indicated by the increase in both elastic and viscous portions of the complex modulus.
- Higher concentrations of nanoclays further increase stiffness.
- The two types of nanoclays tested in this study exhibited the same effect on binder stiffness.
- The liquid anti-stripping additive had a softening effect on the binder. Generally, increasing the concentration further softened the binder.
- Liquid antistripping additive percentages higher than 0.5% resulted in significant reduction in binder stiffness below the minimum requirement specified by Superpave mix design.
- Additives tested in this study (except HP Plus) resulted in dry tensile strengths that were higher than that for control mix. However, all additives (including HP Plus) resulted in higher wet tensile strength than control mix.
- All mixes tested resulted in dry and wet tensile strengths that were higher than the minimum specified by Caltrans 2018 Standard Specifications (100 psi for dry tensile strength and 70 psi for wet tensile strength).
- Except for the 6% nanoclay02 mix, all HMA modified mixes exhibited TSR higher than 0.80 (the minimum specified by Superpave mix design). Also, all HMA modified mixes resulted in TSRs that were higher than the control mix.
- Optimum additive percentages resulting in maximum TSR were observed.
- TSR for HMA mixes modified using nanoclays were comparable to those for HMA mixes modified using liquid antistripping and lime slurry treated aggregate.
- Overall, liquid antistripping agents tested herein were the least costly additive.

5.2 Recommendations

- Tests were only conducted on one mix design, one type of aggregate, and one type of binder. Performance of anti-stripping additives will vary when any one of these mix components are changed. Investigating the effect any of these have on additive performance is recommended.
- Hydrated lime is currently being used in asphalt pavements on the central coast; however, liquid antistripping and nanoclays outperformed the performance of lime-treated mixes against moisture damage and could be tested in the field. Although the control mix passed Caltrans requirements, it did not pass the 80% TSR specified by the Superpave Mix Design. Future research should also test control mixtures that do not meet Caltrans requirements.
- Development of a testing standard or case studies to evaluate the performance of these additives in the field would further benefit asphalt pavement research.
- Evaluation of HMA that includes Recycled Asphalt Pavement (RAP) is recommended.
- TSR calculated as a ratio of the dry tensile strength of control mix is recommended to be used as an indicator for moisture resistance. TSR_{normalized} compares the conditioned, modified mixes with the unconditioned/unmodified control mix. Normalization using the same denominator for all comparisons makes it a fairer comparison. Because the goal of this work is to improve the control by adding additives, all comparisons should be with the mix that is the target for improvement.

Appendix A

Table 24. Summary of the Literature on Additives for Improving Moisture Resistance of HMA

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