Original Research Paper

Analysis of asphalt mix surface-tread rubber interaction by using finite element method

Santosh Kumar Srirangam, Kumar Anupam, Cor Kasbergen, Athanasios (Tom) Scarpas

HIGHLIGHTS

• Developing three-dimensional FE model to evaluate hysteretic friction.
• Revealing the micromechanical pavement surface morphology.
• Simulating different loading pressures, sliding velocities, and surfaces.
• Showing the result that hysteretic friction inversely varies with the sliding speed.

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ABSTRACT

The surface texture of the pavement plays a very important role in driving the frictional properties at the tire rubber-pavement interface. Particularly, the hysteretic friction due to viscoelastic deformations of rubber depends mainly on the pavement surface texture. In the present paper, the effect of micromechanical pavement surface morphology on rubber block friction was brought in by comparing the friction results for three different asphalt mix morphological surfaces, named stone mastic asphalt (SMA), ultra-thin surfacing (UTS) and porous asphalt (PA). The asphalt surface morphologies of these mixes were captured by using an X-ray tomographer, from which the resulting images micromechanical finite element (FE) meshes for SMA, UTS and PA pavements were developed by means of the SimpleWare software. In the FE model, the rubber and asphalt binder were modeled as viscoelastic (VE) materials and the formulation was given in the large deformation framework. FE simulations were then carried out by using contact algorithm between rubber and the road surface. It was observed that the rubber friction inversely varies with the sliding speed and positively varies with the pressure for all the pavement morphological and stiffness conditions. Furthermore, it was observed that the highly porous pavement surface results in large dissipation of energy, hence, large rubber friction which shows that the mix characteristics of pavements have a significant effect on rubber friction.

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1. Introduction

Tire rubber is an elastomeric material which undergoes large deformation. The contact between a rubber block and a hard, randomly rough, pavement surface is an important subject of practical application interest. Rubber friction in many cases is directly related to the internal friction of the rubber, i.e., it is a bulk property of the rubber (Grosch, 1963). When a rubber is indented onto a rough pavement surface by applying a constant pressure, the real contact area will increase with the contact time (Persson et al., 2004). In addition, if the rubber slides on a hard, rough substrate, the surface asperities of the substrate exert oscillating forces on the rubber surface leading to energy “dissipation” via the internal friction of the rubber (Persson and Volokitin, 2002). The force required to slide the rubber depends on the area of real contact, indentation pressure and the indentation time (Persson et al., 2004). The influence of asphalt mix characteristics on pavement surface morphology and ultimately on rubber-pavement interaction under different applied pressure and sliding speed conditions is the topic of this research.

According to the past research studies, hysteresis was found to account for the larger part of the total friction force. Hence, in the present study, rubber friction due to the hysteresis loss is considered as the main cause of friction development. The effect of pavement macrotexture surface morphology on rubber block friction was brought in by comparing the friction results for three different asphalt mix morphological surfaces. The disparity of friction with stiffness conditions of pavement was determined by conducting the simulation analyses for non-deformable and deformable pavement surface conditions. The rubber and asphalt binder were modeled as viscoelastic (VE) materials and the formulation was given in the large deformation framework. The commercial FE package, ABAQUE/explicit (Hibbit, Karlson & Sorensen, Inc., 2010), was used for the present analyses.

2. Description of model

In this study, the essential parameters required to simulate the interaction between tire tread block and real pavement surface morphology in macro scale are presented. The simulation of rubber-pavement surface morphology is performed under different loading pressures, sliding velocities and pavement morphological conditions described as follows.

(a) Tread rubber non-deformable pavement macrotexture interaction for SMA, UTS, and PA pavements. Such an analysis, supplements the past research studies (Klüppel and Heinrich, 1999, 2008; Persson et al., 2004) which were based on the non-deformable pavement surface conditions by simulating the rubber friction on real non-deformable asphalt pavement macrotexture conditions

(b) Tread rubber deformable pavement macrotexture interaction for UTS pavement. Such analysis emphasizes the error committed by the aforementioned analytical approaches in the determination of the friction by ignoring the deformability of the pavement surface.

2.1. Study parameters

In the present analyses, three-dimensional (3D) FE models of rubber block sliding on micromechanical pavement surface models were utilized to study the effect of pavement macrotexture morphology on rubber friction. First, 3D FE meshes of SMA, UTS and PA pavement macrotexture morphologies were built by using X-ray tomography scans. The analysis was carried out by simulating the interaction between rubber block and pavement macrotexture under different sliding velocity and normal pressure conditions. Four sliding velocities 5, 10, 15 and 25 m/s and three pressures conditions, 200, 400 and 700 kPa were considered for this purpose. The rubber block was modeled as a viscoelastic material. In the first stage of FE simulations, the pavement surfaces were modeled as non-deformable. In the next stage of simulations, the asphalt binder was modeled as a viscoelastic (VE) material and the aggregate was modeled as a linear elastic material for all three pavements to identify the effect of pavement stiffness characteristics on rubber-pavement interaction.

2.2. Constitutive model for the viscoelastic material

In this section, the VE constitutive modelings of rubber and asphalt binder and the developments of macrotexture morphology and FE meshes for SMA, UTS, and PA are presented. Optimum dimensions of pavement surface and rubber block were selected in order to capture the effect of pavement morphology on the frictional behavior of the different material and mechanical properties. In the model, the pavement has a size of 240 mm × 40 mm × 8 mm while the rubber block has a size of 20 mm × 20 mm × 5 mm. Thermal effects have been neglected. The main assumption of the analysis is that rubber hysteretic friction is the main factor of rubber friction and the result from the internal energy dissipation of the rubber.

In the analyses, the material behaviors of the rubber and asphalt binder were characterized by means of the generalized viscoelastic model as shown in Fig. 1. The model consists of an elastic spring in parallel with a number of Maxwell elements depending on the material representation. The Maxwell element consists of a spring and a dashpot in series. The Maxwell element allows the force of the elastic spring to vary with loading rate because the viscous forces increase with the rate of deformation. In order to employ the generalized viscoelastic model, it is essential to implement viscoelastic constitutive equation into the ABAQUS numerical solving system. This can be done by calling a user-defined explicit subroutine VUMAT. ABAQUS/Explicit uses the VUMAT subroutine feature to calculate the tangent moduli of the rubber and asphalt binder.

In the model, total stress in the VE material at any time is as follows

\[ \sigma = \sigma_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} [\sigma_i] \]  

(1)
where $\sigma_m$ is the stress in the equilibrium spring, $\sigma_v$ is the stress in the Maxwell element, $m$ is the number of Maxwell elements. On the basis of energy arguments and by means of multiplicative decomposition of the deformation gradient tensor ($F$) into elastic and viscous components.

$$F = F_s F_v$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

$$C_s = F_s^T F_s$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

$$C_v = F_v^T F_v$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

where $F$ is the total deformation gradient tensor, $F_s$ and $F_v$ are the deformation gradient tensors associated with the viscous damper and elastic spring, respectively, $C_s$ and $C_v$ are the elastic and viscous right Cauchy-Green strain tensors, respectively.

The Helmholtz free energy function ($\psi$) is expressed as follow

$$\psi = \psi_m(C) + \psi_v(C_v)$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

where $\psi_m(C)$ is the equilibrium strain energy function, $\psi_v(C_v)$ is the dissipative strain energy function. The Clausius–Duhem local dissipation inequality is as follow

$$S : \frac{1}{2} C - \psi_v \geq 0$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

$$\frac{\partial \psi_v}{\partial C_v} = \psi_v$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

where $S$ is the second Piola-Kirchhoff stress tensor.

It has been shown by Scarpas (2004) that the stress tensor $S$ can be expressed as a function of viscous strain energy as follow

$$2C_v \frac{\partial \psi_v}{\partial C_v} F_v^{-T} = S$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

Also, the following inequality for the dissipated energy can be obtained.

$$2C_v \frac{\partial \psi_v}{\partial C_v} F_v^{-1} \geq 0$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)

where $L_v = F_v F_v^{-1}$ is the viscous velocity tensor.

The above inequality for the viscoelastic component can be further elaborated to obtain a relation between the Mandel stress $\Sigma$ and $L_v$.

$$\Sigma : L_v \geq 0$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

To satisfy the Eq. (10), the following evolution law can be postulated.

$$L_v = C_v^{-1} : \Sigma$$  \hspace{1cm} (11)

$$C_v^{-1} = \frac{1}{2\eta_0} \left( I - \frac{1}{3} (\dot{\psi}) I \right) + \frac{1}{9\eta_v} (I \otimes I)$$  \hspace{1cm} (12)

where $I$ is the second order identity sensor, $\eta_0$ and $\eta_v$ are the deviatoric and volumetric viscosities which may be dependent on the elastic left Cauchy-Green deformation sensor.

$$\eta_0 = \eta_0(b_v) > 0, \quad \eta_v = \eta_v(b_v) > 0, \quad b_v = F_v F_v^T$$  \hspace{1cm} (13)

### 2.3. Material parameters

In this study, the material data for the linear viscoelastic asphalt binder was adopted from the research study by Dai and You (2007). The binder contains sand mastic of 14% asphalt content and fine aggregates passing through a 1.18 mm sieve. The VE model for the binder comprises one equilibrium spring ($C_s$) and four Maxwell elements ($E_i$ and its relaxation time, $\tau_i$) which are connected in parallel and their parameters are shown in Table 1. The coarse aggregates of an asphalt mixture were assumed to be modeled as an elastic material with mass density of 3000 kg/m$^3$, Young's modulus of 55 GPa and Poisson's ratio of 0.2.

On the other hand, the material data for the linear viscoelastic rubber material in the finite strain framework was adopted from the research study by Wriggers and Nettingsmeier (2007). The rubber material was considered to be an unfilled styrene butadiene rubber (SBR) with a mass density of 1200 kg/m$^3$. The rubber material was considered to be a nearly incompressible material with a Poisson's ratio of 0.49. The VE model for the rubber includes one equilibrium spring and six Maxwell elements are connected in parallel and their parameters are shown in Table 2.

### 2.4. FEM mesh design

The SimpleWare (ScanIP 32-bit, Version 4.3, +CAD 32-bit, Version 1.3) procedure to obtain the micromechanical FE model:  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 – Material parameters of asphalt binder</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VE model (Dai and You, 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spring VE parameter (MPa)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E_s$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E_3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E_4$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

meshes for SMA, UTS and PA pavements from the images obtained from a laser profilometer and an X-ray tomographer has been explained in Section 1. The following are the salient features of the resulting FE meshes of asphalt pavement surfaces and rubber blocks that were used in the micromechanical interaction modeling.

2.5. Asphalt pavement surface

In this model, the SMA, UTS and PA pavements (Boscaino and Pratico, 2001; Pratico and Vaiana, 2015) were discretized by using 3D linear four-node tetrahedral (C3D4) elements for both non-deformable and deformable pavement surfaces. The non-deformable pavement meshes for SMA, UTS and PA are shown in Fig. 2(a–c). The properties of these surfaces used in the paper can be found in Tables 3–6. The non-deformability property of pavement surface can be obtained by suppressing the individual effects of asphalt binder and aggregate. In the non-deformable pavement condition, the UTS mesh consists of approximately 1 million elements, the SMA mesh consists of 0.9 million elements and the PA mesh consists of 0.8 million elements.

2.6. Rubber block

In the current study, rubber block was subjected to indentation and sliding processes against the rough pavement macrotexture. Both these processes involve large deformations in the rubber block, which may lead to convergence problems, arising from a severely distorted mesh. In order to maintain a high-quality FE mesh throughout the analyses, a completely automated remeshing feature of ABAQUS/Explicit has been employed. However, because of the limitation for the automatic-meshing algorithms in ABAQUS/Explicit to produce solid brick elements, 3D linear four-node tetrahedral (C3D4) elements were used for meshing. The automated remeshing is highly computationally intensive and hence time-consuming. The current FE simulations were performed at 25°C and the

Unlike the rigid pavement, the flexible pavement mesh for UTS (Fig. 3) consists of both asphalt binder and aggregate elements which result in a large number of mesh elements. The total number of elements required for the flexible condition of pavement for UTS is 11.3 million. It can be understood that the computation time required would be enormous when flexible pavement conditions are employed, which necessitates the use of parallel processing computation.

Table 2 – Material parameters of rubber viscoelastic model (Wriggers and Nettingsmeier, 2007).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spring</th>
<th>VE parameter (MPa)</th>
<th>Dashpot</th>
<th>VE parameter (1/s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$E_a$</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>$\tau_1$</td>
<td>$1.134 \times 10^{-2}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E_1$</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>$\tau_2$</td>
<td>$2.600 \times 10^{-4}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E_2$</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>$\tau_3$</td>
<td>$1.316 \times 10^{-5}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E_3$</td>
<td>71.0</td>
<td>$\tau_4$</td>
<td>$1.296 \times 10^{-6}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E_4$</td>
<td>505.9</td>
<td>$\tau_5$</td>
<td>$7.016 \times 10^{-8}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$E_5$</td>
<td>1125.9</td>
<td>$\tau_6$</td>
<td>$4.200 \times 10^{-10}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 – Mix compositions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Surface</th>
<th>Composition (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4/10 mm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA</td>
<td>54.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMA</td>
<td>55.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UTS</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 2 – 3D view of asphalt pavement morphology. (a) SMA rigid pavement. (b) UTS rigid pavement. (c) PA rigid pavement.
thermal process is considered to be isothermal in nature. The effect of temperature generation due to energy dissipation is completely neglected.

3. Modeling procedure

In general, the frictional resistance offered by the pavement roughness can be associated with the reaction forces (shear and normal) experienced by the rubber block during the sliding process. A higher contact normal force on the rubber block indicates more resistance by the pavement roughness against the action of the applied normal pressure. Hence the applied normal pressure can be related to the indentation resistance of the rubber block while the shear force can be associated to frictional resistance. The objective of this section is to identify and understand the influence of micromechanical properties of pavement surface morphology on the rubber block friction. For this purpose, the analysis is performed in two major steps: (1) indentation of the rubber block onto pavement roughness by applying normal pressure on the top surface of the block as shown in Fig. 4(a); (2) sliding the rubber block with a prescribed velocity under constant loading conditions as shown in Fig. 4(b). A frictionless contact was assumed between the bottom surface of the rubber block and pavement surface. The rubber hysterisis due to internal energy dissipation is assumed to be the main factor of friction development. To simulate the surface interaction between the rubber block and pavement surface morphology, ABAQUS/Explicit automated surface-to-surface contact algorithm was used. The resultant tangential force is computed at the top layer of the rubber block where velocity and loading conditions are applied. The ratio of the tangential force to the normal load can be defined as the sliding coefficient of friction. Various boundary conditions were tried to stimulate infinite media. Finally, the pavement geometry was considered such that its influence on the final output (skid resistance) was minimal.

4. Results

In this section, the computed friction coefficients for all the 48 cases (including 4 types of pavements, 3 applied pressures, and 4 sliding velocities) of simulation analyses of the rubber block are presented. The normal pressure and the sliding velocity conditions were varied to get a characteristic diagram of the friction coefficient.

4.1. Effect of applied pressure and sliding velocity on rubber friction

It indicates that the coefficient of sliding friction varies inversely with the sliding velocity and positively with the applied normal pressure for SMA, UTS and PA pavement macrotextures (Fig. 5). A similar trend was also observed in the flexible conditions of the UTS pavement (Fig. 6).

This type of trend is in agreement with the past research studies (Wriggers and Nettingsmeier, 2007). The rate of increase in friction coefficient was observed to be steep with increasing applied pressure and it can be taken as 0.01 to 0.05 for every sliding velocity depending on the normal pressure applied.

4.2. Effect of asphalt mix characteristics on rubber friction

The macrotexture corresponding to a particular asphalt surface varies greatly with its mix characteristics. If a contact occurs
between a rubber surface and many macro-asperity contact regions of pavement surface, more hysteresis loss of the rubber takes place; hence more friction develops. In order to demonstrate this effect, an analysis was performed on SMA, UTS and PA rigid macrotexture morphological surfaces for different normal pressures and sliding velocities as shown in Fig. 7.

An examination of the results shows that the PA pavement morphology offers more frictional resistance followed by UTS surface morphology and SMA morphology. The decrease in friction coefficient from PA to UTS was observed to be 4%–26% and that from UTS to SMA was found to be 3%–13% depending on applied pressure and sliding velocity. The observed trend might be due to the asphalt mix characteristics of PA, which offers more macrotexture compared to other surface textures of the pavement.

4.3. Effect of incorporating pavement flexibility on rubber friction

The viscoelastic properties of asphalt binder and elastic properties for aggregate were imparted into the UTS pavement model to determine the variation of friction coefficient with respect to the stiffness of pavement surface. Fig. 8 shows the comparison of friction coefficients for rigid and flexible UTS pavement surfaces for different sliding velocity and applied pressure conditions.

This effect might be more pronounced for an actual rolling tire at higher temperature conditions of both tire rubber and asphalt binder. Under such conditions, VE properties of both rubber and asphalt binder can be greatly affected and result in the reduced energy dissipation of the tire rubber. This, in turn, results in the reduced hysteresis loss of the rubber which causes the lower skid resistance.

Fig. 4 – Micromechanical simulation of interaction of rubber pavement morphology. (a) Indenting the rubber block onto pavement morphology. (b) Sliding the rubber block longitudinally over the pavement morphology.

Fig. 5 – Rubber friction characterization for rigid pavement macrotexture. (a) PA pavement. (b) UTS pavement. (c) SMA pavement.

Fig. 6 – Rubber friction characterization for flexible UTS pavement macrotexture.
5. Conclusions

In the present analyses, a three-dimensional FE model was developed to find out the effect of pavement macrotexture morphology on rubber friction due to hysteresis loss. The analyses were done for different pavement stiffness, mix morphology, loading and sliding velocity conditions. It was observed that the rubber friction inversely varies with the sliding speed and positively varies with the pressure for all the pavement morphological and stiffness conditions. Furthermore, it was observed that the highly porous pavement surface results in large dissipation of energy, hence, large rubber friction which shows that the mix characteristics of pavements have a significant effect on rubber friction. It was also observed that the pavement stiffness conditions have a noticeable influence on the rubber friction coefficient; hence the individual effect of mastic and aggregate on rubber friction must be taken into account.

Fig. 7 – Effect of asphalt mix morphologies on rubber friction. (a) Applied pressure is 700 kPa. (b) Applied pressure is 400 kPa. (c) Applied pressure is 200 kPa.

Fig. 8 – Effect of pavement flexibility on rubber friction. (a) Applied pressure is 700 kPa. (b) Applied pressure is 400 kPa. (c) Applied pressure is 200 kPa.
This proposed methodology could be used to judge the performance of various mixes against skidding without the need of actual construction of a test section.

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