

Experimental evaluation of cohesive and adhesive bond strength and fracture energy of bitumen-aggregate systems

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Abstract

Degradation of asphalt pavements is an inevitable phenomenon due to the combined effects of high traffic loads and harsh environmental conditions. Deterioration can be in the form of cohesive failure of the bitumen and/or bitumen-filler mastic or by adhesive failure between bitumen and aggregate. This paper presents an experimental investigation to characterise the cohesive and adhesive strength and fracture energy of bitumen-aggregate samples. The Pneumatic Adhesion Tensile Testing Instrument (PATTI) test and the Peel Test were used to quantify the tensile fracture strength and fracture energy of different bitumen-aggregate combinations, with a view to analyse the influence of several parameters on the strength of the bitumen film or bitumen-aggregate interface. From the experimental results, harder (40/60 pen) bitumen tends to show much higher tensile strength and fracture energy than softer (70/100 pen) bitumen. Tensile strength is shown to be sensitive to testing temperature with the failure regime changing from cohesive to mixed cohesive/adhesive failure with decreasing temperature. In addition, the results show that aggregate properties do not influence the bonding strength if cohesive failure occurs, but with adhesive failure, granite aggregate tends to produce a higher bonding strength than limestone aggregate in the dry condition. In terms of the Peel Test, the fracture energy experienced an increasing trend with increasing film thickness. However, the normalised toughness decreased when film thickness increased from 0.2mm to 0.9mm.

Key words: Tensile fracture strength; Fracture energy; Peel test; Bitumen; Adhesion; Cohesion

1. Introduction

1
2 Asphalt mixtures, consisting of three phases; aggregates (coarse and fine), bitumen and air
3 voids, are widely used as a pavement construction material. During their service life, asphalt
4 pavements have to sustain heavy traffic loads and harsh environmental conditions leading to
5 various degradation mechanisms such as load-induced fatigue cracking, temperature-induced
6 thermal cracking and permanent deformation. Two factors that significantly influence the
7 structural integrity of an asphalt mixture and essentially control is resistance to both mechanical
8 and environmental damage is the adhesive bond between the bitumen and aggregates and the
9 cohesive strength of the bitumen and/or bitumen-filler mastic [1-3]. It has been shown that the
10 service performance and durability of an asphalt mixture depends on the strength of the
11 bituminous film and is also controlled by the properties and strength of the bitumen-aggregate
12 bond interface [4].

13 This paper aims to improve the understanding the combined mechanisms of cohesive and
14 adhesive failure of the bitumen (cohesion) and bitumen-aggregate interface surface (adhesion)
15 by determining the effect of temperature and bitumen film thickness on the bond strength
16 properties of various bitumen-aggregate systems. Two bitumens with different penetration
17 grades but the same chemical composition and two aggregates comprising a typical siliceous
18 rock (granite) and carboniferous rock (limestone) were used in this study. The functional
19 groups of bitumen were characterised with the help of Fourier Transform Infrared
20 Spectroscopy (FTIR). Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) was used to analyse the surface
21 morphology of aggregate, while the Mineral Liberation Analyser (MLA) focused on the
22 mineral composition and mineral distribution of aggregate surface [5]. The Pneumatic
23 Adhesion Tensile Testing Instrument (PATTI) was used to evaluate the tensile strength of
24 different bitumen-aggregate combinations. This was thought to be an accurate method to not
25 only determine the mechanical tensile strength of bitumen or bitumen-aggregate interface, but
26 also identify the type of failure, either adhesive or cohesive, through the digital camera

1 connected with the PATTI equipment [6]. An Environmental chamber was employed in this
2 research to condition the specimens in order to perform the PATTI test over a wide range of
3 temperatures (from -10°C to 40°C). Furthermore, the fracture energy and normalised toughness
4 of different bitumen-aggregate combinations were characterised at a steady loading speed using
5 the Peel Test. In this research, Peel Tests were performed under different film thicknesses, with
6 the purpose of analysing the influence of film thickness on fracture energy.

7 8 2. Adhesive and Cohesive Testing

9
10 The bonding between bitumen and aggregate has been attracting attention since the 1930s [7-
11 9]. Over the last three decades, many theories and test methods have been developed for the
12 purpose of studying the bitumen-aggregate interface. In order to understand the mechanisms
13 of bitumen-aggregate adhesion, principles such as chemical bonding theory [10], electrostatic
14 theory [11], mechanical theory [12] and thermodynamic theory [13] have been used by many
15 researchers. According to these theories, aggregate which contains more Ca, Al and Mg [14]
16 and has a porous, slightly rough surface [15] is likely to give good adhesion with bitumen.
17 While, bitumens which have more carboxylic acids and sulfoxides [16] and good wettability
18 will bond well with aggregate. Testing methods such as the boiling water test and immersion
19 test are used to characterise the adhesive properties of uncompacted mixes, but none of these
20 tests can quantify adhesion [17]. The Indirect Tensile Test [18], Hamburg Wheel Tracking
21 Device [19] and Saturation Ageing Tensile Stiffness (SATS) test [3, 20-22] are methods which
22 focus on compacted mixtures to predict their degradation under simulated conditioning.

23 The fracture mechanics of bitumen have been studied with the utilisation of 3-Point Bending
24 [23], Plug Pull-Out [24] and Double Cantilever Beam [25]. Furthermore, the bonding strength
25 between two different pavement layers has been measured with the help of pull-off and shear
26 tests [26]. These methods mentioned before have been used for several years and considered

1 to be realistic, but cannot accurately characterise the mechanical properties of thin bitumen
2 films and bitumen-aggregate interfaces under the effect of temperature and film thickness.
3 Previous research has shown that there are several factors which may influence cohesion of a
4 bitumen film and adhesion of a bitumen-aggregate interface, including the nature and the
5 thickness of bituminous binder, the type of aggregate and temperature. Kinloch [27] found that
6 the bonding strength of polymeric adhesives measured using the Peel Test was inversely
7 proportional to the film thickness. The Peel Test has also been shown to be a suitable method
8 to measure the fracture energy of bitumen-aggregate interfaces with this parameter providing
9 a characteristic value for the failure of the joint [28]. Bitumen with a low penetration grade
10 tends to give a strong bond with aggregate while temperature plays an important role in terms
11 of bonding strength and failure type. Genin and Cebon [24] observed that a combination of
12 brittle fracture in the bitumen and fracture along the interface between bitumen and substrate
13 was the mechanism of failure at low temperatures. However at high temperatures, the failure
14 mechanism changed to void coalescence and void growth. For aggregates, granite tends to form
15 a strong bond with bitumen in comparison with limestone because of their mineral composition
16 [29].

17 18 3. Materials

19 20 3.1 Bitumen

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22 Two base bitumens with penetration grades of 40/60 pen and 70/100 pen were used in this
23 research study. For the 40/60 pen bitumen, the penetration is 46 (dmm) at 25°C with a softening
24 point of 51.2°C. While for the 70/100 pen bitumen, the penetration is 81 (dmm) at 25°C and
25 the softening point is 45.2°C.

26 The functional groups of the bitumen were characterised by means of Fourier Transform
27 Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR) using an Agilent 670 FTIR spectrometer and the procedure
28 suggested by Marsac et al [30]. The process involved firstly placing a small amount of bitumen

1 (10mg) onto the scanning window of the apparatus. During testing, the beam used in the FTIR
2 test is generated by starting with a broadband light source which contains the full spectrum of
3 wavelengths to be measured. This beam containing multiple frequencies of light was shone at
4 the specimen with the detector used to measure how much of that beam was absorbed by the
5 sample. This process is repeated a number of times and the data analysed to determine the
6 absorption at each wavelength.

7 Figure 1 illustrates the infrared spectroscopy curves of the 40/60 pen and 70/100 pen bitumen
8 at 25°C. According to previous research [31], the absorption peaks at 2921cm^{-1} and 2852cm^{-1}
9 correspond to C-H asymmetrical stretching. The absorption peak of S=O is at 1030cm^{-1} , which
10 is used to detect the existence of sulfoxides. In terms of carboxylic acids, their C=O and C-O
11 stretch absorption peaks are at $1730\text{-}1700\text{cm}^{-1}$ and $1320\text{-}1210\text{cm}^{-1}$, respectively. It can be seen
12 that the absorbance of the 40/60 pen and 70/100 pen bitumen are nearly identical. The
13 functional groups which can contribute to the bitumen-aggregate bonding, such as sulfoxides
14 and carboxylic acids, can be detected from FTIR curves, but their components are very small.

15 16 3.2 Aggregates

17
18 Two types of aggregates were evaluated in this research. These two aggregates (limestone and
19 granite) have considerable differences in terms of their mineral composition and surface
20 morphology and therefore the bonding strength of the bitumen-aggregate interface associated
21 with them. SEM was used to analyse the surface morphology of aggregates to observe and
22 analyse the apparent shape, porosity size and even surface texture of the aggregate.

23 Before testing, samples were prepared by pressing an adhesive patch which was attached to an
24 aluminium stub onto filter paper covered with aggregate particles. A minimum of two samples
25 from each filter paper were prepared and then coated with platinum to minimise surface
26 charging. To observe these specimens, a Philips XL30 SEM equipped with a field emission

1 gun was operated at an accelerating voltage of 20 kV. The images were taken in both the
2 secondary electron (SE) and back-scattered electron (BSE) imaging mode.

3 Figures 2 and 3 show SEM micrographs of limestone and granite using both SE and BSE. From
4 Figure 2 (a) it is clear that the surface texture of limestone is loosely organised with coarse
5 fractions and has a rough surface. The rough surface will result in more area being available to
6 interact with the bitumen. The crystal particles have different sizes but most of them are less
7 than 10 μm in dimension. It can be seen from Figure 2 (b) that the limestone surface has many
8 pores with sizes from 2-10 μm . However, differences in terms of mineral phase cannot be
9 detected; this reveals that the mineral composition of limestone is very uniform. In contrast,
10 the granite has a delicate texture and dense structure, as shown in Figure 3 (a). The crystalline
11 grains are partly oriented vertically to the granite surface and form a smoother surface.
12 According to Figure 3 (b), it is hard to detect any pores on the granite surface but it does consist
13 of many different types of mineral phases. This reveals that the size of pores is very small and
14 the mineral composition is very complex.

15 A MLA was used to analyse the mineral properties, mineral texture and grain size of
16 aggregates. Samples were first prepared by casting aggregates in resin followed by polishing
17 of the surface. Then, carbon coating was applied to get an electron conductive surface. An FEI
18 Quanta 600 SEM with MLA capability was used for the mineral analysis. This setup combined
19 an automated SEM and multiple Energy Dispersive X-ray detectors with automated
20 quantitative mineralogy software. During testing, the SEM collects BSE images and energy
21 dispersive X-ray data for a series of frames step by step across the specimen surface.
22 Measurement of the backscattered electron intensities allows for the segmentation of mineral
23 phases within each particle section, while EDX analysis of a given phase allows for phase
24 identification.

1 As shown in Figure 4, minerals in the granite sample exhibit considerable texture and the
2 distribution is more complex, while the limestone surface is simple and calcite makes up almost
3 all of the area. Small quartz grains are also well-distributed in the calcite minerals in the
4 limestone sample. These results correlated well with the SEM results.

5 Summaries of the limestone and granite mineral composition, as determined by MLA, are
6 provided in Tables 1 and 2, respectively. For the limestone sample, calcite (CaCO_3) is the
7 predominant phase when compared to the other minerals present, with 99.33% by weight.
8 Other minerals, including quartz and iron-oxide, are only present at less than 1%. Albite
9 ($\text{NaAlSi}_3\text{O}_8$) is the dominant mineral in granite with a presence of 73.17% by weight, followed
10 by chlorite and anorthite, which account for 15.58% and 10.75% respectively. In addition, there
11 are small amounts of apatite and iron-oxide, both of which only account for 0.5%. The chemical
12 compositions of these two aggregates are shown in Table 3. The predominant elemental species
13 in the limestone and granite are Ca and Si, respectively. This difference in chemical
14 composition may affect the mechanical properties of the bitumen-aggregate interface.

15

16 4. Experimental Procedures

17

18 4.1 Pneumatic Adhesion Tensile Testing Instrument (PATTI) Test

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20 The PATTI equipment was used to evaluate the fracture strength of a bitumen-aggregate
21 sample geometry either in terms of the cohesive bond strength of the bitumen or the adhesive
22 bond strength of the bitumen-aggregate interface. This equipment was developed by the
23 National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) with the equipment used for the PATTI
24 test shown in Figure 5. The PATTI device is used to measure tensile strength, while the camera
25 is used for the analysis of the failure surface. Figure 6 shows a cross-sectional schematic of the
26 setup of the PATTI with the piston attached to a pull-stub which in turn is attached by means
27 of the bitumen coating to the aggregate substrate.

1 In order to get a well bonded specimen, the aggregate surface and the pull-stub should be wiped
2 carefully using a damp paper towel to remove any dust. After that, the aggregate and pull-stub
3 are placed in an oven and heated to a temperature of 70°C for one hour. The bitumen must be
4 heated to 150°C for 1 hour to allow it to be fluid enough to coat the aggregate plate. The liquid
5 bitumen is then poured onto a prepared aggregate plate (with the dimensions of 100mm x
6 100mm x 20mm) which is pressed immediately by a metal pull-stub to establish a good
7 bitumen-aggregate bond. In this process the film thickness of bitumen was controlled by the
8 pull-stub itself to make sure all specimens have a 0.8mm bitumen film, as shown in Figure 7.
9 Finally, the excess bitumen at the edge of pull-stub should be removed by using a heated pallet
10 knife.

11 During the test, air pressure generated by the PATTI is transmitted to the piston which is placed
12 over the pull stub and screwed onto the reaction plate. The air pressure induces an airtight seal
13 formed between the piston gasket and the aggregate surface. A constant rate of pulling pressure,
14 which is set in the pressure control panel, is applied to the sample. The test generates data in
15 the form of tensile pressure versus testing time which is recorded by the data acquisition
16 system. The maximum tensile pressure to separate the bitumen from substrate is captured by
17 the software. This pressure is converted to its pull-off tensile strength, as expressed in the
18 following equation:

$$19 \quad POTS = \frac{(BP \times A_g) - C}{A_{ps}} \quad (1)$$

20 where, *POTS* is the pull-off tensile strength (kPa), *BP* is air pressure (kPa), *A_g* is the contact
21 area of gasket with relation plate (mm²), *C* is the piston constant and *A_{ps}* is the area of pull-
22 stub (mm²).

23 24 4.2 Peel Test 25

1 The Peel Test is a method for measuring the fracture energy of flexible laminates. A flexible
2 arm and a rigid substrate are bonded using the adhesive. The force is applied to the flexible
3 arm so as to pull it apart from the rigid substrate at a constant rate. During this process, fracture
4 occurs along the length of the bond. In this research, the aggregate is the rigid substrate, which
5 is bonded to the aluminium peel arm using bitumen as the adhesive layer with a range of
6 thicknesses from 0.2mm to 0.9mm.

7 The sample preparation consists of the following steps [32]:

- 8 1. Surface pre-treatment. Aggregate surface and peel arm are wiped gently using a damp
9 paper towel to remove any dust.
- 10 2. Pre-heating the aggregate and the bitumen. The aggregate and peel arm are then placed
11 in an oven at 150°C for 1 hour. Bitumen is preheated to 150°C prior to making the joint.
- 12 3. Placing the sharp crack initiator. A release film (PTFE) of dimensions 12 mm × 12 mm
13 × 75 µm is placed on the aggregate surface at one end.
- 14 4. Five wire spacers with a length of 20 mm are placed on the aggregate. The diameter of
15 the wire controls the thickness of the bitumen (adhesive) layer.
- 16 5. The liquid bitumen is applied (at 150°C) evenly along the surface of the aggregate.
- 17 6. The preheated aluminium peel arm (of length 50 mm longer than the aggregate and of
18 thickness 0.2 mm) is placed on the top of the bitumen layer.
- 19 7. Gentle pressure is applied on top of the joint to control the thickness of the bitumen layer.
20 The pressure should be uniformly distributed over the bond area. The bonded specimen
21 is then cooled at ambient temperature overnight. The excess adhesive at the edges of the
22 specimen should be trimmed with a heated knife.

23 An Instron 5969 machine which can supply a constant rate of grip separation was used to
24 measure the tensile force during the peel test. The sample was attached to a linear bearing to
25 get a highly accurate and smooth motion during testing. The linear bearing is then attached to

1 the Instron machine. During the test, the free end of the peel arm was bent to an applied peel
 2 angle of 90° and this angle is maintained by the linear bearing system, as shown in Figure 8.
 3 According to equation 2, the displacement velocity of the cross-head of the Instron machine
 4 was equivalent to the fracture displacement velocity when the peel angle is 90°:

$$5 \quad R = \dot{C}/(1 - \cos\theta) \quad (2)$$

6 where, R is the peel rate, \dot{C} is the crosshead displacement rate and θ is the peel angle.

7 A peel speed of 10 mm/min was used in this test. The tensile force was recorded during the
 8 fracture development so as to calculate the fracture energy in the next step. The fracture energy,
 9 G_a , is considered to be a geometry-independent parameter which reflects (a) the energy to break
 10 the interfacial bonding forces and (b) the energy dissipated locally ahead of the peel front in
 11 the plastic or viscoelastic zone. The input energy to the Peel Test needs to be resolved into the
 12 various deformation energies; elastic, plastic and adhesive fracture energy [33]. The adhesive
 13 fracture energy G_a can be derived as follows:

$$14 \quad G_a = \frac{1}{b} \left(\frac{dU_{ext}}{da} - \frac{dU_s}{da} - \frac{dU_{dt}}{da} - \frac{dU_{db}}{da} \right) \quad (3)$$

15 where, dU_{ext} is the external work, dU_s is the stored strain energy in the peeling arm, dU_{dt} is
 16 the energy dissipated during tensile deformation of the peeling arm and dU_{db} is the energy
 17 dissipated during bending of the peeling arm near the peel front.

18 In order to calculate the plastic deformation energy associated with the peel arm, it is first
 19 necessary to have knowledge of the tensile stress-strain characteristics of the peel arm material.

20 So, the aluminium peel arm was subjected to tensile testing at the same cross-head speed.

21

22 5. Results and discussion

23

24 5.1 PATTI cohesive and adhesive bond strength measurements

25

26 In order to characterise the influence of temperature on the bond strength, the PATTI test was

27 performed at six temperatures from -10°C to 40°C at 10°C intervals. Samples were conditioned

1 in an environmental chamber for 3 hours to get a homogeneous temperature distribution.
2 During the test, a constant rate of air pressure was applied to get repeatable results.

3
4 *5.1.1 Influence of temperature and bitumen type*

5
6 Figure 9 shows examples of the applied pressure (tensile strength) versus time at different
7 temperatures for samples prepared with the 40/60 pen bitumen and a granite substrate. It can
8 be seen that the increase of applied pressure versus time at different temperatures is almost
9 identical, confirming the successful application of a constant rate of pulling pressure for these
10 tests. The specimen response is characterised by the linear increase in pressure (tensile stress)
11 until the pressure exceeds the cohesive strength of the bitumen or the adhesive strength of the
12 bitumen-aggregate system and suddenly decreases to zero. Failure can be taken to occur at the
13 peak pressure (tensile stress) and is defined as the pull-off tensile strength.

14 Four tests (similar to those shown in Figure 9) were performed for each bitumen-aggregate
15 combination at each temperature and the average tensile strength versus temperature curves, as
16 well as the error bars which represent the standard deviation of original data, are shown in
17 Figure 10. From this figure it can be seen that in the temperature range from -10°C to 10°C,
18 the tensile strength of all four combinations of bitumen and aggregates shows an increasing
19 trend from between 1500 and 2500kPa to between 2500 and 3500kPa. However, as the
20 temperature exceeds 10°C, all the specimens experienced a steady decline in terms of tensile
21 strength with values dropping to only about 500kPa at 40°C. It should be pointed out that the
22 lowest temperature does not correspond to the highest tensile strength. This phenomenon is in
23 agreement with the relationship found for tensile strength versus bitumen stiffness modulus as
24 shown in Figure 11 [34]. These results show an equivalent behavior where very high stiffness
25 modulus (low temperatures) results in lower tensile strength [35].

26 As expected based on previous studies [28], samples prepared with 40/60 pen bitumen have a
27 higher tensile strength than those prepared with 70/100 pen bitumen from 0°C to 40°C. It can

1 therefore be concluded that bitumen with low penetration and high softening point can develop
2 a stronger bond with aggregate under dry conditions.

3
4 *5.1.2 Influence of Aggregate Type*

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6 In the temperature range from -10°C to 10°C, as shown in Figure 10, tensile strengths for 40/60
7 pen bitumen and granite combination are over 10% higher when compared with those prepared
8 with limestone aggregate. For 70/100 pen bitumen, this phenomenon only occurred at -10°C
9 and 0°C due to the lower brittle to ductile transition temperature associated with the softer
10 bitumen. A digital image of the failure surfaces at the end of the PATTI test were captured
11 using the equipment's integrated camera for all the bitumen-aggregate combinations at all six
12 test temperatures. Images of the failure pattern for the 40/60 pen bitumen with granite aggregate
13 substrate are shown in Figure 12. From Figure 12 (a-c) it can be seen that failure surfaces from
14 -10°C to 10°C exhibit cohesive-adhesive mix mode failure with some adhesive failure
15 occurring at the edge of failure surfaces. This implies that the cohesive strength of bitumen is
16 stronger than the adhesive strength of the bitumen-aggregate interface. It also means that the
17 tensile fracture strength when adhesive failure occurs is influenced by the mineral properties
18 of aggregate. As granite contains more Si and Al, which can form strong chemical bonds with
19 carboxylic acids and sulfoxides in bitumen under dry conditions, the tensile strengths for the
20 two granite-bitumen combinations were greater than the two limestone-bitumen combinations.
21 This meant that at -10°C, the two types of bitumen (40/60 pen and the softer 70/100 pen) tended
22 to have the same tensile strength with the same aggregate.

23 With temperature increase, the two aggregates seem to give the same tensile strength. This is
24 due to the failure mechanism changing from adhesive to cohesive failure as shown in Figure
25 12(d-f). The adhesive strength at the bitumen-aggregate interface exceeds the bitumen cohesive
26 strength at temperatures of 20°C and higher. In this region, the mineral properties of the
27 aggregate cannot influence the tensile fracture strength results.

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5.1.3 Failure surface analysis

From -10°C to 10°C, as shown in Figure 12 for the 40/60 pen bitumen with granite aggregate substrate, the failure surfaces are flat and shiny and their texture is smooth. In addition, there is no evidence of voiding being observed in these specimens. Within this temperature region, the 40/60 pen bitumen can be considered to behave in a brittle manner. As bitumen, aggregate and the steel stub have different Poisson's ratios and Young's Moduli, when load is applied to the specimen, it is impossible to get the same tensile stress everywhere, as the stress distribution is non-uniform. Also, during sample preparation, it is hard to get ideal adhesion without any physical defect around the edge, especially at the bitumen-aggregate interface. The faults existing around the film edge play an important role as stress concentrators. During the test, the stress which is applied to the specimen is focused on these faults to cause the fracture to start at these points. At the same time with temperature decrease, the bitumen becomes harder and more likely to experience a brittle-type failure mode. This brittle failure, together with the shift from cohesive to adhesive failure, results in a decrease in the tensile fracture strength as the temperature decreases from 10°C to -10°C.

When the temperature is over 20°C, several round voids exist on the failure surfaces. With increasing temperature, the size of the voids increase but the quantity (number) of voids decreases. This is because the bitumen transforms from brittle behavior to ductile behavior as the temperature increases. The void formation can be explained by the flow and voiding failure mechanisms for ductile failure of bitumen films [25]. At low aspect ratios $A = D/h$ (film diameter D and thickness h), no voiding is observed and the material flows over the central area of the specimen. If the specimen has high aspect ratio but very low strain rate, voids are formed during the fracture process but they do not leave visible evidence on the final surface. When samples have aspect ratios in the range of 8-100, voids nucleate and coalesce. In this test, the aspect ratio of the sample is over 25, so all failures behave with this voiding mechanism

1 at high temperatures. For samples at 20°C, voids are visible but do not fully coalesce on the
2 failure surface because the binder viscosity is still relatively high at this temperature. With
3 temperature increase, binder viscosity decreases gradually so that it can flow more easily and
4 small voids combine into bigger voids.

5 6 5.2 Peel Test

7 8 5.2.1 Parameter calculations

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10 The tensile stress-strain test of the peel arm was performed at a speed of 10mm/min until
11 fracture occurred. The tensile stress-strain curve is shown in Figure 13. In order to describe the
12 elastic and plastic deformation of the peel arm, the stress-strain curve should be fitted according
13 to a bi-linear or power law form [28]. The purpose of the bi-linear and power law curve fits is
14 to get a number of parameters which are used to calculate the fracture energy.

15 When $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_y$,

$$16 \quad \sigma = E_1 \varepsilon \quad (4)$$

17 When $\varepsilon > \varepsilon_y$, according to the power law work hardening model:

$$18 \quad \sigma = \sigma_y \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon_y} \right)^n \quad (5)$$

19 According to the bi-linear model:

$$20 \quad \sigma = \sigma_y + \alpha E_1 (\varepsilon - \varepsilon_y) \quad (6)$$

21 where σ_y is yield stress and ε_y is the yield strain, E_1 is the elastic modulus of the peel arm, n
22 is the work hardening coefficient of the peel arm, α is the ratio of plastic modulus to elastic
23 modulus, E_2/E_1 .

24 The measured stress-strain curve was modelled using the bi-linear model and power law model
25 as shown in Figures 14 and 15, respectively. From these two figures it can be seen that both
26 models provide an acceptable fit with the measured data. Table 4 shows the parameters gained
27 from the fitting process.

1 The same bitumen and aggregate combinations as used in the PATTI test were used in the Peel
2 Test. Five steel washer with thicknesses from 0.2mm to 0.9mm were used to control the
3 thickness of the bitumen film. All peel tests were conducted at 20°C with a speed of 10mm/min,
4 which is the same condition as for the peel arm stress-strain test. The tensile force was recorded
5 by the Instron machine during testing and the tensile strength versus displacement curve was
6 plotted, as shown in Figure 16. It was observed that the tensile force remained at an
7 approximately constant value after the initial stage. This means that the fracture experienced a
8 steady propagation. Normally, at least 50mm of constant crack propagation region will be
9 defined with the average value of the tensile force being calculated as shown in Figure 16. This
10 average tensile force was used to calculate the values of the bitumen-aggregate fracture energy.
11 Four tests were performed on each bitumen-aggregate combination. The average force of each
12 sample and the parameters in Table 4 were entered into the Microsoft Excel macro IC Peel
13 software to calculate fracture energy [36]. Fracture energy results in terms of both the bi-linear
14 model and power law model were calculated. For all tests, the fracture energy calculated
15 according to the bi-linear model is slightly higher than that from the power law model, but the
16 difference is less than 5%. Therefore it is possible to select either model to analyse the different
17 bitumen-aggregate combinations. In this research, the bi-linear model was employed for the
18 analysis.

19 20 *5.2.2 Influence of bitumen and aggregate*

21
22 Figure 17 shows the average fracture energy of specimens with a film thickness of 0.25mm
23 according to the bi-linear model, while the error bars are the standard deviation of the original
24 results. It is clear that specimens prepared with 70/100 pen bitumen have lower fracture energy
25 than those with 40/60 pen bitumen. This is because 40/60 pen bitumen is stiffer than 70/100
26 pen bitumen, so higher stresses are needed to break (fracture) the binder cohesively. This was
27 in good agreement with the PATTI test results. When considering the same bitumen, samples

1 prepared with the two aggregates tended to yield almost the same result. This was because the
2 samples exhibited cohesive failure at 20°C. As explained in section 5.1.2, the aggregate
3 properties cannot influence the bonding strength of the peel test sample when cohesive failure
4 occurs.

5 6 *5.2.3 Influence of film thickness*

7
8 With the purpose of characterising the influence of film thickness on fracture energy, the Peel
9 Test was carried out with two bitumen types and limestone substrates with thicknesses from
10 0.2mm to 0.9mm in five steps: 0.2mm, 0.25mm, 0.38mm, 0.5mm, and 0.9mm. Figure 18
11 illustrates the change in fracture energy due to the increase of film thickness. In terms of failure
12 mode, all failure surfaces exhibited cohesive rupture, as shown in Figure 19. As the bitumen
13 film thickness was increased, the fracture energy of these two types of bitumen experienced a
14 steady increase as more energy was dissipated in the bulk of the bitumen binder. This could be
15 attributed to the increased viscous flow of the base bitumen as the bitumen film became thicker.
16 Furthermore, large differences in the magnitude of fracture energy were shown between these
17 two types of bitumen. The fracture energy for 40/60 pen bitumen exceeded that of the 70/100
18 pen bitumen for every film thickness. This was in good agreement with the measured tensile
19 strength of the bitumen using the PATTI test.

20 If the fracture energy is divided by its film thickness, it gives the normalised toughness of each
21 specimen. According to previous researchers, the normalised toughness is a better
22 characterisation parameter than the energy per unit area for ductile thin films, since there is no
23 clearly defined area of fracture surface created in the ductile failure process [25]. Figure 20
24 presents the relationship between normalised toughness and film thickness. It was illustrated
25 that the normalised toughness of these two types of bitumen decreased when the film thickness
26 increased from 0.2mm to 0.9mm. In this film thickness region, the normalised toughness
27 decreases with bitumen film thickness in a power law relationship. Fitting of the experimental

1 data with a power law function produced coefficients of determination (R^2) of 0.9877 and
2 0.9979 for the 40/60 pen bitumen and 70/100 pen bitumen, respectively. It can be seen that less
3 energy was needed to fracture bitumen of unit area when the film thickness increases from
4 0.2mm to 0.9mm.

5 6 6. Conclusions

7
8 This paper reports findings from an investigation of the bonding strength and fracture energy
9 of different bitumen-aggregate combinations. Several factors, such as bitumen hardness
10 (penetration), surface properties of aggregate, testing temperature and film thickness were
11 considered in this research to analyse their influence on the tensile fracture strength of the
12 bitumen film or the bond strength of the bitumen-aggregate interface. The following major
13 findings can be taken from this study:

- 14 • According to FTIR results, the two types of bitumen have almost the same functional
15 groups and differ only in terms of the penetration grade (hardness). SEM and MLA are
16 reliable methods to characterise the surface properties of aggregate. The limestone
17 aggregate tended to have more surface area to bond with bitumen, while the granite
18 aggregate contained more mineral phases known to provide good adhesion with bitumen.
- 19 • The tensile strength of the bitumen film and the bitumen-aggregate interface measured
20 with the PATTI test was shown to be sensitive to temperature. The failure pattern was
21 shown to change from cohesive failure to mixed cohesive/adhesive failure as the test
22 temperature decreased from 40°C to -10°C. At the same time, the bitumen failure behavior
23 changes from brittle to ductile behavior as the temperature increase from -10°C to 40°C.
24 These combined effects resulted in the maximum tensile fracture strength for the various
25 bitumen-aggregate combinations occurring at approximately 10°C.
- 26 • It was found that aggregate surface properties play an important role in the tensile strength
27 when adhesive failure occurred at low temperatures. The influence of aggregate type

1 indicates that mineral composition seems more important than morphology in terms of
2 bonding with bitumen.

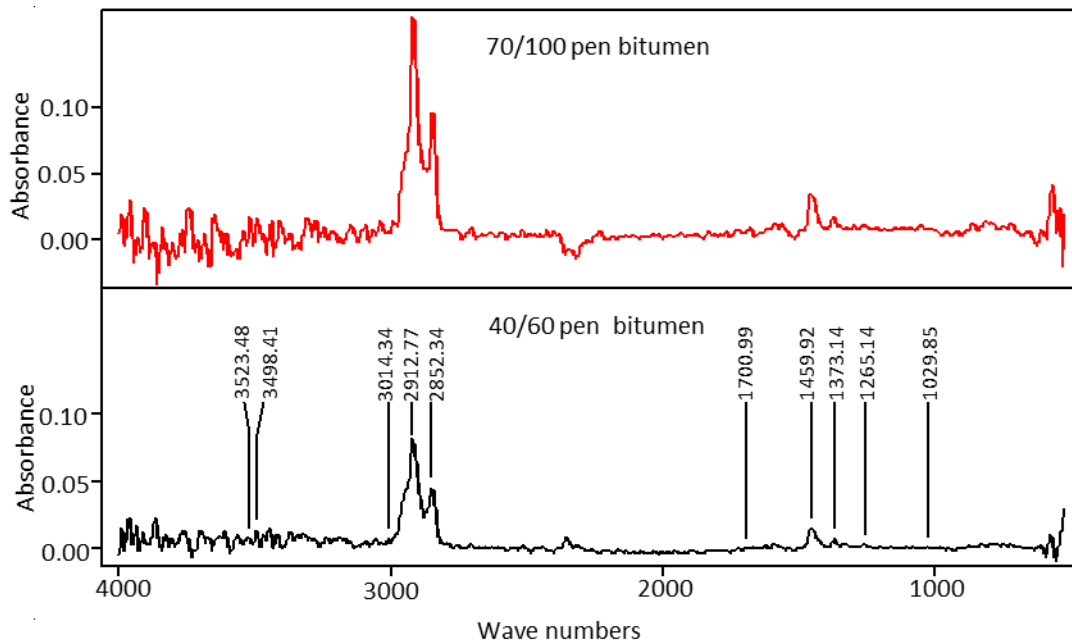
- 3 • The Peel Test is a suitable method to characterise the fracture energy of bitumen films.
4 The surface properties of aggregate cannot influence the fracture energies of specimens
5 with 0.2mm film thickness or greater due to the cohesive failure regime experience with
6 the test at a temperature of 20°C and a displacement rate of 10mm/min under dry
7 conditions. However, bitumen type dominates the magnitude of the fracture energy.
- 8 • As film thickness increases, the fracture energy of the two types of bitumen experienced a
9 steady increase. However, the normalized toughness decreased with increasing film
10 thickness. Since the fracture energy and normalised toughness show film thickness
11 dependency, it is of great importance to prepare specimens in which the bitumen film
12 mirrors mixture film thickness as closely as possible.

13 14 15 16 17 References

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 28 Figure 1. FTIR test result of both base bitumen
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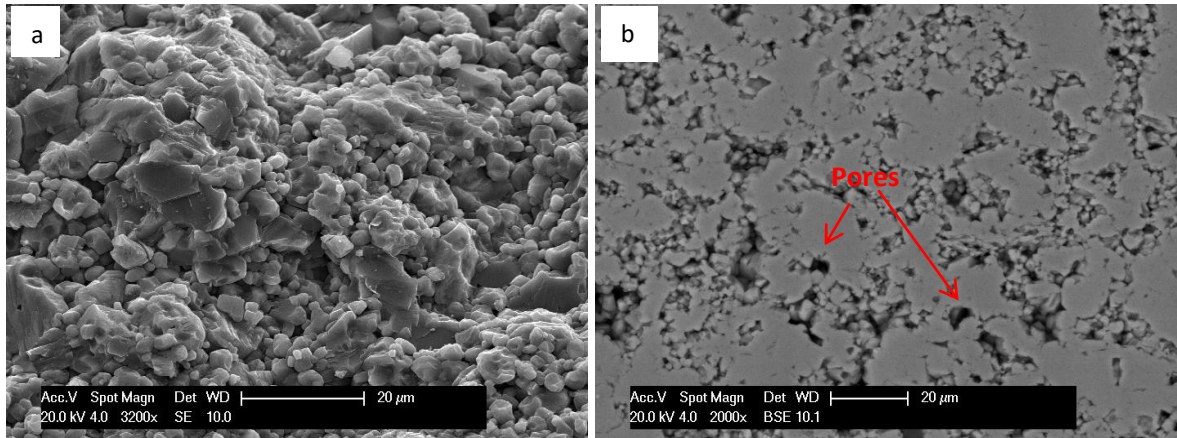


Figure 2. SEM micrographs of limestone in terms of (a) SE and (b) BSE

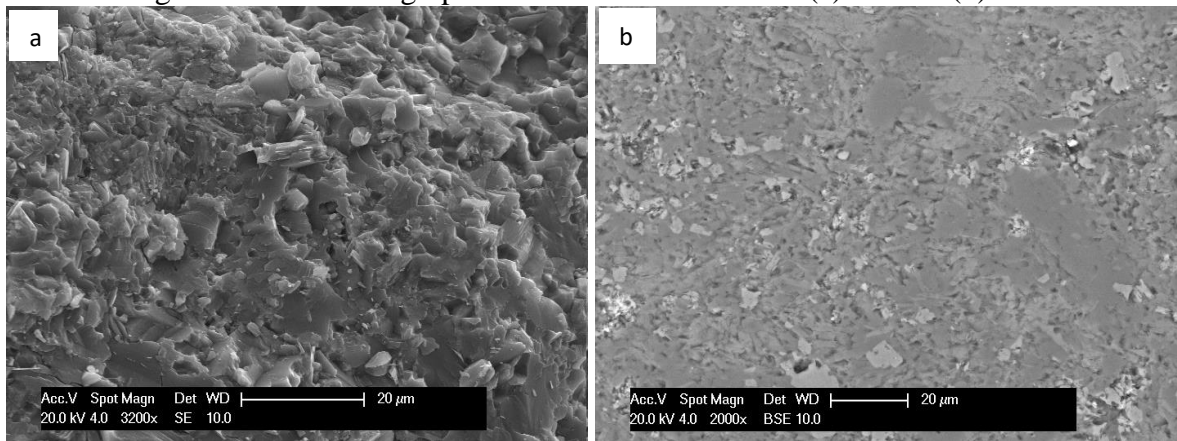


Figure 3. SEM micrographs of granite in terms of (a) SE and (b) BSE

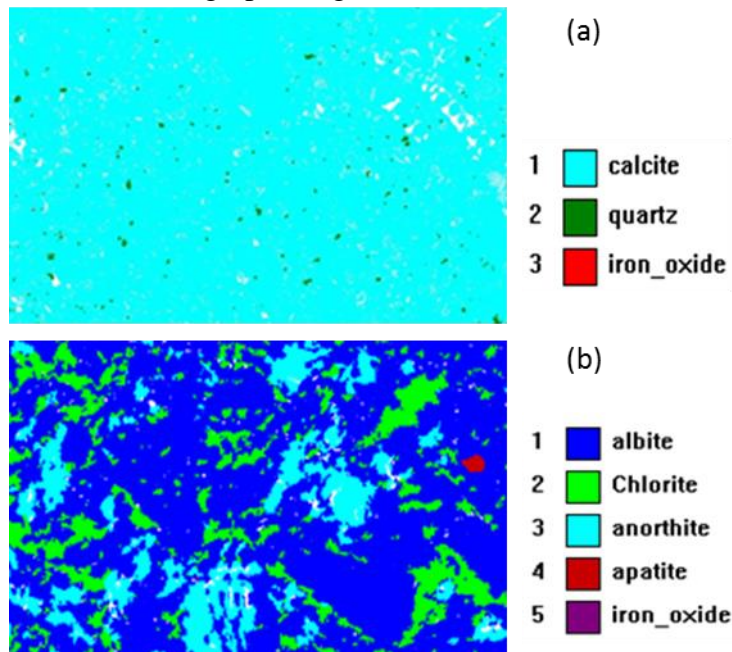
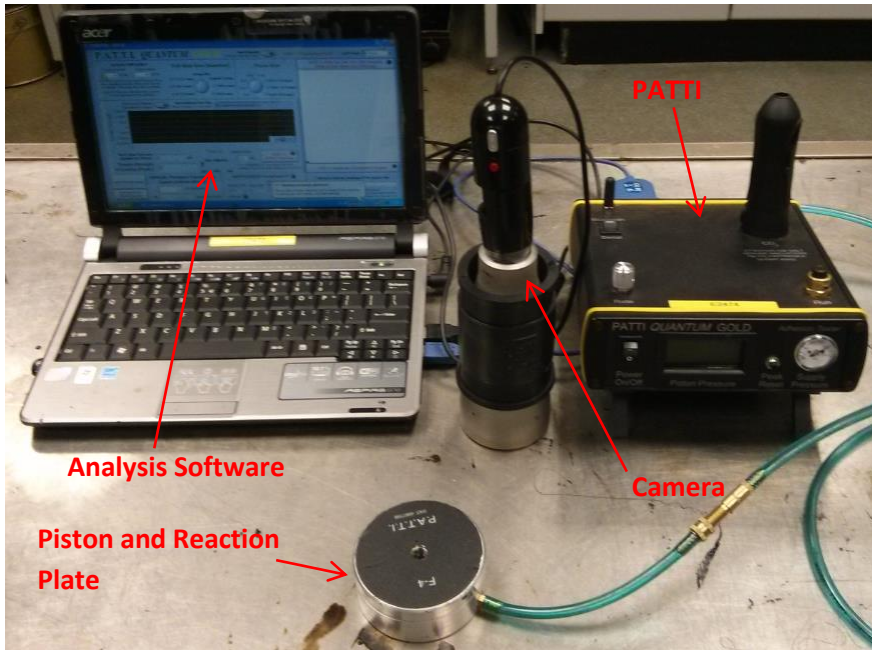
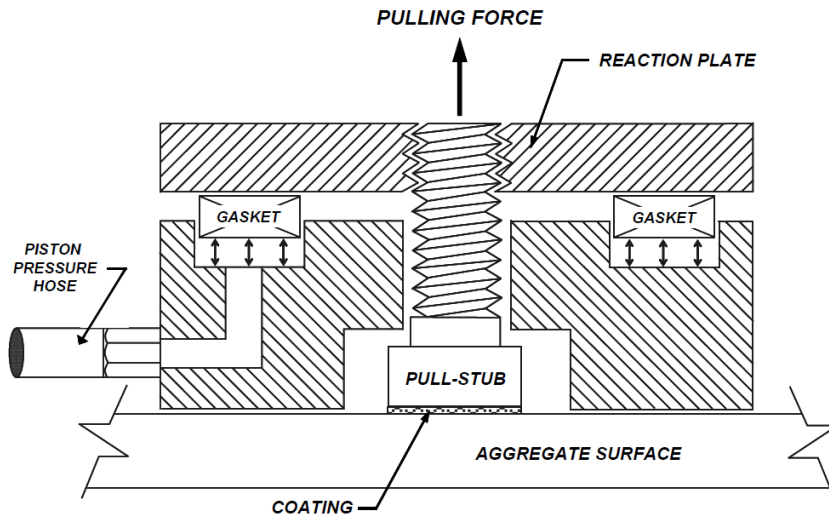


Figure 4. Mineral mosaic of (a) limestone and (b) granite



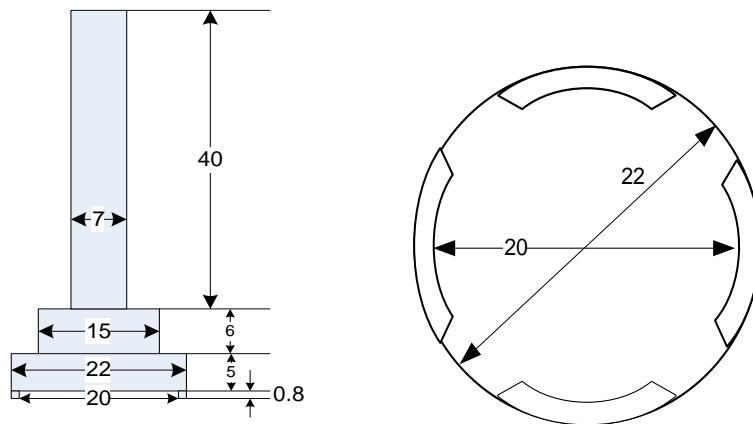
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Figure 5. Equipment associated with PATTI test



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Figure 6. Cross-section view of piston attached to pull-stub [31]



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Figure 7. Pull-stub in profile and bottom views [dimensions in mm]

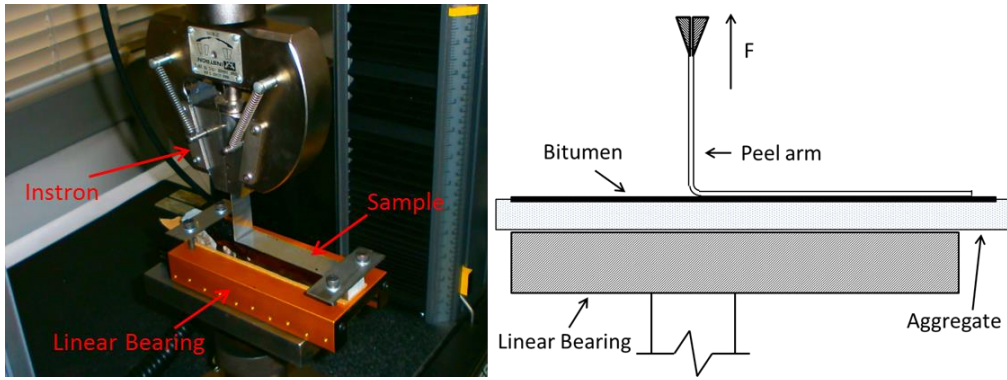


Figure 8. Details of peel test equipment

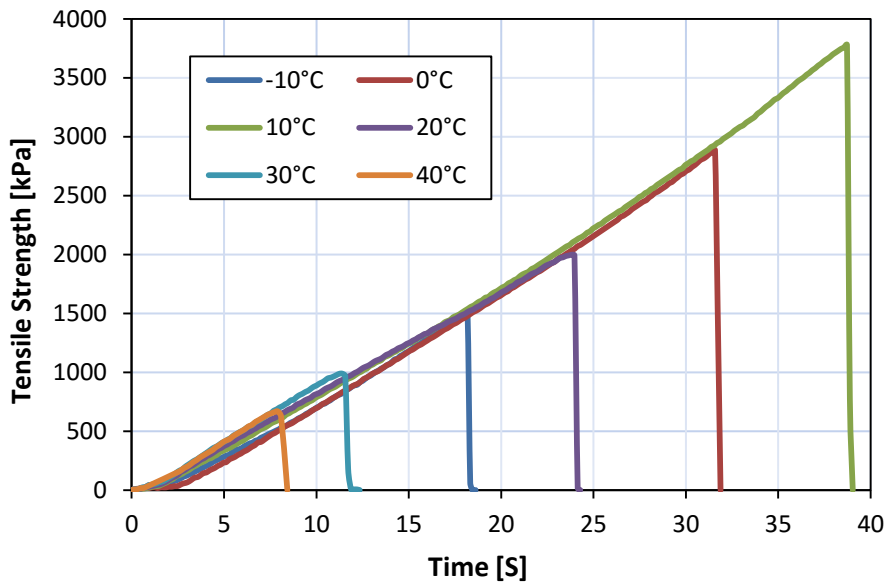


Figure 9. Tensile strength versus loading time

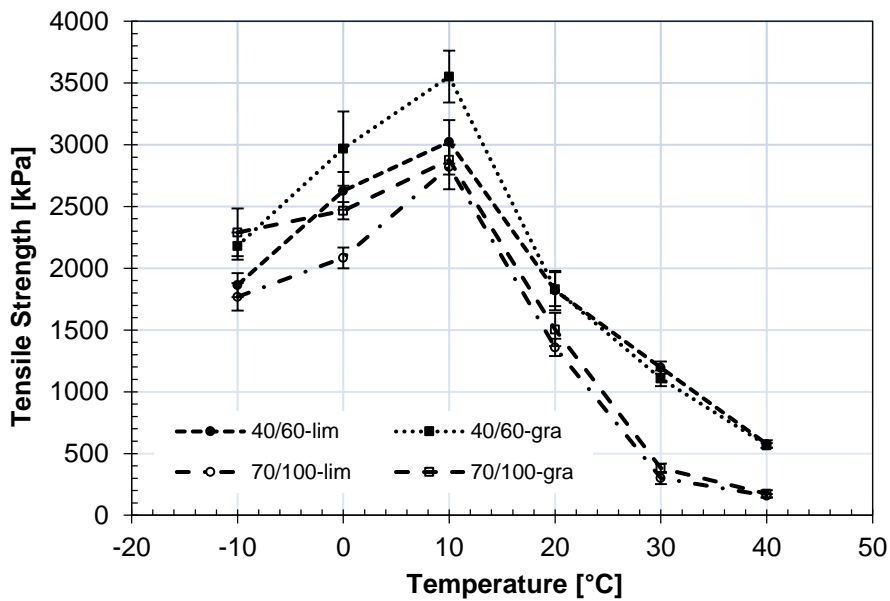
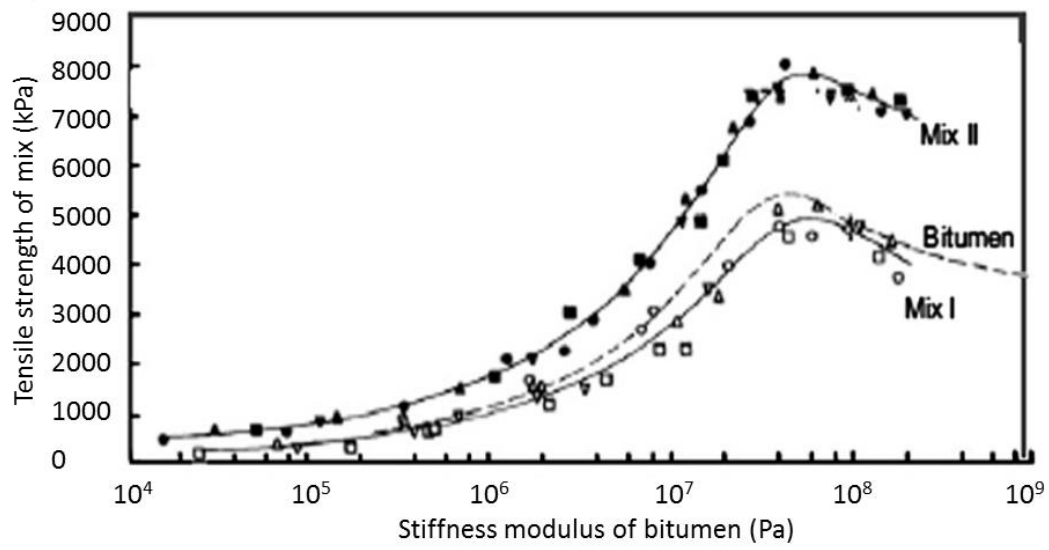


Figure 10. Tensile strengths at different temperatures

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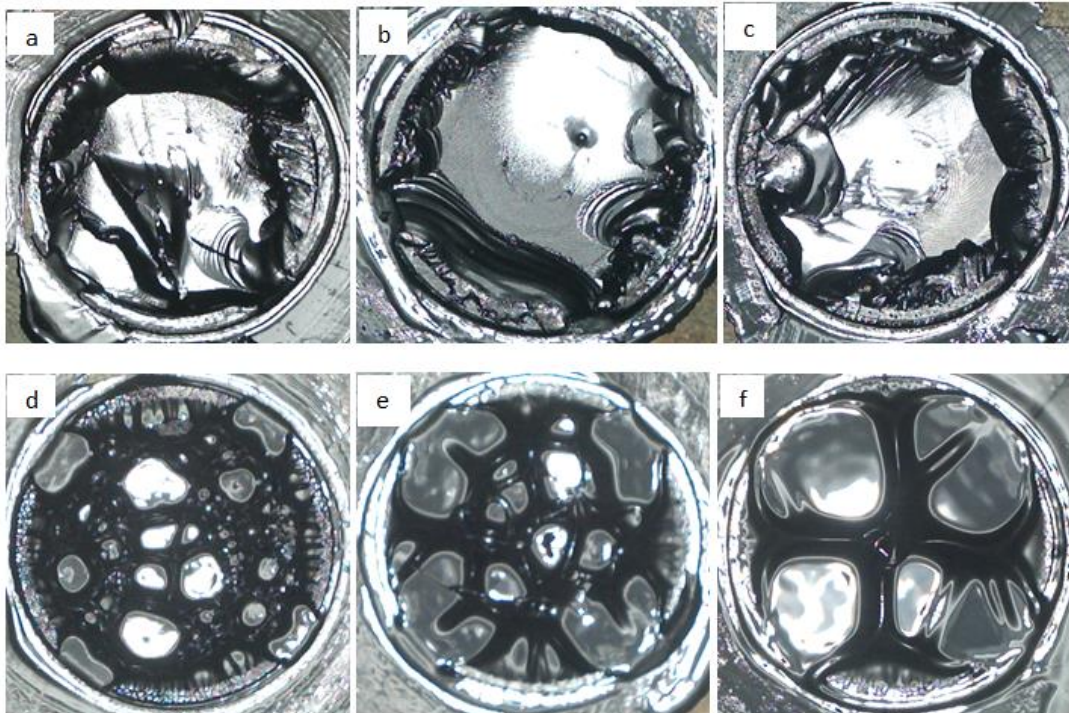
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Figure 11. Bitumen stiffness modulus versus tensile strength reported by Heukelom and Wijga [34]



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Figure 12. Failure surfaces at different temperatures: (a) -10°C, (b) 0°C, (c) 10°C, (d) 20°C, (e) 30°C (f) 40°C.

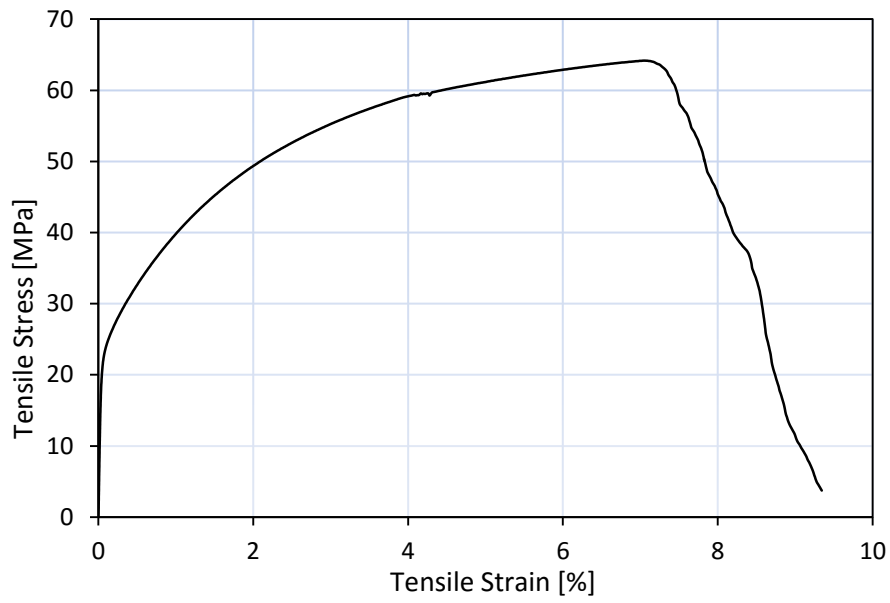


Figure 13. Stress-strain curve of peel arm test

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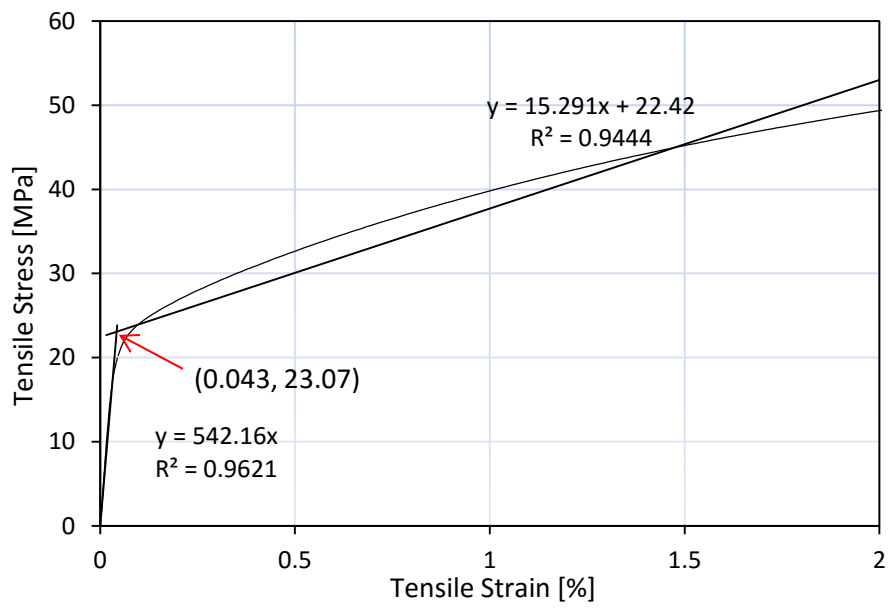


Figure 14. Tensile stress-strain curve fitted using bilinear model

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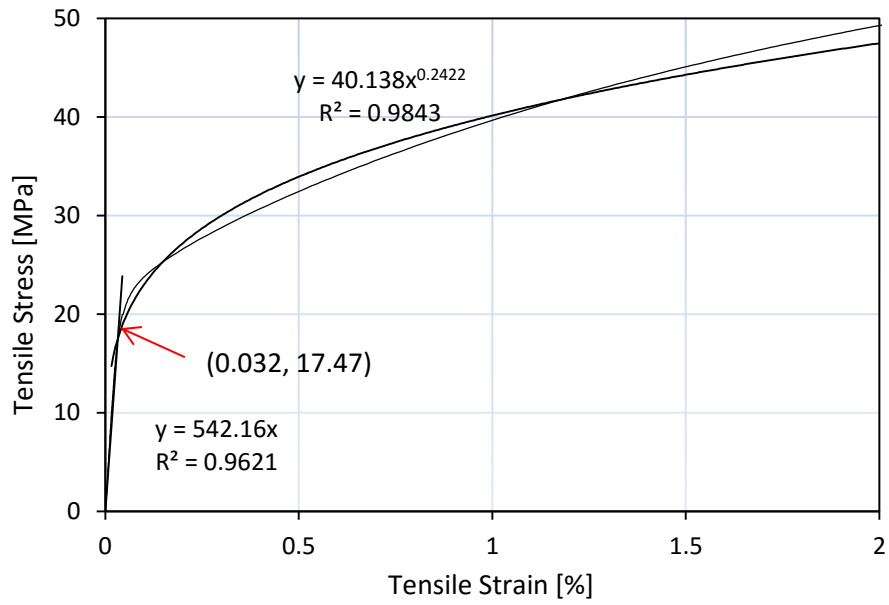


Figure 15. Tensile stress-strain curve fitted using power law model

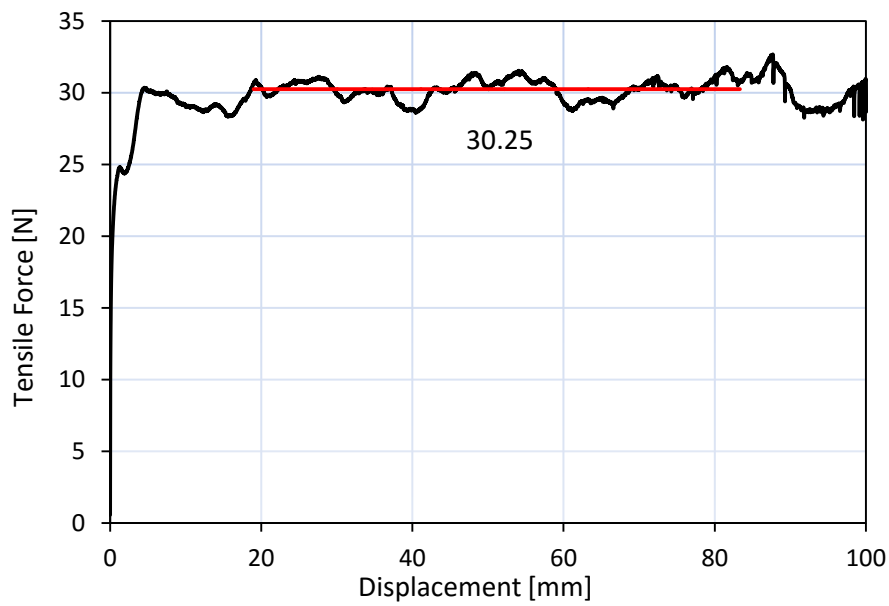


Figure 16. Measured tensile stress-strain curve for specimen prepared by 40/60 pen bitumen and limestone substrate with 0.25mm film thickness

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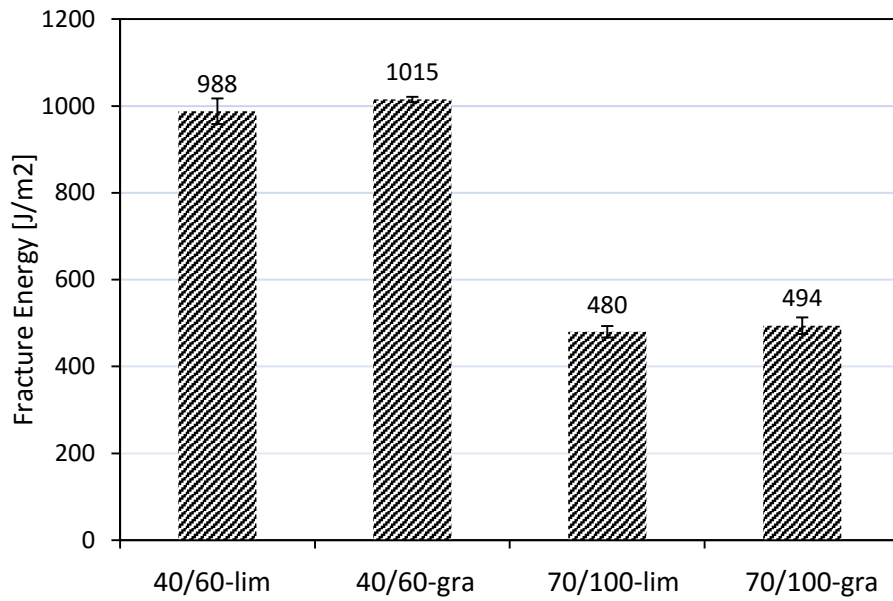


Figure 17. Fracture energy results according to bilinear model

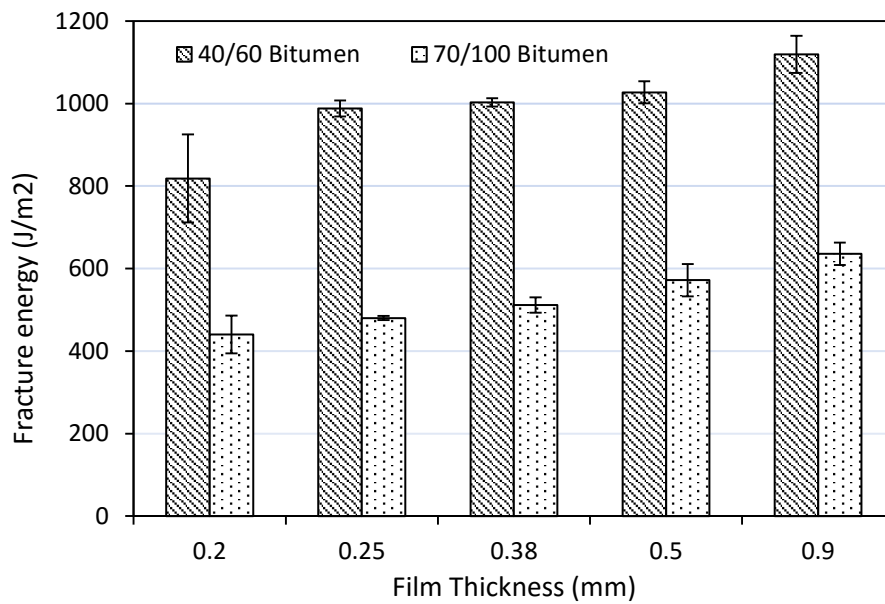


Figure 18. Fracture energy of bitumen-limestone specimen at different film thicknesses

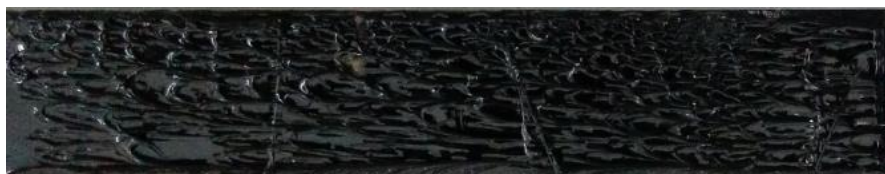


Figure 19. Failure surface of Peel Test specimen with 0.25mm film thickness

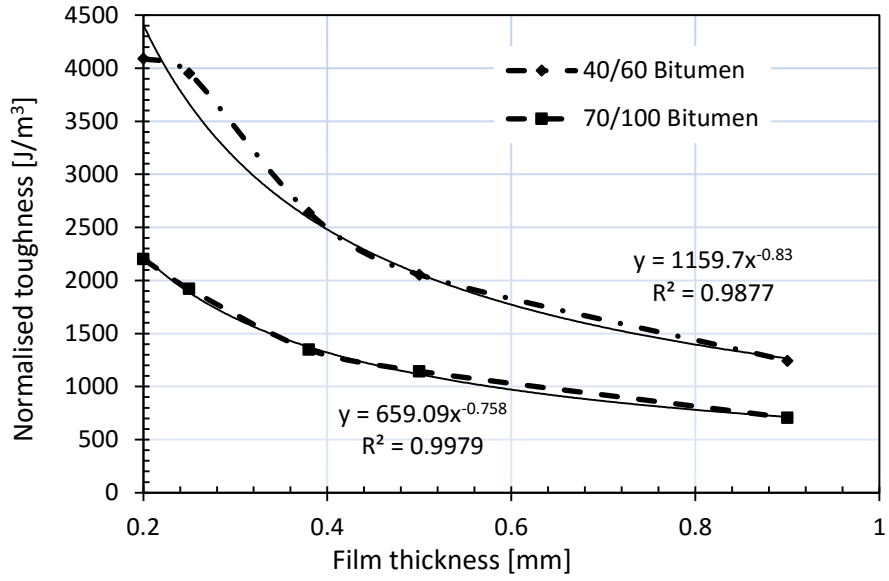


Figure 20. Relationship between normalised toughness and film thickness of bitumen

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Table 1 Mineral composition of limestone identified by MLA analysis

Mineral	Wt%
Calcite	99.33
Quartz	0.65
Iron-oxide	0.02
Total	100.00

Table 2 Mineral composition of granite identified by MLA analysis

Mineral	Wt%
Albite	73.17
Chlorite	15.58
Anorthite	10.75
Apatite	0.17
Iron-oxide	0.33
Total	100.00

1 Table 3 Elemental composition of limestone and granites measured by MLA

Element	Limestone (%)	Granite (%)
C	11.92	0.00
Al	0.00	10.97
Ca	39.78	1.62
F	0.00	0.01
Fe	0.02	3.04
H	0.00	0.20
Mg	0.00	1.84
Na	0.00	6.42
O	47.99	48.07
P	0.00	0.03
Si	0.30	27.80
Total	100.00	100.00

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3 Table 4. Plastic bending parameters of the peel arm

Model type	Parameters	Quantity
Bi-linear fit	Low strain modulus, E_1	54.2 GPa
	High strain modulus, E_2	1.53 GPa
	Yield strain, ϵ_y	0.043 %
	$\alpha (E_2/E_1)$	0.028
	Yield stress, σ_y	23.07MPa
Power law fit	Low strain modulus, E_1	54.2 GPa
	Constant, n	0.2422
	Yield strain, ϵ_y	0.032 %
	Yield stress, σ_y	17.47 MPa

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