



## 23 **1. Introduction**

24 Road pavements are one of the most common forms of public infrastructure in the world, and  
25 require continuous investments and improvements to stay serviceable. This is evident by the fact that  
26 the U.S. public spends more than 184 billion dollars annually on maintaining and expanding the  
27 pavement network (CBO, 2016). In England, more than 15 billion pound sterling is planned to be  
28 invested specifically to increase capacity and condition of the road network (UK Department for  
29 Transport, 2014). Furthermore, adaptation to global climate change is expected to create a need for a  
30 significant increase in investments towards pavement maintenance (Chinowskya et al., 2013, Qiao et  
31 al., 2015). These cases reflect substantial investments anticipated for road networks through  
32 improvement, maintenance and rehabilitation of pavements. Therefore, a critical step in advancing  
33 towards more sustainable infrastructure is to promote more sustainable pavement management  
34 practices, which can be facilitated by defining performance measures for sustainability related to  
35 paving activities and developing tools to evaluate sustainable performance. In light of this, the  
36 objective of this paper is to present a review of current pavement sustainability assessment methods  
37 and offer recommendations to develop an analytical approach to assess pavement sustainability for  
38 decision support.

39 Given that pavements are material intensive assets, a large focus in pavement sustainability has  
40 been on the use of recycled materials in road construction (Huang et al., 2007, Hossain et al., 2016).  
41 Reducing the energy intensiveness of pavements has also been a focus of considerable research,  
42 which has resulted in methods to lower asphalt manufacturing temperatures (Vidal et al., 2013) and to  
43 substitute portland cement by partially replacing it with supplementary materials (Nassar et al., 2013).  
44 In order to quantify the impacts of resource consumption associated with pavements, several  
45 pavement life cycle assessment (LCA) frameworks have been proposed (e.g., Loijos et al. (2013),  
46 Butt et al. (2014) and Santos et al. (2017)), assumptions in LCA methodologies have been evaluated  
47 (e.g., Huang et al. (2013)), and results from several LCA studies have been reported (e.g., Ventura et  
48 al. (2008), Noshadravan et al. (2013) and Santos et al. (2015)). Environmental considerations,  
49 however, are only one aspect of sustainability sciences (Sala et al. 2013), and a more holistic  
50 assessment is necessary to understand the sustainability of pavements.

51 Several sustainability assessment tools have been developed for civil infrastructure or road  
52 projects, such as the Civil Engineering Environmental Quality (CEEQUAL) guidelines (CEEQUAL,  
53 2013) and the Greenroads program (Muench et al., 2010). However, when viewed specifically  
54 through the lens of pavements, they tend to be overly general and many categories defined for  
55 assessment do not pertain to pavements or paving activities. Paving activities have narrower  
56 boundaries than road construction activities, and thus, require less generalization in order to capture  
57 the effects they have on sustainability objectives. In other words, the sensitivity of these systems to  
58 pavement construction activities may be low. Important features of road sustainability assessment,  
59 such as road geometry and access issues, are not a part of pavement maintenance and rehabilitation

60 processes. If the boundaries are expanded to include issues such as geometry and access, then the  
61 pavement project becomes a road construction project.

62 In order to address pavements in particular, a smaller subset of pavement-related sustainability  
63 assessment tools has been developed. These tools, however, also experience several shortcomings,  
64 such as: (1) they were developed using a bottom-up approach based on highly regionalized materials  
65 and practices thus limiting their use by a wider audience, (2) they were developed based on practices  
66 considered sustainable without recommending techniques to analytically measure the outcomes of  
67 implementing the practices, or (3) they neglect criteria for which there is no standardised analytical  
68 measure, thus measuring sustainability only in terms of what can be systematically calculated. Despite  
69 the shortcomings of current pavement sustainability assessment tools, they are still seen as valuable  
70 tools for informing the current state of practice towards more sustainable solutions because they  
71 encourage the incorporation of sustainable development principles (Johansson, 2011).

### 72 ***1.1. Objective and Methodology***

73 Current pavement sustainability assessment tools are beneficial because they help decision  
74 makers identify areas where sustainability can be improved during the design and construction phases,  
75 but they lack the framework for measuring the resulting impacts of the decisions made as part of this  
76 process. In order to build on the existing state of pavement sustainability assessment, the objective of  
77 this paper is to critically review several methods for conducting a pavement sustainability assessment  
78 and then to recommend an approach for analytically measuring sustainability-related impacts of  
79 pavement maintenance and rehabilitation to support decision making. Sustainability objectives and  
80 evaluation criteria were collected from several pavement sustainability assessment tools and were  
81 used to derive a set of general objectives for increasing the level of pavement sustainability. The  
82 objectives were then layered into a hierarchy, and indicators for performance towards each of the  
83 objectives were proposed to measure outcomes analytically. The proposed analytical approach can be  
84 used within a performance-based decision-making framework to evaluate the impacts of practices  
85 through iterative feedback in order to influence sustainable outcomes.

## 86 **2. Background**

87 Sustainable design and management of civil infrastructure continues to increase in importance  
88 with an increasing body of knowledge that demonstrate effects such as the growing understanding of  
89 anthropogenic impacts on global climate change, as well as the continued development of models  
90 relating economic and social benefits to infrastructure development. In essence, civil infrastructure  
91 has effects on the environmental, economic and social state. In terms of environmental impacts, it is  
92 widely observed that approximately one quarter of all CO<sub>2</sub> emissions globally originate within the  
93 transportation sector (UNECE, 2014). Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that future infrastructure  
94 expansion has the potential to contribute substantially to climate change through increased greenhouse

95 gas emissions (Davis et al., 2010). In terms of economic investments, infrastructure maintenance and  
96 expansion contribute considerably to the gross value added to large economies (DBIS, 2013). Finally,  
97 it is well recognized that infrastructure is the link that connects human societies with the natural  
98 environment and facilitates the growth of welfare within societies (Knaap & Oosterhaven, 2011).  
99 Thus, it is clear that practices that lead to an increase in sustainability for infrastructure will impact  
100 potential sustainable outcomes within the three components of sustainability: the environment, the  
101 economy and society, and over a lifetime of decades, or potentially more.

## 102 ***2.1. Sustainability and Public Infrastructure***

103 Sustainability applied to infrastructure management implies maintaining an acceptable condition  
104 while also considering the trade-off between cost, environmental impacts and social impacts of  
105 infrastructure investments. Many definitions have been proposed to express sustainability, such as  
106 those put forward by the Brundtland Commission (WCED, 1987) and the Council of the European  
107 Union (European Commission, 2006), and several benefits and drawbacks have been noted for each  
108 of these definitions (Adams, 2006). In general, definitions of sustainability are broad in nature so as  
109 not to constrain potential innovations contributing towards the general goal. For example, Muench  
110 (2010) defines sustainability as, “a system characteristic that reflects the system’s capacity to support  
111 natural laws and human values.” Sustainable development definitions, however, all follow the  
112 common theme of development that meets current needs without compromising the future (Adams,  
113 2006). Generally, this is broken into three objectives, which are typically referred to as the triple  
114 bottom line of sustainability: (1) enhancing social structures, (2) increasing economic  
115 prosperity/equity, and (3) decreasing adverse impacts to the natural environment. The combination of  
116 these three objectives can be viewed in two manners: ‘Strong Sustainability’ and ‘Weak  
117 Sustainability’ (Adams, 2006). ‘Strong Sustainability’ conveys the fact that no part of the economy  
118 occurs outside of the social structure, and no part of society can be thought of as independent of the  
119 natural environment (Johansson, 2011). In contrast, the representation of ‘Weak Sustainability’  
120 recognizes that the three objectives generally must be evaluated independently because the correlation  
121 between the objectives is too complex to model in many cases and that tradeoffs between them must  
122 be considered. Although ‘Weak Sustainability’ is more widely considered, it is important to note the  
123 applicability of ‘Strong Sustainability’ to explaining the interdependence of the three areas.

124 Sustainability assessments of infrastructure have been growing since the 1990’s and started in the  
125 building sector before expanding into the transportation sector. A review of many tools available to  
126 rate the sustainability of transportation infrastructure can be found in Brodie et al. (2013), Clevenger  
127 et al. (2013) and Gudmundsson et al. (2013). Generally, sustainability rating tools within  
128 infrastructure are designed to determine sub-processes that occur throughout the infrastructure life and  
129 then identify and encourage practices or policies that contribute to the sustainability of the individual  
130 sub-processes. For example, the Greenroads rating system identifies the attributes of a road project

131 that can contribute to sustainability, and then it defines sustainability best practices for these attributes  
132 (Muench et al., 2011). A second approach, which is less prevalent, is to define measures that  
133 contribute to sustainability and then to evaluate the infrastructure as a single system and determine the  
134 contribution to more sustainable outcomes. This second approach has been taken by the BE<sup>2</sup>ST-in-  
135 Highways system (Lee et al., 2011).

136 An important aspect of sustainability is that a systems based framework should be employed  
137 within sustainability assessment in an effort to gain a thorough understanding of the broad impact of  
138 decisions, and how these impacts affect surrounding systems. This type of systems based framework  
139 is demonstrated in the Envision rating system developed by the Institute for Sustainable  
140 Infrastructure. A description of the Envision system can be found in Shivakumar et al. (2014) and  
141 Behr (2014). One module within the Envision rating system is focused on pathway contribution,  
142 which is a measure of the influence of the infrastructure project on the goals and vulnerabilities of the  
143 community in which the project is constructed. This approach to evaluating sustainability using a  
144 systems based perspective is highlighted in the methods presented in later sections of this paper.

## 145 ***2.2. Pavement Sustainability Assessment***

146 As mentioned before, the assessment of pavement sustainability is narrower than an assessment of  
147 road sustainability because the system boundaries are smaller for a paving activity than for a road  
148 building activity. For example, road alignment can have an impact on sustainable outcomes for  
149 communities by avoiding certain environmentally or socially sensitive areas, but alignment is not a  
150 consideration for paving activities. Still, several attempts have been made to extract concepts from  
151 road sustainability for use in pavement sustainability assessment, some of which are described in  
152 more detail in the following sections.

### 153 ***2.2.1. Greenpave***

154 Greenpave is a sustainability rating system developed by the Ontario Ministry of  
155 Transportation that defines specific strategies that contribute to the increased sustainability of  
156 pavements (Lane et al., 2014). The strategies defined in Greenpave are linked to 14 objectives that are  
157 seen as practical goals for increased pavement sustainability: long life pavements, permeable  
158 pavements, noise mitigation, cool pavements, recycled content, undisturbed pavement structure, local  
159 materials, construction quality, reduce energy consumption, GHG reduction, pavement smoothness,  
160 pollution reduction, innovation in design, and exemplary process. The strategies and goals were based  
161 on other sustainability assessment tools and the conclusions of a sustainable pavement workshop,  
162 which brought together stakeholders to discuss techniques and policies that can contribute to  
163 pavement sustainability (Chan, 2010).

164 In order to score a pavement project in Greenpave, the pavement characteristics are compared  
165 against predefined criteria in each of the 14 objectives. For example, it is expected that rigid

166 pavements (i.e., those constructed using portland cement concrete) will last longer than other  
167 pavement types; thus, rigid pavements receive three points related to the long life pavement objective.  
168 The long life pavement objective is tied to the goals of reducing the impact of frequent rehabilitation,  
169 reducing life cycle emissions and reducing life cycle energy consumption (Lane et al., 2014).  
170 Therefore, the points earned in this case are predicated on the idea that rigid pavements have lower  
171 life cycle energy consumption and emissions values than comparable flexible or composite  
172 pavements; however, this assumption does not hold true in many cases (Xu et al., 2015).

### 173 2.2.2. FHWA's INVEST Pavement Scorecard

174 The US Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) has developed the web-based  
175 sustainability assessment tool: INVEST (Infrastructure Voluntary Evaluation Sustainability Tool)  
176 (FHWA, 2014). INVEST defines sustainability in terms of the triple bottom line, and it encourages  
177 balancing social, environmental and economic criteria (Brodie et al., 2013). Scoring with INVEST is  
178 completed within specific modules: System Planning, Project Development, and Operations and  
179 Maintenance. The total score, however, is not an aggregated value from the three modules. Instead,  
180 the modules are designed to serve as sustainability evaluations for different processes of the design,  
181 construction and maintenance phases (VanZerr et al., 2012).

182 Although the INVEST tool is designed to evaluate the sustainability of a road project, it has a  
183 dedicated scorecard specific to paving activities. The scorecard for pavements contains specific  
184 actions or goals that must be met in order to obtain a certain number of points (e.g., the use of life  
185 cycle cost analysis (LCCA) is awarded three points). Once the project is scored across all of the  
186 criteria, the sum of the scores is used to rate the project. The criteria specific to paving are (Bevan et  
187 al., 2012): LCCA, highway and traffic safety, educational outreach, tracking environmental  
188 commitments, reduce and reuse materials, recycle materials, long-life pavement design, reduced  
189 energy and emissions in pavement materials, contractor warranty, construction equipment emissions  
190 reduction, construction quality control plan, and construction waste management.

### 191 2.2.3. GreenLITES

192 GreenLITES (Green Leadership in Transportation Environmental Sustainability) is a  
193 sustainability rating tool that was developed for use by the New York Department of Transportation  
194 (NYDOT, 2014). GreenLITES was not specifically developed for paving activities, but every project  
195 conducted by NYDOT is evaluated using the GreenLITES framework, including projects that are not  
196 required to submit formal plans (e.g., pavement maintenance and bridge painting) (Eisenman, 2012).  
197 GreenLITES is a point-based rating system with five point categories: sustainable sites, water quality,  
198 material and resources, energy and atmosphere, and innovation (Clevenger et al., 2013). There are 175  
199 points possible across the five categories, and projects are awarded a certification level based on the  
200 total points they receive. Specific activities that are not applicable to a large subset of the point

201 criteria, such as pavement maintenance, can be certified by accruing sufficient points in a limited set  
202 of applicable criteria.

203           GreenLITES rating is based on the NYDOT's sustainability mission, which is modelled  
204 similar to the definition of sustainability put forth by the Brundtland report (McVoy et al., 2010).  
205 Following this definition, NYDOT set goals to: protect and enhance the environment, conserve energy  
206 and natural resources, preserve or enhance the historic, scenic, and aesthetic project setting  
207 characteristics, encourage public involvement in the transportation planning process, integrate smart  
208 growth and other sound land-use practices, and encourage new and innovative approaches to  
209 sustainable design, and how they operate and maintain facilities. GreenLITES was developed  
210 primarily as an internal monitoring and assessment system (McVoy et al., 2010).

#### 211 *2.2.4. BE<sup>2</sup>ST-in-Highways*

212           BE<sup>2</sup>ST-in-Highways (Building Environmentally and Economically Sustainable Transportation-  
213 Infrastructure-Highways) was developed by the Recycled Materials Resource Center (RMRC) as a  
214 sustainability rating tool with the objective of quantifying the impact of using recycled materials in  
215 construction (Lee et al., 2011). The structure of BE<sup>2</sup>ST-in-Highways includes two layers, a mandatory  
216 screening layer and a judgement layer (Lee et al., 2013). The screening layer is the first evaluation  
217 and is used to ensure that the project conforms to all regulatory standards. The judgment layer  
218 includes the calculation of nine metrics related to environmental and economic assessments:  
219 greenhouse gas emission, energy use, waste reduction (by including ex situ materials), waste  
220 reduction (by recycling in situ materials), water consumption, social carbon cost saving (economic  
221 benefits associated with mitigation of climate change), life cycle cost, traffic noise, and hazardous  
222 waste. The calculations for the judgment layer are performed using the tool Pavement Life-cycle  
223 Assessment Tool for Environmental and Economic Effects (PaLATE) for LCA, FHWA's Realcost  
224 program for LCCA and the TNM-LookUp table developed by the US FHWA to evaluate noise  
225 reduction (Lee et al., 2011). The metrics are each weighted on a 0 to 1 scale to represent their degree  
226 of achievement towards goal targets.

227           Scoring a pavement project using the BE<sup>2</sup>ST-in-Highways system is a two-step procedure.  
228 First, the criteria in the mandatory screening layer must be met; no points are awarded in this step.  
229 Secondly, the relative improvement of the project as compared to a reference project is evaluated  
230 across the nine metrics. The tool defines targets and points are awarded based on the achievement of  
231 these targets. For example, a twenty percent reduction in greenhouse gas emissions in comparison to a  
232 reference project is awarded two points. Of the reviewed pavement sustainability assessment tools,  
233 BE<sup>2</sup>ST-in-Highways is the only tool that scores a project based on measurable outcomes of the project  
234 from a systems perspective, as opposed to scoring a project based on the individual components of the  
235 pavement system.

### 236 2.2.5. *Additional Transportation Sustainability Assessment Tools*

237 Several additional sustainability rating tools were not discussed in the previous sections, such  
238 as the HTMA Sustainable Highway Maintenance Tool (HTMA, 2014) or the Transportation  
239 Association of Canada Green Guide for Roads (Royal Roads University, 2014). In general, these  
240 sustainability assessment tools are designed for road sustainability, although some may be used in  
241 sustainability assessment regarding pavements. Furthermore, the structure and framework of these  
242 tools are similar to the rating systems that were described, even though they may maintain goals and  
243 audiences specific to the individual tool.

### 244 2.3. *Discussion of Current Pavement Sustainability Assessment Tools*

245 The benefit of each of the previously described sustainability assessment tools is that they are  
246 accompanied by clear action steps relating to the sustainability objectives outlined in the tool and  
247 these actions can be implemented in the design and construction of pavements. The structure of the  
248 rating tools that were reviewed, along with many others not detailed in this paper, is a guided  
249 framework to promote activities that are expected to result in more sustainable pavements, which is  
250 beneficial to informing decision makers of sustainable practices (Johansson, 2011). With the  
251 exception of the BE<sup>2</sup>ST-in-Highways system, pavement sustainability assessment tools do not  
252 measure resulting changes in environmental, social or economic burdens from a systems perspective.  
253 Yet, although the BE<sup>2</sup>ST-in-Highways system measures outcomes from a systems perspective, the  
254 criteria that it deems to contribute to sustainability are limited and are mainly environmental  
255 indicators. The remainder of the tools are designed on the fundamental assumption that implementing  
256 best practices represents progress towards more sustainable pavements; however, there is little regard  
257 given to the system outcomes or the potential interactions or co-linearity between the impacts of  
258 carrying out actions collectively.

259 Each of the sustainability assessment tools described previously connects practices that are  
260 designed to represent improvements in sustainability to related goals. If practices are planned or  
261 completed, points are awarded suggesting progress toward achieving the sustainability goal. The  
262 implementation of practices effectively becomes an indicator for sustainable performance. This  
263 process is problematic because practices may not be evaluated collectively, which has several  
264 implications including developing assessments where some goals become implicitly more important  
265 than others by potentially considerable margins. In other words, the set of actions taken (e.g.,  
266 increased recycling or decreased asphalt mixing temperature) will affect each project to a different  
267 and unique extent. Without evaluating outcomes, the contribution of each action towards a specific  
268 objective or goal is unknown. Additionally, there is an assumption that actions equate to outcomes.

269 Bossel (1999) explains the limitations of measuring the progress towards sustainability using a  
270 set of indicators that is developed in an *ad hoc* manner without consideration of the systems



271 perspective, which is the case with the majority of pavement sustainability assessment tools. To  
272 describe these shortcomings, Bossel (1999) stated,

273           “...these lists must be criticized on several counts: (1) they are derived ad hoc,  
274           without a systems theoretical framework to reflect the operation and viability of the total  
275           system; (2) they always reflect the specific expertise and research interest of their  
276           authors; (3) as a consequence of (1) and (2), they are overly dense in some areas  
277           (multiple indicators for essentially the same concern), and sparse or even empty in other  
278           important areas. In other words, they are not a systematic and complete reflection of the  
279           total system, i.e., human society in interaction with its natural environment” (p. 12).

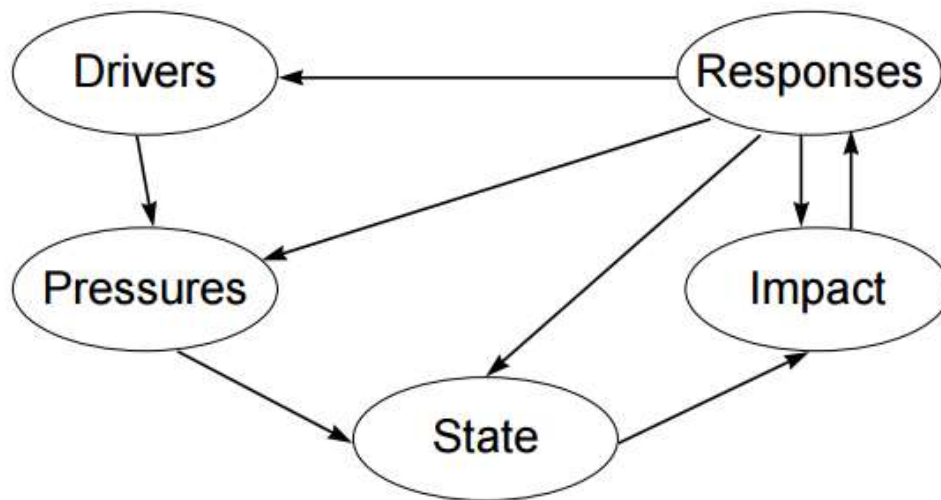
280 This helps to explain how some goals can be over emphasized.

281       As an example of the limitations of ad hoc evaluation, all of the tools that have been explored in  
282 this paper include the increased use of recycled materials as an indicator towards more sustainable  
283 road pavements. The main reasons for increasing recycled materials in pavements are: reduced  
284 environmental impacts, reduced costs, reduced amount of virgin materials used (i.e. conservation of  
285 resources), and reduced waste materials that require disposal, which also results in reduced land take.  
286 Using this practice as an indicator, increased use of recycled materials is a policy that may have  
287 various different benefits that address sustainable outcomes. Conversely, as presented in Ventura et al.  
288 (2008), increased recycled material in a pavement can potentially also negatively impact other  
289 indicators such as increase greenhouse gas emissions; thus defining the increased use of recycled  
290 materials as an increase in sustainability neglects the complex systems interaction that exists between  
291 the many indicators of sustainability (see section 4.2 for an example). Therefore, as opposed to a  
292 collection of individual indicators, sustainability should be measured by a net reduction in  
293 environmental or economic impacts or an overall improvement in quality of life.

294       Use of the results of environmental LCA within a sustainability rating tool can address a number  
295 of outcomes, or environmental impact categories. However, they generally do not include all  
296 environmental impacts (e.g., noise) and social impacts only indirectly (e.g., human health impacts  
297 resulting from environmental degradation, for instance from depletion of the ozone layer) or not at all  
298 (e.g., employment). While pavement LCA and LCCA has developed in recent years, there are still  
299 significant limitations in its application, particularly across the full life-cycle (Jorgensen et al. (2010),  
300 Santero et al (2011), Galatioto et al. (2015)) or in transparency and comparability (Glass et al.  
301 (2013)).

302       Furthermore, the shortcomings of indicators used in current tools to address outcomes can be  
303 highlighted by applying the DPSIR (driver, pressure, state, impact, response) framework used by the  
304 European Environmental Agency to understand the relationships between the environment and socio-  
305 economic activities (EEA 2007). In the DPSIR framework, the economic and social needs for a  
306 pavement can be represented as Drivers and the pavement construction creates Pressures on the  
307 natural environment, ultimately leading to a change in the State of the environment. The changed

308 State has Impacts on the surrounding systems and elicits a societal Response to mitigate the impacts.  
309 The Response may address the Drivers, or the resulting Pressures, State, or Impacts directly (Figure  
310 1). This is representative of how the response may have greater influence on the system although it is  
311 designed for the purpose of addressing the impact. This framework for environmental impacts is  
312 described in Smeets and Weterings (1999) and OECD (2003) among other sources.



313  
314 **Figure 1 The DPSIR framework showing the relationship between socio-economic activities**  
315 **and the environment through a simplified causal interaction (Smeets and Weterings, 1999).**

316 The majority of actions defined in pavement sustainability assessment tools are Responses that  
317 are designed to reduce the Pressure that the pavement system generates on the natural environment,  
318 society and economic budgets in order to produce a more sustainable state with fewer undesirable  
319 Impacts. As opposed to evaluating the Impact that results from sustainable Responses (e.g., measuring  
320 the reduction in global warming potential), modern pavement sustainability assessment tools treat the  
321 implementation of the Responses as the indicator for sustainability. This implies that the relationships  
322 between the Responses to individual Pressures and the changes in the State of surrounding systems  
323 (e.g., the natural environment), or the Impacts of this change in state is monotonic, which, given the  
324 highly complex nature of the interactions between the various systems where pressure is applied, may  
325 not be a reliable assumption.

326 Continuing with the DPSIR framework, one example of developing Responses to address a  
327 Pressure is the US legislation in 1991 that mandated the use of tire rubber in all new paving projects  
328 that received federal funding by 1994 (Amirkhanian, 1993). The legislation was a Response to the  
329 Pressure generated by large amounts of waste tires stockpiled across the US creating a negative  
330 Impact on the natural environment (Eldin & Piekarski, 1993). This legislation, however, was expected  
331 to increase costs of the pavement projects (Amirkhanian, 1993), which would have a significant effect  
332 on economic budgets. Legislation requiring the use of tire rubber in pavements is a simple example of  
333 why the outcomes of practices for sustainable pavements should be viewed as a system as opposed to  
334 addressing individual components of the pavement. As stated in Fiskel (2006), “Integrated assessment

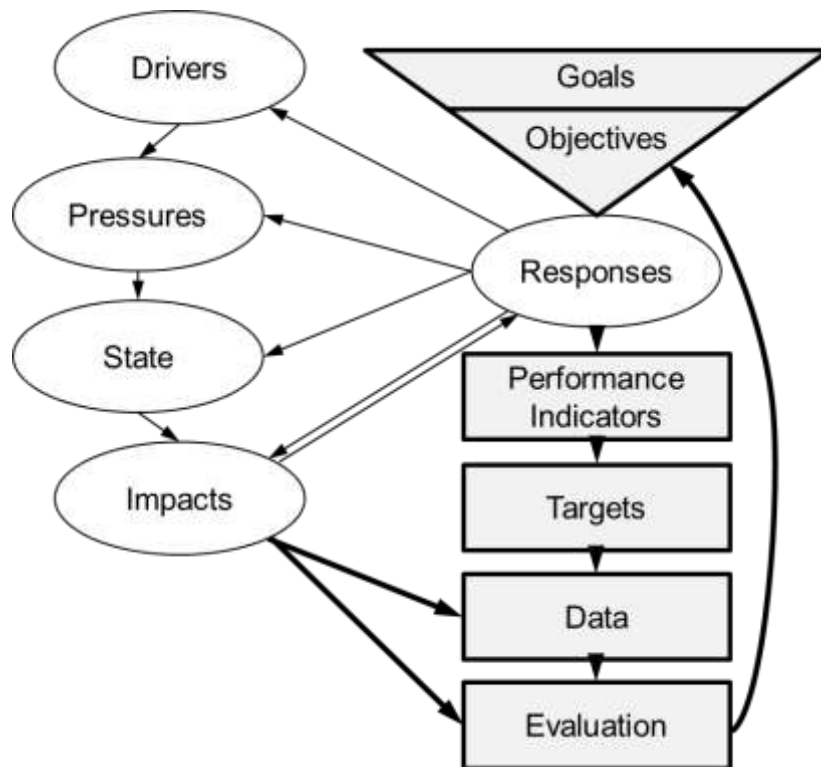
335 of sustainable systems cannot be accomplished by simply linking together a collection of domain  
336 specific models” (p. 17). In order to assess the sustainability of pavements, the unexpected Pressures  
337 or Impacts resulting from seemingly unrelated Responses must be assessed. A pavement should only  
338 be considered more sustainable if the total system shows a reduction in negative pressures or negative  
339 impacts to external systems, relative to common practice.

340 Finally, defining the system boundary is an essential step in an LCA study that helps to define  
341 the study scope but also assists interpretation of the results by acknowledging what processes or  
342 environmental impacts lie outside the study. Similarly, defining the ‘total system’ considered in a  
343 broader sustainability assessment is an important step for the same reasons but in some pavement  
344 sustainability rating tools, this step is missing, leaving the impression that the system is defined by the  
345 indicators or metrics, rather than the other way around. Limitations are not acknowledged and  
346 assumptions are not considered or declared.

### 347 **3. Approaching a Systems View through Performance Management**

348 This section presents an approach to viewing sustainability assessment from a more systematic  
349 perspective, as well as a method for linking sustainability assessment to an agency’s performance  
350 management practices. Focusing on the system lends itself to the application of performance  
351 management; the ongoing and systematic approach to improving outcomes by using evidence-based  
352 decision making, continuous learning, and emphasizing accountability for performance. By adopting a  
353 performance management approach, the Impacts of Responses towards sustainability objectives may  
354 be evaluated.

355 Figure 2 integrates the DPSIR framework within a performance management framework and  
356 establishes an evaluation process for responsive actions that is based on sustainability objectives. The  
357 ellipses represent the established DPSIR framework (from Figure 1) and the shaded shapes represent  
358 the performance management framework. A critical component of the performance management  
359 framework is identifying strategic Goals and specific Objectives, which should then be used to guide  
360 actions. In this case, the actions align with the Responses from the DPSIR framework; therefore, the  
361 Responses to environmental impacts should react to sustainability Objectives and not directly to the  
362 environmental stimuli. To achieve this, the performance management cycle identifies Performance  
363 Indicators to evaluate the Response and its ability to meet a performance target or other criteria  
364 regarding the associated Impact. The evaluation is conducted using data collected about the Impacts  
365 and the results are assessed against the Objectives and used to adjust the Response. The iterative  
366 process developed by integrating the DPSIR and performance management frameworks can evaluate  
367 and adjust a Response to undesirable environmental Impacts based on sustainability Objectives and  
368 therefore helps to assess the outcomes of the system. Furthermore, the demonstrated approach links  
369 performance Targets directly to Responses and hence the State of the environment or its Impacts,  
370 providing clarity in Target setting.



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**Figure 2 The DPSIR framework within a performance management framework to evaluate system outcomes**

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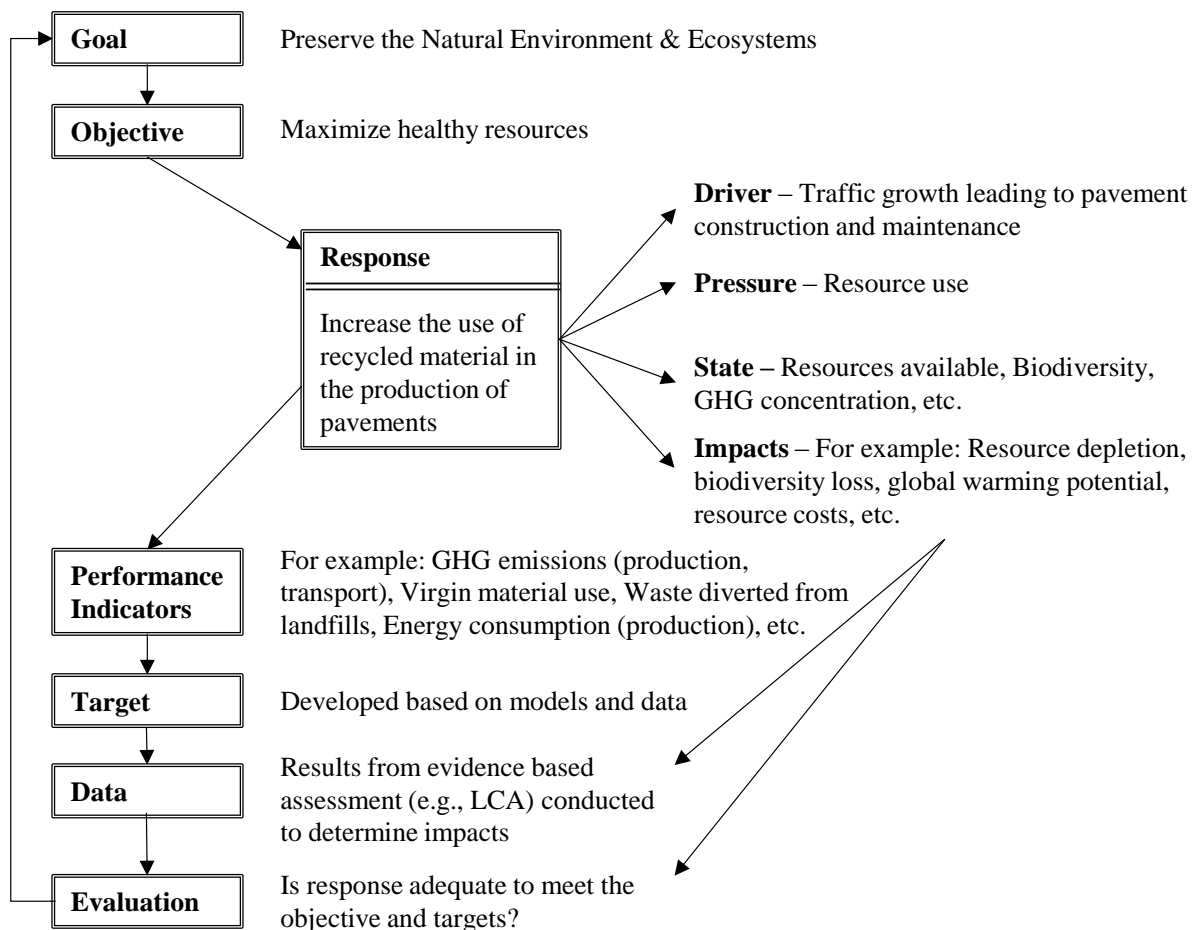
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As discussed in the previous section, the DPSIR model is a system-level framework for considering environmental impacts that can help explain the interaction between system inputs – in the form of Drivers, Pressures and environmental States – and project-level outcomes/impacts and practices/responses. According to the DPSIR framework, the Response is determined based on the Impact observed, or the outcome. The Response is the practice or strategy for addressing the Impact, which is a result of the Drivers, Pressures and the environmental State. In this application, the Response should be assessed for its ability to address Impacts to meet the sustainability policy objectives. Many assessment tools use the Response in and of itself as the measure of sustainability as opposed to measuring its effect on the Impact. The framework in Figure 2 also helps illustrate that the Responses and the Indicators are not one and the same. The framework outlines that assessments should create Performance Indicators with Targets, use data to evaluate the Impacts in relation to the sustainability objectives, and then use this information to inform the pavement construction and management strategies. This application creates a performance management cycle integrated with the DPSIR model and provides a system framework to understand sustainability outcomes of project outputs. Incorporating performance management draws connections between inputs, outputs and outcomes by following the implementation of a strategy to evaluate performance in an iterative fashion and then managing the strategy based on the results.

### 392 ***3.1. Demonstrating Sustainability Assessment Based on Performance Management***

393 The example in Figure 3 demonstrates an aspect of a sustainability assessment based on the  
394 performance management framework shown in Figure 2. The Goal is a high-level aim such as  
395 preserving the natural environment. The Objective follows and should be achievable and actionable.  
396 For example, the Objective in Figure 3 is to conserve resources, and one Response to address this  
397 Objective is to use recycled material in pavement construction and maintenance. Performance  
398 Indicators reflect the Goals and Objectives and are preferably outcomes-oriented. For example, it is  
399 useful to know the percent of recycled material used to meet the Objective; however, we want to  
400 examine the outcomes of this Response, which is why the DPSIR framework is adopted. Some  
401 Performance indicators for this case are energy consumption and GHG emissions from production and  
402 transport of materials, virgin material use and waste diverted from landfills (to preserve land  
403 resources) etc., perhaps with further indicators from evidence based assessments such as  
404 consequential LCA to assess changes from current practice. These Performance Indicators, when  
405 measured for a given project, provide information on outcomes and towards achieving the Objectives  
406 and Goals. The evaluation of these indicators starts by setting Targets that may be based on models,  
407 estimates, or past evidence. For example, the Target may be a maximum level of virgin material or a  
408 percentage decrease in GHG emissions from material production. Finally, the measured results, based  
409 on data acquired about the impacts, reflect outcomes that directly related to the Objectives.

410 The chosen Response (to increase the use of recycled materials), if successful, will change the  
411 quality or State of the environment and available resources, and slow resource depletion, perhaps the  
412 most obvious of the Impacts of the Pressure exerted by resource use. The Performance Indicators will  
413 provide the evidence for this, although considering the broader system and potential Impacts might  
414 identify where further evidence and Performance Indicators may be required. These might include  
415 biodiversity measurements; although it may be decided that this is outside the scope of the Objective  
416 stated here, it is likely to be within the scope of overall Goal. Identified Impacts outside the scope of  
417 any Goals and Objectives should be recognized and acknowledged. While the Response chosen for  
418 this example will mitigate the identified Pressure, a wider set of resources (e.g. fuels) should be  
419 considered in a systematic approach. Finally, the Response will not affect the Driver, which is a result  
420 of socio-economic demands that require transport policy responses, beyond those of pavement  
421 construction (e.g. demand management or alternative transport systems).



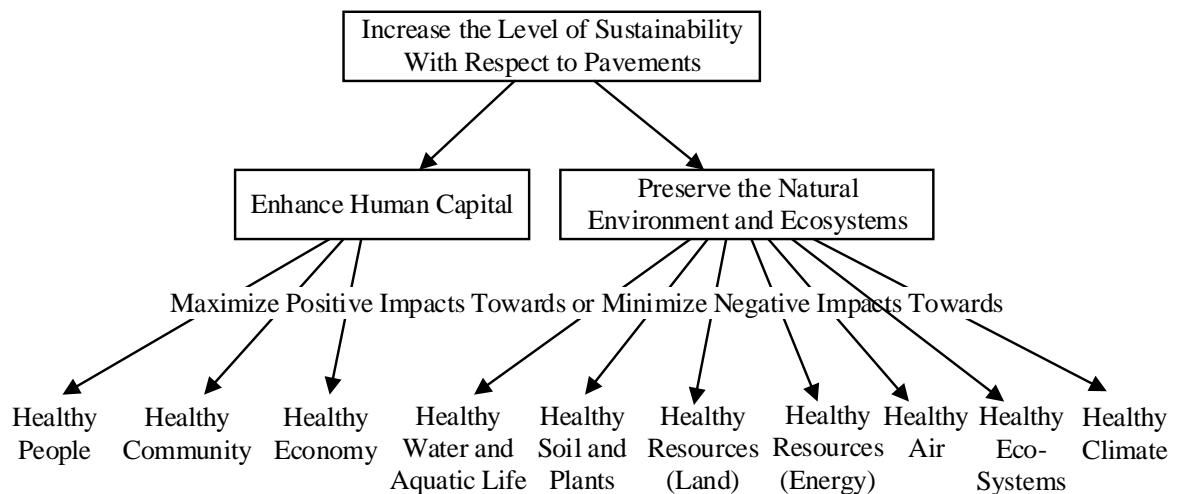
422  
423 **Figure 3 Example Application of Applying the Framework Shown in Figure 2**

424 **4. Defining Indicators of Sustainable Improvements in Pavements**

425 The relationship between inputs, outputs and outcomes is important to understand in order to  
 426 address how outcomes can be evaluated by sustainability assessments. Inputs are resources used to  
 427 accomplish work (including money, people, materials, influence, knowledge, etc.). The work that is  
 428 accomplished, which results in products or services is referred to as outputs. Finally, outcomes are the  
 429 impacts of the work accomplished (i.e. outputs) on end users (Baird and Stammer 2000). The ability  
 430 to measure outcomes relies on attributing them to outputs or other actions. As was discussed  
 431 previously, sustainability assessments are often not measuring outcomes; rather they are using  
 432 Responses to Impacts as proxies for outcomes, assuming that implementation of these Responses will  
 433 result in more sustainable outcomes. The evaluation of sustainable outcomes requires indicators, or  
 434 metrics, that measure performance outcomes that correspond to desired objectives.

435 To connect objectives of enhanced sustainability to Performance Indicators, a three tiered  
 436 objective hierarchy framework was developed (fundamental objective with two levels of means  
 437 objectives) that represents the strategic objectives (Figure 4). These objectives can then be used to  
 438 guide road pavement projects and their use of materials and technologies to promote the strategic  
 439 sustainability objectives. The objective hierarchy framework sets maximizing sustainability as the

440 fundamental objective and the objectives leading towards maximizing sustainability are defined with  
 441 a top down approach. Youker and Brown (2001) discuss the use of this type of objective hierarchy to  
 442 answer specific questions regarding the achievement of goals. Given that sustainability assessment  
 443 tools for pavements are ultimately designed to enhance the decision-making process, a process similar  
 444 to that defined by Keeney (2007) was followed to develop an objective hierarchy. It is important to  
 445 note that systems designed for different purposes will have different hierarchies of objectives. For the  
 446 case of pavements, no decision is made about the geometry of the road; therefore the preservation of  
 447 ecosystems is associated with a different set of means objectives than if the road as a whole were  
 448 considered. The objective hierarchy is defined in Figure 4 and shows that the goal is to maximize  
 449 positive impacts towards each objective at the base of the hierarchy. The base-level objectives are  
 450 derived from an aggregation of the objectives from the previously discussed sustainability assessment  
 451 tools and the core set of indicators set by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and  
 452 Development (OECD, 2003). The base level of objectives reflect the means objectives, or objectives  
 453 that are directly actionable. Achievement towards each of the means objectives can be measured using  
 454 specific indicators.



455  
456

457 **Figure 4 Goal/Objective Hierarchy for Enhancing the Sustainability of Pavements**

458 Three important points must be discussed about the development of the goal and objective  
 459 hierarchy as shown in Figure 4 and its implications. First, the analytical structure of any decision  
 460 problem is dependant not only on the fundamental goal, but also, it is highly dependent on the values  
 461 expressed by stakeholders. This is the rationale behind many agency-specific sustainability  
 462 assessment tools. To overcome this, at least in part, the means objectives were defined thoroughly and  
 463 broadly, accounting for the objectives revealed through the assessment tools that were reviewed.  
 464 Secondly, as will be discussed in more detail in the following sections of this paper, the base-level  
 465 means objectives occur over different time and spatial scales. Finally, the structure defined in Figure 4  
 466 deviates from the triple bottom line approach to sustainability and treats the economy as a process  
 467 embedded with human capital, similar to the definition of strong sustainability as discussed in Adams

468 (2006) and Johansson (2011). Asking “why?” (as in Youker and Brown, 2001) can justify this  
469 positioning. Asking “Why is a healthy economy important?” may lead to an argument that a healthy  
470 economy can facilitate better environmental decisions; however, decisions about the economy are  
471 ultimately embedded within the human/social context. In other words, the natural environment is not  
472 reliant on the economy independent of human involvement, but human capital uses economic tools to  
473 develop the infrastructure through which it interacts with the natural environment.

#### 474 **4.1. Categorizing Impacts of Current Pavement Sustainability Assessment Tools**

475 After defining an objective hierarchy, the next step is to define indicators to measure achievement  
476 towards the goals. Ideally, each of the means objectives defined in Figure 4 would be processed  
477 further into more fundamental objectives (e.g., healthy water could be further defined as minimizing  
478 eutrophication, minimizing water use, etc.). This research however, leaves the means objectives  
479 defined more broadly and instead provides indicators that can be used to assess progress towards more  
480 sustainable pavements for the given means objectives. To do this, the indicators defined in the four  
481 sustainability rating tools discussed previously (Greenpave, BE2ST-in-Highways, FHWA’s INVEST  
482 paving scorecard, and Greenlites) were collected, and the sustainable transportation categories  
483 presented in Black (2004) were also considered. In order to define the indicators, all pavement  
484 activities including shoulder and base work, were assumed within the boundaries of the analysis.  
485 Earthwork such as leveling berms was not included.

486 Many of the sustainability rating tools do not define indicators explicitly, but instead, they define  
487 actions that are related to one or more impacts on the desired objectives. For example, assessment  
488 tools increase the sustainability score if a project implements *in-situ* recycling of the pavement. *In-situ*  
489 recycling of the pavement is linked to several benefits including, reduced lifecycle costs, reduced  
490 environmental impacts and reduced construction time, which is expected to reduce time lost for  
491 vehicles in construction queues (Yang et al., 2015, Giani et al., 2015, Santos et al., 2015). There are,  
492 however, more direct ways to evaluate impacts on the means objectives than through the  
493 implementation of related actions.

494 The indicators from each of the sustainability assessment tools were collected and added to a  
495 spreadsheet where they were categorized based on their impacts on the means objectives defined in  
496 Figure 4. Many of the indicators had primary impacts related to multiple objectives and were counted  
497 in each of the objectives that they impact. Then the impacts were arranged across three spatial scales,  
498 drawing upon standard practice in LCA impact assessment methods such as TRACI (Bare, 2011) and  
499 supported by literature showing that some mechanisms (e.g., global warming potential) have global  
500 effects, but other mechanisms (e.g., terrestrial acidification) have regionalized impacts (Huijbregts et  
501 al., 2013). Finally, unlike the process used in Greenpave, not all of the indicators could be linked to  
502 specific objectives, and therefore, all of the indicators defined in the sustainability assessment systems  
503 could not be categorized within the set of means objectives. This discontinuity between indicators and



504 objectives highlights the need for an analytical assessment to address sustainable outcomes and its  
505 potential to support an approach to pavement sustainability that promotes best practices.

506 Best practices have a place in sustainability assessments. For example, many pavement  
507 sustainability assessment tools include an indicator relating to monitoring construction quality. This is  
508 because having a construction quality management plan is expected to increase the probability of a  
509 project meeting performance and cost goals, thus reducing the need for environmentally and  
510 economically costly repairs. In this way, a well-managed asset is not necessarily a more sustainable  
511 asset, but a well-managed asset can increase the probability that certain sustainability goals will be  
512 achieved. This research does not include monitoring quality management of projects, or other best  
513 practices as sustainability indicators, but it is recognised that such practices and activities may  
514 improve the overall delivery of the project resulting in indirect sustainable outcomes. However, there  
515 is no stated, direct link between quality management and sustainability objectives or outcomes in the  
516 tools and as a result, these indicators fall outside the framework developed here. To do so, the quality  
517 measure (e.g., initial roughness) would need to be linked to an outcome (i.e., reduced fuel  
518 consumption and hence resource use or GHG emissions).

519 Similar to how impacts can be arranged across spatial scales, impacts vary across time and can be  
520 organized across temporal scales as well. For example, construction noise occurs over a short time  
521 frame whereas climate change occurs over an extended time frame. Additionally, impacts may affect  
522 multiple objectives across multiple timescales. For example, indicators linked to healthy soils and  
523 plants for a relatively short timescale (e.g., terrestrial acidification that can be recoverable) may  
524 impact food growth in future generations, which has impacts on social objectives. Also, it is well  
525 established that climate change will have an impact on human health (Goedkoop et al., 2009), as well  
526 as significantly impact healthy communities by affecting food growth (Leclère et al., 2014) over a  
527 long timescale. Pavements are typically long-lived because they undergo progressive M&R rather  
528 than being entirely replaced, so their end-of-life is difficult to define. However, aligning the impacts  
529 with different timescales introduces substantial uncertainties. Fortunately, if all else is equal, it is not  
530 expected that a reduction in impacts over a short time frame will lead to negative outcomes in future  
531 objectives, thus, the indicators in this paper will not address temporal scales and will focus on spatial  
532 divisions.

533 The objectives of the pavement sustainability assessment tools were distilled into their most basic  
534 impacts, and with input from several impact assessment sources, they were used to generate Table 1.  
535 Indicators from the assessment tools were not included in Table 1 if they showed no direct impact or  
536 if an action evidenced no change towards fulfilling objectives. For example, it is noted in Eisenman  
537 (2012) that there is no evidence that simply conducting an LCA, which is awarded two points in the  
538 Greenroads system, will lead to a more environmentally-friendly final outcome. A similar statement  
539 can be made about LCCA or Environmental Review Processes when it is not required that the  
540 decision makers compare multiple alternatives in an attempt to improve the anticipated outcomes.

541 Still, several criteria in Table 1 can be calculated directly by using pavement LCA tools or impact  
 542 assessment methodologies. The remaining indicators - LCCA, queuing analysis, community  
 543 outreach, construction and traffic noise, crash risk reduction and runoff quality – are evaluated using  
 544 other means. There are several standardized methods for LCCA and queuing analysis (e.g., Realcost  
 545 (FHWA, 2004)). The US FHWA has released methods for noise related measurements (FHWA,  
 546 2015a) and crash risk reduction can be defined in terms of increased pavement friction, which is  
 547 related to the expected number of crashes on a roadway (e.g., Hall et al., 2009). Runoff quality can be  
 548 estimated using a number of widely available methods (FHWA, 2015b). Finally, although not  
 549 currently measurable in quantitative terms, community education and community outreach can be  
 550 assessed qualitatively, although this may not be true of their outcomes.

551 **Table 1 Indicator Criteria Defined for Each Means Objective in Figure 4**

	<b>Means Objectives</b>	<b>Local Indicators</b>	<b>Regional Indicators</b>	<b>Global Indicators</b>
<b>Natural Environment and Ecosystems</b>	<b>Healthy Water and Aquatic Life</b>	Eutrophication, Ecotoxicity, Water Consumption	Aquatic Acidification, Runoff Quality	Ozone Depletion
	<b>Healthy Soil and Plants</b>	Ecotoxicity	Terrestrial Acidification	Ozone Depletion
	<b>Healthy Air</b>	Ecotoxicity	Photochemical Ozone Creation Potential	Ozone Depletion
	<b>Healthy Land Resources</b>	Land Take	Mineral Resource Depletion	n/a
	<b>Healthy Energy Resources</b>	n/a	n/a	Non-renewable energy use
	<b>Healthy Climate</b>	n/a	n/a	Global Warming Potential
<b>Human Capital</b>	<b>Healthy People</b>	Human Health Criteria, Construction Noise, Traffic Noise	Crash Risk Reduction	n/a
	<b>Healthy Community</b>	Time lost due to queuing at construction or maintenance	Community Education/Outreach	n/a
	<b>Healthy Economy</b>	Life Cycle Cost Analysis		n/a

552 n/a = not applicable

553 Within pavement LCA, output flows of pollutants are estimated, and then translated into impacts  
 554 in terms of how the pollutants affect particular systems (i.e., mid-point indicators), or how the changes  
 555 to the system ultimately impact more fundamental objectives, such as impact on human health (i.e.,  
 556 end-point indicators). For a more thorough discussion on the differences in pollutant flows, mid-point  
 557 indicators and end-point indicators, see Goedkoop et al. (2009), among other sources. It is important  
 558 to note that when environmental impacts are estimated through mid-point and end-point calculations,  
 559 they can be broader than is presented in Table 1. For example, climate change can be linked to several

560 ecosystem and human health concerns (Goedkoop et al., 2009). Another example is that energy  
561 resource depletion can lead towards more costly energy in the future. These two examples are  
562 indicative of the fact that no indicator can represent single objectives without also impacting other  
563 objectives. Finally, many of the environmental indicators and the land use calculations are explained  
564 in detail in impact assessment methodologies such as IMPACT 2002+ (Humbert et al., 2012) or  
565 ReCiPe (Goedkoop et al., 2009).

566 There are instances in Table 1 where objectives are limited to one or two spatial scales; these  
567 objectives are labeled “n/a” for scales that are not applicable. For example, the depletion of energy  
568 resources is not expected to have local or regional indicators because the impact is at the global scale,  
569 given that energy resources are traded on a global market.

570 Healthy Economy in Table 1 is defined by LCCA, but as discussed in Jorgensen et al. (2010),  
571 costing methods may not be the best approach for including economic impacts in sustainability  
572 assessments. The economy is a reactionary system, and the impacts of road construction on long-term  
573 economic outcomes are highly uncertain. Although it is true that the relationship between roads and  
574 economic prosperity has been evidenced in the literature (e.g., Bryceson et al., 2008), it is also  
575 anticipated that in the near future higher costs will be required to mitigate negative effects of global  
576 climate change, which are also directly impacted by the density of road infrastructure (Chinowsky et  
577 al., 2013). Therefore, minimizing LCCA results may not be the best approach to a healthy economy;  
578 however, in the absence of a more appropriate method for measuring healthy economic impacts,  
579 LCCA can provide useful information for decisions based (at least partly) on economic outcomes.

#### 580 ***4.2. Linking to Sustainability Assessment***

581 As previously discussed, it was found that the majority of pavement sustainability assessment  
582 methods recommend a set of best practices (Responses) that are expected to increase the level of  
583 sustainability of pavements. Generally, it is assumed that this will be achieved by improving the State  
584 of the environment in some respect(s) and hence reducing adverse Impacts (e.g., reducing GHG  
585 emissions and hence their concentration in the atmosphere, leading to reduced GWP and the projected  
586 Impacts on environmental and human health) although this is best done at a system level. Some  
587 practices, or Responses, may also be considered to reduce Pressure on the environment (e.g., by  
588 reducing land take through reduced use of materials) although the relationship between the Response  
589 and the Pressure in this case is unlikely to be simple. Few Responses suggested in pavement  
590 sustainability rating tools address Drivers but these are usually considered at a transport network or  
591 policy level (e.g., transport demand).

592 There may be several cases, however, where a practice that improves one component of the  
593 pavement system adversely affects other components of the system. As an example, we evaluate the  
594 case of a 10 cm mill and overlay on a 3.6 m wide lane that is 5 km long. The mix data and basic  
595 construction equipment details are shown in Table 2 and Table 3, respectively. The mix design from

596 Ventura et al. (2008) was used for two separate mixes: one mix contains 10 percent reclaimed asphalt  
597 pavement (RAP) where the aggregates must be transported 10 km to the plant and the mix 10 km to  
598 the site, and the other mix contains 20 percent RAP where the aggregates must be transported 10 km  
599 to the plant and the mix 89 km to the site. Assuming each pavement has an international roughness  
600 index after construction of less than 0.65, the first mix (10 percent RAP) will result in a pavement that  
601 is not rated as sustainable using the Greenpave procedure. The second mix (20 percent RAP) will be  
602 labelled Bronze using the Greenpave procedure. With all else equal, the mix with 20 percent RAP  
603 improves mineral resource depletion and land-take metrics by reducing material use and reducing the  
604 amount of waste materials needing disposal. Yet when an LCA was conducted using the ECO-  
605 comparator applied to Road Construction and Maintenance (ECORCE M; Dauvergne et al., 2014), it  
606 found that emissions, energy consumption and ecotoxicity values, among other criteria, were made  
607 significantly worse for the case rated Bronze by Greenpave (Table 4). Without an evaluation of how  
608 system Impacts are affecting the Objectives (see Figure 2), holistic sustainability is not captured by  
609 assessment tools and benchmarking or Target setting may not address the projected Outcomes. It is  
610 for this reason that applying a performance-based framework is proposed. By incorporating a  
611 feedback loop to evaluate the estimated Impacts in light of sustainability objectives, a systems  
612 approach is taken for sustainability assessment.

613

614

**Table 2 General asphalt mix and tack coat design data**

Asphalt Component Name	% by Weight for each mix	Assumed Density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Tack Coat Component Name	% Weight	Assumed Density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )
Bitumen (Assume PG70-22 or Grade 50/70)	4.68/4.18	1250	Bitumen	65.0	1250
RAP	10/20	1600	Water Emulsion	34.4	1000
∑Aggregates	85/75	1520	Acid	0.3	980
			SBS Elastomer	0.3	1050

615

**Table 3 Basic construction equipment details**

Operation	Brand/Model of Equipment	Fuel Consumed (L/h)	Water Consumed (L/h)
Milling	Wirtgen W2100	94.0	1260.0
Sweeper	Bobcat S630	11.0	520.0
Tack Coat (Spray Truck)	Mack CHU613	16.0	0
Paver	Dynapac SD2550C	37.0	0
Breakdown Compactor (2)	Dynapac CP 142	14.0	15.0
Finishing Compactor	Dynapac CC324HF	14.0	15.0

616

**Table 4 Limited LCA results for 10 percent and 20 percent RAP pavements**

Pavement	Greenhouse Gas Emissions (kg eq.CO2)	Energy Consumption (MJ)	Chronic Ecotoxicity (kg eq. 1,4DCB)
10 Percent RAP	168,856	2,892,302	4,795,112
20 Percent RAP	191,823	3,167,500	5,094,924

## 617 5. Conclusions

618 The simplified example in the previous section highlights a need for an analytical framework to  
619 measure pavement sustainability. Although simplifications can be made in order to develop a list of  
620 best practices for more sustainable pavements or a set of metrics to detect progress towards  
621 sustainable pavements, assumptions should not be made regarding the overall state of the system and  
622 sustainable outcomes. Improved performance measured by some indicators may lead to poorer  
623 performance as measured by others; therefore, trade-offs should only be evaluated for the final state  
624 of the pavement. These systems trade-offs can begin to be made by weighting the performance  
625 indicators based on the most important outcomes with respect to stated objectives (similar to the  
626 BE<sup>2</sup>ST-in-Highways system). Then the most sustainable solution can be defined as the one that best  
627 addresses the objectives as determined through the rating assessment.

628 The current state of pavement sustainability assessment tools relies mainly on best practices, which  
629 are expected to increase the sustainability of pavements (e.g., promoting recycling or long life roads).  
630 Although these practices are generally expected to reduce the environmental impacts or life cycle  
631 costs associated with a project, it should not be assumed that these practices will necessarily result in  
632 a more sustainable pavement. Pavements are engineered systems and changes in one component of a

633 pavement design will influence several other aspects of the system. Based on this understanding, a  
634 systematic framework should be employed to measure the changes in sustainability outcomes  
635 resulting from decisions made regarding pavement design, construction and use.

636 A more systematic framework for assessing changes in pavement sustainability was presented in  
637 this paper in an effort to improve the current state of pavement sustainability assessment, as well as to  
638 link sustainability assessment to performance management. Sustainability tools that promote best  
639 practices are important to engineering design and management, but data-driven, performance-based  
640 assessments are useful to support and improve decision-making for sustainable outcomes. An agency  
641 that wishes to promote recycling as a way to reduce environmental impacts should attempt to estimate  
642 those environmental impacts rather than simply working on assumptions. Analytical approaches for  
643 sustainability assessments can be used alongside a best-practice-based approach to verify decisions  
644 made and promote pavement sustainability.

645 Pavements perform a critical role in the transportation sector, essentially connecting the movement  
646 of people and goods to the natural environment. Given the extent of pavements throughout developed  
647 countries and the development of sustainability science in recent years, it is clear that pavement  
648 sustainability plays a critical role in promoting more sustainable societies. The implementation of best  
649 practices for promoting more sustainable pavements can be improved by assessing their resulting  
650 outcomes using an analytical, decision-support tool, based on the methodology presented in this  
651 paper. This can greatly influence the environmental, economic and social impacts resulting from  
652 pavement construction and maintenance towards more sustainable outcomes.

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