

BHUBANANANDA ODISHA SCHOOL OF ENGINEERING, CUTTACK

DEPARTMENT OF CIVIL ENGINEERING



LECTURE NOTE ON: HIGHWAY ENGINEERING

4TH SEMESTER

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HIGHWAY ENGINEERING

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

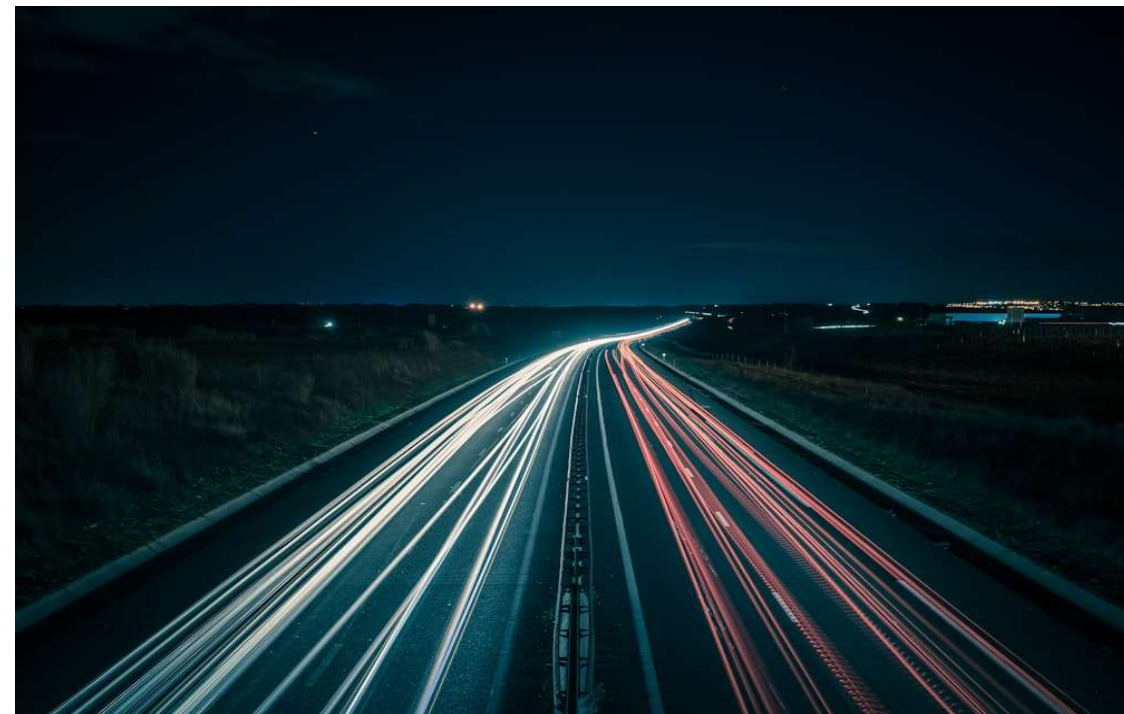
1 Introduction

1.1 Importance of Highway transportation: importance organizations like Indian roads congress, Ministry of Surface Transport, Central Road Research Institute.

1.2 Functions of Indian Roads Congress

1.3 IRC classification of roads

1.4 Organisation of state highway department



❖ **Highway Engineering** is a branch of transportation engineering which deals with the design, construction and maintenance of different types of roads. It is also called as road engineering.

it involves the study of the following :

- 1) Planning, location and development of roads.
- 2) Materials required for their construction.
- 3) Highway traffic performance and its control.
- 4) Drainage of roads etc

❖ **Importance of Roads or Highway Engineering :**

Following are the importance of roads or highway transportation.

- ❖ They provide conveyance to the people, goods, raw materials, etc., to reach different parts of the country.
- ❖ They are the only source of communication in hilly regions.
- ❖ Helps in agricultural development.
- ❖ Helps in dairy development.

- ❖ Helps in tourism development.
- ❖ Helps in fisheries development.
- ❖ Helps in maintaining law and orders in a country.
- ❖ Forestry development.
- ❖ They improve the medical facilities.
- ❖ They improve the land value.
- ❖ They generate the more employment opportunities.
- ❖ They play important role in defence activities.
- ❖ They become the symbol of country's progress and development.

1.1 IMPORTANCE OF HIGHWAY TRANSPORTATION



1.1 Indian Roads Congress (I.R.C.):

- ❖ The Indian Roads Congress was established by the Central Government in 1934 as per the recommendations of the Jayakar Committee.
- ❖ The I.R.C. was constituted to provide a forum for the regular pooling the technical ideas, experiences and know-how for the planning of the development of the roads throughout the country.
- ❖ I.R.C. provides the recommended specifications regarding the design and construction of the roads in the country.
- ❖ IRC has collaborated with the road wing of the ministry of the surface transportation of Govt. of India. It publishes journals, standard specifications and guidelines on various aspects of highway engineering.

1.2 Functions of Indian Roads Congress (IRC)

IRC a body of professional highway engineers provides the following services:

- ❖ It provides a forum for the expression of the collective opinion of its members for all matters affecting the construction and maintenance of roads in India.
- ❖ It promotes the use of standard specifications and practices.
- ❖ It provided with the suggestions for the better methods of planning, designing, construction, administration and maintenance of roads.
- ❖ It conducts periodical meetings to discuss technical problems regarding roads.
- ❖ It makes the laws for the development, improvement and protection of the roads.
- ❖ It furnishes and maintains libraries and museums for encouraging the science of road-making.

Central Road Research Institute (CRRI)

❖ CRRI was started by the Central Government in 1950, for the research work in highway engineering. CRRI is a series of laboratories under the council of scientific and industrial research in India.

It offers the following services.

- ❖ Carries basic and applied research for the design, construction and maintenance of the highways.
- ❖ Carries research on traffic safety and transport economics.
- ❖ Carries research on economical utilization of locally available materials for construction and maintenance of roads.
- ❖ Research for the development of the new machinery, tools equipment and instruments for highway engineering.
- ❖ To provide technical advice and consultancy services to various organizations.

Roads wing of the ministry of surface transport

- ❖ The roads wing of the Ministry of Surface Transport handles the road matters of the Central Govt. It is headed by a Director-General.
The Director-General is assisted by two Additional Director Generals (one for roads and one for bridges), a number of Chief Engineers, Superintending Engineers, Executive Engineers and Asst. Executive Engineers. The roads wing has a Chief Engineer for the North-East region posted at Guwahati and a Liaison-cum-Inspectorate organization consisting of S.E's and E.E's in the various states.

The functions of the roads wing of Surface Transport are as follows.

- ❖ To control funds approved by the Central Government for the development of National Highways.
- ❖ To control the central road fund (CRF.)
- ❖ To prepare plans for the development and maintenance of National Highways in consultation with state PWDs.
- ❖ To oversee technically the quality of works executed by the agencies.
- ❖ Administer matters regarding road research.
- ❖ Examine technically the projects and bridges prepared by the PWDs.
- ❖ To administer the central road program other than National Highways in the Union Territories.

1.3 IRC CLASSIFICATION OF ROADS



❖ According to IRC, roads are classified as

- 1) National Highways (NH)
- 2) State Highways (SH)
- 3) Major District Roads (MDR)
- 4) Other District Roads (ODR)
- 5) Village Roads (VR)



1. National highways

National highways are the main highways running through the length and breadth of India. It connects many roads like major ports, foreign highways, capitals of large states and large industrialtourist centres.

It carries about 30 to 50 percent of total traffic of our country. National highways are the main roadson which the entire road communication is based.

They are assigned the respective number for the sake of convenience such as **NH-1**, **NH-2**, **NH-3** and so on ; as is clear from below ;

NH-1 stands for Amritsar - Ambala - Delhi Road

NH-3 stands for Agra - Bombay Road

To meet with the present day fast moving traffic, the **express highways or expressways** have been constructed recently for connecting important places.

The responsibility of construction and maintenance of these roads lies with the Central Government.

2) State Highways (SH)

- ❖ State arterial roads of a state, connecting up with the National highways of adjoining states, district head quarters and important cities within the state. These are also known as **Provincial Highways**.
- ❖ The responsibility of construction and maintenance of these roads lies with State Governments. However, the Central Government gives grant for the development of these roads.



3) Major District Roads (MDR)

- ❖ Major district roads are important roads within a district serving areas of production and markets and connecting those with each other or with the main highways.
- ❖ MDR is used for only low speed. The responsibility of construction and maintenance of these roads lies with the District Authorities. However, the state Government gives grant for development of these roads.



4) Other District Roads (ODR)

- Other district roads are the roads serving rural areas of production and providing them with outlet to market centres, taluk head quarters, block development head quarters and other main roads. ODR is also used for low speed.

5) Village Roads (VR)

- Village roads connect villages to other villages and also connects villages to the nearest road of highways.



- **EXPRESS WAYS**

- Expressways are a separate class of highways with superior facilities and design standards.
- These expressways have controlled access and grade separation at all roads and rail crossings. It is the routes having very high volume of traffic.
- These highways should allow only fast moving vehicles. These roads are of higher class than National highway.



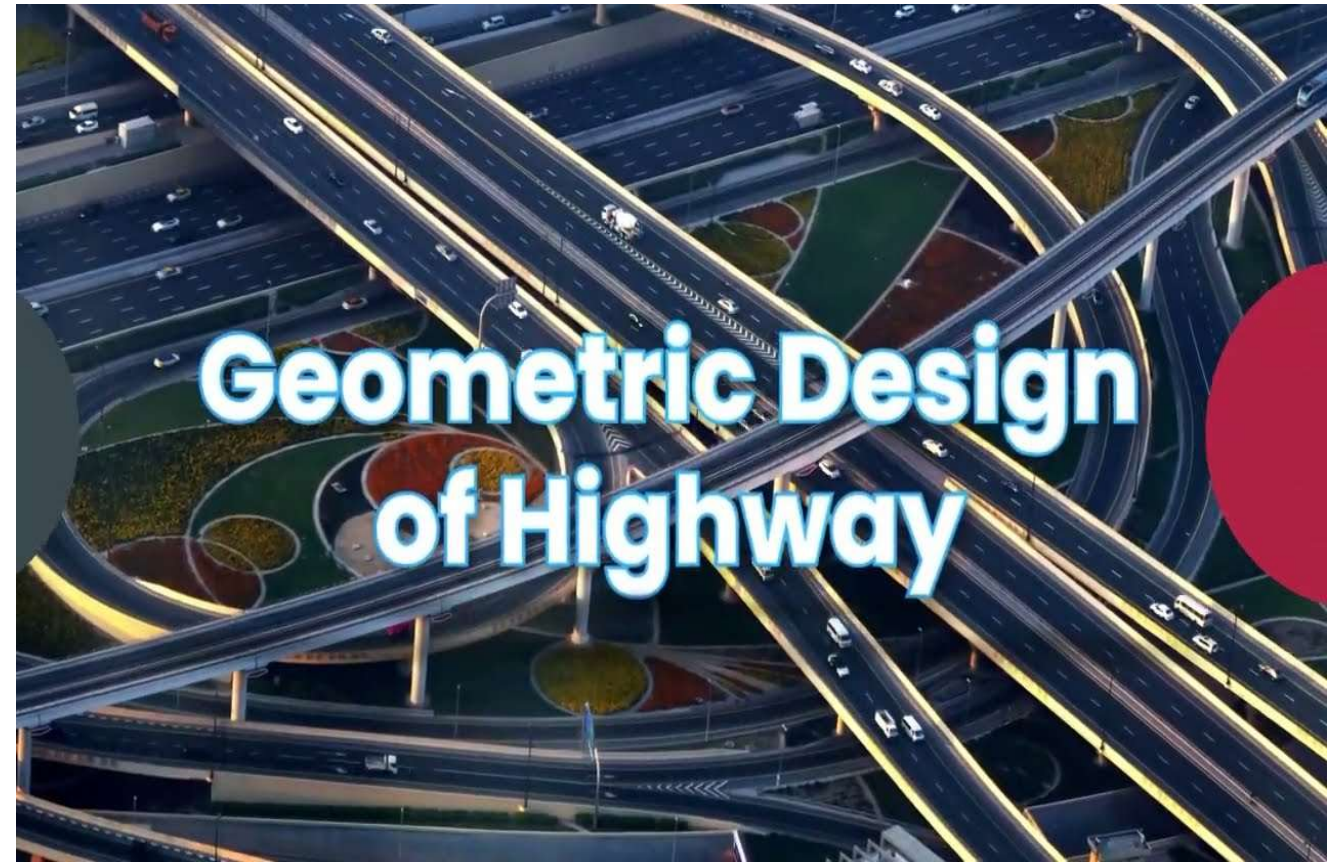
1.4 Organisation of state highway department

- Works department (PWD)

State Highways play major role in economic development of the people as it connects major & important places of the State as well as neighboring States. Also, development of these roads will improve tourism activities in the State as it connects major tourist places.

CHAPTER 2

ROAD GEOMETRIC

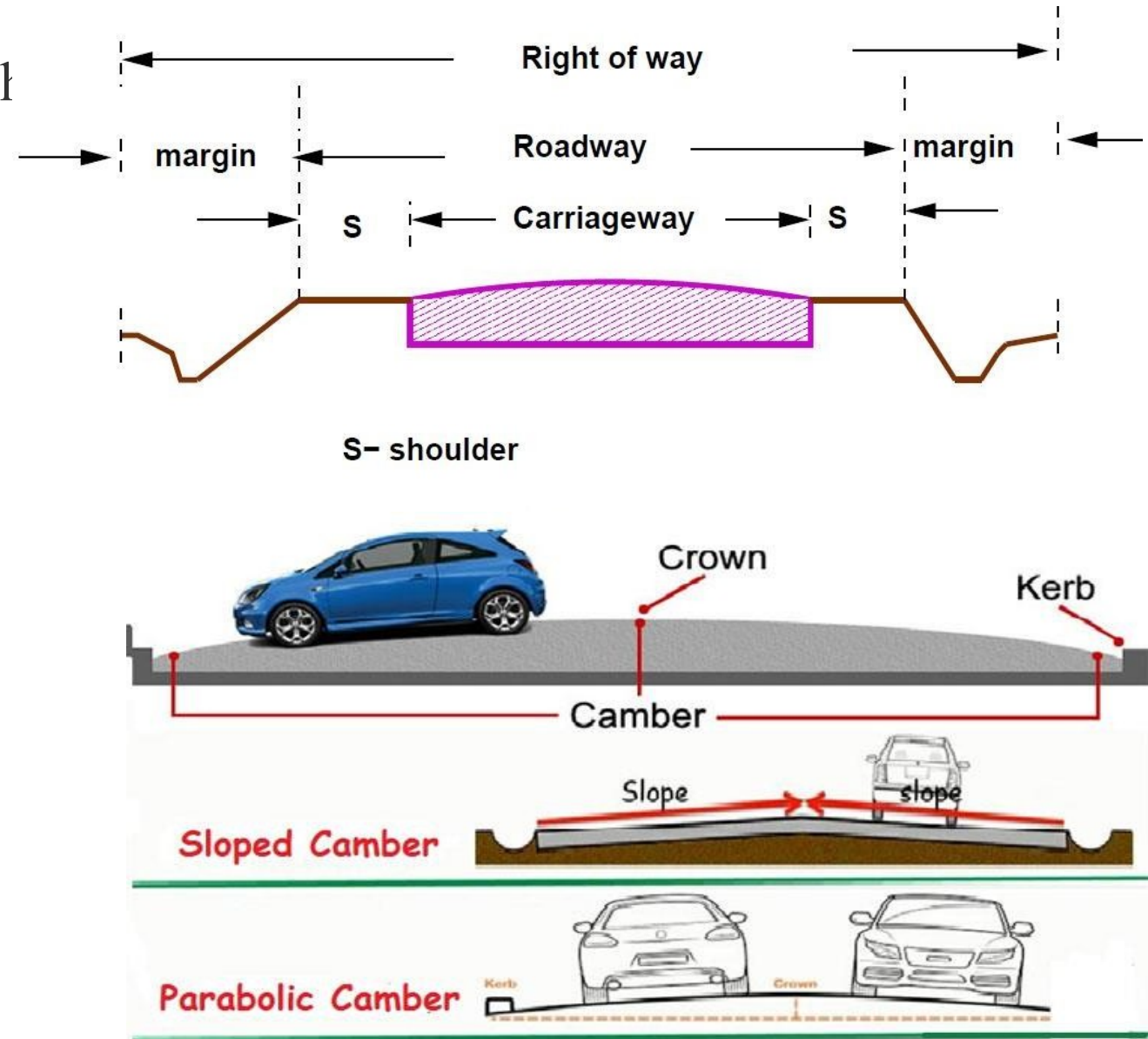


2 Road Geometric

- ❖ 2.1 Glossary of terms used in geometric and their importance, right of way, formation width, road margin, road shoulder, carriage way, side slopes, kerbs, formation level, camber and gradient
- ❖ 2.2 Design and average running speed, stopping and passing sight distance
- ❖ 2.3 Necessity of curves, horizontal and vertical curves including transition curves and super elevation, Methods of providing super – elevation

2.1 The visible dimensions are technically known as road geometrics. Road geometrics can be divided as follows :-

1. Right of way or permanent land width
2. Road margins
3. Formation width
4. Carriage way width
5. Shoulders or footpath
6. Side slopes
7. Kerbs
8. Formation level
9. Camber or cross fall or cross slope
10. Gradient
11. Super elevation
12. Curves



- **1. Right of way :** It is the area of land acquired and reserved for construction and development of the road along its alignment.

Permanent Land width as per Recommendations of I.R.C

Class of Roads	Minimum formation width in Metres		Class of Road	Right of way widths in metres			
	Plain Area	Hilly Area or Rock cutting		Open country		Built up Area	
				Mini-mum	Desirable	Mini-mum	Desirable
National and state highways	12·0	7·90	National and state highways	30·5	30·5 to 61·0	24·4	24·4 to 61·0
Major district roads	10·0	6·70	Major district roads	24·4	24·4 to 30·5	12·2	12·2 to 18·3
Other district roads	8·0	6·70	Other district roads	12·2	12·2 to 24·4	9·2	9·2 to 15·3
Village roads	7·5	4·25	Village roads	12·2	12·2 to 18·3	9·2	9·2 to 15·3

- **2. Road margins :** It is the portion of land width on either side of formation width of a road. It includes footpaths, cycle track, guard raid, embankment slopes and parking lane etc.
- 3. Formation width :** It is the top width of road embankment or bottom width of road cutting excluding the side drains. It is also known as crest.

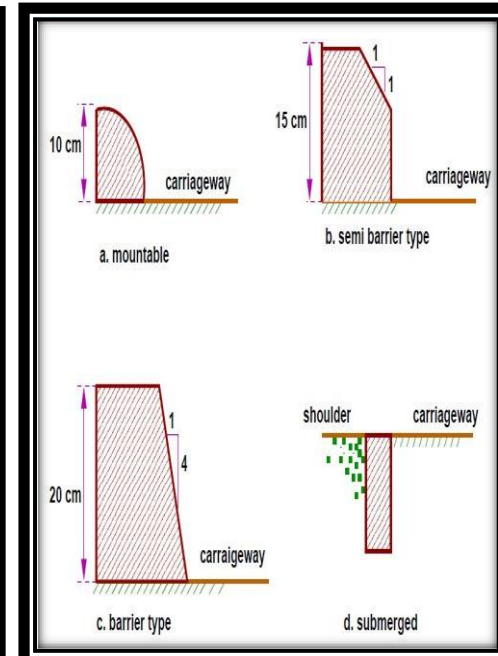
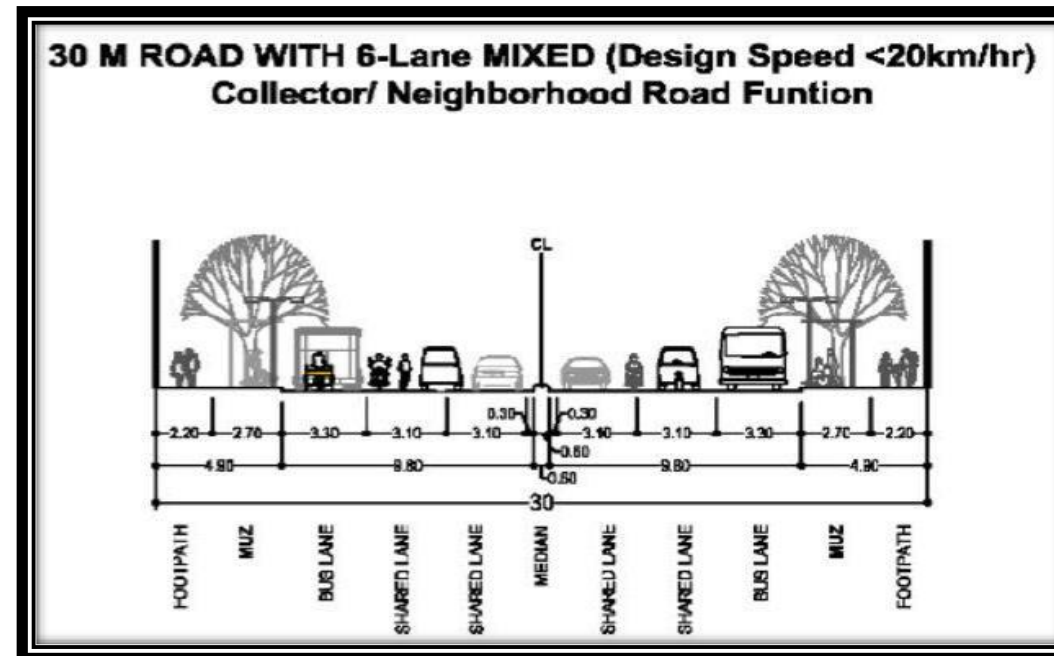
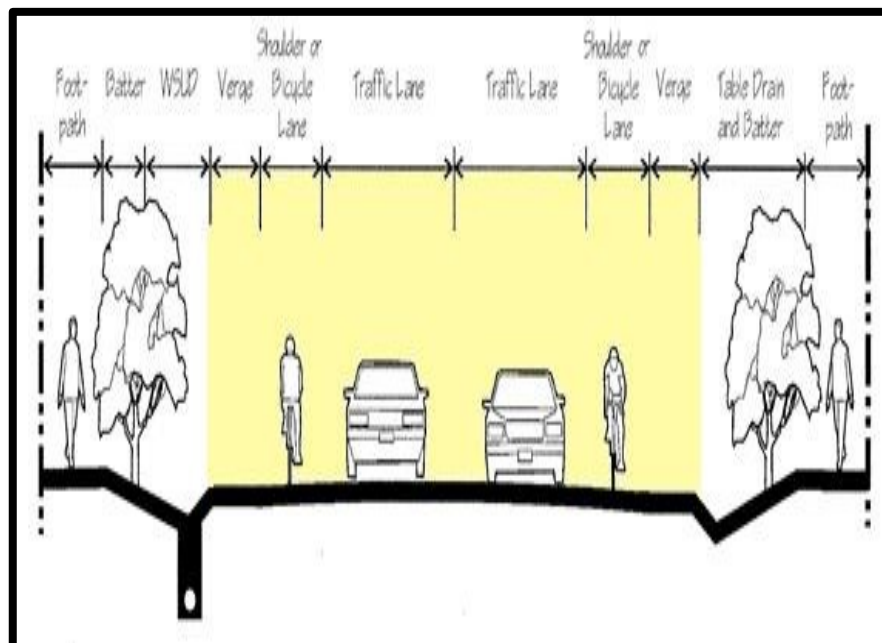
Formation width as per Recommendation of I.R.C.

4. Carriage way : It is the portion of the roadways used by vehicular traffic. It is in general the metalled portion of the road as per Indian Road Congress (I.R.C.) it is 3-8 metre for single lane traffic and 3-5 m. per lane in case of two or more than two lanes.

5. Shoulder for footpath : It is the portion of the roadway between the outer edge of the pavement and top edge of the side slope. Its width generally varies between 1-2 to 1-8 m.

6. Side slopes : The slopes given to the sides of earthwork of road in embankment or cutting for its stability are called side slopes.

7. Krebs : The boundaries between the pavement and footpath is known as kerbs.



8. Formation level : The reduced level of the finished surface of the earth work for a roadway or railway in embankment or cutting is known as formation level.

9. Camber / Cross slope : The central highest point of a curved road surface is known as crown of the road.

❖ **Cross slope, cross fall or camber** is a geometric feature of pavement surfaces: the transverse slope with respect to the horizon. It is a very important safety factor. Cross slope is provided to provide a drainage gradient so that water will run off the surface to a drainage system such as a street gutter or ditch. **As per I.R.C. Recommendations**

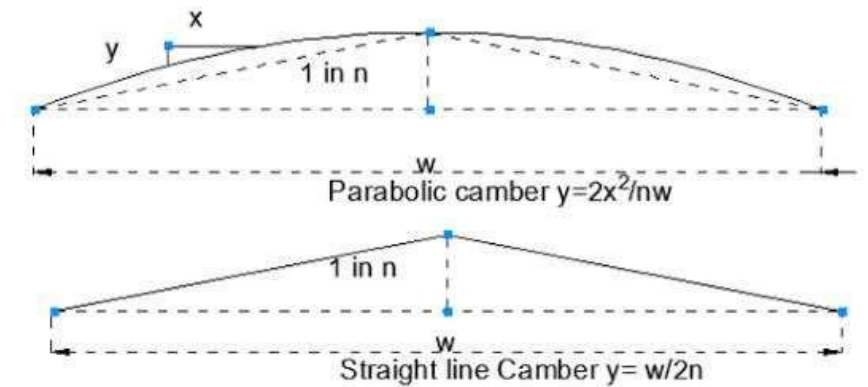
Types of Roads Surface	Camber
Earth roads, foot paths	1 in 20 to 24
Gravel roads	1 in 24 to 30
Water bound macadam roads	1 in 30 to 48
Bituminous roads inside towns	1 in 30 to 48
Bituminous roads outside town paving	1 in 48 to 60
Cement concrete roads	1 in 60 to 72

10. Gradient : Gradient is the longitudinal slope of the road. The slope of the road which is adopted in road design and calculations of cuts and fills is called 'Ruling Gradient'. It is of three types :

1. Limiting gradient
2. Exceptional gradient
3. Minimum gradient

11. Super elevation : It is the inward tilt of the road surface provided at the horizontal curves to compensate the effect of centrifugal force.

12. Curves : The geometrical arcs provided at the intersection of straight alignments either in horizontal or in vertical plane to have gradual change in direction is known as a curve.



IRC Values for camber

Surface type	Heavy rain	Light rain
Concrete/Bituminous	2 %	1.7 %
Gravel/WBM	3 %	2.5 %
Earthen	4 %	3.0 %

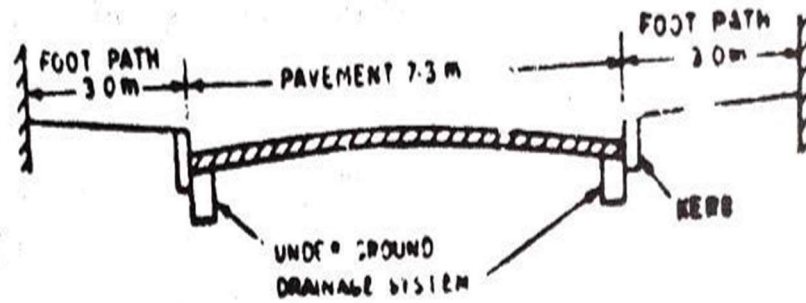


Fig. 4.9 Cross Section of Two-lane City Road in Built-up Area

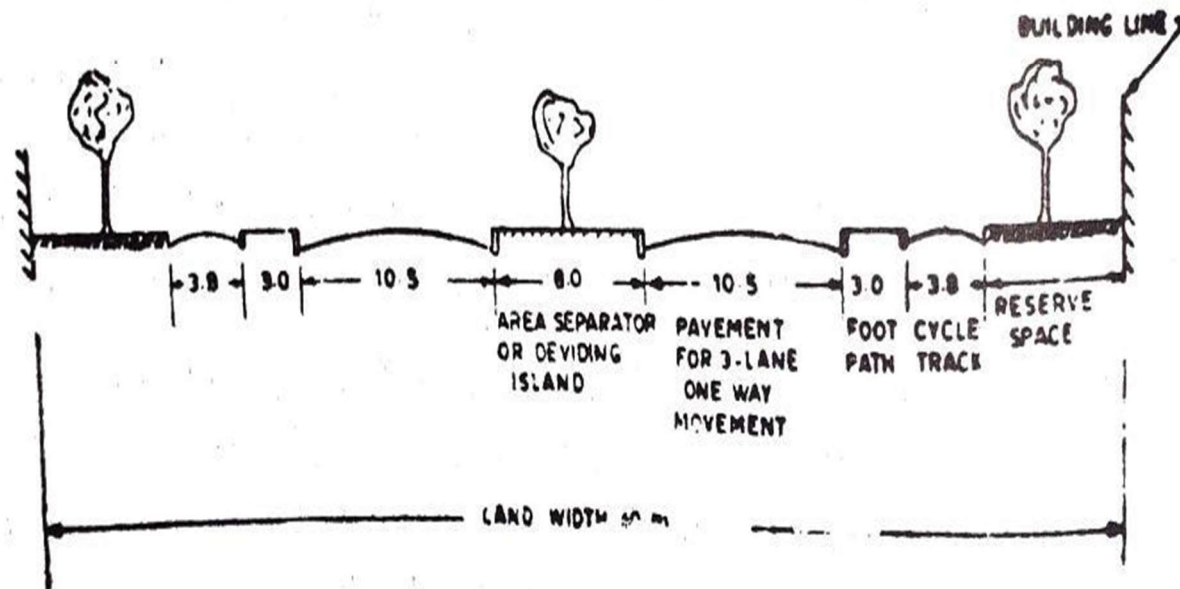


Fig. 4.10 Cross Section of Divided Highway in Urban Area

4.2.8 Typical Cross Sections of Roads

Some of the typical cross sections of rural roads of different categories and urban roads are shown in Fig. 4.6 to 4.10.

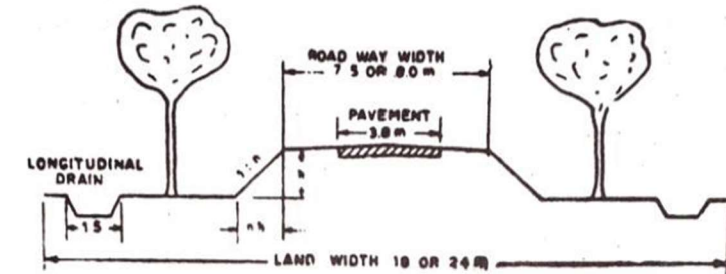


Fig. 4.6 Cross Section of VR or ODR in Embankment in Rural Area

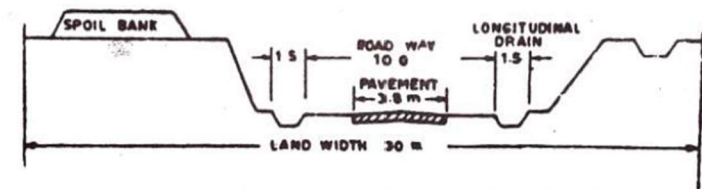


Fig. 4.7 Cross Section of Major District Road in Cutting in Rural Area

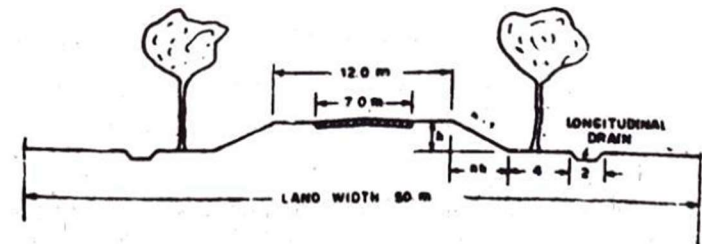


Fig. 4.8 Cross Section of National or SH in Rural Area

▪ Ruling Gradient in Road

It is the maximum gradient within which the designer attempts to design the vertical profile of a road. It is also known as design gradient. As per IRC, the recommended value of ruling gradient for plain or rolling terrain is **1 in 30** or 3.3 %.

▪ Exceptional Gradient

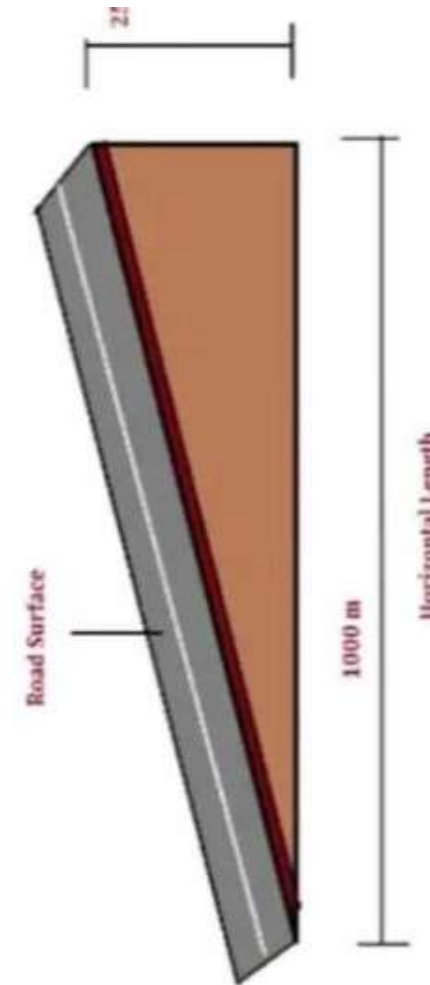
Exceptional gradients are very steeper **gradients** given at unavoidable situations. They should be limited for short stretches not exceeding about 100 metres at a stretch. In mountainous and steep terrain, successive **exceptional gradients** must be separated by a minimum 100 metre length gentler **gradient**.

▪ Limiting Gradient

The **gradient** steeper than the ruling **gradient**, which may be used for a limited Road length, is called **limiting gradient** or maximum **gradient**. It is used where the topography of place compels adopting a steeper **gradient** than the ruling **gradient** to minimize the cost of road construction.

▪ Floating Gradient

The **gradient** on which a motor vehicle moving with a constant speed continues to descend with the same speed without any application of power brakes is called a **floating gradient**.



2.2 Design and average running speed, stopping and passing sight distance

SIGHT DISTANCE:-

- The safe and efficient operation of vehicles on the road depends very much on the visibility of the road ahead of the driver. Thus the geometric design of the road should be done such that any obstruction on the road length could be visible to the driver from some distance ahead . This distance is said to be the sight distance.
- Three sight distance situations are considered for design:
 - Stopping sight distance (SSD) or the absolute minimum sight distance
 - Intermediate sight distance (ISD) is defined as twice SSD
 - Overtaking sight distance (OSD) for safe overtaking operation
 - Head light sight distance is the distance visible to a driver during night driving under the illumination of head lights
 - Safe sight distance to enter into an intersection.

AASHTO (2004) PASSING SIGHT DISTANCE (PSD)

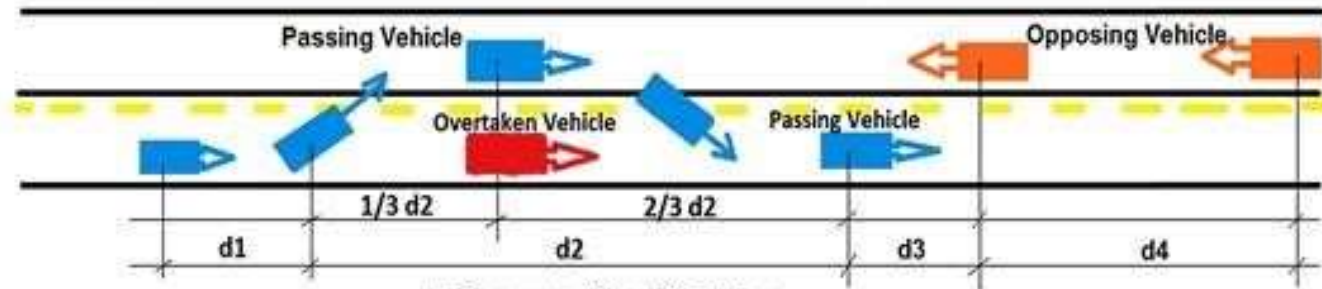
d1 : Initial Maneuver Distance

d2 : Left Lane Distance

d3 : Clearance Distance

d4 : Opposing Veh Distance

$$PSD = d1 + d2 + d3 + d4$$



$$d1 = 0.278t_i [v - m + (at_i/2)]$$

$$d2 = 0.278vt_2$$

$$d3 = 30.0 - 90.0 \text{ m}$$

$$d4 = 2/3 d2$$

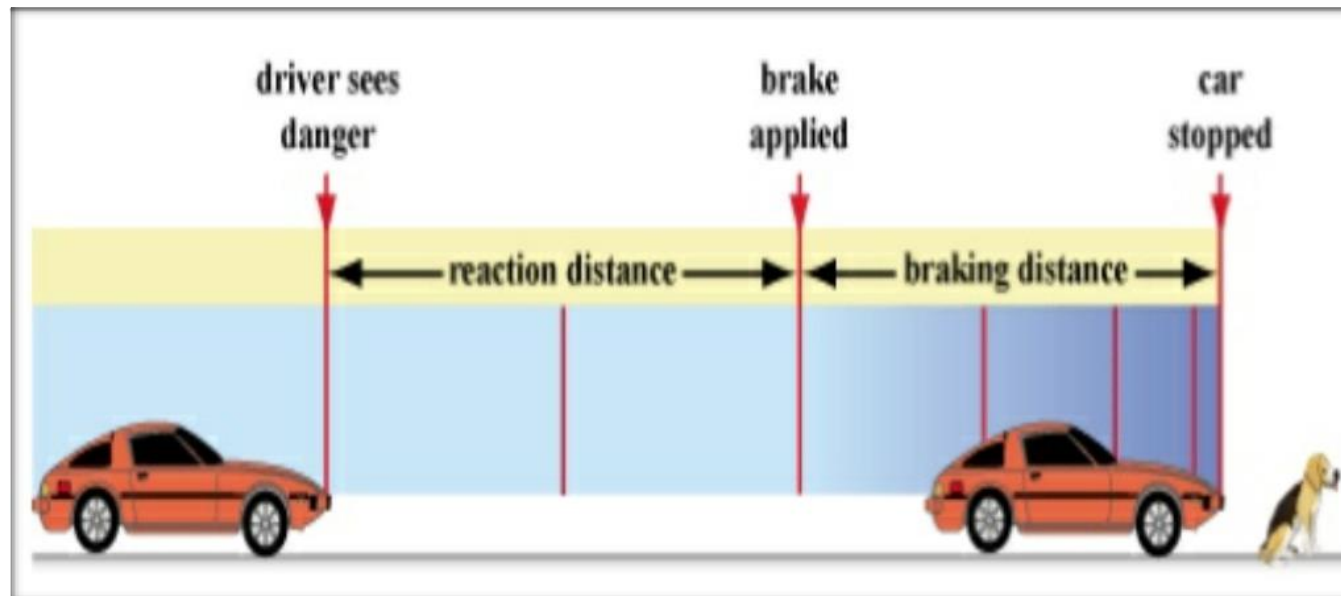
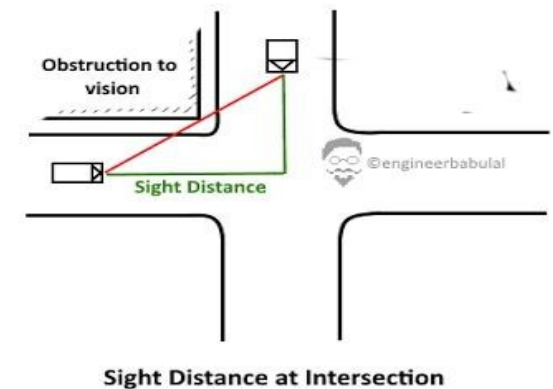
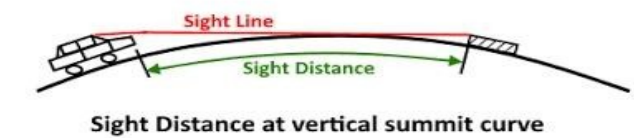
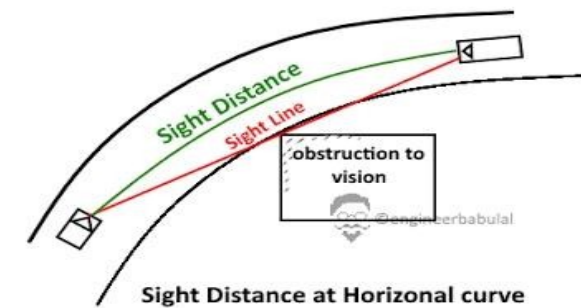
t_i : Maneuver Time, 3.6 - 4.5 sec

v : Speed of Passing Vehicle, km/h

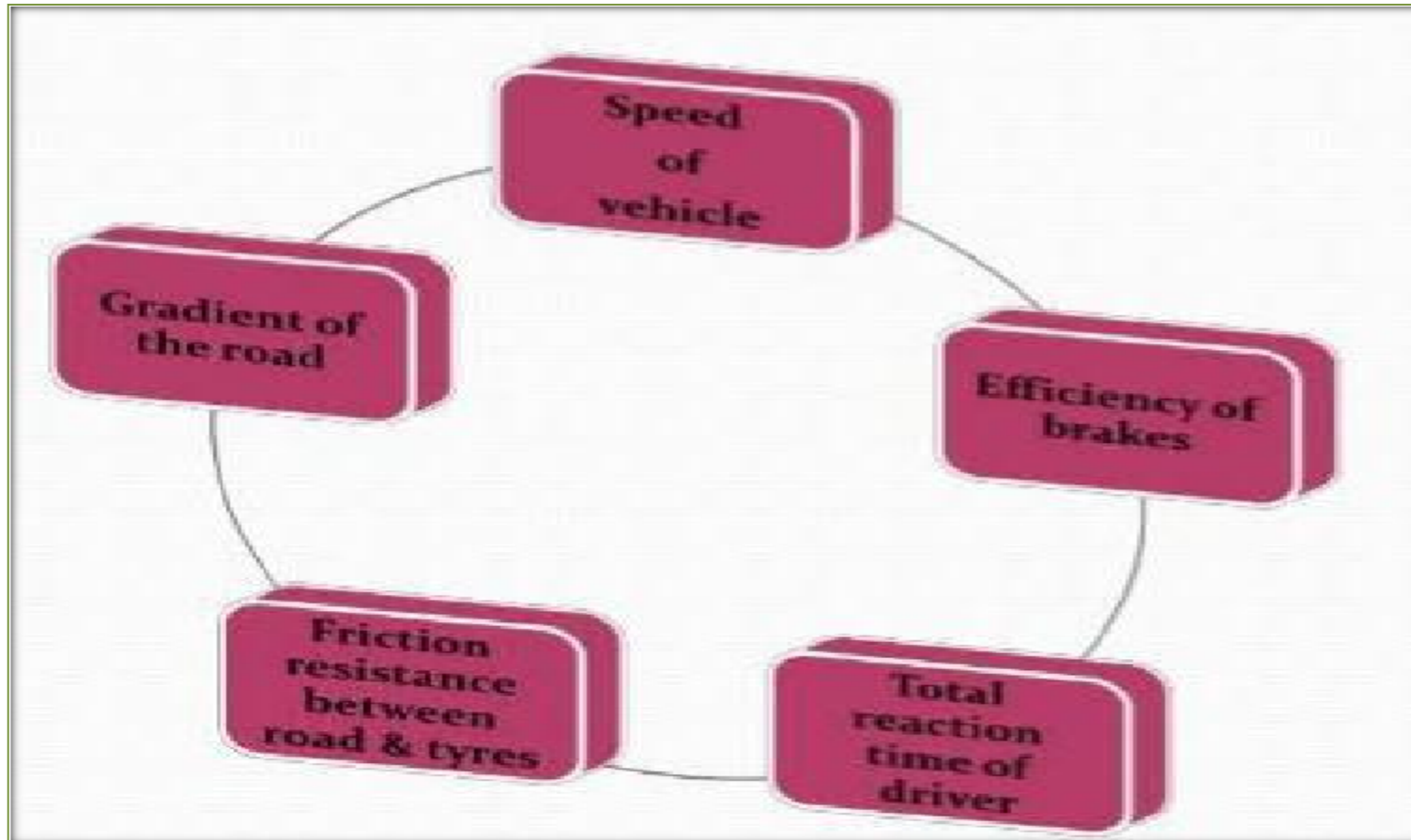
a : Acceleration Rate, 2.25 - 2.41 km/h/sec

m : Differential Speed, km/h

t_2 : Left Lane Time, 9.3 - 11.3 sec



- Factors affecting sight distance:-



Factors affecting Sight distance:- (Road SE GF)

- **Reaction time of the driver**

Reaction time of a driver is the time taken from the instant the object is visible to the driver to the instant when the brakes are applied. The total reaction time may be split up into four components based on PIEV theory. **IRC suggests a reaction time of 2.5 secs.**

- **Speed of the vehicle**

Higher the speed, more time will be required to stop the vehicle. Hence it is evident that, as the speed increases, sight distance also increases.

Efficiency of brakes

The efficiency of the brakes depends upon the age of the vehicle, vehicle characteristics etc. If the brake efficiency is 100%, the vehicle will stop the moment the brakes are applied. But practically, it is not possible to achieve 100% brake efficiency. Therefore the sight distance required will be more when the efficiency of brakes are less. Also for safe geometric design, we assume that the vehicles have only 50% brake efficiency.

- **Frictional resistance between the tyre and the road**

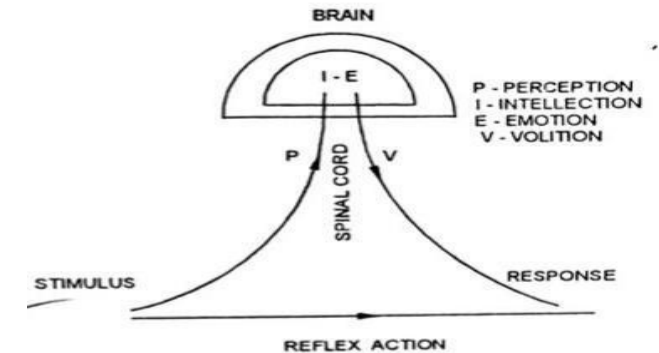
The frictional resistance between the tyre and road plays an important role to bring the vehicle to stop. When the frictional resistance is more, the vehicles stop immediately. Thus sight required will be less. IRC has specified the *value of longitudinal friction in between 0.35 to 0.4.*

- **Gradient of the road.**

Gradient of the road also affects the sight distance. While climbing up a gradient, the vehicle can stop immediately. Therefore sight distance required is less. While descending a gradient, gravity also comes into action and more time will be required to stop the vehicle. Sight distance required will be more in this case.

❖ **PIEV theory**

1) Perception 2) Intellection 3) Emotion 4) Volition



- ❖ 1) **Perception time**: is time required for the sensations received by the eyes or ears of the driver to be transmitted to the brain through the nervous system & spinal cord or it is the time required to perceive an object or situation.
- ❖ 2) **Intellection time** : is the time require for the driver to understand the situation it is also the time required for comparing the different thoughts.
- ❖ 3) **Emotion time**: is the time elapsed during emotional sensational and other mental disturbance such as fear, anger or any other emotional feeling superstition etc
- ❖ 4) **Volition time**: is the time taken by the driver for the final action such as brake application.
- ❖ PIEV is the amount of time it takes a driver to react to a hazard. piev mean PIEV time - perception, intellection, emotion and volition. Before we can stop an automobile, four specific areas of activity need to happen
The total reaction time may be split up into four components based on PIEV theory. In practice, all these times are usually combined into
Full form of PIVE theory perception intellection emotion and volition

■ **Stopping sight distance**

Stopping sight distance (SSD) is the minimum sight distance available on a highway at any spot having sufficient length to enable the driver to stop a vehicle traveling at design speed, safely without collision with any other obstruction.

Therefore, the SSD = lag distance + braking distance and given by:

$$SSD = vt + \frac{v^2}{2gf}$$

(13.1)

where v is the design speed in m/sec^2 , t is the reaction time in sec , g is the acceleration due to gravity and f is the coefficient of friction. The coefficient of friction f is given below for various design speed. When there is an

Table 13:1: Coefficient of longitudinal friction

Speed, kmph	<30	40	50	60	>80
f	0.40	0.38	0.37	0.36	0.35

ascending gradient of say $+n\%$, the component of gravity adds to braking action and hence braking distance is decreased. The component of gravity acting parallel to the surface which adds to the the braking force is equal to $W \sin \alpha \approx W \tan \alpha = Wn/100$. Equating kinetic energy and work done:

$$\left(fW + \frac{Wn}{100}\right)l = \frac{Wv^2}{2g}$$
$$l = \frac{v^2}{2g\left(f + \frac{n}{100}\right)}$$

Similarly the braking distance can be derived for a descending gradient. Therefore the general equation is given by Equation 13.2.

$$SSD = vt + \frac{v^2}{2g(f \pm 0.01n)}$$

(13.2)

ex calculate SSD for $V = 50 \text{ kmph}$ for

a) two lane, two-way road

SIGHT DISTANCE

b) Two way traffic for single lane road.

Assume coefficient of friction as 0.37 and reaction time of driver as 2.5 seconds

Solution

Stopping distance (Eq. 4.4) = lag distance + braking distance

$$= vt + \frac{v^2}{2gf}$$

$$V = 50 \text{ kmph or } v = \frac{50}{3.6} = 13.9 \text{ m/sec}$$

$$t = 2.5, g = 9.8, f = 0.37$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Stopping distance} &= 13.9 \times 2.5 + \frac{13.9^2}{2 \times 9.8 \times 0.37} \\ &= 34.8 + 26.6 = 61.4 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

Alternatively, the stopping distance may also be calculated from Eq. 4.2 as follows :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{SD} &= 0.278 V_t + \frac{V^2}{254 f} \\ &= 0.278 \times 50 \times 2.5 + \frac{50^2}{254 \times 0.37} = 61.4 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

(a) Stopping sight distance when there are two lanes = stopping distance = 61.4 m

(b) Stopping sight distance for two-way traffic with single lane = 2 [stopping distance]
= $2 \times 61.4 = 122.8$.

Calculate the minimum sight distance required to avoid a head-on collision of two cars approaching from the opposite directions at 90 and 60 kmph. Assume a reaction time of 2.5 seconds, coefficient of friction of 0.7 and a brake efficiency of 50 percent, in either case.

Solution

Stopping distance for one of the cars (Eq. 4.1).

$$SD \text{ metres} = vt + \frac{v^2}{2gf}$$

$$V_1 = 90 \text{ kmph, } v = \frac{90}{3.6} = 25 \text{ m/sec}$$

$$V_2 = 60 \text{ kmph, } v = \frac{60}{3.6} = 16.67 \text{ m/sec}$$

As the brake efficiency is 50%, the wheels will skid through 50% of the braking distance and rotate through the remaining distance. Therefore, the value of coefficient of friction developed f may be taken as 50% of the coefficient of friction, i.e., $f = 0.5 \times 0.7 = 0.35$.

$$= 25 \times 2.5 + \frac{25^2}{2 \times 9.8 \times 0.35} = 153.6 \text{ m}$$

For second car,

$$SD_2 = 16.67 \times 2.5 + \frac{16.67^2}{2 \times 9.8 \times 0.35} = 82.2 \text{ m}$$

Sight distance to avoid head-on collision of the two approaching cars

$$= SD_1 + SD_2 = 153.6 + 82.2 = 235.8 \text{ m.}$$

Example 4.4

Calculating the stopping sight distance on a highway at a descending gradient of 2% for a design speed of 80 kmph. Assume other data as per IRC recommendations.

Solution

Total reaction time t may be taken as 2.5 seconds and design coefficient of friction as $f = 0.35$.

$$V = 80 \text{ kmph}; n = -2\% = -0.02, G = 9.8 \text{ m/sec}^2$$

$$v = \frac{80}{3.6} = 22.2 \text{ m/sec}$$

SSD on road with gradient is given in Eq. 4.3 and 4.4.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{From Eq. 4.3, } SSD &= vt + \frac{v^2}{2g(f \pm n\%)} = 22.2 \times 2.5 + \frac{22.2^2}{2 \times 9.8(0.35 - 0.02)} \\ &= 55.5 + 76.2 = 131.7 \text{ m say } 132 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

Alternatively, using Eq. 4.4

$$\begin{aligned} SSD &= 0.278 Vt + \frac{V^2}{254(f \pm 0.01)n} \\ &= 0.278 \times 80 \times 2.5 + \frac{80^2}{254(0.35 - 0.02)} = 55.6 + 76.4 = 132 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

Example 4.5

Calculate the values of (i) Head light sight distance and (ii) Intermediate sight distance for a highway with a design speed of 65 kmph. Assume suitably all the data required.

Solution

$$V = 65 \text{ kmph};$$

Assume

$$f = 0.36, t = 2.5 \text{ secs.}$$

$$(i) \text{ Head light sight distance} = SSD = 0.278 Vt + \frac{V^2}{254f} = 91.4 \text{ m}$$

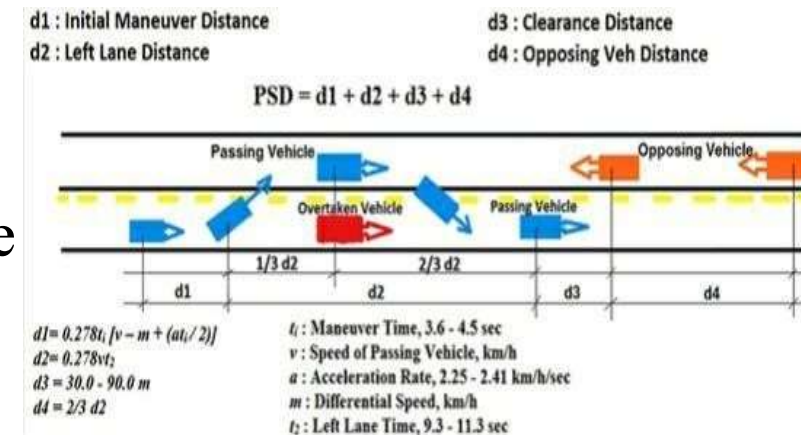
$$ISSD = 2 \times SSD = 182.8 \text{ m.}$$

❖ Overtaking sight distance

❖ The overtaking sight distance is the minimum distance open to the vision of the driver of a vehicle intending to overtake the slow vehicle ahead safely against the traffic in the opposite direction. The overtaking sight distance or passing sight distance is measured along the center line of the road over which a driver with his eye level 1.2 m above the road surface.

❖ The factors that affect the OSD are:

- Velocities of the overtaking vehicle, overtaken vehicle and of the vehicle coming in the opposite direction.
- Spacing between vehicles, which in-turn depends on the speed
- Skill and reaction time of the driver
- Rate of acceleration of overtaking vehicle
- Gradient of the road



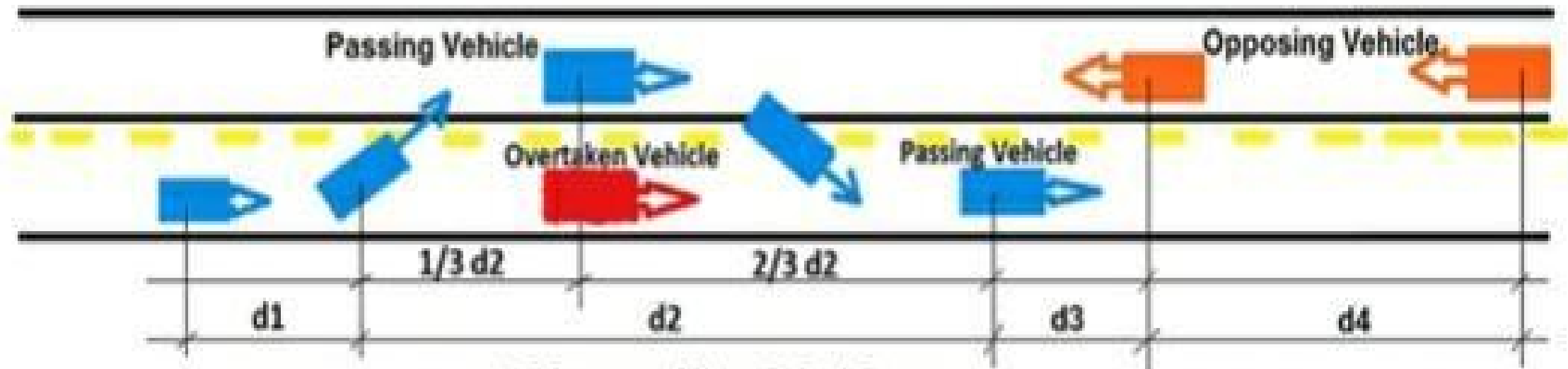
d1 : Initial Maneuver Distance

d2 : Left Lane Distance

d3 : Clearance Distance

d4 : Opposing Veh Distance

$$\text{PSD} = d1 + d2 + d3 + d4$$



$$d1 = 0.278t_1 \{v - m + (at_1/2)\}$$

$$d2 = 0.278vt_2$$

$$d3 = 30.0 - 90.0 \text{ m}$$

$$d4 = 2/3 d2$$

t_1 : Maneuver Time, 3.6 - 4.5 sec

v : Speed of Passing Vehicle, km/h

a : Acceleration Rate, 2.25 - 2.41 km/h/sec

m : Differential Speed, km/h

t_2 : Left Lane Time, 9.3 - 11.3 sec



- d_1 the distance traveled by overtaking vehicle A during the reaction time $t = t_1 - t_0$
- d_2 the distance traveled by the vehicle during the actual overtaking operation $T = t_3 - t_1$
- d_3 is the distance traveled by on-coming vehicle C during the overtaking operation (T).

Therefore:

$$OSD = d_1 + d_2 + d_3 \quad (13.3)$$

It is assumed that the vehicle A is forced to reduce its speed to v_b , the speed of the slow moving vehicle B and travels behind it during the reaction time t of the driver. So d_1 is given by:

$$d_1 = v_b t \quad (13.4)$$

Then the vehicle A starts to accelerate, shifts the lane, overtake and shift back to the original lane. The vehicle A maintains the spacing s before and after overtaking. The spacing s in m is given by:

$$s = 0.7v_b + 6 \quad (13.5)$$

Let T be the duration of actual overtaking. The distance traveled by B during the overtaking operation is $2s + v_b T$. Also, during this time, vehicle A accelerated from initial velocity v_b and overtaking is completed while



reaching final velocity v . Hence the distance traveled is given by:

$$\begin{aligned}d_2 &= v_b T + \frac{1}{2} a T^2 \\2s + v_b T &= v_b T + \frac{1}{2} a T^2 \\2s &= \frac{1}{2} a T^2 \\T &= \sqrt{\frac{4s}{a}} \\d_2 &= 2s + v_b \sqrt{\frac{4s}{a}}\end{aligned}\tag{13.6}$$

The distance traveled by the vehicle C moving at design speed v *m/sec* during overtaking operation is given by:

$$d_3 = vT\tag{13.7}$$

The the overtaking sight distance is (Figure 13:1)

$$OSD = v_b t + 2s + v_b \sqrt{\frac{4s}{a}} + vT\tag{13.8}$$

where v_b is the velocity of the slow moving vehicle in *m/sec*², t the reaction time of the driver in *sec*, s is the spacing between the two vehicle in *m* given by equation 13.5 and a is the overtaking vehicles acceleration in *m/sec*². In case the speed of the overtaken vehicle is not given, it can be assumed that it moves 16 kmph slower the the design speed.

The acceleration values of the fast vehicle depends on its speed and given in Table 13:2. Note that:

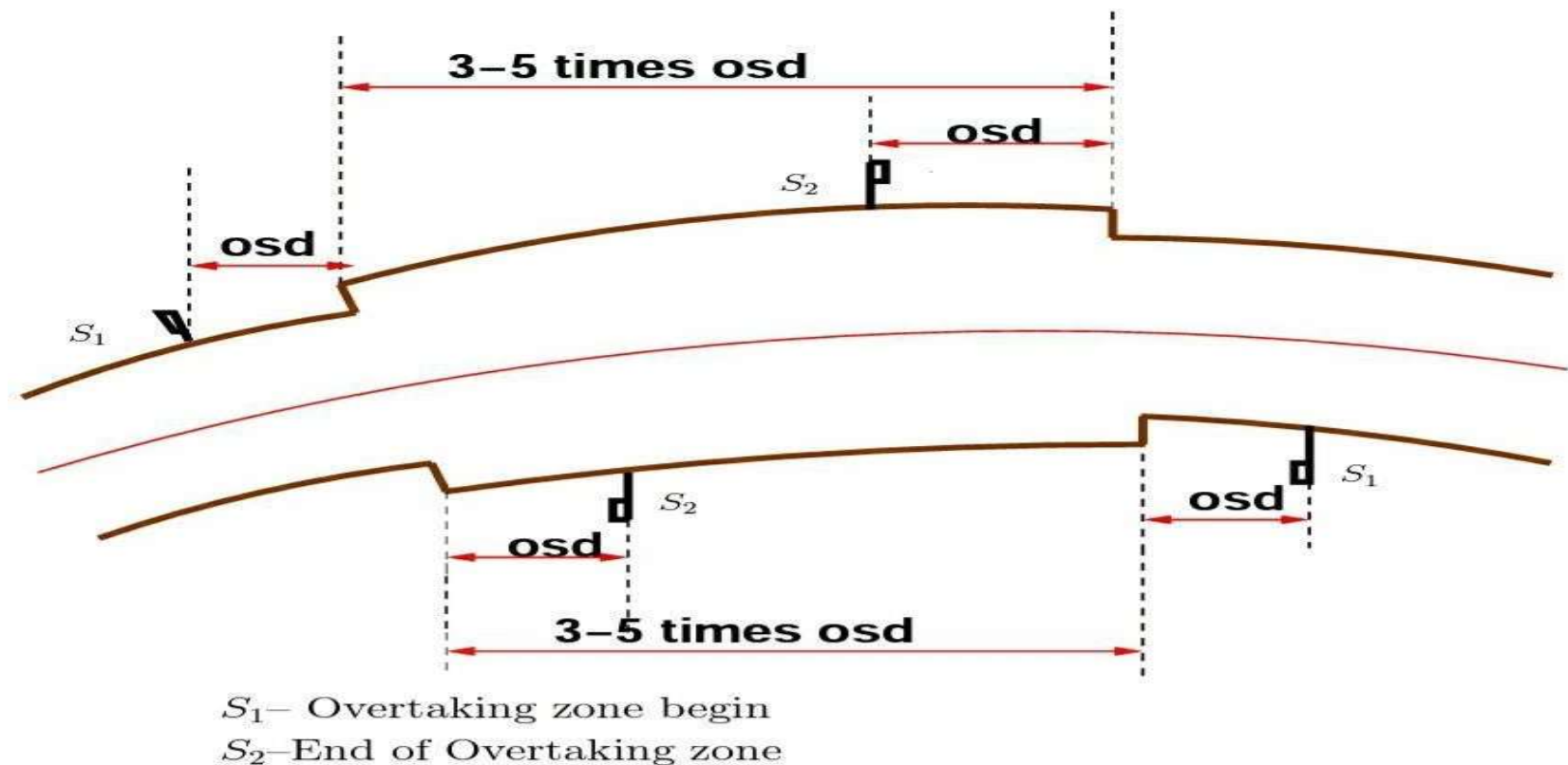
Table 13:2: Maximum overtaking acceleration at different speeds

Speed (kmph)	Maximum overtaking acceleration (m/sec ²)
25	1.41
30	1.30
40	1.24
50	1.11
65	0.92
80	0.72
100	0.53

- On divided highways, d_3 need not be considered
- On divided highways with four or more lanes, IRC suggests that it is not necessary to provide the OSD, but only SSD is sufficient.

■ Overtaking zones

Overtaking zones are provided when OSD cannot be provided throughout the length of the highway. These are zones dedicated for overtaking operation, marked with wide roads. The desirable length of overtaking zones is 5 times OSD and the minimum is three times OSD



The speed of overtaking and overtaken vehicles are 70 and 40 kmph, respectively on a two way traffic road. If the acceleration of overtaking vehicle is 0.99 m/sec^2 .

- calculate safe overtaking sight distance
- mention the minimum length of overtaking zone and
- draw a neat-sketch of the overtaking zone and show the positions of the sign posts.

Solution

- Overtaking sight distance for two way traffic

$$= d_1 + d_2 + d_3 \quad (4.5)$$

Assume the design speed as the speed of overtaking vehicle A

$$V = 70 \text{ kmph}$$

$$v = \frac{70}{3.6} = 19.4 \text{ m/sec}$$

$$v_b = \frac{40}{3.6} = 11.1 \text{ m/sec}$$

Acceleration,

$$a = 0.99 \text{ m/sec per sec.}$$

$$D_1 = v_b \cdot t \text{ (Adopt } t = 2 \text{ secs)} = 11.1 \times 2 = 22.2 \text{ m}$$

$$d_2 = v_b \cdot T + 2 \cdot s$$

$$s = (0.7 v_b + 6) = (0.7 \times 11.1 + 6) = 13.8 \text{ m}$$

$$T = \sqrt{\frac{4 \cdot s}{a}} = \sqrt{\frac{4 \times 13.8}{0.99}} = 7.47 \text{ secs}$$

$$d_2 = 11.1 \times 7.47 + 2 \times 13.8 = 110.5 \text{ m}$$

$$d_3 = v \cdot T = 19.4 \times 7.47 = 144.9 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{O.S.D} = d_1 + d_2 + d_3$$

$$= 22.2 + 110.5 + 144.9 = 277.6 \text{ m, say } 278 \text{ m}$$

- Minimum length of overtaking zone = 3 (OSD)

$$= 3 (d_1 + d_2 + d_3) \text{ for two-way traffic} = 3 \times 278 = 834 \text{ metres}$$

$$\text{Desirable length of overtaking zone} = 5 \times (\text{OSD}) = 5 \times 278 = 1390 \text{ m}$$

(c) The details of the overtaking zone are shown in Fig. 4.16.

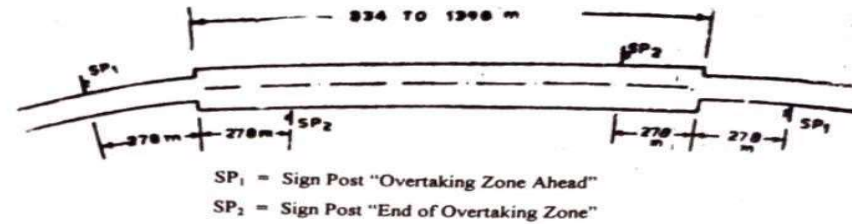


Fig. 4.16 Overtaking Zone (Example 4.6)

Example 4.7

Calculate the safe overtaking sight distance for a design speed of 96 kmph. Assume all other data suitably.

Solution

$$\begin{aligned}\text{O.S.D} &= (d_1 + d_2) \text{ for one-way traffic} \\ &= (d_1 + d_2 + d_3) \text{ for two-way traffic} \\ V &= 96 \text{ kmph}\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Assume } V_b = V - 16 = 80 \text{ kmph and}$$

A 2.5 kmph/sec. (from Table 4.7); $t = 2$ secs.

$$d_1 = 0.28 V_b t = 0.28 \times 80 \times 2 = 44.8 \text{ m}$$

$$d_2 = 0.28 V_b T + 2.s$$

$$s = (0.2 V_b + 6) = 0.2 \times 80 + 6 = 22 \text{ m}$$

$$T = \sqrt{\frac{14.4 s}{A}} = \sqrt{\frac{14.4 \times 22}{2.5}} = 11.3 \text{ secs.}$$

$$d_2 = 0.28 \times 80 \times 11.3 + 2 \times 22 = 297 \text{ m}$$

$$d_3 = 0.28 V T = 0.28 \times 96 \times 11.3 = 303.7 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{O.S.D. on one-way traffic road} = d_1 + d_2 = 341.8 \text{ m; say } 342 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{O.S.D. on two-way traffic road} = d_1 + d_2 + d_3 = 645.5 \text{ m; say } 646 \text{ m}$$

2.3 Necessity of curves, horizontal and vertical curves including transition curves and super elevation, Methods of providing super – elevation

CURVE:-

- A curve is nothing but an arc which connects two straight lines which are separated by some angle called deflection angle. This situation occurs where the alignment of a road way or rail way changes its direction because of unavoidable objects or conditions.
- The object may be a hill or a lake or a temple etc. so, for the ease of movement of vehicle at this point a curve is provided.

Necessity of curves:-

1. To bring about gradual change in direction of motion.
2. To bring about gradual change in grade and for good visibility.
3. To alert the driver so that he may not fall asleep.
4. To layout Canal alignment.
5. To control erosion of canal banks by the thrust of flowing water in a canal.

HORIZONTAL CURVES

- Curves provided in the horizontal plane to have the gradual change in direction are known as horizontal curves.

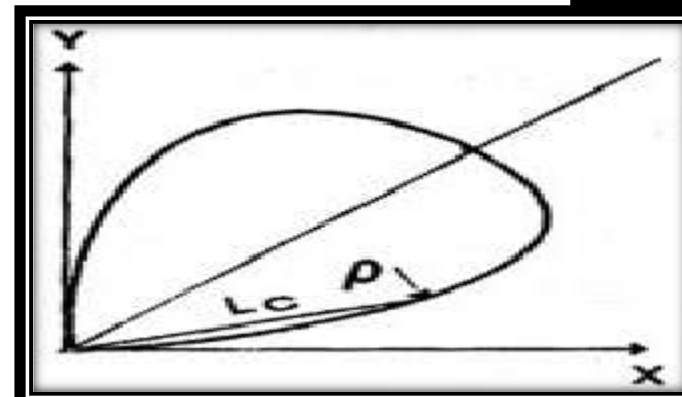
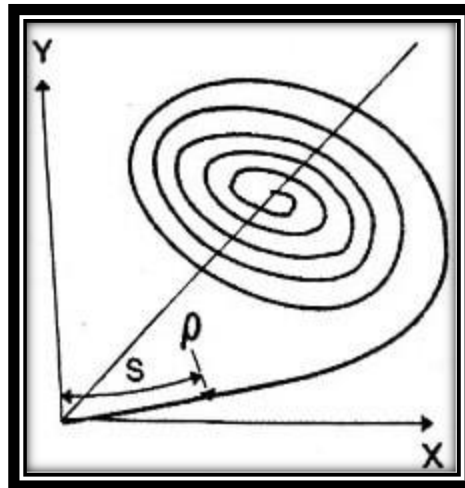
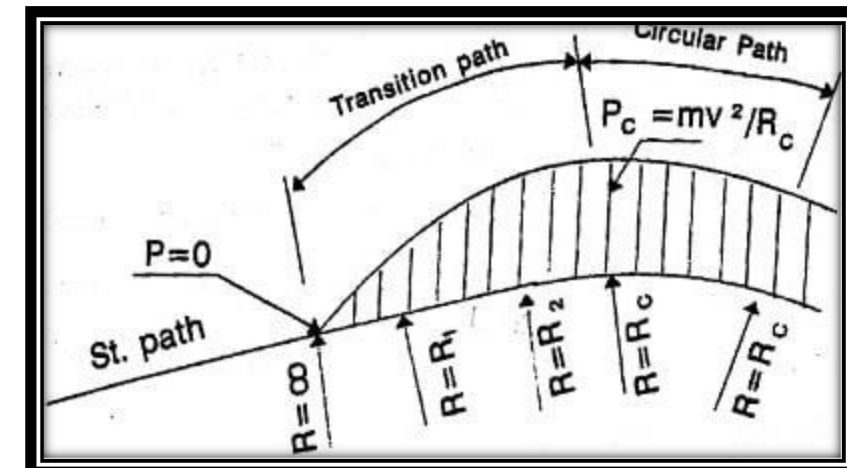
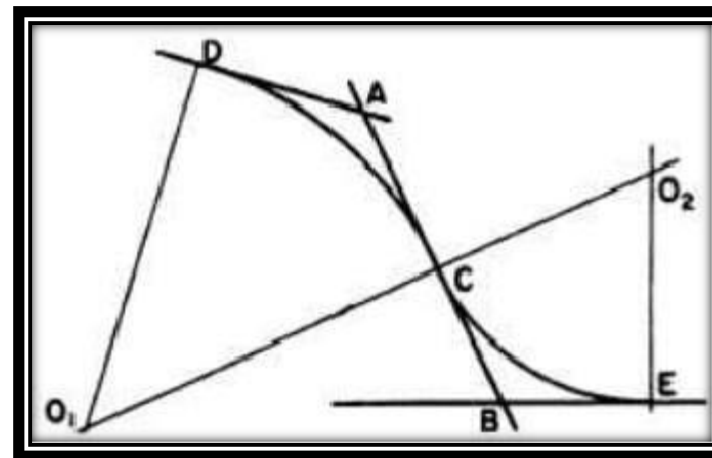
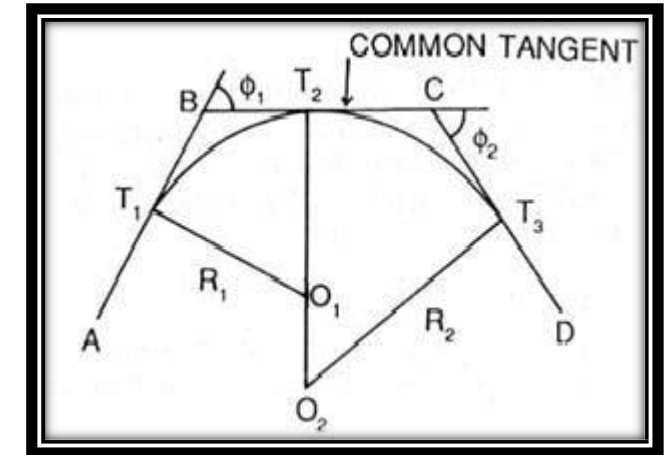
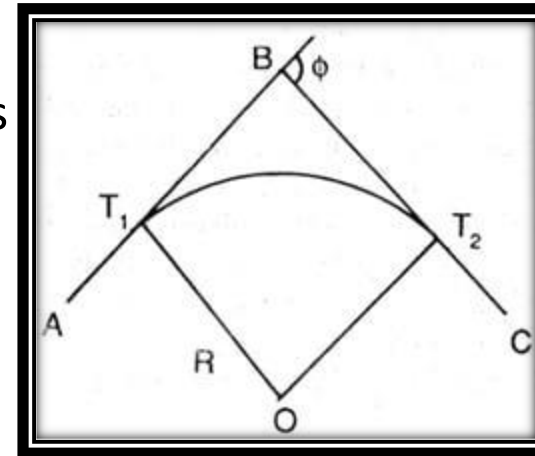
VERTICAL CURVES

- Curves provided in the vertical plane to obtain the gradual change in grade are called as vertical curves.



Horizontal curves are of different types as follows

- ❖ Simple circular curve
- ❖ Compound curve
- ❖ Reverse curve
- ❖ Transition curve
- ❖ Spiral
- ❖ Lemniscate



Simple Circular Curve

- ❖ Simple circular curve is normal horizontal curve which connect two straight lines with constant radius

Compound Curve

- ❖ Compound curve is a combination of two or more simple circular curves with different radii. In this case both or all the curves lie on the same side of the common tangent

Reverse curve

- ❖ Reverse curve is formed when two simple circular curves bending in opposite directions are meet at a point. This point is called as point of reverse curvature. The center of both the curves lie on the opposite sides of the common tangent. The radii of both the curves may be same or different.

Transition Curve

- ❖ A curve of variable radius is termed as transition curve. It is generally provided on the sides of circular curve or between the tangent and circular curve and between two curves of compound curve or reverse curve etc. Its radius varies from infinity to the radius of provided for the circular curve.
- ❖ Transition curve helps gradual introduction of centrifugal force by gradual super elevation which provides comfort for the passengers in the vehicle without sudden jerking.

Spiral Curve

- ❖ Spiral is a type of transition curve which is recommended by IRC as ideal transition curve because of its smooth introduction of centrifugal acceleration. It is also known as clothoid.

Lemniscate

- ❖ Lemniscate is a type of transition curve which is used when the deflection angle is very large. In lemniscate the radius of curve is more if the length of chord is less



TRANSITION CURVE

- ❖ It is a curve in plan which is provided to change the horizontal alignment from straight to circular curve gradually means the radius of transition curve varies between infinity to R or R to infinity.

Objectives for providing transition curves

- ❖ For the gradual introduction Centrifugal force
- ❖ To introduce super elevation gradually
- ❖ To introduce extra widening gradually
- ❖ To provide comfort for the driver that is to enable smooth vehicle operation on road.
- ❖ To enhance aesthetics of highways.

IRC recommends Spiral or clothoid as the ideal transition curve due to following reasons:

- ❖ It satisfies that rate of change of centrifugal acceleration is constant i.e., $L_s \cdot R = \text{constant}$.
Where L_s = length of transition curve R = radius of curve.
- ❖ The calculation and field implementation of spiral curve is simple and easy.
- ❖ It enhances aesthetics also

Determining length of transition curve

The length of transition curve can be calculated by 3 conditions.

1. Based on rate of change of acceleration
2. Based on rate of change of super elevation and extra widening
3. Based in IRC empirical formula

1. Based on rate of change of acceleration

- Radius of curve is infinity at the tangent point and hence centrifugal acceleration is zero. Similarly at the straight end radius of curve has minimum value means centrifugal acceleration is maximum. So, the rate of change of centrifugal accelerationshould be adopted such that the design should not cause any discomfort to the drivers.
- Let L_s be the length of transition curve and a vehicle is moving with a speed of V m/s.

Let “C” be the coef icient of rate of change of centrifugal acceleration.

$$L_s = (V^3/CR)$$

According to IRC, $C = 80/(75+V)$ and C should be $(0.5 < C < 0.8)$.

Based on rate of change of superelevation and extra widening

- Let 1 in N is the allowable rate of introduction of super elevation and E is the raise of the outer edge with respect to inner edge. W is the normal width of pavement in meters. We is the extra width of pavement in meters. And e is the rate of superelevation.

$$E = (W + W_e).e$$

- Therefore length of transition curve,
- If the pavement outer edge is raised and inner edge is depressed with respect to center of pavement then,

$$L_s = [(W + W_e).e.N]/2$$

- Typical range of introduction of super elevation is as follows according to IRC

super elevation is as follows according to IRC

Type of terrain	Rate of super elevation 1 in N
For plain and rolling terrains	1 in 150
For built up areas	1 in 100
For hilly and steep terrains	1 in 60

Based on IRC empirical formula

- ❖ IRC given some direct formulae for finding the length of transition curve.
- ❖ For plain and ruling terrain:
 - ❖ $L_s = 2.7 (V^2/R)$
 - ❖ For mountainous and steep terrains
 - ❖ $L_s = V^2/R$
- ❖ Hence these are the three criteria to determine the length of transition curve.
- ❖ The maximum of above three conditions will be considered as the length of transition curve.

Q1. A national highway with design speed of 70 kmph, width of the pavement 7 m, length of wheel base 7 m, superelevation provided is 1/15 and coefficient of lateral friction is 0.15

- The ruling minimum radius of the curve, in m, is
- Total width of pavement on horizontal curve in

Sol: $e + f = \frac{V^2}{127 R}$

$$R_{\text{Ruling}} = \frac{76^2}{127 \left(\frac{1}{15} + 0.15 \right)}$$

$$= 209.9 \text{ m}$$

Sol: $W_e = \frac{n \ell^2}{2 R} + \frac{V}{9.5 \sqrt{R}}$

$$= \frac{2 \times 7^2}{2 \times 209} + \frac{76}{9.5 \sqrt{209}}$$

$$= 0.787 \text{ m}$$

$\therefore \text{Total width} = 7 + 0.787$

$$= 7.78 \text{ m}$$

Q2. The extra widening required for a two-lane national highway at a horizontal curve of 300 m radius, considering a wheel base of 8 m and a design speed of 100 kmph is

Sol: $W_e = \frac{n \ell^2}{2 R} + \frac{V}{9.5 \sqrt{R}}$

$$= \frac{2 \times 8^2}{2 \times 300} + \frac{100}{9.5 \sqrt{300}}$$

$$= 0.821 \text{ m}$$

Q3. The design speed for a two lane road is 80 kmph, when a design vehicle with a wheel base of 6.6 m is negotiating a horizontal curve on that road, the off tracking is measured as 0.096 m. The required widening of carriageway of the two lane road on the curve is approximately

Sol: Given

$$W_m = 0.096$$

$$\frac{\ell^2}{2R} = 0.096 \Rightarrow R = 226.87 \text{ m}$$

$$\begin{aligned} W_e &= W_m + W_{ps} = \frac{n \ell^2}{2R} + \frac{V}{9.5 \sqrt{R}} \\ &= \frac{2 \times 6.6^2}{2 \times 226.87} + \frac{80}{9.5 \sqrt{226.87}} \\ &= 0.75 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

Q1 A two lane pavement in plane terrain with an extra widening of 0.2 m is provided on a horizontal curve of radius 200 m. The allowable rate or change of centrifugal acceleration is 0.6 m/sec³, allowable rate of change of super elevation is 1 in 100, design speed is 60 kmph. The pavement is rotated about inner edge to achieve super elevation

1. The length of transition curve in meter is
2. The value of shift in meter is

Sol:
$$L = \frac{0.0215 V^3}{C R}$$

$$= \frac{0.0215 \times 60^3}{0.6 \times 200} = 38.7 \text{ m}$$

Considering N value

$$L = eN (W + W_e) = 0.07 \times 100 (7 + 0.2)$$

$$= 50.4 \text{ m}$$

$$L = \frac{2.7 V^2}{R} = \frac{2.7 \times 60^2}{200} = 48.6 \text{ m}$$

∴ The length of T.C = 50.4 m
 (from the 3 values maximum value)

02. Ans: (d)

Sol:
$$S = \frac{L^2}{24 R} = \frac{(50.4)^2}{24 \times 200} = 0.53 \text{ m}$$

Q.2 A highway is to be designed based on the following data : Design speed 80 kmph, radius of circular curve 900 m; width of pavement on curve (no extra widening is provided use $W_e = 0$) 7 m: road is passing through plain terrain; rate of change of super elevation is 1 in 150; the pavement is rotated about center line

1. The rate of change of centrifugal acceleration in m/sec^3
2. The length of transition curve in meter is

$$\text{Sol: } C = \frac{80}{75 + V} = \frac{80}{75 + 80} \\ = 0.516 \text{ m/sec}^3$$

Sol: Considering 'C' value

$$L = \frac{0.0215 V^3}{C R} = \frac{0.0215 \times 80^3}{0.516 \times 900} \\ = 23.7 \text{ m}$$

Considering 'N' value

$$e = \frac{V^2}{225 R} = \frac{80^2}{225 \times 900} = 0.0316$$

(for mixed traffic)

$$L = \frac{e N}{2} (W + W_e) \\ = \frac{0.0316 \times 150}{2} \times 7 = 16.59 \text{ m}$$

Considering terrain

$$L = \frac{2.7 V^2}{R} = \frac{2.7 \times 80^2}{900} = 19.2 \text{ m}$$

$\therefore$ Length of T.C = 23.7 m

HIGHWAY ENGINEERING

CHAPTER 8

CONSTRUCTION EQUIPMENTS



CHAPTER 8

CONSTRUCTION EQUIPMENTS:

Preliminary ideas of the following plant and equipment:

1. Hot mixing plant
2. Tipper, tractors (wheel and crawler) scraper, bulldozer, dumpers, shovels, graders, roller dragline
3. Asphalt mixer and tar boilers
4. Road pavers
5. Modern construction equipments for roads

8.1 Hot mixing plant CHAPTER 8

CONSTRUCTION EQUIPMENTS

CHAPTER 8

CONSTRUCTION EQUIPMENTS

Asphaltic concrete is a mixture of asphalt, coarse aggregates, fine aggregates & filler material. After mixing, we are heating them up to final product called “HOT MIX”.

There are two basic types of plants used to manufacture hot mix asphalt: ☐ Batch type plant

☐ Drum(continuous) type plant

The various parts of Batch mix plant are given below as per flow of material:

1. Cold aggregate four-bin feeder.
2. Cold conveyor.
3. Aggregate dryer.
4. Mixing Chamber
5. Asphalt tank.
6. Mineral filler unit.
7. Load-out conveyor.
8. Centralized control panel

- Cold aggregates four – bin feeder: -

1. It consists of FOUR independent top open type bins having being fabricated from MS plate mounted on rigid Channel supported on channel. Each bin consists of an independent and synchronized variable speeds D.C. motor for feeding the aggregates at a predetermined rate through a precisely adjustable bin quadrant gate.

2. Gathering conveyor belt equipped with an electronic weigh bridge and driven by electric motor.

3. Single deck screen provided at the discharge end of the gathering conveyor for rejection of any paver size material above permissible limit.

4. Single main transfer conveyor to receive the aggregates from the gathering conveyor and discharge it into the dryer under the combustion zone driven by electric motor and reduction gear.

- Separate detachable slinger conveyor is provided to transfer the aggregates received from the vibratory screen to feed into the thermo- drum. Slinger conveyor is driven by constant speed electric motor coupled with reduction gearbox.

- The rigid frame of conveyor is fabricated from appropriate channel sections and the conveyor belt is supported by uniformly spaced roller stands. Any sagging on the return travel of the belt is also taken care of by roller.

- From the cold aggregates conveyor, aggregates are delivered to the dryer. The dryer removes moisture from the aggregates and rises temperature to the desired level.
- The dryer has an oil or gas burner with a blower fan to provide the primary air for combustion of the fuel, and an exhaust fan to create a draft through the dryer.
- Proper aggregate temperature is essential. Aggregates that are heated to an excessive temperature can harden the binder during mixing. Under heated aggregates are difficult to coat thoroughly with binder and the resulting mix is difficult to place on the roadway.
- In this chamber the binder & aggregates are mixed. It consists of a lined mixing chamber with horizontal shaft about which the drum rotates. The chamber is so designed that there are no dead areas formed. The temperature of the mix shall be maintained properly so as to have homogeneous mix.
- The whole assembly of Chamber is supported over prefabricated steel sections preferably of channel or I-sections. The bitumen section of batch mix plant mainly consists of bitumen tank, bitumen heating burner, bitumen pumping & metering unit and hot oil system.
- The tank is fully insulated to minimize heat losses and is of 15,000 liters. capacity. The bitumen inside the tank is heated by U-shaped heating tube fitted with automatic burner of adequate capacity. A jacketed bitumen pump driven by variable speed motor through reduction gearbox is provided to pump the bitumen to the drum. The bitumen flow rate is controlled by varying the RPM of motor. Hot mix storage silos can be offered with options to store different types of mix Designs to meet varied site demands.



Fig. Aggregate Dryer



Fig. Mixing Chamber



Fig. Asphalt Tank

Mineral filler unit:

- The Filler hopper is provided to add mineral filler from a separate hopper, in the mix to the extent pre-selectable in percentage by weight of the maximum plant output. The unit is fabricated from 5 m thick steel plate and mounted on steel structure.
- The system is powered by a variable speed motor coupled with gearbox to rotary valve and also synchronized with aggregate & bitumen output. The filler material from this unit is conveyed automatically up to coated zone in the pug-mill.
- Hot mix material discharged from the pugmill is carried by inclined hot conveyor belt and discharged into the tipper / truck through hydraulically operated surge storage hopper.
- Hydraulically operated storage hopper is provided at the discharge end of the conveyor which stores the hot mix and allows it to fall as mass in the batches and thus avoids segregation and spillage during out cycle.

CONTROL SYSTEM

- The plant is supplied with centralized control panel. All controls, including the motor control, center circuit breakers are provided in the control panel. The control panel controls feeder bin controls and electric switchgear.
- All the parameters like, temperature of bitumen-hot mix material exhaust gases and aggregate weight, asphalt percentage, hot mix material weight etc. are displayed on the control panel. parameters like, temperature of bitumen-hot mix material exhaust gases and aggregate weight, asphalt percentage, hot mix material weight etc. are displayed on the control panel.



Fig. Mineral filler unit



Fig. Control Panel



Tipper, tractors (wheel and crawler) scraper, bulldozer, dumpers, shovels, graders, roller dragline

Tipper

- A truck or lorry the rear platform of which can be raised at the front end to enable the load to be discharged by gravity also called tip truck.
- Tippers are suited for the rough and tumble of mining & quarrying operations, as well as for carrying bulk loads in construction and infrastructure industries. Complete manoeuvrability, high performance and long-term endurance are common to all trucks, resulting in lower operating costs.

□ Tractors (Wheel And Crawler)

- Multi-purpose machines used mainly for pulling and pushing the other equipment.
- Tractors may be classified as
 - a) Crawler type tractor- Used to move bull dozers, scrapers. The crawler has a chain by which these tractors can be very effective even in the case of loose or muddy soils. The speed of this type dose not exceed 12 kmph normally.
 - b) Wheel type tractor- The engine is mounted on four wheels. The main advantage is higher speed, sometimes exceeding 50 kmph it is used for long-distance hauling and good roads.



Fig. Crawler type tractor and Wheel type tractor

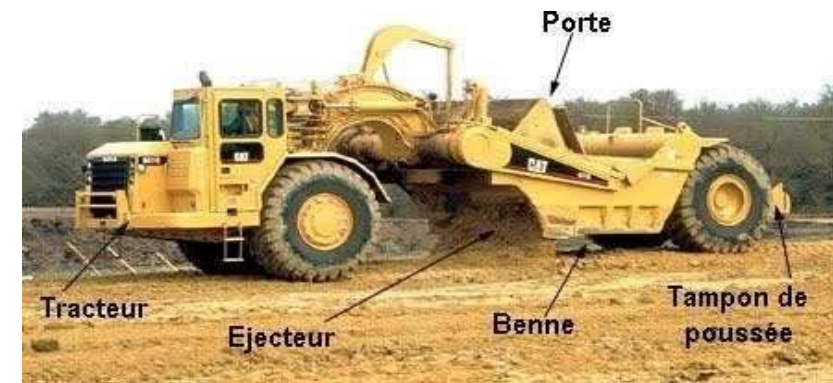
Comparison between crawler and wheeled tractors

Crawler type	Wheeled type
1. Slow speed	1. Greater speed
2. More compact and powerful and can handle heavier jobs	2. Can handle only lighter jobs
3. costly	3. cheaper
4. Cost of operation and maintenance is high	4. Operational and maintenance cost is less
5. Stick control for steering	5. Wheel steering control
6. Moves on rough roads only	6. Moves on rough as well as good roads
7. Used for short distances	7. Used for longer distances
8. Requires skillful operation, maintenance and repairs	8. Lesser skills required for operations, maintenance and repairs



Scraper

- In civil engineering, a wheel tractor-scraper is a piece of heavy equipment used for earthmoving.
- The rear part has a vertically moveable hopper (also known as the bowl) with a sharp horizontal front edge. The hopper can be hydraulically lowered and raised. When the hopper is lowered, the front edge cuts into the soil or clay like a plane and fills the hopper.
- When the hopper is full it is raised, and closed with a vertical blade (known as the apron). The scraper can transport its load to the fill area where the blade is raised, the back panel of the hopper, or the ejector, is hydraulically pushed forward and the load tumbles out. Then the empty scraper returns to the cut site and repeats the cycle.



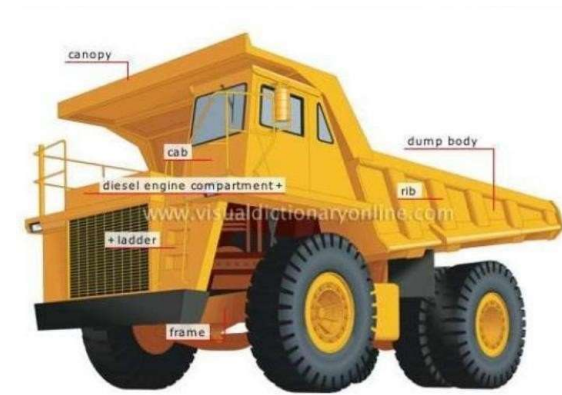
Bulldozer

A bulldozer is a crawler (continuous tracked tractor) equipped with a substantial metal plate (known as a blade) used to push large quantities of soil, sand, rubble, or other such material during construction or conversion work and typically equipped at the rear with a claw-like device (known as a ripper) to loosen densely-compacted materials.



Dumpers

- A dumper is a vehicle designed for carrying bulk material, often on building sites. Dumpers are distinguished from dump trucks by configuration: a dumper is usually an open 4-wheeled vehicle with the load skip in front of the driver, while a dump truck has its cab in front of the load.
- The skip can tip to dump the load; this is where the name "dumper" comes from. They are normally diesel powered. A towing eye is fitted for secondary use as a site tractor. Modern dumpers have payloads of up to 10 tones and usually steer by articulating at the middle of the chassis.



Shovels

- A power shovel (also stripping shovel or front shovel or electric mining shovel) is a bucket equipped machine, usually electrically powered, used for digging and loading earth or fragmented rock and for mineral extraction.
- Power shovels are used principally for excavation and removal of overburden in open-cut mining operations, though it may include loading of minerals, such as coal. They are the modern equivalent of steam shovels, and operate in a similar fashion.

A shovel's work cycle, or digging cycle, consists of four phases:

- Digging ● Swinging
- Dumping ● Returning



Fig. Old Powe

Graders

- A grader, also commonly referred to as a road grader, a blade, a maintainer, or a motor grader, is a construction machine with a long blade used to create a flat surface.
- Typical models have three axles, with the engine and cab situated above the rear axles at one end of the vehicle and a third axle at the front end of the vehicle, with the blade in between.
- In civil engineering, the grader's purpose is to "finish grade" (refine, set precisely) the "rough grading" performed by heavy equipment or engineering vehicles such as scrapers and bulldozers. Graders are commonly used in the construction and maintenance of dirt roads and gravel roads.
- In the construction of paved roads they are used to prepare the base course to create a wide flat surface for the asphalt to be placed on. Graders are also used to set native soil foundation pads to finish grade prior to the construction of large buildings.



Roller

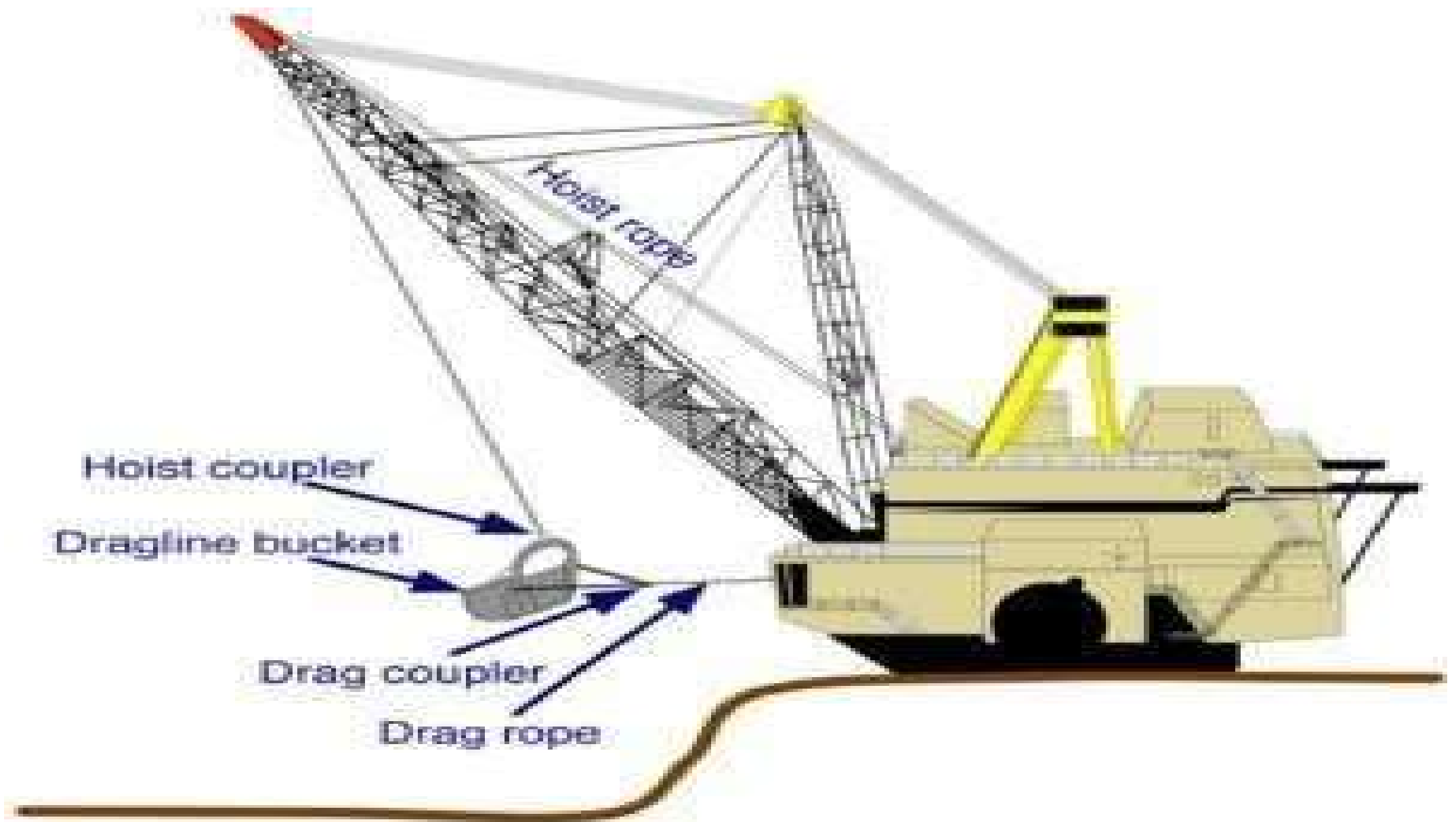
- A road roller (sometimes called a roller-compactor, or just roller) is a compactor type engineering vehicle used to compact soil, gravel, concrete, or asphalt in the construction of roads and foundations, similar rollers are used also at landfills or in agriculture.

Dragline

- The drag line is so named because of its prominent operation of dragging the bucket against the material to be dug. Unlike the shovel, it has a long light crane boom and the bucket is loosely attached to the boom through cables.
- Because of this construction, a dragline can dig and dump over larger distances than a shovel can do. Drag lines are useful for digging below its track level and handling softer materials. The basic parts of a drag line including the boom, hoist cable, drag cable, hoist chain, drag chain and bucket.

Application

- It is the most suitable machine for dragging softer material and below its track level
- It is very useful for excavating trenches when the sides are permitted to establish their angle of repose without shoring.
- It has long reaches.
- It is mostly used in the excavation for canals and depositing on the embankment without hauling units
- It is the most suitable machine for dragging softer material and below its track level
- It is very useful for excavating trenches when the sides are permitted to establish their angle of repose without shoring.



8.4 Road pavers

- A paver (paver finisher, asphalt finisher, paving machine) is an engineering vehicle used to lay asphalt on roadways. It is normally fed by a dump truck.
- A separate machine, a roller, is then used to press the hot asphalt mix, resulting a smooth, even surface. The sub-base being prepared by use of a grader to trim crushed stone to profile after rolling.

8.5 Modern construction equipments for roads

Excavators

Excavators are heavy construction equipment consisting of a boom, bucket and cab on a rotating platform (known as the "house"). The house sits a top an undercarriage with tracks or wheels. Excavators are also called diggers

Excavators are used in many ways:

- Digging of trenches, holes, foundations
 - Material handling
 - Brush cutting with hydraulic attachments
 - Forestry work
 - Demolition
 - General grading/landscaping
 - Heavy lift, e.g. lifting and placing of pipes
- Mining, especially, but not only open-pit mining
River dredging
Driving piles, in conjunction with a pile driver



Fig. Road Paver



Loaders

- A loader is a heavy equipment machine often used in construction, primarily used to Load material (such as asphalt, demolition debris, dirt, snow, feed, gravel, logs, raw minerals, recycled material, rock, sand, and woodchips) into or on to another type of machinery (such as a dump truck, conveyor belt, feed hopper, or railcar).



Skid steer loaders

- A skid loader or skid-steer loader is a small rigid frame, engine-powered machine with lift arms used to attach a wide variety of labour-saving tools or attachments.
- Though sometimes they are equipped with tracks, skid steer loaders are typically four wheel vehicles with the wheels mechanically locked in synchronization on each side, and the left-side drive wheels can be driven independently of the right-side drive wheels.



▪ BACKHOE

□ A backhoe, also called a rear actor or back actor, is a piece of excavating equipment or digger consisting of a digging bucket on the end of a two part articulated arm. They are typically mounted on the back of a tractor or front loader.

□ The section of the arm closest to the vehicle is known as the boom, and the section which carries the bucket is known as the dipper or dipper stick (the terms "boom" and "dipper" having been used previously on steam shovels). The boom is attached to the vehicle through a pivot known as the kingpost, which allows the arm to slew left and right, usually through a total of around 200 degrees. Modern backhoes are powered by hydraulics.

Compactors

□ A compactor is a machine or mechanism used to reduce the size of waste material or soil through compaction.

□ In construction, there are three main types of compactor: the plate compactor, the "Jumping Jack" and the road roller. The roller type compactors are used for compacting crushed rock as the base layer underneath concrete or stone foundations or slabs.

□ The plate compactor has a large vibrating base plate and is suited for creating a level grade, while the jumping jack compactor has a smaller foot. The jumping jack type is mainly used to compact the backfill in narrow trenches for water or gas supply pipes etc. Road rollers may also have vibrating rollers.

