See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/327104263

Energy and thermal performance evaluation of an automated snow and ice removal system at airports using numerical modeling and field measurements

Article in Sustainable Cities and Society · August 2018



Some of the authors of this publication are also working on these related projects:



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect





Sustainable Cities and Society

Energy and thermal performance evaluation of an automated snow and ice removal system at airports using numerical modeling and field measurements



S.M. Sajed Sadati^a, Kristen Cetin^{b,*}, Halil Ceylan^{c,d}, Alireza Sassani^e, Sunghwan Kim^f

^a Research Assistant, Civil, Construction and Environmental Engineering, Intelligent Infrastructure Engineering, Iowa State University, 403 Town Engineering Building, Ames, IA 50011-1066, United States

^b Assistant Professor, Ph.D., P.E., Civil, Construction and Environmental Engineering, Iowa State University, 428 Town Engineering Building, Ames, IA 50011-1066, United States

^c Professor, Ph.D., Civil, Construction and Environmental Engineering, ISU Site Director for FAA PEGASAS (Partnership to Enhance General Aviation Safety, Accessibility and Sustainability) Center of Excellence (COE) on General Aviation. United States

^d Director of Program for Sustainable Pavement Engineering and Research (PROSPER) at Institute for Transportation, 410 Town Engineering Building, Civil, Construction and Environmental Engineering, Iowa State University, Ames, IA 50011-1066, United States

e Research Assistant, Civil, Construction and Environmental Engineering, Iowa State University, 176 Town Engineering Building, Ames, IA 50011-1066, United States

^f Associate Director of PROSPER at Institute for Transportation, Ph.D., P.E., 24 Town Engineering Building, Civil, Construction and Environmental Engineering, Iowa State University, Ames, IA 50011-1066, United States

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: Airport operations electrification Energy management Power demand Electrically conductive concrete Heated pavement Snow and ice removal

ABSTRACT

Airports are moving toward utilizing clean energy technologies along with the implementation of practices that reduce local emissions. This includes replacing fossil fuel-based with electricity-based operations. These changes would significantly impact the energy demand profile of airports. Electrically-conductive concrete (ECON) is currently a focus of heated pavement design for replacing conventional snow removal practices. ECON heated pavement systems (HPSs) use electricity to heat the pavement surface. Since experimental studies are resource intensive and ECON HPS performance depends on weather conditions, developing a field data-validated numerical model enables its long term energy performance evaluation. In this research, a finite element (FE) model is developed and experimentally-validated using two proposed model-updating methods for full-scale ECON HPS test slabs constructed at Des Moines International Airport (DSM) in Iowa. The model predicts energy demands and average surface temperatures within 2% and 13% respectively. The estimated power demand ranges from 325 to 460 W/m² for different weather conditions. The results of this study provide a validated tool that can be used to evaluate the energy demand of ECON HPS. Studying the energy demand of ECON HPS opens the way for developing control strategies to optimize its energy use which will contribute to developing sustainable communities.

1. Introduction

To meet the requirements of a sustainable development, transportation infrastructure, including airports, is moving toward the use of clean energy technologies and reducing the need for conventional practices that create local sources of pollution and have high environmental impacts (ACRP, 2008; Monsalud et al., 2014; Uysal, 2017). This includes replacing fossil fuel-based with electricity-based operations and equipment (Roskilly et al., 2015). However, since the energy demand of such electricity-based operations and equipment would increase the electricity demand profile of the airport, their electric power demand must be assessed to evaluate the technical feasibility of electrifying such operations and equipment. Among the electric systems that could replace conventional practices at an airport, the focus of this research is on electrically-conductive concrete (ECON) heated pavement systems (HPSs) (Anand et al., 2017; Gopalakrishnan et al., 2015a; Gopalakrishnan et al., 2015b).

Snow and ice removal is a necessary effort at many airports, particularly those located in cold regions with frequent and periodic snow and ice events during the winter season. Current methods for snow and

* Corresponding author.

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scs.2018.08.021

Received 30 May 2018; Received in revised form 31 July 2018; Accepted 15 August 2018 Available online 18 August 2018

2210-6707/ © 2018 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

E-mail addresses: ssadati@iastate.edu (S.M.S. Sadati), kcetin@iastate.edu (K. Cetin), hceylan@iastate.edu (H. Ceylan), asassani@iastate.edu (A. Sassani), sunghwan@iastate.edu (S. Kim).

2 **Energy and Thermal Performance Evaluation of an Automated Snow and Ice Removal** 3 System at Airports Using Numerical Modeling and Field Measurements

S.M. Sajed Sadati^a, Kristen Cetin^{b,*}, Halil Ceylan^{c,d}, Alireza Sassani^e, Sunghwan Kim^f

^a Research Assistant, Civil, Construction and Environmental Engineering, Intelligent Infrastructure Engineering, Iowa State University, 403 Town Engineering Building,

^c Professor, Ph.D., Civil, Construction and Environmental Engineering, ISU Site Director for FAA PEGASAS (Partnership to Enhance General Aviation Safety, Accessibility and Sustainability) Center of Excellence (COE) on General Aviation, United States ^d Director of Program for Sustainable Pavement Engineering and Research (PROSPER) at Institute for Transportation, 410 Town Engineering Building, Civil, Construction

and Environmental Engineering, Iowa State University, Ames, IA 50011-1066, United States

4

5 ABSTRACT

6 Airports are moving toward utilizing clean energy technologies along with the implementation of 7 practices that reduce local emissions. This includes replacing fossil fuel-based with electricity-based 8 operations. These changes would significantly impact the energy demand profile of airports. 9 Electrically-conductive concrete (ECON) is currently a focus of heated pavement design for replacing 10 conventional snow removal practices. ECON heated pavement systems (HPSs) use electricity to heat 11 the pavement surface. Since experimental studies are resource intensive and ECON HPS performance 12 depends on weather conditions, developing a field data-validated numerical model enables its long 13 term energy performance evaluation. In this research, a finite element (FE) model is developed and 14 experimentally-validated using two proposed model-updating methods for full-scale ECON HPS test 15 slabs constructed at Des Moines International Airport (DSM) in Iowa. The model predicts energy 16 demands and average surface temperatures within 2% and 13% respectively. The estimated power demand ranges from 325 to 460 W/m² for different weather conditions. The results of this study provide 17 18 a validated tool that can be used to evaluate the energy demand of ECON HPS. Studying the energy 19 demand of ECON HPS opens the way for developing control strategies to optimize its energy use 20 which will contribute to developing sustainable communities.

21 **Keywords:** Airport operations electrification, energy management, power demand, electrically 22 conductive concrete, heated pavement, snow and ice removal.

Ames, IA 50011-1066, United States ^b Assistant Professor, Ph.D., P.E., Civil, Construction and Environmental Engineering, Iowa State University, 428 Town Engineering Building, Ames, IA 50011-1066, United States

e Research Assistant, Civil, Construction and Environmental Engineering, Iowa State University, 176 Town Engineering Building, Ames, IA 50011-1066, United States ^fAssociate Director of PROSPER at Institute for Transportation, Ph.D., P.E., 24 Town Engineering Building, Civil, Construction and Environmental Engineering, Iowa State University, Ames, IA 50011-1066, United States

23 **1. INTRODUCTION**

24 To meet the requirements of a sustainable development, transportation infrastructure, including 25 airports, is moving toward the use of clean energy technologies and reducing the need for 26 conventional practices that create local sources of pollution and have high environmental impacts 27 [1–3]. This includes replacing fossil fuel-based with electricity-based operations and equipment 28 [4]. However, since the energy demand of such electricity-based operations and equipment would 29 increase the electricity demand profile of the airport, their electric power demand must be assessed to evaluate the technical feasibility of electrifying such operations and equipment. Among the 30 31 electric systems that could replace conventional practices at an airport, the focus of this research 32 is on electrically-conductive concrete (ECON) heated pavement systems (HPSs) [5,6].

33 Snow and ice removal is a necessary effort at many airports, particularly those located in cold 34 regions with frequent and periodic snow and ice events during the winter season. Current methods for snow and ice removal commonly use fossil fuel-powered vehicles and snow plowing 35 equipment, or melt snow and ice using chemicals [7,8]. During snow removal operations, snow is 36 37 typically plowed into piles in designated areas [9]. At many airports the piles of plowed snow may 38 also be melted using either stationary or mobile snow-melting equipment. Not only do such 39 conventional methods have high environmental and air quality impacts, they are also time-40 consuming for airport personnel and can be costly, sometimes resulting in delays and airplane accidents at the airports [10,11]. For this particular type of area, snow and ice can also represent a 41 42 safety hazard for both passengers and airport workers. Moreover, when chemicals are used for snow and ice removal, the lifetime of the pavement is usually reduced [12,13], resulting in higher 43 44 maintenance and rehabilitation costs over the pavement's lifetime. Runoff containing such

45 chemicals produce negative environmental consequences [7,14], so there is a growing research 46 focus on alternative snow and ice removal methods, including heated pavement systems [15,16]. 47 Several recent studies have been conducted on heated pavement systems [17–19]. There 48 are four types of heated pavement systems, including: i) infrared heating [20], ii) electrical heaters 49 embedded in pavement [21], iii) hydronic heating circulating hot water through pipes embedded 50 in pavement [22,23], and iv) electrically conductive concrete and asphalt [24–26]. Electrically-51 conductive concrete (ECON) heated pavement systems (HPS), the most recently developed among 52 these technologies, are produced by adding electrically conductive material, such as steel shavings 53 [26] or carbon fibers [27] to the concrete mix. The addition of these materials enables the pavement 54 system to act as a resistor, which generates heat when a voltage is applied.

ECON HPS require an external source of electricity to generate and dissipate heat that increases the surface temperature of the pavement sufficiently to melt snow and ice. Therefore, the use of ECON HPS will change the profile of electricity demand of an airport during snow and ice events, particularly if it is widely implemented. Given the move toward dynamic and time-of-use pricing by utilities [28,29], as well as the demand charge-dominant rate structures used today, particularly for commercial facilities, a comprehensive understanding of the performance and associated power demands and energy consumption of such systems is needed.

To have an accurate estimation of energy consumption of ECON HPS, it is also necessary to study the thermal performance of this system since the goal of implementing ECON HPS is to use electricity to modulate the pavement surface temperature and melt the snow and ice. ECON HPS's thermal performance depends on many factors, and an important factor is boundary conditions, including climatic conditions, to which the ECON HPS is exposed. Since conducting experimental research to determine thermal performance over a wide range of climatic conditions

is costly, the availability of a reliable, validated numerical model for assessing system responseunder different conditions would be beneficial.

Much of the existing literature on modeling the thermal performance of concrete focuses on the modeling of portland cement concrete (PCC) not containing electrically conductive materials. Thelandersson [30] modeled the combined effects of structural and thermal loads on concrete using coupled equations describing structural and thermal strains. Thermal strain is considered to be a function of concrete temperature and stress level applied by structural loads and a simplified method for estimating the thermomechanical response of concrete to thermal and structural loads was developed and verified by experimental testing.

77 In another study on material properties of concrete, Khan [31] investigated the significant parameters affecting thermal properties of concrete and models for predicting such properties. 78 79 Thermo-physical properties of concrete were also studied by Shin, et a. [32] and Kodur and Sultan 80 [33]. In both studies, thermal properties of concrete, including thermal conductivity and heat capacity, were studied for temperatures ranging from 20 to 1,000 °C. In this paper temperatures 81 82 between -20 °C and 30 °C for concrete material are of interest. The results of Shin and Kodur's 83 studies show that changes in thermal conductivity and heat capacity of concrete are not significant 84 for temperatures between 0 °C and 30 °C.

In another study, Selvam and Castro [34] developed a 3D finite element model for estimating heat transfer in concrete to seek improvement in its properties for energy storage applications. While this model was used to identify parameters that would improve the performance of concrete in terms of storing thermal energy, these studies have not considered ECON.

90 Although there are several experimental studies on ECON HPS [18,35], there are only two 91 previously-known studies on numerical modeling of this type of concrete [26,27], and these studies 92 did not consider heat transfer between all pavement layers. Tuan, et al. [26], primarily studied the 93 experimental performance of ECON material produced using steel shavings. A simplified finite 94 element (FE) ECON model was also developed to predict the temperature increase in an ECON 95 layer due to application of a voltage, although the correspondence of the predicted temperature 96 values with experimentally-measured values was not reported. In the second study, Abdualla, et 97 al. [27] developed an FE model of a single ECON layer on top of a regular PCC layer, but did not 98 consider other layers of a pavement system. The ECON material was produced by adding carbon fibers to the concrete mix. Abdualla et al., reported that the temperature values predicted at the 99 100 middle of the ECON surface by the model were consistent with the laboratory experimental 101 temperature measurements. None of these studies considers the heat loss due to the melting process 102 of snow and ice. Moreover, in previous studies on modeling of ECON, only the top conductive 103 layer has been investigated even though system performance would also be dependent on the heat 104 transfer to the layers below. In addition, in previous studies energy consumption and power 105 demand of the ECON HPS, important factors in operation of these systems, were not evaluated.

Given the non-uniform heating of the ECON layer associated with dispersion of the carbon fibers, along with other complexities of ECON material, a more comprehensive understanding is needed to better characterize the overall performance of ECON, including the associated electricity demand and consumption. This would include modeling of all the pavement layers to produce a more detailed understanding of ECON HPS performance in a physics-based model that can, through validation and model-updating, help predict pavement performance under a variety of conditions in terms of melting snow and ice.

113 The objective of this research is to create a field data-validated numerical model of ECON 114 HPS capable of predicting its energy demands and temperature variations at multiple surface and 115 sub-surface locations of all pavement layers. This model is developed using actual climatic 116 condition data and system parameters, including material properties and the applied voltage using 117 data obtained from ECON HPS test slabs at the Des Moines International Airport (DSM). Based 118 on this numerical model, the power demand of ECON HPS and resultant effect on the energy 119 consumption of an airport are predicted considering typical weather data for the studied airport 120 location. Although the presented methodology is used to evaluate energy performance of the 121 system at DSM, the methodology can be implemented for any location with available weather 122 data. The methodology of this work are beneficial for providing guidelines for the design of ECON 123 HPS in different climatic zones since the design parameters are highly sensitive to climatic 124 conditions. The effect of implementing ECON HPS on power demand is also an important factor 125 for decision makers who are interested in the feasibility of such systems and comparing them with 126 other snow and ice removal methods. In this respect, having a reliable numerical model that is able 127 to predict the added power demand associated with the use of ECON HPS would be a beneficial 128 tool for developing control strategies to minimize the energy demand. The remainder of this paper 129 provides a brief explanation of ECON material and slab construction, the methodology of 130 obtaining the data from field slabs and developing the FE model, including each layer's material 131 properties and sizing, and model-updating methods for calibrating the model. Results obtained 132 from the model are reported and compared with the actual temperature and electric power 133 measurements under the same climatic conditions.

134

135 **2. METHODOLOGY**

The methodology section is organized into several subsections. The first subsection summarizes the field implementation of ECON, the basis of the developed FE model, including the testing of thermal properties during the field test section. The development of the finite element model is then discussed, followed by a description of the model-updating methods.

140 **2.1 ECON FIELD TESTING**

141 2.1.1 ECON Material

142 The ECON material was prepared using chopped carbon fibers as an electrically conductive 143 additive. Carbon fiber at a dosage of 1% by total volume of concrete mixture, a value based on the 144 results of previous studies, [5,36-40] was used. The chopped carbon fiber is Polyacrilonitrile-145 based with 95% carbon content and an electrical resistivity of $1.55 \times 10^{-3} \Omega$ -cm [36]. The carbon 146 fiber fraction of the ECON material mixture, 1% of total volume of ECON, is comprised of 70% 147 6 mm-long fibers and 30% 3 mm-long fibers.

The ECON mix design [41], materials, and hardened properties conform to standard Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) specifications [42,43]. For the test slabs at DSM, 5 m³ of ECON material was produced in a drum mixer. Carbon fibers in the required amount were dried in an oven at 115°C for 24 hours, then packed in water-soluble bags to prevent fiber loss during transportation and handling and to expedite the process of feeding the fibers into the mixer.

153 2.1.2 Slab Construction and Instrumentation

A full-scale ECON system test slab was constructed at DSM, Iowa [44]. The slab includes a 9 cm ECON layer poured over a 10 cm thick conventional concrete slab with a coarse aggregate base layer of 20 cm underneath, as shown in Figure 1. This pavement design meets the requirements enforced by DSM airport, including having a total concrete layer thickness of 19 cm (in this case

158 ECON layer (9 cm) plus conventional concrete layer (10 cm)) and base layer of 20 cm. Therefore, 159 ECON HPS can be implemented based on FAA requirements. The ECON HPS consisted of 3.8 m 160 by 4.6 m slabs with six embedded stainless steel L-shaped electrodes spaced 1 m apart. The 161 electrodes were connected to an external source of electricity to provide a voltage of approximately 162 210 V. Figure 2 is a thermal image of the ECON HPS surface during one of the test events at an average ambient temperature of 0°C and an average wind speed of 4.1 m/s measured at a height of 163 164 10 m.



165

(b)

- Figure 1. ECON HPS slabs constructed at the Des Moines International Airport in Iowa, 166
- including (a) diagram of the layout and layers, and (b) photograph of the field test setup 167
- operating in snow conditions (Photo by Hesham Abdualla, Iowa State University [45]) 168



- Figure 2. Thermal image of the ECON HPS slabs at DSM in an experimental test under an 170
- average ambient temperature of 0 °C and average wind speed of 4.1 m/s measured at a height 171
- of 10 m 172

173 2.1.3 Field Data Collection and Quality Control

174 The field test slabs were implemented with temperature sensors embedded at strategic locations 175 (Figure 2) to provide an improved understanding of thermal performance. The temperature sensors 176 consisted of wireless sensors (with +/- 1% error) [46] and thermistors in installed strain gauge 177 sensors (with +/- 0.5 °C error) [47]. These strain gauges were embedded inside the ECON layer 178 approximately 6 cm from the surface of the pavement, and the wireless sensors were embedded 179 inside each layer of the ECON HPS in the locations shown in Figure 3. The collected field data 180 was quality controlled by checking for sensors and/or periods of time producing noisy data, and 181 for data above or below acceptable temperature thresholds. In order to measure the power demand 182 of the system, voltmeter and ammeter sensors (with $\pm -0.5\%$ error) [46] were used on the main 183 circuit connected to the ECON HPS test slabs. Since electric power is the product of voltage and 184 the current values, total error was calculated using multiplication error propagation based on the individual errors of each sensor [48]. The weather data, including ambient temperature and wind 185 186 speed, were obtained from the US National Centers for Environmental Information [49]. The 187 weather station at DSM is a Class I station, meeting the highest quality standards [50]. The weather 188 condition data used in this study are described in section 2.2.2. Performance data used for model 189 construction and validation in this research, including dates, weather conditions, and snowfall rates 190 and amounts, are summarized in Table 1. As shown in this table, first, Experimental Test 1 measurements are used for performing model updating methodology and calibrating the model 191 192 then Experimental Test 2 measurements are used as the out of sample data to validate the results 193 of the updated model.



Figure 3. (a) Diagram of sensor layout for field data collection used for finite element modelvalidation, (b) Vertical position of the sensors inside the pavement.

Table 1. Des Moines International Airport field test data summary										
Purpose	Operation time (hr)	Avg. Air Temp. (°C)	Avg. Wind Speed (m/s)	Avg. Snow Thickness (mm)	Avg. Power Density (W/m ²)	Total Energy consumption (kWh/m ²)				
Experimental Test 1: Evaluation of FE model with updating	6	-5	5.8	30	414	2.89				
Experimental Test 2: Evaluation of FE model using out-of- sample data	2.5	-10	10	12.7	408	0.61				

197 2.1.4 Thermal Properties of ECON HPS Field Test Slab

The physical and thermal properties of the test slabs, including the ECON layer, the conventional concrete layer, the stainless steel electrodes, and the subgrade, are summarized in Table 2. The material properties required for input into the FE model include density, heat capacity, thermal conductivity, and electrical resistivity of each layer.

- 202 Thermal conductivity was assessed using a non-contact, non-destructive technique, adapted from
- 203 a new thermal conductivity measurement method [51], involving a thermal camera and a laser
- 204 heating element. A focused laser beam was used as a heating element to heat up a chosen area of
- a bulk sample of the field-implemented ECON. The temperature rise due to the laser beam was

206 used to plot a chart of results of data from materials with known thermal conductivity to determine 207 the thermal conductivity of the field test ECON section. The specific heat capacity was determined 208 by placing the ECON specimen in a foam box filled with water, and using a heat balance equation 209 and measurements of water and concrete temperatures before and after immersion [52]. The 210 electrical resistivity was determined by measuring current and voltage from the constructed slabs 211 at different temperatures [36] and density was measured using samples taken from the concrete 212 layers at DSM during pavement construction. The material properties of the conventional concrete, 213 subgrade and stainless steel electrodes are taken from data available in the literature, including, 214 [27], [53] and [54], respectively. In [53] the thermal properties of subgrade in Minnesota are 215 studied and since the locations are close to Iowa, the same values are assumed for this study. 216 Material properties and possible modifications for better performance of the system, as suggested 217 by Qin [55,56], should be investigated in further studies.

218

 Table 2. Material properties of test slab used for finite element model

Material Type	ECON Slab ¹	Conventional Concrete Layer	Stainless Steel Electrodes ²	Base Layer ³	Subgrade ³
Density (kg/m ³)	2,500	2,300	7,800	1,500	1,500
Heat Capacity (J/kg.°C)	1300	880	475	840	800
Thermal Conductivity (W/m°C)	1.35	1.4	44	1.3	1
Electrical Resistivity (Ω -cm)	900	$5.4 imes 10^5$	$1.7 imes10^{-9}$	$5 imes 10^5$	$1.5 imes 10^4$

219 I Electrical resistivity, heat capacity and thermal conductivity of ECON slab measured at 22 °C

220 ² Steel properties utilized are based on [57]

221 ³ Subgrade properties utilized are based on [53]

222 2.2 ENERGY CONSUMPTION AND POWER DEMAND OF ECON HPS

223 2.2.1 System Size

It is possible to evaluate the total energy consumption (kWh) and power demand (kW) of the system on either a per-event or a total winter season basis, assuming an ECON HPS constructed

as described in sub-section 2.1 are implemented as the sole snow and ice removal method for all

227 typical snow and ice events at DSM. The concrete area where ECON could potentially be located 228 includes the total apron area of DSM, approximately 139,400 m². Since it is unlikely that ECON 229 HPS would be implemented to cover the total area of apron, the energy consumption and power 230 demand are calculated based on sizes of four different gate types, to provide a per-gate evaluation. 231 This calculation assumed that 100% of a gate area would be equipped with ECON HPS, as a worst-232 case scenario, however a smaller portion of the gate area could also feasibly be considered. The 233 approximate required area of apron for each gate type is $2,400 \text{ m}^2$ for Type A, $2,600 \text{ m}^2$ for Type 234 B, 3,000 m² for Type C, and 6,500 m² for Type D [58]. DSM includes a total of 12 gates, and it is 235 likely that airport managers would want to keep some, if not all, of the gates in operation under 236 winter weather conditions either while it is snowing or after a snowfall. Therefore, providing the 237 results on a per-gate basis can provide decision makers with improved capability for prioritizing 238 ECON HPS operations with respect to highly-used or high-priority gates.

239 2.2.2 Typical Weather Conditions at DSM

240 The weather data used to determine the number of snow events and the amount of snow 241 was the Typical Meteorological Year (TMY2) [59] dataset, developed to represent typical 242 conditions in a particular location of interest. TMY3 or TMY4 are not used since snow thickness 243 values are not included in these data sets. TMY2 is based on approximately 20 years of historical 244 weather data for the location of DSM, with hourly increments. Typical snow events were extracted 245 from this data using daily snow thickness, ambient temperature, and wind speed values. For each 246 snow or ice event, the temperature, wind speed, and precipitation rate are applied using the model 247 to calculate the power demand of the system to melt the snow. Since the wind speed data available 248 in TMY are for a height of 10 m above ground level, from those values, wind speed values at 0.5 249 m above ground level were calculated based on the methodology presented by Sadati, et al. [60].

250 2.2.3 Energy consumption and System Control Strategy

251 To determine the energy consumption (kWh) of the total duration of heating, the associated 252 electricity demand profiles are added together at hourly time steps to determine the final energy 253 consumption. To determine the average energy consumption on a per-event basis, the total energy 254 consumption is divided by the number of unique snow or ice events that occurred over the 1 year 255 period of evaluation. Based on the experience of the research team in testing the test slabs of ECON 256 HPS at DSM, since the day of a snow event can be predicted with a higher accuracy than the exact 257 hour of the snowfall within that day, it is assumed that the ECON HPS would operate for the entire 258 24 hours of the day of a predicted snow event. This assumption is made to simplify the evaluation 259 of energy consumption of the ECON HPS, since typical hourly snow thickness data are not 260 available. Under actual field conditions, based on experimental data, the system could be turned 261 on several hours before onset of predicted snow, such that when snowfall begins the surface 262 temperature would be above the freezing point to prevent snow accumulation. To this end, the 263 control system is given a setpoint as the desired surface temperature and the ECON HPS will 264 automatically turn on whenever the temperature falls below that setpoint. The setpoint in this study 265 is assumed to be 5 °C and the temperature of the surface is checked every half hour.

266

5 2.3 FINITE ELEMENT MODEL OF ECON

The ECON FE model, capable of reflecting electrical, thermal, and structural loads and responses is produced in ANSYS 18.2 [61]. ANSYS is commonly used and well-known in the field of thermoelectric FE modeling. To model the thermal performance of the ECON HPS constructed at DSM, transient thermal analysis is used. The elements used for the modeling are the SOLID5 element type for the ECON, PCC, base, and subgrade layers, and the PLANE13 element type for steel electrodes placed within the body of ECON layer. Since SOLID5 and

273 PLANE13 are capable of handling the electrical, thermal, and structural loads and responses 274 required for the ECON HPS model, more complex element types are not required. These element 275 types are also compatible and can be integrated and used in the same model. There are 9,562 276 elements in the model, including smaller elements where the mesh size is made finer in and around 277 the electrodes because of their higher aspect ratio. The average size of the elements is approximately $10 \times 10 \times 10$ cm³ for subgrade and as small as $2 \times 2 \times 2$ cm³ for elements close to the 278 279 electrodes. The meshed model and the elements are shown in Figure 4. The element sizes were 280 found by running the model with the same set of inputs while varying the mesh size and then 281 comparing the results. The change in results was less than 0.5% for element sizes smaller than the 282 selected size. A full transient solution with time-steps of 5 minutes was sought, because this time-283 step increment provides enough data points for post-processing purposes and is small enough to 284 produce an accurate solution, as checked by running the model using different time-steps.





Figure 4. Elements of the finite element model of ECON system

287 Material properties of the ECON, PCC, base, and subgrade layers, including the density, 288 heat capacity, thermal conductivity and electrical resistivity values given in Table 2, were assigned 289 to the elements.

Heat conduction is assumed to occur between the model layers. Heat loss from the top surface of the ECON layer is modeled as a convection load based on wind speed, because the top surface is assumed to be exposed to outdoor ambient temperature conditions. The convection coefficient is calculated using Eq. (1) [62],

$$h = 4U + 5.6 \quad U < 5m/s$$

$$h = 7.1U^{0.78} \quad U > 5m/s$$
(1)

294 where, h is the heat transfer coefficient and U is the wind speed. Zero solar radiation is assumed 295 in this model, because the modeling of the slab performance was either for cloudy conditions with 296 minimal diffuse solar radiation or during evening or night hours where there is no solar radiation; 297 the results from this model are thus best applicable for conditions where there are no significant 298 solar loads, which likely to be the case during significant snow events. The vertical sides of the 299 slabs are considered to exhibit negligible heat transfer with surrounding concrete slabs compared 300 to the heat loss from the top surface, an assumption consistent with the modeling methods 301 described in previous literature [27]. Therefore, except for the top surface and heat transfer 302 between interlayers which accounts for the heat loss to the subgrade, the other sides of the model 303 are considered to be adiabatic. The snowfall rate is calculated and a heat flux is applied to the 304 surface of the pavement considering the latent heat required for melting the snow. Sensible heat 305 for increasing the snow temperature from ambient temperature to $0^{\circ}C$ is also applied as a heat flux 306 to the surface of ECON layer. A voltage is applied to each pair of electrodes and the model's heat 307 generation and heat transfer behavior are studied and compared with measured temperature values.

308

2.4 MODEL-UPDATING METHOD FOR FINITE ELEMENT MODEL

309 To further improve the model results, updating, also called calibrating, the model to 310 improve the matching of the model results to real-world performance was performed [63]. These 311 resulting modifications involved changes in material properties of the elements used in the model. 312 In this case of a FE model of ECON, the electrical resistivity of concrete depends on its temperature 313 [64], hence the resistivity values of ECON layer samples measured at room temperature (22 °C) 314 may not reflect the actual resistivity of the ECON material in the field. Moreover, while the 315 resistivity of ECON in the FE model is assumed to be homogeneous, it is inhomogeneous in real 316 field applications. The differences between measured resistivity values of samples and the 317 resistivity values of ECON in the full-scale slab are introduced into the FE model using a model-318 updating method. This model-updating helps to account for assumptions that have been made in 319 the model, including the assumption of homogeneous material properties, which might differ from 320 the actual field conditions. This is done by updating the electrical resistivity value. As a scientific 321 basis for such model-updating, two different parameters are considered: i) temperature of ECON 322 layer, and ii) power demand of ECON HPS. The first is based on the temperatures measured at 323 several points of the ECON layer, while the second is based on the power that could be drawn by 324 the ECON layer. The advantage of considering the second parameter over the first is that it includes 325 the contribution of the whole body of the ECON layer while the first parameter includes 326 temperatures at a few points where the sensors are embedded inside the ECON layer. Making a 327 choice between these two options depends on the modeling objectives, i.e., either estimating the 328 performance of the system in terms of temperature increase, or estimating the energy consumption. 329 These two model-updating methods are explained in the following subsections.

330

331 2.4.1 Model-updating Based on Measured Temperature Values

This method uses equations reflective of the conversion of electrical energy to thermal energy and the resulting change in ECON temperature. Eq. (2) calculates the power converted to thermal energy,

$$P = RI^2 \tag{2}$$

where *P* is the power, *R* is the resistance of the material, and *I* is the electrical current flowing in ECON due to the voltage between each electrode pair. *R* can be calculated using resistivity (ρ) using Eq. (3) [65],

$$R = \frac{\rho L}{A} \tag{3}$$

338 where, *L* and *A* are the length and cross-sectional area of the ECON in the direction of electrical 339 current flow. *I* can be calculated from the current density (*J*) by multiplying the electrical 340 conductivity (σ) by electric field (*E*) as shown in Eqs. (4) and (5) [65].

$$\mathbf{J} = \boldsymbol{\sigma} \mathbf{E} \tag{4}$$

$$|\mathbf{J}| = \frac{I}{A} \tag{5}$$

341 Temperature increase and thermal energy accumulated inside the slabs can be related using Eq.342 (6),

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = mC\frac{\Delta T}{dt} \tag{6}$$

343 where $\frac{dQ}{dt}$ is the rate of change in thermal energy, *m* is mass, *C* is the specific heat capacity, and $\frac{\Delta T}{dt}$ 344 is the rate of change of temperature of the slab. Since it is assumed that electrical energy is the only source of heat generation and there are no other losses, $\frac{dQ}{dt}$ can be set equal to the electric power applied to the slab, as shown in Eq. (7).

$$mC\frac{\Delta T}{dt} = RI^2 \tag{7}$$

347 Combining Eqs. (4), (5), and (7), and considering that electrical conductivity is the inverse of 348 resistivity ($\sigma = \rho^{-1}$), results in Eq. (8).

$$mC\frac{\Delta T}{dt} = \rho^{-1} \left(\frac{L^2}{A^3}\right) |E|^2$$
(8)

In Eq. (8), the dimensions and material properties (except for resistivity (ρ)) are measureable and do not significantly change with temperature. The resistivity, however, is highly dependent on the temperature of the material. Since the electric field is dependent only on the slab geometry and the applied voltage [65], the resistivity is a good candidate for updating based on measured values in developing an FE model that represents the experimental setup. The temperature increase is proportional to ρ^{-1} and the resistivity value would be updated based on Eqs. (9) and (10), using the measured temperature increase resulting from application of a specific voltage.

$$\frac{\Delta T}{dt} \propto \rho^{-1} \tag{9}$$

$$\frac{\left[\frac{\Delta T}{dt}\right]_{measured}}{\left[\frac{\Delta T}{dt}\right]_{trial}} = \frac{\left[\rho^{-1}\right]_{measured}}{\left[\rho^{-1}\right]_{trial}}$$
(10)

To enable running the simulation to obtain initial results for $\left[\frac{\Delta T}{dt}\right]_{trial}$, trial values of resistivity for a given slab temperature are needed. In this study, this trial resistivity was determined based on the resistivity of ECON samples measured at 22 °C and the measured generated current increase in ECON from 0 °C to 22 °C resulting from the applied voltage.

361 2.4.2 Model-updating Based on Measured Power Demand

For this method, electric power required by the ECON system can be calculated by the Joule heatgeneration equation:

$$P = \frac{V^2}{R} \tag{11}$$

364

where *V* is the applied voltage. Based on Eq. (10), the power drawn from the energy source is proportional to the inverse of resistance of the system, so the ECON layer resistivity can be updated using Eq. (11), which considers the measured power demand with trial power which is the model estimate.

$$\frac{\rho_{measured}}{\rho_{trial}} = \frac{P_{trial}}{P_{measured}} \tag{12}$$

369

While model-updating based on power demand would result in a model that is representative of the system in terms of required power, the temperature increase at the surface of the ECON layer should be checked to ensure that the model is also representative of system performance in terms of capability for melting snow and/or ice.

374 **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The methodology introduced in Section 2 is applied and the results for ECON HPS performance in terms of energy consumption and ability to melt ice and snow in typical climatic conditions of

377 DSM are reported and discussed in this section. These subsections include the results of the model-378 updating based on temperature measurements and power demand and the performance of the 379 system under the conditions of typical snow events at DSM.

380 3.1 MODEL-UPDATING BASED ON AVERAGE TEMPERATURE

381 Experimental Test 1 data (Table 1), including weather conditions and measured temperature and 382 values are used for the model-updating. The measured resistivity values are used as the trial 383 resistivity values for the model to obtain the initial results and apply the updating method. After 384 model-updating based on the temperature values, the updated resistivity of the ECON layer is 385 calculated. The trial resistivity and updated resistivity values are shown in Figure 5. As shown, the 386 resistivity of ECON decreases with an increase in slab temperature, consistent with the behavior 387 of the resistivity for concrete as reported in the literature [64]. Modifying the resistivity of the 388 model to the updated resistivity values shown in Figure 5, transient thermal analysis is conducted 389 for a simulation time of 5.5 hours, the duration of the Experimental Test 1 in the field.



391 Figure 5. Electrical resistivity of ECON versus temperature for the FE model before and

392 after model-updating by measured temperatures

Figure 6 illustrates the temperature distribution throughout the slab and the heat transfer both to the base layers and to the subgrade. Initial temperatures are assumed for different layers of the pavement based on temperature measurements from sensors embedded in different pavement layers. Since the model is axisymmetric there is no temperature gradient in the direction of the x axis. Although this model is axisymmetric, a 3D model is developed to provide capability in future studies for applying different boundary conditions from the different sides of the slab.

399

400



Figure 6. Temperature contours after (a) 1.4 hr, (b) 2.8 hr, (c) 4.2 hr, and (d) 5.5 hr of
operation

The average ECON layer temperature resulting from the model and measured in the field are compared in Figure 7. The measurement error bars shown in the figures are calculated based on the potential errors of each sensor. The average ECON layer temperature was measured using the thermistor sensors embedded in this layer. As shown, the FE model results for this test event are consistent with measured temperatures. Therefore, the promising performance potential of the

408 introduced model-updating method can be observed by comparing the non-updated FE and the 409 updated FE model results. The power demand of ECON HPS, both measured at the field and 410 estimated by the updated model based on temperature of the slab, are shown in Figure 8. Although 411 the model-updating method based on measured temperature values aims to improve the estimated 412 thermal performance of the model, it only has a maximum error of 5% in power demand 413 estimation. This updating method can therefore be used for accurately estimating thermal 414 performance and can also provide a close estimation of the power demand.



415

416 Figure 7. Average temperature of ECON layer for Experimental Test 1 including finite

417 element model simulation results before and after model-updating using measured

418 temperatures (Note: the average ambient temperature across the test period is -5 °C and average wind

419 speed measured at the height of 10 m is 5.8 m/s; upper and lower error bands present the potential error

420 in measurement calculated using the error value of the temperature sensors)



421

Figure 8. Measured and estimated electric power demand of the ECON HPS for Experimental Test 1 including finite element model simulation results before and after model-updating using measured temperatures (*Note: the average ambient temperature is -5 °C and average wind speed measured at the height of 10 m is 5.8 m/s during the test period; upper and lower error bands present the measurement error calculated using potential error values for voltage and electric current sensors.*)

To evaluate the performance of the model in weather conditions varying from those used for updating the model, Experimental Test 2 (Table 1), is considered. Figure 9 illustrates the average temperature increase of the ECON layer for Experimental Test 2, reflecting consistency with the measured values and indicating that the model is performing well under different weather conditions and for out-of-sample data.



Figure 9. Average temperature of ECON HPS test slab for Experimental Test 2 including
 finite element model simulation after model-updating using measured temperatures (*Note:*

436 the average ambient temperature is -10 °C and average wind speed measured at the height of 10 m is 10

437 *m/s*; upper and lower error bands present the potential error in measurement calculated using the error

438 value of the temperature sensors)

439

440 **3.2 MODEL-UPDATING BASED ON POWER DEMAND**

The trial and updated resistivity values obtained by applying model-updating based on power demand and using Experimental Test 1 data are shown in Figure 10. The updated resistivity based on power demand is 16.7% less than the updated resistivity based on the slab temperature and is closer to the measured resistivity (trial resistivity). Measured power and estimated power demand before and after model-updating are shown in Figure 11. Estimating surface temperature for pavements within 5 °C error is considered a reasonable accuracy considering complexity of the system [66,67].



- 449 Figure 10. Electrical resistivity of ECON versus its temperature before and after model-
- 450 updating using measured power demand of ECON HPS



452 Figure 11. Measured and estimated electric power demand of the ECON HPS for 453 Experimental Test 1 before and after model-updating using measured power demand of

- 454 **ECON HPS** (Note: the average ambient temperature is -5 °C and average wind speed measured at the
- 455 height of 10 m is 5.8 m/s during the test period; upper and lower error bands present the measurement
- 456 error calculated using potential error values for voltage and electric current sensors)



458 Figure 12. Average temperature of ECON layer for Experimental Test 1 including finite

459 element model simulation results before and after updating using measured power demand

460 of ECON HPS (Note: the average ambient temperature is -5 °C and average wind speed measured at

461 the height of 10 m is 5.8 m/s during the test period; upper and lower error bands present the potential

462 error in measurement calculated using the error value of the temperature sensors)

463 The weather conditions for Experimental Test 2 are applied to the FE model updated by power

464 demand measured for Experimental Test 1 and the estimated electric power demand is shown in

465 Figure 13. As it is shown, the estimated power demand is very close to measured values and this

466 model updated by power is used to evaluate the performance of the system.



467

468 Figure 13. Electric power demand of ECON HPS for Experimental Test 2, including model

results after updating using measured power demand of the slab, compared to measured
data (Note: the average ambient temperature is -5 °C and average wind speed measured at the height of

471 10 m is 5.8 m/s during the test period; upper and lower error bands present the measurement error
472 calculated using potential error values for voltage and electric current sensors)

473

474 **3.3 EVALUATION OF ENERGY CONSUMPTION OF ECON SYSTEM**

475 3.3.1 ECON HPS Performance during Typical Snow Events at DSM

The energy consumption of the system under typical snow events at DSM can be evaluated based on the experimentally validated model which was updated using power demand. Hourly ambient temperature, hourly wind speed, and daily snow thickness values were obtained for 32 identified snow events for DSM using the TMY data. These values were applied to the model and the power demand was calculated for each snow event as stated in Figure 14. In order to present details about the process, two examples of these typical snow events which are called event I and event II, are selected to be presented here.

Ambient temperature and wind speed are shown in Figure 15 for snow event I. Average temperature of the ECON HPS surface is shown in Figure 16, where it can be seen that, under these weather conditions, the ECON HPS is able to increase the average surface temperature to the setpoint (5 °C) and maintain this temperature. The system turns off and on frequently after it reaches the setpoint temperature so as not to increase the temperature to more than the setpoint value.



Figure 14. Flow chart of the process for evaluating the electricity use of ECON HPS for a
 typical winter

Iowa State University

492

500

493 Ambient temperature and wind speed values for snow event II are shown in Figure 17. The 494 average temperature of the surface in this case is shown in Figure 18. As can be seen, in extremely 495 cold and windy weather conditions the system was not able to maintain the set point temperature 496 for all hours because of high heat loss from the surface of the slab. Out of 32 typical snow events, 497 however, this is the only one where the designed system is estimated as unable to maintain the 498 surface temperature above the freezing point. In future studies the limitations of the system should 499 be further investigated for these and other extreme weather conditions.





⁵⁰² year) data for typical snow event I



504 Figure 16. Estimated average surface temperature for ECON HPS for typical snow event I



Figure 17. Ambient temperature and wind speed obtained from TMY (typical meteorological
 year) data for typical snow event II



510 Figure 18. Estimated average surface temperature for ECON HPS for typical snow event II

511 3.3.2 Power Demand and Energy consumption for ECON HPS

To calculate the power demand, it is assumed that the ECON HPS will be implemented in the gate 512 513 areas for each gate type introduced in sub-section 2.2.1. The power demand is calculated by 514 running the model using inputs representing the 32 typical snow events. The power demand for 515 the two typical snow events discussed in sub-section 2.1.3 are shown in Figure 19. Due to the 516 higher heat loss from the slab surface in event II which results in lower ECON temperature and 517 higher ECON resistivity, more energy is required if the system is to be able to maintain the setpoint 518 temperature. This higher energy would be provided by decreasing the resistivity of ECON layer 519 and keeping the same applied voltage level. The minimum input energy rate for a hydronic system 520 is reported to be 400 W/m² in [68] which is consistent with the values obtained for ECON HPS.



522

523 Figure 19. Estimated power demand of the ECON HPS for typical snow events I and II; Note: 524 data points for power demand shown at 30 minute intervals; power demand is zero when the system is 525 turned off not to overheat the slab surface

526 Considering all the 32 typical events and using power demand calculations from the FE 527 model, the energy consumption is calculated for each gate type. The monthly energy consumption 528 of the system for these gate types for each month of the winter is calculated and compared to the 529 corresponding use at DSM Terminal, a three-story building with 12 gates and an area of approximately 7,000 m^2 , as shown in Figure 20. ECON layer resistivity is the driving factor for 530 531 the energy consumption of the ECON HPS. Laboratory samples of ECON material exhibited 532 resistivity values approximately ten times lower than those of the ECON material used in the field at DSM. The reason for this difference is the higher efficiency of the mixing procedure in the lab 533 534 compared to the larger-scale mixing used in the field. It is therefore possible to improve the efficiency of ECON HPS by improving the larger-scale mixing procedure. 535



Figure 20. Estimated monthly energy consumption of ECON HPS per gate size for each gate
 type, considering typical snow events from TMY data in Des Moines, Iowa, in comparison to
 the measured total monthly energy consumption of the DSM Terminal in 2016

540 An ECON HPS provides the greatest potential benefit and use for pavements located in 541 cold climate regions, because snow and ice removal is an essential process in these locations [69]. 542 However, even in mixed climate regions that also experience intermittent snow and ice conditions 543 in the winter, critical airport operations may also require substantial snow and ice removal 544 equipment and associated operational budgets [15]. As reported by Anand, et al., [15], in airports 545 with more than 40,000 annual flight operations, critical airport areas should be cleared of snow 546 and ice within a half hour after one inch of snowfall. Satisfying this criteria requires availability 547 of equipment and personnel with an associated high cost of operation, thus mixed climates' airports 548 can also benefit from ECON HPS.

549

550 4 CONCLUSIONS

551 One of the goals of moving toward sustainable transportation is to reduce the emission sources in 552 transportation hubs. Energy demand of electrification of snow removal processes through 553 implementing ECON HPS in an airport was studied in this paper. A FE model was first developed 554 in ANSYS to simulate the performance of ECON HPS test slabs constructed at DSM connected to 555 a 210 V power source, to evaluate the long-term energy demand of this system in large scale. The 556 FE model consisted of all layers of the pavement, including the ECON, PCC, base, and subgrade 557 layers. Methodologies for FE model updating based on measured electric power demand and 558 temperature data were then developed and presented, and the resistivity of the model was updated 559 in order to improve the model results. Updating based on power demand was found to provide 560 more accurate estimation of energy consumption, thus it was used for evaluation of system 561 performance under typical weather conditions for snow events at DSM. The model was programmed to run for all hours of each snow event day and maintain the average surface 562 563 temperature of the ECON layer at 5 °C. Energy consumption for different types of airport gates 564 was compared to the overall usage of the DSM Terminal. Among 32 typical snow events, in only 565 one case was the system estimated to be unable to keep the surface temperature at the given 566 setpoint due to a very low minimum ambient temperature of -24 °C and a very high maximum 567 wind speed of 18 m/s. In this situations use of conventional snow removal methods might be 568 considered to remove snow and ice. Since hourly typical snowfall data were not available, the analysis was conducted based on daily values of snow thickness, while having data with a higher 569 570 time resolution would result in more precise modeling. To optimize energy consumption of ECON 571 HPS, the operational gates should be managed in the event of forecasted snow events. ECON layer 572 resistivity is the main driving factor for energy consumption, and improving the large-scale

573 concrete mix techniques could result in saving energy by increasing overall system efficiency. In 574 future studies different strategies for reducing power demand, such as by varying the voltage while 575 the system is running, should also be investigated. Optimal system design in terms of 576 configuration, runoff management and construction processes should also be studied further.

577 **5** ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was conducted under the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) Air Transportation 578 579 Center of Excellence Cooperative Agreement 12-C-GA-ISU for the Partnership to Enhance 580 General Aviation Safety, Accessibility and Sustainability (PEGASAS). The authors would like to 581 thank the current project Technical Monitor, Mr. Benjamin J. Mahaffay, and the former project 582 Technical Monitors, Mr. Jeffrey S. Gagnon (interim), Mr. Donald Barbagallo, and Dr. Charles A. 583 Ishee for their invaluable guidance during this study. The authors also would like to thank 584 PEGASAS Industry Advisory Board members for their valuable support and feedback. The 585 authors would like to thank Mr. Bryan Belt, Director of Engineering at Des Moines International 586 Airport, for his supports throughout this project. Although the FAA has sponsored this project, it 587 neither endorses nor rejects the findings of this research. The presentation of this information is 588 in the interest of invoking comments by the technical community on the results and conclusions 589 of the research.

590 6 REFERENCES

- 591 [1] ACRP, Airport Sustainability Practices, 2008. doi:10.17226/13674.
- A. Monsalud, D. Ho, J. Rakas, Greenhouse gas emissions mitigation strategies within the airport sustainability evaluation process, Sustain. Cities Soc. 14 (2014) 414–424. doi:10.1016/j.scs.2014.08.003.
- 595 [3] M.P. Uysal, An integrated research for architecture-based energy management in sustainable airports, Energy. 140 (2017) 1387–1397. doi:10.1016/J.ENERGY.2017.05.199.
- A.P. Roskilly, R. Palacin, J. Yan, Novel technologies and strategies for clean transport systems, Appl. Energy. 157 (2015) 563–566. doi:10.1016/j.apenergy.2015.09.051.

- 599 [5] K. Gopalakrishnan, H. Ceylan, S. Kim, S. Yang, H. Abdualla, Self-heating electrically
 600 conductive concrete for pavement deicing: a revisit, in: Transp. Res. Board 94th Annu.
 601 Meet., 2015: p. No. 15-4764.
- P. Anand, A. Nahvi, H. Ceylan, D. Pyrialakou, K. Gkritza, S. Kim, P.C. Taylor, Energy and
 Financial Viability of Hydronic Heated Pavement Systems, 2017. doi:DOT/FAA/TC-17/47.
- 604 [7] D.M. Ramakrishna, T. Viraraghavan, Environmental impact of chemical deicers--a review,
 605 Water. Air. Soil Pollut. 166 (2005) 49–63.
- 606 [8] S.M. Quilty, Airside snow removal practices for small airports with limited budgets, 2015.
- 607 [9] ACRP, Apron planning and design guidebook, Transportation Research Board,
 608 Washington, D.C., 2013. doi:10.17226/22460.
- 609 [10] W. Shen, Life cycle assessment of heated airfield pavement system for snow removal,
 610 Graduate Thesis and Dessertation, Iowa State University, 2015. doi:Paper 14742.
- 611 [11] P. Anand, H. Ceylan, K.N. Gkritza, P.C. Taylor, V.D. Pyrialakou, S. Kim, K.
 612 Gopalakrishnan, Establishing parameters for cost comparison of alternative airfield snow
 613 removal methodologies, in: The 2014 FAA Worldwide Airport Technology Transfer
 614 Conference, August 5-7, 2014, Galloway, New Jersey, 2014.
- 615 [12] P. Suraneni, V.J. Azad, O.B. Isgor, W.J. Weiss, Deicing salts and durability of concrete
 616 pavements and joints, Concr. Int. 38 (2016) 48–54.
- 617 [13] B. Amini, S.S. Tehrani, Simultaneous effects of salted water and water flow on asphalt
 618 concrete pavement deterioration under freeze-thaw cycles, Int. J. Pavement Eng. 15 (2014)
 619 383–391.
- 620 [14] P.C. Casey, C.W. Alwan, C.F. Kline, G.K. Landgraf, K.R. Linsenmayer, Impacts of using
 621 salt and salt brine for roadway deicing, 2014.
- [15] P. Anand, H. Ceylan, K. Gkritza, P. Taylor, V.D. Pyrialakou, Cost comparison of alternative
 airfield snow removal methodologies, (2014).
- W. Shen, H. Ceylan, K. Gopalakrishnan, S. Kim, A. Nahvi, Sustainability Assessment of
 Alternative Snow-Removal Methods for Airport Apron Paved Surfaces, 2017.
- [17] J.P. Won, C.K. Kim, S.J. Lee, J.H. Lee, R.W. Kim, Thermal characteristics of a conductive cement-based composite for a snow-melting heated pavement system, Compos. Struct. 118
 (2014) 106–111. doi:10.1016/j.compstruct.2014.07.021.
- [18] P. Pan, S. Wu, F. Xiao, L. Pang, Y. Xiao, Conductive asphalt concrete: a review on structure design, performance, and practical applications, J. Intell. Mater. Syst. Struct. 26 (2014) 755–
 769. doi:10.1177/1045389X14530594.
- [19] P. Pan, S. Wu, Y. Xiao, G. Liu, A review on hydronic asphalt pavement for energy harvesting and snow melting, Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev. 48 (2015) 624–634.
 doi:10.1016/j.rser.2015.04.029.
- K. Mensah, J.M. Choi, Review of technologies for snow melting systems, J. Mech. Sci.
 Technol. 29 (2015) 5507–5521.
- 637 [21] S.L. Hockersmith, Experimental and computational investigation of snow melting on heated
 638 horizontal surfaces, Oklahoma State University, 2002.

- 639 [22] C.E. Moon, J.M. Choi, Heating performance characteristics of the ground source heat pump
 640 system with energy-piles and energy-slabs, Energy. 81 (2015) 27–32.
 641 doi:10.1016/j.energy.2014.10.063.
- K. Liu, S.J. Rees, J.D. Spitler, Modeling snow melting on heated pavement surfaces Part
 II: Experimental validation, Appl. Therm. Eng. 27 (2007) 1125–1131.
 doi:10.1016/j.applthermaleng.2006.06.017.
- 645 [24] S.M.S. Sadati, K. Cetin, H. Ceylan, Numerical modeling of electrically conductive
 646 pavement systems, in: Congr. Tech. Adv. 2017, ASCE, Duluth, MN, 2017: pp. 1–10.
 647 doi:10.1061/9780784481011.011.
- 648 [25] H. Ceylan, K. Gopalakrishnan, S. Kim, W. Cord, Heated transportation infrastructure
 649 systems: existing and emerging technologies, in: The 12th International Symposium on
 650 Concrete Roads, September 23-26, 2014, Prague, Czech Republic, 2014.
- [26] C.Y. Tuan, Concrete technology today: conductive concrete for bridge deck deicing,
 Nebraska Department of Roads, 2004.
- [27] H. Abdualla, K. Gopalakrishnan, H. Ceylan, S. Kim, M. Mina, P. Taylor, K.S. Cetin,
 Development of a finite element model for electrically conductive concrete heated
 pavements, in: the 96th Annual meeting of Transportation Research Board, January 8-12,
 2017, Washington, D.C., 2017: pp. 1–18.
- [28] P.L. Joskow, C.D. Wolfram, Dynamic pricing of electricity, Am. Econ. Rev. 102 (2012)
 381–385.
- 659 [29] C. Gu, X. Yan, Z. Yan, F. Li, Dynamic pricing for responsive demand to increase
 660 distribution network efficiency, Appl. Energy. 205 (2017) 236–243.
 661 doi:10.1016/j.apenergy.2017.07.102.
- [30] B.S. Thelandersson, Modelling of combined thermal and mechanical action in concrete, 113
 (1987) 893–906.
- 664 [31] M.I. Khan, Factors a ecting the thermal properties of concrete and applicability of its 665 prediction models, 37 (2002) 607–614.
- K. Shin, S. Kim, J. Kim, M. Chung, Thermo-physical properties and transient heat transfer
 of concrete at elevated temperatures, 212 (2002) 233–241.
- [33] V.K.R. Kodur, M. a. Sultan, Effect of Temperature on Thermal Properties of High-Strength
 Concrete, J. Mater. Civ. Eng. 15 (2003) 101–107. doi:10.1061/(ASCE)08991561(2003)15:2(101).
- [34] R.P. Selvam, M. Castro, 3D FEM model to improve the heat transfer in concrete for thermal
 energy storage in solar power generation, in: ASME 4th International Conference on
 Ennergy Sustainability, Phoenix, Arizona, 2010: pp. 1–9.
- [35] J. Wu, J. Liu, F. Yang, Three-phase composite conductive concrete for pavement deicing,
 Constr. Build. Mater. 75 (2015) 129–135. doi:10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2014.11.004.
- A. Sassani, H. Ceylan, S. Kim, K. Gopalakrishnan, A. Arabzadeh, P.C. Taylor, Influence
 of mix design variables on engineering properties of carbon fiber-modified electrically
 conductive concrete, Constr. Build. Mater. 152 (2017) 168–181.

- 679 doi:10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2017.06.172.
- [37] A. Sassani, H. Ceylan, S. Kim, K. Gopalakrishnan, A. Arabzadeh, P.C. Taylor, Factorial study on electrically conductive concrete mix design for heated pavement systems, in:
 Transp. Res. Board 96th Annu. Meet., Washington DC, 2017: pp. 17-05347.
- [38] H. Abdualla, H. Ceylan, S. Kim, K. Gopalakrishnan, P.C. Taylor, Y. Turkan, System
 requirements for electrically conductive concrete heated pavements, Transp. Res. Rec. J.
 Transp. Res. Board. No. 2569 (2016) 70–79.
- [39] K. Gopalakrishnan, H. Ceylan, S. Kim, S. Yang, H. Abdualla, Electrically conductive
 mortar characterization for self-heating airfield concrete pavement mix design, Int. J.
 Pavement Res. Technol. 8 (2015).
- [40] H. Abdualla, H. Ceylan, S. Kim, M. Mina, K. Gopalakrishnan, A. Sassani, P.C. Taylor, K.S.
 Cetin, Configuration of electrodes for electrically conductive concrete heated pavement, in:
 ASCE Int. Conf. Highw. Pavements Airf. Technol., n.d.
- [41] A. Sassani, H. Ceylan, S. Kim, K. Gopalakrishnan, A. Arabzadeh, P.C. Taylor, Factorial
 Study on Electrically Conductive Concrete Mix Design for Heated Pavement Systems, in:
 Transp. Res. Board 96th Annu. Meet., Washington DC, 2017: pp. 17-05347.
- 695 [42] FAA, Advisory Circular 150/5370-10G: Standards for specifying construction of airports,
 696 2014. doi:10.1177/004728757301200242.
- 697 [43] FAA, Advisory Circular 150/5370-17: Airside use of heated pavement systems, Area.
 698 (2005) 1–4. doi:AFS-800 AC 91-97.
- [44] U.S. Department of Energy, P. Northwest, Building science-based climate maps, (2013) 2.
 http://apps1.eere.energy.gov/buildings/publications/pdfs/building_america/4_3a_ba_innov
 _buildingscienceclimatemaps_011713.pdf.
- [45] H. Abdualla, H. Ceylan, S. Kim, M. Mina, K.S. Cetin, P. Taylor, K. Gopalakrishnan, B.
 Cetin, S. Yang, A. Sassani, others, Design and Construction of the First Full-Scale
 Electrically Conductive Concrete Heated Airport Pavement System at a US Airport, 2018.
- 705[46]Monnit,WirelessTemperatureSensors,(2017).706https://www.monnit.com/Products/Wireless-Sensors/Coin-Cell/Wireless-Temperature-707Sensors (accessed December 22, 2017).
- [47] Geokon, Vibrating Wire Strain Gage, (2017). http://www.geokon.com/4200-Series
 (accessed December 22, 2017).
- [48] J. Taylor, Introduction to error analysis, the study of uncertainties in physicalmeasurements, 1997.
- [49] National Oceeanic and Atmospheric Adminstration (NOAA), National Centers For
 Environemental Information, (2017).
- 714 [50] National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL), National Solar Radiation Data Base,
 715 (2017).
- 716 [51] S. Xu, Optical based thermal probing and characterization, Iowa State University, 2015.
- 717 [52] O. Damdelen, C. Georgopoulos, M.C. Limbachiya, Measuring thermal mass of sustainable concrete mixes, J. Civ. Eng. Archit. 8 (2014) 213–220. doi:10.1061/9780784413616.193.

- [53] Minessota Department of Transportation, 2007 Minessota DOT Pavement Design Manual,
 Minessota Dep. Transp. 0 (2007) 1–39.
- [54] D. Deng, H. Murakawa, Numerical simulation of temperature field and residual stress in multi-pass welds in stainless steel pipe and comparison with experimental measurements, Comput. Mater. Sci. 37 (2006) 269–277.
- Y. Qin, A review on the development of cool pavements to mitigate urban heat island effect,
 Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev. 52 (2015) 445–459. doi:10.1016/j.rser.2015.07.177.
- Y. Qin, Pavement surface maximum temperature increases linearly with solar absorption and reciprocal thermal inertial, Int. J. Heat Mass Transf. 97 (2016) 391–399. doi:10.1016/j.ijheatmasstransfer.2016.02.032.
- 729 [57] B. Burgan, N. Baddoo, Structural Design of Stainless Steel, 2012.
 730 http://www.bssa.org.uk/cms/File/SCI 291 Structural Design of Stainless Steel.pdf.
- FAA, Advisory Circular 150/5360-13: Planning and design guidelines for airport terminal
 facilities, 1988.
 http://www.faa.gov/regulations_policies/advisory_circulars/index.cfm/go/document.infor
 mation/documentID/22618.
- 735 [59] National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL), Typical Meteorological Year Data,
 736 (2000). http://rredc.nrel.gov/solar/old_data/nsrdb/1961-1990/tmy2/ (accessed December
 737 26, 2017).
- [60] S.M.S. Sadati, F.U. Qureshi, D. Baker, Energetic and economic performance analyses of photovoltaic, parabolic trough collector and wind energy systems for Multan, Pakistan, Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev. 47 (2015) 844–855. doi:10.1016/j.rser.2015.03.084.
- 741 [61] ANSYS Inc., ANSYS®, (2018).
- [62] T. Defraeye, B. Blocken, J. Carmeliet, Convective heat transfer coefficients for exterior
 building surfaces: Existing correlations and CFD modelling, Energy Convers. Manag. 52
 (2011) 512–522. doi:10.1016/j.enconman.2010.07.026.
- 745 [63] M. Friswell, J.E. Mottershead, Finite element model updating in structural dynamics,
 746 Springer Science & Business Media, 2013.
- [64] K. Gowers, S. Millard, Measurement of concrete resistivity for assessment of corrosion,
 ACI Mater. J. (1999) 536–541. doi:10.14359/655.
- [65] Z. Xixiang, Z. Benshan, B. Eyjolfsson, Finite element resistivity modelling using
 specialized mesh structure, National Energy Authority, Reykjavik, Iceland, 1987.
- [66] S. Sreedhar, K.P. Biligiri, Development of pavement temperature predictive models using
 thermophysical properties to assess urban climates in the built environment, Sustain. Cities
 Soc. 22 (2016) 78–85. doi:10.1016/J.SCS.2016.01.012.
- Y. Qin, J.E. Hiller, Ways of formulating wind speed in heat convection significantly
 influencing pavement temperature prediction, Heat Mass Transf. Und Stoffuebertragung.
 49 (2013) 745–752. doi:10.1007/s00231-013-1116-0.
- 757[68]H. Xu, Y. Tan, Modeling and operation strategy of pavement snow melting systems utilizing758low-temperatureheatingfluids,Energy.80(2015)666–676.

- 759 doi:10.1016/j.energy.2014.12.022.
- A. Nahvi, S.M.S. Sadati, K. Cetin, H. Ceylan, A. Sassani, S. Kim, Towards resilient infrastructure systems for winter weather events: Integrated stochastic economic evaluation of electrically conductive heated airfield pavements, Sustain. Cities Soc. 41 (2018) 195–204. doi:10.1016/j.scs.2018.05.014.
- 764