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Travel Time-A Measure of Service and A Criterion for Improvement Priorities

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• **TRAVEL** time has been used as an indication of traffic congestion for some time in the Phoenix area which has grown tremendously in recent years. The first travel time study was conducted by the Arizona Highway Department in 1947. In 1956 Phoenix was selected as a pilot city by the National Committee on Urban Transportation . Evening peak-hour time data were gathered in 1957 and 1962 as a part of the continuing fact gathering effort. Travel time was obtained in accordance with national standards on all major arterial streets and selected collector streets of major importance.

The purpose of this report is to demonstrate that travel time offers a sound measure of the level of urban traffic service and can be a basic criterion for a major street improvement priority formula .

This paper compares the overall level of service as obtained by peak-hour travel time studies in 1947, 1957 and 1962. Comparison of the Phoenix street system for these years also related the level of service to population growth, increase in vehicle registration, city size and traffic volumes. Selected route segments are compared for change in average speed, vehicle delay and average daily traffic. In making these comparisons, street improvements that increased capacity are identified. Examples of these improvements are street widening, intersection widening and provision of leftturn lanes, channelization, and removal of parking.

This paper also recognizes the need to develop a simple priority formula that would aid in determining major street construction priorities in urban areas. The test formula used in Phoenix assigns major emphasis to delay rate, but also considers collisions, traffic volume and structural condition of the pavement. The formula was evaluated by comparing the relative priority rating for selected major arterial street segments, as determined by the formula, to the judgment rating of individuals. The various public works, planning, and management officials who served as raters were chosen for their familiarity and knowledge of the Phoenix street system.

This improvement priority formula is not intended to replace judgment, but could be used as an aid to develop recommended capital improvement prioritie. for major arterial street construction programs.

A MEASURE OF URBAN SERVICE

Travel time studies have been used for decades to show the time required to travel from one location to another. This information was useful in scheduling individual movements and later applied to the operation of mass transportation. The early traffic engineer commonly used travel time studies to show that an engineering improvement reduced the time required to go from point A to point B. Travel time studies of entire urban areas became commonplace and isochronic maps of urban areas were shown in the earliest text books concerned with traffic studies.

Travel time is easily understood by the average motorist and the "quickest way home" is a topic of conversation over the backyard fence. The motorist's desire has produced the traffic assignment diversion curves that are in widespread use. The speed of mobility for people and goods is the reason for the motor vehicle's being and travel time is a measure of service afforded by the street net.

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Paper sponsored by Committee on Quality of Traffic Service.

Travel time figures are easily obtainable. With a vehicle, a stop watch, and a half-hour's training, non-technical help can produce the desired study. However, because this tool is so old and so easily understood, travel time has been overlooked for more sophisticated and complicated applications. Travel time studies should be completed every two to three years for the major street and freeway network in an urban area. Thus, the trend in the overall level of service could become evident. Closer

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COMPARATIVE DATA FOR PHOENIX AND MARICOPA COUNTY

appraisal of individual routes would result in more quickly taken remedial measures. Travel time figures can play a large part in determining construction priorities, enforcement assignments, surface mass transit routings, freeway locations and signal timing deficiencies. If travel time data were available for various urban areas, the level of service could be compared. Travel time then should become a factor in programming urban construction projects by state highway departments. It would aid in advertising street improvements, the excellence of a transportation system of a community, and could be used in support of needed legislation to obtain financing to improve and build a street and freeway system.

Phoenix Studies

Although much of the foregoing may be wishful thinking and oversimplification, certainly travel time is a sound engineering measure of the level of service of a street net. In Phoenix a comparison was made of the overall average evening peak-hour major arterial street speeds for 1947, 1957 and 1962.

The 1947 study was made by the Arizona Highway Department, Maricopa County and the Bureau of Public Roads as part of an origin and destination study. The average speed determined for the major arterial street system in 1947 was 24. 7 mph. This compares with a speed of 29. 6 mph after a 10-yr period of traffic engineering improvements (Table 1).

Thus, during a period of unprecedented growth, the average speed increased 4.9 mph (20%) while the major arterial average daily traffic increased from 6,500 to $10,500$ vehicles. This is a 62 percent increase in traffic volume. Figure 1 shows the increases in vehicle registration, major arterial street average daily traffic, and average overall speeds found for the three travel time studies.

The average major arterial speed was slightly less in 1962 (0. 8 mph) than in 1957. This is more significant in view of the continued traffic engineering improvements that have been made and even accelerated. During this period the average daily traffic volumes have increased from 10,500 to 13,000 vehicles. The present surface major arterial street system is reaching saturation.

This leads to one possible theory: when the central city of an urban area reaches a population somewhere between 400,000 and 500,000, a typical major arterial street system reaches its peak efficiency. At this point a freeway system has to be placed in operation if the downward trend in overall average street net speeds is to be prevented. The population range of this "hump" depends on many factors such as density of population, efficiency of mass transportation, the ratio of vehicle registration to population, adequacy of the street net, rights-of-way , and the ability of the city to operate an efficient street system. Figure 2 shows the isochronic drawings for the Phoenix metropolitan area for 1957 and 1962. Figure 3 shows the level of service

OUTBOUND P.M. PEAK HOUR CONTOUR LINES IN MINUTES

CITY OF PHOENIX, ARIZONA
DIVISION OF TRAFFIC ENGINEERING

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Figure 2. Time contour map.

LEGEND 1962 DESIRABLE LEVEL OF EXISTING FREEWAY
PROPOSED FREEWAY POINT OF ORIGIN (0) $FIG.$ 3

CITY OF PHOENIX, ARIZONA
DIVISION OF TRAFFIC ENGINEERING

Figure 3. Time contour map.

TRAVEL TIME RELATED TO ENGINEERING IMPROVEMENTS FOR SELECTED MAJOR ARTERIALS

which would be attained if the deficiencies in the existing major arterial system were corrected and the freeway system was completed. This desirable level of service determined for Phoenix is as follows:

Definitive Travel Time Studies

In 1950 Phoenix realized that as it increased in size there was a need for a single agency to handle traffic matters. In July 1950, the division of traffic engineering was established under the direction of a traffic engineer. This division was responsible for the operation of the street system and for the propagation of traffic studies and design recommendations. The usual tools of the trade were employed: improved signal design, one-way street system, a program of parking removal, a through-street system, reversible-lane movements and channelization.

In 1957 Phoenix became one of the pilot cities in the program sponsored by the National Committee on Urban Transportation. The travel time study, in particular, gave the city administrators an opportunity to evaluate the services of the division of traffic engineering. A total of 458 miles of street was studied in 1957 for travel time in the urban area. These studies showed that during the 10-yr period (1947 to 1957) when Phoenix was growing at a faster rate than any other city over 100,000 population, the overall arterial speed had increased. This improved level of service was attained through studies and observations made at congested locations and on critical streets that were translated into physical improvements construction in the field.

GROWTH OF TRAFFIC ENGINEERING IMPROVEMENTS

As an example of the work accomplished during these years , Table 2 gives certain selected sections of major arterial streets, the increases in peak-hour traffic between 1957 and 1962, the vehicle minute delay per hour per mile, and engineering improvements. Table 3 gives the growth of traffic engineering improvements in service.

Summary

Travel time is a measure of the level of service of a street system. It can be useful in determining trends in a single area and has tremendous possibilities for comparing one geographic area with another. It can be a factor in determining signal timing, needed traffic improvements and street construction priorities. In some of these fields the methods of application have not yet been developed, but there is great potential use for this easily determined and universally understood measure.

A CRITERION FOR URBAN STREET PRIORITIES

The need for a simple formula that would aid in establishing the priority for streets to be constructed in urban areas has long been recognized. Certainly such a formula would not be intended to replace judgment, but would simply be a device by which urban projects could be listed as to their relative importance.

This section is solely confined to an urban major arterial street construction priority formula. In urban street and traffic work there are several areas where priority formulas will prove useful: resurfacing programs, traffic signal installations, and major arterial street construction.

A list of major street construction projects based on a priority formula could be a significant aid to the development of a recommended capital improvement program for urban areas. A major concept in the development of a formula has been to reduce judgment in the formula to the absolute minimum and thus make the formula as factual as possible. Judgment and budgetary e lements would be brought into the final selection of the actual projects for the recommended program.

In September 1960, the Highway Research Board sponsored a workshop conference on formulating highway construction programs. The results of this conference have been published and are an important contribution of the Department of Economics, Finance and Administration. A similar conference directed primarily at problems of formulating construction programs in urban areas could be a significant contribution.

The American Public Works Association transportation committee is now engaged in the study of major street construction priorities for urban areas. It is the hope of this committee that it will be able to develop a useful publication. One objective is to include several priority formulas that have been developed for urban areas.

The subcommittee on developing project priorities for transportation improvement summarized its work in Procedure Manual 10-A of the National Committee on Urban Transportation series. This procedure manual developed a technique and a suggested form for the complete evaluation of a project, including street classification; time the project is needed; and administrative, budgetary, and service considerations. The

¹Priority rating index should be based on the expected improvement in deficient conditions.

balance of this paper is concerned with an effort to formulate a simple factual analysis of service considerations. This is a continuation of programs undertaken by San Diego, Calif. and Phoenix.

San Diego Effort

San Diego has been publishing an annual 6-yr capital improvement program for many years. As a part of the pilot city program of the National Committee on Urban Transportation, several efforts were made to develop a capital improvement program priority formula for major street construction. Two of the earliest formulas were based primarily on traffic data. In one of these, priority was determined by the percent capacity overload; a second combined volume, speed and delay, and accident rates into a priority formula. Both efforts were helpful, but were not the desired formula.

Table 4 gives a guiding priority rating method developed in 1958. The basic philosophy of the formula was to weight community service 60 percent and user benefits 40 percent. The final priority index brought cost into the picture by dividing the cost per vehicle-mile by the project benefit index.

In an effort to test this formula 25 projects were selected. A group of eleven people having knowledge and responsibilities in administration, planning or engineering, and who participated in the capital improvement program project selection, were asked to order the 25 projects.

As this test proceeded, it became more and more obvious that the formula itself included judgment in all of the community service benefits as well as some of the user benefits. Actually, at least 70 points out of 100 in the formula were basically judgment

PHOENIX MAJOR STREET IMPROVEMENT PRIORITY, FORMULA B (Jan. 12, 1961)

ratings. Thus, the proposed priority rating formula simply provided a judgment ordering of the projects. This is essentially no different from the results obtained by the capital improvement committee using the same basic data. Therefore, the formula was not considered satisfactory.

Phoenix Formula and Test

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Phoenix completed a street deficiency study in December 1961 that found deficient approximately 152 out of 260 miles of major arterial streets. The estimated cost to correct the deficiencies was \$54. 2 million. The ever-present limitation of funds makes it essential that the priority of projects be carefully determined to insure the maximum benefit to the motoring public.

From the San Diego effort, Formula B was developed (Table 5). Again it is clear that there is a considerable amount of judgment in the elements to be rated. For this . reason, Formula C (Table 6) was developed for test purposes.

Formula C reduces judgment to a minimum. In conjunction with the Major Street Improvement Priority Formula C, two rating scales were developed. These are to be used to determine the points for the delay rate and the collision index (Fig. 4) . Curves were developed using existing data from Phoenix and San Diego combined with the following points of view:

1. The delay rate should give relatively few points in the lower scale of delay, but the number of points should increase more rapidly as greater delay rates are experienced. *:*

2. Accident rates should be used but they should be tempered with the total number of accidents .. If this is not done, erroneous conclusions can be drawn from either the accident rate or the use of total accidents.

Delay Rate in Vehicle-Minutes/mile During Peek Hour

(Use aJ..l reported accidents, including intersections)

Figure 4. Major street improvement priority Formula C rating scales.

Twenty-five street segments (Fig. 5) were selected to test the formula. These segments were carefully selected to insure that they ranged from projects that had been recently completed through projects which were obviously extremely low on the priority scale. The projects that had been completed were to be rated as they existed prior to their recent improvement. Nineteen individuals having responsibility in the areas of administration, planning, public works-traffic engineering, engineering and street maintenance were asked to participate in the judgment ratings.

Test Results

Table 7 gives the result of the judgment ratings. Table 8 compares these ratings to the order of priority developed by the formula.

It is important to note that the largest deviation of 16 positions occurred on segment O, Van Buren Street, which is obviously in need of improvement. However, this 4-lane facility is presently in an intensively developed area and is fully improved. As a practical matter, significant relief will come from a nearby parallel freeway included in

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TABLE 6

PHOENIX MAJOR STREET IMPROVEMENT PRIORITY, FORMULA C

the adopted major street and highway plan. This is a situation where the priority formula gave a high rating but judgment would have removed it from the construction program. This demonstrates the judgment and budgetary considerations that must be applied in the development of a capital improvement program.

Table 9 gives the specific points for each element of the formula for the 25 projects. Review of this table gives insight into the other projects where there is a significant deviation between the formula and the judgment ratings as follows:

1. Segment C, 27th Avenue project, is $\frac{1}{4}$ mile away from a completed urban freeway and the poor structural condition of the facility combined with some delay produced a higher priority by the formula. As on segment 0, judgment would tend to weigh the existence of the freeway and thus lower the priority.

2. Segment D, 19th Avenue, has a low delay but a considerably higher rating on structural condition. The various raters had a widespread opinion on the relative priority of this particular project. This may well be due to its being parallel to and approximately $\frac{3}{4}$ mile away from a completed freeway.

3. Segment H, 16th Street, received a low number of delay and traffic points but a number of structural condition points. Thus, the priority formula produced a somewhat lower rating than judgment.

4. Segment N, the Van Buren project , which judgment said should be among the very earliest, received zero points on the delay rate, relatively few points on traffic, but a high number of points on structural condition. As in segment H, judgment assigned a higher position than did the formula.

5. Segment S, Indian School, showed high by the priority formula due to the relatively high delay rate and traffic points received. Judgment lowered the priority because this segment had been improved to modern 4-lane standards within the last seven years.

Few of the street segments received a high number of points for delay rate. The cause of this is not fully understood. Certainly, it is possible that the delay rate curve (Fig . 4) could be adjusted. However, the curve is basedonthephilosophicpointofview thatthe relative points should increase more rapidly as the delay increases. If the shape of the curve were varied, there might well be a relatively large number of points for a relatively small amount of delay. This is not considered proper rating. The second possible cause is that congestion in Phoenix has not yet reached the point where maximum delays are the norm rather than the exception. The shape of the curve deserves further research. Perhaps a family of curves for different urban characteristics is needed.

Table 9 indicates that a good spread was obtained by collision index and structural condition ratings. However, the spread of traffic volume rating was not as broad as expected. The highest rating was 15 of 20 points—the lowest $3\frac{1}{2}$. The philosophy of the traffic volume component in Formula C is to place heavy value on present vol-

Figure 5. Selected

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w Cave Creek 7th St. -20th .St. 8 12 12 16 18 14 9 **21** 9 23 24 13 16 **X** "Q" Ave. 43rd Ave.-Black Canyon 16 23 25 25 25 22 21 25 25 20 25 20 • 24 **y** Grand Ave. Thomas-Camelback 3 7 7 6 3 2 11 19 5 14 5 2 10 25 18 24 22 15 6 **4** 9

TABLE 7 PHOENIX FORMULA C JUDGMENT RATINGS

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PHOENIX COMPARISON OF JUDGMENT AND FORMULA C RATINGS

"Difference of 5 or more between judgment and formula order of priority.

umes and then to add the 5-yr forecast growth ratio. The 5-yr forecast is an effort to reach a balance between present and future needs in capital programming. Evidence indicates that the present volume element of the formula should be divided by 1, 500 rather than 2,000. Thus, a better spread would be obtained.

The overall results from the test of Formula C are encouraging. The inconsistencies developed by the formula are either explainable or are not worse than the inconsistencies demonstrated by the spread in the individual judgment of the several raters. The lack of spread in the dalay rate point (Table 9) is cause for concern. However, it is possible that this can be explained.

Need for Broader Test

Phoenix is currently rating some 48 miles of major arterial streets included in a recently recommended capital improvement program. These streets will be rated by Formula C and combined with the 25 sections included in the first test. This broader base should provide a further evaluation of the formula's ability to differentiate between projects.

Judgment is not infallible, and therefore it is difficult at times to determine whether the formula is correct or whether the combined judgment of the raters is correct. Table 8 indicates that usually one or two raters were rather far off the mean. Several alternate efforts were made to reduce the spread of the judgment ratings. For example, the highest and lowest rater were eliminated, then the two high and two low. These efforts produced no significant difference in the judgment ratings. Table 8 also demonstrates that any one project may receive from nearly the highest to nearly the lowest

TABLE 9

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judgment rating. Perhaps this is the best argument of all for a major street improvement priority formula.

Summary

A major street improvement priority formula for urban areas is needed. Such a formula would be a useful tool to those responsible for developing a capital improvement program for major streets in cities. It would make possible the presentation of various projects in a relative priority list based on facts. At this point, judgment and budgetary considerations can most properly be applied to develop the capital improvement program that will provide maximum benefits to the public.

The results of the work in Phoenix and San Diego indicate that such a formula should not be too complex and should certainly minimize the judgment elements that go into it. However, this study demonstrates that one of the more difficult considerations for a priority formula to recognize and evaluate is a facility that has been improved to reasonable standards or that is near an existing or planned freeway.

It is difficult to evaluate a major street improvement priority formula because of the wide variances in judgment that have been obtained from the several studies. This emphasizes the need to develop a simple, easily applied, factual major street improvement priority formula for urban areas.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Travel time is an effective measure of level of service, both for individual routes and for urban streets and freeway systems.

2. Travel time studies of individual routes are a simple tool that can identify causes of congestion and thus lead more rapidly to needed improvements. A program of traffic engineering improvements resulted in an increase in the average speed on major arterial streets of 20 percent between 1947 and 1957, accomplished despite an increase of 62 percent in the average traffic volume.

3. Time contour maps offer a simple and reasonably accurate means of comparing the level of service of various urban areas.

4. A typical major arterial street system reaches saturation at some population level of the central city of a growing urban area. By the time this point is reached, a freeway system must be placed in operation if the overall level of service of the street system is to be prevented from declining. The population level of the central city may well be somewhere between 400,000 and 500,000 people. It appears that Phoenix has passed this "hump" as the average travel speed declined slightly between 1957 and 1962 .

5. **A** major arterial street construction priority formula for urban areas is needed. Such a formula would not replace judgment but would be used to present various projects in a relative priority list based on factual studies. Judgment, timing and budgetary considerations can then best be applied to the priority list to develop a capital improvement program.

6. An urban major street improvement priority formula should be relatively simple and should minimize the judgment elements that go into it. A priority formula should be based on facts.

7. A major street improvement priority formula is difficult to test because of wide variances in judgment. Perhaps this conclusion is the strongest argument in favor of developing a simple, easily applied, factual major street improvement priority formula for urban areas.

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An Economic Evaluation of Traffic **Movement at Various Speeds**

JACK C. MARCELLIS, Traffic Plans Engineer, Nashville Metropolitan Area Transportation Study¹

> The purpose of this study was to evaluate economic utility or cost of resources consumed by the highway transportation industry for various speeds of travel in rural and urban areas for passenger cars and commercial vehicles on 2- and 4- lane streets and highways during daytime and nighttime travel. Graphical relationships of economics of vehicle operation, values of time, safety of travel, and their sum, which is defined as the total cost of traffic movement, were drawn for the various conditions. The minimum point on each total cost curve represents that speed at which the cost of traffic movement is minimized.

> Results indicated that there was a speed which minimized the cost of traffic movement for each of the various conditions considered. This speed was defined as the optimal speed. In rural areas the optimal speed was 50 mph for passenger cars and 41 mph for commercial vehicles. Optimal speeds in urban areas decreased with an increase in number of stops per mile from 41 to 29 mph for passenger cars and from 36 to 25 mph for commercial vehicles with 1 and 8 stops per mile, ,respectively.

> The most direct application of the results is likely to be in the establishment of statewide or areawide speed limits where the limit is established so that the mean speed of the vehicles coincides with the optimal speed.

•HIGHWAY transportation is a branch of the transportation industry that consumes a large portion of America's resources, both natural and human (28). The expenditure of resources in promoting place and time utilities through highway transportation can be analyzed according to the following elements:

1. Economics of vehicle operation-expenditures incurred directly as a result of the operation of motor vehicles on street and highway systems.

2. Values of time to drivers and passengers-rate of travel has varied personal and business importance in affecting highway transportation.

3. Safety of travel-reduction of accidents has economic implications, such as decreased insurance rates, and personal bearings, such as absence of injury to ohe' s self, friend, or relative.

4. Travel comfort and convenience-this service resource affects psychological attitudes of the motor vehicle occupants.

To obtain maximum benefits and services for a given investment of capital, labor, land, managerial ability, and technical innovation, proper distribution of these resources must be made among these various benefits and services (28). Therefore, it is essential that the most efficient allocation of these four resources be developed to

Paper sponsored by Committee on Characteristics of Traffic Flow (formerly Committee on Speed Characteristics).
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enable the acquisition of optimal production of benefits and services in the highway transportation industry.

These four resources must be evaluated on a quantitative scale that allows them to be summed together in their proper proportions. This procedure is similar to the numerical system of arithmetic. A convenient method allowing the resources to be evaluated in their combined effect, and also in their proper proportion, is based on the expenditures of these resources per mile of travel, such as cents per mile: Because of the manner in which these various resources were measured, the investigation was reduced to an economic evaluation of traffic movement at various speeds.

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the economic utility or cost of the resources consumed by the highway transportation industry for various speeds of travel in rural and urban areas for passenger cars and commercial vehicles on 2- and 4-lane streets and highways during daytime and nighttime travel. This study was restricted to vehicular movement over level, tangent sections of well-paved streets and highways under free-flowing traffic conditions.

Graphical relationships of these four resource costs and their sum, defined as the total cost of traffic movement, were ascertained from economic studies of vehicular flow in rural and urban traffic areas for various types of motor vehicles. These curves were further refined for both 2- and 4-lane streets and highways and for daytime and nighttime travel conditions.

The speed that the majority of motor vehicles must travel to minimize the cost of traffic movement was obtained from the minimum points on the various total cost curves. The speed that minimizes the cost of traffic movement is defined as the "optimal speed" for the specified traffic area, vehicle type, highway type, and travel condition which the curve represents. These cost curves were representative of motor vehicle travel for roadway, traffic, and environmental conditions that are nearly ideal; that is, vehicular speeds were not limited by various physical and/or environmental factors. Because speeds of the various motor vehicles are not uniform but represent an approximate normal distribution, the optimal speed represents the mean speed of the motor vehicles (29).

Results of this investigation are likely to be useful in the development of statewide or areawide speed-zoning and in completing data that are lacking in the present roaduser benefit analyses.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Many investigations have been made to evaluate motor vehicle movement costs at various speeds of operation. This review of literature has been confined to summarizing those studies that have attempted to measure traffic movement costs at various speeds in rural and urban areas for passenger cars and commercial vehicles on 2 and 4-lane streets and highways during daytime and nighttime travel conditions.

Operation Cost

Operation costs are defined as those direct road-user costs that are incurred as a result of the operation of motor vehicles. They can be divided into five elements: fuel, oil, tire, maintenance, and depreciation.

Fuel cost is influenced by both unit cost and consumption rate. Usually, fuel cost is approximately 40 to 50 percent of the total operation cost (6). Fuel consumption is dependent on the characteristics of the motor vehicle, speed and type of operation, road conditions, vehicle use, driving conditions, and individual driving practices (27).

"Road User Benefit Analyses for Highway Improvements" (6) disclosed some facts on fuel mileage of average on-the-road passenger cars operating at a constant speed over level, tangent sections of well-paved highways. For these conditions the fuel mileage increased with an increase in speed up to 18 miles per gallon (mpg) at 25 mph and then decreased at an increasing rate with additional increase in speed.

In a recent investigation, Claffey (5) reported fuel consumption rates at various speeds for a pickup and a dump truck, both in an empty and a loaded condition, and a passenger car. Results revealed that at the optimum speed, or the speed at which fuel consumption is at a minimum, fuel consumption of the empty pickup truck was the lowest, followed by the loaded pickup truck, passenger car, empty dump truck, and loaded dump truck.

Fuel consumption is less on 4-lane divided highways than on 2-, 3-, or 4-lane undivided highways. This differential is explained by the fact that passing maneuvers can be made with less change in speed on 4-lane highways than on either 2- or 3-lane highways. The median on a 4-lane divided highway provides a physical separation between opposing traffic, which helps to reduce the magnitude of speed changes and fuel consumption (6).

Fuel-consumption rates described in the preceding paragraphs can be used for restrictive-type vehicular operation (like that encountered along the built-up routes in urban areas), as well as for free-type vehicular operation (like that encountered along the non-built-up routes in rural areas or on fully controlled access routes in urban areas), if the additional fuel necessary for slow downs and stops is included in the total fuel consumption (6) . Claffey (5) reported a linear increase in fuel consumption with an increase in speed. It was observed that the empty and loaded pickup truck consumed less fuel per stop for various approach speeds than did the passenger car, while the reverse was true for the empty and loaded dump truck. His investigation also disclosed excess Iuel consumption caused by a slow down of 10 mph from various approach speeds. For both the empty and loaded conditions, the pickup and the dump trucks had definite speeds at which excess fuel consumption for a 10 mph slow down was a maximum, while excess fuel consumption for the passenger car increased at an increasing rate with an increase in speed. The four optimal approach speeds were in the 35- to 45-mph range.

In summary, fuel consumption, thus fuel cost, increased with an increase in speed beyond some optimal speed and in size of vehicle and increased with a decrease in number of traffic lanes and in freedom of vehicular operation.

Oil cost is a function of the unit price and the amount consumed. Major factors influencing oil consumption are maintenance practices, vehicle characteristics, condition of the engine and vehicle, speed of operation, vehicle equipment, road condition, weather, and driver characteristics (27).

Lane (18) related that oil mileage increased with increasing speed up to about 800 miles per quart (mpq) at 30 mph. Then, oil mileage decreased with further increases in speed to approximately 200 mpq at 70 mph.

The Washington State Highway Commission (39) observed that oil cost for a private passenger car was 0.185 cents per mile, while oil cost for commercial vehicles ranged from 0. 107 cents per mile for a vehicle weighing 4,000 lb to 0. 371 cents per mile for a vehicle weighing 60,000 lb.

Research has shown that oil consumption, hence oil cost, increased with an increase in speed beyond some optimal speed and in size of vehicle.

Tire cost is influenced by both initial cost and rate of wear. Rate of wear is dependent on vehicle characteristics, highway features, speed of travel, type of operation, tire maintenance, and driver habits (27).

Evans (8) reported that at 15 mph a passenger car obtained approximately 30 percent more tire mileage than at a speed of 35 mph and about 50 percent less tire mileage at 55 mph than at 35 mph.

From an investigation performed by the Washington State Highway Commission (39), tire cost for a private passenger car was found to be 0. 496 cents per mile, while tire cost for commercial vehicles ranged from 0.411 cents per mile for a vehicle weighing 4,000 lb to 2.371 cents per mile for a vehicle weighing 60,000 lb.

Tire wear has been found to be less on 4-lane divided highways than on 2-, 3-, or 4-lane undivided highways. This is explained by the reduction in number of speed changes caused by passing maneuvers on 4-lane highways. The median on a 4-lane divided highway provides a physical separation between opposing traffic that also helps to reduce the magnitude of speed changes and tire wear (6) .

Restrictive-type vehicular operation, peculiar to travel on city streets, greatly increases tire wear over that of the free-type vehicular operation found on rural highways and urban freeways. Moyer (25) found that a single stop and start at 35 mph wore away approximately as much rubberas a mile of travel at the same normal speed.

In summary, tire wear, thus tire cost, increased with an increase in speed beyond some optimal speed and in size of vehicle and increased with a decrease in number of lanes and in freedom of vehicular operation.

Maintenance cost, which includes cost of engine, chassis, body servicing and repairs, and lubrication, is difficult to relate to various conditions of vehicle operation. One vehicle may be given constant maintenance attention at considerable cost, yet give no better service than another vehicle receiving a minimum of maintenance. Results of hard usage at one time may not require repairs until long afterwards; therefore, it is very difficult to evaluate maintenance cost for various conditions of vehicle operation. Research has shown that maintenance cost is affected by maintenance practices, vehicle age and condition, roadway conditions, engine power and speed, speed of travel, and weather (27).

The Highway Engineering Handbook (42) prorated maintenance cost for various types of vehicles according to speed on the basis of fuel, oil, and tire cost. Therefore, maintenance cost decreases with an increase in speed up to some optimal speed and then increases with an increase in speed.

The Washington State Highway Commission (39) reported that maintenance cost for a private passenger car was 0. 715 cents per mile, while the maintenance cost for commercial vehicles ranged from 4.533 to 8.845 cents per mile for vehicles weighing 4,000 to 60,000 lb, respectively.

Concerning the subject of restrictive-type vehicular operation, Wiley (40) asserted that required maintenance of brakes and clutches could be attributed to vehicle-stops. He prorated maintenance cost according tc a straight-line variation between no cost at 0 mph and O. 05 cents per mile at 50 mph.

In summary, maintenance cost increased with an increase in speed, beyond some optimal speed and in vehicle size and with a decrease in freedom of vehicular operation.

Depreciation is a lessening in value of the motor vehicle due to the passage of time and/or use. That part chargeable to time is due to a loss in value because improvements have outmoded the vehicle, making it less desirable. That portion of depreciation which is a· use-element cost is a function of travel rather than age. The Oregon State Highway Department suggests that two-thirds of the depreciation of passenger cars be prorated to mileage and one -third to time and that all the depreciation cost of commercial vehicles be prorated to mileage (23). The American Association of State Highway Officials (AASHO) allocated one-half of the depreciation cost of passenger cars to both mileage and time (6) .

Mileage depreciation is affected by the characteristics of the motor vehicle, the highway, and the operation of the motor vehicle. Depreciation due to mileage is normally calculated on a straight-line basis; that is, to divide the initial cost of the vehicle, less salvage value, by the anticipated number of vehicle miles to be traveled by the motor vehicle $(6, 23, 34, 41, 43)$.

AASHO recommends 1. Ocent per mile as the depreciation cost for passenger cars (6), while the Highway Engineering Handbook suggests for paved surfaces **1.** 0 cent per mile for passenger cars and light commercial vehicles, 1. 5 cents per mile for singleunit trucks, and 2. 5 cents per mile for combination vehicles **(42).** Therefore, depreciation cost increases with an increase in vehicle size. -

Time Cost

The cost of the driver's and passenger's time must also be considered in a realistic appraisal of the economics of motor vehicle movement. There is a general acceptance that savings of time for commercial vehicles has value in direct proportion to the wages of the drivers, fixed-time costs for the vehicles, and net operating profits to the owners (6, 9, 11, 17, 19). Fewer people accept values of time, either economic or leisure, for passenger cars although it is admitted that some value is justified (6). Economic time is time gained or lost which affects the cost of production, distribu: tion, or conservation of goods and services. This includes passenger cars of salesmen, repairmen, executives, and all who travel during working hours (10). In this case, the method of evaluation of time cost should be no different from that of commercial vehicles $(6, 17)$.

Leisure time is time gained or lost which causes a gain or loss of convenience. It includes pleasure traffic, commuter traffic, and business traffic in those cases where gain or loss of time does not affect the cost of production, distribution, or conservation of goods and services (10). The following three methods exist to evaluate leisuretime cost for passenger cars: (a) operating-cost data, (b) the extra distance operators will travel in order to save time, and (c) arbitrary time values (34).

The theory behind the operation-cost method is that fixed cost for one hour is a measure of the value of one hour of time. This is based on the assumption that fixed cost of a passenger car continues in full effect as an element of operating cost when the vehicle is stopped or slowed down. To obtain time cost, in dollars per hour, fixed cost per mile is multiplied by the average speed of the vehicle (34).

To determine the extra distance passenger car operators travel to save time, time cost is equated to the extra mileage cost of operating the vehicle plus any toll charge divided by the time saved (34) .

Many references indicate that time costs for passenger cars have been arbitrarily selected $(1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 13, 14, 20, 24, 42)$. The most widely used method was suggested by \overline{A} ASHO. \overline{A} time cost of \overline{I} 1.35 per hour per vehicle is recommended. The value resulted from an arbitrary selection of a time cost of \$0. 75 per person and an α average of 1.8 persons per passenger car (6) .

Accident Cost

Development of accident costs for a given speed, on a cost per mile basis, is the product of the traffic-accident involvement rate for the given speed and the severity of the accident at this speed. Traffic-accident involvement rates at various speeds are dependent on the characteristics of the driver, the vehicle, and the highway. Accident severity, .or cost per involvement, depends on the number of persons killed and injured per involvement and the economic worth of a death, an injury, and the property damage caused by the accident.

In 1953 and 1955, the Massachusetts Department of Public Works and the Massachusetts Registry of Motor Vehicles in cooperation with the U. S. Bureau of Public Roads conducted the first comprehensive study of economic costs of motor vehicle accidents on a statewide basis (21, 22, 35, 36).

There were 1,910 passenger cars involved in accidents for every 100 million passenger-car miles of travel on Massachusetts streets and highways in 1953. These involvements were composed of 3. 0 fatal-injury involvements, 467 non-fatal-injury involvements, and 1,440 property-damage-only involvements. The 1955 commercial vehicle study revealed that there were 1,412 trucks involved in accidents for every 100 million truck-miles of travel, consisting of 4.0 fatal-injury involvements, 223 non-fatal-injury involvements, and 1,186 property-damage-only involvements (21, 22).

From the Massachusetts study, 281 passenger cars were involved in accidents for every 100 million passenger-car miles traveled in rural areas, and 2,002 were involved in urban areas for the same travel rate. The cars were involved in 1. 5 fatalinjury, 67 non-fatal-injury, and 212 property- damage-only accidents in rural areas, and in 3.9 fatal-injury, 511 non-fatal-injury, and 1,488 property-damage-only accidents in urban areas (35, 36).

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During 1957 and 1958, the U. S. Bureau of Public Roads cooperated with 11 States to conduct an investigation to obtain a better understanding of the relationship between travel speed and accidents. The study covered 3. 7 billion vehicle-miles of travel on 600 miles of main, rural highways. Accident records of 10,000 drivers, together with speed observations and interviews with 290, 000 drivers using these highways, provided data for the study. The study revealed that accident involvement rates for both 2- and 4-lane divided highways decreased with a decreasing rate as speed was increased to approximately 60 to 65 mph, and then the accident involvement rates increased with an increasing rate with any further increase in speed. Accident involve-

ment rates for speeds less than 50 mph were greater on 4-lane divided highways than on 2 lane highways, as can be seen by comparing Figures 3 and 4. Above 50 mph, the 2- lane involvement rates were higher than the corresponding rates on 4- lane highways (32, 38).

The study also disclosed that in the range from 20 to 60 mph the night involvement rates were approximately twice the day rates. At speeds below 20 mph the night involvement rates were less than twice the day rates, while at speeds above 60 mph the night involvement rates were several times higher than the day rates $(32, 38)$.

In conclusion, accident involvement rates are higher for passenger cars than for commercial vehicles, higher in urban areas than in rural areas, higher on 4-lane divided highways than on 2-lane highways at speeds less than 50 mph, and higher during nighttime than during daytime.

Accidents occurring at moderate and high speeds were more severe than those at low speeds. For example, at 40 mph there were 31 persons fatally or non-fatally injured per 100 accident-involved vehicles, while at 65 mph 70 persons were fatally or non-fatally injured per 100 accident-involved vehicles. The amount of property damage per involvement increased at an increasing rate with an increase in speed. At 20 mph property damage per involvement was $$250, at 65 mph, $$430 (32, 38)$.$

Comfort and Convenience Cost

Operation, time, and accident costs are tangible costs and are easily evaluated; however, comfort and convenience cost is intangible and difficult to evaluate in relative, quantitative measures. Nevertheless, benefits gained from comfort and convenience are real and should be appraised.

The use of toll facilities is evidence that some drivers place a monetary value on comfort and convenience. People who could have driven to their destination in fewer miles and with little difference in time on a free but a more congested route have elected to pay for the privilege of traveling on the toll road. Therefore, it must be of some value to the person to drive without frequent brake application, stops and starts, or tension created by traffic or roadside interference.

Positive identification of values for assignment to various degrees of comfort and convenience is not possible because presently there are no methods available to determine unit values of the many factors entering the evaluation of comfort and convenience costs. Some of these factors are highway type, services rendered to **dif-_** ferent traffic components, type of trip being made, trip length, and degree of interference on alternate routes (6).

AASHO arbitrarily selected the following values for various degrees of comfort and convenience: free type of operation, 0 cent per vehicle-mile; normal type, 0. 5 cent per vehicle-mile; restricted type, 1.0 cent per vehicle-mile. AASHO defined type of operation by the ratio of the 30th highest hourly traffic volume to the practical capacity of the roadway. The types of operation are identified from these ratios as restricted operation for ratios greater than 1.25 , as normal for ratios of 0.75 to 1.25, and as free for ratios less than $0.75(6)$.

PROCEDURE

Rural Highways

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Rural highways are defined, for the purposes of this study, as those routes which have no or very little roadside development along their rights-of-way and where traffic-controlled intersections are a mile or more apart.

Operation Cost. - The most recent and reliable data concerning operation cost for passenger cars and commercial vehicles is in the Highway Engineering Handbook. Operation-cost data presented in this reference were developed by Winfrey (42) through adjustment, reconciliation, and trending of a large number of published reports plus personally collected data. It was assumed that unit prices of fuel in cents per gallon and oil in cents per quart were 32 and 40, 30 and 34, and 28 and 25 for passenger cars and light commercial vehicles, single-unit trucks, and combination vehicles, respectively. Price per unit of tire wear for the three vehicular groups was not stated, but

tire cost per mile was based on the depth of tread and the rate of tread wear. Maintenance cost for the various vehicular groups was prorated according to speed on the basis of fuel, oil, and tire cost. Depreciation, cost which was assumed to be attributable to mileage use, was estimated at 1.0, 1.5, and 2.5 cents per mile for passenger cars and light commercial vehicles, single-unit trucks, and combination vehicles, respectively.

Total operation cost for passenger cars and commercial vehicles on 2- and 4-lane divided highways in rural areas is shown in Figure 1. Operation cost for commercial vehicles was prorated for a representative commercial traffic stream Figure 1. Operation cost vs vehicular
commosed of 30.6 percent light commercial speed, rural highways. composed of 30.6 percent light commercial vehicles, 29. 83 percent single-unit trucks, and 39. 57 percent combination vehicles

(7). Operation costs on 4-lane divided highways were obtained by using the ratio of 2 -lane operation costs to 4-lane divided operation costs developed by AASHO (6). Passenger-car operation costs are a minimum at 26. 5 mph for 2-lane highways and at 27. 5 mph for 4-lane divided highways, whereas commercial-vehicle operation costs are a minimum at 21. 0 mph for both highway types.

Time Cost. -In view of the general disagreement in the value of time for passenger cars, a conservative value is desirable so as to provide realistic and identifiable monetary benefits due to time saved. Therefore, a time cost of \$0.75 per person, suggested by AASHO (6), was used in this study. The U.S. Bureau of Public Roads found on rural highways an average of 1.9 persons per passenger car (16) . Therefore, the average value of time for passenger cars in rural areas was assumed to total \$1.425 per hour per vehicle, or 2.375 cents per minute per vehicle.

The Highway Engineering Handbook suggests the following conservative values of time for the three groups of commercial vehicles: light commercial vehicles, $$1.80$ per hour; single-unit trucks, \$2.10 per hour; and combination vehicles, \$2.64 per hour (42). Based on a representative commercial-traffic stream in rural areas, a representative time cost for all commercial vehicles of \$2. 22 per hour was developed

(7). Time cost per mile for passenger cars and commercial vehicles on rural highways as a function of travel speed is shown in Figure 2. Time cost is inversely proportional to the speed of the vehicle.

Accident Cost. - Accident cost for a given speed is equal to the product of the accident involvement rate for that speed and the severity of the accident at the same speed. Involvement rates for passenger cars and commercial vehicles in rural areas were developed from data provided by the U.S. Bureau of Public Roads (32, 38) and North Carolina (12).

Passenger car and commercial vehicle involvement rates on 2- and 4-lane divided rural highways and for daytime and nighttime conditions are shown in Figures 3 and 4. For each curve, there is a speed

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Figure 4. Vehicular involvements vs vehicular speed, 4-lane divided rural highways.

at which the involvement rate was a minimum. Speeds at which the minimum rates occurred are less for commercial vehicles than for passenger cars for each highway type and travel condition. Nighttime involvement rates are generally higher than daytime rates, and 4-lane involvement rates are higher than 2-lane rates at lower speeds, whereas the reverse is true for higher speeds. Commercial vehicle accident-involvement rates are much less than those for passenger cars at corresponding speed values.

Accident severity, expressed as cost per vehicular involvement, is dependent on the number of persons killed or injured per involvement and on the unit costs of a death, an injury, and the property damage caused by the accident. The number of persons killed or injured per passenger car and commercial vehicle involvement was developed from accident data provided by the Bureau of Public Roads (32, 38) and North Carolina (12). The National Safety Council suggested that the economic loss incurred by a death is \$30,000 and that by an injury is $$1,600$. These values are based on wage losses, medical expenses, and overhead costs of insurance (33). Property damage per passenger car and commercial vehicle involvement for various speeds was provided by accident information collected and summarized by the Bureau of Public Roads (32, 38) Massachusetts (21, 22).

Figure 6. Accident severity vs vehicular speed, 4-lane divided rural highways.

Figure 7. Accident cost vs vehicular speed, 2-lane rural highways.

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The total accident severity of an involvement is obtained from the sum of the property-damage cost plus the product of the number of killed or injured persons and their resulting economic loss. Figures 5 and 6 show passenger car and commercial vehicle severity on 2- and 4-lane divided highways for daytime and nighttime travel. There is an increase in accident severity at an increasing rate with an increase in speed. Nighttime accident severity is higher than daytime except for passenger-car travel at low speeds on 4-lane divided highways. Accident severity is greater for commercial vehicles than for passenger cars, because the number of persons fatally injured or nonfatally injured per involvement is higher for commercial vehicles than for passenger cars.

Accident costs for various speeds on 2- and 4-lane divided highways for daytime and nighttime travel conditions are shown in Figures 7 and 8. Nighttime accident costs are higher than daytime costs throughout the speed range. In general, accident costs are less for commercial vehicles traveling in rural areas than for passenger cars under the same conditions. Optimum speeds for accident costs on rural highways are indicated in the following:

Comfort and Convenience Cost. -Comfort and convenience cost is an intangible that is difficult to evaluate. However, it can be assumed that this cost element is higher at low speeds (driver impatience) and at high speeds (driver tension), whereas at intermediate speeds, the comfort and convenience cost is minimized in the region of driver satisfaction (30). No justifiable method of assigning values in terms of dollars and cents has been found. Therefore, comfort and convenience costs were not determined in this study.

Urban Streets

Urban streets are defined as those routes which have high or complete roadside development along their rights-of-way and where traffic controlled intersections are less than a mile apart.

Operation Cost. -The criterion used to develop operation costs for passenger cars in urban areas rests on the assumption that the same operation costs used for freetype vehicular operation can be used for restrictive-type operation if additional costs for slowdowns and stops are included in the total operation cost (6). Because this study was restricted to vehicular flow during free-flowing traffic volumes, it was assumed that the only slowdowns made by the drivers will result from complete stops for traffic-control devices. Therefore, operation costs in urban areas can be prorated, if data are available, to provide operation costs for both free-type operation at various speeds and for a normal stop from the same corresponding speeds. Operation cost for a normal stop is defined as that extra cost resulting when a typical driver decelerates from a given speed to a stop and then immediately accelerates to the same speed (5) . This information is tabulated in the Highway Engineering Handbook (42) .

Figure 9 shows the extra passenger car and commercial vehicle operation costs for a normal stop. Extra operation costs for commercial vehicles were prorated for an

Figure 9. Extra operation cost vs vehicular speed, urban streets.

average urban, commercial-traffic stream composed of 55.77 percent light commercial vehicles, 27.98 percent single-unit trucks, and 16.25 percent combination vehicles (15). At speeds above 20 mph, extra operation costs for both passenger cars and commercial vehicles increased at an increasing rate with an increase in speed. Throughout the speed range, extra operation costs are higher for commercial vehicles than for passenger cars.

To obtain the total operation cost for a desired speed in an urban area, the operation cost for a mile of free-type operation is added to the extra operation cost per stop per mile times the number of stops per mile. Unlike highways in rural areas, operation costs were not prorated for both 2- and 4-lane streets because very few urban streets are divided by a median of adequate width to separate physically traffic movement and thus reduce operation costs. Therefore, these operation costs are applicable only to passenger car and commercial vehicle operation on all undivided urban streets.

Time Cost. - The method used to prorate passenger car time cost on urban streets was the same as that used on rural highways. The Bureau of Public Roads found that there was an average of 1.6 persons per passenger car traveling on urban streets (16) . Based on the assumption that time cost equals \$0.75 per person, the value of time for passenger cars in urban areas resulted in a total of \$1.20 per hour per vehicle, or 2.00 cents per minute per vehicle (6) .

Based on the average distribution of travel in urban areas for commercial vehicles, a representative value of time for all commercial vehicles of \$2.02 per hour was evolved, somewhat less than the rural value of $$2.24$. This is explained by the presence of a larger percentage of light commercial vehicles (low value of time) and by a smaller percentage of combination vehicles (high value of time).

Figure 10 indicates that the extra time cost for passenger cars increased linearly with speed, whereas the extra time cost for commercial vehicles increased at an increasing rate with an increase in speed. The extra time consumed for a normal stop by a passenger car, light commercial vehicle, and a single-unit truck was obtained from a study by Claffey (5) while the extra time consumed by an average combination vehicle in performing a normal stop was abstracted from a paper by Sawhill (31).

To compute the total time cost per mile at a given speed in an urban area, the time

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cost per mile at the given speed is added to the extra time cost per mile multiplied by the number of stops per mile.

Accident Cost. -Unlike in the rural areas, there has been no investigation to ascertain the relationship between travel speed and accidents in urban areas. Therefore, a method was developed which tried to synthesize involvement rates at various speeds.

The 1959 national mileage (26) was proportioned to obtain urban mileage (37), urban passenger-car mileage and commercial vehicle mileage (37), and then urban daytime and nighttime passenger-car and commercial vehicle mileage (26). The absence of any valid information prevented a further breakdown between 2 - and 4 -lane streets. After making the assumption that the 1959 North Carolina urban speed distributions are typical for the nation (12), the daytime and nighttime mileage was distributed to the various speed groups in proportion to the number of passenger cars and commercial vehicles traveling in that speed group.

The number of fatal, non-fatal, and property-damage involvements were obtained from ratios of passenger-car involvements and commercial vehicle involvements to all-vehicle involvements. These breakdowns were developed from the 1959 North Carolina accident statistics (12) and were used to convert the 1959 all-vehicle involvement data, as estimated by the National Safety Council (26) , into passenger-car and commercial vehicle fatal, non-fatal, and property-damageinvolvements for daytime and nighttime travel conditions.

The number of involvements divided by the number of vehicle-miles traveled resulted in the involvement rates shown in Figure 11. Daytime involvement rates are higher than nighttime rates at lower speeds, but the trend is reversed in the study conducted by the Bureau of Public Roads (32, 38). Urban involvement rates are larger than rural involvement rates, and urban minimum involvement rates occurred at lower speeds than the corresponding rural values. Furthermore, passenger-car and commercial vehicle involvement rates are very similar, except urban daytime commercial vehicle rates are greater than corresponding rates for passenger cars. The reverse is true for nighttime.

The accident severity of an involvement is obtained from the sum of the propertydamage cost plus the product of the number of killed or injured persons and their resulting economic loss. The Massachusetts study (21, 22) provided the propertydamage costs, the accident statistics from North Carolina (12) and the National Safety Council (26) provided the number of killed and injured at various speeds, while the National Safety Council gave the economic worth of a death and an injury (33). Both daytime and nighttime accident severity increased at an increasing rate with an increase in speed (Fig. 12). Nighttime accident severity is higher than daytime throughout the speeds considered. Accident severity for commercial vehicles in urban areas is higher than that for passenger cars in urban areas, but is lower than either in rural areas.

Accident costs, which are the products of the accident involvement rates and the accident severities, for passenger cars and commercial vehicles in urban areas are shown in Figure 13. Nighttime accident costs are less than daytime accident costs at low speeds, but daytime accident costs are less than nighttime accident costs at high speeds. Optimum speeds for accident costs on urban streets are indicated in the following:

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Figure 13. Accident costs *vs* vehicular speed, urban streets.

RESULTS

Rural Highways

Results of this investigation to determine the cost of traffic movement on rural highways are summarized in Figures 14 through 21. These diagrams represent relationships between vehicular speed and operation cost, time cost, accident cost, and total cost of traffic movement. Total cost is the arithmetic sum of these three elements. In each of the eight total cost curves, there is a travel speed at which the total traffic movement cost is minimized. Therefore, a speed that optimizes the cost of traffic movement for various motor vehicles, highway types, and travel conditions can be rationally determined. Optimum speeds for each rural condition are summarized in the following:

At speeds both above and below these optimal points, total cost increases at an increasing rate.

For passenger cars on 2-lane highways (Fig. 14) the total cost is 7. 600 cents per mile at the optimal daytime speed of 48. 0 mph. Total cost of traffic movement ranged from 9. 121 cents per mile at 30. 0 mph down to the optimal value and then back up to 9.438 cents per mile at 70.0 mph.

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Figure 14. Cost of traffic movement vs vehicular speed, 2-lane, daytime, passenger cars on rural highways.

Figure 15. Cost of traffic movement vs vehicular speed, 2-lane, nighttime, passenger cars on rural highways.

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Because accident cost is higher for passenger cars on two-lane rural highways for nighttime than it is for daytime, total cost of nighttime traffic movement. (Fig. 15) is slightly larger than for daytime. Figure 15 shows the total cost of traffic movement as 8. 140 cents per mile at the 48.5 mph optimal speed.

In Figure 16, total cost of daytime traffic movement for passenger cars on 4-lane rural highways varied from 10.987 cents per mile at 30.0 mph down to 7.400 cents per mile at the optimal speed of 52. 0 mph and then back up to 8. 281 cents per mile at 70. 0 mph. This high total cost at the lower speeds is the result of high accident costs in this region.

Figure 17 shows total cost of traffic movement to be higher for nighttime travel than for daytime travel (Fig. 16) throughout the entire speed range. At the optimal speed of 51. 5 mph, total cost of traffic movement is 7. 660 cents per mile .

For commercial vehicles on 2-lane rural highways for daytime travel (Fig. 18), the total cost of traffic movement is 16. 083 cents per mile at the optimal speed of 40. 0 mph, whereas at 30. 0 mph and 60. 0 mph, total cost of traffic movement is 16. 851 cents per mile and 19 .199 cents per mile, respectively.

Total cost of traffic movement for commercial vehicles on 2-lane ruralhighways for nighttime travel (Fig. 19) did not vary appreciably from daytime travel (Fig. 18). At the optimal speed of 41. 0 mph, the total cost of traffic movement is 16. 220 cents per mile .

For commercial vehicles on 4-lane rural highways for daytime travel (Fig. 20), total cost of traffic movement varied from 16. 764 cents per mile at 30. 0 mph down to 15. 900 cents per mile at the optimal speed of 41. 0 mph and then up to 18. 212 cents per mile at 60. 0 mph.

For commercial vehicles on 4-lane rural highways for nighttime travel (Fig. 21) the cost of traffic movement was observed to be slightly higher than daytime total cost. At the optimal speed of 44. 0 mph total cost of traffic movement is 16. 320 cents per mile, while at 30. 0 mph and 60. 0 mph total cost is 17. 932 cents per mile and 18.451 cents per mile, respectively.

It is evident that the commercial vehicle total costs are approximately twice the passenger car total costs. Total costs for nighttime travel are consist-

Figure 16. Cost of traffic movement vs vehicular speed, 4-lane divided, daytime, passenger cars on rural highways.

Figure 17. Cost of traffic movement vs vehicular speed, 4-lane divided, nighttime, passenger cars on rural highways.

Figure 18. Cost of traffic movement vs vehicular speed, 2-lane, daytime, commercial vehicles on rural highways.

Figure 19. Cost of traffic movement vs vehicular speed, 2-lane, nighttime, commercial vehicles on rural highways.

ently higher than for daytime travel. Also, total costs for 2-lane highways are higher than for 4-lane divided highways except at lower speeds where very high accident costs on 4-lane divided highways produce higher total costs.

Urban Streets

Figures 22 through 25 show the results of this study of vehicle costs on urban streets. These figures depict cost of traffic movement for various speeds, vehicle types, stops per mile, and travel conditions. For each of the various stops per mile, an optimal speed minimizing cost of traffic movement was found.

For passenger cars on urban streets for daytime travel (Fig. 22), optimal total costs of traffic movement ranged from 7. 080 cents per mile at an optimal speed

of 42. 0 mph for O stops per mile to 18. 420 cents per mile at an optimal speed of 27. O for 16 stops per miie.

For passenger cars on urban streets for nighttime travel (Fig. 23), optimal total costs of traffic movement ranged from 7. 300 cents per mile at an optimal speed of 41. 5 mph to 18. 240 cents per mile at an optimal speed of 24. 5 mph for O stops per mile and 16 stops per mile, respectively.

Total cost of traffic movement for commercial vehicles on urban streets is approximately 1. 75 times larger than for passenger cars on urban streets. For commercial vehicles on urban streets for daytime travel (Fig. 24), optimal total costs of traffic movement varied from 12. 580 cents per mile at an optimal speed of 37. 5 mph for O stops per mile to 24. 117 cents per mile at an optimal speed of 25. 0 mph for 8 stops per mile.

For commercial vehicles on urban streets for nighttime travel (Fig. 25), total costs are less than total costs for daytime travel for each of the various stops per mile. Optimal total costs of traffic movement ranged from 12. 420 cents per mile at an optimal speed of 37. 5 mph to 23. 730 cents per mile at an optimal speed of 25. 0 mph for 0 stops per mile and 8 stops per mile, respectively .

Figure 20. Cost of traffic movement vs vehicular speed, 4-lane divided, daytime, commercial vehicles on rural highways .

Figure 21. Cost of traffic movement
vs vehicular speed, 4-lane divided, vs vehicular nighttime, commercial vehicles on rural highways,

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Figure 22. Cost of traffic movement vs vehicular speed, daytime, passenger cars on urban streets.

Figure 23. Cost of traffic movement vs vehicular speed, nighttime, passenger cars on urban streets.

Figure 24. Cost of traffic movement vs vehicular speed, daytime, commercial vehicles on urban streets.

Figure 25. Cost of traffic movement vs vehicular speed, nighttime, commercial vehicles
on urban streets.

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The following relationships between optimal speeds and stops per mile were established:

Passenger car, daytime:

 $Y = 41.0 - 11.63 \log X$

Passenger car, nighttime:

 $Y = 40.5 - 13.29 \log X$

Commercial vehicle, daytime and nighttime:

Y = 35.5 - 11.63 log **X**

in which

Y = optimal speed in mph, and

X = number of stops per mile.

Figure 26 shows optimal speeds for stops ranging from 1 to 16 for passenger cars on urban streets for daytime and nighttime travel, and Figure 27 shows optimal speeds for stops varying from **1** to 8 for commercial vehicles on urban streets for daytime and nighttime travel.

A method was developed to estimate the number of stops due to traffic signals a motor vehicle made over a certain distance in an urban area, by assuming that under free-flowing urban traffic conditions, the probability of being stopped at any given traffic signal was inversely proportional to the ratio of green time to cycle time (G/C) . The probable number of stops per mile for various numbers of traffic signals and G/ C ratios is shown in Figure 28. Of course, the number of interruptions by stop signs per mile must be added to the value in Figure 28 before the total number of stops by the motor vehicle can be estimated.

To illustrate the procedure for obtaining optimal speed on an urban street, assume that for a 1-mi section of the given street there are 4 intersections. One of these intersections is regulated by a stop sign and the other three by traffic signals having G/C ratios of 0.60, 0.50, and 0.40, respectively. The number of probable stops per mile caused by the three traffic signals with an average G/C ratio of 0.50 is 1.5 stops per mile (Fig. 28). After the extra stop for the stop-sign-controlled intersection is added, the total probable number of stops for the street is 2. 5. The optimal speeds obtained are 36.4 and 35.2 mph, respectively, for passenger cars during daytime and nighttime travel (Figs. 26 and 27). Commercial vehicles for both daytime and nighttime travel have an optimal-speed value of 30.9 mph.

Figure 27. Optimal speed vs nwnber of stops, commerical vehicles on urban streets.

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(1)

(2)

(3)

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Figure 28. Probable number of stops vs number of traffic signals.

CONCLUSIONS

The most important conclusion that was drawn from this investigation is that a vehicle -operating speed does exist which minimizes cost of traffic movement for each of the various conditions considered. It is also concluded that differences up to 11 mph were observed between the optimal speeds of passenger cars and commercial vehicles, whereas there were lesser differences between optimal speeds on 2- and 4-lane rural highways and even smaller differences between daytime and nighttime optimal speeds.

Application of the results of this study, which are the consolidated results of many published articles on the subject of traffic movement costs, will probably be restricted to the establishment of statewide or areawide maximum or minimum speed limits. At this time, it is not possible to speed zone for specific locations using these results because the data necessary to make the analysis are not available for a micro analysis.

Data developed in this investigation can also be used to help complete data lacking in the present road-user benefit analyses. In the past, commercial vehicles and accident costs were omitted from the analyses because of the lack of available data. Highway engineers now have a broader knowledge of the actual benefits received by the road-user through highway improvements.

SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

One difficulty encountered in this evaluation was the lack of adequate data on the values of time and accident involvement rates. An acceptable value of time for passenger car leisure trips should be ascertained and an urban accident study similar to the one conducted in rural areas by the Bureau of Public Roads should be initiated (32, 38). Driver comfort and convenience should also be studied to determine its proper place in appraising the actual cost of traffic movement. When more data become available, it is suggested that individual cost elements, along with total cost of traffic movement, be re-evaluated.

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Multivariate Analysis of Vehicular Speeds

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This investigation was concerned with the multivariate analysis of vehicular speeds on 2-lane rural highways. The objective was to gain a better understanding of traffic-stream characteristics through the formulation and evaluation of mathematical models describing the time-rate of traffic flow.

The concept of traffic flow was founded on the assumption that vehicular speeds are a function of various travel conditions present in and adjacent to the traffic stream. Thus, various types and levels of travel features produce different average spot speeds. The total effect of these resistance variables determines the speed characteristics of a particular highway location. Average speed was qualitatively described as a hyperplane to account for the many variables that significantly influence vehicular speeds.

The description of this traffic-flow concept in the language of mathematics was accomplished through the development of multiple linear regression equations. Two mathematical models were devised to relate mean spot speed as a function of generatedfactors in one equation and of travel-restriction variables in the other expression. These regression models were restricted by the assumption of linearity in both the variables and the parameters .

To evaluate and verify the proposed mathematical relationships, it was necessary to collect sufficient data on many variables influencing vehicular speeds. Directional traffic flow on 2-lane rural highways was studied with measurements of 49 variables representing various driver, vehicle, roadway, traffic, and environmental conditions. Study locations in Illinois were operated at random during the months of June through August 1961. Multivariate analysis of mean values of the selected variables was accomplished by computer programs for factor analysis and multiple linear regression and correlation analysis.

A verification study performed on ten study sites indicated that two multiple linear regression equations can be used to estimate mean spot speeds with a reasonable degree of confidence.

•THE MOVEMENT of people and goods on the highway and street systems is a segment of the transportation industry that consumes considerable national resources, both natural and human. Highway transportation produces the desired place utility, within the limitations of the specified time utility, for many persons and large quantities of various commodities .

The general functions of highway facilities are to provide for the expedient movement of relatively large volumes of motor vehicles, to furnish access to various forms of land use, and to serve as routes on which certain drivers and passengers desire to

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travel. It is essential that these purposes are accomplished with a high degree of safety and at acceptable levels of comfort and convenience. Vehicular speed is an important consideration in highway transportation because the rate of vehicle movement has significant economic, safety, time, and service (comfort and convenience) implications to both the motoring and the general public (16) . To this end, effective operation and control of vehicular traffic on various highways and streets have often necessitated the regulation of motor-vehicle speeds.

When the speed of motor-vehicle operation is not limited by any driver, vehicle, roadway, traffic, and environmental (considered collectively as travel) characteristics, lhe individual driver is free to select his desired rate of travel. A wide speed range results when conditions permit road users to select their own speeds (10). The vehicle operator, however, must often drive under travel conditions that restrict his freedom of operation. Numerous investigations have concluded that various restrictions on the flow of traffic produce spot-speed characteristics of the non-free-flowing traffic that are less than those corresponding speed values indicative of free-flowing conditions (14). In many instances, the relationship between the average spot speed and the increasing measure of a specific traffic-stream restriction, with all other variables constant, is approximately a straight line with a negative slope. These functional relations are valid only for the constant conditions of the fixed parameters.

No comprehensive analysis has been performed to permit the correlation of average time-mean speeds on a given traffic facility with various travel conditions because:

1. Many variables may have a significant influence on vehicular speeds;

2. The amount of this effect on the rate of travel may depend on both the character and the magnitude of various restrictions;

3. Different combinations of travel conditions may produce modifications that vary from the composite result obtained from the individual evaluation of each restriction (known as interaction); and

4. Some variables may be present with varying degrees of significance at different levels of traffic operation.

It is readily apparent that a realistic evaluation of spot-speed characteristics necessitates the appraisal of those driver, vehicle, roadway, traffic, and environmental conditions that determine or significantly modify vehicular speeds.

The purposes of this investigation were to develop a conceptual theory on the timerate of traffic flow under various types and levels of travel conditions, to formulate mathematical models representative of this theory, to evaluate quantitatively these mathematical expressions through designed experiments, and to test the validity of these functional models.

Solutions to mathematical models for various highway types (2-lane, 3-lane, and multi-lane) in general traffic areas (business, residential, intermediate, and rural) permit:

1. The reliable estimation of vehicular-speed characteristics on any existing highway or street location;

2. The determination of the influence on traffic operation occasioned by proposed improvements in existing roadway and/or traffic features (improved alinement, adequate lateral clearance, access control, traffic-control device, etc.);

3. The evaluation of the design of new highway facilities for expected operational conditions;

4. The development of reasonable speed regulations for adverse roadway and/or environmental characteristics (restricted sight distance, road roughness, limited visibility, icy pavement, etc);

5. The ascertainment of advisory speed limits where roadway and/or traffic conditions govern the rate of vehicular movement (horizontal alinement, roadside development, traffic volume, percentage of commercial vehicles, etc.); and

6. The accurate simulation of traffic-stream characteristics in highway planning studies incorporating traffic-flow model analysis.

Both theoretical and practical considerations, in their proper perspective, were applied for a scientiiic approach to the analysis of the speeds at which drivers operate their motor vehicles on roadways under prevailing traffic and environmental conditions. Thus, a better understanding of traffic-stream characteristics has been gained through the comprehensive appraisal and evaluation of vehicular speeds under actual travel conditions.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The subject of vehicular speeds has occupied a prominent position in the literature of highway and traffic engineering. Numerous quantitative and qualitative analyses appraisals, and discussions have appeared in the literature to provide a better understanding of vehicular-speed characteristics (15). In many problems encountered in the planning, design, and operation of a highway transportation system, a knowledge of the characteristics of motor-vehicle speeds is imperative if sound engineering decisions are to be realized.

Vehicular Speed

This review was confined to those articles on vehicular-speed characteristics that appeared to be a definite contribution to the disciplines of highway and traffic engineering. Although many publications on vehicular speed were reviewed, only those articles that were pertinent to the subject of this investigation were used.

To execute their role of providing highway transportation services of high quality at a minimum cost, highway and traffic engineers require a knowledge of spot-speed characteristics at many highway and street locations . The requisites for data on spot speeds can be briefly summarized with the following examples: speed-trend studies, analysis of problem locations, determination of traffic controls, geometric design applications, highway and traffic planning considerations, studies of traffic-stream characteristics, guides in enforcement, before-and-after studies, and traffic safety investigations.

Speed Fundamentals. -The classic definition of vehicular speed is 'the rate of movement of traffic, or of specified components of traffic, expressed in miles per hour" (10). In reality, the velocity (a vector) of a motor vehicle is the ratio of its displacement (a vector) to the time interval (a scalar) in which the displacement occurred. The traffic engineer, however, is generally only interested in the magnitude and not the direction of the velocity vector. As a result, the speed (a scalar) of a moving vehicle is defined as the ratio of the length of traveled path (a scalar) to the elapsed time (a scalar). Speeds and not velocities of highway traffic were measured and analyzed in this study.

From the definitation of vehicular speed, it is readily evident that two distinct types of speed measures can be derived to express the rate of traffic movement. The first type of speed is time-mean speed or spot speed, which is the instantaneous speed of a motor vehicle at some given location on a roadway. Time-mean speed is generally calculated as the average of several spot-speed observations at the particular highway n

location; that is, time-mean speed = $\sum S_i/n$, in which S_i = spot speed of the i-th vehicle 1

and n = number of vehicles that comprise the sample of speed observations.

The other evaluation of speed is space-mean speed or travel speed, which is the speed over a specified section of highway. Space-mean speed is computed as the specified travel distance divided by the average time of several trips over this highway see-

n tion; that is, space-mean speed = $dn/\sum t_i$, in which d = travel distance, n = number of 1

trips that comprise the sample of time observations, and t_i = travel time of the i-th trip. It is apparent that time-mean speed is usually greater than space-mean speed because travel time includes stops and delays as well as running time. Space-mean speed approaches time-mean speed as a limit when the time for stops and delays approaches zero. Space-mean speeds are a function of the density of vehicles on the

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highway, whereas time-mean speeds are related only to the number of vehicles passing a given point on the roadway.

Spot-Speed Studies. — The exact details of conducting a spot-speed study, such as 10 cation and time of the study, types of vehicles observed, and sample size, are predicated on the purpose of the survey and on the desired precision of the speed statistics . However, the basic purpose of the spot-speed study is to estimate the instantaneousspeed distribution of motor vehicles passing a particular roadway location under conditions prevailing at the time of the study.

Two basic techniques are utilized for the measurement of motor-vehicle spot speeds. One procedure involves a determination of an instantaneous speed; the other technique approximates an instantaneous speed by measuring the time required for the observed vehicle to traverse a short measured course.

The former method uses a radar meter which operates on the Doppler principle: a radio wave reflected from a moving target has its frequency changed in proportion to the speed of the vehicle (19). Because of convenience, ease of operation, and high degree of accuracy, the radar meter is presently being used by many highway departments, traffic engineering units, law enforcement agencies, and research groups in the measurement of vehicular speeds.

The other method of ascertaining spot speeds is to measure the time interval required by a vehicle to travel between two points separated by a known distance (13). Techniques of timing vehicles over short distances have been widely employed by highway and traffic engineers in establishing the distributions of vehicular speeds at highway and street locations.

Analyses of Spot-Speed Data. - Data collected in a spot-speed study constitute an array of speed values describing the rates of traffic movement under conditions present at the time of the survey. As the results of many field studies have illustrated, the frequency distribution of spot-speed data very closely approximates the normal curve. Several authors report the results of using the following statistical tests to verify a normal distribution in the spot-speed population: chi-square test, moment test, percentile method for testing normality, and normality testing using probability paper $(1, 7, 18)$. All these statistical techniques indicate that spot-speed data significantly conform to a normal distribution. It may be inferred that the population of vehicular spot speeds and any representative and random sample of this population have a normal probability distribution. Therefore, three important characteristics of spot-speed data are apparent: the central tendency is described by the arithmetic mean, the variability of speed data is measured by the standard deviation, and the shape of the frequency distribution is accurately represented by the normal curve.

The equation for the normal probability curve depends on two values: population mean and population standard deviation. Because sample mean and sample standard deviation are unbiased estimates of their respective population counterparts, the distribution of spot speeds at a specific roadway location can be described by two values, the mean and the standard deviation of the spot-speed sample data.

Other properties or measures of the frequency distribution of spot speeds are of special significance in speed regulation, as well as in determination of design speed (14) . Among these descriptive devices are various percentile values (such as 85thpercentile speed, and 15th-percentile speed), mode, median, pace, frequency-distribution curve, and cumulative-frequency curve (13).

Variables Influencing Spot-Speed Characteristics. - Spot speeds of motor-vehicle traffic are affected by many conditions or variables present at the instant when the speed of an individual vehicle is observed at a particular roadway location. The nurnber of possible items that have significant influences on vehicular speeds is exceedingly large; however, the literature contains results of studies on spot-speed characteristics for only a few conditions. The selection of variables that significantly modify vehicular spot speeds was, no doubt, predicated on a priori considerations of traffic-stream characteristics (17).

Driver. -The subject of road-user influence on spot-speed characteristics assumes a minor role in the research activities of highway and traffic engineers. The absence of literature in this specialized field is probably due to lack of interest on the part of

psychologists and to engineers' deficiency in an understanding and knowledge of the discipline of psychology.

In summarizing driver variables, trip distance has the most significant influence on spot-speed characteristics, while passengers in the car and the sex of the driver alter driving speeds to a lesser extent. From the discontinuities evident in the literature on driver characteristics, it is reasonable to assume that driver variables influence vehicular speeds to different degrees in various parts of the country.

Vehicle. -The influence of the motor vehicle on spot-speed characteristics has been limited to consideration of.several variables. These vehicle variables were normally features of the automobile or commercial vehicle that were readily observable or easily measured. Most articles on this subject have been written by highway and traffic engineers. Automotive engineers apparently devote little time and attention to the performance of vehicles and their respective characteristics under actual travel conditions.

Type of vehicle (passenger car, single-unit truck, combination truck, or bus) and age of the vehicle appear to have predominant effects on spot speeds of highway motor vehicles. A further subdivision of single-unit trucks and combination trucks by gross weight is feasible in evaluating spot-speed characteristics.

Roadway. - Actual speeds adopted by motor-vehicle operators are greatly affected by various aspects of the roadway. Different rates of travel result from the driver's attempt to evaluate roadway conditions in order to select a safe speed. Numerous engineering surveys have been conducted to evaluate quantitatively the influences of roadway features on spot-speed characteristics.

In a recapitulation of roadway characteristics, vehicular spot speeds are most significantly influenced by functional classification, curvature, gradient, length of grade, number of lanes, and surface type. Other elements of interest are geographic location, sight distance, lane position, lateral clearance, and frequency of intersections.

Traffic. -Vehicular speeds are controlled to various degrees by actual characteristics of traffic streams and by operational techniques and devices designed to regulate traffic flows. Considerable attention has been devoted to this subject of highway research.

Vehicle volume and traffic density exert pronounced influences on spot-speed characteristics. Percentage of commercial vehicles, passing maneuvers, opposing traffic, and access control are also important variables that should be considered in evaluation of traffic-stream characteristics.

 $Environment$. -The operation of motor vehicles on highways is subject to various influencing conditions that are cyclic or random in occurrence. These variables are independent of the driver, vehicle, roadway, and traffic elements previously discussed and are presented under the general classification of environment. Little attention has been devoted to research on environmental variables because they are difficult to control and to express in terms of quantitative measures.

Environmental variables consisting of time and weather present important considerations that must be appraised in the actual evaluation of spot-speed characteristics.

Although many studies have been conducted to assess the influences of various travel conditions on vehicular speeds, few investigators have applied the techniques of statistical inference in the evaluation of their experimental findings .

Multivariate Analysis Techniques

Several statistical techniques are available for analyzing the relationships among many variables . Selection of the proper statistical tool is predicated on the nature and purpose of the investigation. The mathematical models developed in this qualitative explanation and quantitative evaluation of vehicular speeds were representative of equations for multiple estimating. Solutions to these equations were found through the application of factor analysis and multiple linear regression and correlation analysis to experimental data.

The remaining sections of this literature review were limited to brief descriptions of factor analysis and multiple linear regression and correlation analysis and to discussions of highway and traffic engineering studies that have employed these statistical procedures.

Factor Analysis. — Factor analysis has been used as an analytical technique mainly by behavioral scientists. The principal concern of factor analysis is to resolve a set of variables linearly into a smaller number of factors; that is, to attain a parsimonious description of observed data. As a result, factor analysis permits a simple interpretation of a given array of data and affords a fundamental description of the particular set of variables analyzed (8). Theories and methods of factor analysis are fully presented in textbooks $(5, 8)$.

Goldstein and Mosel (6) conducted an inventory study in 1955 to determine the factors underlying drivers' attitudes. Factor-analysis procedures were applied to a 186-item attitude inventory designed to measure 14 aspects of driver attitudes, which were considered to cover the domain. This set of variables was reduced to five factors: attitude toward competitive speed, attitude toward other users of the roadway, attitude toward policemen, attitude toward the vehicle, and a general attitude of care or concern for safety. The implications of these findings are discussed under the consideration of driver characteristics. Another factor-analytic investigation was an evaluation of roadway and accident data (20). In an attempt to explain the occurrence of traffic accidents on 2-lane rural highways, factor-analysis solutions were applied to the number of accidents and to 13 measurable roadway variables. These variables were generated into four factors identified as capacity, traffic conflict, modern roads, and roadside structures.

Multiple Linear Regression and Correlation Analysis. - Regression and correlation analysis has been employed by various researchers in different disciplines to evaluate the functional relationships and the significance of these relationships among experimental variables, although statistical procedures have infrequently been applied in engineering investigations. Regression analysis is concerned with the establishment of numerical relationships between study variables, whereas the measurement of the degree of relationship established between the variables under consideration is known as correlation analysis (4) . The regression techniques used in this investigation of trafficstream characteristics were limited to the derivation of multiple linear regression equations. This is a first-degree equation representing the relationship between a single dependent variable and two or more independent variables. The subject of multiple linear regression and correlation analysis is completely described in textbooks on statistics $(2, 3)$.

The Chicago Area Transportation Study in 1958 applied multiple correlation analysis to ascertain the functional relationships between average overall travel speed and 13 independent variables reasoned to have significant influence on traffic operation (12). Multiple linear equations were developed, with varying degrees of success, for vehicle travel on expressways, rural highways, and urban streets with and without parking. In 1960, multiple linear regression expressions were derived to relate the influences of five independent variables, which were believed to be important elements of roadway friction, on the criterion variables of travel time and fuel consumption for traffic movement on urban facilities (11).

It is evident that these multivariate analysis techniques have received little application in the evaluation of traffic-stream characteristics, which are influenced by the presence and action of many variables.

THEORY

The subject of traffic-flow theory has been formulated only to a very limited extent. This lack of application of theoretical considerations to traffic movement is largely explained by the extreme complexity of vehicular traffic and traffic problems, by the concentration of technical efforts to upgrade quickly an inadequate highway transportation system, and by the general absence of research and engineering personnel concerned mainly with developing the theory of traffic flow.

Various theoretical concepts have been expressed as mathematical models to describe the complex phenomenon of traffic flow . These methods of quantitatively depicting traffic flow are classified under the following general approaches: statistical models, car-following concept, queueing theory, traffic-network analyses, computing-

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machine simulation studies, mathematical experiments, and distribution-function theories (9).

The motion of vehicular traffic is not only governed externally by the physical laws of nature, but it is further complicated internally by driver behavior. Thus, the theory of traffic flow must evolve from the combined application of the knowledge afforded by both human-behavioral and physical sciences to the man-machine system of highway transportation.

Because the a priori knowledge of the theory of traffic flow is rather limited, considerable understanding of'traffic-stream characteristics can be gained through the study of statistical models. The following presents the development of a conceptual model that describes the speed of vehicular movement and the formulation of this theory into mathematical models that may be evaluated by statistical teclmiques .

Conceptual Model

The concept of time-rate of traffic flow was predicated on the assumption that vehicular speeds are a function of various travel conditions present in and adjacent to the traffic stream. As a result, different average spot speeds ensue under various types and levels of travel features. The sum effect of these resistance variables produces the speed characteristics peculiar to a given highway or street location.

When no restrictions are present to impede traffic flow, high average speeds result. As the magnitude of influence of restrictive variables increases, the net effect is to reduce the average rate of vehicle movement. This concept is graphically described by the simplified traffic-flow model (Fig. 1) where the fundamental speed-volume relation is depicted as a closed region delimited by upper and lower boundaries . The upper limit is indicative of free-flowing traffic, and any modifications in spot-speed characteristics are occasioned only by traffic volumes. Congested conditions of trafficstream operation are represented by the lower limit, which is essential to the preservation of the continuity of traffic movement; that is, the equality (volume is the product of speed and density) must be maintained.

This simplified model is restricted only by a single variable. A particular value of this impedance to the rate of traffic flow is represented by one of the dashed lines (Fig . 1). At a specific traffic volume, the average vehicular speed for a particular type and level of traffic-flow restriction is represented by a point falling on or within the boundaries of the region.

To simulate the various conditions of actual traffic flow, this conceptual model was expanded to incorporate those travel conditions that significantly influence vehicular speeds. Average speed is now represented by a hyperplane of class one in $n + 1$ dimensional space, where n is the number of variables restricting the rate of traffic movement. In addition to the two limits specified in the simplified model, boundaries were formed by the inequalities indicative of the range in actual values that the various travel restrictions can possibly assume. These limits were designated as hyperplanes of class one in $n + 1$ dimensions. Intersections of limiting hyperplanes with the speed hyperplane form boundary hyperplanes of class two in n dimensions. This generalization produced a polyhedron as the geometric representation of the comprehensive traffic-flow model. For a particular combination of driver, vehicle, roadway, traffic, and environmental conditions, the average spot speed is defined by a point within or on the surface of this closed space.

Mathematical Models

To evaluate the comprehensive traffic-flow model in the language of mathematics, it was necessary to describe this concept in terms of mathematical models. The conceptual model can be summarized as the statistical estimation of the functional relationships between mean speeds and various driver, vehicle, roadway, traffic, and environmental variables that significantly control these rates of traffic movement. The description of this concept as a mathematical model for the estimation of vehicular speeds suggested equations for multiple estimating.

Figure 1. Schematic representation of the simplified traffic-flow model.

This inference problem was best formulated as multiple linear regression equations. The selection of first-degree expressions was based on the many linear relationships existing between average spot speeds and various travel restrictions (17). The two forms of multiple linear regression equations postulated in this multivariate analysis of vehicular speeds are

$$
S_1 = \overline{S} + s (c_1 F_1 + c_2 F_2 + \dots + c_m F_m + c U)
$$
 (1)

in which

 S_1 = mean spot speed;

- \bar{S} = grand mean of spot speeds;
- $s = standard deviation of spot speeds;$
- c_j = common factor coefficient (j = 1, 2, ..., m);

$$
F_j = \sum_{1}^{n} e_{ij} Z_i + K_j
$$
 = common factor (i = 1, 2, ..., n; j = 1, 2, ..., m);

e_{ij} = standard regression coefficient for j-th factor score

 $(i = 1, 2, ..., n; j = 1, 2, ..., m);$

- Z_i = independent variable (i = 1, 2, ..., n);
- K_j = residual variable for j-th factor score (j = 1, 2, ..., m);
- \ddot{c} = unique factor coefficient;
- $U = unique factor;$
- $m = number of common factors;$ and

 $n = number of independent variables.$

$$
S_2 = a + b_1 X_1 + b_2 X_2 + \ldots + b_n X_n + Q \tag{2}
$$

in which

 S_2 = mean spot speed;

- a = intercept;
- b_i = net regression coefficient (i = 1, 2, ..., n);
- X_1^i = independent variable $(i = 1, 2, ..., n)$;
- **Q** = residual variable; and
- n = number of independent variables .

The mean spot speeds in these regression models are defined as the dependent variables which are functionally related to generated factors in the first equation and to travel-restriction variables in the second relationship. In addition, these mathematical models are founded on the assumption that the relation of the dependent variable to each independent variable is linear.

Although the limiting conditions are unimportant in this inference problem, the following inequalities were specified as limiting hyperplanes of class one to complete the mathematical description of the traffic-flow concept:

$$
S_{\text{max}} = a + \sum_{1}^{n} b_i X_i + Q \tag{3}
$$

$$
S_{\min} = V/D \tag{4}
$$

$$
g_i \le X_i \le h_i \tag{5}
$$

in which

 S_{max} = maximum mean spot speed for ideal travel conditions;

 \overline{a} = intercept;

- b_i = net regression coefficient (i = 1, 2, ..., n);
- X_i = independent variable $(i = 1, 2, ..., n)$;
- **Q** = residual variable;

 S_{min} = minimum mean spot speed for continuity of flow;

 \overline{V} = traffic volume;

 $D = \text{traffic density}$;

 g_i = lower limit of i-th independent variable (i = 1, 2, ..., n);

 h_i = upper limit of i-th independent variable $(i = 1, 2, ..., n)$; and

 $n = number of independent variables.$

Thus, the hyperplane of class one representing mean spot speed is limited by these boundary hyperplanes of class one.

A concept of the rate of traffic flow has been expressed in terms of two mathematical models in the form of multiple regression equations. These expressions are restricted by the assumption of linearity in both the parameters and the variables .

PROCEDURE

In addition to the theoretical considerations this study was concerned with the quantitative evaluation of the proposed regression models and with the validity of these mathematical expressions as equations for estimation. This part of the report describes the experimental design, the conduct of studies, and the data analysis that were necessary for accomplishing the evaluation and verification of the regression equations.

A priori considerations of traffic-stream characteristics indicated that these mathematical models should be solved for each type of highway or street (2-lane and multilane) in the different traffic areas (business, residential, intermediate, and rural). This statistical analysis was limited to vehicular movement on 2-lane rural highways.

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A rural area was defined as any area where the number of residential, commercial, and industrial buildings along the highway was less than 10 per mile and where the number of crossroads and driveways was less than 20 per mile. The minimum length of highway considered was 1 mile.

Design of Experiment

To evaluate and verify the proposed regression models, it was necessary to collect data on many variables deemed to have a significant influence on vehicular speeds. Determination of the study variables was predicated on information afforded by the literature review and on available personnel, equipment, and time. The following variables were measured in evaluating directional traffic flow on 2-lane, rural highways located throughout Illinois:

1. Female driving passenger car, percent;

2. Out-of-state passenger car, percent;

3. Passenger-car driver accompanied by one or more passengers, percent;

4. Light truck (two axles with single tires), percent;

5. Single-unit truck (two or more axles with dual tires on one or more axles), percent;

6. Truck combination (tractor with one or more trailers), percent;

7. Commercial bus, percent;

8. Degree of curve, deg;

9. Total central angle per mile (measured for 1 mile in advance of the speed site), deg per mile;

10. Rate of superelevation, ft per ft;

11. Reciprocal of test-car speed, mph^{-1} ;

12. Gradient, percent;

13. Length of grade (measured from the PI to the speed site), ft;

14. Total algebraic rise and fall per mile (measured for 1 mile in advance of the speed site), ft per mile;

15. Minimum sight distance, ft;

16. Lane width, ft;

17. Shoulder width, ft;

18. Presence of curb or gutter;

19. Number of commercial roadside establishments, such as restaurants, service stations, motels, and taverns, per mile (counted on both sides of the roadway for $\frac{1}{2}$ mile before and $\frac{1}{2}$ mile beyond the speed site), no. per mile;

20. Number of friction points, including at-grade intersections, at-grade railroad crossings, pedestrian crossings, and school crossings, per mile (counted for $\frac{1}{2}$ mile before and $\frac{1}{2}$ mile beyond the speed site), no. per mile;

21. Number of access points, including all intersections, driveways, and other points of access to various forms of land use, per mile (counted on both sides of the roadway for $\frac{1}{2}$ mile before and $\frac{1}{2}$ mile beyond the speed site), no. per mile;

22. Total traffic volume, vph;

23. Mean headway, sec;

24. Vehicle in platoon at time of speed measurement, percent;

25. Vehicle passed other vehicles at time of speed measurement, percent;

26. Vehicle met opposing traffic at time of speed measurement, percent;

27. Opposing traffic volume, vph;

28. Directional distribution (observed volume divided by total volume), percent;

29. Minimum speed limit (regulatory or advisory), mph;

30. Presence of centerline pavement markings that were obviously visible to drivers;

31. Presence of no-passing-zone pavement markings that were applicable and obviously visible to drivers;

32. Presence of edge-line pavement markings that were applicable and obviously visible to drivers;

33. Accident rate for 1960 (total number of fatal, personal-injury, and propertydamage-only accidents counted for $\frac{1}{2}$ mile before and $\frac{1}{2}$ mile beyond the speed site), no. per mi per yr;

36. Wednesday;

37 . Thursday;

38. Friday;

-
- 39. 7:31 AM to 10:00 AM;
- 40. 10:01 AM to 12:30 PM;
- 41. 12:31 PM to 3:00 PM;
- 42. 3:01 PM to 5:30 PM;
- 43. Clear;

44. Cloudy;

45. Drizzle;

46 . Rain;

47. Wet pavement;

48. Presence of large advertising signs; and

49. Mean spot speed, mph.

Except for certain specified items, these variables were applicable only for traffic in the observed direction of travel; that is, only one-way traffic movement was evaluated.

Because of the many variables involved and the lack of experimental control over certain variables, it was difficult to develop speed-site criteria that included the range of values indicative of each modifying condition. Criteria on traffic volume, degree of curve, gradient, and lane width were specified to permit a partial factorial design in the selection of study sites. In addition, the following stipulations were observed in the location of speed sites:

1. Each study site was as homogeneous as possible for a distance of $\frac{1}{2}$ mile before and $\frac{1}{2}$ mile beyond the site;

2. A speed site on a horizontal curve was located near the center of the curve;

3. **A** study location was selected near the middle of a grade having a minimum length of 400 ft;

4. Shoulder width ranged from 0 to 20 ft;

5. Locations with and without curbs or gutters were chosen;

6. Roadside development ranged from O to 10 buildings per mile;

7 . Speed sites had regulatory speed limits ranging from 35 to 65 mph in 5-mph increments;

8. Sites were selected with and without centerline, no-passing-zone, and edge-line pavement markings; and

9. Study locations with and without large advertising signs were specified.

A total of 469 study sites provided a random sample of traffic flow on 2-lane, rural highways in Illinois for the evaluation of the postulated mathematical models. Ten additional speed sites were studied to obtain data for verification of the multiple linear regression equations.

Conduct of Studies

The actual collection of the data at these 479 locations involved both field and office studies. Certain measurements were obtained from the drawings and records available in the district offices of the Illinois Division of Highways. The remaining items were measured through the conduct of field studies. Study locations were operated randomly in regard to time of day and day of week during the months of June, July, and August 1961. Observations were not taken at nighttime and on Saturdays, Sundays, or holidays.

Each study was limited to one direction of travel. The radar speedmeter was located adjacent to the lane of traffic being studied and was pointed toward the oncoming vehicles. The speedmeter and observers were concealed from the view of approaching drivers. Because it was necessary to record the amount of traffic traveling in the opposite direction during the study, a recording traffic counter was placed near the site. The counter was always located far enough beyond the speed site so that drivers, traveling in the direction under observation, did not notice it until after their speeds were measured.

A sample size of 150 vehicles was computed to be sufficient for the evaluation of traffic-flow conditions at each location (18). Information was recorded for all motor vehicles except school buses, motorcycles, and motor scooters. To collect the desired data for each element of the sample, two observers were required for the operation of a study site. Observer 1 was charged with recording the speed and the traffic conditions present for each observed vehicle. Characteristics of the vehicle and its occupants were noted by observer 2. The matching of each vehicle was controlled by having each observer record whether or not the vehicle was a commercial truck or bus.

Analysis of Data

The data were processed to evaluate the proposed mathematical models. Figure 2 summarizes the analytic procedure.

Figure 2. Flow diagram for data processing.

Mean values for each study were calculated for those variables that were a function of the observed traffic. These average measures and the remaining variables that were constant during the study were coded and verified on **IBM** punch cards. Further verification of the punch cards was accomplished by comparing printouts with the original data sheets .

The factor analysis was first performed to provide an exploratory appraisal of trafficstream characteristics. A card-to-tape converter was employed to prepare a data tape as input for the University of Illinois Illiac computer. Accuracy of this original tape was confirmed by a data-tape checking routine performed on this digital computer **(22).**

Because speed was not included in the generation of factors, a revised data tape was prepared on this computer with the speed column deleted from the data matrix (23) . The input requirements for the factor-analysis problem necessitated the calculation of a product-moment correlation matrix for the remaining 48 variables, with means and standard deviations computed as additional output (29). These descriptive statistics are given in Table 6 (Appendix). A computer routine (27) afforded the convenient page outputs of these correlation coefficients (Table 8, Appendix).

Orthogonal factors were obtained by the principal-axes solution performed on the Illiac computer (28). Points of the study variables are represented in n dimensional space and are contained in a common-factor space of only m dimensions . For normal populations the loci of these points of uniform frequency density are concentric, similar, and similarly situated ellipsoids having m dimensions. The axes of these ellipsoids correspond to the factors generated in the principal-factor solution. These axes are selected by choosing a set of factors in decreasing order of their contribution to the total communality. Generation of the first factor is accomplished by a successiveapproximation solution of the following relationship expressed in matrix notation:

$$
R p_1 = y_1 p_1 \tag{6}
$$

in which

ed

ons

:h

 $R =$ original correlation matrix;

 p_1 = column vector of coefficients for the first factor; and

 y_1 = eigenvalue of R for the first factor.

The first factor is determined by this iterative procedure so that its contribution to the communalities of the variables is the maximum possible; that is, maximization of the expression

$$
y_1 = \sum_{1}^{n} p_{i_1}^2 \tag{7}
$$

Thus, first-factor coefficients in the factor pattern are calculated from the largest latent root to account for the maximum amount of the total communality . After this operation is completed, the first-factor residual correlations are obtained according to the following matrix equation:

$$
\mathbf{R}_1 = \mathbf{R} - \mathbf{p}_1 \, \mathbf{p}_1' \tag{8}
$$

in which

 R_1 = matrix of first-factor residual correlations;

 $R =$ original correlation matrix; and

 p_1 = column vector of coefficients for the first factor.

By repetitionofthis iterative analysis on the residual-correlation matrix, the second factor found is independent of the first factor and provides the maximum contribution

to the residual communality. This technique is continued until the contribution of additional factors to an explanation of the variable variance is negligible (8). Thus, the original correlation matrix was reduced to a factor matrix that is contained in a space of smaller dimension than the number of variables.

Determination of the common-factor· space is not dependent on the selected coordinate frame of reference. Therefore, it is desirable to transform the coordinate axes to facilitate interpretation of the factor solution. This rotation of axes was accomplished on the llliac computer by the varimax method (31). The varimax-rotation concept is founded on the principle that the factor has the greatest interpretability when the variance is a maximum. This transformation is accomplished by extending the vectors representing the variables to unit length in the common-factor space, carrying out the rotations to maximize the variance, and then bringing the vectors back to their original length. This multiple-factor solution ideally affords both simple structure and factorial invariance (8).

The next step in the analysis was the evaluation of factor scores; that is, coefficients were developed to express the common factors in terms of the study variables. This computation was performed by solving the following equation expressed in matrix notation:

$$
\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{P}' \ \mathbf{Y}^{-2} \mathbf{P} \tag{9}
$$

in which

E - factor-score matrix;

A = varimax matrix;

P = principal-factor matrix; and

Y = diagonal matrix of latent roots .

The various transposition, inversion, and multiplication of matrices were performed on the Illiac computer $(24, 25, 26)$.

The final phase of the factor analysis was to correlate vehicular speed with the common factors. A multiple linear regression equation was developed for estimating spot speed as a function of the important factors of traffic flow by evaluating the following matrix equation:

$$
c = E r' \tag{10}
$$

in which

 $c = column vector of regression coefficients;$

 $E =$ factor-score matrix; and

r = row vector of correlation coefficients for speed correlated with the other variables.

The row vector of correlation coefficients (Table 7, Appendix) was calculated by inputing the original data tape with the computer routine for product-moment correlations (29). Computer programs permitted the matrix transposition and multiplication necessary for solution $(25, 26)$.

After the results of the factor analysis were appraised, it was possible to obtain another multiple linear regression expression for predicting vehicular speed in terms of those variables that significantly influence spot-speed characteristics. New punch cards containing the selected variables were reproduced from the original cards. These data constituted the input for a mean, standard deviation, and product-moment correlation analysis using the IBM 1401 computer **(21).** Finally, a regression routine for this computer provided the net regression coefficients, the coefficient of multiple correlation, and the standard error of estimate for this inference problem (30).

RESULTS

Solutions to the proposed mathematical models describing the rate of traffic flow on 2-lane highways in rural areas are presented and discussed according to the statistical

techniques used in their development. These evaluations of the multiple estimating equations were accomplished by factor analysis and multiple linear regression analysis. Finally, the results of this spot-speed inference were tested with a verification study of the established functional relationships .

The reported findings were predicated on the assumption that the sample data were randomly selected from normal populations. In addition, homogeneity of variance was assumed for the study variables. Descriptive statistics of the study variables are tabulated in the Appendix. Means and standard deviations are given in Table 6, and productmoment correlation coefficients are given in Tables 7 and 8.

To simplify presentation of the research results, the variables and factors are identified, respectively, by numbers and letters. Each variable is listed by a number in the discussion of the design of experiment, and each factor is noted by a letter in the evaluation of the factor analysis.

Factor Analysis

The principal-axes solution provides a mathematically unique and highly desirable factorization of a correlation matrix (8) . The correlation matrix (Table 8, Appendix) was factorized by this technique with unities inserted in the main diagonal of the matrix. Generated factors having latent roots or eigenvalues greater than 1. 00 were considered to offer significant contributions to the total variance of the variables. The value of 1. 00 for the terminal latent root has been arbitrarily established by convention in the application of factor analysis to multivariate studies. This criterion resulted in the determination of the 17 principal factors (Table 9, Appendix). The contribution of these factors to the total variance of the variables is given in Table 10 (Appendix). The 17 common factors that were determined to be significant accounted for 68 percent of this variance. A parsimonious description of the 48-dimensional space representing the original variables was obtained by the common-factor space of 17 dimensions. This factor matrix reproduces in some reasonable sense the original correlation matrix. The coordinate axes of this reduced space are the common factors, and the original variables can be expressed linearly in terms of these factors.

Rotation of the factor pattern was necessary to facilitate interpretation of the common factors. The principal-axes solution was transformed into a more desirable multiple-factor solution by the varimax method. Although an infinite number of rotations was possible from one coordinate system to another without any effect on the adequacy of the solution, the rotated-factor matrix (Table 1) provided a good approximation to orthogonal simple structure. Plus or minus signs on the factor coefficients indicate, respectively, the increasing or decreasing presence of the study variables in the composition of the generated factors. An interpretative name and a brief description, along with the important component variables and their respective factor coefficients, are listed for the following 17 common factors describing traffic flow on 2-lane rural highways:

A. stream friction (traffic-stream elements that impede vehicular movement):

- 22. Total volume, +O . 8957
- 23. Mean headway, -0.7037
- 24. Vehicle in platoon, +O. 8009
- 26. Opposed vehicle, +O. 7659
- 27. Opposing volume, +0. 9008
- 33. Accident rate, +O. 6524
- B. Horizontal resistance (horizontal features of the roadway that control the rate of traffic movement):
	- 8. Degree of curve, +O. 8304
	- 9. Total central angle, +O. 5787
	- 10. Superelevation, +0. 6922
	- 11. Test-car speed, +O. 5038
	- 15. **Min.** sight distance, -0.4416
	- 25. Passing vehicle, -0. 4961
	- 29. Min. speed limit, -0. 7907

TABLE 1

ROTATED-FACTOR MATRIX

Vari-	Factor								
able	Α	B	C	D	ε	F	G	н	
1	$+0.0029$		-0.0404 -0.5727	-0.2073		$+0.1429 - 0.0825$	-0.0116	-0.0496	-0.0942
2	-0.0043		$-0.0498 + 0.7687$	-0.0527		-0.0029 -0.0241	$+0.0971$	$+0.0806$ + 0.0199	
3	-0.1266		$+0.0102$ +0.5044	-0.0683		-0.0234 -0.1227	$+0.1064$	$+0.0865$	-0.0248
4	-0.3884		-0.0066 -0.4900	$+0.0113$		$+0.0728$ + 0.1610	$+0.0393$	$+0.0963$	-0.0079
5	-0.1494	$+0.0536$	-0.0134	-0.0528	-0.0080	$+0.0888$	-0.0261	$+0.1625$	$+0.0280$
$\overline{6}$	$+0.0291$	-0.1284	$+0.6193$	$+0.0364$		-0.0875 + 0.1281	-0.0444	-0.3048	-0.0421
$\overline{7}$	$+0.0639$	$+0.0429$	-0.0110	-0.0286	-0.0261	$+0.0902$	$+0.0678$	$+0.0791$	-0.0946
8	-0.1794		$+0.8304$ + 0.0215	-0.0025	$+0.0763$	-0.0094	-0.0032	-0.0731	-0.0355
9	-0.1008	$+0.5787$	$+0.0865$	-0.0343	-0.0011	$+0.1185$	-0.0366	$+0.1552$	$+0.1434$
10	-0.1232	$+0.6922$	$+0.0112$	$+0.0400$	-0.1497	$+0.0296$	$+0.0897$	-0.0900	$+0.0099$
$ \ $	-0.0253		$+0.5038$ -0.0883	-0.0413	-0.0942	-0.0824	-0.0395	-0.0895	-0.0448
12	$+0.0146$	$+0.0125$	-0.0102	$+0.0028$	-0.0010	$+0.0020$	$+0.0745$	-0.0235	$+0.8247$
13	-0.0983		-0.1177 + 0.1205	$+0.0425$	-0.0195	-0.0310	-0.1370	$+0.0190 + 0.0936$	
14	-0.0119	$+0.0750$	$+0.0792$	-0.0323		-0.0089 -0.0723	-0.0323	$+0.0320$	$+0.7421$
15	$+0.0118$		-0.4416 +0.1251	-0.0319		$+0.0536$ +0.0082	$+0.0233$	-0.0991	-0.4468
16	$+0.2512$		-0.0243 +0.1330	-0.1274		-0.0176 -0.0148	$+0.0522$	-0.2319	$+0.0409$
17	$+0.0495$		-0.0299 + 0.1227	-0.0417		-0.0590 + 0.0617	-0.1308	-0.5865	-0.0321
18	-0.0733		-0.0729 + 0.1050	$+0.0400$		-0.0436 +0.0825	-0.0981	$+0.7538$	$+0.0028$
19	$+0.2064$		-0.0232 -0.0155	-0.0568		$+0.8184$ +0.0517	-0.0541	$+0.0150$	-0.0053
20	$+0.0936$	$+0.1245$	-0.0002	-0.0562	$+0.5659$	-0.0179	-0.0760	-0.1294	$+0.0001$
21	$+0.2757$		-0.0170 -0.2127	-0.0378		$+0.7526 \div 0.0374$	-0.0351	-0.0069	$+0.0057$
22	$+0.8957$	-0.1940	$+0.0231$	-0.0597	$+0.1837$	-0.0569	-0.0138	-0.0336	-0.0064
23	-0.7037		$+0.2110$ -0.1008	$+0.0800$		$-0.1853 + 0.1253$	-0.0899	$+0.0125$	$+0.0308$
24	$+0.8009$		$+0.0378$ + 0.0837	$+0.0468$	$+0.0156$	$+0.0943$	-0.2235	$+0.0086$	$+0.0810$
25	-0.0240		-0.4961 $+0.2457$	-0.0914		-0.0462 + 0.0361	$+0.0156$	-0.0289	-0.1302
26	$+0.7659$	-0.0762	-0.0518	$+0.0595$	-0.0312	$+0.0366$	-0.1380	-0.2199	$+0.0492$
27	$+0.9008$		-0.1877 + 0.0222	-0.0566		$+0.1745$ -0.0663	-0.0023	-0.0424	-0.0081
28	-0.0970	-0.0439	$ +0.0477 $	-0.0394	$+0.0692$	$+0.1122$	-0.1074	$+0.0688$	-0.0210
29 30	-0.0378 -0.0316		-0.7907 + 0.0071 -0.1208 +0.0054	$+0.0728$ $+0.0497$	$+0.0708$	-0.1883 -0.0389 $+0.0074$ -0.0532	-0.0454	$+0.0839 + 0.0419$ $+0.1567$	-0.0411
31	-0.1144		$+0.4549$ -0.0994	$+0.0400$		-0.0796 -0.0794	-0.0351	$+0.5209$ +0.0575	
32	-0.0159		$+0.6530$ +0.1102	$+0.1028$	-0.0203	$+0.0277$	-0.0044	$+0.2080$	-0.0258
33	$+0.6524$		$+0.0638$ - 0.0568	-0.0468		$+0.1772 \div 0.0344$	-0.0142	$+0.0596$	-0.0553
34	-0.0100	$+0.0278$	-0.0982	-0.0456	-0.0456	-0.0666	-0.0633	-0.0229	-0.0270
35	-0.0349		-0.0064 + 0.0604	-0.0313	$+0.0074$ +0.0331		$+0.0062$	$+0.0161$	-0.0171
36	-0.0861		-0.0260 +0.0137	$+0.1114$		$+0.1224$ -0.0308	-0.0275	$+0.0646$	$+0.0313$
37	$+0.00$]]	$+0.0531$	$+0.0648$	-0.0722	-0.0912	$8400.0+$	$+0.0199$	-0.0841	$+0.0664$
38	$+0.1300$		-0.0542 -0.0458	$+0.0436$		$+0.0158$ + 0.0608 + 0.0637		$+0.0352$	-0.0613
39	$+0.0157$		-0.0290 +0.0050	-0.0625	-0.0289	-0.0252	$+0.0418$	-0.0530	$+0.0197$
4Ū	-0.1242		$+0.0484 + 0.0060$	$+0.0449$		$+0.1060$ +0.8292 -0.0505		-0.0028	-0.0438
41	-0.04 } }		-0.0362 +0.0389	$+0.0193$		$+0.0124$ -0.8831	$[-0.0527]$	$+0.0332$	$+0.0446$
42	$+0.2552$	$+0.0143$	$[-0.0790]$	-0.0258	-0.1611	$+0.0553$	$+0.1156$	$+0.0200$	-0.0234
43	$+0.1417$	$+0.0562$	$[-0.0309]$	-0.2925	$+0.0578$	-0.0108 -0.9152		-0.0072	-0.0336
44	-0.1115		-0.0579 + 0.0263	-0.1601	-0.0606	$+0.0099 + 0.9483$		$+0.0089 + 0.0054$	
45	-0.0410	$+0.0395$	-0.0047	$+0.8046$	-0.0606	$+0.0230$	+0.0226	$+0.0867$	-0.0638
46	-0.0644	-0.0600	$+0.0275$	$+0.4780$	$+0.0967$	-0.0303	-0.0584	-0.1371	$+0.2049$
47	-0.0438	$+0.0249$	$\left[-0.0228\right]\left.+0.9394\right]$		$\left[-0.0167\right]$	$ +0.0180 +0.0668 $		+0.0444	$+0.0313$
48		+0.080 -0- 1669 -0- 1213 -0- 1646 -0- 158 -0- 159 -0- 159 -0- 159 -0- 159 -0- 159 -0-							

TABLE 1

+O. J 685 +0.0475 +0.0806 +0.0067 +o. 1567 !-o.2032 !-0.0065

+0.0094

48

 $\hat{\boldsymbol{\pi}}$ \sim μ

ROTATED-FACTOR MATRIX (Continued)

- 31. No-passing zone, +O. 4549
- 32. Edge line, +0. 6530
- C. Long-distance travel (drivers on long trips are evident with the pronounced presence of male drivers, out-of-state cars, passengers in the automobiles, and long-haul commercial trucks):
	- 1. Female driver, -0. 5727
	- 2. Out-of-state car, +O. 7687
	- 3. Passenger in car, +O . 5044
	- 4. Light truck, -0. 4900
	- 6. Truck combination, +O. 6193
- D. Inclement weather (certain adverse weather conditions encountered in highway travel):
	- 43. Clear, -0. 2925
	- 45. Drizzle, +0. 8046
	- 46. Rain, +0. 4780
	- 47. Wet pavement, +O. 9394
- E. Marginal friction (variables along the margin of the roadway that interrupt traffic flow):
	- 19. Roadside establishment, +0.8184
	- 20. Friction point, +0. 5659
	- 21. Access point, +0. 7526
	- 48. Advertising sign, +0. 4158
- F. Time of day (although not completely defined, indicative of variations in trafficstream characteristics for different periods of the day):
	- 40. 10:01 to 12:30, +0.8292 41. 12:31 to 3:00, -0.8831
- G. Relative darkness (contrast in light intensity would probably reflect nighttime travel conditions):
	- 43. Clear, -0. 9152
	- 44. Cloudy, +0.9483
- H. Lateral restriction:
	- 16. Lane width, -0. 2319
	- 17. Shoulder width, -0.5865
	- 18. Curb or gutter, +O. 7538
	- 31. No-passing zone, +O. 5209
	- 32. Edge line, +0. 2080
- I. Vertical resistance (influence of vertical alignment on traffic):
	- 12. Gradient, +O. 8247
	- 14. Total rise and fall, +O. 7421
	- 15. **Min.** sightdistance, -0.4468
- J. Day of week (daily variation in traffic-stream behavior is evident, but the precise pattern is not discernible):
	- 35. Tuesday, -0.8859
	- 37. Thursday, +0.4763
- K. Day of week (representing additional variation within the week, not fully explained because of few variables):
	- 36. Wednesday, -0.8455
	- 37. Thursday, +0.3567
- L. Home-to-work travel (characteristic of male drivers traveling alone in the early morning):
	- 1. Female driver, -0.3309
	- 3. Passenger in car, -0. 5542
	- 39. 7:31 to 10:00, +O. 8522
	- 40. 10:01 to 12:30, -0.3974
	- 41. 12:31 to 3:00, -0.2916
- M. Obsolete pavement (representative of narrow, unmarked, inadequate pavements that are no longer constructed):

- 16. Lane width, -0. 5754
- 30. Centerline, -0. 7147
- 31. No-passing zone, -0. 2043
- 32. Edge line, -0.2605
- N. Work-to-home travel (home-bound trips in late afternoon for every weekday except Friday):
	- 37. Thursday, +O. 3128
	- 38. Friday, -0.7579
	- 42. 3:01 to 5:30, +0. 5582
- 0. Day of week (further variation in travel characteristics among different days of the week is broadly evident):
	- 34. Monday, +0.7539
	- 37. Thursday, -0. 5768
- P. Local-business travel (single-unit trucks in the opposite direction of the major traffic flow account for the delivery and service operations of local businessesusually completed by late afternoon):
	- 5. Single-unit truck, +O. 6404
	- 28. Direct. distribution, -0.6690
	- 42. 3:0lto5:30, -0.3091
- Q. Local-service road (absence of commercial buses and long grades; primarily affording access to various forms of land use):
	- 7. Commercial bus, -0. 6845
	- 13. Length of grade, -0. 6135

The multiple-factor solution (Table 1) was readily interpretable because many common factors were significantly loaded with a sufficient number of variables. However, several orthogonal factors, particularly those concerned with weekday variations in traffic-stream conditions, were not completely defined by the few variables present.

Although the factor coefficients (Table 1) permit the evaluation of a variable in terms of the common factors, it was necessary to compute the factor-score matrix (Table 2) to express the generated factors as functions of the original variables. Thus, a factor can be quantitatively determined in standard-score measure from a multiple linear equation stated in terms of the variables with the respective factor scores as standard regression coefficients.

Mean spot speed was not included as a variable in the principal-axes solution, the varimax rotation, and the development of factor scores. Because it was desired to correlate mean speed with the common factors, speed was not used in the generation of these factors . Consequently, the factor pattern was not determined to any degree by this external variable.

The results of the linear correlation of mean speed with the 17 common factors are given in Table 3. The factors of horizontal resistance, long-distance travel, marginal friction, vertical resistance, and obsolete pavement displayed correlation coefficients that were significant at the 5 percent level. Because the statistical analysis was performed with standard scores, these correlation coefficients are also the standard regression coefficients for the different factors. Therefore, Eq. 11 was written to estimate mean spot speeds in terms of those common factors that had significant coefficients of regression:

$$
S_1 = 41.42 + 7.269 (-0.7487 F_B + 0.1227 F_C - 0.2677 F_E - 0.1157 F_I - 0.1360 F_M)
$$
\n(11)

in which

 S_1 = mean spot speed in mph; and

 F_i = significant common factor.

Eq. 11 represents the evaluation of Eq. 1 proposed in the theoretical analysis. The unique factor with its coefficient of O. 5664 was not included in this relationship. Unique-

TABLE 2

FACTOR-SCORE MATRIX

Vari-					Factor				
able	Α	В	C	D	E	F	G	Η	
1	$+0.0052$	-0.0260	-0.3227	-0.0741	$+0.0143$	-0.0510	-0.0104	-0.0558	-0.0396
2	-0.0134	$+0.0053$	$+0.3780$	-0.0489	$+0.0410$	-0.0222	$+0.0163$	$+0.0569$	$\left[-0.0034\right]$
3	-0.0196	$+0.0016$	$+0.2327$	-0.0486	$+0.0138$	-0.0633	$+0.0216$	$+0.0524$	-0.0149
4	-0.0887	-0.0352	-0.2503	$+0.0041$	$+0.0492$	$+0.0701$	$+0.0028$	$+0.0015$	-0.0013
	$+0.0114$	-0.0066	$+0.0400$	-0.0565	-0.0019	$+0.0414$	-0.0052	$+0.1170$	$+0.0182$
5 6	-0.0261	-0.0120	$+0.2854$	$+0.0222$	-0.0082	$+0.0435$	-0.0450	-0.1814	-0.0302
$\overline{}$	$+0.0376$	$+0.0245$	-0.0519	-0.0297	-0.0641	$+0.0526$	$+0.0118$	$+0.0150$	-0.0609
8	-0.0253	$+0.2401$	$+0.0570$	-0.0041	$+0.0621$	-0.0212	$+0.0186$	-0.0859	-0.0597
9	$+0.0066$	$+0.1529$	$+0.0838$	-0.0389	$+0.0055$	$+0.0878$	$+0.0012$	$+0.0932$	$+0.0677$
10	$+0.0200$	$+0.2040$	$+0.0036$	$+0.0041$	-0.0808	-0.0056	$+0.0442$	-0.0940	-0.0340
11	$+0.0217$	$+0.1600$	-0.0348	-0.0232	-0.0704	-0.0726	-0.0243	-0.0572	-0.0603
12	-0.0032	-0.0407	-0.0284	-0.0251	-0.0009	$+0.0382$	$+0.0526$	-0.0339	$+0.5353$
13	-0.0540	-0.0242	$+0.0530$	$+0.0170$	$+0.0181$	-0.0011	-0.0797	-0.0044	$+0.0575$
14	$+0.0058$	-0.0243	$+0.0456$	-0.0384	$+0.0188$	-0.0096	-0.0050	$+0.0195$	$+0.4640$
15	-0.0143	-0.0978	$+0.0881$	$ +0.0110$	$+0.0684$	$+0.0099$	$+0.0106$	-0.0150	-0.2645
16	$+0.0098$	$+0.0277$	$+0.0117$	-0.0485	-0.0347	-0.0222	$+0.0451$	-0.1591	$+0.0288$
17	-0.0293	$+0.0159$	$+0.0454$	$+0.0248$	$+0.0035$	$+0.0316$	-0.0601	-0.3572	-0.0142
18	$+0.0369$	-0.0555	$+0.0766$	-0.0355	-0.0524	+0.0555	-0.0671	$+0.5204$	-0.0097
19	-0.0592	-0.0076	$+0.0335$	$+0.0047$	$+0.4234$	-0.0148	-0.0020	-0.0198	$+0.0010$
20	-0.0509	$+0.0328$	$+0.0608$	-0.0020	$+0.3052$	-0.0293	$+0.0120$	-0.0776	$+0.0175$
21	-0.0241	-0.0047	-0.0635	$+0.0127$	$+0.3641$	-0.0053	$+0.0173$	-0.0260	$+0.0165$
22	$+0.2090$	-0.0175	-0.0069	-0.0078	-0.0107	-0.0045	$+0.0307$	$+0.0399$	$+0.0013$
23	-0.1401	$+0.0206$	-0.0302	$+0.0212$	-0.0251	$+0.0555$	-0.0699	-0.0417	$+0.0160$
24	$+0.2148$	$+0.0369$	$+0.0344$	$+0.0309$	-0.0986	$+0.0904$	-0.0800	$+0.0627$	$+0.0434$
25 26	-0.0206	-0.1321	$+0.1182$	-0.0464	-0.0067	$+0.0371$	$+0.0056$	$+0.0319$	-0.0463 $+0.0352$
	$+0.2047$ $+0.2162$	$+0.0079$ -0.0154	-0.0487 -0.0120	$+0.0508$ -0.0077	-0.1153 -0.0187	$+0.0497$ -0.0125	-0.0353 $+0.0359$	-0.0934 $+0.0321$	-0.0010
27 28	-0.0730	-0.0132	$+0.0625$	-0.0089	$+0.0704$	$+0.0804$	-0.0516	$+0.0659$	-0.0068
29	-0.0222	-0.2357	-0.0429	$+0.0301$	-0.0930	-0.0134	-0.0251	$+0.0859$	$+0.0615$
30	-0.0543	-0.0432	-0.0185	$+0.0404$	$+0.0719$	-0.0325	-0.0145	$+0.0562$	-0.0351
31	$+0.0195$	$+0.1020$	-0.0448	-0.0081	-0.0511	-0.0399	-0.0261	$+0.2972$	-0.0080
32	$+0.0224$	$+0.1887$	$+0.0595$	$+0.0360$	-0.0091	-0.0075	-0.0014	$+0.0998$	-0.0744
33	$+0.1726$	$+0.0396$	-0.0396	-0.0128	-0.0082	$+0.0326$	$+0.0273$	$+0.0890$	-0.0379
34	$+0.0023$	$+0.0064$	-0.0104 -0.0175		-0.0073	$+0.0271$	$+0.0230$	-0.0101	$+0.0119$
35	$+0.0023$	$+0.0109$	$+0.0230$	-0.0202	$+0.0054$	-0.0221	-0.0079	$+0.0040$	-0.0313
36	-0.0288	-0.0233	$+0.0454$	$+0.0339$	$+0.0545$	-0.0300	-0.0405	-0.0176	$+0.0345$
37	-0.0152	$+0.0059$	-0.0378	$+0.0010$	-0.0100	$+0.0031$	-0.0270	-0.0695	$+0.0047$
38	$+0.0415$	$+0.0000$	-0.0160	$ +0.0019$	-0.0421	$+0.0212$	$+0.0556$	$+0.1012$	-0.0216
39	-0.0225	$+0.0177$	$+0.0366$	-0.0332	$+0.0168$	-0.0414	$+0.0203$	$+0.0094$	-0.0136
40	-0.0019	-0.0163	-0.0239	$+0.0056$		$+0.0019$ +0.4947	-0.0145	-0.0137	$+0.0193$
41	-0.0398	-0.0102	$+0.0186$ +0.0225		$+0.0415$	-0.5469	-0.0469	-0.0086	$+0.0030$
42	$+0.0963$	$+0.0209$	-0.0369	-0.0028	-0.0917	$+0.0995$	$+0.0735$	$+0.0247$	-0.0196
43	-0.0105	$+0.0113$	$+0.0100$	$[-0.1089]$	-0.0219	-0.0221	-0.4620	$+0.0254$	-0.0271
44	$+0.0157$	-0.0039	-0.0028	-0.1131	$+0.0008$	$+0.0322$	$+0.4961$	$+0.0058$	$+0.0247$
45	$+0.0078$	-0.0025	-0.0116	$+0.3841$	-0.0115	$8000.0+$	-0.0140	-0.0039	-0.0595
46	-0.0300	-0.0245	-0.0100	$+0.2465$	$+0.0977$	-0.0360	-0.0550	-0.1121	$+0.1027$
47	$+0.0088$	-0.0062	-0.0369	$+0.4549$	$+0.0278$	-0.0068 +0.0028		-0.0333	-0.0133
48	$+0.0011$	$+0.0284$ $+0.0581$		$+0.0354$	$+0.2377$	-0.0551	$+0.1130$	$+0.0914$	-0.0759

TABLE	

FACTOR-SCORE MATRIX (Continued)

TABLE 3 **CORRELATION OF MEAN** SPEED **WITH THE FACTORS**

lfSignificant at the *5* per-

cent level.

ness is composed of the specificity and unreliability contributed by the variables and cannot be determined from sample data.

The horizontal-resistance factor had the most pronounced influence on spot-speed characteristics. On the other hand, the almost negligible effect of the stream-friction factor on mean speeds is probably because the traffic volumes did not exceed the practical capacity of the roadway. The amount of traffic flow was, therefore, not great enough to modify significantly the rate of vehicular movement. The long-distancetravel factor was positively related to speed, whereas the remaining factors restricted the rate of traffic flow.

The precision of this multiple **estimate** was measured by a standard error of estimate equal to 4. 12 mph, and the degree of correlation for this multivariate analysis was expressed by a multiple correlation coefficient of 0.824 , which was significant at the 5 percent level. Thus, approximately 68 percent of the variation in vehicular speed on 2-lane rural highways was explained by these five factors. This equation afforded a reasonable evaluation of the proposed regression model which functionally relates time-mean speeds to the generated factors .

To evaluate the selected factors, multiple linear regression expressions were developed from the results of the factor-score analysis. These five equations were expressed in terms of those study variables that predominantly accounted for the generation of a particular factor:

> $\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{B}} = 0.2401 \mathbf{Z}_{8} + 0.1529 \mathbf{Z}_{9} + \cdots$ $0.2040 Z_{10} + 0.1600 Z_{11}$ 0.0978 Z₁₅ - 0.1321 Z₂₅ - 0.2357 Z₂₉ + 0.1020 Z₃₁ + $0.1887 \t Z_{32}$ (12)

 F_C = - 0.3227 Z_1 + 0.3780 Z_2 + 0.2327 Z_3 - 0.2503 Z_4 + 0.2854 Z_6 (13)

 $\mathbf{F_E} = 0.4234 \mathbf{Z}_{19} + 0.3052 \mathbf{Z}_{20} + 0.3641 \mathbf{Z}_{21} + 0.2377 \mathbf{Z}_{48}$ (14)

$$
F_{I} = 0.5353 Z_{12} + 0.4640 Z_{14} - 0.2645 Z_{15}
$$
 (15)

$$
F_M = -0.4525 Z_{16} - 0.5152 Z_{30} - 0.1225 Z_{31} - 0.1795 Z_{32}
$$
 (16)

in which

 F_j = common factor; and
 Z_i = significant variable.

Values of the different variables must be reduced to standard-score form for solution. This reduction is accomplished by the following relationship:

in which

 \cdot ', . .

 $Z =$ standard score;

 $X = observed value$;

 \overline{X} = mean of variable; and

s = standard deviation of variable.

Means and standard deviations of the study variables are given in Table 6 (Appendix). Thus, a technique is available to evaluate the common factors in standard-score units so that an estimate of the mean speed for any highway location can be derived from the speed-factor expression.

Multiple Linear Regression and Correlation Analysis

An exploratory insight into traffic-stream behavior was gained by the factor-analysis study. A better understanding, both qualitatively and quantitatively, of those broad categories that described traffic flow and influenced spot speeds permitted a knowable selection of independent variables for the evaluation of the second regression model. Study variables were chosen for the multiple linear regression and correlation analysis in compliance with the following criteria:

1. Each significant factor {horizontal resistance, long-distance travel, marginal friction, vertical resistance, and obsolete pavement) was represented by at least one variable;

2. The variables selected for the respective common factors were to have high factor coefficients;

3. These study variables had low inter correlations;

4. Values of the variables selected were readily obtainable from engineering records and drawings; and

5. A parsimonious description was desired for the time-rate of traffic flow.

Out-of-state car, truck combination, degree of curve, gradient, minimum sight distance, lane width, roadside establishment, and total volume were the variables specified for multiple correlation with mean spot speed.

The results of this multivariate analysis are summarized in Table 4. The second regression model for estimating vehicular speeds was evaluated according to the following:

$$
S_2 = 39.34 + 0.0267 X_2 + 0.1396 X_6 - 0.8125 X_8 - 0.1126 X_{12} +
$$

$$
0.0007 X_{15} + 0.6444 X_{16} - 0.5451 X_{19} - 0.0082 X_{22}
$$
 (18)

in which

 S_2 = mean spot speed in mph; and

 X_i = independent variable.

This relationship provides a quantitative description of Eq. 2, which was developed from theoretical considerations. The coefficient of multiple correlation was O. 788 and was significant at the 5 percent level. A measure of 4. 47 mph for the standard error of estimate approximated the closeness between estimated and observed values. These eight variables, therefore, accounted for about 62 percent of the variation in the rate of vehicle operation on 2-lane rural highways. The inference expression developed by the factor-analysis procedure was slightly more precise than the multiple linear equation evaluated for the selected variables. The influence of certain variables on spot speeds was combined into a single factor, and this composite representation afforded by the common factors probably provided a more accurate explanation of the variation in mean speed.

The net regression coefficients for the chosen variables were all significant at the 5 percent level. Positive relationships were established between mean speed and out-ofstate car, combination truck, minimum sight distance, and lane width. The remaining

RESULTS OF MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION AND CORRELATION ANALYSIS

 $Intercept = 39.34$ mph

Multiple Correlation Coefficient = 0.788 *

'Standard Error of Estimate = 4.47 mph

* Significant at the 5 percent level.

variables (degree of curve, gradient, roadside establishment, and total volume) were related to spot speed in a negative manner. Positive coefficients of regression represent increases in meanspeeds; negative values indicate speed reductions.

The results of the multiple regression analysis showed that degree of curve, associated with the horizontal-resistance factor, exerted the greatest influence on determining the average rate of traffic movement. This finding is analogous to the factor-analysis results which demonstrated the pronounced effect of horizontal resistance on mean vehicular speeds.

Although stream friction did not appear to be an important factor in the correlation with mean spot speed, total volume was included as an independent variable in the multiple linear regression and correlation analysis. This decision was predicated on the importance attached to traffic volume in the technical literature dealing with traffic-stream char-

acteristics. The inclusion of total volume in this multivariate analysis produced a net regression coefficient that was significantly and negatively related to mean speed . This relationship is in agreement with the general concept postulated for the speed-volume pattern in the development of the theory .

The solution to the second regression model provided a reasonable and efficient evaluation of the functional relationship between mean spot speed and eight selected variables that significantly influenced traffic flow on 2-lane rural highways.

Model Verification

The final purpose of this investigation was to test the validity of the two multiple linear regression equations proposed for describing the rate of traffic movement. The ten study sites not included in the factor analysis and the multiple linear regression analysis permitted an empirical comparison between observed and estimated mean 8peeds. These results are given in Table 5, where the actual mean speeds are compared with the calculated mean speeds derived from the common factors in Eq. 11 and from the independent variables in Eq. 18 .

The rather small differences between the variable-estimate mean and the observed mean and between the factor-estimate mean and the observed mean indicated that the two multiple equations were fairly reliable for predicting mean spot speeds. In no case were these differences significant at the 5 percent level. However, there was a tendency for the estimated mean speed to be less than the observed value . This discrepancy could be attributed to the small number of speed sites used in this verification of the evaluated regression models.

The time-mean speed estimates calculated from the speed-factor equation were more precise than those computed from the speed-variable expression. This variation was explained by the higher degree of correlation existing between speed and the factors t

TABLE 5 RESULTS OF VERIFICATION STUDY

than between speed and the variables. The difference in the standard errors of estimate for the variable and the factor equations was 0.35 mph.

In summary, the two multiple linear regression equations, evaluated from actual measurements of driver, vehicle, roadway, traffic, and environmental conditions, can be used as inference devices to estimate mean spot speeds with a reasonable degree of confidence. Slight adjustment in the intercepts may be justified to account for variations in speed patterns attributable to local conditions and to the annual increase in the rate of motor-vehicle operation.

CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions inferred from this multivariate analysis of vehicular speeds are valid only for those drivers and vehicles sampled at the selected roadway locations under the prevailing traffic and environmental conditions. However, the real benefits of research are derived through generalizations deduced for the entire population of motorvehicle drivers. As a result, the following conclusions concerning the traffic-stream characteristics of 2-lane rural highways were abstracted:

1. The concept of time-rate of traffic flow was qualitatively described as a hyperplane to account for the many variables that influence vehicular speeds. The combination of the speed hyperplane and the limiting hyperplanes produced a polyhedron as the geometric representation of the comprehensive traffic-flow model.

2. The average speed of traffic movement under various types and levels of travel conditions was formulated as multiple linear regression models. Two regression models were postulated with mean speed related to generated factors in the first equation and to travel variables in the second equation.

3. The rate of traffic flow was largely determined by the five factors identified as horizontal resistance, long-distance travel, marginal friction, vertical resistance, and obsolete pavement. The horizontal-resistance factor accounted for the greatest variation in time-mean speeds.

4. Variations in mean spot speeds were statistically explained to an acceptable degree by variations in the eight variables defined as out-of-state car, truck combination,

degree of curve, gradient, minimum sight distance, lane width, roadside establishment, and total volume. The most pronounced influence on speed characteristics was caused by degree of curve.

.. •

5. Two multiple linear equations were developed to relate mean spot speed to five generated factors and to eight travel-restriction variables. Both expressions were verified as suitable for the reliable estimation of mean speeds.

6. The application of multivariate analysis techniques (factor analysis and multiple linear regression and correlation analysis) was essential for appraising and evaluating the complex phenomenon of traffic flow. These analytic devices provided an exploratory appraisal of traffic-stream characteristics, afforded a parsimonious and accurate description of vehicular speeds, and permitted the development of inference equations for the reliable estimation of mean spot speeds .

SUGGESTIONS **FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

As the conduct of this research study progressed, it became readily apparent that various phases in the area of traffic-stream characteristics required comprehensive evaluation by both theoretical and applied investigations. The following suggestions are offered as possibilities for further research:

1. The proposed multiple regression models should be evaluated for multi-lane highways in rural areas and for 2-lane and multi-lane highways and streets in business, residential, and intermediate areas. It is quite unlikely that the common factors developed in these analyses will be different from those describing traffic flow on 2-lane rural highways. However, the influences of these factors on speed characteristics will, no doubt, assume different proportions for the various facilities. This change in degree of significance will also be evident in the correlations of mean speed with selected travel-restriction variables. Different sets of variables will describe the rate of vehicle movement for the various combinations of highway type and traffic area.

2. Detailed analyses of specific factors will yield refined information concerning, traffic-stream characteristics. The actual composition of a factor can be investigated to ascertain the relative importance of the variables that comprise this factor. These micro-analyses will be greatly aided by the application of analysis of variance and analysis of covariance techniques to traffic-stream data.

3. Additional effort should be expended on the realistic determination of the common factors describing the movement of highway vehicles. This elaborate study is mandatory if the quantitative evaluation of a factor is to measure its qualitative connotation with an acceptable degree of accuracy.

4. Consideration of non-linearity in the parameters and/or the variables may offer increased precision in the estimation of speed statistics. The two regression models were restricted to multiple linear functions and did not consider curvilinear expressions and joint functional relationships.

5. Analysis of data by individual speed observations may prove valuable in promoting the understanding of driver behavior. The variation in speed practices for the individual driver must be evaluated in the appraisal of traffic-stream characteristics.

6. As improvements in techniques and devices for recording driver, vehicle, roadway, traffic, and environmental conditions are realized, the study of additional variables that presently cannot be evaluated may further refine the knowledge of speed characteristics .

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- 22. ''Data Tape Checking Routine," **KSL** 5.90, Digital Computer Laboratory, University of Illinois.
- 23. ''Delete Rows and Columns from a Matrix, " KSL 5. 50, Digital Computer Laboratory, University of Illinois.
- 24. "Inversion of Symmetrical Matrix, " KSL 5 .11, Digital Computer Laboratory, University of Illinois.
- 25. "Matrix Multiplication with or without Rescaling," M 28, Digital Computer Laboratory, University of Illinois.
- 26. "Matrix Transposition with or without Rescaling, " KSL 5. 30, Digital Computer Laboratory, University of Illinois.
- 27. "Page Output Correlations, " KSL 5. 57, Digital Computer Laboratory, University of Illinois .
- 28. "Principal Axis Factors Solution, " KSL 1. 11, Digital Computer Laboratory, University of Illinois.
- 29. "Product Moment Correlations, Variance-Covariances, Means, and Standard Deviations for Use with Magnetic Drum, "K 8, Digital Computer Laboratory, University of Illinois.
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- 30. "Regression Analysis," R 3, Statistical Services Unit, University of Illinois.
31. "Varimax Rotation of Factors," KSL 1.80, Digital Computer Laboratory, University of Illinois.

Appendix

TABLE 6

TABLE 7

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE STUDY VARIABLES

CORRELATION OF SPEED WITH THE OTHER **VARIABLES**

68
$\frac{1}{2},\, \kappa_{\gamma}$ at γ

CORRELATION MATRIX

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Note: These correlation coefficients are scaled by 10^4 .

69

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CORRELATION MATRIX (Continued)

 $\epsilon_{\rm{eq}}$

Note: These correlation coefficients are scaled by 10⁴.

 $\mathbf{1}$ -1 1 1 1 \mathbf{l}

 $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{g}}\left(\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{g}}\right)$, $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{g}}^{\mathbf{e}}$, $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{g}}^{\mathbf{e}}$

1 1

CORRELATION MATRIX (Continued)

Note: These correlation coefficients are scaled by 10⁴.

 α

CORRELATION MATRIX (Continued)

Note: These correlation coefficients are scaled by $10⁴$.

72

 $\mathbf{r'}_{\mathbf{r}}$. \mathbf{r}

PRINCIPAL-FACTOR MATRIX

TABLE	

PRINCIPAL-FACTOR MATRIX (Continued)

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r i I I I I l

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE 17 PRINCIPAL FACTORS (Unities in Diagonal of Correlation Matrix)

Discussion

DAVID SOLOMON, U.S. Bureau of Public Roads. - The author is to be complimented on a substantial contribution to an understanding of the relationship between speed and numerous other variables. These questions then arise: Is the procedure valid for use, and if so where? Which procedure is more desirable for practical application, the regression analysis or the factor analysis? How can the procedure be used?

The factor analysis is slightly more accurate in its ability to predict speeds. The standard error of estimate for the factor analysis is 4. 1 mph compared to 4. 5 mph for the regression analysis. Thus, about two-thirds of the estimates of average speed would be within **4 .1** or **4.** 5 mph. Similarly, the multiple correlation coefficient was 0. 82 for the factor analysis and O. 79 for the regression analysis.

In the 10 test studies used to validate the data, the average speed was always estimated to within 5 mph in the factor analysis; whereas in the regression analysis, 4 of the ten studies exceeded 5 mph. If 4 mph is chosen as the criterion, the factor analysis showed that 3 of the 10 studies exceeded this value. In the regression analysis, 5 of the 10 studies exceeded the criterion. Again the factor analysis produced a slightly more accurate prediction of average speeds.

This greater accuracy was obtained at a price, however, and the price was the requirement, in the factor analysis, that 21 variables be measured to insert in the 5 factors employed. In the regression analysis, only 8 variables were required. Moreover, the 8 variables needed in the regression analysis were more easily obtainable because 4 were geometric design elements usually available from plans, 3 were volume or classification counts usually available in state highway departments, and the final variable was the number of commercial establishments which is frequently available from maps or easily obtained in the field. By way of contrast, the factor analysis required the obtaining of such variables as the percent of vehicles passing at the time of speed measurement, and the reciprocal of the test car speed.

It is seen, therefore, that the regression analysis with its 8 easily measured variables is a simpler technique for application. However, the question still remains as to whether the equation for the regression analysis is valid in other states, or in other areas or for other highways. This points up the desirability of validating the equation by selecting a few dozen study sites in other states where the 8 variables and the average speeds could be measured. The measured speeds could then be compared with the average speed as computed from the regression analysis. This is certainly a much easier process than trying to repeat the regression analysis itself. The results of such studies will show whether the procedures can be used elsewhere or whether some modification is required. These validation studies are relatively easy to do and could well be incorporated into a regular program of spot-speed studies.

If the validation studies indicate that the equations an be used elsewhere, the next question is how can the equations be used. One obvious use for such procedures would be in speed zoning a section of highway without actually measuring the speeds of traffic. Thus, conceivably an entire highway network could be speed zoned from design and traffic data available in many highway department offices.

Another and related use of the equation would be to predict future speeds depending on changes in some of the variables with time. For example, changes in hourly volume or the percent of out-of-state traffic will produce a corresponding change in average speed. In the case of commercial establishments, the change in average speed is particularly pronounced. According to the equation, for each increase of 10 commercial roadside establishments per mile the average speed of traffic will decrease 5 mph. This has important implications in two directions: (a) If it is desirable to permit these commercial establishments without limit, speed zoning may need to be revised every few years to take account of rapid commercial growth; (b) if it is desirable to maintain high average speeds for traffic, it may be desirable to zone the roadside to inhibit the location of commercial establishments along the highway. Obviously, the ultimate in this regard is the freeway .

The regression equations might also be a tool for design purposes . These equations provide estimates of the average speed. However, the average speed is not ordinarily used for design purposes but rather some percentile indicative of the speeds of the percentage of drivers who travel at speeds somewhat above the average. If the standard deviation of speeds for any selected site is known then it is possible from the estimate of the average speed to closely approximate a cumulative speed distribution. An earlier paper by Oppenlander, Bunte, and Kadakia, "Sample Size Requirements for Vehicular Speed Studies, " showed for example, that the standard deviation for 2-lane rural highways was nearly always between 7. 5 and 10 mph. Thus, for example, if the equation predicts an average speed of 50 mph on a certain highway section and it is assumed that the standard deviation is 9 mph, the 85 percentile speed will be approximately 60 mph and the 95 percentile speed approximately 68 mph. The latter study, incidentally, showed a slight tendency for the standard deviation to decrease as traffic volume increased on 2-lane rural highways.

BRUCE D. GREENSHIELDS, University of Michigan. - The paper demonstrates the importance of applying the statistical method of variance analysis to the study of vehicular speeds. By this method the author has reduced 49 variables, 42 of these having to do with the highway and 7 with traffic, to 8 which account for 68 percent of the spot-

speed variations observed at 469 locations. This indicates that with further investigation it should be possible to predict speeds from the controlling highway and traffic factors.

 $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}$

Although it is agreed that the method of analysis of speed data is the best extant, do spot speeds furnish the best data for obtaining the correlation between vehicle speeds and highway and traffic factors ? Continuous speed records of traffic streams over considerable distances would seem preferable.

As the individual driver, who collectively makes up the traffic stream, moves over a highway he meets a succession of highway and traffic events to which he responds by changing the speed or direction of his car. There are two methods of recording traffic stream flow that seem to provide satisfactory data.

One of these methods consists of using a pacing car equipped with a special device to record vehicle motions and traffic and highway events . The pertinent vehicle motions consist of speed, change of speed, and change of direction. The device permits the recording of a number of simultaneous traffic and highway events. There is no definite limit on the number of events that may be recorded. They may be digitally and/or photographically recorded.

The other method that furnishes suitable data on traffic stream performance is aerial time-lapse photographs. Transferring speed data from the films is tedious but it does permit simultaneous observation of several vehicles. Speed and change of speed can be obtained to an accuracy of about 1 mph.

The highway factors that affect traffic flow behavior in general consist of (a) the geometry, (b) the surface condition, and (c) the appearance of the highway. A device has been designed (but not constructed) to obtain these highway characteristics at any reasonable speed on 35-mm film.

The outlined methods would, it is believed, furnish more complete and more effective data than spot speeds. The same drivers would be observed as they met a multiplicity of traffic and highway events .

The statistical analyses would be the same as described by the author. The more intricate field recording devices required in the alternate methods mentioned would furnish a more exact solution to the problem of estimating traffic behavior from traffic and highway causes.

These suggestions are not intended to detract from the importance of the paper. The author is to be congratulated on his presentation of a new approach to the solution of a most important highway problem.

Sample Size Determination for Spot-Speed Studies at Rural, Intermediate, and Urban Locations

J. C. OPPENLANDER, Department of Civil Engineering, University of Illinois

•IN THE estimation of traffic characteristics by a sampling technique, the design of experiment requires the determination of an adequate and economical sample size. The evaluation of speed characteristics is accomplished by a sampling survey and a statistical analysis. A statistical procedure for sample size determination was developed and previously presented **(2).** This information made it possible to design a spotspeed study with a sample size that is statistically acceptable.

The equation for mimimum sample size was derived, and graphical solutions for this expression were also presented **(2).** The determination of a sample size for a spot-speed survey is predicated on a knowledge of the standard deviation of vehicular speeds at the study location. The other variables in the sample·size expression are selected in accordance with the desired precision of the spot-speed study.

This measure of speed variability can be obtained from the results of previous speed surveys. However, if this quantity is not available, then a reliable estimate of standard deviation permits the use of the equation for determining sample size. The purpose of this study was to supplement the findings of the previous investigation by analyzing the standard deviations of spot speeds for 2- and 4-lane highways in rural, intermediate, and urban areas. The determination of sample size requirements can be greatly facilitated by the availability of standard deviation estimates that accurately describe the variability of spot speeds for various highway types in different traffic areas.

PROCEDURE

Spot-speed data were collected in the summer of 1960 to develop reliable estimates of standard deviations of vehicular speeds. The following numbers of study locations were chosen to provide information for various highway types in different traffic areas of Illinois.

1. Rural area: (a) 2-lane highway, 60; and (b) 4-lane highway, 50.

2. Intermediate area: (a) 2-lane highway, 42; and (b) 4-lane highway, 42.

3. Urban area: (a) 2-lane highway, 47; and (b) 4-lane highway, 40.

The following definitions were adopted to permit the delineation of the three traffic areas:

1. A rural area was any area where the number of residential, commerical, and industrial buildings along the highway was less than 10 per mile and where the number of crossroads and driveways was less than 20 per mile;

2. An intermediate area was any area where the number of residential, commerical, and industrial buildings along the highway was greater than 10 per mile but less than 100 per mile and where the number of crossroads and driveways was greater than 20 per mile; and

3. An urban area was any area where the number of residential, commerical, and industrial buildings along the highway was greater than 100 per mile.

The minimum lengths of highway considered were 1, $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{1}{4}$ mile, respectively. The speed sites were located on level, tangent roadway sections where traffic conditions were not influenced by the presence of intersections.

Paper sponsored by Committee on Characteristics of Traffic Flow (formerly Committee on Speed Characteristics).

Vehicular speeds were measured during the daytime for low volume conditions. It was considered desirable to evaluate the standard deviations of spot speeds during periods of low traffic flow in order to approach the max imum standard deviations occurring at the various study locations (2). A radar speedmeter was located adjacent to the lane or lanes of traffic being studied and was pointed toward the oncoming vehicles. After the spot speeds of 100 vehicles were obtained, the same procedure was repeated for the other direction of travel with the speedmeter relocated on the opposite side of the highway. This procedure provided a composite sample of 200 observations at each study site. The speedmeter and the observers were concealed from the view of approaching drivers. The average annual daily traffic volume (ADT) for each spot-speed site was obtained from information published by the Illinois Division of Highways (3).

The standard deviation of spot speeds was calculated for each location. Means and standard deviations of these standard deviations were obtained on the IBM 650 computer for the various combinations of traffic areas and highway types. To correlate standard deviation of vehicular speeds with average annual daily traffic volume, a regression routine for this computer provided the regression coefficients and the coefficients of $correlation (1).$

RESULTS

The results of the regression and correlation analyses are given in Table 1. Except for 4-lane highways located in intermediate and urban areas, the correlation coefficients were not significantly different from zero at the 5 percent level. However, these significant variations in standard deviation of spot speeds were explained to a limited degree by the variations in ADT volume. These linear equations, consequently, offer no advantage in estimating standard deviations for sample size determination. In the first investigation a significant linear relationship was established between standard deviation and ADT for 2-lane rural highways. The standard deviations of vehicular speeds were independent of traffic volumes for 4- and 6-lane rural highways (2) .

Because standard deviation was generally independent of ADT for the locations studied, the statistics in Table 2 provide reasonable and proper estimates of standard deviation for computing sample size requirements in the experimental design of spotspeed studies. As indicated by the low standard errors of estimate, the average values produce sample sizes that are statistically adequate. Average standard deviations plus one or two standard errors of estimate are tabulated for use in studies requiring precise speed statistics. Average standard deviations minus one or two standard errors

TABLE 1

RESULTS OF REGRESSION AND CORRELATION ANALYSES STANDARD DEVIATION OF SPEED VERSUS AVERAGE ANNUAL DAILY TRAFFIC VOLUME

*Significant at the 5 percent level .

STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF SPOT SPEEDS FOR SAMPLE SIZE DETERMINATION

TABLE 2

of estimate are listed for the design of speed studies that are limited in scope by economic considerations. In general, the average standard deviations provide sample sizes that are both statistically sufficient and economical.

The results of this study were developed to augment the findings of the first report on sample size determination. The statistics shown in this paper permit the reliable estimation of a standard deviation of vehicular speeds if this value is not known from a previous spot-speed survey. Finally, the minimum sample size requirement can be calculated from the theoretical expression presented in the first report (2).

The average standard deviations {Table 2) ranged from 4. 16 to 5. 31 mph for the 6 combinations of traffic areas and highway types. Because this variability in the measures of speed dispersion was limited, an average standard deviation of 5.0 mph is suggested as a rule-of-thumb value for spot speeds on any highway type in any traffic area.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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