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Appunti universitari

Tesi di laurea

Cartoleria e cancelleria

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Rilegature

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MATERIA: Progetto Infrastrutture. Prof. Bassani

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PROGETTO di INFRASTRUTTURE

(Design of Transportation
infrastructures)

Prof. Bassani

Planning – plan typologies

RUP = responsabile unico procedimento → only man responsible of the procediment

An infrastructure will be part of a Plan (or program) after the review and approval of a **Feasibility Study**.

The "Planning Document" is prepared by the Head of the Process (RUP), and establishes the functional and structural characteristics of the infrastructure.

Typologies:

- new construction (corridor studies)
- reconstruction

In future only reconstruction because the territory is full of road (350000 km in Italy)

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Lecture #1

4

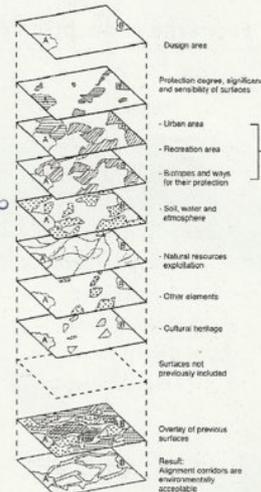
New construction plan

From FHWA (US). Types of Construction:

New construction: roadways that are built on new alignment = *tracciato*

From route location process, designers should be identifying **corridors** with sufficient width to enable full criteria to be met.

Corridor formation from environmental and land analysis



there are several layer information → in all of layer there is a different information (ex traffic layer or environment layer).

Many information are indicated in feasibility: all are necessary to do corridor (territory of land where infrastructure can be located)

→ no cross on urban area

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Reconstruction plans

Reconstruction: roadways that are **re-built** primarily along existing alignment.

Reconstruction normally involves:

- full-depth pavement replacement,
- new lanes adjacent to an existing alignment,
- roadway conversion (e.g., a two-lane highway to a multi-lane divided arterial),
- reconfiguration of intersections and interchanges.

This typically involves a major change to an existing highway within the same general right-of-way corridor.

Reconstruction may also include substantial alignment changes to an older highway to eliminate safety and accident problems.

intersection: in the same level +
interchanging: in a different layer X

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Example #2

rebuild the pavement
SR reconstruction → no
change



Curve = curvatures
is the same

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Contents of a feasibility study

- **Environmental and corridor analysis:**
 - environmental assessment (noise, water, ground consumption..)
 - corridors of reduced environmental impact
 - the main obstacles that impose constraints
- **Network analysis** (see *Transportation Planning* course, 2nd semester)
 - traffic demand analysis and assignment
 - expected level of service
- **Geometric characteristics of the infrastructures:**
 - *Section Transversali tipo*
 - template transversal section and reference design speeds (in Italy the "design speed range" concept is used)
 - typologies of intersection and/or interchanges connecting to existing infrastructures

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Lecture #1

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Design – who is the Designer?

Public bodies (see above) → *administration to provide design (ex ams)*

Private bodies:

- single professional
- associated professionals
- engineering companies

↳ several types of it (geotechnical, structural --)

Nowadays the design of a transportation infrastructure involves **civil engineers** experts in the field of:

- infrastructure design and traffic analysis
- structures, tunneling and geotechnics
- hydraulics, geology and environmental subjects

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Design levels / stages

you can do attention to a particular aspect → cost and benefits

Needs:

- gradual approach to design starting from general to particular aspects
- evaluation of minimum 3 alternatives
- selection of the best one
- progressively involvement of stakeholders in the design process

PLAN / PROGRAM - FS

DESIGN

Preliminary stage : it is stabilized who she paid for the infrastructure (ex agricultural owners)
 Definitive stage
 Executive stage

CONSTRUCTION

stakeholders = portatori di interesse (ex enti) several entity that the project or the modify of infrastructure interest a lot.

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Preliminary stage

It contains the same three solutions already studied in the Feasibility study. It explores the following topics:

- geometric and functional characteristics of the infrastructure
- preliminary cost estimation and contract specifications (*capitolato d'appalto - parte amministrativa*)
- **plans** (1:10000 – 1:5000), **profiles** (1:10000/1:1000 – 1:5000/1:500) and **template sections** (1:200) (*sezioni tipo*)

The expropriation process begins at the end of the Preliminary Project. It is necessary to know:

- maps with the occupation area of the infrastructure
- the list of owners to be compensated (*indennità*)

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Definitive stage

no best solution

It contains the only one solution considered in the Preliminary Study. It explores the following topics:

- geometric and structural characteristics of the infrastructure
- preliminary design reports of components (structures, pavements, barriers, ...)
- materials selections
- definitive cost estimation and technical specifications (*capitolato d'appalto - specifiche tecniche*)
- **plans** (1:2000), **profiles** (1:2000/1:200), **template** (1:50) and **cross** (1:200) **sections**

The expropriation process ends in the Definitive stage.

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Lecture #1

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Laws and technical norms

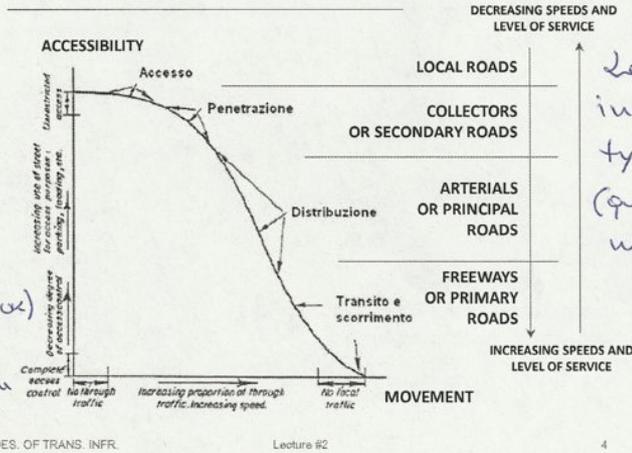
Please, download the documents from the web:

<http://www.codiceappalti.it/>

http://www.codiceappalti.it/Allegato_XXI_-_Allegato_tecnico_di_cui_all_art_164.htm

Two main function:
 accessibility / movement
 Some infrastructure works
 in a both for the 2!
 Undistributed access:
 many many access in
 roads.
 Freeways: water way (or)
 autostrade → here you
 can see "No local traffic"

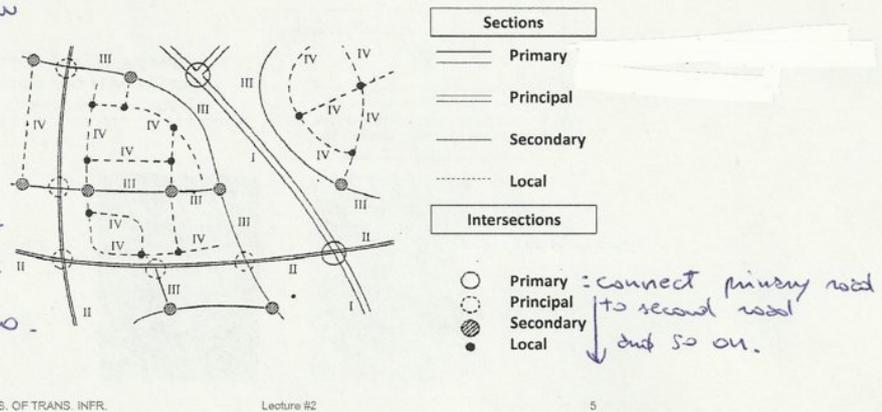
Road classification



Look to the speed in the different type of roads. (quality for the movement).

Road classification layout

Not all movement are allow
 → jump between road network is not allow
 Nonogeneous: ex II to II
 not homogenous: ex II to III
 local is always homogenous.



Road classification and terminology

difference:
 - street: urban area are used
 - road: general name for all

A - Autostrade (extraurbane ed urbane)	Motorways / Freeways
B - Strade extraurbane principali	Rural multilane highways (rural arterials)
C - Strade extraurbane secondarie	Two-lanes rural highways
D - Strade urbane di scorrimento	Urban arterials
E - Strade urbane di quartiere	Urban collectors
F - Strade locali (extraurbane ed urbane)	Rural and urban local roads

There are two different environment: rural (extraurbane), urban divided in 4 level → 2 · 4 = 8 type of road.
 Here you can see only 6, but A and F are divided in two!

B, D are in the same level but different environment

Example – rural roads

high way: used in west roads
 multilane: section with two different conigeaway
 elevated: embankment
 trinceas: trench

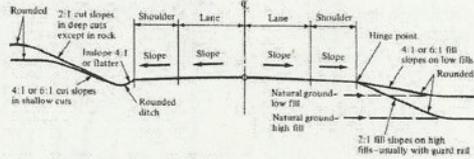


Figure 15.4 Typical Cross Section for Two-Lane Highways

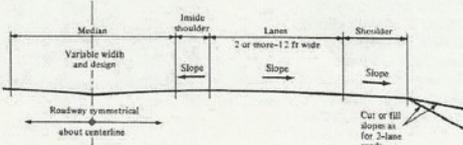


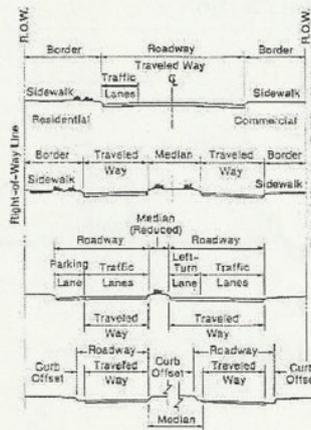
Figure 15.5 Typical Cross Section for Multilane Highways (half section)

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Lecture #2

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Example Urban roads



Building line: here it can be a construction

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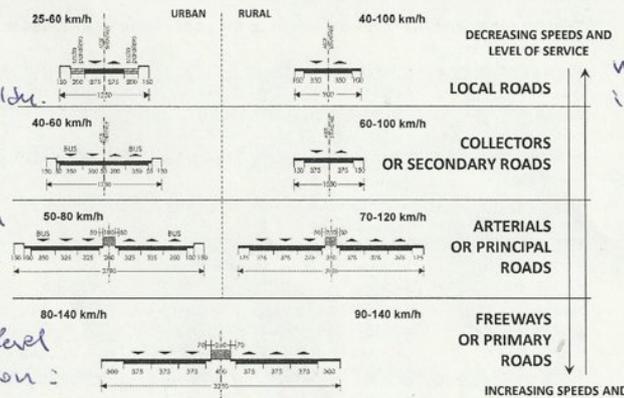
Lecture #2

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Differences:

- presence of sidewalk: in Italian's road it is allow walk on a shoulder.
- different lane width associated to the speed 3,60 m is the maximum lane width in American roads.
- difference between the level of road → speed motivation: impact with other car
- last one is the number of lane = traffic and speed!

General criteria – Template section



median: margin interne

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Lecture #2

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Design of new facilities

The Italian requirements for the design of new road sections are:

Tipo di strada		LOS minimo
Autostrade	extraurbane	B
	urbane	C
Strade extraurbane principali		B
Strade extraurbane secondarie		C (*)
Strade urbane di scorrimento		E
Strade urbane di quartiere		E
Strade locali	extraurbane	C (*)
	urbane	E

Symbol (*) denotes fixed composition sections.

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Lecture #2

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level of service is designed

when you read capacity : level of service is E (lower service - saturated flow in section)

↓
unstable condition
stop and go

National road code : codice della strada

Slide 2 lecture #3

local system : moving system for the alignment → projection

3D planes but we use 2D image

horizontal reference surface : when we projected

Contour line : curve di livello

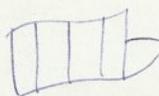
brown section is a 3D surface : model terrain

profile : cylindrical surface → move on the space ↗ since we interchecked the 3D surface terrain

the black line is the intersection.

profile represent the stretch on a plane (allungamento su un piano)

Road centerline : the project of infrastructure



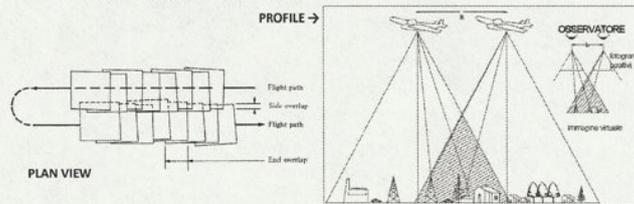
Section : created in all infrastructure

Terrain data

To build a DTM, spatial data need to be acquired. They can be obtained from:

- Official cartography (from Istituto Geografico Militare)
- Technical cartography (from local administrations)
- Maps (aerial or terrestrial surveys)

Aerophotogrammetry is widely used to collect territorial spatial data and produce cartography and maps.



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Lecture #3

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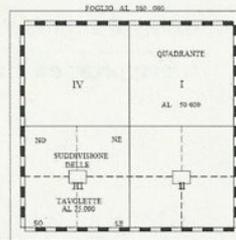
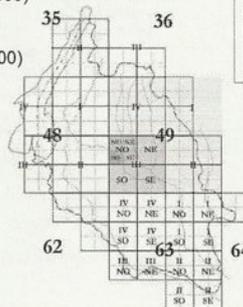
*e-map: indicazioni
dove è il progetto,
la generale posizione
di it.*

Official cartography

Fogli (1:100.000)
A total of 227 covers the Italian territory

Quadranti (1:50.000)
I, II, III, IV

Tavolette (1:25.000)
NO, NE, SO, SE



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Lecture #3

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Terrain data

The terrain data includes:

- Land surface (without vegetation)
- Existing infrastructures (road and railways)
- Natural rivers and channels

They do not include artificial elements such as:

- Buildings
- Electric and light poles
- Fences and barriers

*light pol = polo della luce
rimuove to DTM*



DTM is different to DSM

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Lecture #3

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TIN Formation (phase II)

To import the terrain features into a road design software some manipulations to layers and objects inside the drawing are necessary (see above). The cleaning process is the first step that a road designer has to do before starting the alignment design.

Delete the heading and all the external content of the drawing (every element that is outside the cartography border, like labels, etc...)

Delete all the elements that are on the plane zero, so without the third coordinate. Then buildings, vegetation, ...

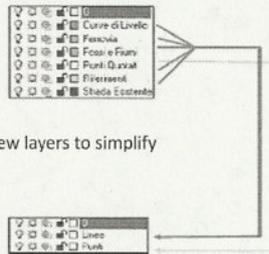
CODICE	ENTITÀ	INTERNO	ESTERNO
1000	Linee esterne	0.10	
1010	Strada esistente	0.10	
1020	Strada in costruzione	0.10	
1030	Modelli, Sectioni	0.20	
1040	Strada in costruzione	0.10	
1050	Parole, Tabelle	0.10	
1060	Struttura di base	0.10	
1070	Forme di base	0.10	
1080	Strada in costruzione	0.10	
1090	Strada in costruzione	0.10	
1100	Strada in costruzione	0.10	
1110	Strada in costruzione	0.10	
1120	Strada in costruzione	0.10	
1130	Strada in costruzione	0.10	
1140	Strada in costruzione	0.10	
1150	Strada in costruzione	0.10	
1160	Strada in costruzione	0.10	
1170	Strada in costruzione	0.10	
1180	Strada in costruzione	0.10	

TIN formation (phase II)

Terrain data are normally available on *.dgn or *.dwg files. 3D entities are normally composed of:

- Lines
- Points

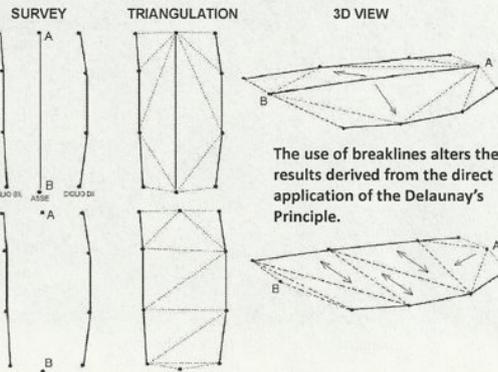
and located in several layers.



These data can be grouped into new layers to simplify the structure of data:

TIN Formation (phase II)

margin of existent base
 → breaklines (cigli stradali) → spigoli di superficie di un terreno
 Se non considero l'asse perdo la pendenza trasversale

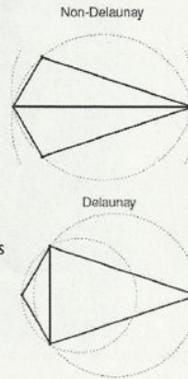


Terrain modeling

Crete triangle as much as possible similar to the reality of the terrain

... (continue)

- o the Delaunay triangulation maximizes the minimum angle. Compared to any other triangulation of the points, the smallest angle in the Delaunay triangulation is at least as large as the smallest angle in any other. However, the Delaunay triangulation does not necessarily minimize the maximum angle;
- o if a circle passing through two of the input points doesn't contain any other of them in its interior, then the segment connecting the two points is an edge of a Delaunay triangulation of the given points.



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Lecture #3

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TIN formation (phase III)

Good DTM are when 3D details and triangles are near to each other.



Contour line and contour interval (or vertical interval) of a map or a TIN.

Remember that:

Terrain surface = the surface derived from survey (including existing infrastructures)

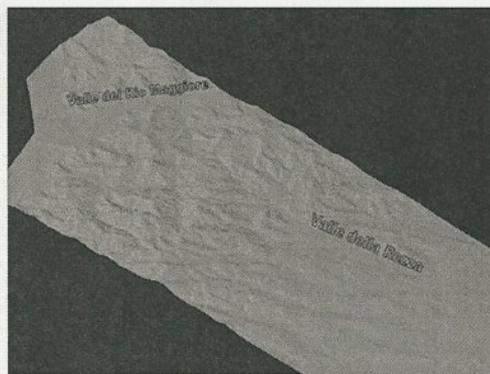
Project surface = the designed surface of the new infrastructure

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Lecture #3

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TIN formation (phase IV)

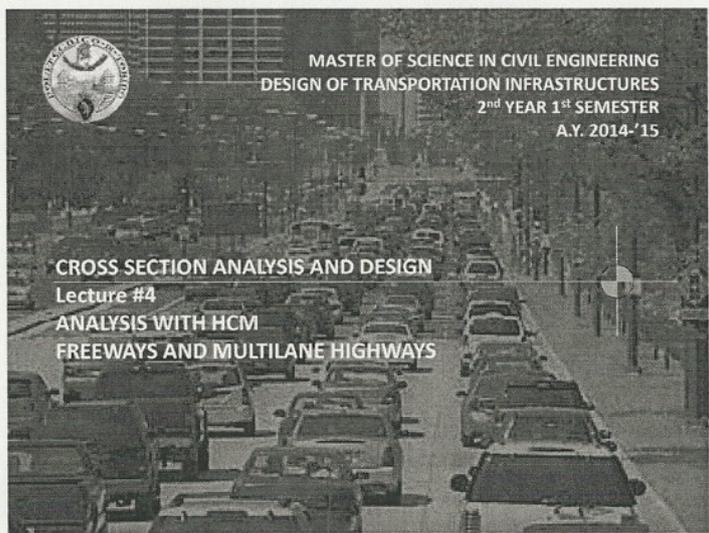


3D rendering from DTM 1:5000

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Lecture #3

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HCM 2010



functional design infrastructure

The objectives of the HCM are to

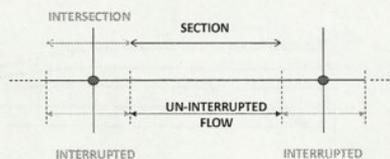
1. Define performance measures and describe survey methods for key traffic characteristics,
2. Provide methodologies for estimating and predicting performance measures, and
3. Explain methodologies at a level of detail that allows readers to understand the factors affecting multimodal operation.

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Lecture #4

2

Flow conditions



Un-interrupted flow conditions are typical of those facilities where traffic can be interrupted only by internal causes (i.e., accident, congestion), and in which there is no obstructions to the movement of vehicles along the road. Uninterrupted flow is possible in sections where signal spacing is sufficient to allow for uninterrupted flow.

Measure of effectiveness is density in freeways. Speed also becomes important in two-lane highways and multilane highways.

Stream = corrente stradale

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Lecture #4

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FFS = speed in free flow condition

we can measure it.

It is the medium speed of the stream (fifty percentile of a gaussian distribution).

Depend of geometrical characteristic: distance of shoulder, number of lane, lane width...

Positioned on the vertical axis.

Capacity: depend only from the infrastructure characteristic
Positioned on the horizontal axis. (Flow rate)

Density: measured in passengers car/miles/lane
it is what reduce the speed way.

it is represented by a bundle of straight lines (fascio di rette) centred on the origin of the axis.

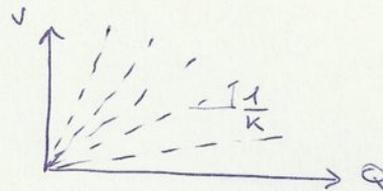
The general equation is $Q = K \cdot v$

Q = flow rate

K = density

v = speed

If you derive: $v = \frac{1}{K} Q$



Equation of bundle of straight lines in fact if you increase density, the coefficient $\frac{1}{K}$ decrease and the straight line is going to the horizontal axis.

Freeways SF_i (pc/h/ln)

FFS mi/h	LOS				
	A	B	C	D	E
75	820	1310	1750	2110	2400
70	770	1250	1690	2080	2400
65	710	1170	1630	2030	2350
60	660	1080	1560	2010	2300
55	600	990	1430	1900	2250

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Lecture #4

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Base conditions

Models and equations refer to **base conditions** defined as the absence of restrictive geometric, traffic, or environmental factors.

Every situation in which some differences occur, correction factors must be adopted.

Base free-flow conditions include the following freeway characteristics:

- lanes are 12 ft wide,
- lateral clearance between the edge of a right lane and an obstacle is 6 ft or greater,
- there are no trucks, buses, or RVs in the traffic stream,
- urban freeways are five lanes in each direction,
- interchanges are spaced at least 2 mi (3.2 km) apart,
- grades do not exceed 2%, *-b for flat terrain*
- drivers are familiar with the freeway.

RVs = recreation of vehicles (campers, motorhomes, touristic vehicle).

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Lecture #4

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For condition base:

- f_{HV} = 1 when no heavy vehicles but only passengers/car*
- f_p = 1 when familiar drivers.*

Freeway analysis and design

Methodologies include:

- **LOS analysis:**

$$v_p = \frac{V}{PHF \times N \times f_{HV} \times f_p}$$

where

v_p = demand flow rate under equivalent base conditions (pc/h/ln),

V = demand volume under prevailing conditions (veh/h),

PHF = peak-hour factor,

N = number of lanes in analysis direction,

f_{HV} = adjustment factor for presence of heavy vehicles in traffic stream, and

f_p = adjustment factor for unfamiliar driver populations.

v_p is used when we want calculate LOS of existent infrastructure

N is used for design a new infrastructure (how many lane are necessary to warranty a determinate LOS).

- **Section (# Lane) design**

$$N = \frac{V(v/h)}{PHF \cdot SF_i(pc/h/ln) \cdot f_{HV} \cdot f_p}$$

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Lecture #4

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Input data

Parameter	Domains		Corrective factors
	55-75 mi/h	90-120 km/h	
Free flow speed (FFS)	55-75 mi/h	90-120 km/h	-
Lanes per direction (N)	≥ 2		-
Lane width (LW)	10-12 ft	3,00-3,60 m	f_{LW}
Shoulder width (clearance)	0-6 ft	0,00-1,80 m	f_{LC}
Ramp density (TRD)	0-6 ramps/mi	0-3,8 ramp/km	-
Terrain	Level-rolling-mountainous		f_{HV}
Traffic composition	tracks-/buses/RV		
Peak hour factor (PHF)	≤ 1,00		-
Drivers	0,85 - 1,00		f_p

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Lecture #4

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Step #1: Free flow speed

75,4 is a constant value.

Because Freeway are designed with high value of radius (so FFS not depend of the project). In opposite there are multi-lane highway that the value of radius are not too high. For this reason FFS depend only by 3 parameters.

In this type of facility speed is not affected by the alignment. Thus for base conditions the speed (BFFS) is always equal to 75.4 mi/h:

$$FFS = 75.4 - f_{LW} - f_{LC} - 3.22TRD^{0.84}$$

where

FFS = FFS of basic freeway segment (mi/h),

f_{LW} = adjustment for lane width (mi/h),

f_{LC} = adjustment for right-side lateral clearance (mi/h), and

TRD = total ramp density (ramps/mi).

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Lecture #4

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Step #1: Free flow speed

Exhibit 11-8
Adjustment to FFS for Average Lane Width

Average Lane Width (ft)	Reduction in FFS, f_{LW} (mi/h)
≥12	0.0
≥11-12	1.9
≥10-11	6.6

Exhibit 11-9
Adjustment to FFS for Right-Side Lateral Clearance, f_{LC} (mi/h)

Right-Side Lateral Clearance (ft)	Lanes in One Direction			
	2	3	4	≥5
≥6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
5	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.1
4	1.2	0.8	0.4	0.2
3	1.8	1.2	0.6	0.3
2	2.4	1.6	0.8	0.4
1	3.0	2.0	1.0	0.5
0	3.6	2.4	1.2	0.6

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Lecture #4

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Step #2: Flow rate

Exhibit 11-12
PCEs for RVs (E_v) on Upgrades

Exhibit 11-13
PCEs for Trucks and Buses (E_t) on Specific Downgrades

Upgrade (%)	Length (mi)	Proportion of RVs								
		2%	4%	5%	6%	8%	10%	15%	20%	≥25%
≤2	All	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
>2-3	0.00-0.50	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
	>0.50	3.0	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.2	1.2
>3-4	0.00-0.25	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
	>0.25-0.50	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>0.50	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.5	1.5
>4-5	0.00-0.25	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>0.25-0.50	4.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0
	>0.50	4.5	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0
>5	0.00-0.25	4.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.5
	>0.25-0.50	6.0	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.0
	>0.50	6.0	4.5	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.0

Note: Interpolation for percentage of RVs is recommended to the nearest 0.1.

Downgrade (%)	Length of Grade (mi)	Proportion of Trucks and Buses			
		5%	10%	15%	≥20%
<4	All	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
4-5	≤4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>4	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.5
>5-6	≤4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>4	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.0
>6	≤4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>4	7.5	6.0	5.5	4.5

Step #2: Flow rate

Adjustment for Driver Population

The base traffic stream characteristics for basic freeway segments are representative of traffic streams composed primarily of commuters, or drivers who are familiar with the facility. It is generally accepted that traffic streams with different characteristics (e.g., recreational drivers) use freeways less efficiently. Although data are sparse and reported results vary substantially, significantly lower capacities have been reported on weekends, particularly in recreational areas. It may generally be assumed that the reduction in capacity (LOS E) extends to service flow rates and service volumes for other LOS as well.

The adjustment factor f_p is used to reflect the effect of driver population. The values of f_p range from 0.85 to 1.00 in most cases, although lower values have been observed in isolated cases. In general, the analyst should use a value of 1.00, which reflects commuters or otherwise-accustomed drivers, unless there is sufficient evidence that a lower value should be used. Where greater accuracy is needed, comparative field studies of commuter and recreational traffic flow and speeds are recommended.

Step #3: Density and LOS

$$D = \frac{v_p}{S}$$

where

D = density (pc/mi/ln),

v_p = demand flow rate (pc/h/ln), and

S = mean speed of traffic stream under base conditions (mi/h).

LOS	Density (pc/mi/ln)
A	≤11
B	>11-18
C	>18-26
D	>26-35
E	>35-45
F	Demand exceeds capacity >45

Input data

Parameter	Domains		Corrective factor
	45-60 mi/h	70-100 km/h	
Free flow speed (FFS)	45-60 mi/h	70-100 km/h	-
Lane per direction (N)	2-3		-
Lane width (LW)	10-12 ft	3,00-3,60 m	f_{LW}
Right shoulder width (clearance)	0-6 ft	0,00-1,80 m	f_{LC}
Left shoulder width (clearance)	0-6 ft	0,00-1,80 m	
Type of median	Divided, undivided, TWLTL		f_M
Access points	0-40 ramps/mi	0-25 rampe/km	f_A
Terrain	Level-rolling-mountainous		f_{HV}
Traffic	tracks-/buses/RV		
Peak hour factor (PHF)	$\leq 1,00$		-
Drivers	0,85 - 1,00		f_p

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Lecture #4

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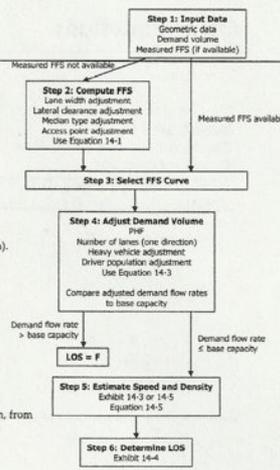
MLH LOS analysis

$$FFS = BFFS - f_{LW} - f_{LC} - f_M - f_A$$

where
 BFFS = base FFS for multilane highway segment (mi/h);
 FFS = FFS of basic freeway segment (mi/h);
 f_{LW} = adjustment for lane width, from Exhibit 14-8 (mi/h);
 f_{LC} = adjustment for TLC, from Exhibit 14-9 (mi/h);
 f_M = adjustment for median type, from Exhibit 14-10 (mi/h); and
 f_A = adjustment for access-point density, from Exhibit 14-11 (mi/h).

$$v_p = \frac{V}{PHF \times N \times f_{HV} \times f_p}$$

where
 v_p = demand flow rate under equivalent base conditions (pc/hu/ln);
 V = demand volume under prevailing conditions (veh/h);
 PHF = peak hour factor;
 N = number of lanes (one direction);
 f_{HV} = adjustment factor for presence of heavy vehicles in traffic stream, from Equation 14-4; and
 f_p = adjustment factor for atypical driver populations.



BFFS depend by the infrastructure

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Lecture #4

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Step #1: Free flow speed

Exhibit 14-8
Adjustment to FFS for Average Lane Width

Lane Width (ft)	Reduction in FFS, f_{LW} (mi/h)
≥ 12	0.0
$\geq 11-12$	1.9
$\geq 10-11$	6.6

Exhibit 14-10
Adjustment to FFS for Median Type

TWLTL = two-way left turn lanes

Median Type	Reduction in FFS, f_M (mi/h)
Undivided	1.6
TWLTL	0.0
Divided	0.0

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Lecture #4

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Step #2: Flow rate

Exhibit 14-13
PCEs for Trucks and Buses
(E) on Upgrades

Percent Upgrade	Length (mi)	Proportion of Trucks and Buses								
		2%	4%	5%	6%	8%	10%	15%	20%	25%
≤2	All	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	0.00 - 0.25	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>0.25 - 0.50	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>0.50 - 0.75	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>0.75 - 1.00	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
>2 - 3	>1.00 - 1.50	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
	>1.50	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
	0.00 - 0.25	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>0.25 - 0.50	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>0.50 - 0.75	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
>3 - 4	>0.75 - 1.00	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0
	>1.00 - 1.50	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5
	>1.50	4.0	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5
	0.00 - 0.25	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>0.25 - 0.50	2.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
>4 - 5	>0.50 - 0.75	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
	>0.75 - 1.00	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
	>1.00	5.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.0
	0.00 - 0.25	2.0	2.0	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>0.25 - 0.50	4.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
>5 - 6	>0.50 - 0.75	5.0	4.5	4.0	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
	>0.75 - 1.00	5.5	5.0	4.5	4.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
	>1.00	6.0	5.0	5.0	4.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
	0.00 - 0.25	4.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	1.0
	>0.25 - 0.50	4.5	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5
>6	>0.50 - 0.75	5.5	5.0	4.5	4.0	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
	>0.75 - 1.00	6.0	5.5	5.0	5.0	4.5	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.5
	>1.00	7.0	6.0	5.5	5.0	4.5	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
	0.00 - 0.25	4.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	1.0
	>0.25 - 0.50	4.5	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5

Note: Interpolation for percentage of trucks and buses is recommended to the nearest 0.1.

Step #2: Flow rate

Exhibit 14-14
PCEs for RVs (F) on
Upgrades

Percent Upgrade	Length (mi)	Proportion of RVs								
		2%	4%	5%	6%	8%	10%	15%	20%	25%
≤2	All	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
	0.00 - 0.50	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
	>0.50	3.0	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.2	1.2
>2 - 3	0.00 - 0.25	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
	>0.25 - 0.50	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>0.50	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.5	1.5
>3 - 4	0.00 - 0.25	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>0.25 - 0.50	4.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0
	>0.50	4.5	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0
>4 - 5	0.00 - 0.25	4.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.5
	>0.25 - 0.50	6.0	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.0
	>0.50	6.0	4.5	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.0
>5	0.00 - 0.25	4.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.5
	>0.25 - 0.50	6.0	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.0
	>0.50	6.0	4.5	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.0

Note: Interpolation for percentage of RVs is recommended to the nearest 0.1.

Exhibit 14-15
PCEs for Trucks and Buses (E) on
Specific Downgrades

Percent Downgrade	Length of Grade (mi)	Proportion of Trucks and Buses			
		5%	10%	15%	20%
<4	All	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
4 - 5	≤4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>4	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.5
>5 - 6	≤4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>4	5.5	4.0	4.0	3.0
>6	≤4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
	>4	7.5	6.0	5.5	4.5

Step #3: Density and Level of Service

$$D = \frac{v_p}{S}$$

where

D = density (pc/mi/ln),

v_p = demand flow rate (pc/h/ln), and

S = mean speed of traffic stream under base conditions (mi/h).

LOS	FFS (mi/h)	Density (pc/mi/ln)
A	All	>0-11
B	All	>11-18
C	All	>18-26
D	All	>26-35
E	60	>35-40
	55	>35-41
	50	>35-43
	45	>35-45
Demand Exceeds Capacity		
F	60	>40
	55	>41
	50	>43
	45	>45



A.Y. 2014 - '15
Master of Science in Civil Engineering

Design of Transportation Infrastructures
prof. Marco Bassani

Lecture #5 (Tutorial)

Reference: Roess, R.P., Prassas, E.S., McShane, W.R. (2011). *Traffic Engineering*. Pearson ed.

1) Example 14-1: An Urban Freeway

An old 6-lane urban freeway has the following characteristics: 11-foot lanes; frequent roadside obstructions located 2 feet from the right pavement edge; and a total ramp density of 3 ramps/mile. What is the free-flow speed of this freeway?

Solution: The free-flow speed of a freeway may be estimated using Equation 12-5:

$$FFS = 75.4 - f_{LW} - f_{LC} - 3.22TRD^{0.84}$$

The following values are used in this computation:

$$f_{LW} = 1.9 \text{ mi/h (Table 14.5, 11-ft lanes)}$$

$$f_{LC} = 1.6 \text{ mi/h (Table 14.6, 2-ft lateral clearance, 3 lanes)}$$

$$TRD = 3 \text{ ramps/mi}$$

Then:

$$FFS = 75.4 - 1.9 - 1.6 - 3.22(3^{0.84}) = 75.4 - 11.6 = 63.8 \text{ mi/h}$$

2) Example 14-2: A Four-Lane Suburban Multilane Highway

A four-lane undivided multilane highway in a suburban area has the following characteristics: posted speed limit = 50 mi/h; 11-foot lanes; frequent obstructions located 4 feet from the right pavement edge; 30 access points/mi on the right side of the facility. What is the free-flow speed for the direction described?

Solution: The free-flow speed for a multilane highway is computed using Equation 14-6:

$$FFS = BFFS - f_{LW} - f_{LC} - f_M - f_A$$

The base free-flow speed for a multilane highway may be taken as 60 mi/h as a default or may be related to the posted speed limit. In the latter case, for a posted speed limit of 50 mi/h, the base free-flow speed may be taken to be 5 mi/h more than the limit, or $50 + 5 = 55$ mi/h. This is the value that will be used.

Adjustments to the base free-flow speed are as follows:

$$f_{LW} = 1.9 \text{ mi/h (Table 14.5, 11-ft lanes)}$$

$$f_{LC} = 0.4 \text{ mi/h (Table 14.7, total lateral clearance = 10 ft, 4-lane highway)}$$

$$f_M = 1.6 \text{ mi/h (Table 14.8, undivided highway)}$$

$$f_A = 7.5 \text{ mi/h (Table 14.9, 30 access points/mi)}$$

Then:

$$FFS = 55.0 - 1.9 - 0.4 - 1.6 - 7.5 = 43.6 \text{ mi/h}$$

Note that in selecting the adjustment for lateral clearance, the total lateral clearance is 4 feet (for the right side) plus an assumed value of 6.0 feet (for the left or median side) of an undivided highway.

3) Example 14-3: Determination and Use of the Heavy-Vehicle Adjustment Factor

Consider the following situation: A volume of 2,500 veh/h traverses a section of freeway and contains 15% trucks and 5% RVs. The section in question is on a 5% upgrade, 0.75 miles in length. What is the equivalent volume in passenger-car equivalents?

Solution: The solution is started by finding the passenger car equivalent of trucks and RVs on the freeway section described (5% upgrade, 0.75 miles). These are found in Tables 14.12 and 14.13, respectively:

$$E_T = 2.5 \text{ (Table 14.12, 15% trucks, } >4\text{-}\% \text{, } >0.50\text{-}0.75 \text{ mi)}$$

$$E_R = 3.0 \text{ (Table 14.13, 5% RV's, } >4\text{-}\% \text{, } >0.50 \text{ mi)}$$

In entering values from these tables, care must be taken to observe the boundary conditions.

The heavy-vehicle adjustment factor may now be computed as:

$$f_{HV} = \frac{1}{1 + 0.15(2.5 - 1) + 0.05(3.0 - 1)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1.325} = 0.7547$$

and the passenger-car equivalent volume may be estimated as:

$$V_{pce} = \frac{V_{vph}}{f_{HV}} = \frac{2,500}{0.7547} = 3,313 \text{ pc/h}$$

The solution can also be found by applying the passenger-car equivalents directly:

$$\text{Truck pces: } 2,500 * 0.15 * 2.5 = 938$$

$$\text{RV pces: } 2,500 * 0.05 * 3.0 = 375$$

$$\text{Pass Cars: } 2,500 * 0.80 * 1.0 = 2,000$$

$$\text{TOTAL pces: } 3,313$$

Table 14.15: Spreadsheet Computation of Service Flow Rates and Service Volumes

Level of Service	MSF (pc/h/ln)	N	f_{HV}	f_p	SF (veh/h)	PHF	SV (veh/h)
A	770	3	0.863	1.000	1,994	0.92	1,834
B	1,250	3	0.863	1.000	3,236	0.92	2,977
C	1,690	3	0.863	1.000	4,375	0.92	4,301
D	2,080	3	0.863	1.000	5,385	0.92	4,954
E	2,400	3	0.863	1.000	6,214	0.92	5,617

Step 2: Determine the Maximum Service Flow Rates for Each Level of Service Maximum service flow (MSF) rates for each level of service are drawn from Table 14.3 for a freeway with a 70-mi/h free-flow speed. These values are A: 770 pc/h/ln, B: 1,250 pc/h/ln, C: 1,690 pc/h/ln, D: 2,080 pc/h/ln, and E: 2,400 pc/h/ln.

Step 3: Determine the Heavy-Vehicle Factor The heavy-vehicle factor is computed as:

$$f_{HV} = \frac{1}{1 + P_T(E_T - 1) + P_R(E_R - 1)}$$

where: $P_T = 0.08$ (given)

$P_R = 0.00$ (given)

$E_T = 2.5$ (Exhibit 14-11, rolling terrain)

Then:

$$f_{HV} = \frac{1}{1 + 0.08(2.5 - 1)} = \frac{1}{1.12} = 0.893$$

Step 4: Determine the Service Flow Rates and Service Volumes for Each Level of Service Service flow rates and service volumes are computed using Equations 14-2 and 14-3:

$$SF_i = MSF_i * N * f_{HV} * f_p$$

$$SV_i = SF_i * PHF$$

where: MSF_i = as determined in Step 2

$N = 3$ (given)

$f_{HV} = 0.893$ (as computed in Step 3)

$f_p = 1.00$ (regular users)

$PHF = 0.92$ (given)

These computations are shown in Table 14.15.

The service flow rates (SF) refer to the peak 15-minute interval; service volumes apply to peak-hour volumes.

Step 5: Determine Target-Year Peak-Demand Volumes The problem statement indicates that present demand is 3,600 veh/h and that this volume will increase by 6% per year

for the foreseeable future. Future demand volumes may be computed as:

$$V_j = V_0(1.06^n)$$

where: V_j = peak-hour demand volume in target year j

V_0 = peak-hour demand volume in year 0, 3,600 veh/h

N = number of years to target year

Then:

$$V_0 = 3,600 \text{ veh/h}$$

$$V_5 = 3,600(1.06^5) = 4,818 \text{ veh/h}$$

$$V_{10} = 3,600(1.06^{10}) = 6,447 \text{ veh/h}$$

$$V_{15} = 3,600(1.06^{15}) = 8,628 \text{ veh/h}$$

$$V_{20} = 3,600(1.06^{20}) = 11,546 \text{ veh/h}$$

Step 6: Determine Target Year Levels of Service The target year demand volumes are stated as full peak-hour volumes. They are, therefore, compared to the service volumes computed in Table 14.15 to determine LOS. The results are shown in Table 14.16.

As indicated in Table 14.16, level of service F prevails in target years 10, 15, and 20. In each of these years, demand exceeds capacity. Clearly, the point at which capacity is reached occurs between years 5 and 10. Capacity, stated in terms of a full peak hour, is 5,617 veh/h (Table 14.15). The exact year that demand reaches capacity may be found as follows:

$$5617 = 3600(1.06^n)$$

$$n = 7.63$$

Table 14.16: Levels of Service for Sample Problem

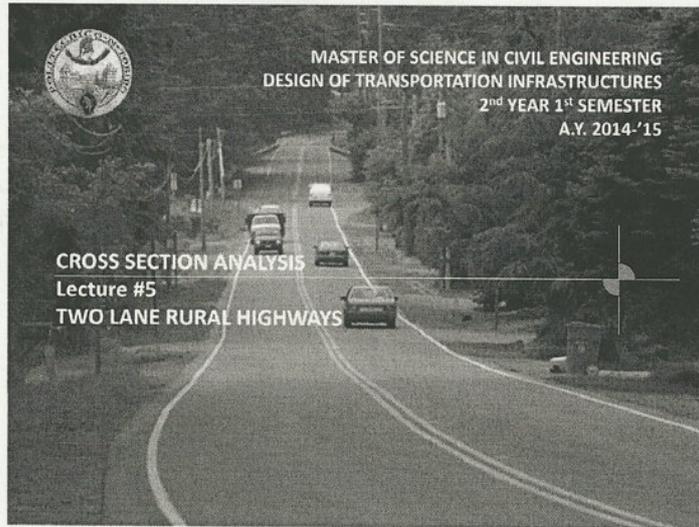
Target Year	Demand Volume (veh/h)	Level of Service
0	3,600	C
5	4,818	D
10	6,447	F
15	8,628	F
20	11,546	F

Analysis The results of this analysis indicate that demand will reach the capacity of the freeway in 7.63 years. If no action is taken, users can expect regular breakdowns during the peak hour in this freeway section. To avoid this situation, action must be taken to either reduce demand and/or increase the capacity of the section.

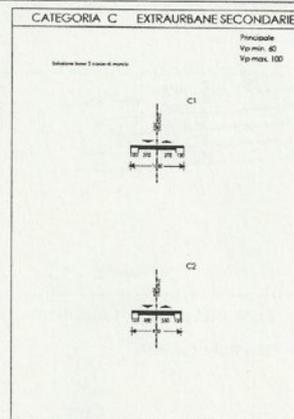
Increasing the capacity of the section suggests adding a lane. Computations would be redone using a four-lane, one-direction cross section to see whether sufficient capacity was added to handle the 20-year demand forecast. Reduction in demand is more difficult and would involve intensive study of the nature of demand on the freeway section in question. Reduction would require diversion of users to alternative routes or alternative modes, encouraging users to travel at different times or to different destinations, encouraging car-pooling and other actions to increase auto occupancy. Given the constraints of capacity on the current cross section, it is also unlikely that

demand would grow to the levels indicated in later years because queuing and congestion would reach intolerable levels. In Year 20, the projected demand of 11,546 veh/h is more than twice the capacity of the current cross section.

As is the case in many uses of the HCM, this analysis identifies and gives insight into a problem. It does not definitively provide a solution—unless engineers are prepared to more than double the current capacity of the facility or modify alternative routes to provide the additional capacity needed. Even these options involve judgments. Capacity and level-of-service analyses of the various alternatives would provide additional information on which to base those judgments, but would not, taken alone, dictate any particular course of action. Economic, social, and environmental issues would obviously also have to be considered as part of the overall process of finding a remedy to the forecasted problem.



Two-lane rural highways



According to the Italian standard, such road typology has a fixed composition:

	LIVELLO DI SERVIZIO	Portata di servizio per corsia (autoveic. equiv./ora)
C1	C (1 corsia)	600 (e)
C2	C (1 corsia)	600 (e)

205 not lower than C

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Lecture #5

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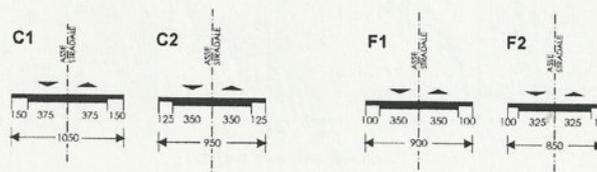
Rural highways

HCM considers three types of two lane rural highways:

- **Class 1:** high speed rural highways (cat.C1) with grade-separated intersections → *staggered level (livelli sfalsati)*
- **Class 2:** rural highways (cat.C1 and C2) with at-grade intersections *two roads at the same level*
- **Class 3:** local rural highways (cat.F1 e F2) with at-grade intersections

→ in this class high speed maintained for a long time.

different width of embankment and shoulder.



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Lecture #5

3

Fixed composition of this kind of road, you cannot insert a new lane so you don't design but you can only performing LOS analysis.

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LOS for two-lanes rural highways

ATS = average travel speed
 PTSF = percent-time spent following
 PFFS = percent of free-flow speed

LOS	Class I Highways		Class II Highways	Class III Highways
	ATS (mi/h)	PTSF (%)	PTSF (%)	PFFS (%)
A	>55	≤35	≤40	>91.7
B	>50-55	>35-50	>40-55	>83.3-91.7
C	>45-50	>50-65	>55-70	>75.0-83.3
D	>40-45	>65-80	>70-85	>66.7-75.0
E	≤40	>80	>85	≤66.7

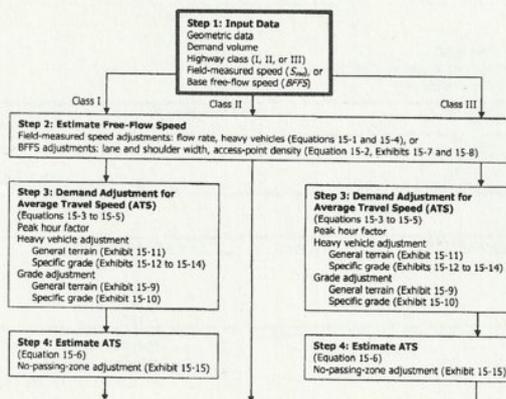
↑
 ↳ class II and I
 This column is also used to calculate Class I and Class III level of service

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Lecture #5

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Rural highways



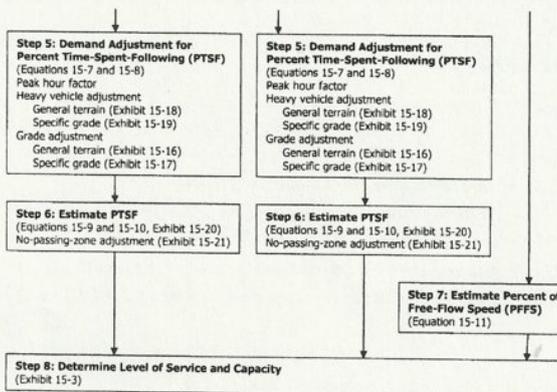
ATS: it is referred by space and time, both!
 Because we consider one section and the average speed and time to do this specific segment.

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Lecture #5

8

Rural highways



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Lecture #5

9

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Step #3. Demand flow rate evaluation

Exhibit 15-9
ATS Grade Adjustment Factor
($f_{g,ATS}$) for Level Terrain, Rolling
Terrain, and Specific Downgrades

One-Direction Demand Flow Rate, V_{ph} (veh/h)	Adjustment Factor	
	Level Terrain and Specific Downgrades	Rolling Terrain
≤100	1.00	0.67
200	1.00	0.75
300	1.00	0.83
400	1.00	0.90
500	1.00	0.95
600	1.00	0.97
700	1.00	0.98
800	1.00	0.99
≥900	1.00	1.00

Note: Interpolation to the nearest 0.01 is recommended.

I do an hypothesis for the demand value (if I don't know it). I take coefficient in the table and I see if my hypothesis was true. If not I check another value and I repeat the operations. It is an iterative calculation.

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Step #3. Demand flow rate evaluation

$$f_{HV,ATS} = \frac{1}{1 + P_T(E_T - 1) + P_R(E_R - 1)}$$

where

$f_{HV,ATS}$ = heavy vehicle adjustment factor for ATS estimation,

P_T = proportion of trucks in the traffic stream (decimal),

P_R = proportion of RVs in the traffic stream (decimal),

E_T = passenger car equivalent for trucks from Exhibit 15-11 or Exhibit 15-12, and

E_R = passenger car equivalent for RVs from Exhibit 15-11 or Exhibit 15-13.

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Step #3. Demand flow rate evaluation

Exhibit 15-11
ATS Passenger Car
Equivalents for Trucks (E_T)
and RVs (E_R) for Level
Terrain, Rolling Terrain, and
Specific Downgrades

Vehicle Type	Directional Demand Flow Rate, V_{ph} (veh/h)	Level Terrain and Specific Downgrades	
		Level Terrain and Specific Downgrades	Rolling Terrain
Trucks, E_T	≤100	1.9	2.7
	200	1.5	2.3
	300	1.4	2.1
	400	1.3	2.0
	500	1.2	1.8
	600	1.1	1.7
	700	1.1	1.6
	800	1.1	1.4
	≥900	1.0	1.3
RVs, E_R	All flows	1.0	1.1

Note: Interpolation to the nearest 0.1 is recommended.

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Step #4. ATS evaluation - $f_{np,ATS}$

Exhibit 15-15
ATS Adjustment Factor for No-Passing Zones ($f_{np,ATS}$)

Opposing Demand Flow Rate, v_d (pc/h)	Percent No-Passing Zones			
	≤ 20	30	40	100
PPS ≤ 65 mi/h				
≤100	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.6
200	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.8
400	3.6	3.7	4.0	4.5
600	4.4	4.5	4.8	5.5
800	5.7	5.8	6.2	7.0
1,000	6.6	6.8	7.2	8.0
1,200	7.5	7.7	8.1	9.0
1,400	8.4	8.6	9.0	10.0
≥1,600	9.3	9.5	10.0	11.0
PPS = 65 mi/h				
≤100	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.9
200	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.7
400	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.7
600	3.0	3.0	3.2	3.6
800	3.8	3.8	4.0	4.5
1,000	4.6	4.6	4.8	5.5
1,200	5.4	5.4	5.7	6.4
1,400	6.2	6.2	6.5	7.4
≥1,600	7.0	7.0	7.4	8.3
PPS = 55 mi/h				
≤100	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7
200	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.2
400	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8
600	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.4
800	2.5	2.5	2.6	3.0
1,000	3.0	3.0	3.1	3.6
1,200	3.5	3.5	3.6	4.2
1,400	4.0	4.0	4.1	4.8
≥1,600	4.5	4.5	4.6	5.4
PPS = 45 mi/h				
≤100	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5
200	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8
400	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.1
600	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.5
800	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.8
1,000	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.2
1,200	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.6
1,400	2.4	2.4	2.5	3.0
≥1,600	2.7	2.7	2.8	3.3

Note: Interpolation of $f_{np,ATS}$ for percent no-passing zones, demand flow rate, and PPS to the nearest 0.1 is recommended.

Step #5. PTSF - demand flow rate evaluation

$$v_{i,PTSF} = \frac{V_i}{PHF \times f_{R,PTSF} \times f_{HV,PTSF}}$$

$$f_{HV,PTSF} = \frac{1}{1 + P_T(E_T - 1) + P_R(E_R - 1)}$$

where

- $v_{i,PTSF}$ = demand flow rate i for determination of PTSF (pc/h);
- i = "d" (analysis direction) or "o" (opposing direction);
- $f_{R,PTSF}$ = grade adjustment factor for PTSF determination, from Exhibit 15-16 or Exhibit 15-17; and
- $f_{HV,PTSF}$ = heavy vehicle adjustment factor for PTSF determination, from Exhibit 15-18 or Exhibit 15-19.

Step #5. PTSF - demand flow rate evaluation

Exhibit 15-16
PTSF Grade Adjustment Factor ($f_{R,PTSF}$) for Level Terrain, Rolling Terrain, and Specific Downgrades

Directional Demand Flow Rate, v_{dpt} (veh/h)	Level Terrain and Specific Downgrades		Rolling Terrain
	≤100	1.00	
200	1.00		0.80
300	1.00		0.85
400	1.00		0.90
500	1.00		0.96
600	1.00		0.97
700	1.00		0.99
800	1.00		1.00
≥900	1.00		1.00

Note: Interpolation to the nearest 0.01 is recommended.

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Step #6. PTSF - demand flow rate evaluation

$$BPTSF_d = 100[1 - \exp(av_d^b)]$$

Exhibit 15-20
PTSF Coefficients for Use in
Equation 15-10 for
Estimating BPTSF

Opposing Demand Flow Rate, v_o (pc/h)	Coefficient a	Coefficient b
≤200	-0.0014	0.973
400	-0.0022	0.923
600	-0.0033	0.870
800	-0.0045	0.833
1,000	-0.0049	0.829
1,200	-0.0054	0.825
1,400	-0.0058	0.821
≥1,600	-0.0062	0.817

Note: Straight-line interpolation of a to the nearest 0.0001 and b to the nearest 0.001 is recommended.

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Step #6. PTSF evaluation - $f_{np,PTSF}$

Exhibit 15-21
No-Passing-Zone Adjustment Factor ($f_{np,PTSF}$) for Determination of PTSF

Total Two-Way Flow Rate, $v = v_o + v_s$ (pc/h)	Percent No-Passing Zones					
	0	20	40	60	80	100
Directional Split = 50/50						
≤200	9.0	29.2	43.4	49.4	51.0	52.8
400	16.2	41.0	54.2	61.6	63.8	65.8
600	15.8	38.2	47.8	53.2	55.2	56.8
800	15.8	22.8	40.4	44.0	44.8	46.6
1,000	12.8	20.0	23.8	26.2	27.4	28.6
1,200	10.0	13.6	15.8	17.4	18.2	18.8
1,400	5.5	7.7	8.7	9.5	10.1	10.3
1,600	3.3	4.7	5.1	5.5	5.7	6.1
Directional Split = 60/40						
≤200	11.0	30.6	43.0	51.2	52.3	53.3
400	14.6	36.1	44.8	53.4	55.0	56.3
600	14.8	36.9	44.0	51.1	52.8	54.6
800	13.6	28.2	33.4	38.6	39.9	41.3
1,000	11.8	18.9	22.1	25.4	26.4	27.3
1,200	9.1	13.5	15.6	16.0	16.8	17.3
1,400	5.9	7.7	8.6	9.6	10.0	10.2
Directional Split = 70/30						
≤200	9.9	28.1	38.0	47.8	48.5	49.0
400	10.6	20.3	38.6	46.7	47.7	48.8
600	10.9	30.9	37.5	43.9	45.4	47.0
800	10.3	23.6	28.4	33.3	34.5	35.5
1,000	8.0	14.6	17.7	20.8	21.6	22.3
1,200	7.3	9.7	11.7	13.3	14.0	14.5
Directional Split = 80/20						
≤200	8.5	27.1	37.1	47.0	47.4	47.8
400	6.6	26.1	34.5	42.7	43.5	44.1
600	4.0	24.5	31.3	38.1	39.1	40.0
800	3.8	18.5	23.5	28.4	29.1	29.9
1,000	3.5	10.3	13.3	16.3	16.9	17.2
1,200	3.2	7.0	8.5	10.1	10.4	10.7
Directional Split = 90/10						
≤200	4.5	24.1	33.6	43.1	43.4	43.6
400	0.0	20.2	28.3	36.3	36.7	37.0
600	-3.1	16.8	23.5	30.1	30.6	31.1
800	-2.8	10.5	15.2	19.9	20.3	20.8
1,000	-1.2	5.5	8.3	11.0	11.5	11.9

Note: Straight-line interpolation of $f_{np,PTSF}$ for percent no-passing zones, demand flow rate, and directional split is recommended to the nearest 0.1.

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Step #7. PFFS and capacity evaluation

$$PFFS = \frac{ATS_d}{FFS}$$

$$C_{dATS} = 1,700 f_{s,ATS} f_{HV,ATS}$$

$$C_{dPTSF} = 1,700 f_{s,PTSF} f_{HV,PTSF}$$

where

C_{dATS} = capacity in the analysis direction under prevailing conditions based on ATS (pc/h), and

C_{dPTSF} = capacity in the analysis direction under prevailing conditions based on PTSF (pc/h).

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A.Y. 2014 - '15
Master of Science in Civil Engineering

Design of Transportation Infrastructures
prof. Marco Bassani

Lecture #5 (Tutorial)

Reference textbook: Roess, R.P., Prassas, E.S., McShane, W.R. (2011). *Traffic Engineering*. Pearson ed.

16.5.1 Analysis of a Class I Rural Two-Lane Highway in Rolling Terrain

A Class I two-lane highway in rolling terrain has a peak demand volume of 500 veh/h, with 15% trucks and 5% RVs. The highway serves as a main link to a popular recreation area. The directional split of traffic is 60-40 during peak periods, and the peak-hour factor is 0.88. The 10-mile section under study has 40% "No Passing" zones. The base free-flow speed of the facility may be taken to be 60 mi/h. Lane widths are 12 feet, and shoulder widths are 2 feet. There are 10 access points per mile along this 10-mile section.

Step 1: Estimate the Free-Flow Speed. The free-flow speed (FFS) is estimated from the base free-flow speed (BFFS) and applicable adjustment factors f_{LS} (Table 16.5) and f_A (Table 16.6). Then:

$$FFS = BFFS - f_{LS} - f_A$$

$$FFS = 60.0 - 2.6 - 2.5 = 54.9 \text{ mi/h}$$

where $f_{LS} = 2.6$ (for 12-foot lanes and 2-foot shoulders) and $f_A = 2.5$ (for 10 access points per mile)

Step 2: Compute the Directional Demand Flow Rates for ATS and PTSF Determinations Because each direction of the two-lane highway must be separately analyzed, it is necessary that the demand of 500 veh/h be separated by direction. Note that the two directional analyses may be done concurrently because the directional demand in one case is the opposing demand in the other. Given the specified 60-40 split:

$$V_1 = 500 * 0.60 = 300 \text{ veh/h}$$

$$V_2 = 500 * 0.40 = 200 \text{ veh/h}$$

Both of these values have to be converted to base passenger-car flow rates.

Four demand flows will be computed. Both the directional and opposing volumes must be separately converted for ATS determination and for PTSF determination. The initial selection of adjustment factors would be based on flow rates, which are found using the demand volume

and the peak hour factor: $v_1 = 300/0.88 = 341 \text{ veh/h}$ and $v_2 = 200/0.88 = 227 \text{ veh/h}$. Interpolation for the grade factor to the nearest 0.01 and passenger car equivalents to the nearest 0.1 is required. Table 16.18 summarizes the results of these determinations.

Using these values, the following heavy vehicle factors are computed:

$$f_{HV} = \frac{1}{1 + P_T(E_T - 1) + P_R(E_R - 1)}$$

$$f_{HV1}(ATS) = \frac{1}{1 + 0.15(2.1 - 1) + 0.05(1.1 - 1)}$$

$$= 0.85$$

$$f_{HV1}(PTSF) = \frac{1}{1 + 0.15(1.7 - 1) + 0.05(1.0 - 1)}$$

$$= 0.90$$

$$f_{HV2}(ATS) = \frac{1}{1 + 0.15(2.3 - 1) + 0.05(1.1 - 1)}$$

$$= 0.83$$

$$f_{HV2}(PTSF) = \frac{1}{1 + 0.15(1.8 - 1) + 0.05(1.0 - 1)}$$

$$= 0.89$$

Then:

$$v = \frac{V}{PHF * f_G * f_{HV}}$$

$$v_1(ATS) = \frac{341}{0.88 * 0.86 * 0.85} = 530 \text{ pc/h}$$

$$v_1(PTSF) = \frac{341}{0.88 * 0.87 * 0.90} = 495 \text{ pc/h}$$

$$v_2(ATS) = \frac{227}{0.88 * 0.77 * 0.83} = 404 \text{ pc/h}$$

$$v_2(PTSF) = \frac{227}{0.88 * 0.81 * 0.89} = 358 \text{ pc/h}$$

As the upgrade and downgrade are analyzed, these will serve as directional and opposing volumes.

Base passenger-car equivalent demand flows are computed as:

$$v = \frac{V}{PHF * f_G * f_{HV}}$$

Selecting values of f_G , E_T and E_R from the appropriate tables for PTSF determination results in the values shown in Table 16.19. All tables are entered with the flow rate: $v_{up} = 175/0.82 = 213$ veh/h; $v_{dn} = 75/0.82 = 91$ veh/h. Note that the fact that 20% of trucks travel at crawl speeds on the downgrade is not relevant to the prediction of PTSF, and so this information is not used here.

Then:

$$f_{HV} (up) = \frac{1}{1 + 0.20(1.3 - 1) + 0.05(1 - 1)} = 0.943$$

$$f_{HV} (dn) = \frac{1}{1 + 0.20(1.1 - 1) + 0.05(1 - 1)} = 0.980$$

And:

$$v_{up} = \frac{175}{0.82 * 1.00 * 0.943} = 226 \text{ pc/h}$$

$$v_{down} = \frac{75}{0.82 * 1.00 * 0.980} = 93 \text{ pc/h}$$

Step 2: Estimate the PTSF for the Specific Upgrade and Specific Downgrade The percent time spent following is estimated as:

$$PTSF_d = BPTSF_d + f_{npp} \left(\frac{V_d}{V_d + V_o} \right)$$

$$BPTSF_d = 100 [1 - \exp(-av_d^b)]$$

where:

$$f_{npp} (\text{up and down}) = 48.9\% \text{ (Table 16.16, 100\% "No Passing" zones, 70/30 split, and } v = 226 + 93 = 319 \text{ pc/h, interpolated)}$$

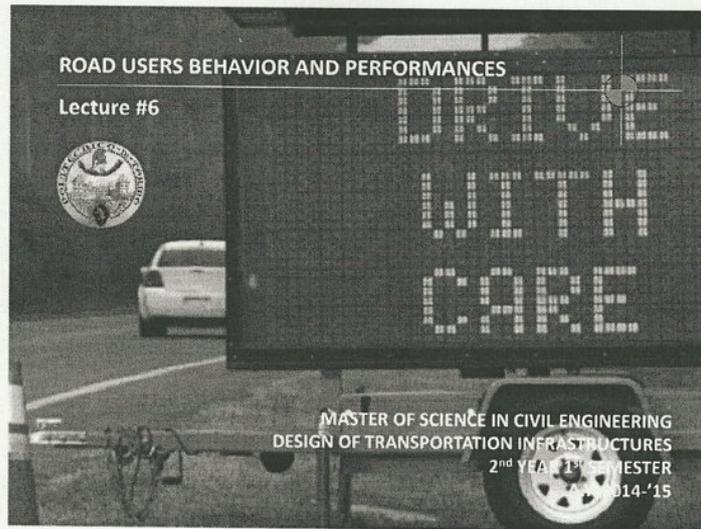
16.5.2 Single-Direction Analysis of a Specific Grade

A Class II two-lane highway serving a rural logging area has a 1-mile grade of 4%. Peak demand on the grade is 250 veh/h, with a 70-30 directional split and a PHF of 0.82. Because of active logging operations in the area, demand contains 20% trucks. There are also 5% RVs using the facility. The grade has 100% "No Passing" zones. The free-flow speed of the facility has been measured to be 45 mi/h. Twenty percent of all trucks operate at a crawl speed that is 20 mi/h lower than other vehicles on the downgrade. At what LOS does the facility operate, assuming that 70% of the traffic is on the upgrade?

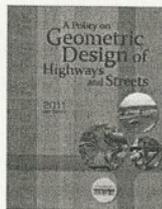
Step 1: Compute Demand Flow Rates for PTSF Determination Both the upgrade and downgrade must be analyzed in this case. Because this is a Class II facility, however, PTSF is the only parameter that need be established. It is necessary to divide the demand volume into the upgrade volume, V_u ($250 * 0.70 = 175$ veh/h), and downgrade volume, V_d ($250 * 0.30 = 75$ veh/h).

Table 16.19: Critical Values for Demand Flow Rate Computation

Direction	f_G	E_T	E_R
Upgrade	1.00 (Table 16.9)	1.3 (Table 16.13)	1.0 (Table 16.13)
Downgrade	1.00 (Table 16.7)	1.1 (Table 16.10)	1.0 (Table 16.10)



References



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Road users

Roadway design is affected by several variables. Road users characteristics and performances are fundamental in the analysis and design of road geometrics.

Who are the road users?

- Drivers.** Some related topics:
- Driving tasks
 - Attention and information processing
 - Vision
 - Perception-reaction time
 - Speed choice

→ they are the aggressive element into the road network

... and **Vulnerable Road Users** (i.e., bikers and pedestrians) whose performance in terms of speed choice and occupancy are discussed herein.

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Driver's attention and information processing ability

Consequently, drivers have a limited information processing capacity while driving, thus they subconsciously determine acceptable information loads that they can manage.

When the acceptable incoming information load is exceeded, they tend to neglect other information based on level of importance, and error is possible during this process.

neglect: trascurare



accident = general terms
crash = phisic contact between two bodies

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Driver's expectation

One way to accommodate for human information processing limitations is to design roadway environments in accordance with driver expectations.

When drivers can rely on **past experience** to assist with control, guidance, or navigation tasks there is less to process because they only need to process new information.

Drivers develop **long-** and **short-term expectancies**.

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Driver's expectation

Examples of **long-term expectancies** that an unfamiliar driver will bring to a new section of roadway include:

- upcoming freeway exits will be on the right-hand side of the road;
- when a minor and a major road cross, the stop control will be on the road that appears to be the minor road;
- when approaching an intersection, drivers must be in the left lane to make a left turn at the cross street; and,
- a continuous through lane (on a freeway or arterial) will not end at an interchange or intersection junction.

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Driver's vision

Approximately 90 percent of the information that drivers use is visual.

While visual acuity is the most familiar aspect of vision related to driving, numerous other aspects are equally important. The following aspects of driver vision are described in this section:

- **Visual Acuity** – the ability to see details at a distance;
- **Contrast Sensitivity** – the ability to detect slight differences in luminance (brightness of light) between an object and its background;
- **Peripheral Vision** – the ability to detect objects that are outside of the area of most accurate vision within the eye;
- **Movement in Depth** – the ability to estimate the speed of another vehicle by the rate of change of visual angle of the vehicle created at the eye ; and,
- **Visual Search** – the ability to search the rapidly changing road scene to collect road information.

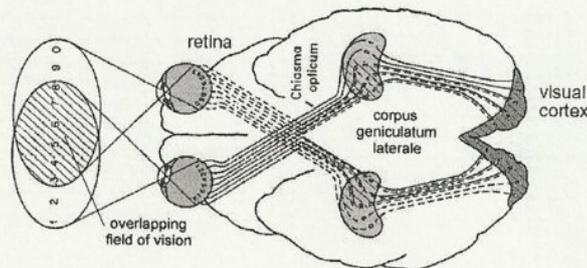
But not only vision:
 - noises (rumori)
 - perception (tatto)

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Human vision



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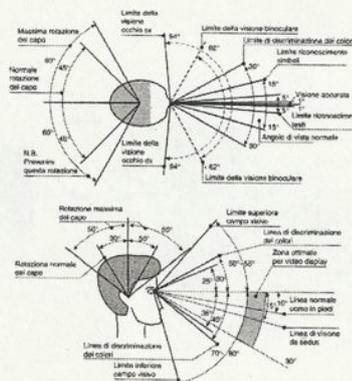
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Human vision

The visual field of human eyes is large approximately:

- 55 degrees above the horizontal,
- 70 degrees below the horizontal,
- 90 degrees to the left, and
- 90 degrees to the right.



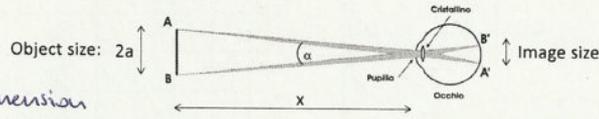
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Driver's field of view at increasing speed

The primary cue that drivers use to determine their closing speed to another vehicle is the rate of change of the image size.



object size = real dimension
 image size = perception dimension

$$\alpha = \frac{2a}{x}$$

$$\dot{\alpha} = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{2a}{x} \right) = -\frac{2a}{x^2} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} = -\frac{2a \cdot v}{x^2}$$

$$a = -\frac{\dot{\alpha}}{2v} x^2$$

I derive for see how angle α change in time in function of the speed.
 Variation about square distance so it is the motivation difficult to estimate the speed of the vehicle that I'm looking.

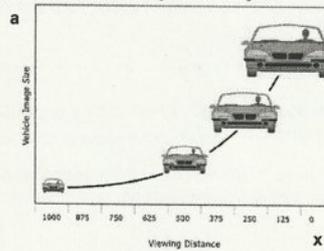
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Driver's field of view at increasing speed

The figure illustrates the relative change of the size of an image at different distances from a viewer. The relationship between viewing distance (x) and image size (2a) is not a linear relationship.

The fact that it is a non-linear relationship is likely the source of the difficulty drivers have in making accurate estimates of closing speed.

Exhibit 2-5: Relationship Between Viewing Distance and Image Size



It's hard to understand relative speed to a car on the road.

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Perception-reaction time

Perception-reaction time (PRT) includes time to detect a target, process the information, decide on a response, and initiate a reaction.

Values such as 1.5 or 2.5 s accommodates the vast percentage of drivers in most situations.

But PRT is not fixed.

PRT depends on human elements discussed in previous sections, including information processing, driver alertness, driver expectations, and vision.

Also include all the hysteric component of brake to give effectively in function.

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Driver's speed choice – peripheral vision



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Driver's speed choice – noise and adaptation

Noise level is also an important cue for speed choice. Several studies examined how removing noise cues influenced travel speed. While drivers' ears were covered (with ear muffs) they were asked to travel at a particular speed.

All drivers underestimated how fast they were going and drove 4 to 6 mph faster than when the usual sound cues were present.

With respect to lowering speeds, it has been counter-productive to progressively quiet the ride in cars and to provide smoother pavements.

Another aspect of speed choice is **speed adaptation**. This is the experience of leaving a freeway after a long period of driving and having difficulty conforming to the speed limit on an arterial road.

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Driver's speed choice – road and env. effects

Drivers may interpret the roadway environment as a whole to encourage fast or slow speeds depending on the effects of the geometry, terrain, or other roadway elements.

Even though drivers may not have all the information for correctly assessing a safe speed, they respond to what they can see.

Drivers tend to drive faster on a straight road with several lanes, wide shoulders, and a wide clear zone, than drivers on a narrow, winding road with no shoulders or a cliff on the side.

For example, speeds on rural highway tangents are related to cross-section and other variables, such as the radius of the curve before and after the tangent, available sight distance, and general terrain.

Where drivers perceived the accident risk to be greater (e.g., sharp curves, limited sight distance), they reduced their travel speed.

Low perception of risk, increase aggressive drive.

Clear zone = without other roads.

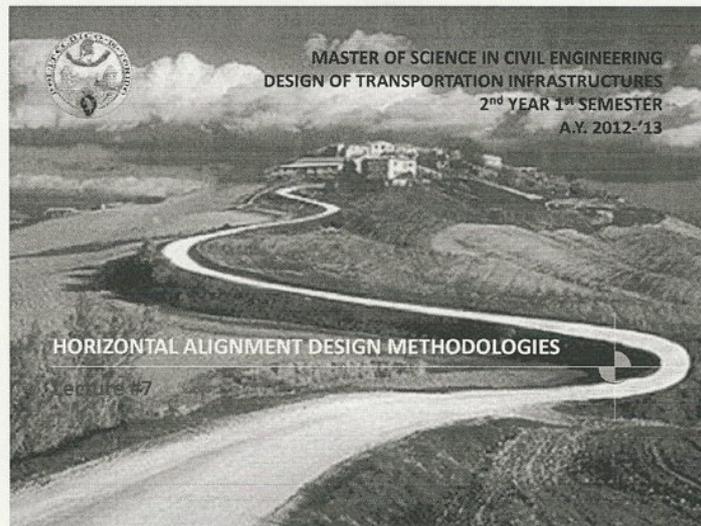
Sharp → strette

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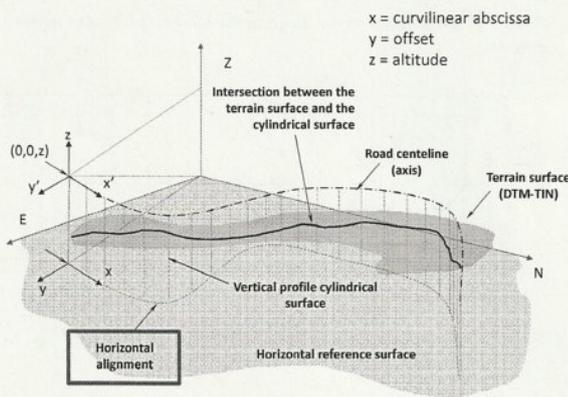
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Horizontal and vertical alignment design

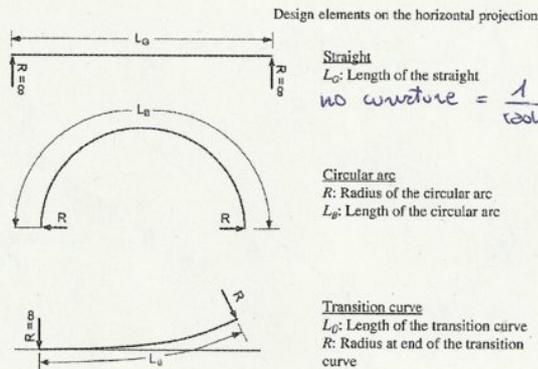


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Lecture #7

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Elements for the horizontal alignment design



Straight
 L_0 : Length of the straight
 no curvature = $\frac{1}{\text{radius}}$ (infinite radius)

Circular arc
 R : Radius of the circular arc
 L_0 : Length of the circular arc

Transition curve
 L_0 : Length of the transition curve
 R : Radius at end of the transition curve

there are many transition curve (ex sinusoidal) it's a way to change the radius.

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Lecture #7

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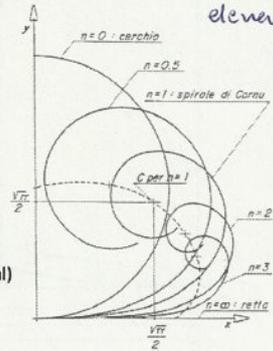
Transitions

Parametric equation of spirals: $r \cdot s^n = A^{n+1}$

govern the dimension of curve.

where:
 A = scale factor
 n = shape factor
 s = curvilinear abscissa
 R = radius of the osculating circle

- n = -1, r = s spiral
- n = 0, r = A circle
- n = 1, r s = A² clothoid (Cornu's spiral)
- n ≥ 2, r sⁿ = Aⁿ⁺¹ iper-clothoids
- n = ∞, r = ∞ straight line



→ general equations we can represent all the element in road projection. (tangent, clothoid, circular arcs).

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R: circle that have the same curvature of the local circle point to point. Approximate an infinitesimal element of curve. They are as how do we see the point on the curve.

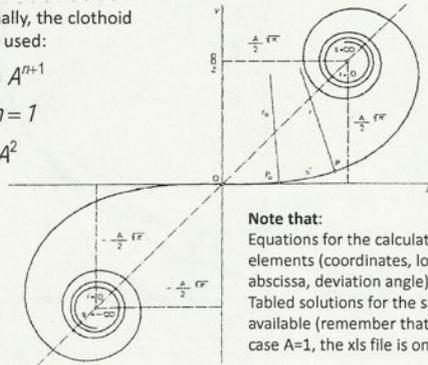
Clothoid

Traditionally, the clothoid is widely used:

$$R \cdot s^n = A^{n+1}$$

when n = 1

$$R \cdot s = A^2$$



Note that:
 Equations for the calculation of the elements (coordinates, local radius, abscissa, deviation angle), are available. Tabled solutions for the same are also available (remember that in the latter case A=1, the xls file is on the webpage).

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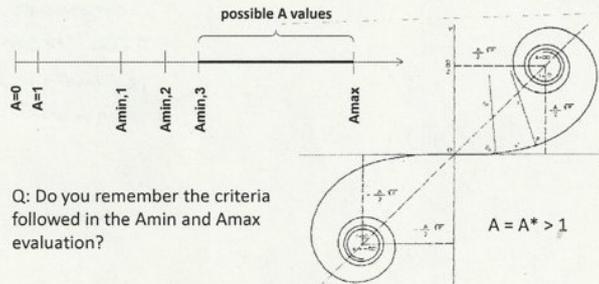
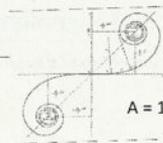
Equation to calculate the different value of A:
 $\max(A_{min}) \leq A \leq A_{max}$

- A_{min}:*
- maximum jerk
 - rolling criteria (supra-elevation of edge)
 - perception (R/s)

$$A_{max} = R$$

Clothoid's scale factor

Standards provide limits for the scale factor of a clothoid:



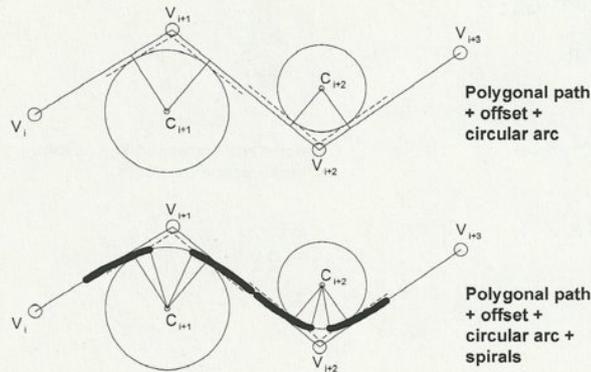
Q: Do you remember the criteria followed in the Amin and Amax evaluation?

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Horizontal alignment process (I)



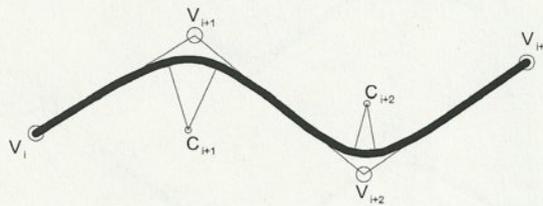
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Horizontal alignment process (I)

Polygonal path + offset + circular arc + spirals = horizontal alignment



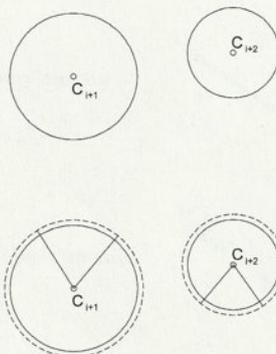
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Horizontal alignment process (II)

New road design approach → new thought school



Circles and corresponding centers

Circles and corresponding centers + offset

- use the circle
 - define the offset
 - straight line must be tangent to offset circle, in the space remaining you have a clothoid.

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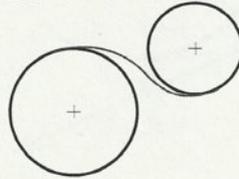
15

Inflected and continuity spirals

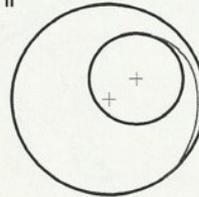
Inflected and continuity spirals are used to solve connections between circular arcs. Conditions are:

- non-intersecting circles
- the two centers of curvature do not coincide
- when the circles are external, then inflection (case I)
- when one circle is internal, then continuity (or egg-shaped, case II)

Case I



Case II



no straight are included between elements.

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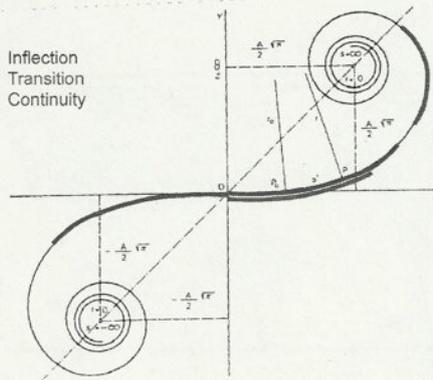
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Transitional, inflected and continuity with spirals

Same circle can be used to draw

- Inflection
- Transition
- Continuity



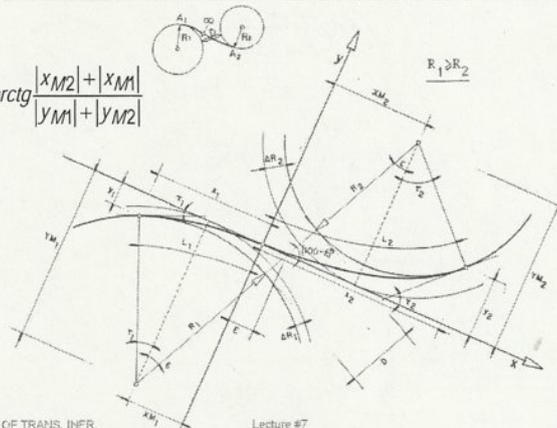
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Inflected clothoid \rightarrow two external circle

$$\varepsilon = \arctg \frac{|x_{M2}| + |x_{M1}|}{|y_{M1}| + |y_{M2}|}$$

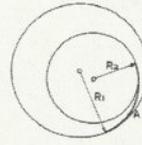
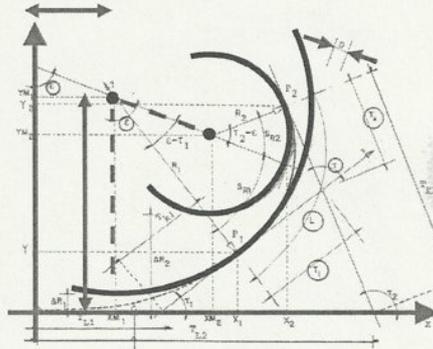


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Clothoid of continuity



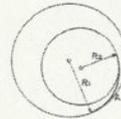
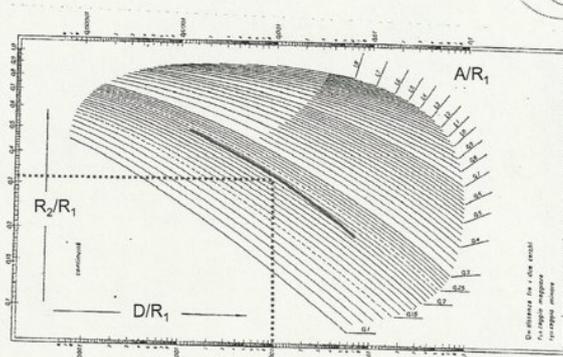
Draw method is very similar to the others, but this type is very difficult to adopte.

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Clothoid of continuity



Osterlock diagram
→ graphic method
you calculate A and ricave D.

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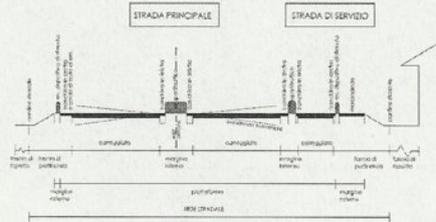
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Speed interval approach selection

Road cat.	Principal								Service			
	A _e	A _u	B	C	D	E	F _e	F _u	A _e	A _u	B	D
V _{lim}	130	130	110	90	70	50	90	50	90	50	90	50
V _{p,max}	140	140	120	100	80	60	100	60	100	60	100	60
V _{p,min}	90	80	70	60	50	40	40	25	40	40	40	25



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Design speed selection (US)

DHV = design hourly volume
 volume orario di progetto
 it is the equivalent volume of
 vehicle

Table 15.2 Minimum Design Speeds for Various Functional Classifications

Class	Description	Speed (mi/h)						
		20	30	40	50	60	70	
Rural principal arterial	Min 50 mi/h for freeways				x	x	x	x
Rural minor arterial					x	x	x	x
Rural Collector Road	DHV over 400				x	x	x	
	DHV 20-400				x	x	x	
Local Road	DHV 100-200				x	x	x	
	Current ADT over 400				x	x	x	
	Current ADT under 400				x	x	x	
	DHV over 400				x	x	x	
Urban principal arterial	DHV 200-400				x	x	x	
	DHV 100-200				x	x	x	
	Current ADT over 400				x	x	x	
	Current ADT 250-400				x	x	x	
Urban minor arterial	Current ADT 50-250				x	x		
	Current ADT under 50				x	x		
	Minimum 50 mi/h for freeways				x	x	x	x
Urban collector street				x	x	x		
Urban local street				x	x			

SOURCE: Road Design Manual, Virginia Department of Transportation, Richmond, VA. (See www.virginia DOT.org/business/locdes/rdmanual-index.asp for most current version.)

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Reference design speed selection

Max speed depend also by grades!

Type of Terrain	Metric						US Customary						
	Design Speeds (km/h)						Design Speeds (mph)						
	80	90	100	110	120	130	50	55	60	65	70	75	80
	Grades (%) ^a						Grades (%) ^a						
Level	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3
Rolling	5	5	4	4	4	4	5	5	4	4	4	4	4
Mountainous	6	6	6	5	-	-	6	6	6	5	5	-	-

^a Grades 1% steeper than the value shown may be used for extreme cases in urban areas where development precludes the use of flatter grades and for one-way downgrades except in mountainous terrain.

Exhibit 8-1. Maximum Grades for Rural and Urban Freeways

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Speed analysis and control, Italian standard

When $V_{p,max} \geq 100$ km/h:

- $\Delta V_p \leq 10$ km/h when speed pass from $V_{p,max}$ to $V_p < V_{p,max}$
- $\Delta V_p \leq 20$ km/h (better if lower than 15 km/h) when speed pass from values lower than $V_{p,max}$

When $V_{p,max} \leq 80$ km/h:

- $\Delta V_p \leq 5$ km/h when speed pass from $V_{p,max}$ to $V_p < V_{p,max}$
- $\Delta V_p \leq 20$ km/h (better if lower than 10 km/h) when speed pass from values lower than $V_{p,max}$

Why speed value is different from 10 to 20?
 For comfort and safety we want to reduce speed variation
 ↳ it is good when speed variation is slow.

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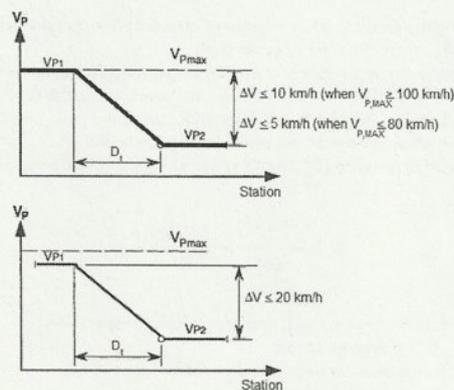
Lecture #8

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consistent = congruent o angolata

Do consistent speed during the alignment → for make it true variation speed must be small.

Speed analysis and control, Italian standard



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Effects of speed variation

Accident (crash) rate in horizontal curve versus the operating speed variation between tangent and curve in two lane rural highway (US).

From:

Glennon, J.C., Harwood, D.W., Free, S., Gray, C.W. (1978).
 Highway Design Consistency and Systematic Design Related to Highway Safety.
 Transportation Research Record, 681, 77-88.

ΔV_{85}	Number of horizontal curve	Crash in three years (n)	Exposition factor ($10^6 \cdot v \cdot km$)	Crash rate ($n/10^6 \cdot v \cdot km$)
$\Delta V_{85} \leq 10$ km/h	4518	1483	3206,06	0,46
$10 \leq \Delta V_{85} \leq 20$ km/h	622	217	150,46	1,44
$\Delta V_{85} > 20$ km/h	147	47	17,05	2,76

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Slide 13

Experiment: something that you control with a variable and you can modify it to see how depends to a characteristic variable.

observation: only see what happens, you cannot modify!

The distribution of speed in FFcondition is a gaussian and we use a percentile of this distribution (85%) to make matches.

But it isn't a correct way because as you see for the same parameters I have two different distribution.

In US speed limit are put in base to V_{85} .

OS models (I) – two-lane rural hw, curves

Autori	Rif.	Paese	Equazione	R ²
Lamm et al	[5]	US	$V_{85} = 93,9 - 1,82 \cdot DC_p$	0,79
Passeti e Fambro	[44]	US	$V_{85} = 103,9 - 3020,5 \cdot (1/R)$	0,88
Oltesen e Krammes	[45]	US	$V_{85} = 102,4 - 1,57 \cdot DC_m - 0,012 \cdot L_c - 0,01 \cdot DC \cdot L_c$	0,81
Andueza	[46]	Venezuela	$V_{85} = 98,2 - 2795 \cdot (1/R) - 854 \cdot (1/R_p) + 7,496 \cdot \frac{S}{250} + 9,308 \cdot L_p$	0,81
Marchionna et al	[56]	Italia	$V_{85} = 124,1 - 583,78 \cdot (1/R)^{0,8}$, per CCR < 30 gon/km	0,40
			$V_{85} = 118,1 - 510,56 \cdot (1/R)^{0,8}$, per 30 ≤ CCR < 80 gon/km	0,58
			$V_{85} = 111,6 - 437,44 \cdot (1/R)^{0,8}$, per 80 ≤ CCR < 160 gon/km	0,80
			$V_{85} = 100,8 - 348,82 \cdot (1/R)^{0,8}$, per CCR ≥ 160 gon/km	0,86
Bird e Hashim	[47]	UK	$V_{85} = 119,1 - \frac{518,275}{\sqrt{R}} - \frac{125440}{L_m^2} + 413,181 \alpha^2$	0,88
Nie e Hassan	[48]	Canada	$V_{85} = 108,4 - 0,097 \cdot CCR$	0,86

Legenda:
 L_c = sviluppo della curva [m]
 L_p = sviluppo del rettillo precedente la curva [m]
 L_m = sviluppo medio dei due rettilli adiacenti alla curva [m]
 R_p = raggio della curva precedente [m]
 S = distanza di visibilità disponibile lungo la curva [m]
 α = angolo di deviazione del raccordo (°)

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Lecture #9

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OS models (II) – two-lane rural hw, tangents

Autori	Rif.	Paese	Modello	R ²
Cardoso	[49]	Portogallo	$V_{85} = 41,67 - 548,892 \cdot (1/R_{cp}) + 0,0238 \cdot R_{cp} + 0,0165 \cdot L_r - 0,0207 \cdot R_{cp} + 5,95 \cdot L_c + 5,28 \cdot L_p$	0,90
Andueza	[46]	Venezuela	$V_{85} = 100,7 - 3420 \cdot (1/R_p) + 0,027819 \cdot L_r$	0,78
Polus et al.	[42]	US	(*) $V_{85} = 101,11 - 3420 \cdot (1/GM_p)$	0,55
			(†) $V_{85} = 105,00 - 28,107 / e^{0,00108 \cdot GM_p}$	0,74
			(‡) $V_{85} = 97,73 - 0,00067 \cdot GM_p$	0,20
			(§) $V_{85} = 105,00 - 22,953 / e^{0,00012 \cdot GM_p}$	0,84
Bird e Hashim	[47]	UK	(†) $V_{85} = 95,414 + 0,476 \cdot \sqrt{L_r} - 4,824 \cdot \sqrt{DC_m}$	0,58
Crisman et al.	[50]	Italia	$V_{85} = V_{85,DC} + 0,081 \cdot L_r^{0,75}$	0,88

Legenda:
 (*) valida per R_c e $R_{c1} \leq 250$ m, $L_r < 150$ m
 (†) valida per R_c e $R_{c1} \leq 250$ m, $150 \leq L_r \leq 1000$ m
 (‡) valida per R_c e $R_{c1} > 250$ m, $150 \leq L_r \leq 1000$ m
 (§) valida per R_c e R_{c1} qualunque, $L_r > 1000$ m
 (¶) in cui DC_m è il valore medio delle due curve adiacenti
 $V_{85,DC}$ = velocità operativa della curva precedente [km/h]
 L_p = larghezza della banchina [m]
 L_c = larghezza della corsia [m]
 L_r = lunghezza del rettillo [m]
 R_{cp} = raggio della curva che precede [m]
 R_{c1} = raggio della curva che segue [m]

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OS models (III) – motorways

Autori	Rif.	Paese	Strada	Modello	R ²
Francia	[52]	Francia		$V_{85} = 120 / [1 + 346 \cdot (1/\sqrt{R})]$	-
Gong e Stamatidis	[51]	USA	Strade extraurbane principali a 4 corsie	(*) $V_{85} = 1,609 \cdot \left[\begin{matrix} 51,52 + 1,587 \cdot T_p - 2,795 \cdot T_M + \\ - 4,001 \cdot T_p - 2,150 \cdot T_i + \\ + 2,221 \cdot \ln(L_c / 3,28) \end{matrix} \right]$	0,85
				(†) $V_{85} = 1,609 \cdot \left[\begin{matrix} 60,779 + 1,804 \cdot T_p - 2,521 \cdot T_M + \\ - 1,071 \cdot T_i - 1,519 \cdot F_c + \\ + 0,000143 \cdot R + 2,408 \cdot (L_c / R) \end{matrix} \right]$	0,43
Bassani e Santagata	[53]	Italia	Autostrade urbane ed extraurbane	$V_{85} = 144,70 - 0,3086 \cdot CCR$	0,75

Legenda:
 (*) valida per la corsia di sinistra
 (†) valida per la corsia di destra
 T_p = indicatore del tipo di banchina (1 per banchina pavimentata; 0 diversamente);
 T_M = indicatore del tipo di margine interno (1 senza barriera di sicurezza; 0 diversamente);
 T_i = indicatore del tipo di pavimentazione (1 in calcestruzzo; 0 in conglomerato bituminoso);
 L_c = lunghezza della curva orizzontale [m]
 F_c = fattore di curva (1 se il tratto di avvicinamento è una curva; diversamente 0)

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Lecture #9

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Lamm criteria

1. $|V_d - V_{85,i}| \leq \Delta V_{\max}$ Design consistency
 2. $|V_{85,i} - V_{85,i+1}| \leq \Delta V_{\max}$ Operating speed consistency
 3. it is about contact friction (aderenza al contatto)
 - good, con $\Delta V_{\max} \leq 10$ km/h;
 - fair, con $10 < \Delta V_{\max} \leq 20$ km/h;
 - poor, con $\Delta V_{\max} > 20$ km/h.
- } different level of design

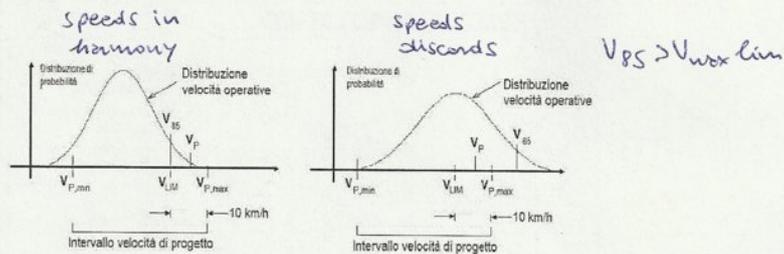
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Lecture #6

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Speed harmony and speed discord

The shape and the position of the operating speed distribution depend on the road geometrics.



$V_p =$ Speed project

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Lecture #6

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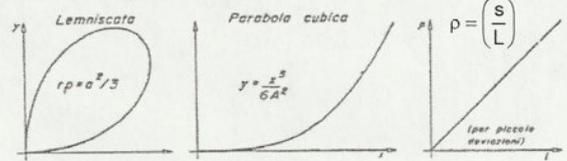
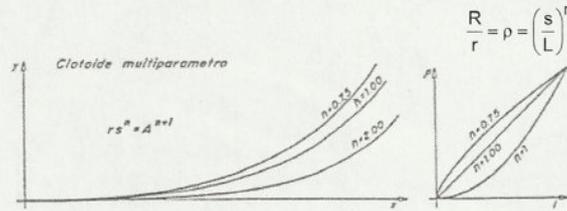
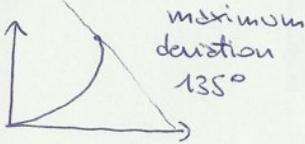
Considerations:

- in the second graph perhaps geometry is not able to support the speed, for example radius value is too high and drivers can go very fast (over speed limit) because don't receive perception of risk.

1st curve type

More curves are a good approximation of clothoid but only in a little portion of them.

For example Lemniscata of Bernoulli:



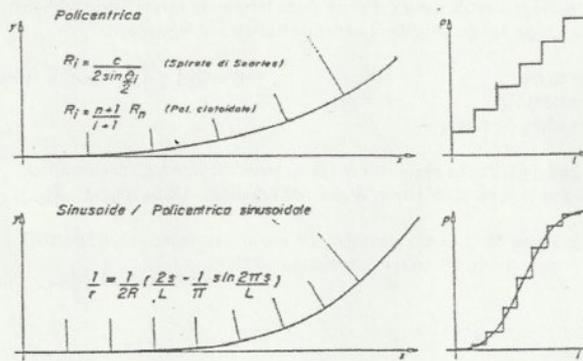
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Lecture #9

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parabola which has the same problem!

1st curve type

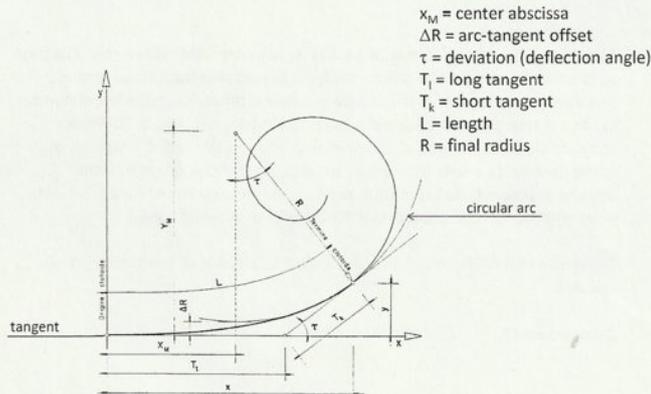


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Lecture #9

5

Clothoid



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Lecture #9

6

Offset of the clothoid

$\Delta R \cong y_n - R$
 $\hookrightarrow y + R \cos \tau$
 \downarrow
 last point of clothoid
 ΔR is an approximate
 solution so there is
 $\cong!$

$$\Delta R = y_M - R = y + R \cdot \cos \tau - R = y + R \cdot (\cos \tau - 1) \quad \text{LOOK AT SLIDE \#6}$$

$$\Delta R \cong A \cdot \frac{\tau}{3} \sqrt{2\tau} + R \cdot \left[\left(1 - \frac{\tau^2}{2} \right) - 1 \right] = A \cdot \frac{\tau}{3} \sqrt{2\tau} - R \cdot \frac{\tau^2}{2}$$

$$\text{Remind that: } \tau = \frac{s^2}{2 \cdot A^2} = \frac{s}{2R} = \frac{A^2}{2R^2}$$

$$\Delta R = A \cdot \frac{\tau}{3} \sqrt{2\tau} - R \cdot \frac{\tau^2}{2}$$

$$\Delta R = A \cdot \frac{A^2}{6R^2} \sqrt{2 \frac{A^2}{2R^2}} - R \cdot \frac{A^4}{8R^4} \cong \frac{A^4}{24R^3} \quad \text{APPROXIMATED SOLUTION}$$

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Lecture #9

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Cubic parabola

→ The cubic parabola represents an approximation of the clothoid.

Demonstration:

$$\begin{cases} x = A \cdot \sqrt{2\tau} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\tau^2}{10} + \frac{\tau^4}{216} \right) \\ y = A \cdot \sqrt{2\tau} \cdot \left(\frac{\tau}{3} - \frac{\tau^3}{42} + \frac{\tau^5}{1320} \right) \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} x = A \cdot \sqrt{2\tau} \\ y = A \cdot \sqrt{2\tau} \cdot \frac{\tau}{3} \end{cases} \quad \text{SHORTEST SERIES}$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$y = A \cdot \tau^{\frac{3}{2}} \sqrt{\frac{2}{9}} \Rightarrow \tau^{\frac{3}{2}} = \frac{y}{A \sqrt{\frac{2}{9}}}, \tau = \left(\frac{2}{9} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}} \left(\frac{y}{A} \right)^{\frac{2}{3}}$$

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Cubic parabola

Substituting τ in the equation of x :

$$x = A \cdot 2^{\frac{1}{2}} \cdot \left(\frac{2}{9} \right)^{\frac{1}{6}} \left(\frac{y}{A} \right)^{\frac{1}{3}} \Rightarrow x = A^{\frac{2}{3}} \cdot \frac{y^{\frac{1}{3}}}{\sqrt[6]{\frac{2}{72}}}$$

$$x^3 = \frac{A^2 y}{\frac{1}{6}} = 6A^2 y \Rightarrow \boxed{y = \frac{1}{6A^2} x^3}$$

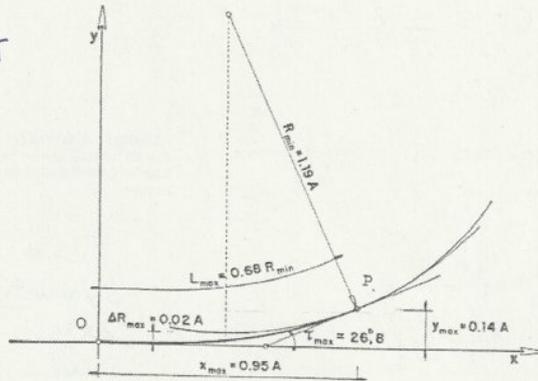
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Lecture #9

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Limit values of cubic parabola parameters

Graph indicates limit of values.



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Lecture #9

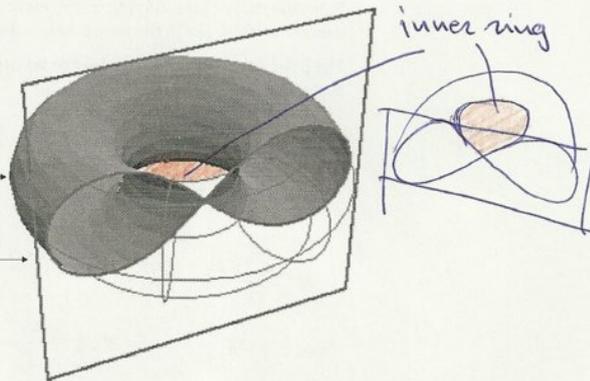
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Lemniscate of Bernoulli

For small deviations the Lemniscate of Bernoulli is an approximation of the clothoid, but it requires easier equations.

Torus

Lemniscate of Bernoulli is the intersection of a plane tangent to the inner ring of a torus whose inner radius equals to its radius of generating circle



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Lecture #9

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Lemniscate of Bernoulli

Cartesian equation:

$$x^2 + y^2 + 2x^2y^2 - 2A^2xy = 0$$

Polar equation:

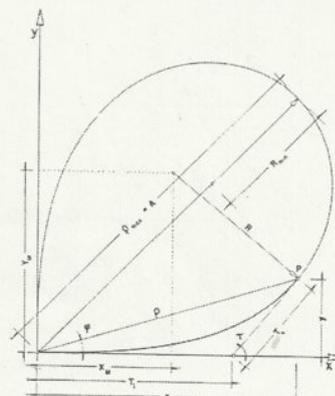
$$\rho^2 = A^2 \cdot \sin(2\varphi)$$

Characteristic:

$$\tau = 3\varphi$$

Tabled solutions are available.

Maximum deviation angle 135°



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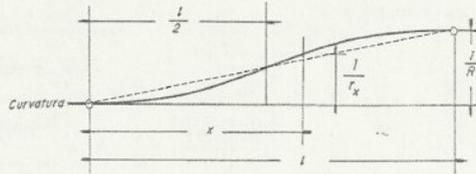
Sinusoidal curve

They exclude any discontinuity in the curvature diagram.

Characteristics are:

- curvature diagram with horizontal tangents;
- more comfort, since suspensions are continuously loaded with minor oscillations for the cabin.

Dashed line: how change curvature for clothoid or similar.
 Sinusoidal is similar to straight for an initial point, at the final point is similar to curve next.
 Comfort is better than clothoid.



$$\rho_x = \frac{l}{r_x} = \frac{l}{2R} \cdot \left[2 \frac{x}{l} - \frac{1}{\pi} \sin \frac{2\pi x}{l} \right]$$

Attention is a sinusoidal diagram curvatures not a single curve.

Sinusoidal curve

Deviation angle:

$$\begin{aligned} \tau &= \int_0^s d\tau = \int_0^s \rho ds = \frac{1}{2R} \int_0^s \left(\frac{2s}{L} - \frac{1}{\pi} \sin \frac{2\pi s}{L} \right) ds = \\ &= \frac{1}{2R} \cdot \left[\frac{s^2}{L} + \frac{L}{2\pi^2} \cdot \left(\cos \frac{2\pi s}{L} - 1 \right) \right] \end{aligned}$$

For $s = L$: $\rho = 1/R \quad \Rightarrow \quad \tau = \frac{L}{2R}$

Sinusoidal curve

To derive the coordinates (x,y) of points, the following hypothesis are made:

- $y'^2 \ll 1$
- $x \cong s$

$$\rho = \frac{1}{r} = \frac{\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}}{\left[1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 \right]^{\frac{3}{2}}} = \frac{y''}{\left[1 + (y')^2 \right]^{\frac{3}{2}}}$$

$$y' \cong \frac{1}{r} = \frac{1}{2R} \cdot \left(\frac{2x}{L} - \frac{1}{\pi} \sin \frac{2\pi x}{L} \right)$$

Comparison clothoids – sinusoidal curve

On a transition curve speed is a constant.

From the comfort point of view, it is interesting to evaluate the differences in terms of jerk.

For the clothoid it is equal to ...

$$c = \frac{da_c}{dt} = \frac{d\left(\frac{v^2}{r}\right)}{ds} \cdot \frac{ds}{dt} = v^3 \cdot \frac{d\left(\frac{1}{r}\right)}{ds} = v^3 \cdot \frac{d\left(\frac{s^n}{A^{n+1}}\right)}{ds} = \frac{v^3}{RL} \cdot n \cdot s^{n-1} = \frac{v^3}{RL} \cdot f(s)$$

$\frac{v^3}{RL}$ = variable part
 $f(s)$ = constant part

... while for the sinusoidal curve ...

$$c = v^3 \cdot \frac{d}{ds} \left(\frac{1}{2R} \left(\frac{2s}{L} - \frac{1}{\pi} \sin \frac{2\pi s}{L} \right) \right) = \frac{v^3}{LR} \left(1 - \cos \frac{2\pi s}{L} \right) = \frac{v^3}{LR} \cdot f(s)$$

is the same also for sinusoidal.
 ← scissa combined

I study the value of jerk to know differences of $f(s)$ between clothoid and sinusoidal

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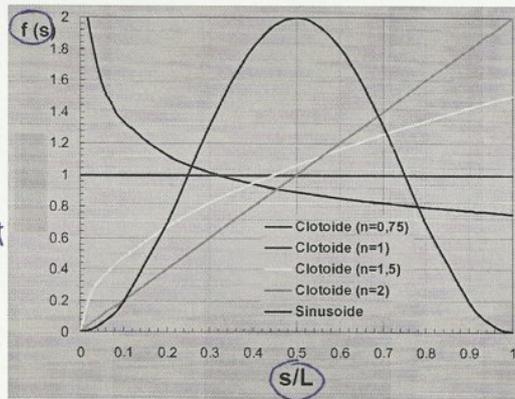
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Comparisons clothoid – sinusoidal curve

S/L : normalized position on a transition curve
 → so I forget the real length of the transition.

$n=1$ clothoid with constant jerk → on elevat before and after jerk is zero!



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Lecture #9

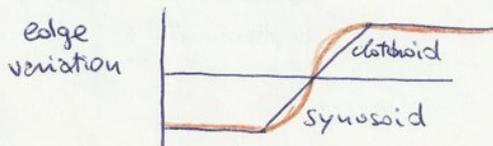
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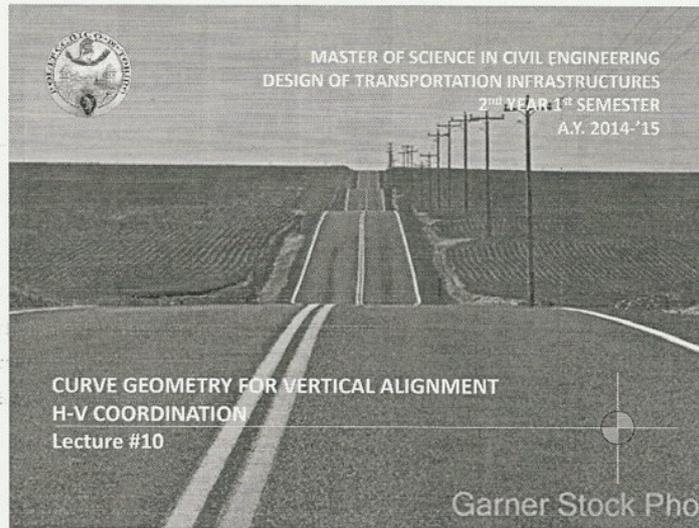
Sinusoidal curve create a variable jerk on time → it is the reason for better comfort. In addition this curve is longer than clothoid so it improve the gap.

Any defect? yes, the construction!

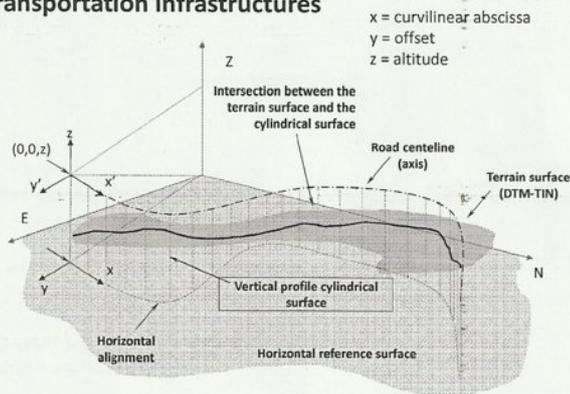
because acceleration change with curvature $a_T = \frac{v^2}{R}$

On a clothoid, to constant acceleration I change grades on road with a linear rule but with a sinusoidal curve edge must change with a sinusoid rule → it is very complex!





General approach to the geometric design of transportation infrastructures

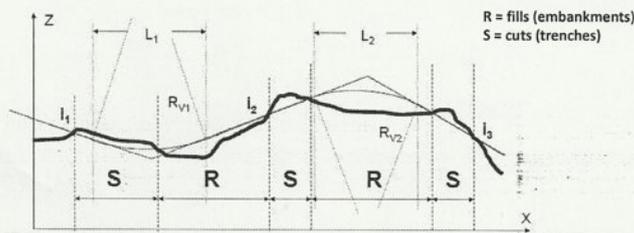


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Vertical alignment criteria



Criteria for the design of the vertical alignment:

1. Safe driving conditions (sight distances, V&H coordination)
2. Vehicle performances (maximum grade)
3. Respect of constraints (water table, rivers, interferences) \rightarrow water table \rightarrow folds
4. Minimum quantities of cuts and fills ($R \rightarrow R_{min}$ e $S \rightarrow S_{min}$)
5. Earthworks balance ($R \cong S$).

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Lecture #10

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