Commonwealth of Kentucky
Department of Highways
Frankfort, Kentucky 40601

## ADD登SS REPLY TO

August 29, 1968





$\mathrm{H}-2-21$
MEMO TO: A. O. Neiser, State Highway Engineex Chairman, Research Committee
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { SUBJECT: Research Report (Final), "Determination } \\ \text { of Traffic Parameters for the Prediction, } \\ & \text { Projection, and Computation of EWL's" } \\ & \text { KYHPR-64-21, HPR-1.(4), Part II }\end{array}$
The design of pavements is, in reality, two problems: one pertains to the capabilities of the pavement structure to withstand a certain amount of traffic, and the other pertains to forecasting traffic. Although a structural design may be adequate for a stated sumation of traffic, if the traffic forecast is in error, "design life" and "actual life" of pavements will differ. If "traffic age" exceeds the "chronological age", traffic is accumulating at a higher rate than was predicted. For instance, if a pavement designed for a 20 -year forecast of traffic actually accumulates that much in 10 years, the forecast was obviously in exror. If, in the same instance, the pavenent developed concomitant distress, its struetural design would not be suspect.

A method of estimating or predicting EWL's for the design of bituminous pavements was recommended to the Department in 1049. It was revised in 1954. A 1958 statistical evaluation of predicted versus actual accumulations of traffic, on approximately 57 projects designed and constructed between 1948 and 1957, indicated that 68 percent of those roads did or would accumulate their 10 -year quota of traffic between 6.8 and 16.8 years.

The prediction of equivalent wheel loads (or equivalent axleloads) is much more complicated than predicting gross traffic volume -- although, any error in predicting gross traffic compounds the error in equivalent loadings. For instance, the composition of traffic and the spectral distribution of truck types and axle weights are extremely elusive and variable factors - even in retrospection. Presumably, this inability to predict with accuracy exists because we do not have sufficient historical knowledge of the past - that is to say: traffic counts and classification data have not provided true and complete representation of trends in traffic, on either a constitutive or time basis.

The study report eransmitted herewith presents an inquiring analysis of available traffic data. From the standpoint of resolving a predictive criterion, subjective parameters were introduced and tested for statistical significance. Even so, xesidual or unaccountable variances persist. In still another sense, the inherent or natural variability remains high and so does the error of estimate. This does not mean that all predictions will be hopelessly in error: it does mean that in some instances the actual accumulation may be somewhere between half and twice the predicted value but in the majority of cases will conform much closex.

The method or criterion we are proposing for adoption (Appendix $F$ of the report) is quite different from the one now in use. The new method provides factors which offer the best estumate of Kentucky EWL's and (or) AASHO, 18-kip, equivalent axleloads per 1000 vehicles; these may be projected over the design period. Inasmuch as the AASHO basic axle is gaining preminence throughout the country and inasmuch as certain planning statistics are already required by the Bureau of Public Roads to be reported in terms of 18 -kip, equivalent loadings, we believe that our pavement design criterion should be converted eventually to that basis. In the meantime both Kentucky EWL's and AASHO axles should be entered on design records. We suggest that each axle of a tanden pair continue to be considered as an individual axle.

This study was a long time "maturing". Much of the effort was consumed in compiling and verifiying the data. The data systems are now amenable to updating again on future occasions.

The study has not been extended to include urban altuations as was originally planned - and is concluded with this submission.


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Attachments

# DETERMINATION OF TRAFFIC PARAMETERS FOR THE PREDICTION, PROJECTION, AND COMPUTATION OF EWL'S 

FINAI REPORT KYHPR-64-21: HPR-1 (4)

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in cooperation with the U.S. Department of Transportation Federal Highway Administration Bureau of Public Roads

The opinions, findings, and conclusions in this report are not necessarily those of the Department of Highways or the Bureau of Public Roads.

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## INTRODUCTION

One of the first published methods for the structural design of highway pavements was called the Massachusetts Rule and was presented in the eighth annual report of the Massachusetts Highway Commission in 1901 (1). The essence of this procedure was a rather intuitive assumption concerning the distribution of vertical pressures beneath a loaded area. For design purposes, this required the selection of a design load which, since failure was assumed to be catastrophic and not cunulative, could be taken as the largest load that could reasonably be anticipated during the design life of the pavement. The prediction of such a design load was in itself a rather formidable task.

However, as early as the late 1930 's, pavement designers began to appreciate that pavements could become distressed not only catastrophically as a result of the single application of a very large load but also cumulatively as a result of the repetitive application of loads of lesser magnitudes. In 1938, Bradbury (2) hypothesized that portland cement concrete pavements could fail as a result of the conventional mechanisms of fatigue. The primary type of failure in flexible pavements was identified by Poxter in 1942 (3) as resulting from progressive plastic deformation of the foundation as large repetitions of load were accumulated. Soon thereafter, Hveem and Carmany (4) postulated that repetitive load applications on flexible pavenents could cause fatigue-associated distress in the asphalt-bound layers in addition to distress associated with the accumulation of irrecoverable plastic deformations. To apply this knowledge in any gainful way required that the cumulative destructive effects of the diverse spectrum of traffic loads be evaluated and, for design purposes, predicted. This greatly magnified the problems associated with traffic predictions, which heretofore had concentrated on the design-1oad concept.

A first indication as to how the destructive effects of various repet.itive traffic loads might be reduced to a single measure was that made by Bradbury (2). He introduced the problem of flexural fatigue fallure in portland cement concrete pavements and proposed a design procedure based on the linear sumation of cycle ratios concept ${ }^{1}(5)$ whereby estimates could be made of the age of a pavenent at which fatigue cracking would be initiated. Furthermore, he illustrated the practical application of this technique by means of an example problem based on necessary assumptions concerning the distribution of traffic loads, the geometry of the pavement slab, and characterizations of material behavior.

One of the first investigators to be signfficantly influenced by Bradbury's work was Grunn (7), who, in the early $1940^{\prime}$ 's, sought a means where... by the destructive influence of the nagnitude and number of applications of any particular wheel load might be expressed in terms of an equivalent number of applications of a standard or base wheel load. A standard wheel load of 5,000 pounds was selected since it was felt that high-type pavements could

[^0]withstand an almost unlimited number of applications of wheel loads of smaller magnitudes without exhibiting distress. Grumm introduced the concept of equivalent wheel load (EWL) or load equivalency factors, the number of appli-cations of the standard 5,000 -pound wheel load which is equivalent in destructive effect to one application of a wheel load of different magnitude. These factors, which were dexived from an analysis of Pradbury's illustrative example and subsequently modified on the basis of observed flexible pavement performance inservice, are shown in Table 1 . Note particularly that these factors represent a simple geometric progression for the stipulated wheel loads.

Grum further suggested that, by using these equivalency factors and traffic estimates that yielded the total number of applications of each wheel load anticipated during a given design period, one could estimate, by summation the total equivalent number of applications of the standard 5,000 -pound wheel load -- that is, the total number of ENL's -.. that would be anticipated during the design period. Thus, if two different traffic estimates yielded identical estimates of total EWL's, the composite destructive effects of the traffic in the two circunstances were assuned to be the same.

The California investigators were the first to incorporate this means for traffic evaluation into empirical methods for flexible pavement design (7). Their use of the concept, though in a somewhat different form, has continued to the present (3). The Kentucky Department of Highways adopted a modification of the Califormia curves for the structural design of flexible pavenents in the mid-1940's (9). In 1949 (9), design curves were published which utilized, as the traffic parameter, the predicted accumulations of EWL's during the design period. On the basis of these predictions, traffic was placed in one of five categories which enabled the selection of an appropriate design curve. In 1959 (10), the number of traffic categories had been increased to 11 and the design curves were modified on the basis of an extensive pavenent perfornance reevaluation.

TABLE 1
ORIGINAL LOAD EQUIVALENCY FACTORS (7)

| Wheel Load <br> (1bs) | Equivalency <br> Factor |
| :---: | :---: |
| 5,000 | 1 |
| 6,000 | 2 |
| 7,000 | 4 |
| 8,000 | 8 |
| 9,000 | 16 |
| 10,000 | 32 |

A nationwide resurgence of interest in the load equivalence concept followed analyses of the AASHO Road Test results (11-14). These analyses focused attention on the validity of expressing the destructive effects of traffic in terms of equivalent loadings, at least insofar as empirical design procedures are concerned. The standard or base load, the method for deriving the equivalency factors, the factors themselves, and some of the methods of analysis were changed to reflect the vast amounts of data from the road test and improved capabilities for analysis. However, the equivalency concept was verified and retained in the interim design guides (13,14).

During the several years immediately prior to 1963, Kentucky had been experiencing some difficulties in obtaining reliable estimates of design EWL's. Average estimates obtained at several locations had been found to agree remarkably well with the actual average ENL's that had been accumulated. However, when EWL estimates at specific locations were compared with actual accumulations, an unacceptably large variation was found. This comparison illustrated the need for a more proper determination of the effects of local conditions on significant parameters of the traffic stream. In addition, the Kentucky procedure offered no basis whatsoever for extrapolation of data to a wide variety of routes .-.. for example, secondary roads .-.. for which limited historical data were available.

These observations were largely responsible for the inftiation of the current study in September 1963. The major purpose of the study is the reevaluation of traffic parameters used for predicting ENL's for use in pavement-thickness design procedures with the intent of more properly incorpo... rating the influence of local conditions. The more specific objectives of the study are as follow:

1. to establish a proper methodology for obtaining estinates of design EWL's,
2. to identify those characteristics of a particular route or locale which affect the composition and axleload distributions of traffic,
3. to develop a means for relating significant traffic parameters to local conditions, and
4. to provide a means whereby estimates of EWL's by both the Kentucky and AASHO procedures can be compared and the differences evaluated.

Three specific limitations on the scope of this study are worthy of mention. Tirst, the study is basically a traffic study. No actempt has been made to ascertain whether the equivalency factors are of proper magnitude, whether it is essential to distinguish between single and tandem axles, and so forth. Second, the traffic characteristics in rural areas have been found to differ significantly from those in urban areas. It was decided to restrict the scope of this report to rural areas within which the bulk of applicable data have been accumulated. Third, it was decided to assume that accurate estimates of average daily traffic (ADT) would be available to the designer. This assumption appears reasonable since:

1. Reasonably accurate predictions of $A D T$ are currently available on request from the Division of Planning,
2. An extensive study of ADT-prediction procedures is currently prow gramed in Kentucky (15), and
3. It appears plausible that separate procedures can and should be evolved for predicting traffic volumes and the composition and weight characteristics of the traffic.

## PROCEDURES FOR PREDICTING EWL'S

An analysis of the available literature reveals that there are apparently few, if any, procedures for properly relating EWL predictions to local conditions. However, before some of this literature is examined, it is well to review some of the fundamental differences between the Kentucky and AASHO methods of computation.

## COMPARISON OF KENTUCKY AND AASHO METHODS (10,13,14)

The major differences in the two methods are described as follow:

1. Base load. Kentucky has retained the 5,000 -pound wheel load as the base or standard load. Converting to axleload format, the standard axleload used in Kentucky is the 10,000 -pound single axleload. AASHO uses as a standard the 18,000 pound single axleload which is the maximum legal single axleload in many states (16). For empirical correlations, the actual magnitude of the base load is of little practical significance since conversions from one base load to any alternate can readily be made. Of much more significance are the relative magnitudes of the load equivalency factors.
2. Axle types considered. Kentucky considers all axles as single axles while AASHO applies different sets of equivalency factors to single and tanden axles. It is well known that the destructive effects of loads acting singly and in tandem are not identical (16). The matter of ascertaining the impor-.. tance of this distinction cannot be properly debated here. It should be mentioned, however, that Kentucky defines a tandem axle as the composite of two single axles whose centers lie between 42 and 120 inches (17). At the same time, AASHO specifies that this measurement should be 40 inches or less (13). Whether this distinction is relevant, considering the axle configurations which pass over Kentucky highways and those employed in the AASHO road test, is unknown. However, if it is, the Kentucky procedure may be more in order for Kentucky conditions since the axleloads tend to act separately as the distance between them increases.
3. Derivation of load equivalency factors. Kentucky's equivalency factors are based on the illustrative example of Bradbury and modified as required for compatibility with experience. The factors suggested by AASHO were determined from a statistical analysis of the performance of the road test pavements.
4. Factors affecting load equivalency factors. Kentucky's factors are a function of the magnitude of the single axleloads and are applicable only to flexible pavement design. AASHO's factors are a function of: (1) axleload magnitude, (2) type of pavement (flexible or rigid), (3) type of axle (single or tandem), (4) terminal serviceability rating (an index of the extent of distress at failure), and (5) the structural number (an index representing the composite structural capacity of the pavement). It is reasonable to assume that each of the determining factors selected by AASHO do theoretically affect the magnitudes of the load equivalency factors. For example, Yoder (16) has
pointed out that the equivalency factors depend upon the type and thickness of the pavement. However, recent work at Purdue University (18) indicates that for practical purposes variations in pavement thickness and terminal serviceability have little effect on equivalency factors and can possibly be neglected for pavement design purposes.
5. Two-axle, four-tired vehicles. In the past, only trucks have been considered by Kentucky to contribute to the accumulation of destructive loadings. A truck is defined as a motor vehicle having six or more tires and designed primarily as a freight carrier. Furthermore, all truck axles weighing less than 9,000 pounds are assumed to have negligible effect. AASHO considers all vehicles as contributing to the cumulative destructive effect although the contribution by passenger cars is extremely small.
6. Design EWL's. A minor distinction in terminology is necessary since Kentucky expresses traffic in terms of equivalent wheel loads, and AASHO in terms of equivalent axleloads (EAL's). This presents no difficulty since Kentucky's results can be interpreted in terms of a base single axleload of 10,000 pounds, and AASHO's results in terms of a base wheel load of 9,000 pounds. Both recommend use of a traffic evaluation period of 20 years. A major difference with regard to design procedures is that Kentucky uses total EWL's in all lanes and in both directions. AASHO identifies a single design lane for heavy-duty, multilane facilities and computes EAL's only for that lane. The results are equivalent only when the average annual directional split is $50-50$ and when, on multilane facilities, all contributing, one-m directional traffic utilizes the same lane. The AASHO approach is perhaps more reasonable, especially due to the rapidly increasing mileage of multilane facilities. For this reason, the approach taken herein is to provide the capability for considering directional splits of other than $50-50$ and lane distributions of other than 100 percent of the significant traffic in the design lane.

Table 2 is presented to compare the equivalency factors currently used by Kentucky and AASHO. In studying this tabie, one should keep clearly in mind the aforementioned distinctions between the two methods.

## CURRENT KENTUCKY PROCEDURE

The four parameters of the traffic stream that enter the EWL computations are (1) ADT, (2) average percent trucks, (3) average number of axles per truck, and (4) the average load distribution of truck axles (axleload distribution). For purposes of estimating EWL's, these four parameters must be representative of the average conditions during the design life. Estimates must be made on the basis of data gleaned from traffic volume counts, vehicle classification counts, and weight studies at loadometer stations. Special surveys may be taken if necessary for a particular design project but most often data are obtained from the routinely conducted surveys or from special, statewide surveys.

Estimates of ADT are thought to pose no significant problems. An extensive network of automatic traffic recording (ATR) stations is located within the Comnonwealth, and information obtained from these is annually supplemented by numerous counts made for more specific purposes.

TABLE 2
CURRENT LOAD EQUIVALENCY TACTORS ${ }^{1}$

Single Axles

| Load <br> (kips) | Kentucky | AASHO $^{2}$ | Load <br> (kips) | Kentucky ${ }^{3}$ | AASHO $^{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $1-3$ | 0 | 0.0002 | $2-6$ |  |  |
| $3-5$ | 0 | 0.002 | $6-10$ | 0.01 |  |
| $5-7$ | 0 | 0.01 | $10-14$ | 0.05 |  |
| $7-9$ | 0 | 0.03 | $14-18$ | 0.12 |  |
| $9-11$ | 1 | 0.09 | $18-22$ | 0.26 |  |
| $11-13$ | 2 | 0.19 | $22-26$ | 0.50 |  |
| $13-15$ | 4 | 0.36 | $26-30$ | 0.86 |  |
| $15-17$ | 8 | 0.62 | $30-34$ | 1.38 |  |
| $17-19$ | 16 | 1.00 | $34-38$ | 2.08 |  |
| $19-21$ | 32 | 1.51 | $38-42$ | 3.00 |  |
| $21-23$ | 64 | 2.18 | $42-46$ | 4.17 |  |
| $23-25$ | 128 | 3.03 | $46--50$ | 5.63 |  |
| $25-27$ | 256 | 4.09 | $50-54$ | 7.41 |  |
| $27-29$ | 512 | 5.39 | $54-58$ | 9.59 |  |
| $29-31$ | 1024 | 6.97 | $58-62$ |  |  |

$1_{\text {The }}$ factors used by AASHO relate to truck axles. In addition, two-axle, four--tired vehicles are assumed to contribute 0.0002 EAL's per vehicle.
${ }^{2}$ These factors relate to flexible pavenents having a terminal serviceability index of 2.5 and a structural number of 5 .
$3_{\text {Kentucky does not }}$ identify tanden axles separately for purposes of computation.

Accurate estimates of percent trucks are slightly more difficult to obtain. As will be shown later, the percentage of trucks is very much affected by season; the lowest value for rural stations is normally recorded during the summer months when the volume of passenger cars is large. It is essential, therefore, to obtain an annual weighted average of percent trucks. Furthermore, it must be recognized that estimates of percent trucks are made solely on the basis of vehicle classification counts. There apparently has been some tendency in the past to select as a basis for estimation only those counts taken at the loadometer stations. This practice ignores a wealth of data available from other vehicle classification counts and limits consideration to those traffic patterns representative of primary highways on which the bulk of loadometer stations have been operated.

Estimates of the average number of axles per truck likewise should be made on the basis of vehicle classification counts. According1y, the above remarks apropos to restricting the basis of estimates to loadometer-station data are equally relevant here. A further consideration is also important. One must not restrict determinations of the average number of axles per truck to those trucks that are actually weighed at a particular loadometer station. The rationale here is obvious since the average number of axles per truck is sensitive only to the relative percentages of the various vehicle types in the traffic stream: the vehicle sampling for weighing purposes is not necessarily in the true proportion.

Estimates of the load distribution of truck axles must be made on the basis of data obtained from loadometer stations. However, caution must be exercised to assure that both vehicle classification and weight data enter the computations unless the weight sampling by vehicle type is in the same proportion as the vehicle types exist in the traffic stream.

As sumnarized above, estimates of average percent trucks, average number of axles per truck, and axleload distribution have generally been based on vehicle classification and weight data obtained from loadometer stations. To account for the effects of local conditions, the analyst generally exercises his discretion in the selection of a relevant basis for evaluation. Normally considerations would include (1) the nearest loadometer station, (2) the loadometer station with the most similar traffic characteristics, and (3) statewide averages for all loadometer stations falling within a designated volume group. Under many circumstances, the effect of local conditions could be much better assessed if the analyst would extend his range of consideration to include any relevant vehicle classification counts from which estimates of average percent trucks and average number of axles per truck might be made.

With this basic information in mind, Kentucky's current procedure for estimating design EWL's is summarized by the following step-by-step procedure:

1. Estimate the initial ADT (total, two directional).
2. Estimate the average percent trucks. It is assumed that this percentage will not change significantly during the design life. The validity of this assumption is borne out by an analysis of the data assembled herein. While random variations in percent trucks are evidenced from year to year, no overall trend can be noted.
3. Find the initial average daily number of trucks by taking the product of initial ADT and average percent trucks.
4. Find the average daily number of trucks over the 20 -year design period. It is assumed in most cases that the annual increase in the number of trucks is constant over the period and equals 4.65 percent of the initial number. The average number then equals the initial number increased by 46.5 percent. In special cases, other percentages may be chosen at the discretion of the analyst. For low volume groups the average increase is taken to be 20 percent. Table 3 summarizes these adjustments.

## TABLE 3

KENTUCKY GROWTH ADJUSTMENT FACTORS FOR EWL ESTIMATES

|  | Volume Group |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & 0-399 \\ & \text { (vpd) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} 400-999 \\ (\text { vpd }) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 1000-1999 \\ (\mathrm{vpd}) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 2000-2999 \\ (\text { vpd }) \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 3000+ \\ & (\mathrm{vpd}) \end{aligned}$ |
| Multiplicative factors to adjust initial daily truck traffic to average over design period | $1.200$ | 1.200 | 1.465 | 1.465 | 1.465 |
| Additive factors to adjust initial average number of axles per truck to average over design period | $\cdots$ | 0.04 | 0.08 | 0.14 | 0.19 |
| Additive factors to adjust initial axleload distributi to average over design peri for following axle load categories (klps) |  |  |  |  |  |
| 9-11 | - | 0.01 | 0.04 | 0.08 | 0.09 |
| 11-13 | - | 0.01 | 0.04 | 0.11 | 0.13 |
| 13-15 | - | 0.04 | 0.11 | 0.23 | 0.27 |
| 15--17 | - | - | 0.04 | 0.12 | 0.15 |
| 17-19 | - | 0.01 | 0.04 | 0.09 | 0.11 |
| 19-21 | - | - | 0.01 | 0.04 | 0.05 |
| 21--23 | - | - | - | - | - |
| 23-25 | $\cdots$ | - | - | - | - |

5. Estimate the initial average number of axles per truck.
6. Adjust the initial average number of axles per truck to an average over the design period. This is accomplished through the use of additive adjustment factors shown in Table 3. These adjustments are based on an analysis of trend data and reflect increasing utilization of truck types having larger numbers of axles.
7. Estimate the total number of truck axles anticipated during the 20-year design period. This is obtained by taking the products of the adjusted average daily truck traffic (step 4), the adjusted average number of axles per truck (step 6), 365, and 20.
8. Estimate the initial axleload distribution for truck axles. This is the percentages of truck axles which fall within designated axleload intervals. Axles weighing less than 9,000 pounds may be neglected.
9. Estimate the average axleload distribution during the design period by applying the additive corrections shown in Table 3. These corrections are based on an analysis of trend data which indicate that average weights of truck axles have generally increased with time.
10. Find the total number of truck axles expected within each axleload category during the design life. These are obtained by multiplying the total number of truck axles (step 7) by the adjusted percentages within the various load categories (step 9).
11. Compute the EWL's within each axleload category by multiplying the total axles in that category (step 10) by the appropriate equivalency factor (Table 2).
12. Sum the EWL's of step 11 to obtain the final estimate of the total, two-directional EWL's anticipated during the design period.
13. Determine the appropriate traffic category using Table 4.

Figure 1 illustrates one of the forms used to facilitate the computational process embodied in the above procedures.

TABLE 4

KENTUCKY DESIGN TRAFFIC CATEGORIES

| Category | Two-Directional <br> EWL's <br> (millions) |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
| IA | Less than 0.5 |
| I | $0.5-1$ |
| II | $1-2$ |
| III | $2-3$ |
| IV | $3-6$ |
| V | $6-10$ |
| VI | $10-20$ |
| VIII | $20-40$ |
| IX | $40-80$ |
| X | $80-160$ |
|  | $160-320$ |



| $\begin{aligned} & \text { (A) } \\ & \text { Axle } \\ & \text { Load } \\ & \text { (toans) } \end{aligned}$ | (8) Total Axles <br> (7) | (C) <br> \% Total Axles, From Load. Sta. |  | \% Corrected Total Axles <br> (C) $+(\mathrm{D})$ | Total Axles by wt. Clasa <br> (B) $\mathrm{I}(\mathrm{E})$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { TGT } \\ \text { EWL } \\ \text { Factor } \end{gathered}$ | EWL's 2 Direct ( F$) \times(\mathrm{G})$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 4.5-5.5 |  |  | 0.08 |  |  | 1 |  |
| 5.5-6.5 |  |  | 0.11 |  |  | 2 |  |
| 6.5-7.5 |  |  | 0.23 |  |  | 4 |  |
| 7.5-8.5 |  |  | 0.12 |  |  | 8 |  |
| 8. 5-9.5 |  |  | 0.09 |  |  | 16 |  |
| 9.5-10.5 |  |  | 0.04 |  |  | 32 |  |
| 10.5-11.5 |  |  | 0 |  |  | 64 |  |
| 11.5-12.5 |  |  | 0 |  |  | 128 |  |

TOTAL EWL's for 20-Yr. Period (Two Directiong)

Figure 1. Form for Estimating 20-Year EWL's, 2000-2999 vpd.

## CALIFORNIA PROCEDURE

A review of the Callfornia procedure for evaluating EWL's ( 8,19 ) provides the opportunity for introducing the concept of unit EWL's which are defined as the average EWL's per vehicle and which are a function of vehicle type. For pavement design purposes, California predicts the accumulated equivalent number of 5,000 -pound wheel loads on the design lane during a 10-year period. This design EWL is converted to a Traffic Index for entry into the pavement design charts.

First it is necessary to predict the present and future, two-directional, average daily volumes of the various types of dual-tired commercial vehicles. These types are classified according to number of axles per vehicle, and buses are treated as commercial vehicles. These average daily numbers of vehicles are multiplied by EWL-conversion factors for each vehicle type, and the results are summed over all vehicle types to obtain the average annual design EWL in one direction. These conversion factors are shown in the second column of Table 5. These factors automatically convert from two-directional to one-directional volumes and from daily to annual accumulations. For special conditions of traffic, adjustments in the EWL-conversion factors

## TABLE 5

CALIFORNIA EWL CONSTANTS FOR DUAL--TIRED COMMERCIAL VEHICLES

| Type of Vehicle | Annual Design EWL <br> per Vehicle per Day | Unit <br>  <br> EWL |
| :--- | :---: | ---: |
| 2-axle truck | 250 | 1.37 |
| 3-axle truck | 815 | 4.47 |
| 4-axle truck | 965 | 5.28 |
| 5-axle truck | 2385 | 13.08 |
| 6-axle truck | 1.475 | 8.09 |

may be warranted. Corresponding average undt EWL's for the various vehicle types are shown in the third column of Table 5. After the average annual one-directional design EWL has been obtained, it is multiplied by the number of years in the design period and adjusted, if necessary, for lane distribution on multilane facilities.

The important fact to emphasize here is that California largely separates the problem of estimating the composition of the traffic stream (by vehicle type) from the problem of estimating the axle-weight distributions of the various vehicle types. It is apparently assumed, furthermore, that there is some consistency in the average unit EWL's among the various cypes of highways even though provision is made to adjust these if necessary.

## recent investigations in texas

Two rather recent investigations conducted in Texas shed additional light on both methodology and the effects of local conditions. The first of these (20) was concerned primarily with methodology. The proposed methodology does not seem to differ greatly from that used in Kentucky and is outlined briefly in the following manner:

1. Predictions are made of the average daily traffic (ADT) anticipated throughout the design period.
2. The percentage of trucks can then be estimated using a curve derived from an analysis of past data which relates percent trucks with ADT. Percent trucks are not used directly in the analysis but are computed primarily for use in geometric design and as input to steps 3 and 4.
3. The numbers of both single and tandem axles per 100 vehicles are obtained from a tabulation based on volume group, percent trucks, and highway classification. Multiplication of these numbers by the ADT expressed in hundreds yields the total numbers of single and tandem axles anticipated.
4. Axleload distributions for both single and tandem axles are related to pexcent trucks. Given these distributions and the numbers of axles obtained in step 3 , the numbers of each type of axle in each weight category can be determined. Equivalency factors are then applied and the results summed to obtain the design EAL's.

The second investigation (21) employed a slightly different methodology but focused attention prinarily on how to relate axleload distributions at one location to those at other locations. This represented an attempt to ascertain and describe the effect of local conditions on axleload distributions. Data obtained from loadometer stations operated from 1960 through 1963 were grouped by each of the following three classification sets: (1) percent trucks, (2) highway system classification (a composite indication of geometric design standards and percentage of through trucks), and (3) statewide averages.

It was concluded that axleload distributions for design purposes should be obtained from measurements at a nearby loadometer station if such measurements are available and if design and traffic conditions are nearly identical. If not, the statewide average axleload distributions should be used except for highways approaching interstate design standards. For these facilities, average axleload distributions for stations of this high-type design should be used.

## PURDUE UNIVERSITY

Recently, Ulbricht (18) has devised an approximate method for estimating EAL's based on a knowledge of ADT and an equivalency coefficient. The equivalency coefficient is the average EAL per vehicle and considers the proportions and weights of all vehicle types in the traffic stream. Using multiple regression techniques, an equivalency coefficient of this type was related to various parameters in the traffic stream including percent trucks and percent multiple-unit trucks. Data from 22 loadometer stations accumulated over a three-year period were utilized and the resulting correlations were found to be most acceptable.

It was suggested, however, that, since the percentages of trucks on highways of the same class are approximately constant, the equivalency coefficient could be related to a classification of highway type by truck usage. The three classes of truck routes are:

1. Class I truck routes - all interstate routes and US-numbered routes comnecting major population centers,
2. Class II truck routes - all other primary highways, and
3. Class III truck routes - all secondary state highways.

The equivalency coefficients, based on AASHO's computational procedures, are shown in Table 6 .

EquIVALENCY COEfficIENTS BY ROUTE CLASS

| Class of Truck <br> Route | Equivalency Coefficients <br> (EAL's per vehicle) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Rigid | Flexible and <br> Overlay |
| I | 0.22 | 0.16 |
| II | 0.10 | 0.07 |
| III | 0.03 | 0.01 |

To estimate EAL's, it is recomended that vehicle weight and classifi-cation data be used directly. However if such data are unavailable, a reasonbly accurate estimate may be made by obtaining the product of the average ADT , the equivalency coefficient, the number of years, and 365. The significance of this work is embodied in use of the equivalency coefficient and the ability to consider local conditions only in terms of the highway class.

## CONCLUDING REMARKS

Other organizations (22-24) have also sought appropriate means for estimating EWL's for pavement-design purposes. In addition, still others $(25,26)$ have been concerned with related aspects of the problem-including sampling procedures, methods for obtaining measurements, and so forth. Apparently, however, there has been very little in-depth study of the various effects of local conditions on the pertinent traffic parameters. For example, the effects of tine and such a crucial variable as the maximum allowable gross weight have generally remained unknown. It is primarily to this problem that the current study is directed.

During the search for a responsive procedure for predicting EWL's for pavement-design purposes, it was necessary to investigate whether the methodology currently used in Kentucky is sufficiently responsive to both present and future requirements of the design problem. The following criteria were established to enable a proper assessment of both current and possible alternate methodologies:

1. The method must be simple to apply to design situations. It was felt that any refinements requiring laborious and time-consuming computations would be unacceptable to the designer unless significant improvenents in accuracy could be realized.
2. If a new methodology is proposed, it must be reasonably simple and straightforward in its development.
3. Full use must be made of all available, relevant data.
4. The methodology should be rational, or at least intuitlvely appealing, and should lend insight as to the basic relationships entering the design computations.
5. The methodology should yield sufficiently accurate estimates of design EWL's.
6. The methodology should maximize the amount of valid data useful for other than pavement--design purposes.
7. The methodology should be adaptable to possible future considerations of lane and directional distributions.
8. The methodology should be sufficiently general so as to permit use of any chosen set of equivalency factors and to permit separate identification of single and tandem axles.
9. The methodology must be structured so that the effects of local conditions may be properly evaluated.

A review of Kentucky's current method led to the conclusion that it generally satisfied most of the above criteria or, with some modifications, could satisfy most of them. However, certain deficiencies were noted which made attractive the consideration of possible alternatives. In the first place, Kentucky's procedure uses the load distribution of truck axles which, as has been mentioned previously, is dependent on both vehicle classification and weight data. This means that weight data is meaningless in itself without corresponding classification counts. At first glance, this poses no significant problems since the procedures could be modified to use the axleload distributions of the various vehicle types. However, the axleload distributions are difficult to manipulate statistically and a much simpler method would be to collapse the relevant information into a single measure such as unit EWL's.

The average number of axles per truck is a variable related only to the percentages of the various vehicle types in the traffic stream. This manner of viewing these percentages seems to cloud the basic relationships which are contributing to the changing traffic stream. A somewhat arbitrary, additive correction factor (Table 3), applied to adjust for changing basic conditions with time, is not intuitively appealing and lends little insight into the mechanisms at work within the changing system.

Furthermore, the variable, percent trucks, has been examined in some detail and has been found to be relatively insensitive to local conditions and, therefore, rather difficult to predict. For example, percent trucks, though extremely variable from year to year, does not seem to demonstrate significant trends with time. However, the percent of individual truck types are greatly dependent upon year. It was felt, therefore, that benefits would be realized by predicting the percentage, of each vehicle type. This would provide a built-in checking procedure ${ }^{1}$ as well as additional information to those concerned with the composition of the traffic stream on a designated route.

Finally, Kentucky considers only truck traffic in its analysis. At the same time, weight data obtained from loadometer stations indicate that some two-axle, four-tired, freight vehicles have axles weighing in excess of 9,000 pounds and, therefore, contribute to the accumulation of EWL's. Furthermore, some buses also have a destructive effect on pavement performance. If non-zero equivalency factors for single axle loads under 9,000 pounds are used, the effects of these omissions are somewhat magnified.

A semi-theoretical approach of the type alluded to by Larson (25) was first suggested as an alternate to the Kentucky procedure. Such an approach would be based on postulations of intercity interactions (27) extended to encompass the necessary range of vehicle types. While such an approach is intuitively appealing, development of the procedures and characterization of the system seemed to be rather monumental tasks. This is further complicated by the fact that a significant portion of the traffic in Kentucky is generated from terminals alien to Kentucky. The necessary resources for such an effort were not available and significant advantages over less tedious procedures were not assured.

It was decided, therefore, to adopt an empirical approach which relied on the correlation of significant parameters of the traffic strean with those local conditions of potential importance which could be identified and evaluated rather easily. Gross measures, such as the equivalency coefficient of Ulbricht, were rejected primarily on the basis that much significant data would be lost, the basic relationships entering the design computations would be obscured, and it would be difficult to account at some future time for lane and directional distributions. Significant parameters of the traffic stream chosen to be evaluated were the percentages of the various vehicle types and their average unit EWL's. After these characteristics were predicted for a design situation, the design EWL's were computed as follows:

$$
\text { Design EWL's }=\sum_{j i}^{\sum \sum} 365\left(A D T_{j}\right)\left(P_{i}\right)\left(D_{i}\right)\left(L_{i}\right)\left(\text { UEWL }_{i}\right)
$$

$1_{\text {The }}$ sum of the percentages would have to equal 100 percent.
where $j=$ the $j$ th year,
i $=$ the ith vehicle type,
$\mathrm{ADT}_{j}=$ the average daily traffic in the $j$ th year,
$P_{i}=$ the predicted percentage of the total traffic stream which is of vehicle type $i$,
$D_{i}=$ the annual average percentage of type $i$ vehicles which travel in the critical direction,
$L_{i}=$ the annual average percentage of type $i$ vehicles traveling in the critical direction in the design lane, and

UEWL $_{i}=$ the predicted average unit EWL's for vehicle type $i$.
The design EWL's predicted from Equation 1 represent the predicted accumulations of EWL's in the design lane. This equation can be simplified somewhat when it is possible to predict an average or effective ADT during the design period and when the basis for design is the total accumulation of EWL's in both directions and all lanes. Equation 1 then reduces to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Design EWL's }=365(\mathbb{N})\left(\mathrm{ADT}_{\text {eff }}\right) \sum_{i}\left(P_{i}\right)\left(\mathrm{UEWL}_{i}\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $N \quad=$ the design period in years and
$A D T_{\text {eff }}=$ the average or effective $A D T$ during the design period.
Equation 2 provides valid estinates for use with Kentucky's current flexible pavement-design procedure.

The proposed methodology, which is embodied in Equations 1 and 2, is found to reasonably satisfy the previously enumerated criteria. It is simple both in development and application. Full use can be made of all relevant data since unit EKL's need only be derived from weight data and the percentages of the vehicle types from classification data. While maximum use is made of classification information, some information is lost when unit EWL's are substituted for axleload distributions. This problem is partially alleviated herein by the subsequent presentation of unit EWL's computed by Kentucky's procedure, by AASHO's procedure, and by a modified AASHO procedure which is explained subsequently. Local conditions enter the analysis in the determination of the traffic parameters of interest-namely, the vehicle percentages and the unit EWL's.

## LOCAL CONDITIONS

Having thus established the proposed methodology and identified the traffic parameters of interest, it was then necessary to identify those local conditions thought to be aignificantly related to the composition of the traffic strean and to the weights of the vehicles included therein. The process used in this identification was largely intuitive since at this stage the available data were not in proper format for analysis.

Several rather general guidelines were available to aid in this selection. Any apparently relevant local condition would have to be amenable to analysis .... that is, it would be necessary to be able to classify each condfion both to enable the analysis of past data and to enable subsequent predictions. Furthermore, some rationale would have to be formulated to tentatively substantiate the relationshyps between the traffic parameters and the local condition. It was soon recognized that many of the relevant conditions could not be treated as continuous variables but would have to be treated as classification sets to which an integer number would be associated for data-processing purposes. Finally, it would be desirable to exclude from the set of local conditions any predictive characteristics of the traffic strean itself except ADT.

The set of local conditions chosen for analysis is show in Table 7, which also gives information relative to the coding scheme. The data bank code is the code found on the basic data records. The second code is a transformed code used to facilitate the analyses reported herein. For convenience, all local conditions have been treated as classification sets and none as continuous variables.

1. Road type. The road-type category was originally intended to provide an indication of the percentage of through vehicles .... most notably, through trucks .-.. In the traffic stream. As such it was felt to be indicative of the local- or through-service nature of the route. It was felt that the vehicle weight and composition characteristics would greatly depend on such a classification. However, difficuities were soon apparent in attempting to devise a coding scheme which could, within a reasonable time frane, be applied for all data obtained within the study period (1950-1966). Accordingly, a compromise scheme was adopted which classified the route by the maner in which it was numbered.
2. Direction. Kentucky is geographically situated so that the bulk of interstate truck traffic travels on promarily northersouth routes. It was felt, therefore, that the principal direction of a high-type facility might be a significant factor in determining the type of traffic traveling thereon. Accordingly, each route was classified as to its predominant direction. As an aid in making this assessment, terminal or quasimterminal points were selected and a decision made as to whether north-south or eastwest traffic would make major use of the route. Distances separating the quasi-terminal points were extended as the adjuged importance of the route increased. The potential significance of route direction was felt to greatly diminish as the localservice nature of the route increased.

TABLE 7
CODIFICATION OF LOCAL CONDITIONS

| Local | Data <br> Bank | Code for <br> Subsequently <br> Reported <br> Analyses |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |$\quad$ Description


|  | 1 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 2 | 2 |
| Road | 3 | 3 |
| Type | 4 | None |
|  | 5 | 4 |
|  | 6 | None |


| Direction | 1 | 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 2 | 2 |
| Alternate | 1 | 1 |

3

1

|  | None |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | None |
|  | None |
|  | None |
| Volume | None |
| (ADT) | None |
|  | None |
|  | None |

Interstate-numbered rural
US-numbered rural
KY-numbered rural
Toll rural
Other rural Urban

North-South
East-West
Alternate route is inferior
No alternate or alternate of same quality
Alternate route is superior
Primarily provides service to major recreational activities
Provides significant service to major recreational activities
Provides some service to recreational activities
Ordinary
Provides some service to mining activities
Provides significant service to major mining activities
Primarily provides sexvice to major mining activities Provides more than ordinary service to industrial activities
Primarily provides service to major concentrations of industrial activities

0--499
500--999
1000-1999
2000-2999
3000-3999
4000--5999
6000-7999
8000-9999

3. Alternate route. The significance of alternate routes became apparent when traffic parameters on certain routes were studied during a time period in which alternate routes having superior geonetric design standards were opened to traffic. It was apparent that, if an alternate route is available, through truck traffic tends to become channelized on that route offering the superior service. As an aid toward the classification of particular locations in this regard, the quasi-terminal-point approach was found to be particularly useful. As the importance of the route increased, it was neces.. sary to extend the parallel band within which possible alternate routes were
considered. While three different codes were chosen to represent this local condition, it was felt that codes 1 and 2 would yield similar results and that only code 3 would be significantly different.
4. Service provided. A large number of routes in Kentucky provide service to areas in which rather unusual activities take place in terms of the types of traffic generated. . Most notable among these are those mining areas of the Commonwealth in which the bulk of coal is carried over some segment of the highway system. In fact, inability of current EWL-prediction procedures to adequately treat this important factor was responsible in part for initiation of the current study. It was decided, therefore, to classify each route according to the major activities which it serviced. These activities were classified as recreational, ordinary, mining, and industrial. Mining activities include not only coal mining but also aggregate production and processing. A distinction had to be made between the western and eastern coal-producing regions since much of the coal produced in the western region is transported directly from the mines by rail. As an aid to the classification of routes according to service provided, locations of coal mines, aggregate quarries, and recreational areas were carefully pinpointed.
5. Volume. Traffic volume has long been associated with other significant parameters of the traffic stream. While the expressed intent of this study was to exclude from the set of local conditions any predictive characteristics of traffic, volume was thought to be of such importance that it had to be included. An appropriate measure of volume is the $A D T$. This seemed not only a logical but also an expedient choice since ADT must be independently projected as a part of the proposed methodology.
6. Maximum allowable gross weight. Kentucky has had four different maximum allowable gross weights during the study period. Even now, different highways are assigned different maximum allowable gross veights to reflect their varying structural capabilities. Composition of the traffic stream is greatly affected by maximum allowable gross weight. As this allowable weight increases, percentages of the larger combinations tend to increase while percentages of the smaller combinations tend to decrease. It was felt that much of the variability which has been attributed to a time factor is in reality a reflection of the changing maximum allowable gross weights. Maps classifying the highway system into trucking categories were extremely useful in codifying historical data in this regard.
7. Geographical area. It was assumed, somewhat arbitrarily, that different geographical areas of the Commonwealth might exhibit somewhat different traffic patterns. This could not be considered as a very basic determinant of traffic characteristics but must be considered as one which, if omitted, could possibly lead to distortions of the predictions. Accordingly, four geographical areas were delineated based on intuitive considerations of the nature of the areas. The delineations were made to coincide with the boundaries of current administrative highway districts in order to facilitate their use in the predictive process. Figure 2 depicts the boundaries of these four areas.
8. Year. Past procedures have considered year as a major independent variable in the analysis and have relied on the application of annual correction factors to the various traffic parameters. It was felt that the apparent effects
of year might be greatly diminished if proper consideration could be afforded to other conditions such as maximum allowable gross weight. However, year was still retained as a possibly significant variable affecting pertinent traffic parameters. Year was progressively coded so that the beginning of the study period was given a code of 1 and the end a code of 9 . Subsequent investigation has suggested the possibility that the effects of time might better have been expressed as that interval following a change in maximum allowable gross weight.
9. Season. Season is known to have a significant effect on the composition of the traffic stream. For example, on rural routes serving normal traffic, percent trucks is lowest during the summer and largest during the winter. Since annual averages are required for predictive purposes, it might be reasoned that season should not be included as a part of the predictive procedure. However, since the correlations of traffic parameters with local conditions must be based on historical data and since such data are not necessarily representative of the annual average conditions, season must be considered as a separate part of the analysis.

The above nine items represent that set of local conditions which was chosen for correlation with the significant traffic parameters, unit EWL's and percentages of the various vehicle types. While other local conditions may be equally as significant, they simply have not been identified in this study as being of importance in Kentucky. Data which indicate the actual relative significance of these conditions are presented in the following sections. The relative importance of each local condition varies according to the parameter which is being evaluated.


Figure 2. Four Geographical Areas.

The proposed methodology not only enabled but also required separate evaluations of vehicle classification and weight data. This requirement greatly expanded the extent of available data on which the analysis was based. It also required an extensive and prolonged search through existing data files. While much assistance in this endeavor was rendered by personnel of the Division of Planning, significant efforts were directed to the identification of data sources and the transformation of available data into formats amenable to analysis by computer.

## APPLICABLE SURVEYS

## Loadometer Surveys

The Division of Planning has operated loadometer stations throughout the Comnonwealth since 1942 (28). Locations of these stations were revised in 1950, at which time ten permanent stations were established. Since 1950, station locations have been changed periodically to reflect changing needs and travel patterns; none of the original stations is currently in operation. In 1966, ten loadometer stations were operated on rural primary highways and two on urban facilities (29). The permanent loadometer stations have always been located on the higher volune and more important routes.

Both vehicle classification and weight data are available from the loadmeter stations. In general, four 24 -hour classification counts are taken annually at each station, one during each season. Weight data are generally taken only once a year during the summer months. The scales are usually operated at each station for 16 hours. During this period, they are alternated between the two directions every two hours yielding a total of eight hours of operation in each direction. All freight vehicles including two-axle, four-tired vehicles are sampled for weighing in approximately the same proportions as they exist in the total traffic stream.

## Special Weight Surveys

During the spring and summer months of 1957 and 1964 , special vehicle weighing operations were conducted at many locations throughout the Commonwealth. These locations were chosen primarily to extend coverage to lownolume, secondary routes for which virtually no weight data had been otherwise obtained. Vehicle classification counts were conducted in conjunction with the wefghing operations. These special weight surveys provide the bulk of weight data avallable for low-volume facilities.

## Toll Roads

Extensive records are kept concerning the types and numbers of vehicles using the toll facilites in Kentucky. Of use to a study such as this would be information concerning the percentages of the various vehicle types using the
facilities. Unfortunately, vehicle types are identified solely with respect to the number of axles per vehicle. It is thus impossible to distinguish, for example, between single-unit and combination three-axle trucks. Since this method was not directly compatible with the vehicle-classification scheme adopted for this study, no toll records have been analyzed.

## Other Classification Studies

Additional vehicle classification data are available from the ATR stations, from special classification surveys, and from origin mand wdestination ( O\&D) studies. Data prior to 1950 were not suitable for evaluation, however, since trucks were classified only in three categories light, medium, or heavy (28). All available classification data obtained since 1950 have been included in the basic data bank.
data sources
While suitable data were available from these various studies, they had not generally been summarized in a form amenable to analysis. The vehicle weight and classification data obtained from the permanent loadometer stations had generally been published in report or tabular form (29). However, the weight data had not been reported by individual staition and, therefore, were useless for a detailed study of the effects of local conditions. Other published data ( $9,10,28$ ) were likewise deficient.

Fortunately, all weight data obtained from the permanent loadometer stations after 1949 had been placed on punched cards. Each card contained information concerning the axle weights of one vehicle. These original cards became the primary source of available weight data.

Vehicle classification data in sumarized form were virtually non-existent except for those data taken at the permanent loadometer stations and reported in the W-tables of the vehicle-weight-and-classification-study reports. The bulk of classification data were obtained through a manual search of available files of the Division of Planning.

The study period was chosen to include the years of 1950 through 1966. It is recalled that, for prior years, the weight data were not available on punched cards and that the classification data were not in proper form.

## DATA FORMAT

With the exception of toll-road data, all available vehicle classification and weight data obtained from all sources during the study period have been assembled as a part of this study. The resulting data set includes both rural and urban data even through the urban data has yet to be analyzed.

## Station Locations

Each location at which data were obtained was assigned a specific station number. Rather extensive efforts were made to assure that each location was
assigned only one number even though surveys may have been taken at that location for different purposes and at different times. To assure consistency in the numbering scheme, all past numbers which had been assigned to specific locations were discarded. The stations were then assigned word descriptions as illustrated by Figure 3. Reasonable efforts were made to assure consistency in the descriptions among the many station locations.

## Indexes

Two indexes have been provided to assist in the identification and location of relevant vehicle classification data. The first of these is an index by route which lists the station numbers located on a specific route. Figure 4 illustrates this type of index. The second type of index, which is 111ustrated by Figure 5, enables the Identification of those particular locations within each county at which classification data have been obtained and summarized.



Figure 4. Example of Inlex by Route.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ADAIR | 100 | 101 | 102 | 103 | 104 | 105 | 106 | 107 | 108 | 859 |  |  |  |  |
| ALLEN | 109 | 110 |  |  | 113 |  | 115 | 116 | 117 | 118 |  |  |  |  |
| ANDERSON | 119 | 120 | 121 | 122 | 123 | 443 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ballard | 124 | 125 | 126 | 127 | 129 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| barren | 29 | 135 | 136 | 137 | ${ }_{1}^{13}$ | 139 | 140 | 141 | 142 | 143 | 144 |  | 146 | 147 |
|  | 148 | 149 | 150 | 151 | 152 | 153 | 154 | 155 | 362 |  |  |  |  |  |
| - BAIH |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 156 | 157 | 158 | 159 | 160 | 161 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| BELL |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 85 | 162 | 163 | 164 | 165 | 166 | 167 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| - moone |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 168 | 169 | 170 | 171 | 172 | 477 | 629 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| - bQureon |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | $\begin{array}{r} 47 \\ 550 \\ \hline \end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |  | 177 |  | 179 | 180 |  | 182 | 183 | 184 |

Figure 5. Example of Index by County.

## Codes

Numerous codes are used to identify and describe the assimilated data. Table 7, which has been presented previously, describes the codes used to classify local conditions of each station at which classification or weight data had been obtained. In addition, use was made of codes to describe other relevant information and variables. These codes are summarized in Tables 8 and 9 .

TABLE 8

CODIFICATION OT VARIABLES
OTHER THAN LOCAL CONDITTONS

| Variable | Data <br> Bank <br> Code | Code for <br> Subsequently <br> Reported <br> Analyses |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 | None |

TABLE 8 (Cont'd.)

| Variable | Data <br> Bank | Code for <br> Subsequently | Description |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Code | Reported Analyses | Description |
|  | 20 | 6 | C-3A |
|  | 21 | None | C-4A (2A Trac., 2A Tlr.) |
| Vehicle Types (Cont'd.) | 22 | None | C-4A (3A Trac., 1A T1r.) |
|  | 23 | 7 | A11 C-4A |
|  | 24 | None | C-5A (3A Trac., 2A T1r.) |
|  | 25 | None | C-5A (2A Trac., 3A T1r.) |
|  | 26 | 8 | A11 C-5A |
|  | 27 | 9 | C-6A (or more) |
|  | 1 | None | Single empty |
|  | 2 | None | Single loaded |
|  | 3 | None | All singles |
|  | 4 | None | Bi-tandem empty |
|  | 5 | None | Bi-tandem loaded |
| Axle | 6 | None | All bi-tandems |
| Type | 7 | None | Tri-tandem empty |
|  | 8 | None | Tri-tandem loaded |
|  | 9 | None | A11 tri-tandems |
|  | 10 | None | A11 axles (empty) |
|  | 11 | None | A11 axles (loaded) |
|  | 12 | None | All axles (total) |
| Data | 1 | None | Partial count |
| Limitation | 2 | None | Partial count, location uncertain |
|  | 3 | None | Location uncertain |

The source code provided a means for identifying the type of survey used to obtain the data. The classification-data-availability and loadometer-dataavailability codes were used to correlate the two types of data. The vehicletype codes were established so that codes from 1 to 9 represent passenger vehicles, 10 to 19 represent single--unit trucks, and 20 to 29 represent truck semitrailer combinations. These codes were selected in order to provide maximum flexibility for possible future use. Experience accumulated during the study, however, dictated a reduction in the number of significant vehicle types to eight for purposes of analysis.

The axle-type code distinguished the type of axle and the condition of the vehicle, that is, empty or loaded. The "all axles" categories treat all axles as if they are single axles. The data-limitation code was used to identify those data obtained from other than 24 -hour surveys and/or stations whose locations are uncertain. Finally, it was desirable to codify certain

TABLE 9
WEIGHT-CATEGORY CODES

|  |  | Axleload Interval (kips) |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Code | Single Axles | Bi-Tandem Axles | Tri--Tandem Axles |
|  |  |  | $0-21$ |
| 1 | $0-7$ | $0-14$ | $21-27$ |
| 2 | $7-9$ | $14-18$ | $27-33$ |
| 3 | $9-11$ | $18-22$ | $33-39$ |
| 4 | $11-13$ | $22-26$ | $39-45$ |
| 5 | $13-15$ | $26-30$ | $45-51$ |
| 6 | $15-17$ | $30-34$ | $51-57$ |
| 7 | $17-19$ | $34-38$ | $57-63$ |
| 8 | $19-21$ | $38-42$ | $63-69$ |
| 9 | $21-23$ | $4-46$ | $69-75$ |
| 10 | $23-25$ | $46-50$ | $75-81$ |
| 11 | $25-27$ | $50-54$ | $81-87$ |
| 12 | $27-29$ | $54-58$ | $87-100$ |
| 13 | $29-100$ | $58-100$ |  |

standard axleload intervals. The codes chosen to accomplish this are shom in Table 9.

## Classification Data

The classification data were placed on punched cards with one card summa.rizing the results of each count. Figure 6 illustrates the format of the basic data cards. Note that for urban stations (road type 6) most of the local conditions have not been codified. Note also that for partial counts two additional numbers are given. The first represents the length of the count, in hours, and the second represents the hour the count was begun. The daily traffic is the total number of vehicles that were counted.

While the format illustrated by Figure 6 is useful for storing all of the relevant data, it was rather inconvenient for data processing purposes. Therefore the data set was purged of unwanted data and reproduced on punched cards as shown in Figure 7. The localwcondition codes shown in Figure 7 are those used for purposes of analysis.

## Weight Data

The sumarized weight data were placed on magnetic tape for convenient storage and processing. Data for each weighing operation were stored on 96 sequential records. One record was required for each combination of eight vehicle types which were weighed, and the 12 axle types. Figure 8 illustrates the 96 records for one particular operation. The percentages shown represent integer tenths of a percent. Thus the number 1000 represents 100 percent. The


Figure 6. Example of Basic Classification Data.


Figure 7. Example of Iodified Classification Data.

"number of axles" represents the number of axles actually weighed.
The basic information summarized in Figure 8 is the axleload distributions by vehicle and axle types. Subsequent to the decision to treat the weight data in terms of unit EWL's, the basic data were transformed as illustrated in Figure 9. Figure 9 shows the data format as used herein for purposes of analysis.

## EXTENT OF AVAILABLE DATA

It should be emphasized that, with one exception, all vehicle classifica-tion and weight data known to be available for the 17 -year study period have been incorporated into the data bank. The one exception is the vehicle-classification data obtainable from toll-road records.

Classification data were available from approximately 730 different rural locations. A total of 1871 counts were taken at these locations and approximately $6,100,000$ vehicles were counted. The number of different rural locations at which vehicles were weighed is 51 . The total number of vehicles weighed at these locations was approximately 69,000 .

| UNIT EHLS |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| RDASVMHYS ILRPGGDRE | $\begin{array}{r} \text { VEH } \\ \text { TYPE } \end{array}$ | KENTUCKY EWL/VEH | $\begin{aligned} & \text { AASHO } \\ & \text { EWLVEH } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { MODIFIED } \\ & \triangle A S H D \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { NUMBER } \\ & \text { OF } \end{aligned}$ |
| $R \quad W \quad A$ |  |  |  | EWL/VEH | AXLES |
| 213434393 | 7 | 1.9920 | 0.2080 | 0.2220 | 24 |
| 21334343993 | 8 | 2.3400 | 0.1703 | 0.2459 | 15 |
| 2134344393 | 9 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
|  | 3 | 0.0 | 0.0040 | 0.0040 | 54 |
| 221564493 | 4 | 2.0020 | 0.1584 | 0.1584 | 15.8 |
| 221564493 | 5 | 5.6610 | 0.3470 | 0.5079 | 27 |
| 221564493 | 6 | 2.46800 | 0.2401 | 0.2401 | 54 |
| 221564493 | 7 | 9.3360 | 0.6435 | 0.7517 | 136 |
| 221564493 | 8 | 9.3850 | 0.5452 | 0.8048 | 320 |
| 221564493 | 9 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
| 212394493 | 3 | 0.0 | 0.0056 | 0.0056 | 34 |
|  | 4 | 5.2340 | 0.2723 | 0.2723 | 292 |
| 212394493 | 5 | 24.0.6720 | 0.6710 | 0.9992 | 63 |
| 212394493 | 6 | 8.7750 | 0.6668 | 0.6668 | 78 |
| 212394493 | 7 | 23.9600 | 1.0649 | 1.3377 | 348 |
| 212394493 | 8 | 32.0150 | 1.1882 | 1.9208 | 630 |
| 2123.94493 | 9 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
|  | 3 | 0.0 | 0.0040 | 0.0040 | 60 |
| 212344293 | 4 | 2.4500 | 0.1623 | 0.1623 | 98 |
| 212344293 | 5 | 89.2439 | 0.5923 | 1.7203 | 9 |
| 212344293 | 6 | 6.8820 | 0.5272 | 0.5272 | 27 |
| 212344293 | 7 | 19.7600 | 0.8838 | 1.1994 | 104 |
| 212344293 | 8 | 47.7550 | 1.6340 | 2.5468 | 330 |
| 212344293 | 9 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
| 112474293 | 3 | 0.0 | 0.0040 | 0.0040 | 34 |
| 112474293 | 4 | 1.8380 | 0.1467 | 0.1467 | 186 |
| 112474293 | 5 | 2.6160 | 0.1792 | 0.2358 | 24 |
| 122474293 | 6 | 7.7940 | 0.5816 | 0.5816 | 204 |
| 112474293 | 7 | 10.3320 | 0.6727 | 0.7803 | 800 |
| 112474293 | 8 | 13.1700 | 0.7154 | 1.0674 | 2245 |

Figure 9. Example of Modified Weight Data.

## SUMMARY OF AVAILABLE DATA

The extensive data compilations of this study presented the unique opportunity for obtaining summary statistics of traffic parameters used in estinating EWL's. Such statistics are presented herein for both those parameters currently used in Kentucky and those proposed for future use.

SUMMARY OF PARAMETERS USED IN PRESENT METHOD
The current EWL-prediction procedure requires evaluation of the following traffic parameters: (1) $A D T$, (2) the average percent trucks, (3) the average number of axles per truck, and (4) the average axleload distribution. One of the difficulties that has been encountered in making EWL estimates in the past has been the lack of a detailed summary of these parameters over a sufficiently long span of time. With the exception of ADT, the data assembled as a part of this study made possible the compilation of such a summary.

The parameters which are summarized include: (1) the average percent trucks, (2) the average number of axles per truck, (3) the average axleload distribution, (4) the average EWL's per 1,000 vehicles, and (5) the average EWL's per 1,000 trucks. Weighted averages of these parameters were computed as a function of year, traffic volume, and geographical area. These three variables were chosen as a basis for the grouping since (1) they have historical significance (10), (2) they are known to influence the magnitudes of the parameters, and (3) they are easily evaluated. The averages were weighted according to the number of vehicles counted at each location. Thus if 12 percent trucks was observed at a location where the 24 -hour count was 3,000 vehicles and 18 percent trucks where the corresponding count was 6,000 vehicles, the weighted average would be 16 percent trucks.

Appendix A shows the average percent trucks and the average number of axles per truck as a function of year, traffic volume, and geographical area. Also shown are the statewide averages of these parameters. The average rural traffic in the Commonwealth over the 17 -year period consisted of 18.26 percent trucks and the average nurber of axles per truck was 2.911. A truck was deffined in the conventional way as being any freight vehicle having six or more tires. Thus pickup trucks are excluded from these and subsequent tabulations. The tabulations are based on all vehicle classification data including, in part, those obtained at the loadoneter stations. Average values of both parameters are highly influenced by traffic volume and somewhat less by geographical area. The influence of year on percent trucks is sporadic and inconsequential - it is of extreme importance, however, for average number of axles per truck. The statewide average annual change in the number of axles per truck was 0.034 for the lowest volume group and 0.085 for the highest (compare with Table 3).
$1_{\text {An }}$ early attempt to estimate EWL's that had been accumulated on Kentucky highways was based on the use of these three variables. The results proved to be highly successful and useful.

Average axleload distributions for truck axles are shown in Appendix B. These distributions were computed on the basis of those stations for which both classification and weight data were available. Thus a large number of entries are zero, especially for the lower volume groups. The total number of axles which were counted are shown in the last columns of the tabulations. Appendix $B$ shows that the percentage of heavier axles generally increased as the traffic volume increased and as the year became more recent. Slight differences in the axleload distributions can be observed among the four geographical area.

Two parameters which incorporate the combined effects of vehicle composition and weight characteristics are the average ENL's contributed by 1,000 vehicles and by 1,000 trucks. These parameters are summarized in Appendix $C$. The basis for computation was again data obtained from the permanent and special loadometer surveys. As such the statistics are representative only of summer and late spring conditions. EWL's were computed by three different methods: the Kentucky method, the AASHO method, and a modified AASHO method. The modified AASHO method used the AASHO equivalency factors for single axles and treated each tandem axle as two single axles. For any given traffic condition, the modified AASHO EAL's are equal to or slightly greater than the corresponding AASHO EAL's. When computing the Kentucky ENL's, contributions by all four-tired vehicles were assumed to be negligible. These parameters were significantly influenced by year, volume, and geographical area.

## SUMMARY OF PARAMETERS USED IN PROPOSED METHOD

The parameters proposed for future use include the percentages of the various vehicle types and their unit ENL's. Weighted means and weighted standard deviations of these parameters were computed as a function of each of the local conditions identified in Table 7. Appendices D and E show the resulting tabulations for the vehicle-type percentages and the unit EWL's, respectively.

Since means and standard deviations were computed, some technique for weighting the raw data had to be selected. Three possible techniques included: (1) weighting by the exact number of vehicles counted or weighed, (2) weighting by a group number based on the number of vehicles counted or weighed, and (3) giving equal weight to each counting or weighing operation. Table 10 shows the effect on mean Kentucky unit EWL's of the three weighting schemes. The weights assigned to the groups in the second method are given on Table 11.

Distinct differences in the mean unit EWL's computed by these three schemes may be noted from Table 10. The third or unweighted method was immediately rejected since it was felt that more importance should be attached to data obtained from a large number of vehicles than to that obtained from a smaller number. The second method of weighting by groups was ultinately selected for the following reasons: (1) it gave more weight to data obtained from larger numbers of vehicles, (2) it could be applied in the multiple regression analysis that was to follow, and (3) it did not give excessive weight to the extremely high-volume stations. Table 11 gives the weights which were assigned and which were used in preparation of Appendices $D$ and $E$. These weights were used in all subsequent data analyses.

One observation immediately apparent from the tabulations of Appendices $D$ and $E$ is that the data are extremely variable. Coefficients of variation in

EFFECT OF WEIGETING ON MEAN KENTUCKY UNIT EWL'S

|  | Mean Unit EWL's Weighted by |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Vehicle <br> Type | Exact Number of <br> Vehicles Weighed | Groups by Number <br> of Vehicles Weighed | Unweighted |
| SU-2A-4T | 0.02 | 0.04 | 0.09 |
| SU-2A-6T | 3.31 | 3.19 | 3.09 |
| SU-3A | 12.55 | 10.04 | 8.24 |
| C-3A | 9.30 | 8.89 | 8.76 |
| C-4A | 15.77 | 15.25 | 13.40 |
| C-5A | 18.92 | 18.33 | 15.24 |

## TABLE 11

WEIGHTING BY GROUPS

Vehicle-Type Percentages
Traffic Volume Weight (ADT)

0-499 1
500-999 2
1000-1999 3
2000-2999 4
3000-3999 5
4000-5999 6
6000-7999 7 8000-9999 8
$10,000-13,999 \quad 9$
14,000 or more $\quad 10$

Unit EWL's
Number of Weight Vehicles Weighed

0-15 1
16-30 2
31-60 3
61-120 4
121-240 5
241 or more 6
excess of 100 percent are not uncommon.
effects of local conditions
A first indication of the relative effects of the various local conditions on the traffic parameters can be obtained from Appendices D and E. One must be cautious, however, in interpreting average results such as these because of the non-random nature of the sampling and because of the interactions which exist among many of the local conditions.

The effect of road type on the various traffic parameters is quite pronounced. The road-type classification delineated in this report is not only a functional classification system but also is indicative of the quality of service provided. This results in a larger percentage of the larger types of vehicles using the higher quality highways and a larger percentage of cars on the lower type facilities. Because different highways in Kentucky are classified at different legal gross weights, the larger trucks can be operated efficiently only on the higher quality roads which have the larger weight limits. Interestingly, the average unit ind's are generally larger for the lower classes of highways. This reflects, in part, a more efficient utilization of vehicle capacities on these roads.

The percentage of pessenger cars using north-south routes is not signifi-cantly different from that using east-west routes. However, slightly more of the larger trucks use the north-south routes and their unit EwL's are significantly greater. This difference in unit EWL's may be due to the degree to which these vehicles are loaded, the density of the cargo, and significant differences in the average local conditions such as road type and maximum allowable gross weight.

The data support the conclusions that larger vehicles tend to use the superior of two alternate routes and that these vehicles are also more heavily loaded on the superior routes. The vehicle--type percentages and the unit EWL's are not significantly different for routes in which there is no alternate, there is an alternate of equal quality, or there is an alternate of inferior quality.

Service provided also yielded some significant indications as to traffic characteristics. Recreational roads carried much larger percentages of passenger cars and mining roads carried larger percentages of SU-2A-6T and SU- 3A trucks, which are the vehicle configurations most often used for hauling coal and aggregates. Furthermore, the SU- $2 \mathrm{~A}-6 \mathrm{~T}$ and SU-3A trucks were loaded much more heavily on the mining roads. Beyond this, the effects of service provided are unknown due to the limited data available for many of the codes and the difficulties associated with evaluating this local condition.

The percentage of passenger cars generally increases as the traffic volume increases. The percentages of the larger vehicle types seem to peak in the range of 4,000 to 6,000 vehicles per day. The weights of the vehicles, as indicated by their average unit EWL's, seen to reach a mininum in this same range.

Maximum allowable gross weight is a significant determinant of the
percentages of the various vehicles types. The maximum percentages of C-5A, $\mathrm{C}-4 \mathrm{~A}$, and $\mathrm{C}-3 \mathrm{~A}$ vehicles occurred at maximum allowable gross weights of 73,280 pounds, 59,640 pounds, and 42,000 pounds, respectively. These represent legally allowable weights at which the respective vehicle capabilities can be most effectively utilized. The effects of maximum allowable gross weight on average unit EWL's is significant but not readily explainable. A part of the difficulty stems from the relative scarcity of data. Independent data analyses have shown, however, that the mean unit EWL's for the four largest vehicles are essentially constant when the ratio of the vehicle weight capacity to the maximum allowable gross weight is less than one. When the ratio exceeds one, the mean unit EWL's are significantly reduced.

The effects of year are significant on both the vehiclewtype percentages and the unit ENL's. However, it is felt that much of the yearly influence is due to changing maximum allowable gross weights, a condition which makes evaluation of these average statistics particularly difficult.

Finally, detection of possible seasonal differences in unit EWL's is impossible since loadometer surveys have been taken only during the sumer and later spring months in Kentucky. Significant differences were detected, however, in the vehicle-type percentages with the maximum percentage of cars occurring during the summer months for these rural highways.

## prediction of traffic parameters

The proposed methodology requires evaluation of the percentages of the various vehicle types and their unit EWL's. For the sake of simplicity and to assure compatibility between the available classification and weight data, the number of vehicle types was limited to eight. These include (1) cars, (2) buses, (3) single-unit, two-axle, four-tired (SU-2A-4T) trucks, (4) single-unit, two-axle, six-tired (SU-2A-6T) trucks, (5) single-unit, three-axle (SU-3A) trucks, (6) combination, three-axle (C-3A) trucks, (7) combination, four-axle ( $\mathrm{C}-4 \mathrm{~A}$ ) trucks, and (8) combination, five-axle ( $\mathrm{C}-5 \mathrm{~A}$ ) trucks. Unit EWL's were evaluated by each of three methods including the Kentucky method, the AASHO method, and the modified AASHO method. The modified AASHO method uses the AASHO equivalency factors but makes no special recognition of tandem axles.

The approach for relating the traffic parameters with the local conditions was empirical in nature. Each parameter was separately treated as the dependent variable and the local conditions as the independent variables. Each parameter was quantified as a continuous variable while each local condition was codified on the basis of classification sets. The various methods which were considered for correlating the traffic parameters with local conditions are detailed in the following section. Each method was judged with regard to its accuracy, its simplicity, its reasonableness, and its predictability.

METHODS
Combinatorial Analysis
It was recognized at the onset that strong interactions might exist among many of the local conditions. For example, route direction was thought to be significant only for the higher type facilities. Such interactions can be properly treated, when the independent variables are characterized by classification sets, by grouping the available data into categories representative of each possible combination of the independent variables. The average values of the dependent variables within each combination would then serve as the best estimates of future traffic if the future state of each of the relevant local conditions could be established.

Such a scheme proved to be extremely valuable in some preliminary investigations in which the number of local conditions was limited to three: namely, year, geographical area, and traffic volume. The purpose of these investigations was to derive a simple means for estimating past accumulations of EWL's on selected rural highways in Kentucky. The number of possible combinations of the local conditions in this analysis was 340 . Unfortunately when the number of local conditions increases, the number of possible combinations of these conditions increases rapidly. In fact the number of possible combinations for all of the local conditions enumerated herein, excluding year and season, exceeds 40,000 . Since the available data could not support such a detailed categorization, the combinatorial analysis could not be a feasible approach for this problem.

Perhaps the easiest way to predict the traffic parameters is to compute their mean values from the available data and to use these values for predictions. This is basically the approach chosen by California in their unit EWL tabulations (Table 5). One way to consider the effects of local conditions is simply to modify the gross means based on intuition and judgement. Since this procedure was judged to be unsatisfactory, the gross-means approach was not pursued further.

If it can be assumed that interactions among the local conditions are inconsequential, then the effects of local conditions can be evaluated by applying a series of correction or adjustment factors to the gross means. There is one correction factor for each local condition and its value is determined by the local-condition code. To apply this procedure, the gross means are first computed. Then average residuals between the actual parameter values and the gross means are computed for each value of one selected local condition. The process is repeated for the second and subsequent local conditions by computing average residuals between actual values and those predicted from the gross means and the correction factors from previously analyzed local conditions. The entire process is iterated to reduce the effect of the chosen sequence of local conditions.

Computer programs for derivation of correction factors verified the feasibility of this approach. It was found that the correction factors converged after a maximum of about five iterations. Furthermore it was shown that the order in which the local conditions were evaluated had no effect on the values of the correction factors.

A very relevant question is whether the correction factors should be additive or multiplicative. It is apparent that the final choice should be based largely on the accuracy attained. However a special problem arose through the use of additive factors -- due to the prediction of several negative percentages and negative unit ENL's. While adjustment procedures can be derived which assure no negative predictions, such procedures are rather arbitrary and are unnecessary if multiplicative factors are used.

The correction-factor approach may be somewhat deficient because consideration of interactions among the local conditions is precluded. This deficiency can be partially alleviated if it is possible to identify two or three local conditions having strong interactions. Average values of the traffic parameters are then computed for all possible combinations of this restricted set of local conditions. The effects of the remaining local conditions are treated independently as correction factors applied to the average basic percentages in much the same manner as outlined above. The primary difference is that in the former case the correction factors are applied to the gross means while in the latter case they are applied to classified means computed for various combinations of the interacting local conditions.

The two inmediately preceding methods are based on iterative procedures designed to eliminate the effects of the order in which the correction factors are applied. Accuracy can possibly be improved not only by maintaining a

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The two immediately preceding methods are based on iterative procedures designed to eliminate the effects of the order in which the correction factors are applied. Accuracy can possibly be improved not only by maintaining a
specified sequence of correction-factor application but also by selecting values of the correction factors based on both the coded values of the local conditions and on the prior predictions. This approach was also successfully programmed. The prior prediction of percent trucks was used as a determinant of the value of the corrective factor.

## Multiple Regression

Detailed study of the data in Appendices D and E led to the identification of another possible method of analysis. Average values of the parameters could be taken from these tables for each of the local conditions. These averages could in turn be averaged over all the local conditions to obtain the desired estimates. This procedure would give equal weight to the importance of each of the local conditions. Since the validity of such a weighting scheme was highly suspect, methods were sought in which a different weight, which would be indicative of the relative importance of the local condition, could be assigned to the averages for each local condition.

Conventional multiple regression techniques were found to provide a suitable answer to the problem. Use was made of a standard, stepwise, multiple regression program in the University of Kentucky statistical library of computer programs (30). This program, called MULTR, satisfactorily established the weights to be applied to the average estimates for each local condition. The weights were found to depend on the particular traffic parameter being evaluated.

One final method was evaluated for correlating the traffic parameters with local conditions. This is a multiple regression technique using dummy variables which is useful in those situations in which the independent variables are treated as classification sets (31). For this problem, the $j$ th local condition, represented by $n_{j}$ codes, is replaced by ( $n_{j}-1$ ) dummy variables. For example, if there are only two local conditions, road type and traffic volume, the dummy variables, which are independent variables, would be as shown on Table 12. No dummy variable is assigned to one category for each local condition in order to make estimates of the constant term and all the coefficients in the regression equation mathematically determinant. The dumny variable is assigned a value of either one, if the local condition is characterized by the corresponding code, or zero if it is not. Table 13 illustrates this procedure for the two local conditions of Table 12. Thus for road-type 2 and trafficvolume 8, dummy varlables $\mathrm{X}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{X}_{11}$ would assume values of one and the remaining dummy variables, zero. For road-type 4 and traffic-volume 10, all dumay variables would assume values of zero.

If the effects of the various local conditions are additive, the corresponding regression equation is

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y=a_{0}+a_{1} X_{1}+a_{2} X_{2}+\ldots+a_{12} X_{12} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Y=$ the traffic parameter of interest,
$a_{0}=$ regression constant,
$a_{j}=$ regression coefficients, and

ILLUSTRATION OF DUMMY VARTABLES

| Condition | Code | Dunmy |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Variable |
|  | 1 | $\mathrm{X}_{1}$ |
| Road | 2 | $\mathrm{X}_{2}$ |
| Type | 3 | $\mathrm{X}_{3}$ |
|  | 4 | None |
|  | 1 | $\mathrm{X}_{4}$ |
|  | 2 | $\mathrm{X}_{5}$ |
|  | 3 | $\mathrm{X}_{6}$ |
|  | 4 | $\mathrm{X}_{7}$ |
| Traffic | 5 | $\mathrm{X}_{8}$ |
| Volume | 6 | $\mathrm{X}_{9}$ |
|  | 7 | $\mathrm{X}_{10}$ |
|  | 8 | $\mathrm{X}_{11}$ |
|  | 9 | $\mathrm{X}_{12}$ |
|  | 10 | None |

TABLE 13

ILLUSTRATION OF VALUES OE DUMY VARIABLES

$X_{j}=$ dummy variable.
It may be seen, therefore, that $a_{o}$ becomes the best estimate of the traffic parameter in the above example for road-type 4 and traffic-volume 10 . If the effects of the various local conditions are multiplicative, the relation between the traffic parameter and the local condition is shown as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{Y}=\mathrm{b}_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{~b}_{1}^{\mathrm{X}_{1_{b_{2}}}} \mathrm{X}_{2} \ldots \mathrm{~b}_{12}^{\mathrm{X}_{12}} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

The corresponding regression equation becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
Z=c_{0}+c_{1} X_{1}+c_{2} X_{2}+\ldots+c_{12} X_{12} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Z=\ln Y$ and

$$
c_{i}=\ln b_{i}
$$

The above procedures and equations can be generalized to include the nine local conditions of Table 7 , in which case there are 40 dumm variables. It may further be generalized to include interactions among two or more of the local conditions by redefining the dumny variables so that each dummy variable corresponds to one combination of the interacting local conditions. This greatly increases the number of dummy variables and was not attempted due to program limitations which restrict the number of dummy variables to 50.

Summary
Several possible methods for correlating the relevant traffic parameters with local conditions have been outlined above. The feasibility of each of these has been established as a part of this study. The selection of a particular method must be based, however, on the aforementioned criteria of accuracy, simplicity, reasonableness, and predictability. Following sections of this report present a discussion relative to the selection of appropriate methods. Table 14 summarizes the candidate methods which have been discussed herein. Also presented in Table 14 are abbreviated names of the various methods designed to facilitate future reference. It should be emphasized that most of these methods are readily adaptable to either multiplicative or additive adjustments.

It should also be emphasized that the multiple regression technique using dummy variables is quite similar to the iterative correction factor technique. Differences relate only to the manner in which the various factors and coefficients are established. The multiple regression technique is supported by sound mathematical and statistical theory while the correction factor technique is based more on intuition and judgement.

TABLE 14

METHODS FOR CORRELATION OF
TRAFEIC PARAMETERS WITH LOCAL CONDITIONS

## Description

Combinatorial means None
Gross means None
Correction factor based on gross means, no interaction, iterative ..... FACTI
Correction factor based on classified means, $1 i m i t e d$ interaction, iterative ..... FACT2means, limited interaction, prior knowledge
Correction factor based on classified
FACT3
Multiple regression, averages ..... MULTRA
Multiple regresslon, dummy variables

Predicting vehicle-Type percentages
Selection of Predictive Methodology
With the exception of combinatorial means, each of the possible methods of Table 14 for correlating the vehicle type percentages with the local conditions was investigated. The gross means approach was immediately rejected since all other methods were found to yield superior accuracies. The remaining methods were compared on the basis of the four criteria of relative simplicity, reasonableness, accuracy, and predictability and a recommended method was developed.

Of interest first was whether there were significant differences in accuracy between the correction factor techniques and the multiple regression techniques. The other criteria for comparison were assumed to be identical for both of the techniques. Using additive factors (similar to Equation 3) for predicting the percentage of $\mathrm{C}-4 \mathrm{~A}$ trucks, correlation coefficients of $0.78,0.78$, and 0.79 were obtained by FACT1, MULTRA, and MULTRD, respectively. The $\mathrm{C}-4 \mathrm{~A}$ truck was chosen for this analysis since it has been the largest single contributor to EWL accumulations on rural highways in Kentucky. A11 available vehicle classification data were used in this and subsequent analyses. Similar estimates of the percentage of cars using FACT1 and MULTRD yielded correlation coefficients of 0.62 and 0.60 , respectively. It was, therefore, concluded that there were no significant differences between the correction
factor and multiple regression techniques and that an intelligent selection of the best of these techniques would have to be based on other considerations. Similarly no significant difference was observed between the dummy variable (MULTRD) and the averages (MULTRA) multiple regression techniques.

One factor which would dictate a choice of the correction factor techniques would be to verify the necessity for including interaction effects among two or more of the local conditions. Thus estimates were made of the percentages of cars and C-4A trucks using FACT1 and FACT2. In both cases, all nine local conditions were considered and additive factors were used. PACT2 used road type, direction, and alternate route as the three interacting local conditions. Estimates of the percentage of cars yielded correlation coefficients of 0.62 and 0.63 for FACT1 and FACT2, respectively. Similar estimates of the percentage of C-4A trucks yielded correlation coefficients of 0.78 and 0.80 for FACT1 and FACT2, respectively. Since the three interacting local conditions of FACM2 had not been shown to be optimal and since slightly larger accuracies were achieved with $\operatorname{ACT} 2$, it was concluded that interaction might well be significant. This led to the immediate rejection of the multiple regression techniques since sufficient program capability was not available for handing even a limited number of interactions. Subsequent analyses showed that the three interacting local conditions used by FACT2 were not optimal and that larger correlation coefficients would have been achieved with FACT2 if other interacting local conditions had been specified.

Having decided that interactions among at least three of the local conditions were significant, it was then necessary to ascertain whether the remaining local conditions should be represented by correction factors (1) which were order independent and derived using iterative procedures or (2) which were order dependent and responsive not only to the local conditions but also to the prior predictions. The variable representing prior predictions was percent trucks; three conditions were chosen depending on whether the prior predictions of percent trucks were less than 15 percent, between 15 and 19 percent, or greater than 19 percent. Additive factors were used and the three inter.active local conditions were, as before, road type, direction, and alternate route. Predictions of the percentage of cars yielded correlation coefficients of 0.63 and 0.66 for FACT2 and FACT3, respectively. Predictions of the per.centage of $\mathrm{C}-4 \mathrm{~A}$ trucks yielded correlation coefficients of 0.80 and 0.82 for FACT2 and FACT3, respectively. These results indicated the slight superiority in accuracy for predictions based on a specified sequence of correction-factor application and prior estimates. At the same time, use of the procedures required by FACT3 were considerably more complicated and susceptible to increased human error. Therefore, FACT2 was chosen for use in predicting the vehicle type percentages.

Remaining to be decided was whether the correction factors should be additive or multiplicative. The criterion of reasonableness weighed heavily in favor of the specification of multiplicative factors since their use negates the possibility of negative predictions. Data were already at hand from previous results of MULTRD with which to ascertain the superior of the two techniques with regard to accuracy. Correlation coefficients of 0.79 and 0.86 for cars and 0.60 and 0.57 for $C-4 \mathrm{~A}$ trucks had been obtained for additive and multiplicative factors, respectively. Since these accuracy determinations were inclusive and since multiplicative factors were superior on the basis of reasonableness, multiplicative factors were selected.

## Final Predictive Technique

The method that had been chosen to relate the vehicle type percentages to the local conditions was the correction-factor technigue considering inter-actions among some of the local conditions and applying independent multiplicative correction factors to account for the remainder. However, several remaining items had to be considered in order to establish the viability of the technique as a predictive tool.

Not minor among these was the maner in which the time variable, year, was to be considered in the predictive process. Prior work as sumarized in Figure 10 showed how various additive correction factors had been affected by year during the 17 -year study period. Certainly data such as these furnished no reasonable basis from which to predict the possible effects of future years. The most promising solution was to exclude year from the analysis and to ascertain how the accuracy was thereby affected. Data were available from prior use of MULTRD and FACT3 which showed that exclusion of year caused a reduction in the correlation coefficients for predictions of the percentages of cars and $\mathrm{C}-4 \mathrm{~A}$ trucks of less than 5 percent. It was obvious that this slight decrease in accuracy had to be tolerated and year was subsequently excluded from the analysis.

Remaining to be determined was which of the eight local conditions should be established as those among which interactions are of most significance. Based on the number of possible combinations of the local conditions and the number of avallable data sets, it was considered feasible to include a maximum of three interacting local conditions. For reasons discussed later, season was excluded as a possible candidate for evaluation. From the remaining seven local conditions, eight of the most promising combinations of three conditions were selected intuitively and analyzed jointly on the basis of relative accuracy and predictability. As a result of this analysis, road type, maximum allowable gross weight, and traffic volume were adjudged to exhlbit the most significant interactions anong those investigated.

A set of basic percentages were derived for all possible combinations of these three local conditions. Also derived were a set of malliplicative correction factors for each of the remaining five local conditions to be applied independently to the basic percentages. Sheets 3 and 4 of Appendix F show the final set of basic percentages and multiplicative correction factors recommended for use in predicting vehicle type percentages.

It may be noted from Sheet 4 of this appendix that correction factors are given for the various seasons. These factors have been retained primarily to enable comparisons of vehicle type percentages estimated by the proposed methodology with those observed from specific surveys. To be useful for predicting the annual averages that are desired, however, the seasonal factor must be eliminated. To do this, all 1967 traffic volume data obtained from 42 ATR stations in Kentucky were sumed by season. An annual average of the seasonal correction factors weighted by the seasonal traffic volumes was computed. These weighted averages, which are shom in the computational portions of Sheet 4 , are recommended for use in the predictive process. The fact that these averages approach unity suggests that classification counts have been taken in approximately the same proportions as actual traffic volumes by season.



Figure 10. Influence of Year on Additive Correction Factors.

Finally, the criterion of reasonableness dictates that the sum of the predicted percentages must equal 100 percent. Since the percentage of each vehicle type is predicted independently of the remaining vehicle types, the total percentages will rarely equal 100 percent. For this reason, the initial predictions must often be appropriately modified. Several methods for accomplishing this were suggested. However since all preliminary estimates were close to 100 percent, an elaborate adjustment procedure was felt to be unwarranted. It is recommended, therefore, that the adjustments to 100 percent be made by multiplying each initial prediction by 100 divided by the sum of the initial predictions. This procedure is summarized on Sheet 4 of Appendix $F$.

## Accuracy

The procedures described above, together with the basic percentages presented on Sheet 3 of Appendix $F$ and the multiplicative correction factors pre-sented on Sheet 4 , were used to estimate vehiclewtype percentages for comparison with the actual percentages obtained from past vehicle classification counts. The results of this accuracy comparison are sumnarized in Table 15.

The accuracy of the proposed predictive technique, as indicated by the correlation coefficients, is not good. Some slight decrease in accuracy resulted from the exclusion of year from the set of local conditions. However, this was necessary in order to establish the technique as a valid, predictive tool. Despite the relative inaccuracy of the technique, it was found superior to others of those investigated on the basis of the four criteria of accuracy, simplicity, reasonableness, and predictability. Table 15 also shows that slight increases in accuracy for most vehicle types were achieved by correcting the initial estimates to a total of 100 percent.

## PREDICTING UNIT ENL'S

## Selection of Predictive Methodology

In comparison with the vehicle classification data, the available weight data were much less extensive. Most of the weight data had been obtained from rural, primary routes having relatively high-volume, ordinary types of traffic. All had been obtained during the late spring or summer months. Because of this rather limited data, consideration of interactions among even a limited number of local conditions was felt to be unwarranted. In spite of this, however, analyses of Appendix $E$ and other data indicated that an approach such as gross means would be inappropriate since the local conditions did measurably affect the average unit EWL's. Consideration was limited to multiple regression techniques since possible interactions were not to be investigated and since the correction-factor techniques offered no known advantages over the multiple regression techniques.

Only a cursory analysis was made to ascertain the superior of the MULTRA and MULTRD techniques. Kentucky unit EWL estimates using MULTRA were made for the SU-3A trucks which yielded a correlation coefficient of 0.44 . Similar estimates were also made using MULTRD, additive techniques and which eliminated year and service provided as independent variables. These yielded a correlation coefficient of 0.59 . It was therefore decided that MULTRD was superior to

TABLE 15
ACCURACY OF VEHICLE-TYPE PERCENTAGE ESTTMATES

| Vehicle <br> Type | Mean <br> Percent | Standard <br> Deviation | Standard Error |  | Correlation Coefficient | Number of <br> Vehicles |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | ---: |
| Cars | 71.6718 | 7.1262 | 5.7059 | 5.6479 | 0.5984 | 0.6098 | $4,159,168$ |
| Counted |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

$1_{\text {Estimates }}$ of vehicle-type percentages were corrected to a total of 100 percent.

MULTRA for the unit EWL predictions. MULTRA did allow a determination of the order of importance of the local conditions with regard to the unit EWL parameter for SU-3A trucks. It rated service provided as the most influencial condition followed in decreasing order of importance by maximum allowable gross weight, volume, road type, direction, geographical area, year, and alternate route.

The next item to be considered was whether the factors should be additive (Equation 3) or multiplicative (Equation 4). Estimates were made of Kentucky unit EWL's for C- -4 A trucks using MULTRD with both additive and multiplicative factors. The $C-4 A$ truck was chosen for this analysis since it has been the single most important contributor to EWL accumulations on rural highways in Kentucky. The additive factors yielded a correlation coefficient of 0.76 and the multiplicative, 0.72. Additive factors were chosen, therefore, not only on the basis of their superior accuracy (which was verified for other of the vehicle types as well) but also because they are slightly easier to derive and use. Some reasonableness was sacrificed because of the possibility for predicting negative unit EWL's but this is overshadowed in part by the slight increases in overall accuracy resulting when negative estimates are set equal to zero.

The method which was finally selected for relating unit EWL's with local conditions was, therefore, additive factors derived using multiple regression with dummy variables. The next problem was to assess its reliability as a predictive tool. The most important local condition with regard to future predictions is year. Estimates of unit EWL's for C-4A trucks were made both including and excluding year as an independent variable. These yielded correlation coefficients of 0.76 and 0.72 , respectively. Thus the inclusion of year was found to slightly increase the accuracy with which past unit EWL's for this vehicle type could be estimated. But could year serve as a basis for future predictions? Figure 11 was constructed to ascertain an answer. If attempts were made to extrapolate the data of this figure to future years, the additive correction factor would have to be taken as approximately zero. Thus it would be impossible to discriminate among the effects of future years. Furthernore, because of the interrelationship between year and maximum allowable gross weight, the correction factors for maximum allowable gross weight appear incongruous when year is included as an independent variable. This is apparent from Figure 12. Year was, therefore, excluded as an independent variable for predictive purposes.

Each of the remaining seven local conditions contributed to the analysis, and all were amenable to future predictions with the exception of service provided. Data were available to establish valid correction factors only for service-provided codes of 3,4 , and $5^{1}$. Therefore due to lack of data, service provided was also eliminated as an independent variable --.. causing a further reduction in the corielation coefficient from 0.72 to 0.62 . This represents a significant reduction in accuracy and suggests that more accurate future estimates may be partially dependent on the weighing of vehicles on road representing each of the service-provided categories.

[^1]


Figure 12. Relationship Between Additive Correction Factor and Maximum Allowable Gross Weight (Unit EWL Estimates for C-4A Trucks).

Sheet 5 of Appendix $F$ shows the final additive correction factors for all vehicle types and all types of unit EWL's. The factors for road-type 4 were assumed the same as those for road-type 3 since no welght data had been obtained for the "other rural roads" category. Furthernore, it was necessary to obtain the factors for volume-group 10 by extrapolation since no data were available for this volune group. The base conditions for the predictions are road--type 2 , direction 2, alternate-route 3, volume 5 (except for $C-5 A$ where it is 7), maximum-allowable-gross-weight 4, and geographical area 4. Thus the constant term in each case represents the unit EWL predictions for this set of local conditions.

## Cars and Buses

To enable valid predictions of EWL accumulations, the predictive methodology must recognize all EWL contributions regardless of their source. This reasoning prompted, for example, the separate consideration of SU-2A-4T vehicles since weight data indicated that these vehicles did make slight contributions to the EWL accumulations. The remaining vehicle types which have not yet been considered herein because no weight data were available for analysis are cars and buses. Each must be investigated with regard to its possible effect on EWL accumulations.

Since the gross weights of typical passenger cars are so sma11, it must be assumed that cars have zero unit EWL's when evaluated by Kentucky's procedure. This is necessitated by the fact that Kentucky equivalency factors for axleloads less than 9,000 pounds are zero. For such small axleloads, however, the AASHO equivalency factors axe not zero. In lieu of valid weight data for cax axles, the unit EAL's for cars by AASHO and modified AASHO procedures are assumed to be 0.0002 EAL's per car. This follows from the recommendations of the AASHO Committee on Design (13). This unit CAL is assumed to be constant for all possible sets of local conditions.

Buses, and in particular comercial, intercity buses, pose more significant problems in that their unit EWL's may be rather large. Fortunately with regard to EWL predictions, the numbers of commercial buses on rural highways are rather small so that errors in unit EWL predictions are relatively insignificant in terms of the cotal ENL accumulations. However, a large pexcentage of school buses are found on some rural, low-class roads (as much as 6 percent). Assuming the unit EWL contribution of school buses is equal to that of commerical buses, this means that as high as 50 percent of the total EML's on sone rural roads result from school buses.

Information supplied by Southern Greyhound Lines relative to the axle weights of its commercial buses operated in Rentucky enabled the preparation of Table 16. Since none of these buses has, at present, a tanden axle, the estimates for AASHO and modified AASHO unit EAL's are identical. Unfortunately the data of Table 16 fail to represent the entire problem since school buses and buses operated by other agencies and for other purposes are not included. Furthermore, no information is readily available concerning the average loading of these buses and the percentages of the various bus types. Also shown in Table 16 are arbitrary estimates of unit EWL's which have been chosen to represent the average conditions in Kentucky for all types of buses. These estimates are recomended for use in the predictive equations until such time as more

## UNIT EWL'S OF BUSES

|  | Commercial <br> Buses ${ }^{1}$ <br> (Empty) | Commercfal Buses (Fully loaded) | Estimate <br> Including Other Buses |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kentucky Unit EWL. | 3.6 | 16.0 | 5 |
| AASHO Unit EAL | 0.31 | 1.06 | 0.4 |
| Modified AASHO Unit EAL | 0.31 | 1.06 | 0.4 |

valid data become available. Like the unit EWL estimates for cars, these estimates are not responsive to variations in local conditions.

## Accuracy

The procedures described above, together with the additive factors presented on Sheet 5 of Appendix $F$, were used to estimate unit EWL's for comparison with actual unit EWL's obtained from past weight data. The results of this accuracy comparison are summarized in Table 17.

A brief glance at the tabulated correlation coefficients is sufficient to reveal that the accuracy of the estimates leaves much to be desired. However, no other technique investigated herein yielded superior accuracy as long as it was stipulated that the technique had to represent a valid, predictive procedure. Furthermore, it is apparent from Table 17 that this method of accounting for the effects of local conditions is superior to the gross means approach.

Three other points relative to this accuracy comparison are important:

1. The best accuracy was generally achieved for those vehicle types which contribute most significantly to the EWL accumulations.
2. Generally, estimates of Kentucky unit EWL's are more accurate than either AASHO or modified AASHO unit EAL's.
3. The procedure for correcting negative unit EWL's to zero only slightly improved the accuracy of the estimates. The magnitude of the improvement was greatest where the mean unit EWL was lowest, that is, for the SU-2A-4T vehicle.

TABLE 17
ACCURACY OF UNIT ENL ESTMATES ${ }^{1}$

| Vehicle Type | EVLType | Mean | StandardDeviation | Standard Erro |  | Correlation Coefficien |  | Number of Vehicles |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Unitit } \\ & \text { Eny } \end{aligned}$ |  | Uncorrected | Corrected ${ }^{2}$ | Uncorrected | Corrected ${ }^{2}$ | Vehicles <br> Weighed |
| SU-2A-4T | KY | 0.0415 | 0.644 | 0.632 | 0.630 | 0.192 | 0.212 | 12,349 |
|  | AASHO | 0.0061 | 0.030 | 0.030 | 0.030 | 0.190 | 0.198 |  |
|  | MAASHO ${ }^{3}$ | 0.0061 | 0.030 | 0.030 | 0.030 | 0.190 | 0.198 |  |
| SU-2A-6T | KY | 3.1945 | 4.121 | 3.758 | 3.752 | 0.411 | 0.414 | 23,389 |
|  | AASHo | 0.1787 | 0.088 | 0.081 | 0.031 | 0.377 | 0.377 |  |
|  | MaASHO | 0.1787 | 0.088 | 0.081 | 0.081 | 0.377 | 0.377 |  |
| $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ | KY | 10.0445 | 16.129 | 12.973 | 12.367 | 0.594 | 0.603 | 2,180 |
| SU-3A | AASHO | 0.3391 | 0.289 | 0.235 | 0.234 | 0.578 | 0.583 |  |
|  | MAASHO | 0.5290 | 0.440 | 0.363 | 0.362 | 0.564 | 0.568 |  |
| C-3A | KY | 8.8944 | 6.560 | 6.109 | 6.106 | 0.364 | 0.366 | 12,143 |
|  | AASHO | 0.6071 | 0.270 | 0.253 | 0.253 | 0.351 | 0.351 |  |
|  | MAASHO | 0.6071 | 0.270 | 0.253 | 0.253 | 0.351 | 0.351 |  |
| C-4A | KY | 15.2519 | 9.348 | 7.766 | 7.759 | 0.615 | 0.615 | 14,321 |
|  | AASSHO | 0.3076 | 0.328 | 0.227 | 0.226 | 0.723 | 0.723 |  |
|  | MaAsho | 0.9872 | 0.435 | 0.302 | 0.301 | 0.721 | 0.721 |  |
| c-5A | KY | 18.3338 | 15.225 | 11.478 | 11.471 | 0.658 | 0.658 | 4,302 |
|  | AASHO | 0,7865 | 0.452 | 0.347 | 0.347 | 0.639 | 0.639 |  |
|  | Masmo | 1.2088 | 0.705 | 0.530 | 0.530 | 0.659 | 0.659 |  |

$1_{\text {No }}$ weight data were available for cars or buses.
$2_{\text {Negative }}$ estimates were transformed to zere。
$3_{\text {Modified }}$ AASHO procedures were used.

The legal maximum allowable gross weight on Kentucky highways increased three times during the 17 -year study period. Each increase has greatly affected the EWL accumulations on those particular highways to which the increase applied. Such effects are due to (1) a redistribution of the relative vehicle-type percentages, (2) an increase in the loading of vehicles having weight capacities near to or greater than the prior maximum allowable gross weight, (3) the utilization of heavier vehicles which, prior to the change, were either prohibited or were uneconomical to operate at reduced payloads, and (4) a reduction in the $A D T^{1}$. The underlying rationale is that the choice of vehicle type by a carrier is dependent both on the characteristics of the shipment and on the efficiency with which various vehicle types may be operated within the legal constraints of maximum allowable gross weights and permissive vehicle types.

Inability of past procedures to consider the effects of maximum allowable gross weight has doubtlessly led to underestimates of design EWL's. This current reevaluation endeavor offers a means for rectifying this situation in the future. Two distinct problems immediately emerge.

The first relates to how and when the maximum allowable gross weight may be expected to change. Since these are legislative and administrative matters, they are largely beyond the purview of the engineer; At the same time, it is the engineer's responsibility to predict design EWL's based upon all the information that is available to him. While the matter is not dealt with in depth herein, it is recommended that estimates of design EWL's for high-type, multilane facilities be based on a maximum allowable gross weight of 89,000 pounds. This is approximately equal to the allowable gross weight of a C-6A truck. As an alternate suggestion, the current maximum allowable gross weight might be considered to govern the first 10 years of the design life and an increased allowable weight, the second.

The second problem, which is within the scope of this study, is how to modify the proposed methodology to incorporate a maximum allowable gross weight which lies outside the range of historical experience. Preliminary attempts to establish relationships between the maximum allowable gross weight and the traffic parameters of interest, namely, the vehicle-type percentages and the unit EWL's, were unsuccessful. Two pertinent variables that were identified, however, included the ratio of vehicle gross weight to the highway maximum allowable gross weight and the payload capacities of all competing vehicle types. Complicating the analysis were time lags occurring after a change in maximum allowable gross weight. These were thought to be caused by (1) a delay in the introduction of new equipment and (2) a delay in administering the change for specific routes. It was felt that the entire study period was represented by unstabilized traffic redistributions.

[^2]A simplified procedure can be used, however, to obtain estimates of the EWL's per 1,000 vehicles for different maximum allowable gross weights. The ELL's for 1,000 vehicles would be predicted for each of the four maximum allowable gross weights and the results plotted as illustrated by Figure 13. The curve would be extrapolated to the future maximum allowable gross weight and the result multiplied by the total number of venicles expressed in thousands to obtain the final estimate. Figure 13 is based on predictions of AASHO EAL's for the following situation: road-type 2, direction 2 , alternatemroute 2, serviceprovided 4, volume 4, and geographical-area 4. The above procedure is recommended for use in the absence of a more refined method.

## SUMMARY

Several empirical methods have been investigated for predicting the pertinent traffic parameters on the basis of anticipated local conditions. These methods were compared with respect to the criteria of accuracy, simplicity, reasonableness, and predictability. The chosen method for predicting vehicle type percentages considers three interacting local conditions which establish the base percentages and multiplicative correction factors for independent analysis of the remaining conditions. Year was excluded as an independent variable for predictive purposes. The chosen method for predicting unit EWL's considers additive factors for the independent analysis of each of six local conditions. Year, season, and service provided were excluded as independent


Figure 13. Example Effect of Maximum Allowable Gross Weight on AASHO EAI,'s per 1,000 Vehicles.
variables for predictive purposes.
Work sheets for predicting design EWL's are included as Appendix F. As such, Appendix $F$ summarizes the recommended procedures and presents the necessary data for computational purposes. These data represent averages over the 17 -year study period weighted by the factors of Table 11. An example problem is presented in Appendix $G$ to demonstrate implementation of the recommended procedures.

Appendix F should be used to estimate EWL's for purposes of pavement design except where appropriate data are available for the specific route in question. A method has been given for predicting design EWL's when the anticipated maximum allowable gross weight is in excess of that stipulated in the past. The data of Appendix $F$ may be extended by extrapolation or interpolation as neces.sary in order to obtain valid estimates. For example, missing entries may have to be obtained by extrapolation or interpolation. Judgment may have to be exercised in other instances, such as for a location at or near the boundary of two geographical areas.

Accuracy of the individual estimates of the traffic parameters, as indicated by Tables 15 and 17, was somewhat discouraging. Nevertheless, the recommended technique represents the best available among those investigated and satisfies the basic requirement for a valid prediction procedure which accounts for the effects of local conditions. A portion of the observed errors is doubtlessly due to inappropriateness of the model. At the same time, other errors remain which could not be diminished by any model. These include (1) errors in obtaining and recording data in the field, (2) errors in coding data and local conditions in the office, (3) errors due to large inherent variabilities in the traffic stream, and (4) errors due to non-random nature of the basic data. In addition, the data are representative only of average weekday conditions and the weight data have been obtained only during the spring and summer months.

The true validity of the proposed model can not be assessed solely on the basis of estimates of the individual traffic parameters. Of considerably more significance is the accuracy of estimates of design EWL's or of estimates of pavement thickness resulting therefrom. These matters are considered in the following section.

## ACCURACY VERIFICATION

EWL's were estimated using the proposed method and then compared to actual EWL's for all stations at which both vehicle classification and weight data had been obtained during the study period. There were 51 such stations representing a total of 225 counts for an average of approximately four annual counts per station. Of these, nine were stations for which 11 or more years of data were available and 18 for which seven or more years were available. Thirtyone of the stations were represented by only one or two years of data.

The first comparisons were made on the basis of EWL's per 1,000 vehicles for the 225 individual counts. Table 18 sumarizes the results of these accuracy comparisons. The correlation coefficients are relatively small, which indicates that a large portion of the variability in EWL's per 1,000 vehicles for individual counts remains unexplained.

The actual and predicted total daily EWL's were then computed and compared. Figure 14 shows the results of this comparison for Kentucky EWL's. This figure depicts visually the accuracy of estimates of daily EVL's for individual counts.

Table 18 and Figure 14 indicate that the proposed method for predicting EWL's, while superior to all methods investigated herein, does not enable high accuracy in predicting EWL's for individual counts. This is due in large part to the extreme variability in the actual EWL's that are accumulated at individual stations from year to year. Such variability is depicted on Figure 15a for

TABLE 18
ACCURACY OF ESTIMATES OF EWL'S PER 1,000 VEHICEES FOR 225 INDIVIDUAL COUNTS

| Type of EWL | Actual Mean | Standard <br> Deviation | Standard Error | Correlation Coefficient |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Kentucky <br> (EWL's/1,000 vehicles) | 1535.4 | 1405.3 | 1173.1 | 0.55 |
| AASHO <br> (EAI's/1,000 vehicles) | 82.4 | 54.5 | 42.4 | 0.63 |
| Modifted AASHO <br> (EAL's/1,000 vehicles) | 96.9 | 70.8 | 52.2 | 0.68 |



Figure 14. Comparison of ACtual and Predicted Kentucky EWL's per Day for 225 Individual Counts.


Figure 15. Variability in Kentucky Daily FWL's at Station 8.

Station 8, for which 14 years of data are available. Certainly no predictive procedure can be conceived that would be able to duplicate the actual year-toyear variations that are obvious from this figure. Figure 15a suggests, however, that, if the daily ELL's were accumulated over a period of years, the actual and predicted accumulations might tend to converge. This led to the construction of Figure 15 b which shows, for the same station, the percent error in cummulative daily EWL's as a function of year. The percent error was computed by dividing the difference between the actual and predicted values by the actual value. Following a six-year period of initial instability, the percent errors tend to be reduced as the number of years increased. By extrapolation, the percent error at the end of a 20 -year design period would be about 6 percent, which certainly represents a tolerable error.

Figure 15b lends support to the hypothesis that the proposed predictive methodology becomes more accurate as the predictive period increases. This is of extreme significance since most flexible pavement designs in Kentucky are based on a 20 -year period. Curves similar to that of Figure 15 b are shown in Figure 16 for six of the nine stations for which 11 or more years of data have been accumulated. This figure also shows that the percent errors tend to become stablized and reduced as the time increases.

As a further means for validating the proposed methodology, the influence of the accuracy of the EWL estimates on the accuracy of the design pavement thicknesses was also investigated. First the actual and the estimated EWL's for each of the 51 locations were extrapolated to 20 -year accumulations. These are shown in Figure 17. Then the combined flexible pavement thicknesses including base and pavement were determined (10). These determinations, which are summarized in Figure 18, were based on an arbitrarily-selected design CBR of 5. Differences in the thicknesses based on estimated actual and predicted EWL's seem rather large at first glance. However, it should be recalled that actual data were available for periods of only one or two years for 31 of the 51 stations. This would, of course, decrease the reliability of the estimates of 20-year accumulations of EWL's. Figure 18b suggests that the percent error for stations with data for a 20 -year period would be about 2 percent.

In summary, it is concluded that the proposed method for predicting design ELL's is sufficiently accurate for use in designing flexible pavements. It satisfies the remaining criteria of simplicity, reasonableness, and predictability and provides a suitable means for ascertaining the influence of local conditions.


Figure 16. Percent Error in Kentucky Cumulative Daily FWL's as a Function of Time.



Figure 17. Actual Versus Predicted 20-Year Design ENL's for All Stations.

(a)

(b)

Figure 18. Flexible Pavement Thickness Based on Actual and Predicted 20-Year ENL Accumulations.

Difficulties in obtaining reliable estimates of EWL accumulations for flexible pavement design purposes led to the initiation of this study in 1963. When EWL estimates at specific locations were compared with actual EWL accumulations, major discrepancies were often noted. These discrepancies were believed to be associated with the inability of the predictive procedure to differentiate among many of the routes in other than a qualitative manner.

The prerequisites which were established as a basis for comparing alternate predictive procedures included the following:

1. The predictive model should consider as many of the relevant local conditions which determine the composition and weights of the traffic stream as possible,
2. The predictive model should make full use of all available vehicle classification and weight data, and
3. The predictive model should possess the qualities of simplicity, reasonableness, predictibility, and accuracy.

Evaluation of the methodology currently used in Kentucky led to the search for a more responsive empirical method of prediction. It was assumed that sufficently accurate estimates of ADT would be available and, therefore, could be excluded from consideration. Furthermore, the analyses was restricted to rural areas for which the bulk of data was available. The significant traffic parameters were identified as the percentages of the various vehicle types and their unit EWL's. The local conditions which were found to significantly affect the traffic parameters included road type, direction, alternate route, service provided, traffic volume, maximum allowable gross weight, geographical area, year, and season. Analyses were then made to find a suitable empirical method for predicting the traffic paraneters on the basis of an analysis of the pertinent local conditions.

The chosen method for predicting vehicle-type percentages consists of a set of basic percentages determined jointly by road type, volume, and maximum allowable gross weight and a series of multiplicative correction factors determined independently by direction, season, alternate route, service provided, and geographical area. Independent predictions are made of the percentage of each vehicle type and the results adjusted so that the sum equals 100 percent. The chosen method for predicting unit EWL's is based on a multiple regression model that considers all of the above local conditions, except year, season, and service provided, in an additive fashion. Adjustments are made so that no estimate yields a negative value. Procedures are provided for estimating Kentucky, AASHO, or modified AASHO unit EWL's.

The recommended methodology, which is presented in Appendix $F$, was found to provide a suitable means for predicting EWL accumulations. In no case, however, should the recommended methodology be used if valid traffic data are available for the specific route in question.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recomendations for implementing and extending the efforts of this study are presented for consideration.

1. The proposed methodology for predicting EWL's for rural highways in Kentucky should be adopted for purposes of flexible pavement design. This method has been shown to be a valid predictive tool which can account for the effects of local conditions.
2. Twenty-year predictions of design EWL's should incorporate the effects of probable changes in maximum allowable gross weight on high type, multilane highways. Maximum allowable gross weight has been found to significantly affect EWL accumulations. Four different maximum allowable gross weights have been in effect on Kentucky highways during the 17 -year study period and future changes are likely to occur.
3. Analogous methodologies should be developed to enable valid predictions of EWL's and associated traffic parameters in urban areas. No method currently exists for accurate predictions of design EWL's in these areas.
4. The data banks developed as a part of this study should be continually and routinely updated and maintained. This is essential not only to facilitate future reevaluations of EWL predictions but also to provide the capability for immediate and accurate recall of traffic data for a multitude of engineering purposes.
5. Responsibility for the maintenance of up--to-date data banks should be assumed by the Division of Planning which now has overall responsibility for data collection systems.
6. Formats of the data banks should be thoroughly reviewed and revised to be compatible not only with past data but also with possible future innovations and changes and to provide a rapid means for future updating. The formats now used were selected primarily to facilitate the objectives of the current study. Certainly the capability for handing new vehicle types such as double bottom trucks and new axle types such as tri-tandem axles must be provided. This might also require certain changes in the current data collection systems.
7. A comprehensive review of current methods for acquiring vehicle classification and weight data appears desirable. The analysis reported herein was hampered by the non-randomness of data caused, in part, by the emphasis which has been placed on the permanent loadometer stations. A minimal number of permanent, fixed stations used to ascertain longwterm trends supplemented by additional randomly selected stations used to provide maximum coverage appears advantageous.
8. Investigations should be conducted to ascertain the seasonal variations, if any, of average vehicle weights and unit EWL's.
9. An independent means should be sought for predicting changes in vehicle type percentages and unit EWL's anticipated as a result of future increases in the legal maximum allowable gross weight. Not only would this increase the credibility of future predictions but it would also promote im. proved understanding of the evolving structure of the traffic stream.
10. The current EWL-calculation procedure which neglects the possible effects of differential lane and directional distributions should be subjected to close scrutiny. Neglect of lane distribution can possibly lead to overdesign on multilane facilities while neglect of directional distribution can possibly lead to both overdesign and underdesign depending on the direction of flow. Both the Asphalt Institute (24) and the Portland Cement Association (23) provide a means of correcting for the effects of lane distribution in their design methods.
11. It is imperative that the contribution to EWL accumulations by buses be studied in some detail. Despite the fact that fully loaded, commerical buses contribute significantly to EWL accumulations, no detailed data on average bus weights are available.
12. Future reevaluations of flexible pavement design procedures must provide a sound basis for justifying or altering the procedure for neglecting to distinguish between single and tandem axles. Both theory (16) and the results of road tests (11) have shown that the destructive effects of single and tandem axles are not identical.
13. Periodic maps of annual EWL accumulations on Kentucky highways would be useful for providing an up-to-date source of information for analysis and design purposes. While the preparation of such a map would currently require excessive expenditures, such an effort would be a small task for a computerized system. It is, therefore, recommended that increasing use be made of high speed data processing systems for the storage and analysis of traffic data. Such a system would provide immediate and accurate information concerning a variety of traffic parameters.

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APPENDIX D
AVERAGE VEHICLE-TYPE PERCENTAGES AS A FUNCTION OF LOCAL CONDITIONS



SNOLIICNOD TVOOT
HO NOLIONAE V SV S, TMA LIM DOVU'AMV
II XICNADdY

UNIT EML'S
VEHLCLE TYPE SU- $2 A-4 T$

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { LOCAL } \\ & \text { CONDITION } \end{aligned}$ | CODE | KIENTUCKY |  | AASIIO |  | : OODIFTED AASHO MFAN STD DEV |  | TOTAL VOLUME |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | SEAN | STD DEV | WTAN | STD DEV |  |  |  |
| RCAD | 1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0040 | 0.0 | 0.0040 | 0.0 | 157 |
| TYPE | 2 | 0.0406 | 0.7016 | 0.0063 | 0.0331 | 0.0063 | 0.0331 | 10465 |
|  | 3 | 0.0533 | 0.2558 | 0.0054 | 0.0061 | 0.0054 | 0.0061 | 1727 |
|  | 4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | C.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
| DIRECT- | 1 | 0.0475 | 0.8253 | 0.0065 | 0.0389 | 0.0065 | 0.0389 | 6575 |
| ION | 2 | 0.0329 | 0.1679 | 0.0055 | 0.0055 | 0.0055 | 0.0055 | 5774 |
| ALT | 1 | 0.0945 | 1.0063 | 0.0084 | 0.0471 | 0.0084 | 0.0471 | 5628 |
| RCUTE | 2 | 0.0052 | 0.0279 | 0.0045 | 0.0022 | 0.0045 | 0.0022 | 6630 |
|  | 3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0042 | C.0007 | 0.0042 | 0.0007 | 91 |
| $\frac{\text { SERVICE }}{\text { PRCVIDED }}$ | 1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
|  | 2 | 4.0000 | 6.9282 | 0.1925 | 0.3265 | 0.1925 | 0.3265 | 61 |
|  | 3 | 0.0095 | 0.0378 | 0.0049 | 0.0031 | 0.0049 | 0.0031 | 2047 |
|  | 4 | 0.0106 | 0.0589 | 0.0049 | 0.0040 | 0.0049 | 0.0040 | 5530 |
|  | 5 | 0.0039 | 0.0128 | 0.0044 | 0.0011 | 0.0044 | 0.0011 | 4234 |
|  | 6 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0040 | 6.0 | 0.0040 | 0.0 | 123 |
|  | 7 | 0.4062 | 0.5828 | 0.0145 | 0.0133 | 0.0145 | 0.0133 | 354 |
|  | 8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
|  | 9 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
| VOLUME | 1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0641 | $0.00 c 4$ | 0.0041 | C.0004 | 522 |
|  | 2 | C.0035 | 0.0113 | 0.0045 | 0.0014 | 0.0045 | 0.0014 | 874 |
|  | 3 | 0.1053 | 0.3329 | 0.0072 | 0.0085 | 0.0072 | 0.0085 | 1112 |
|  | 4 | 0.1625 | 1.5534 | 0.0121 | 0.0732 | 0.0121 | 0.0732 | 2059 |
|  | 5 | 0.0035 | 0.0104 | 0.0044 | 0.0010 | 0.0044 | 0.0010 | 2829 |
|  | 6 | 0.0083 | 0.0435 | C .0047 | 0.0034 | 0.0047 | 0.6034 | 3599 |
|  | 7 | 0.0272 | 0.1079 | 0.0060 | 0.0068 | 0.0060 | 0.0068 | 939 |
|  | 8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0040 | 0.0 | 0.0040 | 0.0 | 367 |
|  | 9 | 0.0 | 0.0 | C.0046 | 0.0008 | 0.0046 | 0.0008 | 48 |
|  | 10 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
| MA G W | 1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.6041 | 0.0003 | 0.0041 | 0.0003 | 1346 |
|  | 2 | C. 0159 | 0.0663 | 0.0052 | 0.0046 | 0.0052 | 0.0046 | 5256 |
|  | 3 | 0.0258 | 0.1656 | 0.0050 | 0.0043 | 0.0050 | 0.0043 | 4579 |
|  | 4 | 0.2042 | 1.7772 | 0.0139 | 0.0837 | 0.0139 | 0.0837 | 1168 |
| AREA | 1 | 0.1220 | 1.3475 | 0.0100 | 0.0635 | 0.0100 | 0.0635 | 2835 |
|  | 2 | 0.0055 | 0.0340 | 0.0045 | 0.0026 | 0.0045 | 0.0026 | 2316 |
|  | 3 | 0.0118 | 0.6625 | 0.0050 | 0.0041 | 0.0050 | 0.0041 | 3105 |
|  | 4 | 0.0368 | 0.1949 | 0.0053 | 0.0048 | 0.0053 | 0.0048 | 4093 |
| YEAR | 1 | 0.0143 | 0.6388 | 0.0052 | 0.0030 | 0.0052 | 0.0030 | 1710 |
|  | 2 | 0.0033 | 0.0110 | 0.0043 | 0.0010 | 0.0043 | 0.0010 | 1898 |
|  | 3 | 0.0425 | 0.1222 | c.0072 | 6.0082 | 0.0072 | 0.0082 | 1184 |
|  | 4 | 0.0065 | 0.0023 | 0.0041 | 0.0003 | 0.0041 | 0.0003 | 3744 |
|  | 5 | 0.0151 | 0.0515 | 0.0054 | 0.0040 | 0.0054 | 0.0040 | 901 |
|  | 6 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0042 | 0.0003 | 0.0042 | 0.0003 | 857 |
|  | 7 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0641 | 0.0006 | 0.0041 | 0.0006 | 446 |
|  | 8 | 0.2745 | 1.8140 | 6.0157 | 0.0849 | 0.0157 | 0.6849 | 1354 |
|  | 9 | 0.0078 | 0.0202 | 0.0051 | 0.0023 | 0.0051 | 0.0023 | 255 |
| VERAGES |  | C.0415 | 0.6443 | 0.0061 | 0.0302 | 0.0061 | 0.0302 | 12349 |

UMIT ERL'S
VEIICLE TYPE SU-2A-6T

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { LOCAL } \\ & \text { CONDITION } \end{aligned}$ | copr | xerybeiry |  | AASHO |  | YODIFIED AASHO |  | TOTAL voLers |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | SEA | STP bev | IEAS | Std dey |  |  |  |
| ROAC | 1 | 2.2685 | 0.5453 | C. 1587 | 0.0281 | 0.1587 | C.0281 | 1534 |
| TYPE | 2 | 3.1048 | 3.3595 | 0.1807 | 0.0858 | 0.1807 | 0.0858 | 20412 |
|  | 3 | 4.5115 | 8.4677 | 0.1751 | 0.1189 | 0.1751 | 0.1189 | 1443 |
|  | 4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
| $\begin{array}{r} \text { DISECT- } \\ \text { ION } \end{array}$ | 1 | 3.0765 | 3.17 Cl | C. 1807 | C.0988 | 0.1807 | 0.0888 | 13408 |
|  | 2 | 3.3920 | 5.2869 | 0.1756 | 0.0855 | 0.1756 | 0.0855 | 9981 |
| $\begin{array}{r} \text { ALT } \\ \hline \text { ROUTE } \end{array}$ | 1 | 3.3950 | 5.4725 | C. 1759 | 0.0894 | 0.1759 | c.0894 | 9159 |
|  | 2 | 3.0805 | 3.1475 | 0.1796 | 0.0860 | 0.1796 | 0.0860 | 13868 |
|  | 3 | 3.1264 | 1.8013 | C. 1995 | 0.0966 | 0.1995 | 0.0966 | 362 |
| SERVICE | 1 | c. 0 | 0.6 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | C. 0 | 0 |
| PREVIDED | 2 | 1.9257 | C.0881 | 0.1292 | Q. 0293 | 0.1292 | 0.0293 | 125 |
|  | 3 | 3.8928 | 4.9832 | C. 1977 | 0.118 E | 0.1977 | C. 1188 | 4601 |
|  | 4 | 2.6179 | 1.5532 | 0.1688 | 0.0664 | 0.1688 | 0.0664 | 11910 |
|  | 5 | 2.6471 | 1.4473 | C. 1701 | 0.0641 | 0.1701 | 0.0641 | 6469 |
|  | 6 | 4.4380 | 0.0 | C. 2422 | 0.0 | 0.2422 | C. 0 | 74 |
|  | 7 | 25.9040 | 15.cc36 | 0.4497 | 0.1615 | 0.4497 | 0.1615 | 270 |
|  | ${ }^{8}$ | C. 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | C |
|  | 9 | 0.0 | C.C | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
| VCLUME | 1 | 1.8008 | 1.7673 | 0.1271 | 0.0908 | 0.1271 | C. 0908 | 33 C |
|  | 2 | 3.2372 | 2.2850 | 0.1858 | 0.0963 | 0.1858 | C. 0963 | 813 |
|  | 3 | 5.8139 | 10.0731 | 0.2202 | 0.1576 | 0.2202 | 0.1576 | 1189 |
|  | 4 | 2.5431 | 1.6875 | 0.1563 | 0.0753 | 0.1563 | 0.0753 | 3130 |
|  | 5 | 2.8495 | 3.7822 | 0.1714 | 0.0897 | 0.1714 | 0.0897 | 5011 |
|  | 6 | 2.8852 | 1.5332 | C. 1783 | 0.0580 | 0.1783 | C. 0580 | 6574 |
|  | 7 | 2.9626 | 1.2014 | 0.1871 | 0.0456 | 0.1871 | 0.0456 | 3842 |
|  | $\varepsilon$ | 5.3893 | 7.5639 | 0.2159 | 0.1100 | 0.2159 | C. 1100 | 2215 |
|  | 9 | 3.7450 | 1.4890 | 0.2202 | 0.0521 | 0.2202 | 0.0521 | 281 |
|  | 16 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
| WAGW | 1 | 2.8900 | 2.5882 | c. 1641 | 0.1049 | 0.1641 | 0.1049 | 1022 |
|  | 2 | 2.1692 | 1.1340 | C. 1489 | 0.0632 | 0.1489 | 0.0632 | 9155 |
|  | 3 | 3.9911 | 5.6487 | 0.1983 | 0.0946 | 0.1983 | C.0946 | 8941 |
|  | 4 | 3,5293 | 4.0008 | 0.1973 | 0.0871 | 0.1973 | 0.0871 | 4271 |
| AREA | 1 | 2.5419 | 1.1985 | 0.1673 | 0.0615 | 0.1673 | C. C 615 | 4635 |
|  | 2 | 2.8446 | 2.5915 | 0.1729 | 0.1038 | 0.1729 | 0.1038 | 4005 |
|  | 3 | 2.6522 | 1.3028 | C. 1758 | 0.0651 | 0.1758 | C. 0651 | 8614 |
|  | 4 | 4.9630 | 7.7775 | 0.1992 | 0.1148 | 0.1992 | 0.1148 | 6135 |
| YEAR | 1 | 1.8375 | 1.2318 | C. 1277 | 0.0743 | 0.1277 | C.0743 | 3187 |
|  | 2 | 2.2072 | 0.7577 | 0.1569 | 0.0458 | 0.1569 | 0.0458 | 2911 |
|  | 3 | 2.3662 | 1.1231 | 0.1601 | 0.0611 | 0.1601 | 0.0611 | 2546 |
|  | 4 | 2.7588 | 1.6759 | 0.1714 | 0.0713 | 0.1714 | 0.0713 | 4798 |
|  | 5 | 3.8248 | 2.5026 | 0.2304 | 0.1132 | 0.2304 | 0.1132 | 2068 |
|  | 6 | 3.4185 | 2.1679 | C. 1863 | 0.0660 | 0.1863 | 0.0660 | 2047 |
|  | 7 | 4.4785 | 6.8524 | C. 2007 | 0.1049 | 0.2007 | C. 1045 | 1791 |
|  | 8 | 4.7680 | 7.6833 | C. 2025 | 0.1099 | 0.2025 | 0.1099 | 3131 |
|  | 5 | 2.603 C | 1.2171 | C. 1725 | 0.0517 | 0.1725 | 0.0511 | 910 |
| AVERAGES |  | 3.1945 | $4.12 \mathrm{C7}$ | C. 1787 | 0.0876 | 0.1787 | 6.0876 | 23389 |

U.XTT FTHE'S

VBEICLS TVPE SU-3A


UNIT EUL'S
VEHICLE TYPE C-3A


UNIT EVL'S
VEHICLE TYPE C-4A

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { LOCAL } \\ & \text { CONDITION } \end{aligned}$ | CODE | KENTUCKY |  | AASHO |  | MODI | AASHO | TOTALVOLUMF: |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | MEAN | STD DEV | MEAM | STD DEV | MEAN | STD DEV |  |
| ROAD | 1 | 11.547 C | 3.1531 | 0.7181 | 0.1480 | 0.8419 | 0.1827 | 3150 |
| TYPE | 2 | 15.4852 | 9.3296 | 0.8218 | 0.3289 | 1.0090 | 0.4381 | 10945 |
|  | 3 | 21.5461 | 22.1746 | 0.7775 | 0.5681 | 0.9627 | 0.7273 | 226 |
|  | 4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
| $\begin{array}{r} \text { DIRECT- } \\ \text { ION } \end{array}$ | 1 | 16.9244 | 10.8113 | 0.8775 | 0.3361 | 1.0784 | C. 4500 | 9391 |
|  | 2 | 11.9912 | 6.4898 | 0.6712 | 0.2619 | 0.8092 | 0.3396 | 4930 |
| AL. T | 1 | 13.3289 | 12.6905 | 0.6862 | 0.3333 | 0.8306 | 0.4306 | 3037 |
| ROUTE | 2 | 16.0684 | 8.3921 | 0.8596 | 0.3108 | 1.0547 | 0.4190 | 10983 |
|  | 3 | 12.7608 | 7.7463 | 0.6295 | 0.3381 | 0.7407 | 0.4039 | 301 |
| SERVICE | 1 | C. 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
| PROVIDED | 2 | 58.6528 | 24.3714 | 1.6165 | 0.4985 | 2.1276 | 0.6607 | 62 |
|  | 3 | 16.4054 | 8.0706 | 0.8791 | 0.2929 | 1.0907 | 0.4059 | 2847 |
|  | 4 | 15.1038 | 9.4972 | 0.7882 | 0.3024 | 0.9566 | 0.4002 | 8146 |
|  | 5 | 13.1598 | 7.3966 | 0.7602 | 0.3488 | 0.9217 | 0.4434 | 3243 |
|  | 6 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0420 | 0.0 | 0.0360 | 0.0 | 1 |
|  | 7 | 16.0787 | 7.3192 | C. 7129 | 0.1243 | 0.9165 | 0.2513 | 22 |
|  | 8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
|  | 9 | C. 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
| VOLUME | 1 | 2.4000 | 3.3226 | 0.2196 | 0.2473 | 0.2476 | 0.2937 | 6 |
|  | 2 | 23.9338 | 24.4528 | 0.8037 | 0.4604 | 0.9274 | 0.5300 | 52 |
|  | 3 | 19.4607 | 11.7079 | 0.8820 | 0.4056 | 1.1488 | 0.5731 | 238 |
|  | 4 | 21.3722 | 15.7455 | 0.9466 | 0.4386 | 1.2020 | 0.5954 | 1497 |
|  | 5 | 12.6771 | 6.2434 | 0.7406 | 0.3017 | 0.8961 | 0.3886 | 2358 |
|  | 6 | 12.9852 | 6.9260 | 0.7584 | 0.3277 | 0.9114 | 0.4175 | 3500 |
|  | 7 | 15.0196 | 5.4130 | 0.8271 | 0.2134 | 1.0047 | 0.2874 | 4220 |
|  | 8 | 14.9399 | 3.8819 | 0.8371 | 0.1341 | 1.0072 | C. 1951 | 2171 |
|  | 9 | 16.3311 | 6.8235 | 0.8478 | 0.1941 | 1.0357 | 0.2701 | 279 |
|  | 10 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
| MAGW | 1 | 13.7774 | 18.863 C | 0.4636 | 0.5245 | 0.5769 | 0.7028 | 47 |
|  | 2 | 8.0703 | 12.4310 | 0.4174 | 0.3652 | 0.4864 | 0.4588 | 979 |
|  | 3 | 16.3872 | 5.2233 | 0.9053 | 0.1975 | 1.1073 | 0.2764 | 8449 |
|  | 4 | 17.4440 | 11.6178 | 0.8797 | 0.2940 | 1.0869 | 0.4095 | 4846 |
| AREA | 1 | 19.8425 | 13.0430 | C.9628 | 0.3858 | 1.2106 | 0.5133 | 2875 |
|  | 2 | 15.3652 | 9.8347 | 0.8192 | 0.3744 | 1.0128 | 0.5095 | 2954 |
|  | 3 | 13.1103 | 5.1497 | 0.7402 | 0.2212 | 0.8865 | 0.2784 | 6278 |
|  | 4 | 13.7991 | 10.5943 | 0.7401 | 0.3117 | 0.8883 | 0.3965 | 2214 |
| YEAR | 1 | 2.057 C | 3.0218 | 0.1502 | 0.1530 | 0.1624 | 0.1737 | 121 |
|  | 2 | 5.3724 | 4.7603 | C. 3600 | 0.2272 | 0.4053 | 0.2544 | 290 |
|  | 3 | 4.8393 | 2.5664 | 0.3420 | 0.1147 | 0.3824 | 0.1340 | 373 |
|  | 4 | 16.4120 | 7.2948 | 0.8705 | 0.2376 | 1.0629 | 0.3147 | 2981 |
|  | 5 | 18.3276 | 5.7624 | 0.9859 | 0.2045 | 1.2163 | 0.2929 | 2281 |
|  | 6 | 16.1736 | 5.5891 | 0.9015 | 0.2127 | 1.1048 | 0.3104 | 2529 |
|  | 7 | 16.2239 | 6.7317 | 0.8827 | 0.2431 | 1.0707 | 0.3332 | 2662 |
|  | 8 | 19.5410 | 16.3683 | 0.8885 | 0.3677 | 1.1092 | 0.4963 | 2171 |
|  | 9 | 13.9529 | 6.3093 | 6.7586 | 0.1993 | 0.9315 | 0.2894 | 913 |
| A Y ERAG | S | 15.2519 | 9.8483 | 0.8076 | 0.3278 | 0.9872 | 0.4349 | 14321 |

UNIT ERL'S
VEUICLE TYPE C--5A

| LOCAL CONDITION | CODE | KEYTUCKY |  | AASHO |  | MODIFIED <br> MeaN | AASHO <br> STD DEV | TOTAL VOLUME |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | HLAN | STD DEV | HEAN | STD DEV |  |  |  |
| READ | 1 | 14.1246 | 3.4435 | 0.7327 | 0.148 C | 1.1051 | 0.2335 | 2443 |
| TYPE | 2 | 19.9525 | 17.3973 | 0.8094 | 0.5165 | 1.2548 | 0.8035 | 1834 |
|  | 3 | 16.9600 | 15.7222 | 0.7266 | 0.5043 | 1.0556 | C. 7961 | 25 |
|  | 4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
| OIRECT- | 1 | 22.1451 | 16.6855 | C.8960 | 0.4594 | 1.3887 | 0.7212 | 3074 |
| ION | 2 | 11.3953 | Q.5081 | C. 5872 | 0.3605 | 0.8812 | 0.5377 | 1228 |
|  | 1 | 13.5862 | 13.5004 | 0.6378 | 0.4999 | 0.9682 | C. 7514 | 420 |
| ROUTE | 2 | 20.2235 | 15.4663 | 0.8473 | 0.4195 | 1.3078 | 0.6645 | 3865 |
|  | 3 | 9.2112 | 9.3769 | 0.4344 | 0.3237 | 0.6181 | 0.4793 | 17 |
| $\begin{array}{r} \text { SERVICE } \\ \hline \text { PRCVIDED } \end{array}$ | 1 | C. 0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
|  | 2 | 59.1900 | 0.0 | 1.9175 | 0.0 | 2.9333 | 0.0 | 18 |
|  | 3 | 24.6747 | 14.9258 | C.9760 | 0.4662 | 1.5137 | 0.7405 | 653 |
|  | 4 | 16.6637 | 14.7646 | 0.7391 | 0.3791 | 1.1254 | 0.5895 | 2831 |
|  | 5 | 14.5289 | 12.5650 | 0.6784 | 0.4702 | 1.0425 | 0.7208 | 759 |
|  | 6 | 0.0 | $0 . \mathrm{C}$ | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
|  | 7 | 2.0000 | 0.0 | C. 2000 | 0.0 | 0.3100 | 0.0 | 1 |
|  | 8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | C.0 | 0 |
|  | $s$ | 0.0 | $0 . C$ | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | C. 0 | 0 |
| VCLUME | 1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | $0 . C$ | 0.0 | 0.0 | C. 0 | 0 |
|  | 2 | 19.6875 | 18.7011 | C. 7495 | 0.6140 | 1.1102 | 0.9673 | 8 |
|  | 3 | 16.5100 | 12.1248 | C. 7503 | 0.4722 | 1.1109 | C. 7039 | 21 |
|  | 4 | $3 \mathrm{C.7183}$ | 23.3535 | 1.1061 | 0.5303 | 1.7054 | 0.8374 | 467 |
|  | 5 | 14.0957 | 14.8700 | 0.5638 | 0.4782 | 0.8716 | 0.7228 | 283 |
|  | 6 | 13.3145 | 10.0277 | 0.6597 | 0.417 C | 1.0157 | C.659 C | 410 |
|  | 7 | 15.5617 | 7.667 C | c. 7677 | 0.3216 | 1.17 Cl | C. 4890 | 1518 |
|  | 8 | 16.7488 | 10.1251 | 0.7653 | 0.3218 | 1.1738 | 0.5259 | 1100 |
|  | 9 | 24.3595 | 6.5884 | 1*0246 | 0.1493 | 1.6212 | 0.2735 | 495 |
|  | 16 | C. 0 | 0.0 | C.C | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0 |
| N GW | 1 | 19.1883 | 14.8582 | C. 8583 | 0.5144 | 1.1931 | C.7380 | 8 |
|  | 2 | 13.1143 | 18.5255 | C. 5575 | 0.6282 | 0.8543 | 0.9559 | 26 |
|  | 3 | 5.5589 | 11.0585 | C. 5692 | 0.4859 | 0.7660 | C. 7453 | 205 |
|  | 4 | 22.4187 | 14.6691 | 0.9208 | 0.3413 | 1.4250 | C. 5408 | 4063 |
| AREA | 1 | 24.467C | 19.3083 | 0.9349 | 0.4542 | 1.4566 | C. 7138 | 924 |
|  | 2 | 21.5264 | 16.6279 | 0.9135 | 0.4929 | 1.3842 | 0.766 C | 1231 |
|  | 3 | 12.5637 | 7.7264 | 0.6330 | 0.3491 | 0.9617 | 0.5227 | 1694 |
|  | 4 | 17.2719 | 13.7429 | 0.7322 | 0.4636 | 1. 1408 | 0.7466 | 453 |
| YEAR | 1 | 26.0000 | $0 . \mathrm{C}$ | 0.9820 | 0.0 | 1.8140 | 0.0 | 1 |
|  | 2 | 10.9571 | 22.9561 | 0.3820 | 0.7675 | 0.6030 | 1.1120 | 13 |
|  | 3 | 12.4667 | 3.3515 | 0.8251 | 0.1991 | 1.0941 | C. 3089 | 7 |
|  | 4 | 11.1105 | 11.3202 | 0.5671 | 0.4504 | 0.8490 | 0.7072 | 42 |
|  | 5 | 11.9062 | 15.4840 | C. 6465 | 0.6853 | 0.9249 | 1.0180 | 34 |
|  | 6 | 5.9875 | 6.5137 | C. 3427 | 0.3171 | 0.5229 | 0.5173 | 74 |
|  | 7 | 15.5248 | 7.5415 | 0.7105 | 0.2798 | 1.1140 | 0.4360 | 427 |
|  | 8 | 24.4939 | $17.49 \mathrm{C4}$ | 0.9531 | 0.3848 | 1.4735 | 0.6083 | 2003 |
|  | $\zeta$ | 20.3362 | 11.1413 | 0.8969 | 0.3205 | 1.3849 | 0.5251 | 1761 |
| AVERA | 5 | 18.3338 | 15.2253 | 0.7865 | 0.4518 | 1.2088 | C. 7051 | 4302 |


PRFDICTICN OF DESIGN EWLS
(RURAL DNLYI





- $\overline{\text { Q }} 5 \mathrm{~T}$ TVN


** Transfer design unit ewls to sheet 1. A negat ive estimate shivio be transferreo


## WHTGOMd TTdWVXA

9 XIGNAddY

## PREDICTICN OF DESIGA EWLS SHEFT- 1 OF 5 (PURAL DNLY) DATE- $8-15-68$ DESCRIPTICN OF PROJECT ANC COMPUTATIONS PREPARATOR - LYNCA

## DESCRIPTION CF PROJFCT

ROUTE NAME-
PROJECT AUMBER-KYHPR-21
COUNTY-MCCREMRY
PROJECT LIMITS 2 TO \& MULES NORTV OF WMTREX CTY LOADCMETER STATION REFERENCE IIF ANYI- \& 9 mILES NORTO OEMATHEOCBYY
DESCRIPTION OF TRAFFIC AND DESIGN PERIDD
DESIGN PERIOD IINCLUSIVE MATESI-1970-1990
DESIGN PERIOC (YEARS)- 20
DESIGN OR EFFFCTIVE ADT (VEHICLES PER DAY) - 2900
TYPE OF EWL (CIRCLE) - RY AASHC MOCIFIED AASHO
COMPUTATICNS

| VEHICLE | ADJUSTED <br> FRACTION |  | UN IT <br> FWLS |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| TYPE | (FROM SHEFT 4 ) |  | FROM SHEET 5) |  |  |
| CARS | .7045 | X | $\bigcirc$ | $=$ | $\bigcirc$ |
| BUSES | .0094 | X | 5,0000 |  | 0.0470 |
| SU-2A-4T | .0893 | X | 0.3189 |  | 0.0966 |
| SU-2A-6T | .07/3 | $x$ | 食.0593 | $=$ | 0.2181 |
| SU-3A | . 0160 | $x$ | 8.5959 |  | 0.1375 |
| C-3A | .0184 | $x$ | 9.0301 | = | 0,1667 |
| C-4A | .0614 | $\times$ | 28.8013 | = | 1.5228 |
| $C-5 A$ | .0297 | X | 37.8686 | $=$ | 11/275 |
|  |  | AVERAGF UNIT FWL |  |  | $3.2977=$ SUM |

CESTGN EWLS $=365 \times 20 \times 2900 \times 3,2477=68,750000$ $\begin{array}{lcl}\text { DESIGN } & \text { ADT SUM } & \text { MESTGN EWLS } \\ \text { PERIOD } & \text { (VEHICLES } & \\ \text { (YEARS) PER DAY) } & \end{array}$

COMPARISON WITH REFERFNCE STATION

DFSCRIPTION CF PROJFCT
ROUTE NAME-
PROJECT AUMBER-KYMPR-21
PROSECT LIMITS-2 TO \& RUES NORTH DEWMIREY CIT
LOADCMETER STATION REFFRENCE (IF ANY) AA 9 MILES NORTH OF WAITLEY CITY
DESCRIPTION OF TRAFFIC AND DESIGN PERIDO
DESIGN PERIOD IINCIUSIVE DATESI- $1970-1990$
DESICN PERIOO (YEARS)-20
DESIGN OR EFFFCTIVE ADT (VEHICLES PER DAY)- 2900
TYPE OF EWL (CIRCLE) KY AASHC MOCIFIED AASHO
COMPUTATICNS

$\qquad$

SHEFT- 1 OF 5
DATE-8-15-68
PREPARATOR-LYNCA

DFSCR IPTION CF PROJFCT

ROUTF NAME-
PROJFCT AUMBER- $\langle Y H P R-\Omega 1$

RCUTE NUMPER-0 25
COUNTY - N/C CRERRY

PROJECT LIMITS- \& YO A MNES NORTH OF WMATLEY CITY LQADCMETER STATIGN REFFRENCE (IF ANY) 4.9 MILES WOKTW OF (AMOTEY CITY

DESCRIPTICN OF TRAFFIC AND DESIGN PERIDD
DESIGN PERIOD (INCLUSIVE DATES)- $1970-1990$
DESICN PERIOE (YEARS)-ZO
DESIGN OR EFFFCTIVE ADT (VEHICLES PER DAY)- 2900
TYPE OF EWL (CIRCLE) - KY $\triangle A S H C$ MOCIFIED AASHO
CCMPUTATICNS

$\qquad$



SHEET- 3 OF 5 (CONTINUEOI






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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Investigators of the fatigue of metals have commonly termed this concept "Miner's hypothesis" (6).

[^1]:    $1_{\text {See }}$ Appendix $E$.

[^2]:    $1_{\text {These }}$ changes may be too small to be actually detected. To illustrate the point, however, fewer C-5A trucks would be required for a given shipment than $\mathrm{C}-4 \mathrm{~A}$ trucks due to their increased payload capacity.

[^3]:    

