# TRAFFIC ENGINE:ERING STUDY REFERENC: 



HEADQUARTERS MILITARY TRAFFIC MANAGEMENT COMMAND Washington, D C 20315

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# PART ONE. GENERAL 

## SECTION I

## INTRODUCTION

1. Background.
a. The revolution in highway transportation as evidenced by sweeping changes in motor vehicles, roadway construction, and traffic controls has provided immeasurable benefits to the individual and to those organizations such as the Department of Defense where mobility and mission are inseparable. However, this new flexibility of movement poses many problems, most involving congestion, accidents, energy loss, and environmental pollution. The need to minimize the se problems was a great stimulus to the development of the traffic engineering profession, but demands for this expertise generated by tremendous growth in travel have continually exceeded capability.
b. Military installations are unique in that their physical size and operating budgets limit the magnitude and speed with which transportation problems can be treated. Trained personnel cannot be readily employed, and restricted funds and space frequently prevent the implementation of proper corrective action, particularly since general motor vehicle operation is considered secondary to the mission. This pamphlet recognizes current needs and is designed for technical and nontechnical persons who have been tasked to provide early remedy to the more basic traffic oriented problems, or to provide assistance to others who are so assigned. It is the first of a series of publications that is being prepared to aid installation personnel in handling problems or obtaining information relating to the design, use, or maintenance of transportation facilities and systems.
2. Purpose.
a. This pamphlet is intended for use by personnel responsible for vehicular traffic engineering analyses and control at Department of Defense (DOD) installations. It is not intended to replace published manuals and criteria or to be used as a substitute for formal training, but to provide supplemental assistance to those who have need for immediate guidance on the basic considerations in analysis and remedy of traffic-related problems. It indicates what information is important, how it can be assembled, what its significance is, and what are some of the more widely used methods for alleviation of traffic problems.

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b. In accordance with DOD Directive 5160.60 and AR 55-80, the Military Traffic Management Command (MTMC) is the designated DOD executive agent in public highway matters. The Military Traffic Management Command Transportation Engineering Agency (MTMCTEA) an MTMC field command, is delegated traffic engineering support responsibilities for DOD. The information in the pamphlet will also assist local personnel in the coordination and assembly of data for the more complex studies conducted by MTMCTEA, and will enable them to deal directly with many of the day-to-day traffic problems.
c. Solutions resulting from use of this reference are not intended to replace the more direct and economical solutions of "spreading the vehicular demand" to eliminate problems by staggering the duty hours, use of preferential parking to enhance group riding, and/or coordination of land use to preclude undesirable vehicle concentrations.

## 3. Scope.

a. This pamphlet identifies the more common problems experienced in connection with traffic operation on military installations, the types of studies most frequently used in determining solutions to the problems, and those aspects of each study type that concern data collection, analysis, and interpretation. It includes sufficient illustrations of formats, diagrams, and calculations to insure a logical process in the conduct of the studies and the presentation of related analyses and findings.
b. This manual is designed for use by installation personnel in the treatment of the day-to-day problems that cause traffic accidents and congestion. The primary variances in study scope will be as dictated by the size of the installation, the length and use of its roadways, the volume of its activities, and the nature and magnitude of its transportation problems. More definitive investigative procedures, analyses, interpretations, criteria, and applications of remedial measures may be obtained from the publications in the selected bibliography and by contacting MTMCTEA.
4. Application. This pamphlet is intended to assist local personnel in the assembly of traffic data, in recognizing the type and magnitude of traffic-related problems, in determining practical solutions, and in providing support to those engaged in the more complex traffic engineering studies. A common sense approach, however, must be applied in the use of this material. Onsite observation of traffic operations and review of previously recorded accident data will usually indicate if the problem is localized and relatively minor. In these cases, the guidance furnished
herein should facilitate determination of a satisfactory conclusion. When questions arise during initial observations or analyses, or when the problem evidences more than ordinary involvement, contact with MTMCTEA should be made to determine appropriate action. Incorrect or unnecessary data collection and analysis can result in considerable waste of effort.
5. Training. The activities on the installation that closely relate to traffic engineering matters include those involved with facility engineering, construction, security, safety, and law enforcement. Responsibilities vary between installations, but, in any case, those persons who are directly accountable for traffic engineering should be given opportunity to develop proper expertise. This is best accomplished by attendance at one or more of the many special courses available at colleges and universities throughout the country. For example, Northwestern University, Georgia Institute of Technology, and the University of Southern California offer 1to 4 -week courses especially designed to educate technicians and engineers in specific areas of traffic engineering, or to present a complete overview of the more common traffic problems and the techniques employed in their solution.
6. Changes and revisions. Recommended changes or comments related to this pamphlet should be keyed to the specific page, paragraph, and line of the text to which it applies, and sufficient detail provided to assist in a thorough evaluation of each. Comments should be forwarded to the Commander, Military Traffic Management Command Transportation Engineering Agency, ATTN: MTT-TE, PO Box 6276, Newport News, Virginia 23606-0276.

## SECTION II

## HOW TO USE THIS GUIDE

7. General. This guide is intended for use as an aid in both the selection and conduct of the type of study required to provide information to solve a localized problem or to clarify for installation personnel the type and degree of assistance required by professionals in the study of the more complex situations. It is a primary need to limit study effort to the minimum by selection of appropriate study type. In some cases this may mean only a sampling of data whereas in others it may result in the conduct of more than one study type. It is unlikely that an installation would have a need to perform every study listed in this guide, particularly, since the
more complex problems should be solved by professional traffic engineering personnel. As an example, the design of a modern traffic-signal system requires professional expertise.
8. Study selection. The user of this pamphlet should first determine the scope and magnitude of the problem and the apparent involvements. The cross-reference guide presented in table 1 combines the more common problems and symptoms under the heading of "Study Generator". It is used to determine which study(ies) will provide the information required to permit analysis of the problem and determination of appropriate remedial action. Review is made of the details provided in part two for the study before actual study conduct is initiated.
9. Public roads. Installation officials are encouraged to cultivate and maintain contact with representatives of the state and local highway authorities. In addition, installation officials should be aware that they may call upon the local Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) division office for advice and/or assistance in regard to local public highway matters, when necessary. Need for more formal action should be transmitted to the Commander, MTMC, the designated agent of the Secretary of Defense to support the Department of Defense Highways for National Defense Program. (Ref: DOD Directive 5160.60, Highways for National Defense, Appendix B. This has been expanded in the joint regulation, AR 55-80/OPNAVINST 11210.1/AFR 75-88/MCO 11210.2A/DSAR 4500.19, Highways for National Defense, 2 August 1974 (Appendix B). In any access road problem, these documents should be acquired.)
10. Organization. The information in this pamphlet is arranged to present traffic study techniques throughout part two. Specific types of studies are discussed in separate sections. Appendix A contains definitions of technical terms used in this text. Appendix B provides a list of pertinent publications applicable to this guide, with the names of institutes that have an interest in traffic. Appendixes C and D provide sample forms for inventorying traffic-control devices, and appendix E provides guidance in establishing priorities for alleviating traffic problems.

TABLE 1
TRAFFIC-STUDY REFERENCE

| STUDY GENERATOR | Traffic Studies Required |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\underset{\sim}{N}$ |  |  |
| Accidents | P |  |  |  |  | P | P |  | $p$ |  | P |  |  | s |
| Bicycles | P |  |  |  |  | S |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Building Program | P |  | P |  | P |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Bus Service |  |  |  |  | P |  |  |  |  |  |  | P |  |  |
| Capacity, Traffic | P |  | P |  |  |  |  | S |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Car Pooling | P |  | S |  | P |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Classification, Street | S | P |  |  |  |  |  |  | S |  |  |  |  |  |
| Congestion | P |  |  | S | S |  |  | P |  | S |  |  |  |  |
| Construction Projects | P |  |  |  | P |  |  |  |  | P |  |  |  |  |
| Control, Traffic | P |  |  |  |  |  | P |  | $\mathbf{S}$ |  | P | S |  |  |
| Counts, Counters | P |  |  | S |  |  |  | P |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Delays, Trafic Driver Confusion |  |  |  |  |  | S | P |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Duty Hours |  |  |  |  | P |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Energy Conservation |  |  |  | P | P |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Entrance Gates | P |  | P | $S$ | S |  |  |  |  | P |  |  |  |  |
| Flow, Traffic | P |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | P |  | S | S |  |
| Generators, Traffic | P |  |  | P | P | $p$ | P |  | P | P |  |  |  | $P$ |
| $\frac{\text { Highway Safety Program Standard } 13}{\text { Intersection }}$ | S |  |  |  |  | P | P |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Land Use | S |  |  | P | P |  |  |  |  | P |  |  |  |  |
| Law Enforcement |  |  |  |  |  | P | S |  | S |  | P |  |  |  |
| Mode, Transportation | p |  |  | S |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\mathbf{P}$ |  |  |
| $\frac{\text { Manual on Uniform Traffic Control }}{\text { Devices for Streets and Highways }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  | P |  |  |  |  |  |  | P |
| Origin and Destination |  |  |  | S |  |  |  |  |  | P | S |  |  |  |
| Parking Congestion | P |  | S | S | S |  |  |  |  | S |  |  |  | S |
| Pavement Marking |  |  |  |  |  | S | P |  |  |  |  |  | S | $s$ |
| Pedestrians | $\stackrel{\text { P }}{ }$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Personnel | S |  | S |  | p |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Planning, Master | P | P | S |  | P |  |  |  |  | P |  |  |  |  |
| Population Changes | P |  |  | S |  | S |  |  |  | P |  |  |  |  |
| Public Approach Roads (see text) | P |  | $P$ |  |  | $s$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $p$ |
| Regulations, DOD | P |  |  |  |  | p | S |  | S |  | P |  |  | P |
| Safety Signals |  |  |  |  |  | S | P |  |  |  |  |  |  | S |
| Signs |  |  |  |  |  | S | P |  | P |  |  |  |  |  |
| Speed, Spot Speed |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | P |  |  |  |  |
| Through Traffic | P |  |  |  |  |  | P |  |  | P | 5 |  |  |  |
| Traffic Control |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | P |  |  |
| Transit Service | S |  |  |  | S |  |  |  |  | P |  |  |  |  |
| Travel Desires |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | P |  |  |  | s |  |  |
| Travel Time |  | P |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Trucks | P | $P$ | S |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Turning Movements |  |  | $s$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Vehicle Occupancy Volume, Traffic | P |  | S | S | $\mathrm{s}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

## SECTION III

## CONDUCTING A TRAFFIC STUDY

11. General. Traffic engineering studies are conducted to develop factual information necessary to effect intelligent solutions to traffic problems, to provide guidance for the planning of transportation systems and facilities, and to assist authorities in developing the most desirable land-use patterns. Accurate knowledge of travel desires, constraints, and operational problems is a primary element in any decision involving transportation. Information obtained by application of procedures contained in this reference will assist personnel in correcting many of the more frequently experienced traffic problems and will prove invaluable when assisting MTMCTEA in the conduct of the more complex studies that require professional expertise. (See AR 55-80/OPNAVINST 11210.1/AFR 75-88/MCO 11210.2A/DSAR 4500.19.)
12. Use of traffic studies. Each section of part two relates to the conduct of a particular type of study and provides detailed explanations of basic purpose and application. Sufficient guidance and illustrations are included to insure adequacy in the conduct of each type of study. Questions concerning the conduct or application of any study contained herein should be directed to MTMCTEA.
13. Study requirements of Highway Safety Program Standard 13 (HSPS). Requirements set forth in HSPS 13 were established to insure full and proper application of modern traffic engineering principles and uniform standards to reduce the likelihood and severity of traffic accidents. The Highway Safety Program Manual, Volume 13 (HSPM 13), Traffic Engineering Services is a guide for implementation of HSPS 13 (section 14) and requires certain studies as contained in this pamphlet, particularly part two, section 2, "Street Classification Study"; section 6, "Traffic Accident Study"; and section 7, "Traffic-Control-Devices Inventory".
14. Format. Each section of this pamphlet deals with an individual type of study and is organized as follows:
a. Purpose of study.
b. Data needed.
c. Methods of data collection.
d. Analysis of raw data.
e. Interpretation of processed data.
f. Application of study results.
15. Planning a traffic study. Planning a traffic study is as important as the study itself. Improper techniques, excessive data collection, or even unnecessary study conduct can cause waste of manpower and/or make it difficult to determine the correct solution to a problem. It is essential that the engineer/technician has sufficient information to conduct the analysis, but frequently this can be obtained by no more than sample observation or survey of traffic movements and desires. Compliance with the following procedure will make it easier to conduct a study and will help to preclude excessive use of personnel time:
a. Examine records and assemble available related data.
b. Determine how much additional data are required.
c. Select location(s) and time(s) for data collection.
d. Review study procedure as in part two of this pamphlet.
e. Establish personnel and equipment needs.
f. Prepare survey forms.
g. Arrange for and brief survey personnel on study procedures.
h. Collect field data.
i. Perform analyses and interpret data.
j. Determine alternate solutions.
k. Select solutions that best fit the dictates of effectiveness, economy, and ease of implementation.

## PART TWO. TRAFFIC ENGINEERING STUDIES

## SECTION I

## TRAFFIC-VOLUME STUDIES

16. Purpose. The purpose is to count the number of persons or vehicles passing along a given facility. The amount of traffic in vehicles per unit of time is called the traffic volume. A count may be classified by the time of day, direction of travel, types of vehicles, and number of vehicle occupants. The scope of a count may range from a comprehensive survey of traffic flow on all major roadways of an installation to a count of the number of cars passing through an intersection in a single hour. Typical types of traffic-volume data and their usage are:
a. ADT. Average daily traffic (ADT) is an average of 24-hour volumes over a stated period of time. Unless otherwise stated, the period is for a year, or annual average daily traffic (AADT). These data are used to estimate growth trends, to calculate accident rates, to decide construction priorities, to plan roadway maintenance, and to design future street networks.
b. Peak-hour volumes. Peak-hour volumes are needed to determine when the peak traffic movements occur during the day and the number and direction of these movements at a given point or area. These are used to determine what additional traffic-control devices, such as traffic signals, should be modified. These data are also used to determine the number of lanes necessary to accommodate known or projected demands, to allocate right-of-way to appropriate traffic flows, and to design and locate streets and gates.
c. Vehicle classification. Vehicle classification is used to identify a road in terms of the traffic it serves. The classes typically include passenger cars, various types of trucks and buses, motorcycles, and bicycles. Vehicle-classification data are used primarily in the design of pavement thickness and in calculating highway capacities.
17. Information needed. The types of traffic-volume counts needed will be determined by the ultimate usage of the data. Use of too much manpower and time to collect too much data is as improper as not collecting enough data. In any volume -counting program, you must determine: (l) the locations where counts will be taken; (2) the overall length of time the data collection will last; (3) the intervals at which information will be recorded (for example, every 15 minutes, hourly, or daily); and (4) what

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will be counted (for example, total vehicles, trucks, pedestrians, or a combination of these and other categories).
18. Methods. The methods used will be determined by the purpose of the traffic count.
a. Techniques. The two basic techniques for obtaining trafficvolume data involve either the use of an automatic (mechanical) counter or a manual count (hand tally).
(1) Automatic counters. These portable devices are generally battery-powered, but some of the smaller units operate by windup springs. They usually employ a pneumatic road tube to detect a passing vehicle, and it provides an impulse to advance the counter mechanism. Some counters employ a wire road loop or other electronic detector on or imbedded in the pavement to indicate vehicle passage. Most counters using a road tube are designed to register one vehicle for every two (axle) impuises. An adjustment multiplier may be needed if traffic consists of over 5 percent tractor-trailers or other multiple-axle vehicles. The road tube may be installed across half the road to obtain a directional count, or may be stretched across the entire road to indicate total volume. To obtain accurate counts, the road tube must be carefully installed according to the manufacturer's instructions.

The more complex counters print the volume count on a paper tape at 15 -minute intervals, cumulatively up to 1 hour, when the counter resets to zero. Thus, when a counter is left at one location for 24 hours or more, a record of hourly volumes is obtained; and 15 -minute peaks can be obtained by subtracting the consecutive cumulative printouts. The simpler counters contain only a cumulative counter dial, which must be read on location at the intervals for which the counts are desired.
(2) Manual counts. These require field personnel to hand tally each vehicle as it passes the checkpoint. They must have a pencil, wristwatch, clipboard, and a sufficient supply of appropriate field data sheets unless use is made of push-button manual-counting registers. The latter may be board mounted to simulate an intersection. Manual registers greatly increase the total number of vehicles that one person can count in a given period, since he only has to indicate the passing of a vehicle by depressing a key and record the counts at the end of each count interval.

Sufficient personnel must be available to obtain accurate data. At very busy intersections, it may be necessary to provide one man for each approach. Less busy intersections can be counted by two men; or
even one, if he has an intersection board of manual registers. When allday counts are undertaken, it will be necessary to provide extra men so that the workers may have periodic breaks. It is suggested that several of the more capable workers be appointed as overseers and made responsible for the collection of field sheets at the day's end. Different persons performing manual counts will always obtain slightly different numbers. The overseer should apply a data check system of the count with other intersections along the same street, a comparison of manual counts with those of automatic recorders, and a spot manual count of his own.
b. Length of count. Traffic counts are made over a time period long enough to provide the data desired. For example, a peak-period count should include sufficient time to insure the peak hour is covered. Normally it is desirable to include a minimum of 15 minutes at each side of the peak hour. Traffic signals are timed using data collected during the morningpeak, evening-peak, noon-peak, and/or off-peak periods. To satisfy the warrants for a traffic signal, data should be collected during the 10 busiest hours of the day. Twenty-four-hour counts may be used as estimates of the average daily traffic. Automatic counters can be left in place for extended periods or even be permanently installed to determine daily, weekly, or seasonal variation in traffic volumes. Intersectional traffic volumes are usually recorded in terms of 15 -minute intervals to permit identification of peaking within the hour.

Short counts can be obtained of less than the total periods under study to permit coverage of a number of locations when total time available for counting is limited. In these, to estimate peak-hour volumes, the observer would count 6 minutes at each location, preferably for at least three times during the hour. The three short counts at each location are averaged, and an estimate of the hourly volume is obtained by multiplying this average by 10.
c. Types of studies. The major types of volume studies performed at military installations are the turning-movement count, trafficvolume count, vehicle-classification count, and special counts.
(1) Turning-movement count. This type of manual count should be performed at every major intersection in the overall study area. The counts are made during morning - and evening -peak periods, and if possible, during noon-peak and several off-peak periods. Personnel are assigned to specific corners of the intersection being counted and are instructed to place a tally mark for each passing vehicle according to its movement, either left, straight, or right. A sample field-data sheet is shown in figure l. Four of these forms would be used at a four-way

| TURNIMG MOVEMENT COUNT FIELD SHEET |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |
| tine | (1) 7 | (2) 1 | (3) ${ }^{\circ}$ |
| $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & 0645 \\ & \text { to } \\ & 0700 \end{aligned}\right.$ | HHH HH HH <br> (15) | HH /I <br> (7) |  <br> (22) |
| $\left[\begin{array}{l} 0700 \\ \text { to } \\ 0115 \end{array}\right.$ | IHH $\mathrm{HH} \mathrm{HH} / \mathrm{HH} /$ <br> (21) |  | HHH HH HHH HHH HOH "II' |
| $\left\{\begin{array}{l} 0715 \\ \text { to } \\ 0730 \end{array}\right.$ | HH HHH HH HAH HHHHT <br> (30) | HH HH HH $1 / 1$ <br> (18) | HHH HH HHH HHH HH $\mathrm{HHH} \mathrm{HHH} \mathrm{HHH} \mathrm{H} /$ (46) |
| $\begin{gathered} 0730 \\ \text { to } \\ 0745 \end{gathered}$ | HH HHH HH HHIHHH HOH HH HH1 |  <br> 11 <br> (27) | HH HAH HAH IAH HIH HAH HHH HHH HHH HHH HH HH Hat Hent hat hill |
| $\left.\begin{gathered} 0745 \\ \text { to } \\ 0800 \end{gathered} \right\rvert\,$ | HH HH HH HH HH HH HH HHM <br> (42) | HHH HHHH HHH HHII | HH HH HA HA IAH IHH HH HHH HH HH HHH HH HH HHH HHH HHH HHH HH HH HHH HH HH HHH HH HH HOH HH HHOHH HHH <br>  |
| $\begin{aligned} & 0800 \\ & \text { to } \\ & 0815 \end{aligned}$ | HH HH HH HIN (22) | $\mathrm{HHH} \mathrm{HH} /$ <br> (11) | HHO HHH HHH HHH HH $\mathrm{HH} \mathrm{HH} / 1 /$ |

Figure 1. Typical turning-movement-count field sheet.
intersection, but some individuals may be counting on more than one form. Space is available for writing times down the left side of the sheet. The counting period should be divided in 15 -minute subperiods. An alternate field-data sheet such as figure 2 may be used when two or more low-volume approaches are counted by one person.
(2) Traffic-volume count. This type is usually performed at midblock locations along a street. The count may be done manually on a simple tally sheet or may be performed using automatic traffic counters. The count may include one or two directions of traffic. The total duration of the count is often 24 hours, which includes the morning - and eveningpeak hours. An automatic traffic counter can be installed at the same location for $l$ week or more. This provides a profile of day-to-day variations during the week, which may then be averaged to calculate the average daily traffic. When counts have been averaged over a period of 1 year, the result is termed the annual average daily traffic. A major artery having traffic that is typical of the entire installation may be selected as the location for a long-term master counter. By means of calculated adjustment factors, readings from the master counter are used to adjust those of local counters. The locations for local counters should be selected to permit traffic-flow analysis of the entire arterial street network and to include problem areas on collector and local streets.
(3) Vehicle-classification counts. These manual counts may be performed during any period of interest but should attempt to sample typical traffic conditions with representative percentages of trucks. By drawing more lines on the suggested field counting sheet, a classification count may be performed as an integral part of other traffic-volume counts (fig 3). Vehicles are usually grouped according to size and number of axles as follows:

Group 1--Passenger cars and panel and pickup trucks. Group 2--Two-axle trucks and buses. Group 3--Three-, four-, and five-axle trucks.

Record should also be made of any tracked vehicles or forklifts that pass the checkpoint.
(4) Pedestrian counts. These are performed whenever there is a question about pedestrian flow. Problems could arise where there is a conflict between pedestrian and vehicle traffic, such as at a midblock school crossing or at a circulation road within a large parking lot. Pedestrian counts are also used to provide design data for pedestrian facilities and traffic-control devices. For example, the required width of sidewalk


Figure 2. Typical abbreviated-turning-movement-count field sheet.

| TURNIMG Moverent/vehicle classification count fielo |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | tion M/aples July 11 ,199s RVER $\angle R$ S.m |  |  | Ave 10 0815 | Mapl | $\mathrm{le} \mathrm{~S}$ |  |  |  |
| ${ }^{T}{ }^{\text {ME }}$ | (1) 7 |  |  | (2) |  |  | (3) |  |  |
|  |  | 2 | 3 |  | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| $\begin{gathered} 0.45 \\ \text { to } \\ 0700 \end{gathered}$ | \#\#tint <br> (11) | (17 | (1) | HH <br> (5) | (11 | (1) | (15) |  | (2) |
| $\left\lvert\, \begin{gathered} 0700 \\ t c \\ 0715 \end{gathered}\right.$ | HHHH HH <br> (15) | $\left[\begin{array}{c} i=1 \\ i \end{array}\right.$ |  |  | $1^{11}$ | (0) | HH HOCH HOH 111 <br> 23 | ("'" | " 2 |
| $\left\|\begin{array}{c} 0715 \\ \text { to } \\ 0130 \end{array}\right\|$ | Withturn n+1 | ${ }^{11}(3)$ |  | H+ HH HW1 <br> (16) | 1 | 1 | HOH HH HH HON HOH $\mathrm{HWH} \mathrm{HH} \mathrm{H} / 1$ (42) | (3) | (1) |
| $\left\|\begin{array}{l} 0730 \\ \text { to } \\ 0745 \end{array}\right\|$ | HHH HHH HH HHO <br> (33) | (\%) | 11 | HOH HOH HOH HH <br> (25) | 1 | 1 | $\mathrm{NH}+\mathrm{HOH} \mathrm{H}+\mathrm{CH}$ How Hol HW HA $\mathrm{HOH} \mathrm{HCl}+\mathrm{HOH}$ HH HHCH HH (80) | (3) | 1 |
| $\left\|\begin{array}{c} 0745 \\ \text { to } \\ 0800 \end{array}\right\|$ | HH HHCH HOH Hot H+HHOH 111 <br> (38) | (3) | (1) | HH MH HHCH HW 1 | 1 | $1{ }^{1}$ |  | (1w+ | (3) |
| $\left\|\begin{array}{c} 0800 \\ t 0 \\ 0815 \end{array}\right\|$ | 1 HNH H (20) | (1) | 1 | (H+1/" <br> (9) | 1 | () | HH HH HM HH HH HH $/ 1 / 1$ | (3) | 1 |

Figure 3. Typical turning-movement-vehicle-classification-count field sheet.
pavement is determined by pedestrian flow rates, and the warrants for a pedestrian overpass are determined by potential pedestrian/vehicle conflicts.
(5) Special counts. There are many possibilities for counts of a special nature; for example, counts of vehicles parking, U-turning, weaving, or turning right on red signal (when permitted). Other special counts are covered in part two, sections IV and XI of this pamphlet.
19. Analysis. This will consist of initial refining of raw data, summarizing counts, cross-checking volumes, and multiplying by adjustment factors as presented in the following paragraphs.
a. Data reduction.
(1) The first step is to convert the raw data to a more convenient form. The turning movements for an entire intersection are summarized on a suggested data sheet such as the one shown in figure 4 . The movements for the various time periods are then studied to find the highest hour (four consecutive 15 -minute periods) and the highest 15 -minute volume within that hour for each approach. The movements may be added and summarized on a form similar to the one shown in figure 5. This figure can also show pedestrian, bicycle, or other classification data relevant to solution of any problem.
(2) Traffic-volume counts are transferred from either the automatic counter printed papcr tape or from the rough field-data sheets to a summary form such as shown in figure 6. Counts taken along the same street should be compared to determine a logical flow of traffic. For example, if 500 more vehicles were counted at one intersection than at another a block away, there should be an intermediate driveway that caused the variance. If that is not the case, suspect either a counter malfunction or the credibility of the manual count. A recount should be made unless corroborative data can be found.
b. Adjustment factors. The purpose of an adjustment factor is to modify a volume count to reflect average daily traffic movement for the site in question. Traffic volumes usually exhibit a predictable day-to-day variation. Traffic volumes on Sunday, Monday, Friday, and Saturday normally are unique and should be adjusted to agree with the more stable midweek day counts. When a master counter has been left in one location for an entire week, the results can be used to adjust a local counteraccording to the particular weekday it was in place. First, determine the average daily traffic for the master; then the day factor; and finally, the $A D$ ' $f$ for the local counter.

Figure 4. Typical turning-movement summary sheet.


Figure 5. Typical turning-movement diagram.
$A D T$ master $=\frac{\text { Sum of daily } 24 \text {-hour master counts (for l-week period) }}{7}$

Day factor $=\frac{\text { ADT master }}{24 \text {-hour master count for that day }}$
Adjusted ADT local count = day factor x 24 -hour local count
It should be noted that weekly, monthly, seasonal, or employment level adjustment factors can also be computed.
20. Interpretation.
a. Convenient graphic displays of the results should be prepared to assist interpretation. One such display is shown in the traffic-volume flow map (fig 7) where the band width for each street is proportional to the traffic volume. It is thus easy to determine which are the more important travel routes. A flow map may be prepared showing 24 -hour or peak-hour volumes. A simpler method of preparing a flow map is to draw a composite

| :AECHANICAL RECORDINGS SUMMARY SHEET |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| street a location Aduen Ave Butween Afpele Ave i tive sit location no. A date $7 / 22 / 15$ weather Fair$\qquad$ |  |
| time | am peak 15-minute periods |
| 0100/1A $/ 55$ | 0600 |
| 0200/2A $/ 0 \cdot \mathrm{C}$ | $0.15 \quad 149$ |
| 0300/3A $\quad 54$ | $\cdots 30227$ |
| 0400/4A $\quad 50$ | $\bigcirc 645378$ |
| 0500/5A 63 | -200 981 |
| 0600/6A 2<0 | c 15.728 |
| 0700/7A 1358 | - $306 \%$ |
| 0800/8A 2454 | $4145 \quad 553$ |
| 0900/9A 504 | 1800482 |
| 1000/10A 581 | co15 173 |
| $1100 / 11 \mathrm{~A} \quad 6<2$ | 1030 ill |
| 1200/12A <br> 6.45 e B un |  |
| 1300/1P 1263 ○心 | pm pear 15-minute pertods |
| 1400/2P 531 | 1600 |
| 1500/3P 712 | 1615147 |
| 1600/4P 705 | 1630422 |
| 1700/5P ic 76 | 1145465 |
| 1800/6P $16 . C$ | 1700402 |
| 1900/7P 6/5 | 1715 356 |
| 2000/8P $6 C C^{\circ}$ | 130420 |
| 2100/9P 4 ¢ | 1745461 |
| 2200/10P 436 | 1800 343 |
| 2300/11P 336 | $1815 \quad 117$ |
| 2400/12P 255 | $10^{\prime 30} \quad 150$ |
| 24-hour total ( $16, / 21$ ) factored total ( $/ 6 / 12$ ) |  |

Figure 6. Typical mechanical recordings summary sheet.

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turning-movement diagram (fig 8). This form lacks the visual emphasis of the flow map but provides the convenience of showing the turning movements at every intersection.
b. It is also helpful to plot the hourly traffic variations on major streets of the installation (fig 9). Usually peak hours carry about 10 to 15 percent of the day's total traffic. When a higher percentage is observed, it may be an indication that staggered duty hours are needed to help spread the traffic load (part two, sec $V$ ).
c. Every road facility has a theoretical capacity for traffic that is seldom exceeded (part two, sec III). When traffic volumes approach the theoretical roadway capacity, travel times increase, and delays and/or congestion occur. It is thus useful to compute the ratio of volume/capacity (V/C). The closer the $V / C$ ratio is to 1.0 , the more burdened is the roadway and the greater the probability of congestion, delay, and accidents.
21. Application. Volumes are basictraffic data and are used in conjunction with other types of data to support all traffic-improvement decisions. The following are typical uses for traffic volumes:
a. To justify installation (or removal) of a traffic signal by comparison with the volume warrants stated in the Manual on Uniform Traffic Control Devices for Streets and Highways (MUTCD); also, to time the traffic-signal cycle correctly and to determine the type of signal equipment required.
b. To indicate the need for traffic-control signs according to the requirements stated in the MUTCD.
c. To evaluate accident data and study the relationship of turning movements to accidents and congestion.
d. To compare day and night traffic volumes with their associated accident rates to determine the need for street lighting.
e. To help in the development of a street-classification system such as primary, secondary, and tertiary streets.
f. To evaluate the need for greater street width to handle high traffic volumes.
g. To facilitate assignment of traffic-control police for intersection duty during certain time periods.

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Figure 8. Typical composite-turning-movement diagram.


Figure 9. Typical hourly-traffic-variation chart.
h. To indicate long-term growth trends for vehicle usage and for traffic volumes in general.
i. To help establish construction and maintenance priorities.
j. To help establish the road pavement markings, and to determine the required frequency for repainting traffic-worn lines.
k. To help with the analysis of parking demands and to assess the impact of new traffic generators on the surrounding streets.

1. To determine the ideal locations for commercial facilities whose business is influenced by passing traffic (service stations, banks, or retail stores).

## STREET-CLASSIFICATION STUDY

22. Purpose. The purpose is to classify installation roads according to their functional importance. The importance of a road is determined by the service it supplies to adjacent land areas and by the traffic that uses it. The system of classification to be described is specified by Department of Army Technical Manuals (TM) 5-822-2 and 5-822-5 (app B).
23. Information needed. A street inventory, maps, an adjacent landusage survey, a compilation of street-traffic volumes, and a trafficclassification breakdown are required.
a. Maps. Obtain the following Master Plan maps from the installation facilities engineering office: (1) Basic Information, General Site; (2) Basic Information, Reservation; (3) Basic Information, General Road and Railroad; and (4) Plans for Future Development, General Site Plan.
b. Land Use. Prepare a land -use map from either the reservation map or from personal observation. Indicate, by color coding, areas used for family housing, commercial services, troop training, and the like. Shade in major traffic generators such as hospitals, office buildings, and shopping areas.
c. Traffic Volumes. Prepare a map showing the traffic volumes on every primary and most secondary streets of the installation (see part two, sec I). It also will be necessary to indicate the traffic classification by vehicle type on the arterial streets.
24. Method. Several steps are involved in the process of determining the street classification: (1) by importance, (2) by traffic volumes, and (3) by traffic-composition category.
a. By importance. Each street should be classified by its importance to the overall installation street plan: P--primary street (lst), S--secondary street (2d), T--tertiary street (3d).

A measure of importance is indicated by the service that a street supplies to adjacent land uses:
(1) Primary. These are main arteries and provide access to, through, and between the various sections of the installation.
(2) Secondary. These streets collect traffic from local activity areas and provide access between and within the various sections of the installation.
(3) Tertiary. These are local streets and connect more important streets with individual buildings and other land uses.
b. By traffic volumes. Each street should also be classified according to the traffic volume that it typically serves. A letter grade from $A$ to $F$ is determined by comparing the measured traffic volume with tadle 2 of TM 5-822-2 (app B). To use that table, select the lowest lettergrade road class that has capacity enough to handle both the design hourly volume (DHV) and the average daily traffic (ADT). The design hourly volume will usually correspond to the evening-peak-hour traffic. Presented in table 2 is information extracted from TM 5-822-2, table 2, for the special case of category $I$, flat terrain, and built-up area.

TABLE 2
TRAFFIC CAPACITY FOR VARIOUS CLASSES OF INSTALLATION ROADSa/

c. By traffic composition. A category should be determined for each street according to the types of traffic served. Vehicle clas sification

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counts are performed on all major streets, and the vehicles are grouped according to size and number of axles (see para 18 ¢(3)).

Having determined the percentage composition of traffic, each road is assigned a category. The category information in table 3 is extracted from TM 5-822-5.

| TABLE 3INSTALLATION ROAD CATEGORY FOR VARIOUS COMPOSITIONS OF TRAFFIC |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Road Traffic By Groups |  |  |  |
| Road Category | $\begin{gathered} \hline \text { Group } 1 \\ \text { (Pct) } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Group (Pct) | $\begin{gathered} \text { Group }{ }^{3} \\ \text { (Pct) } \end{gathered}$ |
| 1 | 99 | 1 | 0 |
| II | 90 | 10 | 0 |
| III | 85 | 14 | 1 |
| IV | 75 | 15 | 10 |
| v, VI, VII | Contains | hicles | ifts |

25. Analysis. This will consist of preparing an updated street map similar to the general road and railroad map. The map should clearly present the street classification by importance, the measured traffic volumes, and the road category. A table of streets may be prepared instead of a map.
26. Interpretation. This will consist of a comparison of the updated street classifications with those currently existing. There are two aspects to the comparison: (1) adequacy of traffic capacity, and (2) adequacy of pavement design.
a. Traffic capacity. Inadequate roadway capacity is indicated when it would be necessary to change the road class to handle the existing traffic volumes. For example, if it were necessary to change from Road Class $B$ to Class $A$, widening to four lanes would be indicated. Traffic capacity should be compared on both open-road portions and at controlled intersections. When inadequate roadway capacity has been determined, the situation should be further investigated using the more detailed techniques listed in part two, section III.
b. Pavement design. The ability of roadway pavement to carry heavy vehicles depends, in general, upon the pavement thickness, strength of the paving materials, and the pavement foundation. A pavement design index is used to indicate the required strength of road surface. The design
index is a number from 1 to 6 , with the higher design index indicating a stronger pavement. It is a function of both street classification and traffic composition. The design index should be determined from the information in table 4, which has been extracted from TM 5-822-5 (app B).

TABLE 4
REQUIRED DESIGN INDEX*

| Road Class | Traffic Composition |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Category I | Category II | Category III | Category IV |
| A | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| B | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| C | 3 | 4 | 4 | 6 |
| D | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| E | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| F | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

*Refer to TM 5-822-5 for road classification.

## 27. Application.

a. Practical application of street-classification results can be made to the street system by determining where operational improvements are required. The results may also be used to provide pavement design criteria to help establish a road-maintenance program and to determine priorities for construction funding.
b. Another application is the classification of streets according to traffic conditions that will exist in some future design year. For example, if traffic volumes and compositions have been projected for a design year of 1990 , it is possible to determine the required future street classifications and the required pavement design standards. A table of future street design parameters should be preparedusing table 5 as a guide.

## SECTION III

HIGHWAY-CAPACITY STUDY
28. Purpose.
a. The comparison of counted traffic volumes with calculated highway capacity is an important input to the study of needed improvement

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TABLE 5
FUTURE STREET DESIGN PARAMETERSa/

| Roadway | 1982. Projections on Proposed Thoroughfare Plan |  |  |  | Resultant Design Parameters |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 24-Hour Traffic <br> Volume (ADT) <br> (All Lanes) $/$ <br> Low High | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Design Hourly } \\ & \text { Volume (DHV) } \\ & \text { (All Lanes) b/ } \\ & \text { Low } \frac{\text { High }}{} \end{aligned}$ | Traffic Composition Category | Importance to Viability of Thoroughfare Plan | Para <br> Class of <br> Street <br> Needed | ters <br> Pavement <br> Design <br> Index |
| New Braunfels Ave | 12,500-21,000 | 1,350-1,740 | II | Primary | A | 4 |
| Stanley Rd | 3,000-13,000 | 250-1,615 | I II | Primary | A | 5 |
| Wilson St | 7,500-15,000 | 350-1,580 | I II | Primary | A | 5 |
| Artillery Post Rd | 2,200-7,500 | 30-645 | II | Secondary | C | 4 |
| Harney Rd | 1,000-3,000 | 250-420 | I | Tertiary | D | 2 |

a/Volumes shown are the future year, as assigned to thoroughfare plan.
b/ Low and high volumes occur on different sections of the same street and thus show the range of traffic volumes expected.
projects. Highway capacity, very broadly, is a measure of the effectiveness of various roadways to serve traffic. 1/ Study of highway capacity is needed for:
(1) Identification of points of congestion and their relative severity.
(2) Determination of the need for and effectiveness of specific improvements to increase capacity.
(3) Establishment of priorities for street improvements based upon capacity considerations.
(4) Derivation of criteria for the planning and design of new streets and the modification of existing streets to meet future needs.
b. The subject of highway capacity is complex and has been the subject of continuing study and research by traffic engineers for many years. The authoritative reference source is the Highway Capacity Manual (app B). This section is based upon material from that manual, that has been reduced for general use in the more common types of traffic studies at military installations. As simplified as this section may be in comparison to the Highway Capacity Manual contents, this type of study is relatively complex and should be performed only when substantial need is evident.

1/ The terms highway, street, and roadway have the same meaning as used in this section.
29. Information needed. The basic concepts and information involved in the computation of highway capacity are discussed below:
a. Types of flow. Traffic flow may be divided into two general groupings:
(1) Uninterrupted. A condition in which a vehicle traversing a section of road is not required to stop by any cause external to the traffic stream. This type of flow might be found on freeway or expressway facilities, on roads through essentially rural areas, or on roads to ranges and maneuver areas.
(2) Interrupted. A condition in which a vehicle traversing a section of roadway is required to stop by a cause outside the traffic stream such as signs and signals or pedestrians. This condition usually occurs at or near intersections. Although midblock interruptions and interferences may become so significant that they control traffic flow and capacity, intersections are the usual cause of inter ruption on most roadways.
b. Factors affecting capacity. The factors that affect capacity the most are:
(1) Physical features of the roadway.
(a) Lane width and total approach width.
(b) Lateral (side) clearance and width of shoulder.
(c) Auxiliary lanes used for parking, speed change, turning, bus stops, and storage.
(d) Surface conditions.
(e) Alignment.
(f) Grades.
(2) Traffic conditions.
(a) Percentage of trucks and buses in the traffic stream.
(b) Turning movements, particularly left turn.

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(c) Variations in traffic flow during peak hours.
(d) Control measures such as one-way operation, parking restrictions, and turning-movement controls.
(e) Traffic interruptions, such as:

1. Traffic signals, military-police control, and STOP and YIELD signs.
2. Volume of cross traffic at intersections.
3. Entrance/exit gates.
(f) Weaving and merging of traffic flows.
(3) Environmental conditions.
(a) Metropolitan area population.
(b) Characteristics of the study location such as near central business district or in fringe, residential, suburban, or rural areas.
(c) Load factor, which is the ratio of the number of green intervals that are fully utilized by traffic during the peak hour to the total of green intervals for that approach during the same period.
4. Methods. Study guidelines have been separated into the two general areas of concern: roadway capacity and intersectional capacity.
a. Roadway capacity. The Highway Capacity Manual contains material to be used for determining the effect (individually or collectively) of the above-mentioned factors on the capacity of a given roadway. The information in this scction has been simplified, and many factors have been reduced to typical conditions that generally prevail on a military installation. Thus, this material presents a relatively simple method for determining highway capacity, which is of sufficient accuracy for use in traffic studies that require this type of analysis.
(1) Capacity computation. The Highway Capacity Manual gives values shown in table 6 for ideal conditions of uninter rupted flow. In actual practice these values represent ideal conditions of 12 -foot-wide lanes with no lateral restrictions and on level terrain. They must be
adjusted downward to take into account actual roadway and traffic factors. Specific adjustment factors are listed in the Highway Capacity Manual. After applying factors to reflect actual roadway conditions, such as narrow lane width, lateral restrictions, and high turning volumes, the actual capacity will be approximately 70 to 80 percent of the ideal capacity; that is, the ideal values as shown in table 6 should be reduced by 20 to 30 percent to give reasonably accurate capacities for uninterrupted flows.

TABLE 6
ROADWAY CAPACITY UNDER IDEAL CONDITIONS

| Highway Type | Capacity |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | (Passenger Vehicles/Hour) |
| Two-lane, two-way traffic | 2,000 total, both directions |
| Three-lane, two-way traffic | 4,000 total, both directions |
| Multilane (four or more) | 2,000 per lane, one direction |

(2) Level of service. There are many factors and combinations of conditions that may occur on a given roadway. Level of service is a descriptive measure of the effect that thesc factors and conditions have on the flow of traffic. The different levels of service reflect the relative differences in traffic interruptions, speed and travel time, freedom to maneuver, safety, driving comfort and convenience, anr operating costs that may occur on a given highway under given conditions. As shown in table 7, six levels of service have been defined and designated by letters $A$ (free flow) through $F$ (forced flow and very unstable).

TABLE 7
LEVELS OF SERVICE AS DEFINED BY HIGHWAY CAPACITY MANUAL

| Level of Service | Description |
| :---: | :---: |
| A | Free flow. Low volumes and high speeds, no delays. |
| B | Stable flow. Speeds restricted by travel conditions, minor delay. |
| C | Stable flow. Speeds and maneuverability closely controlled by higher volumes. |
| D | Unstable flow. Speeds considerably affected by change in operating conditions. |
| E | Unstable flow. Low speeds, volume at or near capacity. |
| F | Forced flow. Very low speeds, volumes are below capacity, long delays. |

A highway will provide different levels of service at different times depending upon the volume and composition of traffic and speeds attained. The higher the traffic volume, the lower the level of service. The worst condition or service level represents stagnant or congesterl traffic. At this time, the volumes carried are unpredictable or practically nil, since speeds are minimal.

## b. Intersection capacity.

(1) General. One of the most important elements limiting and often interrupting the flow of highway traffic is the at-grade intersection. To a large extent, intersections control the capacity of the installation arterial streets. They also seriously affect the ability of installation access roarls to perform at maximum efficiency.

The capacity of an intersection approach street is the number of vehicles per hour that it can handle under existing physical design conditions, traffic characteristics, controls, and assumed level of service. In this section, specific procedures are outlined for computing capacity under a range of intersection conditions. Where field observations have been made of a fully loaded intersection and the resulting figure is in disagreement with this guide, the observed value should be used as the capacity of that particular location.
(2) Peak-hour factor. The peak-hour factor (PHF) represents the peaking of traffic volumes during the hour of peak traffic. In order to calculate the peak-hour factor, it is necessary to compare the highest 15 -minute count with the total volume for the hour by using the formula below.

$$
\text { PHF }=\frac{\text { Total peak-hour volume }}{4 \times \text { Highest } 15 \text {-minute count }}
$$

For example, if the peak-hour volume was 900 vehicles per hour and the highest 15 -minute count within that hour was 300 , the PHF is equal to 0.75 . The lower the PHF, the more severe is the peaking within the hour. A PHF of 1.00 represents an even flow of traffic throughout the peak hour.
(3) Fundamental capacity charts. Figures 10 and 11 are used to determine the approach capacity of each leg of an intersection per hour of green time, given the width of the approach street. One hour of green time would be available if traffic signals for that approach were always green. The approach width is the total width of the approach pavement
(one direction of movement only) including any parking cunes but excluding lanes reserved exclusively for turns. In addition to approach width, other elements such as the presence or absence of parking and one-way or twoway operations must be known. For all other factors conditions considered typical or average for military installations have been assumed such as percent of turns, trucks, and buses. Effects of significantly more or less turns and commercial traffic can be computed.


Figure 10. Urban intersection approach service volumes in vehicles per hour of green for two-way streets.
(4) Green-time-to-cycle-length (G/C) ratio.
(a) Since the volume read from the chart is in terms of per-hour-of-green, a further computation must be made to adjust for the actual amount of green, or "go", time available for the approach street during each hour of traffic-signal operation. If the intersection is signalized with pretimed signals (signals that alternate green, yellow, and red indications in accordance with a fixed pattern), the actual vehicle-perhour capacity is computed as follows: First, divide the number of seconds of green indication, $G$, by the total number of seconds in a signal cycle, $C$; then, multiply the per-hour -of-green capacity by this G/C ratio. For example, if a given intersection approach has 30 seconds of green out of a


Figure 11. Urban intersection approach service volumes in vehicles per hour of green for one-way streets.
total traffic signal cycle of 60 seconds and a capacity of 1,500 vehicles per hour of green (taken from chart, figures 10 or ll), the calculation would be $30 / 60 \times 1,500=750$ vehicles per hour. This amount is called the service volume. In the case of traffic-actuated signals or military-police control, the G/C ratio must be obtained by field studies to determine average ratios during peak conditions.
(b) Where traffic signals do not exist but will be installed in the future, capacity may be estimated by assuming signalized intersection parameters. First, assume a cycle length; then, assume that the green, or go, time on each street is directly in proportion to the relative traffic volumes on the intersecting streets and inversely proportional to the respective street widths. The formula stating this procedure is:

$$
\frac{\text { Relative time, Street } A}{\text { Relative time, Street } B}=\frac{\text { Volume, Street } A}{\text { Volume, Street } B} \times \frac{\text { Width, Street } B}{\text { Width, Street } A}
$$

or

$$
\frac{T_{A}}{T_{B}}=\frac{V_{A}}{V_{B}} \times \frac{W_{B}}{W_{A}}
$$

Then the G/C ratio for Street A approach is:

$$
T_{A}=\frac{T_{A}}{T_{A}+T_{B}}
$$

31. Analysis. Examples of analysis are found in the following sample problems:
a. Signalized intersection.
(1) Given: An intersection with dimensions, flow direciions, parking, and traffic signals, as shown:


Signal Timing

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Green time }- \text { Street } A & =32 \mathrm{sec} \\
\text { Street } B & =22 \mathrm{sec} \\
\text { Yellow time }(2 \text { at } 3 \mathrm{sec}) & =\frac{6 \mathrm{sec}}{\text { Total cycle }}=
\end{aligned}
$$

(2) Problem: Find the capacities of Streets A and B.
(3) Solution: Figure 10 is the applicable chart for two-way streets, and figure 11 for one-way streets.

For Street A, enter the lower scale of figure 10 at an approach width of 32 feet, and project upward to the line designated Parking Two Sides. Using this intercept as a turning point, project horizontally to the left-side-volume scale. Read volume of 1,500 vehicles per hour of green.

$$
\text { Signal ratio }=\frac{\text { Green time }}{\text { Total cycle }}=\frac{32 \mathrm{Sec}}{60 \mathrm{Sec}}=0.53
$$

Street A capacity (one approach) (actual vehicles per hour) $=1,500 \times 0.53=795$

For Street B, using figure ll, enter lower scale at 40foot width, project upward to Parking-One-Side line; then, similarly, read left-side-volume scale, 2,800 vehicles per hour of green.

Signal ratio $=\frac{22 \mathrm{Sec}}{60 \cdot \mathrm{Sec}}=0.37$
Street B capacity (one approach) (actual vehicles per hour) $=2,800 \times 0.37=1,036$
b. No intersection control.
(1) Given: Same conditions as in a(l) above, except no traffic signals.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Traffic volumes }- & \text { Street } A-20,000 \text { vehicles per day } \\
& \text { Street } B-10,000 \text { vehicles per day }
\end{aligned}
$$

(2) Problem: Find the capacities of Streets A and B.
(3) Solution: In the same manner as described in 3a(3) above, the per hour of green volumes are found to be:

Street A approach - 1, 500
Street B approach - 2,800
The relationships between ADT and street widths yield the $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{A}}$ and $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{B}}$ values as follows:
$\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{A}}=\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{A}} \times \mathrm{W}_{\mathrm{B}}=20,000 \times 40=800,000$
$\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{B}}=\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{B}} \times \mathrm{W}_{\mathrm{A}}=10,000 \times 64=640,000$

Street Agreen time ratio $=\frac{T_{A}}{T_{A}+T_{B}}=$

$$
\frac{800,000}{800,000+640,000}=0.56
$$

Street Bgreen time ratio $=\frac{T_{B}}{T_{A}+T_{B}}=0.44$

## Optimums:

Street A capacity (actual vehicles per hour) $=1,500$ x $0.56=840$

Street B capacity (actual vehicles per hour) $=2,800$ $\mathrm{x} 0.44=1,232$
32. Application. Several important practical applications of capacity studies are presented below:
a. Increased capacity. Methods of increasing capacity may be te sted analytically. The methods include:
(1) Elimination of on-street parking.
(2) Prohibition of turning movements or the provision of special turning lanes and signal phases.
(3) Street widening, particularly at intersection approaches.
(4) Relocation of bus stops.
(5) Relocation of objects near the pavement edge.
(6) Changing from two-way to one-way-traffic movement.
(7) Use of reversible lanes.

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(8) Improvements in traffic-signal timing and analysis regarding the potential benefits in revising signal phasing.

The determination of the amount of additional capacity to be obtained from each of the a bove improvements is indicated in the Highway Capacity Manual.
b. Future traffic. The traffic capacity of an existing highway may be compared with the traffic volumes projected for some future date. The comparison will provide the highway designer with information necessary to determine what improvements will be necessary. Capacity analysis of projected traffic volumes may also be used to determine the design standards for new highway construction.
c. Project comparison. Traffic improvement projects may be ranked according to the potential increase in capacity per dollar expended (app E).

## SECTION IV

## VEHICLE-OCCUPANCY STUDY

## 33. Purpose.

a. This study measures the amount of group riding by counting the number of occupants in each motor vehicle. Vehicle-occupancy (VO) studies have several useful purposes. These purposes can be classified into two general groups: first, those that have policy implications as found in AR 210-4, "Car Pooling and Parking Controls"; and second, those that are technical in nature. Policy implications will be discussed here, and the technical aspects will be discussed in paragraph 38 of this section.
b. The nation's increased ownership and usage of the automobile generates undesirable levels of traffic congestion, air pollution, and energy consumption. As a result, it is Federal policy to encourage the use of car pools and mass transportation. Note that AR 210-4 requires installa tion commanders to insure 'to the extent practical, that regular arrival and departure times are maintained for all employees and adjustments in scheduled duty hours are permitted for individual employees to facilitate car pooling. " Paragraph 7-2 of joint service regulation AR 55-80, Fighways for National Defense, dated 2 August 1974, states 'Requests for
traffic engineering studies concerned with minor day-to-day problems created by peak-hour congestion or other short duration impacts should be made only after installation personnel have staggered duty hours or conducted programs to increase car pooling." Basically, it is MTMC policy that car and bus pooling will be actively promoted at all military installations to the extent that the net transportation effect is recuction in traffic congestion, air pollution, and energy consumption. A record of average vehicle occupancy over a period of time may, therefore, be used as a measure of compliance with national and DOD policy before MTMC commits resources for transportation engineering studies at military installations.
34. Information needed. This will consist of the number of persons occupying each vehicle that passes the checkpoint. Date, time, direction of traffic flow, and location of the study should also be recorded. Counts may be categorized by vehicle type: for example, passenger vehicles, buses, and trucks.
35. Method. A manual count is made of the number of persons (including the driver) riding in each vehicle. A tally mark is then recorded in the proper column of a data sheet such as figure 12 . Other aspects of study are described below:
a. When. Usually data will be collected during the morning-peak period when most employees are arriving for duty. Other time periods could also be surveyed (such as evening, noon, or off peak), if some special problem were involved. Different time periods often exhibit a different average vehicle occupancy because of different trip purposes. However, it is the peak-period movements that generate the greatest concerns and are usually the only times these studies are made. Data are usually collected by 5 -minute intervals. Typical workdays should be selected for the study. Care should be taken to avoid taking counts on or proximate to holidays.
b. Where. Counts are normally made at every major entrance to the installation but may also be performed at special subareas such as the entrance to the commissary or to the theater. For the purpose of constructing an origin-destination trip table, a vehicle-occupancy study could be performed on major interior arteries during off-peak travel periods.
c. What.
(1) Usually, all occupants of passenger vehicles are counted including those in sedans, pickup trucks, station wagons, vans, and

| VEhicle occupancy fielo sheet |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| installation FT．BATTLE <br> location MAIN GATE <br> date 15 JLLy 1975 trme 0700 to 0815 observer J．W．Jones |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| time | ntmber of occupants |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Bus |
| 0700 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Hent Herthr HHY HHTH | H＋1 111 | 111 | 11 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
|  | 册 HH － 11 | （8） | 3 | 12） | （1） |  | （1） |
| 0715 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | IIII | 11 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
|  |  | 112 | （4） | （2） | （1） | （1） |  |
| 0730 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | IIII（4） | 11 （2） | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 074.5 | （3） | D |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | 册 H 韦 11112 |  | （1） | 0 | 0 | 0 |
|  | He＋Het III（53） |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0802 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | 111 （3） | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0815 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | TOTALS |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | VEHICLES $=20$ 2 |  | 10 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
|  | PEOPLE $=20 \sim$ | 10.0 | 30 | 20 | 10 | 6 |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | TOTAL PEOFLE $=388$ | VEHICLE OO | CUFANCY |  |  |  |  |
|  | TUTAL VEHICLES 290 |  |  | 2.90 |  |  |  |

Figure 12．Typical vehicle－occupancy field sheet．
campers. Commercial vehicles and trucks are not considered for the purpose of vehicle occupancy, but may be tallied separately if desired. Buses also are tallied separately, and the number of passengers may be counted during the course of a special transit study (part two, sec XII).
(2) One man will be required to count each entering traffic lane. When traffic volumes are high, a sampling procedure may be used. The unbiased sample should select every other vehicle or some other convenient multiple. Personnel should be equipped with field-data sheets, clipboards, pencils, and wrist watches.
d. Alternate. An origin-destination questionnaire (part two, sec $X$ ) can be used as an alternate method for collecting vehicle-occupancy data. However, this method is advisable only if the questionnaire is to be is sued to gather other information and the vehicle-occupancy question is included as a supplement.
36. Analysis. This will consist of summarizing the raw data, determining the total number of occupants, and computing the average vehicle occupancy. Table 8, using typical data, demonstrates the procedure.

TABLE 8
VEHICLE-OCCUPANCY CALCULATIONS*

| Persons per Vehicle |  | No. of Vehicles Counted |  | Total No. of Occupants |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | x | 2,062 | = | 2,062 |
| 2 | X | 372 | = | 744 |
| 3 | X | 63 | = | 189 |
| 4 | X | 12 | = | 48 |
| 5 | x | 5 | = | 25 |
| 6+ | x | 0 | = | 0 |
| Total |  | 2,514 |  | 3,068 |
| *Average vehicle occupancy $=3,068 / 2,514=1.2204$ Rounded to equal 1.2 persons per vehicle. |  |  |  |  |

The next step in the analysis is to tabulate the data and compute percentages. Typical vehicle-occupancy summary tables are shown in Figure 13.

TABLE X
VEHICLE OCCUPANCY BY ENTRANCE GATE

| Entrance <br> Gate | Total <br> Vehicles | Vehicle <br> Occupants | Vehicle-Occupancy <br> Ratio |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bayshore | 813 | 1,010 |  |
| MacDill | 412 | 509 | 1.2 |
| Dale Mabry | 568 | 723 | 1.2 |
| Port Tampa | 721 | 826 | 1.3 |
| Total | 2,514 | 3,068 | 1.1 |

TABLE X
VEHICLE-OCCUPANCY SUMMARY*

| Occupants per Vehicle | Vehicle |  | Occupant |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | No. | Pct | No. | Pct |
| 1 | 2,062 | 82.0 | 2,062 | 67.2 |
| 2 | 372 | 14.8 | 744 | 24.3 |
| 3 | 63 | 2.5 | 189 | 6.2 |
| 4 | 12 | 0.5 | 48 | 1.5 |
| 5 | 5 | 0.2 | 25 | 0.8 |
| Total 2,514 |  |  | 3,068 | 100.0 |
| *Average vehicle-occupancy (VO) ratio $=1.2$. |  |  |  |  |

Figure 13. Typical vehicle-occupancy tables.
37. Interpretation.
a. Since World War $I$, vehicle ownership in the United States has consistently increased. When a family owns more cars, it is more likely to use those cars for individual home-to-work trips. Morning-peakhour traffic is composed largely of home-to-work trips. Thus the vehicle occupancy measured at installation entrance gates reflects the increased ownership and usage of the automobile.
b. This agency determined from previous studies that the overall DOD vehicle occupancy for 1973 is the following: Air Force, 1.3; Army, 1. 4 ; Navy, 1.5 persons per vehicle. The higher ratios reflect use of fewer
vehicles by equivalent numbers of personnel assigned to the more industrialized installations.
c. The results of a vehicle -occupancy study may be used to gauge the utilization of, need for, and success of car-pool and bus-pool programs. For example, a VO compared to the national averages presented in paragraph 37, with allowance for rural or urban conditions, can reflect the relative utilization of car and bus pools. A VO lower than the national average, with allowance for rural or urban conditions, can reflect the need or justification for active promotion of car-and bus-pooling programs. VO rates available over a period of years can reflect the degree of success an installation commander has had in instituting car-and buspool programs. Military installations should strive to attain VO ratios as high as possible.
38. Application. The results of a vehicle-occupancy study may be applied to determine entrance/exit-gate statistics, to calculate parking demand, to support an access road study, and to determine the need for car-pool formation.
a. Entrance/exit gates. Results of the vehicle-occupancy study may be used to estimate the number of persons (or vehicles) that daily enter or exit the installation. They may also be used to estimate person flow along a particular highway, which information is useful in certain highway economic and planning problems. To determine person flow, multiply the measured daily traffic volume (ADT from part two, sec I) by the previously determined average vehicle occupancy.

$$
\text { Persons per day }=A D T \times V O
$$

b. Parking demand. The results of a vehicle-occupancy study may be used to estimate the demand for parking prior to the construction of new facilities. Estimated parking demand is equal to the expected number of people, divided by the vehicle-occupancy ratio.

$$
\text { Parking demand (spaces) }=\text { No. of persons/VO }
$$

For example, a new office building will employ 700 people. As the result of an isolated vehicle-occupancy study, it was determined that typical ridership was 1.5 persons per vehicle. The basic estimated parking demand is thus equal to $700 / 1.5$, or 466 spaces. The estimate may be further refined in accuracy by determining a separate vehicle occupancy for visitors or service vehicles as opposed to employees. An allowance should be made for traffic circulation and future growth.
c. Access roads. Evidence that vehicle ofcupancy at the installation is not substantially below the applicable average may be used in some cases to support a need for additional road capacity (sce part one, para 9 of this guide).
d. Car pools. The results of a vehicle-occupancy study may be used to indicate the potential reduction in traffic that could occur with increased use of car pools. When installation roads are jammed with peakhour traffic, increased use of car pools is one of the most cost-effective solutions. Listed below are several methods of encouraging the formation of car pools:
(1) Advertise. Allow free advertising space in the local newspaper for persons seeking car-pool partners.
(2) Big board. In a prominent location, such as a cafeteria, display a large local map that has been zoned to show employee live areas. Provide information cards that may be filed nearby according to zone number. Persons seeking car-pool partners may then match up cards.
(3) Computer matching. The United States Department of Transportation, Federal Highway Administration, has available computer programs that can be used to match up employees and aid in the formation of car pools.
(4) Incentives. Provide close, free, reserved parking for car pools with four or more persons.
(5) Flexi-time. Flexible worktime schedules permit the employee to set his own arrival/departure time and thus participate in car pools that might arrive/depart at other than the employee's original dutyhour schedule.
(6) Mass transit. The use of mass transit should be supported. Employee bus organizations should be encouraged. Communication should be established with local commercial bus companies, particularly about new routes or schedule times, to improve ridership (part two, sec XII). Satellite (fringe) parking areas may be developed where employees may leave their cars and take a bus. For example, when many of the employees live in a nearby community, a cooperative shopping center could be used for parking, and special commercial bus runs could be established.

## SECTION V

## PERSONNEL AND DUTY-HOUR STUDY

39. Purpose. These studies determine employee strengths, locations, and duty hours. The study may also include the gathering of motor-vehicle registration data. The results of this study may be used to determine concentrations of personnel reporting/departure times and a consequent need to stagger duty hours. Staggering duty hours is an excellent method of producing a more even distribution of traffic and better utilization of the available street system. It is one of the first solutions that should be tried on a military installation when road congestion is a problem. However, care must be taken to see that staggering duty hours creates minimal loss of effectiveness of car-pooling programs.
40. Information needed. The basic data required by this study include: organization charts, personnel strengths, telephone directories, duty-hour lists, installation maps, and vehicle-registration data. The classes of information required are shown on the sample tables presented in the analysis section.
41. Method. The following will discuss the means of collecting the needed information.
a. Personnel strengths. The required personnel data will usually be found in the records kept at installation headquarters. Each major organization is required to maintain a table of distribution and allowances (TDA) that lists the authorized and actual personnel strengths. For purposes of traffic analysis, actual strengths should be used. Telephone directories and organizational charts are useful to verify that each and every organization, such as tenant organizations and contractors, has been included. Since the goal is to include all personnel who contribute to installation traffic, an average number should be used for workers who are hired on a daily basis. The installation master planner can provide the long-range planning strength that should be used to design future highway projects.
b. Duty hours. Duty hours can be obtained at installation headquarters or by contacting the individual activities on the installation. Dutyhour information also can be obtained by use of a questionnaire (part two, $\sec X)$.
c. Vehicle registration. These data are usually obtained from the installation provost marshal or security police. Unless the existing

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files have been recently purged, the information should be updated by special questionnaire.
42. Analysis and display of data. This will consist initially of pre paring tables or graphic illustrations that summarize the data. The sample tables that follow indicate the classes of information that should be obtained from installation headquarters. Typical tabular personnel information (fig 14) has been broken down by organization and by personnel status: officer, enlisted, or civilian. This is appropriate in a traffic study because of the different vehicle-ownership rates exhibited by various organizations.

TABLE X
PERSONNEL INFORMATION


Figure 14. Typical personnel information table.

Vehicle-registration data (fig 15) should also include the vehicles registered by retired military persons, as they are frequent users of installation facilities. The typical duty-hour schedule shown in figure 16 has been broken down by 15 -minute segments during the morning - and evening-peak periods. A bar chart could be plotted for this information to make it easier to identify concentrations of arrivals and departures. Duty hours could also be broken down by organization in order to determine which contribute most to traffic congestion.

TABLE X
VEHICLE REGISTRATION DATA

| Registrant | No. of | Vehicle Ratio |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Per Person* |  |  |$|$

Figure 15. Typical vehicle registration data table.
43. Interpretation. Most of the data collected for this section may be used as general information in the text that accompanies the final traffic report. Such data are essential so that analysis of existing traffic generation and accidents may be compared with future conditions when personnel and other data have changed. Interpretation of personnel information will consist of locating major organizations on the installation map and then noting the roads and entrance gates that provide access. Direct access to the organization is more favorable than a meandering path. Interpretation of vehicle-registration data is largely a matter of comparing records for past years to evaluate the effects of growth in vehicle ownership. The duty-hour schedule should be studied to find high concentrations (more than 25 percent) of arrival and departure times. These are of greatest significance when they correspond with peaks of roadway congestion.
44. Application. The results of personnel and duty-hour studies may be used for determining growth rates, for improving transit service, and for staggering duty hours.

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TABLE X
DUTY HOUR REPORTING AND DEPARTURE SCHEDULE*

| Time | No. of Persons | Pct of Work Force |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Reporting |  |  |
| 2400-0059 | 93 | 0.8 |
| 0100-0159 | 96 | 0.8 |
| 0200-0559 | 120 | 1.0 |
| 0600-0659 | 169 | 1.4 |
| 0700-0714 | 3,081 | 26.1 |
| 0715-0729 | 2,931 | 24.8 |
| 0730-0744 | 1,122 | 9.5 |
| 0745-0759 | 2,129 | 18.1 |
| 0800-0859 | 725 | 6.2 |
| 0900-1459 | 208 | 1.8 |
| 1500-1559 | 477 | 4.0 |
| 1600-1659 | 560 | 4.7 |
| 1700-2359 | 89 | 0.8 |
| Total | 11,800 | 100.0 |
| Departure |  |  |
| 2400-0059 | 921 | 7.8 |
| 0100-0259 | 31 | 0.3 |
| 0300-0359 | 385 | 3.3 |
| 0400-1159 | 408 | 3.5 |
| 1200-1459 | 288 | 2.4 |
| 1500-1514 | 195 | 1.7 |
| 1515-1529 | 257 | 2.2 |
| 1530-1544 | 2,786 | 23.6 |
| 1545-1559 | 2,362 | 20.0 |
| 1600-1614 | 908 | 7.7 |
| 1615-1629 | 784 | 6.6 |
| 1630-1644 | 1,797 | 15.2 |
| 1645-1659 | 28 | 0.2 |
| 1700-2359 | 650 | 5.5 |
| Total | 11,800 | 100.0 |
| *Data derived from origin and destination questionnaire and based on assigned strength of 11,800 persons. |  |  |

Figure 16. Typical duty-hour reporting and departure schedule table.
a. Growth rate. The history of personnel strengths at an installation may be studied to determine a growth rate. However, it will be noted that at most installations, population peaks during periods of
mobilization. It is thus recommended that instead of the growth rate, the long-range planning strength be used for determining future needs.
b. Transit service. The results of a duty-hour study should be compared with existing mass transit route schedules to determine compatibility. Schedules should be established so that employees have sufficient time to walk between their office and the nearest bus stop.
c. Duty hours. When all personnel arrive or depart at the same time, installation roadways will be saturated with traffic. The results are traffic jams, congestion, delays, accidents, and increased air pollution. There are two basic ways of improving the situation: (l) by providing greater street capacity (which can be expensive); or (2) by spreading the duty hours over a longer period of time. Thus, the recommendation to stagger duty hours is the most cost-effective suggestion that can be made.
(1) Management. Many managers desire to have all their personnel report at the same time. It will thus be necessary to document the benefits to be obtained by staggered duty hours to sell the program to installation management. With the exception of a true production line, the impact of staggered duty hours upon organization capability can be minimized. This requires scheduling of mutually interdependent activities at the same or nearly the same duty hours.
(2) Scheduling. Correct planning of a duty-hour schedule will include consideration of travel times on the installation (part two, sec VIII). Each major block of traffic should be allowed time enough to clear the installation, or section thereof, before the next is released. Personnel of an organization with a long travel time to the gate(s) may arrive at the gate to find it jammed with traffic from a nearby organization that was released later. Accordingly, the departure times should be scheduled so that the first units released are those with the shorter travel time to the gate. The remaining units should be released in successive increments of 10 or 15 minutes, proceeding away from the gate. The morning arrival times would be staggered in a like manner unless the length of the workday or noon break were planned to be different. Coordination with organization directors is recommended to produce a workable schedule. Employee desires are often sampled using anorigin and destination style questionnaire (part two, sec X). An example of a duty-hour schedule is shown in figure 17. Note that the table is presented by organization. This example indicates that there still remains much room for improvement, since 53 percent of the personnel would be required to report at the same time.

TABLE X
DUTY-HOUR SCHEDULE

| Agency | Duty Hours |  |  |  |  |  |  | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\begin{gathered} 0730 \\ \text { to } \\ 1600 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0745 \\ \text { to } \\ 1615 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0800 \\ \text { to } \\ 1630 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0815 \\ \text { to } \\ 1645 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0830 \\ \text { to } \\ 1700 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0845 \\ \text { to } \\ 1715 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 0900 \\ \text { to } \\ 1730 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |  |
| Admin Ofc | 27 | 6 | 5 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 45 |
| Asst Secy of the Navy (Instl and Log) | 20 | 10 | 11 | 3 | 9 | 1 | 10 | 64 |
| Misc Navy | 139 | 47 | 58 | 15 | 36 | 8 | 34 | 337 |
| Naval Air | 1,569 | 344 | 311 | 135 | 229 | 23 | 200 | 2,811 |
| Naval Electronics | 545 | 107 | 89 | 60 | 73 | 4 | 81 | 959 |
| Naval Material | 369 | 109 | 69 | 49 | 58 | 12 | 60 | 726 |
| Naval Ordnance | 1,007 | 215 | 178 | 91 | 123 | 8 | 92 | 1,714 |
| Naval Ships | 1,401 | 341 | 347 | 158 | 206 | 28 | 221 | 2.702 |
| Naval Material Comd Spt Actv | 298 | 70 | 84 | 23 | 30 | 5 | 35 | 545 |
| Of $c$ of the General Counsel | 0 | 4 | 4 | 0 | 7 | 3 | 0 | 18 |
| ONR | 212 | 78 | 50 | 42 | 68 | 5 | 26 | 481 |
| Total | 5,587 | 1,331 | 1,206 | 578 | 841 | 99 | 760 | 10,402 |
| Pct of Total | 53.7 | 12.8 | 11.6 | 5.6 | 8.1 | 0.9 | 7.3 | 100.0 |

Figure 17. Typical duty-hour schedule table.

## SECTION VI

## TRAFFIC-ACCIDENT STUDY

45. Purpose. Accidents are studied in an attempt to reduce the accident rate on the installation. The basic procedures in the accident study are: collection of accident data, identification of high-accident-frequency locations, analysis of available data, and application of remedial techniques. From a study of accident history, information may be gained that may be used to prevent future accidents. Information showing predominance of faulty vehicular equipment or automotive maintenance deficiencies can also be gained from accident studies. Accidents may be prevented by application of traffic-control devices, law enforcement, driver education, and safety-oricnted traffic engineering. This section will cover the engineering analysis required and will develop techniques that may be used to reduce accidents. Order of severity should also be listed in terms of accidents per 100 million vehicle-miles or in terms of accidents per 100 million vehicles entering intersections, as discussed later in this section. The five basic steps necessary to perform a complete traffic-accident analysis are:
a. Accident reports. Accident reports should be collected and summarized in an orderly fashion. They are usually filed in the office of the provost marshal, security police, or installation safety office.
b. Selection. High-accident-frequency road sections and problem intersections should be selected in the order of accident occurrence.
c. Diagram. Collision diagrams should be prepared, and, if needed, condition diagrams for each selected problem location (terms are explained later in this section).
d. Field study. The accident data should be supplemented by field observations, particularly during the hours when most collisions have been reported. Special traffic-volume counts and photographs are helpful to aid in the analysis.
e. Analyze. All background facts and field data should be summarized and analyzed to select potential solutions that may be implemented. Normally, the percentage of accidents reported is higher on military installations than on civilian roads and highways. For this reason, direct comparison with civilian highway-accident statistics (accident rates and characteristics) should be made with caution.
46. Information needed. Since traffic accidents are relatively rare events considering the number of potential conflicts that could occur, the accident study should cover at least a l-year period. The following data should be obtained:
a. Location. The provost marshal or security office normally will maintain an accident spot map. This is a large installation map showing all roadways, intersections, and major parking areas.
(1) Map pins are used to locate each accident. A color code is used to indicate the accident severity (typically: property damage only (PDO), blue; injury (I), red; and fatality (F), black). The time and date may be indicated by a flag on the map pin. The spot map may be photographed for use in reports.
(2) Instead of using pins to indicate each accident, it is possible to use a convenient legend, such as that shown in figure 18. A typical accident spot map is presented in figure 19. If the installation does not maintain an accident spot map, it will be necessary to prepare an accident listing by going through the accident report files.

|  | LIGHT CONDITION |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| SEVERITY | DAY | NIGHT |
| PROPERTY DAMAGE ONLY (PDO) | 0 |  |
| INJURY (I) | $\triangle$ |  |
| FATALITY (F) | $\square$ |  |
| IF VEHICLE-PEDESTRIAN ACCIDENT, ADD "P" ALONGSIDE THE SYMBOL. |  |  |
| IF VEHICLE-BICYCLE ACCIDENT, ADD "B" ALONGSIDE THE SYMBOL. |  |  |

## Figure 18. Accident spot-map legend.

(3) A separate listing should be prepared for on-street and off-streetaccidents. An identifying number should be assigned to each accident such as $75-1,75-2,75-3$, which would represent the first three accidents of 1975.
b. Day of the week and time of day. Definite patterns of accident occurrence develop at most installations. The day and time are used to identify the se patterns. Differentiating between daylight and darkness is a minimum requirement.
c. Severity. Note whether accidents involve fatalities (F), injuries (I), or property damage only (PDO).
d. Type of vehicle. Describe whether civilian vehicle, military vehicle, trucks, bus, bicycle, or other. If pedestrian, so indicate.
e. Movement. Describe the action of involved vehicles or persons. It is important to know what each was doing immediately prior to the accident to develop accident patterns (going straight, turning right or left, or stopped). The direction of travel is important also. The Standard symbols shown in figure 20 may be used to indicate the movement of each involved vehicle.
f. Probable cause. The cause of the accident noted on the accident report should be obtained, as well as any unusual circumstances (rain, snow, fog, road construction, or similar).

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LEGEND FOR COLLISION DIAGRAMS

| SYMBOLS | TYPES OF COLLISIONS |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\square$ MOVING YEHICLE | $\rightarrow$ REAR END |
| -- P PEDESTRIAN | $\rightarrow$ HEAD ON |
| $\square$ PARKED VEHICLE | $\rightarrow$ BACKING |
| $\rightarrow \begin{gathered}\text { PARKING OR UNPARKING } \\ \text { VEHICLE }\end{gathered}$ | $\square$ RIGht angle |
| $\longrightarrow$ BACKING YEHICLE | LEFT TURN |
| $\square$ FIXED OBJECT | $\square$ SIDESWIPE |
| - fatal accident | 000- OVERTURNED |
| O INJURY ACCIDENT | $\sim$ OUT OF CONTROL |

Figure 20. Standard accident diagram symbols.
g. High-accident-frequency locations.
(1) Since each installation has a different pattern of development, it is difficult to set standards regarding "what is a high-accidentfrequency location?" As a starting point, list all intersections with three or more accidents per year in descending order, placing the intersection with the highest number of accidents at the head of the list. Normally, intersections with four or more injury accidents per year deserve further study. If the listing indicates that 10 or less intersections fall into this category, use 4 or more accidents per year as the standard to designate high-accident-frequency intersections.
(2) To select high-accident-frequency sections of roadway for further study, use figure 2l. Accidents at the intersection of two major streets are charged to both major street sections to check high-accidentfrequency causes. This avoids the problem of how to divide the accidents between the adjacent street sections. As an example of use of the figure, if there are 20 accidents in a l-mile section of roadway with a daily traffic volume of 10,000 vehicles per day, further study is justified since it exceeds the value of 18 shown in the figure; if the section were only $1 / 2$-mile in length, 9 accidents or more would justify further study; similarly if the section were 2 miles in length, 36 accidents or more would war rant special


## DAILY TRAFFIC VOLUME (VEHICLES PER DAY)

Figure 21. Accident analysis chart.
study. This figure was prepared based upon an accident rate of 500 accidents per 100 million vehicle-miles of travel. Each accident that occurs at a high-accident-frequency intersection or within a high-accidentfrequency intersection or within a high-accident-frequency roadway section may be recorded on the suggested abbreviated accident summary format (fig 22) for later use in the accident analysis. The collision diagram symbols are covered in a later portion of this section.
(3) Sometimes additional details can be helpful when placed on the location map (see fig 19). This is done for the purpose of specifying what types of accidents occurred at what place. For example, designation of clusters of left-turn, rear-end, and fixed-object accidents can be helpful in establishing exactly what kind of improvement is needed. Many high-way-accident statistics and location maps show clusters of fixed-object accidents at some locations involving horizontal curves. Generally, these can be remedied by better signing, edge lines, delineators, and/or guardrails.


Figure 22. Typical abbreviated accident summary sheet.
h. Traffic-volume data and base map. Twenty-four-hour-trafficvolume counts (part two, sec I) on major installation roadways as well as on approaches to high-accident-frequency intersections should be collected. An installation base map (to scale) will be needed to scale various lengths of high-accident-frequency sections to calculate accident rates.
47. Method. The method will consist of summarizing data, performing follow-up field checks of the high-accident-frequency locations, and developing potential measures to reduce accident occurrence in the future. These steps and procedures are explained under the analysis portion of this section.
48. Analysis. This will usually consist of calculation of accident rates to verify further the high-accident-frequency locations and to conduct detailed analysis of each problem location. The detailed analysis includes preparing collision diagrams to identify accident patterns, conducting field investigations, and determining potential corrective measures.
a. Intersection accident rate. The listing of high-accidentfrequency intersections by consecutive order of number of accidents did not take into account the different traffic conditions at each intersection. A further rating is possible by determining the number of annual accidents per million vehicles entering the intersection. The yearly intersection rate per 100 -million vehicles (IR) is calculated using the formula:

$$
I R=\frac{N \times 100,000,000}{V \times 365}
$$

where
$\mathrm{N}=$ Number of accidents in one year;
$V=$ Sum of the 24 -hour volumes entering the intersection on each approach (inbound only).

If the approach traffic volume is not known but the two-way total is available on each leg of the intersection, assume that the approach volume is one -half of the two-way total. When the rates are calculated, they can be summarized in a table as shown in figure 23.
b. Roadway accident rate. This is calculated in a manner similar to the intersection accident rate. This rate is based upon the number of vehicle-miles of travel rather than upon the entering vehicles. The yearly accident rate per 100 -million vehicle-miles (AR) may be computed with the formula:

TABLE X
ACCIDENT INTERSECTION DATA

| No. | Intersection | No. of Accidents |  |  |  | Daily Entering Traffic Volume | Total Accidents per 100 Million Vehicles |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | PDO | I | F | Total |  |  |
| 1 | C - 10th | 8 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 15,000 | 146 |
| 2 | A - 2 nd | 10 | 2 | 0 | 12 | 25,000 | 132 |
| 3 | F-4th | 5 | 1 | 0 | 6 | 19,000 | 87 |

Figure 23. Typical accident intersection data table.
$A R=\frac{N \times 100,000,000}{V \times 365 \times L}$
where
$\mathrm{N}=$ Number of accidents in one year;
$L=$ Length in miles of the roadway section;
$\mathrm{V}=$ Two-way 24 -hour traffic volume.
The section of roadway for which the rate is calculated should be a section of reasonable length ( $1 / 2$-mile or longer), which has similar characteristics in terms of traffic volumes, number of lanes, and adjacent development. The traffic volume used is the average for the section if more than one count is available. Figure 24 indicates a format for summarizing the results of these calculations for high-accident-frequency sections of roadway, or for any high-volume roadways on an installation, in order to identify the sections with high-accident-frequency rates. After high-accident-frequency sections have been determined for further siudy and improvements have been made, then other lower accident sections should be listed in descending order and improvements should be made at all locations (especially at locations where there appears to be a reasonable chance of potential accident reduetion).
c. Collision diagrams.
(1) This summary technique is one of the most valuable tools in analyzing problem intersections or roadway sections. Using the individual abbreviated accident reports prepared earlier (see fig 22), the collision diagram is prepared for each high-accident-frequency location.
(2) The path of each vehicle should be represented by a solid line, and that of each pedestrian by a dotted line. The date and hour should be written beside each arrow. Unusual weather, road conditions, and pedestrian or driver conditions should also be noted on the diagram.

TABLE X
HIGH ACCIDENT ROADWAY SECTIONS

| Roadway/Section | Length (M1les) | No. of Accidents |  |  |  | Average Daily Volume (Vehicles per Day) | Annual <br> Vehicle <br> Travel <br> (100 Million <br> Vehicle-Miles) | Accidents per 100 Million Vehicle-Miles |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | PDO ${ }^{\text {a/ }}$ | I ${ }^{\text {/ }}$ | $\mathrm{F}^{\text {/ }}$ | Total |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { A St, 1st to } \\ & 5 \text { th } \end{aligned}$ | 1.0 | 20 | 8 | 0 | 28 | 15,000 | 0.055 | 509 |
| A St, 5 th to 14th | 2.2 | 32 | 4 | 1 | 37 | 9,000 | 0.072 | 513 |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { C St, } 4 \text { th to } \\ & 12 \text { th } \end{aligned}$ | 2.0 | 16 | 6 | 0 | 22 | 5,000 | 0.036 | 611 |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { E St, } 12 \text { th to } \\ & 19 \text { th } \end{aligned}$ | 1.8 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 6 | 1,000 | 0.007 | 857 |
| $\begin{aligned} & \frac{a}{b} / \text { PDO - Property } \\ & \frac{\mathrm{c}}{\mathrm{c}} / \mathrm{I} \text { - Injury. } \\ & \text { F - Fatality. } \end{aligned}$ | amage o |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Figure 24. Typical high-accident roadway sections table.
Traffic volume and travel information are optional but helpful in reviewing the diagram to consider accident-reduction means. A sample collision diagram is shown in figure 25. By preparing collision diagrams after some change has been made (such as a turn prohibition or sight-distance improvement) that covers a period equal to the before period, the effect of the change on accident occurrence may be measured.
(3) When dealing with accident statistics, always note whether accidents involve fatalities (F), injuries (I), or property damage only (PDO). Also, note the minimum dollar amount for which PDO accidents have been recorded (usually $\$ 50$ to $\$ 100$ ). In this way, the calculation of military installation accident rates per $100-$ million vehicles or per 100 -million vehicle miles for each severity category will be more meaning ful and can be compared better with national, state, or regional rates.
d. Field study. In all areas where accidents occur in large numbers or where certain types of accidents occur frequently, a field investigation must be made. A condition diagram (fig 26) should be constructed to show existing physical conditions. Such a diagram should include roadway grade, curvature, shoulder width, view obstructions, sidewalks and driveways, property lines, type and condition of pavement, signals, signs and pavement markings, bridges, overpasses, culverts, street lighting, sight distance, and types of occupancy of adjacent property. An aerial photograph can serve much of the purpose of the condition diagram, particularly when supplemented with ground-level photographs taken on each intersection approach looking toward the intersection.


Figure 25. Typical collision diagram summary sheet.


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49. Interpretation. The results of the accident and volume studies as well as the field investigation allow the analyst to find answers to the following questions:
a. Are the accidents caused by physical conditions of the road or adjacent development, and if so, can the conditions be eliminated or corrected?
b. Is there a blind corner that could be improved to increase sight distance? If the obstruction cannot be removed, has adequate warning or control (STOP signs, YIELD signs, or traffic signals) been provided for the motorist?
c. Are the existing signs, markings, or signals doing the job for which they were intended? Are there too many signs of too small a size so that their clutter causes confusion and lack of observance? Are trafficsignal indications clearly visible without conflicting signs in the back ground, particularly at night?
d. Is traffic properly channelized and directed through the use of pavement markings and islands to reduce conflicts?
e. Would the potential for accidents be reduced by prohibiting some single turn if a reasonable alternate route is available to serve the prohibited move?
f. Can part of the traffic be diverted to other parallel roads where the accident hazard is lower? Are one-way streets practical to spread traffic loads and reduce intersection conflicts?
g. Are nighttime accidents far out of proportion to daytime accidents, indicating the need for improved street lighting? (About 36 percent of the nation's accidents occur from dusk to dawn when only 20 percent of the traffic flows.)
h. Do conditions show that additional enforcement would be helpful in improving driver observance of traffic-control devices? Would general public information programs be helpful in informing installation personnel of accident characteristics and problems?
i. Is parking in the vicinity of the problem area contributing to the accidents? If so, would prohibiting parking add to intersection capacity or improve sight distance at corners?
j. Have you met with other interested personnel such as the provost marshal or installation safety officer to obtain their ideas concerning the problem?
50. Application. The practical application of a study of accident types shown by the collision diagrams will assist in remedial action. Reviews of these patterns may suggest the corresponding engineering remedies as shown:
a. Right-angle and rear-end collisions at intersections.
(1) Remove view obstructions.
(2) Install warning signs on the higher volume (major) approach and STOP signs on the lower volume (minor) legs.
(3) Install four-way STOP signs; install traffic signals if traffic volumes warrant.
(4) Continue operation of traffic signals during certain light traffic periods when signals are normally off.
(5) Provide proper clearance interval (yellow) for higher speed approaches to signalized intersections.
(6) Relocate, repair, or provide other means of improving visibility of signs or signals. Change 8 -inch signal indications to 12 inches for primary indications.
(7) Improve street lighting if there is a high percentage of nighttime accidents.
(8) Provide pedestrian crosswalk markings and barriers.
(9) Reroute through traffic onto specially designated and protected through streets.
(10) Create one -way streets or make one or more minor legs one way away from the intersection at complex multilegged intersections.
(11) Install left-turn storage lanes in the center of the roadway to reduce rear-end accidents and improve capacity.

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(12) Provide a traffic-signal system timed for progressive movement so that traffic moves in platoons, which will aid side street vehicles to enter or cross. Reducing the number of stops for through traffic will reduce the potential for rear-end accidents.
b. Head-on and left-turn collisions at intersections.
(1) Provide left-turn storage lanes so that a turning driver has a place to wait without concern about rear-end accidents.
(2) Prohibit left turns.
(3) Provide channelizing islands or pavement markings. .
(4) Separate left-turn phases at traffic-signal controls for high-volume turns (over 120 vehicles turning per hour).
(5) Install STOP signs (provided no other remedy works).
(6) Eliminate or modify view obstructions (trees, shrubs, signs, or buildings).
(7) Create one-way streets to eliminate head-on conflicts.
(8) Reroute turning traffic via an alternate route.
(9) Install pavement center and edge lines, but do not install both center and edge lines on pavements narrower than 18 feet when used for two-way traffic.
c. Pedestrian-vehicular collisions at intersections.
(1) Install pedestrian crosswalk lines and advance warnings.
(2) Install traffic signals with pedestrian indicators (WALK/ DON'T WALK).
(3) Provide pedestrian refuge islands (must be at least 6 feet wide) and sidewalks.
(4) Prohibit curb parking to improve visibility of pedestrians.
(5) Provide adequate street lighting for nighttime problems.
(6) Create one -way streets to simplify movements.
(7) Reroute through traffic to specially designated and protected through streets when the vehicle-pedestrian problem is areawide; install malls or diverters to eliminate through traffic in areas where it should not be.
(8) Provide pedestrian indications at existing traffic signals.
(9) Provide overhead or below-grade pedestrian crossing when economically justified.
(10) Establish regulations and guidelines concerning pedestrian outer garments for night wear.
d. Head-on or sidewipe.
(1) Install painted pavement lane lines or raised pavement markers.
(2) Install center dividing islands.
(3) Install advance warning signs to warn drivers of the proper lane for certain destinations in order to reduce unsafe lane changing.
(4) Establish no-passing zones where passing sight distances are not available.
(5) Provide acceleration or decele ration lanes at intersections.
(6) Widen pavement.
(7) Create one-way streets.
(8) Eliminate side or width obstructions such as parked cars, narrow bridges, and utility poles.
e. Vehicles running off roadway.
(1) Install pavement center and edge lines.
(2) Install roadside delineators, reflectors, guide posts, or guardrails.
(3) Install advance warning signs indicating safe speeds.
(4) Establish speed zones.
(5) Install safety lighting at curves and intersections.
(6) Apply surface treatment and improve shoulder.
f. Collisions with fixed objects.
(1) Apply reflectorized paint and/or reflectors to fixed objects.
(2) Use pavement markings and/or channelization to guide traffic around obstructions.
(3) Improve street lighting.
(4) Remove fixed objects (if feasible).
(5) Install guardrails or impact-absorbing barriers.
g. Collisions with parked cars.
(1) Prohibit parking.
(2) Change from angle to parallel parking.
(3) Reroute through traffic to less congested, specially protected through streets.
(4) Create one-way streets.

In addition to the above recommendations, additional measures may be required. For example, there may be needed improved enforcement of speed or other traffic regulations, assignment of traffic officers or crossing guards to safeguard pedestrian crossings, enforced pedestrian observance of traffic rules, and special driver or pedestrian educational measures.

It must be emphasized that the above is a "shopping list" of potential treatments to reduce accidents. Sometimes none of these will have a beneficial effect; in other cases one or more may prove effective. A logical review of the facts and conditions at each problem location will
usually identify some remedial treatment that will aid in accident reduction. It will be necessary to apply engineering judgment.

## SECTION VII

## TRAFFIC-CONTROL-DEVICES INVENTORY

51. Purpose. The purpose is to produce a detailed inventory of all traffic-control devices (pavement markings, signs, and signals) on an installation. The results are used to determine whether there is an adequate number of devices, if they have been properly located, and if they comply with regulations. Thus, the results are used to determine which devices must be removed, replaced, or relocated. The inventory willalso aid in the establishment of schedules for cleaning, maintenance, and replacement. Traffic-control devices are classed as (1) pavement markings, (2) traffic signals, and (3) signs. Signs are, in turn, described as either regulatory, warning, or guide. The standard reference for all traffic-control devices is the Manual on Uniform Traffic Control Devices for Streets and Highways (hereinafter referred to as MUTCD). This publication also applies to DOD installations, as established by public law and DOD regulations (app B).
52. Information needed. The type, location, and condition of each traffic-control device on the installation is necessary.
53. Methods. Possible methods are (1) the manual inventory, and (2) the computer-produced inventory. At smaller installations the data recorded from the manual survey should be coded directly to a map of the street systems. Each traffic-control device should be coded on the map and an index number assigned it. Information such as description, condition, reason for, and date of installation should be typed on cards and filed by the index numbers. When manpower is available, larger installations should use a computer-produced inventory. This system is centered around the use of automatic data processing (ADP) equipment, though initial data assembly must be manual and the basic data record is the same. The ADP punch-card-coding format shown in appendix $C$ has been reprinted from the Highway Safety Program Manual, Volume 13, Traffic Engineering Services. (Part two, sec XIV of this guide provides more details of the Highway Safety Program Standard (HSPS) No. 13.)
a. Signs. The inventory of signs shouldinclude (from MUTCD)' '. . all devices mounted on a fixed or portable support, whereby a specific

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message is conveyed by means of words or symbols, placed or erected for the purpose of regulating, warning, or guiding traffic." The recommended ADP procedures are presented in appendix C (from HSPM 13). Shown is a system to collect the required information, coding instructions, and a sample data sheet. Presented in appendix D are field-data sheets that permit a sign inventory without the use of the complex forms recommended in HSPM 13.
b. Pavement markings. The inventory of pavement markings should include (from MUTCD) "... all lines, patterns, words, or colors set into the surface of, applied upon, or attached to the pavement or curbing for the purpose of regulating, warning, or guiding traffic." The recommended ADP system is presented in appendix C (from HSPM 13). Shown are the required information, coding instructions, and a sample data sheet.
c. Traffic signals. The inventory of traffic signals should include (from the MUTCD) "...all signals manually, electrically, or mechanically operated, by which traffic is alternately directed to stop and permitted to proceed. " The recommended ADP coding system and the suggested format for a scale drawing (from HSPM 13) are presented in appendix $C$.
d. Data collection. The primary means of conducting the inventory is by arduous manual field observation. Usually two-man teams will travel every street on the installation by automobile. Each street must be traveled in both directions to avoid missing any device. If there is a concentration of devices in one spot (for instance at an intersection), it will be necessary to travel on foot. A travel plan should be adopted and adhered to. At signalized intersections, it will be necessary to time the traffic signal with a stop watch. An inspection of the controller will determine the type and the dial settings being used. It should also be noted whether the controller is traffic-actuated, and if so, by what means. Observations should be made over a sufficient number of cycles to prove that the actuator is indeed operable.
54. Analysis. This will consist of preparing inventory lists of all traffic-control devices. This listing may be produced manually. However, it is also possible to have the coding sheets keypunched and to use ADP system devices to produce the listing. Since the inventory should be up dated annually, the ADP system procedure may be desirable, particulary when the installation has a large number of devices. This system has the advantage of producing tables in a convenient printed format and of providing summary printouts with relative ease. The printouts may be
classified by (1) the number of each type of device, (2) the number of devices in various states of repair, (3) a maintenance list, and (4) a replacement list.
55. Interpretation. Only field personnel having a working knowledge of the MUTCD should be assigned to the inventory. They will be responsible in the field for interpreting the standards and for comparing each traffic-control device against them. After listings (or printouts) have been prepared, further interpretation should compare the MUT CD against the overall status of traffic-control devices on the installation. Action should be taken if the inventory reveals nonstandard or poorly mounted devices. For example, determine whether the devices have been located correctly to have the desired safety effect. Determine whether there are enough traffic-control devices for proper results. Determine whether there are too many devices in certain areas that perhaps complicate the driver's task. Determine whether each and every device GETS ITS MESSAGE ACROSS. That is the first function of any traffic-control device.
56. Application. The traffic-control-device inventory should be used to determine when to replace or relocate devices.
a. Maintenance. The inventory may also be used to establish schedules for the maintenance or replacement of the devices. For example, pavement markings should be repainted annually and more often in heavy traffic areas. Signs should be periodically cleaned, and any defaced, deteriorated, or damaged signs should be replaced. Traffic signals should be relamped periodically, the lens should be cleaned, and the wiring inspected. The controller should be examined and routine maintenance performed.
b. Records. The traffic-control-device inventory and all accompanying drawings should be preserved in files. This will provide a convenient source of information regarding the type, design, and location of traffic-control devices. The inventory should be updated annually.
c. HSPS 13. Highway Safety Program Standard 13 (part two, sec XIV) requires that traffic-control devices be standardized throughout the country and has established the MUTCD as the reference manual. Successive legislation has extended the standardization to cover all DOD installations or those portions permitting personal motor vehicle travel. HSPS 13 requires that a traffic-control-device inventory be performed and kept current by periodic rechecks. Devices that are nonstandard, incorrectly used, or poorly maintained must be replaced.

## SECTION VIII

## TRAVEL-TIME AND DELAY STUDIES

57. Purpose. The purpose of these studies is to determine typical travel times and delays experienced by motorists on the major roadways serving an installation. The results of a travel-time study will determine the effect that peak-hour-roadway congestion has on average travel speed; the results of a delay study will indicate the location, cause, and duration of traffic stoppages. These types of studies are sometimes called speed and delay studies. Both the travel-time study and the delay study are used to determine sources of traffic congestion, and to highlight problems that may require additional investigation. Together they indicate the serviceability of installation roadways.
58. Information needed. Data needs include the travel time on selected roadways serving the installation. Data may be collected on major installation streets and on public roads that provide access to the installation. Travel times may be recorded both during off-peak-travel periods and during the morning-or evening-peak hours. Also needed are the road location of any traffic delay, together with the time, length, and cause of the delay. A delay is considered to occur each time traffic is forced to stop or when it must travel much slower than a free-flowing speed.
59. Method. There are many ways of accomplishing travel-time and delay studies. The method selected here is thought to be most appropriate for military installations. It is called the test-vehicle or floating-car technique.
a. Equipment. A standard unmarked passenger sedan, a driver and an observer, street maps, stop watches, and a clipboard with data sheets will be needed.
b. Technique. The driver and observer travel each major roadway of the installation, recording their observations on a data sheet as shown in figure 27 . The two stop watches are mounted at the top of the clipboard. One watch is run continuously and is used to indicate elapsed time; the other watch is started when a delay occurs, stopped when traffic moves again, and the duration of the delay time is then recorded. The cause of delay is noted by the use of symbols shown at the bottom of the data sheet. Space is provided for several possible delays between major intersections, and more can be inserted if necessary. A run along a particular street is begun at some landmark just prior to the first niajor cross-street. The elapsed time is then recorded when the center of each


Figure 27. Typical travel time and delay field sheet.

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intersection is crossed. The driver is instructed to float with the traffic at a speed he considers to be that of an average car (rather than at the posted speed limit).
c. Preparation. Prior to the actual road travel-time measurements, it will be necessary to prepare a map sketch showing the major streets that will be included in the study. The intersection of two major streets is called a node. All the nodes on the sketch should be numbered sequentially, as are all segments of roadway. From accurate installation maps, exact segment distances (in feet) are scaled and then written alongside the segment number on the sketch. Scaled map distances are usually more accurate than car odometer readings over short distances.
d. When. Runs should be made during clear weather and when traffic conditions are fairly typical. Series of runs should be made during off-peak-travel periods to obtain normal travel times. These are compared with the results of other runs made during the morning - and the evening-peak hours. Peak-hour runs are made in the direction of the maximum traffic flow. It is necessary to make several runs and average the results. For practical purposes five runs are usually sufficient. Several teams in other test cars can aid in collecting travel-time data by departing at 5 -minute intervals.
60. Analysis. Analysis will consist of computing the average travel time for each segment and then calculating the travel speed aided by the suggested work sheet in figure 28. A table should be prepared summarizing travel-time and delay results. A table suitable for this purpose is shown in figure 29 and a sample published table is shown in figure 30 . Note that the delay codes used correspond to those on the suggested travel-time and delay field-data sheet (see fig 27). It is desirable to prepare a map that summarizes the travel times and emphasizes road segments with significant delays (fig 31). A written commentary should accompany the map, and should describe field observations concerning the causes of delay. A list of formulas applicable to travel-time and delay studies is presented below:

Distance $=$ Length of road segment (feet)
Travel time $(\min )=$ Elapsed time End run Elapsed time $\quad$ Start time
Total delay time $(\min )=$ Sum of delay times

$$
\text { Running time }(\min )=\text { Travel time }- \text { Total delay time }
$$

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Figure 28. Typical travel time work sheet.


Figure 29. Typical summary sheet for roadway segments with significant delay.
table $X$
ROADWAY SEGMENTS WITH SIGNIFICANT DELAY

| Roadway Traveled and Mileage | Terminal Point and Segment No. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Time } \\ & \text { Period } \end{aligned}$ | Posted Speed Limit (mph) | Overall <br> Speed <br> (mph) | $\begin{gathered} \text { Overall } \\ \text { Time } \\ \text { (min) } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Delay Time (mın) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Franklin Rd } \\ & \quad(0.13 \mathrm{mile}) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Drumin } \mathrm{Dr} \\ 1 \quad \mathrm{~b} / \end{gathered}$ <br> Aultman Ave | Morning Peak Off Peak <br> Evening Peak | $\begin{aligned} & 30 \\ & 30 \\ & 30 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 11.1 \\ & 26.0 \\ & 26.0 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.7 \\ & 0.3 \\ & 0.3 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.4 \\ & 0.0 \end{aligned}$ |
| Aultman Ave ( 0.22 mlle ) | Coleman Cir <br> 2 <br> Greene Rd | Morning Peak Off Peak <br> Evening Peak | $\begin{aligned} & 30 \\ & 30 \\ & 30 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 22.0 \\ & 26.4 \\ & 12.0 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.6 \\ & 0.5 \\ & 1.1 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.1 \\ & 0.6 \end{aligned}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Greene Rd } \\ & (0.47 \mathrm{mple}) \end{aligned}$ | Pendleton Pike $3$ <br> Hebert Lord Rd | Morning Peak Off Peak Evening Peak | $\begin{aligned} & 30 \\ & 30 \\ & 30 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 28.2 \\ & 31.3 \\ & 14.1 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1.0 \\ & 0.9 \\ & 2.0 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.1 \\ & 1.1 \end{aligned}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Greene } \mathrm{Rd} \\ & (0.10 \mathrm{mile}) \end{aligned}$ | Aultman Ave $4$ <br> Otis Ave | Morning Peak Off Peak <br> Evening Peak | $\begin{aligned} & 30 \\ & 30 \\ & 30 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 20.0 \\ 15.0 \\ 8.0 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.3 \\ & 0.4 \\ & 0.8 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} -0.1^{c} \\ 0.4 \end{gathered}$ |

$\frac{a}{b}$ Morning- and evening-peak speed and delay runs were made in the direction of maximum traffic flow. $\frac{b}{c}$ Numbers encircied are segments of routes and correspond to those shown in Figure 8.
c/ Peak-hour travel time faster than off-peak travel time.

Figure 30. Typical table of roadway segments with significant delay.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Overall travel speed }(\mathrm{mph})=\frac{\text { Distance }(\mathrm{ft})}{\text { Travel time }(\mathrm{min}) \times 88} \\
& \text { Running speed }(\mathrm{mph})=\frac{\text { Distance }(\mathrm{ft})}{\text { Running time }(\mathrm{min}) \times 88}
\end{aligned}
$$

61. Interpretation. For every automobile trip, there exists a desirable travel time including a minimum number of delays. Details are provided below:
a. Travel time. A comparison should be made between both the peak- and off-peak-travel periods for the same roadways. On most roads, as traffic volumes increase, average speeds decrease and travel times increase. A significant increase in segment travel time is considered to have occurred if the peak-period-travel time is more than twice the off-peak-travel time. On very short segments, such as one or two blocks, a delay of 0.5 minute is considered to be significant.

Figure 31. Typical speed and delay map.
b. Delays. The number (frequency) of delays along a route indicate the frustration a driver experiences during his trip. Delays cost the driver money, both in terms of the value of his own time and in terms of gas and oil expended while going nowhere. It is thus desirable to minimize delays. When significant delays have been encountered during the travel-time and delay study, it will be necessary to revisit the scene of the delay and to study the causes in detail.
62. Application. If the data from the study show that resultant delays are few, and that peak hour-travel times are approximately the same as off-peak times, then no further action is necessary.
a. Travel-time standards. From experience it has been found that it is possible to establish standards for travel time and running speed. The suggested standards shown in table 9 represent a goal toward which the installation should aspire. Of course, special speed restrictions, such as for schools, should be considered in the overall evaluation.

TABLE 9
SUGGESTED MINIMUM DESIRABLE OVERALL TRAVEL SPEEDS (MPH)

| Road Class | Off Peak | Peak Hour |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
|  | $30-45$ | $25-35$ |
| Arterfal (primary) | $25-35$ | $20-25$ |
| Collector (secondary) | $15-25$ | $10-20$ |
| Local (tertiary) |  |  |

b. Delays. When excessive delays exist and the causes have been determined, the following actions should be considered.
(1) Traffic signals. Recalculate the signal timing. Check the warrants for traffic signals contained in the Manual on Uniform Traffic Control Devices for Streets and Highways. Perhaps the signal is not warranted and should be removed. Consider the addition of a signal controller with settings for morning-, evening-, and off-peak-travel periods. Consider the use of traffic-actuated-signal controllers. Where there are several signals in short succession, consider synchronizing the system so that traffic may progress from one to another on a green band.
(2) Stop signs. When traffic is delayed by a STOP sign, several items must be considered. Recheck the warrants for a traffic signal; perhaps the STOP sign should be replaced. Determine if the sight distance along the cross-street is sufficient or whether sight is blocked by

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parked cars, buildings, unnecessary signs, or shrubbery; then, remove the sight restriction. Check to see if the STOP sign is on the correct approach and is not stopping a major flow for the benefit of a smaller group.
(3) Turning movements. When delay is caused by left-or right-turning vehicles, consicler prohibiting such turns. Consideration should also be given to adding separate turn lanes or separate traffic-signal-turning phases. Determine if the curb radius is adequate to facilitate right turns, particularly where there are numerous trucks and buses. When right turns into driveways are a problem, determine if the curb radius and curb-cut openings are sufficient, or if any other obstructions exist.
(4) Parking. When parking, unparking, or double -parking vehicles are obstructing traffic, parking prohibitions (NO PARKING signs) should be considered and they should be backed up by saturation enforcement and tow-away zones. Off-street parking lots should be established whenever curb parking inhibits traffic or wastes valuable pavement.
(5) Passenger loading. When traffic is delayed by cars stopping to load or unload passengers, consideration should be given to providing an off-road turnout lane. This could be supplemented by using NO PARKING signs along the road. The same could be done for problems involving school, troop, or commercial buses during peak hours.
(6) Pedestrians. The large volumes of pedestrian crossings obstruct traffic, consideration should be given to providing pedestrian overpasses or underpasses. If these are too expensive or are not warranted by pedestrian conflict with vehicle movements, then crosswalks could be established at either signalized or manually controlled intersections. Midblock pedestrian crossing signals should be installed only when warranted and then should be synchronized with signals at nearby intersections. Troop movements can be rescheduled so they will not occur during peak hours, and off-road troop-movement trails can be created.
(7) Police control. When backups occur at police-controlled intersections, the actual need for such a control point should be checked. Consideration should be given to the use of a traffic signal where the traffic volumes warrant. Another item to check is whether the policeofficer is performing efficiently. He should be instructed always to favor the major flow and not to interrupt arterial traffic just to let one or two cars out of a side street or to make a left turn. Also, he should wait for several pedestrians to collect on the curb before stopping traffic for them.
(8) Railroad. Railroad crossings at high-volume roads should be identified by flashing red lights and automatic crossarms. Where traffic and train volumes are higher, grade separation should be considered. When spotting and siding operations block roadways during peak hours, these operations should be rescheduled to other times. Coordination with the railroad activity may be necessary.
(9) Inadequate capacity. All of the above problems limit roadway capacity. In addition, geometric and design features of the road itself may be responsible for delays (see part two, sec III). Roadway capacity is limited by inadequate pavement width (not enough lanes), lateral obstructions (phone poles, no shoulders, narrow bridges), narrow-radius curves without superelevation, steep grades (slow trucks), and finally, rough or broken pavement. Following a highway capacity study, these conditions may be remedied by major construction. Another cause of restricted capacity would be speed limits that have been set too low (part two, sec IX). As indicated in part two, sections IV and V, inadequate capacity during peak periods can most easily and economically be overcome by car pooling and on-installation duty-hour staggering. Before spending large sums of money to increase capacity and/or reduce time and delay requirements, consideration should be given to the se two no- or low-cost programs.
c. Before/after studies. The results of roadway improvements can be demonstrated by comparing travel-time and delay runs that have been performed before and after the revision.

## SECTION IX

## SPOT-SPEED STUDIES

63. Purpose. Spot-speed studies determine typical traffic speeds at a given point on a roadway. The instantaneous speed at a specific checkpoint is called the spot speed. The results of a traffic speed study are often stated in terms of the average speed. The data may sometimes be presented as a plotted distribution curve of speeds for the collected sample. Speed information may be used: (1) for provision of posted speed limits; (2) to determine driver compliance with existing speed limits; (3) to determine the need for new traffic-control devices for regulation or warning; (4) to determine the relationship of speed at high-accident-frequency locations; and (5) to determine the effect of a road change by a before/after

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study. As required by Highway Safety Program Manual Vol. 13 (part two, sec XIV), each installation shall have an ongoing program to reevaluate speed zones according to prevailing traffic speeds.
64. Information needed. The data needed are the instantaneous speed (in miles per hour) of each free-flowing vehicle that passes the checkpoint. Average-speed data may be categorized by the type of vehicle (cars, buses, or trucks) or by the ownership (civilian or military). The accuracy of the speed data will improve with the number of samples performed. A sample size of 100 is desirable, but never should the sample size be less than 50 .
65. Method. The method used will vary with the installation depending on availability of equipment.
a. Where. By concealing the observer and his equipment from the driver to insure the accuracy of the measurements, traffic-speed data may be collected at any location where a speed problem is thought to exist. Usually data will be collected:
(1) At open areas on all major thoroughfares.
(2) At midblock street locations at least 200 feet from the nearest intersection.
(3) At points several hundred feet prior to congested areas such as intersections, shopping areas, schools, hospitals, or entrance gates.
(4) At points prior to dangerous situations such as curves, hills, or bridges.
b. When. As traffic volume increases, the average speed automatically decreases until eventually all vehicles are moving at the same speed in one long platoon. The purpose of a speed study is to measure the speed of free-flowing traffic. A vehicle is considered to be free flowing if the driver is free to choose his own travel speed, unhindered by other traffic. Thus, a speed measurement should be performed only for a randomly selected lone vehicle moving along a roadway. Free-flowing traffic is seldom observed during peak-travel periods. Sufficient time should be allowed to collect the desired sample size of 100 measurements. Observations should be taken during normal weather and traffic conditions.
c. Equipment. Listed in the following paragraphs are various types of techniques and equipment that can be used in obtaining spot-speed data. Trade names cited in this guide do not constitute an official indorsement or approval of the use of such commercial hardware or software.
(1) Radar. The single most desirable piece of equipment is the radar spot-speedmeter. A typical radar device may be vehiclemounted, tripod-mounted, or of the newer hand-held-gun type. A radar meter is the only device that measures the true spot speed of a vehicle. It operates at microwave frequency by determining the Doppler shift of the signal reflected from the vehicle. A suggested field data sheet suitable for use with a radar meter is presented in figure 32. The observer must be careful to collect accurate data. A radar speed meter may lock on either the fastest vehicle in a stream or on the largest vehicle in a stream and give undesired readings.
(2) Time-distance methods. All methods of this type involve the measurement of the time required for the subject vehicle to traverse a predetermined distance. A device named VASCAR (Visual Average Speed Computer and Recorder) is one of the most accurate and popular devices using the time-distance principle. VASCAR should be mounted in the survey car. It then times or measures the distance betwen two highway reference points. While the target car travels the same course, the operator switches the unit on and then off as the reference points are passed. The speed of the vehicle may be read directly from the VASCAR. Training is required to insure accuracy.

A simple manual system is sometimes useful for occasional spot-speed studies. It involves recording the time for the subject vehicle to travel between two marks on the pavement. The time is clocked manually by a stop watch, and the reading is recorded to the nearest onefifth of a second. The speed, $S$, for the subject vehicle is given by:

$$
S=\frac{D}{(1.47 \times T)}
$$

where:
$D=$ the distance (in feet) between pavement markings;
$\mathrm{T}=$ time (in seconds) to travel the distance.
The formula simplifies when $D$ is a multiple of 88 feet. The suggested field-data sheet shown in figure 33 has been devised to provide $S$ in miles per hour automatically when the distance is either 88 or 176 feet. In addition, if exactly 100 passenger-vehicle-speed samples are made, the subtotal for each speed grouping will read directly in percent.

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| SPEED STUDY FIELD Sheet using radar/speed gun |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline \text { SPEED } \\ \text { CMPD } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | vehicle count | No. | $\begin{array}{ccc} \left.\begin{array}{cc} 8 & 0 \\ \text { coran } \\ \hline \end{array}\right] \\ \hline \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline \text { SPEED } \\ \text { (MPH) } \\ \hline \end{array}$ |  | icle count | No. | $\begin{gathered} \hline 2 \mathrm{OF} \\ \mathrm{COTA} \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\mathrm{COM}$ |
| 21 | 1 | 1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| n | 11 | 2 | 2.03 .0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 23 | 11 | 2. | 205.0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 24 | $\mathrm{HH}-1$ | 6 | 6.011 .0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2.5 | 1111 | 4 | 4.0115 .0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 26 | (III) | 4 | 4.019 .0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 27 | H+\# III | 8 | 8.027 .0 |  | ¢ 5 | (0) 55 |  |  |  |
| 20, | ittlint 11 | 13 | 13.240 .0 |  | 成 | U |  |  |  |
| 29 | 111 | 3 | 3.0430 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 30 |  | 16 | 16.0590 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 31 | tit+111 | 8 | 8.067 .0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3n | H+1/111 | 9 | 9.070 .0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 33 | H+n \|I! | 8 | 8.084.0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 34 | 11 | 2 | 2.9180.0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 35 | Hit 11 | 7 | 7.0933 .0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 36 | 111 | 3 | 3.296 .1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 37 | 1 | 1 | 1.077 .0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 38 |  | 0 | 0.097 .0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 39 | 11 | 2 | 12.099 .0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 40 |  | 1 | 1-0.100. |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | subtotal | 100 | Tin |  |  | ubtotal |  |  |  |
| 10 MP | ¢ pace ${ }^{\text {che }}$ ro 3 | 85 PER | RCEntile S | Peed 33 | 35 MPH | total <br> average | Speed | 29.8 |  |

Figure 32. Typical speed study field sheet using radar/speed gun.

## SPEED STLDY FIELD SHEET USIMG MEASURED DISTANCES

lochtion OAk ST.
direction EAST/WEST
date $\& M_{\text {ay }} 1975$ tme 0.500 ro $0 g 30$ posted sped limit 35 MPH road suzface Dry_mentrer Falr observer de D. Braw'n'

| $\left.\begin{array}{\|c\|} \text { TIME } \\ \text { (SEC. } \end{array}\right)$ |  | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{MPH} \\ \text { FOR } \\ 176 \mathrm{~F} \end{gathered}$ | CAR COUNT | NO. | $\left\|\begin{array}{l} \text { PCT } \\ \text { OT } \\ \text { OTAL } \end{array}\right\|$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { CuM } \\ & \text { PGT } \end{aligned}$ | TRUCK AND BUS COUNT | $\begin{array}{\|c\|c\|} \hline \text { PCT } \\ \text { OF } \\ \text { OTAL } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | ${ }_{\text {PCT }}^{\text {CLM }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 60.0 | 120.0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1-1/5 | 50.0 | 100.0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1-2/5 | 42.8 | 85.7 |  | 16 | 11.9 | 10c.0 |  |  |  |
| 1-3/5 | 37.5 | 75.5 |  | 29 | 21.5 | 88.1 |  |  |  |
| 1-4/5 | 33.3 | 66.6 |  | 28 | 20,7 | 66246 |  |  |  |
| 2 | 30.0 | 60.0 |  | 35 | 25,9 | 45.3 |  |  |  |
| 2-1/5 | 27.2 | 54.5 | tri_m_u. | 13 | 2.6 | 20.0 |  |  |  |
| 2-2/5 | 25.0 | 30.0 | +4111. | 7 | 5.2 | 10.4 |  |  |  |
| 2-3/5 | 23.0 | 46.1 | Wri. | 6 | 4.5 | 5.2 |  |  |  |
| 2-4/5 | 21.4 | 42.8 |  | 1 | 0.7 | 0.7 |  |  |  |
| 3 | 20.0 | 40.0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3-1/5 | 18.7 | 37.5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3-2/5 | 17.6 | 35.2 |  |  |  |  | 3 |  |  |
| 3-3/5 | 16.6 | 33.3 |  |  |  |  | $\pi \leq$ |  |  |
| 3-4/5 | 15.7 | 31.5 |  |  |  |  | , |  |  |
| 4 | 15.0 | 30.0 |  |  |  | , |  |  |  |
| 4-1/5 | 14.2 | 28.4 |  |  |  | $\mathrm{C}^{\circ}$ |  |  |  |
| 4-2/5 | 13.6 | 27.2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4-3/5 | 13.0 | 26.1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4-4/5 | 12.5 | 25.0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | 12.0 | 24.0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5-1/5 | 11.5 | 23.0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5-2/5 | 11.1 | 22.2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5-3/5 | 10.7 | 21.4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5-4/5 | 10.3 | 20.6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | 10.0 | 20.0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6-1/5 | 9.6 | 19.3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6-2/5 | 9.3 | 18.7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6-3/5 | 9.0 | 18.1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6-4/5 | 8.7 | 17.6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | 8.5 | 17.1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7-1/5 | 8.3 | 16.6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7-2/5 | 8.1 | 16.2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7-3/5 | 7.8 | 15.7 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7-4/5 | 7.6 | 15.3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8 | 7.5 | 15.0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8-1/2 | 7.0 | 14.1 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 9 | 6.6 | 13.3 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 9-1/2 | 6.3 | 12.6 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 10 | 6.0 | 12.0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 11 | 5.4 | 10.9 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 12 | 5.0 | 10.0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| total. |  |  |  | 1135 |  |  |  |  |  |
| 10 MPH PaCE 28 mon to 37 mey |  |  |  |  | $\begin{array}{ll}85 \text { PERCENTILE SPEED }-\frac{37}{} \\ \text { AVERAGE SPEED } & 33 \\ \text { MPH }\end{array}$ |  |  |  |  |

Figure 33. Typical speed study field sheet using measured distance.

An L-shaped mirror box, the Enoscope, may be useful to obtain a perpendicular view across the street. The perpendicular view eliminates the parallel error that is inherent in determining the exact time the vehicle crosses a pavement reference point. The observer is separated from the Enoscope by a measured distance. As a vehicle passes the Enoscope, the observer starts the timer. When the vehicle passes the reference line in front of the observer, the timer is stopped.

A spot-speed measurement may also be made using an electronic meter (whammy) connected with two pneumatic road tubes, which have been placed a known distance apart. This device is somewhat obsolete.
d. Accuracy. Accuracy will depend on the calibration of the equipment and on the skill of the operator. Radar is the most accurate, typically having an error less than 1.0 mph . VASCAR normally has an error less than 2.0 mph . The accuracy of the calculated average speed will improve as the size of the sample increases.
66. Analysis. Analysis will usually consist of determining the average speed, the 85 -percentile speed (critical speed), the pace speed, the possibly the standard deviation if statistical measures are to be applied. A speed-distribution curve also may be plotted. These terms are defined as:
a. Average speed. The mean, or average, speed is calculated by adding each of the individual speed observations, $S$, and dividing by the total number of observations, $N$.

$$
S \operatorname{Avg}=\frac{\text { Sum of } S^{\prime} s}{N}
$$

Such an average is called the time-mean-speed. However, the average of those readings taken by the time-distance method is called the space-meanspeed. Time-mean-speed should not be directly compared with space-mean-speed, since the two represent different quantities. However, for most practical purposes of spot-speed studies, the difference is insignificant. The average speed is useful for making comparisons between several sets of data, such as before/after studies; for example, "The average speed observed on Maple Street north of 1 st Street increased from 31 miles per hour in 1965 to 37 miles per hour in $1975^{\prime \prime}$.
b. 85-percentile speed. This is the speed at or below which 85 percent of the drivers travel. Restated, only 15 percent of the drivers travel faster than the 85 -percentile speed. Accident studies have shown
that the typical driver is a relatively good judge of what constitutes a safe operating speed. Accordingly, the 85 -percentile speed is often used to establish a realistic speed limit. To determine this value, list the speed observations in order of increasing speed. Next, determine a key number by multiplying the number of observations, $N$, by 0.85 . Count up the list of observations until the vehicle having the key number is reached. The observation for that vehicle is the 85 -percentile speed. For example, if 100 observations were made, the 85 -percentile speed is that of the 85 th vehicle.
c. Pace speed. The pace is that 10 -mile-per-hour range that contains the greatest number of vehicles. The percentage of vehicles within the pace is a measure of the spread of the speed data. For example, speed data having 80 percent of the observations falling within the pace have less spread than data having only 40 percent in the pace.
d. Standard deviation. This is a statistical parameter and is a measure of the spread (variation) of the sample data. A higher standard deviation indicates a larger spread of data about the sample mean. The calculation of the standard deviation is not usually part of a speed zoning study, but may be used in before/after comparisons.

## 67. Interpretation.

a. The spot-speed data should be totaled and the numerical average speed computed, as previously discussed. If statistical comparisons of speed data are to be made, the standard deviation should be calculated.
b. A speed-accumulation curve may be plotted by starting at the lowest speed grouping and consecutively adding each higher speed group (one after another) to produce a cumulative count. Next, calculate the percentage for each number by dividing by the number of observations, $N$. These values are then plotted, and a smooth curve is drawn through the points as shown in figure 34. In that illustration, the pace is approximately 30 to 40 miles per hour.
c. Several indications may be found on the speed-accumulation curve. Some curves are fairly vertical in appearance, while others appear to be more horizontal. The more vertical curve usually shows better driving conditions than the gently sloping curve and indicates that most traffic is traveling at nearly the same speed. A reduction in the spread of speed data is one of the primary goals of speed zoning. Effective speed


Figure 34. Typical speed-accumulation curve.
zoning will automatically make roadways safer, since it is speed differential and not speed alone that is a principal cause of traffic accidents.
d. Proper speed zoning will reduce the speed of the faster vehicles and will tend to increase the speed of the slower. From the speedaccumulation curve, determine the 85 -percentile speed. The speed limit should usually be set at the 5 -mile-per-hour increment closest to this value. However, it is necessary to consider other conditions such as traffic volumes, accident experience, and type of roadside development when selecting the exact value. The format of speed-limit signs must comply with the Manual on Uniform Traffic Control Devices for Streets and Highways.
68. Application. Listed below are several typical applications for spot-speed studies.
a. Speedzones. Each speed-zoning problem should be considered separately. For example, speeds higher than the posted limit may indicate the need for greater enforcement if they occur in a congested area. However, out on an open boulevard, an 85 -percentile speed more than 5 miles per hour higher than the posted limit may indicate an unrealistically low posted speed limit. Increments of 5 miles per hour should be used on the sign. Each installation shall have an ongoing program to reevaluate speed zones according to prevailing needs.
b. Signs. An informational or warning sign must be legible to the driver. Typical vehicle speeds may be used to design effective signs by allowing choice of the proper size letters for the sign, and by permitting placement of the sign far enough in advance so that the driver can take action. In general, with higher speeds, larger signs are required and should be mounted at greater advance distances.
c. Approach speeds. The average, free-stream road speed is used to determine the proper clearance interval (yellow plus all red) for signalized intersections. Speed is also a factor in determing the warrants for a new traffic signal.
d. Before/after. The before/after spot-speed study is used to determine what effects (if any) recent changes to the road environment may have had on typical speeds. For example, a before/after spot-speed study may be used to show the results of road improvements such as widening a dangerous bridge. The study may indicate whether newly placed Hazard Warning signs are having any effect on driver behavior, or will show the effect of a newly revised speed zone.

## SECTION X

## ORIGIN AND DESTINATION STUDIES

69. Purpose. Origin and destination studies determine the travel desires of the population in and around the military installation. Every trip is considered to have a point of origin and a destination. The results of an origin and destination ( $O-D$ ) study may be grouped to determine travel desires according to trip purpose and preferred transportation mode. O-D information may be used: (l) for all master planning decisions; (2) to
determine the optimum location for new highway routes; (3) to determine the location and size of bridges, entrance gates, and parking lots; and (4) to design mass transit facilities.
70. Information needed. Data vary with O-D method used. The O-D study will always need the point of origin, the point of destination, and the travel mode (vehicle type). Some study methods may also require the trip purpose (work or shopping), the number of persons in each vehicle, the route chosen, the time of trip, and the parking facility used. Some questionnaires may require the person to supply certain socioeconomic data such as the number of vehicles he owns, his employment status (civilian, military, or retired), his wage or service grade, and his residence type (BOQ, post housing, or private dwelling). It may be necessary to use several types of $O-D$ methods to gather complete travel information.

## 71. Methods.

a. Type. These will vary with the type of O-D survey used. The methods most applicable to military installations are as follows:
(1) The O-D personnel questionnaire.
(2) The interview survey.
(3) The license-plate survey.
(4) The tag-on-vehicle method.
b. Design. An O-D survey is not to be undertaken without careful consideration of the time and manpower required. If a survey is justified, the proper type of method must be selected. This decision should be based on the way in which the data will be used. For example, if the traffic flow at one point in the street network is needed, a simple turning-movement count (see part two, sec I) will suffice. On the other hand, a personnel questionnaire should be considered when it is necessary to predict the effects of closing an entrance gate.
c. Zones. The O-D survey should begin by carefully establishing and numbering zones on and around the installation. The purpose of zoning is to permit summarizing travel patterns into suitable small local areas. It is assumed that all trips having an origin or destination (trip end) within the boundaries of a particular zone occur from the centroid of that zone. Several pointers for establishing zones are:
(1) Design the zoning small enough to discern travel patterns. For example, if 4,000 trips are destined for a training area, it may be desirable to split the area into several zones. The more densely an area is settled, the more zones will be needed.
(2) Do not establish too many zones; they just increase the complexity of the data reduction, without providing any new knowledge. If less than 5 percent of the total trips are bound for many of the zones, then too many have been made.
(3) Establish zone boundaries along natural or recognizable barriers such as railroad tracks or rivers.
(4) Establish boundaries so as to group similar land-use activities. Be logical. For example, perhaps a suitable boundary can be found to include all of the directorate of industrial operations in one zone.
(5) Establish separate zones for heavy traffic generators. For example, one zorie could be used to hold both the $P X$ and the commis sary, and another zone used for the large hospital.
(6) Use established zones. For example, the surrounding community may be zoned by using ZIP codes or township lines, or the installation could be zoned using building numbers, block numbers, or zones established by a previous traffic engineering study.
(7) Develop external zones to include the major portion of the off-installation working population. This can usually be accomplished by zoning an area within a 25 -mile radius of the installation. Zones outside the radius should have infinite boundaries. For example, let one zone include all other areas to the north and establish similar zones for other directions.

## d. Method 1: The O-D personnel questionnaire.

(1) On a military installation, this questionnaire is distributed to each person (military, civilian, and contractor) having a duty station on the installation. A distribution and collection system must be devised to make sure every organization receives a supply of questionnaires. The questionnaire collection system must include a tally of the filled-in questionnaires received, which should then be compared with the authorized strength of each organization. Any differences should be corrected at that time. Ideally, the questionnaires should be filled in by all personnel on the very same day and should be collected as soon as possible the reafter.

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The week of the questionnaire distribution should be a typical work week with all organizations operating near strength. This would exclude periods containing a holiday, a training-school vacation, special maneuvers, or periods when the fleet is at sea. The typical midweek days normally are the best times to conduct such a survey.
(2) The O-D personnel questionnaire must be carefully prepared; it must be very easy for the workers to read and understand; and it must be in a format for the data to be quickly processed. Because of the large amount of data collected, it is desirable to use the computer automatic data processing system (ADPS). However, it is also possible to process the data manually at small installations (less than 5,000 employees) if the number of questions are held to a minimum. If manually processed, the number of questions and the number of travel zones should be limited to about 10 or less to reduce the man-hours required to collate the data.
(3) A sample questionnaire designed for manual processing is shown in figure 35, with the accompanying zone map in figure 36 . The questionnaires are processed to usable data by using a sample tally sheet (or several workers could use identical tally sheets, which would later be combined). Simple tables may be created by a straight-answer count. For example, the response to Ql may be counted, which will provide the number of people who drove, rode, walked, and so forth. More complicated tables may be created by using a tally sheet similar to figure 37. Each table will contain the results of two questions. The person performing the tabulation will inspect each questionnaire for its reply to the two questions and will place a tally mark in the appropriate box on the data sheet.
(4) When automatic data processing (ADP) tabulation is used, it is feasible for the questionnaire to contain several more questions and to provide more answer choices to each. An example of such a questionnaire is shown in figure 38. Care must still be used when devising the questions. For example, if the question involves off-installation live-zone numbers, a provision must be made for those who live on the installation. For faster keypunching, the questionnaire should be limited to one side of the printed page; the zone map may be printed on the other side.
e. Method 2: The O-D interview survey.
(1) Various names are used to describe interview surveys, depending upon where the interview is made. For example, the interview could be made at roadside, at heavy traffic generators (such as PX,

Circle the number corresponding to the statement which is the most correct answer. Circle only one answer for each question. If you are unable to complete this questionnaire, contact your supervisor for assistance.

## PART A - ALL PERSONNEL

Q1. How did you get to work today?

| 01. | Drove Car | 04. Conmercial Bus |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 02. Drove Motorcycle | 05. Military Bus |  |
| 03. Car Passenger | 06. Walked/Bicycle |  |
|  |  | 07. |

Q2. Where do you work? (See map on reverse side). Circle below the zone in which you report to work.

| 01. Zone A | 04. Zone D | 07. Zone G |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 02. Zone B | 05. Zone E | 08. | Zone H |
| 03. | Zone C | 06. Zone $F$ |  |

For Questions 3 and 4 indicate your duty hours today using the 24 -hour time system. (e.g., start at 0730 , end at 1600)

Q3. What time did you start duty today? ...
Q4. What time will you end duty today?

PART B - DRIVERS ONLY
(Answer this section only if you DROVE TODAY)
Q5. Drivers Only. What entrance gate did you use to enter the post on your way to wark today?

| 01. None, I Live on Post | 04. Lee Road Gate (northeast gate) |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 02. Main Gate (south gate, post Rd) | 05. | Fall Creek Road Gate (Sinifer Rd) |
| 03. 59th Street Gate (east gate) | 06 . 56th Street Gate (Aultman Ave) |  |

Q6. Drivers Only. Check the zone map again, please, and indicate the area in which you parked your car at the beginning of this work day.

| 01. Zone A | 04. Zone D | 07. Zone G |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 02. Zone B | 05 . Zone E | 08. Zone H |
| 03. Zone C | 06 . Zone F |  |

Q7. Drivers Only. How many people rode to work in your car today? (Include yourself)

| 01. One | 03. Three | 05. Five |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Q2. Two | 04. | Four | 06. Six or more |

PLEASE RETURN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE TO YOUR SUPERVISOR TODAY
Figure 35. Typical sample origin and destination questionnaire (manual processing).


Figure 36. Typical zone map.

| Origin and destination study manual tabulation sheet |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| instaliation naye $\qquad$ Ft BuHle date Suly $22,1 y 75^{\circ}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| question no. IV title Live Lune |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | $\begin{array}{\|c\|} \hline \text { ANSWER } \\ \text { NO. } \\ \hline \end{array}$ | 01 | 02 | 03 | 04 | 05 | 06 | 07 | 08 |
|  | 01 | (2) | Int II <br> (8) |  | $\begin{gathered} 1 / \prime \prime \\ (4) \end{gathered}$ |  | (4) | HH <br> (5) | (2) |
|  | 02 | (11/ | " 1 <br> (3) |  |  |  | (2) | (2) | (3) |
|  | 03 | Hir (5) | $\begin{aligned} & 1+\pi ~ i \pi t h \\ & 1,1 \\ & (14) \end{aligned}$ |  | + +11 |  | $\mathrm{H}$ | $\pi$ <br> (10) | (7) |
| 3 | 04 |  |  |  |  |  | 1 (5) | $1 /$ <br> (2) |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \dot{N} \\ & \mathbf{N} \\ & \dot{S} \\ & \dot{N} \end{aligned}$ | 05 |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { intomt } \\ & \text { nint } \\ & \text { (20) } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  | mH Arthr ratertion $\mathrm{HAH}+\mathrm{Clim}$ <br> 1147 |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{*} \\ & \text { 岂 } \\ & \underset{H}{*} \end{aligned}$ | 06 | (14) |  | (3) |  |  | m/thm <br> (15) | $\begin{aligned} & 1+1 / 111 \\ & 17 \\ & \hline 17 \end{aligned}$ | (10) |
|  | 07 |  H <br> (21) | $\begin{array}{\|r\|} \hline 1+1+11 \\ (7) \end{array}$ | (10) |  |  |  | (2) | (12) |
| 1 <br> $\vdots$ <br> 0 <br> $\vdots$ <br> $z$ | 08 |  | (2) | " 2 | HH (5) |  |  | (6) |  |
| 8 | 09 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Figure 37. Typical origin and destination study manual tabulation sheet.

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Figure 38. Typical origin and destination questionnaire (computer processing).
commissary, or hospital), at bus stations, in parking lots to survey arrivals, or even in the home. The advantages of the interview survey are flexibility of the questions and the presence of the interviewer to aid in interpreting questions and maps.
(2) At the interview location, a large official-looking sign should announce the nature of the study. Typical questions asked or observed by the interviewer involve:
(a) Where the subject has come from.
(b) Where he is bound.
(c) His mode of transportation.
(d) The number of persons traveling with him.
(e) The purpose of the trip.
(f) The duration of his stopover at that location.
(g) Where he parks.

With the aid of the interviewer, it is also possible to compile a complete list of the trips each person made that day. A typical suggested form used to collect the data is shown in figure 39.
(3) A roadside interview involves the hazards of dealing with moving traffic. Special precautions must be taken to prevent accidents between vehicles, to safeguard the interviewers, and to prevent traffic jams. You will be responsible for any mishaps. Measures that may be taken include warning signs prior to a stopping point, flares and signal flags, informatory signs, day-glow safety vests for interviewing personnel, a police car parked on the road shoulder with lights flashing, and the presence of a police officer to provide legal authority.
(4) Adequate personnel must be used to obtain a sufficient sample of traffic without causing a traffic jam. Normally, four interviewers and one vehicle recorder per lane will suffice. When traffic volumes are heavy (such as during peak hours), it will be necessary to take a representative sample of the total. A percentage sample should be chosen in advance and adhered to. The results for the sample may be multiplied by a suitable factor to bring them up to 100 percent. To obtain a 25 -percent sample, the survey should interview 4 drivers and wave on the next 12 .


Figure 39. Typical origin and destination interview field sheet.

To obtain a 50 -percent sample, interview four and wave on the next four. Roadside interviews are generally conducted at a point such as a bridge, an entrance gate, or even municipal boundary lines.

## f. Method 3: The license-plate survey.

(1) Basically, this consists of recording vehicle license numbers at several locations and then matching up the written lists later to determine who went where. This method is actually a variety of the tag-on-vehicle survey, but here the vehicles supply their own tag--their license plate. The license-plate survey (LPS) is well-suited to computer analysis. A form used to collect the necessary data is shown in figure 40. The first (or last) three or four digits (alpha or numeric) of the license number are recorded, as are time, vehicle type, gate number, and whether the vehicle was inbound or outbound. A time span must be allowed for the vehicle to travel from one checkpoint (gate) to another. Vehicles falling outside the permissible time span are not counted as a matched license. Also the vehicle types must correspond. These two conditions will eliminate some of the random matches of license numbers that occur.
(2) One advantage of the license-plate survey over the roadside interview is that the traffic being surveyed is never stopped, and therefore this method can be used on roads having high traffic volumes, or where stopping vehicles would be hazardous. However, it is necessary to have adequate personnel to read and record the license numbers. For each lane of continuous traffic flow, one worker can call out the last three digits of the license number while the other writes it down. No one worker should attempt to record both inbound and outbound vehicles simultaneously. A dry run should be attempted first to determine that data collection at a particular location is feasible.
(3) The license-plate survey, if taken at the gates, can be used to determine the amount of traffic passing through the installation. An estimate of through traffic is useful on installations located on a major artery, or those installations open to public traffic. Survey checkpoints can be set up at entrance and exit gates, or at other natural boundaris. A preferred location for a checkpoint would be where traffic speeds were low enough to permit reading the license plate easily; for example, at a STOP sign or at the approach to a traffic signal.

## g. Method 4: Tag-on-vehicle survey.

(1) For this method, a precoded identification tag is placed on each vehicle entering the study area and is retrieved as it leaves. A


Figure 40. Typical license-plate survey field sheet.
typical paper tag is shown in figure 41 . The tag is slipped under the wind shield wiper or is given to the driver at the entrance point. Half the form is filled out at the entrance point and the remaining information is filled in by the worker collecting the tags. Cards may also be printed in various colors and prenumbered to simplify the coding. Thus it is possible to determine where the vehicle entered, where it exited, the times involved, and the vehicle occupancy. The tag-on method is also useful in some types of parking surveys.


Figure 41. Typical trip survey tag.
(2) A variation of this method is the lights on survey where the vehicle headlights are used as the tag. A large sign (with a police car parked nearby) asks the driver to PLEASE TURN ON HEADLIGHTS FOR NEXT X MILES. A sign reading THANK YOU, PLEASE TURN LIGHTS OFF is placed at the study terminus. An observer counts the number of vehicles complying. At various points, observers count the cars passing with their lights on. The count permits calculations such as number of vehicles that entered at the lights on station and then departed at the exit point.

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## 72. Analysis.

a. This will consist of preparing numerical tables of raw data and then creating visual aids to help interpret the results. The visual aids will consist of simple tables, graphs, desire-line drawings, and bar charts. Examples of these are found in figures 42 to 46 . On a bar chart (fig 43), the height of the bar represents the number of persons desiring to travel in a certain direction. The lines may be drawn straight from the origin zone to the destination zone (fig 44), or they may be drawn along existing roadways if the travel route is know (fig 45). Figure 46 represents the entrance-gate-to-work-zone desires.

TABLE X
TRANSPORTATION MODE OF BASE WORKING POPULATION BY WORK ZONE

| Work Zone* | Mode |  |  |  |  |  |  | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Drove | Fassenger | $\begin{gathered} \text { Conmercial } \\ \text { Bus } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Military } \\ \text { Bus } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Bicycle | Motercycle | Walked |  |
| 1 | 1,038 | 119 | 7 | 0 | 3 | 9 | 42 | 1,218 |
| 2 | 97 | 17 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 | 124 |
| 3 | 173 | 20 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 0 | 24 | 223 |
| 4 | 45 | 5 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 55 |
| 5 | 1,852 | 290 | 20 | 2 | 20 | 5 | 45 | 2,234 |
| 6 | 987 | 166 | 8 | 10 | 13 | 4 | 2 | 1,190 |
| 7 | 678 | 73 | 2 | 0 | 11 | 6 | 27 | 797 |
| 8 | 559 | 45 | 7 | 4 | 18 | 5 | 16 | 654 |
| 9 | 1,239 | 119 | 0 | 4 | 13 | 25 | 46 | 1,446 |
| Total | 6,668 | 854 | 45 | 24 | 81 | 57 | 212 | 7,941 |

Figure 42. Typical mode table from origin and destination questionnaire.
b. When analyzing raw data, care must be taken to reject illogical or or impossible conclusions. For example, if a particular statement on the O-D questionnaire were misunderstood by the reader, many wrong answers could result. A system of cross checks should be devised to prevent possible errors. For example, if only 300 cars were actually counted at Gate 6, but 750 drivers said they entered there, something was wrong with your questionnaire or its instructions.
73. Interpretation. This will depend on the subject matter of the table, graph, or desire-line drawing. It will also depend on the original purpose for undertaking the O-D study. The interpretation will usually place much greater emphais on the larger numerical answers. Then, some statement should be macie about the conclusion you reach. It is also appropriate to make comparisons between data. For example, for figure 42 one might state: "It is seen that 6,668 persons drove to work, while only 45 persons

Figure 43. Typical bar graph from origin and destination questionnaire.


Figure 44. Typical origin-destination map.
used the commercial bus service." Also for example, from figure 44 one might conclude that: "It is seen that the town of Lawrence generates almost as many trips as some of the more populated zones of Indianapolis."
74. Applications. As stated, the purpose of the O-D study is to determine the travel desires of the population as generated by a military installation. Once the travel desires are known, applications in terms of practical transportation decisions can be made.


Figure 46. Typical entrance-gate-to-work-zone map.

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a. Building location. The results of the O-D study may be applied to help determine the optimum location for new building locations. For example, if the survey reveals that most of the customers of the commissary are traveling from off post, consider locating a new commissary nearer an entrance gate rather than at a far corner of the installation. The goal is to reduce both the number of trips, and the average trip length.
b. Route location. The optimum location for a new roadway would be along a wide desire line. Of course it is necessary to modify the final design to allow for terrain, communities, and other practical considerations. The point where a heavy desire line crosses a river, railroad track, or other natural obstacle, is an indication of a favorable site for a new crossing. Where a desire line follows an existing roadway, it is indicative of a higher priority for the expenditure of maintenance funds.
c. Transit routes. When planning routes for mass transit (part two, sec XII), it is again better to attempt to follow a heavy desire line. It is also desirable to have the route pass through major population concentrations, as indicated by the population bar chart (see fig 43).
d. Entrance gates. When a problem involves either entrance gates or approach roads, it is usually best to ask those specific questions on the O-D questionnaire. The replies may be used to determine the effect of any planned changes. For example, if only 5 percent of the post working population use Gate 7, it might be feasible to close it completely. Using the travel desire lines, it would then be possible to predict the amount of increased traffic at other gates.
e. Through traffic. Once the amount of through traffic has been determined by performing a license-plate or other appropriate survey, it may be desirable to alter existing traffic routing. For example, a large amount of traffic following routes through housing areas would be an indication that existing arterial routes were inadequate or improperly defined. In such a case, it may be desirable to either upgrade the arteries or to establish THRU TRAFFIC ROUTES by means of proper signs. Also, for example, if it were found that a large nurnber of vehicles without official business were entering an installation, it might be desirable to construct gatehouses and to require an official bumper sticker for entry.
f. Parking. Parking-space adequacy may be obtained by comparing the supply with the demand indicated by parking-zone replies. In general, it is desirable to locate parking lots within or near zones having a large working population.
g. Duty hours/car pools. The results of an O-D survey may indicate that too many employees have the same duty hours. Excessive concentrations can cause traffic congestion and delays. The results may also indicate the number of employees using car pools. Comparison of duty hours with organizational working strengths will indicate places for improvement (part two, sec V).
h. Other jurisdictions. It is of mutual benefit for military installations to exchange $O-D$ results with civil authorities.

## SECTION XI

## TRAFFIC-CONTROL-DEVICE OBSERVANCE STUDY

## 75. Purpose.

a. The purpose of these studies is to determine the effectiveness of certain traffic-control devices by studying the degree of compliance or observance by drivers and pedestrians. This study is generally conducted only where a specific problem exists, particularly at high-accident-frequency locations. The results of the study also are useful in determining the need for existing or proposed devices; in indicating steps necessary to improve obedience; and to note the effect of changes in regulations, devices, or other items affecting traffic operations. In certain cases, it may aid in the removal of existing restrictions that are no longer justified.
b. The study described in this section can be applied to regula tory devices, such as STOP signs, traffic signals, and speed-limit signs. Other regulatory signs such as Turn Prohibitions, One-Way Restrictions, and Parking Prohibitions may be studied by similar methods. Parking-time-limit observance may be checked by conducting parking-duration studies as described in part two, section XIII.
c. The studies are conducted on a sample basis; it is not practical to maintain a continuous study over an extended period. Normally, the time period identified as the most common time of traffic accidents should be used for the field observations.
76. Information needed. In studying observance or obedience to traffic-control devices, the following information is needed:
a. STOP signs.
(1) Number of drivers making full stop:
(a) Stopped voluntarily.
(b) Stopped by traffic.
(2) Number of drivers not making full stop:
(a) Slowed.
(b) Made no attempt to stop.
(3) The direction of each driver upon entering the intersection such as right turn, left turn, or straight through.
b. Traffic signals:
(1) Driver observance of signals controlling his movement:
(a) Number of vehicles entering intersection on red indication.
(b) Number of vehicles entering on yellow indication.
(c) Number of vehicles starting up immediately prior to green indication.
(d) Number of vehicles making turns not permitted by signals or signing at intersection.
(2) Pedestrian observance:
(a) Number of pedestrians stepping off curb on green or WALK indication.
(b) Number of pedestrians stepping off curb on a flashing DON'T WALK indication or yellow indication, if pedestrian signals are not installed.
(c) Number of pedestrians stepping off curb on solid DON'T WALK indication or red indication, if pedestrian signals are not installed.
(d) Number of pedestrians crossing outside marked crosswalks, if applicable.

## c. Speed limit signs.

(1) Note location of speed limit or speed-reduction signs.
(2) Observation of vehicle speeds (as outlined in part two, sec IX).
d. General.
(1) For all studies discussed in this section, the following information should be recorded when applicable:
(a) Approach grade (flat, moderate, or steep; indicate uphill or downhill for each approach).
(b) Weather.
(c) Street classification (see part two, sec II).
(d) Type of surface (concrete, asphalt, or other).
(e) Condition of surface (wet, dry, muddy, or icy).
(f) Approach curves (indicate sharp, medium, flat, or none).
(g) Street width; number of traffic lanes; and presence of any separate turning lanes, crosswalks, or other striping.
(2) If there are traffic-control devices in effect, other than those that are under observation, they should be noted on the field form. In many cases it may be advantageous to make a sketch of the intersection similar to the condition diagram described in part two, section VI.
(3) In some instances, it may be desirable to classify vehicles by group (see part two, sec I).
(4) In most cases, a minimum of 100 observations should be made.
77. Methods.
a. For studies of STOP-sign obedience, one observer is normally required for each sign to be checked. In light traffic, one observer can check STOP signs on two approaches to an intersection. The action of each vehicle approaching a STOP sign is recorded in the appropriate block on the field-data sheet shown in figure 47. Although desirable, it is not necessary to record every vehicle since this is a sample survey of actions.
b. At traffic signals, the action of each driver and pedestrian is recorded. If pedestrian volumes are heavy, the action of at least every fifth pedestrian should be recorded for a satisfactory sample. Figures 48 and 49 may be used as guides for necessary field-data sheets. Modifications can be made in these sheets for signals that provide special pedestrian indications such as WALK and DON'T WALK.
78. Analysis. This will usually consist of preparing a summary of the results of each STOP sign or traffic-signal study. Percentages should relate actual field observations and total voluntary movements (not influenced by other traffic or pedestrians) at each respective location.
a. Figure 50 shows a format for a table summarizing STOP-sign-obedience observations. The following general percentage of drivers making full stops, excluding those stopped by traffic, may be used to compare STOP-sign-study results.
(1) 95 to 100 percent - excellent.
(2) 75 to 94 percent - good.
(3) Under 75 percent - poor.
b. Some of the usual causes of failure to obey the STOP sign are the poor condition of sign faces, improper location of the sign, or obstructions to view of the sign. Unnecessary, unwarranted, or temporarily installed STOP signs are often poorly observed by drivers. Obedience to signs often varies with the season because vegetation obscures signs during the growing season. Left-turning violators often cannot see the STOP sign because of its location, while violations by right-turning vehicles often result from placing the sign in advance of corners with large turning radii. When the principal reason for a relatively poor obedience to a traffic-control device is a temporary condition (such as view obstructed by vegetation or defaced sign), another study should be made after this temporary condition has been corrected.

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Figure 47. Typical stop-sign observance study field sheet.

| PEDESTRIAN SIGNAL OBSERYANCE FIELD Sheet |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |
| STEPPED FROM CURB ON | crossed in crosswalk area | CROSSED OUTSIDE crosshalk area | total |
|  | HHH HH HH HH HHH HH HH HH $\mathrm{HHH} \mathrm{HH} \mathrm{HH} \mathrm{HH} / \mathrm{H}^{\prime 2}$ <br> 63 | $1 / 1 /$ (4) | (67) |
|  | HH HHH HH HH HH <br> (26) | // (2) | (28) |
|  | HIN I/ <br> (8) | / <br> (2) | (10) |
| total samples $\qquad$ yELLOW: $\qquad$ 27 percent green : $\qquad$ 64 percent RED: $\qquad$ 9 percent |  |  |  |

Figure 48. Typical pedestrian signal observance field sheet.

| driver signal observance field sheet |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| location Ist at Mople Ave ——odate Ticly 23，1975 time 0700 to 0800 surface As，halt approach grade Level weather $\qquad$ cloudy SURFACE CONDITION goax 1$\qquad$ mace condition genal observer $h$, ，Smith |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| vehicle entering intersection on |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | EEN |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | ther |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 별 } \\ & \stackrel{y}{\alpha} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  | Hor <br> （10） |  |  |  | $H+111$ <br> （9） |  |  |  |
|  | 불 <br> 总 |  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br>  <br> 110 |  |  |  |  HHH HH H |  |  |  | HNH HOH 11(17) |  |  |  |
|  | $\stackrel{F}{4}$ |  |  |  |  |  <br> （30） |  |  |  | (7) |  |  |  |
|  |  | HH |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & a \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \end{aligned}$ | 总 | \＃11 |  |  |  | H <br> （5） |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | － | No． | 65 | PCT． | 75.6 | No． | 12 | PCT． 14.0 |  | No． | 9 | PCT． | 10.4 |
|  | 1 | No． | 292 | PCT． | 79.1 | мо． | 60 | PCT． | 16.3 | No． | 17 | рст． | 4.6 |
|  | $\cdots$ | no． | 117 | PCT． | 73.6 | мо． | 35 | PCT | 22.0 | мо． | 7 | рст． | 4.4 |

Figure 49．Typical driver signal observance field sheet．

TABLE X
STOP-SIGN OBSERVANCE SUMMARY

| Intersection/ Direction of Travel | No. of Observations | Percentage |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Full } \\ & \text { Stop } \end{aligned}$ | Slowed Down | No Attempt To Stop |
| E11sworth Rd at |  |  |  |  |
| bound | 50 | 44.0 | 50.0 | 6.0 |
| Ellsworth Rd at Wright Dr westbound | 100 | 28.0 | 64.0 | 8.0 |
| Depot Parkway at Donaldson Rd southbound | 100 | 53.0 | 45.0 | 2.0 |
| Brookley Rd at Wright Dr eastbound | 50 | 40.0 | 60.0 | 0.0 |
| Hill Rd at Perimeter Rd northbound | 50 | 46.0 | 46.0 | 8.0 |
| Total | 350 | 41.7 (Avg) | 53.4 (Avg) | 4.9 (Avg) |

Figure 50. Typical stop-signobservance summary table.
c. The main causes of lack of obedience to traffic signals are similar to those for STOP signs: poor locations, lack of visibility, and unwarranted signals.
d. Poor observance of signals by pedestrians is often caused by improperly located signals, no signal indication visible to pedestrians, green or walk period too short for crossing, vehicle turns hindering crossings, or lack of adequate crosswalks.
e. In studying effectiveness of speed-reduction signs, averages of the observed speeds before and after are determined and compared, and if the difference is slight, it is probably due to chance and does not reflect the effectiveness of the signs. In this case, another survey should be made as a further check. Large differences indicate effectiveness of the signs. Mathematical methods of determining the significance of differences in averages (arithmetic mean) can be used if more precise methods are desired.

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79. Application.
a. In general, the observance of, obedience, to or effectiveness of traffic-control-device studics are used to assist in determination of accident causes at high-accident-frequency locations, to assist in evaluating the efficiency of traffic-control and enforcement plans and policies, and to improve control measures by relocating or removing unwarranted or ineffective devices.
b. To improve observance of necessary STOP signs, the following actions should be considered:
(1) Refinish or replace defaced or nonreflective signs.
(2) Erect STOP AHEAD signs approaching isolated STOP signs; the advance distance is related to approach speed.
(3) Improve visibility of signs and intersections by removing or trimming vegetation, restricting parking, or relocating adjacent signs.
(4) Increase selective enforcement and driver education.
(5) Add pavement markings or extra signs.
(6) Install a flashing red beacon at particularly hazardous
locations.
c. Obedience to traffic signals may be improved by:
(1) Improving view of signal by relocating signal indications, removing obstructions to view, or increasing the size of the indications.
(2) Retiming signal controller for maximum effectiveness.
(3) Coordinating the traffic signal with other adjacent signalized intersections to reduce the number of required stops.
(4) Installing pedestrian signal heads to control pedestrian movements.
(5) Erecting TRAFFIC SIGNAL AHEAD signs.
(6) Increasing enforcement.
d. The study of speed signs can be used to inuprove enforcement and driver-education programs and to determine need for improving visibility of such signs. This study is also useful in planning an installationwide program to remove unnecessary signs or to increase speed limits to more reasonable levels. A complete procedure for conducting a study of speed signs is given in part two, section IX of this pamphlet.

## SECTION XII

## TRANSIT STUDIES

80. Purpose. Transit studies are conducted to obtain information concerning either privately owned or Government-owned transit vehicles that serve the installation. The information serves as basic material for future route planning, analysis of effectiveness of present operations, determination of points of heavy passenger loads, and planning additional stops if needed. This study can be used in conjunction with the duty-hour study (see part two, sec V) to determine whether public transportation schedules fit with starting and ending times of base personnel.
81. Information needed. There are two types of studies: (1) the transit load check, and (2) the transit boarding-and-alighting check. Either can be utilized to yield the required information, depending upon the objectives of the study. They can be used independently or together. Basic information required for any type of transit check should include a map showing all transit routes, location of all stops, and transit schedules. A third study that might be considered, is a transit travel-time and delay study. This study is accomplished using the same procedures outlined in part two, section VIII. This study would be used to analyze delays that occur and how service might be improved.
a. Transit load check. This is a count of the number of transit vehicles and the number of passengers on each at selected locations. The number of passengers in each vehicle is either counted or estimated at selected vehicle arrival and departure stops or when it passes a given location such as a gate. The vehicle number, time of arrival, and time of departure are noted. The vehicle number can be used to ascertain the seating capacity from the operating agency. The observer(s) are located at each location where the data are required.
b. Transit boarding-and-alighting check. This requires the number of passengers boarding and alighting from the vehicle at each stop

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and the vehicle arrival and departure times for the entire route. An observer rides on the vehicle to obtain these data.
82. Method. Method is determined by the type of study.
a. Transit load check. This is to be conducted in the following manner:
(1) The points that are of interest to the study are chosen. These are usually the points where high ridership occurs.
(2) One observer is assigned to each location.
(3) Each observer is equipped with field-data sheets and a wrist watch. The observer enters the appropriate information as shown in the format suggested in figure 5 l .
(4) The time and length of the study will be determined by the purpose of the study. It may be conducted during peak-traffic hours only or during a complete day by taking a sample of each major period to allow expansion to the full day, using the scheduled number of buses in each period.
b. Transit boarding-and-alighting check. This is to be made in the following manner:
(1) Information is obtained on the length of the route and the location of each stop from the transit route map.
(2) One or more observers are assigned to each vehicle, depending upon the passenger volume and the number of doors in the vehicle. At stops where volume is exceptionally heavy, an observer may be required at the curb to tally the number alighting.
(3) Each observer rides the vehicle continually between terminal points on the route and enters the appropriate information on the suggested field-data sheet (fig 52). In addition to the field-data sheets, the observer must be equipped with a wrist watch.
(4) Enough trips must be made to provide a complete picture of passenger volumes during peak-and off-peak periods.


Figure 51. Typical transit load study field sheet.

| Mass transit boarding and alighting stuoy fielo sheet |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| day Wednesday date H J Jane 1975 weather Clqudy line nomber $\qquad$ 5 bus capacity $\qquad$ 60 sears $\qquad$ 44 direction Lorthbolind $\qquad$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| Location op stop | TIME |  | passengers |  |  |
|  | arrival | departure | OfF | on | Leaning* |
| Terminal <br> Elm Street <br> Willow Street <br> Bluebonnet Street <br> Maple Street <br> Birch Street <br> Pine Street | $\begin{aligned} & 0730 \\ & 0748 \end{aligned}$ | 0725 | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | 0 |
|  |  | 0733 | $\bigcirc$ | 31 | 31 |
|  |  | 0752 | 5 | 23 | 49 |
|  |  |  | 24 | 11 | 36 |
|  | 0810 | 0814 |  |  |  |
|  | 0835 | 0840 | 21 | 6 | 21 |
|  | 0855 | 0858 | 8 | 11 | 24 |
|  | 0915 | 0918 | 6 | 4 | 22 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |

*LEAVING: TOTAL NUMBER OF PASSENGERS ON BUS WHEN LEAVING INDICATED STOP. RECORD FOR FIRST STOP THEN ADD THE "ON" AND SUBTRACT THE "OFFS" FOR EACH OTHER STOP. RECHECK THE VALUE FREQUENTLY BY COUNTING THE NUMBER OF PASSENGERS.

Figure 52. Typical mass transit boarding-and-alighting study field sheet.

## 83. Interpretation.

a. Data gathered in the transit load check can be analyzed by comparing seated passengers, standing passengers, and seats available by time of day. Figure 53 shows one method of presenting the information.


Figure 53. Typicaltransit load-check graph.
b. Information gathered in the transit boarding-and-alighting check may be analyzed by the following methods:
(1) A load profile may be constructed with the abscissa corresponding to points along the route and the ordinate representing the total number of passengers at various points on the route. This profile can be made for each trip or for the average of individual trips during selected periods. A sample load profile is shown in figure 54.
(2) A boarding and alighting summary can be made for points on the route in graphic form as suggested in figure 55.


Figure 54. Typical sample busloading profile.
84. Application. Information obtained can be utilized for purposes of safety, planning, and as background information when dealing with privately owned transit lines that serve the installation.
a. The transit load check will point up conditions of overcrowding that violate the provisions of AR 385-55 (app B).
b. The results of the transit load check or transit boarding-andalighting check may be used as follows:
(1) For possible consolidation or rerouting of lines.
(2) For possible elimination of stops.
(3) For additional information when developing a staggered duty-hour plan.


Figure 55. Typical boarding and alighting graph.
(4) For determining the daily passenger circulation at points on the route.
(5) For determining vehicle headways.
(6) For determining requirements for additional service.
(7) For future planning.
c. The transit load check will provide information that will be valuable in dealing with private transit firms in regard to schedules and passenger-volume requirements of the installation.

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## SECTION XIII

## PARKING STUDIES

## 85. Purpose.

a. Parking studies provide information relative to the adequacy, location, and use of existing parking facilities to analyze whether additional parking is required to meet existing parking demands. The information also can be utilized to make projections of the future requirements for parking space if there is to be expansion of development.
b. Lack of adequate parking presents a significant problem at many installations. The problem usually is localized in only a portion of the base; often at commissaries, exchanges, barracks areas, and major employment concentrations. Actually, the problem is one of walking tistance rather than of parking. If you are willing to walk far enough, you can always find a space somewhere. The objective of parking studies is to develop an improvement program to place the proper number of stalls, with properly designed layout and traffic circulation patterns, in convenient locations to serve the many different portions of an installation. Usually when a parking study is desired, a problem area already has been identified and solutions are needed. In other cases, the parking study will be used to identify problem areas through an overall installation check and then will be followed with more detailed study in the problem areas. This section will cover the procedures to be used in either case. Normally, parking areas used only for military vehicles (motor and equipment pools) are omitted from the study, since their special problems are more easily identified and solved.
86. Information needed.
a. In general, the necessary information will include an inventory of existing parking, a classification of the types of spaces (open, reserved, or visitor), an identification of which installation facilities are served by the parking spaces, and a measurement of parking-space usage.
b. Parking supply is the actual number of spaces available, both on street and off street, to serve parkers within reasonable walking distance of their destination. In addition to counting the actual number of spaces, the information collected should include the generalized location and parking time limits (if any) of the spaces. If the spaces are located off street, physical characteristics of the lots should be noted or sketched. The characteristics should include entrance and exit locations; type of
surface; details of space markings; and dimensions of aisles, spaces, and entrances. If the lot has a one-way circulation pattern, this should be described.
c. To determine how present parking spaces are used, information must include the number of cars parked at the peak time of the day, how long vehicles are parked (parking duration), and the average number of cars parked in each parking space (turnover) during the selected study period. Vehicle types, incorrect parking practices, and violations also will be noted during the study.
87. Methods. The field work consists of identifying the study area, taking a parking-space inventory, and determining parking-usage characteristics. These steps involve the following procedures:
a. Determine study area. The purpose of the parking study must be defined prior to defining the area where it will occur. If it is the entire installation, the objective will be to identify where parking shortages exist. If the study is to cover a limited portion of the base, it will normally be associated with an identified land use (hospital, work area, commissary, or exchange). This is the more common case. To identify the study area, a field check of the area during a period of heavy parking demand is required. Parking demand refers to the number of cars (normally the maximum) present in a given area. Individual parking demands normally are related to an individual land use or groups of uses in an area. The field check will result in drawing a line on a map around the principal study site to include all locations where people park who are destined for that site-both on street and off street. This line then defines the study area. If the entire base is to be studied, it will normally be divided into sectors that logically split the different functional areas of the base.
b. Parking-space inventory.
(1) Parking supply is determined by a parking inventory. Obtain a map of reasonable scale that covers the study area. A vertical aerial photograph can be of significant help also. The map should be zoned in a similar fashion to that of the origin and destination zone map (see fig 36). Each parking area, both on street and off street, should be designated on the zone map by a letter or number.
(2) The actual inventory is made by field observers who enter the proper information on field sheets. One sheet is the parkingzone map. The second sheet is the inventory form. Each sheet is identified by the proper code number from the zone map. If the parking spaces
are defined by painted stall markings, the actual number of parking spaces is counted; if not, measurements should be made and the number estimated. The number of on-street spaces is estimated by measuring the length between driveways and calculating the number of stalls that can fit in that length. The number of stalls possible in an unmarked off-street lot may be estimated by dividing the area of the lot in square feet by 300 (the average area for each car, including aisles, in a normal lot). For example, a lot 125 feet by 400 feet contains 50,000 square feet and could accommodate approximately 166 cars in self-parking stalls. If there are any restrictions on use of the stalls in any facility, the number of stalls in each category should be tallied separately:
(a) Reserved for individuals.
(b) Restricted by a time limit.
(c) Unlimited usage.
(3) Any restrictions on use, permit systems, and the message on the face of any restrictive signs should be indicated on the back of the inventory form. A sample form for parking space inventory is shown in Figure 56.
c. Parking utilization study. This study determines the number of vehicles parked within the study area. If the entire installation is to be covered, by sector, two observers riding in a vehicle can accomplish this easily; the driver counts vehicles parked on the left side of the street or aisle and the other observer counts those on the right side. For smaller areas, a single observer can obtain the data on foot. The checks should be made on the heaviest day of a normal week; a complete count should be made at 1000,1215 , and 1430 hours, since normally the peak number of parked vehicles occurs during one of these periods. The route followed should be set so that it can be covered in approximately 30 minutes, starting 15 minutes before the time indicated and finishing approximately 15 minutes after. Do only a portion of the installation in l day, if necessary, finishing the remainder on other days with similar parking-demand characteristics. All on-street and off-street facilities in one area should be covered on the same day. The route should be laid out on a map (or aerial photograph) in advance to insure complete coverage. The data can be recorded on the map using different colors for each of the three observation periods. Show the number of cars parked along each block face and in each off-street facility. Illegally parked vehicles and those parking in unauthorized areas are shown separately in parentheses. The objective of the study is to determine the highest number of vehicles parked in each


Figure 56. Typical installation-parking-inventory summary sheet.
sector and/or facility so that it may be compared with the available parking supply to identify areas and amounts of parking shortage. Some areas may require checks at times other than those noted above if their heaviest parking demands occur during different hours.
d. Parking-duration and turnover study. This study is conducted during normal hours to obtain a picture of typical usage. When the spaces serve special-purpose facilities such as post exchange, commissary, and theaters, the study should be conducted during the period of maximum use. The purpose of this study is to identify how many cars use the spaces in a given time period (called turnover), whether the time limits are proper and are being observed, what number of cars are present at the time of peak accumulation, and what the average length of time parked is. Eachobserver is assigned an area to cover that will allow him to check each parking space once during every 15 -minute period or less. This period may be extended when the parking area obviously is utilized by long-time parkers ( $30-\mathrm{min}-$ ute or l-hour intervals). As a rule, one observer can cover from about 60 to 80 spaces in a 15 -minute period. The observer walks a predetermined route and records the right-hand four numbers or letters of the license plate or decal number on the field-data sheet as shown in figure 57. Parking time limits for each space should be recorded on the field-data sheet the first time the route is covered. The same route is followed on subsequent trips so that each parking space corresponds to a horizontal row of spaces on the field sheet. All parking space must be accounted for on the field sheet. An empty parking space can be recorded by leaving the appropriate space blank on the field sheet. When the same vehicle is observed in the same parking space during subsequent trips, the observer records it as a check mark rather than repeating the license plate or decal number. This makes it easier to pick out long-time parkers. Parking spaces that are reserved for either permanent personnel or visitors should be so identified on the field sheet. The method described above for making the spaceutilization study can be used for on-street or off-street parking. Normally, a 30 -minute round trip is adequate for off-street parking.
e. In many cases, the facility that is served by a particular group of parking spaces, whether on street of off street, can be easily identified by field observation. However, when several possibilities exist, the use of the spaces can be determined by questionnaire, direct interviews, or tracing of decal numbers. These techniques are costly and should only be used if there is a special problem that can be analyzed only through their use.
f. Direct interviews or use of returnable questionnaires require adequate advance publicity in order to carry out the study with a minimum

| Parking utilization field sheet |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| location Post office |  |  |  |  | WEATHER SUNNY／DRy |  |  |  |
| daie 25 Jucy 1975 |  |  |  |  | 1035 | VER |  |  |
|  | TIME |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 1000 | 1005 | 1010 | 10,5 | 1020 | 1025 | 1030 | 1035 |
| 兰 | $C B 65$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |  | 8927 | 7502 | $\checkmark$ | 3765 |
|  |  | XL04 | 3201 | $\checkmark$ |  | 9320 | B750 | CBOO |
|  | 1786 | 9302 |  | 7878 | $\checkmark$ | 1976 | G755 | $\checkmark$ |
|  | BL56 |  | 7333 | 0059 |  | XL75 |  | 7652 |
|  | 7575 | DC75 |  | 1903 | 1654 |  | 1876 |  |
|  | 9053 |  | 2765 | $\checkmark$ | 2022 | GL63 |  | 7803 |
|  |  | 9737 | 0042 | 1014 |  | 1988 | 0505 | 6230 |
|  | 1900 | 6378 |  | ML82 | A 555 |  | 1678 | 4303 |
|  | C 759 | $\checkmark$ | 8201 |  | 3075 | C788 | $\checkmark$ | 7007 |
|  | GB 07 | 2982 | 1472 | 1688 |  | 7905 | $\checkmark$ | 9123 |
|  | 0090 | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | 1505 | 7386 | 1514 |  | 0065 |
|  | 7676 | 0976 | $\checkmark$ |  | 8090 | 2223 | 1784 |  |
|  | wL89 |  | 1698 | $\checkmark$ | 5555 | Pu76 | $\checkmark$ | 7803 |
|  |  | 0988 | 9070 |  | 7679 | m532 |  | 0665 |
|  | NL 78 | $\checkmark$ | 4202 | 1997 |  | 1600 | 1491 |  |
|  | TB 40 | 8007 | B 766 |  | T468 | $\checkmark$ | 1878 |  |
|  | 6636 | 1050 | D888 |  | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | 6565 | $\checkmark$ |
|  | 0402 |  | 1842 |  | 9606 |  | 7575 | 0796 |
|  | 0901 | 1565 | $\checkmark$ | 1789 | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | 7876 |
|  |  | 1804 | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ | 2011 |  |
|  | 5707 | 0304 |  | 7015 年 |  | 6373 | $\checkmark$ | $\checkmark$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | $e_{0} \mathrm{~S}$ |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | 厄 |  |  |  |  |

Figure 57．Typical parking－utilization field sheet．
of explanation to parkers. The data are collected either by on-the-spot interviews when the driver returns to his vehicle, or by inserting a questionnaire under the windshield wiper to be filled in by the driver when he returns to his vehicle. Personnel distributing the questionnaires should be instructed not to open or enter unattended vehicles. In either case, the questions should be simple but should yield enough information to accomplish their purpose. The following is an example of some information that might be requested:
(1) Time of arrival at parking space (in the case of direct interviews, the observer records this when the parker arrives, as well as the license number).
(2) Time of departure from parking space.
(3) Reason for visiting destination (work, or shopping).
(4) Frequency of parking in the area.

Other items might include the number of persons in each vehicle, home location, next destination after unparking, and any special items involved in solution of the problem being studied. Questionnaires also should include instructions for returning it through the desired channels, and some method of identifying the location of the parking space (probably entered by the person distributing the questionnaires).
g. In parking areas that normally serve employees, the parker's destination after unparking may be estimated by listing installation decal numbers and checking this listing against installation vehicle-registration records to determine home location, zip code, and duty station (employment location).
88. Interpretation.
a. The supply of available parking spaces may be summarized according to area or sector of the installation. These areas may be located on a map by the block and facility numbers, and the parking capacity of each area can be noted directly on the map. Figure 58 is a graphical comparison of the peak number of cars parked and employees by sector; similarly, parked cars could be compared with available parking stalls by sector. A summary in table form should be prepared to indicate usage of the available parking supply by parking category similar to that shown in figure 59. The calculation of the percentage of stalls filled is valuable in identifying areas of high usage.

Figure 58. Typical map of relationship of vehicles parked in zone to employees

TABLE X
PARKING INVENTORY AND USAGE*

| Zone | Off Street |  |  |  | On Street |  |  |  | Total |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Pct } \\ \text { Filled } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | Total |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Pct } \\ & \text { Res } \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Gen |  | Res |  | Gen |  | Res |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Empty | Filled | Empty | Filled | Empty | Filled | Empty | Filled | Empty | Filled |  | Gen | Res |  |
| 1 | 170 | 22 | 7 | 11 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 177 | 33 | 15.7 | 192 | 18 | 8.6 |
| 2 | 215 | 126 | 15 | 24 | 23 | 37 | 0 | 0 | 253 | 187 | 42.5 | 401 | 39 | 8.9 |
| 3 | 53 | 132 | 43 | 113 | 7 | 50 | 2 | 6 | 105 | 301 | 74.1 | 242 | 164 | 40.3 |
| 4 | 143 | 244 | 145 | 144 | 1 | 27 | 0 | 0 | 289 | 415 | 59.8 | 415 | 289 | 41.1 |
| 5 | 15 | 276 | 126 | 379 | 3 | 35 | 2 | 12 | 146 | 702 | 82.8 | 329 | 519 | 61.2 |
| 6 | 135 | 412 | 10 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 145 | 414 | 74.1 | 547 | 12 | 2.1 |
| 7 | 660 | 370 | 36 | 44 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 696 | 414 | 37.3 | 1,030 | 80 | 7.2 |
| 8 | 377 | 581 | 264 | 643 | 0 | 32 | 0 | 0 | 641 | 1,256 | 66.2 | 990 | 907 | 47.8 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $(2,452)$ | $(3,722)$ | 60.4 | (4,146) | $(2,028)$ | 32.9 |
| Total | 1,768 | 2,163 | 646 | 1,360 | 34 | 181 | 4 | 18 | 6.1 | 74 |  |  |  |  |
| *Data | colle | ed dur | ng | morn | 8 hou | 8 (090 | 0-1200 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Figure 59. Typical parking inventory and usage table.
b. The physical characteristics of parking lots should be studied for deficiencies similar to the following:
(1) Entrance or exit located too close to an intersection.
(2) Deteriorated pavement surface and poor drainage.
(3) Inadequate dimensions of stalls, aisles, and entrances or exits.
(4) Deteriorated stall markings.
(5) Improper traffic-control signing.
(6) Poor circulation of traffic flow, particularly near drive ways.
c. Space usage data can be analyzed by entering it on a summary sheet similar to that shown in figure 60. The duration of parking is determined by the number of consecutive times the same vehicle was observed in the same parking space and by the time period required for each round trip on the route. For example, if the time period for each round trip averages 15 minutes, then a vehicle that is observed only once would have a parking duration of 1 to 29 minutes or a mean of 15 minutes; if it were observed twice, then the duration would be 15 to 44 minutes or a mean of 30 minutes, and so forth. Other values in the summary are compted as follows:


Figure 60. Typical parking-utilization summary sheet.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Vehicle-hours = Parking duration (hours) } x \text { Number of vehicles } \\
& \text { parked for that length of time. (This is a } \\
& \text { cumulative total.) } \\
& \text { Average duration }=\text { Total vehicle-hours + Total vehicles } \\
& \text { parked. } \\
& \text { Space hours of parking available = Number of spaces avail- } \\
& \text { able for parking } x \text { Number } \\
& \text { of hours covered in study } \\
& \text { ( } 100 \text { spaces available dur- } \\
& \text { ing an } 8 \text {-hour-study period } \\
& \text { represents } 800 \text { space-. } \\
& \text { hours). } \\
& \text { Utilization ratio }=\text { Total vehicle-hours used + Space-hours } \\
& \text { available. } \\
& \text { Percent overtime }=\text { Sum of figures in vehicle percent column } \\
& \text { for all durations longer than legal limits; } \\
& \text { the number of overtime parkers as a } \\
& \text { percentage of total parkers. }
\end{aligned}
$$

89. Application.
a. The practical uses of parking studies include determination of:
(1) Geographical distribution of parking supply on the installation as found in the parking-inventory study.
(2) Existing parking problem areas on the installation through the parking accumulation study. This study also allows comparison of parking demand with other factors such as installation population or land use.
(3) Areas where parking time limits are not consistent with usage and should either be changed or enforced more rigidly through the parker-duration and turnover study.
(4) Whether additional parking supply should be provided closer to parker destinations, through the results of parker interviews or questionnaires.
(5) Future parking needs as an integral part of new or expanded installation facilities. This can be done by directly relating existing characteristics such as employment, population, or floor space to the estimated future characteristics. DOD $4270.1-\mathrm{M}$, Construction Criteria Manual, contains parking authorization for land-use functions, such as barracks (app B).
b. There should be some surplus parking in any parking facility to reduce cruising or blocking of aisles while waiting for a vacant space and to provide a reasonable level of convenience for the user. The capacity of on-street parking spaces or employee off-street facilities is taken as 90 percent of its supply ( 10 percent of the stalls should be available at peak times). The practical capacity of off-street facilities that serve shortterm customer or visitor parkers is 85 percent of the available stalls. When these allowances are made, the total deficiency or shortage (in terms of parking stalls) may be calculated.
c. Many times present problems may be relieved by better lay out and organization of existing facilities. While parking-lot design is beyond the scope of this guide, the analyst should consider:
(1) Improving parking-lot layout (fig 61). Long-term parking stalls should be about 9 feet in width and high-turnover spaces should be about 9.5 feet. Reference TM $19-251$ for additional guidance (app B).
(2) Reducing the number of reserved spaces that are not being used often in order to reduce problems for other parkers.
(3) Setting aside areas for small or compact cars can increase the amount of parking supply by over 10 percent; these areas should be in a convenient location so that smaller cars will use them and not fill up normal-size spaces first. Stall sizes should be approximately 8 feet by 16 feet.
(4) Providing motorcycle and bicycle parking in separate areas so that conventional stalls will not be used.
(5) Setting and enforcing time limits on street and off street so that the desired vacancy levels are provided.
(6) Recognizing the fact that short duration parkers should be located closer to their destination than those with a longer duration; that is, the longer the parker will be at a destination, the farther he is willing to walk. Place short-time-limit parking stalls close to the destination.


PARKING LAYOUT DIMENSIONS (in lect) FOR 9.fT STALLS
at various angeles

| Dimension | $\begin{gathered} \text { On } \\ \text { Diograr } \end{gathered}$ | $45^{\circ}$ | $60^{\circ}$ | $75^{\circ}$ | $90^{\circ}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| St, ll wdith, puralict to aisle | $\wedge$ | 12.7 | 10.4 | 0.3 | 9.0 |
| Stall length of line | $\square$ | 25.0 | 22.0 | 20.0 | 18.5 |
| Stall depth to wall | C | 17.5 | 19.0 | 19.5 | 18.5 |
| Aisle width between stall lines | D | 12.0 | 16.0 | 23.0 | 20.0 |
| Stall depu, interlock | E | 15.3 | 17.5 | 18.8 | ;8.5 |
| Morlute, wall to interlock | $F$ | 44.8 | 52.5 | 61.3 | 63.0 |
| Nodule, interlocking | G | 42.6 | 51.0 | 61.0 | 630 |
| Modulc, interlock to curb face | H | 42.8 | 50.2 | 58.8 | 00.5 |
| Bumper overhong (typical) | 1 | 2.0 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 2.5 |
| Oflset | $J$ | 6.3 | 2.7 | 0.5 | 0.0 |
| Settback | $K$ | 11.0 | 8.3 | 5.0 | 0.0 |
| Cross aisic, one-way | $L$ | 14.0 | 14.0 | 14.0 | 14.0 |
| Cross aisle, twoway | - | 24.0 | 24.0 | 24.0 | 24.0 |

Figure 61. Accepted dimensions for parking-a rea layout.
(7) Checking the layout dimensions of the facility with those in a standard reference to see if a different angle of parking will yield added stalls.
(8) Considering the use of temporary, remote parking lots tied into the destination with shuttle -bus routes for peak seasonal parking demands if sufficient bus capacity is available.
(9) Developing programs to increase vehicle occupancy and to reduce parking demand through car pools, with preferential parking spaces in best locations for high-occupancy vehicles (four persons o: more).

SECTION XIV

STUDY REQUIREMENTS OF HIGHWAY SAFETY PROGRAM STANDARD 13
90. Purpose.
a. The Highway Safety Act of 1966 (Public Law 89-564) requires all Government agencies operating highway systems to comply with the Highway Safety Program Standards (HSPS) is sued by the Secretary of Transportation. The purpose of the law is to establish a coordinated national highway safety program designed to reduce traffic fatalities, injuries, and other accidents.
b. In 1967, Executive Order 11357 established the National Highway Safety Bureau (NHSB) within the Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) of the Department of Transportation (DOT). The NHSB developed a Highway Safety Program Manual (HSPM), each volume of which is designed to provide guidance on preferred highway safety practices. Volumes comprising the manual are:

```
    0-Planning and Administration
    1 - Periodic Motor Vehicle Inspection
    2 - Motor Vehicle Registration
    3 - Motorcycle Safety
    4 - Driver Education
    5- Driver Licensing
    6 - Codes and Laws
    7- Traffic Counts
    8 - Alcohol in Relation to Highway Safety
    9- Identification and Surveillance of Accident Locations
10 - Traffic Records
11 - Emergency Medical Services
12 - Highway Design, Construction, and Maintenance
13 - Traffic Engineering Services
14 - Pedestrian Safety
15- Police Traffic Services
```

16 - Debris Hazard Control and Cleanup
17 - Pupil Transportation Safety
18 - Accident Investigation and Reporting
c. Subsequent reorganization of DOT resulted in the separation of NHSB from FHWA, with FHWA retaining authority for administration of the highway-related safety standards. These standards are referred to as the "three-plus standards" and include:
(1) Identification and surveillance of accident locations.
(2) Highway design, construction, and maintenance.
(3) Traffic engineering services.
(4) Highway-related aspects of pedestrian safety. The Highway Act of 1970 established the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) and assigned it responsibility to administer the safety programs standards pertaining to the automobile and the driver.
d. DOD Directive 5160.60 designates the Secretary of the Army as the executive agent for DOD for all matters pertaining to public highways and highway needs of other Federal agencies. In turn, MTMC is the liaison agent with public agencies for all highway traffic engineering matters within the DOD. Consequently, MTMC is responsible for coordinating the DOD program for implementing the Highway Safety Program Standard related to Traffic Engineering Services, or HSPS 13.
e. All installation roadways that are open to public, visitor, or dependent traffic are governed by HSPM 13. It is required that each installation submit through channels an annual report to MTMC who, in turn, will summarize the progress made toward compliance with the public law and submit a formal report to the Secretary of Transportation.
91. Information needed. To determine the status of the DOD traffic engineering program, installations are surveyed regarding their available expertise, traffic-control devices, and accident-recording procedures. Presented in figure 62 is a Highway Safety Program Standard 13 Status Report (MTMC Form 214 (TEST), which is used to collect this information.
92. Method. To complete MTMC Form 214, it may be helpful to perform the following studies as presented in part two of this pamphlet: Section II, "Street-Classification Study"; Section VI, "Traffic-Accident Study";


MTMC
${ }_{1}$ FORM 75214 (TEST)
Figure 62. Highway Safety Program Standard 13 status report.


Figure 62 - cont.
and Section VII, "Traffic-Control-Devices Inventory." Other information required by the form can come from statistical reports or by questioning installation officials. Data should be updated annually or as required by the status report.
93. Analysis. As problems or deficient areas are uncovered during the preparation of this status report, apply the required analyses described in the individual study sections of this guide.
94. Interpretation. HSPM 13 requires that the installation have an ongoing traffic-engineering program to reduce the number and severity of traffic accidents. The specific objectives are:
"a. To provide the needed traffic engineering expertise to develop traffic-control plans and programs in all jurisdictions.
"b. To identify both the short-term and long-range need for traffic-control devices.
"c. To apply warrants for the application of traffic-control devices.
"d. To upgrade periodically existing traffic-control devices on all streets and highways to conform with standards issued or endorsed by the Federal Highway administrator.
"e. To ensure that the need for new traffic-control devices has been determined by adequate traffic-engineering studies.
"f. To inspect periodically and maintain all traffic-control devices.
"g. To devise methods for correcting hazardous roadway deficiencies and for installing improved features when modifications to the roadway are made.
'h. To provide the necessary authority, personnel, equipment, and facilities for carrying out the se efforts.
"i. To evaluate the safety adequacy of the roadway, including its capacity and efficiency. "

The traffic-enginee ring activities of each installation shall be compared with the above goals.

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95. Application. In the process of completing the HSPS 13 status report, many installations will uncover deficiencies in their program. It is up to the installation to correct those deficiencies. Most of the concepts of HSPM 13 are included in specific sections of this guide. The following areas are particularly important:
a. Atraffic-control-device plan including:
(1) An inventory of all traffic-control devices.
(2) Periodic review of existing traffic-control devices, including a systematic upgrading of substandard devices to conform with standards of the MUTCD.
(3) A maintenance schedule adequate to insure proper operation and timely repair of control devices, including daytime and nighttime inspections.
(4) Application and evaluation of new ideas and concepts in applying control devices and in modifying existing devices to improve their effectiveness through controlled experimentation.
b. An implementation schedule that will utilize traffic-engineering manpower to:
(1) Review road projects during the planning, design, and construction stages to detect and correct features that may lead to operational safety difficulties.
(2) Install safety-related improvements as a part of routine maintenance and/or repair activities.
(3) Correct conditions noted during routine operational surveillance of the roadway system to adjust rapidly for the changes in traffic and road characteristics as a means of reducing accident frequency or severity.
(4) Conduct traffic-engineering analyses of all high-accidentfrequency locations, and develop corrective measures.
(5) Analyze potentially hazardous locations such as sharp curves, steep grades, and railroad grade crossings, and develop appropriate countermeasures.
(6) Identify traffic-control needs, and determine short-and long-range requirements.
(7) Evaluate the effectiveness of specific traffic-control measures in reducing the frequency and severity of traffic accidents. This implies documentation and benefit/cost analysis of before/after data (app E).
(8) Conduct traffic engineering studies to establish traffic regulations such as fixed or variable speed limits.
(MTT-SE)
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OFFICIAL:


Chief, Services Office

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## APPENDIX A

## DEFINITIONS OF TRAFFIC ENGINEERING TERMS

Assignment. The theoretical allocation of design year traffic to a proposed or existing highway network.

Beacon. A bright-flashing traffic warning signal (yellow or red).
Clearance interval. The time during which the signal indication following the green interval is displayed to permit pedestrians or vehicles to clear the intersection (generally yellow).

Capacity. The maximum number of vehicles per hour that can reasonably be expected to pass over a given section of a lane or a roadway in one direction (or in both directions for two- or three-lane highway) under prevailing roadway and traffic conditions. Capacity corresponds to level of service $E$ with speeds about 30 miles per hour and unstable flow with frequent stoppages and long delays.

Capacity, design. A term denoting the traffic volumes that result in level of service $C$, the level typically as sociated with urban design practice. At level of service $C$, stable operation continues although an occasional vehicle backup may develop.

Classification heirarchy. The designation of a system of roadways according to geometric characteristics and traffic served: freeway, expressway, parkway, arterial routes (primary streets), collector streets (secondary), local streets (tertiary), and finally cul-de-sacs. Also called functional classification.

Condition diagram. A schematic drawing of a section of road or parking area showing all dimensions and traffic-control devices.

Delay. The time consumed while traffic (or a specified component of traffic) is impeded in its movement by some element over which it has no control; usually expressed in seconds or minutes per vehicle. A lower delay is observed in off-peak periods than during traffic peaks.

Delineators. Light-reflecting devices, usually in groupings, mounted along the shoulder, to indicate the alignment and direction of the roadway. May also indicate the location of hazard.

Delineators, pavement. Raised, reflective marker disks attached to the pavement surface, usually along the center, lane, or edge line.

Detector. Radar, sonic, magnetic, loop, or road tube devices to indicate or record vehicle presence or passage.

Flow, interrupted. A condition in which a vehicle traversing a roadway is required to stop by a cause outside the traffic stream, such as signs or signals at an intersection or a junction. Stoppage of vehicles by causes internal to the traffic stream does not constitute inter rupted flow.

Flow, uninterrupted. A condition in which a vehicle traversing a roadway may be stopped by causes internal to the traffic stream, but is not required to stop by any cause external to the traffic stream.

Highway. The entire width between boundary lines of every publicly maintained trafficway when any part thereof is open to the use of the public for purposes of vehicular travel.

Highway, arterial. A general term denoting a highway primarily for moving large volumes of through traffic; usually on a continuous route.

Highway, limited access. Every highway, street, or roadway in respect to which owners or occupants of abutting lands and other persons have no legal right of access to or from the same except at such points only and in such manner as may be determined by public authority having jurisdiction over such highway, street, or roadway.

Intersection. The general area where two or more highways join or cross, within which are included the roadway and roadside facilities for traffic movements in that area.

Intersection approach. Those lanes of an intersection leg that are used by traffic moving towards the intersection; for example, the northern approach.

Intersection leg. One of the roadways radiating from and forming part of an intersection.

Islands, channelizing. A traffic island located in a roadway area to confine specific movements of traffic to definite channels.

Lane, reversible. A lane where traffic moves in one direction only during some period of time, then in the reverse direction during another period of time.

Level of service. A qualitative measure of the effect of a number of factors, which include speed, travel time, traffic interruptions, freedom of maneuver, safety, driving comfort and convenience, and operational costs. Usually given a letter grade from A to $F$ with A being free-flow; E, capacity; and F, forced-flow.

Line, center. A single or double yellow line painted along the roadway, separating opposing traffic flow. The paint may be reflectorized by the addition of glass beads to the wet paint.

Line, edge. The solid white line that indicates the edge of the roadway.

Line, lane. A solid or dashed white line separating two lanes of traffic moving in the same direction.

Origin and destination study. An analysis of the number, purpose, and mode of trips from various zones of origin to various zones of destination.

Parking, accumulation. The cumulative number of vehicles parked at a facility, at any given point of time.

Parking, demand. The requirement for parking space as indicated by the number of drivers having the study site as a destination; stated in terms of spaces (or space-hours).

Parking, generator. A land use that is a desirable trip-end, and thus creates a demand for parking space.

Parking, need. The difference between parking demand and parking supply; stated in terms of spaces (or space-hours).

Parking, peak-hour. The highest accumulation of parked vehicles during 60 consecutive minutes.

Parking, supply. The total number of spaces (or space-hours) legally available for parking.

Parking, utilization. At a given point in time, the ratio formed when accumulation is divided by supply; stated in terms of vehicles per space, or as a percentage. A peak utilization of 0.85 vehicle/space is sometimes used as a design standard.

Peak-hour factor (PHF). A numerical factor indicating the magnitude of the highest traffic flow observed during the entire peak-hour. The PHF is a number between 0.00 and 1.00 , where a smaller number indicates more severe peaking. The peak-hour factor is formed by taking the ratio:

$$
\text { PHF }=\frac{\text { Peak-hour volume }}{4 \times \text { (highest } 15-\text { minute volume })}
$$

Planning, transportation. Planning is the effectuation of predetermined goals. Transportation planning is the process by which transportation improvements or new facilities are systematically conceived, tested as to adequacy, and programed for future construction. The planning process is composed of the following elements: organizing, stating the objectives, obtaining the information, preparing and evaluating land use and transportation plans within the framework of the objectives, selecting the best plan, and working for its adoption and implementation.

Roadway. That portion of a highway improved, de signed, or ordinarily used for vehicular travel, exclusive of the berm or shoulder. In the event a highway includes two or more separate roadways, the term "roadway," as used herein, refers to any such roadway separately but not to all such roadways collectively.

Sign, guide. A sign used to direct traffic along a route or toward a destination; or to give information concerning places or points of interest.

Sign, regulatory. A sign used to indicate regulations governing use of the highway.

Sign, traffic. A device mounted on a fixed or portable support whereby a specific message is conveyed by means of words or symbols, officially erected for the purpose of regulating, warning, or guiding traffic.

Sign, warning. A sign used to indicate actual or potential hazards to highway users.

Signal, controller. The timing mechanism that determines the phase and cycle length of a traffic signal. May be connected to other controllers to form a signal system, in which case the controller also determines the "offset" between signals.

Signal, cycle. The time period required for one complete sequence of signal indications.

Signal, offset. From a reference point, the time difference from signal-to-signal along a system, which permits progressive traffic flow along a street.

Signal, phase. The portion of the total time cycle allocated to the right-of-way of a given traffic movement, or to any combination of traffic movements that receive the right-of-way simultaneously. Thus the cycle length is divided into two or more phases.

Signal, pretimed. A type of traffic-control signal that directs traffic to stop and permits it to proceed in accordance with predetermined time schedules.

Signal, progressive. A system of synchronized signals that provides a green indication as traffic progresses along a street.

Signal, traffic-actuated. A type of traffic-control signal in which the intervals are varied in accordance with the demands of traffic as registered by the actuation of detectors. Often qualified with the terms: semi-, partially-, totally-, or fully-.

Signal, traffic-control. Any device whether manually, electrically, or mechanically operated by which traffic is alternately direct to stop and permitted to proceed.

Speed, 85 -percentile. That speed at or below which 85 percent of vehicles travel. Good engineering practice often picks the 85 -percentile speeds as the posted speed limit.

Streets, local. Roadways, the main purpose of which is to provide access to abutting property. Moving traffic is an incidental function of local streets.

Streets, primary. All roads or streets on the installation that serve as the main distributing arteries for traffic originating within or without the installation. They provide access to, through, and between the various functional areas of the installation.

Streets, secondary. All installation roads and streets that supplement the primary highway system by providing access within the various functional areas, as well as travel to and between.

Thoroughfare plan. The proposed physical layout of a network of primary streets and highways. The network may be composed of radial, circumferential, and transverse elements.

Traffic accident. Any event involving a vehicle in motion on a roadway, which results in unintended death, injury, property damage, or loss. A single accident may involve several vehicles. Only vehicles that were originally in contact with the road or sidewalk should be included. (Only those accidents involving loss in excess of $\$ 100$ are included in this report.)

Traffic-control devices. All signs, signals, markings, and devices placed or erected for the purpose of regulating, warning, or guiding traffic, by authority of a public body of officials having jurisdiction.

Traffic engineering. That phase of engineering that deals with the planning and geometric design of streets, highways, and abutting lands and with traffic operation thereon, as their use is related to the safe, convenient, and economic transportation of persons and goods.

Traffic lane. A strip of roadway intended to accommodate and delimit the movement of a single line of vehicles.

Traffic markings. All lines, patterns, words, colors, or other devices (except signs), which may be set into the surface of, applied upon, or attached to either the pavement, curbing, or objects within or adjacent to the roadway. They are officially placed for the purpose of regulating, warning, or guiding traffic.

Traffic, peak. The maximum traffic flow in a given circumstance, usually stated in vehicles per hour.

Traffic, peak-hour. The highest number of vehicles observed to traverse a section of roadway during 60 consecutive minutes.

Traffic, through. That part of the traffic circulating within a given area, or at a given point in that area, having neither origin nor destination within the area.

Trip, person. A one-way trip from origin to destination by an individual person.

$$
\text { Person trips }=\text { Vehicle trips } \times \text { Vehicle occupancy }
$$

Trip, vehicle. A one -way trip from origin to destination performed by a vehicle, regardless of the number of passengers.

Vehicle. Any wheeled device for conveying persons or property upon a roadway, excluding devices moved by human power, or moving upon fixed tracks.

Vehicle occupancy. The number of persons traveling in a vehicle expressed as the ratio of persons per vehicle.

Volume. The flow rate of traffic on a given roadway, usually stated in vehicles per hour.

Warrant. A set of formally stated conditions that have been accepted as minimum justification for installation of traffic-control devices or regulations.

Weaving. The crossing of traffic streams moving in the same general direction, accomplished by merging and diverging along a considerable length of highway.

## APPENDIX B

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## APPENDIX C

FEDERAL HIGHW AY ADMINISTRATION
REPORTING FORMS FOR TRAFFIC-CONTROL-DEVICE INVENTORY

Sign inventory data sheet.

| Column | Item | Code |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1-4 | Control section | Number assigned |
| 5-7 | Project number | Number assigned |
| 8 | Direction traveling while recording data | N, S, E, W |
| 9-10 | Maintenance area | Number assigned |
| 11 | Rural or urban | $R$ or $U$ |
| 12-46 | Subsection description | Describe beginning and ending points as well as route being inventoried. Select easily identified points and abbreviate. Example: <br> W. Co. Line to N. L. <br> St. Cloud for west county line to north limit, St. Cloud. (note: all column spaces may not be needed) |
|  | Odometer reading | Actual mileage recorded - coded as distance from reference point (column C) |
| 47-50 | Sign serial number | Begin at 0000 for each subsection and number successive signs consecutively |
| 51-54 | Distance | Computed in office using odometer readings from a reference point noted in the subsection description |

Figure 64. ADP coding instructions for sign inventory.

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Figure 64 - cont.

Figure 64 - cont.

Figure 64 - cont.

## Code

0 - satisfactory
1 - replace
2 - straighten
3 - paint
4 - straighten and paint
5 - sign too low
6 - sign too high
0 - satisfactory
1 - relocate behind
existing guardrail
2 - relocate on lighting or power pole 3 - place on support with another sign 4 - relocate on overcrossing structure 5 - move farther away from roadway
6 - move to better
location up or down roadway
7 - needs guardrail
protection
Use where special information about sign is to be inserted.

Figure 64 - cont.

Figure 65. Pavement markings inventory.


Figure 66. Graphic representation of markings.

| Column | It em | Code |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $1-6$ | Identification of observers | Enter initials |
| 7 | Direction traveling while recording | N, S, E, W |
| 8-13 | Date | Code in numeric form, e.g. June 25 , $1967=$ 062567 |
| 14-15 | Courity or equivalent | Use number assigned |
| 16-17 | Township, if appropriate | Use number assigned |
| 18-21 | Route | Use number assigned or actual route number |
| 22 | Route type | A - alternate <br> B - business <br> S - spur |
| 23-26 | Length of study section | Code actual miles |
| 27-30 | Sheet identification | Code number of pages |
| 31-36 | Beginning of a particular type center line | Code actual odometer reading |
| 37-42 | End of a particular type of center line | Code actual odometer reading |
| 43-46 | Mileage of a particular marking | Calculate from odometer readings |
| 47 | Marking type | ```1 - dashed 2 - solid 3 - dashed left, solid right 4 - solid left, dashed right 5 - solid left, solid right o - none``` |

Figure 67. ADP coding instructions for markings inventory.

| Column | Item | code |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 48 | Marking color | 1 - white, only <br> 2 - yellow, only <br> 3 - white dashed, <br> yellow solid <br> 4 - yellow dashed, <br> white solid |
| 49 | Marking width | Code actual width in inches |
| $50-55$ | Beginning of an edge line | Code actual odometer reading |
| 56-61 | End of an edge line | Code actual odometer reading |
| 62-65 | Mileage of a section. of edge line | Calculate from odometer readings |
| 66 | Marking type | As for center lines |
| 67 | Marking color | As for center lines |
| 68 | Marking width | Code actual width in inches |
| 69-70 | Railroad crossing markings | ```1 - crossing marked 2 - crossing not marked``` |
| 71-72 | Railrad crossing markings type | ```l - markings conform to standard 5 - markings are incomplete 9 - markings do not conform``` |
| 73 | Horizontal curve | 1 - curve present |
| 74 | Vertical curve | 1 - curve present |
| 75 | Area type | $\begin{aligned} & 1 \text { - urban } \\ & 9 \text { - rural } \end{aligned}$ |

Figure 67 - cont.

| Column |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| 76 | Item |
| Lane line |  |

Code
Record length
in center line section Code of lines on right side
1 - first lane from center
3 - second lane from. center
5 - third lane from center
Code for lines on
left side
2 - first lane from center
4 - second lane from center 6-third lane from center, etc.

Figure 67 - cont.

| Column | Item | Code |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1-5 | Intersection code | Number assigned to each intersection |
| 6-9 | Date of Coding - Month and Year | $\begin{aligned} & 01=\mathrm{Jan} ., \text { etc. } \\ & 68=1968, \text { etc. } \end{aligned}$ |
| 10 | Type of Intersection | 1 - Four leg or reguiar <br> 2 - Tee; 3-Wye; <br> 4 - Irregular; 5 - Jogged <br> 6 - Circle; 7-5 legs; <br> 8 - 6 legs; 9 - 7 legs; <br> A - 8 legs; B - other |
| 11 | Number of Approaches | Code direct; when number is more than 9; $A=10 ; B$ - 11, etc. |
| 12 | Approaches with a Single Indication (Nonstandard) | Same as Column 11 |
| 13 | Approaches - Nonstandard Signal Location or Operation | Same as Column 11 |
| 14 | Number of Phases | Same as Column 11 |
| 15 | Leading Protected <br> Left Turn | $\begin{aligned} & 0=\text { No; } 1=\text { one } \\ & \text { approach; } \\ & 2=\text { two approaches, etc. } . \end{aligned}$ |
| 16 | ```Lagging Protected Left Turn``` | Same as Column 15 |
| 17 | Leading Protected Right Turn | Same as Column 15 |
| 18 | Lagging Protected Right Turn | Same as Column 15 |
| 19 | All Red Clearance | 1 = yes; 2 = no |
| 20 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Part-Time Flashing } \\ & \text { Operation } \end{aligned}$ | 1 = yes; $2=$ no |

Figure 68. ADP coding instructions for signal inventory.

|  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Column | Item | Code |
| 21 | Pedestrian Phases | 1 = No pedestrian aignals <br> 2 = All walk phase <br> 3 = Flashing "walk" <br> (or blank out) <br> $t$ = Steady "walk" for at least one crosswalk <br> 5 =. Flashing "walk" and steady "walk," at least one crosswalk |
| 22 | Type of Controller | 1 = Pretimed; $2=$ pre- <br> timed with actuated demand <br> $3=$ Semiactuated <br> 4 = Fully actuated <br> 5 = Volume density; <br> 6 = Volume density with actuated minor movement units; $7=$ Special unit <br> in a computerized system |
| 23 | Solid State | $1=$ yes; 2 = no |
| 24 | Controller Manufacturer | Code manufacturers signal number i.e. -1 = Eagle; 2 = Automatic signal, etc. |
| 25 | Location of Controller | ```L = NH corner; 2 = NE corner; 3 = SE corner; 4 = SW corner; 5 = Center in intersection 6 = Northerly; 7 = Easterly; 8 = Southerly; 9 = Westerly``` |
| 26-27 | Year Installed | Last two digits of year |
| 28 | ```Number of Intersections Controlled by this Controller``` | Code direct; when number is more than $9 ; A=10 ; B=11$, etc. |
| 29 | Type of Interconnection | 1 = telephone wire; <br> 2 = cable; 3 = radio; <br> 4 = cable \& decoder; <br> 5 = radio \& cable; <br> $6=$ coordinated <br> noninterconnected <br> synchronous system; <br> $7=$ isolated |

Figure 68 - cont.


Figure 68 - cont.

|  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Columb | Iter | Code |
| 52 | Number of Vehicle Detectors | Code direct; when <br> nurber is more than <br> $9 ; A=10, B=11$, etc. |
| 53 | Number of Radar Detectors | code direct |
| 54 | Number of Inductive <br> Loop Detectors | code direct |
| 55 | Number of Magnetic <br> Loop Detectors | Code direct |
| 56 | Number of Pressure <br> Pad Detectors | Code direct |
| 57 | Number of Ultrasonic Detectors | Code direct |
| 58 | Number of Pedestrian Detectors <br> Post and Poles on Which <br> Signals are Mounted | Code direct |
| 55-60 | Number of Metal Street <br> Light Poles | code direct |
| 61-62 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Number of Pedestal } \\ & \text { Signal Posts } \end{aligned}$ | Code direct |
| 63 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Number of Mast Arm } \\ & \text { Mountings } \end{aligned}$ | code direct |
| 64 | Number of Span Wire Mountings | Code direct |
| 65 | Number of Hood Poles | Code direct |
| 68 | Number of Exclusive <br> Left Turn Lanes | Code direct |
| 57 | Number of Exclusive Right Tirn Lanes | Code direct |
| 68-69 | Posted Speed Limit - <br> Major Street (if <br> practical to record) | Code direct |
| 70-71 | Posted Speed Limit <br> Minor Street (if <br> practical to record) | Code direct |

Posted Speed Limit - Code direct practical to record)

Figure 68 - cont.

| Column | Item | code |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 72-75 | Nearest Traffic <br> Signal - Major Street in feet - (if less than 10,000 feet) | Code direct |
| 76-79 | Nearest Traffic <br> Signal - Minor Street in feet - (if less than 10,000 feet) | Code direct |
| 80 | Blank |  |

Figure 68 - cont.


Figure 69. Signal location sketch.


(-)INDUCTION LOOP DETECTOR
(0) PUSH BUTTON DETECTOR

- SIGNAL POLE
- POWER POLE

O-L SIGNAL POLE WITH STREET LIGHT
$\longrightarrow$ TELEPHONE POLE
(R) RED INDICATION
(Y) YELLOW INDICATION

G CIRCULAR GREEN INDICATION
G GREEN STRAIGHT AHEAD ARROW

G- GREEN LEFT ARROW
G- GREEN RIGHT ARROW
(G) TUNNEL VISOR
(Y) TUNNEL VISOR WITH
LOUVERS

8
SIGNAL FACE NUMBER WITH PROGRAMMED OPTICS

NOTE: FOR ADDITIONAL SYMBOLS SEE "TRAFFIC SIGNAL MANUAL" INTERNATIONAL SIGNAL ASSOĆIATION, HOUSTON, TEXAS, 1971

Figure 70. Traffic signal symbols.

## APPENDIX D

SAMPLE TRAFFIC SIGN INVENTORY FIELD DATA SHEET

| TRAFFIC SIGN Inventory |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\underset{\text { TYPE }}{\operatorname{SIGN}}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { SIGN } \\ \text { SIEZI/ } \\ \text { (INCHES) } \end{gathered}$ |  | $\underset{\mathrm{FACE}^{\mathrm{BAD}} / 2}{ }$ | $\operatorname{BLANK} 3 /_{\mathrm{BAD}^{\prime}}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { BAD } \\ \text { LOCATIONU } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{array}{c\|} \mathrm{BAD} \\ \text { MOUNTNG5/ } \\ (\mathrm{HITLO}) \end{array}$ | $\stackrel{\text { Pad }}{\text { PoST }}$ / |
| STOP | $30 \times 30$ | 210 | 30 | 12 | 6 | 14 | 6 |
|  | $24 \times 24$ | 10 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 0 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | $36 \times 36 \times 36$ | 70 | 12 | 8 | 4 | 6 | 3 |
|  | $48 \times 48 \times 48$ | 2 | 0 | $\bigcirc$ | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| $\square$ | $36 \times 12$ | 40 | 10 | 5 | 2 | 15 | 3 |
| $\square$ | $36 \times 12$ |  |  |  | 6 | 15 | 3 |
|  | $30 \times 30$ | 35 | 5 | 7 | 12. | 20 | 2 |
| anave | $36 \times 24$ | 4 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 0 |
| $18$ | $24 \times 24$ | 36 | $?$ | 0 | 12 | $\bigcirc$ | 2 |
|  | $24 \times 18$ | 36 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 0 | 2 |
| (3) | $24 \times 24$ | 20 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
|  | $24 \times 18$ | 20 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 2 | 1 |
| $\frac{(8)}{10 y}$ | $24 \times 24$ | 6 | $\bigcirc$ | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 |
|  | $24 \times 18$ | 6 | O | 0 | 2 | $\bigcirc$ | 1 |
| [nom | $24 \times 24$ | 14 | 6 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Figure 71

## APPENDIX E

## PROJECT PRIORITY AND BENEFIT / COST

1 General. To insure the proper expenditure of installation funds, it will be necessary to assign priorities to roadway construction projects. First, the need for every project must be determined by application of standard traffic engineering techniques. Second, the time frame of the various projects must be decided. Long-term and short-term projects must be identified, together with the desired completion date. Suitable project lead-time must be allowed. Third, the cost of the project should be estimated. Fourth, the expected benefits from the project should be computed. Fifth, the standard benefit/cost ratio should be calculated. And finally, the projects should be listed by priority.
2. Cost. Project cost may be estimated by using any of the convenient costing guides published by DOD or civilian concerns. Up-to-date material should be used and should include the cost of design, labor, material, equipment, and, where applicable, right-of-way. Principles of engineering economics should be followed when applicable. The impact of the project upon the environment, air pollution, noise, socioeconomic human factors, and energy usage must be determined.

## 3. Benefits.

a. Accident costs. The benefits of any valid highway project include reduced travel time, decreased driving expense, and improved highway safety. The computation of the first two is covered in several of the references presented in appendix $B$. The computation of the benefits due to improved traffic safety is discussed in HSPM 13 (see part two, sec XIV of this pamphlet). HSPM 13 contains a formula for estimating the benefits of accident reduction. It calculates the dollar benefit by using an after/before ratio, which includes the averaged cost per accident. The basic accident costs recommended by the FHWA are:

| Property Damage Only (PDO)- $\$ r$ | 300 |
| :--- | ---: |
| Injury (I)- | 7,300 |
| Fatality (F)- | 200,700 |

When more accurate state or local accident costs are available, they should be used instead of the above.
b. Fatal accidents. Statistically speaking, a fatal accident is a rare occurrence. The event of a fatal accident at some particular inter section may cause that intersection to be assigned to priority far out of proportion with what it deserves. Therefore, the FHWA benefit formula includes a weighting factor " $Q$ " that tends to bring individual computations into agreement with the ratio of injury/fatal accidents observed statewide.
c. Project benefits. The dollar accident benefits of a traffic project, which causes accidents to decrease from state " $b$ " (before) to state "a" (after), is estimated by -

$$
\mathrm{B}_{\mathrm{B}-\mathrm{a}}=\frac{\mathrm{ADT}_{\mathrm{a}}}{\mathrm{ADT}_{\mathrm{a}}}\left[\mathrm{Q}\left(\mathrm{~A}_{\mathrm{FI}}\right) \mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{FI}}+300\left(\mathrm{~A}_{\mathrm{PDO}}\right) \mathrm{P}_{\mathrm{PDO}}\right]
$$

where: $B=$ Benefits (\$) resulting from project
$A_{F I}=$ Accidents; yearly average number of fatalities plus injury
$P_{F I}=$ Percent reduction in $A_{F I}$ expected due to project
$A_{P D O}=$ Accidents; yearly average number of property damage only
$\begin{aligned} P_{P D O}= & \text { Percent reduction in } A_{P D O} \text { expected due to } \\ & \text { project }\end{aligned}$
To prevent biasing the results because of rare fatal occurences, a weighting factor is used, given by:

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q & =\text { Average cost of non-PDO accidents; } \\
& =\frac{200,700+\left(\mathrm{I}_{S} / \mathrm{F}_{S}\right) 7,300}{1+\left(\mathrm{I}_{S} / \mathrm{F}_{S}\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

where: $I_{S} / F_{S}=$ State or local ratio of injury to fatal accidents on that particular class of road (twolane rural, four-lane urban, and so forth)
4. Benefit/cost ratio. This ratio should be computed for each project. The projects may then be ranked in order of priority. Again, it is emphasized that concern must be shown for the environment, air quality, noise, socioeconomic factors, and energy usage.
5. Documentation. Sufficient accident and cost data must be maintained. An after/before study should be performed for each major project. It is only by this method that the validity of various traffic engineering techniques may be proven and future projects may benefit.

