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MINIMIZING TRAFFIC-RELATED WORK ZONE CRASHES IN ILLINOIS

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A report of the findings of
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Studying and Minimizing Traffic-Related Work Zone Crashes in Illinois

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16. Abstract

This report presents the findings of a research project to study and develop recommendations to minimize work zone crashes in Illinois. The objectives of this project were (1) to provide in-depth comprehensive review of the latest literature on traffic-related work zone crashes and conduct site visits of work zones in Illinois, (2) to analyze the frequency and severity of traffic-related work zone crashes in Illinois, (3) to quantify the impact of layout parameters on the risk of crash occurrence and develop practical recommendations to control the factors contributing to work zone crashes in Illinois, and (4) to evaluate the practicality and effectiveness of adding temporary/portable rumble strips within and before work zones. To achieve these objectives, the research team carried out six major tasks: (1) conducting a comprehensive literature review, (2) collecting and fusing all available data and reports on work zone crashes in Illinois, (3) analyzing work zone crashes and identifying their contributing factors, (4) identifying the impact of layout parameters on the risk of crash occurrences and developing practical recommendations to improve work zone layouts, (5) performing field experiments to evaluate the efficiency of using temporary rumble strips in work zones, and (6) evaluating the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips before work zones begin and at the edge of work zones. During this study, the research team identified a number of promising research areas for further in-depth analysis and investigation: (1) investigating the practicality and effectiveness of using new prototypes of temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zones, (2) improving safety for construction equipment entering and exiting work zones, and (3) optimizing work zone transportation management plans (TMPs) to maximize work zone safety while minimizing total work zone costs.

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DISCLAIMER

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Work zone safety is a major concern for the Federal Highway Administration (FHWA), American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials (AASHTO), and state departments of transportation (DOTs). Recent data indicate that highway construction and maintenance work zone crashes cause an average of 745 fatalities and 40,700 severe injuries per year in the United States.

To address these critical safety concerns, the Illinois Department of Transportation (IDOT) developed and implemented the Safety Engineering Policy (3-07) to comply with the FHWA Work Zone Safety and Mobility Rule (FHWA 2005). One of the main safety goals of this newly implemented policy is to reduce the number of motorist fatalities in traffic-related work zone crashes by 10% each year and to reduce the number of work zone crashes by 5% from each prior year. To improve work zone safety, the Illinois Strategic Highway Safety Program (ISHSP 2008) proposed a number of strategies, including identifying factors that contribute to injury and fatal work zone crashes.

This report presents the findings of a research project, funded by the Illinois Center for Transportation, under project number ICT-R27-52, to study and develop recommendations to minimize work zone crashes in Illinois. The objectives of this project are (1) to provide in-depth comprehensive review of the latest literature on traffic-related work zone crashes and conduct site visits of work zones in Illinois, (2) to analyze the frequency and severity of traffic-related work zone crashes in Illinois, (3) to quantify the impact of layout parameters on the risk of crash occurrence and develop practical recommendations to control the factors contributing to work zone crashes in Illinois, and (4) to evaluate the practicality and effectiveness of adding temporary/portable rumble strips within and before work zones. To achieve these objectives, the research team carried out six major tasks: (1) conducting a comprehensive literature review, (2) collecting and fusing all available data and reports on work zone crashes in Illinois, (3) analyzing work zone crashes and identifying their contributing factors, (4) identifying the impact of layout parameters on the risk of crash occurrences and developing practical recommendations to improve work zone layouts, (5) performing field experiments to evaluate the efficiency of using temporary rumble strips in work zones, and (6) evaluating the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips before work zones begin and at the edge of work zones.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 WORK ZONE SAFETY

Work zone safety is a major concern for the Federal Highway Administration (FHWA), American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials (AASHTO), and state departments of transportation (DOTs). Recent data indicate that highway construction and maintenance work zone crashes cause an average of 745 fatalities and 40,700 severe injuries per year in the United States (FARS 2008) as shown in Figure 1.1. To control and minimize work zone fatalities and injuries, the FHWA and AASHTO continue to seek improvements in the design practices of work zones that can directly reduce work zone crashes. Similarly, many state DOTs developed work zone safety and mobility policies to reduce work zone crashes (IDOT 2002; TxDOT 2009; Caltrans 2006; FHWA 2009b).

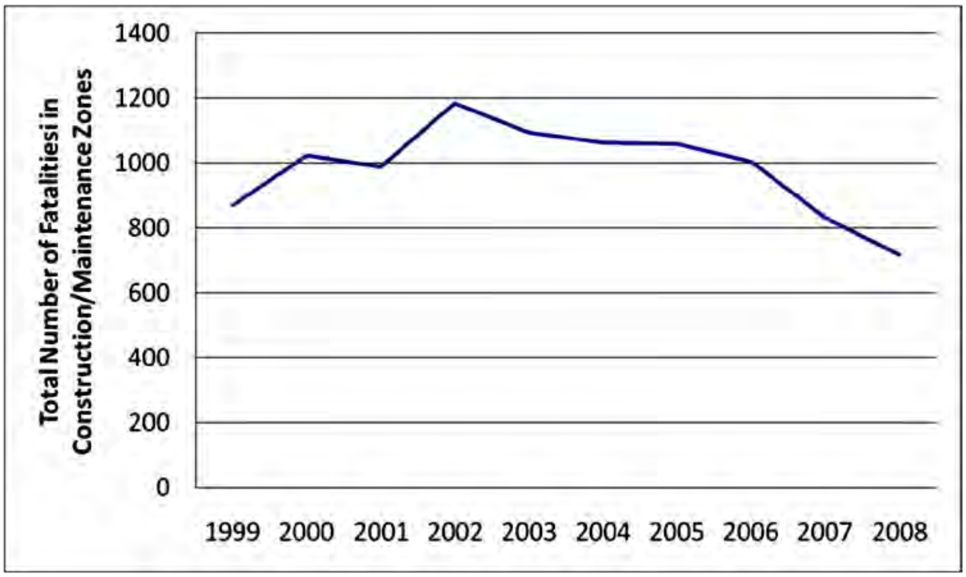


Figure 1.1. Total number of fatalities in construction/maintenance zones in the United States (FARS 2008).

In Illinois, the total number of fatalities caused by work zone crashes from 1995 to 2007 is shown in Figure 1.2. The Illinois Strategic Highway Safety Program (ISHSP 2008) reported that a “disproportionate number of work zone fatalities in Illinois occur on the interstate system and involve large trucks” and “the majority of recent crashes are occurring late at night or during early morning hours.” The ISHSP (2008) also reported that the percentage of work zone-related fatalities in Illinois is higher than the national average.

To address these critical safety concerns, the Illinois Department of Transportation (IDOT) developed and implemented an important Safety Engineering Policy (3-07) on October 12, 2007, to comply with the FHWA Work Zone Safety and Mobility Rule (FHWA 2005). One of the main safety goals of this newly implemented policy is to reduce the number of motorist fatalities in traffic-related work zone crashes by 10% each year and to reduce the number of work zone crashes by 5% from each prior year.

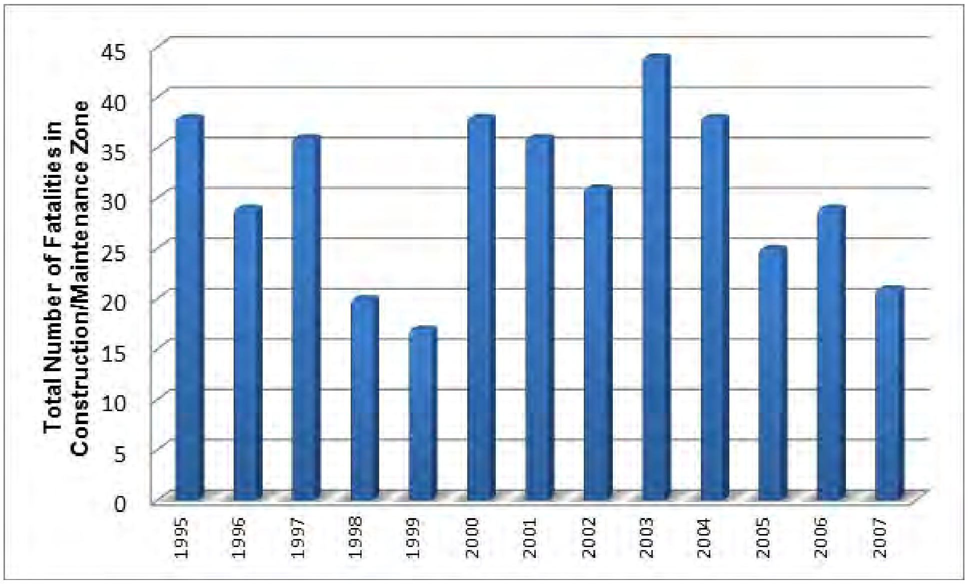


Figure 1.2. Total number of construction/maintenance zones fatalities in Illinois from 1995 to 2007 (FARS 2008).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

To investigate and enhance work zone safety during highway construction operations, this project focuses on two important research thrusts: (1) analyzing and identifying factors contributing to injury and fatal work zone crashes, and (2) studying the efficiency and effectiveness of using temporary rumble strips before work zones begin and at the edge of work zones.

First, a number of research studies investigated and analyzed fatalities and injuries in the work zone to identify factors contributing to unsafe conditions caused by work zones (Daniel et al. 2000; Garber and Zhao 2002; Mohan and Zech 2005). Other studies analyzed the impact of work zone design parameters on traffic safety and mobility (Daniel et al. 2000; Bryden and Mace 2002; Garber and Zhao 2002; Mohan and Zech 2005; Mahoney et al. 2007; Harb et al. 2008). The National Cooperative Highway Research Program (NCHRP) Report 581 developed guidelines for the design of construction work zone geometric features including horizontal and vertical alignment, cross-sectional features, and temporary concrete barrier placement (Mahoney et al. 2007). The NCHRP Report 476 recommended guidelines to help transportation agencies develop and implement plans for night work zones (Bryden and Mace 2002). Despite the significant contributions of the aforementioned studies, there is little or no reported research that studied the impact of work zone characteristics such as layout, type, duration, temporary traffic control (TTC) devices, traffic volumes, median types, lane width, and vision obstructions on work zone crashes.

Second, several state DOTs use different sets of temporary rumble strips that are generally placed in different patterns in advance of highway segments where reduced speed or elevated driver alertness is required (Zech et al. 2005). Research studies were conducted to study the effectiveness of rumble strips in two main areas: rumble strip application in terms of minimizing run-off-the-road and intersection crashes (Miles and Finley 2007) and the effect of rumble strip characteristics on alerting inattentive drivers (Fontaine and Carlson 2001; Miles and Finley 2007; Meyer 2000; Morgan 2003). Despite the significant contributions of the aforementioned studies, the effectiveness and constructability of various arrangements of temporary rumble strips before work zones begin and at the edge of work zones have not been investigated.

To address these research gaps and to maximize work zone safety, there is a pressing need to conduct additional research that focuses on (1) providing better understanding of the factors contributing to injury and fatal work zone crashes, (2) creating new understanding and quantifying the impact of work zone layout parameters on the risk of crash occurrence, and (3) analyzing the efficiency and effectiveness of using new and innovative traffic control devices such as temporary rumble strips.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary goal of this research is to create new knowledge that addresses the aforementioned research needs in order to maximize work zone safety while minimizing severe work zone crashes. To accomplish this goal, the main research objectives of this study are to

1. Perform an in-depth, comprehensive review of the latest literature on traffic-related work zone crashes and conduct site visits to work zones in Illinois.
2. Analyze the frequency and severity of traffic-related work zone crashes in Illinois.
3. Quantify the impact of layout parameters on the risk of crash occurrence and develop practical recommendations to control the factors contributing to work zone crashes in Illinois.
4. Evaluate the practicality and effectiveness of adding temporary/portable rumble strips within and before work zones.

1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A research team from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign investigated and analyzed all factors contributing to work zone crashes in Illinois and conducted field experiments to evaluate the effectiveness and efficiency of using temporary rumble strips in work zones. The research team conducted the research work in six major tasks: (1) conducting a comprehensive literature review, (2) collecting and fusing all available data and reports on work zone crashes in Illinois, (3) analyzing work zone crashes and identifying their contributing factors, (4) identifying the impact of layout parameters on the risk of crash occurrence and developing practical recommendations to improve work zone layouts, (5) performing field experiments to evaluate the efficiency of using temporary rumble strips in work zones, and (6) evaluating the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips before work zones begin and at the edge of work zones. These research tasks and their outputs are summarized in Figure 1.3.

In the first task of the project, a literature review was conducted to establish baseline knowledge of the latest research and developments on work zone characteristics and their effect on the frequency and severity of work zone crashes. The review of the literature focused on (1) work zone layouts, traffic control strategies, and temporary management plans; (2) temporary traffic control devices and their applications; (3) work zone parameters, merge techniques, and queue detection systems; (4) federal and state departments of transportation rules and standards for work zone safety and mobility; and (5) work zone crash data reporting and statistical methods for data analysis.

The second task of the project focused on gathering data and reports on work zone crashes in Illinois and fusing them into a single comprehensive dataset. Crash data sources included (1) National Highway and Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) crash data, (2) Highway Safety Information System (HSIS) crash data, and (3) police crash reports.

In the third task of the project, a comprehensive analysis of work zone crashes was conducted to identify the factors contributing to work zone crashes in Illinois. First, crash frequency analyses were performed to investigate and compare the impact of work zone parameters on the frequency and severity of (1) fatal work zone crashes, (2) multi-vehicle injury crashes, and (3) single-vehicle injury crashes. Second, a correlation analysis was performed among work zone crash parameters to identify factors contributing to work zone crashes. Third, a set of practical recommendations to improve work zone layouts, strategies, and standards was developed based on the results of work zone crash analyses.

The fourth task of this project focused on identifying the impact of work zone layout parameters on the risk of crash occurrence. First, the research team visited several construction work zones in Illinois to gather data on current practices in and around highway work zones to identify practical parameters that affect work zone safety. The impact of these work zone parameters was then quantified using the results of an online survey on work zone practices that was developed to capture IDOT resident engineers' feedback on the perceived risk level associated with various work zone parameters. The recommendations provided by IDOT resident engineers to improve current work zone practices were analyzed and organized in five main categories: (1) work zone layouts, (2) work zone strategies, (3) work zone standards, (4) temporary traffic controls in work zones, and (5) placement of temporary rumble strips within the work zone layout.

Field experiments were conducted in the fifth task of the project to analyze the efficiency and constructability of using temporary rumble strips before work zones begin and at the edge of work zones. During these experiments, 27 different arrangements of temporary rumble strips were tested on the taxiways at the old Chanute Air Force base in Rantoul, Illinois. The installation and removal processes for three different types of temporary rumble strips were analyzed and new prototypes of using temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zones were developed.

The sixth and final task of this project focused on evaluating the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips in generating adequate sound levels to alert inattentive drivers. A total of 351 sound-level readings that represented different configurations of study parameters was collected. This experimental data was analyzed to identify the impact of temporary rumble strip layout and vehicle characteristics on the generated sound levels and to develop practical guidelines to improve the effectiveness of using temporary rumble strips in work zones. Correlation analysis of study parameters and change in sound levels was conducted to quantify the impact of (1) rumble strip spacing, (2) rumble strip type, (3) vehicle speed, and (4) vehicle type on the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips before work zones begin and at the edge of work zones. A set of practical recommendations to improve the use of work zone temporary rumble strips was developed based on this analysis.

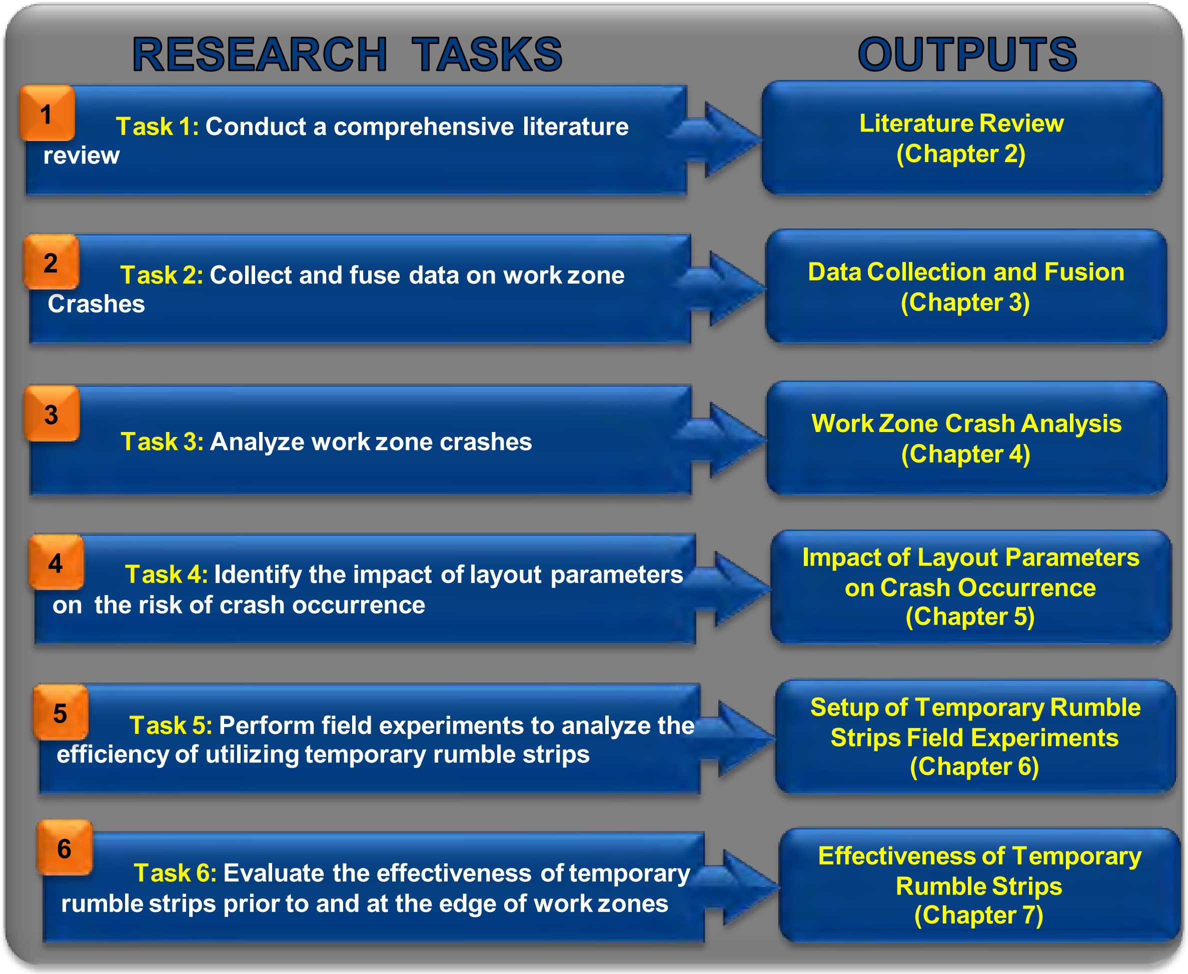


Figure 1.3. Research tasks and outputs.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

A comprehensive literature review was conducted to establish the baseline knowledge of existing research and practices of work zone characteristics and their effect on the frequency and severity of work zone crashes. Literature pertaining to research studies conducted by state departments of transportation (DOTs) and federal standards was also obtained. This chapter provides a summary of the collected information and organizes the literature review results in seven sections: (1) work zone layouts and strategies, (2) temporary traffic control devices and typical applications, (3) work zone parameters and transportation management plans, (4) nighttime work zones and merge techniques, (5) federal rules concerning work zone safety and mobility, (6) literature review of work zone crash studies, and (7) literature review of statistical methods applicable for analyzing work zone crashes.

2.2 WORK ZONE LAYOUTS

The layout of a work zone must provide a clear separation between travel and work activity spaces, and provide buffer spaces for protecting motorists and workers who unintentionally stray from their intended work areas (Bryden and Mace 2002). The work zone is divided into four areas: (1) advance warning, (2) transition, (3) activity, and (4) termination, as shown in Figure 2.1 (FHWA 2009c).

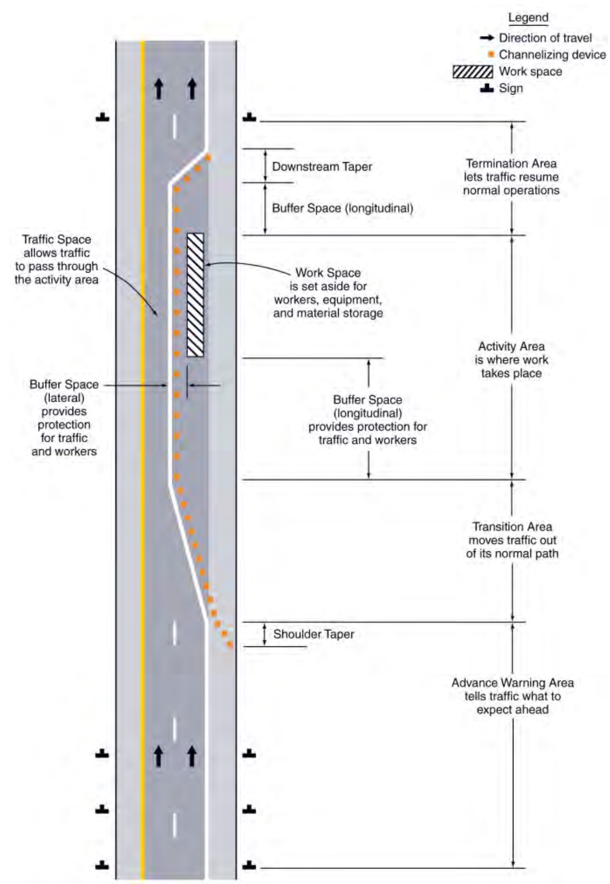


Figure 2.1. Major components of a temporary traffic control zone (FHWA 2009c).

2.2.1 Advance Warning Area

The advance warning area is the section of roadway where road users are informed about the upcoming work zone. Because two or more advance warning signs are regularly used, the advance warning area should extend 1,500 ft (450 m) or more for open highway conditions and may extend on freeways and expressways as far as 0.5 miles (800 m) or more (FHWA 2009c). The first warning sign in advance of the taper should be placed at a distance 8 to 12 times the speed limit in mph (1.5 to 2.25 times the speed limit in km/h) (FHWA 2009c).

2.2.2 Transition Area and Tapers

The transition area is the section of roadway where road users are redirected outside their normal path. Transition areas usually involve strategic use of tapers. Tapers are created by using a series of channelizing devices and, in some cases, pavement markings to move traffic from the normal path. Figure 2.2 illustrates different types of tapers. The appropriate taper length (L) is determined using Tables 2.1 and 2.2, and the maximum distance in feet (meters) between devices in a taper should not exceed 1.0 times the speed limit in mph (0.2 times the speed limit in km/h) (FHWA 2009c).

Table 2.1. Formulas for Determining Taper Length (FHWA 2009c)

Speed Limit (S)	Taper Length (L) Meters
60 km/h or less	L= $\frac{WS^2}{155}$
70 km/h or more	L = $\frac{WS}{1.6}$

Speed Limit (S)	Taper Length (L) Feet
40 mph or less	L= $\frac{WS^2}{60}$
45 mph or more	L = WS

L = taper length, W = width of offset, and S = posted speed limit

Table 2.2. Taper Length Criteria for Temporary Traffic Control Zone (FHWA 2009c)

Type of Taper	Taper Length (L)
Merging Taper	At least L
Shifting Taper	At least 0.5L
Shoulder Taper	At least 0.33L
One-Lane, Two-Way Traffic Taper	100 ft (30 m) maximum
Downstream Taper	100 ft (30 m) per lane

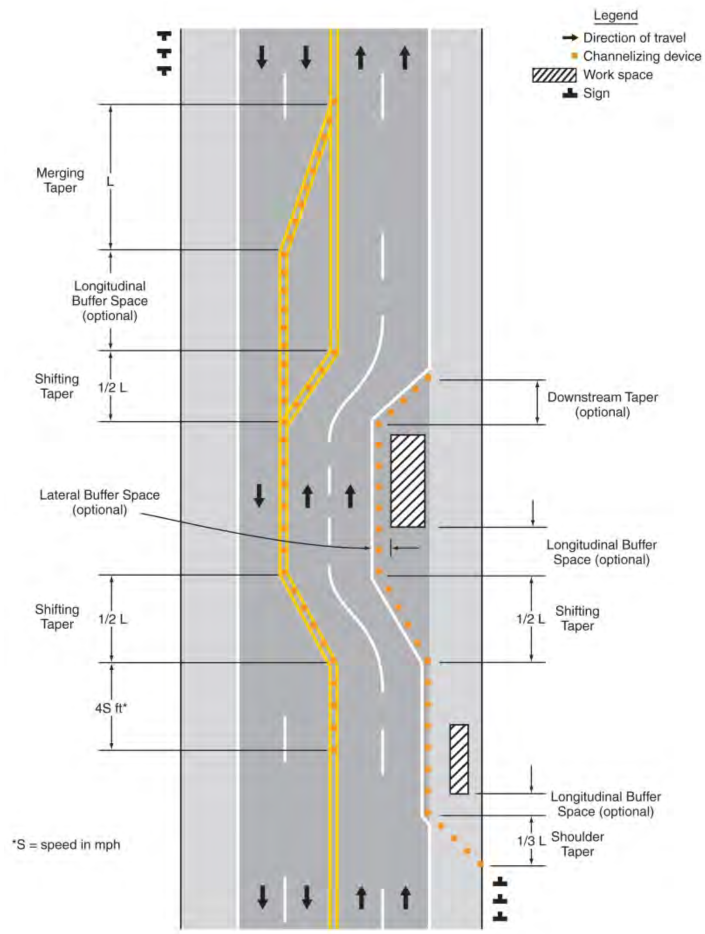


Figure 2.2. Different types of tapers and buffer spaces (FHWA 2009c).

2.2.3 Activity Area

The activity area is the section of the roadway where the work activities take place. It comprises the work space, the traffic space, and the buffer space. The work space could be stationary or mobile depending on the progress of work. Buffer spaces, as shown in Figure 2.1, are positioned longitudinally and laterally with respect to the direction of traffic flow. The allowable values of the longitudinal buffer length are determined based on the allowable stopping sight distance, which varies according to the design speed (FHWA 2009c).

2.2.4 Termination Area

The termination area is the section of the roadway that returns road users to their normal path. It extends from the downstream end of the work area to the last temporary traffic control (TTC) device. The termination area was found to have the lowest number of crashes in the work zone (Bai and Li 2006).

2.3 WORK ZONE STRATEGIES

A work zone strategy is developed to regulate traffic through or around the facility under construction via a system of infrastructure and a set of temporary traffic controls (Mahoney et al. 2007). Nine strategies are widely employed for construction work zones on highways, and are outlined in the transportation management plans (TMPs) for specific projects (IDOT 2002; Mahoney et al. 2007). These strategies include (1) alternating one-way operation, (2) detour, (3) diversion, (4) full road closure, (5) intermittent closure, (6) lane closure, (7) lane constriction, (8) median crossover, and (9) use of shoulder. Each of these nine strategies has its own characteristics and offers a unique set of advantages and disadvantages, as summarized in Table 2.3 (IDOT 2002; Mahoney et al. 2007). The selection process of a work zone strategy is governed by many factors, such as the number of lanes, geometric and structure design, highway and worker safety, accessibility, capacity and queues, constructability, and cost consequences (Mahoney et al. 2007).

Table 2.3. Summary of Work Zone Strategies: Advantages and Disadvantages (Mahoney et al. 2007)

Strategy	Summary	Advantages	Disadvantages
Alternating one-way operation	Mitigates for full or intermittent closure of lanes. Used primarily with two-lane facilities.	Low agency cost and low non-transportation impacts; flexible, several variations available.	Requires stopping of traffic; reduces capacity.
Detour	Reroutes traffic onto other existing facilities.	Flexible: cost varies depending on improvements to detour route; in some cases, only TTC needed.	Usually reduces capacity; service and infrastructure on existing roads may be degraded; may need agreement of another agency.
Diversion	Provides a temporary roadway adjacent to construction.	Separates traffic from construction: reduced impact on traffic.	Cost may be substantial, especially if temporary grade separation of hydraulic structure involved; right-of-way often required.
Full road closure	Closes the facility to traffic a specified (limited) duration.	Generally also involves expedited construction; separates traffic from construction.	Some form of mitigation is needed (detour, diversion, etc.); potentially significant traffic impacts.
Intermittent closure	Stops traffic for a short period.	Flexible and low agency cost.	Useful only for activities that can be completed in short time; requires stopping traffic.
Lane closure	Closes one or more travel lanes.	Maintains service; fairly low agency cost if temporary barriers are omitted.	Reduces capacity; may involve traffic close to active work.
Lane construction	Reduces traveled way width.	Maximizes number of travel lanes.	Traveled way width is less than desirable; may involve traffic close to active work.
Median crossover	Maintains two-way traffic on one roadway of a normally divided highway.	Separates traffic from construction; right-of-way not required.	Reduced capacity; not consistent with approach roadway; relatively costly; interchanges need special attention.
Use of shoulder	Uses shoulder as a travel lane.	Fairly low cost, depending on shoulder preparation.	Displaces tradtional refuge for disabled vehicles; debilitates shoulder pavement structure; cross slopes may be problematic.

2.4 TEMPORARY TRAFFIC CONTROL DEVICES AND TYPICAL APPLICATIONS

Traffic control devices are defined as all signs, signals, markings, and other devices used to regulate, warn, or guide traffic, placed on, over, or adjacent to a roadway (FHWA 2009c). The MUTCD manual includes ten parts; Part 6 focuses on all temporary traffic control (TTC) devices. When the regular function of the roadway is suspended, TTC planning provides movement continuity of motor vehicles and transit operations, and accessibility to property and utilities (FHWA 2009c). The manual identifies a number of factors that govern the TTC planning, including (1) type of highway, (2) road user conditions, (3) duration of operation, (4) physical constraints, and (5) proximity of the work space or incident management activity to road users.

The MUTCD manual provides guidance on the use and implementation of diverse types of devices. A partial list of these devices includes (1) temporary control signs, (2) arrow panels, (3) channelizing devices, (4) temporary raised pavement markers, (5) high-level working devices, (6) portable changeable message signs, (7) temporary traffic barriers, (8) delineators, (9) lighting devices, (10) crash cushions, (11) vehicle-arresting systems, (12) rumble strips, and (13) screens (FHWA 2009c). The implementation of TTC devices regularly follows agency guidelines for roadway safety, considering different factors such as traffic conditions, site conditions, traffic volume, and the cost effectiveness of candidate safety alternative devices (Wolff and Terry 2006).

The choice of TTC typical application needed for a construction site depends on the nature of the work (FHWA 2009c). The closer the work is to road users, the greater the number of TTC devices needed. Forty-six typical work zone applications are presented in the manual, with illustration of the signs required and detailed information about the order, location, and spacing of these signs. An example of a typical work zone application is the stationary lane closure on a divided highway, as shown in Figure 2.3 (FHWA 2009c). The distances A, B, and C for the typical applications are calculated using Table 2.4 (FHWA 2009c).

Table 2.4. Dimensions A, B, C Used on Typical Application Diagrams (FHWA 2009c)

Road Type	**Distance Between Signs**		
	A	**B**	**C**
Urban (low speed)	100 ft	100 ft	100 ft
Urban (high speed)	350 ft	350 ft	350 ft
Rural	500 ft	500 ft	500 ft
Expressway/Freeway	1,000 ft	1,500 ft	2,640 ft

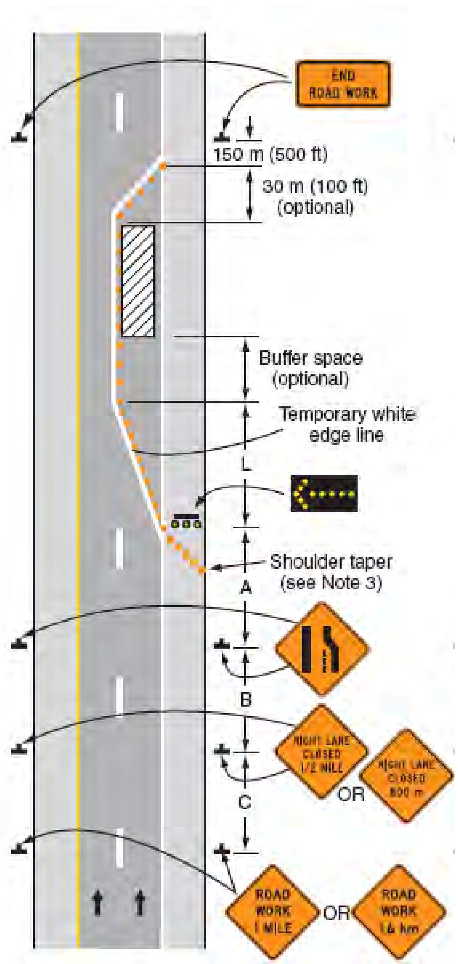


Figure 2.3. Stationary lane closure on divided highway (typical application 33) (FHWA 2009c).

2.5 WORK ZONE DESIGN PARAMETERS

The American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials (AASHTO), the Federal Highway Administration (FHWA), and state departments of transportation (DOTs) consider improving design practices of work zones a high priority that can directly enhance work zone safety and mobility (Mahoney et al. 2007). The fifth edition of the AASHTO Policy on Geometric Design of Highways and Streets "Green Book" contains the latest design practices for permanent highways and street facilities (AASHTO 2004). The AASHTO roadside design guide also provides current operating practices for roadside safety focusing on safety measures that can minimize the likelihood of serious injuries when a motorist runs off the roadway (AASHTO 2002). Neither AASHTO manual provides detailed guidance for design criteria of highway work zone geometries (Mahoney et al. 2007), and accordingly many state DOTs have developed work zone safety and mobility policies (IDOT 2002; TxDOT 2009; Caltrans 2006; FHWA 2009b).

A number of research studies investigated the impact of work zone design parameters on traffic safety and mobility (Hauer 2000). For example, the NCHRP Report 581 "Design of Construction Work Zones on High-Speed Highways," contains guidelines for the design of construction work zone geometric features, including horizontal and vertical alignment, cross-sectional features, and temporary concrete barrier placement (Mahoney et al. 2007). The study identified eight design principles that should guide work zone design decisions, namely (1) safety impact to account for the probability of crash occurrence, (2) design consistency to avoid unexpected geometric conditions, (3) priority of how drivers process information from various sources, (4) speed reduction measures, (5) work zone design speed, (6) sight distance, (7) forgiving roadside; and (8) risk exposure principles that increase the probability of a vehicle's departure including construction equipment and materials, edge drop-off, severe roadside slopes, concrete barriers, and excavations (Mahoney et al. 2007).

Another study investigated and generated guidelines to help transportation agencies develop and implement plans for night work that help increase the safety of motorists and workers while minimizing waste and other problems associated with nighttime construction (Bryden and Mace 2002). The guidelines (NCHRP Report 476) were designed to help users identify the minimum specification, setup, and maintenance of each nighttime work zone design element, including traffic control devices, barriers, lighting, and other safety features (Bryden and Mace 2002).

Other studies have identified a number of work zone design parameters that have a direct impact on work zone design decisions, including (1) roadway functional classification (interstate, expressway, and principal arterial), (2) area type (urban, suburban, and rural), (3) traffic demand and travel characteristics (lanes affected, average daily traffic, expected capacity reduction, and level of service), (4) type of work (new construction, reconstruction, rehabilitation, or maintenance), (5) complexity of work (duration, length, and intensity), (6) climate of the region, (7) level of traffic interference with construction activity, and (8) potential impacts on local network and businesses (Karim and Adeli 2003; FHWA 2009c; Scriba et al. 2005).

2.6 WORK ZONE TRANSPORTATION MANAGEMENT PLANS

Transportation management plans (TMPs) for road projects are required for all federal-aid highway projects to study work zone impacts (Scriba et al. 2005). A full TMP includes the following three components (IDOT 2007):

1. Traffic control plan (TCP): a plan of traffic control devices used for guiding traffic through a work zone, it is prepared for most construction and maintenance projects. This plan focuses on (1) work zone traffic control, (2) specific work zone strategy, (3) construction procedures, and (4) traffic demand on the facility under construction (Bryden and Mace 2002).
2. Public information plan (PIP): strategies to inform the public of the expected impacts of a work zone.
3. Transportation operation plan (TOP): strategies to mitigate work zone impacts.

2.7 NIGHTTIME WORK ZONES

Nighttime construction is recommended as a way to decrease the impact of construction operations on the traveling public and to shorten the duration of construction operations (Bryden and Mace 2002). Despite the advantages of nighttime construction, some studies indicated that it may create additional hazardous conditions for drivers and construction personnel (El-Rayes et al. 2003). Existing nighttime construction specifications recommend a minimum level of average illuminance and light uniformity in work areas to ensure adequate lighting for all planned nighttime construction tasks (Hyari and El-Rayes 2006; El-Rayes et al. 2007). A recent study identified associated nighttime problems, based on a survey of resident engineers' experience in Illinois (El-Rayes et al. 2003). The results of the survey indicated five nighttime lighting problems: (1) insufficient lighting, (2) lack of lighting uniformity of the work area, (3) glare experienced by drive-by motorists next to the construction zone, (4) glare experienced by workers, and (5) light trespass (El-Rayes et al. 2003). DOT officials in various states classified glare for road users as the number one lighting problem, while contractors classified glare for workers as their most serious problem (El-Rayes et al. 2003). To control lighting problems in nighttime work zones, advanced lighting equipment and supplemental hardware can be used to minimize or mitigate the impact on construction workers and the traveling public in the work zone (El-Rayes et al. 2007). New lighting technologies such as balloon lights are now available to help reduce glare and other nighttime lighting problems (El-Rayes et al. 2007).

2.8 MERGE TECHNIQUES AND QUEUE DETECTION SYSTEMS IN WORK ZONES

For work zones that require lane closures, drivers need to be advised by advance lane closure signs placed on both sides of the roadway one-half mile in advance of the taper (FHWA 2009c). Additionally, lane reduction symbol signs are placed on both sides of the roadway, and a flashing arrow panel is usually placed at the beginning of the taper. This temporary traffic control (TTC) plan works well during most hours of the day when traffic demand is less than the capacity of the open lane. However, when the demand surpasses the open lane capacity, congestion develops and problems occur (Yulong and Leilei 2007). When the congestion extends upstream beyond the advance lane closure signs, the potential for work zone rear-end accidents increases (McCoy and Pesti 2001). To deal with this safety problem, several alternative lane merge strategies have been developed in recent years to better control traffic at work zone lane closures. Two basic merging approaches have been considered by many state DOTs for directing drivers into the open lane: early lane merge and late lane merge (McCoy and Pesti 2001). The early lane merge directs drivers to merge into the open lane sooner than the regular merge. The late lane merge directs drivers to remain in their lanes until they reach the merge point at the lane closure taper. Many research studies have investigated new lane merge strategies such as “smart” lane merge to determine the improvement on safety and efficiency of the merging operations in advance of work zone lane closures (McCoy and Pesti 2001; Beacher et al. 2004). The “smart” lane merge is a strategy for detecting congestion and providing real-time advisory information to motorists, directing them to divert to an alternate lane or different route.

Recent advances in the use of intelligent transportation systems (ITS) and their applications in temporary work zones are providing new tools that can be used for developing smart lane merge to effectively manage queue congestion in and around work zones. Innovative and smart queue detection systems include adaptive queue-warning devices (Wiles et al. 2003) and dynamic message signs that are trailer mounted or portable. The adaptive queue-warning system is a distributed system that can automatically adapt to the current traffic-flow situation within and upstream of the work zone. It is equipped with an inexpensive but accurate speed sensor, a simple and adjustable signaling system, and equipment for communication to a central controller (Sullivan et al. 2005). A recent study of ITS device implementation in highway work zones showed that drivers found the adaptive systems more helpful than static road signs, which could potentially increase driver alertness and reduce work zone rear-end collisions (Sullivan et al. 2005). Dynamic warning message signs (DMS) are traffic control devices consisting of sensors that are activated when hazardous roadway, environmental, or operational conditions are detected by the sensors (Pesti et al. 2007). These signs can be used as an end-of-queue device that warns motorists against work zone hazards (Sisiopiku and Elliott 2005).

Computer simulation programs can also be used to determine the freeway work zone capacity and to estimate motorist queue delays associated with TMP alternatives (Jiang and Adeli 2004). Motorist delay costs may be very expensive and may exceed maintenance expenditures by highway administrators (Chien and Schonfeld 2001). Computer models such as QUEWZ (Queue and User Cost Evaluation of Work Zones) and Quick Zone are being used to assist highway agencies create effective TMPs by estimating the impact of work zone queue lengths and associated traveler delay. QUEWZ can be used to estimate travelers' queues based on empirical speed-flow-density relationships. Quick Zone is based on deterministic queuing models that estimate the hourly delay considering the time of the day and seasonal variation (Karim and Adeli 2003).

However, most of these computer models estimate traveler queues independent of the work zone characteristics such as work zone layout, work zone intensity, and work zone capacity. For example, Quick Zone does not yield accurate estimates of queue length delays if the input traffic volumes are less than the capacity of the interval, even though congestion and delay are anticipated in a part of the interval (Benekohal et al. 2010). To overcome this limitation, a recent study was performed using Illinois work zone field data to develop speed-flow curves for different work zone strategies at different speed limits (Benekohal et al. 2010). These newly developed speed-flow curves can be used to accurately calculate the length of moving queues and better estimate user delay costs (Benekohal et al. 2010). Jiang and Adeli (2004) developed a computer model for freeway work zone capacity and queue delay and length estimation that considered work zone characteristics such as (1) percentage of trucks; (2) pavement grade; (3) number of lanes and closed lanes; (4) lane width; (5) work zone layout and intensity; (6) work zone speed, duration, time, and day; and (7) weather, pavement, and driver conditions.

2.9 FEDERAL RULES ON WORK ZONE SAFETY AND MOBILITY

Work zone safety continues to be a priority and major concern for the Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) as well as all state departments of transportation (DOTs) (FHWA 2009b; IDOT 2007). The FHWA is actively improving work zone safety and mobility through new regulations, better engineering, education, enforcement, and communication with concerned public safety agencies (FHWA 2009b). On September 9, 2004, the FHWA updated work zone regulations in 23 CFR 630 Subpart J under the Work Zone Safety and Mobility Rule that affect all state projects as well as federally funded local highway projects starting on October 12, 2007 (Scriba et al. 2005). The main goal of the updated rule is to reduce work zone crashes and congestion at three main implementation levels: (1) policy level by developing general work zone policies that suit state transportation agencies, (2) process level by developing agency work zone processes and procedures, and (3) project level by identifying significant project requirements and developing appropriate transportation management plans (TMPs) to manage these requirements (Scriba et al. 2005). For each of these three implementation levels, the rule includes provisions and guidance to assist transportation agencies in addressing work zone considerations from early in the planning stage and progressing through project design, implementation, and performance assessment (FHWA 2009b).

The FHWA has also developed the National Highway Work Zone Safety Program (NHWZSP) to reduce fatal and injury crashes in work zones in order to enhance traffic mobility and safety within work zones (FHWA 2009a). This program is designed to review the standards of traffic control devices, operational features, traffic control plans, and contract specifications to identify and improve work zone management practices. The program consists of four main components: (1) standardization, (2) compliance, (3) evaluation, and (4) implementation (FHWA 2009a). The National Work Zone Safety

Information Clearinghouse (NWZSIC) can also be used to retrieve and analyze data on work zone crashes, statistics, laws and regulations, news and events, research, safety products, standards and practices, and training programs (FHWA 2009a). The following section highlights a collection of work zone policies adopted by five state DOTs to comply with the federal Work Zone and Mobility Rule.

2.10 STATE DEPARTMENTS OF TRANSPORTATION WORK ZONE RULES

Several state DOTs have developed special policies to comply with the federal Work Zone Safety and Mobility Rule. This section provides a brief review of a number of basic features of the existing policies in five states: Illinois, Texas, Florida, California, and Ohio.

2.10.1 Illinois

The IDOT Bureau of Design and Environment publishes and maintains a manual that establishes uniform policies and procedures for the location, design, and environmental evaluation of highway construction projects on the state highway system (IDOT 2002). The Illinois Work Zone Safety and Mobility Rule SAFETY 3-07 memo (IDOT 2007) has identified work zone safety as a priority area and seeks to provide a high level of safety for motorists and construction workers. The plan outlines IDOT guidelines to comply with the FHWA Work Zone Safety and Mobility Rule. The main safety goal of this plan is to reduce fatalities on Illinois roads to zero in the long term. To achieve this goal, IDOT has developed significant route location maps and work zone safety and mobility process flow charts, as shown in Figure 2.4 (IDOT 2007). First, the work zone significance is determined using the significant route location maps that classify routes into three categories: (1) non-significant, (2) significant, short term (fewer than 3 days), and (3) significant, long term. The work zone safety and mobility process flow chart sets forth the necessary steps to implement the federal Work Zone Safety and Mobility Rule.

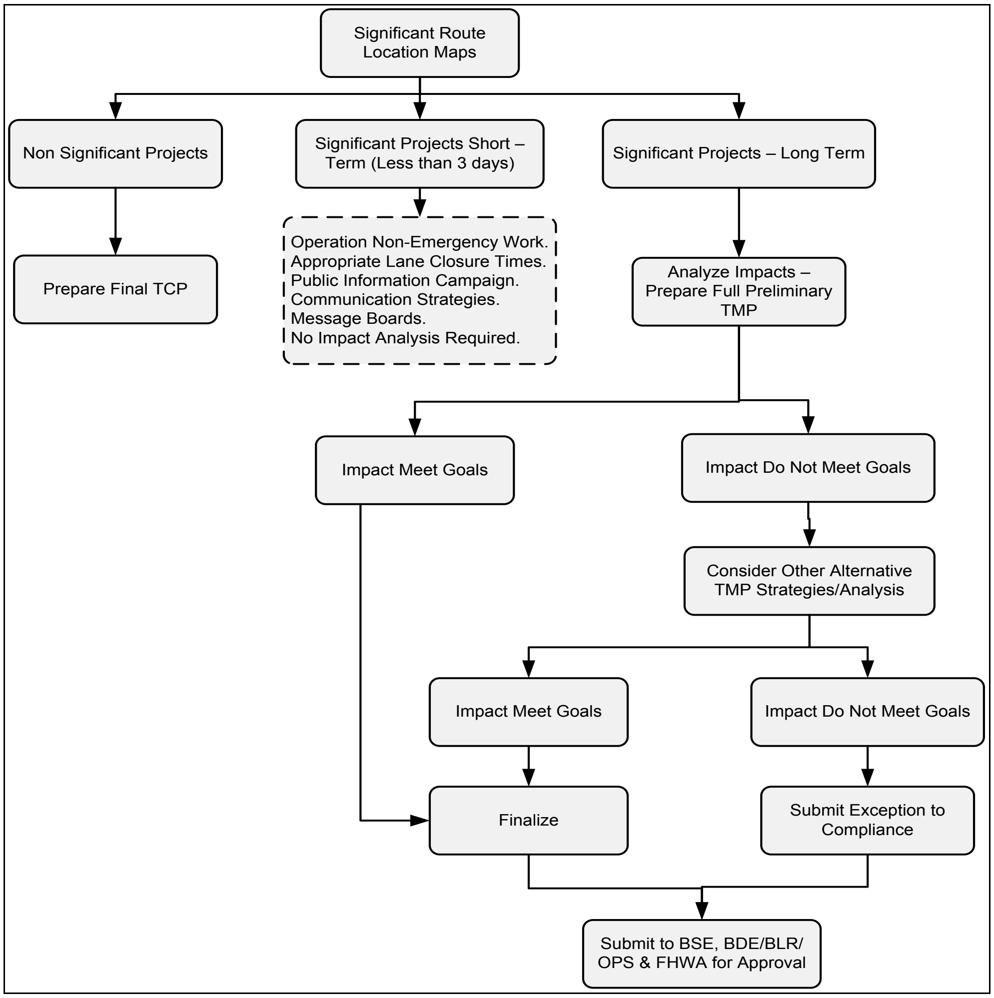


Figure 2.4. Work zone safety and mobility process flow chart (IDOT 2007).

For significant long-term projects, impact analysis is required to determine the greater impact that work zones may cause to traffic (FHWA 2009b). The impact analysis should involve the safety and mobility impacts of the construction/maintenance project using hourly volume maps, district knowledge and experience, site reviews, and computer simulation programs such as QUEWZ, TSIS-CORSIM, and Quick Zone (IDOT 2007). To address the expected impacts, TMP strategies are developed, and the resulting impacts of delays and queuing are evaluated.

The Illinois Work Zone Safety and Mobility Rule SAFETY 3-07 memo (IDOT 2007) also seeks to assess and improve the safety of work zones by requiring the submission of a detailed work zone crash summary report for any fatal work zone crash within 10 days to the Bureau of Safety Engineering. This report analyzes the crash and includes the following information: (1) summary of the type of construction, (2) description of the traffic control in place at the time of crash, (3) description of the traffic conditions at the time of the crash, (4) description of the contractor’s operations at the time of the crash, (5) description of the weather conditions, (6) pavement conditions and time of day, (7) description of changes made to the traffic control as a result of the crash, (8) recommendations for change to IDOT standards, and (9) photos of the traffic control throughout the project before and after the crash (IDOT 2007).

2.10.2 Texas

The Texas Department of Transportation (TxDOT) produced a project development process manual for work zones that includes details of major steps involved in a transportation project starting from the phase of identifying project needs through the construction and implementation phase (TxDOT 2009). The manual provides guidance on the use of accelerated construction strategies to expedite project delivery and construction completion. To achieve this acceleration goal, contractors and designers are required to perform a thorough analysis for the construction time using new contracting strategies that emphasize timely completion (TxDOT 2009).

2.10.3 Florida

The Florida Department of Transportation (FDOT) provides procedures, training, and awareness programs that foster safe work practices and workplaces for road projects on interstate highways for motorists and construction workers (FDOT 2009). One of the distinctive aspects of FDOT policies relates to lane closure for roadway projects on interstate highways—the agency requires that work zone design plans maintain the existing number of lanes throughout the various work phases (FHWA 2009b). This means that no lane closures strategies are permitted on any interstate construction work zone where only two travel lanes exist. The implementation of this policy resulted in reduced driver delay and frustration and therefore better public relations (FHWA 2009b).

2.10.4 California

The California Department of Transportation (Caltrans) uses a standard specification manual that contains several chapters including general provisions, grading, sub-bases and bases, surfacing and pavements, structures, drainage facilities, right-of-way, and traffic control facilities and materials (FHWA 2009b). In addition, a chapter on miscellaneous provisions contains traffic-related work zone standards about use of temporary traffic control devices such as barricades, flashing arrow signs, portable delineators, portable flashing beacons, and construction area signs. The Caltrans standards require that all temporary traffic control devices conform to MUTCD provisions and the MUTCD California Supplement (Caltrans 2006). Caltrans has also developed specific criteria for identifying significant projects based on traffic impact when delays are 30 minutes more than normal recurring traffic delays on the existing facility or above the delay limit set by the district resident traffic engineer (Scriba et al. 2005).

2.10.5 Ohio

The Ohio Department of Transportation (ODOT) uses the Ohio Manual of Uniform Traffic Control Devices (OMUTCD), which includes a description of the standard traffic control devices used in work areas and traffic incident management areas, guidelines for the application of the devices, and typical application diagrams (ODOT 2003). The ODOT manual lists eight major traffic control considerations that impact any transportation management plan of a work zone: (1) time, (2) location, (3) type, (4) speed, (5) traffic volume, (6) nature of traffic, (7) law enforcement agencies, and (8) temporary traffic control signs.

2.11 REPORTING OF WORK ZONE CRASHES

Work zones create conflicts between construction activities and traffic, which often cause hazardous conditions for motorists and construction workers, resulting in high number of crashes. Work zone crashes are defined as crashes that occur in the terrain of a work zone, whether it is a construction, maintenance, or utility work zone, including any crashes that occur within an area marked by signs, barricades, or other work zone signs (FHWA 2009c). A number of research studies were conducted to investigate the characteristics of work zone crashes in many states (Daniel et al. 2000; Garber and Zhao 2002; Harb et al. 2008; Mohan and Zech 2005). This section summarizes the findings of six major studies that analyzed work zone crashes in Florida, Kansas, Georgia, Virginia, Illinois, and New York, as shown in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5. Work Zone Crash Research Studies

Researcher(s)	Study Subject	Crash Classification (Category and Variables)		Contributing Factors (Category and Variables)	State
Raub et al. (2001)	Traffic Control Systems in Construction Work Zones	Crash Severity	• Fatal • Injury • Property Damage Only (PDO)	**Time Information:** Time, Day **Climatic Environment:** Light, Weather, Surface **Driver Condition:** Vision **Vehicle Type:** Passenger Car, Pickup **Crash Events:** At-Fault Driver Action	Illinois
		Number of Vehicles	• Single-Vehicle • Multi-Vehicle		
		Collision Manner	• Rear End • Fixed Object in Road • Angle • Sideswipe		
Harb et al. (2008)	Freeway Work-Zone Crash Analysis and Risk Identification Using Multiple and Conditional Logistic Regression	Work Zone	• Work Zone • Non-Work Zone	• **Driver**: Age, Gender Driving Under the Influence, Residence Code • **Vehicle**: Speed, Vehicle Speed • **Environment**: Speed Limit, Road Surface Condition, Rural/Urban, Road Characteristics, Event Location, Weather, Lighting Condition, Number of Lanes	Florida
		Number of Vehicles	• Single-Vehicle • Multi-Vehicle		
Bai and Li (2006)	Comparison of Characteristics between Fatal and Injury Crashes in Highway Construction Zones	Crash Information	• Vehicle Maneuver • Crash Severity • Crash Type • Vehicle Type • No. of Vehicles	• **Driver**: Age, Gender • **Time Information:** Time, Day, Month, Year • **Climatic Environment**: Light, Weather, Surface • **Road**: Class, Character, Number of Lanes, Speed, Crash Location, TCD, Terrain • **Human**: Alcohol, Fall Asleep, Follow Too Close, Failed to Yield	Kansas

Table 2.5 (continued). Work Zone Crash Research Studies

Researcher(s)	Study Subject	Crash Classification (Category and Variables)		Contributing Factors (Category and Variables)	State
Garber and Zhao (2002)	Distribution and Characteristics of Crashes at Different Work Zone Locations in Virginia	Crash Severity	• Fatal • Injury • Property Damage Only (PDO)	**Highway Type:** Urban Interstate Rural Interstate Urban Primary Rural Primary	Virginia
		Collision Manner	• Rear end • Fixed Object in Road • Angle • Sideswipe • Fixed Object Off the Road		
		Work Zone Area	• Advance Warning • Transition • Longitudinal Buffer • Activity • Termination		
Daniel et al. (2000)	Analysis of Fatal Crashes in Georgia Work Zones	Work Zone	• Work Zone • Non-Work Zone	**Roadway Functional Classification:** Rural Principal Arterial – Interstate Rural Principal Arterial – Other Rural Minor Arterial Rural Major Collector Urban Principal Arterial – Interstate Roadway Characteristics: Profile, Alignment Other: Truck Percentage, Lighting Conditions	Georgia
		Work Zone Activity	• Idle Work Zone • Active Work Zone		
		Collision Manner	• Rear End • Angle • Sideswipe • Other		
Mohan and Zech (2005)	Characteristics of Worker Accidents on NYSDOT Construction Projects	Crash Severity	• Fatal • Severe Injury	**Traffic-Related Accidents**: Work space intrusion, worker struck by vehicle inside work space, flagger struck by vehicle, worker struck by vehicle entering/exiting work space, construction equipment struck by vehicle inside work space.	New York

2.11.1 Illinois

Raub et al. (2001) studied 7,749 work zone crashes in 1994 and 6,206 crashes in 1995 that the State of Illinois coded as work zone crashes. The analysis examined similarities and differences in crashes between these two years and between work zone and non-work zone crashes to identify contributing factors. The main findings of this study including the following: (1) rear-end crashes were the most common type of collision for vehicles within work zones and involved more than two vehicles, (2) the main contributing human factor was driving too fast for conditions, (3) work zone crashes were more likely to result in an injury, (4) 83% of work zone crashes occurred in clear weather and 70% during the daylight hours when the road was dry, and (5) most of the vehicles involved in work zone crashes were passenger vehicles. Moreover, the report compared the crash data in Illinois to seven other states and showed that Illinois had more rear-end collisions, more angle collisions, and fewer crashes related to sideswipes and fixed objects. The study reported that the discrepancies in police crash reports covering work zone characteristics negatively affected the accuracy of the study results.

2.11.2 Florida

One of the more recent studies was conducted by Harb et al. (2008), which focused on the analysis of work zone crashes in Florida. The objective of this research was to conduct a statistical analysis to study the impact of a number of factors on work zone crashes, including driver-related factors, types of vehicles, and work zone features. The authors employed the Florida Crash Records Database for the years 2002, 2003, and 2004 for their study. The study evaluated freeway single-vehicle and two-vehicle crashes in work zones. For the single-vehicle crash analysis, the most significant contributing factors were (1) vehicle type (passenger car, SUV), (2) truck and large truck involvement, (3) roadway geometry (straight, upgrade/downgrade), and (4) lighting conditions. As for the multi-vehicle crash analysis, the most significant contributing factors were (1) driver age, gender, and resident code; (2) driving under the influence of narcotics/alcohol; and (3) geometry and lighting conditions.

2.11.3 Kansas

The characteristics of fatal and injury accidents in Kansas construction zones were investigated by Bai and Li (2006). The authors of this study analyzed 157 fatal crashes that occurred in Kansas between 1992 and 2004. The crash data were collected from the Kansas DOT accident database and combined with the original accident reports. The Kansas DOT's database was used to identify the responsible drivers/vehicles for each fatal crash studied, then the original accident report was used for adding detailed crash descriptions. The crash frequency distribution resulted in the following main findings: (1) inattentive driving and misjudgment/disregarded traffic controls were the two most frequent human errors for all age groups under varying light conditions, (2) work zones on two-lane highways in rural areas had the highest fatal crash frequencies, and (3) most single-vehicle crashes occurred during nighttime.

In another study performed by Li and Bai (2009) to determine whether there were any potential characteristic differences between fatal and injury crashes in Kansas, five main characteristics were studied: driver at fault, crash time, location, type, and causal factors. The comparative analysis resulted in the following findings: (1) rear-end was the dominant type of injury crashes, while head-on was the dominant type of fatal crashes; (2) the majority of the injury crashes occurred on straight and level highways when light conditions were favorable; and (3) the majority of fatal crashes occurred in complicated road geometrics when unfavorable light conditions existed.

2.11.4 Virginia

A clear understanding of work zone crash characteristics helps identify appropriate countermeasures to reduce work zone hazards. Garber and Zhao (2002) investigated the characteristics of 1,484 work zone crashes that occurred in Virginia from 1996 through 1999. The main findings of this study were that (1) the activity area was the most prevalent crash location in a work zone (70%), (2) property damage only (PDO) was the most prevalent severity type, and (3) rear-end crashes were the predominant collision type.

2.11.5 Georgia

Fatal crashes occur more frequently in construction work zones than in maintenance work zones. Daniel et al. (2000) examined the difference between fatal crash activity within work zones compared with fatal crashes in non-work zone locations. The analysis used the data of a previous study performed by Georgia DOT that identified the manner of collision, location, and construction activity associated with fatal crashes in work zones. In addition, the research study investigated the influence of work zone activity on the frequency of fatal crashes. The main conclusions of this study are as follows:

- Work activity had no impact on work zone crashes.
- High proportions of work zone crashes were rear-end crashes.
- Percentage of trucks was a significant contributing factor.
- Most work zone crashes occurred on rural principal roadways.
- Roadway geometry did not influence fatal crashes in work zones.
- The primary human factors of work zone crashes were driver lost control, failed to yield, and drove too fast for conditions.
- Fatal crashes were correlated with lighting conditions.

2.11.6 New York

Mohan and Zech (2005) studied worker accidents in New York State Department of Transportation (NYSDOT) construction projects. The goal of their study was to provide cost-effective safety measures to protect construction workers in highway work zones. The study analyzed work zone crashes involving 36 fatalities and 3,055 severe injuries to construction workers from 1990 to 2001 in the state of New York and classified work zone crashes into two major types: construction work-area accidents and traffic crashes involving construction workers. The detailed analysis of the traffic-related crashes revealed that work space intrusions are the most fatal, representing 35.7% of all fatal traffic crashes involving construction workers. The researchers recommended that highway authorities and contractors invest more in worker protection to reduce the number of traffic-related crashes.

2.12 ANALYSIS OF WORK ZONE CRASHES

This section presents descriptions of three statistical methods that have been applied in previous studies to analyze work zone crashes. They are used to find patterns and relationships to identify factors contributing to work zone crashes. These statistical methods are (1) multiple logistic regression, (2) binary logistic regression, and (3) proportionality tests.

2.12.1 Multiple Logistic Regression

Logistic regression is an alternative method to classical regression techniques that can be applied to a large family of parametric distributions, involving both discrete and continuous variables (Harb et al. 2008). Logistic regression can be classified as multiple logistic regression and binary logistic regression. Harb et al. (2008) used multiple logistic regression along with stratified sampling to analyze work zone freeway crash characteristics. The State of Florida crash database during the years 2002 to 2004 was used for this study. The main objective of that study was to identify the characteristics and risk factors (driver, environment, and vehicles) that impact single- and multiple-vehicle crashes on highway work zones. The multiple logistic regression analysis was used to model and compare work zone with non-work zone crashes for single-vehicle crashes and for two-vehicle at-fault-driver crashes. The SAS procedure known as LOGISTIC was used for developing the model, and 14 variables were identified using the relative accident involvement ratios (RAIR) as follows:

$$RAIR_i = \frac{\frac{D1i}{\sum D1i}}{\frac{D2i}{\sum D2i}} \quad (2.1)$$

where

$RAIR_i$ = relative accident involvement ratio for type i drivers/vehicles/environment
$D1i$ = number of at-fault drivers of type i in work zone crashes
$D2i$ = number of at-fault drivers in non-work zone crashes

2.12.2 Binary Logistic Regression

Binary logistic regression analysis is a statistical technique for describing the relationships between a set of independent explanatory variables and a response variable or outcome (Bai and Li 2006). The regression technique is a suitable method for analyzing traffic crashes that involve establishing a relationship between the occurrence of a crash and various contributing factors. Bai and Li (2006) applied binary logistic regression analysis to investigate the characteristics of fatal crashes in Kansas. The regression analysis was used to quantify the effectiveness of two commonly used work zone traffic control devices, flagger and stop sign. The logistic models for using the flagger and stop sign are shown in Equations (2.2) and (2.3), respectively. The outcome of this study revealed that the presence of flagger control in work zones can reduce the probability of male drivers causing fatal crashes by 15% and that the use of stop signs can reduce multi-vehicle fatal crashes and lower the conditional probability of fatal crashes involving multiple vehicles by 13%.

$$logit\{Y = 0\backslash X\} = 1.86 - 0.91X \quad (2.2)$$
$$logit\{Y = 0\backslash X\} = 1.33 - 0.68X \quad (2.3)$$

where the response variable *Y* was assigned binary values 0 and 1 to denote single-vehicle crashes and multi-vehicle crashes, respectively. The explanatory variable *X* is the presence of a flagger or stop sign/signal (1 for presence and 0 for no presence).

2.12.3 Proportionality Tests

Garber and Zhao (2002) used proportionality tests to analyze work zone crashes that occurred in Virginia from 1996 through 1999. Percentage distributions were determined for each crash based on the crash locations, crash severities, and collision types. Proportionality tests were performed to determine the significance of these distributions using the test statistic Z value, which is calculated as shown in Equations (2.4) through (2.7).

$$Z = \frac{P1 - P2}{\sqrt{P(1-P)\left[\left(\frac{1}{n1}\right)+\left(\frac{1}{n2}\right)\right]}} \quad (2.4)$$

$$P1 = \frac{Y1}{n1} \quad (2.5)$$

$$P2 = \frac{Y2}{n2} \quad (2.6)$$

$$P = \frac{Y1+Y2}{n1+n2} \quad (2.7)$$

where

P1, P2 = two proportions to be compared
P = pooled estimate
n1, n2 = population sample sizes
Y1, Y2 = number of successes for populations 1 and 2. The null hypothesis $\mathrm{H0}$: P1 = P2 was tested against that of $\mathrm{H1}$: P1 > P2. The null hypothesis was rejected and $\mathrm{H1}$ was accepted if the calculated Z statistic > Z (at 5% significance level)

The aforementioned research studies of work zone crashes examined fatal, injury, and property damage crashes to identify factors contributing to unsafe conditions caused by work zones. The most frequently cited factors contributing to work zone crashes based on previous research studies are summarized in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6. Classification and Contributing Factors for Work Zone Crashes

Crash Classification		**Contributing Factors**	
Category	**Variables**	**Category**	**Variables**
Work Zone	Work Zone	**Driver**	Age
	Non-Work Zone		Gender
Driver's Fault	At-Fault Driver		Driving Under the Influence
	Not At-Fault Driver		Residence Code
Number of Vehicles	Single-Vehicle	**Vehicle**	Speed
	Multi-Vehicle		Vehicle Type
Collision Manner	Head-On	**Environment**	Event Location
	Rear-End		Weather
	Fixed Object		Lighting Condition
	Angle		Number of Lanes
	Sideswipe	**Roadway**	Road Surface Condition
Crash Severity	Fatal		Rural/Urban
	Injury		Road Profile/Alignment
	PDO		Road Class, Character
Work Zone Area	Advance Warning		Number of Lanes
	Transition		Speed Limit
	Longitudinal Buffer		Crash Location
	Activity		Surface Type
	Termination	**Timeline**	Time, Day, Year
		Traffic Control	Traffic Control Devices
			Traffic Control Plan
			Work Zone Layout

2.13 ANALYSIS OF ROADWAY CRASHES

Many studies have been performed in the past few decades to investigate the effects of various highway designs on safety. The investigated highway design elements included cross-section design, horizontal alignment, vertical alignment, roadside features, and pavement conditions (Hadi et al. 1995). Previous studies indicated that improvements to these design elements could produce significant reduction in the number of crashes (Bonneson et al. 2006; Harwood et al. 2000; Hong et al. 2005). Many research studies quantified the effect of highway design elements on total crash rates for various types of roadways using accident prediction models (Krammes and Hayden 2003). Several statistical methods were applied to develop these accident prediction models. Generalized linear modeling and tree-based regression are two such methods and are explained in the following sections.

2.13.1 Generalized Linear Modeling

Generalized linear modeling is an extension of the linear modeling process that allows models to be fit to data that follow probability distributions such as Poisson and binomial distributions (McCullagh and Nelder 1989). A number of models for predicting highway crashes were developed using generalized linear modeling, including three that were based on crash datasets from California, Texas, and Canada.

2.13.1.1 California

Jonsson et al. (2007) studied roadway crashes by modeling different types of crashes and intersections on rural four-lane highways in California. Four crash types were studied: opposite-direction, same-direction, intersecting-direction, and single-vehicle crashes. Two types of intersections were also studied: T-intersection and four-leg intersection. Data were collected from the Highway Safety Information System (HSIS) regarding intersection design, traffic volumes, number of accidents, and the vehicles involved. The different models for predicting the number of crashes per crash type were developed using generalized linear modeling and the GENMOD procedure in the statistical software SAS with the assumption that the number of crashes followed a negative binomial distribution (SAS 2004). Three different models were developed for each type of crash and intersection: (1) basic model where the annual average daily traffic (AADT) was the only single variable considered, (2) multi-variable model that included all significant variables except the AADT, and (3) full model with all variables including the AADT. The authors used two forms for each of the three models as shown in Equations (2.8) and (2.9). The development of the multi-variable models was performed by adding one variable at a time and choosing the variable that performed best. The study results showed that (1) the terrain variable was found to be a good predictor variable for single-vehicle crashes, (2) single-vehicle crashes had a practically linear relationship with the total number of entering vehicles in the intersection, and (3) opposite- and same-direction crashes mostly are related to major traffic flow.

$$N_{Acc} = AADT_{major}^{\beta 1} \times AADT_{minor}^{\beta 2} \times e^{\beta 0+ \beta 3 \times x3+ \beta 4 \times x4+\cdots\ldots\ldots+ \beta n \times xn} \quad (2.8)$$

$$N_{Acc} = \left(AADT_{major} + AADT_{minor}\right)^{\beta 1} \times e^{\beta 0+ \beta 2 \times x2+ \beta 3 \times x3+\cdots\ldots\ldots+ \beta n \times xn} \quad (2.9)$$

where

N_{Acc}	=	predicted number of crashes per year and intersections
$AADT_{major}$	=	traffic flow on major road
$AADT_{minor}$	=	traffic flow on minor road
β_i	=	model parameters
x_i	=	variables describing intersections

2.13.1.2 Texas

Bonneson and Zimmerman (2007) described a procedure for using accident modification factors in the highway design process to evaluate the safety benefits associated with alternative geometric designs. This procedure consisted of six steps and should be repeated for each design alternative being considered to determine the safety outcome benefit of each alternative. The six steps are (1) identify roadway section, (2) divide section into separate facility elements, (3) gather data for subject element, (4) compute expected crash frequency, (5) repeat steps 3 and 4 for all roadway sections, and (6) cumulate all results for roadway section. The crash data for 567 roadway segments were analyzed and the Generalized Modeling (GENMOD) procedure in SAS was used to automate the regression analysis (SAS 2004). The analysis resulted in a number of crash prediction models for different road types. The expected crash frequency was computed using a safety prediction model that consisted of a base model adjusted using various accident modification factors (AMFs) to tailor the resulting estimate to a specific highway segment. The basic form of the safety prediction model is given in Equations (2.10) and (2.11).

$$E[N] = E[N]_b \times AMF_1 \times AMF_2 \dots\dots\dots\dots\dots \times AMF_n \quad (2.10)$$
$$AMF = 1 - CRF \quad (CRF\text{: crash reduction factor}) \quad (2.11)$$

where
$E[N]$ = expected crash frequency in crashes/year
$E[N]_b$ = expected base crash frequency in crashes/year
AMF_i = accident modification factor for geometry or traffic control variable i

The expected base crash frequency model $E[N]_b$ depends on traffic volume and segment length L as shown in Equation (2.12) for frontage roads (Bonneson et al. 2007). The AMF for frontage roads depends on the average lane width as shown in Equation (2.13).

$$E[N]_b = 0.00134\, ADT^{0.641}\, L \quad (2.12)$$
$$AMF_{LW} = e^{-0.188(Wl-12.0)} \quad (2.13)$$

where
AMF_{LW} = lane width accident modification factor
Wl = average lane width

2.13.1.3 Canada

Sawalha and Sayed (2001) developed an accident prediction model for estimating the safety performance of urban arterial roadways in the Greater Vancouver Regional District in British Columbia, Canada. The traffic- and road-related variables included in their analysis were section length, traffic volume, unsignalized intersection density, driveway density, pedestrian crosswalk density, number of traffic lanes, type of median, and type of land use. The study made use of sample accident, traffic volume, and geometric data representing 58 arterials in the British Columbia cities of Vancouver and Richmond through the years 1994–1996. Geometric data representing the previous variables were directly collected from the field. The generalized linear modeling approach (GLIM) was used for data analysis and led to the development of the accident frequency model shown in Equation (2.14).

$$E(\Delta) = e_0 \times L^{a_1} \times V^{a_2} \times \exp \sum_{j=1}^{m} b_j\, x_j \quad (2.14)$$

where

$E(\Delta)$ = predicted accident frequency
L = segment length
V = segment annual average daily traffic
x_j = any of m variables additional to L and V
$e_o,\ a_{1,}\ a_2,\ b_j$ = model parameters

The estimation of the model parameters was performed using GLIM, and the error structure was calculated by applying both the Poisson and negative binomial error structures. The basic model expressed the relationship between accident occurrence and the two exposure factors (segment length and AADT). The rest of the variables were added to the basic model one by one in a forward procedure, then outlier analysis was performed for the initial model.

2.13.2 Tree-Based Regression

Hierarchical tree-based regression (HTBR) is a statistical method that can be applied to generate logical models for a number of datasets. The methodology is used for predicting highway crashes by simulating the dataset into a tree-based diagram where the tree starts with one parent node that can split into exactly two child nodes, and each node can split to zero, one, or two more child nodes. Nodes are specified on the basis of the deviation from the sample, and the splitting value is chosen so that the deviance in each of the two child nodes is minimized. HTBR proves to be more effective in handling missing information by treating a missing independent value as a valid response instead of ignoring the entire observation, which means it can overcome one of the significant challenges of crash analysis.

Abdel-Aty et al. (2005) studied the different factors that affect signalized intersection crashes by type of collision. The study explored the hypothesis that different types of collisions are affected by different independent variables. Several databases of different counties in Florida were used to ensure the completeness of the data that included information collected from crashes that were reported on long and short forms. The authors of this study adopted the HTBR for their analysis to predict the expected number of crashes reported on both long and short forms for eight different collision types. HTBR nodes deviance was defined as shown in Equation (4.15). The analysis was performed using SAS, where stepwise variable selection and splitting criterion were based on an F-test. The study results showed that traffic volume along the major roadway was the most important contributing factor only for predicting right-turn crashes in the restricted dataset and that speed limit, number of lanes on minor roads, and exclusive left-turn lanes on minor roads were the most important among other dependent and independent variables.

$$D = \sum_{i=1}^{L}(Y_{ia} - X_a)^2 \tag{2.15}$$

where

D = deviance (the sum of squared error) of y at node a
Y_{ia} = observation at node a
X_a = average of L observations in node a

CHAPTER 3 DATA COLLECTION AND FUSION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The objective of this chapter is to present the crash data sources used in the analysis of work zone crashes and the methodology for extracting work zone injury and fatal crashes. Crash data sources include (1) National Highway and Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) crash data, (2) Highway Safety Information System (HSIS) crash data, and (3) police crash reports. This chapter presents the methodology used for collecting and fusing work zone crash data from all these sources. The frequency and crash severity analysis of these fatal and injury work zone crashes are discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

3.2 ILLINOIS CRASH DATA COLLECTION

Work zone crashes are defined as crashes that occur in the terrain of a work zone whether it is a construction, maintenance, or utility work zone (FHWA 2009c). The first research task in the analysis of work zone crashes focuses on gathering available data and reports on work zone crashes in Illinois from all available resources to build a comprehensive dataset. This was accomplished by collecting the latest available data on work zone crashes in Illinois from all available resources, including (1) the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA 2007), (2) the Highway Safety Information System (HSIS, no date), and (3) police crash reports for fatal work zone crashes.

3.2.1 National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) Data

The first source of data is the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) crash data files for the State of Illinois that contain data on approximately 400,000 accidents per year. The original source of this data contains police reports in Illinois that document crash data in a standard format, which contains data on the characteristics of the crash, the vehicles, and the people involved. These reports document accidents that involve personal injury or total property damage of $500 or more (NHTSA 2007). The data recorded in these reports are sent to the division of traffic safety where location codes from a series of maps are identified and assigned to each crash, and the basic accident data are coded into a central crash data file at the state level. Illinois crash data are sent annually to the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA), where various data formats are converted to Statistical Analysis System (SAS) data files (NHTSA 2007).

The latest available data from the NHTSA contained 62,197 work zone crashes that caused 320 fatalities and 25,718 serious injuries during a 10-year period from 1996 to 2005, as shown in Table 3.1. The annual number of work zone crashes over the analyzed 10-year period (1996–2005) is presented in Figure 3.1. It clearly shows an increasing trend reaching a peak in 2001, then the annual number of work zone crashes slightly decreases and fluctuates over the following 4 years (2002–2005). The composition of Illinois work zone crashes for the years 1996–2005 is presented in Figure 3.2. The Property Damage Only (PDO) crashes represent more than 70% of the total number of crashes. The number of fatalities over this time period is also presented in Figure 3.3.

Table 3.1. Illinois Work Zone Crashes (1996–2005)

Year	No. of Fatal Crashes	No. of Fatalities	No. of Injury Crashes	No. of Injuries	No. of PDO Crashes	Total Crashes
1996	29	33	1278	1974	2292	3599
1997	33	38	1774	2643	3999	5806
1998	18	20	1603	2480	3437	5058
1999	15	17	1906	2786	4344	6265
2000	31	38	1822	2672	4963	6816
2001	31	36	2196	3043	5824	8051
2002	30	31	2023	2987	4919	6972
2003	31	44	1887	2794	5053	6971
2004	30	38	1514	2282	4470	6014
2005	22	25	1470	2057	5153	6645
Total	**270**	**320**	**17473**	**25718**	**44454**	**62197**

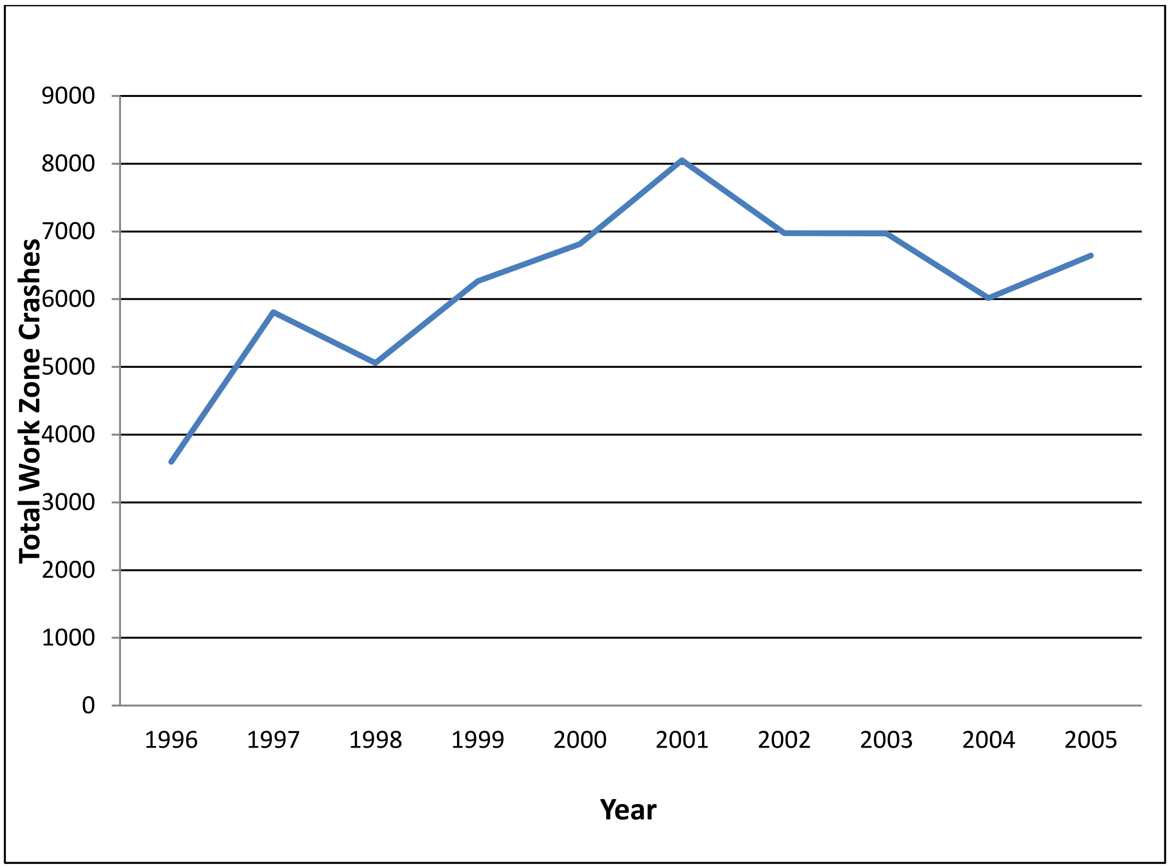


Figure 3.1. Illinois work zone crashes (1996–2005).

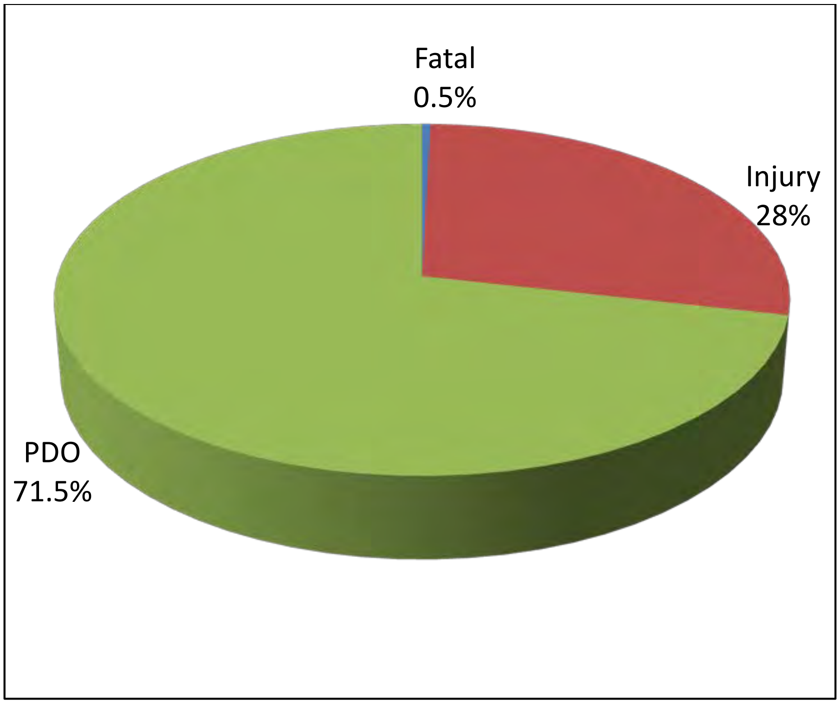


Figure 3.2. Overall work zone crash composition (1996–2005).

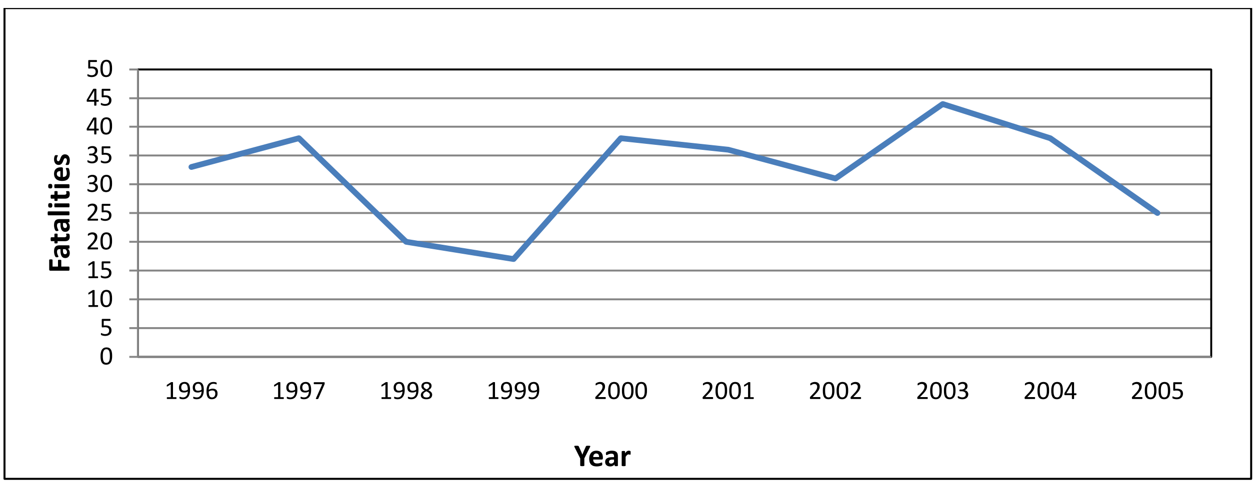


Figure 3.3. Illinois work zone fatalities (1996–2005).

3.2.2 Highway Safety Information System Data

The second source of data in this study is the Highway Safety Information System (HSIS) that contains only a subset of the aforementioned NHTSA crash data records as it includes between 105,000 and 205,000 crashes per year (www.hsisinfo.org). The main reason that the HSIS data was collected and analyzed in this study is the additional road and traffic data that it provides that are not available in the aforementioned NHTSA data files (Council and Mohamedshah 2009). The crash dataset provided by HSIS for the State of Illinois has, in addition to the aforementioned three NHTSA files, a fourth file (*Roadlog file*) that contains additional data on the road and traffic such as the number of lanes, lane width, median type and width, average annual daily traffic (AADT), commercial volume, and speed limit. Each record in this file represents a section of homogeneous roadway where characteristics remain constant, with an average section length of about 0.15 mile. The *Roadlog file* is updated annually to report improvements (such as 3R improvements) or modifications of the roadway (HSIS, no date). The data in this file usually represent the road and traffic conditions experienced by drivers under normal operating conditions before the start of the work zone. The *Roadlog file* is merged with the *crash file* using both "Cntyrte: County Route" and "milepost" in the crash file and matched with "cnty_rte: County Route" and "begmp: Beginning milepost" in the Roadlog file.

3.2.3 Police Reports on Fatal Crashes

The third source of data in this study is Illinois police reports on fatal work zone crashes. These reports were collected from IDOT and were analyzed to identify and incorporate any additional information on the crash characteristics that are not available in the NHTSA and HSIS files.

3.3 ILLINOIS WORK ZONE CRASH DATA FUSION

Crash and road datasets from the aforementioned data sources need to be fused to enable a comprehensive analysis of work zone crashes in Illinois and their contributing factors. Data fusion was performed to compile all the relevant data of each work zone crash case into one single line in a spreadsheet without missing any key data. This data fusion was performed in two steps: (1) identifying all data on responsible vehicles and persons involved in the work zone crash and merging them with other relevant crash and road data from other files, and (2) identifying all changes and variations in data reporting over the years and transforming them to a unified pattern in the entire analysis period that covered data from 1996 to 2005. For example, the crash variable Accident Severity was used up to 2003 to indicate the most severe injury sustained by any occupant or non-occupant involved in the crash using numbers 1, 2, and 3 to represent fatal, injury, and property damage, respectively. Since 2003, the reporting of this variable has changed and now uses the letters F, I, and P to represent fatal, injury, and property damage, respectively. Similarly, other crash variables such as Alignment and Visual Obstruction were not included in years prior to 2004, and since then they have been documented and reported in the data files. Whenever these variations in data reporting were encountered in the analyzed dataset, IDOT officials and HSIS personnel were consulted to clarify and/or confirm these variations. The following sections present in more detail the fusion of NHTSA crash data, and HSIS crash data.

3.3.1 National Highway Traffic Safety Administration Crash Data Fusion

The data fusion in this chapter used the most recent 10 years (1996–2005) of crash records that were collected from the NHTSA for the State of Illinois. The released NHTSA data files for the State of Illinois contained more than 4,000,000 crash records for the 10-year period, including 62,197 work zone crashes, as shown in Table 3.1. The Illinois crash dataset obtained from NHTSA was structured in three main files: (1) *crash file*, (2) *vehicle file*, and (3) *person file* (NHTSA 2007). The *crash file* contains data on the environment and roadway conditions at the time of the crash. A crash record in the *crash file* can be sorted and organized using the Accident Number variable that represents a unique identification number, and accordingly a single crash case appears only once in the *crash file.* The *vehicle file* contains data on all responsible and non-responsible vehicles that are involved in a crash, and accordingly a single crash case may appear more than once in the *vehicle file* depending on the number of vehicles involved in the crash. A crash record in the *vehicle file* can be sorted using both the Accident Number variable and Vehicle Number variable that is used as an identification number for each vehicle in the crash. The *person file* contains data on all responsible and non-responsible persons who are involved in the crash. Crash persons include pedestrians, pedal cyclists and other non-motorists involved in the crash. A single crash case may occupy multiple rows in the *person file* depending on the number of persons involved in a crash. To analyze all the injuries and damage caused by each recorded crash, the vehicle file and the person file are merged in this study using the Accident Number in the accident file and the Vehicle Number in the vehicle file.

Work zone crashes were grouped in three datasets to enable a comprehensive analysis of three different types of work zone crashes: (1) fatal crashes, (2) multi-vehicle injury crashes, and (3) single-vehicle injury crashes. The analysis of the third type of crashes involving only one vehicle was performed to provide an additional investigation of these crashes that have a higher probability of being caused by the work zone layout compared to multiple-vehicle crashes that can be caused by other vehicles and not necessarily the work zone. Accordingly, the following three datasets were extracted from the NHTSA data files for detailed analysis: (1) fatal work zone crashes for a 10-year period from 1996 to 2005 that include 270 crashes, (2) all injury work zone crashes involving one or more vehicles for a 5-year period from 2001 to 2005 that include 9,090 crashes, and (3) injury work zone crashes involving only one vehicle for a 5-year period from 2001 to 2005 that include 2,126 crashes. It should be noted that the analyzed period for injury crashes was 5 years because it contained an adequate number of crash records, while the equivalent period for fatal crashes was 10 years because the available crash records in the 5-year period was not adequate for the analysis.

The crash data in these three datasets were organized and grouped in five main steps. The first step focused on extracting work zone related crash records from all the available NHTSA crash records and combining them in a single spreadsheet. These work zone crashes were identified as a subset of the entire crash dataset using the variable RD_CON1 in the crash file that represents roadway conditions and has 12 possible values, as shown in Table 3.2. The values of 2, 3, 4, and 5 for this variable represent construction zone, maintenance zone, utility work zone, and work zone unknown, respectively. All crashes that had these values were extracted and listed under a new variable named Road Condition. The second step involved extracting work zone injury and fatal crash records after excluding property damage only (PDO) work zone crashes. Identifying injury and fatal crashes was performed using the variable SEVERITY in the *crash file* that represents the most severe injury sustained by any occupant or non-occupant involved in the crash. The data files from 1996 to 2003 used the numerical values of 1 and 2 to represent fatal and injury crashes, while the data files of 2004 and 2005 used the alphabetical values of F and I to represent fatal and injury crashes, respectively as shown in Table 3.3. The third step involved joining the *crash, vehicle, and person files* using both the Accident Number variable in the *accident file* and the Vehicle Number variable in the *vehicle file* as described earlier. Whenever ambiguous or incomplete data were encountered in the datasets, IDOT officials were consulted to provide clarification and guidance. The fourth step focused on extracting the aforementioned three data subsets that contain (1) *fatal work zone crashes* for a 10-year period from 1996 to 2005 that include 270 crashes, (2) *Injury work zone crashes involving one or more vehicles* for a 5-year period from 2001 to 2005 that include 9,090 crashes, and (3) *Injury work zone crashes involving only one vehicle* for a 5-year period from 2001 to 2005 that include 2,126 crashes. The fifth step involved regrouping work zone crash variables into five main categories as shown in Table 3.4.

To statistically identify the characteristics of work zones associated with the time of the accident, the observations of time were regrouped and organized into four periods: (1) 6:01AM – 10:00 representing the peak morning hours, (2) 10:01 – 16:00 representing the daytime non-peak hours, (3) 16:01 – 20:00 representing the afternoon/evening peak hours, and (4) 20:01 –

6:00AM representing the nighttime hours. In a similar way, the observations associated with the driver contributing causes include 31 categories representing all possible contributing causes of a crash such as failed to yield, disregarded control devices, too fast for conditions, wrong way/side, and followed too closely. These 35 different contributing causes were regrouped and organized into six major categories: (1) improper driving, (2) distraction, (3) work zone environment, (4) disregarding traffic control, (5) speed, and (6) unknown. The complete list of contributing causes is listed in Appendix A., Table A.11.

Table 3.2. NHTSA Road Condition Variable

Variable	Possible Values	Description
Road Condition: indicates a deficiency in the road where the crash occurred.	0	Not stated
	1	No defects
	2	Construction zone
	3	Maintenance zone
	4	Utility work zone
	5	Work zone – unknown
	6	Shoulders
	7	Ruts/holes
	8	Worn surface
	9	Debris on roadway
	10	Other
	99	Unknown

Table 3.3. NHTSA Accident Severity Variable

Variable	Possible Values	Description
Accident Severity: indicates the most severe injury sustained by any occupant or non-occupant involved in the crash.	1,F	Fatal
	2,I	Injury
	3,P	Property Damage Only (PDO)

Table 3.4. Crash Data Categories and Associated Variables

Category	Variable	Observations
1. Time Data	1. Time of the accident	See Appendix A, Table A.1
	2. Day of the week	See Appendix A, Table A.2
2. Crash Data	3. Total number of fatalities and injuries	Using actual numbers
	4. Number of vehicles involved	Using actual numbers
	5. Type of collision	See Appendix A, Table A.3
3. Road Data	6. Class of traffic way	See Appendix A, Table A.4
	7. Federal classification of highway	See Appendix A, Table A.5
	8. Work zone type	See Appendix A, Table A.6
	9. Road surface	See Appendix A, Table A.7
	10. Route prefix	See Appendix A, Table A.8
	11. Traffic control	See Appendix A, Table A.9
	12. Traffic control functionality	See Appendix A, Table A10
4. Contributing Cause Data	13. Contributing cause (1 and 2)	See Appendix A, Tables A.11 and A.12
5. Light and Weather Data	14. Light Condition	See Appendix A, Table A.13
	15. Weather	See Appendix A, Table A14

A sample of the spreadsheet that includes the first dataset of fatal work zone crashes is presented in Table 3.5. The spreadsheet was designed to include all the available data in the data files obtained from the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA).

Table 3.5. Sample NHTSA Dataset of Fatal Illinois Work Zone Crashes in 2005

Crash Number	Time Information			Accident Severity			Crash Information					
	Date of Accident	Time of Accident	Day of Week	Number of Fatalities	Number of Injuries	Total number Inj & Fat	County	Population Group	Enforcement Agency	Intersection Related	Number of Vehicles	Type of Collision
50000645	1172005	4	1	1	0	1	16	3	3	2	1	8
50056209	2272005	4	7	1	0	1	16	3	3	2	1	6
50075837	2272005	4	7	1	5	6	16	3	3	2	2	7
50150994	3022005	4	3	1	1	2	69	0	3	2	2	14
50199199	2282005	1	1	1	1	2	49	6	1	1	2	10
50301647	3072005	3	1	1	4	5	84	9	1	1	4	15
50349786	5072005	3	6	1	0	1	82	0	3	2	1	7
50442409	5182005	2	3	1	1	2	16	5	3	2	6	11
50514694	5182005	2	3	1	0	1	99	0	3	2	2	11
50780139	6242005	2	5	3	0	3	101	7	3	2	4	11
50808955	6122005	2	7	1	3	4	11	0	3	2	3	14
51648947	8052005	4	5	1	0	1	16	3	3	2	1	1
51653186	8292005	1	1	1	0	1	16	7	3	2	2	7
51685154	8312005	1	3	1	0	1	75	0	3	2	1	6
51731727	8312005	4	3	1	2	3	16	7	3	2	3	11
52009198	9052005	1	1	1	0	1	84	9	1	2	1	5
52154507	9272005	2	2	1	1	2	22	8	1	2	3	15
52155181	9262005	4	1	2	0	2	16	3	3	2	2	11
52376985	10142005	1	5	1	0	1	16	8	1	2	1	2
52807021	11162005	4	3	1	1	2	16	3	3	2	2	11
52807385	11192005	4	6	1	0	1	50	6	3	2	2	6

Table 3.5 (continued). Sample NHTSA Dataset of Fatal Illinois Work Zone Crashes in 2005

Crash	Roadway Information							Contributing Causes		Climatic Information	
Number	Class of Trafficway	Federal Classification of Highways	Road Condition	Road Surface	Route Prefix	Traffic Control	Traffic Cont Functionality	Contributing Cause1	Contributing Cause2	Light Condition	Weather Condition
50000645	5	1	2	1	9	12	4	15	0	5	1
50056209	5	1	2	1	9	11	4	1	20	5	1
50075837	5	1	2	1	9	12	4	8	27	5	1
50150994	2	3	2	1	1	12	4	19	20	4	1
50199199	6	3	2	2	5	3	4	25	99	1	3
50301647	6	3	2	1	5	3	4	2	99	5	1
50349786	5	1	2	1	9	99	2	19	20	1	1
50442409	8	1	2	1	9	12	4	28	27	1	1
50514694	1	1	2	1	9	12	4	28	27	1	1
50780139	5	1	2	1	9	1	1	28	18	1	1
50808955	2	4	2	2	5	1	1	20	15	1	2
51648947	5	1	2	1	9	12	4	24	99	5	1
51653186	8	1	2	1		4	1	15	15	1	1
51685154	2	5	3	1	5	10	4	18	0	1	1
51731727	8	1	2	1	9	11	4	28	3	5	1
52009198	7	14	2	1	8	1	1	0	0	1	1
52154507	6	3	2	1	5	11	4	18	99	1	1
52155181	5	1	2	1	9	12	4	1	2	5	1
52376985	8	17	2	1		1	1	0	0	1	1
52807021	5	1	2	1	9	11	4	1	99	5	1
52807385	8	17	2	1		11	4	24	50	4	1

3.3.2 Highway Safety Information System Crash Data Fusion

The most recent 5 years (2003–2007) of crash records that were released from the Highway Safety Information System database for the State of Illinois included 875,537 records from January 1, 2003, through December 31, 2007, including 1,729 work zone crash records that represent all recorded injury and fatal work zone crashes. These crash records were stored in three separate SAS subfiles: (1) crash data subfile that can be sorted and organized using the crash case number, (2) vehicles and occupants data subfile that can be linked to the first crash subfile using the crash case number and vehicle number, and (3) *Roadlog* subfile that can be linked to the first crash subfile using three variables: county, route, and milepost.

The HSIS work zone crash dataset was extracted and fused in five main steps. The first step involved extracting work zone crash records from all the available records and combining them in a single spreadsheet. These work zone crashes were identified as a subset of the entire crash dataset based on the variable RD_DEF in the data file that uses the values of 02, 03, 04, and 05 to represent construction zone, maintenance zone, utility work zone, and work zone unknown, respectively as shown in Table 3.6. This variable was renamed in the current analysis as Type of Construction. The second step involved extracting work zone injury and fatal crash records excluding property damage only (PDO) work zone crashes. Identifying injury and fatal crashes was performed using the variable SEV_CDE that represent the crash severity and has four possible categories including categories 01 and 02 that represent fatal and injury crashes, respectively, as shown in Table 3.7. The third step involved joining crash files and *Roadlog* files using both “Cntyrte: County Route” and “milepost” in crash files and matched with “cnty_rte: County Route” and “begmp: Beginning milepost” in Roadlog files. This link resulted in a dataset that included records of 1,729 work zone injury and fatal crashes with data on 31 different variables, as shown in Table 3.8. Whenever ambiguous or incomplete data were encountered in the dataset, IDOT officials and HSIS personnel were consulted to provide clarification and guidance. The fourth step of preparing the dataset for the correlation analysis was to regroup the 31 crash variables under six major categories as shown in Table 3.8. The fifth step involved regrouping the observations of four variables into certain categories. The variables and their new categories are shown in Table 3.9.

Table 3.6. Road Defects

Variable	Number	Description
RD_DEF: indicates the road defects	0, 99	Not Stated or Unknown
	01	No Defects
	02	Construction Zone
	03	Maintenance Zone
	04	Utility Work Zone
	05	Work Zone Unknown
	06	Shoulder HGH, LO, SFT
	07	Ruts, Holes, Bumps
	08	Worn Surface
	09	Debris on Roadway
	10	Other
	11	Loose Materials
	12	Low Shoulder

Table 3.7. Road Crash Severity

Variable	Number	Description
SEV_CDE: indicates the crash severity	0	Not Coded
	01	Fatal
	02	Injury
	03	Property Damage Only

Table 3.8. Dataset of Work Zone Injury and Fatal Crashes

SAS Variable Name	Description	Observations
1. CASENO	CaseNumber	Using actual numbers
2. ACCYR	AccYear	Using actual numbers
3. HOUR	AccHour	See Appendix A, Table A.1
4. SEV_CDE	Severity	See Appendix A, Table A.15
5. SEVERITY	InjurySeverity	See Appendix A, Table A.16
6. TOT_KILLED	TotalKilled	Using actual numbers
7. TOT_INJ	TotalInjured	Using actual numbers
8. ACCTYPE_POST_93	TypeCollision	See Appendix A, Table A.3
9. NUMVEHS	NumberVehicles	Using actual numbers
10. CAUSE1	Cause1	See Appendix A, Table A.12
11. CAUSE2	Cause2	See Appendix A, Table A.12
12. TRFCNTL	TrafficContType	See Appendix A, Table A.9
13. TC_COND	TrafficContCondition	See Appendix A, Table A.10
14. RODWYCLS	RoadClassification	See Appendix A, Table A.17
15. CLS_TFWY	ClassTrafficway	See Appendix A, Table A.4
16. RTE_PREF	RoutePrefix	See Appendix A, Table A.8
17. ONEWAY	OnewayIndicator	See Appendix A, Table A.18
18. INT_REL	IntersectionRel	See Appendix A, Table A.19
19. RD_DEF	TypeConstruction	See Appendix A, Table A.6
20. NO_LANES	NumberLanes	Using actual numbers
21. SURF_TYP	SurfaceType	See Appendix A, Table A.20
22. RDSURF	RoadSurfaceCond	See Appendix A, Table A.7
23. MED_TYPE	MedianType	See Appendix A, Table A.21
24. MEDWID	MedianWidth	See Appendix A, Table A.22
25. AADT	AADT	See Appendix A, Table A.23
26. MULTICNT	MultipleUnitVolume	See Appendix A, Table A.24
27. COMM_VOL HEAVY	CommercialVolume	See Appendix A, Table A.25
28. MVMT	MilVehMiTrv	See Appendix A, Table A.26
29. SPD_LIMT	SpeedLimit	Using actual numbers
30. LIGHT	Light	See Appendix A, Table A.13
31. WEATHER	Weather	See Appendix A, Table A.14

Table 3.9. Regrouped Observations of Four Variables

Variable	Regrouped Observations
1. Accident Hour	(1) 6:01AM – 10:00
	(2) 10:01 – 16:00
	(3) 16:01 – 20:00
	(4) 20:01 – 6:00AM
2. Contributing Cause	(1) Improper Driving
	(2) Distraction
	(3) Speed
	(4) Work Zone Environment
	(5) Traffic Control
	(6) Unknown
3. Annual Average Daily Traffic (AADT)	(1) AADT below 10,000
	(2) 10,001 < AADT < 20,000
	(3) 20,001 < AADT < 30,000
	(4) 30,001 < AADT < 40,000
	(5) 40,001 < AADT < 50,000
	(6) AADT over than 50,001
4. CommercialVolume (CV)	(1) CV below 2,000
	(2) 2,001 < CV < 4,000
	(2) 4,001 < CV < 6,000
	(4) 6,001 < CV < 8,000
	(5) 8,001 < CV < 10,000
	(6) CV over than 10,001

All the data for the aforementioned variables had integer values, as shown in the sample spreadsheet that includes the analyzed HSIS dataset and shown in Table 3.10. The spreadsheet containing this data for the identified 1,729 work zone crash records including the values of the aforementioned 31 variables was imported into the SAS software package in order to identify all possible correlations among the 31 variables. The next chapter presents the frequency and severity analysis of work zone crashes gathered by the two aforementioned datasets as well as the contributing factors of correlated variables.

Table 3.10. Sample HSIS Dataset of Injury and Fatal Illinois Work Zone Crashes in 2007

Crash	Time Information		Crash Information						Contributing Causes			
Number	AccYear	AccHour	Severity	InjurySeverity	TotalKilled	TotalInjured	TypeCollision	NumberVehicles	Cause1	Cause2	TrafficContType	TrafficContCondition
20070238803	2007	4	2	3	0	1	10	2	1	6	2	2
20072528490	2007	2	2	3	0	1	15	2	4	1	3	4
20072500002	2007	3	2	1	0	2	10	2	1	1	5	4
20070983945	2007	4	1	4	1	0	7	1	5	5	3	4
20071855084	2007	4	2	2	0	2	10	2	1	5	3	4
20075138313	2007	3	2	3	0	1	10	2	1	3	3	4
20074977539	2007	4	2	2	0	2	10	2	1	5	3	4
20073218505	2007	4	2	1	0	2	10	2	1	1	3	4
20072067127	2007	4	2	1	0	3	15	2	1	4	3	4
20071376826	2007	4	2	3	0	1	10	2	1	5	3	4
20074570516	2007	2	2	2	0	3	10	3	4	1	3	4
20072756059	2007	3	2	2	0	1	5	1	3	5	3	4
20073295669	2007	2	2	3	0	1	10	2	1	5	3	3
20073702946	2007	1	2	2	0	1	11	2	1	5	3	4
20072630452	2007	2	2	2	0	1	12	2	1	5	3	4
20071454755	2007	2	2	3	0	1	10	2	6	5	3	4
20071049746	2007	2	2	1	0	1	10	2	4	1	3	4
20072916737	2007	1	2	3	0	2	11	3	6	5	3	4
20073530040	2007	1	2	2	0	1	11	3	1	5	2	2
20073755076	2007	2	2	2	0	3	11	2	1	5	2	2
20071252993	2007	2	2	2	0	1	2	1	5	5	3	4
20070102314	2007	1	2	3	0	1	1	1	4	6	3	4
20075375873	2007	3	2	3	0	2	11	4	6	1	3	4

Table 3.10 (continued). Sample HSIS Dataset of Injury and Fatal Illinois Work Zone Crashes in 2007

Crash	Roadway Information											
Number	RoadClassification	ClassTrafficway	RoutePrefix	OnewayIndicator	IntersectionRel	TypeConstruction	NumberLanes	LaneWidth	SurfaceType	RoadSurfaceCond	MedianType	MedianWidth
20070238803	8	2	5	2	1	2	2	12	560	1	5	3
20072528490	3	6	5	2	1	2	2	12	610	1	0	1
20072500002	4	7	8	2	1	2	4	12	720	1	2	2
20070983945	5	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	610	1	0	1
20071855084	4	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	700	1	7	4
20075138313	4	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	700	1	7	4
20074977539	4	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	700	1	7	4
20073218505	4	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	700	1	7	4
20072067127	4	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	700	1	7	4
20071376826	4	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	700	2	7	4
20074570516	4	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	700	1	7	4
20072756059	4	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	700	1	7	4
20073295669	4	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	600	2	7	4
20073702946	4	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	600	1	5	4
20072630452	5	6	1	2	2	2	6	12	600	1	0	1
20071454755	5	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	600	1	0	1
20071049746	5	6	1	2	1	2	4	10	600	1	0	1
20072916737	4	6	1	2	2	2	4	12	620	1	2	4
20073530040	4	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	600	1	5	4
20073755076	5	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	600	1	0	1
20071252993	3	6	1	2	1	5	2	12	600	1	0	1
20070102314	4	6	1	2	1	3	4	12	600	1	5	4
20075375873	4	6	1	2	1	2	4	12	700	1	7	4

Table 3.10 (continued). Sample HSIS Dataset of Injury and Fatal Illinois Work Zone Crashes in 2007

Crash Number	Traffic Information					Climatic Information	
	AADT	MultipleDailyVolume	CommercialVolume	MilVehMiTrv	SpeedLimit	Light	Weather
20070238803	1	1	1	1	55	4	1
20072528490	2	1	1	1	55	1	1
20072500002	1	1	1	1	40	1	1
20070983945	3	1	1	1	45	5	1
20071855084	3	1	1	1	40	5	1
20075138313	3	1	1	1	40	5	1
20074977539	3	1	1	1	40	5	1
20073218505	3	1	1	1	40	5	1
20072067127	3	1	1	1	40	5	1
20071376826	3	1	1	1	40	5	2
20074570516	3	1	1	1	45	1	1
20072756059	3	1	1	1	45	1	1
20073295669	3	1	1	3	50	1	4
20073702946	4	2	2	1	40	1	1
20072630452	4	1	1	1	30	1	1
20071454755	2	1	2	1	40	1	1
20071049746	3	1	1	2	35	1	1
20072916737	3	1	1	4	55	1	1
20073530040	4	1	2	1	35	1	1
20073755076	4	1	2	1	35	1	1
20071252993	2	1	2	1	25	1	1
20070102314	3	1	1	1	35	9	1
20075375873	5	1	2	6	55	5	1

CHAPTER 4 ANALYSIS OF ILLINOIS WORK ZONE CRASHES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The objective of this chapter is to present a comprehensive analysis of work zone crashes in Illinois to identify their contributing factors. This chapter focuses on analyzing and identifying factors contributing to injury and fatal work zone crashes. The three main objectives of this analysis are to (1) conduct a statistical analysis to study the frequency and severity as well as other characteristics of fatal work zone crashes, multi-vehicle injury crashes, and single-vehicle injury crashes; (2) study correlations among all work zone crash variables that were available in the gathered data to investigate the factors contributing to work zone crashes in Illinois; and (3) develop guidelines to improve work zone practices in terms of layout, strategy, standards, and temporary traffic control devices.

4.2 WORK ZONE CRASH CHARACTERISTICS

All relevant variables to work zone characteristics of the two crash datasets NHTSA and HSIS were grouped in a single spreadsheet and a detailed analysis of crash frequency distribution was conducted to study 20 work zone variables that were grouped in six categories, as shown in Table 4.1. For each of these 20 variables in Table 4.1, a comprehensive statistical analysis was conducted to investigate and compare its individual impact on the frequency of (1) fatal work zone crashes (Fatal), (2) multi-vehicle injury work zone crashes involving one or more vehicles (Injury), and (3) single-vehicle injury work zone crashes involving only one vehicle (Injury, One Vehicle). The following sections present the main findings of this analysis for each of the 20 variables.

Table 4.1. Work Zone Variables

Category	**Variable**
1. Road Data	1. Federal Classification of Highway
	2. Work Zone Type
	3. Intersection Relevance
	4. Number of Lanes
	5. Lane Width
	6. Median Type
	7. Median Width
	8. Speed Limit
	9. Traffic Control
	10. Traffic Control Functionality
2. Traffic Data	11. Annual Average Daily Traffic (AADT)
	12. Commercial Volume
3. Contributing Cause Data	13. Contributing Cause
4. Crash Data	14. Total Number of Fatalities and Injuries
	15. Number of Vehicles Involved
	16. Type of Collision
5. Environment Data	17. Light Condition
	18. Weather Condition
6. Time Data	19. Day Hour
	20. Weekday

4.2.1 Road Data

This section presents the frequency analysis of the following road data variables: (1) federal classification of highway, (2) work zone type, (3) intersection relevance, (4) number of lanes, (5) lane width, (6) median type, (7) median width, (8) speed limit, (9) traffic control, and (10) traffic control functionality.

Variable 1: Road Data (Federal Classification of Highway)

The impact of the class of the federal classification of highway on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.1(a). The results indicate that interstates in the national highway system had the highest percentage of all types of crashes. The results also show that the percentage of fatal work zone crashes on interstates that are not in the national highway system was 11.5%, which is much higher than the percentage of injury crashes on the same type of road, which was 1%. This suggests that work zones on this class of interstate highways are more likely to contribute to fatal crashes than to injury crashes.

Variable 2: Road Data (Work Zone Type)

The impact of the work zone type on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.1(b). The work zone variable in this analysis is classified into four types: construction zone, maintenance zone, utility work zone, and unknown work zone. The results clearly show that construction zones were the most dominant type of work zone; they were encountered in 88% of fatal crashes, 90% of injury crashes involving one or more vehicles, and 88% of injury crashes involving only one vehicle. Accordingly, the layout of construction zones needs to be carefully designed and implemented to reduce the risks of fatal and injury crashes and improve traffic safety.

Variable 3: Road Data (Intersection Relevance)

The intersection variable indicates whether the work zone crash occurred at an intersection or not. The impact of the intersection variable on the frequency of fatal and injury work zone crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.1(c). Intersections were obviously among the major factors contributing to work zone crashes because the majority of injury crashes (77%) occurred at intersections. Similarly, more than 60% of fatal crashes occurred at intersections. Assuming that intersection work zones are not overrepresented in the overall volume of highway construction and maintenance in Illinois, this result indicates higher risks of crash occurrence at intersection work zones and the importance of emphasizing additional safety countermeasures at entrance and exit ramps to avoid associated work zone crashes.

Variable 4: Road Data (Number of Lanes)

The impact of the number of lanes on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois is presented in Figure 4.1(d), which shows that more than 50% of fatal and injury work zone crashes occurred on four-lane highways.

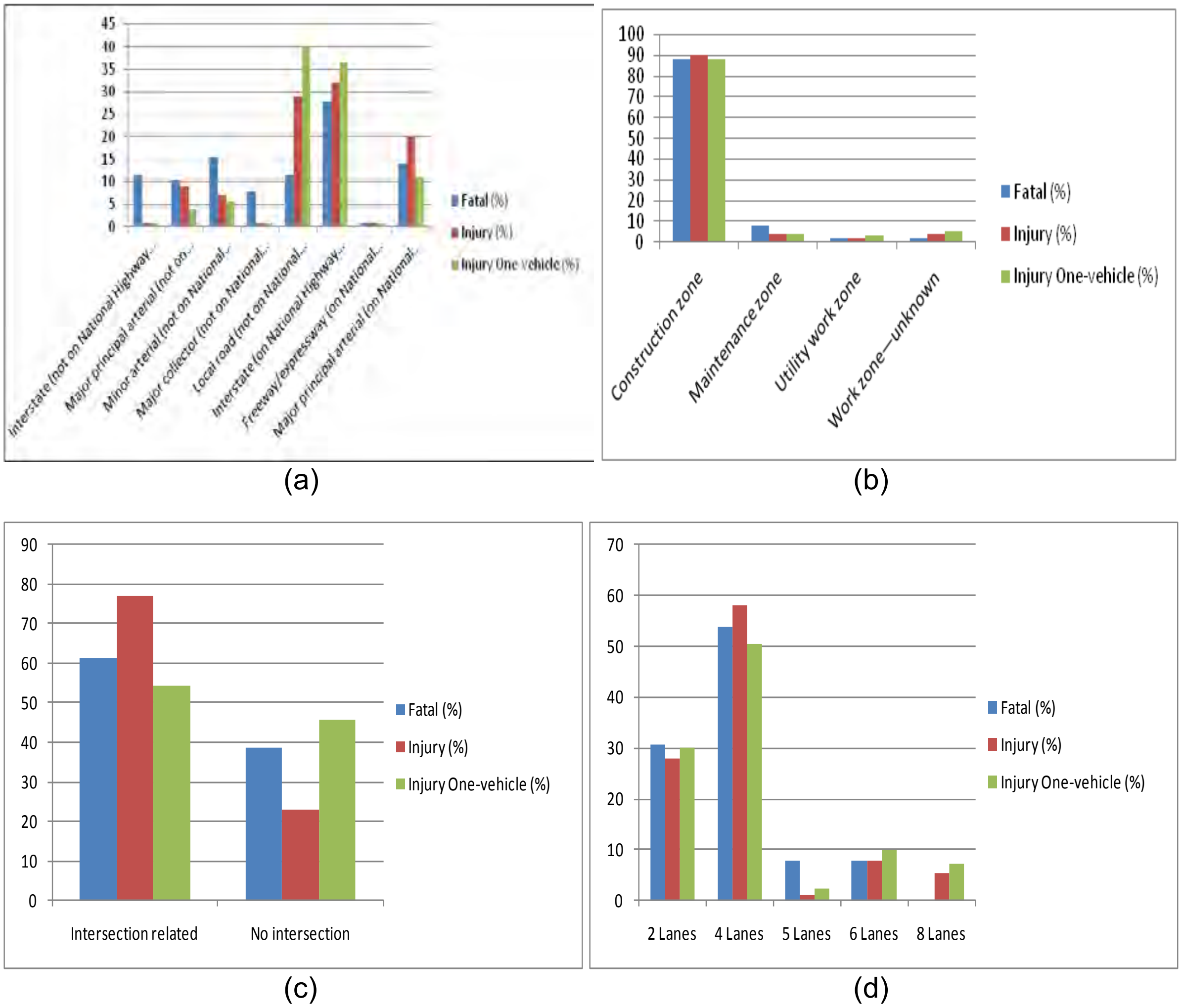


Figure 4.1. Impact of road characteristics on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes: (a) federal classification of highway, (b) work zone type, (c) intersection relevance, and (d) number of lanes.

Variable 5: Road Data (Lane Width)

Lane width as an impact factor in the frequency of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.2(a). The results clearly show that work zones of standard lane width of 12 ft had the highest percentage of work zone crashes. More than 84% of fatal crashes and 77% of injury crashes occurred on traffic lanes of 12-ft width from the dataset that were studied. It should be noted that there are no available data in the analyzed datasets that can be used to identify the percentage of work zones on roads with lane widths of 12 ft compared to other lane widths. Further analysis of such data, if available, can be used to identify and quantify the impact of lane width on the frequency of work zone crashes.

Variable 6: Road Data (Median Type)

The median type variable has seven observations: (1) no median; (2) unprotected, treated earth; (3) curbed, raised; (4) positive barrier, such as fencing, guard rail, or retaining wall; (5) rumble strips; (6) painted; and (7) mountable median. The impact of median type on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.2(b). The frequency analysis shows that almost 40% of work zone fatal and injury crashes occurred on roadways with no median compared with 15% of crashes occurring on roadways that had a positive barrier, whether it was fencing, a guard rail, or a retaining wall. Less than 3% of work zone crashes occurred on roadways with rumble strips. It should be noted that there are no available data in the analyzed datasets that can be used to identify the percentage of work zones using rumble strips. The availability of such data can be used to identify and quantify the effectiveness and impact of rumble strips on reducing the frequency of work zone crashes.

Variable 7: Road Data (Median Width)

The impact of median width on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.2(c). The frequency analysis shows that almost 40% of work zone fatal and injury crashes occurred on roadways with no median to match the median type aforementioned result. The increase of median width did not show a relevant decrease of either fatal or injury work zone crashes, which indicates that median width has no significant impact on work zone crashes.

Variable 8: Road Data (Speed Limit)

The speed limit variable represents the posted roadway speed limit in all Illinois work zones. The impact of speed on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.2(d). The majority of fatal crashes (~62%) occurred at higher speed limits (+55 mph) compared with fewer injury crashes (25%) at the same speed limits, which clearly indicates the severity of work zone crashes at higher speed limits. The percentage of fatal crashes dropped significantly to less than 8% for construction zones that had a speed limit of 40 mph or lower.

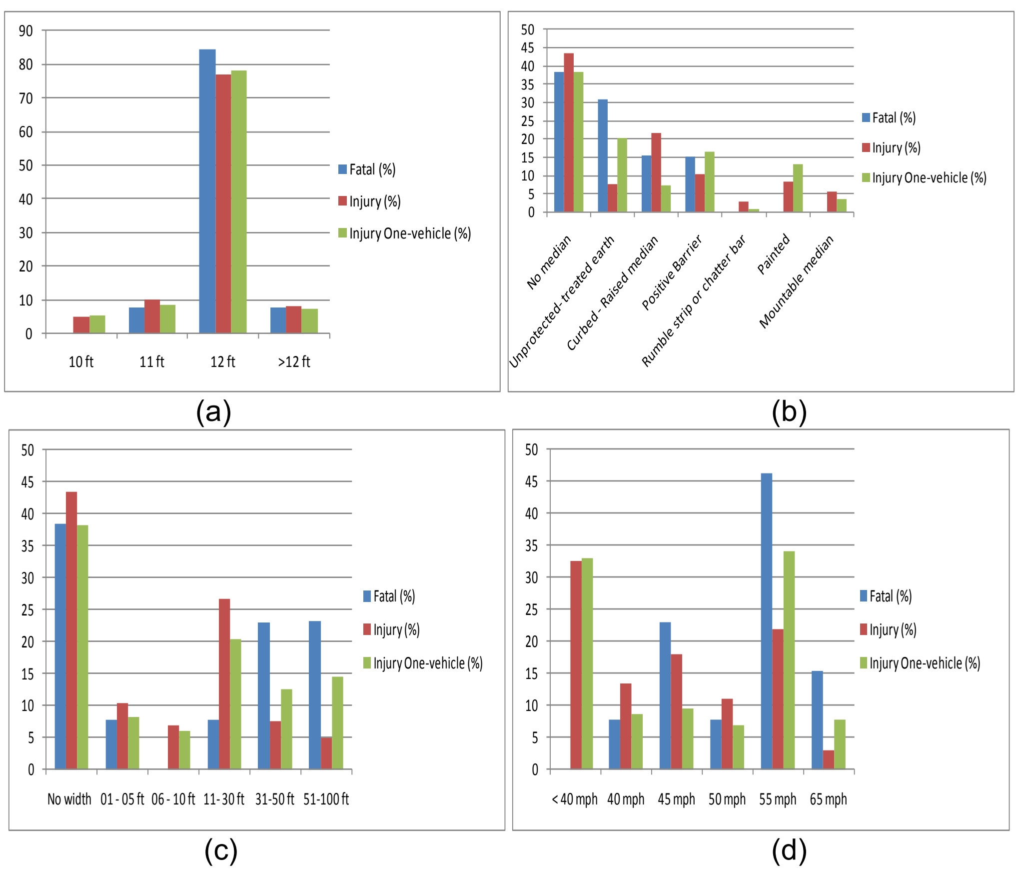


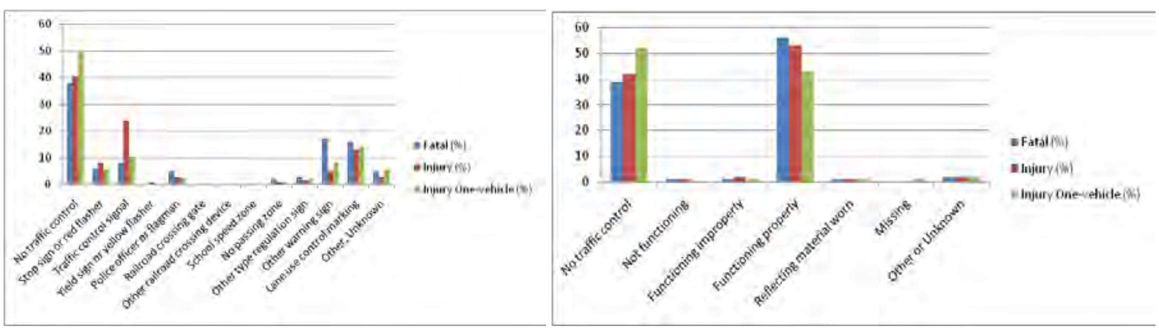
Figure 4.2. Impact of road characteristics on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes: (a) lane width, (b) median type, (c) median width, and (d) speed limit.

Variable 9: Road Data (Traffic Control)

The impact of using various traffic control devices on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.3(a). The results show that approximately 40% of fatal and injury work zone crashes had no traffic control. This finding was discussed with IDOT personnel, and they clarified that police officers sometimes misinterpret the meaning of "no traffic control." Police officers often report "no traffic control" if they do not observe the existence of traffic control devices that are listed in their accident report and are summarized in Figure 4.3(a) despite the presence of other IDOT-specified traffic control devices that are typically used in all Illinois work zones. The results also show that the presence of a police officer or a flagger in a work zone is an effective traffic control measure; its use was reported in only 5% of the fatal crashes and 3% of the injury crashes.

Variable 10: Road Data (Traffic Control Functionality)

The impact of traffic control functionality on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.3(b). The results show that 56% of fatal crashes and 53% of injury crashes occur in work zones that have traffic control devices that are functioning properly. Less than 2% of fatal and injury work zone crashes occurred in work zones that had traffic control devices not functioning or traffic control devices functioning improperly. Almost 50% of fatal and injury work zone crashes occurred in work zones that typically used IDOT-specified traffic control devices.



(a) (b)

Figure 4.3. Impact of road characteristics on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes: (a) traffic control type, and (b) traffic control functionality.

4.2.2 Traffic Data

This section presents the frequency analysis of the traffic data variables of annual average daily traffic (AADT) and commercial volume.

Variable 11: Annual Average Daily Traffic

The AADT minimum value was 700, and the maximum was 293,600. Therefore, all roads' AADT values where crashes occurred were regrouped in six subcategories as shown in Table 4.2. The impact of AADT on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.4(a). The results show that more than 30% of fatal work zone crashes occurred at low AADT (below 10,000), which indicates that the AADT does not affect the severity of work zone crashes. Almost 30% of injury work zone crashes occurred at AADT between 10,000 and 20,000. Beyond that peak range, the rate of work zone crashes tends to gradually decrease on roads with higher ranges of AADT.

Table 4.2. Observations for AADT

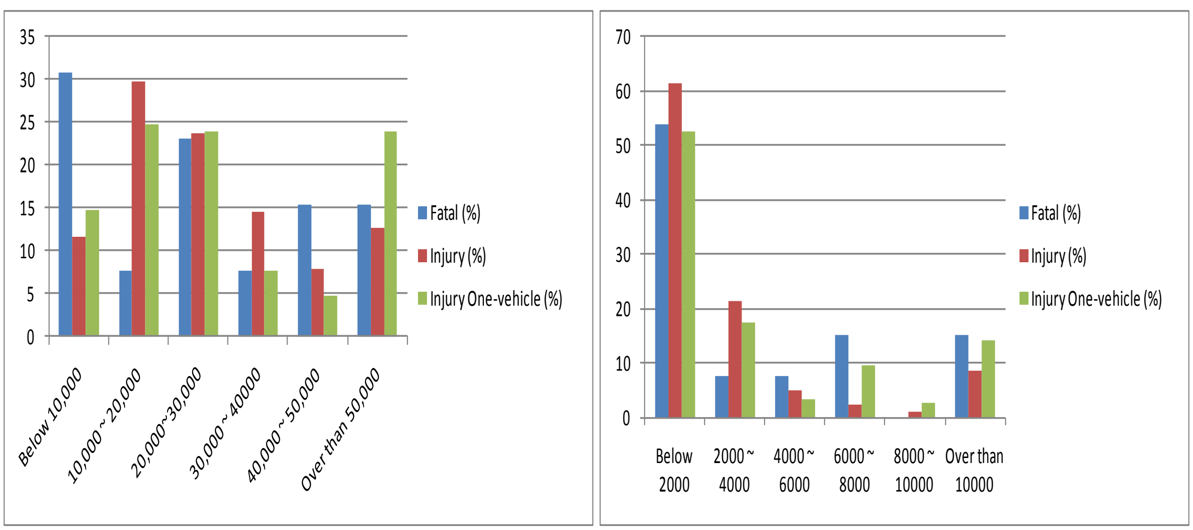
Variable	Number	Description
AADT: indicates the annual average daily traffic on the roadway	1	Below 10,000
	2	10,000 – 20,000
	3	20,000 – 30,000
	4	30,000 – 40,000
	5	40,000 – 50,000
	6	More than 50,000

Variable 12: Commercial Volume

The commercial volume variable represents the percentages of truck-related heavy commercial volume, which includes two-axle trucks with six or more tires, multi-axle vehicles, single trucks, tractor-semi combinations, and buses (HSIS). Commercial volume records were regrouped in six subcategories as shown in Table 4.3. The impact of commercial volume on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.4(b). The results show that the majority of work zone crashes, whether fatal or injury, occurred on roads with commercial volume below 2000. The rate of work zone crashes tends to gradually decrease as the commercial volume of the road increases.

Table 4.3. Observations for Commercial Volume

Variable	Number	Description
Commercial Volume: indicates the annual average daily traffic on the roadway	1	Below 2,000
	2	2,000 – 4,000
	3	4,000 – 6,000
	4	6,000 – 8,000
	5	8,000 – 10,000
	6	More than 10,000



(a) (b)

Figure 4.4. Impact of traffic data on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes: (a) AADT, and (b) commercial volume.

4.2.3 Contributing Cause Data

The contributing cause variable represents various driver actions that contributed to the crash. In the NHTSA data files, this variable has 31 possible values to represent all possible contributing causes related to driver actions. In this analysis, these 31 possible values are regrouped and divided into six major contributing causes related to driver actions: (1) improper driving, (2) distraction, (3) work zone environment, (4) disregarding traffic control, (5) speed, and (6) unknown (see Appendix A, Tables A.11, A.12).

Variable 13: Contributing Cause

The impact of these contributing causes on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.5. The results show that improper driving was the highest contributing cause (36%) for both fatal and injury work zone crashes, followed by speed and work zone environment causes. Improper driving is a major category used in this analysis to group a number of driver actions such as following too closely, wrong side/way, improper turn, and right turn on red, that are available in the crash database as shown in Appendix A, Table A.12. Similarly, work zone environment is another category used in this analysis to group a number of work zone factors such as road engineering /surface/markings/defects, road construction, vision obscured, and improper lane usage that are available in the crash database as shown in Appendix A, Table A.12. The work zone environment was responsible for more than 30% of single-vehicle injury crashes and almost 20% of fatal and multi-vehicle crashes. Accordingly, the layout of construction zones needs to be carefully designed and implemented to minimize these contributing factors in order to reduce the risks of fatal and injury crashes and improve traffic safety.

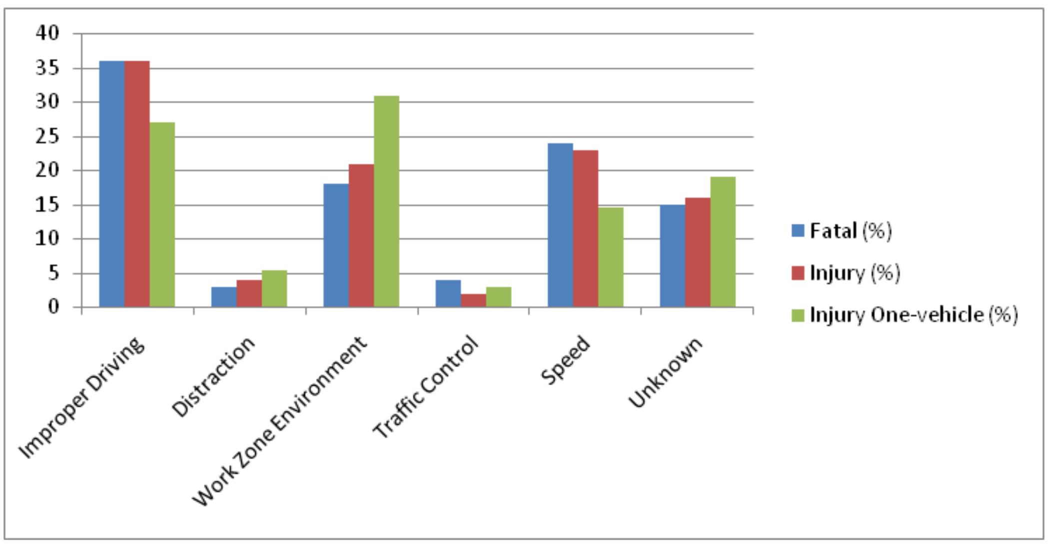


Figure 4.5. Impact of various contributing causes on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes.

4.2.4 Crash Data

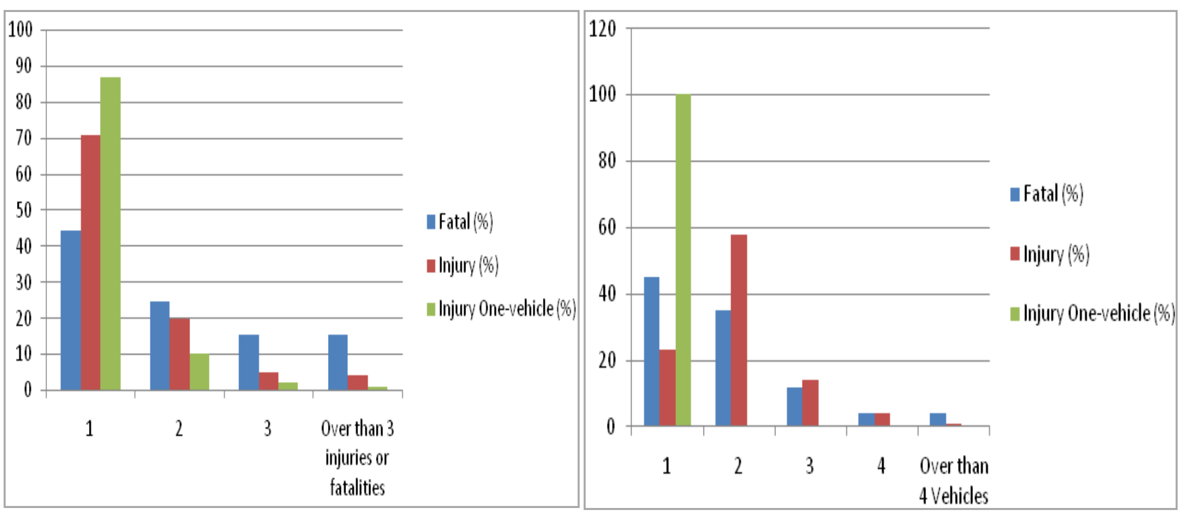
This section presents the frequency analysis of the following crash data variables: (1) total number of fatalities and injuries, (2) number of vehicles involved, and (3) type of collision.

Variable 14: Total Number of Fatalities and Injuries

Work zone crashes are classified as fatal crashes if they result in at least one fatality and injury crashes if they cause only injuries. In this analysis, the severity of different types of crashes is investigated using a new metric/variable that represents the total number of fatalities and injuries caused by the crash. The results of this analysis show that the majority of injury crashes (71% and 87% of the two analyzed injury crashes) caused only one injury, as shown Figure 4.6(a). On the other hand, fatal crashes were more severe; the majority of those (55.5%) caused two or more injuries and/or fatalities.

Variable 15: Number of Vehicles Involved

In this analysis, the severity of various types of crashes was analyzed using a second metric that represents the total number of vehicles involved in the crash. A subset of the dataset of injury and fatal Illinois work zone crashes in 2007 was presented in Table 3.10. The results of this severity analysis are shown in Figure 4.6(b). The results show that almost half of fatal work zone crashes (45%) involved one vehicle only, while a small percentage (20%) of those crashes involved three or more vehicles. On the other hand, 23% of injury work zone crashes involved one vehicle only, while 58% of this type of crash were caused by two vehicles. This indicates that fatal crashes are more likely to involve one vehicle compared to injury crashes and that a significant majority of all types of crashes involves one or two vehicles.



(a) (b)

Figure 4.6. Impact of crash data on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes: (a) total number of fatalities and injuries, and (b) number of vehicles involved.

Variable 16: Type of Collision

This section analyzes the types of collisions caused by fatal and injury crashes, as shown in Figure 4.7. The results of this analysis show that the most frequent type of collision was rear-end for fatal crashes (22%) and injury crashes (43%). For injury crashes involving only one vehicle, fixed-object collision was the most frequent type of crash (37%). The results also indicate that rear-end and fixed object are the leading types of collisions for fatal and injury work zone crashes in Illinois.

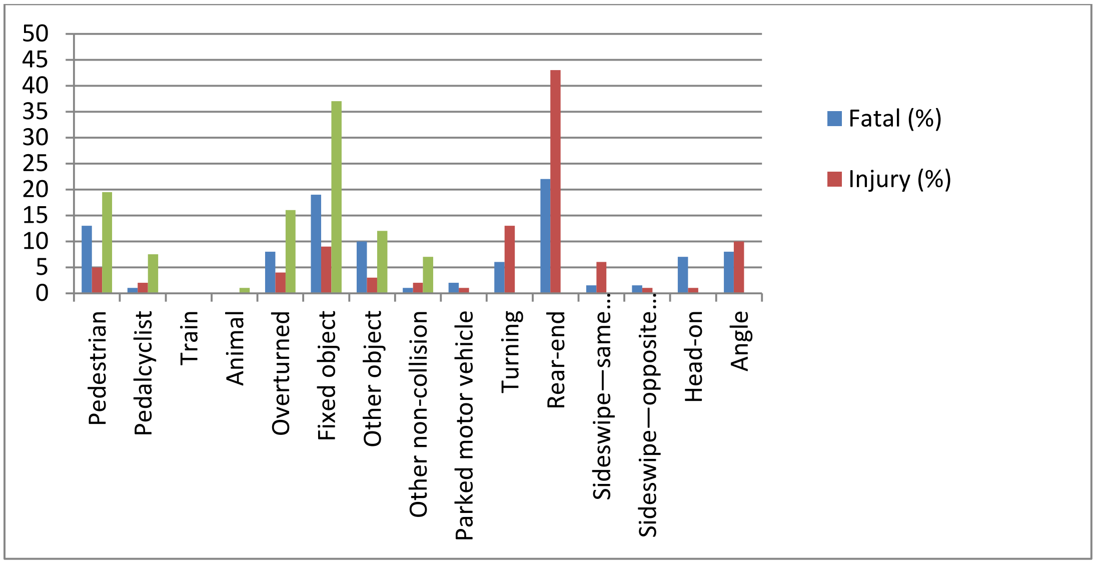


Figure 4.7. Impact of type of collision on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes.

4.2.5 Environment Data

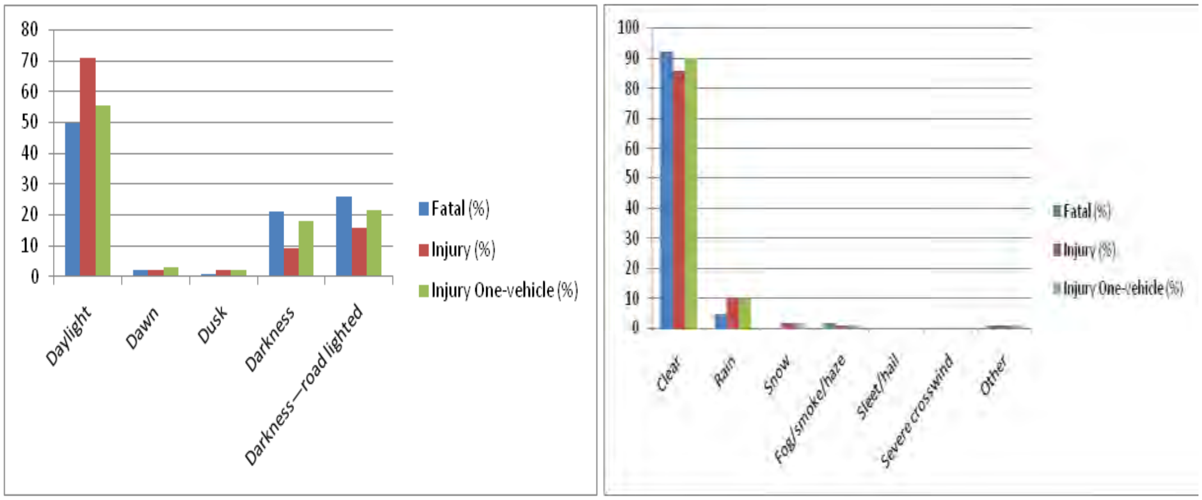
This section presents the frequency analysis of the environment data variables of light condition and weather condition.

Variable17: Light Condition

The impact of the light conditions on the frequency of fatal and injury work zone crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.8(a). The results show that 50% of fatal crashes and 71% of injury crashes occurred in daylight conditions. The remaining fatal and injury work zone crashes (i.e., 50% and 29%) occurred during darkness, dawn, and dusk. The results also show that 21% of fatal crashes occurred in darkness without road lighting compared to 9% of total injury crashes that occurred in a similar lighting condition. This suggests that nighttime work zones on roads that are not lighted are more likely to contribute to fatal crashes than injury crashes. Accordingly, the lighting conditions in these nighttime work zones need to be carefully designed and implemented to improve visibility and traffic safety.

Variable 18: Weather Condition

The impact of the weather conditions on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.8(b). The results show that the majority of work zone crashes occurred during clear weather conditions. Only 10% of total injury crashes occurred during rainy conditions, which suggests that weather is not a major factor contributing to work zone crashes in Illinois—because roadwork is normally suspended during rain and other inclement weather conditions.



(a) (b)

Figure 4.8. Impact of environment characteristics on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes: (a) light condition, and (b) weather condition.

4.2.6 Time Data

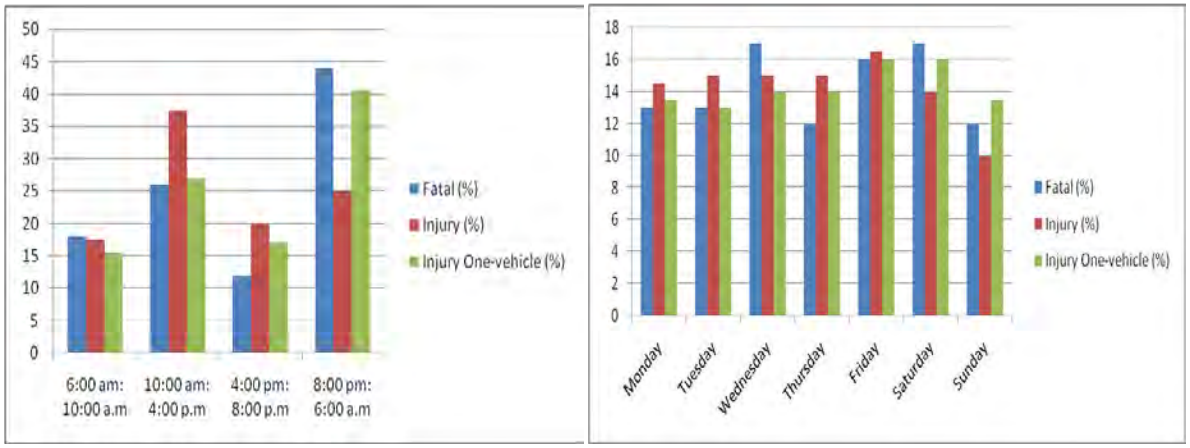
This section presents the crash frequency analysis of time data for hour of day and day of week.

Variable 19: Hour of Day

The impact of the time of day on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois is shown in Figure 4.9(a). The results indicate that 44% and 40.5% of fatal crashes and injury crashes involving only one-vehicle, respectively, occurred at nighttime hours (20:00–6:00AM). These findings suggest that nighttime work zones create safety risks for traffic and contribute to a significant percentage of the total number of fatal crashes and injury crashes involving one vehicle only. These increased nighttime risks need to be carefully considered and addressed in the layout and lighting design of nighttime work zones to improve their visibility and improve the alertness of nighttime drivers. For injury crashes involving one or more vehicles, the results show that 37.5% of these crashes occurred during the daytime non-peak hours (10:01 – 16:00). One possible explanation for this finding is that higher traffic volumes during the morning peak hours (6:01 – 10:00 AM) and afternoon hours (16:01 – 20:00) often cause a slowdown in traffic, which reduces the risks of work zone crashes during these periods compared to non-peak hours.

Variable 20: Day of Week

The impact of the day of the week on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes is shown in Figure 4.9(b). The results show that there is no significant difference between the different types of work zone crashes and their distributions over the seven days of the week. For fatal work zone crashes, for example, the largest difference was only 5% and it was encountered between the percentage of crashes occurring on Wednesday and Saturday (17%) and those occurring on Thursday and Sunday (12%).



(a) (b)

Figure 4.9. Impact of time on the frequency of fatal and injury crashes: (a) hour of day, and (b) day of week.

4.2.7 Summary of Work Zone Crash Characteristics

The statistical analysis of work zone crashes in the previous sections focused on the impact of 20 work zone parameters that were gathered from two datasets (NHTSA and HSIS) on the frequency of three types of work zone crashes: (1) fatal crashes, (2) multi-vehicle injury crashes, and (3) single-vehicle injury crashes. The main findings of this analysis include the following:

1. A significant percentage of fatal crashes (44%) and injury crashes involving one vehicle (40.5%) occurred at nighttime (20:00 – 6:00AM). Further investigation is needed to investigate whether this high percentage of crashes during nighttime work zones can be attributed to the relative increase in vehicle speeds during nighttime, especially in urban areas subject to daytime congestion, and/or to the need for enhancing the layout and lighting design of nighttime work zones to improve their visibility and driver alertness.
2. The day of the week is not a significant factor that affects the frequency of work zone crashes in Illinois. The results also show that the lowest percentages of fatal and injury work zone crashes occur on Sunday, which can be explained by the typical low traffic on that day.
3. The majority of injury crashes (71%) caused only one injury, while fatal crashes were more severe: the majority of them (55.5%) caused two or more injuries and/or fatalities.
4. A significant majority of crashes involves one and two vehicles. Fatal crashes are more likely than injury crashes to involve one vehicle.
5. Rear-end and fixed-object collisions are the leading types of fatal and injury crashes in Illinois. The most frequent type of collision was rear-end for both fatal crashes (22%) and injury crashes involving one or more vehicles (43%). For injury crashes involving only one vehicle, fixed-object collision was the most frequent type of crash (37%).
6. The type of roadway affects the rate of work zone crashes. Urban-city streets had the highest percentage of all types of crashes. For fatal crashes, rural-other marked state highway and urban-other marked state highway were the second

and third types of traffic ways in terms of crash rates. For injury crashes, urban-other marked state highway and urban-controlled access highway were the second and third types of trafficways in terms of crash rates.

7. According to the federal highway classification system, interstates in national highway systems had the highest crash rate for fatal and injury crashes. The results also show that the rate of fatal work zone crashes on interstates not in the national highway system was 11.5%—much higher than the rate of injury crashes on the same type of road, which was 1%.
8. Interstate roads had the highest percentage of fatal crashes (40%), while U.S. routes had the highest percentage of both types of injury crashes (42% and 50.5%).
9. The analysis of work zone crashes showed that the presence of a police officer or a flagger in a work zone is an effective traffic control measure as its use was reported in only 5% of the fatal crashes and 3% of the injury crashes. The finding is also supported by recent studies that reported the effectiveness of police presence in work zones and its impact on increasing driver attention and compliance with work zone regulations (MSHA 2005).
10. The majority of fatal crashes (56%) and injury crashes (53%) occurred in work zones that had traffic control devices that were functioning properly, while less than 2% of fatal and injury work zone crashes occurred in work zones that had traffic control devices not functioning or traffic control devices functioning improperly. Almost 50% of fatal and injury work zone crashes occurred in work zones that typically use IDOT-specified traffic control devices.
11. Improper driving was the highest contributing factor in both fatal and injury work zone crashes, followed by speed and work zone environment factors. The improper driving category covers a number of driver actions such as following too closely, wrong side/way, improper turn, and right turn on red. The speed category covers speed-related actions, while the work zone environment category covers a number of subcategories such as road engineering/surface/ markings/defects, road construction, obscured vision, and improper lane usage.
12. A significant percentage of fatal and injury work zone crashes (50% and 29%) occurred during darkness, at dawn, or at dusk. Further investigation is needed to investigate whether this high percentage of crashes during nighttime work zones can be attributed to the relative increase in vehicle speeds during nighttime, especially in urban areas subject to daytime congestion, and/or the need for enhancing the layout and lighting design of nighttime work zones to improve their visibility and improve driver alertness.
13. The majority of work zone crashes occurred during clear weather conditions, and only 10% of total injury crashes occurred in rain conditions, which suggests that weather is not a major contributing factor of work zone crashes in Illinois. However, severe weather also means that there may be less traffic on roadways and fewer construction activities in work zones.

4.3 CORRELATION ANALYSIS OF WORK ZONE CONTRIBUTING FACTORS

Statistical analysis is used in this section to test the association and potential correlation among work zone parameters. Two statistical tests for independence were used in this study: Pearson's chi-square, and likelihood-ratio chi-square. Both tests were used to identify whether a pair of factors is correlated or not. The following sections provide a brief description of these two statistical tests:

4.3.1 Correlation Tests

4.3.1.1 Pearson's Chi-Square Test

Pearson's chi-square test, originally proposed by Karl Pearson, is widely used for testing the differences between the observed and expected frequencies, where the expected frequencies are computed under the null hypothesis of independence (Bai and Li 2006). To simplify the statistical method used, assume that the observations of crash records are classified by two factors X and Y that are mutually independent and having x and y values, respectively. Let x_{ij} be the frequency of a result associated with both factors X_i and Y_j where $x_i = \sum_j x_{ij}$, and $x_j = \sum_i x_{ij}$. Let $n_i \, and \, n_j$ be the number of observations in class i and class j, respectively for $i = 1, 2, \ldots$ C, and $j = 1, 2, \ldots$R. For that, let

$$e_{ij} = \frac{n_i . n_j}{n} \qquad (4.1)$$

and the chi-square statistic be computed as:

$$Q_P = \sum_i \sum_j \frac{(n_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}} \qquad (4.2)$$

where Q has an approximate chi-square distribution with (C-1)(R-1) degrees of freedom (SAS Institute Inc. 2006).

4.3.1.2 Likelihood-Ratio Chi-Square Test

The likelihood-ratio chi-square test involves the ratios between the observed frequencies n_{ij} and expected frequencies e_{ij} . Using the same assumption discussed in the previous test, the likelihood-ratio chi-square test is computed as:

$$G^2 = 2 \sum_i \sum_j n_{ij} \, \ln(\frac{n_{ij}}{e_{ij}}) \qquad (4.3)$$

where G^2 has an approximate chi-square distribution with (C-1)(R-1) degrees of freedom (SAS Institute Inc. 2006).

Now to test the independence between factor X and factor Y, the null hypothesis H_0 and the alternative hypothesis H_1 are:

H_0: $P(X_i \cap Y_j) = P(X_i)P(Y_j)$, or factor X and factor Y are independent (4.4)
H_1: $P(X_i \cap Y_j) \neq P(X_i)P(Y_j)$, or factor X and factor Y are not independent (4.5)

where $P(X_i \cap Y_j)$ is the probability of having X_i and Y_j simultaneously, and $P(X_i)$ and $P(Y_j)$ are the probabilities of having X_i and Y_j, respectively.

Each factor contributing to the injury and fatal work zone crashes was tested against all other factors. The p-values for both statistical tests were calculated to test whether a null hypothesis could be accepted or not, and for a particular level of significance such as 5%, if p-value is greater than or equal to 0.05, the null hypothesis H_0 will be considered, and the two factors are not correlated. If the p-value is less than 0.05, the alternative hypothesis H_1 will be considered, and the two factors are correlated. The two statistical tests were performed to identify all possible correlations, and a dependent relationship was determined if both tests supported it (i.e., p-value < 0.05). The test results and the correlated crash factors are discussed in the following section.

4.3.2 Correlation Results of Work Zone Parameters

The aforementioned two correlation tests were performed to evaluate and identify all possible correlations among work zone crash variables that are available in the analyzed HSIS database. Nine variables out of the 31 available HSIS crash variables that are listed in Table 3.8 were excluded from the correlation analysis because of the reasons listed in Table 4.4. All possible correlations among the remaining 22 HSIS variables were evaluated using the aforementioned two correlation tests, and the results of this comprehensive analysis are summarized in Table 4.5. A more detailed and focused analysis of these comprehensive correlation results was then conducted to investigate the impact of all the analyzed 22 HSIS variables on four critical crash variables that represent the severity and reported causes of the crash, namely (1) injury severity, (2) total injured, (3) number of vehicles, and (4) crash cause. This detailed analysis focused on 26 important correlations that provide useful information on the contributing factors that affect the severity of work zone crashes, as shown in Table 4.6 and in the highlighted green cells in Table 4.5. The remaining 92 correlations (see the yellow cells in Table 4.5) do not provide useful information on the impact of work zone parameters on the frequency and severity of crashes. These 92 correlations do not add value to the current analysis as they confirm expected associations between (1) road variables such as AADT and speed limit, and median type and median width, (2) crash variables such as number of vehicles and total injured, or (3) variables such as the type of collision and the number of lanes, as indicated by the yellow cells in Table 4.5. For each of the identified 26 important correlations in Table 4.6, a more detailed analysis was performed and is summarized in the following sections of this chapter.

Table 4.4. Excluded Variables from the Correlation Analysis

Variables	**Reason**
CaseNumber	Unique number identifying each crash record
AccYear	Constant variable
Severity	Redundant, as Injury Severity was used
TotalKilled	Most crash records had zero values
Cause2	Most crash records had zero values
RoadClassification	Redundant, as RoutePrefix was used
ClassTrafficway	Redundant, as RoutePrefix was used
MultipleUnitVolume	Redundant, as AADT was used
MilVehMiTrv	Redundant, as AADT was used

Table 4.5. Correlation Matrix for the Analyzed 22 HSIS Variables

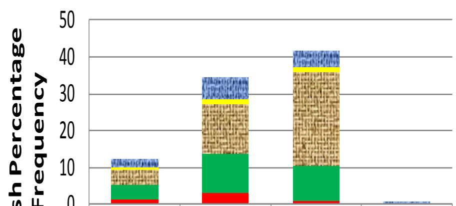
	Acc Hour	Injury-Severity	Total-Injured	Type-Collision	Number-Vehicles	Cause1	Traffic-ContType	TrafficCont-Condition	Route-Prefix	Oneway-Indicator	Intersection-Rel	Type-Construction	Number-Lanes	Surface-Type	Road-Surface Cond	Median-Type	Median-Width	AADT	Commercial-Volume	Speed-Limit	Light	Weather
AccHour	-	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	N
Injury-Severity		-	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	Y	N	N
Total-Injured			-	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N	N
Type-Collision				-	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	N
Number-Vehicles					-	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Cause1						-	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Traffic-ContType							-	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
TrafficCont-Condition								-	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	N	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	N	Y
Route-Prefix									-	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Oneway-Indicator										-	Y	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Intersection-Rel											-	N	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Type-Construction												-	N	N	N	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N
Number-Lanes													-	Y	N	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Surface-Type														-	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N
Road-SurfaceCond															-	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y
Median-Type																-	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
Median-Width																	-	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
AADT																		-	Y	Y	Y	N
Commercial-Volume																			-	Y	Y	N
Speed-Limit																				-	N	N
Light																					-	N
Weather																						-

Table 4.6. Twenty-Six Identified Correlations That Affect Crash Severity and Causes

Correlated Crash Factors		Pearson's Chi-Square		Likelihood-Ratio Chi-Square	
		P-Value	Related	P-Value	Related
Injury Severity	Type of Collision	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Injury Severity	Contributing Factor	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Injury Severity	Median Type	0.039	YES	0.0324	YES
Injury Severity	Speed	0.052	YES	0.04	YES
Number of Vehicles	AccHour	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Number of Vehicles	Type of Collision	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Number of Vehicles	Contributing Factor	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Number of Vehicles	Traffic Control Type	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Number of Vehicles	Route Prefix	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Number of Vehicles	Median Type	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Number of Vehicles	AADT	0.0001	YES	0.0005	YES
Number of Vehicles	Commercial Volume	< 0.0001	YES	0.0003	YES
Number of Vehicles	Speed Limit	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Number of Vehicles	Light Conditions	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Contributing Factor	AccHour	0.0004	YES	0.0006	YES
Contributing Factor	Type of Collision	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Contributing Factor	Traffic Control Type	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Contributing Factor	Traffic Control Condition	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Contributing Factor	Route Prefix	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Contributing Factor	Intersection Related	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Contributing Factor	Number of Lanes	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Contributing Factor	Median Type	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Contributing Factor	AADT	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Contributing Factor	Commercial Volume	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Contributing Factor	Speed	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Contributing Factor	Light	0.0084	YES	0.0170	YES

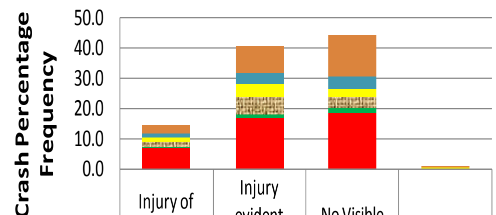
4.3.3 Injury Severity Characteristics

The results of the correlation analysis show that the severity of work zone injuries is correlated with four parameters: (1) type of collision, (2) contributing cause, (3) median type, and (4) speed limit as shown in Table 4.6. A subset of the dataset of injury and fatal Illinois work zone crashes in 2007 is presented in Table 3.10. The analysis of injury severity was based on the HSIS variable Severity, which represents the collision severity using four subcategories as shown in Table A.15 and Figure 4.10: (1) A-Injury (injury other than fatal requiring hospitalization); (2) B-Injury (injury evident to others at scene); (3) C-Injury (no visible injury but complaint of pain); and (4) Fatal. Different collision types tended to contribute to different degrees of injury severity as shown in Figure 4.10. The majority of rear-end crashes caused no visible injury but complaint of pain, while the most frequent outcome of other collision types such as angle and fixed-object crashes was injury evident to others at the scene as shown in Figure 4.10(a). A detailed analysis of the correlation between injury severity and crash contributing factors indicated that speed was the dominant factor contributing to fatal crashes, while improper driving was the leading factor contributing to injury crashes, as shown in Figure 4.10(b). The results also show that the top three factors contributing to injury crashes were improper driving, speed, and work zone environment. As shown in Figure 4.10(c), 30% of fatal crashes occurred on roadways that had no medians, while no fatal crashes occurred on roads with rumble strips and painted medians. The results also show that more than 50% of injury crashes occurred on roadways that had no medians or curbed medians. An in-depth analysis of the correlation between injury severity and speed limit indicated that more than 50% of fatal work zone crashes occurred on roads that have a speed limit of 50 mph or higher as shown in Figure 4.10 (d). On roads with a speed limit higher than 50 mph, more than 70% of work zone crashes had evident injuries, while that percentage dropped to 57% on roads with lower speed limits. This confirms that injuries sustained in work zone crashes are more severe on roads that have higher speed limits.



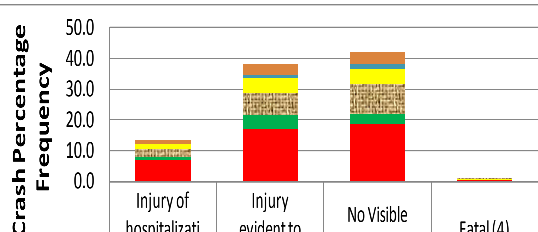
	Injury of hospitalization (1)	Injury evident to others (2)	No Visible Injury (3)	Fatal (4)
Angle (15)	2.4	5.8	4.2	0.3
Sideswipe Same Direction (12)	0.6	1.4	1.6	0
Rear-end (11)	3.9	13.5	25.4	0.2
Turning (10)	4.2	10.4	9.1	0.1
Fixed object (6)	1.3	3.4	1.2	0.1

(a)



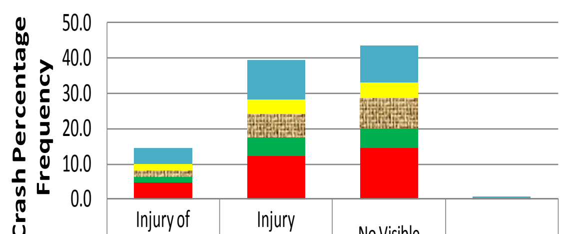
	Injury of hospitalization (1)	Injury evident to others (2)	No Visible Injury (3)	Fatal (4)
Speed(6)	2.7	8.7	13.5	0.3
Unknown(5)	1.3	3.8	4.0	0.1
Traffic Control(4)	1.7	4.3	2.8	0.2
Work Zone Environment(3)	1.7	5.6	3.6	0.1
Distraction(2)	0.2	1.1	1.7	0.0
Improper Driving(1)	7.1	17.1	18.6	0.2

(b)



	Injury of hospitalization (1)	Injury evident to others (2)	No Visible Injury (3)	Fatal (4)
Pained (5)	1.2	3.6	4.2	0.0
Rumble Strip (4)	0.1	0.8	1.7	0.0
Positive Barrier (3)	1.4	4.9	4.7	0.1
Curbed (2)	2.4	7.3	9.8	0.1
Unprotected (1)	1.4	4.5	3.4	0.2
No Median (0)	6.9	17.0	18.5	0.3

(c)



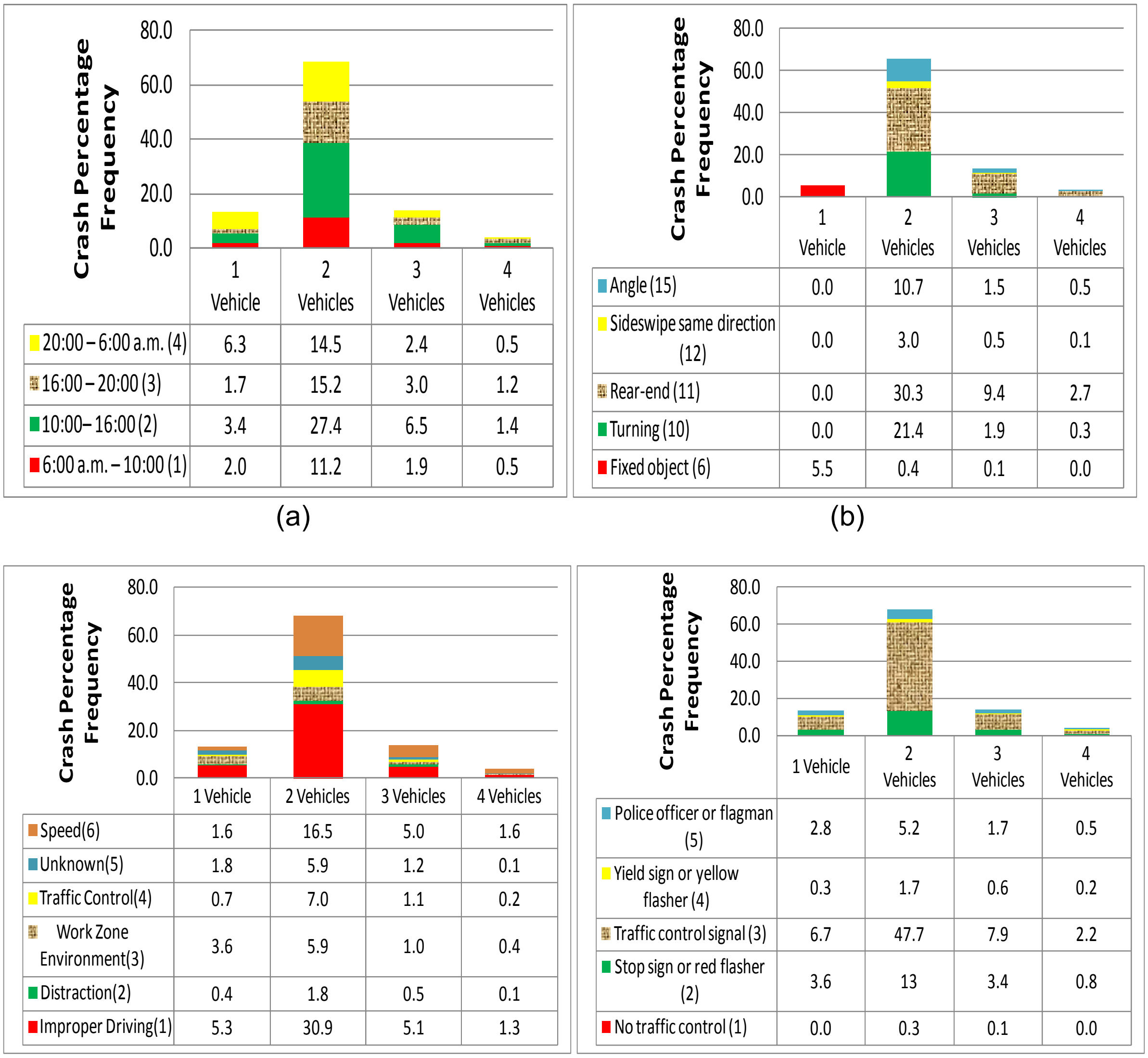
	Injury of hospitalization (1)	Injury evident to others (2)	No Visible Injury (3)	Fatal (4)
over 55 mph	4.3	11.5	10.2	0.4
50 mph	2	4	4.5	0.1
45 mph	1.7	6.5	8.6	0.2
40 mph	1.7	5.4	5.6	0.1
below 35 mph	4.8	12.2	14.5	0.0

(d)

Figure 4.10. Crash frequency percentages by injury severity and
(a) type of collision, (b) contributing factor, (c) median type, and (d) speed limit.

4.3.4 Number of Vehicles Involved

The results of the correlation analysis show that the number of vehicles involved in a crash is correlated with ten work zone parameters: (1) accident hour, (2) type of collision, (3) contributing factor, (4) traffic control type, (5) route prefix, (6) median type, (7) AADT, (8) commercial volume, (9) speed limit, and (10) light condition. The analysis of the correlation dependency between number of vehicles involved and the accident hour indicates crashes that involved one vehicle were more likely to occur during the nighttime period (20:00 – 6AM), while crashes that involved two vehicles were more prone to occur during the non-peak morning period (10:00AM – 4:00PM), as shown in Figure 4.11(a). The number of vehicles involved in a crash is correlated with the type of collision. As shown in Figure 4.11(b), rear-end and turning crashes that involved two vehicles represent more than 50% of overall work zone injury and fatal crashes, and fixed-object collisions are the leading type of crashes involving one vehicle only, while rear-end collisions are the leading type of crashes involving three vehicles or more. The leading two contributing factors in crashes involving only one vehicle were improper driving and work zone environment, as shown in Figure 4.11(c). For crashes involving two vehicles or more, the leading two contributing factors in crashes were improper driving and speed (approximately 70% of this type of crash). As for traffic control type, Figure 4.11(d) shows that only 2.8% of total work zone crashes occurred when a yellow flasher was in use compared with 10.2% when a police officer or flagger was on site.



	1 Vehicle	2 Vehicles	3 Vehicles	4 Vehicles
20:00 – 6:00 a.m. (4)	6.3	14.5	2.4	0.5
16:00 – 20:00 (3)	1.7	15.2	3.0	1.2
10:00– 16:00 (2)	3.4	27.4	6.5	1.4
6:00 a.m. – 10:00 (1)	2.0	11.2	1.9	0.5

(a)

	1 Vehicle	2 Vehicles	3 Vehicles	4 Vehicles
Angle (15)	0.0	10.7	1.5	0.5
Sideswipe same direction (12)	0.0	3.0	0.5	0.1
Rear-end (11)	0.0	30.3	9.4	2.7
Turning (10)	0.0	21.4	1.9	0.3
Fixed object (6)	5.5	0.4	0.1	0.0

(b)

	1 Vehicle	2 Vehicles	3 Vehicles	4 Vehicles
Speed(6)	1.6	16.5	5.0	1.6
Unknown(5)	1.8	5.9	1.2	0.1
Traffic Control(4)	0.7	7.0	1.1	0.2
Work Zone Environment(3)	3.6	5.9	1.0	0.4
Distraction(2)	0.4	1.8	0.5	0.1
Improper Driving(1)	5.3	30.9	5.1	1.3

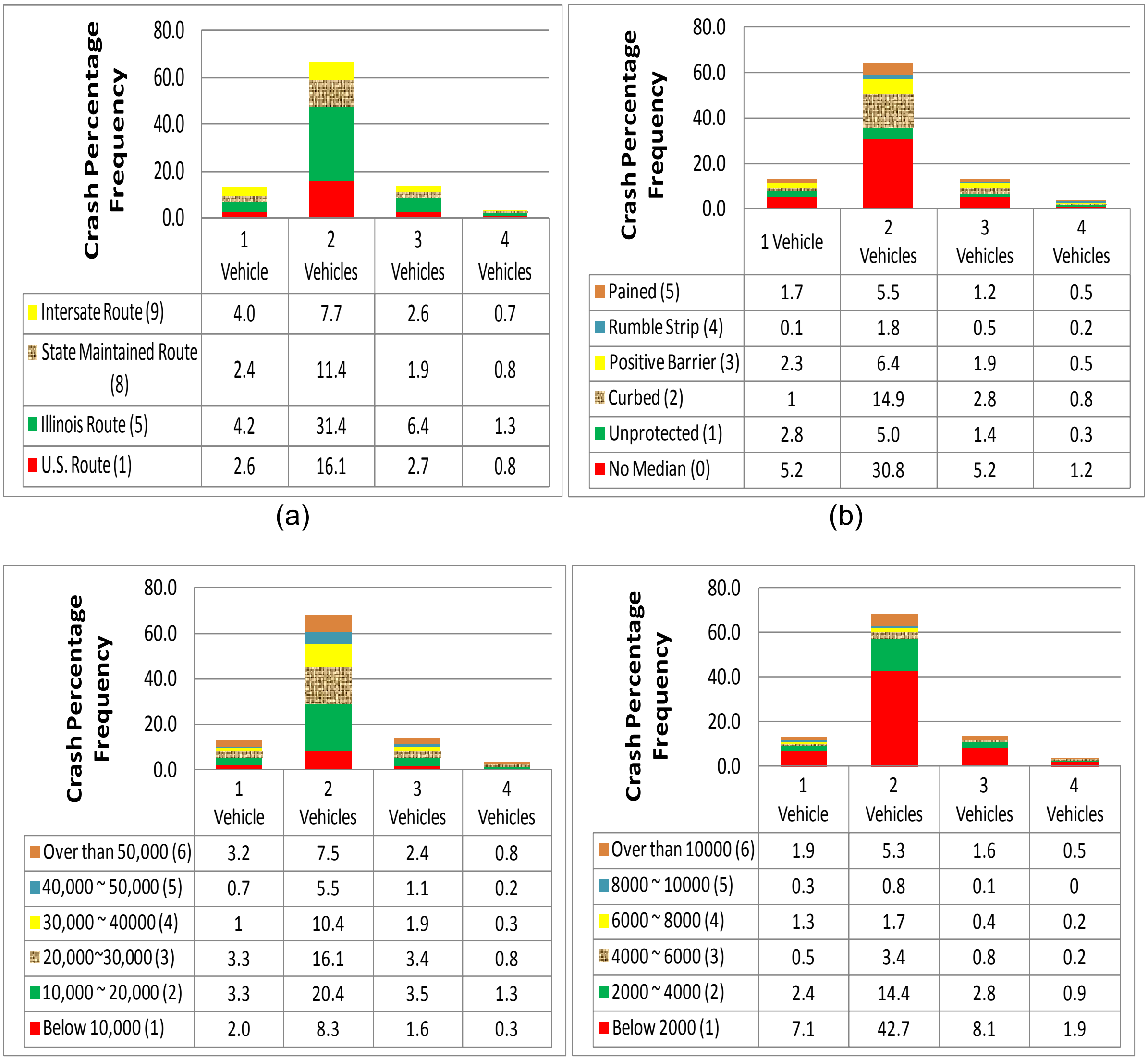
(c)

	1 Vehicle	2 Vehicles	3 Vehicles	4 Vehicles
Police officer or flagman (5)	2.8	5.2	1.7	0.5
Yield sign or yellow flasher (4)	0.3	1.7	0.6	0.2
Traffic control signal (3)	6.7	47.7	7.9	2.2
Stop sign or red flasher (2)	3.6	13	3.4	0.8
No traffic control (1)	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.0

(d)

Figure 4.11. Crash frequency percentages by number of vehicles involved and (a) accident hour, (b) type of collision, (c) contributing factor, and (d) traffic control type.

The number of vehicles involved in a crash was found to be statistically correlated with the type of route. As shown in Figure 4.12(a), crashes involving two vehicles represent 67% of total crashes, and almost half of those crashes occurred on Illinois routes. The results also show that the top three types of routes with one-vehicle crashes were Illinois routes, interstate routes, and U.S. routes, while the top three routes with crashes involving two vehicles were Illinois routes, U.S. routes, and state-maintained routes. As shown in Figure 4.12(b), 45% of work zone crashes that involved two vehicles occurred on roads that had no medians, while roads with rumble strips had the lowest percentage of work zone crashes. Almost half of work zone crashes occurred on roads that had no medians. The number of vehicles involved in a crash was found to be statistically related to the AADT of the road. As shown in Figure 4.12(c), the highest rate of work zone crashes occurred on roads with AADT ranging from 10,000 to 20,000. Beyond that peak range, the rate of work zone crashes tends to gradually decrease on roads with higher ranges of AADT. Similarly, the majority of work zone crashes occurred on roads with commercial volume below 2000, as shown in Figure 4.12(d), while the rate of work zone crashes tends to gradually decrease as the commercial volume of the road increases.



	1 Vehicle	2 Vehicles	3 Vehicles	4 Vehicles
Intersate Route (9)	4.0	7.7	2.6	0.7
State Maintained Route (8)	2.4	11.4	1.9	0.8
Illinois Route (5)	4.2	31.4	6.4	1.3
U.S. Route (1)	2.6	16.1	2.7	0.8

(a)

	1 Vehicle	2 Vehicles	3 Vehicles	4 Vehicles
Pained (5)	1.7	5.5	1.2	0.5
Rumble Strip (4)	0.1	1.8	0.5	0.2
Positive Barrier (3)	2.3	6.4	1.9	0.5
Curbed (2)	1	14.9	2.8	0.8
Unprotected (1)	2.8	5.0	1.4	0.3
No Median (0)	5.2	30.8	5.2	1.2

(b)

	1 Vehicle	2 Vehicles	3 Vehicles	4 Vehicles
Over than 50,000 (6)	3.2	7.5	2.4	0.8
40,000 ~ 50,000 (5)	0.7	5.5	1.1	0.2
30,000 ~ 40000 (4)	1	10.4	1.9	0.3
20,000~30,000 (3)	3.3	16.1	3.4	0.8
10,000 ~ 20,000 (2)	3.3	20.4	3.5	1.3
Below 10,000 (1)	2.0	8.3	1.6	0.3

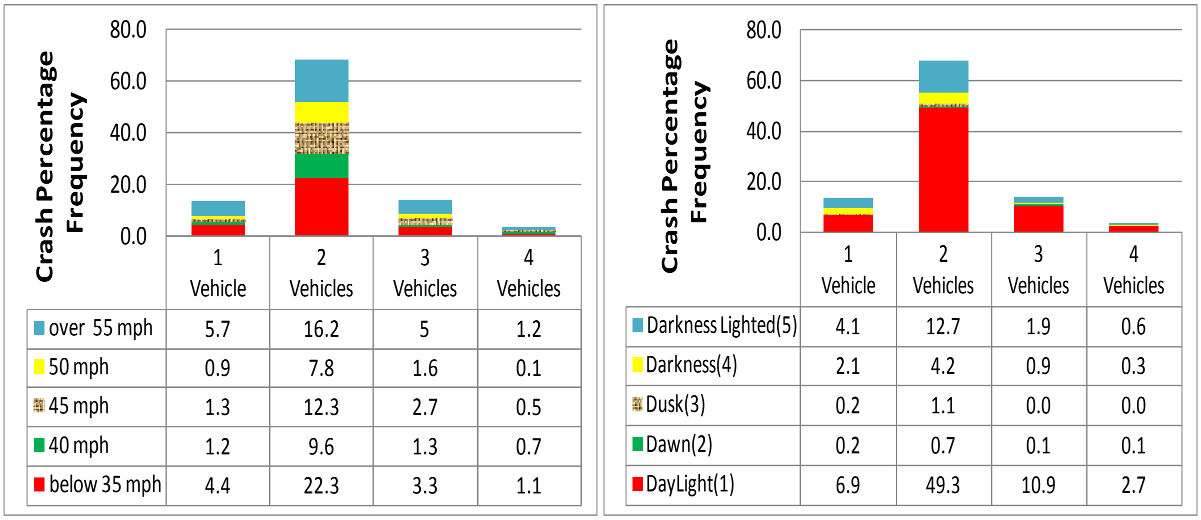
(c)

	1 Vehicle	2 Vehicles	3 Vehicles	4 Vehicles
Over than 10000 (6)	1.9	5.3	1.6	0.5
8000 ~ 10000 (5)	0.3	0.8	0.1	0
6000 ~ 8000 (4)	1.3	1.7	0.4	0.2
4000 ~ 6000 (3)	0.5	3.4	0.8	0.2
2000 ~ 4000 (2)	2.4	14.4	2.8	0.9
Below 2000 (1)	7.1	42.7	8.1	1.9

(d)

Figure 4.12. Crash frequency percentages by number of vehicles involved and (a) route prefix, (b) median type, (c) AADT, and (d) commercial volume.

The speed limit of 55 mph experienced the highest rate of work zone crashes, and the majority of those crashes involved two vehicles [Figure 4.13(a)]. The results also show that crash rates gradually increased as the speed limit of the road increased from 35 mph until 45 mph, followed by a drop in these rates at the 50 mph speed limit, then they reversed course and reached a peak at the 55 mph speed limit, as shown in Figure 4.13(a). As for the light condition, Figure 4.13(b) presents the injury and fatal work zone crash frequencies categorized by light conditions and number of vehicles involved. The results show that 51% of one-vehicle crashes and 26% of two-vehicle crashes occurred in nighttime work zones when the lighting conditions were reported to be darkness, dawn, or dusk. Considering the fact that the total number of vehicles that drive by nighttime work zones is much less than those in daytime work zones, these percentages suggest that the rate of crashes per 1,000 vehicles that drive by work zones is higher during nighttime construction.



	1 Vehicle	2 Vehicles	3 Vehicles	4 Vehicles
over 55 mph	5.7	16.2	5	1.2
50 mph	0.9	7.8	1.6	0.1
45 mph	1.3	12.3	2.7	0.5
40 mph	1.2	9.6	1.3	0.7
below 35 mph	4.4	22.3	3.3	1.1

(a)

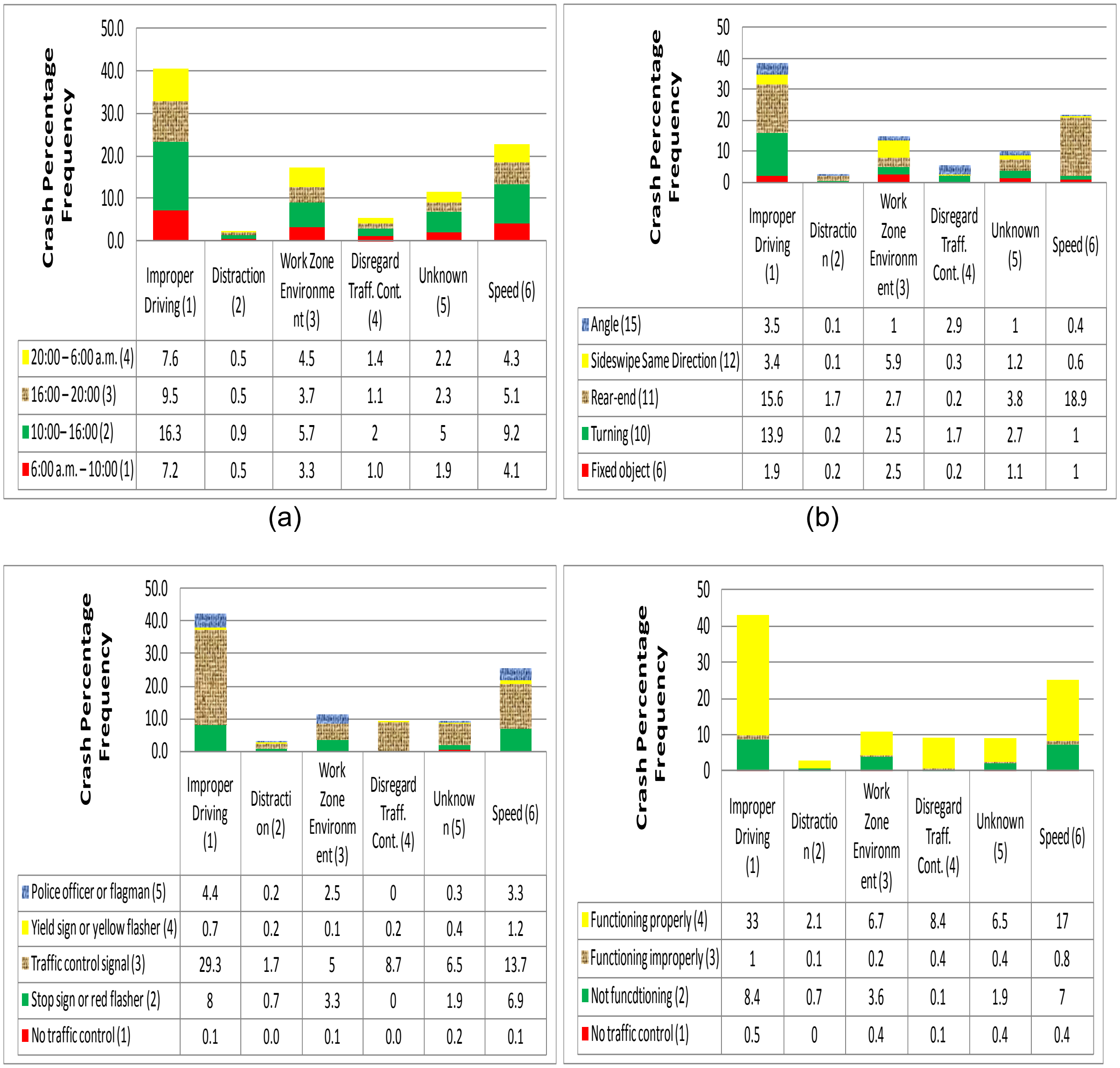
	1 Vehicle	2 Vehicles	3 Vehicles	4 Vehicles
Darkness Lighted(5)	4.1	12.7	1.9	0.6
Darkness(4)	2.1	4.2	0.9	0.3
Dusk(3)	0.2	1.1	0.0	0.0
Dawn(2)	0.2	0.7	0.1	0.1
DayLight(1)	6.9	49.3	10.9	2.7

(b)

Figure 4.13. Crash frequency percentages by number of vehicles involved and (a) speed limit, and (b) light condition.

4.3.5 Factors Contributing to Work Zone Crashes

The correlation analysis results show that the factor contributing to work zone crashes is correlated with 12 work zone parameters: (1) accident hour, (2) type of collision, (3) traffic control type, (4) traffic control condition, (5) route prefix, (6) intersection relevance, (7) number of lanes, (8) median type, (9) AADT, (10) commercial volume, (11) speed limit, and (12) light condition. Figure 4.14(a) shows that the top two factors contributing to crashes during the three daytime periods from 6 AM to 8 PM were improper driving and speed, while the top two factors contributing to crashes during the nighttime period from 8 PM to 6 AM were improper driving and work zone environment. The relative significance of work zone environment during the nighttime period suggests that work zone parameters, including lighting conditions, have an important impact on the frequency of nighttime work zone crashes. The contributing cause of the crash was found to be statistically correlated with the type of collision. As shown in Figure 4.14(b), 44% of rear-end crashes were linked to speed, while 64% of turning crashes were linked to improper driving. Work zone environment was reported to contribute to more than 50% of sideswipe same-direction collisions and 36% of fixed-object collisions. Figure 4.14(c) presents the crash percentage frequency of contributing factors and traffic control type. Improper driving was the most reported factor contributing to work zone crashes followed by speed. This analysis also shows that 69% of the crashes linked to improper driving and 54% of crashes caused by speed occurred on roads that had regular traffic control signals. The two traffic control measures that had the lowest rates of work zone crashes were (a) yield sign or yellow flasher and (b) police officer or flagger. As for the condition of traffic control countermeasures, Figure 4.14(d) shows that the condition was not a major contributing factor of work zone crashes because 73.7% of work zone crashes occurred when the traffic control was functioning properly.



	Improper Driving (1)	Distraction (2)	Work Zone Environment (3)	Disregard Traff. Cont. (4)	Unknown (5)	Speed (6)
20:00 – 6:00 a.m. (4)	7.6	0.5	4.5	1.4	2.2	4.3
16:00 – 20:00 (3)	9.5	0.5	3.7	1.1	2.3	5.1
10:00– 16:00 (2)	16.3	0.9	5.7	2	5	9.2
6:00 a.m. – 10:00 (1)	7.2	0.5	3.3	1.0	1.9	4.1

(a)

	Improper Driving (1)	Distraction (2)	Work Zone Environment (3)	Disregard Traff. Cont. (4)	Unknown (5)	Speed (6)
Angle (15)	3.5	0.1	1	2.9	1	0.4
Sideswipe Same Direction (12)	3.4	0.1	5.9	0.3	1.2	0.6
Rear-end (11)	15.6	1.7	2.7	0.2	3.8	18.9
Turning (10)	13.9	0.2	2.5	1.7	2.7	1
Fixed object (6)	1.9	0.2	2.5	0.2	1.1	1

(b)

	Improper Driving (1)	Distraction (2)	Work Zone Environment (3)	Disregard Traff. Cont. (4)	Unknown (5)	Speed (6)
Police officer or flagman (5)	4.4	0.2	2.5	0	0.3	3.3
Yield sign or yellow flasher (4)	0.7	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.4	1.2
Traffic control signal (3)	29.3	1.7	5	8.7	6.5	13.7
Stop sign or red flasher (2)	8	0.7	3.3	0	1.9	6.9
No traffic control (1)	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.1

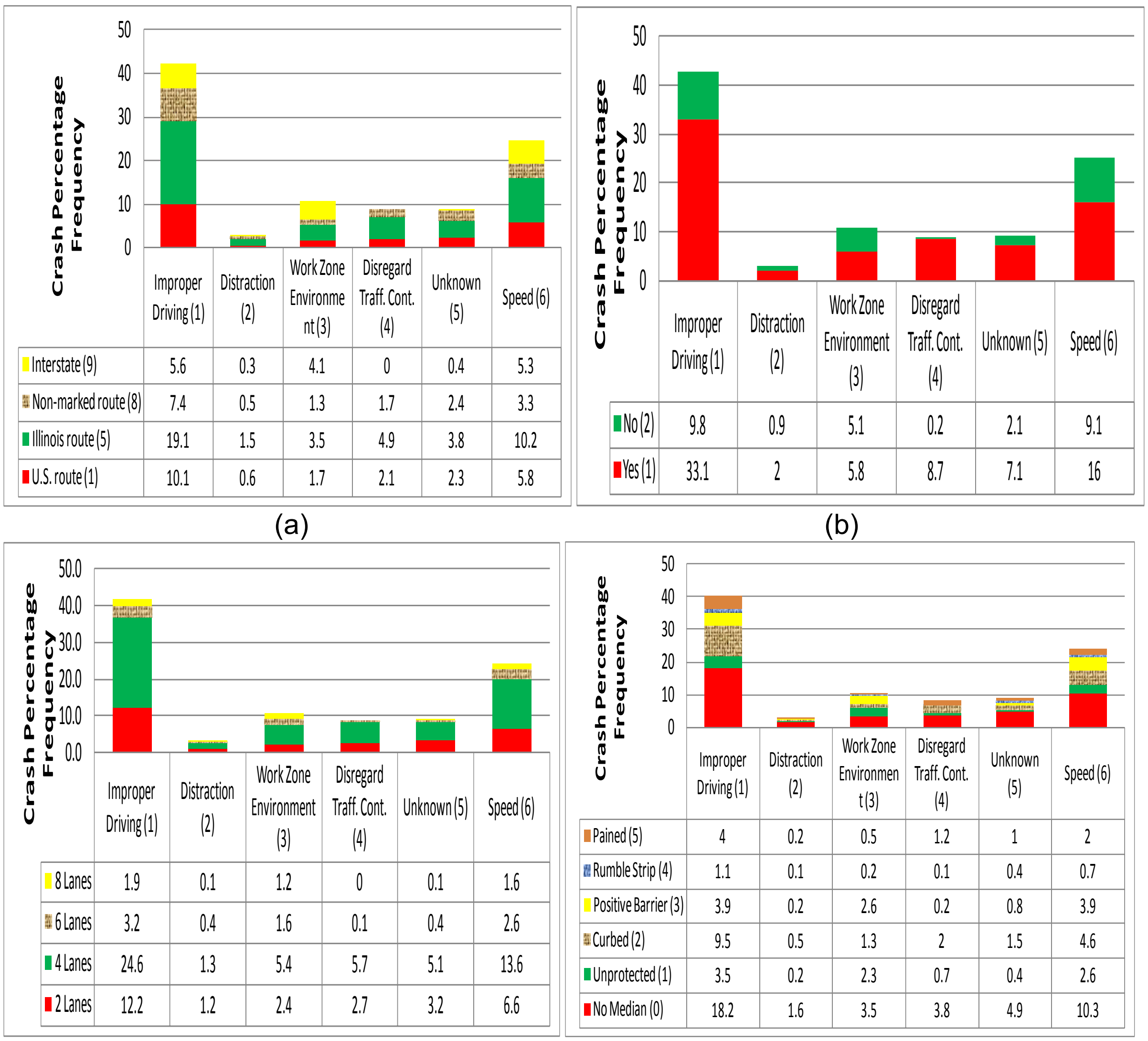
(c)

	Improper Driving (1)	Distraction (2)	Work Zone Environment (3)	Disregard Traff. Cont. (4)	Unknown (5)	Speed (6)
Functioning properly (4)	33	2.1	6.7	8.4	6.5	17
Functioning improperly (3)	1	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.8
Not funcdtioning (2)	8.4	0.7	3.6	0.1	1.9	7
No traffic control (1)	0.5	0	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.4

(d)

Figure 4.14. Crash frequency percentages by contributing factor and (a) accident hour, (b) type of collision, (c) traffic control type, and (d) traffic control condition.

The crash contributing factor was found to be statistically correlated with the type of route. As shown in Figure 4.15(a), 44% of work zone crashes linked to improper driving occurred on Illinois routes, while 38% of work zone crashes linked to work zone environment occurred on interstate routes. As shown in Figure 4.15(b), intersection crashes represented 72.7% of the total crashes; the top two leading factors contributing to these crashes were improper driving and speed. The number of lanes of a roadway is a contributing factor in work zone crashes. As shown in Figure 4.15(c), the majority of work zone crashes (55.7%) occurred on four-lane roads, and the majority of those were linked to improper driving. However, highways of eight lanes and improper driving are the leading factors contributing to crashes. The median type was statistically correlated with the contributing cause of a crash. As shown in Figure 4.15(d), work zone crashes caused by improper driving were more prone to occur on roads that had no medians or had curbed medians. The results show that 32% of crashes linked to work zone environment occurred on roads with no median, and only 1% of this type of crash occurred on roads with rumble strips. For crashes that were affected by work zone environment, the percentages were calculated as a ratio between the frequencies of the two median types shown in column 3 in Figure 3.15(d) and the summation of all the frequencies in the same column. The results also show that the two types of median that had the lowest number of reported crashes were rumble strips and mountable median.



(a)

	Improper Driving (1)	Distraction (2)	Work Zone Environment (3)	Disregard Traff. Cont. (4)	Unknown (5)	Speed (6)
Interstate (9)	5.6	0.3	4.1	0	0.4	5.3
Non-marked route (8)	7.4	0.5	1.3	1.7	2.4	3.3
Illinois route (5)	19.1	1.5	3.5	4.9	3.8	10.2
U.S. route (1)	10.1	0.6	1.7	2.1	2.3	5.8

(b)

	Improper Driving (1)	Distraction (2)	Work Zone Environment (3)	Disregard Traff. Cont. (4)	Unknown (5)	Speed (6)
No (2)	9.8	0.9	5.1	0.2	2.1	9.1
Yes (1)	33.1	2	5.8	8.7	7.1	16

(c)

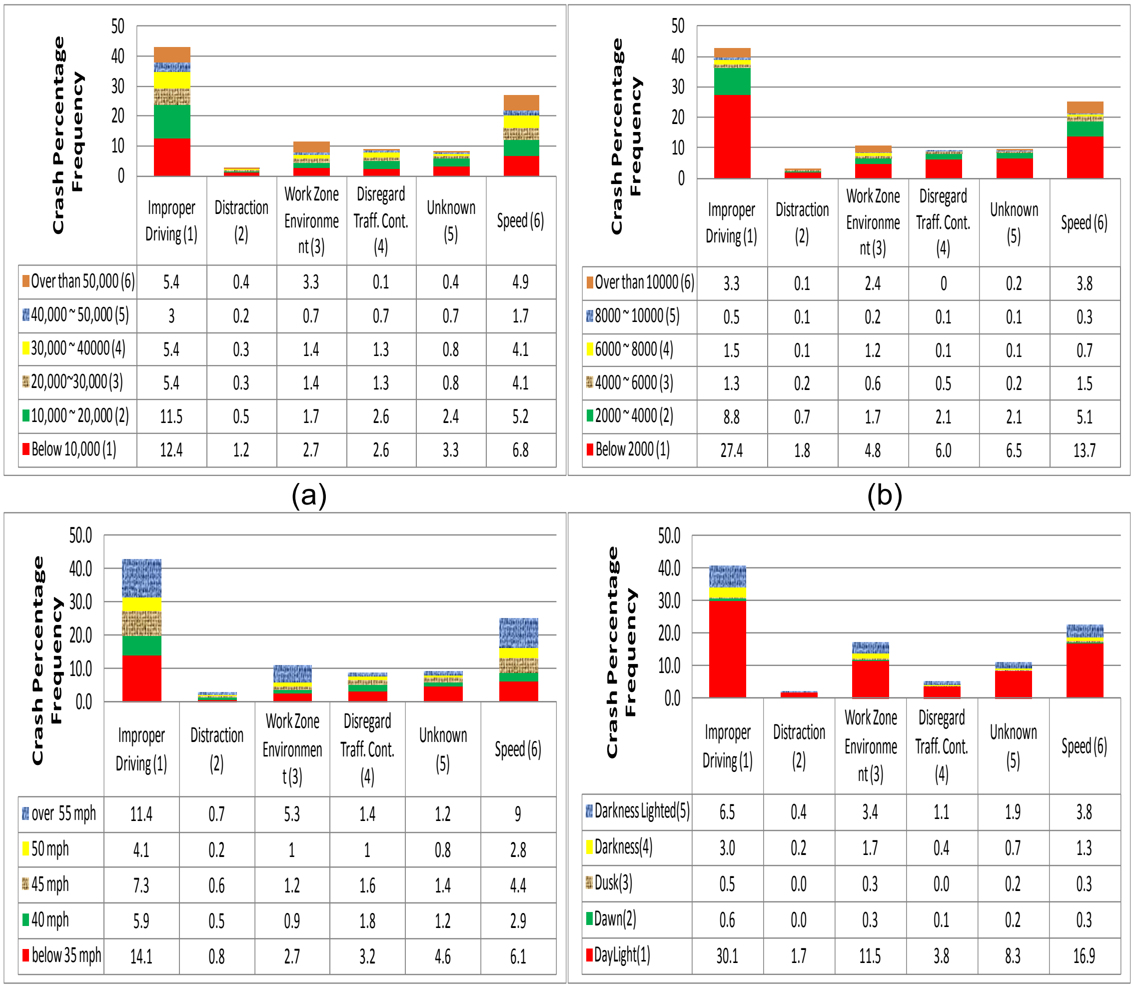
	Improper Driving (1)	Distraction (2)	Work Zone Environment (3)	Disregard Traff. Cont. (4)	Unknown (5)	Speed (6)
8 Lanes	1.9	0.1	1.2	0	0.1	1.6
6 Lanes	3.2	0.4	1.6	0.1	0.4	2.6
4 Lanes	24.6	1.3	5.4	5.7	5.1	13.6
2 Lanes	12.2	1.2	2.4	2.7	3.2	6.6

(d)

	Improper Driving (1)	Distraction (2)	Work Zone Environment (3)	Disregard Traff. Cont. (4)	Unknown (5)	Speed (6)
Pained (5)	4	0.2	0.5	1.2	1	2
Rumble Strip (4)	1.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.7
Positive Barrier (3)	3.9	0.2	2.6	0.2	0.8	3.9
Curbed (2)	9.5	0.5	1.3	2	1.5	4.6
Unprotected (1)	3.5	0.2	2.3	0.7	0.4	2.6
No Median (0)	18.2	1.6	3.5	3.8	4.9	10.3

Figure 4.15. Crash frequency percentages by contributing factor and (a) route prefix, (b) intersection relevance, (c) number of lanes, and (d) median type.

The contributing factor for work zone crashes was found to be statistically correlated with the AADT of the road. Figure 4.16(a) shows a steady decrease in crashes related to improper driving as the AADT of the road increases. This suggests that drivers on roads with heavy traffic volumes often experience a reduction in their travel speeds, especially during peak traffic hours, which in turn reduces the risks of work zone crashes occurrence. On the other hand, the risk of crashes related to work zone environment increased on heavy traffic roads with AADT exceeding 50,000. Similarly, Figure 4.16(b) shows a steady decrease in crashes caused by improper driving as the commercial volume of the road increases. Once more, this suggests that drivers tend to be more cautious in heavy commercial traffic conditions. On the other hand, the risk of crashes linked to work zone environment increased on heavy traffic roads with commercial volume exceeding 10,000. The statistical analysis of dependence shows that the factor contributing most to work zone crashes was the speed limit of the road. As shown in Figure 4.16(c), more than 50% of the crashes linked to work zone environment occurred on roads with speed limits higher than 50 mph, compared with 31% for crashes linked to improper driving on roads with the same speed limits. The light condition of the road during the time of crash was correlated with the contributing factor of work zone crashes. Figure 4.16(d) presents the injury and fatal work zone crash frequencies categorized by light conditions and contributing factors. The results show that 40% of work zone environment crashes and approximately 30% of the remaining types of crashes occurred in nighttime work zones during darkness or at dawn or dusk. Taking into consideration the fact that the total number of vehicles that drive by nighttime work zones is much less than those driving by daytime work zones, these percentages confirm that the rate of crashes per 1,000 vehicles that drive by work zones is higher during nighttime construction.



	Improper Driving (1)	Distraction (2)	Work Zone Environment (3)	Disregard Traff. Cont. (4)	Unknown (5)	Speed (6)
Over than 50,000 (6)	5.4	0.4	3.3	0.1	0.4	4.9
40,000 ~ 50,000 (5)	3	0.2	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.7
30,000 ~ 40000 (4)	5.4	0.3	1.4	1.3	0.8	4.1
20,000~30,000 (3)	5.4	0.3	1.4	1.3	0.8	4.1
10,000 ~ 20,000 (2)	11.5	0.5	1.7	2.6	2.4	5.2
Below 10,000 (1)	12.4	1.2	2.7	2.6	3.3	6.8

(a)

	Improper Driving (1)	Distraction (2)	Work Zone Environment (3)	Disregard Traff. Cont. (4)	Unknown (5)	Speed (6)
Over than 10000 (6)	3.3	0.1	2.4	0	0.2	3.8
8000 ~ 10000 (5)	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3
6000 ~ 8000 (4)	1.5	0.1	1.2	0.1	0.1	0.7
4000 ~ 6000 (3)	1.3	0.2	0.6	0.5	0.2	1.5
2000 ~ 4000 (2)	8.8	0.7	1.7	2.1	2.1	5.1
Below 2000 (1)	27.4	1.8	4.8	6.0	6.5	13.7

(b)

	Improper Driving (1)	Distraction (2)	Work Zone Environment (3)	Disregard Traff. Cont. (4)	Unknown (5)	Speed (6)
over 55 mph	11.4	0.7	5.3	1.4	1.2	9
50 mph	4.1	0.2	1	1	0.8	2.8
45 mph	7.3	0.6	1.2	1.6	1.4	4.4
40 mph	5.9	0.5	0.9	1.8	1.2	2.9
below 35 mph	14.1	0.8	2.7	3.2	4.6	6.1

(c)

	Improper Driving (1)	Distraction (2)	Work Zone Environment (3)	Disregard Traff. Cont. (4)	Unknown (5)	Speed (6)
Darkness Lighted (5)	6.5	0.4	3.4	1.1	1.9	3.8
Darkness (4)	3.0	0.2	1.7	0.4	0.7	1.3
Dusk (3)	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.3
Dawn (2)	0.6	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3
DayLight (1)	30.1	1.7	11.5	3.8	8.3	16.9

(d)

Figure 4.16. Crash frequency percentages by contributing factor and (a) AADT, (b) commercial volume, (c) speed limit, and (d) light condition.

4.3.6 Main Findings of Correlation Analysis

The correlation analysis in the previous section used the most recent 5 years (2003–2007) of crash data available from the Highway Safety Information System (HSIS). The HSIS data files contained 875,537 records for Illinois during this 5-year period, including 1,729 work zone crash data for all recorded injury and fatal work zone crashes. The HSIS crash data were analyzed to investigate and identify correlations among 22 important work zone crash variables available in the HSIS database, such as crash severity, light conditions, and type of collision. Statistical correlation methods were applied to test all possible and meaningful combinations among these crash variables. Twenty-six important combinations were identified and further investigated. The main findings of this comprehensive and detailed correlation analysis are as follows:

1. The severity of work zone crashes was found to be correlated with and affected by the type of collision, the driver actions that caused the crash, the type of road surface, the type of median, and the speed limits of the road.
2. The number of vehicles involved in a work zone crash was found to be correlated with and affected by the crash time, the road lighting conditions, the type of

collision, the driver actions that caused the crash, the classification of the road, the type and width of the median, the AADT and commercial volume on the road, and the speed limits of the road.

3. The reported driver actions that caused work zone crashes was found to be correlated with and affected by the crash time, the road lighting conditions, the type of collision, the classification of the road, the type of road surface, the type and width of the median, the traffic control type and its condition, the number of lanes, the AADT and commercial volume on the road, and the speed limit of the road.
4. The majority of rear-end crashes caused no visible injury but complaint of pain, while the most frequent outcome of other collision types such as angle and fixed-object crashes was injury evident to others at the scene.
5. Crashes that occur at work zones with higher speed limits are prone to be more severe.
6. Speed was the dominant contributing factor of fatal work zone crashes, while improper driving was the leading contributing factor of injury crashes. The results also show that the top three factors contributing to injury crashes are improper driving, speed and work zone environment.
7. Crashes that involved one vehicle were more likely to occur during the nighttime period (8:00PM – 6:00AM), while crashes that involved two vehicles were more prone to occur at the non-peak morning period (10:00AM – 4:00PM).
8. Rear-end and turning crashes that involved two vehicles represent more than 50% of the overall work zone injury and fatal crashes. The results also show that fixed-object collisions are the leading type of crashes involving one vehicle only, while rear-end collisions are the leading type of crashes involving three vehicles or more.
9. The leading two factors contributing to crashes involving only one vehicle were improper driving and work zone environment that contributed to 66% of this type of crash. For crashes involving two vehicles or more, the leading two factors contributing to crashes were improper driving and speed that resulted in approximately 70% of this type of crash.
10. The majority of work zone crashes occurred when traffic control signals were on site. Only 2.8% of total work zone crashes occurred when a yellow flasher was used as a traffic control device and 10.3% of total work zone crashes occurred when there was a police presence or when a flagger was on site.
11. Crashes involving two vehicles represent 68.2% of total work zone crashes and almost half of these crashes occurred on Illinois routes. The results also show that the top three types of routes that had one-vehicle and multi-vehicle crashes were Illinois routes, interstate routes, and U.S. routes.
12. The majority of all work zone crashes (59%) occurred on roads that had no medians or medians with a width less than 10 ft.
13. The highest rate of work zone crashes occurred on roads with AADTs that range from 10,000 to 20,000. Beyond that peak range, the rate of work zone crashes tends to gradually decrease on roads with higher ranges of AADT.

14. The majority of work zone crashes occurred on roads with commercial volume less than 2,000. The rate of work zone crashes tends to gradually decrease as the commercial volume of the road increases.
15. Work zone crash rates gradually increased as the speed limit of the road increased from 20 mph until it reached a peak at 55 mph speed limit. .
16. The majority of one-vehicle crashes (51%) and 26% of two-vehicle crashes occurred during nighttime in work zones when the lighting conditions were reported to be darkness, dawn or dusk. Considering the fact that the total number of vehicles that drive by nighttime work zones is much less than those in daytime work zones, these percentages suggest that the rate of crashes per 1,000 vehicles that drive by work zones is higher during nighttime construction.
17. The top two factors contributing to crashes during the daytime periods from 6 AM to 8 PM were improper driving and speed, while the top two factors contributing to crashes during the nighttime period from 8 PM to 6 AM were improper driving and work zone environment. The relative significance of work zone environment during the nighttime period suggests that work zone parameters including lighting conditions have an important impact on the frequency of nighttime work zone crashes.
18. The majority of turning crashes (64%) were linked to improper driving, while 44% of rear-end crashes were linked to speed. Work zone environment was reported to contribute to more than 50% of sideswipes same-direction collisions and 36% of fixed-object collisions.
19. The two types of road median that had the lowest number of reported crashes were rumble strips and mountable median.

4.4 RECOMMENDATIONS BASED ON WORK ZONE CRASH ANALYSIS

This section presents a set of recommendations for improving work zone practices based on the comprehensive data analysis of work zone crashes in Illinois. The recommendations to improve work zone layouts based on this data analysis are grouped in the following five categories: (1) work zone layout, (2) work zone strategies, (3) work zone standards, (4) temporary traffic control, and (5) other recommendations.

4.4.1 Work Zone Layout

This section presents the main findings and recommendations to improve work zone layouts in order to increase safety and minimize work zone crashes.

1. The analysis of work zone crashes revealed that the majority of work zone injury crashes occurred at intersections. This important finding highlights the need to enhance the design and implementation of work zone layouts at all intersections on roadways including entrance and exit ramps on interstates.
2. The contributing factors of road engineering, markings, vision obscured, and improper lane usage were found in the data analysis to contribute to more than 30% of single-vehicle injury crashes and almost 20% of fatal and multi-vehicle crashes. This highlights the need to enhance the design and implementation of work zone layouts to consider the impact of road defects in order to get the traveling public through a work zone more safely.

3. Construction work zones had the highest percentage of crashes compared to maintenance and utility work zones. Construction zones accounted for 88% of fatal crashes, 90% of injury crashes involving one or more vehicles, and 88% of injury crashes involving only one vehicle. Accordingly, special attention should be given to the layouts of construction zones and all their related safety measures.
4. The results of the crash analysis indicated that 44% and 40.5% of fatal crashes and injury crashes involving only one-vehicle, respectively, occurred at nighttime hours (8:00PM – 6:00AM). This indicates that nighttime work zones create safety risks for traffic causing a significant percentage of the total number of fatal crashes and injury crashes involving one vehicle only. These increased nighttime risks need to be carefully considered and addressed in the layout and lighting design arrangements of nighttime work zones to improve their visibility, reduce their nighttime lighting glare and increase the alertness of nighttime drivers.
5. Four-lane highways have high percentages of work zone crashes. This finding calls for enhanced transportation management plans for this type of roadways.

4.4.2 Work Zone Strategy

This section presents recommendations to improve work zone strategies based on the main findings of the data analysis of work zone crashes in Illinois.

1. Intersections were found to be one of the major contributing factors to work zone crashes because the majority of injury crashes (77%) occurred at intersections. Accordingly, various work zone strategies such as road closures and detours, especially at interstate entrance ramps should be considered and used whenever possible to minimize this risk.
2. Work zone crashes at higher speed limits were more frequent and severe compared to those at lower speed limits. The percentage of fatal crashes significantly dropped for construction zones with speed limits of 40 mph and lower. To reduce the severity of work zone crashes, speed limits need to be carefully identified and enforced to balance safety and mobility needs in open traffic lanes near the work area.
3. A significant percentage of fatality and injury work zone crashes occurred during darkness, dawn and dusk. Accordingly, work during these nighttime periods needs to be carefully planned to minimize the hazards of nighttime construction.
4. Illinois routes experienced a high percentage of crash frequencies at a 45 mph speed limit, while interstate routes experienced a high percentage of crash frequencies at 55 mph speed limit.

4.4.3 Work Zone Standards

This section focuses on recommendations to improve work zone standards based on the findings of work zone crash data analysis.

1. Special attention should be given to work zones on interstates in national highway systems because they have the highest percentage of fatal and injury work zone crashes.
2. Almost 30% of injury work zone crashes occurred at AADT between 10,000 and 20,000. Beyond that peak range, the rate of work zone crashes tends to gradually decrease on roads with higher ranges of AADT. The majority of work zone crashes whether fatal or injury, occurred on roads with commercial volume

below 2,000 and the rate of work zone crashes tends to gradually decrease as the commercial volume of the road increases. These findings recommend that current standards should be altered to reflect the potential hazard of work zones on roadways with AADT between 10,000 and 20,000 and having commercial volume below 2,000.

3. The majority of fatal crashes (62%) occurred at higher speed limits (55 mph or more) compared to only 25% of injury crashes that occurred at these same speed limits. The percentage of fatal crashes also significantly dropped to less than 8% for construction zones that had a speed limit of 40 mph or lower. This indicates that higher speed limits increase the severity of work zone crashes. Accordingly, speed limits need to be carefully identified and enforced to minimize the frequency and severity of work zone crashes.

4.4.4 Work Zone Temporary Traffic Control

This section presents a set of recommendations to improve the use of temporary traffic control (TTC) measures in work zones in order to improve safety.

1. The effectiveness of current TTC measures needs improvement in order to minimize the frequency and severity of work zone crashes. The data analysis showed that 54% of speed-related work zone crashes occurred on roads that had regular traffic control signals and that 69% of work zone crashes were linked to improper driving. This indicates that current TTC practices need improvement to maximize compliance with speed limits and to alert inattentive drivers. Accordingly, the use of police patrols and automated photo enforcement of speeding violations needs to be increased. In addition, innovative TTC countermeasures such as temporary rumble strips, speed displays, and message boards should be adopted to increase driver alertness.

2. The analysis of work zone crashes reveals that approximately 40% of fatal and injury-related work zone crashes occurred in work zones that had standard temporary traffic controls at the scene of the crash. This highlights the need to increase the use of advanced warning signals such as message boards, digital speed displays, flashing arrow boards, and temporary rumble strips.

3. Only 5% of the fatal crashes and 3% of the injury crashes occurred in the presence of a police officer or flagger. This confirms the significant impact of police enforcement and flaggers in reducing work zone crashes.

4. The results of the analysis show that the most frequent type of collision was rear-end for fatal crashes (22%) and injury crashes (43%). Moreover, the analysis shows that 40% of rear-end crashes occurred on Illinois routes. This highlights the potential benefits of TTC and ITS devices to alert drivers approaching work zones of the potential slowdown and traffic backup.

5. The correlation analysis of crash contributing factors and collision types revealed that almost half of rear-end crashes were due to speed. This highlights the need to use more effective TTC ahead of work zones to reduce speed, such as temporary rumble strips and speed displays.

6. The crash analysis results showed that 21% of fatal crashes occurred in darkness without road lighting compared to 9% of total injury crashes that occurred in similar lighting conditions. This suggests that nighttime work zones on dark roads are more likely to contribute to fatal crashes than to injury crashes.

Accordingly, the lighting conditions in nighttime work zones need to be carefully designed and implemented to improve visibility and traffic safety.

4.4.5 Other Recommendations

This section presents a set of general recommendations to improve work zone practices.

1. The analysis of work zone crashes shows that improper driving represents the highest contributing factor for fatal and injury work zone crashes, followed by speed and work zone environment factors. Improper driving covers a number of driver actions such as following too closely, wrong side/way, improper turn, and right turn on red. Speed-contributing factors represent a number of observations such as “exceeded authorized speed limits,” “exceeded safe speed for conditions,” and “failure to reduce speed to avoid a crash.” These findings highlight the need for improving public awareness of work zone hazards and the consequences of exceeding the speed limit.
2. Driver distraction was the contributing factor to almost 10% of fatal work zone crashes, which highlights the need to control and minimize potential causes of driver distraction such as using cell phones or texting while driving.
3. As with any typical study based on traffic crash databases, the findings of data analysis have limitations due to lack of information regarding various work zone layout parameters such as work zone duration, layout, and strategy. Accordingly, future reporting and data collection of work zone crashes needs to be expanded to report work zone parameters that can be used in the future to support identification and documentation of potential factors contributing to work zone crashes.

CHAPTER 5 IMPACT OF LAYOUT PARAMETERS ON THE RISK OF CRASH OCCURRENCE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The FHWA Work Zone Safety and Mobility Rule highlights the importance of analyzing work zone crash data and the role it can play in improving work zone layouts (FHWA 2005). This FHWA rule also reports that field diaries of construction operations often log incidents and actions such as the need to replace channelization devices into their proper positions after knockdown by an errant vehicle, which provide indications of safety or operational deficiencies. These deficiencies should be appropriately addressed, and the knowledge gained should be spread to other zones to control any potential hazards of work zones in future projects. To gather and analyze this valuable field information on work zone layouts and their impact on safety, two research tasks were conducted: site visits of highway work zones and an online survey of Illinois resident engineers. This chapter presents the results of these site visits followed by a detailed analysis of the survey results.

5.2 SITE VISITS OF WORK ZONES

To identify practical factors that affect the safety of highway construction zones, three highway construction sites in Illinois were visited and studied in October 2009. During these site visits, data were gathered on (1) the type of construction operations that were performed during daytime hours, (2) the layout of work zones designed for these operations, and (3) the type of traffic control countermeasures being used. The locations of these site visits were Bloomington (I-74), Bloomington (I-55), and Downs (I-74). The following sections present a brief description of the data gathered during each of these three site visits.

5.2.1 Bloomington (I-74)

This work zone, located on I-74 near Bloomington, was visited October 1, 2009. The observed construction operations on that highway construction project were paving, compacting, and milling operations. The main types of traffic devices that were used on site included (1) direction indicator barricades, (2) vertical barricades, (3) drums, (4) arrow boards, (5) work zone speed limit signs, and (6) a flagger to alert and slow traffic. These traffic control devices and the running construction operation are shown in Figures 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3. The transportation management plan (TMP) of this construction operation IDOT Standard 701406-05, Lane Closure, Freeway/Expressway, Day Operations Only. This standard was used whenever construction operations would encroach on the lane adjacent to the shoulder. Work zone speed limit signs and flagger signs should be moved as necessary to maintain 200-foot spacing between the signs and the workers in each separate work activity (IDOT Standard 701406-05). The layout described in this standard is shown in Figure 5.4. Other temporary traffic control (TTC) signs followed MUTCD typical application 33, as shown in Figure 2.3 (FHWA 2009c). The distances A, B, and C for this typical application are calculated using Table 2.4, while the taper length L is calculated using Table 2.1 and Table 2.2 (FHWA 2009c).

Figure 5.1. Direction indicator barricades, drums, and arrow boards.

Figure 5.2. Flagger with a “slow” sign.

Figure 5.3. Vertical barricades at a resurfacing operation.

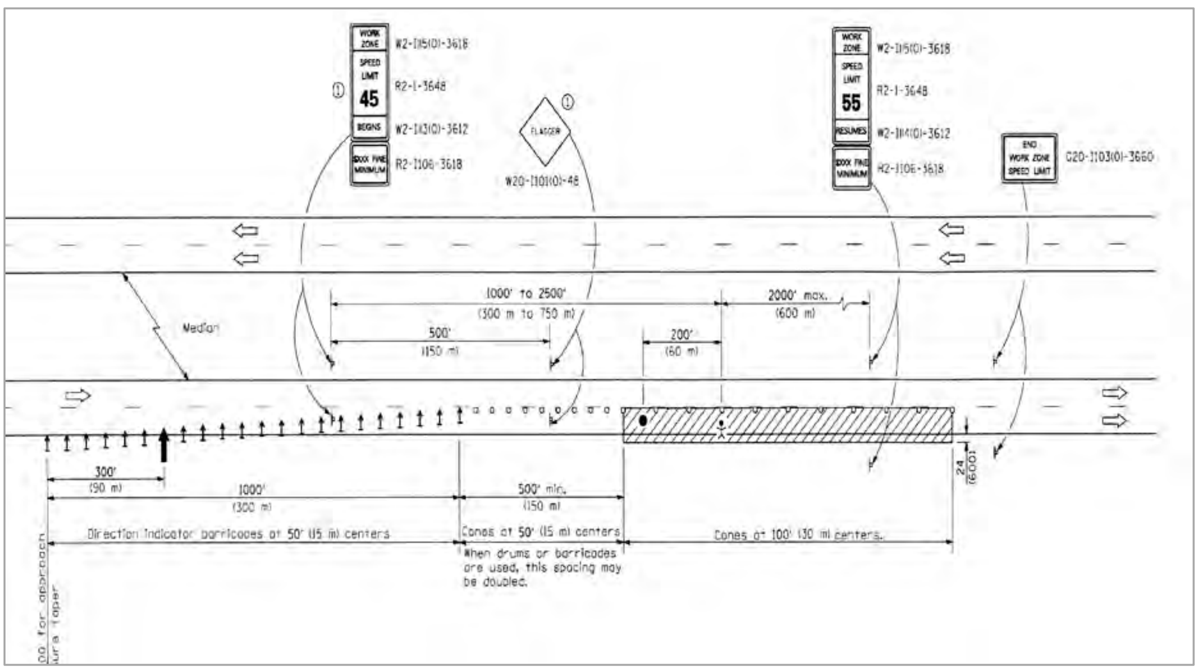


Figure 5.4. IDOT Standard 701406-05, Lane Closure Day, Operations Only.

5.2.2 Bloomington, IL (I-55)

This project, which is located on I-55 in Bloomington, was visited October 2, 2009. The construction operation on that project was bridge rehabilitation at the entrance of the ramp. On the day of the visit, there were no running operations; however, one lane was still closed and the other one was reduced. This work zone had experienced a large number of work zone crashes (> 20 crashes in 15 days) until the authority decided to close the ramp to the public. The main types of traffic devices that were used on site included (1) direction indicator barricades, (2) vertical barricades, (3) drums, (4) arrow boards, (5) work zone speed limit signs, and (6) temporary concrete barriers. These traffic control devices and the running construction operation are shown in Figures 5.5, 5.6, and 5.7. Before the decision was made to close the ramp to the public, the TMP of this construction operation followed IDOT Standard 701411-05, Application 2, Lane Closure, Multilane at Entrance Ramp for Speeds ≥ 45 mph. The layout described in this standard is shown in Figure 5.8. The resident engineer stated that the high number of crashes in this work zone was caused by trees at the entrance of the intersection that obstructed the clear vision of drivers in upstream traffic, especially at night. Reduced traffic lanes were considered at this work zone, as well as use of the outer shoulder.

Figure 5.5. Ramp closed on I-55.

Figure 5.6. Temporary concrete barriers.

Figure 5.7. Vision obstruction caused by trees at the entrance of the work zone.

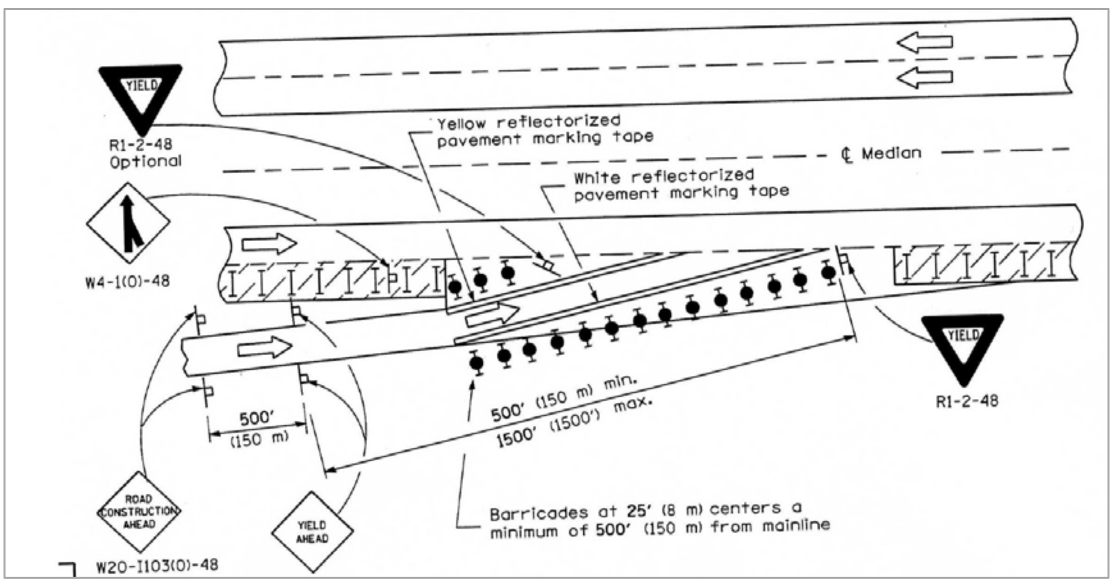


Figure 5.8. IDOT Standard 701411-05, Application 2, Lane Closure, Multilane at Entrance Ramp, for Speeds ≥ 45 mph.

5.2.3 Downs, IL (I-74)

This highway construction project, which is located on I-74 near Downs, was visited October 5, 2009. The observed construction operations were bridge rehabilitations. The main types of traffic devices that were used on site included (1) direction indicator barricades, (2) vertical barricades, (3) drums, (4) arrow boards, (5) work zone speed limit signs, and (6) temporary concrete barriers. These traffic control devices and the running construction operation are shown in Figures 5.9, 5.10, and 5.11. The TMP of this construction operation followed IDOT Standard 701422-02, Lane Closure, Multilane, for

Speeds ≥ 45 mph to 55 mph. Reduced traffic lanes were considered in this TMP. This standard was used whenever construction operations would encroach on the lane adjacent to the shoulder. The layout described in this standard is shown in Figure 5.12.

Figure 5.9. Bridge rehabilitation at Downs (I-74).

Figure 5.10. Temporary concrete barriers, drums, and barricades.

Figure 5.11. Reduced traffic lane at the termination.

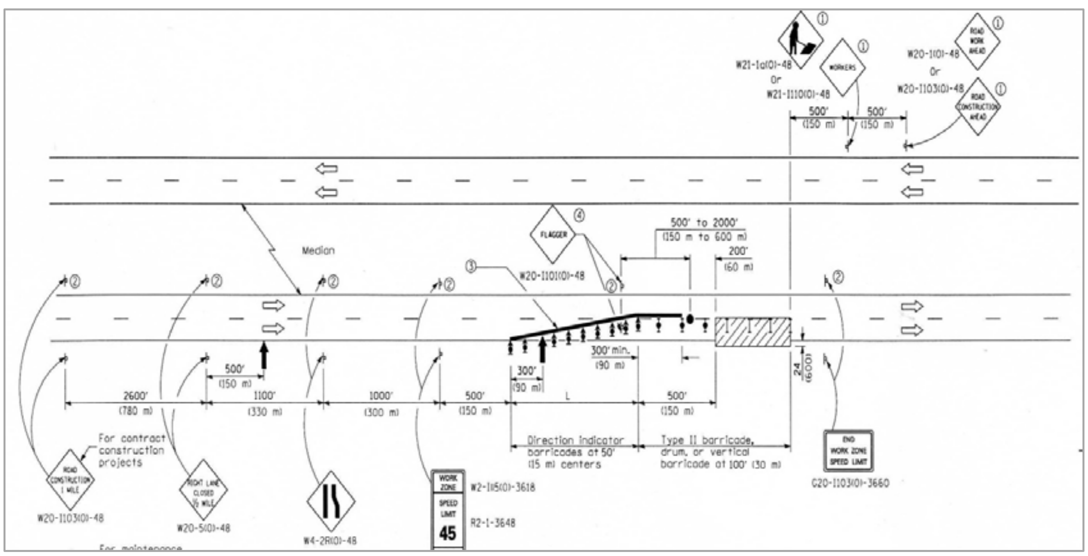


Figure 5.12. IDOT Standard 701422-02, Lane Closure, Multilane,
for Speeds ≥ 45 mph to 55 mph.

5.3 SURVEY OF IDOT RESIDENT ENGINEERS

This survey on work zone practices, sponsored by IDOT, was designed to gather information on the impact of 64 work zone parameters, grouped in 11 divisions, on the risk of crash occurrence. The survey was distributed to Illinois resident engineers, who were asked to identify the risk level of work zone parameters, identify the importance of these parameters according to their impact on work zones safety, and provide recommendations and suggestions to improve work zone layouts and efficient placement of temporary rumble strips within and before work zones.

The survey development follows the guidelines of the American Association for Public Opinion Research (AAPOR, no date). The number of resident engineers in IDOT was estimated to be around 250, representing all IDOT districts. The online survey was sent to all district resident engineers, and complete responses were received from 146 resident engineers, with a response rate of 58%. At a variability level of 0.5 and confidence level of 90%, this response rate (146/250) has a permissible error of ±4% (Williams and Protheroe 2008). In other words, if a survey result shows that 94% of resident engineers rank “multilane closure at entrance ramp” as high risk, we can be 90% confident that the percentage of the whole population of IDOT resident engineers who believed the high risk of “multilane closure at entrance ramp” would fall somewhere in the range between 90% and 98%. The following sections present in detail the survey design followed by a discussion of the impact of work zone parameters on the risk of crash occurrence and IDOT resident engineers’ recommendations to improve work zone practices.

The survey consisted of three main sections, as shown in Appendix B. The first section required Illinois resident engineers to identify the impact of 64 work zone parameters on the risk level of crash occurrence in and around the highway work area. The 64 parameters were categorized in 11 divisions: (1) work zone layout, (2) work zone hours, (3) work zone duration, (4) use of right-side or median shoulder as a temporary traffic lane, (5) work zone type, (6) roadway classification, (7) reduced lane width, (8) median type, (9) traffic control devices, (10) vision obstructions, and (11) work zone speed limit. A comprehensive list of work zone parameters associated with each of these 11 divisions was developed by the research team and was then reviewed and revised by the Technical Review Panel (TRP) of this project to identify typical work zone layout parameters that may have an impact on crash occurrences. In the first section of the survey, IDOT resident engineers were asked to evaluate and identify the risk level of crash occurrence associated with each work zone parameter on a scale ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 indicates lowest risk and 5 indicates highest risk. The work zone categories and their parameters are presented in more detail in the following sections.

The second section of the survey required IDOT resident engineers to evaluate the importance of the 11 work zone divisions according to their impact on the safety of work zones. A scale ranging from 1 to 5 was used, where 1 indicates lowest importance and 5 indicates highest importance. The influence of work zone parameters on the safety of work zones are used together with risk levels of work zone parameters to identify the impact of work zone parameters on the safety of work zones.

The third section of the survey included three questions asking resident engineers for their feedback and recommendations on

1. Improving work zone layouts to minimize crashes in and around the work area.
2. Types and efficiency of innovative work zone or traffic control devices.
3. Possible locations to place temporary rumble strips within work zone layouts.

The following sections present a detailed analysis of IDOT resident engineers’ responses for each of the 11 work zone divisions followed by a discussion of the impact of work zone parameters on the risk level of crash occurrence. A detailed analysis of resident engineers’ suggestions and recommendations for improving work zone layout and placing temporary rumble strips is presented in Sections 5.7, 5.8, 5.9, and 5.10.

5.4 IMPACT OF WORK ZONE PARAMETERS ON THE RISK OF CRASH OCCURRENCE

This section presents the impact of the 11 work zone divisions and their 64 parameters on the risk level of crash occurrence. The analysis was based on the survey responses of 146 IDOT resident engineers. Statistical averages and standard deviations were calculated to infer the aggregated risk levels perceived by the resident engineers.

5.4.1 Work Zone Layout

To identify the risk level associated with work zone layouts, IDOT resident engineers were asked to identify the risk level of seven work zone layouts (shown in Table 2.1) on a scale ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 indicates lowest risk and 5 indicates highest risk. The seven work zone layouts were selected to represent typical layouts in the state of Illinois. Table 5.1 shows that the work zone layout of multilane closure at entrance ramp has the highest average risk level of 3.8 followed by multilane closure at exit ramp that had a risk level of 3.6, while the layouts of median crossover and use of shoulder have the lowest average risk levels of 2.8 and 2.7, respectively. A significant majority of IDOT resident engineers (approximately 75%) reported that the three work zone layouts of median crossover, divergence, and use of shoulder create low to medium risk levels of crash occurrence (≤ 3). As shown in Figure 5.13, more than 94% of resident engineers reported that the layout of multilane closure at entrance ramp causes a high risk of crash occurrence (≥ 3).

Table 5.1. IDOT Resident Engineer Responses on Work Zone Layout Risk Levels

		Response Percentages of Work Zone Layouts Risk Levels					
		1 Lowest Risk	2	3 Medium Risk	4	5 Highest Risk	Average
1- Work Zone Layout	1.1 Multilane Closure at Entrance Ramp	1.4%	4.3%	29.8%	43.3%	21.3%	3.8
	1.2 Multilane Closure at Exit Ramp	5.0%	10.6%	29.1%	31.9%	23.4%	3.6
	1.3 Two Lane Closure on Freeway/Expressway	5.0%	11.3%	36.2%	31.9%	15.6%	3.4
	1.4 One Lane Closure on Freeway/Expressway	6.4%	21.3%	36.2%	24.8%	11.3%	3.1
	1.5 Median Crossover	8.5%	33.3%	32.6%	22.7%	2.8%	2.8
	1.6 Divergence	5.0%	22.7%	50.4%	16.3%	5.7%	3.0
	1.7 Use of Shoulder	16.3%	27.7%	31.2%	17.0%	7.8%	2.7

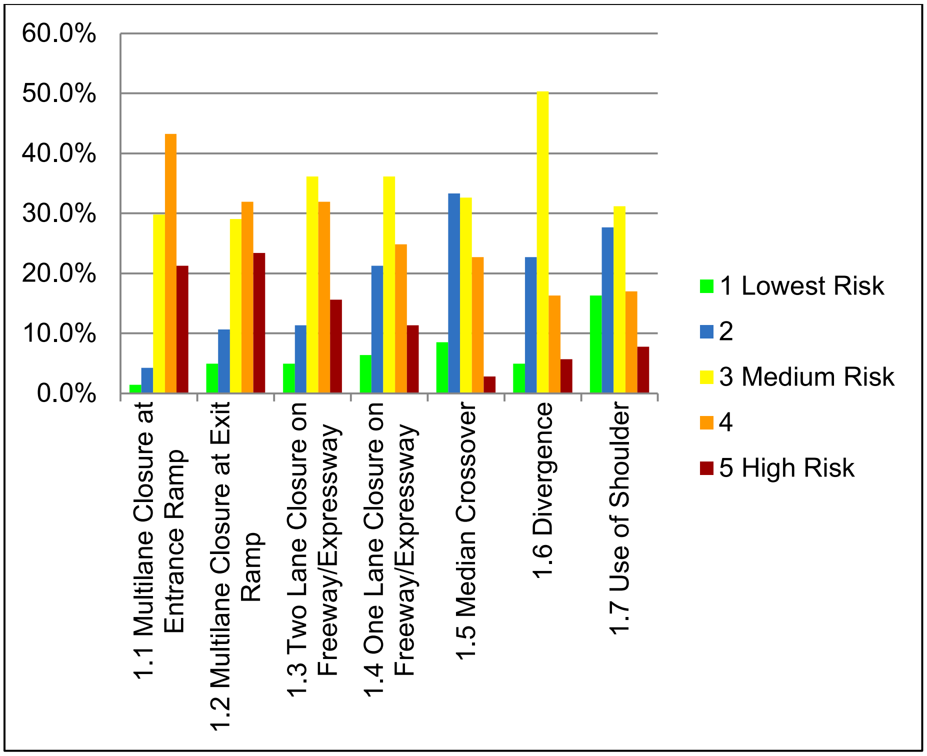


Figure 5.13. Impact of work zone layouts on risk level of crash occurrence.

5.4.2 Work Zone Hours

Work zones were categorized in this section based on their operation hours into four daily periods: (1) morning, from 6:01AM to 10:00AM, (2) daytime, from 10:01AM to 4:00PM, (3) afternoon, from 4:01PM to 8:00PM, and (4) night, from 8:01PM to 6:00AM, as shown in Table 5.2. IDOT resident engineers were then asked to identify the risk level associated with each of the four periods on crash occurrence. The daytime period (10:01AM to 4:00PM) was reported by a significant percentage of IDOT respondents to create the lowest risk of crash occurrence 2.8. Other periods of the day were reported to have average risk levels that ranged between 3.6 and 3.9. On the other hand, a significant percentage of resident engineers (39%) identified nighttime period (from 8:01PM to 6:00AM) to have the highest risk (level 5), as shown in Figure 5.14.

Table 5.2. IDOT Resident Engineer Responses on Work Zone Hours Risk Levels

		Response Percentages of Work Zone Hours Risk Levels					
		1 Lowest Risk	2	3 Medium Risk	4	5 Highest Risk	Average
2- Work Zone Hours	2.1 Morning (6:01AM ~ 10:00AM)	2.1%	6.4%	20.6%	37.6%	33.3%	3.9
	2.2 Daytime (10:01AM ~ 4:00PM)	9.2%	23.4%	46.1%	17.7%	3.5%	2.8
	2.3 Afternoon (4:01PM ~ 8:00PM)	1.4%	3.5%	22.0%	47.5%	25.5%	3.9
	2.4 Nighttime (8:01PM ~ 6:00AM)	7.8%	16.3%	18.4%	18.4%	39.0%	3.6

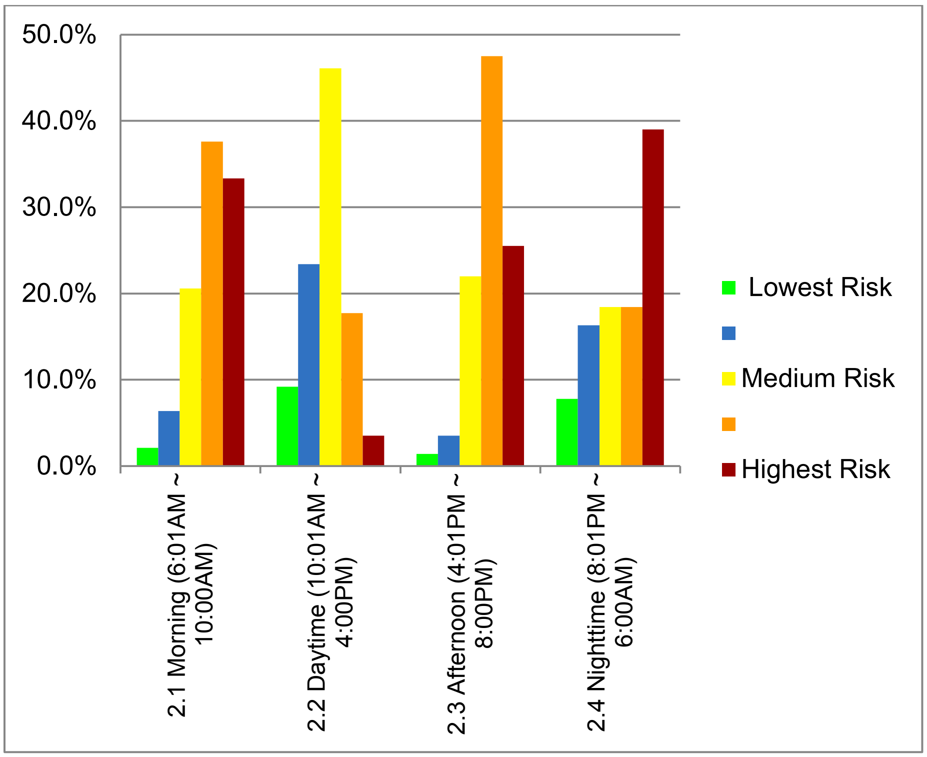


Figure 5.14. Impact of work zone hours on risk level of crash occurrence.

5.4.3 Work Zone Duration

Based on IDOT operation standards, work zones have been categorized in this section into four main categories based on their duration length, D: (1) long-term stationary operations (D ≥ 3 days), (2) intermediate-term stationary operations (1 day > D > 3 days), (3) short-term stationary operations (D > 30 minutes), and (4) mobile operations (D < 15 minutes). Table 5.3 shows that the majority of resident engineers (80.2%) indicated that long-term stationary operations would have low to medium risk levels (≤ 3) of crash occurrence. On the other hand, the majority of resident engineers (86%) identified short-term stationary operations to have medium to high risk levels (≥ 3) of crash occurrence. The two work zone durations that had the highest average risk levels were short-term stationary operations, with an average risk level of 3.5; and mobile operations, with an average risk level of 3.4. More than half of the resident engineers identified intermediate-term stationary operations as medium risk (Figure 5.15).

Table 5.3. IDOT Resident Engineer Responses on Work Zone Duration Risk Levels

		Response Percentages of Work Zone Durations Risk Levels					
		1 Lowest Risk	2	3 Medium Risk	4	5 Highest Risk	Average
3- Work Zone Duration	3.1 Long Term Stationary Operations (D ≥ 3 days)	14.2%	31.2%	34.8%	15.6%	4.3%	2.6
	3.2 Intermediate Term Stationary Operations (1 day > D > 3 days)	1.4%	14.2%	52.5%	24.8%	7.1%	3.2
	3.3 Short Term Stationary Operations (D > 30 minutes)	4.3%	9.9%	34.8%	38.3%	12.8%	3.5
	3.4 Mobile Operations (D < 15 minutes)	9.9%	9.2%	27.0%	36.9%	17.0%	3.4

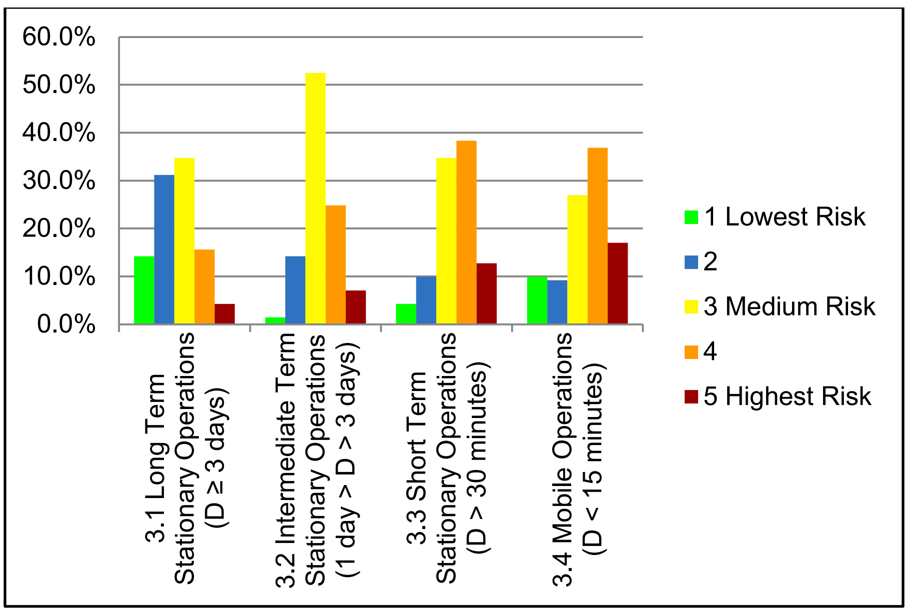


Figure 5.15. Impact of work zone duration on risk level of crash occurrence.

5.4.4 Right-Side or Median Shoulder as a Temporary Traffic Lane

This category analyzes the impact of using the right-side or median shoulder as a temporary traffic lane on work zone safety. Accordingly, this category includes five parameters: (1) narrow shoulders and constricted lanes, (2) full shoulders and constricted lanes, (3) shoulder pavement structure is different, (4) high traffic volume, and (5) lanes constricted by temporary concrete barriers. IDOT resident engineers were asked to report their perception of risk associated with each of these parameters. As shown in Table 5.4, work zones with shoulders subjected to high traffic volume and narrow shoulders with lane constrictions were reported to have the highest average of risk levels of 4.0 and 3.8, respectively. Furthermore, Figure 5.16 shows that a significant percentage of resident engineers (~40%) indicated that shoulder pavement structure and lane constriction by temporary concrete barrier represent medium risk level of crash occurrence.

Table 5.4. IDOT Resident Engineer Responses on the Risk Level of Using Right-Side or Median Shoulder as Temporary Traffic Lane

		Response Percentages of Shoulder Usage Risk Levels					
		1 Lowest Risk	2	3 Medium Risk	4	5 Highest Risk	Average
4- Right-side or Median Shoulder as a temporary	4.1 Narrow Shoulders and Lane Constricted	1.4%	7.1%	24.8%	44.0%	22.7%	3.8
	4.2 Full Shoulders and Lane Constricted	7.8%	28.4%	36.9%	24.1%	2.8%	2.9
	4.3 Shoulder Pavement Structure is Different	3.5%	19.9%	37.6%	30.5%	8.5%	3.2
	4.4 High Traffic Volume	2.1%	5.7%	17.7%	40.4%	34.0%	4.0
	4.5 Lane Constricted by Temporary Concrete Barriers	12.1%	15.6%	39.0%	21.3%	12.1%	3.1

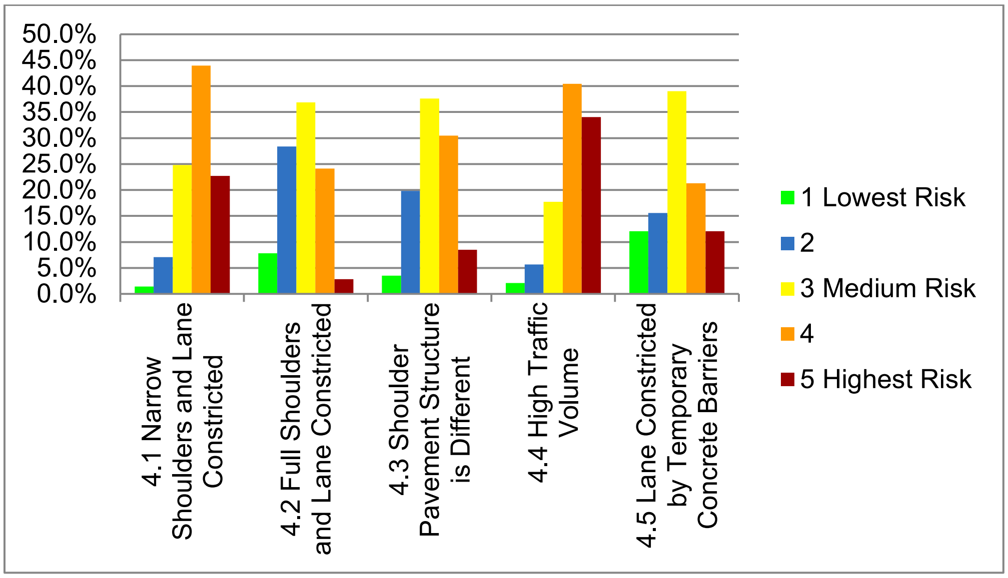


Figure 5.16. Impact of using right-side or median shoulder as temporary traffic lane on risk level of crash occurrence.

5.4.5 Work Zone Type

In this survey, work zones were classified into seven main types: (1) work zone setup/access, (2) shoulder closure-only operations, (3) pavement sawing/patching, (4) HMA paving, (5) bridge/culvert construction and maintenance, (6) pavement striking and marking, and (7) delivery truck entrance/exit. IDOT resident engineers were then asked to identify the risk level associated with each of the seven work zone types. Table 5.5 shows that work zone setup/access and pavement sawing/patching were identified by IDOT resident engineers as having the highest average risk level of 3.6. On the other hand, shoulder closure-only operations and maintenance operations had the least average risk levels of 2.4 and 2.8, respectively. A significant percentage of resident engineers (46%) reported that bridge/culvert construction and maintenance have a medium risk of 3, as shown in Figure 5.17.

Table 5.5. IDOT Resident Engineer Responses on Work Zone Type Risk Levels

		Response Percentages of Work Zone Type Risk Levels					
		1 Lowest Risk	**2**	**3 Medium Risk**	**4**	**5 Highest Risk**	**Average**
5- Work Zone Type	**5.1 Work Zone Setup/Access**	3.5%	8.5%	34.8%	28.4%	24.8%	3.6
	5.2 Shoulder Closure Only Operations	22.0%	31.9%	34.8%	8.5%	2.8%	2.4
	5.3 Pavement Sawing/Patching	2.1%	11.3%	33.3%	32.6%	20.6%	3.6
	5.4 HMA Paving	3.5%	19.1%	30.5%	36.9%	9.9%	3.3
	5.5 Bridge/Culvert Construction and Maintenance	7.8%	28.4%	46.1%	14.9%	2.8%	2.8
	5.6 Pavement Striking and Marking	4.3%	17.7%	33.3%	33.3%	11.3%	3.3
	5.7 Delivery Truck Entrance/Exit	4.3%	16.3%	39.0%	29.1%	11.3%	3.3

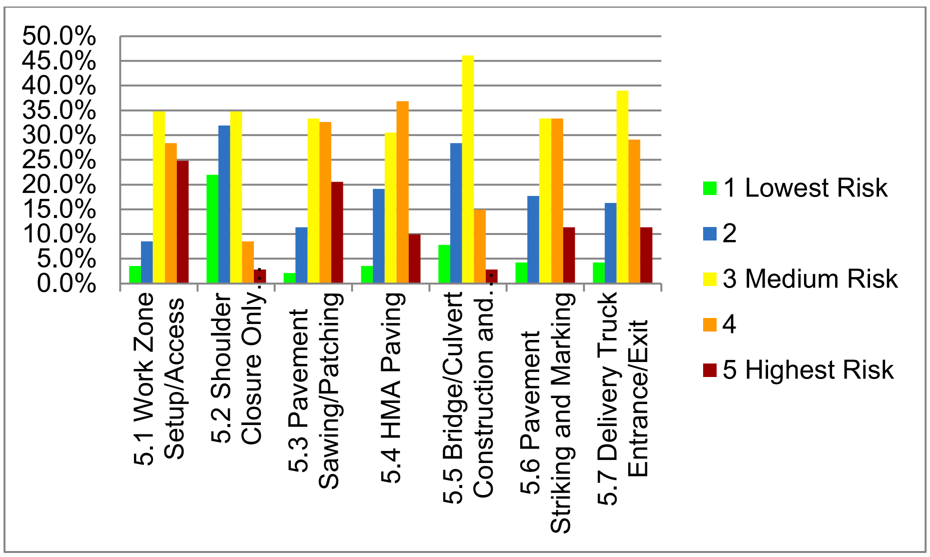


Figure 5.17. Impact of work zone type on risk level of crash occurrence.

5.4.6 Roadway Types

To avoid any confusion that may result from the various classifications of roadway types, the IDOT Technical Review Panel for this project recommended use of roadway classifications from the Manual on Uniform Traffic Control Devices (MUTCD; FHWA 2009c) in this survey. Therefore, the roadway category in the survey includes four types: (1) controlled access highways, (2) multilane rural without access control, (3) two lanes, and (4) urban and suburban arterials. IDOT resident engineers were then asked to identify the risk levels for crash occurrence in work zones on these four roadway types. The results of the survey indicate that IDOT resident engineers did not report a significant difference in risk among the four types of roadways (Table 5.6). Figure 5.18 shows that a significant percentage of resident engineers identified a medium risk level of 3 for the four types of roadways analyzed.

Table 5.6. IDOT Resident Engineer Responses on Roadway Classification Risk Levels

		Response Percentages of Roadway Types Risk Levels					
		1 Lowest Risk	2	3 Medium Risk	4	5 Highest Risk	Average
6- Roadway Types	6.1 Controlled Access Highways	7.8%	18.4%	39.7%	18.4%	15.6%	3.2
	6.2 Multilane Rural without Access Control	3.5%	17.7%	36.2%	32.6%	9.9%	3.3
	6.3 Two Lanes	3.5%	22.7%	39.0%	28.4%	6.4%	3.1
	6.4 Urban and Suburban Arterials	4.3%	12.1%	34.8%	31.2%	17.7%	3.5

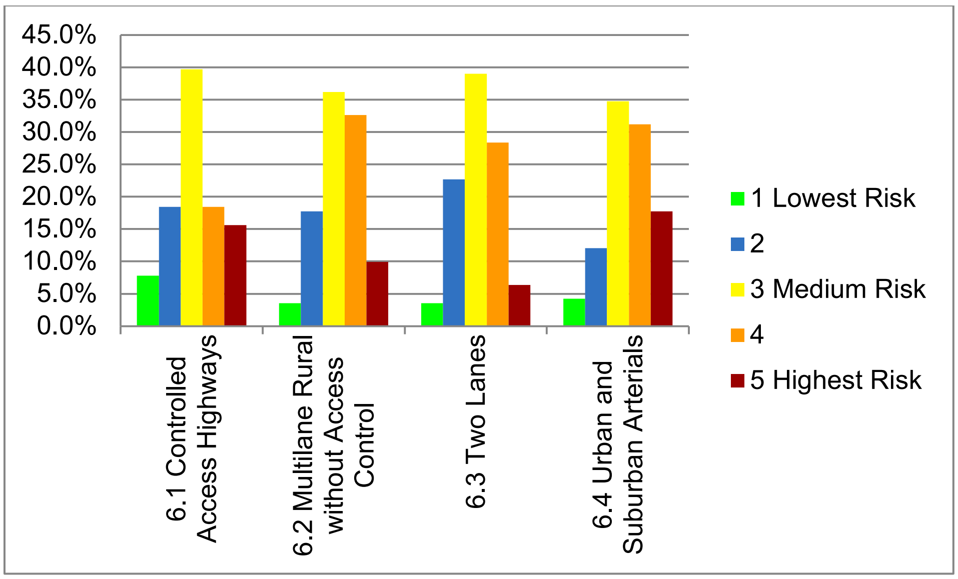


Figure 5.18. Impact of roadway classification on risk level of crash occurrence.

5.4.7 Reduced Lane Width

The layout of many highway construction work zones often requires partial lane closures or a reduction in the width of open traffic lanes. The impact of this reduction in lane width on the risk of work zone crashes is analyzed in this section of the survey. This category includes four types of lane closures and/or lane width reduction: (1) all lanes open for traffic (off-road operations), (2) one or more lanes closed (traffic lane width = 12 ft), (3) one or more lanes closed (traffic lane width < 12 ft), and (4) pavement edge drop-off. IDOT resident engineers were asked to indicate the impact of each of these four parameters on the risk of work zone crashes. Table 5.7 shows that work zones that allow all lanes to be open for public traffic had the lowest risk of crash occurrence (1.8). On the other hand, work zones with pavement edge drop-off had the highest risk of crash occurrence (3.9). The majority of resident engineers (90%) indicated that work zones that had one or more lanes closed (traffic lane width < 12 ft) create medium to high risk levels (≥ 3) of crash occurrence, as shown in Figure 5.19.

Table 5.7. IDOT Resident Engineer Responses on Reduced Lane Width Risk Levels

		Response Percentages of Reduced Lane Width Risk Levels					
		1 Lowest Risk	2	3 Medium Risk	4	5 Highest Risk	Average
7- Reduced Lane Width	7.1 All Lanes Open for Traffic (Off-Road Operations	53.2%	22.7%	18.4%	4.3%	1.4%	1.8
	7.2 One or More Lanes Closed (Traffic Lane Width = 12 ft)	2.8%	24.8%	52.5%	15.6%	4.3%	2.9
	7.3 One or More Lanes Closed (Traffic Lane Width < 12 ft)	1.4%	9.2%	24.8%	47.5%	17.0%	3.7
	7.4 Pavement Edge Drop-off	1.4%	6.4%	24.8%	39.0%	28.4%	3.9

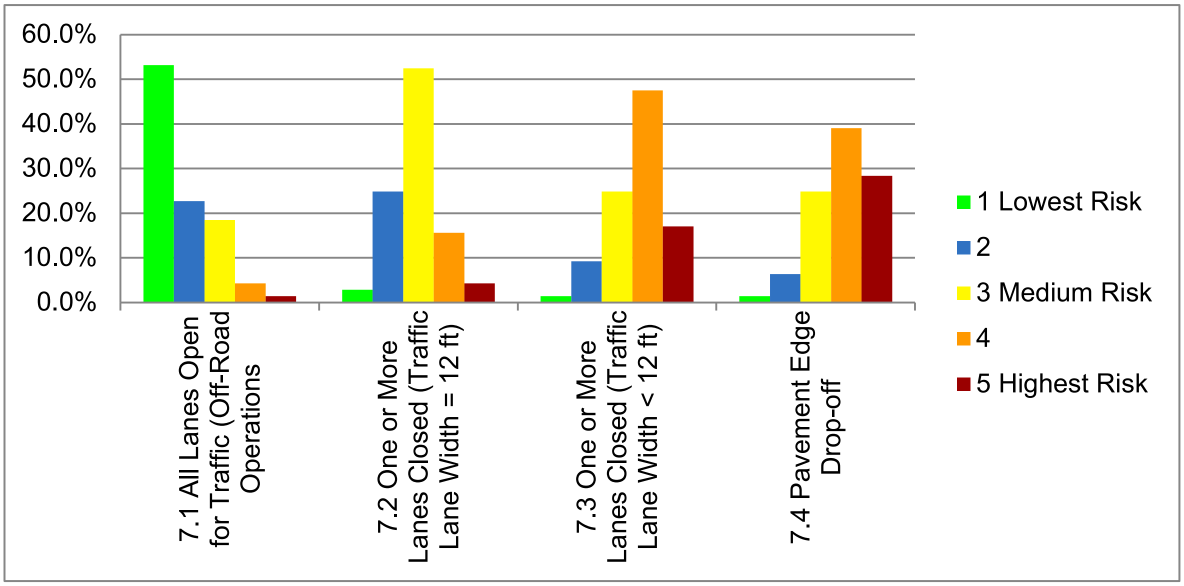


Figure 5.19. Impact of reduced lane width on the risk level of crash occurrence.

5.4.8 Median Type

Median types were found to be statistically correlated with the frequency of work zone crashes in Chapter 4. Accordingly, this survey was designed to collect IDOT resident engineers' perceptions on the impact of different types of work zone medians on the risk level of crash occurrence. The category of median types included eight parameters of work zone medians that match the types identified by IDOT and are listed in the guidebook for the Illinois state data files released by the Highway Safety Information System (Council and Mohamedshah 2009). The eight median types are (1) no median, (2) unprotected, sodded, treated earth, (3) curbed raised median, any width, (4) positive barrier, (5) rumble strips or chatter bar, (6) painted, (7) bi-directional turn lanes, and (8) mountable medians. Illinois resident engineers were asked to identify the risk level of each of these eight median types. Work zones that had no median were reported by IDOT resident engineers to have the highest average risk level of 3.5. On the other hand, work zones that had positive barriers, fencing, retaining walls, and guard rails were reported to have the lowest risk level of 2.2 (Table 5.8). A significant percentage of resident engineers identified work zones that had rumble strip medians to have a low risk level of 2, as shown in Figure 5.20.

Table 5.8. IDOT Resident Engineer Responses on Median Type Risk Levels

		Response Percentages of Median Type Risk Levels					
		1 Lowest Risk	2	3 Medium Risk	4	5 Highest Risk	Average
8- Median Type	8.1 No Median	5.0%	9.9%	35.5%	27.7%	22.0%	3.5
	8.2 Unprotected - Sodded, Treated Earth	7.8%	29.1%	39.0%	20.6%	3.5%	2.8
	8.3 Curbed - Raised Median, Any Width	12.8%	44.0%	30.5%	9.2%	3.5%	2.5
	8.4 Positive Barrier - Fencing, Retaining Walls, Guard Rails, Open Space Between Elevated	35.5%	24.8%	27.7%	10.6%	1.4%	2.2
	8.5 Rumble Strip or Chatter Bar	12.1%	40.4%	36.2%	9.9%	1.4%	2.5
	8.6 Painted	3.5%	27.0%	39.0%	27.0%	3.5%	3.0
	8.7 Bi-directional Turn Lanes	4.3%	14.9%	44.0%	29.8%	7.1%	3.2
	8.8 Mountable Median	8.5%	38.3%	34.8%	17.7%	0.7%	2.6

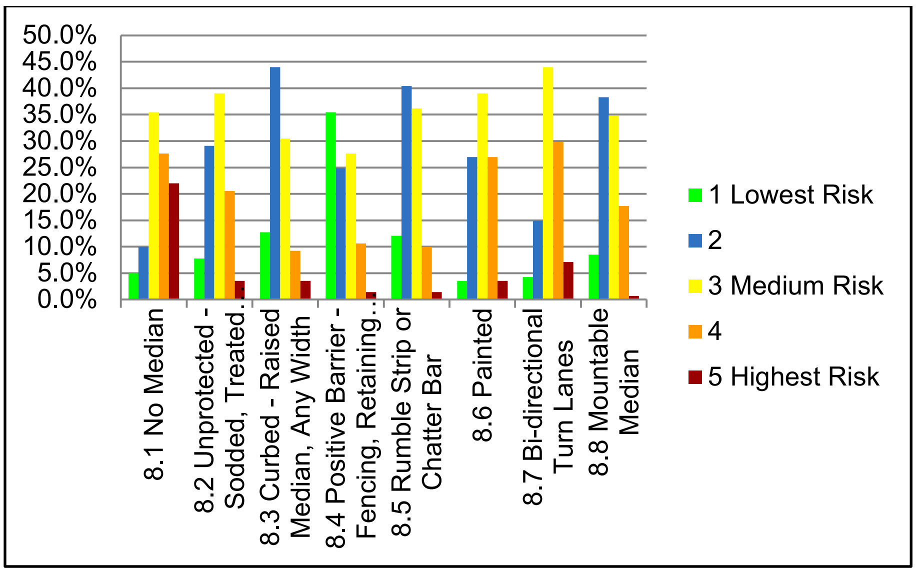


Figure 5.20. Impact of median type on risk level of crash occurrence

5.4.9 Temporary Traffic Control

The type of temporary traffic control (TTC) countermeasures applied within work zones was found to be statistically correlated with the frequency of work zone crashes in the second interim report of this project (El-Rayes et al. 2009a). This section of the survey was designed to analyze the effectiveness of eight TTC countermeasures that are typically used in most IDOT operations (see Table 2.10). IDOT resident engineers were asked to identify the effectiveness of each device/countermeasure in preventing crashes on a scale ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 indicates lowest effectiveness and 5 indicates highest effectiveness. A consensus on the effectiveness of police enforcement on reducing work zone crash occurrence can be identified from the results shown in Table 5.9 because resident engineers reported its average effectiveness as 4.6. Other TTC countermeasures had average effectiveness ratings that ranged between 3.4 and 3.8. Figure 5.21 shows that a significant percentage of resident engineers identified flaggers, arrow boards, and channelization devices to have high effectiveness in reducing work zone crashes.

Table 5.9. IDOT Resident Engineer Responses on Temporary Traffic Control Effectiveness

		Effectiveness of Traffic Control Devices on Reducing Crash Occurrence					
		1 Lowest Effectiveness	2	3 Medium Effectiveness	4	5 Highest Effectiveness	Average
9- Traffic Control Devices	9.1 Message Boards	3.5%	12.8%	28.4%	27.0%	28.4%	3.6
	9.2 Speed Displays	6.4%	11.3%	31.9%	32.6%	17.7%	3.4
	9.3 Flagger	1.4%	10.6%	31.9%	38.3%	17.7%	3.6
	9.4 Truck Mounted Attenuators (TMAs)	2.8%	12.1%	35.5%	32.6%	17.0%	3.5
	9.5 Police Presence	2.8%	0.7%	6.4%	12.1%	78.0%	4.6
	9.6 Automated Photo Enforcement	9.2%	5.7%	27.7%	30.5%	27.0%	3.6
	9.7 Arrow Boards	1.4%	4.3%	32.6%	43.3%	18.4%	3.7
	9.8 Channelization Devices	0.7%	7.1%	29.1%	39.0%	24.1%	3.8

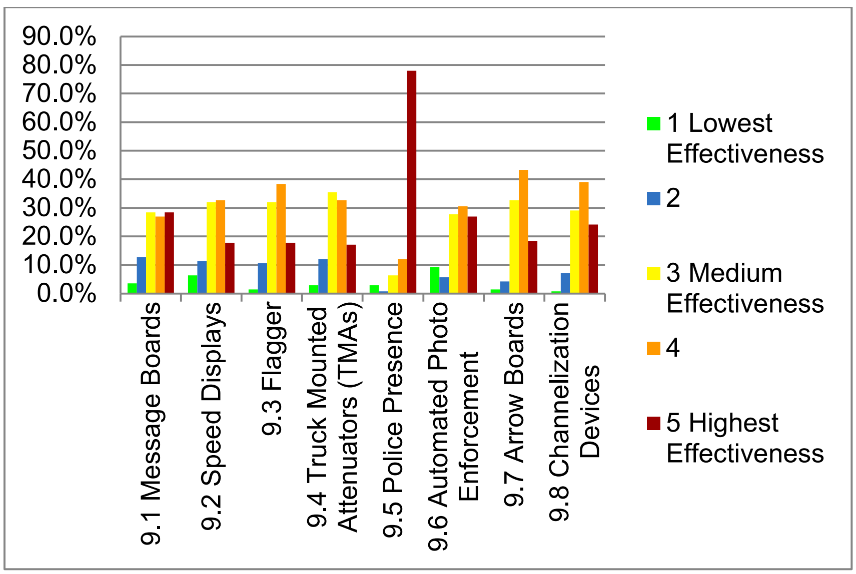


Figure 5.21. Effectiveness of temporary traffic control countermeasures on reducing crashes.

5.4.10 Vision Obstructions

During a construction site visit, one of the interviewed resident engineers reported that many of the work zone crashes he witnessed occurred at intersections that had vegetation obstacles blocking driver vision. Accordingly, this section of the survey was designed to study the impact of vision obstructions on the risk level of crash occurrence. This category of vision obstructions includes eight main types: (1) trees, (2) signs, (3) construction equipment, (4) glare from sun, (5) glare from headlights, (6) glare from nighttime work zones, (7) horizontal or vertical curves, and (8) temporary concrete barriers. Illinois resident engineers were asked to identify the impact of each vision obstruction on the risk level of crash occurrence. Vision obstruction that is caused by glare from the sun was identified by resident engineers as creating the highest average risk level (3.9) of crash occurrence. On the other hand, the majority of resident engineers (83.7%) reported that temporary concrete barriers created a low to medium risk level (≤ 3) of crash occurrence (Table 5.10). As shown in Figure 5.22, more than 85% of survey respondents indicated that vision obstruction caused by construction equipment, horizontal and vertical curves, glare from headlights, and glare from nighttime work zones caused high risk (≥ 3).

Table 5.10. IDOT Resident Engineer Responses on Vision Obstructions Risk Levels

		Response Percentages of Vision Obstructions Risk Levels					
		1 Lowest Risk	2	3 Medium Risk	4	5 Highest Risk	Average
10- Vision Obstructions	10.1 Trees	17.7%	22.7%	34.8%	17.7%	7.1%	2.7
	10.2 Signs	6.4%	32.6%	34.0%	22.7%	4.3%	2.9
	10.3 Construction Equipment	2.1%	12.8%	37.6%	36.2%	11.3%	3.4
	10.4 Glare from Sun	1.4%	3.5%	23.4%	43.3%	28.4%	3.9
	10.5 Glare from Headlights	1.4%	13.5%	36.2%	31.2%	17.7%	3.5
	10.6 Glare from Nighttime Work Zones	4.3%	15.6%	32.6%	32.6%	14.9%	3.4
	10.7 Horizontal or Vertical Curves	2.8%	9.9%	34.8%	32.6%	19.9%	3.6
	10.8 Temporary Concrete Barriers	13.5%	28.4%	41.8%	12.8%	3.5%	2.6

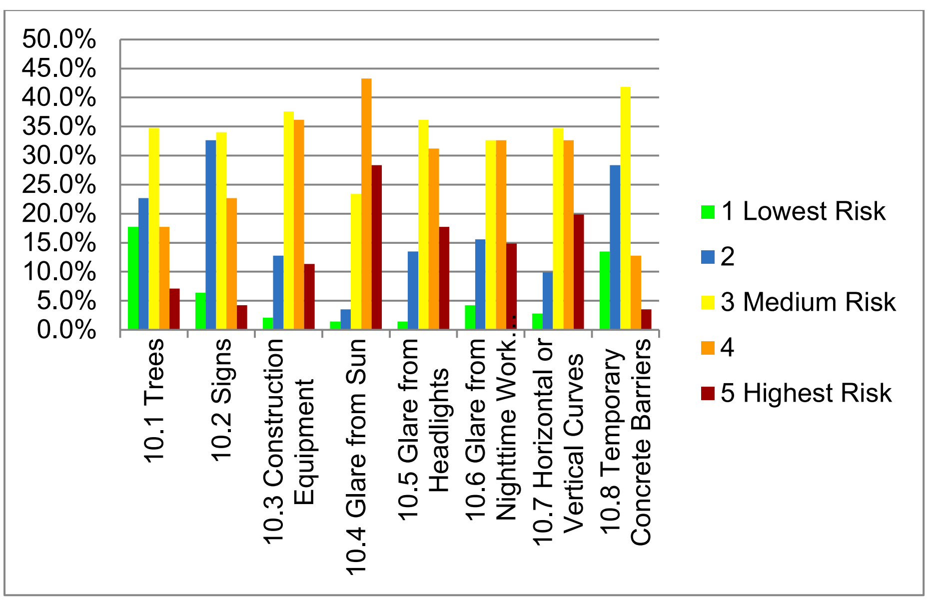


Figure 5.22. Impact of vision obstructions on risk level of crash occurrence.

5.4.11 Work Zone Speed Limit

Work zone speed limit was found to be statistically correlated with the frequency of work zone crashes in the second interim report of this project (El-Rayes et al. 2009a). Accordingly, this survey was designed to study the impact of five types of speed limits on the risk of crash occurrence: (1) 35 mph, (2) 45 mph, (3) 55 mph, (4) advisory speed reduction only, and (5) no work zone speed reduction. IDOT resident engineers were asked to identify the impact of each speed limit parameter on the risk level of crash occurrence. Work zones with no speed reductions were reported by resident engineers to create the highest average risk level of 4.5 (Table 5.11). On the other hand, work zones with a speed limit of 35 mph were reported to create the lowest average risk level of 2.0. Figure 5.11 shows that almost 70% of resident engineers identified work zones with only advisory speed reduction to have high risk levels (≥ 4). Moreover, the survey results show that increasing the speed limit leads to a steady increase in the level of crash occurrence risks (Figure 2.23).

Table 5.11. IDOT Resident Engineer Responses on Work Zone Speed Limit Risk Levels

		Response Percentages of Vision Obstructions Risk Levels					
		1 Lowest Risk	2	3 Medium Risk	4	5 Highest Risk	Average
11 - Work Zone Speed Limit	11.1 35 mph	39.7%	29.1%	20.6%	8.5%	2.1%	2.0
	11.2 45 mph	4.3%	34.0%	44.7%	14.9%	2.1%	2.8
	11.3 55 mph	0.7%	7.1%	36.9%	31.9%	23.4%	3.7
	11.4 Advisory Speed Reduction Only	1.4%	4.3%	27.0%	41.8%	25.5%	3.9
	11.5 No Work Zone Speed Reduction	1.4%	0.7%	14.2%	13.5%	70.2%	4.5

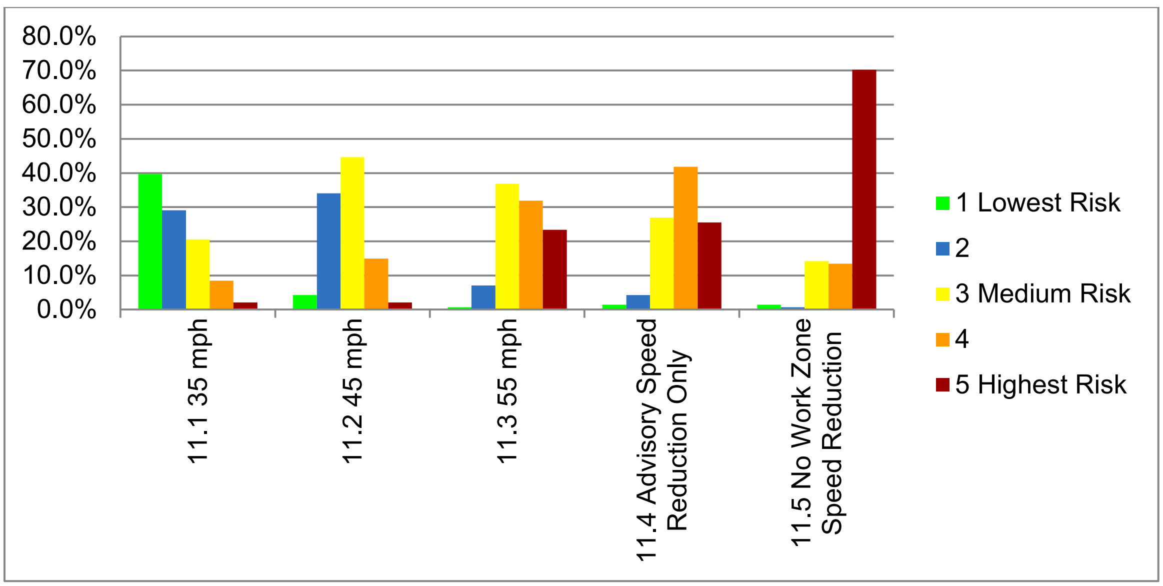


Figure 5.23. Risk level of work zone speed limit on crash occurrence.

5.5 IMPORTANCE OF WORK ZONE PARAMETERS

This section presents the results of the second section of the survey in which Illinois resident engineers were asked to identify the relative importance of the 11 analyzed categories of work zone parameters and their relative impact on the safety of work zones. IDOT resident engineers were asked to rate the importance of these 11 categories on a scale ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 indicates lowest importance and 5 indicates highest importance, as shown in Table 5.12 and Figure 5.24. Three work zone categories were identified by resident engineers to have high importance (≥ 4) on work zones safety: (1) work zone speed limit, (2) work zone layout, and (3) traffic control devices. Five other work zone parameters were rated to have medium to high importance (3.3–3.9) on work zone safety: (a) vision obstructions, (b) reduced lane width, (c) work zone hours, (d) usage of right-side/median shoulders, and (e) work zone duration. The remaining three work zone parameters were rated to have low to medium importance (2.3–2.9) on work zone safety: (i) median type, (ii) roadway classification, and (iii) work zone type. As shown in Figure 5.24, almost half of the resident engineers identified work zone layout and speed limit to have the highest importance on the safety of work zones.

Table 5.12. Work Zone Parameter Influence on the Safety of Work Zones

		Importance of Work Zone Category on the Safety of Work Zones					
		1 Lowest Importance	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5 Highest Importance**	**Average**
Work Zone Category	**1. Work Zone Layout**	3.5%	5.7%	15.6%	29.8%	45.4%	4.1
	2. Work Zone Hours	4.3%	11.3%	27.0%	35.5%	22.0%	3.6
	3. Work Zone Duration	4.3%	16.3%	36.2%	33.3%	9.9%	3.3
	4. Usage of Right-Side or Median Shoulder	3.5%	9.2%	31.9%	36.2%	19.1%	3.6
	5. Work Zone Type	6.4%	26.2%	44.7%	17.7%	5.0%	2.9
	6. Roadway Classification	30.5%	19.9%	36.9%	9.9%	2.8%	2.3
	7. Reduced Lane Width	1.4%	9.2%	31.2%	44.7%	13.5%	3.6
	8. Median Type	12.1%	26.2%	42.6%	15.6%	3.5%	2.7
	9. Traffic Control Devices	0.0%	1.4%	24.1%	42.6%	31.9%	4.0
	10. Vision Obstructions	0.7%	5.7%	24.8%	37.6%	31.2%	3.9
	11. Work Zone Speed Limit	0.7%	2.1%	17.7%	33.3%	46.1%	4.2

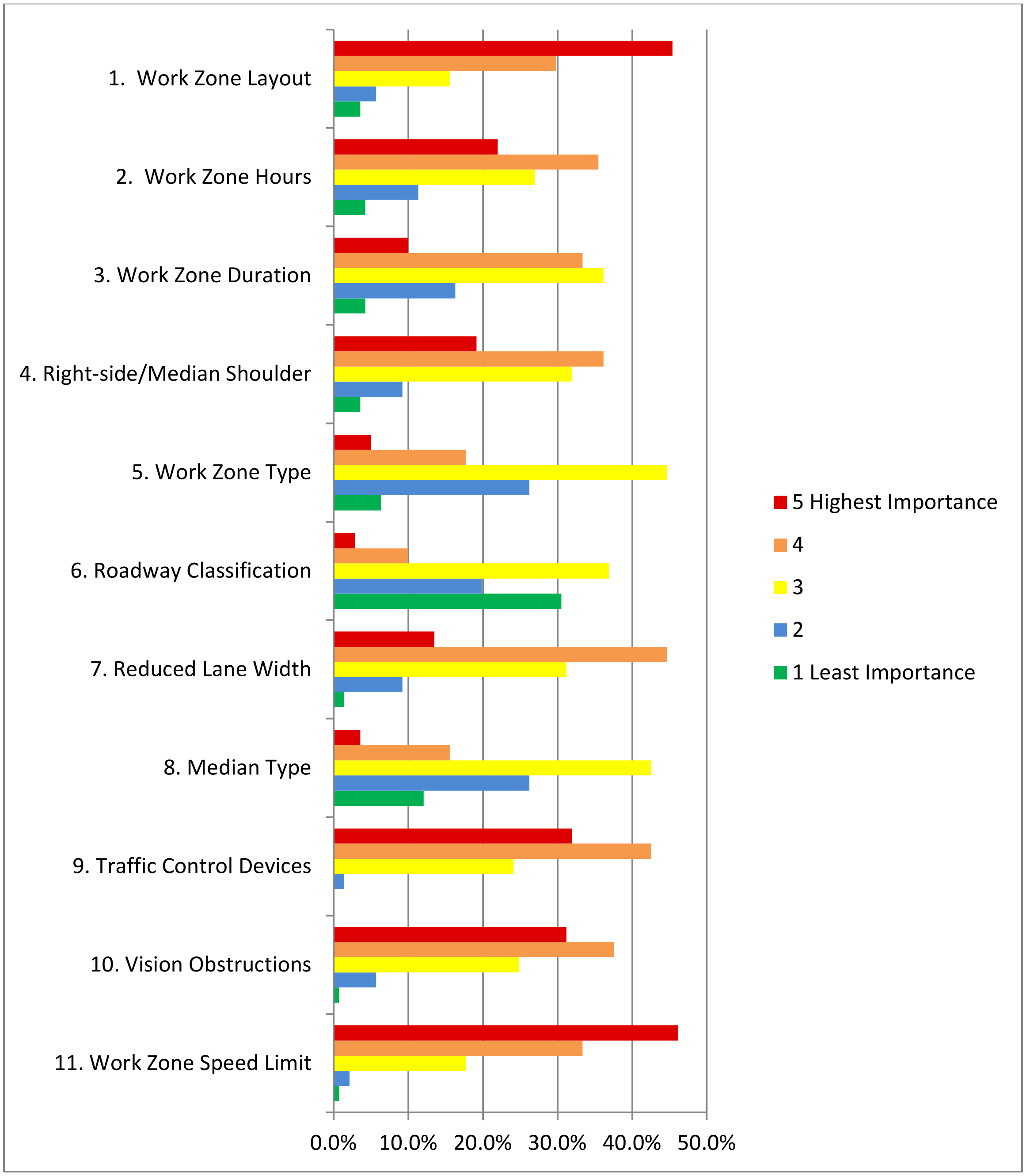


Figure 5.24. Influence of work zone parameters on the safety of work zones.

5.6 SUMMARY OF THE SURVEY RESULTS

The average risk levels of the 64 analyzed work zone parameters are summarized in Figure 5.25.

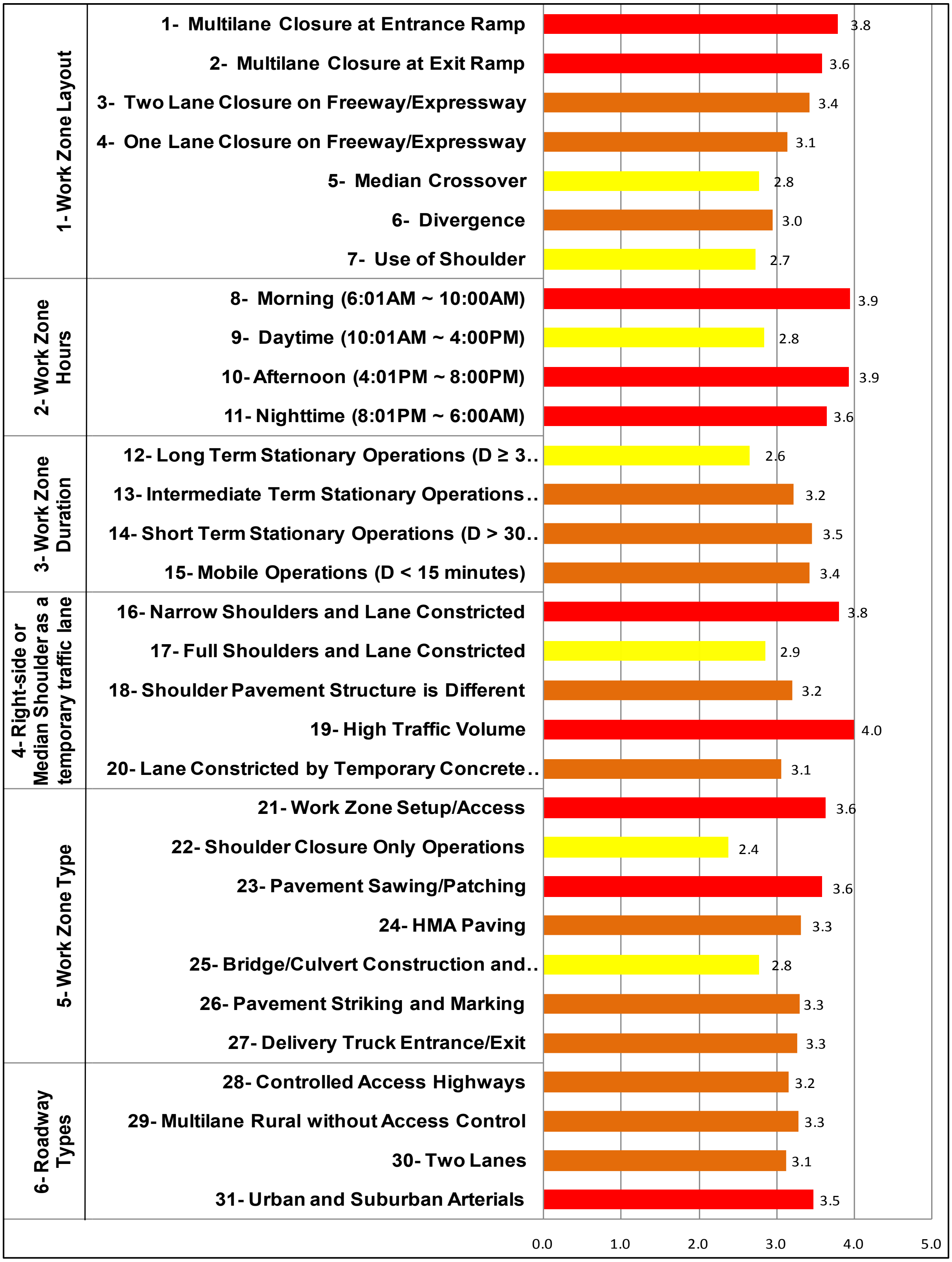


Figure 5.25. Average risk level of work zone parameters on crash occurrence (figure continues, next page).

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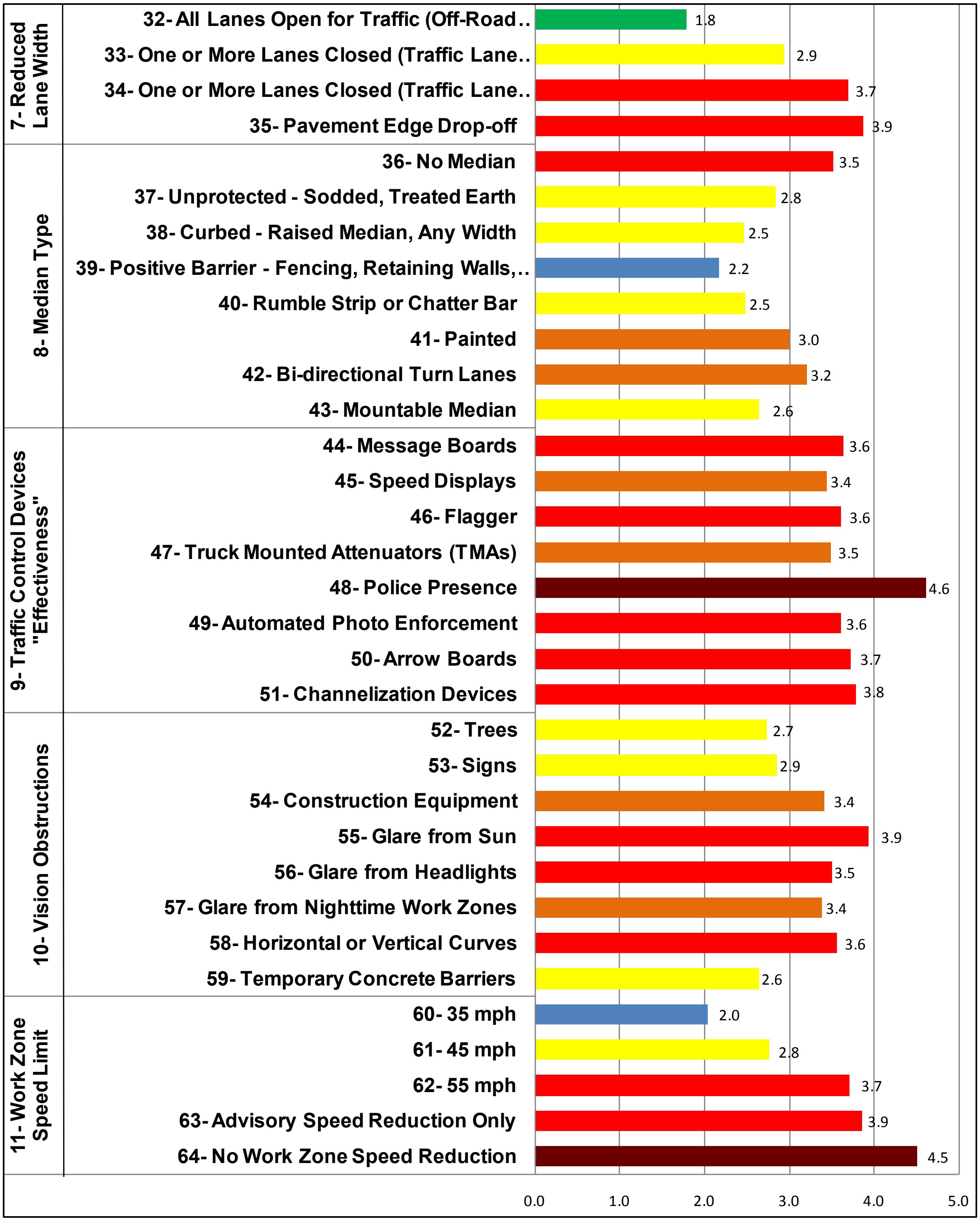


Figure 5.25 (continued). Average risk level of work zone parameters on crash occurrence.

The main findings of the online survey can be summarized for each of the 11 analyzed categories of work zone parameters as follows:

1. **Work Zone Layout:** The multilane closure at entrance ramp layout has the highest average risk level among all work zone types followed by multilane closure at exit ramp. On the other hand, work zones layouts of median crossover and use of shoulder have the lowest average risk levels. The work zone layout category was rated by resident engineers to have a high influence of 4.1 on controlling the safety of work zones.
2. **Work Zone Hours:** The morning non-peak daytime period (10:00AM – 4:00PM) was identified by most respondents to have the lowest average risk level. This category of work zone hours was rated by resident engineers to have a medium influence of 3.6 on controlling the safety of work zones.
3. **Work Zone Duration:** The majority of resident engineers reported short-term stationary operations (D > 30 minutes) to have the highest average risk level, and they identified long–term stationary operations (D ≥ 3 days) to have the lowest average risk level. The work zone duration category was rated by resident engineers to have a medium influence of 3.3 on controlling the safety of work zones.
4. **Temporary Traffic Lane Location:** IDOT resident engineers indicated that work zones with shoulders subjected to high traffic volume and narrow shoulders with lane constrictions have the highest average risk levels of 4.0 and 3.8, respectively. Resident engineers rated the use of the shoulder as a temporary traffic lane to have a medium influence of 3.6 on controlling the safety of work zones.
5. **Work Zone Type:** Work zones that require setup/access and pavement sawing/patching were identified by IDOT resident engineers to have the highest average risk level among all types of work zones, while other operations that require only shoulder closures were reported to have a minimum average risk level of 2.9 on controlling the safety of work zones.
6. **Roadway Type:** The results of the survey indicate that IDOT resident engineers did not report a significant change in risk among the four types of roadways. The roadway type category was also rated by Illinois resident engineers to have the lowest influence of 2.3 on controlling the safety of work zones.
7. **Reduced Lane Width:** The survey results showed that pavement edge drop-off had a high risk level of 3.9. The majority of resident engineers reported that reducing public traffic lanes below 12 ft will increase the risk level of crash occurrence in work zones. This category of reduced traffic lane width was rated by resident engineers to have a medium influence of 3.6 on controlling the safety of work zones.
8. **Median Type:** Work zones of no median were identified by IDOT resident engineers to have the highest risk level of crash occurrence. On the other hand, work zones medians of positive barriers, fencing, retaining walls, and guard rails had the lowest average risk level 2.2. The median type category was also rated by resident engineers to have a low influence of 2.7 on controlling the safety of work zones.

9. **Traffic Control Devices**: IDOT resident engineers have identified “police enforcement” to be the most effective temporary traffic control device in reducing crash occurrence. Furthermore, a significant percentage of resident engineers reported flaggers, arrow boards, and channelization devices to have a high average effectiveness rating of 4 in reducing work zone crashes. This category of traffic control devices was rated by resident engineers to have a high average influence rating of 4 on controlling the safety of work zones.
10. **Vision Obstructions**: IDOT resident engineers reported that high risk levels are caused by vision obstructions created by glare from the sun, horizontal and vertical curves, glare from headlights, and glare from nighttime work zones and construction equipment, while the majority indicated that vision obstruction caused by temporary concrete barriers induced low risk levels. The vision obstructions category was also rated by resident engineers to have a high influence of 3.9 on controlling the safety of work zones.
11. **Speed Limits**: Work zones that have no speed reductions were identified by Illinois resident engineers to have the highest risk level of 4.5 for crash occurrence, while work zones with enforced reduced speed limits had lower risk levels. This category of speed limit was also rated by Illinois resident engineers to have the highest influence (4.2) on controlling the safety of work zones.

5.7 RECOMMENDATIONS OF IDOT RESIDENT ENGINEERS TO IMPROVE WORK ZONE PRACTICES

This section presents the recommendations of IDOT resident engineers to improve work zone layout in order to minimize work zone crashes based on their answers to the first question of the survey as previously presented in section 5.2. Responses to this question in the survey were received from 85 IDOT resident engineers out of the total 146 complete survey responses, with a response rate of 60%. Recommendations to improve work zone layout were grouped into five categories: (1) work zone layout, (2) work zone strategies, (3) work zone standards, (4) temporary traffic control, and (5) other recommendations. The categorized responses are presented in detail in the following sections, while the exact responses are presented in Appendix C.

5.7.1 Work Zone Layout

Table 5.13 presents IDOT resident engineers’ recommendations to improve work zone layout. Each recommendation and the corresponding number of IDOT engineers who recommended it are presented in the table.

Table 5.13. IDOT Resident Engineer Recommendations to Improve Work Zone Layout

Recommendations to Improve Work Zone Layout	Number of IDOT Engineers Providing Recommendations
1. Work zone layout should be done according to the specifications and inspected by a traffic control engineer. A thorough check of consultants' plans should be done to make sure that their traffic control plans match the specifications. The delineations should be checked before and through work zones.	4
2. Taper length should be increased, inspected, maintained, and represented by a solid row of channel devices. Arrow boards should be placed in the appropriate locations relative to the tapers.	3
3. Traffic control setup should be performed two weeks before starting the job, using truck-mounted attenuators (TMAs) and signs announcing upcoming work.	3
4. Work zone layout could be done on Sundays during daytime, when there is less traffic.	1
5. Lane closures near or after a crest in a hill or in a horizontal curve should be avoided whenever possible.	1
6. Vegetation near early warning/work zone signage should be trimmed to allow better sight distance at intersections.	1
7. Traffic barriers should be used on roadways with four or more lanes.	1
8. Consistency should be followed from site to site, based on road use (interstate, urban highway, rural highway, etc.).	1
9. Many of the current layouts should be simplified for the motoring public.	1
10. The plans should accurately present the layout and match field conditions rather than be a blind application of standards.	1

5.7.2 Work Zone Strategy

Table 5.14 presents IDOT resident engineer recommendations to improve work zone strategies. Each recommendation and the corresponding number of IDOT engineers who recommended it are presented in the table.

Table 5.14. IDOT Resident Engineers Recommendations to Improve Work Zone Strategies

Recommendations to Improve Work Zone Strategies	Number of IDOT Engineers Providing Recommendations
1. More road closures and detours, especially at interstate entrance ramps of short duration, should be considered because they will save money and improve the quality of the finished product by not having to cut the work up in pieces for staging, and put the traffic on a safe and unobstructed route to travel.	6
2. Speed limits should be reduced.	6
3. Stage construction creates many conflicts. Therefore, more crossovers should be adopted using concrete barriers providing two lanes through work zones.	3
4. An additional advanced warning sign (Stopped Traffic Ahead) with flashers would alert motorists.	1
5. Work after dark should be minimized.	1
6. Traffic detours during 3R projects of 6 months of construction time should be used.	1

5.7.3 Work Zone Standards

Table 5.15 presents IDOT resident engineers' recommendations to improve work zone standards. Each recommendation and the corresponding number of IDOT engineers who support it are presented in the table.

Table 5.15. IDOT Resident Engineers Recommendations to Improve Work Zone Standards

Recommendations to Improve Work Zone Standards	Number of IDOT Engineers Providing Recommendations
1. Many of the current standards are quiet generic that it should be altered to match IDOT, tailored to each situation, or considered as guidelines with permitted flexibility for professional engineers to make engineering decisions to address actual field conditions especially at side roads and off-ramps.	5
2. Standards are not descriptive enough for stage construction plans.	1
3. Work zone standards should be adjusted for the roadway geometry (horizontal and vertical curves) and the terrain (trees or tall grass).	1
4. Standards need to be simplified. Too much information is confusing and distracting.	1
5. Standards of mobile operations on highways with speed limits of more than 55mph or high ADTs should be eliminated.	1
6. Enforced 45 mph speed limits on all roadways marked 55 and over.	1

5.7.4 Work Zone Temporary Traffic Control

Table 5.16 presents IDOT resident engineer recommendations to improve work zone temporary traffic control devices. Each recommendation and the corresponding number of IDOT engineers who recommended it are presented in the table.

Table 5.16. IDOT Resident Engineers Recommendations to Improve Work Zone Temporary Traffic Control Devices

Recommendations to Improve Work Zone Temporary Traffic Control (TTC) Devices	Number of IDOT Engineers Providing Recommendations
1. More police presence would greatly reduce frequency of work zone crashes on interstate and secondary rural highways as well. It is crucial to have it when setting traffic control devices or laying out work zones.	12
2. The use of as much advanced warning as possible is highly recommended. This includes larger and more visible signs, message boards, speed display boards, arrow boards, rumble strips, speed limit enforcement, and speed bumps.	11
3. Flaggers are effective, but more protection should be considered for them by using more advance warning signs. Contractors should be required to use flaggers.	5
4. The number of TTC signs should be reduced to avoid overloading the area, getting overlooked, and causing "orange barrage." Otherwise, flashing ones could be used.	4
5. Truck-mounted attenuators are very effective TTC, especially for laying out work zones. They ensure the safety of construction workers.	4

(Table continues next page)

Table 5.16 (continued). IDOT Resident Engineers Recommendations to Improve Work Zone Temporary Traffic Control Devices

6. Road construction ahead signs should be installed 5 miles ahead, in addition to the current RCA sign at 3 miles ahead. Flashing lights, if added, would make the sign more visible.	2
7. Strict inspection and enforcement of traffic control functionality should be in place, and penalties should be assigned if improperly maintained or malfunctioning TTC exists.	3
8. Message boards should be placed at distances 5, 3, and 1 mile approaching work zones.	1
9. The sign for speed reduction ahead should be bigger than the current one.	1
10. A construction vehicle should follow the work crew to protect them from any encroaching vehicles.	1

5.7.5 Other Recommendations

Table 5.17 presents a set of general recommendations suggested by IDOT resident engineers to improve work zone safety performance. The general recommendations and the corresponding number of IDOT engineers who recommended it are presented in the table.

Table 5.17. IDOT Resident Engineer General Recommendations

General Recommendations to Improve Work Zone Practices	Number of IDOT Engineers Providing Recommendations
1. More emphasis on work zone hazard education should be encouraged through examples/visits during driving education classes. This would make the traveling public pay more attention to driving and to consequences for offenders.	3
2. Contractors need to send out bigger crews so that there is protection for the workers laying out and placing the devices and to accelerate completion of layouts.	2
3. Earlier announcements in the newspapers and TV would make the traveling public more aware of what is going to happen in the area.	1
4. Cell phones should be outlawed.	1
5. Contractors who fail to provide directed traffic control or correct deficient traffic control should be penalized.	1
6. Cameras could be used to view different construction sites to see what type of accidents are occurring; the data could be studied to prevent future accidents in similar types of construction zones.	1

5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS OF IDOT ENGINEERS FOR USE OF INNOVATIVE TRAFFIC CONTROL DEVICES

This section presents the results of the second question of the survey, in which IDOT resident engineers were asked to provide their suggestions for innovative work zone traffic control devices that can minimize work zone crashes. Responses were received from 72 resident engineers. A tabulated summary of their answers is shown in Table 5.18, while the actual responses are listed in Appendix D.

Table 5.18. IDOT Resident Engineer Recommendations
for Use of Innovative Traffic Control Devices

Recommendations for Use of Innovative Traffic Control Devices	Number of IDOT Engineers Providing Recommendations
1. More effective and efficient use of state police enforcement patrols is important. Also, designing a safe area to park behind the concrete barriers to shoot their radar will help police officers do their job.	17
2. Digital message boards with correct information should be properly placed before and within work zones, giving motorists alternative route information and changing roadway conditions, and explaining possible hazards.	15
3. Digital speed displays should be used to provide speed indications for the motorists' current speed. It should be used approaching work zones and throughout the active area if it is lengthy.	10
4. Automated photo enforcement of speeding violations should be widely adapted.	7
5. The new reflective sheeting panels/tapes have proved to be effective for nighttime traffic control. It would reduce the number of batteries that are land filled. Moreover, it is more brighter and consistent and would need no maintenance.	4
6. Mini cones/barrels (such as Grabber Cones by Lakeside Plastics) in urban areas with narrow lanes should be used because they are effective, small, and have been already used in states such as Iowa and Indiana.	4
7. The use of flaggers should be enforced and they should be made more visible by placing a flashing light on their stop/go paddle. Moreover, the flagger should have a boat horn to warn workers when there is an emergency.	4
8. Mobile maneuverable temporary barriers would provide good protection to construction workers because they can be used in many applications.	4
9. Temporary rumble strips should be used before and within construction zones to alert drivers that something is approaching.	3
10. Arrowcades/arrow boards are very useful if they are facing the right direction.	3
11. Truck-mounted attenuators (TMAs) should be used for any moving operations to ensure worker safety.	2
12. A sign that states "Be Prepared to Stop" should be added to the other advance warning signs to minimize rear-end crashes.	2
13. Offering a suggested route on a website/message board/radio/media outlet would reduce traffic volume.	2

(Table continues next page)

Table 5.18 (continued). IDOT Resident Engineer Recommendations for Use of Innovative Traffic Control Devices

14. Barrier walls and crash walls are effective in preventing vehicles from intruding into work zones.	1
15. There is no need to have lights in traffic control devices in urban areas with overhead street lights along the roadway because the overhead street lights provide amble ambient light.	1
16. It might be good to use a red/white/blue strobe light on construction vehicles or allow the police to use IDOT vehicles.	1
17. Arrowcades on the interstate should be replaced with other TTC devices because drivers of big trucks cannot pay attention to them.	1
18. Type III barricades should be used.	1
19. Drone trooper police cars, even with "dummy cops" in the seat, may work as police presence.	1
20. Portable flags signals would greatly increase flag visibility.	1
21. Bigger light bars on any vehicles within construction zones should be used.	1
22. Drums should be used more frequently than cones because they are bigger.	1
23. Penalties and fines on contractors should be assessed if they leave the jobsite and their traffic control in a mess.	1
24. The spacing configuration of the barricades, drums, or cones should be reduced, especially for highway construction.	1
25. The use of green vests in rural areas should be prohibited. The bright orange shirt works much better.	1
26. Permits for wide loads should be issued for patching contracts.	1

5.9 PLACEMENT OF TEMPORARY RUMBLE STRIPS WITHIN WORK ZONE LAYOUT

Table 5.19 presents IDOT engineers' recommendations for the best location to place temporary rumble strips within work zones. The table presents the recommended locations and the number of IDOT resident engineers supporting these locations.

Table 5.19. Placement of Temporary Rumble Strips Within Work Zones

Placement of Temporary Rumble Strips within Work Zone Layout	Number of IDOT Engineers Providing Recommendations
1. As close to the work zone as possible, 500 ft before the flagger	26
2. Before “Road Construction Ahead” warning sign (current IDOT standard)	24
3. By the “Work Zone Speed Limit” sign	14
4. 1,500 ft before lane closure taper at “Lane Merge” sign	12
5. Along tapers at the edge of work zones	5
6. 500 ft past the farthest estimated queue of stopped or slowed vehicles for work zones where stopped or significantly slowed traffic is expected.	3
7. At “Road Construction 1 Mile Ahead”	2
8. Use a note signaling to motorists that there is a hazard ahead	2
9. At “Road Construction 0.5 Mile Ahead”	1

As shown in Table 5.19, 26 resident engineers (30%) recommended locating a set of temporary rumble strips as close to the work zone as possible. Many resident engineers reported that placing temporary rumble strips very close to work zone will help alert motorists encroaching construction zones to slow down or stop. Table 5.19 also shows that 24 resident engineers (27%) recommended following the IDOT standard by installing temporary rumble strips in advance of the work zone (before the “Road Construction Ahead” sign). The auditory and vibratory stimuli of temporary rumble strips increase the likelihood that motorists will obey work zone directions and regulations. Fourteen resident engineers (17%) recommended placing rumble strips by the “Work Zone Speed Limit” sign so that drivers will read the speed limit sign and slow down at work zones, while 12 others (13%) would like to have the strips placed 1,500 ft before the lane closure taper at the “Lane Merge” sign as a reminder to motorists of the upcoming hazards. Three resident engineers recommended use of traffic simulation programs to determine average expected queuing and, based on that information, place temporary rumble strips 500 ft past the farthest estimated queue of stopped or slowed vehicles.

5.10 CONCERNS ABOUT USING TEMPORARY RUMBLE STRIPS WITHIN WORK ZONES

Eighty-four percent of IDOT resident engineers who responded to the last question of the survey listed many potential safety benefits of using temporary rumble strips in work zones. However, a number of concerns were raised by ten resident engineers about the use of temporary rumble strips in work zones. Their concerns are summarized as follows:

1. People seem to ignore rumble strips during long durations of construction.
2. It might not be practical to remove and replace temporary rumble strips in staged projects, and they may create future conflicts with the live lanes of traffic.
3. Maintenance of temporary rumble strips may be a big concern.
4. Temporary rumble strips may be hard to keep down.

5. The traveling public may avoid the strips and drive into the other lane, or the strips may cause panic and accidents.
6. Residents and property owners may complain because of the noise generated by the rumble strips.
7. Rumble strips could cause rear-end accidents if people suddenly slow down before they drive over them.

CHAPTER 6 SETUP OF TEMPORARY RUMBLE STRIP FIELD EXPERIMENTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Driver inattention and its related crashes can be caused by a number of factors such as distraction, daydreaming, fatigue, drowsiness, and impairment (Griffith 1999). Rumble strips are one of the innovative countermeasures being used on roadways to provide an auditory and vibratory warning to reduce run-off-the-road (ROR) crashes and to alert drivers to road conditions that require elevated alertness such as lane departures, changes in roadway environment, or approaching work zones (Fontaine and Carlson 2001; Meyer 2000; Miles and Finley 2007). This chapter presents (1) a summary of general specifications for rumble strips, (2) relevant research studies, (3) field experiment setup, and (4) evaluation of temporary rumble strip efficiency in terms of installation and removal processes for various types and arrangements.

6.2 RUMBLE STRIPS GENERAL SPECIFICATIONS

Rumble strips can be classified as continuous permanent rumble strips or intermittent temporary rumble strips, depending on the method of application and the goal (Meyer 2000). Continuous permanent rumble strips are used primarily on the shoulder of the road to alert motorists to an unintentional lane departure (Neuman et al. 2003). These rumble strips are recessed below the pavement and are classified based on their installation method as milled or rolled. Most rumble strips in the United States are milled, and the standard design is 7 in. long, 12 in. or more wide, 0.5 in. deep, and spaced at 12 to 24 in. (Miles and Finley 2007). Several studies evaluated the safety effectiveness of continuous permanent rumble strips and proved a reduction of more than 40% in vehicle crashes after implementation of rumble strips (Griffith 1999). In Illinois, the standard characteristics of the continuous shoulder rumble strips are 3 ft width, 8 in. spacing, and 0.75 in. depth, with an outside boundary of 12 in. from the edge of pavement (Griffith 1999).

On the other hand, the temporary intermittent type is used primarily over a short distance in different patterns and is intended to provide motorists with an increased perception of speed (Fontaine and Carlson 2001). These rumble strips consist of intermittent narrow, transverse areas of rough-textured or slightly raised road surface that extend along or across the travel lanes to alert drivers to any uncommon vehicular traffic conditions (Miles and Finley 2007). Several bundles of rumble strips are generally placed in different patterns in advance of a highway segment where reduced speed or elevated driver attention is desirable (Zech et al. 2005).

Rumble strip patterns vary according to many factors such as pavement materials, type of rumble strips, location of wheel paths relative to rumble strips, and duration of temporary reallocation (Meyer 2000).

6.2.1 Temporary Rumble Strip Geometric Characteristics

The main geometric characteristics that differentiate various types of rumble strips include (1) width, which is the distance along the rumble strip axis that runs perpendicular to the direction of vehicular traffic; (2) length, which is the distance along the rumble strip axis that runs parallel to the direction of vehicular traffic; (3) depth or height, which is measured vertically from the top to the bottom of the rumble strip; and (4) spacing, which is the distance between individual rumble strips that run parallel to the direction of vehicular traffic, as shown in Figure 6.1 (Meyer 2000; Morgan 2003).

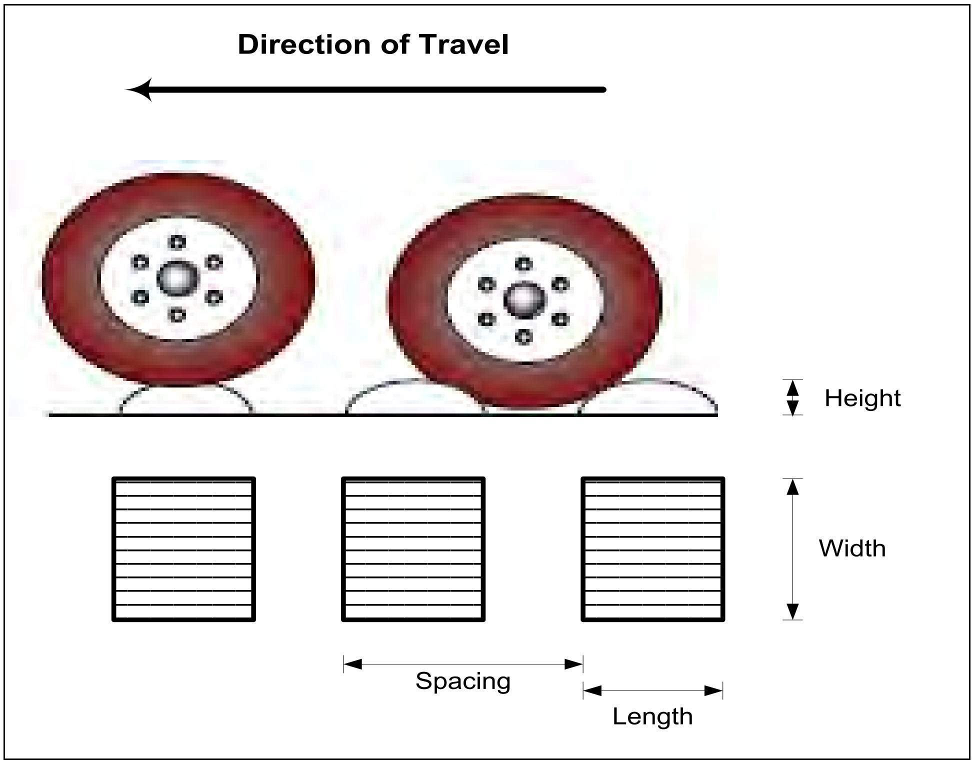


Figure 6.1. Rumble strip geometry.

6.2.2 MUTCD Guidance for Rumble Strips

The Manual on Uniform Traffic Control Devices (MUTCD) provides guidance on the implementation of rumble strips. The main specifications for temporary rumble strips are (1) color, (2) spacing, (3) material, and (4) pattern. For rumble strip color, the manual recommends use of a color different from the color of the pavement for both the longitudinal and the transverse rumble strips (FHWA 2009c). For the intervals between transverse rumble strips, the manual recommends that spacing may be reduced as the distance to the approaching conditions nears in order to convey an impression that the driving speed is too fast and/or that an action is imminent (FHWA 2009c). For rumble strip material, the manual recommends it not affect overall pavement skid resistance under wet or dry conditions. The manual also recommends that the rumble strip pattern be designed in a way that does not promote unnecessary braking or erratic steering maneuvers by motorists (FHWA 2009c).

Both longitudinal and transverse rumble strips can represent a real danger to bicyclists unless a minimum clear path of 4 ft (1.2 m) is provided at each edge of the roadway or on each paved shoulder (FHWA 2009c).

6.3 RESEARCH STUDIES ON RUMBLE STRIPS

Several research studies have been conducted to study the effectiveness of rumble strips and have found that work zone safety improves when rumble strips are used (e.g., Meyer 2000; Morgan 2003). Other studies investigated the effect of rumble strip characteristics on the level of sound and vibration that motorists experience when they traverse the strips (Miles and Finley 2007). This section describes recent studies on rumble strips and their main findings and organizes them into three sections: (1) rumble strip types, (2) rumble strip effectiveness, and (3) rumble strip characteristics.

6.3.1. Rumble Strip Types

A study was conducted by Zech et al. (2005) to evaluate the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips and of police presence combined with rumble strip use. The study tested the effectiveness of two types of temporary rumble strips, 3M and Swarco, which are glued to the pavement and cause no damage to it. In addition, these strips can be used multiple times and require only a short time for installation. The strips were tested on two interstate highways. The 3M rumble strips were 6 in. (152.4 mm) wide and 0.4 in. (10.16 mm) thick and were installed in two sets, where each set comprised six rumble strips spaced 10 ft (3.05 m) apart. The Swarco rumble strips were made of black, non-reflective, high-quality, high-carbon resin. Each rumble strip was 6 × 0.25 in. (152.4 × 6.35 mm) and spaced 10 ft (1.2 m) apart. Vehicle speeds were measured before and after implementation of the speed control devices. The raw data files were analyzed by date, lane, and vehicle class. The study concluded that the 3M rumble strips were effective in reducing vehicle speed by approximately 2.4 mph (3.86 km/h), depending on the lane closure setup. On the other hand, the Swarco rumble strips displayed no significant reduction in vehicle speeds.

Another study was conducted by Meyer (2000) to evaluate the effectiveness of temporary orange rumble strips (1/8 in. thick) compared to standard (1/2 to 3/4 in.) asphalt rumble strips at a bridge repair site in Kansas. The study used one set of rumble strips consisting of six strips with 1-ft spacing between strips. Strips were cut in 12-ft segments. The rumble strip pattern was adjusted to include one set of three groups of strips, each group consisting of six strips. Vehicle speeds were recorded, and an analysis of the collected speeds showed that six strips per group were insufficient to achieve significant speed reduction. Although the removable rumble strips were easily installed and removed, three of the strips detached from the pavement during the first week due to a significant amount of dirt and gravel beneath. The study reported that the orange removable rumble strips had a positive effect on increasing motorist awareness of an approaching work site, attributable to the strips' high visibility, which was consistent with MUTCD recommendations for work zones.

6.3.2 Rumble Strip Effectiveness

Morgan (2003) conducted a study of work zones implementing rumble strips to compare the specifications used by the New York DOT with others. The main parameters were rumble strip thickness, spacing, color, problems associated with adhering to the pavement, and noise generated. Nineteen work zones with rumble strips were examined in New York state. Most of the applied rumble strips were installed using multiple layers of temporary pavement marking tape. All of the rumble strips were black to avoid any confusion that colored rumble strips may have on motorists. The study recommended the use of temporary rumble strips of 10 mm ± 3 mm thickness of different types, such as tapes and tread strips, in sets of six strips spaced at no more than 2.7 m apart and preferably at irregular variable intervals according to the speed limit.

In another study, Fontaine and Carlson (2001) investigated the impact of portable rumble strips on reducing speeds in rural maintenance work zones in Texas. The main objectives of the study were to evaluate the usability of rumble strips for rural maintenance work zones, and to determine the direct impact on reducing the percentage of vehicles exceeding the speed limit. The rumble strips used in the experiment were precut 12-ft-long rolls. Each strip was 4 in. wide and 0.125 in. thick. Six strips, spaced at 18 in., were used at each location, and a weighted tamping cart was used to attach the strips to the pavement. Rumble strips were tested through four work zones on two-lane, low-volume, high-speed rural roads. Speed and traffic volume were measured for cars and trucks when normal work zone traffic control was set up and when the experimental devices were installed. The implementation of the rumble strips showed a reduction in the percentage of passenger cars that exceeded the (70-mph) speed limit.

6.3.3 Rumble Strip Characteristics

The sound change that motorists experience when traversing rumble strips is based on the ability of a rumble strip design to convert kinetic energy effectively from vehicle tires into sound (Miles and Finley 2007). Miles and Finley (2007) studied the impact of vehicle speed, vehicle type, pavement type, and rumble strip design on the level of sound change that motorists perceive when traversing rumble strips. The rumble strip characteristics considered in their study were width, length, and spacing. The researchers considered increases of 4 dB or greater to be sufficient to alert motorists when they drive over rumble strips. Sound readings were taken from inside three different vehicles to study the different levels of stimulus experienced by a variety of drivers. The change in sound was measured using a sound meter and a data logger; the change was calculated as the difference before and after placing the rumble strips. More than 400 test runs were performed within the three different vehicles at speeds ranging from 45 to 70 mph. The study results showed that rumble strip dimensions and applications greatly affected sound-level changes, and the researchers recommended that practitioners consider all design characteristics when choosing a specific rumble strip design.

6.4 SETUP OF TEMPORARY RUMBLE STRIPS FOR FIELD EXPERIMENT

This section presents the setup of the field experiments that were conducted to evaluate the performance and practicality of three types of temporary rumble strips commonly used within and before highway construction zones. The tested types of temporary rumble strips were (a) ATM by Advance Traffic Markings, (b) RoadQuake by Plastic Safety Systems, and (c) Rumbler by Swarco Industries. These three types of temporary rumble strips were tested using four vehicles: a sedan, a cargo van, a 26-foot truck, and a motorcycle. A sound-level meter was used for measuring the auditory stimulus inside each vehicle as it traversed each tested temporary rumble strip set. The following subsections present the experimental setup and measuring procedure in more detail.

6.4.1 Site Preparation

The field experiments were conducted at a closed segment of an airport taxiway in Rantoul, Illinois. This closed segment of the taxiway was rented from the Rantoul National Aviation Center for the duration of the experiments and is located parallel to the east–west runway, as shown in Figure 6.2. The taxiway has a length of 4,300 ft and a width of 72 ft and was divided into six equal lanes of 12 ft, as shown in Figure 6.3. This specific location was selected for the field experiments because (1) the taxiway's 4,300-ft length provided adequate distance to bring the largest tested vehicle up to the required speed and safely decelerate it after traversing each set of temporary rumble strips, as shown in Figures 6.3 and 6.4; (2) the taxiway's 72-ft width allowed the research team to improve the efficiency of simultaneously setting up and testing various types of rumble strips and patterns; and (3) the taxiway could be closed to all types of traffic during the experiments to ensure the safety and accuracy of the tests. In these experiments, temporary construction cones were used to clearly identify the taxiway lanes and specify directions of traffic flow. In addition, the construction cones were used to mark a grid on the concrete pavement surface of equally spaced points of 30 ft (see Figure 2.2) to enable a consistent pattern for taking sound measurements.

Figure 6.2. Satellite overview of Rantoul Airport and the taxiway used for the experiments.

Figure 6.3. Site of field experiments showing tested sets of temporary rumble strips.

Figure 6.4. Site of field experiments showing the 26-foot truck traversing a set of rumble strips.

6.4.2 Tested Temporary Rumble Strips

The field experiments evaluated the performance of three types of temporary rumble that are currently being used by other state departments of transportation (DOTs): (1) ATM by Advance Traffic Markings, (2) RoadQuake by Plastic Safety Systems, and (3) Rumbler by Swarco Industries. The main objective of testing different types of rumble strips was to quantify the impact of rumble strip materials and dimensions on the generated sound levels. The following section discusses the basic characteristics of the three tested rumble strips.

6.4.2.1 ATM Removable Rumble Strips

ATM removable rumble strips are manufactured by Advance Traffic Markings. This temporary rumble strip has pre-applied adhesive to facilitate the installation process. ATM rumble strips are produced in various highly visible colors. The tested strips had a thickness of 0.25 in. and were packaged in rolls 4 in. wide and 50 ft long. In the field experiments, four rolls were used. They were cut using a regular saw to produce the required 4-ft length for the tested rumble strips, as shown in Figure 6.5. The installation and removal processes of all rumble strips are discussed in the next chapter.

Figure 6.5. Dimensions of the tested ATM rumble strips
(4 ft long × 4 in. wide × 0.25 in. thick).

6.4.2.2 Swarco Removable Rumble Strips

The second type of temporary rumble strip tested was the Rumbler, manufactured by Swarco Industries. The tested strips had a thickness of 0.25 in. and were cut in segments 6 in. wide × 4 ft long, as shown in Figure 6.6.

Figure 6.6. Dimensions of the tested Swarco rumble strips
(4 ft long × 6 in. wide × 0.25 in. thick).

6.4.2.3 RoadQuake Temporary Portable Rumble Strips

The third type of temporary rumble strip tested was the RoadQuake temporary rumble strip, manufactured by Plastic Safety Systems. These rumble strips are pre-cut by the manufacturer at 11 ft long and traverse the entire lane, as shown in Figure 2.6. These rumble strips are also wider and thicker than the other tested strips. The RoadQuake strips are 11 ft long × 12 in. wide × 13/16 in. thick, as shown in Figure 6.7. Fasteners or adhesives are not required for installation of these temporary strips. The rumble strip is stable under its own weight of 105 lb (47.7 kg).

Figure 6.7. Dimensions of tested RoadQuake rumble strips
(11 ft long × 12 in. wide × 13/16 in. thick).

6.4.3 Test Vehicles

The field experiments used three different vehicles (a sedan, a cargo van, and 26-ft truck) and a motorcycle to quantify the different levels of auditory stimulus experienced by motorists when traversing different patterns and types of temporary rumble strips. The three vehicles are shown in Figure 6.8 along with their empty weight specifications. The three vehicles were driven at speeds of 30, 40, and 50 mph along all the tested patterns of rumble strips. These testing speed values were chosen to comply with the speed limits that are commonly enforced at construction work zones in Illinois. The 26-ft truck was driven by the research team and was tested over all designated temporary rumble strip patterns.

The tested motorcycle was a Harley-Davidson Heritage Softail Classic collection, also driven by a member of the research team, as shown in Figure 6.9. It should be noted that the motorcycle was tested in the field experiments to evaluate many concerns that have been raised about the impact of temporary rumble strips on the safety of motorcycles, including the potential risk that the rumble strips may cause them to overturn. During the field experiments, the motorcycle was safely driven by a member of the research team over the majority of the tested rumble strips at different speeds to subjectively evaluate the impact of these strips on the stability and safety of the motorcycle. The main findings of this subjective analysis indicate that the motorcycle can be safely driven over the tested temporary rumble strip arrangements without exposing the driver to the hazards of instability or overturning.

The field experiments also attempted to evaluate the changes in sound levels that would be experienced by motorcycle drivers when they travel over temporary rumble strips. Because of the loud engine noise of the motorcycle, however, the sound-level meter could not record any significant increase in sound-level readings when the motorcycle traveled over the tested temporary rumble strips. Accordingly, the analysis of the measured sound levels in the rest of this report is limited to the three vehicles shown in Figure 6.8.

Empty weight: 2,729 lb	Empty weight: 5,227 lb	Empty weight: 12,605 lb

(a) (b) (c)

Figure 6.8. Study vehicles: (a) 2007 Ford Focus, (b) cargo van, and (c) 26-ft truck.

Figure 6.9. Study motorcycle (Harley-Davidson Heritage Softail Classic).

6.5 EVALUATING THE EFFICIENCY OF TEMPORARY RUMBLE STRIPS

This section evaluates the efficiency of temporary rumble strips in terms of practicality and ease of use within and before work zones through the time and effort required during installation and removal.

6.5.1 Installation Process

The installation of the three temporary rumble strips was easy to perform on the experiment site. Air and surface temperatures during the experiment period were around 76°F to 80°F, which complies with the manufacturers' recommendations for air and surface temperature to be 50°F or higher. The research team waited for 3 hours to ensure surface dryness, then thoroughly cleaned the pavement surface of any debris such as sand, dirt, and loose aggregate using push brooms, as shown in Figure 6.10. They also removed other materials, such as silt and mud.

Figure 6.10. Pavement surface cleaning.

The rumble strips were aligned according to a pre-designed plan that included nine different patterns (Figure 6.11). First, all patterns of eight rumble strips per set with different configurations were installed and tested. Sound readings were recorded for different vehicles traversing at different speed limits following the procedure described Chapter 6. Second, two strips of each type were removed and patterns of six strips per set of different configurations were tested, and sound readings were recorded. Finally, two more strips of each type were removed and patterns of four strips per set were tested, and sound levels were recorded. The alignment of rumble strips was performed using a red chalk line, a tape measure, and three 12-ft lumber (1 × 4 in.) joists, as shown in Figure 6.12. Each type of temporary rumble strip was installed based on the manufacturer's recommendation, which are briefly discussed in the following sections.

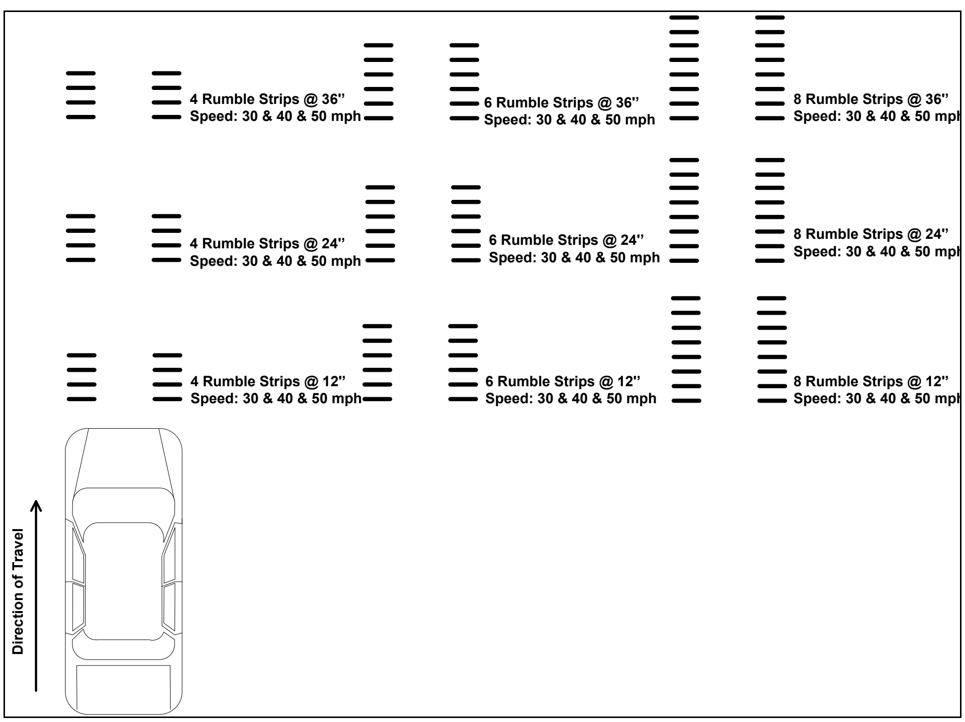


Figure 6.11. Temporary rumble strip patterns.

Figure 6.12. Temporary rumble strip alignment.

6.5.1.1 ATM Rumble Strips

Although ATM rumble strips were self-adhesive, the manufacturer recommended application of a thin layer of primer before attaching the strips to achieve better adhesion. The protective cover was then peeled from the adhesive on the back of strips, and the strips were placed on the aligned road surface, as shown in Figure 6.13. No strips were directly applied on seams, joints, or deteriorating markings. The final step was to firmly tamp strips in the same direction of application. All strips were checked to ensure that they completely conformed to the road surface and all edges were firmly adhered.

Figure 6.13. ATM rumble strip installation process.

6.5.1.2 Swarco Rumble Strips

The first step to install the Swarco rumble strips was applying one coat of Swarco contact cement RSCC-2 to the pre-aligned area of the road surface, which was left for 15 minutes to dry until it was slightly tacky to the touch. Meanwhile, one coat of contact cement was applied to the back of the rumble strip, which was left to dry until it was tacky to the touch. Next, another coat of contact cement was applied to the pre-aligned area over the first coat and left to dry in a similar procedure to the first coat (Figure 6.14). Finally, the strips were placed on the pavement and firmly tamped following the manufacturer's tamping instructions.

Figure 6.14. Swarco rumble strip installation process.

6.5.1.3 RoadQuake Rumble Strips

The installation procedure for the RoadQuake rumble strips followed the general cleaning and alignment procedures; however, no adhesives were used. This type of temporary rumble strip does not need fasteners or adhesives for installation because it is stable under its own weight (each strips weighs 105 lb). A crew of two researchers was needed to place (and later remove) the strips, as shown in Figure 6.15.

Figure 6.15. RoadQuake rumble strip installation process.

Table 6.1 summarizes how long it took for a crew of four researchers to install each of the tested types of temporary rumble strips. Two crew members aligned each segment pattern while the other two applied the contact adhesive and peeled the protective backing from the back of strips. Finally, each strip was placed on the pavement and pressed into place. It should be noted that none of the members of the research team had any prior experience in installing these temporary rumble strips; therefore, it is likely that an experienced crew could have performed the installation process in less time.

Table 6.1 Installation Time of Temporary Rumble Strip Patterns (Alignment and Placement)

Temporary Rumble Strip Type	Installation Time (minutes)			Remarks
	8 strips	6 strips	4 strips	
ATM	~45	35	27	This included cutting the strips into 4-ft-long sections and applying one coat of adhesive.
Swarco	~45	38	31	This included applying three coats of adhesive.
RoadQuake	~25	22	20	No adhesives are needed, and the strips were very close to the work zone.

6.5.2 Removal Process

The removal process was simple. A corner was pulled up using a utility knife or similar tool. For removing ATM and Swarco temporary rumble strips, the researchers used a long-handled square-point shovel, as shown in Figure 6.16. After approximately 3 days, all strips were easily removed in few minutes, as shown in Figure 6.17. Although the removed strips were intact, the manufacturers of ATM and Swarco do not recommend re-using the strips because a second use requires additional coats of adhesive. On the other hand, the third tested type, RoadQuake, needs no adhesive and is designed for multiple uses. It should be noted that no strips were detached or displaced from the pavement during the experiments.

Figure 6.16. Removal of temporary rumble strips using square shovel after 3 days.

CHAPTER 7 EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TEMPORARY RUMBLE STRIPS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of field experiments that were conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of three temporary rumble strips in construction zones. A total of 27 different temporary rumble strip arrangements was tested in June 2009 at the Illinois Center for Transportation (ICT) at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. The setup, site preparation, rumble strip types, and testing vehicles were discussed in Chapter 6. This chapter presents (1) the data acquisition procedure used during the field experiments, (2) the required sound levels to alert inattentive drivers, (3) an evaluation of the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips placed before work zones to generate auditory stimulus to alert motorists of the approaching work area and prompt them to reduce their speed, (4) an evaluation of the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips placed at the edge of work zones to alert inattentive drivers if they encroach into the work area, in a similar way that permanent rumble strips are used to alert drivers when they drift off the road, and (5) recommendations for improving the use of temporary rumble strips before work zones begin and at the edge of work zones.

7.2 DATA ACQUISITION PROCEDURE

A sound-level meter was used to measure sound levels inside the cabin of the vehicles used in the study. These meters measure sound pressure levels and are commonly used to quantify noise generated by specific industrial or environmental activity. The current international standard for sound-level meter performance is IEC 61672:2003, which mandates the inclusion of an A-frequency-weighting filter. The DT-8851 Industrial High Accuracy Digital Sound Noise-Level Meter was chosen for this study. The meter had a range of 30 to 130 dB, with an accuracy of ±1.4 dB and had both A- and C-frequency weighting. The sound-level meter was adjusted to record sound levels per 125 mS (i.e., eight readings/second). The meter was attached in the center of the vehicle cabin with the microphone sensor placed at dashboard level. Figure 7.1 shows the position of the sound-level meter inside the cabin of the sedan, and Figure 7.2 shows the location of the sound-level meter inside the cabin of the cargo van. Only one data collection operator and a driver were in each vehicle during the tests.

Figure 7.1. Sound-measuring equipment in the tested sedan.

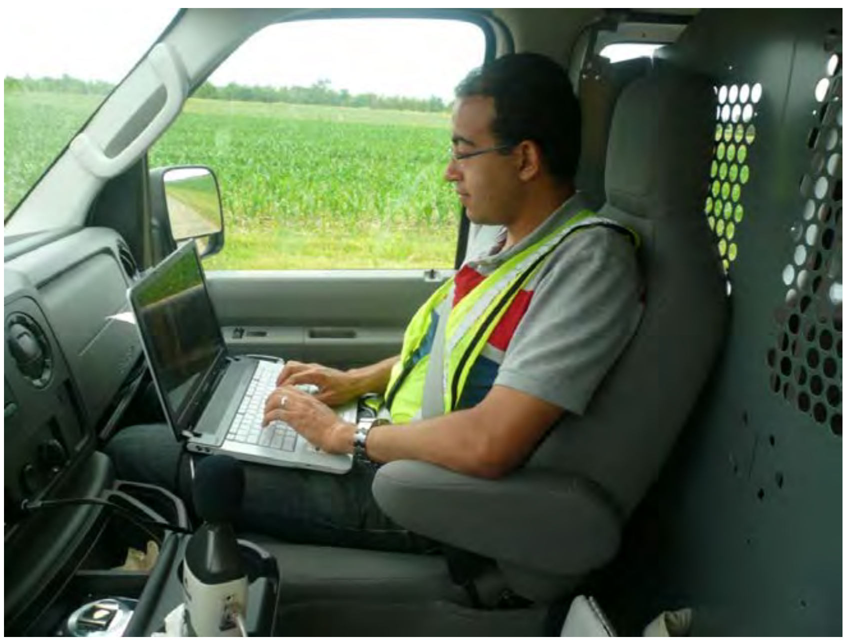


Figure 7.2. Sound-measuring equipment in the tested cargo van.

Sound levels were recorded inside the cabin of the three testing vehicles with the vehicle's fan and radio off, all of the windows closed, only one passenger and driver, and under dry, daytime conditions. The procedure used for measuring the auditory stimulus followed four steps: (1) field calibrating the sound-level meter, (2) measuring sound levels without rumble strips, (3) identifying study parameters, and (4) measuring sound levels with rumble strips. The four steps are discussed in more detail in the following sections.

7.2.1 Field Calibration of Sound-Level Meter

The sound-level meter was field calibrated by recording 1,701 sound readings over a 350-ft track through 30 runs at a constant speed of 30 mph using the sedan testing vehicle. Table 7.1 is a summary of calibration results. The standard deviation of the collected sound measures was 0.53 dBA.

Table 7.1. Field Calibration Results

Route number	**Number of readings**	**Average reading per route in dBA**
1	61	66.24
2	54	65.41
3	63	65.42
4	56	65.69
5	55	65.46
6	55	65.57
7	55	66.47
8	54	65.18
9	57	64.99
10	58	64.65
11	59	64.58
12	54	65.19
13	58	65.04
14	56	65.30
15	58	64.66
16	54	65.21
17	58	64.87
18	56	64.51
19	57	65.11
20	57	64.49
21	59	64.89
22	55	64.49
23	56	65.25
24	54	64.49
25	61	64.59
26	57	64.55
27	58	64.52
28	56	64.49
29	56	64.44
30	54	64.53
Total Number of Readings:		1701
Average readings:		65.01
Variance:		0.28
Standard Deviation:		0.53
Accuracy at 3σ		±1.59

7.2.2 Sound Levels of Ambient Environment Without Rumble Strips

After calibrating the sound-level meter at 30 mph, sound data were collected for the ambient environment without rumble strips. The goal was to record sound levels associated with the three testing vehicles traveling at a specified speed along a designated way that had no rumble strips. These data were then used to determine the increase in sound level produced by each of the tested rumble strip configurations. Table 7.2 shows the ambient sound levels associated with each testing vehicle at different speeds. All sound levels were recorded with the vehicle's fan and radio off and all of the windows closed.

Table 7.2. Ambient Sound Levels of Testing Vehicles

Testing Vehicle	Ambient Sound Levels in dBA
Sedan_30mph	65.01
Sedan_40mph	68.24
Sedan_50mph	70.14
Cargo Van_30mph	60.58
Cargo Van_40mph	63.91
Cargo Van_50mph	67.98
26' Truck_30mph	64.25
26' Truck_40mph	67.98
26' Truck_50mph	69.27

7.2.3 Study Parameters

A comprehensive literature review of previous studies on temporary and permanent rumble strips indicates that the factors that influence the auditory stimulus experienced by motorists can be classified using six main parameters: (1) pattern of rumble strips, (2) spacing of strips, (3) rumble strip type, (4) vehicle type, (5) speed, and (6) location of rumble strips. Table 7.3 shows the six parameters and their associated observations. A spreadsheet was developed to facilitate the input of all field sound levels for these six parameters.

Table 7.3. Study Parameters

Study Parameter	Observations
1: Pattern represents the number of strips per set	4 = 4 strips/set
	6 = 6 strips/set
	8 = 8 strips/set
2: Spacing represents the clear spacing between strips in a set	12 = 12 in.
	24 = 24 in.
	36 = 36 in.
3: Rumble Strip Type represents the temporary rumble strip type	1 = ATM
	2 = Swarco
	3 = RoadQuake
4: Vehicle Type represents the type of the testing vehicle	1= Sedan
	2= Cargo van
	3 = 26-ft truck
5: Vehicle Speed of the testing vehicle	30 mph
	40 mph
	50 mph
6: Location of Rumble Strips represents whether the rumble strips are located at the edge of work zones only under the left- or right-side wheels of the vehicle or prior before work zones under all wheels	1 = Before work zones
	2 = Edge of work zones

7.2.4 Sound Levels of Installed Rumble Strips

Sound levels were collected continuously as the testing vehicles traversed different patterns of rumble strips. As a testing vehicle traversed a certain pattern of rumble strips, all sound readings were immediately logged into a laptop computer and saved for later analysis. Figure 7.3 shows a graphical sample of collected sound-level frequencies depicting three peaks that represent the change of the sound level experienced in the cabin of a testing vehicle when traversing three different patterns of rumble strips. All numerical sound levels were recorded as Notepad files depicting sound levels recorded at a rate of 125 mS (i.e., eight readings/second). The numerical data were then imported into a spreadsheet for further analysis. Table 7.4 shows the sound-level records of a cargo van traversing three sets of different patterns of Swarco rumble strips at a speed of 40 mph. From Table 7.4, three peaks can be identified at 78.6, 76.3, and 79.9 dBA, which represent the effect of the three patterns of rumble strips on generating an auditory stimulus experienced by motorists.

Figure 7.3. Sound-level meter graphical user interface.

Table 7.4. Sound-Level Records of Cargo Van Traversing Three Different Sets of Temporary Rumble Strips

Date	Time	Reading	Unit
9/6/2009	17:55:46	63.3	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:46	63.7	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:46	63.4	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:46	63.8	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:47	63.4	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:47	63.9	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:47	64.4	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:47	64.3	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:47	68.1	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:47	69.4	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:47	75.9	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:47	73.7	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:48	78.6	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:48	72.8	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:48	68.5	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:48	66.6	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:48	65	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:48	64.2	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:48	63.8	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:48	64	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:49	64	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:49	64.6	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:49	69.6	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:49	67.9	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:49	68.7	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:49	73.9	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:49	75.6	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:49	76.3	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:50	74.6	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:50	67.9	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:50	65.4	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:50	64.4	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:50	64	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:50	64.6	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:50	65.5	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:50	64.4	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:51	64	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:51	64.6	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:51	64	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:51	69.4	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:51	75.8	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:51	79.6	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:51	79.9	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:51	79.9	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:52	71.6	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:52	68.7	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:52	65.5	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:52	65.9	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:52	65	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:52	65.4	dBA
9/6/2009	17:55:52	65.4	dBA

A total of 351 sound-level readings representing different configurations of study parameters and rumble strips was collected and stored in the spreadsheet. A segment of the spreadsheet is presented in Table 7.5 to illustrate the effect of rumble strips, which was calculated as the difference between the sound level inside the test vehicle on a road with and without rumble strips. Sound readings of all tested patterns of rumble strips are presented in Appendix E.

Table 7.5. Sample from Sound Data Acquisition Spreadsheet

Reading No.	Pattern	Vehicle Type	Rumble Strips Type	Speed	Spacing	Sound Readings		
						Ambient Environment	Traversing Rumble Strips	Rumble Strips Effect (dBA)
1	8strips/set	Sedan	ATM	50	12	70.14	80.4	10.26
2					24	70.14	84.3	14.16
3					36	70.14	80.5	10.36
4				40	12	68.24	80.7	12.46
5					24	68.24	80	11.76
6					36	68.24	77.3	9.06
7				30	12	65.01	78.6	13.59
8					24	65.01	77.3	12.29
9					36	65.01	74.5	9.49
10			Swarco	50	12	70.14	84.9	14.76
11					24	70.14	84.4	14.26
12					36	70.14	83.3	13.16
13				40	12	68.24	80.3	12.06
14					24	68.24	80.8	12.56
15					36	68.24	82.7	14.46
16				30	12	65.01	78.5	13.49
17					24	65.01	77.2	12.19
18					36	65.01	77.2	12.19
19			Road Quake	50	36	70.14	83.5	13.36
20				40	36	68.24	82.7	14.46
21				30	36	65.01	87.7	22.69

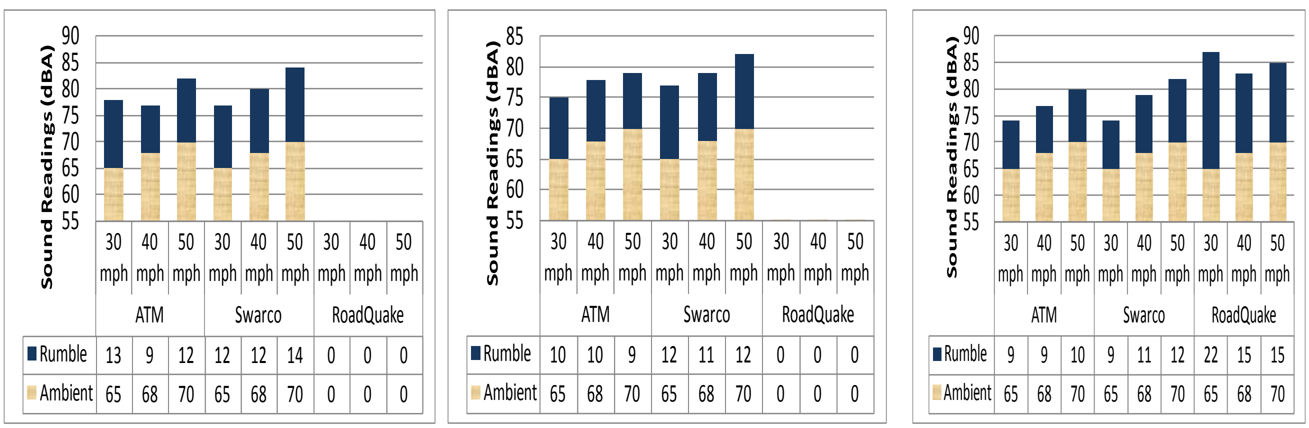
7.3 ADEQUATE SOUND LEVELS TO ALERT DRIVERS

Kinetic energy represented in sound and vibration is the direct outcome of tire displacement over temporary rumble strips. When tire displacement increases, more energy is converted, which results in more sound and vibration. Consequently, rumble strip design characteristics such as width, height, and spacing have direct influence on the generated sound and vibration. For example, increasing the height of rumble strips increased the generated sound recorded. Other factors describing vehicle characteristics such as vehicle type, vehicle speed, and number of tires traversing rumble strips affect the generated sound as well. To quantify the auditory stimulus experienced by motorists, sound data records were measured for 351 test patterns, as described earlier.

To determine whether a change in sound levels due to temporary rumble strips is loud enough to alert a motorist, it is important to analyze existing literature on this topic, which is summarized in the following paragraphs.

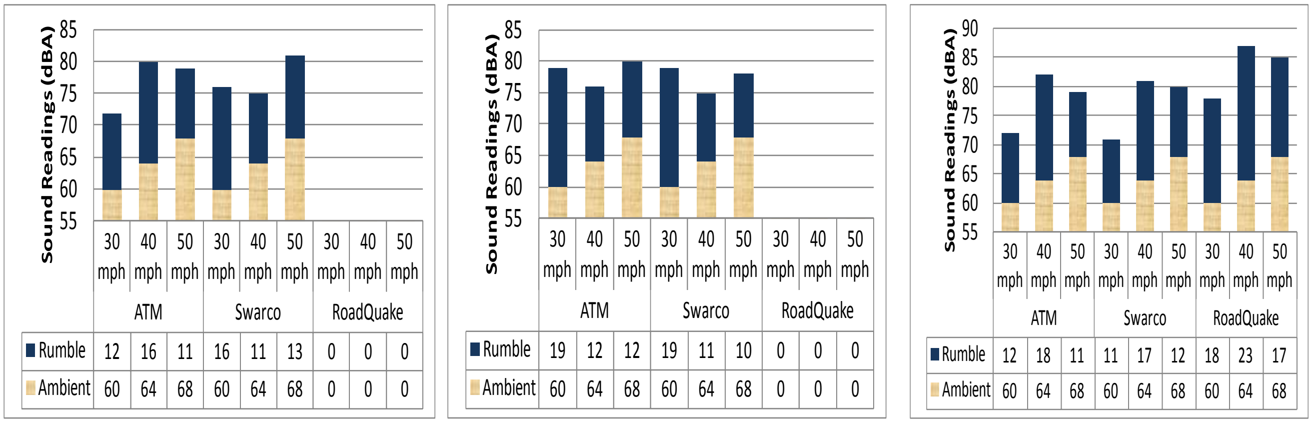
A previous study performed by Higgins and Barbel (1984) compared various configurations of different types of permanent rumble strips and reported an average sound-level change of 7 dB over regular noise levels produced by traffic on normal pavement. Elefteriadoiu et al. (2000) studied sound-level changes inside the cabin of a passenger minivan traversing various types of permanent rumble strips at various speeds and reported a sound-level change of 12 dB. In a more recent study by Miles and Finley (2007), the researchers considered increases of 4 dB or greater to be sufficient to alert motorists when traversing temporary rumble strips. Accordingly, a sound-level change that ranges from 4 to 12 dB can be considered adequate to alert motorists of the upcoming work zone. Because vibration was significantly correlated with generated sound, an upper limit of sound-level change of 20 dB can be imposed to limit the risks of excessive vibration experienced by vehicles traversing temporary rumble strips. It should be noted that there is no reported research that specifies the required thresholds of vibration needed to alert motorists (Finley and Miles 2006). Accordingly, the analysis in this study focused on measuring and evaluating the generated sound-level changes resulting from various configurations of temporary rumble strips.

Sound levels measured during the various test configurations with and without temporary rumble strips are compared to illustrate the sound-level changes generated as a result of using these strips. As shown in Figures 7.4, 7.5, and 7.6, the ambient sound level (without the use of temporary rumble strips) inside the three testing vehicles increased with the increase in speed limit. The cargo van had the lowest ambient sound levels compared with the sedan and the 26-ft truck, regardless of the speed limit. However, the van generally experienced a higher increase than the sedan in sound levels when it traversed rumble strips. The truck generated ambient sound levels slightly less than the sedan; however, the increase of sound levels over traversed rumble strips varied depending on vehicle speed, vehicle type, and spacing of the rumble strips. As shown in Figure 7.6, the highest sound level recorded was 92 dBA, for a truck crossing a set of RoadQuake rumble strips at 30 mph. The effect of study parameters on increasing sound levels inside the cabin of vehicles is discussed in detail in the next chapter.



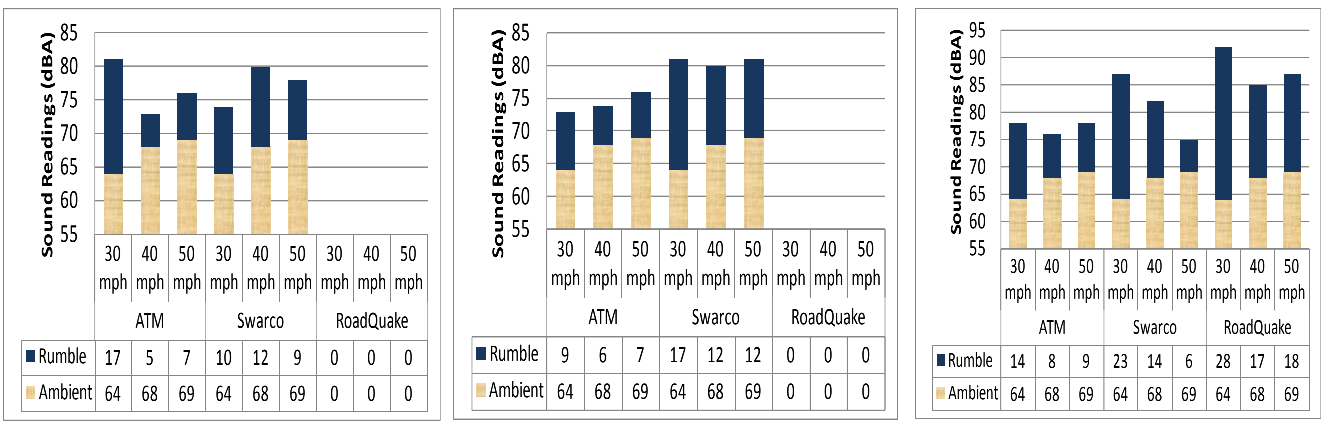
(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.4. Change in sound level inside a sedan traversing a set of six rumble strips spaced at (a) 12 in., (b) 24 in., and (c) 36 in.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.5. Change in sound level inside a van traversing a set of six rumble strips spaced at (a) 12 in., (b) 24 in., and (c) 36 in.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.6. Change in sound level inside a 26-foot truck traversing a set of six rumble strips spaced at (a) 12 in., (b) 24 in., and (c) 36 in.

7.4 EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TEMPORARY RUMBLE STRIPS BEFORE WORK ZONES

This section presents the results of the field experiments conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips placed before work zones to generate auditory stimulus to alert motorists of the approaching work area and prompt them to reduce their speed. The impact of the aforementioned six main rumble strip and vehicle parameters (see Table 7.3) on the generated sound level was studied to develop recommendations for improving the design and layout of temporary rumble strips around work zones. All combinations of these six analyzed parameters were tested to evaluate the effectiveness of (1) three rumble strip patterns, (2) three rumble strip spacing arrangements, (3) three rumble strip types, (4) three vehicle types, (5) three vehicle speeds, and (6) two locations of rumble strips, as shown in Table 6.3. While the first five parameters varied, the sixth parameter (location of rumble strips) was fixed: the strips were placed before work zones, under all wheels of the test vehicles for all the tested configurations discussed in this section. This setup for the sixth parameter represents a typical location of rumble strips before work zones to alert drivers about nearby construction work. The results of the tests for the second location of rumble strips at the edge of the work zone (i.e., under the wheels of only one side of the vehicle) are discussed in Section 7.5 of this chapter.

7.4.1 Correlation Analysis of Study Parameters and Change in Sound Levels

A correlation analysis was used in this study to identify potential correlations between the measured sound-level changes that represent the effectiveness of the temporary rumble strips and the other analyzed study parameters listed in Table 7.3. Two statistical tests for independence were used in this study to test all possible correlations among the study parameters: Pearson's chi-square and likelihood-ratio chi-square (Bai and Li 2006; SAS Institute Inc. 2006). The p-values for both statistical tests were calculated to test whether a null hypothesis could be accepted and for a particular level of significance, such as 5%. If the p-value was greater than or equal to 0.05, the null hypothesis H_0 was considered, and the study parameter and sound level were not deemed as correlated. If the p-value was less than 0.05, the alternative hypothesis H_1 was considered and a correlation was deemed to exist. The two statistical tests were performed identify all possible correlations, and a dependent relationship was concluded if both tests supported it (i.e., p-value < 0.05). As shown in Table 7.6, the findings of this correlation analysis indicate that the sound-level reading variable is correlated with four study parameters: (1) spacing of rumble strips, (2) type of rumble strip, (3) type of vehicle, and (4) vehicle speed. This indicates that these variables need to be carefully considered and analyzed during the design of temporary rumble strips that are placed before work zones under all wheels of vehicles approaching work zones. A detailed analysis of these four parameters is presented in the following section.

Table 7.6. Correlated Parameters of Rumble Strip Auditory Stimulus

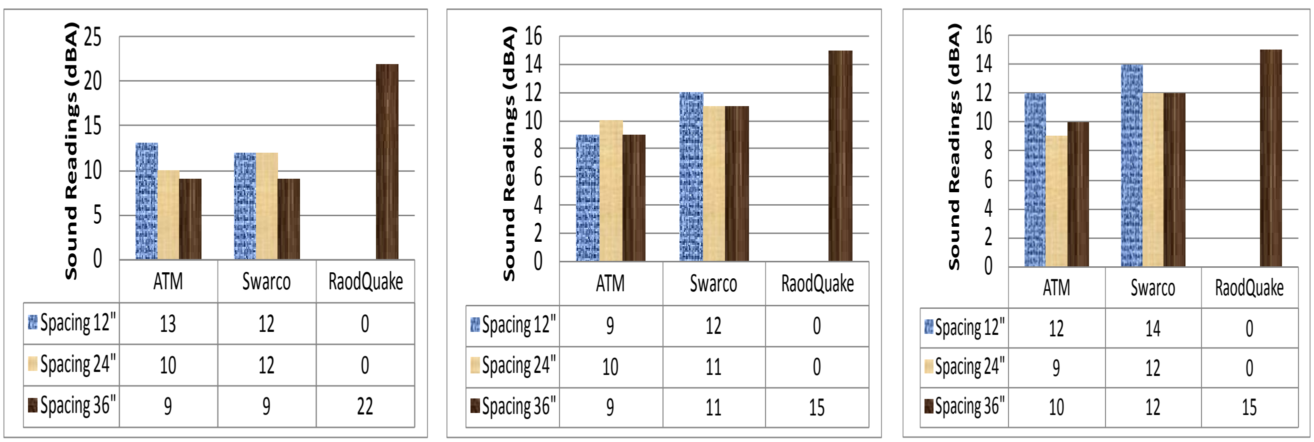
Correlated Factors of Rumble Strip Auditory Stimulus		**Pearson's Chi-Square**		**Likelihood-Ratio Chi-Square**	
		p-Value	**Correlated**	**p-Value**	**Correlated**
Sound measurement	Number of strips per set	0.1556	NO	0.1442	NO
Sound measurement	Rumble strips spacing	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Sound measurement	Rumble strips type	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Sound measurement	Vehicles type	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Sound measurement	Vehicles speed	0.0038	YES	0.0022	YES

The next sections present an in-depth analysis of the four study parameters that were found to be correlated with the measured sound-level changes during the experiments: (1) spacing between rumble strips, (2) rumble strip type, (3) vehicle speed, and (4) vehicle type.

7.4.2 Impact of Rumble Strip Spacing

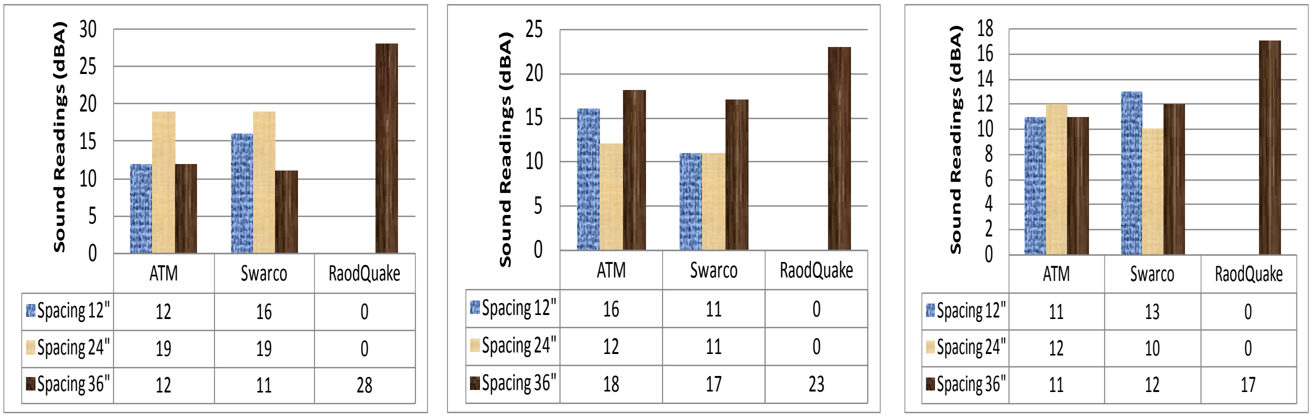
The spacing between rumble strips was found to be statistically correlated with the increase in sound level from temporary rumble strips, as shown in Table 7.6. The goal of the detailed spacing analysis was to evaluate the impact of varying the spacing of temporary rumble strips on its effectiveness, as measured by the change in sound levels. Based on previous literature and manufacturer recommendations, three spacing distances were tested in the field experiments: 12, 24, and 36 in. Two types of rumble strips, ATM and Swarco, were tested using three configurations of spacing arrangements. The third type, RoadQuake, was tested using only a 36-in. spacing arrangement because of its significantly larger dimensions and heavier weight compared to ATM and Swarco rumble strips. Because the pattern of rumble strips (the number of strips per set) was not found to be statistically correlated with the increase in sound levels, only one pattern of six strips per set of different configurations is presented in Figures 7.7, 7.8, and 7.9. The records for other tested rumble strip patterns (four and eight strips per set) are provided in Appendix F.

As shown in Figure 7.7, the sound-level changes inside the sedan ranged between 9 and 22 dBA and generally decreased as the spacing of rumble strips increased. The lowest sound-level change (9 dBA) was recorded for ATM rumble strips at different spacing arrangements and vehicle speeds. The largest sound-level change (22 dBA) was recorded for the RoadQuake rumble strips at a spacing of 36 in. and a speed of 30 mph. As shown in Figures 7.8 and 7.9, the previous trend changed for the van and the truck: the larger spacing arrangements of 24 and 36 in. generated greater sound-level changes than the spacing of 12 in. The smallest sound-level change (5 dBA) was recorded for the truck traversing the ATM rumble strips that had a spacing of 12 in. The sound-level change was at or above 9 dBA for all vehicles, speeds, and spacing arrangements with the exception of the ATM spacing arrangements of 12 and 24 in. for the 26-ft truck when it traveled at speeds higher than 30 mph.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.7. Change in sound level inside a sedan traversing a set of six rumble strips at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.



(a)

	ATM	Swarco	RaodQuake
Spacing 12"	12	16	0
Spacing 24"	19	19	0
Spacing 36"	12	11	28

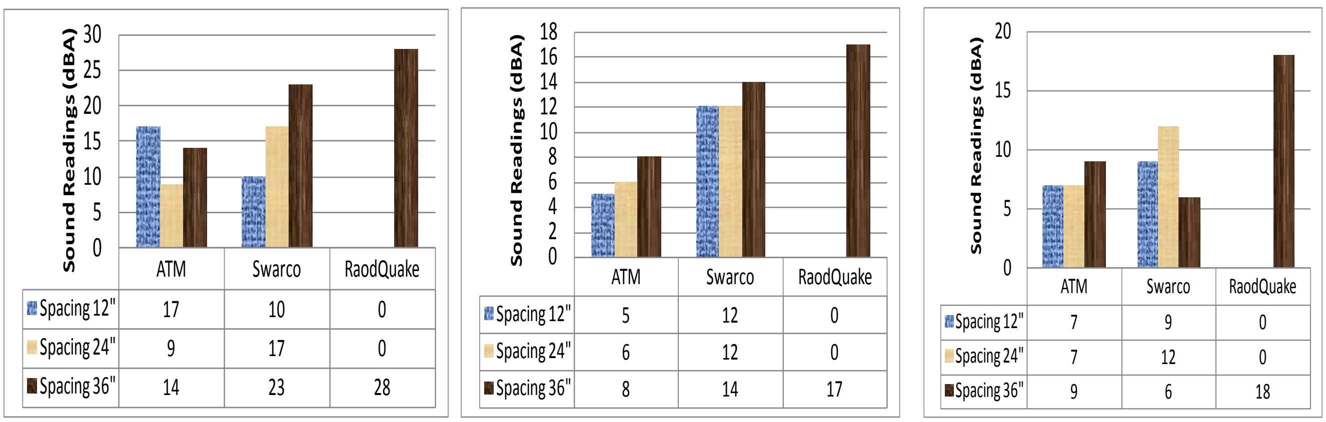
(b)

	ATM	Swarco	RaodQuake
Spacing 12"	16	11	0
Spacing 24"	12	11	0
Spacing 36"	18	17	23

(c)

	ATM	Swarco	RaodQuake
Spacing 12"	11	13	0
Spacing 24"	12	10	0
Spacing 36"	11	12	17

Figure 7.8. Change in sound level inside a van traversing a set of six rumble strips at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.



(a)

	ATM	Swarco	RaodQuake
Spacing 12"	17	10	0
Spacing 24"	9	17	0
Spacing 36"	14	23	28

(b)

	ATM	Swarco	RaodQuake
Spacing 12"	5	12	0
Spacing 24"	6	12	0
Spacing 36"	8	14	17

(c)

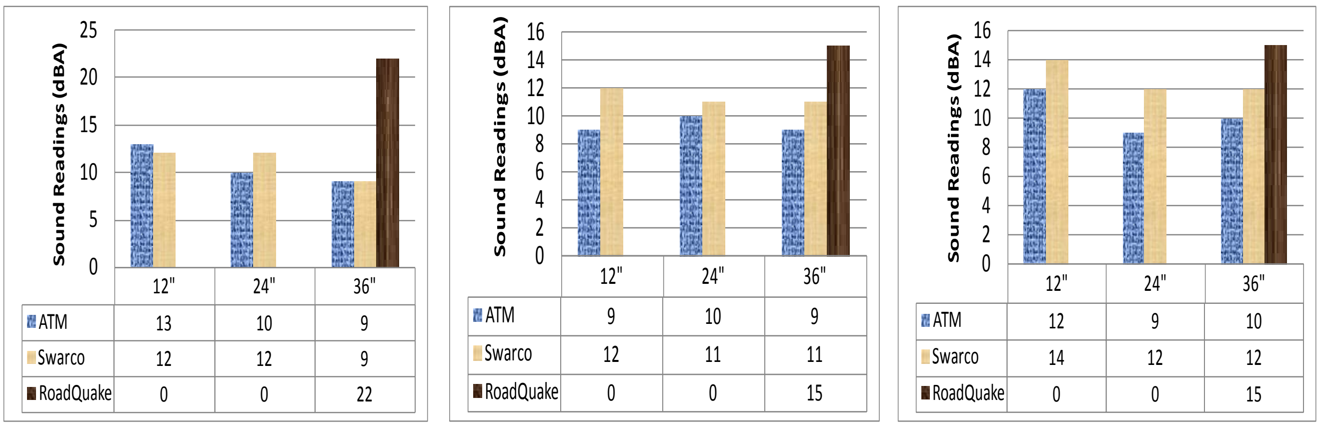
	ATM	Swarco	RaodQuake
Spacing 12"	7	9	0
Spacing 24"	7	12	0
Spacing 36"	9	6	18

Figure 7.9. Change in sound level inside a 26-ft truck traversing a set of six rumble strips at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.

7.4.3 Impact of Rumble Strip Type

The type of rumble strip was found to be statistically correlated with the increase in the measured sound level during the experiments, as shown in Table 7.6. This detailed analysis was performed to evaluate the impact of the type of temporary rumble strips on its effectiveness. Based on a review of commonly used types of temporary rumble strips in and around work zones and consultations with IDOT officials, three temporary rumble strips were tested in the field experiments: ATM, Swarco, and RoadQuake. The ATM and Swarco types were tested with three configurations that used spacing arrangements of 12, 24, and 36 in., while the RoadQuake type was tested using only a spacing of 36 in. due to its larger dimensions. Figures 7.10, 7.11, and 7.12 illustrate the impact of rumble strip type on the generated sound levels for the tested arrangements of six strips per set of different configurations. The records for other tested rumble strip patterns (four and eight strips per set) are provided in Appendix F.

This analysis indicates that the RoadQuake rumble strips generated higher sound-level changes inside all the tested vehicles than the Swarco and ATM rumble strips, as shown in Figures 7.10, 7.11, and 7.12. The Swarco rumble strips generated higher sound levels than ATM rumble strips except for the 26-ft truck traveling at speeds below 40 mph. For the tested sedan, the recorded sound-level changes ranged from 9 to 22 dBA, with the largest sound change (22 dBA) encountered during the testing of the RoadQuake strips at a spacing of 36 in. and a speed 30 mph, as shown in Figure 7.10. The RoadQuake rumble strips at a spacing of 36 in. also produced the largest sound change (28 dBA) for the 26-ft truck traveling at a speed of 30 mph, as shown in Figure 7.12. The results also indicate that the sound-level changes were at or above 9 dBA for all vehicles, speeds, and spacing arrangements, with the exception of the ATM rumble strips tested using the 26-ft truck and spacing arrangements of 12 and 24 in. and speeds higher than 30 mph.



	12"	24"	36"
ATM	13	10	9
Swarco	12	12	9
RoadQuake	0	0	22

(a)

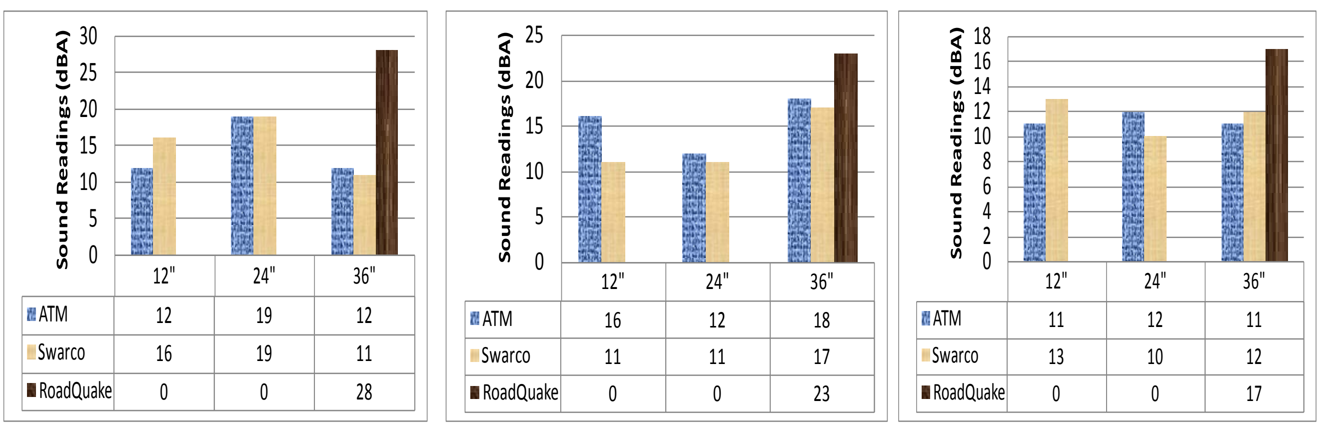
	12"	24"	36"
ATM	9	10	9
Swarco	12	11	11
RoadQuake	0	0	15

(b)

	12"	24"	36"
ATM	12	9	10
Swarco	14	12	12
RoadQuake	0	0	15

(c)

Figure 7.10. Change in sound level inside a sedan traversing a set of six rumble strips at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.



	12"	24"	36"
ATM	12	19	12
Swarco	16	19	11
RoadQuake	0	0	28

(a)

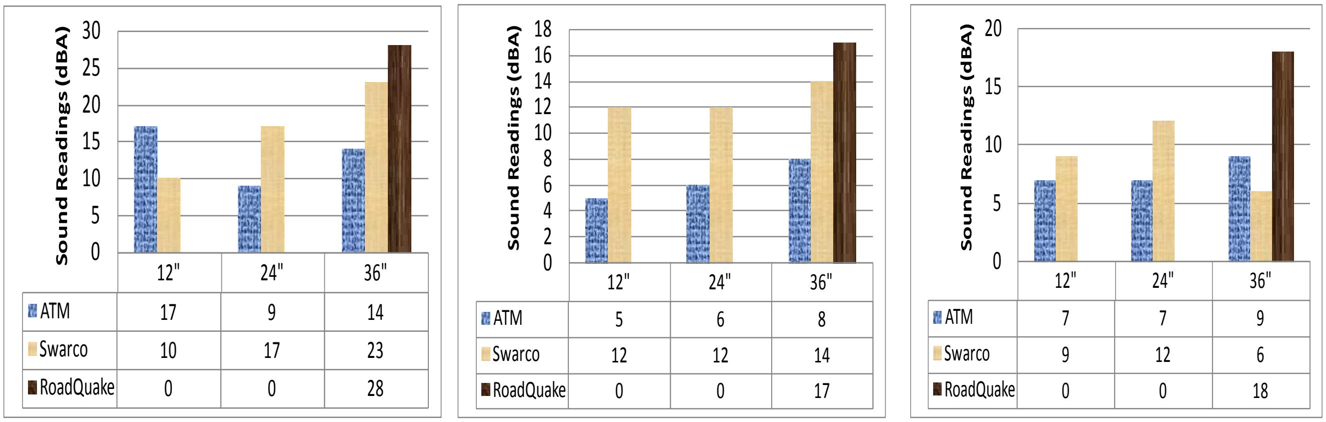
	12"	24"	36"
ATM	16	12	18
Swarco	11	11	17
RoadQuake	0	0	23

(b)

	12"	24"	36"
ATM	11	12	11
Swarco	13	10	12
RoadQuake	0	0	17

(c)

Figure 7.11. Change in sound level inside a van traversing a set of six rumble strips at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.



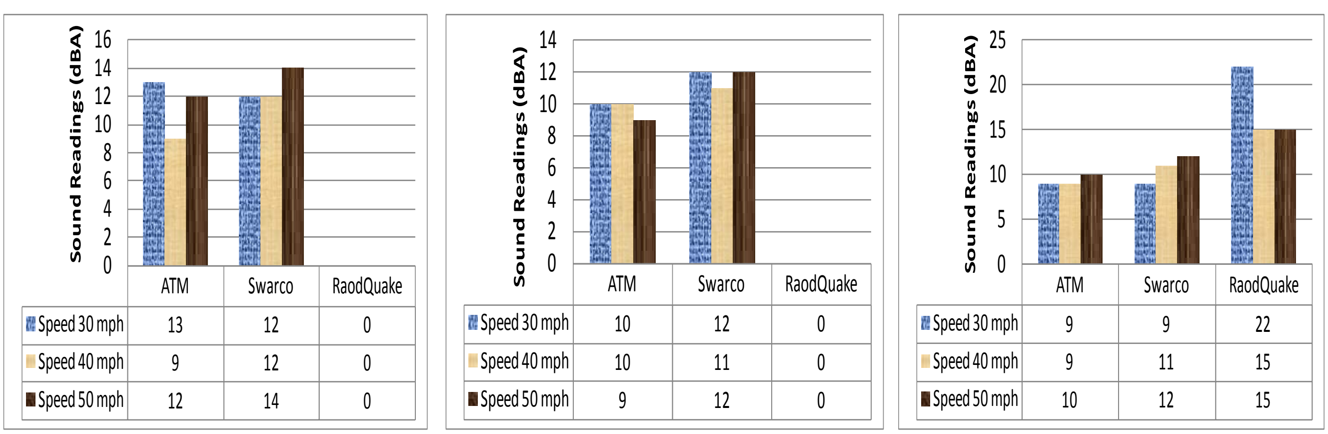
(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.12. Change in sound level inside a truck traversing a set of six rumble strips at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.

7.4.4 Impact of Vehicle Speed

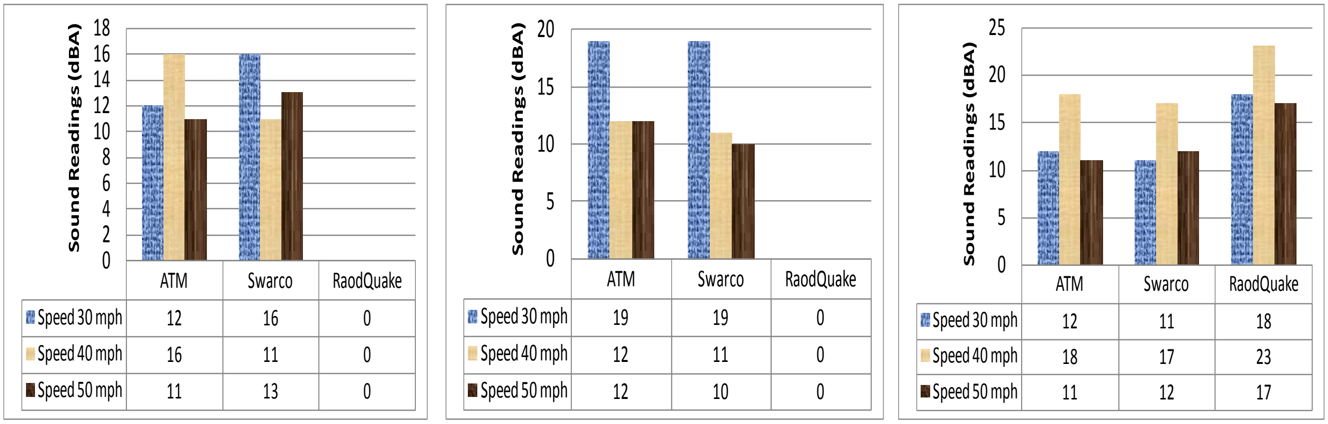
There are many parameters with respect to vehicle characteristics that can affect the generated sound levels when crossing over rumble strips, including vehicle speed, vehicle type, and tire specifications (Caltrans 2001; Morgan 2003; Miles and Finley 2007). This section provides a detailed analysis of the impact of vehicle speed on the generated sound-level changes. During the experiments, the test vehicles were driven at 30, 40, and 50 mph over all the tested patterns of rumble strips. These speed values were selected to be consistent with the typical speed limits used around work zones in Illinois. Figures 7.13, 7.14, and 7.15 illustrate the impact of vehicle speed on the generated sound levels for the tested arrangements of six strips per set of different configurations. The records for other tested rumble strip patterns (four and eight strips per set) are provided in Appendix F.

As shown in Figures 7.13, 7.14, and 7.15, a vehicle speed of 30 mph generally generated higher sound levels than speeds of 40 and 50 mph. The van, however, generated higher sound levels at 40 mph when it traveled across rumble strips spaced at 36 in., as shown in Figure 7.14. The results also show that the sedan and the van generated sound levels that ranged between 9 and 23 dBA, as shown in Figures 7.13 and 7.14, while the 26-ft truck generated sound levels that ranged between 7 and 28 dBA, as shown in Figure 7.15.



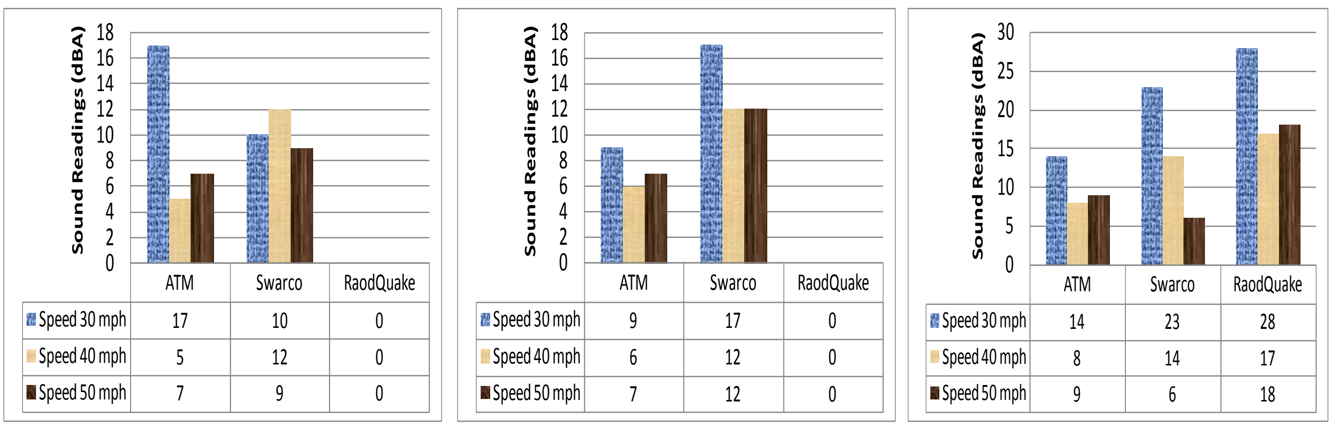
(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.13. Change in sound level inside a sedan traversing a set of six rumble strips spaced at (a) 12 in., (b) 24 in., and (c) 36 in.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.14. Change in sound level inside a van traversing a set of six rumble strips spaced at (a) 12 in., (b) 24 in., and (c) 36 in.

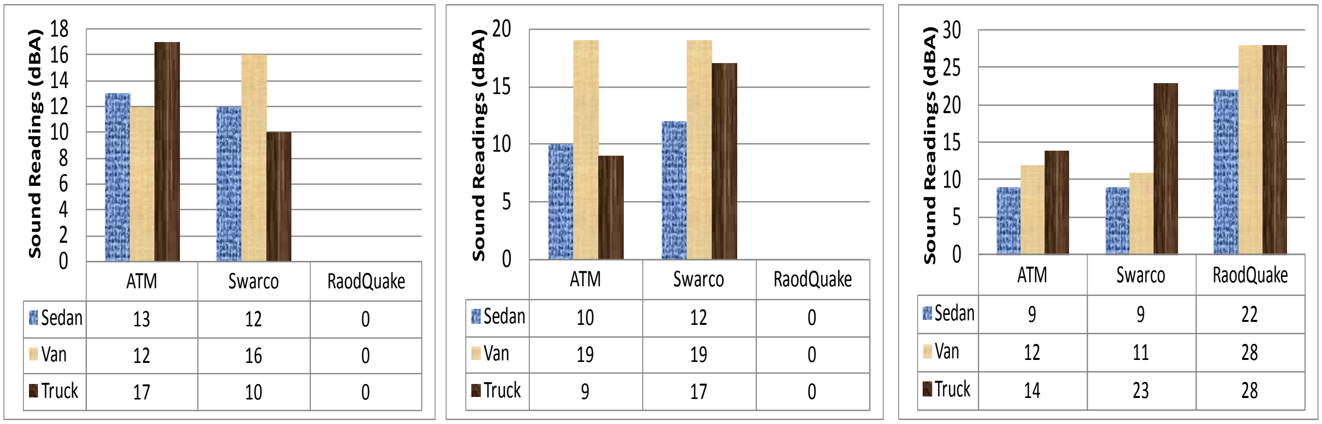


(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.15. Change in sound level inside a 26-ft truck traversing a set of six strips spaced at (a) 12 in., (b) 24 in., and (c) 36 in.

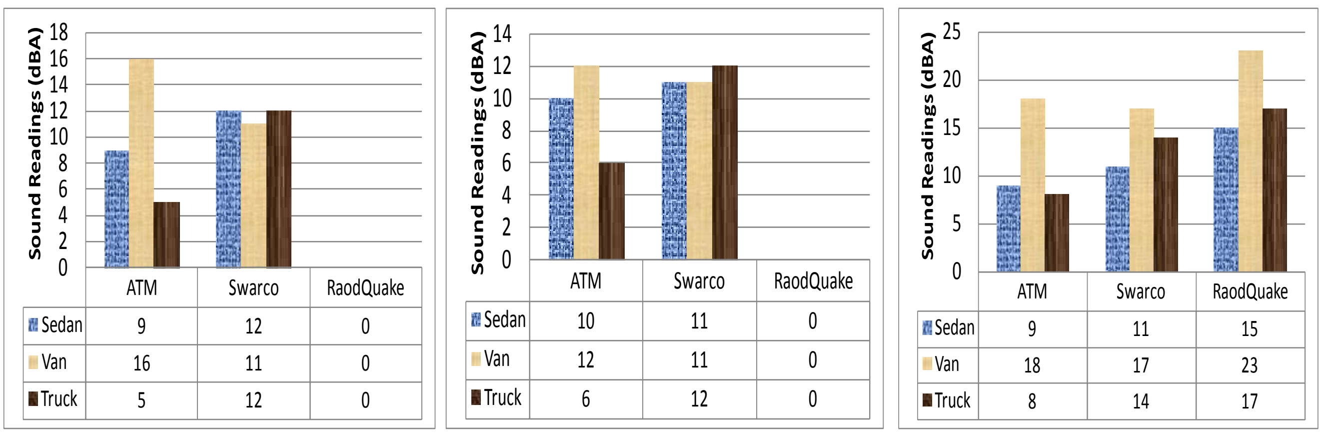
7.4.5 Impact of Vehicle Type

This section provides a detailed analysis of the impact of vehicle type on the generated sound-level changes. Three different vehicles were used in the field experiments to measure the sound-level changes inside these vehicles when they traveled over various configurations and setups of temporary rumble strips. Figures 7.16, 7.17, and 7.18 illustrate the impact of vehicle type on the generated sound levels for the tested arrangements of six strips per set of different configurations. The results of other tested rumble strip patterns (four and eight strips per set) are provided in Appendix F. The results of this analysis indicate that the van generally generated sound-level changes higher than the sedan, as shown in Figures 7.16, 7.17, and Figure 7.18.



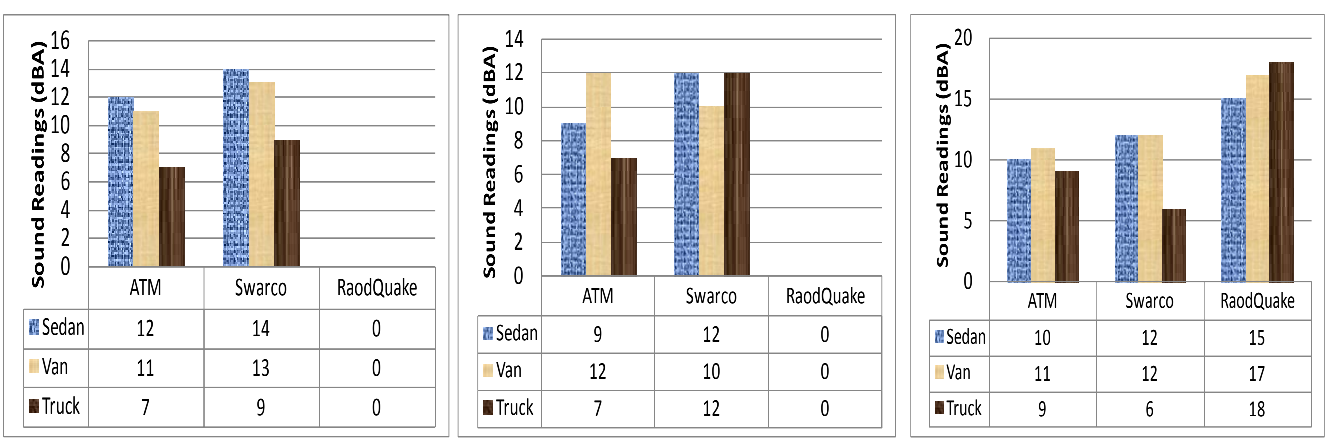
(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.16. Change in sound level inside different testing vehicles traversing at 30 mph a set of six rumble strips spaced at (a) 12 in., (b) 24 in., and (c) 36 in.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.17. Change in sound level inside different testing vehicles traversing at 40 mph a set of six rumble strips spaced at (a) 12 in., (b) 24 in., and (c) 36 in.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.18. Change in sound level inside different testing vehicles traversing at 50 mph a set of six rumble strips spaced at (a) 12 in., (b) 24 in., and (c) 36 in..

7.4.6 Summary

Section 7.4 focused on evaluating the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips before work zones to enhance the alertness of drivers approaching the work area. To achieve this objective, a series of field experiments were performed in June 2009 to evaluate the performance of three widely used types of temporary rumble strips: (1) ATM by Advance Traffic Markings, (2) RoadQuake by Plastic Safety Systems, and (3) Rumbler by Swarco Industries. The three different types of temporary rumble strips were tested using three vehicles: a sedan, a cargo van, and a 26-ft truck.

The effectiveness of temporary rumble strips was quantified by measuring the generated sound levels of vehicles traversing temporary rumble strips in order to evaluate the impact of five rumble strip and vehicle parameters: (1) rumble strip type, (2) number of rumble strips per set, (3) rumble strip spacing, (4) vehicle type, and (5) vehicle speed. A correlation analysis was performed to identify all possible correlations among these study parameters and the increase in generated sound level. The increase in sound level was found to be statistically correlated with all study parameters except the number of rumble strips per set.

The increase in sound level due to the use of temporary rumble strips before work zones ranged between 5 and 28 dBA for all the tested rumble strips configurations and vehicle speeds. Sound-level changes were found to be at or above 9 dBA for all vehicles, speeds, and spacing arrangements, with the exception of the ATM rumble strips with spacings of 12 and 24 in. when traversed by the 26-ft truck at speeds higher than 30 mph. The RoadQuake rumble strips generated higher sound levels than the Swarco and ATM rumble strips. The speed limit of 30 mph generally generated higher sound-level changes than the speeds of 40 and 50 mph.

7.5 EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TEMPORARY RUMBLE STRIPS AT THE EDGE OF WORK ZONES

This section presents the results of the field experiments conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips placed at the edge of work zones. This location of temporary rumble strips can be used to alert inattentive drivers if they encroach into the work area in a similar way that permanent rumble strips are used to alert drivers when they drift off the road. The location of temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zones requires that their length range between 2 and 4 ft, as shown in Figure 7.19. This new approach of deploying temporary rumble strips of short lengths (2 to 4 ft) has the potential to be applied along construction work zones and significantly decrease the percentage of work zone crashes, especially at the work area.

The installation and removal processes of temporary rumble strips were presented in detail in the previous chapter, along with the efficiency of the different tested types, in terms of the time and effort required for installation and removal. The field experiments on temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zones tested two types of rumble strips: ATM by Advance Traffic Markings and Rumbler by Swarco Industries. The first type, ATM, is available in rolls of 50 ft that can be cut into smaller strips of any length. The second type, Swarco, is available in strips 4 ft in length. The third type, RoadQuake, is only available in strips of 11 ft long that cover the entire traffic lane. Therefore, the RoadQuake rumble strip was not tested as a potential type for use at the edge of work zones. The two types of temporary rumble strips were tested using three vehicles: (1) sedan, (2) cargo van, and (3) 26-ft truck. Full specifications of the testing vehicles were presented in Chapter 6.

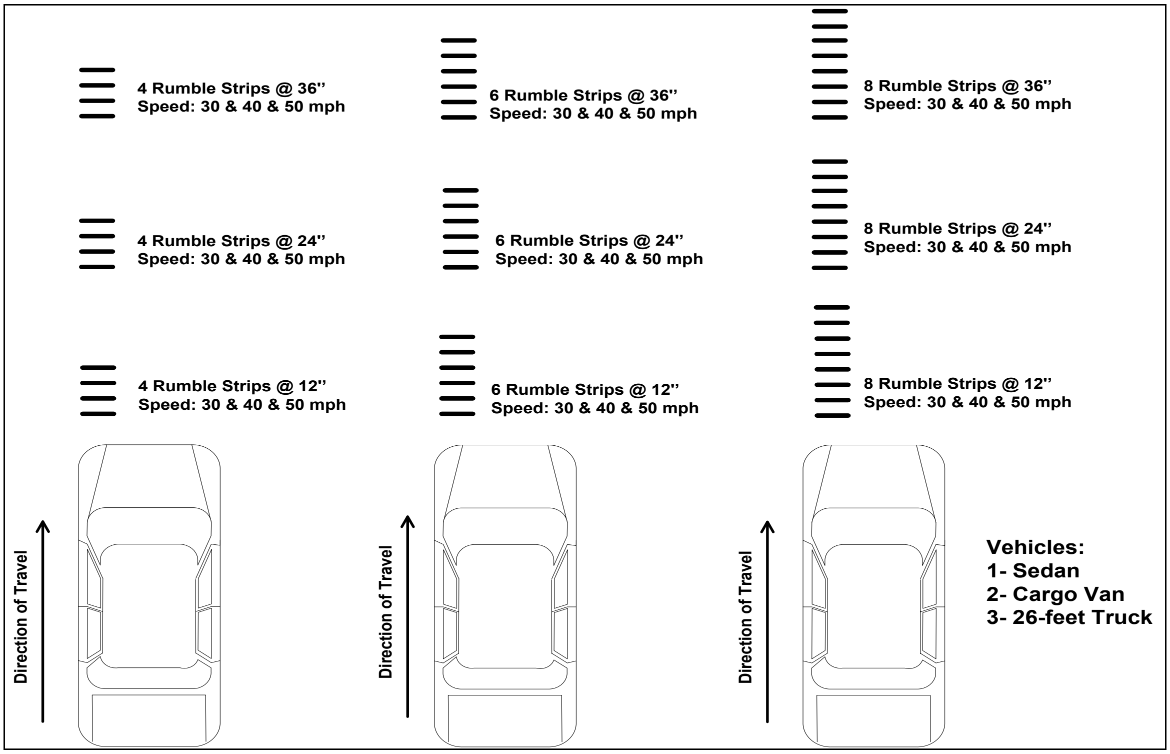


Figure 7.19. Tested patterns of temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zones.

The effectiveness of temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zones was quantified by measuring the generated sound levels of vehicles traversing the temporary rumble strips for five parameters: (1) number of rumble strips per set, (2) rumble strip spacing, (3) rumble strip type, (4) vehicle speed, and (5) vehicle type. A total of 162 temporary rumble strip configurations was tested. The same data collection procedure for sound readings, as described in Chapter 6, was used in these experiments.

7.5.1 Comparing the Effectiveness of Temporary and Permanent Rumble Strips

The effectiveness of temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zones was first evaluated by comparing the generated sound levels to those produced by permanent rumble strips that are typically placed at the edge of roads. Various research studies have measured and reported the generated sound levels (inside vehicle cabins) of typical permanent rumble strips, as shown in Table 7.7. The findings of these research studies indicate that typical permanent rumble strips generate an increase in sound levels inside the vehicle that ranges between 4 and 12 dBA for sedans and vans, and between 2 and 5 dBA for trucks. Accordingly, these two ranges of sound-level changes can be used to evaluate the performance of temporary rumble strips and examine whether they can produce a similar auditory stimulus to alert inattentive drivers. This section analyzes the generated sound levels of nine test configurations of different types of temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zones and compares their performance to the aforementioned two ranges generated by permanent rumble strips, as shown in Figures 7.20, 7.21, and 7.22.

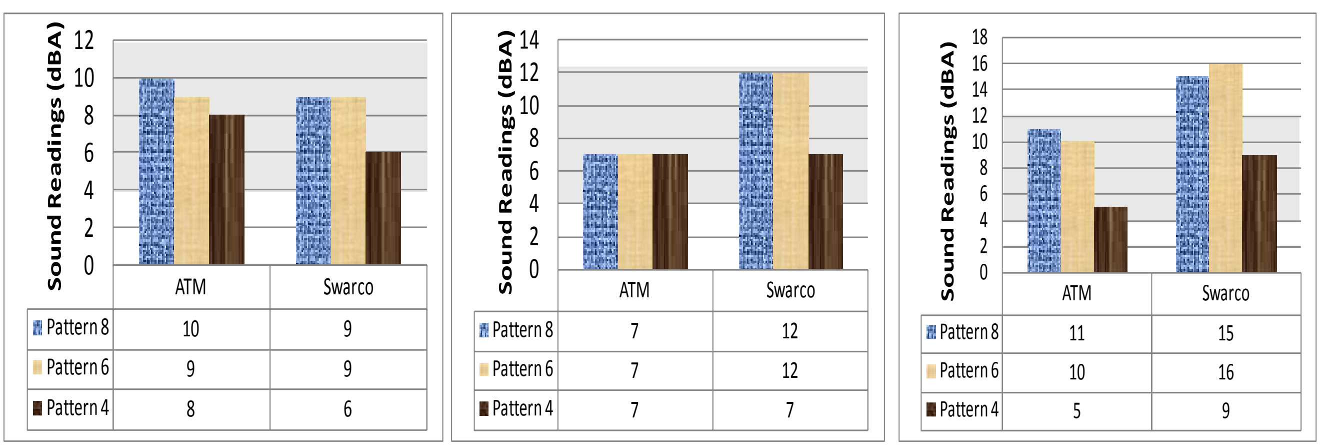
Table 7.7. Sound Levels of Permanent Rumble Strips

Research Study	**Generated Sound Level**
Wood (1994)	6 dBA
Elefteriadoiu et al. (2000)	9–11 dBA
Caltrans (2001)	12 dBA for sedan, and 2–5 for heavy trucks
Outcalt (2001)	6–10 dBA
Miles and Finley (2007)	4 dBA

The findings of this analysis indicate that both types of tested temporary rumble strips (ATM and Swarco) at the edge of work zones generated adequate sound levels that are comparable to those produced by permanent rumble strips. For the tested sedan, Figure 7.20 illustrates the measured sound-level change when the sedan was traveling at speeds of 30, 40, and 50 mph over the two types of temporary rumble strips with a spacing of 12 in. and included a varying number of strips per set (four, six, and eight). The results in this figure illustrate that the measured sound levels for the tested arrangements ranged from 5 to 16 dBA, which indicates that the lower and upper bounds of these measurements exceed the respective bounds reported in the literature for permanent rumble strips (4 to 12 dBA).

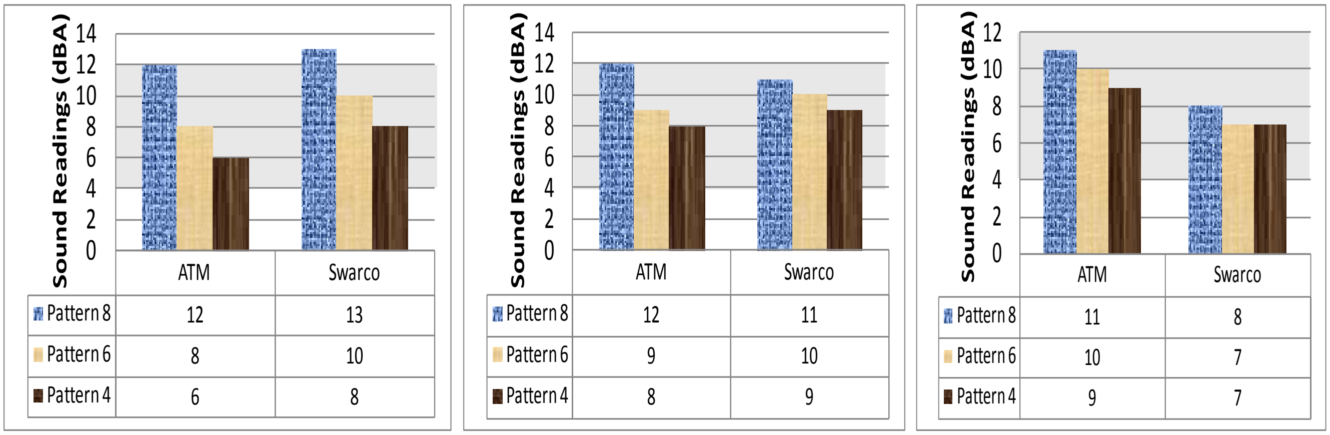
For the tested van, Figure 7.21 presents the measured sound-level changes inside the van when it traveled at speeds of 30, 40 and 50 mph over the two types of temporary rumble strips with a spacing of 12 in. and included a varying number of strips per set (four, six, and eight). Similarly, the results of these experiments indicate that the measured sound levels for the tested arrangements ranged from 6 to 13 dBA, which indicates that the lower and upper bounds of these measurements also exceed the respective bounds reported in the literature for permanent rumble strips (4 to 12 dBA).

A similar performance was also observed for the tested truck, which experienced measured sound levels for the tested arrangements that ranged from 2 to 10 dBA, which is similar to or exceeds the respective bounds reported in the literature for permanent rumble strips (2 to 5 dBA) for trucks, as shown in Figure 7.22. These results confirm that the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zones in generating adequate sound levels to alert inattentive drivers is similar to the effectiveness of permanent rumble strips.



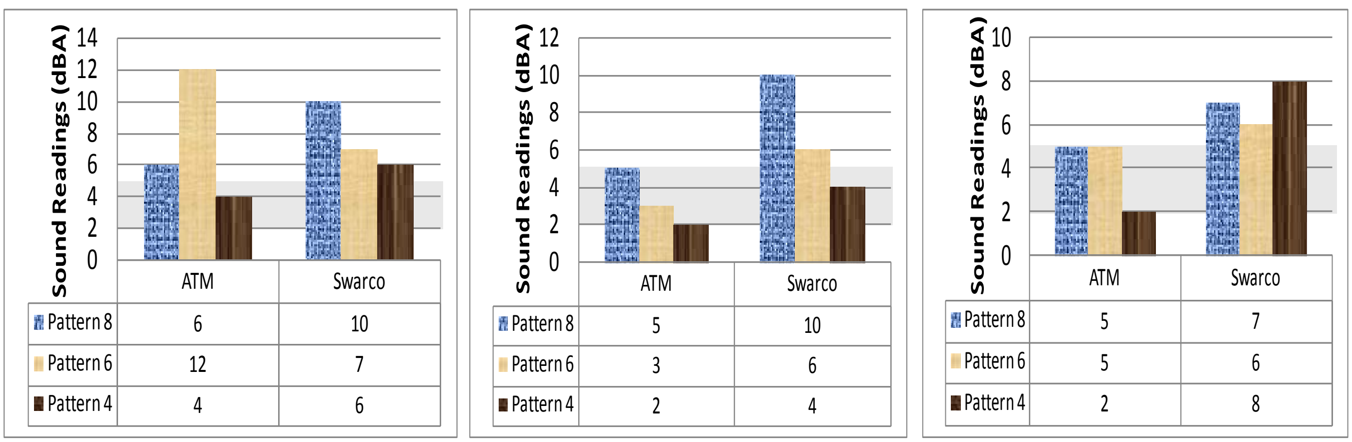
(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.20. Change in sound level inside a sedan traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.21. Change in sound level inside a van traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.22. Change in sound level inside a truck traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.

7.5.2 Correlation Analysis of Study Parameters and Change in Sound Levels

Two independent tests, Pearson's chi-square and likelihood ratio chi-square, were used to identify all possible correlations among rumble strip and vehicle parameters and the increase in sound levels. The findings of this correlation analysis are summarized in Table 7.8, which indicates that the sound-level change variable is correlated with four study parameters: (1) number of rumble strips per set, (2) type of rumble strip, (3) type of vehicle, and (4) vehicle speed. The findings indicate that these variables need to be carefully considered and analyzed when configuring temporary rumble strips to be placed at the edge of work zones under the wheels of one side of the vehicles driving next to the work zone. A detailed analysis of these four parameters is presented in the following sections.

Table 7.8. Correlated Parameters of Rumble Strip Parameters at 5% Significance Level

Correlated Factors of Rumble Strip Auditory Stimulus		Pearson's Chi-Square		Likelihood-Ratio Chi-Square	
		p-Value	Correlated	p-Value	Correlated
Sound measurement	Number of strips per set	0.0004	YES	< 0.0001	YES
Sound measurement	Rumble strips spacing	0.9774	NO	0.9782	NO
Sound measurement	Rumble strips type	0.0048	YES	0.003	YES
Sound measurement	Vehicles speed	0.0318	YES	0.0158	YES
Sound measurement	Vehicles type	< 0.0001	YES	< 0.0001	YES

7.5.3 Impact of Number of Strips per Set

The number of strips per set (pattern) was statistically correlated with the increase in sound level associated with the use of temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zones, as shown in Table 7.8. Based on the literature review and the recommendations of manufacturers, three pattern configurations were tested in field experiments: four strips per set, six strips per set, and eight strips per set. Two types of rumble strips, ATM and Swarco, were tested using these three patterns. Because the spacing of rumble strips was not found to be statistically correlated with the increase in sound levels, only the rumble strip spacing of 12 in. using different configurations is presented in Figures 7.23, 7.24, and 7.25. The records for other rumble strip spacing arrangements (24 and 36 in.) are provided in Appendix F.

The results of this analysis indicate that the sound-level changes inside the sedan ranged between 5 and 16 dBA, and it generally increased as the number of strips per set increased, as shown in Figure 7.23. The minimum sound was measured for the configuration of four ATM strips per set when the sedan was traveling at 50 mph, while the maximum was recorded for the configuration of six Swarco strips per set when the sedan was traveling at 50 mph. For the tested van, the minimum increase in sound level (6 dBA) was measured for the four strips per set pattern, while the maximum increase in sound level (12 dBA) was observed for the eight strips per set pattern for all the tested speeds, as shown in Figure 7.24. For the tested truck, the results illustrate that the pattern of four strips per set produced the lowest increase in sound levels, ranging between 2 and 8 dBA, as shown in Figure 7.25.

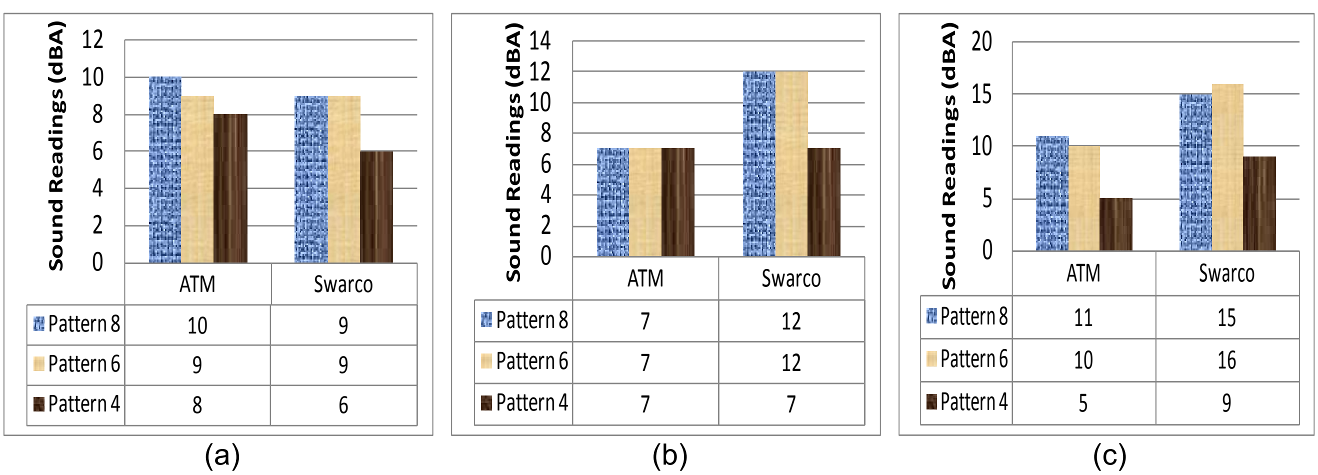
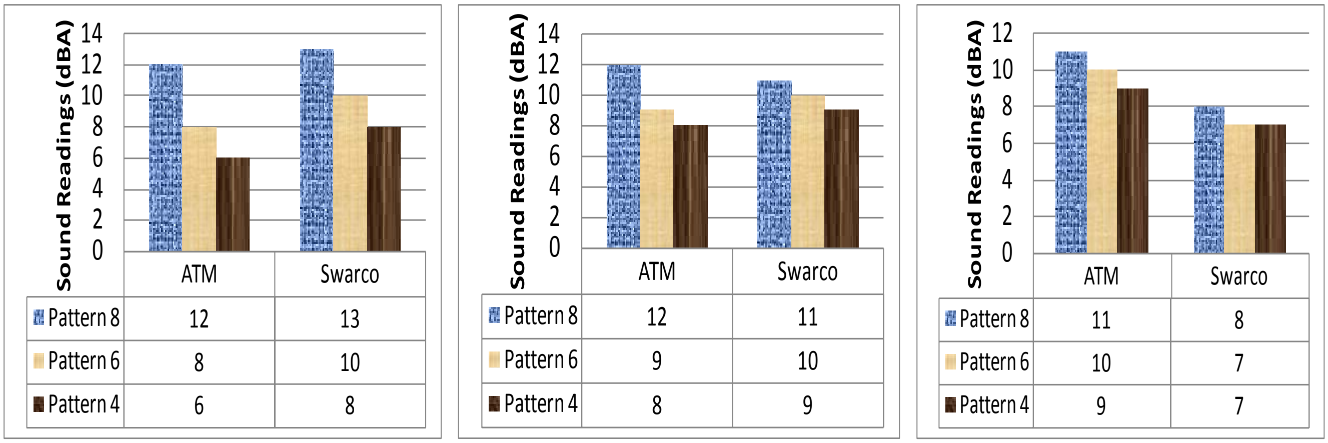
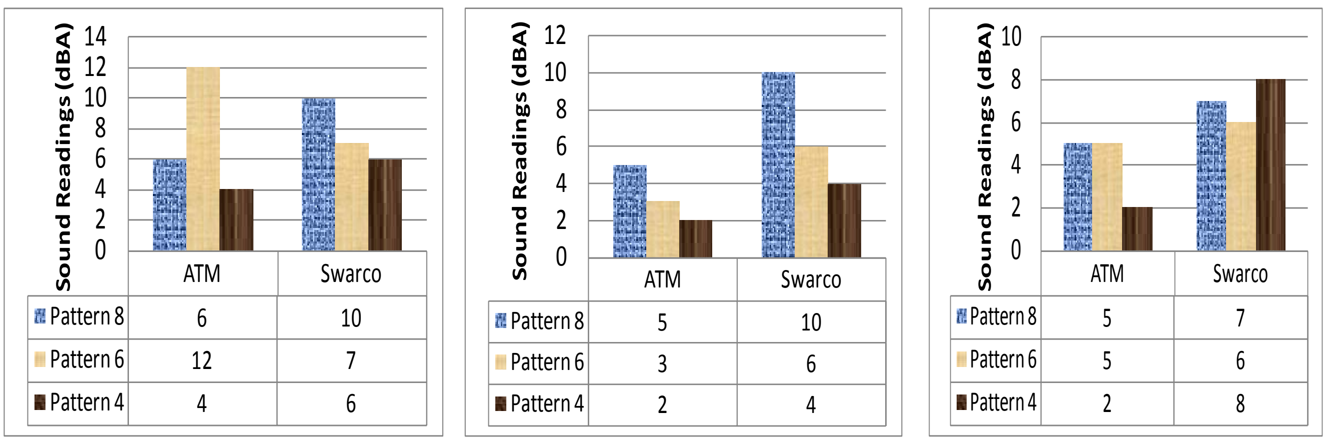


Figure 7.23. Change in sound level inside a sedan traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.24. Change in sound level inside a van traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.

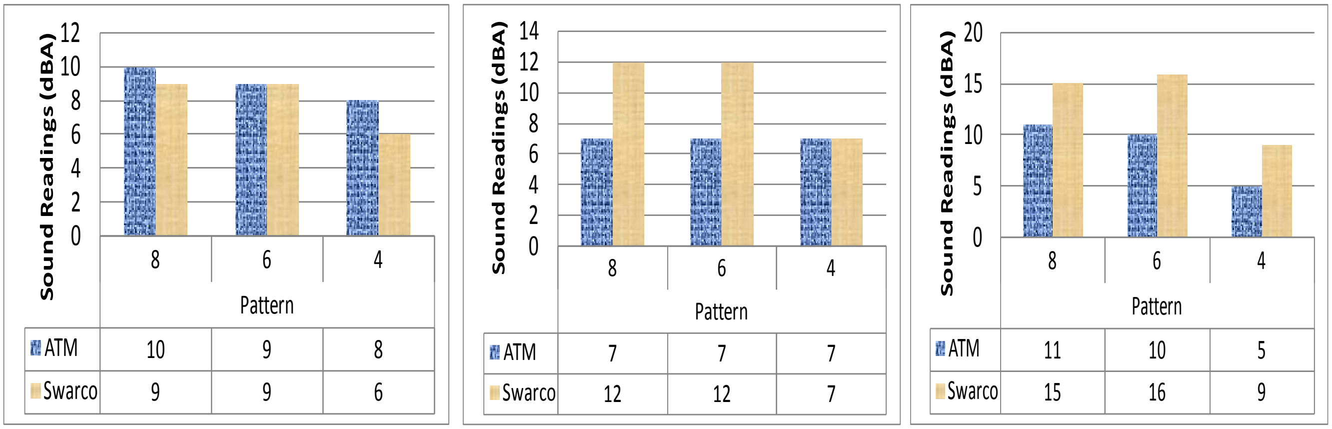


(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.25. Change in sound level inside a truck traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.

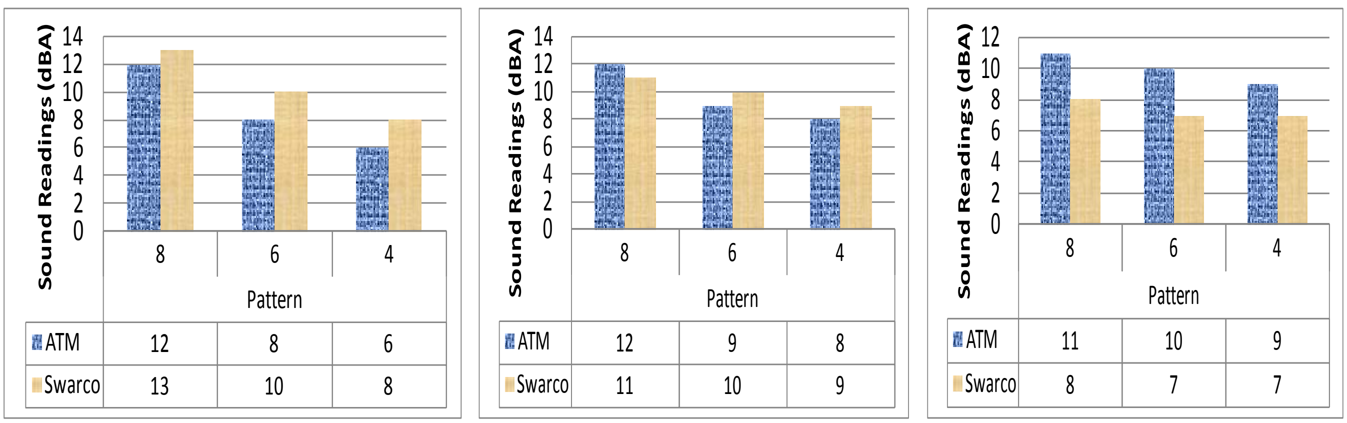
7.5.4 Impact of Rumble Strip Type

Two types of temporary rumble strips were tested in the field experiments: ATM and Swarco, which each had a length of 4 ft. The two types were tested using three patterns, four strips per set, six strips per set, and eight strips per set. Figures 7.26, 7.27, and 7.28 illustrate the impact of rumble strip type on the generated sound levels for the tested rumble strip spacing of 12 in. The records for other tested rumble strip spacing arrangements (24 and 36 in.) are provided in Appendix F. As shown in Figures 7.26, 7.27, and Figure 7.28, the Swarco rumble strips generated higher sound levels than the ATM rumble strips in most test arrangements except for the sedan at 30 mph and the van at 50 mph. The highest sound-level change (16 dBA) was measured for the Swarco strips, while the lowest sound-level change (2 dBA) was recorded for the ATM strips.



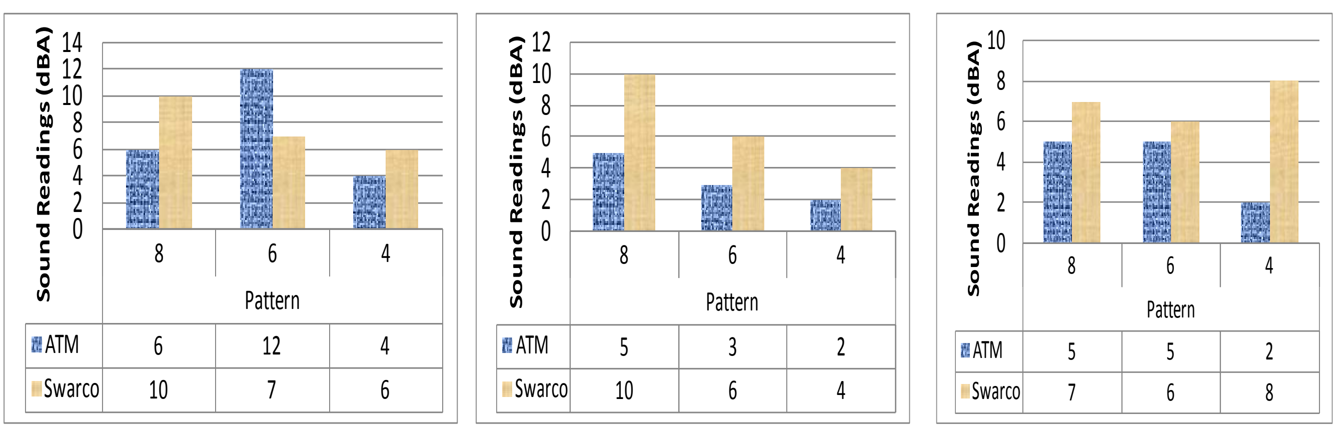
(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.26. Change in sound level inside a sedan traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.27. Change in sound level inside a van traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.

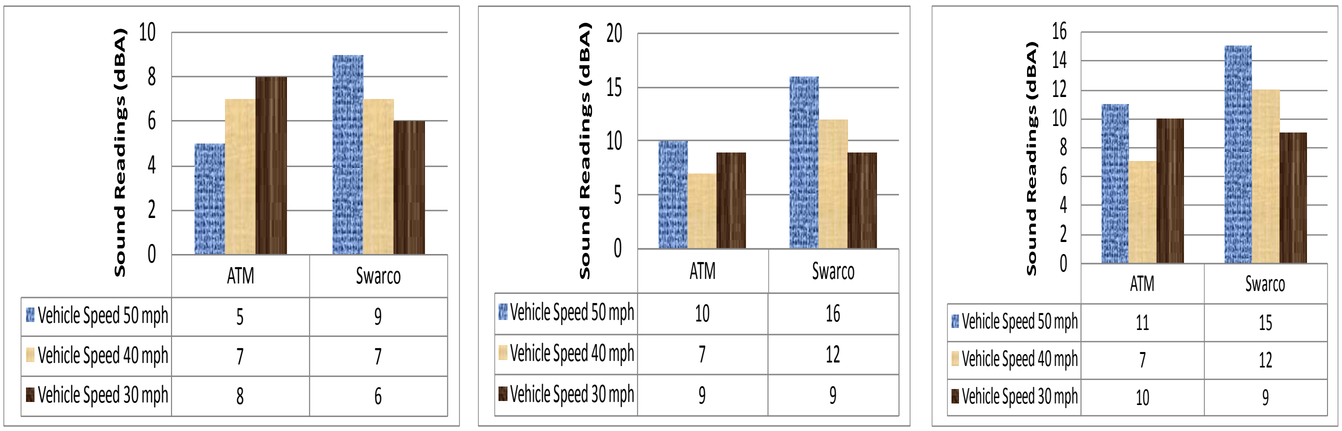


(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.28. Change in sound level inside a truck traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. at (a) 30 mph, (b) 40 mph, and (c) 50 mph.

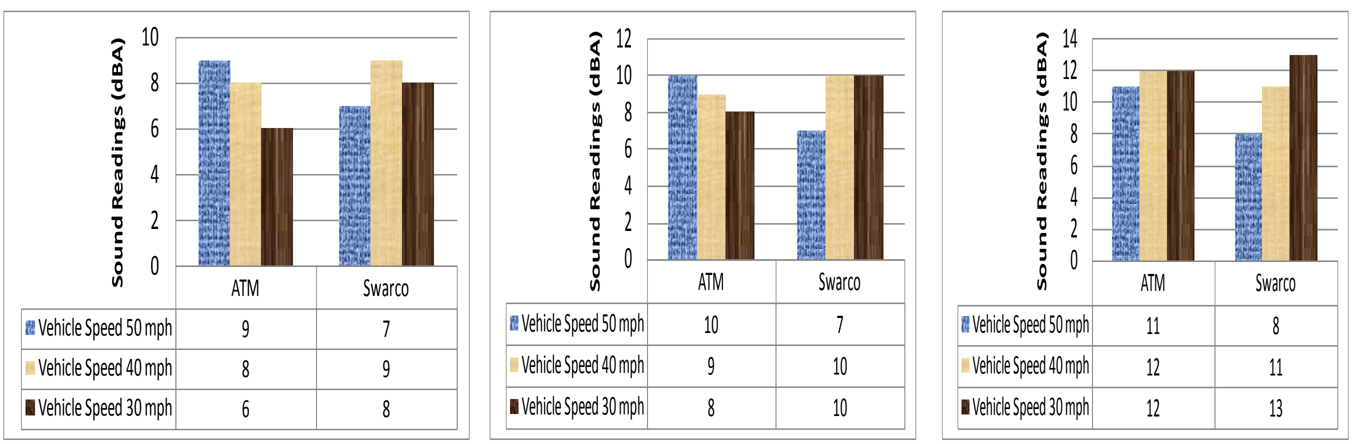
7.5.5 Impact of Vehicle Speed

The test vehicles were driven at 30, 40, and 50 mph along all the tested patterns of rumble strips. Figures 7.29, 7.30, and 7.31 illustrate the impact of vehicle speed on the generated sound levels for the tested rumble strip spacing of 12 in. The records for other tested rumble strip spacing arrangements (24 and 36 in.) are provided in Appendix F. As shown in Figure 7.29, the sedan traveling over the ATM rumble strips at 50 mph generated higher sound levels than higher sedan speeds when the rumble strip pattern consisted of six and eight strips per set.



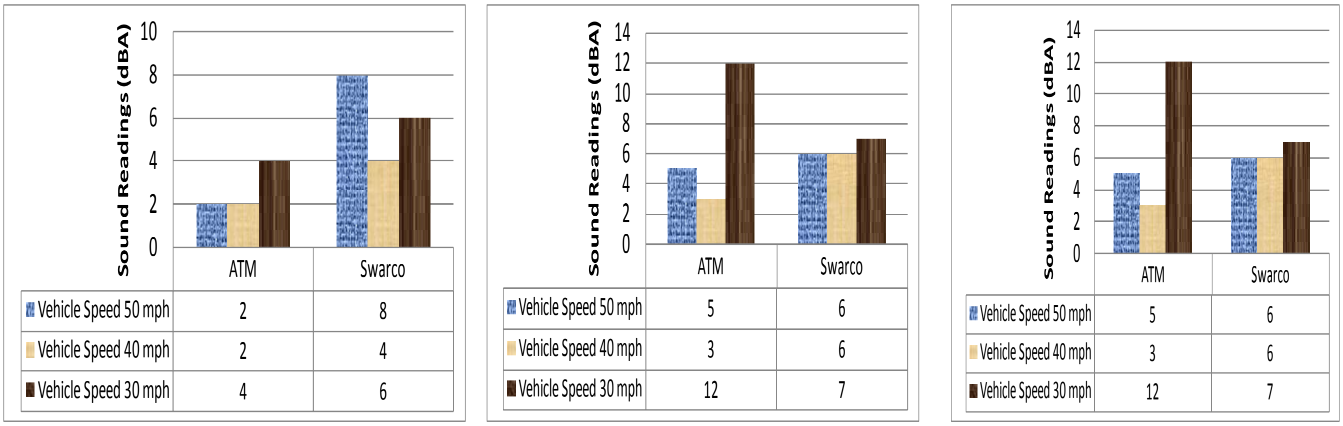
(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.29. Change in sound level inside a sedan traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. for (a) four strips per set, (b) six strips per set, and (c) eight strips per set.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.30. Change in sound level inside a van traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. for (a) four strips per set, (b) six strips per set, and (c) eight strips per set.

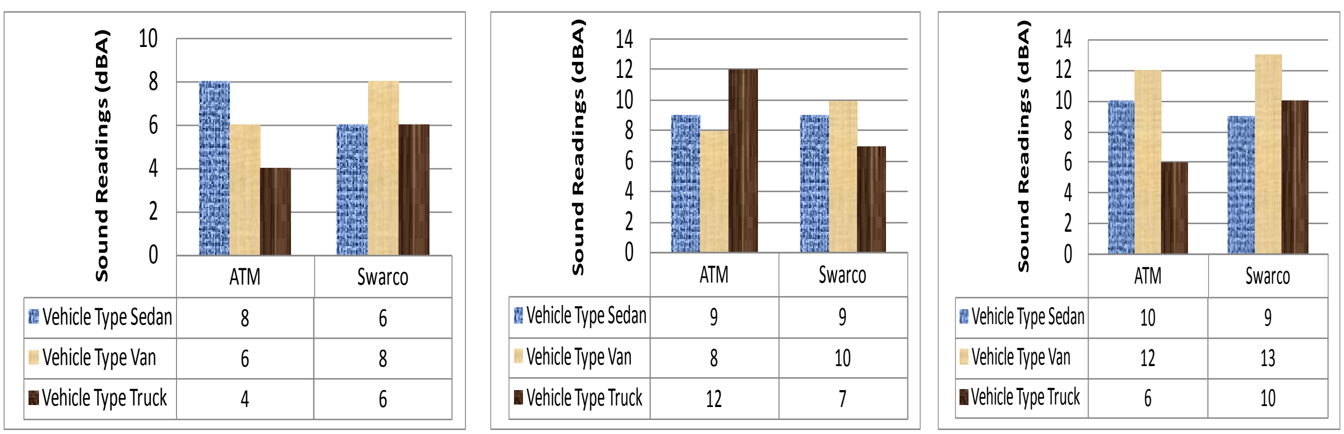


(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.31. Change in sound level inside a truck traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. for (a) four strips per set, (b) six strips per set, and (c) eight strips per set.

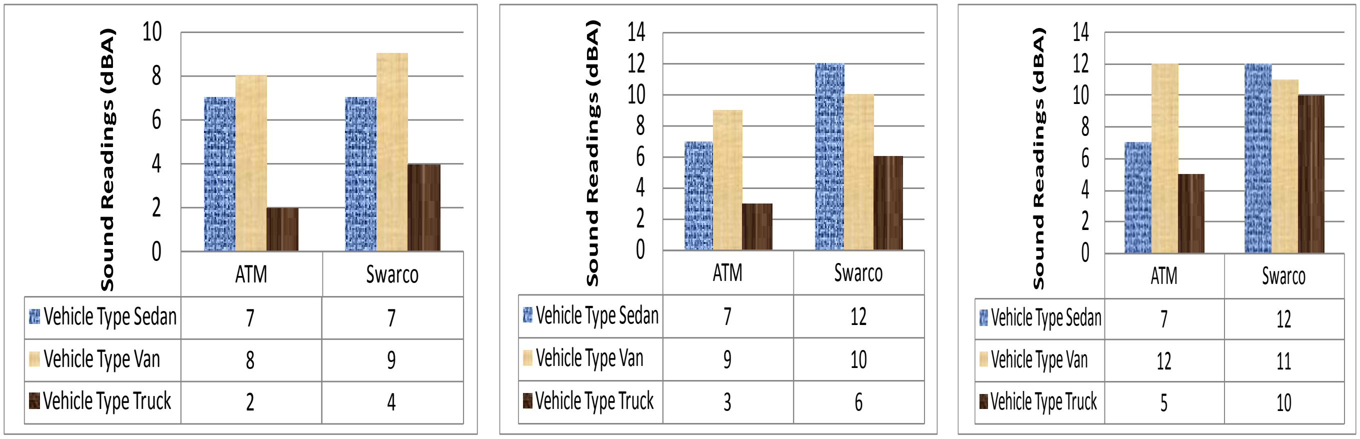
7.5.6 Impact of Vehicle Type

Three types of vehicles were tested during the field experiments: a sedan, a cargo van, and a 26-ft truck. Figures 7.32, 7.33, and 7.34 illustrate the impact of vehicle type on the generated sound levels for the tested rumble strip spacing of 12 in. The results of other tested rumble strip spacing arrangements (24 and 36 in.) are provided in Appendix F. As shown in Figures 7.32, 7.33, and 7.34, both the sedan and the van generated sound levels higher than the 26-foot truck. Figure 7.33 also shows that the van generated the highest sound levels in most test cases when the travel speed was 40 mph. The minimum increase in sound level experienced by the sedan was 5 dBA, and it was recorded when it traveled over four ATM rumble strips per set at a speed of 50 mph.



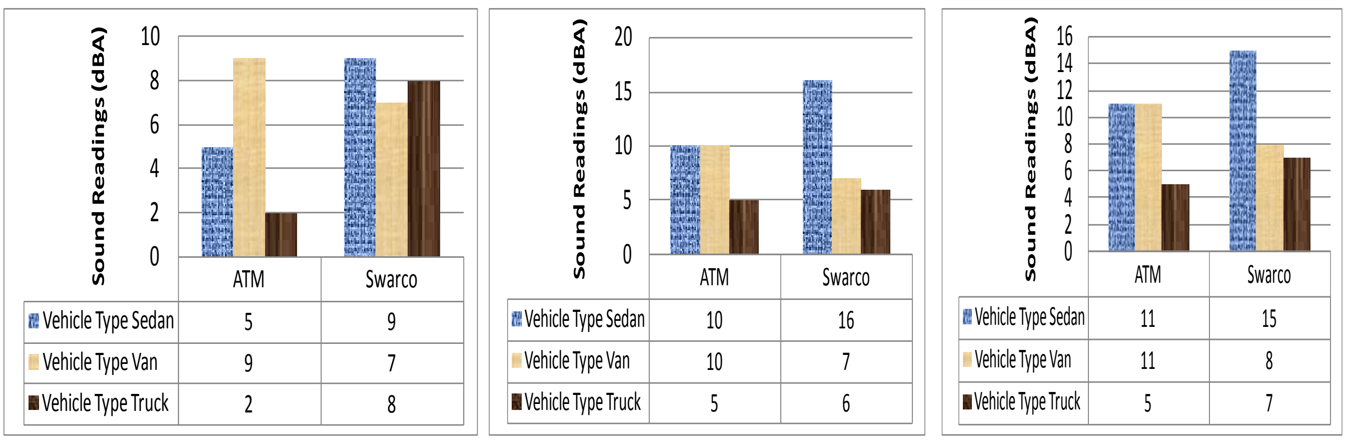
(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.32. Change in sound level inside different vehicles traveling at 30 mph and traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. for(a) four strips per set, (b) six strips per set, and (c) eight strips per set.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.33. Change in sound level inside different vehicles traveling at 40 mph and traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. for (a) four strips per set, (b) six strips per set, and (c) eight strips per set.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7.34. Change in sound level inside different vehicles traveling at 50 mph and traversing rumble strips spaced at 12 in. for (a) four strips per set, (b) six strips per set, and (c) eight strips per set.

7.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPROVING THE USE OF WORK ZONE TEMPORARY RUMBLE STRIPS

This section presents practical recommendations for improving the use of temporary rumble strips before work zones begin and at the edge of work zones. The recommendations focus on (1) type of temporary rumble strip, (2) pattern of temporary rumble strips, (3) spacing of temporary rumble strips, (4) vehicle type, (5) vehicle speed, and (6) location of rumble strips. The recommendations for placing temporary rumble strips within work zones were presented in Chapter 5, based on IDOT resident engineers' responses to the last question of the survey, which was "*If temporary rumble strips (6~8 strips/set) can be used prior to or at the edge of work zones, where do you recommend them to be placed within the work zone layout? Please explain why?*"

7.6.1 Temporary Rumble Strip Types

The findings of the field experiments indicate that the three tested types of temporary rumble strips (ATM, Swarco, and RoadQuake) were effective in alerting inattentive drivers because they generated auditory stimulus that exceeded the typical levels of permanent rumble strips of 4 dBA. The results also show that the use of temporary rumble strips that have greater width and thickness increase effectiveness because they are capable of generating higher sound levels. The results also show that the use of RoadQuake rumble strips at speeds lower than 40 mph can cause excessive sound levels (higher than 20 dBA), especially for commercial trucks.

The installation and removal efficiency and the durability of temporary rumble strips are also important factors that should be considered when determining the type to be used. The installation time significantly varied according to the number of strips placed and the type of rumble strips, as shown in Table 6.1. Types such as ATM and Swarco are not recommended to be re-used because they require multiple layers of adhesives to be applied. On the other hand, RoadQuake does not require any adhesives, which makes them more feasible for re-use.

7.6.2 Temporary Rumble Strips Patterns

The findings of the field experiments indicate that the three tested patterns of 4 strips per set, 6 strips per set, and 8 strips per set can be used effectively to generate auditory stimulus sufficient to alert drivers. The results also show that the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips and their generated sound levels increased as the number of strips per set increased. Accordingly, the highest effectiveness of temporary rumble strips can be achieved when the pattern of eight strips per set is used.

7.6.3 Temporary Rumble Strips Spacing

The findings of the field experiments indicate that the three tested spacings of 12, 24, and 36 in. can be used effectively to generate an auditory stimulus to alert inattentive drivers. To avoid vehicle sliding, RoadQuake should be placed at 36-in. spacing because of its significantly larger dimensions. However, the field experiments showed that sound-level changes inside different vehicles decreased as the spacing of rumble strips increased. Accordingly, the spacing between rumble strips should not exceed 24 in. for strips that have a width of 4 or 6 in., and spacing should be increased to 36 in. for wider rumble strips, such as the RoadQuake, that have a width of 12 in.

7.6.4 Vehicle Type

The findings of the field experiments indicate that drivers inside the three tested types of vehicles experienced adequate auditory stimuli when they traveled over different patterns of rumble strips at varying speed limits. Both the sedan and the van generated sound levels higher than the 26-ft truck. Based on this finding, it is recommended that special attention be given to work zones on highways that have high commercial traffic volume because the auditory stimulus inside the cabin of a large truck is less effective than the stimulus experienced inside a sedan or a van.

7.6.5 Vehicle Speed

The findings of the field experiments indicate that the three test vehicles driven at 30, 40, and 50 mph generated auditory stimulus sufficient to alert drivers when traversing different patterns of rumble strips at varying speed limits. In general, vehicles traveling at 30 mph generated higher sound levels than those traveling at 40 and 50 mph. These findings highlight the need to reduce work zone speed limits to maximize the effectiveness and benefits of using temporary rumble strips in work zones.

7.6.6 Location of Rumble Strip

Temporary rumble strips can be located at the edge of work zones, and/or before work zones. The findings of these field experiments confirmed that all tested types of temporary rumble strips at both locations generated adequate sound levels compared to the sound levels produced by permanent rumble strips. This highlights the potential safety benefits of temporary rumble strips if they are placed along the edges of construction work zones. This setup and location of temporary rumble strips are capable of improving safety and reducing crashes in the work area similar to the safety benefits achieved when permanent rumble strips are used on roadways.

CHAPTER 8 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Work zone crashes pose a major safety hazard for the traveling public and construction workers, resulting in a nationwide average of 745 fatalities and 40,700 severe injuries per year. The percentage of work zone fatalities in Illinois is higher than the national average, and more than 2,000 severe injury work zone crashes occur every year in Illinois. These work zone crashes in Illinois were also responsible for more than 20% of its interstate fatalities in 2006.

To address these critical safety concerns, the Illinois Department of Transportation (IDOT) developed and implemented the Safety Engineering Policy (3-07) to comply with the FHWA Work Zone Safety and Mobility Rule (FHWA 2005). One of the main safety goals of this newly implemented policy is to reduce the number of motorist fatalities in traffic-related work zone crashes by 10% each year and to reduce the number of work zone crashes by 5% from each prior year. To improve work zone safety, the Illinois Strategic Highway Safety Program (ISHSP 2008) proposed a number of strategies, including identifying factors that contribute to injury and fatal work zone crashes.

To support IDOT resident engineers and contractors in this critical task, this study focused on (1) providing a better understanding of the factors contributing to injury and fatal work zone crashes, (2) creating new knowledge on and quantifying the impact of work zone layout parameters on the risk of crash occurrence, and (3) analyzing the efficiency and effectiveness of using temporary rumble strips within and before work zones.

8.2 RESEARCH TASKS AND FINDINGS

To accomplish the main goal of studying and minimizing work zone crashes in Illinois, the following four research objectives were identified: (1) provide an in-depth comprehensive review of the latest literature on traffic-related work zone crashes and conduct site visits of work zones in Illinois, (2) analyze the frequency and severity of traffic-related work zone crashes in Illinois, (3) quantify the impact of layout parameters on the risk of crash occurrence and develop practical recommendations to control the factors contributing to work zone crashes in Illinois, and (4) evaluate the practicality and effectiveness of adding temporary/portable rumble strips within and before work zones.

Administered by ICT and IDOT personnel, a research team from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign conducted this research project, which focused on (1) conducting a comprehensive literature review, (2) collecting and fusing all available data and reports on work zone crashes in Illinois, (3) analyzing work zone crashes and identifying contributing factors, (4) identifying the impact of layout parameters on the risk of crash occurrence and developing practical recommendations for improving work zone layouts, (5) performing field experiments to evaluate the efficiency and practicality of using temporary rumble strips in work zones, and (6) evaluating the effectiveness of using temporary rumble strips before and at the edge of work zones and providing recommendations for improving their use.

In the first task of the project, a comprehensive literature review was conducted to establish baseline knowledge of the latest research and developments on work zone characteristics and their effect on the frequency and severity of work zone crashes. This research task included a comprehensive review of the following:

- Effective work zone layouts, strategies, applicable temporary traffic control devices, and transportation management plans for work zone areas.

- Proven merge techniques and queue detection systems used in and around construction areas.
- Relevant and recent federal and state DOT rules on work zone safety and mobility.
- Methods and factors used for work zone crash data reporting to determine work zone crash characteristics and contributing factors.
- Statistical methods that can be applied for both work zone crash analysis and roadway crash analysis.

The second task of the project focused on gathering data and reports on work zone crashes in Illinois from all available sources and fusing them into a single comprehensive dataset. Crash data sources included (1) National Highway and Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) crash data; (2) Highway Safety Information System (HSIS) crash data, and (3) police crash reports. The key result of this research task is a set of comprehensive analytical datasets of injury work zone crashes.

The primary purpose of the third task of this research project was to perform a comprehensive analysis of work zone crashes to identify the factors contributing to such crashes in Illinois. Crash frequency analyses were performed to investigate and compare the impact of work zone parameters on the frequency and severity of (1) fatal work zone crashes, (2) multi-vehicle injury crashes, and (3) single-vehicle injury crashes. Then, a correlation analysis was conducted among all available work zone crash parameters to identify factors contributing to work zone crashes. The main results of this task included the following:

- Identified impact of 20 work zone crash variables on the frequency and severity of fatal work zone crashes, multi-vehicle injury work zone crashes, and single-vehicle injury work zone crashes.
- Identified correlations among all crash variables in the assembled dataset to investigate factors contributing to work zone crashes in Illinois.
- A set of practical recommendations for improving work zone layouts, strategies, and standards were presented.

The fourth task of this project focused on identifying the impact of work zone layout parameters on the risk of crash occurrence. First, the research team visited several construction work zones in Illinois to gather data on current practices typically used in and around highway work zones. The impact of these work zone parameters was further studied via an online survey of IDOT resident engineers about risk levels associated with various work zone parameters. The key results and findings of this task included:

- The design of an online survey on work zone practices (Appendix C).
- The impact of 64 work zone parameters on the risk of crash occurrence.
- Recommendations of IDOT resident engineers for improving current work zone practices in terms of (1) work zone layouts, (2) work zone strategies, (3) work zone standards, (4) work zone temporary traffic controls, and (5) placement of temporary rumble strips within work zone layout.
- Recommendations to enhance the use of temporary rumble strips before and at the edge of work zones, including specified types, patterns, spacing, location, and placement of rumble strips.

Field experiments were conducted in the fifth task of this project to analyze the efficiency and constructability of using temporary rumble strips before work zones begin and at the edge of work zones. During these experiments, 27 different arrangements of temporary rumble strips were tested at the Illinois Center for Transportation (ICT) in the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. The installation and removal processes of three different types of temporary rumble strips were analyzed and new prototypes of using temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zone were developed. The key results and findings of this research task included:

- Comprehensive literature review of relevant research studies on rumble strips and a summary of temporary rumble strip general specifications.
- Efficiency of using temporary rumble strips in terms of installation and removal processes of various types of different arrangements.

The sixth and final task of this project focused on evaluating the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips in generating adequate sound levels to alert inattentive drivers. A total of 351 sound-level readings that represented different configurations of study parameters was collected. These experimental data were analyzed to (1) identify the impact of temporary rumble strip layout and vehicle characteristics on the generated sound levels, and (2) develop practical guidelines to improve the effectiveness of using temporary rumble strips in work zones. Correlation analysis of study parameters and change in sound levels was conducted to quantify the impact of (1) rumble strip spacing, (2) rumble strip type, (3) vehicle speed, and (4) vehicle type on the effectiveness of temporary rumble strips before work zones begin and at the edge of work zones. The main results and findings of this task included:

- Effectiveness of temporary rumble strips placed before work zones to generate auditory stimulus to alert motorists of the approaching work area and prompt them to reduce their speed.
- Effectiveness of temporary rumble strips that are placed at the edge of work zones to alert inattentive drivers if they encroach into the work area in a similar way that the permanent rumble strips are used to alert drivers when they drift off the road.
- A set of practical recommendations to improve the use of work zone temporary rumble strips in terms of (1) rumble strip types, (2) rumble strip patterns, (3) rumble strip spacing, (4) vehicle type, and (5) vehicle speed.

8.3 FUTURE RESEARCH

During this study, the research team identified a number of promising research areas for further in-depth analysis and investigation: (1) investigating the practicality and effectiveness of using new prototypes of temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zones, (2) improving safety for construction equipment entering and exiting work zones, and (3) optimizing work zone transportation management plans (TMPs) to maximize work zone safety while minimizing total work zone costs.

8.3.1 Evaluating the Practicality of New Prototypes of Temporary Rumble Strips

The use of permanent rumble strips along the side and median of highway shoulders was proven to effectively reduce highway crashes by more than 40% (Griffith 1999). Similarly, the use of temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zones is expected to produce a significant reduction in work zone crashes caused by inattentive drivers encroaching into the work area. This study evaluated the efficiency and effectiveness of using temporary rumble strips at the edge of a hypothetical work zone (see Section 7.5). Temporary rumble strips in that location can be used to alert inattentive drivers if they encroach into the work area, similar to the way that permanent rumble strips are used to alert drivers when they drift off the road.

This new approach of deploying temporary rumble strips of small lengths (2 to 4 ft) has the potential to significantly decrease the percentage of work zone crashes. All testing configurations of temporary rumble strip at the edge of work zones were proven effective in generating sound levels sufficient to alert motorists. Despite their proven effectiveness, the installation, removal and reuse of temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zones can still be a challenging and costly task for construction crews. To address this critical constructability challenge, the research team designed and developed two temporary rumble strip prototypes, a ladder prototype and a drum prototype, to facilitate installation and removal, as shown in Figures 8.1and 8.2.

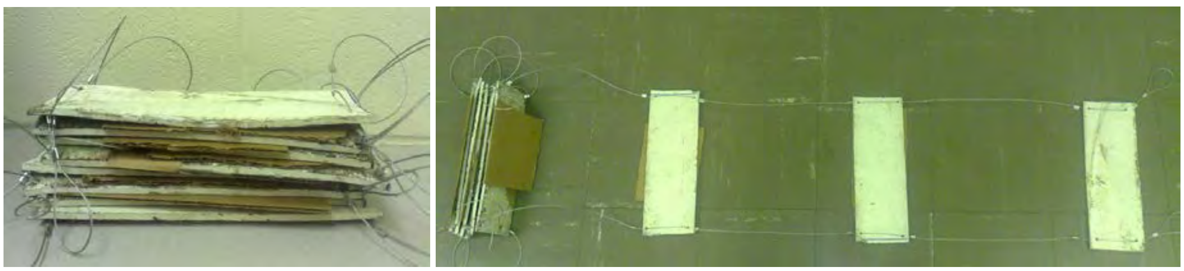


Figure 8.1. Temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zone (ladder prototype).

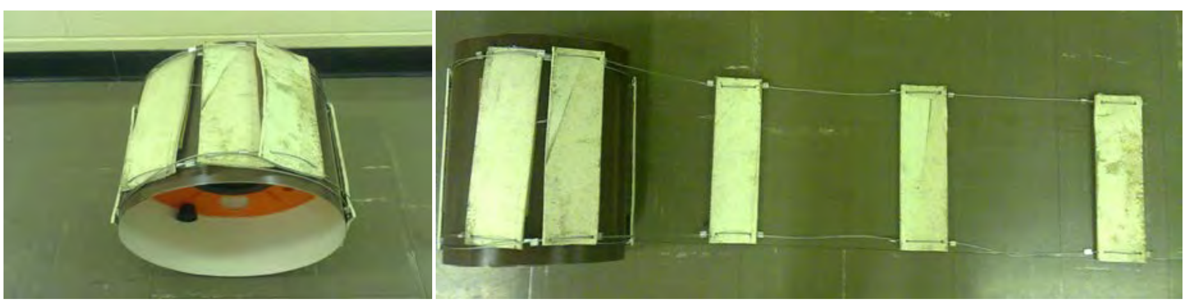


Figure 8.2. Temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zone (drum prototype).

These novel and promising prototypes of temporary rumble strips at the edge of work zones require additional research to evaluate their constructability, safety, and effectiveness. The additional research needs to be performed in actual construction work zones to evaluate (1) the constructability and practicality of installing, removing, and redeploying these newly designed prototypes; (2) the safety of construction crews installing and removing these prototypes while allowing traffic to flow in adjacent open traffic lanes; and (3) the effectiveness of these prototypes in generating adequate sound levels to alert inattentive drivers. The proposed future research on these promising prototypes and deployment procedures of temporary rumble strips is expected to significantly reduce work zone crashes in Illinois and maximize compliance with IDOT Safety Engineering Policy (3-07) and the FHWA Work Zone Safety and Mobility Rule.

8.3.2 Improving Safety for Construction Equipment Entering Work Zones

Construction equipment and delivery trucks need to frequently enter and exit the work zone from adjacent open traffic lanes. The equipment and trucks have to slow down, and in many cases almost stop, to get into the closed work zone lanes, which increases the risk of crashes with other vehicles traveling in the open traffic lanes. IDOT resident engineers identified work zone setup/access as having the highest risk level of crash occurrence, which threatens the lives of motorists and construction workers (see Section 5.4.5). To control and minimize this significant hazard, there is a pressing need to (1) analyze the frequency and factors contributing to these types of work zone crashes, considering all work zone hazard parameters, (2) study and recommend improvements in work zone layouts to ensure the safe entry and exit of construction equipment and delivery trucks to and from the work zone, and (3) analyze and recommend innovative temporary traffic control countermeasures to control and minimize this hazard. Improving the safety of work zone setup/access will lead to significant reduction in the number of crashes during daytime and nighttime work zones. Moreover, this additional research will significantly improve safety for delivery truck drivers and construction equipment operators entering and exiting the work zone and for the traveling public in adjacent open traffic lanes.

8.3.3 Optimizing Work Zone Transportation Management Plans

Available research on TMPs for work zones contains a number of models to estimate queue length, traveler delays, and work zone capacity (Chien and Schonfeld 2001; Jiang and Adeli 2004; Yulong and Leilei 2007). These models, such as QUEWZ (Queue and User Cost Evaluation of Work Zones) and QuickZone, are used primarily to estimate the road user delay costs based on the average speed, AADT, and work zone capacity (Jiang and Adeli 2004). These models, however, are incapable of analyzing or quantifying the impact of work zone layout parameters on the risk of crash occurrence. Accordingly, opportunities exist in expanding the research work completed in this study to develop a multi-objective optimization model that generates optimal trade-offs between the conflicting work zone objectives of maximizing work zone safety and minimizing total work zone costs. This will require the development of new metrics to quantify the safety of work zones and to calculate total work zone costs in terms of user delay, crash costs, and maintenance costs. These metrics need to be integrated using advanced computing tools to provide optimal trade-offs between maximizing work zone safety and minimizing total work zone costs.

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APPENDIX A

CRASH VARIABLE TABLES

Table A.1. Observations for Time Data (Time of the Accident)/(AccHour)

Variable	Number	Description
Time of the accident: indicates the time period in which an accident occurred.	1	6:01AM: 10:00 (Morning peak hours)
	2	10:01:16:00 (Daytime non-peak hours)
	3	16:01 : 20:00 (Afternoon peak hours)
	4	20:01 : 6:00AM (Nighttime hours)

Table A.2. Observations for Time Data (Day of the Week)

Variable	Number	Description
Day of week: indicates the day of the week on which the crash occurred.	1	Monday
	2	Tuesday
	3	Wednesday
	4	Thursday
	5	Friday
	6	Saturday
	7	Sunday

Table A.3. Observations for Crash Data (Type of Collision)

Variable	Number	Description
Type of Collision: indicates the type of crash.	00, 99	Not stated, Unknown
	1	Pedestrian
	2	Pedalcyclists
	3	Train
	4	Animal
	5	Overturned
	6	Fixed object
	7	Other object
	8	Other non-collision
	9	Parked motor vehicle
	10	Turning
	11	Rear-end
	12	Sideswipe—same direction
	13	Sideswipe—opposite direction
	14	Head-on
	15	Angle

Table A.4. Observations for Road Data (Class of Trafficway)

Variable	Number	Description
Class of trafficway : indicates the classification of the road where the crash occurred.	0	Rural—unmarked state highway
	1	Rural—controlled access highway
	2	Rural—other marked state highway
	3	Rural—county/local road
	4	Rural—toll road
	5	Urban—controlled access highway
	6	Urban—other marked state highway
	7	Urban—unmarked state highway
	8	Urban—city street
	9	Urban—toll road

Table A.5. Observations for Road Data (Federal Classification of Highway)

Variable	Number	Description
Federal Classification of Highway: indicates the federal classification of the roadway where the crash occurred.	01,10	Interstate (not on National Highway System)
	02,20	Freeway/expressway (not on National Highway
	03,30	Major principal arterial (not on National Highway
	04,40	Minor arterial (not on National Highway System)
	05,50	Major collector (not on National Highway System)
	06,60	Minor collector (not on National Highway System)
	07	Local road (not on National Highway System)
	11	Interstate (on National Highway System)
	12	Freeway/expressway (on National Highway System)
	13	Major principal arterial (on National Highway
	14, 70	Minor arterial (on National Highway System)
	15	Major collector (on National Highway System)
	16	Minor collector (on National Highway System)
	17, 90	Local road (on National Highway System)

Table A.6. Observations for Road Data (Road Condition)/(TypeConstruction)

Variable	Number	Description
Road Condition: indicates a deficiency in the road where the crash occurred.	0	Not stated
	1	No defects
	2	Construction zone
	3	Maintenance zone
	4	Utility work zone
	5	Work zone—unknown
	6	Shoulders
	7	Ruts/holes
	8	Worn surface
	9	Debris on roadway
	10	Other
	99	Unknown

Table A.7. Observations for Road Data (Road Surface)/(RoadSurfaceCond)

Variable	Number	Description
Road surface: indicates the road surface condition at the scene of the crash.	0	Not stated
	1	Dry
	2	Wet
	3	Snow/slush
	4	Ice
	5	Sand/mud/dirt/etc.
	6	Other
	9	Unknown

Table A.8. Observations for Road Data (Route Prefix)

Variable	Number	Description
Route Prefix: indicates the route where the crash occurred.	0	Not applicable
	1	U.S. route
	2	Interstate business loop
	3	U.S. business route
	4	Bypass (in 1996, also means U.S. one-way couple)
	5	Illinois route
	6	Illinois alternate route (in 1996 also means Illinois one-way couple)
	7	Illinois business route (in 1996 also means interstate business loop one-way couple)
	8	Non-marked route
	9	Interstate

Table A.9. Observations for Road Data (Traffic Control)

Variable	Number	Description
Traffic Control: indicates the type of traffic signals or restrictions at the scene of the crash.	0	Not stated
	1	No traffic control
	2	Stop sign or red flasher
	3	Traffic control signal
	4	Yield sign or yellow flasher
	5	Police officer or flagman
	6	Railroad crossing gate
	7	Other railroad crossing device
	8	School speed zone
	9	No passing zone
	10	Other type regulation sign
	11	Other warning sign
	12	Lane use control marking
	13,99	Other, Unknown

Table A.10. Observations for Road Data (Traffic Control Functionality)

Variable	Number	Description
Traffic Control Functioning: indicates the type of traffic control functioning at the scene of the crash.	0	Not stated
	1	No traffic control
	2	Not functioning
	3	Functioning improperly
	4	Functioning properly
	5	Reflecting material worn
	6	Missing
	7	Other
	8	Unknown

Table A.11-A. Observations for Contributing Causes (Cause 1 &2)

Variable	Number	Description
Contributing cause: Indicate the actions of the driver that contributed to the crash.	00	Not stated
	01	Exceeded authorized speed limit
	02	Right-of-way
	03	Following too closely
	04	Overtaking/passing
	05	Wrong side/way
	06	Improper turn/no turn signal
	07	Right turn on red
	08	Under the influence of alcohol/drugs (used when arrest is effected)

Table A.11-B. Observations for Contributing Causes (Cause 1 &2)

Variable	Number	Description
Contributing cause (Cont.): Indicate the actions of the driver that contributed to the crash.	09	Operated vehicle in erratic, reckless, careless, negligent or aggressive manner
	10	Equipment—vehicle condition
	11	Weather
	12	Road engineering/surface/markings/defects
	13	Road construction
	14	Vision obscured (signs, tree limbs, buildings, etc.)
	15	Driving skills, knowledge, experience
	16	Driver distraction/inattention
	17	Physical condition of driver
	18	Unable to determine
	19	Had been drinking (used when arrest is not made)
	20	Improper lane usage
	21	Swerved due to animal, object, non-motorist
	22	Disregarded yield sign
	28	Failure to reduce speed to avoid crash
	29	Passed stopped school bus
	30	Improper backing
	31	Electronic equipment, i.e. cellular phone

Table A.12. Observations for Contributing Causes (Categorized Contributing Causes)

Categorized Contributing Causes	Number	Description (See Table 11-A & 11-B)
Improper Driving	1	2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,15,16,17,19,29,30
Distraction	2	31
Work Zone Environment	3	11,12,13,14,20,21
Disregarded Traffic Control	4	22,23,24,25,26
Unknown	5	0,18
Speed	6	1,27,28

Table A.13. Observations for Light and Weather Data (Light Condition)

Variable	Number	Description
Light Condition: indicates the general light conditions prevailing at the time of the crash.	0, 9	Not stated
	1	Daylight
	2	Dawn
	3	Dusk
	4	Darkness
	5	Darkness—road lighted

Table A.14. Observations for Light and Weather Data (Weather)

Variable	Number	Description
Weather: indicates the weather conditions at the time of the crash.	0	Not stated, Unknown
	1	Clear
	2	Rain
	3	Snow
	4	Fog/smoke/haze
	5	Sleet/hail
	6	Severe crosswind
	7	Other

Table A.15. Observations for Severity

Variable	Number	Description
SEV_CDE: indicates the crash severity	0	Not Coded
	01	Fatal
	02	Injury
	03	Property Damage Only

Table A.16. Observations for InjurySeverity

Variable	Number	Description
Weather: indicates the severity of the collision	0	No injury
	1	Injury other than fatal requiring hospitalization
	2	Injury evident to others at scene
	3	No visible injury (possible)
	4	Fatal

Table A.17. Observations for RoadClassification

Variable	Number	Description
Road Classification: indicates the classification of the roadway in which the accident occurred	01	Urban freeways
	02	Urban freeways < four lanes
	03	Urban two-lane roads
	04	Urban multilane divided non-freeways
	05	Urban multilane undivided non-freeways
	06	Rural freeways
	07	Rural freeways < four lanes
	08	Rural two-lane roads
	09	Rural multilane divided non-freeways
	10	Rural multilane undivided non-freeways
	99	Others

Table A.18. Observations for OnewayIndicator

Variable	Number	Description
OnewayIndicator: indicates the travel direction of the roadway	1	One-way
	2	Two-way
	3	One-way reversible
	4	Two-way reversible

Table A.19. Observations for IntersectionRel

Variable	Number	Description
IntersectionRel: indicates whether the accident occurred at an intersection or not	1	Yes
	2	No
	0	Not states

Table A.20(A). Observations for SurfaceType

Variable	Number	Description
SurfaceType : Indicates the type of the roadway surface	010	Natural surface, not conforming to graded and drained earth road requirements
	020	Natural earth, graded with drainage
	100	Without dust palliative treatment
	110	With dust palliative
	200	Without dust palliative treatment
	210	With dust palliative treatment
	300	Bituminous surface treated

Table A.20(B). Observations for SurfaceType

Variable	Number	Description
SurfaceType : Indicates the type of the roadway surface	400	Mixed bituminous (low type bituminous)
	410	Bituminous penetration
	500	High type bituminous (flexible base)
	550	Bituminous concrete, sheet or rock asphalt
	600	PCC – reinforcement unknown
	610	PCC – no reinforcement
	620	PCC – partial reinforcement
	630	PCC – full reinforcement
	640	PCC – continuous reinforcement
	650	Brick, block, steel, or like material
	700	PCC – reinforcement unknown
	710	PCC – no reinforcement
	720	PCC – partial reinforcement
	730	PCC – full reinforcement
	740	PCC – continuous reinforcement
	800	Brick, block or other
	900-999	Various combination surface types

Table A.21. Observations for MedianType

Variable	Number	Description
MedianType: indicates the roadway median type	0	No median
	1	Unprotected – sodded, treated earth
	2	Curbed - raised median, any width
	3	Positive barrier – fencing, retaining walls, guard rails, open spaces between elevated
	4	Rumble strip or chatter bar
	5	Painted
	6	Bi-directional turn lanes, painted
	7	Mountable median

Table A.22. Observations for MedianWidth

Variable	Number	Description
MedianWidth: indicates the roadway median width categorized in	No width	1
	01-05	2
	06-10	3
	11-30	4
	31-50	5
	51-100	6
	101-999	7

Table A.23. Observations for AADT

Variable	Number	Description
AADT: indicates the annual average daily traffic of the roadway	1	Below 10,000
	2	10,000 ~ 20,000
	3	20,000~30,000
	4	30,000 ~ 40000
	5	40,000 ~ 50,000
	6	Over than 50,000

Table A.24. Observations for MultipleUnitVolume

Variable	Number	Description
MultipleUnitVolume: indicates the average annual daily multi-unit volume	1	Below 2000
	2	2000 ~ 4000
	3	4000 ~ 6000
	4	6000 ~ 8000
	5	8000 ~ 10000
	6	Over than 10000

Table A.25. Observations for CommercialVolume

Variable	Number	Description
CommercialVolume: indicates the annual average daily heavy commercial volume	1	Below 2000
	2	2000 ~ 4000
	3	4000 ~ 6000
	4	6000 ~ 8000
	5	8000 ~ 10000
	6	Over than 10000

Table A.26. Observations for MilVehMiTrv

Variable	Number	Description
MilVehMiTrv: indicates the million vehicle mile travel of the roadway	1	Below 1.736
	2	1.736~ 3.472
	3	3.472~ 5.208
	4	5.208~ 6.944
	5	6.944~ 8.68
	6	Over than 8.68

APPENDIX B

SURVEY ON WORK ZONE PRACTICES

SURVEY OF IDOT WORK ZONE PRACTICES

The Illinois Center of Transportation and IDOT are sponsoring an ongoing research project that aims to study and recommend strategies to minimize the severity and frequency of traffic-related work zone crashes in Illinois. Your valuable feedback is needed to complete this online survey that is designed to take **less than 10 minutes.**

In order to objectively evaluate and control the risk of work zone crashes in Illinois, please identify the risk level associated with each work zone parameter listed in the survey. We would appreciate if you can complete the survey by February 15, 2010.

Your thorough and candid responses are critical to the accuracy and richness of information gathered. Thank you in advance for your time!

If you have any questions or comments, please contact the PI of this project (Khaled El-Rayes).

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SURVEY OF IDOT WORK ZONE PRACTICES

Contact Infomation*

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1- Risk Level of **Work Zone Layout** on Crash Occurrence

	Lowest Risk 1	2	Medium Risk 3	4	Highest Risk 5
1.1 Multilane Closure at Entrance Ramp	○	○	○	○	○
1.2 Multilane Closure at Exit Ramp	○	○	○	○	○
1.3 Two Lane Closure on Freeway/Expressway	○	○	○	○	○
1.4 One Lane Closure on Freeway/Expressway	○	○	○	○	○
1.5 Median Crossover	○	○	○	○	○
1.6 Divergence	○	○	○	○	○
1.7 Use of Shoulder	○	○	○	○	○

2- Risk Level of **Work Zone Hours** on Crash Occurrence

	Lowest Risk 1	2	Medium Risk 3	4	Highest Risk 5
2.1 Morning (6:01AM ~10:00AM)	○	○	○	○	○
2.2 Daytime (10:01AM ~ 4:00PM)	○	○	○	○	○
2.3 Afternoon (4:01PM ~ 8:00PM)	○	○	○	○	○
2.4 Night (8:01PM ~ 6:00AM)	○	○	○	○	○

3- Risk Level of **Work Zone Duration** on Crash Occurrence

	Lowest Risk 1	2	Medium Risk 3	4	Highest Risk 5
3.1 Long Term Stationary Operations (D ≥ 3 days)	○	○	○	○	○
3.2 Intermediate Term Stationary Operations (1 day > D > 3 days)	○	○	○	○	○
3.3 Short Term Stationary Operations (D > 30 minutes)	○	○	○	○	○
3.4 Mobile Operations (D < 15 minutes)	○	○	○	○	○

4- Risk Level of using **Right-side or Median Shoulder** as a temporary traffic lane on Crash Occurrence

	Lowest Risk 1	2	Medium Risk 3	4	Highest Risk 5
4.1 Narrow Shoulders and Lane Constricted	○	○	○	○	○
4.2 Full Shoulders and Lane Constricted	○	○	○	○	○
4.3 Shoulder Pavement Structure is Different	○	○	○	○	○
4.4 High Traffic Volume	○	○	○	○	○
4.5 Lane Constricted by Temporary Concrete Barriers	○	○	○	○	○

5- Risk Level of **Work Zone Type** on Crash Occurrence

	Lowest Risk 1	2	Medium Risk 3	4	Highest Risk 5
5.1 Work Zone Setup/Access	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
5.2 Shoulder Closure Only Operations	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
5.3 Pavement Sawing/Patching	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
5.4 HMA Paving	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
5.5 Bridge/Culvert Construction and Maintenance	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
5.6 Pavement Striking and Marking	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
5.7 Delivery Truck Entrance/Exit	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

6- Risk Level of **Roadway Classification** on Crash Occurrence

	Lowest Risk 1	2	Medium Risk 3	4	Highest Risk 5
6.1 Controlled Access Highways	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
6.2 Multilane Rural without Access Control	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
6.3 Two Lanes	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
6.4 Urban and Suburban Arterials	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

7- Risk Level of **Reduced Lane Width** on Crash Occurrence

	Lowest Risk 1	2	Medium Risk 3	4	Highest Risk 5
7.1 All Lanes Open for Traffic (Off-Road Operations)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
7.2 One or More Lanes Closed (Traffic Lane Width = 12 ft)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
7.4 One or More Lanes Closed (Traffic Lane Width < 12 ft)	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
7.5 Pavement Edge Drop-off	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

8- Risk of **Median Type** on Crash Occurrence at Work Zones

	Lowest Risk 1	2	Medium Risk 3	4	Highest Risk 5
8.1 No Median	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
8.2 Unprotected - Sodded, Treated Earth	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
8.3 Curbed - Raised Median, Any Width	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
8.4 Positive Barrier - Fencing, Retaining Walls, Guard Rails, Open Space Between Elevated	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
8.5 Rumble Strip or Chatter Bar	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
8.6 Painted	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
8.7 Bi-directional Turn Lanes	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
8.8 Mountable Median	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

9- Effect of **Traffic Control Devices** on Reducing Work Zone Crashes

	Least Effective 1	2	Medium Effect 3	4	Most Effective 5
9.1 Message Boards	○	○	○	○	○
9.2 Speed Displays	○	○	○	○	○
9.3 Flagger	○	○	○	○	○
9.4 Truck Mounted Attenuators (TMAs)	○	○	○	○	○
9.5 Police Presence	○	○	○	○	○
9.6 Automated Photo Enforcement	○	○	○	○	○
9.7 Arrow Boards	○	○	○	○	○
9.8 Channelization Devices	○	○	○	○	○

10- Risk Level of **Vision Obstructions** on Crash Occurrence

	Lowest Risk 1	2	Medium Risk 3	4	Highest Risk 5
10.1 Trees	○	○	○	○	○
10.2 Signs	○	○	○	○	○
10.3 Construction Equipment	○	○	○	○	○
10.4 Glare from Sun	○	○	○	○	○
10.5 Glare from Headlights	○	○	○	○	○
10.6 Glare from Nighttime Work Zones	○	○	○	○	○
10.7 Horizontal or Vertical Curves	○	○	○	○	○
10.8 Temporary Concrete Barriers	○	○	○	○	○

11-Risk Level of **Work Zone Speed Limit** on Crash Occurrence

	Lowest Risk 1	2	Medium Risk 3	4	Highest Risk 5
11.1 35 mph	○	○	○	○	○
11.2 45 mph	○	○	○	○	○
11.3 55 mph	○	○	○	○	○
11.4 Advisory Speed Reduction Only	○	○	○	○	○
11.5 No Work Zone Speed Reduction	○	○	○	○	○

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12- Please evaluate from 1 to 5, from lesser to higher importance, each of the following **Work Zone Parameters** according to its influence on the safety of work zone

	Least Importance 1	2	3	4	Highest Importance 5
1- Work Zone Layout	○	○	○	○	○
2- Work Zone Hours	○	○	○	○	○
3- Work Zone Duration	○	○	○	○	○
4- Work Zone Type	○	○	○	○	○
5- Right-side/Median Shoulder	○	○	○	○	○
6- Route Prefix	○	○	○	○	○
7- Traffic Lane Width (Lane Constriction)	○	○	○	○	○
8- Median Type	○	○	○	○	○
9- Traffic Control Devices	○	○	○	○	○
10- Vision Obstructions	○	○	○	○	○
11- Work Zone Speed Limit	○	○	○	○	○

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1. What are your recommendations to improve work zone layouts to minimize work zone crashes?

2. What types of innovative work zone or traffic control devices do you recommend to minimize work zone crashes? How would these devices enhance IDOT's work zone current practices? Please explain.

3. If temporary rumble strips (6~8 strips/set) can be used prior to or at the edge of work zones, where do you recommend them to be placed within the work zone layout? Please explain why?

Click to Go Back | Finished? Submit your Survey

Thank you for taking our survey. Your response is very important to us.

APPENDIX C

RESPONDENTS' RECOMMENDATIONS TO IMPROVE WORK ZONE LAYOUT

What are your recommendations to improve work zone layouts to minimize work zone crashes?

DATA CODE	VALUE
61780347	Message Boards and 3-5 and 1 mile distances before WZ are the best. Minimize signage.
61785198	Eliminate the use of mobile operation standards on highways with speed limits of >55mph or high ADTs. Utilize more road closures on bridge work, as the workers will not be subjected to moving traffic and road obstruction time will be reduced.
61784396	#1 Consistency from site to site based on road use (interstate, urban highway, rural highway, etc). #2 Strict enforcement of traffic control deficiency penalty for improperly maintained and placed work zone traffic control devices.
61793492	USE CRASH ATTNUATOR TRUCKS
61795704	Less stage construction and more crossovers to seperate traffic from construction
61802831	A realistic approach to what the actual field conditions are. Many times the Standards are thrown into a set of plans and they just don't fit or work in the real world, I have never seen any standard fit everywhere. There needs to be in our policies the ability for Professional Engineers to make Engineering decisions to address actual field conditions without the threat of liability because a standard wasn't followed to the letter of the law. Perhaps we should call them Highway Guidlines for Traffic Control and remove the word 'Standard' so slight adjustments can be made in the actual field placement without teh concern of not meeting the exact disatnces stated on many standatrds. The standards as written generally don't allow for any deviation and are for an ideal world.
61815186	Don't overload the area with signs - too many and they all get overlooked.
61873235	trim vegitation to allow better sight distance of early warning/work zone signage (this area is not considered to be in the limits of the work zone, so no work is allowed because it is out side the scope/area of work)

DATA CODE	VALUE
61872239	For interstates, provide 2 lanes thru work zones whenever possible or use conc. barrier and place traffic head to head on one side while giving us the other side to work on.
61872623	Use the correct taper length as a minimum and be sure the taper is a solid row of channel devices. Be sure that it is inspected and maintained. Use arrow boards in the appropriate locations relative to the tapers. Flaggers also help when they hold their paddles and communicate to the drivers appropriately when they drive by - if necessary.
61877223	Outlaw cell phone use.
61877252	More personel to watch each other backs. Can get layout done faster with more people. We need to hire more technicians.
61878972	1. More total closings. 2. Minimise work after dark.
61878787	I feel that our current practices are effective.
61875190	Use as much advanced warning as possible.
61880350	More protection for flaggers--maybe some more advance warning other than the 3 signs now required
61877536	Make the traveling public pay more attention to driving and more work zone examples/visits during driving education classes with young and old drivers.
61881378	Utilize traffic detours during 3R projects that estimate more than 6 months of construction time. This will save lots of money on traffic control staging, vastly improve the quality of the finished product by not having to cut the work up in pieces for staging, and put the traffic on a safe and unobstructed route to travel. This will only cost the motorists time and fuel, but may get two year projects done in one year and one year projects done in a few months.

61890159	More police presence. Devices that show vehicles speeds to drivers.
61889345	Increased police assistance would greatly reduce the frequency of work zone crashes. Police assistance in not only needed on the interstate system but would also be welcome on secondary rural highways. Another help would be a speed reduction for two lane highways as well as for interstate. flagges would be more effective on two lane roadways if contractor were required to use portable flagger signals instead of it being optional.
61890675	I've not seen a crash in the work zones. However, I've seen some crazy behavior from motorists in work zones.
61877731	Closing roads to traffic is the only way to make work zones safe for the motorists and the workers. Traffic should be detoured. We are always told that is too much inconvenience to the "travelling public" Being dead or paralyzed from a work zone crash is considerably more inconvenient in my opinion, whether it is the motorist or the worker injured or killed is not the point. People should not be driving in my workspace.
61877916	Not all standards fall within the parameters of work site. Often common sense should dictate some revisions, but everybody is afraid to reduce lenghts for minimum distances or something for fear of law suits. (ie. especially around various interchanges closely spaced).
61892083	Have police officers there when laying out traffic control
61899700	Incorporate more detail in the stage constructions plans with more room with lane width and lenghth.
61903574	Simplify everything. Too much information is confusing and distracting.
61927117	early warning information
61930108	I think using more detours would reduce work zone crashes. If we eliminate traffic alltogether in our work zones, there won't be crashes.
61928350	Tighter spacing of traffic Control devices and reduced speed limits along with police enforcement.

61932639	Enforce work zone plan, and penalize contractors who fail to provide directed traffic control or correct deficient traffic control
61930281	Some contracts have too many advance signs, travelling public tends to ignore signs if there are every 500'. Maybe less signs that are bigger and/or flashing. Police on site help slow traffic down better than any sign we put up.
61934175	Speed Bumps
61932262	More Barricades, barrier walls, pavement marking and signs.
61944188	Most of the time layout work is completed without the use of traffic control. This is very hazardous to the inspectors completing the layout. Traffic Control signage, TMA's, flaggers, police enforcement or lane closures would greatly minimize work zone crashes it this area.
61950655	More Police (Hirebacks/Gabz).
62009896	Have a construction vehicle follow the work crew on foot
62012523	Make sure the layout is done according to the specifications. Check consultant plans more thoroughly as sometimes the traffic control does not agree with specifications.
62013148	PUT A BIGGER SIGN FOR SPEED REDUCTION AHEAD
62014087	Given plenty of advance warning to traveling public and enforce safe work zone layout. Safer takes longer and costs more money!
62013311	TMA LANE CLOSURES FOR INTERSTATE & EXPRESSWAYS FOR 2 WEEKS BEFORE CONSTRUCTION BEGINS.
62012760	Avoid beginning lane closures near or after a crest in a hill, avoid closing a lane in a horizontal curve,
62018956	More photo enforecement and more police presence
62018159	Ensure the appropriate equipment and personnel are available.

62017613	If Centerline layout is needed in open traffic, that enough flagging, And signage be provided.
62019124	To have the plans accurately show the layout and to match field conditions, rather than going by a standard.
62022660	Road Construction Ahead 5 Miles signs installed in addition to R.C.A. 3 Miles Ahead.
62025740	Police presence in work zone when doing layout and set-up of work zone.
62072864	Adequate transitions, multiple warning signs, advanced notice of work using message boards
62157048	The use of more state police in construction work zones seems to be the only way to slow traffic down.
62157681	It's not the layout, its the ignorance of the traveling public that causes most of the accidents.
62155549	No ideas above what we already do.
62156691	Contractor needs to have traffic control set up 2 weeks before starting the job so the state personel can do layout under traffic control.
62156192	TMA for all layout.
62158979	lengthen tapers
62155883	I feel that the best thing that would help minimize wz crashes would be to delineate the work zone better, not only before it, but throughout it. I have gone through some work zones when there where no cars infront of me and had to "guess" on where to go because of poor delineation.
62156256	If feasible, setting up traffic control for layout purposes would be nice.

62156327	The presence of law enforcement along with signing stating the fines always gets the attention of the traveling public to be aware of the work zone.
62158943	construction trucks should be more equiped like our maintenance lead workerks.Maybe a flagger and day time layout also on Sunday less traffic.
62166743	Its not always a need to improve the layout so much as the need to have the layout set up properly.
62168301	Contractors need to send out bigger crews so that there is protection for the workers laying out and placing the devices. Flaggers or arrow boards.
62172752	Police presence
62173509	To really enforce the Scott's Law even truck drivers do not pay attention to it and if more people were held accountable and or even made aware of the Law. So many people have no idea that it exists.
62169665	Layout the Traffic Control to best suit the needs of the area effected by the project. Consider the work to take place and how the contractor will complete the work while providing a safe work environment for the construction crew and the motoring public. We need to inform/provide a safe work zone and traffic control for the motoring public - since we are at their mercy.
62174220	Mandatory that traffic control engineer or technician layout and or verify that traffic control is layed out correctly.
62173354	Installation of signs informing public of upcoming work, 1 to 2 weeks prior to work starting.
62175325	The most frequent crashes are rear end crashes due to stopped or slowed vehicles. Reducing speed limits prior to work zones, additional advanced warning signs ("Stopped Traffic Ahead" with flashers), and a thorough review of striping and patching traffic control issues could reduce frequency.
62200740	Speed limit enforcement Work zones and/or travel lanes layout

62207776	Make traffic control signing as easy as possible to help motorists understand exactly what they need to do and where to go.
62183692	Use temporary barriers when needed, try to schedule police enforcement where possible, use advance signing in moderation to avoid a barrage of orange, ensure channelization is highly visible day or night, reflectivity is preferable to battery power.
62206578	Lots of times I have seen signs for flagger ahead or lane closed ahead/merge left or right, but when you get ahead there is no flagger or closed lane or any merging. After a while people will just ignore the signs and drive normally without any caution.
62454742	Work zone layouts should be tailored to each situation. The dimensions given are a guide and should be adjusted as needed in the field to make for the safest possible traffic control setup.
62457036	Lower the work zone speed limits.
62456883	I think some of the traffic control standards are pretty generic. When there are sideroads and offramps, a case by case design should be utilized.
62462714	Advance warning, larger and more visible signage, message boards, rumble strips etc... and reduction in speed within construction zones.
62479991	Work zone standards should be adjusted for the roadway geometry (horizontal and vertical curves) and the terrain (trees or tall grass). The channelization devices should be properly spaced and the signs properly placed in advance of the lane closure or work zone as to give the motorists adequate time to merge or make them aware of a hazard. Also, the condition and cleanliness of the devices should inspected as well as the work zone checked at night for the readability of the signs.
62492918	Allow interstate entrance ramps to be closed for short duration during paving or patching operations.
62591104	reduce speeds on two lane roads. Traffic barriers on 4 lane +
62608638	Slower speed limits, $375 fine signs

62605398	I have no recommendations.
62616459	Simplify the layouts for the motoring public. Some of the layouts are too complex and are difficult to follow at times
62728359	More CMS
62747775	Make sure there is plenty of advanced notice(signs, message boards)
62742791	Maybe we could add flashing lights on the Road Construction Ahead Signs to alert motorists even more that they are approaching a construction zone.
62784728	Try to let in advance the newspapers and Tv what is going to happen in the area.

APPENDIX D

RESPONDENTS' RECOMMENDATIONS TO UTILIZE INNOVATIVE WORK ZONE AND TRAFFIC CONTROL DEVICES WITHIN WORK ZONES

What types of innovative work zone or traffic control devices do you recommend to minimize work zone crashes? How would these devices enhance IDOT's work zone current practices? Please explain.

DATA	
CODE	VALUE
61782850	rumble strips
61780347	Drone Trooper cars even with "dummy cops" in the seat. Tickets dont slow cars down. But a sqaud car in the work zone does.
61793492	POLICE PATROL! TRAVELING PUBLIC ONLY SEEMS TO RESPOND TO POLICE PRESENCE. SIGNS ARE IGNORED MOST OF THE TIME. PEOPLE DRIVE BY SIGNS ALL OF THE TIME AND CAN'T EVEN TELL YOU WHAT THEY SAID!
61795704	I'm not sure what more can be done to increase awareness in the work zones. i feel that most of the accidents are the result of driver error as opposed to a problem in the layout of our work zone.
61802831	With the new reflective sheeting that is out there today, i don't know why we need lights on any of the signs, drums, or panels. The reflectivity today is so much brighter than yesteryear, they actually are brighter than lights. This will also reduce the number of batteries that are landfilled each year and should reduce litigation in the case of an accident because a light was out. The use of properly placed message boards with correct information should be encouraged. The issue here is on many rural roadways in Illinois, there is no place to place them out of the travel lanes due to narrow ROW's and shouldrs. The IL DOT needs to embrace a program of actually reconstructing our roadways versus just resurfacing them time after time.
61870964	Place a flashing light on stop/go paddle. This would make the flagger more visible. Also, the flagger should have a "boat horn" to warn workers when there is an emergency.
61873235	speed limit advisory signs with a digital speed display that shows oncoming traffic their actual speed
61872623	No comment
61877223	concrete barriers.

DATA CODE	VALUE
61877252	Better striping on bridge work and after resurfacing projects. Many times it's hard to see when it's raining. Harsher fines on contractors if they leave the jobsite and their traffic control is a mess. Many times I have fixed it on my own time because no one was still around.
61875190	Use more message boards, and radar signs telling people if they are speeding.
61879387	A speed trailer displaying the motorists speed is an effective device. It gets vehicles to slow down making the work zone a safer place to work and prevents high speed accidents.
61880350	More police writing tickets
61877536	The use of more drums than cones. Drums are bigger which can allow the traveling public to see where they need to drive. More lights or bigger light bars on vehicles (including contractors vehicles) within the work zone.
61881378	Offering a suggested route on a website/message board/radio/media outlet to reduce traffic volume. Photo enforcement of speed limits, will reduce motorists speed for fear of financial cost. The slower the traffic the fewer the crashes.
61889345	Portable flagges signals would greatly increase the flagges visability and effectiveness in the work zone. Enforced 45 mph speed limits on all roadways marked 55 and over would also reduce crash occurences because motorists would have more time to react.
61890675	TMA's seem to work very well for moving operations.
61877731	POLICE PRESENCE; if traffic is permitted in our workzones the only measure that I have seen having any impact on driver behaviour is an officer in a marked police car with lights on at the start of a workzone and a second officer actively writing tickets thru the workzone. Perhaps prior to receiving a driver's license, and on each renewal applicants should have to stand in a workzone next to an open lane while traffic goes by at interstate speed for half an hour or so, to better appreciate the danger they are creating by acting like there is no work zone.

DATA	
CODE	VALUE
61877916	Use of mini cones/barrels there is a type used in Iowa that is called Grabber Cones, by Lakeside Plastics. They would work great in Urban areas with narrow lanes and allow a light to be mounted to the top of it. They are used in Iowa and Indiana, but are not allowed in Illinois, why not?????? I have used them for one urban job with 12' mulitlane pavement with curb & gutter along the edges. During paving they only took up about 1.5' of roadway width outside of the 1' needed for the paving ski in the open traffic lane and would allow appox. 11' traffic lane when paving. Per spec a 10' minimum lane is required on multilane roadway but paving urban multilanes requries traffic control devices to placed 1' to 1.5' beyond the paving joint on lane line and then the width of the device reduces the open traffic lane even more. So Grabbers only have a 2' bottom and about 12" diameter cone starting in the middle and narrowing up to about 6". Still providing the minimum 10' lane. In addition, why are lights required on Traffic Ctrl devices in urban areas with overhead street lights along the roadway. The lights barely light up and the overhead street lights provide amble ambient light. This would save millions of batteries and the enviroment not to mention reduce the risk of a flying object (heavy battery/light) when devices are hit.
61892083	Letting us use the grabber cones....they are very effective and small when working in narrow areas....but district traffic engineer won't approve them even though other states use them all the time.
61897475	see other coments on Grabber Cones.
61899700	barrier wall, crash wall,
61903574	None come to mind at this time.
61927117	enforce the use of flaggers. People tend to slow down alot more when an actual person is standing there holding the "slow" sign
61926352	More advanced message boards.
61928350	Arrowcades could be used more. Along with the use of arrowcades comes more responsibility to make sure they are facing the right direction. If people are not told which way they should go....they like to find their own route and it is usually not the right route.

61930281	Message boards are very nice. The Department should also look at eliminate the use of the green vests in rural areas - blend the worker into the background of corn fields etc.... the bright orange shirt works much better in this scenerio. Also, see answer to question #1.
61934175	More Message Boards and Arrow boards
61944188	Red and blue lights with an officer writing tickets. Police enforcement could be utilized at work zone locations where workers are present. The officer could detect the speed of the oncoming vehicles and radio ahead to the another officer where they could direct the motorist to the shoulder where a citation can be issued. The more tickets the officers write, the quicker the traveling public will react to the work zone situations. This manner would be effective because motorists would see how serious it is to speed through work zones. This would enhance IDOT's work zone practice effectively because motorists would pay attention in the construction zones therefore reducing crashes.
61950655	Inform the traveling public how long a work zone is. Such as Road Construction Ahead Next 6 Miles. I think people who read signs may be more understanding with regards on how alert they are in work zones. This is helpful to keep people from merging into a taper with increased speed.
62013148	ARROWCADES ON THE INTERSTATE DO NOT WORK THEY CANNOT TAKE THE SEMI'S
62014087	Enforce work zones are set up more consistently and maintained in a timely manner. When traveling public recognizes a pattern they will be more likely to know what to expect.
62013311	MORE EFFECTIVE & EFFICIENT USE OF STATE POLICE. TRAFFIC ALWAYS SLOWS DOWN FOR RED & BLUE LIGHTS. ASSIGN AN OFFICER TO JOBS ON INTERSTATE & EXPRESSWAYS FOR ATLEAST A COUPLE OF DAYS A WEEK.

62012760	When there is a sight distance issue involved and when traffic is being stopped, I like to add a "Be Prepared to Stop" sign to the other advance signs. I feel that a "Flagger" sign does not adequately get the message accross that traffic may be stopped ahead, but when the sign says Be Prepared to Stop, then I believe people are more likely to heed the warning. In cases of extremely limited sight distances and when traffic is being stopped, I like to add an additional flagger ahead of the traffic backup. This flagger holds a "Slow" sign and, on a two lane road, it is also necessary to completely cover the Stop portion of the sign. My opinion of all this is that not all people take seriously the advance warning signs, but more people will give a greater weight to a flagger that is showing a slow sign and is also waving them down to slow.
62018159	Type III Barricades. Do more work under closed roads.
62017613	The use of more arrowe boards and channeling devices. I think that if more were added this may help?
62014741	Photo Speed Indicators appear to slow vehicles down to the Work Zone speed limits
62019124	Police presence, radar emitting vehicles and speed displays really slow down vehicles. The enhance them because they are not currently part of the contract standards.
62022660	Provide speed indicators for the motorists current speed.
62072864	Having the maximum number of police hours seems get drivers to slow down the best.
62154443	In stead of battery operated lights for nighttime traffic control, I suggest reflective panels. There is almost no maintencne of variance in brightness. Very effective
62157681	constant police presence

62155549	I don't think that they are too innovative, but we should be using reflective tape in the place of lights on barrels for nighttime closures. These devices would enhance IDOT's current practices because they are brighter and consistent.
62156691	Have more cops patroling work zones. That is the only thing that slows down traffic to prevent accidents.
62156192	State police. The presence of a state police officer with the threat of paying $375 seems to be the most affective control for the safety of the work zone.
62158979	stage construction - make both directions red until trafic approaches
62155883	I had to go through a work zone on the interstate that was up for about 2-3 months on my way home last year. It had a flashing speed limit sign at the beginning of it by the 55mph signs. i was very surprised by the number of vehicles I saw really slow down when they went by it. I was really impressed by how much attention it got. Near the end of the project, I did notice that not as many vehicles were slowing down when passing it. I think that this would be a good tc device to use, but I also feel that it should be moved throughout the wz, if it is a lengthly wz.
62156256	I would like the addition of a red/white/blue strobe light on our vehicles. The most effective device I have seen to slow down vehicles is a police car. Another option would be to allow the police to use IDOT vehicles to clock and write people speeding tickets.
62156327	Message Boards prior to the work zone but also within the work zone explaining possible hazards of the construction taking place. The placement of speed reduction signs placed throughout the workzone with the presence of law enforcement. It seems that the traveling public might pay greater attention to the workzone operations if a fine might be assessed. In some 10 mile paving jobs there might be 1 or more operations taking place and the public thinks that once through 1 operation, they will not be aware a second or third operation might be taking place. The continued signing of workers, trucks and paving equipment are present in the workzone.
62158943	Interstate work zones 3 miles max, this would allow the contactors to get in and get out.
62166743	As this time I do not have any recomendations.

62172752	Cocrete barriers, see previous comments
62173509	I feel there is so much signage and cones that people become numb to it. We need less but bright and flashing to catch the eye of the driver.
62170787	Give alternate route information to the motorists via sign or changable message. This should relieve congestion and impatiance. Motorists need more work zone education to recognize they cannot afford to be distracted.
62169665	Motorcycle patrols were very effective on the interstates. If we could design a safe area for the motorcycle patrol/patrol cars to enter and exit the project within the construction stages. (While on I-57 in Mt. Vernon we had Concrete Barriers setup NB & SB with access at the ends for contractor's trucks and state police. These areas were WELL received by the motorcycle patrols - they would park behind the barriers while shooting their radar - Very Safe.)
62174220	There are stop signs at some intersections that have lights on the peimeter of the signs. If the same thing can be done with stop/slow paddles that are used by flaggers the work zone safety would be greatly enhanced. Too often the flagger and paddle blend into the back ground. Lights on paddles would make the flagger stand out and traffic would slow down more quickly and approach the work area with more caution.
62175325	"Stopped Traffic Ahead" with flashers could help in urban situations where message boards are too large.
62207776	Changeable message signs to help inform the drivers of where to go. Camara's could be used to view different construction sites and see what type of accidents are occuring and the data could be studied to prevent future accidents in similar types of construction zones.
62183692	Photo enforcement of speeding violations could slow traffic down, I have not seen this technology in our district. A mobile or more easily manueverable temporary barrier would allow its use in more applications and may precipitate a reduction in prices, allowing designers to specify barrier more frequently.
62206578	The TCD's currently being used are very effective if used properly: Keep them clean so they can be seen 24/7 and more importantly if there is a sign instructing drivers to merge left or right due to lane closure then have the lane closed.

62454742	State Police Hirebacks and photo enforcement seems to do the best as far as slowing the traveling public in our work zone to a more manageable speed.
62457036	More use of temp rumble strips and speed trailers. The rumble strips help keep the drivers attention that something is approaching and the speed trailers are a great visual tool to let the driver be aware of how fast they are going.
62456883	From previous experience, message boards really inform the public on what to expect. Since work zones change daily, it is good to inform the motoring public of changing conditions.
62462714	The use of message boards. Signage is easily overlooked by motorists. The use of message boards on all projects does a better job at increasing awareness and informing motorists of changing roadway conditions within a work zone.
62492918	Use truck mounted mesage boards on interstate projects
62591104	Movable barriers. They would protect the workers better
62605398	Depending on the route, ADT, traffic type and work zone(allowable area) the traffic control devices may vary. In many cases an attenuator system may be need for construction activities. However, the attenuator will vary depending on the allowable work zone. The traffic control devices that our used by IDOT today, I might say are very good. What I would very much like to see change are the spacing of the barricades, drums, or cones into a tighter configuration. Especially on highway construction.
62616459	Road Closed Signs!!
62747775	Pavement marking and rumble strips in advance of the work zone get peoples attention before it is too late.

62742791	See answer to #1. Maybe IDOT could begin using a narrower barrel or some type of narrow panel to channelize traffic in lane closures. The current barrels used are to big in areas where the lanes are narrower than 12 ft in width. Also, IDOT needs to do a better job in issuing permits to wideloads. For some reason the patching contracts are not known about and/or are not considered when issuing these permits. Last year a wideload was going to go thru my project when I had open holes during the patching operations and guardrail driectly across from those patches along the shoulder. There was no way possible that a wideload would be able to make it through our work zone.
63164638	More state police hire/backs on interstate routes.
63171829	Automated Photo Enforcement for temporary bridge traffic signals.

APPENDIX E

RESPONDENTS' RECOMMENDATIONS TO PLACE TEMPORARY RUMBLE STRIPS WITHIN WORK ZONES

If temporary rumble strips (6~8) strips/set) can be used prior to or at the edge of work zones, where do you recommend them to be placed within the work zone layout? Please explain why.

DATA CODE	VALUE
61782850	by speed reduction signing
61780347	They should be located at the signs that indicate the reduced speed limits.
61785198	Placed in parallel with the work zone speed limit signs, signaling to the motorist there is a hazard ahead.
61784396	Yes for sight distance issues: if closure is after or within a vertical or horizontal obstruction, they should be utilized in the lane to be closed 1/2 to 1/4 mile before lane change taper.
61793492	NO, PEOPLE SEEM TO IGNORE THEM DURING LONG DURATIONS OF CONSTRUCTION.
61795704	They need to be as close to the work as possible. I feel that one problem with our set-ups on multi-lane projects is the distance between speed signs and the work. If a driver slows down but does now see any work in the next 1000 yds. they will tend to speed up. Maybe the rumble strips could be used as a temporary set-up only when workers are present.
61802831	I don't think they should just randomly be placed 'prior to or at the edge of work zones' on a random bases. On a staged project how are these removed if traffic has to cross them on succedding stages? While I like rumble stripes as a way to get the mototist attention, I think great care and planning has to be taken before they are part of the traffic control plan to assure no future conflicts with the live lanes of traffic. It may be such that the use of rumble stripes are not contiguous/consistent and they could be more confusing then helpful.
61870964	I believe we only need temp rumble strips where they are currently used for stopping conditions. The biggest problem with temp rumble strips is the maintenance of them.

61872239	place in the lanes of traffic just after the first road const ahead sign to alert traffic to upcoming changes.
61872623	Suggest a set to be placed at 200' and then at 500' bdfore the work zone.
61877252	Rumble strips are fine in the locations they have in the standards.
61878972	Stacked along the fence, They are of little use and create trash to pick up.
61878787	with the signs before the job limits to alert the motorists that construction is ahead.
61875190	I think placing them in advance of the warning signs so that people will read the signs would be worth a try.
61879387	I agree with the current standard on the placement of the rumble strips. I would rather see flashing lights as a visual than rumble strips. Temporary rumble strips are hard to keep down.
61880350	I like them a little ahead of thr RCAs, one in the midddle and one fairly close to signals for a last ditch attempt to wake people up.
61877536	Possibly at tapers to mark non-driving areas, but these also could make the drivers take their eyes off the road - thinking they hit something.
61881378	They only work if they are in the right places at the right times. If the contractor is slow in removing them or no work is going on immediatly in front of the traffic that hits the rumble strip, traffic will ignore the rumble warning. THe same goes for all advisory signs and devices.
61890159	Prior to any major operation. Make them temporary and easy to move from one location to another.
61889345	use of temporary rumble strips can only be practical at stationary long term operations. they should be placed prior to the flagger or temporary traffi control device.

61890675	Placed about 1500' out due to lack of concentration of the average motorist. It doesn't seem to matter how many signs you place ahead. I think peolpe have short term memory issues or distracted by something else.
61877731	I cannot recommend any placement as I have never seen them used to determine what impact they have on driver behaviour. My intuition, based on years of being in work zones, is that a driver will lift their foot from the accelerator while passing over rumble strips but then return to speed as soon as the noise stops.
61877916	On the tapers for Bridge Construction projects. Place them along the edge of the outside lane that tapers from the EOP to the outside edge of the construction traffic lane across the bridge usually adjacent to the parapet of the bridge. Only need a few to help guide them to the edge in the taper area only. In additon, along long duration weaves along the weaves painted edge lines, they would only need to be 2 or 3' long spaced every 50' or so as you weave traffic. Especially on Interstates and at night where drivers get a little tired. Might wake them up before they hit TC devices or blow right through the weave completely.
61892083	before the layout to warn people they are coming up to a construction zone
61899700	Temporary rumble strips do not work. The traveling public will avoid and drive into the other lane.
61903574	Only use them in a traffic stopping situation, such as temporary signals. Any other use would more likely cause a panic.
61927117	I would place them before any tapers, to let the motoring public know that there is a change coming up.
61926352	1000-2000 feet. Plenty of advanced notice, but not too close to the work area.
61928350	Rumble strips could be a useful practice. The only questions I have about rumble strips would be as follows: 1) size - if you get on the other side of the rumble strip and your tire doesnt hit it....then it is useless. 2) When drivers hit rumble strips...they may have a tendency to jerk the wheel back. Does this create a more hazardous condition?

61930281	Prior to lane restriction/closure sign, work zone speed limit sign, and the flagger sign. These would help to get the drivers attention and possibly have them read the signs and what to look for ahead.
61934175	Two of them. One well prior to job and one just before work.
61932262	At the begining of the work zone at the edge.
61934201	Unless you're on a blind hill or curve approaching a work zone. I am not a fan of rumble strips. I believe they just act as a deterrent of the motorist.
61944188	If these were to be used they would have to be removed at the end of the days work. If they were to be placed they should be approximately 1000' before the flagging operation. They rumble strips should be moved to keep up with the operation.
61950655	One thousand feet in front of the Lane Closed 1 mile sign.
62012523	500 ft before the barrel taper. This will alert the driver that a lane change or traffic signal is ahead, but will not warn to early as they will forget.
62013148	AT THE REDUCED SPEED OR ONE LANE ROAD AHEAD SIGNS -SO IF THEY ARE SLEEPING IT WILL WAKE THEM UP IN TIME TO SLOW DOWN OR STOP
62014087	I do not think rumble strips will make work zones safer.
62013311	500' BEFORE ALL 701400's SIGNS. RUMBLE-RCA, RUMBLE-1 MILE, RUMBLE-MERGE, RUMBLE-ARROWBOARD
62012760	To wake up the day dreamers, I would recommend them be placed starting at 1000' ahead of a lane closure taper.
62018956	Place prior to the advance warning signs. When a car drive over the rumble strip it will have time to read the signs.
62018159	Yes. On roads where drivers aren't expecting slow or stopped traffic.

62017613	Placed 100' before work zones, or were men are working.
62018444	They should be utilized with the work zone speed limit signs to help drivers slow down. The only problem with using these devices are noise complaints from residents and property owners.
62014916	on new or temporary traffic signals &/or stop signs. Because, they are new (different) devices that the public is not used to.
62014741	Prior to the work zone to emphasize the need for the driver to follow the posted work zone speed limit
62019124	Located prior to traffic merging or entering the highway within the work zone. To help slow down traffic and to enhance the signing.
62022660	At beginning of Traffic Control and just prior to long-term lane closures.
62072864	About 300 ft in advance of the warning signs. This alerts drivers to read the signs.
62154443	I suggest they begin at the Road Construction 1 mile sign, another set at the 1/2 mile and a final set once the taper for the lane reduction ends.
62157681	500' prior to flagger
62155549	I think that they should be placed prior to the taper into the lane closure in order to alert the motorist that something is about to change.
62156691	Have them starting 500 feet before entering the work zone so motorists know to slow down.
62156192	Next to the flagger.
62158979	in advance of approach to job, to get attention

62155883	I would recommend that they be used in advace of the work zone, where we have the road closed ahead, 1 mi. sign. This seems to be the start of all the "action" in the work zone, so it would be a good attention grabber (One would hope that they would already be paying attention).
62156256	I would place them somewhere in the vicinity of the "Flagger" signs, approximately 500' prior to the flagger.
62156327	Rumble strips are only as good as the continued maintenance to keep them effective. Advanced signing should have high intensity mutiple flashing lights.
62158943	It depends on were the activity is, if you are on the interstate and working both bounds then I would place them on the passing lane & shoulder side, if you are working on a lane with slope work than I would place them on the driving lane & shoulder next to the work area.This might be a the last warning to the motorest before hitting a worker.
62166743	At this time I do not have a reccomendation.
62168301	They should be by the speed reduction signs to warn people to slow down. If work is to be done at night it would be nice to have them at the advanced arrow board locations. Most people don't get over or slow down until they absolutely have to. If they were placed in advance of the closure maybe it would get people to pay more attention to what is coming up.
62173509	500' from the work zone to give the driver time to recover to the roadway.
62170787	Within the lane reduction and edge of work zone. This will alert drivers who are veering into the work zone.
62169665	Temp rumble strips may bring other problems to big projects. However, on some bridge projects they may increase safety. The designer will need to think them through. (ie. Temp raised reflective pavt markers vs Snow Plows; Channellizing; Install & Removal.) Easy to install and effective but problems with removal / relocation - consider types and process.
62174220	The same way they are used now.

62173354	Place them at the advance warning signs(road construction ahead, one lane road ahead, flagger, etc.). This would get the attention of drivers that do not pay attention to the signs.
62175325	The location should be 500 feet past the farthest estimated queue of stopped or slowed vehicles for work zones where stopped or significantly slowed traffic is expected. A traffic simulation program may be necessary to determine average queuing.
62200740	I will recommend using them prior the work zone to provide additional warning to motorist
62207776	I would think this could cause rear end accidents by people slowing down before they go over them. If absolutly necessary I would put one set ahead of where the traffic back up would be expected to be during rush hour and another set several houndred feet before the start of the work zone.
62183692	Not far from planned work, to avoid motorists passing them and speeding up again.
62206578	All the drivers hate rumble strips. It is annoying and wears out the tires, but they work. I would have them placed prior to entering a work zone, because people will try to avoid them if they are along the edge of the work zone and might cause an accident.
62454742	I could only see these working on stationary setups. As a lane begins to merge out they could be placed in the lane that is ending to emphasize that the lane in ending as the taper is transitioning in the closed lane.
62457036	I think the you should use 2 sets, one at the first set of signs for the approaching project and another right before the taper for the closed lane. I think that they get the attention of the driver better than just reading the approaching signs.
62456883	I think the best placement is in a location that alerts the motorist that there could be a possibility of stopping ahead or some type of danger.
62462714	Prior to advance work zone signage. Motorist simpily don't notice or pay attention to advance warning signage. If rumble strips were placed at these locations, this may enhance the overall awareness of an uncoming construction zone.

62474600	Temporary signals used on 2 lane staged bridge construction with sight distance problems - 3 sets in advance of signals
62591104	Depends on the type of construciton. 4 lane should be throughout the construction limits. 2 lane before the flaggers, but they move daily so this would be almost imposible.
62608638	1000' upstream of where people are working
62605398	I recommend that rumble strips should be place at least 1000ft from the work zone. Also, this depends on the speed limit of the roadway and the allowable time for a motorists to stop.
62616459	No rumble strips!!! that would only frustrate and already nervous driver!
62747775	I think they should be placed near the first sign so drivers realize they are entering a construction zone, and just before any directional signs(merge, chsnge lanes, etc.) so drivers learn they need to take action.
62742791	The first couple of sets should be set directly across from the Road Construction Ahead sign and the rest could be placed 500ft from the beginning of the work zone.
63152749	One set in advance of first waring signs so motorists will be alerted to hazards and look for signs, second set at the start of the work zone to alert motorists who have missed the warning signs.
63171829	200' +/- in advance of warning signs

APPENDIX F

RUMBLE STRIP DATA

Table F1. Sound Measurements of Rumble Strips Prior to Work Zones (8 strips/set)

Reading Number	Pattern	Vehicle Type	Rumble Strip Type	Speed Limit (mbh)	Spacing (inch)	Sound Readings		
						Ambient	Rumble	Effect (dBA)
1	8strips/set	Sedan	ATM	50	12	70.14	80.4	10.26
2					24	70.14	84.3	14.16
3					36	70.14	80.5	10.36
4				40	12	68.24	80.7	12.46
5					24	68.24	80	11.76
6					36	68.24	77.3	9.06
7				30	12	65.01	78.6	13.59
8					24	65.01	77.3	12.29
9					36	65.01	74.5	9.49
10			Swarco	50	12	70.14	84.9	14.76
11					24	70.14	84.4	14.26
12					36	70.14	83.3	13.16
13				40	12	68.24	80.3	12.06
14					24	68.24	80.8	12.56
15					36	68.24	82.7	14.46
16				30	12	65.01	78.5	13.49
17					24	65.01	77.2	12.19
18					36	65.01	77.2	12.19
19			Road Quake	50	36	70.14	83.5	13.36
20				40	36	68.24	82.7	14.46
21				30	36	65.01	87.7	22.69
22	8strips/set	Van	ATM	50	12	67.98	80.6	12.62
23					24	67.98	81.4	13.42
24					36	67.98	80.6	12.62
25				40	12	63.91	82.6	18.69
26					24	63.91	77.2	13.29
27					36	63.91	83.3	19.39
28				30	12	60.58	72.6	12.02
29					24	60.58	79.9	19.32
30					36	60.58	73.3	12.72
31			Swarco	50	12	67.98	80.6	12.62
32					24	67.98	81.4	13.42
33					36	67.98	80.6	12.62
34				40	12	63.91	78.6	14.69
35					24	63.91	76.3	12.39
36					36	63.91	79.9	15.99
37				30	12	60.58	80.4	19.82
38					24	60.58	79.2	18.62
39					36	60.58	75.8	15.22
40			Road Quake	50	36	67.98	87.7	19.72
41				40	36	63.91	89.3	25.39
42				30	36	60.58	87.4	26.82
43	8strips/set	26' Truck	ATM	50	12	69.27	73.8	4.53
44					24	69.27	78	8.73
45					36	69.27	77.5	8.23
46				40	12	67.98	73.6	5.62
47					24	67.98	74.8	6.82
48					36	67.98	75.6	7.62
49				30	12	64.25	73.6	9.35
50					24	64.25	72.6	8.35
51					36	64.25	75.7	11.45
52			Swarco	50	12	69.27	82.2	12.93
53					24	69.27	79.8	10.53
54					36	69.27	75.7	6.43
55				40	12	67.98	80.2	12.22
56					24	67.98	75.3	7.32
57					36	67.98	79.4	11.42
58				30	12	64.25	73.2	8.95
59					24	64.25	77.5	13.25
60					36	64.25	76	11.75
61			Road Quake	50	36	69.27	84	14.73
62				40	36	67.98	83.5	15.52
63				30	36	64.25	88.6	24.35

Table F2. Sound Measurements of Rumble Strips Prior to Work Zones (6 strips/set)

Reading Number	Pattern	Vehicle Type	Rumble Strip Type	Speed Limit (mbh)	Spacing (inch)	Sound Readings		
						Ambient	Rumble	Effect (dBA)
64	6strips/set	Sedan	ATM	50	12	70.14	82.4	12.26
65					24	70.14	79.4	9.26
66					36	70.14	79.8	9.66
67				40	12	68.24	77.1	8.86
68					24	68.24	78.3	10.06
69					36	68.24	76.9	8.66
70				30	12	65.01	77.7	12.69
71					24	65.01	74.9	9.89
72					36	65.01	73.7	8.69
73			Swarco	50	12	70.14	83.9	13.76
74					24	70.14	82	11.86
75					36	70.14	82.3	12.16
76				40	12	68.24	80.7	12.46
77					24	68.24	79	10.76
78					36	68.24	79.4	11.16
79				30	12	65.01	77.3	12.29
80					24	65.01	77.1	12.09
81					36	65.01	74.5	9.49
82			Road Quake	50	36	70.14	84.7	14.56
83				40	36	68.24	83.1	14.86
84				30	36	65.01	86.8	21.79
85	6strips/set	Van	ATM	50	12	67.98	79	11.02
86					24	67.98	80.4	12.42
87					36	67.98	78.8	10.82
88				40	12	63.91	79.8	15.89
89					24	63.91	76.4	12.49
90					36	63.91	81.5	17.59
91				30	12	60.58	72.8	12.22
92					24	60.58	79.4	18.82
93					36	60.58	73	12.42
94			Swarco	50	12	67.98	81	13.02
95					24	67.98	78	10.02
96					36	67.98	79.8	11.82
97				40	12	63.91	74.9	10.99
98					24	63.91	74.7	10.79
99					36	63.91	80.5	16.59
100				30	12	60.58	76.9	16.32
101					24	60.58	79.2	18.62
102					36	60.58	72	11.42
103			Road Quake	50	36	67.98	84.9	16.92
104				40	36	63.91	87.4	23.49
105				30	36	60.58	88.4	27.82
106	6strips/set	26' Truck	ATM	50	12	69.27	76.7	7.43
107					24	69.27	76.7	7.43
108					36	69.27	78.2	8.93
109				40	12	67.98	72.7	4.72
110					24	67.98	73.6	5.62
111					36	67.98	75.9	7.92
112				30	12	64.25	74.3	10.05
113					24	64.25	80.9	16.65
114					36	64.25	82	17.75
115			Swarco	50	12	69.27	78.3	9.03
116					24	69.27	81.6	12.33
117					36	69.27	75.7	6.43
118				40	12	67.98	79.5	11.52
119					24	67.98	79.8	11.82
120					36	67.98	82	14.02
121				30	12	64.25	73.7	9.45
122					24	64.25	74.9	10.65
123					36	64.25	76.8	12.55
124			Road Quake	50	36	69.27	87.2	17.93
125				40	36	67.98	85.1	17.12
126				30	36	64.25	92.7	28.45

Table F3. Sound Measurements of Rumble Strips Prior to Work Zones (4 strips/set)

Reading Number	Pattern	Vehicle Type	Rumble Strip Type	Speed Limit (mbh)	Spacing (inch)	Sound Readings		
						Ambient	Rumble	Effect (dBA)
127	4strips/set	Sedan	ATM	50	12	70.14	81.6	11.46
128					24	70.14	79.8	9.66
129					36	70.14	82	11.86
130				40	12	68.24	79.8	11.56
131					24	68.24	78.8	10.56
132					36	68.24	77.9	9.66
133				30	12	65.01	76.5	11.49
134					24	65.01	74.7	9.69
135					36	65.01	76.1	11.09
136			Swarco	50	12	70.14	81.6	11.46
137					24	70.14	79.8	9.66
138					36	70.14	82	11.86
139				40	12	68.24	81.2	12.96
140					24	68.24	78.9	10.66
141					36	68.24	78.8	10.56
142				30	12	65.01	77.1	12.09
143					24	65.01	75.7	10.69
144					36	65.01	75.6	10.59
145			Road Quake	50	36	70.14	84.1	13.96
146				40	36	68.24	83.7	15.46
147				30	36	65.01	88.8	23.79
148	4strips/set	Van	ATM	50	12	67.98	76.1	8.12
149					24	67.98	76.5	8.52
150					36	67.98	76.1	8.12
151				40	12	63.91	77.3	13.39
152					24	63.91	76.7	12.79
153					36	63.91	78.6	14.69
154				30	12	60.58	69.4	8.82
155					24	60.58	75.3	14.72
156					36	60.58	73.1	12.52
157			Swarco	50	12	67.98	77	9.02
158					24	67.98	78	10.02
159					36	67.98	77.7	9.72
160				40	12	63.91	76.1	12.19
161					24	63.91	74.7	10.79
162					36	63.91	79.9	15.99
163				30	12	60.58	73.2	12.62
164					24	60.58	78	17.42
165					36	60.58	71.8	11.22
166			Road Quake	50	36	67.98	88.7	20.72
167				40	36	63.91	90.2	26.29
168				30	36	60.58	88.7	28.12
169	4strips/set	26' Truck	ATM	50	12	69.27	74.7	5.43
170					24	69.27	75.6	6.33
171					36	69.27	74.3	5.03
172				40	12	67.98	72.2	4.22
173					24	67.98	74.9	6.92
174					36	67.98	73.8	5.82
175				30	12	64.25	72.1	7.85
176					24	64.25	70.5	6.25
177					36	64.25	72.5	8.25
178			Swarco	50	12	69.27	74.9	5.63
179					24	69.27	78.8	9.53
180					36	69.27	75.2	5.93
181				40	12	67.98	74.3	6.32
182					24	67.98	74.5	6.52
183					36	67.98	75.5	7.52
184				30	12	64.25	71.6	7.35
185					24	64.25	73.4	9.15
186					36	64.25	74.9	10.65
187			Road Quake	50	36	69.27	83.7	14.43
188				40	36	67.98	83.8	15.82
189				30	36	64.25	89.7	25.45

Table F4. Sound Measurements of Rumble Strips at the Edge of Work Zones (8 strips/set)

Reading Number	Pattern	Vehicle Type	Rumble Strip Type	Speed Limit (mbh)	Spacing (inch)	Sound Readings		
						Ambient	Rumble	Effect (dBA)
190	8strips/set	Sedan	ATM	50	12	70.14	80.8	10.66
191					24	70.14	79.4	9.26
192					36	70.14	78.8	8.66
193				40	12	68.24	75.2	6.96
194					24	68.24	77.7	9.46
195					36	68.24	75.7	7.46
196				30	12	65.01	75.3	10.29
197					24	65.01	73.9	8.89
198					36	65.01	73.7	8.69
199			Swarco	50	12	70.14	85.4	15.26
200					24	70.14	78.8	8.66
201					36	70.14	82.9	12.76
202				40	12	68.24	79.9	11.66
203					24	68.24	76.9	8.66
204					36	68.24	75.9	7.66
205				30	12	65.01	74.1	9.09
206					24	65.01	74.5	9.49
207					36	65.01	73.7	8.69
208	8strips/set	Van	ATM	50	12	67.98	78.8	10.82
209					24	67.98	79.2	11.22
210					36	67.98	78.8	10.82
211				40	12	63.91	75.7	11.79
212					24	63.91	72.3	8.39
213					36	63.91	76	12.09
214				30	12	60.58	72.6	12.02
215					24	60.58	72.2	11.62
216					36	60.58	73.1	12.52
217			Swarco	50	12	67.98	75.5	7.52
218					24	67.98	76.1	8.12
219					36	67.98	77.1	9.12
220				40	12	63.91	74.7	10.79
221					24	63.91	72.8	8.89
222					36	63.91	73.2	9.29
223				30	12	60.58	73.2	12.62
224					24	60.58	77.1	16.52
225					36	60.58	68.7	8.12
226	8strips/set	26' Truck	ATM	50	12	69.27	74.7	5.43
227					24	69.27	74.3	5.03
228					36	69.27	74.1	4.83
229				40	12	67.98	73.4	5.42
230					24	67.98	71	3.02
231					36	67.98	71.8	3.82
232				30	12	64.25	69.8	5.55
233					24	64.25	70	5.75
234					36	64.25	74.9	10.65
235			Swarco	50	12	69.27	76.7	7.43
236					24	69.27	77	7.73
237					36	69.27	74.1	4.83
238				40	12	67.98	77.5	9.52
239					24	67.98	72.6	4.62
240					36	67.98	73.7	5.72
241				30	12	64.25	74.7	10.45
242					24	64.25	76.8	12.55
243					36	64.25	74.7	10.45

Table F5. Sound Measurements of Rumble Strips at the Edge of Work Zones (6 strips/set)

Reading Number	Pattern	Vehicle Type	Rumble Strip Type	Speed Limit (mbh)	Spacing (inch)	Sound Readings Ambient	Rumble	Effect (dBA)
244	6strips/set	Sedan	ATM	50	12	70.14	80.4	10.26
245					24	70.14	78.2	8.06
246					36	70.14	78.3	8.16
247				40	12	68.24	74.9	6.66
248					24	68.24	80.1	11.86
249					36	68.24	74.3	6.06
250				30	12	65.01	73.6	8.59
251					24	65.01	73.6	8.59
252					36	65.01	74.7	9.69
253			Swarco	50	12	70.14	85.9	15.76
254					24	70.14	79	8.86
255					36	70.14	80.9	10.76
256				40	12	68.24	79.8	11.56
257					24	68.24	79.2	10.96
258					36	68.24	77.6	9.36
259				30	12	65.01	74.1	9.09
260					24	65.01	74.7	9.69
261					36	65.01	73.9	8.89
262	6strips/set	Van	ATM	50	12	67.98	78.2	10.22
263					24	67.98	77.5	9.52
264					36	67.98	75.9	7.92
265				40	12	63.91	72.6	8.69
266					24	63.91	70.6	6.69
267					36	63.91	74	10.09
268				30	12	60.58	68.6	8.02
269					24	60.58	72.2	11.62
270					36	60.58	72.5	11.92
271			Swarco	50	12	67.98	74.9	6.92
272					24	67.98	78	10.02
273					36	67.98	75.9	7.92
274				40	12	63.91	73.6	9.69
275					24	63.91	73.6	9.69
276					36	63.91	75.6	11.69
277				30	12	60.58	70.8	10.22
278					24	60.58	77.5	16.92
279					36	60.58	67.5	6.92
280	6strips/set	26' Truck	ATM	50	12	69.27	73.8	4.53
281					24	69.27	74.9	5.63
282					36	69.27	73.4	4.13
283				40	12	67.98	71.1	3.12
284					24	67.98	71.3	3.32
285					36	67.98	71.4	3.42
286				30	12	64.25	76.5	12.25
287					24	64.25	71.5	7.25
288					36	64.25	76	11.75
289			Swarco	50	12	69.27	74.9	5.63
290					24	69.27	76.5	7.23
291					36	69.27	74.1	4.83
292				40	12	67.98	74.4	6.42
293					24	67.98	73.7	5.72
294					36	67.98	75.4	7.42
295				30	12	64.25	70.8	6.55
296					24	64.25	71.8	7.55
297					36	64.25	73.6	9.35

Table F6. Sound Measurements of Rumble Strips at the Edge of Work Zones (4 strips/set)

Reading Number	Pattern	Vehicle Type	Rumble Strip Type	Speed Limit (mbh)	Spacing (inch)	Sound Readings		
						Ambient	Rumble	Effect (dBA)
298	4strips/set	Sedan	ATM	50	12	70.14	75.3	5.16
299					24	70.14	77.4	7.26
300					36	70.14	78.8	8.66
301				40	12	68.24	75.6	7.36
302					24	68.24	74.6	6.36
303					36	68.24	75.7	7.46
304				30	12	65.01	73.2	8.19
305					24	65.01	72.2	7.19
306					36	65.01	72.2	7.19
307			Swarco	50	12	70.14	78.8	8.66
308					24	70.14	76.7	6.56
309					36	70.14	80.6	10.46
310				40	12	68.24	74.9	6.66
311					24	68.24	76.2	7.96
312					36	68.24	77.8	9.56
313				30	12	65.01	70.9	5.89
314					24	65.01	73	7.99
315					36	65.01	73	7.99
316	4strips/set	Van	ATM	50	12	67.98	76.8	8.82
317					24	67.98	76.1	8.12
318					36	67.98	75.2	7.22
319				40	12	63.91	72	8.09
320					24	63.91	71	7.09
321					36	63.91	72.3	8.39
322				30	12	60.58	66.5	5.92
323					24	60.58	69.1	8.52
324					36	60.58	70.2	9.62
325			Swarco	50	12	67.98	74.9	6.92
326					24	67.98	75.3	7.32
327					36	67.98	74.9	6.92
328				40	12	63.91	72.6	8.69
329					24	63.91	70.6	6.69
330					36	63.91	72	8.09
331				30	12	60.58	68.6	8.02
332					24	60.58	71	10.42
333					36	60.58	69.4	8.82
334	4strips/set	26' Truck	ATM	50	12	69.27	71.6	2.33
335					24	69.27	72.8	3.53
336					36	69.27	72	2.73
337				40	12	67.98	70.1	2.12
338					24	67.98	70.6	2.62
339					36	67.98	69.8	1.82
340				30	12	64.25	68.4	4.15
341					24	64.25	69.3	5.05
342					36	64.25	70.1	5.85
343			Swarco	50	12	69.27	76.9	7.63
344					24	69.27	77.3	8.03
345					36	69.27	78	8.73
346				40	12	67.98	71.6	3.62
347					24	67.98	74	6.02
348					36	67.98	73.6	5.62
349				30	12	64.25	70.3	6.05
350					24	64.25	73.2	8.95
351					36	64.25	72.3	8.05

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