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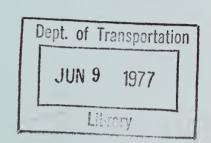
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LUATION OF FLOOD RISK FACTORS IN THE IGN OF HIGHWAY STREAM CROSSINGS

Vol. IV Economic Risk Analysis for Design of Bridge Waterways

M. T. Tseng, A. J. Knepp, R. A. Schmalz





June 1975 Final Report

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I. INTRODUCTION

This report is the fourth in a series of five volumes comprising the final report for the study entitled *Evaluation of Flood Risk Factors* in the Design of Highway Stream Crossings, authorized by the Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) under Contract No. DOT-FH-11-7669. The overall objective of the study is to develop an engineering systems analysis technique to enhance the decision-making process in the design of highway stream crossings. The method applies economic risk analysis in addition to hydraulic and hydrologic factors to evaluate design alternatives.

Volume IV describes the application of risk analysis to determine the economically optimal design configuration for highway stream crossings. The analysis considers the sum of initial construction costs and the flood risks, in a range of flood sizes, for each design alternative. The sums for all design alternatives are compared and the optimal design scheme selected.

BACKGROUND

The primary purpose of highway drainage facilities, such as bridges and culverts, is to move highway and hydraulic traffic smoothly, each along its own course without interference. Unlike highway traffic, the hydraulic traffic cannot be controlled by enacting statutes or erecting road signs. Consequently, conflicts exist between the highway system and the waterway.

The major source of conflict arises from the modification of natural waterways in both horizontal and vertical dimensions and the consequent alteration of stream characteristics at crossing sites. A major highway system crossing a wide stream valley involves the installation of bridge piers and approach embankments in the stream waterway. The result of such construction is a change of hydraulic behavior near or at the crossing site. Notable changes in hydraulic behavior are (1) an increase in water surface elevation upstream from the bridge, (2) an increase in flow velocity under the bridge, and (3) the possible inundation of bridge decks or overtopping of approach embankments. The obvious effects associated with the construction of highway culverts are ponding in the upstream areas and increase in flow velocity downstream from the culvert exit, and in some cases, roadway overtopping.

Depending upon the extent and nature of stream cross-section modifications at the bridge site, a given flood may or may not result in greater flood damage than under preconstruction conditions. In some cases it is possible that excessive property damage and heavy loss of human life may occur if the crossing is not properly designed. A design engineer thus has an extremely important task in the process of decision-making for his design. For safety reasons, he may lean toward an overdesign alternative, but then find that he has exceeded the available project funds. Furthermore, while it is possible to predict the probability of flood events of various sizes over some period of time, it is not possible to predict the specific occurrence of such events, which makes design decisions all the more difficult.

Thus an adequate design scheme is difficult to define, as it may be adequate for floods of magnitude less than the design flood, but not for those floods which are larger than the design flood. Since it is impractical to design a project for extreme flood, a certain amount of risk in terms of structural failure, property damage and loss of life always exists.

It is the designer's objective to design a project which is least costly to society as a whole. To evaluate such costs the cost of initial investment together with the risk, or chance of flood loss, for all flood sizes must be considered. This report illustrates the procedures for performing such analysis.

The analysis procedure developed in this study applies only to highway stream crossings on flood plains with no constraints. The governing design problem is assumed to be to what extent the flow can be constricted without exceeding some acceptable level of flood damage. The need for such analysis is evident from a recent study by Chang (1). Chang reports that the cause of bridge failures according to the Emergency Relief Files is "flow path defficiency." Furthermore, the records of the FHWA indicate that more than 80 percent of the federal aid bridges built between 1953 and 1973 are over water. This report describes a means for assessing the optimum combination of bridge opening and embankment height for a proposed bridge site. It is recognized that there are many bridge situations that do not lend themselves to the optimization procedure developed in this study, including such cases as spans over deep gorges, or spans over a certain future meander cut-off.

GENERAL DESIGN ALTERNATIVES

Consider the case where a highway crosses the flood plain of a major stream. There are several alternative schemes for passing the traffic across the waterway. The most obvious is to build a bridge extending from bank to bank. The initial investment for such a scheme, however, may not be economically feasible if the valley is two or more miles wide.

Another alternative is to design the highway stream crossing with a combination of approach embankment and bridge if the fill height is not excessively great. While such a combination results in significantly lower initial construction costs (assuming earthfill is less expensive per unit length than bridge structure), the relationship of embankment height and length to bridge height and length determines not only cost, but also the ability of the highway crossing to survive a major flood undamaged. Thus fill height may vary considerably depending on the importance of the highway. The trade-off is in terms of lower initial cost versus some probability of potential cost in flood damage both at the bridge site and upstream. 1

There are two principal choices within this combination scheme.

One is to build a high embankment to insure against overtopping. The higher the embankment, the longer the bridge structure must be to allow an adequate flood flow channel. This choice may have a relatively high initial cost, but a lower potential flood damage cost at the site. The second choice is to build a lower embankment and a shorter bridge. While this mode carries a relatively low initial investment, it has a higher potential cost in flood damage in terms of roadway damage and traffic disruption due to embankment overtopping. However, upstream backwater damage may be lower under these conditions than in the first choice and the damage to the bridge structure may be reduced since flow velocity through the bridge opening is lower in this case, assuming overtopping.

Engineering economics offers a method to find the most costeffective combination of embankment height and bridge length considering the probability of various flood magnitudes. This method is a decisionmaking tool for evaluating proposed bridge construction investments in dollar terms.

¹Approach embankments crossing flood plains hinder the flood flow passage and have the effect of raising upstream water levels, the so-called backwater, which may cause upstream property damage.

APPLICATION OF RISK ANALYSIS

On interstate projects, bridges and culverts conventionally are constructed to accommodate floods of at least a 50-year frequency or the greatest flood of record, whichever is greater, with runoff based on land development 20 years in the future and backwater limited to upstream property or the highway. Executive Order 11296, issued in August 1966, and Flood Hazard Evaluation Guidelines for Federal Executive Agencies, issued in May 1972, require that the elevation of the 100-year flood at project sites be delineated. Since the publication of these guidelines, the FHWA has issued a new policy for hydraulic design of highway encroachments on flood plains. The new policy is given in Appendix A.

Both the Flood Hazard Evaluation Guidelines and the FHWA design policy indicate the need for analyzing the risk of a given project for more than a single design flood, including the potential risks that may be derived from floods larger than the design flood. Such considerations are needed as is evident by the recent severe effects of Storms Camille and Agnes.

During these two tropical storms, massive damage and inconvenience were reported in the eastern and southeastern United States. The states of Virginia, Maryland and Pennsylvania suffered a total of nearly \$75 million in highway and bridge damage by Agnes in June 1972. For this same storm the Pennsylvania Department of Transportation (2) reported that 252 bridges were out of service on that State's highway system, including federal-aid and nonfederal-aid roads. In August 1969, Camille caused Virginia highway damage assessed at \$19 million, destroying or damaging 133 bridges and closing 25 miles of primary roads. The Virginia Department of Highways estimates that Camille caused over \$133 million to the Commonwealth in personal and property damage (3). Damages on this scale warrant a closer look at the conventional method on which investment decisions for highway

stream crossings have been made. Logical, methodical decision-making techniques must be developed and implemented so that the potential damages can be weighed against initial cost.

Risk factor analysis is a method which has been applied in other fields for similar purposes. In risk analysis, as applied to stream crossing designs, the expected value of flood-related damages to the project itself and other losses caused by the waterway construction are evaluated for a complete spectrum of flood frequencies. This value is weighted and added to the initial cost of the project. With this information, an optimum design can be determined. The basic theory of this method is to find a design scheme which is least costly to society rather than to design a project for a predetermined flood occurrence interval.

OBJECTIVE OF STUDY

The primary objective of this study is to develop a method based on risk analysis to select the most cost-effective relationships among the major parameters in the design of highway stream crossings. This method differs from the conventional design method by taking into account flood damages to the structure, to adjacent properties from backwater, and time loss of traffic delay during crossing overtopping and detouring. Each design scheme is evaluated by an annual total cost consisting of annual cost of amortizing the structure, maintenance, and the annual expected value of flood damages (i.e., risk). The method uses dollar costs as a basis for comparing the results associated with each set of design parameters.

Highway statistics indicate that approximately 25 percent of U.S. highway construction costs are allocated to drainage facilities. This amounts to a cost ranging from \$50,000 per mile for secondary roads

to nearly \$1,000,000 per mile on the interstate system. This high cost warrants the development and application of a systematic tool for selecting the most cost-effective designs applicable to each site.

SCOPE OF STUDY

The basic concept of the economic/risk analysis method is to integrate the hydrologic, hydraulic and economic factors to assess the total economic response for a given design scheme. The annual total economic response is equal to the sum of the annual initial cost² of the project plus the annual risk. Risk is defined as the expected yearly losses associated with flooding; this definition weights the economic effects by their probable outcomes. Flood losses include damage incurred to bridge and embankment structures, backwater damage to property adjacent to the highway crossing, loss of time to highway users when the bridge is impassable during embankment overtopping and the subsequent repair period, and additional cost due to detouring.

All the analyses are to be carried out on a digital computer in FORTRAN. While the method of analysis is intended to be as comprehensive as possible, certain assumptions have been made in the model development. In general, the method is defined within the following framework:

- 1. The computation of water surface elevation and flow velocities throughout the flow region is performed by a two-dimensional Finite Element Model. These hydraulic computations give solutions for steady state peak flow conditions.
- 2. Flood hydrographs and their return periods are the hydrologic data needed to conduct the analysis.

²Defined on page 14 as the total construction cost spread over the amortization period of the structure.

- 3. Bridge damage and/or loss by floating debris and flow inundation are considered in the model.
- 4. Property damage due to backwater resulting from the bridge construction is represented by a stage-damage curve, as is conventional.
- 5. The method of analysis presented in this report cannot be applied to assess the case of irreducibles, such as defense or emergency evacuation routes or for the case where severe budget constraints are imposed on design.
- 6. Economic factors must be estimated on a case-by-case basis.

II. SITE DATA COLLECTION

The first step of an engineering analysis for a proposed highway stream crossing is to collect the necessary data for that bridge site. Data to be gathered for each site are:

- 1. Location map showing the proposed highway alignment, embankment and structures, reach of river to be affected by embankment encroachment, and existing embankment encroachment and highway structures, if any.
- 2. Vicinity map showing flood flow patterns, cross sections of stream, location of proposed bridge opening, alignment of piers, skew of crossing, bends and stream meanders, and vegetation types and density on flood plains.
- 3. Description of existing bridge structures both upstream and downstream from crossing or encroachment. This should include:
 - a. Type of bridge, including span lengths and pier orientation.
 - b. Foundation type such as spread footing or piling; foundation depth.
 - Scour history at abutments; stream aggradation, degradation.
 - d. Stream cross section beneath structures, noting stream clearance to superstructure and skew with direction of current during floods.
 - e. All available flood history information, including highwater marks with dates and elevation, nature of flooding, damages and source of information.
 - f. Photographs showing existing structures, past floods, main channels and flood plains.

- g. Information on nature of drift, ice, streambed, bank stability, and land use.
- 4. List of factors affecting water stage at bridge site.
 - a. Highwater from other streams.
 - Reservoirs existing or proposed and approximate date of construction.
 - c. Flood control projects (give status).
 - d. Tides.
 - e. Other controls.
- 5. Geologic data at proposed bridge site.
- 6. Hydrologic data.
 - a. Drainage area above the proposed bridge crossing site.
 - b. Streamflow records at the site and/or at nearby stations.
 - c. Characteristics of drainage basin including basin slope, soil type, and rainfall.
- 7. Traffic data.
 - a. Average daily traffic (ADT).
 - b. Vehicular diversity such as fraction of ADT in passenger cars, commercial vehicles, etc.
 - c. Number of occupants per vehicle.
 - d. Speed.
 - e. Available detour routes and length of detour.
 - f. Accident data.
- 8. Economic data.
 - a. Cost of labor and construction materials.
 - b. Average personal income.
 - c. Type of land development alongside the stream, including agricultural, manufacturing, residential, retail business, selective services and wholesale business.

There are many possible sources for the data listed in the preceding paragraphs. Depending upon the type needed, data may be collected by federal, state or private agencies. Typically, data types 1 and 2 are obtainable from the U. S. Geological Survey (USGS) guadrangle maps. To allow a more detailed description of the site, aerial photographs and specially prepared maps with 1- or 2-foot contours must be used. In some cases, cross sections normal to flood flow are used in lieu of topographic maps. As a minimum, three sections are required: one upstream, one at the site crossing, and one downstream. The type and distribution of ground cover on the flood plains may be obtained from aerial photos and site visits.

Geological data are generally obtainable from either USGS and/or state geological surveys or departments. Boring may be required if no geological data can be obtained from these or other sources.

Traffic data are, of course, gathered by the state highway departments. Most of the economic data are obtainable from national census data.

Streamflow data have been collected at gaging stations throughout the country and published by the USGS. The U. S. Weather Service provides rainfall data for various locations throughout the country.

At a proposed bridge site the streamflow record frequently is either nonexistent or for only a limited period. With such limited information it is difficult to obtain accurate hydrologic data for use in analysis. In order to overcome this shortcoming the FHWA is currently sponsoring research projects to facilitate better prediction computations methods for peak flow from small watersheds. It is anticipated that once these results become available they will be incorporated into the model developed in this report. For the purpose of model development in this study, however, the hydrologic data which are available at the present time have been used for analysis.

III. METHOD OF ANALYSIS

The general concept and approach for applying risk analysis to a series of design schemes for a highway stream crossing includes the computation of annual construction cost and expected yearly risk associated with floods for selected design schemes. The sum of the annual construction cost and the expected flood-related loss, or risk, is the economic response or expected tangible total costs of the stream crossing to the highway users.

Figure 1 shows the overall logic sequence and analysis procedure for evaluating each design scheme. For each scheme the procedure involves five major steps:

- 1. Calculate annual construction costs,
- 2. Pérform hydraulic computation,
- 3. Estimate embankment erosion and scour under bridge,
- 4. Compute losses associated with structural and property damages, and losses incurred from traffic delay, and
- 5. Weight losses with flood probabilities to determine risk.

The construction costs are computed for each design scheme by using either a quantity-times-unit-cost method or empirical methods. Structural damage is assumed to be directly related to the extent of embankment erosion caused by flow overtopping, degree of debris clogging at the bridge opening, depth of bridge inundation, scour caused by the excessive velocity under the bridge opening, and the washout of roadway from overtopping. Flood backwater damage to property is derived from a flow- or stage-damage function formulated for each crossing site. Traffic-related losses include the cost of lost time, increased running costs, accident losses on the detour,

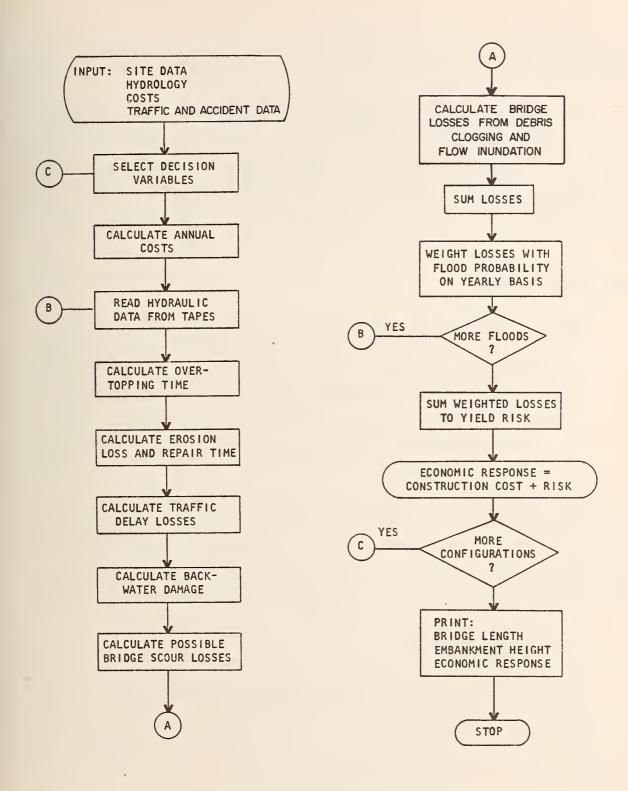


Figure 1. Logic Flow of Risk Analysis

and accident losses due to an unexpected obstacle or barricade placed at the stream crossing site when a failure of the roadway occurs.

The estimated structural damage, flood damage, and traffic-related losses are multiplied by the probability of yearly flood occurrence to obtain the risk for each flood event. Summing the risks over the set of flood events selected for study yields the risk component of the total economic response.

ANNUAL CONSTRUCTION COST

The construction costs for a highway crossing normally consist of:

- Bridge superstructure,
- Bridge substructure and excavation,
- Approach embankments,
- Roadway pavement, and
- Protective measures (spur dikes, riprap).

In general, the total construction costs are governed by the type of bridge, bridge length, bridge width, clearance, span, geology of the river bed, height of the embankment, type of highway (e.g., primary or secondary), and width of the valley at the crossing site. In the model construction costs are calculated as the sum of the following cost components:

- (1) Roadway pavement,
- (2) Embankment,
- (3) Bridge, including the superstructure, substructure and excavation, and
- (4) Protective measures.

1. COST OF ROADWAY PAVEMENT

An estimate of the cost of this parameter is calculated by multiplying the total length of the roadway between the beginning and end stations of the valley crossing, excluding the bridge length, by the cost per linear foot (\$/L-ft) of roadway. It is assumed that (1) the cost factor includes materials and labor, and (2) the cost of roadway pavement over the bridge is included in the bridge cost.

2. COST OF EMBANKMENT

Calculation of construction cost for approach embankments is made on a unit volume basis. Given grade and roadway elevation along the highway center line, the embankment top width, and upstream and downstream side slopes, the quantity of earth fill can be readily computed. The total cost is computed by multiplying the quantity of fill volume by the unit cost (\$/cu ft). Figure 2 shows the geometry of a typical river crossing.

In the model the volume of the i^{th} element between stations i and i+1 is calculated by

$$Vol_{i} = RW \frac{H_{i} + H_{i+1}}{2} L_{i} + \frac{1}{4} (S_{1} + S_{2}) (H_{i}^{2} + H_{i+1}^{2}) L_{i}$$
 (1)

where H_i , H_{i+1} = fill height at stations i and i+1, respectively,

RW = width of roadway,

L; = element length, and

 S_1 , S_2 = side slope of fill.

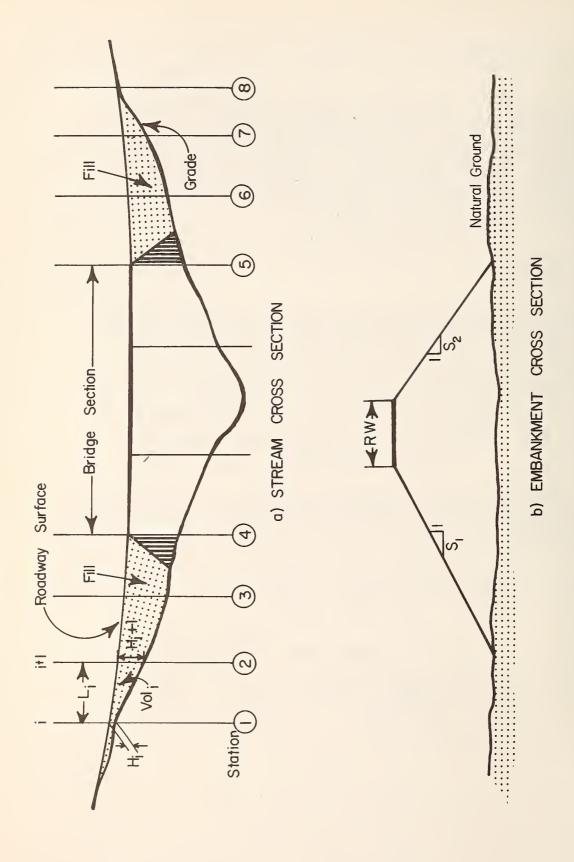


Figure 2. Geometry of a Typical Highway Stream Crossing

3. BRIDGE COSTS

The calculation of the total Risk associated with a structure requires an accurate evaluation of the cost of construction for the structure. Bridge costs can be divided into the cost of the following major components: bridge deck, piers, abutments, footings and piles. Each of the components can be expressed either as a function of the bridge length, embankment height, expected scour depth, as in the case of piers, or a constant cost. For example, bridge deck cost is related to the length of the span while pier cost can be expressed as a function of expected scour depth. Conceptually, a bridge costing function can take the form:

$$C_b = C_{sup} + C_{sub} = C(L,H)$$
 (2)

where

C_b = total costs

C_{sup} = superstructure costs

C_{sub} = substructure costs

L = bridge length

H = fill height

A portion of the substructure costs includes the costs due to the depth piers must be driven in anticipation of expected scour. Presently, the model allows one pier depth to be input for all the model runs using the scour option. If a conservative approach to the analysis is followed this requires this depth and its associated costs to be calculated for the narrowest opening and maximum flow and embankment elevation.

This is suggested for two reasons:

- Bridges are not purposely designed to fail under any expected conditions and to allow the structure to fail during analysis represents a condition not followed in standard practice.
- 2. Since only one pier depth is permitted, a conservative approach to the structural design of the bridge requires the piers be designed for the worst case, which is maximum flow, maximum embankment elevation, and minimum opening size.

Ideally a third factor besides embankment height and bridge opening in the analysis would be pier length and its costs. However, this considerably increases the complexity of the problem. Useful information could be obtained by a more detailed study of this problem and can easily be incorporated into the Risk analysis at some future time.

The costing method presently employed allows the user two options. He can either input a cost function for each bridge design or allow the model to use its own internal functions as described in Table 1. Option 1 is formulated below:

$$C_b = f(L) + G*d_1 + K$$
 (3)

where

$$f(L) = B_1 + B_2 * L$$

and
$$K = B_3 + B_4$$

B₁ = constant coefficient for bridge superstructure cost

B₂ = coefficient of bridge length

B₃ = pier, footing and abutment costs

B₄ = spur dike costs
G = cost/ft of pile (optional)
d₁ = length of pile (optional)

Equation 3 constitutes the basic bridge cost equation for the model. Due to the variation in bridge type and the variation in costs of construction materials and labor from location to location, it is generally difficult to formulate an equation of C_b sufficiently convenient for modeling use. Consequently, the user must provide the coefficients as inputs to the model for determination of bridge cost. It should be noted that Equation 3 also provides the user with the opportunity to input the total bridge cost directly, if such information is available. This may be accomplished by setting the coefficients B_2 through B_4 to zero and inputing B_1 as the known total bridge cost.

A second option is available for those users who are only interested in approximate bridge cost estimation or who are unfamiliar with bridge cost computations. The second option, described below is permanently included in the model. The information provided in the second option was derived based on statistical data of bridge costs throughout the United States collected over a period of 21 years. The bridge cost equation used in the routine was developed during the course of this study based on a regression analysis of costs on bridge lengths. Data were provided by the FHWA (4), which has collected extensive files of cost data through the federal aid highway programs. The bridge cost data contained in the FHWA file (4) for the period 1953-1972 were regressed in the form of

$$C_b = a_0 + a_1 x_1 \tag{4}$$

where

 $a_0 = constant$

 a_1 = coefficient for length (x_1)

 x_1 = bridge length

The results are shown in Table 1.

This method of estimating cost is not accurate for bridges of less than 0.1 mile in length since scatter observed in the cost data was too large.

Table 1. Bridge Cost Regressed on Bridge Length¹

Length (Miles)	a _O	a ₄	σух	Υ
.004009	750.	-1421.	2611.	.12
.01019	1165.	-295.	1295.	.05
.02039	9752.	1593.	687.	.46
.04099	1467.	1722.	665.	.51
.10199	4830.	1547.	163.	.91
>.20	5080.	. 1608.	184.	.89

where $\sigma_{\rm VX}$ = standard error, and

4. PROTECTIVE MEASURES

Constriction of flood plain by approach embankment invariably induces a lateral movement of flood water from the embankment face toward the bridge opening. As this flow joins the main flow a high flow concentration in the vicinity of the abutment occurs. This high flow concentration may produce violent turbulence as it enters the constriction, thus creating scour at the abutment toe.

An effective means of preventing abutment scour is the installation of spur dikes attached to the abutments. The length of spur dikes is generally governed by the fraction of flow on the flood plain and the velocity of the main flow. A method for determining the length of spur dikes is presented in Reference 5. The height of spur dikes is determined based on water depth in the flood plain.

 $[\]gamma$ = correTation coefficient.

¹Costs are based on 1972 price level. Adjustment for inflation has been considered for the period studied.

The side slope of spur dikes is governed by the type of material to be used for spur dike construction. Once the geometry of the dikes is known, the quantity of material and hence the cost can be obtained. This cost is added directly to the construction cost of the bridge under option 1 of calculating bridge cost and is included in the regression equation used in option 2.

At some bridge sites the use of riprap is required to protect the embankments and abutments from erosion. The method of computing the size of riprap materials is given in Reference 6. The cost of the riprap is added to the construction cost of the bridge directly under option 1 of calculating bridge cost and is included in the regression analysis employed under option 2.

The four major construction cost components (roadway pavement, embankment, bridge superstructure, substructure and excavation, and protective measures) are summed to determine the total initial construction cost of the bridge design. The annual construction cost is obtained by multiplying the total initial construction cost by the capital recovery factor for the amortization period (life of the structure) and the appropriate interest rate. The capital recovery factor is expressed as:

$$CRF = \frac{1}{(1+i)^{n}-1} + i$$
 (5)

where

i = appropriate interest rate and

n = amortization period in years.

HYDROLOGY

A detailed description of the hydrologic aspects of highway stream crossing sites is beyond the scope of this study. It is assumed that hydrologic data necessary for risk analysis are available for study sites of interest.

Two types of hydrologic data are essential for risk analysis. The first type is the flood-frequency curve, and the second type is flow hydrographs of each individual flood event. The flood-frequency curve provides data on peak discharges and the associated probability of occurrence needed for computing flood risks.

A waterway constriction controls the flow with an effect similar to that of a reservoir spillway or sluice gate. The stage-discharge relationship is altered once the control structure is in place. Dynamic routing of flows before and after this constriction shows the difference in hydrographic response. However, as dynamic routing is not within the scope of this study, inflow hydrographs and the stage-discharge curve at the bridge site, with bridge in place, are used to estimate the duration of embankment overtopping.

The runoff hydrographs for this study are assumed to be triangular in shape. In order to define these hydrographs, three parameters are required: (1) time to peak, T_p ; (2) flood duration, T_b ; and (3) the peak flow, Q_p . A general representation of the assumed runoff hydrograph is shown in Figure 3.

Time to peak is estimated using the drainage basin characteristics incorporated in a design method used by the U. S. Bureau of Reclamation (7). Time to peak is approximated by the time of concentration, $T_{\rm C}$, defined as the travel time of the runoff from the hydraulically most distant point to the bridge site. The empirical method presented by the Soil

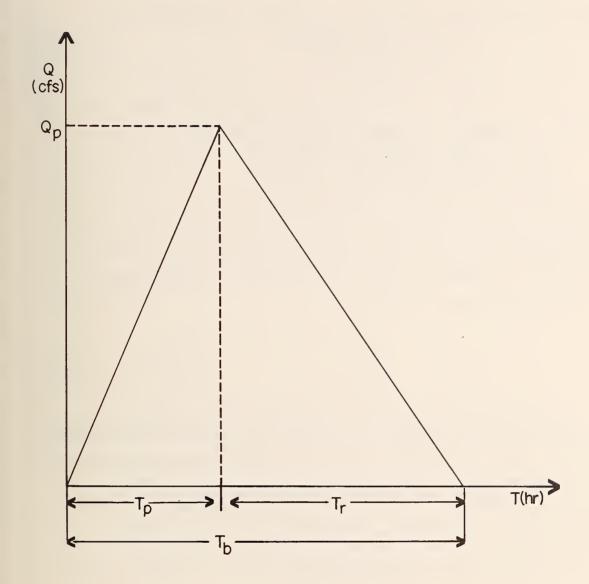


Figure 3. General Shape of Assumed Hydrograph

Conservation Service (8) for determining the time of concentration is

$$T_c = \left(\frac{11.9 L^3}{H}\right)^{0.385}$$
 (6)

where

L = length of longest watercourse in miles,

H = elevation difference in feet, and

 T_c = time of concentration in hours.

The Bureau of Reclamation method is used to determine the length of time between the peak flow and the end of the hydrograph. This time period is designated T_r in Figure 3. For a given watershed, the relationship between the time to peak (T_p) and T_r is

$$\frac{T_r}{T_p} = K$$

The value of the constant, K, is computed from recorded hydrographs. Analyses by the Soil Conservation Service (8) suggest 1.67 as an average value for this constant for use on ungaged watersheds. This constant substituted into the above equation produces Equation 7, which is used in the RISK module to determine T_r .

$$T_{r} = 1.67 T_{p}$$
 (7)

In summary, we have the following relationships:

$$T_p = T_c = \left(\frac{11.9 L^3}{H}\right).385$$

$$T_r = T_b - T_p = 1.67 T_p$$

The final parameter required to determine the hydrograph is the peak flow (\mathbf{Q}_{p}). The range of peak flows associated with different recurrence intervals is determined by fitting runoff data at the site to a Gumbel plot. A Gumbel plot is a linearized graph of relative flood peak magnitudes versus the average recurrence interval in years. The axes are divided in such a manner that the storm frequency distributions plot as an approximately straight line. Figure 4 shows a Gumbel plot for the Tallahalla, Mississippi, bridge site. The data for the figure were recorded at Laurel, Mississippi, the nearest station to the Tallahalla bridge site. For demonstration purposes, the data were not corrected for drainage area difference since the station at Laurel is within five miles of the bridge site, with no major tributaries draining into the five-mile reach.

HYDRAULIC COMPUTATIONS

As mentioned previously the construction of bridge approach embankments onto flood plains results in the constriction of flood waterways. This could cause:

- Increase in water surface elevation over normal stage (i.e., backwater) on flood plains and adjacent lands near the bridge crossing site.
- 2. Overtopping of approach embankments during flooding.
- 3. Increase in flow velocity through the bridge opening.

All of the above three cases could produce varying degrees of flood loss. Backwater flood damages are incurred to real properties such as commercial, industrial and residential developments. Embankment overtopping causes losses ranging from traffic delay to structural failure. An excessive increase in velocity through the bridge opening upsets the hydraulic regime, eroding the stream bed and causing local scour

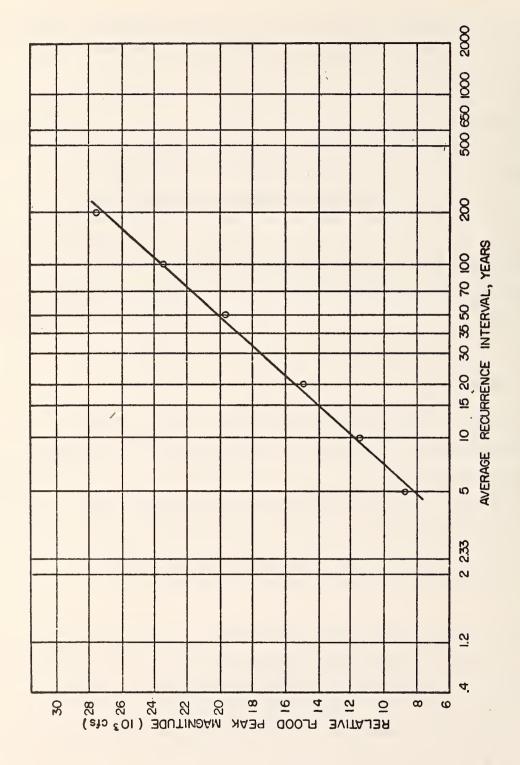


Figure 4. Gumbel Plot for Tallahalla, Mississippi, Bridge Site

around bridge piers. In order to assess the damage that a given flood could produce, the hydraulic information associated with that flood must be properly computed under a preselected set of bridge design schemes.

In the real world flood flow is a dynamic phenomenon. The variation in flood stage and velocity components is both temporal and spatial. Unfortunately, techniques for dynamically routing multidimensional flow are still quite limited in both applicability and practicability. In the case of bridge hydraulics the ultimate interest of the designer lies in the peak flow conditions. For this reason the hydraulic computation is necessary for steady state peak flow conditions only.

Data required for the hydraulic computation are:

- 1. Topography or cross section of stream near bridge site,
- 2. Aerial photo,
- 3. Vegetation map,
- 4. Stage-discharge diagram,
- 5. Flood-frequency curve, and
- 6. Bridge configuration--opening size, skewness, eccentricity.

The hydraulic description is obtained by solving the set of governing partial differential equations for the flow region, assuming prescribed boundary conditions. The set of partial differential equations consists of the equations of motion and continuity in a two-dimensional flow region. A numerical technique, the Finite Element Method, is applied to solve the governing flow equations. Throughout this report the hydraulic model is referred to as the Finite Element Model (FEM). The hydraulic output of FEM is:

- 1. Water surface elevation at various locations throughout the flow regime,
- Velocity components at various locations along the direction of the stream and the transverse direction.

- 3. Velocity through the bridge opening, and
- 4. Flow overtopping, if any, of the approach embankments.

The hydraulic computation is carried out for each flood of interest. The hydraulic data for each flood are stored on hydraulic tapes for the computation of flood risk.

The Finite Element Model is described in detail in Volume III of this series. Chapter VI of that volume describes the results of the hydraulic solution for the Tallahalla Creek bridge site.

CALCULATION OF LOSSES

STRUCTURAL DAMAGES

At a highway stream crossing site, flood-related structural damage results from one or more of the following:

- 1. Damage to bridge superstructure due to debris and inundation of bridge deck.
- 2. Embankment erosion due to overtopping.
- 3. Scour under bridge piers and abutments.

1. Damage to Bridge Superstructure

When the bridge deck is inundated by flood water, the superstructure is subject to two types of force, in addition to its own weight. In the horizontal direction the superstructure is subject to a thrust caused by the dynamic forces of flow acting on the upstream face of the bridge. In the vertical direction the bridge is acted upon by a buoyancy force. Because of the buoyancy the effective weight of a concrete bridge is reduced to about 60 percent of its weight in air. The combination of fluid dynamic forces and buoyancy may push or lift the superstructure from the abutments and piers, causing bridge failure.

There are other factors which may aggravate the bridge failure:

- First, the accumulation of trash at the bridge causing changes in the flow patterns and thus unbalancing the forces acting on the bridge;
- Second, the impact of large floating debris striking the bridge; and
- Third, the entrapment of air under the deck between girders resulting in further reduction of the effective weight of the bridge superstructure.

It is generally difficult to predict the effects of flood forces on bridge superstructure and the extent of bridge damage caused by superstructure inundation, particularly since data on the yield and nature of flood debris are not easy to obtain. Although bridge failures due to flooding of bridge decks have been reported during major floods, this information is insufficient for modeling purposes. Further research is urgently needed in this respect.

While bridge damage from inundation of superstructure is difficult to assess, it is too important to be ignored in assessing flood losses. For lack of information the present model uses the following equation to compute the bridge damage, $L_{\rm h}$:

$$L_{b} = \zeta y \tag{8}$$

where

 ζ = a coefficient and

y = submergence of bridge deck.

Values of ζ may be obtained for specific bridge sites from past flood records. If ζ is not specified in the model input, it will be set to zero by the program. This portion of the algorithm may be modified when a more refined method for assessing bridge damage becomes available.

2. Embankment Erosion

Embankment erosion caused by flow overtopping has not been studied on a broad scale. This is surprising considering the number of earthfill dams and dikes which have the potential for producing catastrophes if they fail. While the washout of a bridge approach embankment will probably not result in catastrophic damage, it will cause traffic interruption and bridge structural damage. In order to assess these losses, the mechanism of embankment erosion during overtopping must be known. Unfortunately, existing literature can provide only limited information on the subject. A brief description of related work on embankment erosion follows.

- A series of model tests by Posey (9) to study erosion on uniform and graded riprap layers for various flow conditions; the tests were inconclusive.
- Laboratory and field experiments by Tinney and Hsu (10) to demonstrate the feasibility of using a fuse plug in the spillway of a major dam. In this project, a pilot channel, ten feet wide and 11.5 feet high with an invert three feet lower than the crest, starts the washout of the fuse plug. In a 1:2 scale model, the breach time for the pilot channel was one minute 27 seconds. The lateral erosion rate was 5.6 feet per minute for uniform material and 1.4 feet per minute for well graded material. A uniform, cohesive rock material was used at the pilot channel.
- A method developed by Cristofano (11) for computing erosion rate in an earth dam embankment failure, assuming that overflow through a shallow notch of a given width had started. The rate of additional deepening of the notch or erosion of fill material is computed by

$$\frac{Q_{\text{soil}}}{Q_{\text{water}}} = K e^{-X}$$
 (9)

where

Q_{soil} = volume of soil eroded in each time
period,

Qwater = volume of water discharged each time period,

K = constant of proportionality,
 l in this case,

e = base of natural logarithmic system, and

 $x = b/H \tan \theta$

where b = base length of overflow channel at any given time,

H = hydraulic head at any given
 time, and

θ = developed angle of friction of soil.

 Application of Equation 9 by Newton and Cripe (12) to analyze the embankment breaching in safety studies of Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) nuclear power plants.

In the absence of a satisfactory erosion equation, the following empirical equation developed in an earlier WRE study (13) is used in this study:

$$E = \alpha V^{\beta} \tag{10}$$

where

E = erosion in tons/ft/day,

V = velocity in ft/sec, and

 α , β = empirical constants.

Estimates of α and β are .25 and 3.8, respectively. These values represent a compromise of the two extremes of a cohesive and cohesionless soil.

Figure 5 illustrates the erosion mechanism assumed, i.e., the eddies of flow turbulence and bed shear on the embankment surface. Once an embankment is overtopped, the head differential between the upstream and downstream sides of the embankment is generally small.

The velocity in Equation 10 is based on the assumption that critical flow exists over the roadway. In view of the small difference in head across the embankment, this assumption may be conservative. The roadway is assumed to act as a broad crested weir in the calculation of the critical velocity. For bridges, V is assumed to be the velocity of the water as it crosses a broad crested weir; this is the critical velocity which corresponds to one-third of the potential energy associated with the depth of the water at the weir. This bridge assumption recognizes the small water surface differences above and below the structure under conditions of complete flooding.

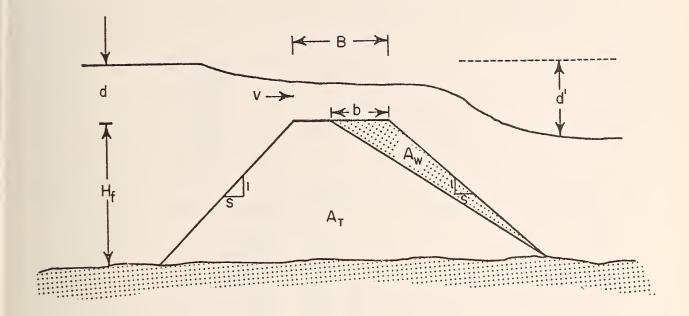
This embankment erosion formulation assumes that after an erosion threshhold velocity (V_e) is reached, embankment erosion can be represented by a triangular approximation, with area A_w . Values for V_e for various soils are given in Figure 6. Given the area eroded, the amount of damage to the roadway can be calculated and a percent of the total embankment erosion can be calculated as follows: Given a section of embankment length L, the total volume of the section is

$$V_{+} = (B + S \cdot H) H_{c} L \qquad (11)$$

where

B = embankment width, and

H = fill height.



$$V = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} gd$$

$$E = A_W = \int_0^T \alpha V^{\beta} L dt$$

where T = time of overtopping, L = roadway length, and

d = head above roadway.

Figure 5. Erosion Mechanism

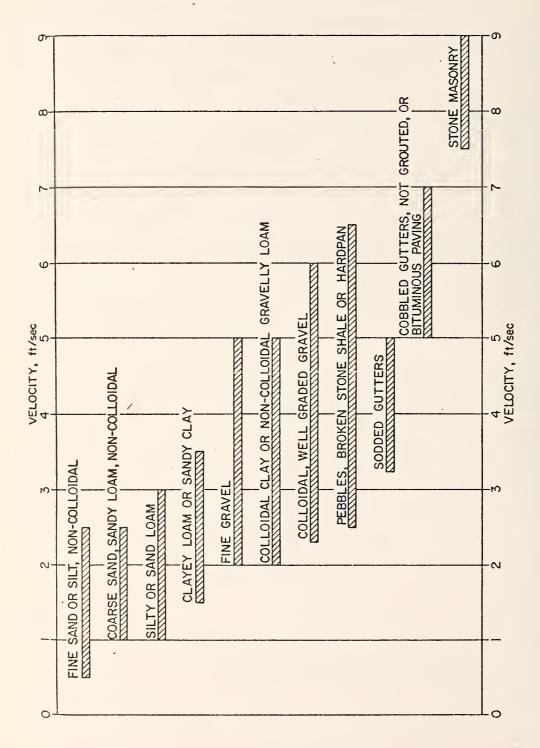


Figure 6. Range of Velocities for Different Soils Above Which Channel Erosion Will Occur (14)

From Equation 10 the total volume of erosion during the overtopping event is calculated as

$$E = \int_{T} \alpha V^{\beta} L dt$$

$$= \alpha V^{\beta} L T = \frac{b}{2} + H L$$
(12)

where

T = the time of overtopping, and

b = eroded roadway width.

Thus the percent of embankment erosion is

$$P_1 = \frac{E}{V_t} \times 100 \tag{13}$$

and the percent of roadway washout is

$$P_2 = \frac{b}{B} \times 100 = \frac{2 E}{HL}$$
 (14)

Reiterating, damage to the approach embankments is of two types:

- 1. Erosion of the fill, and
- 2. Damage to the roadway.

Since bridge damage is considered independently of roadway and fill damage, this analysis does not include abutment undermining by erosion and the resultant loss of particular spans. It is assumed that bridges constructed in a flood plain are designed to use approach embankments in much the same way as an overflow spillway is used in dam construction.

The economic loss incurred by damage to the site (L_s) is computed as:

$$L_{s} = (P_{1}C_{f} + P_{2}C_{r}) C_{a}$$
 (15)

where

 C_f = original cost of fill,

 C_r = original cost of roadway, and

 $C_a = cost adjustment factor.$

The cost adjustment factor (C_a) is used to increase the cost of the original construction. This is done to allow for an increase in contracting cost to have a site quickly repaired.

Time of overtopping is determined as follows: Consider a bridge site located at a stream which has a stage-discharge curve, I, as shown in Figure 7. A bridge having an opening size of L₁ is constructed over the stream, resulting in a new stage-discharge curve. Notice that curve II is obtained using the assumption that no overtopping occurs, i.e., $H = \infty$. Now assume a design scheme which has a combination of bridge length L₁ and an embankment height of H₁. Then Q_e is the peak discharge producing a water surface elevation equal to the height of the embankment (point B). Any flood producing a peak flow larger than Q_e will overtop the embankment.

The time of overtopping for each peak flow is determined from the individual hydrograph, e.g. t₂, t₃, t₄ in Figure 7. These values are then used to compute embankment erosion and traffic-related losses.

3. Bridge Pier Scour

In major floods, bridges frequently fail because of scour around piers and abutments. Depth of scour is affected by both hydraulic and geologic conditions, including type of substrata, pier shape, angle of the pier to the flow, protective measures, depth of flow, velocity and turbulent intensity. Among the more random variables is debris clogging, which has been known to increase scour depth significantly and cause unexpected failure.

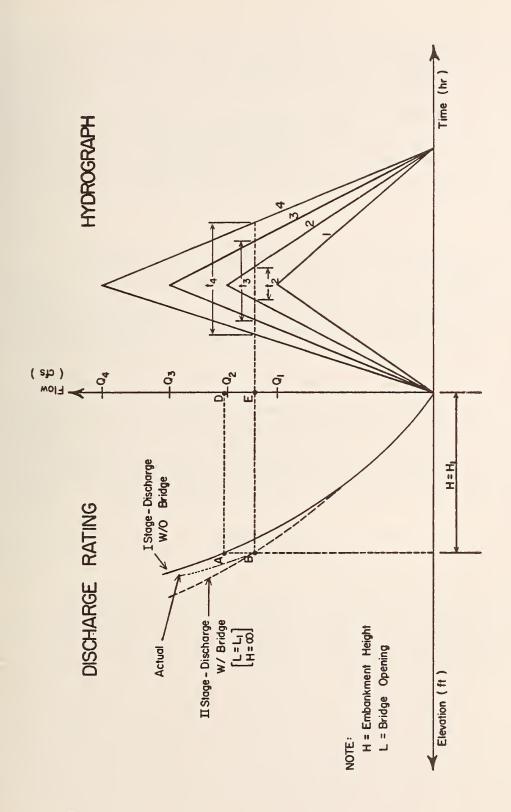


Figure 7. Determination of Embankment Overtopping Time

Methods for computing scour depth are still evolving. The existing formulas are derived primarily from laboratory experiments and while these formulas predict scour depth qualitatively, they do not incorporate the salient time-varying character of scour. Since the laws governing sediment transport have not been adequately defined, model results using presently available equations may not reproduce the prototype behavior. In an approach to this problem, the FHWA is sponsoring a massive field program to collect scour-related data.

For modeling purposes of this study, the empirical equation by Laursen has been adapted for scour computation. The model, however, is sufficiently flexible to accept a more realistic scour formula should one become available. The following simplified assumptions are implemented in the model for scour analysis without compromising accuracy to a significant degree:

- 1. Pier scour is the same for all shapes of piers, and
- Velocity across the bridge opening is uniform.

The scour analysis implemented allows the user three different options:

- 1. Footing is set on solid rock. This implies no scour loss.
- 2. Piles rest on solid rock. This is taken as a cost added to the initial construction cost.
- 3. Piers rest on alluvial soil.

The first and second options imply that the scour risk due to flooding is nil. The implementation of the third option makes use of the following empirical depth-of-scour equation presented by Laursen (15).

$$\frac{b_{p}}{y} = 5.5 \frac{d_{s}}{y} \left[\left(\frac{1}{11.5} \frac{d_{s}}{y} + 1 \right)^{-1} \right]$$
 (16)

where

 b_p = width of rectangular pier,

y = depth of flow, and

 d_S = depth of scour.

This relationship is shown in Figure 8.

If the computed depth of scour exceeds the user supplied maximum depth for option 3, bridge failure occurs. In this case the economic loss is twice the cost of the bridge times the flood recurrence interval since the bridge is lost and a new one must be built in its place.

Scour which does not cause complete bridge failure is assumed to cause some increase in losses determined by multiplying the scour depth by a per unit cost to repair the scour damage. Considering that there is little documentation by the dynamic formation or effects of nondestructive scour, this method provides a reasonable estimate for use by designation engineers.

TRAFFIC-RELATED LOSSES

A major portion of the economic loss resulting from damage to a stream crossing structure is the traffic stoppage or the delay caused by an inconvenient detour. The total time that the traffic is not allowed to travel at its normal rate over the crossing is assumed to be equal to the sum of the flood overtopping duration and the additional time required to repair significant damage to the site. The duration of overtopping is computed in the RISK module. The time of repair is estimated from a graph similar to Figure 9 which is developed by the analyst for each case. The distribution and magnitude of the average daily traffic across the

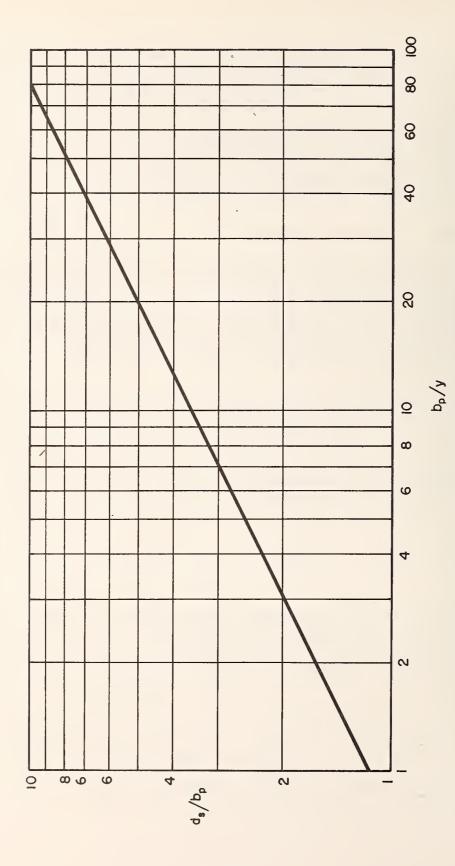


Figure 8. Relationships of Scour Depth to Flow Depth

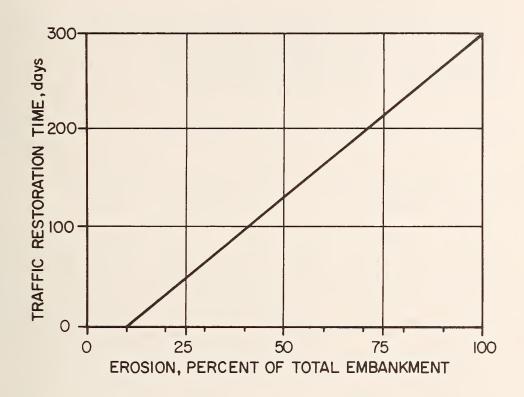


Figure 9. Assumed Traffic Restoration as a Function of Embankment Erosion (13)

bridge is also required for each case. There are four sub-categories of traffic-related losses:

- 1. Increased running cost due to detour,
- 2. Lost time of vehicle occupants due to increased time of travel,
- 3. Accidents on additional detour miles, and
- 4. Accidents due to the unexpected obstacle.

After barricades are placed around the site, the first three types of losses are incurred on the detour. The fourth type is the cost of the accidents expected at the stream crossing and is postulated to occur as traffic comes upon the failure immediately after the failure occurs.

Increased running cost is the difference between running cost on the detour and the normal route. This cost is computed as a function of average daily traffic, travel distance, duration of detour, design speed, and vehicle distribution. Detour duration is the sum of the overtopping duration plus the repair time. Overtopping duration is computed in the flood routing calculations. Five basic classes of vehicles are assumed and actual traffic distributions are fit, as closely as possible, to the five basic classes (13). These are:

- 1. 0.7-ton passenger cars,
- 2. 1.25-ton commercial delivery vans,
- 3. 1.55-ton single unit trucks,
- 4. 2.2-ton gasoline semitrailer trucks, and
- 5. 2.75-ton diesel semitrailer trucks.

Running costs are estimated for passenger cars on zero grades and these costs are adjusted to reflect the other classes of vehicles in the five-class distribution. The passenger car running costs as a function of speed

are fit to a parabola as a means of facilitating computer applications. The low point of the parabola, or most economical running speed, occurs between 30 and 40 miles per hour.

Time losses are a function of average daily traffic, detour duration, travel distance, vehicle occupancy rate, design speed, and the value placed on an individual's time. The occupancy rate and time values are averages which apply to all individuals in the five classes of vehicles. Only the difference in time between the normal route and the detour is considered.

The death rate is used as the basic unit to compute the increased accident costs imposed by the detour (13). For each death, there are a certain number of personal injuries and a certain number of property damage accidents, each of which may or may not be associated with a death. For example, 30 personal injuries for each traffic death and 300 property damage accidents might occur for each death. The accident losses are computed by applying the above rates to costs of deaths, personal injuries and property damage. These losses are computed on a vehicle mile basis—the standard for death rate statistics. Accident losses are computed as a function of average daily traffic, length of detour, duration of detour, death rate, ratio of personal injuries to deaths, cost of death, cost of personal injury, and cost of a property damage accident.

The last loss category is the expected accident due to the unexpected obstacle at the stream crossing site. The higher death rate is defined as the product of the death rate for normal conditions over one mile of roadway, and a death rate factor for unexpected obstacles (13). This death rate factor is somewhat subjective because of the lack of data on this type of accident. Perhaps a factor of one thousand is appropriate. The engineer can also modify the ratios of personal injuries and property damage accidents to deaths since these ratios may differ from those on the detour.

The parameters necessary to evaluate these losses are:

- X₁ = Duration of Detour = Duration of Overtopping + Repair Time (hrs)
- X₂ = Average Daily Traffic, ADT (Vehicles/Day)
- X_3 = Passenger Cars (Fraction of ADT)
- X_4 = Commercial Delivery Vehicles (Fraction of ADT)
- X₅ = Single Unit Trucks (Fraction of ADT)
- X₆ = Gasoline Service Trailers (Fraction of ADT)
- X7 = Diesel Semi-Trailers (Fraction of ADT)
- X₈ = Length of Detour (Miles)
 X_{8.1} = Normal Distance (Miles)
- X₉ = Speed on Detour (Miles/Hr)
 X₉ ₁ = Normal Speed (Miles/Hr)
- X10 = Occupancy Rate (People/Vehicle)
- X₁₂ = Accident Distribution Ratio Normal Conditions (Property Damage/Death)
- X₁₃ = Accident Distribution Ratio Unexpected Obstacle (Personal Injuries/Death)
- X₁₄ = Accident Distribution Ratio Unexpected Obstacle (Property Damage/Death)
- X_{15} = Death Rate (People/100 Million Miles)
- X_{16} = Death Rate Factor for Unexpected Obstacle (Multiplier to X_{15})
- C_1 = Cost of Death (\$)
- C2 = Cost of Personal Injury (\$)
- C_3 = Cost of Property Damage (\$)
- C_4 = Value of Time (\$/Hr)
- C5 = Running Cost of a Passenger Car over the Detour Distance
 (\$/100 Vehicles)

C₆ = Running Cost of a Passenger Car over the Normal Distance
 (\$/100 Vehicles)

Parameters X1 through X_{10} are different for each site considered, but X_{11} through C_3 , except X_{16} , represent national statistics. X_{16} is a multiplier applied to the death rate to allow for the increased hazard of an unexpected obstacle. The value of the parameter varies depending on the site conditions. The value of time (C_4) is based on the average income per year of the users of the bridge. The results tabulated below (Table 2) are developed from a study performed by the Stanford Research Institute (16). The results shown in the table are based on the report-adjusted data set with a sample size of 807 using the equation

$$C_4 = 1.803 + 0.461I$$
 (17)

where

I = income level.

Table 2. Value of Time (\$/hr) by Income of Highway User

I = 1	I = 2	I = 3	I = 4	I = 5	I = 6	I = 7	I = 8
C ₄ 2.26	2.73	3.19	3.64	4.11	4.57	5.03	5.49
where	I = 2 I = 3 I = 4 I = 5 I - 6 I = 7	is income	between between between between between	\$4,000 - \$6,000 - \$8,000 - \$10,000 \$12,000 \$15,000	5,999/ye 7,999/ye 9,999/ye 11,999/ 14,999/	ar, ar, year, year,	

The running cost of a passenger car in dollars per 1000 vehicle miles is a function of speed as shown in Figure 10. The appropriate equations for C_5 and C_6 are

$$C_5 = 42.5 - .455X_9 + .0068X_9^2$$
 (18)
 $C_6 = 42.5 - .455X_{9.1} + .0068X_{9.1}^2$

To adjust these passenger car running costs for varying types of vehicle distributions, Equation 18 becomes

$$C_5 = (42.5 - .455X_9 + .0068X_0^2)$$

$$\cdot (X_3 + 1.2X_4 + 2.0X_5 + 3.2X_6 + 3.1X_7)$$

$$C_6 = (42.5 - .455X_9 + .0068X_0^2)$$

$$\cdot (X_3 + 1.2X_4 + 2.0X_5 + 3.2X_6 + 3.1X_7)$$

and

To estimate the losses associated with running costs, it is necessary to compute the running cost over the normal route and the detour. The difference in these two cost values represents the additional cost to the user of having to detour due to the failure of the bridge. The equation for computing the running cost (\$) is:

$$XL_{1} = \frac{X_{1} X_{2} X_{8} C_{5}}{24,000} - \frac{X_{1} X_{2} X_{8.1} C_{6}}{24,000}$$
 (20)

The time lost by the vehicle occupants is the delay or the additional time it takes to detour the site. The value of lost time (\$) is computed by calculating the difference of the time value of the detour and the original route. The equation used for this calculation is:

$$XL_2 = X_1 \frac{X_8}{X_9} - \frac{X_{8.1}}{X_{9.1}} \frac{X_2}{24} X_{10} C_4$$
 (21)

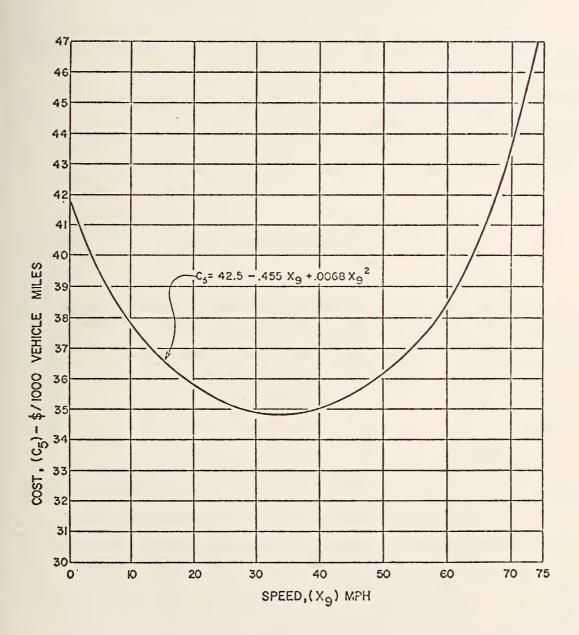


Figure 10. Passenger Car Running Costs (17)

The expected accident cost (\$) due to the difference in the dollar value of accidents on the detour and on the original route is calculated by:

$$XL_{3} = \frac{X_{1} X_{2} (X_{8} - X_{8.1}) X_{15}}{2.4 \times 10^{9}} (C_{1} + X_{11}C_{2} + X_{12}C_{3})$$
(22)

The expected accident cost due to an unexpected obstacle is computed by assuming one mile of road has a one-hour exposure to a higher death rate defined as the death rate, X_{15} , times a death rate multiplier for unexpected obstacles, X_{16} . Thus, the higher rate is $X_{15}X_{16}$. The accident distribution ratios are X_{13} and X_{14} which may vary from those for the normal death rate, X_{11} and X_{12} . The equation for calculating this loss (\$) is:

$$XL_4 = \frac{X_2 X_{15} X_{16}}{2.4 \times 10^9} (C_1 + X_{13}C_2 + X_{14}C_3)$$
 (23)

By app/lying Equations 18 through 23 to a set of data describing a given site, it is possible to compute the total dollar value of the traffic loss due to flooding at the culvert site. Table 3 shows the traffic-related data for two types of highway systems.

FLOOD LOSSES

The constriction of waterways due to approach embankments incurs incremental damage to the adjacent properties when severe flooding occurs. This incremental damage is an amount of loss in addition to the damage that would be caused before the embankments are constructed. The magnitude of the damage depends on the specific land uses and the type of development occurring in the flood plains, for example, woodlands, pasture lands, farm crops, private homes, industries or any combination of these. Different levels of damage are associated with these land uses by flooding. For example, pasture and woodlands may be subject to little damage from water, while a private home or industry may be destroyed by severe flooding.

Table 3. Traffic Loss Data

Variable	Four-Lane Highway	Rural Highway	Units
x ₂	16000	466	Vehicles/day
Х ₃	85	.955	Fraction of ADT
x ₄	.01	.043	Fraction of ADT
Х ₅	.02	0	Fraction of ADT
^X 6	.03	.002	Fraction of ADT
X ₇	.09	0	Fraction of ADT
X ₈ -X _{8.1}	1.20	1.41	Miles
Х ₉	55	25	Miles/hr
X ₁₀	1.7	2	People/Vehicle
X ₁₁ 8	30	30	Personal Injury Incidences/Death
X ₁₂ *	300	300	Property Damage Claims/Death
^X 13*	15	15	Personal Injury Incidences/Death
^X 14*	150	150	Property Damage Claims/Death
X ₁₅ *	5.5	5.5	People/100 Million miles
^X 16	1000	500	
^C 1*	50000	50000	\$
^C 2*	2000	2000	\$
c3*	400	400	\$
C ₄ *	2	2	\$/hr

^{*}Accident Facts, National Safety Council, Chicago, 1968.

Flood loss is usually expressed by a stage-damage curve for the area inundated by the flood. A technique for evaluating flood damage at culvert sites was developed by WRE (13). This method relates the flood loss to the ponding of flood water upstream from the culvert site. The computational procedure is similar to the one generally used in reservoir projects. In either case the assumption of horizontal pool level has been made. Thus the stage-area, and hence the stage-damage, curve can easily be developed.

At a bridge site the situation is somewhat different. Instead of having a horizontal water level, the water surface elevation varies with flood magnitudes as well as with location. To develop a single stagedamage curve under such conditions is virtually impossible.

Theoretically a bridge owner should not be held responsible for flood losses incurred under natural flow conditions before a bridge is in place, no matter how large the flood is. It is the bridge owner's liability, however, for the additional portion of flood damage which is caused by the backwater associated with the construction of the stream crossing structures. The stage-damage function developed in this study is based upon this concept.

The first step in the process of deriving the stage-damage curves is defining the steady state hydraulic regime. As discussed previously, water surface elevations in the vicinity of the site (assuming no bridge is in place) are calculated by the two-dimensional computerized program FEM. Figure 11a shows the water surface profiles computed for natural conditions for flows Q_1 , Q_2 and Q_3 . The next step is to calculate water surface elevations assuming the bridge is in place (Figure 11b). The constriction will cause an increase in water surface elevation in the vicinity of the bridge crossing. Increased water surface elevations

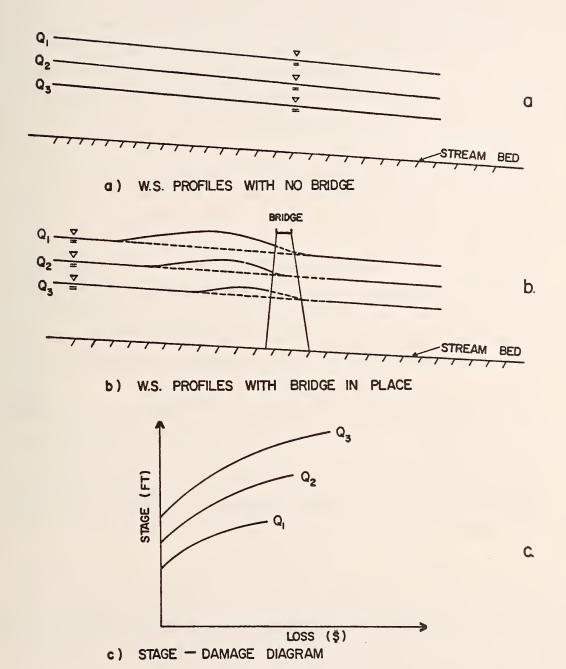


Figure 11. Stage-Damage Curves

result in increased flood-related damages due to the areal spreading of the flood and additional damages at locations affected with no bridge in place. The two sets of surface elevations is the starting point for estimating the economic losses associated with a flood of known magnitude both for the natural conditions and the altered circumstance of having the bridge in place. The difference of these two economic losses defines the economic loss associated with a given bridge design for a specific flood.

For a specific site the two hydraulic regimes (with and without the bridge) are plotted on a USGS contour map of the area. This defines the areal coverage and actual water depth for both regimes.

Once the hydraulic regimes are defined for the cases with and without the bridge, the calculation of the economic losses becomes straightforward. Flood damage tables similar to Table 4 are generated for any field site that is to be analyzed. The details of the development of these tables can be found in Appendix B of Reference 13.

With the required tables, the hydraulic information and a knowledge of the land use pattern in the vicinity of the proposed bridge opening, it is possible to calculate the flood-related losses for the site with and without the bridge. The difference in these values is the flood damage due to the constriction caused by the bridge crossing. Figure 11c shows stage-damage curves derived from Figure 11b.

In this study these calculations for the economic damage caused by the backwater are computed manually using the computer-derived hydraulic information. Data are computed for the complete array of decision parameters considered, various discharges, embankment heights and bridge lengths. The resulting values are part of the input data read into the risk program model and used in determining the total economic loss and resulting risks for all cases of interest.

Table 4. Flood Damage Information

Stage (ft)	312.36	313.06	313.75	314.42	314.00	313.31	311.72	313.31	312.75	311.58	312.72	315.02	314.28	312.96	314.28	313.57	312.04	313.57	315,59**
Damage (\$)	5400*	7500*	* 0046	11300*	10000	8200	3400	8200	6500	3000	6500	13300	10900	7200	10900	8900	4300	0068	15200
Delta Embankment Ht.					0	0	٦	S	0	-5	2	0	0	- 5	S	0	-5	2	
Bridge Opening					300	200	200	500	1000	1000	1000	300	500	200	200	1000	1000	1000	300
Return Interval	.04	.02	.01	.005	.04	.04	.04	.04	.04	.04	.04	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.01
Flow Rate (cfs)	16200	19700	23500	27500	16200	16200	16200	16200	16200	16200	16200	19700	19700	19700	19700	19700	19700	19700	23500
Flow	-	2	က	4	2	9	7	œ	6	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19

* Damages with no bridge ** Stage and/or damage based on incomplete analysis

Table 4. Flood Damage Information (Cont.)

Flow	Flow Rate (cfs)	Return Interval	Bridge Opening	Delta Embankment Ht.	Damage (\$)	Stage (ft)
20	23500	.01	200	0	13700	315.15
21	23500	.01	200	-5	11500	314.48
22	23500	.01	200	5	13900	315.21
23	23500	.01	1000	0	11300	314.39
24	23500	.01	1000	-5	8300	313.37
25	23500	.01	1000	J.	11300	314.39
56	27500	.005	300	0	17300	316.24
27	27500	.005	200	0	15600	315.74
28	27500	.005	200	-5	15416	315.37
29	27500	.005	500	2	16900	316:13
30	27500	.005	1000	0	13800	315.14
31	27500	.005	1000	-5	11100	314.34
32	27500	.005	1000	വ	13900	315.18

RISK ANALYSIS

Risk analysis is defined as the evaluation of the losses incurred while playing strategy i due to a series of possible states of nature and an assessment of the probability distribution of the states of nature.

We define the risk for strategy i, $R_{\rm i}$, for a discrete probability distribution of the states of nature as:

$$R_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} D_{j}P_{j}$$
 (24)

with

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} P_{j} = 1.0$$

where

P_j = probability of occurrence of state of nature j, and
D_j = loss incurred by the player due to the occurrence of the jth state of nature.

For a continuous distribution of the state of nature, we define the risk $\mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{i}}$ for strategy i as:

$$R_{i} = \int_{0}^{\infty} L(Q) f(Q) dQ$$
 (25)

with

$$\int_{-0}^{\infty} f(Q) dQ = 1, f(Q) \ge 0$$

$$0 \le Q < \infty$$

where

 $Q \sim [f(Q)]$ defines the probability density function of the states of nature Q, and L(Q) is the continuous loss function.

In the case of applying Risk Analysis to select design schemes, i.e., the combinations of bridge length and height of approach embankment, we make the following analogies to the theory expressed above. The player's strategy i becomes (design scheme), which in turn is determined by two design parameters: (embankment height), and (bridge length). These two design parameters are referred to as decision variable set i. The player corresponds to society in general. The possible states of nature correspond to the possible floods at a bridge site. We note that the distribution of possible floods at the bridge site is a continuous distribution and can be approximated by a double exponential or Gumbel distribution. Therefore we must consider Equation 25 as the governing risk equation which must be evaluated for each design scheme i, to determine that scheme's total economic response.

The RISK Model approximates the integral of Equation 12 by using the five flood events, Q_1 , Q_2 , Q_3 , Q_4 and Q_5 as shown below:

$$R_{1} = \int_{0}^{\infty} L(Q)f(Q)dQ = \int_{0}^{Q_{1}} L(Q)f(Q)dQ + \int_{Q_{1}}^{Q_{2}} L(Q)f(Q)dQ$$

$$Q_{3} + \int_{Q_{2}}^{Q_{3}} L(Q)f(Q)dQ = \int_{Q_{3}}^{Q_{4}} L(Q)f(Q)dQ + \int_{Q_{4}}^{Q_{5}} L(Q)f(Q)dQ$$

$$Q_{4} + \int_{Q_{2}}^{Q_{2}} L(Q)f(Q)dQ$$

$$Q_{5} + \int_{Q_{5}}^{\infty} L(Q)f(Q)dQ \qquad (26)$$

Each of the six terms on the right hand side of Equation 26 is then approximated by the following expressions:

$$\int_{0}^{Q_{1}} L(Q)f(Q)dQ \approx 0 \quad \text{since it is assumed } L(Q) = 0,$$

$$for 0$$

$$\int_{Q_{1}}^{Q_{2}} L(Q) f(Q) dQ \simeq L_{2} \int_{Q_{1}}^{Q_{2}} f(Q) dQ = L_{2} \left\{ P \left[Q_{1} \leq Q \leq Q_{2} \right] \right\}$$
(27b)

$$\int_{Q_{2}}^{Q_{3}} L(Q) f(Q) dQ \simeq L_{3} \int_{Q_{2}}^{Q_{3}} f(Q) dQ = L_{3} \left\{ P \left[Q_{2} \leq Q \leq Q_{3} \right] \right\}$$
 (27c)

$$\int_{Q_3}^{Q_4} L(Q)f(Q)dQ \simeq L_4 \int_{Q_3}^{Q_4} f(Q)dQ = L_4 \left\{ P\left[Q_3 \leq Q \leq Q_4\right] \right\}$$
(27d)

$$\int_{Q_{4}}^{Q_{5}} L(Q) f(Q) dQ \simeq L_{5} \int_{Q_{4}}^{Q_{5}} f(Q) dQ = L_{5} \left\{ P \left[Q_{4} \leq Q \leq Q_{5} \right] \right\}.$$
 (27e)

$$\int_{Q_5}^{\infty} L(Q)f(Q)dQ \simeq L_5 \int_{Q_5}^{\infty} f(Q)dQ = L_5 \left\{ P\left[Q > Q_5\right] \right\}$$
(27f)

since it is assumed $L(Q) = L_5$, for $Q>Q_5$

where

L1, L2, L3, L4 and L5 are the losses associated with Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4 and Q5, respectively for a given design scheme.

Probability, P, in Equations 27a through 27f, weights the flood loss in each flood interval. The application of this concept for risk analysis will be further illustrated in Chapter V, with specific examples.

SELECTION OF MOST ECONOMIC DESIGN

The sum of the estimated construction costs of a design scheme and its calculated flood risks equals the economic response of that design scheme. The design goal of a highway stream crossing is a design which minimizes the economic response. This process involves a great deal of computational effort by using varying decision variables, one at a time. The computation may become more complicated as the number of decision variables increases.

In the design of highway stream crossings the two most important decision variables are the size of the bridge opening and the height of the approach embankments. Other decision variables related to scour around piers and abutments, though important, are not included in the analysis procedure described in this report because these parameters have not yet been adequately defined. These parameters should be incorporated in the present model when better information becomes available. Decision variables regarding protection measures on embankments are also omitted in the analysis. Consideration should also be given to include these variables into the model in future studies.

For illustration purposes, assume that there are an infinite number of design schemes consisting of an infinite number of combinations of the bridge decision variables, embankment height (H) and bridge length (L). Further, assume L,H > 0. For each such combination of the decision variables L and H we evaluate the risk according to Equation 25, as f(L,H). We next determine the construction cost for the design scheme corresponding to decision variables embankment height H

and bridge length (L) as C(L,H). The total economic response function, TER(L,H), is defined in terms of the decision variable embankment height (H), and bridge length (L) as:

Construc-
Risk tion cost
TER(L,H) =
$$f(L,H) + C(L,H)$$
, L,H > 0 (28)

This response surface is sketched in Figure 12. The optimal design corresponds to that choice of the decision variables L_{opt} and H_{opt} which correspond to the minimum value of TER(L,H); namely I = TER (L_{opt} , H_{opt}), as shown in Figure 12.

This study considers a finite number of design schemes involving three embankment heights and three bridge lengths. Then the model evaluates the total economic response for each of the seven possible design combinations.

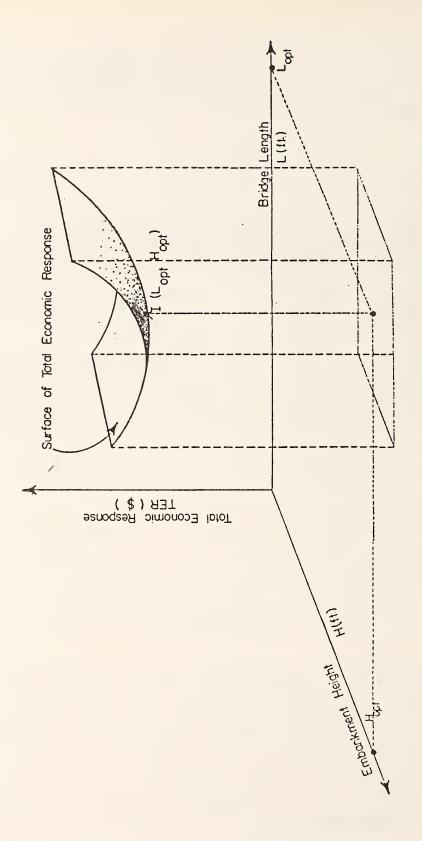


Figure 12. Relationship of Economic Response to Bridge Crossing Decison Variables

IV. APPLICATION OF RISK MODEL TO AN EXAMPLE PROBLEM

SITE INFORMATION

The principles of analysis presented in Chapter III are applied to the Tallahalla Creek bridge site near Waldrup, Mississippi. The flood plain consists of woodlands and parks. At the bridge site the drainage basin of Tallahalla Creek is approximately 33 square miles. The site map is shown in Figure 13. At present there is a 500-foot bridge across Tallahalla Creek near Waldrup. The details are shown in Figure 14.

DESIGN ALTERNATIVES

In the analysis seven alternative bridge design schemes are considered including the present bridge. These design schemes are listed in Table 5.

Table 5 shows that the two major decision variables considered are the bridge length (or bridge opening size) and the height of approach embankments. While these two variables are the primary factors governing the overall economic picture at the crossing site, other factors, such as type of stream crossing (e.g. skewed, eccentric, normal, or any of the combinations), bridge type (e.g. slab, I-beam composite, or steel bridge), and the class of highway (e.g. primary or secondary), also affect the result of economic analysis. The type of crossing governs the amount of backwater and thus property damage and traffic

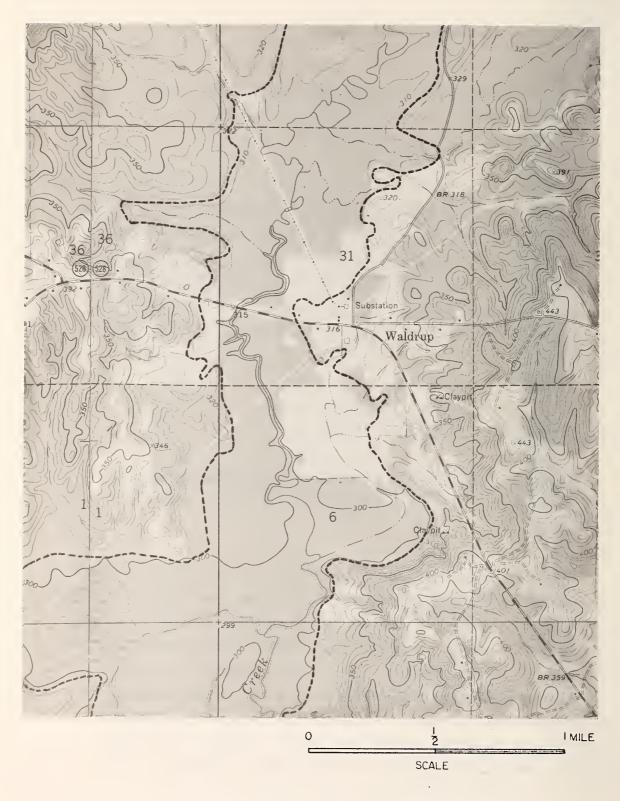


Figure 13. Site Map at Tallahalla Creek, Mississippi

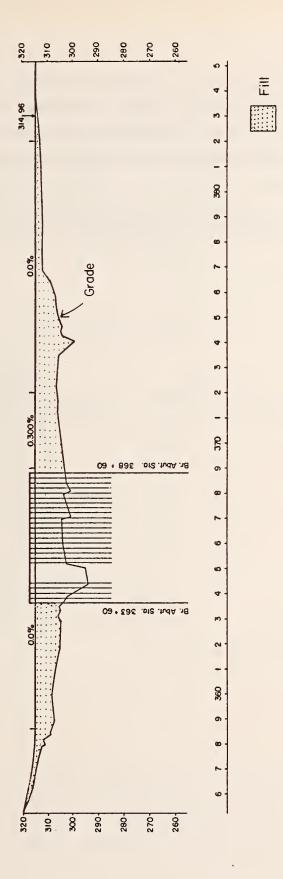


Figure 14. Cross-Section of Bridge Site at Tallahalla Creek, Mississippi

delay. Bridge type determines the unit cost of the bridge, while the class of highway affects the specification of design standards for any given bridge length and embankment height. The extent to which these additional factors would influence the economic analysis depends on each individual bridge site. For the present analysis it is assumed that these additional factors be held constant. That leaves the economic analysis to be focused upon the two degrees of freedom, i.e., the bridge length and the embankment height.

Table 5. List of Design Alternatives

	Decision	Variables
Design Alternative	Bridge Length (ft)	Embankment Elevation (ft)
1	300	315
2*	500	315
3	500	310
4	500	320
5	1000	315
6	1000	310
7	1000	320

^{*}This scheme is the present design in place

HYDRAULIC COMPUTATIONS

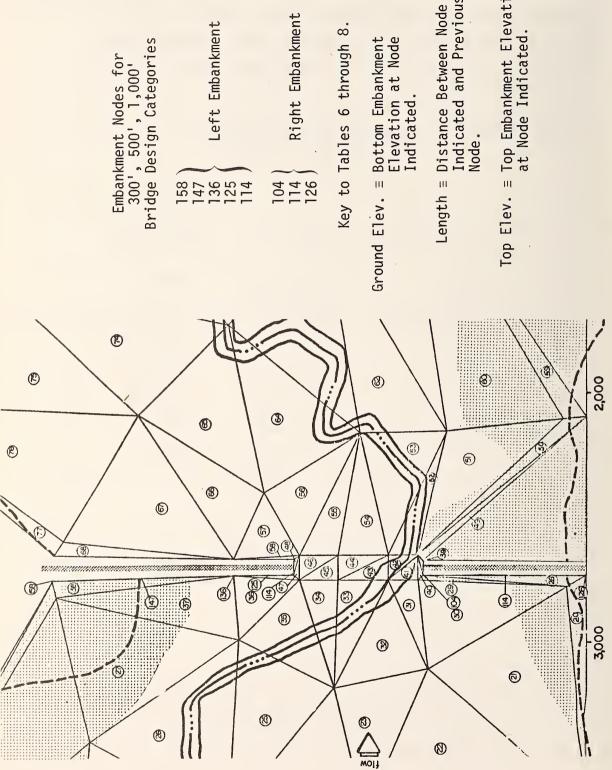
Hydraulic computations for all the design alternatives were performed using the Finite Element Model presented in Volume III of the final report of this project. The network system used to represent the flow region for the 500-foot bridge opening is the same as that used in the

example cases of the Tallahalla Creek site in Volume III. Minor modification to the network system across the bridge openings of 300 and 1000 feet was required to reflect the change in opening size. Pertinent data for the opening configuration are shown in Figure 15 and Tables 6 through 8.

Table 6. Embankment Data for Bridge 1 (Bridge Length = 300 ft)

Node	Ground Elevation	Length	Top Elevation
158	309.0	0.0	315.0
147	307.7	365.0	315.0
136	306.5	365.0	315.0
125	305.7	220.0	315.0
114	305.0	220.0	315.0
104	300.0	320.0	315.0
115	304.0	330.0	315.0
126	308.0	330.0	315.0

Bridge Opening and Embankment Configurations Figure 15.



Right Embankment

104 1114 126

Left Embankment

158 147 136 125 114

Top Elev. ≡ Top Embankment Elevation at Node Indicated.

Indicated and Previous

Node.

Table 7. Embankment Data for Bridge 2 (Bridge Length = 500 ft)

Node	Ground Elevation	Length	Top Elevation
158	309.0	0.0	315.0
147	307.7	365.0	315.0
136	306.5	365.0	315.0
125	305.5	120.0	315.0
114	304.6	120.0	315.0
104	300.0	520.0	315.0
115	304.0	330.0	315.0
126	308.0	330.0	315.0

Table 8. Embankment Data for Bridge 3 (Bridge Length = 1,000 ft)

Node	Ground Elevation	Length	Top Elevation
158	309.0	0.0	315.0
147	307.5	265.0	315.0
136	306.0	265.0	315.0
125	306.3	107.5	315.0
114	306.5	107.5	315.0
104	307.0	1020.0	315.0
115	307.5	192.5	315.0
126	308.0	192.5	315.0

HYDROLOGY

The flood frequency curve for the study site is shown in Figure 4 (page 26). For each bridge design, it is necessary to consider a wide range of hydrologic possibilities. Since flow, Q, is considered a continuous random variable, it is improper to speak of the probability associated with one particular flood event. Instead, one must consider the probability that a storm event will lie in the closed interval [a, b] as shown in the equation below.

$$P \left[a \le Q \le b\right] = \int_{a}^{b} f(Q) dQ$$
 (29)

where

f(Q) = the probability density function of the random variable, Q.

By referring to Figure 4 one may determine the recurrence interval, r_i , for a given flow, Q_r . The relationship between r_i and Q_r is expressed:

$$P \left(Q \ge Q_r \right) = \frac{1}{r_i} \tag{30}$$

where

0 = flow

 Q_r = flow associated with recurrence interval, r_i , and r_i = recurrence interval associated with flow, Q_r .

Thus the flow associated with a storm having a recurrence interval of ten years (e.g., a ten-year storm) is exceeded 10 percent of the years.

For the analysis performed in the RISK module, five storm events are considered as shown in Table 9. It was assumed that storms with a peak discharge below 15,000 cfs caused zero weighted risks and that those above 27,500 cfs did not cause weighted risks above that caused by the 200-year storm event. The situation is shown in Figure 16. Flow Q is a random variable with a probability density function, f(Q).

Table 9. Storm Events

Flood Event	Probability that flow will be equaled or exceeded in any one year	Recurrence Interval (yrs)	Flow (cfs) i = 15	$P\left[Q_{R_{i}} \leq Q_{\leq Q_{R(i+1)}}\right]^{*}$ $i = 1, \dots 4$
Q _R 1	.05	.20	15000	
'KI				.01
Q _{R2}	.04	25	16200	
				.02
Q _{R3}	.02	50	19700	0.3
0		100	22500	.01
Q _{R4}	.01	100	23500	.005
Q _{R4}	.005	200	27500	.005
` K5				

^{*} $P\left[Q_{R_{i}} \leq Q_{\leq Q_{R_{(i+1)}}}\right] = \frac{1}{R_{i}} - \frac{1}{R_{i+1}}$

LOSS FUNCTION AND RISK

A loss function L(Q) is associated with the random variable Q. It is assumed that L(Q) = 0 for all flows below the 20-year flood, Q_{20} , and that L(Q) = L_{max} for all flows above the 200-year flood, Q_{200} .

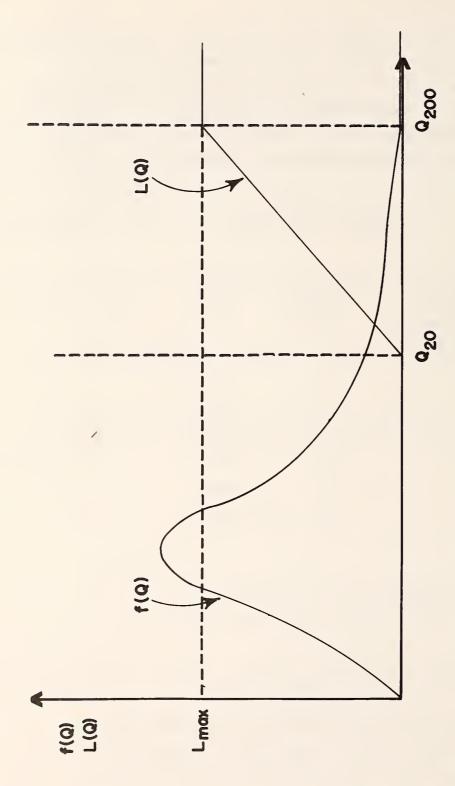


Figure 16. Probability Density Function and Loss Function

The Risk, R, is defined as:

$$R = \int_{0}^{\infty} f(Q)L(Q)dQ = \int_{0}^{Q_{200}} f(Q)L(Q)dQ + \int_{0}^{Q_{200}} f(Q)L(Q)dQ + \int_{0}^{\infty} f(Q)L(Q)dQ$$
(31)

The first term, R_I , on the right hand side of Equation 31 above is zero since L(Q) = 0 for every Q contained in $(0, Q_{20})$; i.e., $R_I = 0$.

The third term,
$$R_{III}$$
, of (31) above, $\int_{0}^{\infty} f(Q)L(Q)dQ = L_{max} \int_{0}^{\infty} f(Q)dQ = f_{200}L_{max}$

since for
$$Q \ge Q_{200}$$
, $L(Q) = L_{max}$, and $\int_{Q_{200}}^{\infty} f(Q)dQ = f_{200}$.

The evaluation of the middle term, R_{II} , is the main issue. In the RISK module, the following approximation is made for R_{II} :

$$R_{II} \simeq P \left[Q_{R1} \leq Q \leq Q_{R2} \right] L Q_{R2} + P \left[Q_{R2} \leq Q \leq Q_{R3} \right] L Q_{R3}$$

$$+ P \left[Q_{R3} \leq Q \leq Q_{R4} \right] L Q_{R4} + P \left[Q_{R4} \leq Q \leq Q_{R5} \right] L Q_{R5}$$
(32)

From Table 9: Q_{R1} = 15,000 cfs, Q_{R2} = 16,200 cfs, Q_{R3} = 19,700 cfs, Q_{R4} = 23,500, and Q_{R5} = 27,500 cfs. LQ_{R2} , LQ_{R3} , LQ_{R4} and LQ_{R5} are the losses associated with flows Q_{R2} , Q_{R3} , Q_{R4} and Q_{R5} respectively. Since Q_{R5} = Q_{200} = 27,500 cfs, LQ_{R5} = L_{max} .

Equation 32 above is approximated as follows:

$$R \simeq P \left[Q_{R1} \leq Q \leq Q_{R2} \right] L Q_{R2} + P \left[Q_{R2} \leq Q \leq Q_{R3} \right] L Q_{R3}$$

$$+ P \left[Q_{R3} \leq Q \leq Q_{R4} \right] L Q_{R4} + \left\{ P \left[Q_{R4} \leq Q \leq Q_{R5} \right] + f_{200} \right\} L_{max}$$
(33)

Referring to Table 9 and Figure 16:

$$P[Q_{R1} \le Q \le Q_{R2}] = .01$$
 $P[Q_{R3} \le Q \le Q_{R4}] = .01$ $P[Q_{R2} \le Q \le Q_{R3}] = .02$ $P[Q_{R4} \le Q \le Q_{R5}] = .005$ $f_{200} = .005$

Equation 33 reduces to:

$$R = .01L_{16,200} + .02L_{19,700} + .01L_{23,500} + .01L_{27,500}$$

In the RISK module the losses for the 16,200 cfs, 19,700 cfs, 23,500 cfs, and 27,500 cfs storm events are evaluated and weighted as shown in Equation 33 above to determine the risk associated with a particular bridge design.

LOSS ESTIMATES

The total loss resulting from each of the above flood events consists of the following four losses:

- 1. Backwater damages,
- 2. Erosion damage to approach embankments,
- 3. Scour damage, and
- 4. Traffic delay and accident losses.

BACKWATER DAMAGES

Backwater damages are due to inundation of areas of the flood plain which would normally not be under water were the given bridge configuration not in place.

To develop a method to evaluate the adjacent property loss due to flooding, it is necessary to obtain information that relates damage to the type of land development in the upstream flood plain. Information is shown in Tables 10 through 15 relating losses in terms of 1974 dollars to the following land uses:

- 1. Agricultural,
- 2. Manufacturing,
- 3. Single Family Residences,
- 4. Retail Businesses,
- 5. Selected Services, and
- 6. Wholesale Businesses.

The development of these tables is described in Appendix B of Reference 13.

There are several notable characteristics of these data. First, flood losses do not always increase for depths exceeding four feet. For agriculture, the unit flood loss is not expected to significantly exceed the unit loss at a depth of three feet on the basis that most crops do not grow taller than this height. A similar trend of limited unit losses is expected for single family residences and selected services. Unit losses for manufacturing, on the other hand, can be expected to increase for depths greater than four feet because stock piles of raw materials and plant assets are commonly in excess of heights of four feet. Similarly, increasing unit losses are expected for retail and wholesale businesses. For these latter land uses, extrapolating available data to depths of six or seven feet appears justifiable.

Table 10. Estimated Flood Loss Data for Agriculture in Mississippi¹

	In Dollars			in 1974 ² Depths of:
	0.5	1'	2'	3' +
Mississippi	\$28	\$36	\$50	\$61
Jasper County	9	12	15	18

Ibid., Section 2, County Data, pp. 249.

¹U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, <u>1969 United States Census of Agriculture</u>, Vol. 1, Section 1, Summary Data, pp. VII, 5 & 6.

U. S. Department of Agriculture, Soil Conservation Service,

<u>Economics Guide for Watershed and Flood Prevention</u>, March 1964.

James, L. D., <u>A Time-Dependent Planning Process for Combining Structural Measures</u>, Land Use, and Flood Proofing to Minimize

<u>The Economic Cost of Floods</u>, Stanford University, August 1964.

²Monetary data is converted to a 1974 base by applying average annual compound interest rates earned on long-term U. S. Government Securities to the basic data.

Table 11. Estimated Flood Loss Data for Manufacturing Industries in Mississippi¹

Industries	Value Added by Manufacturing Per Production Worker, 1972	Direct a In Dol By Manuf	nd Indirectors Per Cacturing	ct Flood Jollar of at Outside	Direct and Indirect Flood Damage in 1974 ² In Dollars Per Dollar of Value Added By Manufacturing at Outside Water Depths of:
		-	2,	-m	4 ' +
1. Food and Kindred Products	\$18,520	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.148
2. Textile Mill Products .	12,091	0.038	0.046	0.127	0.148
3. Apparel and Related Products	7,977	0.035	0.046	0.127	0.148
4. Lumber and Wood Products	16,188	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.148
5. Furniture and Fixtures	14,178	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.148
6. Paper and Allied Products	29,825	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.148
7. Printing and Publishing	4,612	0.036	0.046	0.128	0.149
8. Chemicals and Allied Products	58,447	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.148
9. Petroleum and Coal Products	92,667	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.148
10. Rubber and Plastic Products	18,580	0.036	0.046	0.128	0.149
11. Leather and Leather Products	•	1			
12. Stone, Clay and Glass Products	21,185	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.148
13. Primary Metal Industries	19,952	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.148
14. Fabricated Metal Products	23,012	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.148
15. Machinery, Except Electrical	23,232	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.148
16. Electrical Equipment and Supplies	18,262	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.148
17. Transportation Equipment	13,942	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.148
18. Instruments and Related Products	16,278	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.146
19, Miscellaneous Manufacturing Industries	ries 20,700	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.148
20. Administrative and Auxilliary	•	1			•
Jasper County	\$18,857	0.036	0.046	0.127	0.148

¹U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1972 Census of Manufacturers (Preliminary Report)-Mississippi U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1972 Census of Governments, Taxable Property Values and Assessment - Sales Price Ratios, Volume 2, Part 1.
Stanford Research Institute, A Study of Procedure in Estimating Flood Damage to Residential, Commercial, and Industrial Properties in California, 1960.

²Monetary data is converted to a 1974 base by applying an average annual compound rate of interest on long-term U. S. Government securities to the basic data.

Estimated Flood Loss Data for Single Family Residences In Jasper County, Mississippi¹ Table 12.

Estimated Market Value of Property	Direct an	Direct and Indirect Damages in 1974 to Structure and Contents for Inside Water Depths of:2	ages in 1974 ide Water Dep	to Structure ths of:2
	-	2.	3-	4 +
Less than \$5,000	\$ 681.5	\$1,039.3	\$1,367.2	\$1,724.1
\$5,000 to \$9,999	1,247.8	1,909.5	2,518.2	3,176.7
\$10,000 to \$14,999	2,018.4	3,101.2	4,095.5	5,178.0
\$15,000 to \$19,999	2,720.4	4,205.2	5,568.7	7,053.3
\$20,000 to \$24,999	3,408.1	5,289.5	6,969.7	8,900.4
\$25,000 to \$34,999	4,246.2	6,662.4	8,885.6	11,307.9
\$35,000 or more	5,303.9	8,414.6	11,281.6	14,405.5

U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, United States Census of Housing, 1970, Mississippi, State and Small Areas.
Stanford Research Institute, A Study of Procedure in Estimating Flood Damage to Residential, Commercial and Industrial Properties in California, January 1960.

²Value classification for 1970 expanded to 1974 classifications on basis of average annual compound interest rates earned on long-term U.S. Government Securities. These classifications do not include land values.

Estimated Flood Loss Data for Retail Business in Mississippi¹ Table 13.

	Retail Trade	Annual Sales Per Employee 1967	Direct al In Doll	nd Indirecars Per \$	ct Flood 1000 of A	irect and Indirect Flood Damage in 1974 ² In Dollars Per \$1000 of Annual Sales Per Establishment at Water Depths of:
			-	2.	3-	4 ' +
<u>-</u> :	building Materials, Hardware, and Farm Equipment Dealers	\$42,500	\$10	\$20	\$43	\$52
2.	2. General Merchandise Group Stores	26,700	∞	17	36	43
e,	3. Food Stores	55,400	9	Ξ	24	59
4.	4. Automotive Dealers	52,100	8	16	33	41
5.	5. Gasoline Service Stations	38,200	9	Ξ	23	28
9	6. Apparel and Accessory Stores	24,600	10	19	41	20
7.	Furniture, Home Furnishings, and Equipment Stores	31,100	10	19	35	49
8	8. Eating and Drinking Places	10,200	ις	10	19	. 52
9.	9. Miscellaneous Retail Stores	38,000	8	15	33	40
10.	10. All others	28,700	7	14	30	36
	Jasper	\$42,300	€ \$	\$ 7	\$15	\$18

10. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1967 Census of Business, Retail Trade, Mississippi.
U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Annual Sales and Purchases, Year End Inventories, and Accounts Receivable of Retail Stores, By Kind of Business for 1972.
U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau fo the Census, 1972 Census of Governments, Taxable Property Values and Assessment - Sales Price Ratios, Volume 2, Part 1.
Stanford Research Institute, A Study of Procedure in Estimating Flood Damage to Residential, Commercial, and Industrial Properties in California, 1960.

²Monetary data is converted to a 1974 base by applying an average annual compound rate of interest earned on long-term U. S. Government securities to the basic data.

Table 14. Estimated Flood Loss Data for Selected Services in Mississippi¹

19742									1
Virect and Indirect Flood Damage in 19742 Per \$1000 of Annual Revenues Per Establishment at Water Depths of:	+ +	\$16	16	91	91	91	91	91	\$15
rect and Indirect Flood Damage in Per \$1000 of Annual Revenues Per Establishment at Water Depths of:	3-	111\$	Ξ	=	=	Ξ	12	12	\$11
nd Indire 1000 of A ishment a	-2	\$5	ro	5	ည	5	5	S.	\$4
Direct and Per \$	-	\$3	ო	က	က	က	က	ю	\$2
Annual Rèvenue Per Employee 1967		\$ 8,743	9,779	13,956	18,861	22,193	10,988	15,948	\$10,912
Service Specialty		I. Hotels, Motels, Tourist Courts and Camps	2. Personal Services (Laundries, Beauty Shops, Barber Shops, etc.)	3. Miscellaneous Business Services	4. Automobile Repair and Services	5. Miscellaneous Repair Services	6. Motion Pictures	7. Amusement and Recreation Services (Except Motion Pictures)	Jasper

¹U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1967 Census of Business, Selected Services, Mississippi.
U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1972 Census of Governments, Taxable Property Values and Assessment - Sales Price Ratios, Vol. 2, Part 1.
Stanford Research Institute, A Study of Procedure in Estimating Flood Damage to Residential, Commercial, and Industrial Properties in California, Basic Report, January 1960.

²Monetary data is converted to a 1974 base by applying average annual compound interest rates earned on long-term U. S. Government Securities to the basic data.

Table 15. Estimated Flood Loss Data for Wholesale Businesses in Mississippi¹

Wholesale Business	Annual Revenue Per Paid Employee 1967	Direct an Per : Estal	nd Indirec \$1000 of / blishment	ct and Indirect Flood Damage in Per \$1000 of Annual Revenues Per Establishment at Mater Depths of	Direct and Indirect Flood Damage in 1974 ² Per \$1000 of Annual Revenues Per Establishment at Water Depths of:
1. Motor Vehicles and Automotive Equipment	\$ 62,400	- 5	\$14	31	4' +
2. Piece Goods, Notions and Apparel	125,100	10	13	37	43
3. Groceries and Related Products	87,700	80	Ξ	30	35
4. Farm Products - Raw Materials	382,000	6	Ξ	31	36
5. Electrical Goods	89,200	=	13	. 39	45
6. Hardware, Plumbing, Heating Equipment and Supplies	39,200	13	16	46	54
7. Machinery, Equipment and Supplies	67,500	13	16	46	54
8. Petroleum and Petroleum Products	152,100	80	10	28	32
9. Tobacco and its Products	100,500	6	Ξ	31	36
10. Lumber and Construction Materials	97,800	∞	10	82	33
11. Farm Supplies	168,900	6	Ξ	32	38
12. All Others	008,300	10	12	32	41
Jasper	\$ 41,300	6 \$	\$12	\$34	\$39

¹U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1967 Census of Business, Wholesale Trade, Mississippi.
U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1972 Census of Governments, Taxable Property Values and Assessment - Sales Price Ratios, Vol. 2, Part 1.
Stanford Research Institute, A Study of Procedure in Estimating Flood Damage to Residential, Commercial, and Industrial Property in California, January 1960.

²Monetary data is converted to a 1974 base by applying an average annual compound rate of interest earned on long-term U. S. Government securities to the basic data.

Another characteristic of the flood data that should be noted is related to geographical application. The flood loss data for agriculture (Table 10) is developed for Jasper County and for the State of Mississippi, whereas flood loss data on single family residences (Table 12) are developed specifically for Jasper County. The flood loss data for the remaining categories, namely manufacturing (Table 11), retail business (Table 13), selected services (Table 14), and wholesale business (Table 15), are applicable to the State of Mississippi.

Tables 10 to 15 are used in conjunction with an inventory of the land use in the upstream flood plain to develop a stage flood loss function. The approach is to compute losses for land area covered by varying degrees of depth of flood waters. Because the flood plain at the bridge site consists of only woodlands and pasture, an approximate stage-damage curve was developed to determine the backwater damages. For a more varied land use pattern in the flood plain, the approach outlined above is recommended to determine backwater losses. The approximate stage-damage curve developed for the study site is shown in Figure 17 and the flood damage information for the flows considered in the risk analysis is shown in Table 4.

EROSION DAMAGES

Approach embankments may be eroded during the flood events considered. The amount of erosion is determined by the time of overtopping and the overtopping head. In order to calculate overtopping time, the duration of the storm hydrograph must be determined. The pertinent hydrograph data is shown in Table 16. A cost adjustment factor is used to multiply the repair cost to indicate that emergency repair is more costly than normal repair. In addition, an inspection time of two hours is assumed to inspect the roadway if any overtopping results before opening the roadway to traffic again. The erosion information is shown in the bottom section of Table 16.

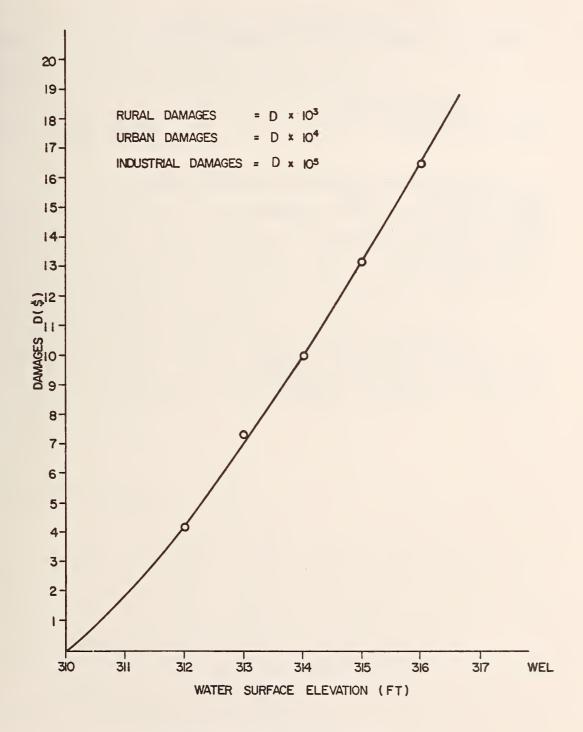


Figure 17. Stage-Damage Curve

Table 16. Hydrologic, Scour and Erosion Data

HYDRULUGIC DATA LENGTH OF LUNGEST WATERCOURSE ELEVATION DIFFERENCE

17.000 MILES 53.000 FELT

SCOUR INFORMATION (ALL LENGTHS IN FEET)
CHANNEL TYPE IS 1,000
COST PER FOOT OF SCOUR IS -0,000
MAXIMUM SCOUR DEPTH IS -0,000
VELOCITY NODE FOR SCOUR IS -0
RECTANGULAR WIDTH OF PIER IS -0,000
NUMBER OF PILES IS -0,000

ENDSIGN INFURMATION
INCIPIENT VEL.(FT/SEC) IS 3.5000
WEIGHT (LBS/FT3) UF SUIL IS 128.0000
CUST ADJUSTMENT FACTUR IS 2.0000
INSPECTION TIME(HR) IS 2.0000

SCOUR DAMAGE

In the example problem it is assumed that the pieces of the bridge rest on bedrock so that there is no scour damage. The variables which would be used to calculate scour are set to zero. The scour information is shown in the middle portion of Table 16.

TRAFFIC DELAY LOSSES

During the course of the storm the bridge may become impassable due to overtopping during which embankment erosion may occur. The sum of overtopping time, inspection time, and embankment repair time constitutes the total delay time to motorists. A traffic distribution is assumed as shown in Table 17 along with a detour distance and travel speed which is compared to the normal route distance and speed. The results are used to calculate the lost time of the motorist which is converted to an economic loss by use of the value of time parameter shown in the economic section of Table 17. Additional losses are accident and obstacle related damages. Accident rate and cost data are also shown in Table 17.

TOTAL ECONOMIC RESPONSE

In order to determine the total economic response for each bridge design, the total construction cost of each bridge design must be added to the total weighted losses. The total construction cost is calculated as an equivalent annual cost based on a given project life and interest rate using the capital recovery factor. The total construction cost of the bridge is made up of the cost of the bridge, the cost of embankments, and the roadway costs. The bridge cost function and the pertinent embankment and roadway cost information is shown in Table 18.

Table 17. Economic and Traffic Information

100,000

PROJECT LIFE (YRS) =

INTEREST RATE (PER CENT) = 7.000 AVE. VALUE OF TIME (5/HR) 2.730	
AVERAGE DAILY TRAFFIC LEVEL PASSENGER CAR TRAFFIC LEVEL COMMENCIAL DELIVERY VEHICLE LEVEL SINGLE UNIT TRUCK LEVEL GASULINE TRUCK LEVEL DIESEL SEMI TRAILER LEVEL NURMAL TRAVEL DISTANCE NORMAL TRAVEL SPEED DETOUR TRAVEL SPEED (M/HR)	16000.000 .850 .010 .020 .030 .090 4.500 55.000 18.000
ACCIDENT RATE DATA DEATH RATE/100 MILLION MILES (NURMAL) PERSONAL INJUNIES (NO./DEATH) (NURMAL) PROPERTY DAMAGE (NO./DEATH) (NORMAL) PERSONAL INJURY RATE OBSTACLE PROPERTY DAMAGE RATE OBSTACLE DEATH RATE FOR UBSTACLES	\$.500 30.000 300.000 150.000 15.000
ACCIDENT RELATED COST DATA CUST PER DEATH COST OF PERSONAL INJURY PROPERTY DAMAGE	-\$0000.000 2000.000 400.000

	A THOUSE A TH		
	00		
7	* AREA + AREA + SUSSE+04 + ENGTH +		0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
HYDKAULIC INFURMATION IS ON TAPE	BRIDGE COST FUNCTION SABURE COST B ASSESSED + 40.	EMBANKMENT INFORMATION	FILE COST (S/CY) UPSTREAM SEUPE (PERCENT) SOUNSTREAM SEUPE (PERCENT) SALUGE WIDTH (FT) ROAUSAY COST (S/FT)

BRIDGE INFORMATION FOLLOWS ON THE NEXT THREE PAGES

The total economic response is then computed and the results of the risk analysis for each of the bridge designs is shown in Table 19. The 300-foot bridge with a 315-foot embankment height has a lower total economic response than the present bridge design, the 500-foot bridge with a 315-foot embankment height. This is due to the fact that the savings in bridge cost of the 300-foot bridge over the 500-foot bridge is greater than the increase in risk. This can be readily seen by examining the risk and bridge construction cost columns. For a 300-foot bridge with an embankment of 315 feet, the risk component of the total economic response is approximately \$535 greater than the risk component for the present bridge configuration. On the other hand, a savings of over \$20,000 per year in construction cost is realized by building the 300-foot bridge rather than the present bridge design. The data used in this example problem is representative and not exact for the given Tallahalla Creek bridge site and therefore we are not stating specifically that the 300-foot bridge length design is better than the present design although this would appear to be the case based on the representative data set.

The plot option of the RISK module was used to generate three plots of the information shown in Table 19. In the first plot (Figure 18) the total economic response times 10^{-3} (TER * 10^{-3}) for the 500-foot bridge category is plotted versus embankment height. The 315-foot embankment height gives a lower response than the 310-foot and 320-foot embankment heights for a 500-foot bridge. The economic response of the 315-foot embankment height is lower than that of the 310-foot because the savings in construction cost of the 310-foot embankment height over the 315-foot configuration (\$5,400) fails to offset the larger risk component of the 310-foot embankment height configuration (\$27,000). The 315-foot embankment height economic response is lower than that of the 320-foot because increase in construction cost of the 320-foot configuration over the 315-foot configuration (\$6,000) is larger than the savings of the 320-foot configuration risk over the risk of the

Table 19. Results of Economic Analysis

RISK FACTUR ANALYSIS RESULTS

	IGURATION (FT) ENBAT. HT.	ECONOMIC CONTROL CONTR		DNENTS (DOLLARS) FUTAL ECONUMIC RESPONSE
300.000	315,000	52172,305	1483.047	53655,352
500,000	315.000	72715.814	948.478	15664.292
500.000	310.000	67312.107	33251.00*	100563.107
\$00.000	320.000	78750.984	608.000	79358,984
1000.000	315,000	122919.755	658.443	123578,197
1000,000	310,000	119293.935	28491.836	147765.771
1000,000	320,000	126963,337	495.000	127418,337

RISK BASED	ON	FLOOD EVENTS	3
VULUME (CFS)		RECURRENCE	INTERVAL
10200.000			.010
19700,000			020
23500,000			.010
27500,000			.010
	VULUME (CFS) 10200.000 19700.000 23500.000	VULUME (CFS) 10200,000 19700,000 23500,000	10200,000 19700,000 23500,000

CUNSTRUCTION COST CALCULATED AS EQUIVALENT ANNUAL COST BASED ON PHOJECT LIFE 100,000 YEARS INTEREST RATE 7,000 PERCENT

TOTAL ECUNUMIC RESPONSE EQUALS SUM OF CONSTRUCTION CUST AND RISK

*Calculation based on incomplete information

Figure 18. Total Economic Response for 500-Foot Bridge

315-foot configuration (\$340). In the second plot (Figure 19) the total economic response time 10^{-3} (TER * 10^{-3}) for the 1000-foot bridge category is plotted versus embankment height. The results are similar to those discussed for the 500-foot bridge category. In the third plot (Figure 20) the total economic response times 10^{-3} (TER * 10^{-3}) is plotted versus bridge length for all bridge configurations having an embankment height of 315 feet. The increase in total economic response with increasing bridge length at the 315-foot embankment height is linear. This is due to the fact that the construction cost components of the total economic response dominate the risk components for all configurations plotted, and the construction cost is linearly monotonic, increasing with bridge length for a fixed embankment height.

In this example, the dominance of the construction cost components over the risk components for all bridge designs considered is due to the bridge site location in a rural area where the backwater damages are minor. In the following chapter on Sensitivity Analysis, a site will be considered where the backwater damage is great and the risk component of the economic response is comparable to the bridge construction cost.

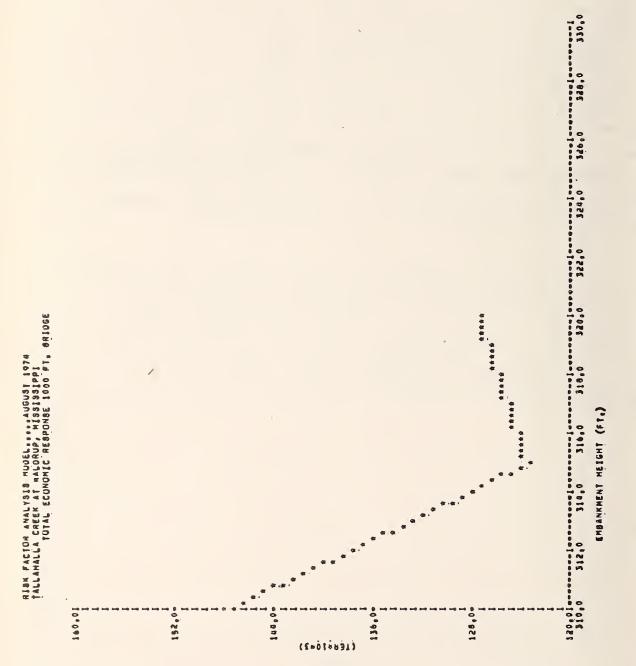


Figure 19. Total Economic Response for 1,000-Foot Bridge

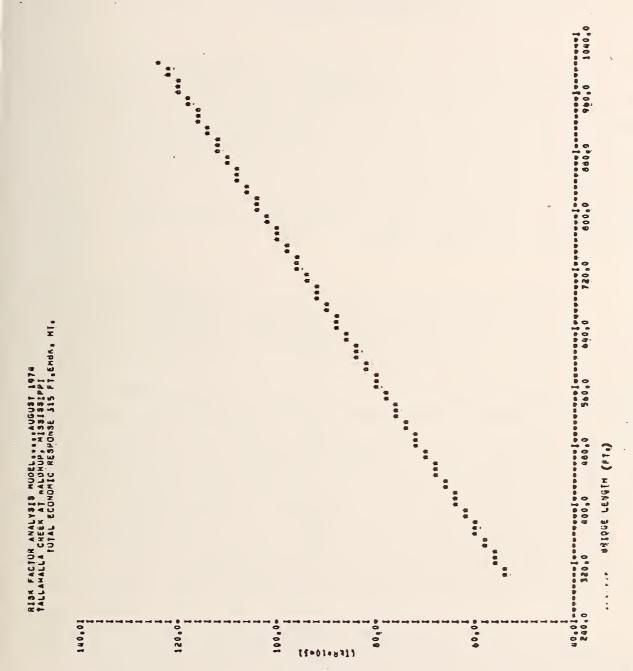


Figure 20. Total Economic Response for 315-Foot Embankment Height

V. SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

In the development of the methodology for performing risk analysis of highway stream crossings, assumptions were made for several physical processes. For example, estimates were made from available information for such design parameters as traffic level and characteristics, and hydrologic data. These assumptions and estimates are subject to errors. Hence the use of this information in calculating the total economic response at a bridge site may induce solution errors, which in turn may affect the decision-making process.

The number of parameters involved in the risk analysis is large and the governing hydrologic and hydraulic processes are complex. Moreover, the economic data used for the analysis varies from site to site and also with time. The uncertainties associated with the risk analysis need not discourage the use of the method as long as the limitations inherent in the method of analysis are identified. Sensitivity analysis is the means by which these limitations may be assessed. The results of sensitivity analysis permit the designer to deal with the uncertainty presented in the method of analysis. Sensitivity analysis identifies critical variables and factors for the purpose of singling them out for careful consideration in the design process to reduce uncertainty. It also serves the purpose of establishing research priorities and resolves estimating problems associated with sensitive design factors.

Virtually every parameter and measurement associated with bridge design is subject to some degree of estimation. Basically there are three major groups of parameters governing the total cost for a crossing site.

These are: (1) hydrologic - hydraulic, (2) engineering, and (3) economic variables. In a previous study by WRE (13) for 22 culvert sites, it was found that six of the factors in the three groups appear to be relatively significant in the economic response. These factors are:

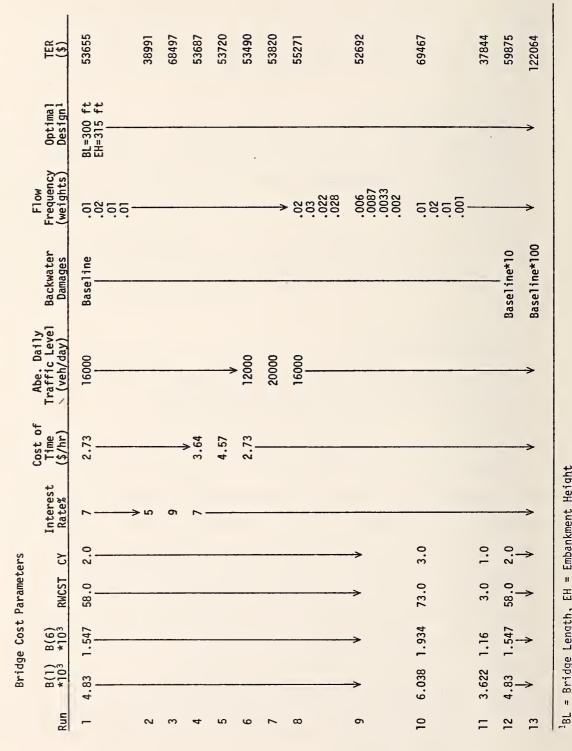
- interest rate,
- unit cost,
- stage-damage curve,
- flow hydrographs, and
- embankment erosion.

This list is the basis for the selection of factors in the present sensitivity analysis. The major parameters subject to analysis are:

- interest rate,
- bridge cost,
- stage-damage curve (backwater damages), and
- hydrology, i.e., flood-frequency curve.

Minor parameters analyzed include (1) cost of time, and (2) average daily traffic (ADT). The results of the sensitivity computer runs are shown in Table 20. Run 1 represents the baseline values (or the optimal design) used in the example problem of Chapter IV. Runs 2 through 13 comprise the sensitivity analysis runs made in this study. The optimal solution remained the 300-foot bridge with a 315-foot embankment height for all the sensitivity analysis runs. The effect of changes in the sensitivity analysis parameters on the total economic response of this optimal bridge design is presented in Figure 21. The relative effect of each parameter varied in the sensitivity analysis on the total economic response of the optimal bridge design is evaluated in Table 21. In Table 22 the sensitivity analysis parameters are ranked by order of impact on the total economic response of the optimal bridge design.

Sensitivity Analysis Results Table 20.



= Bridge Length, EH = Embankment Height

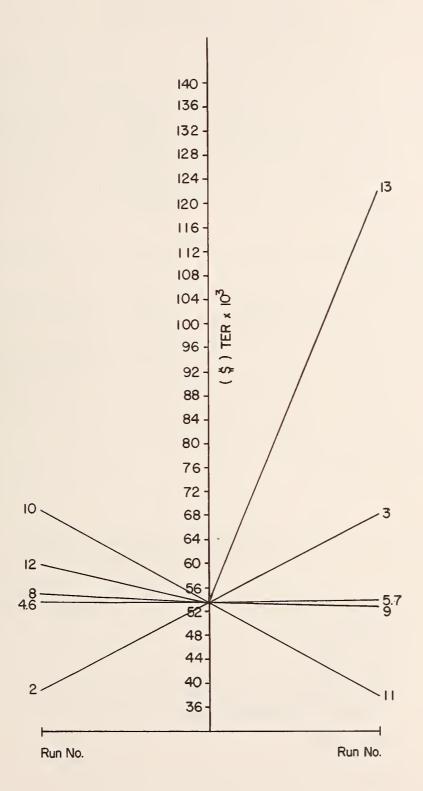


Figure 21. Sensitivity Analysis Results

Table 21. Effect of Parameter Changes on Total Economic Response

Run	Parameter	ΔTER/TER	ΔP/P ¹	Avg. Relative Effect on Response
2	Interest Rate 5%	0.987		0.987
3	Interest Rate 9%	0.987		0.907
4	Cost of Time (\$3.64/hr)	0.00089) ———	0.0013
5	Cost of Time (\$4.57/hr)	0.0018		0.0013
6	Average Daily Traffic Level (12000 veh/day)	0.0127		<u> </u>
7	Average Daily Traffic Level (20000 veh/day)	0.0127		
8	+25% Flow for Given Frequency	0.1205		0.096
9	-25% Flow for Given Frequency	0.072		0.030
10	+25% Bridge Cost	1.178		1.178
11	-25% Bridge Cost	1.178		1.170
12	Baseline Backwater Damages X 10	0.0115		0.0121
13	Baseliné Backwater Damages X 100	0.0127		0.0121

¹Relative Effect on Response

Table 22. Ranking of the Parameters of the Sensitivity Analysis by Impact on Total Economic Response

Parameter	Rank
Bridge Cost	1
Interest Rate	2
Flow Frequency Curve (Gumbel Plot)	3
Average Daily Traffic Level	4
Flood Losses	5
Cost of Time	6

Bridge cost has the largest impact on the total economic response of the optimal crossing design. To produce the ± 25 percent changes in bridge cost, the bridge regression coefficients B(1) and B(6), the cost of roadway per foot (RWCST), and the embankment fill cost (CY) are all increased and decreased by 25 percent. The cost of roadway per foot and the embankment fill cost are also used in determining erosion losses and thus have an effect on the risk component of the total economic response. A one percent change in B(1), B(6), RWCST and CY produces a 1.178 percent change in the total economic response of the optimal solution.

The interest rate used in determining the equivalent annual bridge construction cost is the next most critical parameter. The equivalent annual cost is determined by multiplying the bridge cost by the capital recovery factor. The total economic response is the sum of the equivalent annual cost of the bridge and the risk. A one percent change in interest rate produces a 0.987 percent change in the total economic response of the optimal solution.

The nature of the flow frequency curve has a significant impact on the total economic response of the optimal bridge design. The flow frequency curves used in the sensitivity analysis are presented as the Gumbel plots shown in Figure 22. For a given recurrence interval the flow is increased and decreased by 25 percent in order to develop the plus and minus 25 percent straight lines shown in Figure 22. The return weights used to develop the risk component of the total economic response are determined from the Gumbel plot of the flood frequency information. The evaluation of the return weights is also based on the flood events considered in the risk analysis and is shown in Table 23. A one percent change in the Gumbel plot of Figure 22 produces a 1.096 percent change in the total economic response of the optimal bridge design.

Figure 22. Flow Frequency Curves

Table 23. Evaluation of Return Weights for Flood-Frequency Sensitivity Analysis

	Q Flow (cfs)	Loss for Flow Q (\$)	Return Interval (yr)	i=1,5 P[Q>Q;]	i=1,4 P[Q _i <q<q<sub>i+1]</q<q<sub>	Return Weight	
Baseline	15000	L ₁₅₀₀₀	20	0.05	0.01	-	
	16200	L ₁₆₂₀₀	25	0.04 \	0.02	0.01	
	14700	L ₁₄₇₀₀	50	0.02		0.02	
	23500	L ₂₃₅₀₀	100	0.01	0.01	0.01	
	27500	L ₂₇₅₀₀	200	0.005	0.005	0.01	
				- [p	[0>0] = 0.005		

Risk = 0.01
$$L_{16200}$$
 + 0.02 L_{14700} + 0.01 L_{23500} + 0.01 L_{27500}

Baseline Return Weight Set =
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.01\\0.02\\0.01\\0.01 \end{bmatrix}$$

Table 23. Evaluation of Return Weights for Flood-Frequency Sensitivity Analysis (Cont.)

-	Q Flow (cfs)	Loss for Flow Q (\$)	Return Interval (yr)	i=1,5 P[Q>Q;]	i=1,4 P[Q _i <q<q<sub>i+1]</q<q<sub>	Return Weight
+25 Percent	15000 16200 19700 23500 27500	L ₁₅₀₀₀ L ₁₆₂₀₀ L ₁₉₇₀₀ L ₂₃₅₀₀ L ₂₇₅₀₀	10 12.5 20 35 70	0.1 0.08 0.05 0.028 0.014		- 0.02 0.03 0.022 0.028
	Risk = 0.02 +25% Return		0.02 0.02 0.03 0.022 0.022 0.028	.022 L ₂₃₅₀₀	+ 0.028 L ₂₇₅₀₀	=

Table 23. Evaluation of Return Weights for Flood-Frequency Sensitivity Analysis (Cont.)

F	Q low (cfs)	Loss for Flow Q (\$)	Return Interval (yr)	i=1,5 P[Q>Q _i]	i=1,4 P[Q _i <q<q<sub>i+1]</q<q<sub>	Return Weight
	15000	L ₁₅₀₀₀	50	0.02	0.006	-
ent	16200	L ₁₆₂₀₀	70	0.014	0.000 0.0087 0.0033 0.0014	0.006
Percent	19700	L ₁₉₇₀₀	190	0.0053		0.0087
-25	23500	L ₂₃₅₀₀	500	0.002		0.0033
	27500	L ₂₇₅₀₀	1700	0.0006/		0.002
					$P[Q>Q_5] = 0.000$	06

Risk =
$$0.006 L_{16200} + 0.03 L_{19700} + 0.022 L_{23500} + 0.028 L_{27500}$$

-25% Return Weight Set = $\begin{bmatrix} 0.006 \\ 0.0087 \\ 0.0033 \\ 0.002 \end{bmatrix}$

The average daily traffic level in vehicles per day is used to determine the total dollar amount of traffic-related losses caused by inundation of candidate bridge designs. The total dollar amount of traffic-related losses forms one component of the total risk which directly affects the total economic response. A one percent change in average daily traffic level is small at 0.0127 percent.

The losses due to backwater created by flow constriction of the bridge are a component of the total risk. The baseline backwater damages are in the order of 10³ dollars in magnitude and are those associated with a real site such as Tallahalla Creek. In the sensitivity analysis these backwater damages are first multiplied by a factor of 10 to represent an urban flood plain damage pattern and then by a factor of 100 to represent industrial flood plain damage. The total economic response of the optimal bridge design is quite insensitive to changes in backwater damages even in the case of industrial flood plain development for which the risk components of the total economic response are on the same order of magnitude as the bridge construction cost. For a one percent change in backwater damages a change of 0.0121 percent in the total economic response of the optimal solution is observed.

The cost of time in dollars per hour, like the average daily traffic level, is used in determining the total dollar amount of traffic delay losses incurred by overtopping of the bridge embankments and subsequent embankment erosion. The total dollar amount of traffic delay losses comprises one component of the total risk which in turn is used to evaluate the total economic response. The input of a one percent change in the cost of time in dollars per hour on the total economic response of the optimal bridge design is quite small at 0.0013 percent.

In conclusion, the optimal bridge design for the Tallahalla site is the 300-foot bridge, 315-foot embankment height configuration for all changes in the sensitivity analysis parameters. Interest rate and bridge

cost have a major influence on the total economic response of the optimal bridge design. Changes in the flood frequency curve significantly impact the total economic response of the optimal solution, while changes in average daily traffic level, backwater damages, and cost of time produce only minor changes in the total economic response.

VI. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

SUMMARY

An engineering systems analysis technique has been developed to facilitate the economic risk analysis for highway stream crossings. The technique is based on a probabilistic approach, incorporating hydrologic, hydraulic and economic factors in the engineering analysis of bridge waterways. It relates the initial construction costs, flood-related highway losses and damage to properties from backwater to crossing design and flood frequency.

The basic concept of the risk analysis of highway stream crossing is a method to determine the economic measurement of various crossing designs at a bridge site. The economic measurement used in this study is the total economic response, defined as the sum of project construction cost and risk, on an annual basis. A design scheme giving the least total economic response is the optimal design.

The annual project construction cost is derived from the cost of bridge, approach embankments and the pavement, amortized over the project life at a given interest rate. Such a cost is generally governed by the type of bridge, bridge length, bridge width, clearance, span, geology or underlying river bed, height of the approach embankments, type of highway, and width of the valley at the crossing site. Risk is the sum of the products of the weighted probability of flood occurrence and flood-related economic losses. The determination of risk requires hydrologic,

hydraulic and economic data at and near the highway crossing site.

Tangible losses to be considered include structure damages, traffic-related (e.g., traffic stoppage or delay) losses, and flood losses.

Hydrologic data are obtained from the U. S. Geological Survey stream gaging records. Flood data are plotted on Gumbel probability paper to define the flood-frequency curve at the crossing site. Hydraulic data such as the water surface elevations and the velocities at and near the bridge site are computed by a two-dimensional Finite Element Model.

The decision variables considered for various design alternatives in this study are limited to the bridge length and embankment height. Other minor variables such as bridge type and crossing type may be incorporated in the analysis when situations warrant. The complexity of the decision matrix increases as the number of decision variables increases.

The method of risk analysis is implemented by a model in the form of a computer program using FORTRAN program language. Details of the model description and its input specifications are presented in Appendix B.

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions have been drawn from the present study:

1. The study has illustrated that the application of systems analysis techniques to provide the means for design engineer's decision-making process in highway stream crossings is feasible and practical. This report has successfully demonstrated a methodology to deal with a complex problem by a systematic simplification of the analysis.

- 2. Results of sensitivity analysis for the parameters tested reveal that the relative importance in design parameters affecting the total economic response for the example site is in the following: bridge cost, interest rate, flow frequency curve, ADT, flood losses and the cost of time. For bridges subject to inundation, results of sensitivity analysis may vary.
- 3. Because the example site is located in a rural area, the results show that the bridge cost outweighs the risk. Such an observation may not be true for bridge sites located in urban areas.
- 4. With the limited data available at the Tallahalla Creek site, the results of the example problem have indicated that the present method gives a more economic design than the conventional method. This is consistent with the results arrived at in the previous study for box culverts (13).

RECOMMENDATIONS

The research effort described herein encountered numerous problems, the solution to which should be pursued simultaneously on a twofold front. The estimation of such important variables as pier, abutment, and channel scour, embankment erosion, and bridge failure mechanisms, require work on both simplistic empirical formulations and basic research to develop methodology that is generally applicable to the wide range of conditions normally encountered. Of course, this should not delay the application of current technology to solving present day problems. It is only in this way that the needed data-base can be assembled from which new techniques can be established and tested. In most cases the methodology employed in this report is not generally applicable to all cases but must be calibrated by a trial and error process to the bridge site under study. Ideally, as more information is gained, the difficulty in estimating important parameters will be alleviated by a compilation of a set of "Handbook" values applicable to a wide range of situations. Specific recommendations in this regard follow:

- A more phenomenologically oriented method for calculating embankment erosion is needed. The method used here is a loglinear relationship developed as a function of velocity. Additional study is required to either improve this empirical relationship or to develop alternative approaches.
- 2. Presently, only pier scour is included in the Risk analysis.

 Abutment and channel scour should also be included in the analysis.

 An approach such as proposed by Laursen (15) would be a useful addition to the analysis.
- 3. Bridge damage, caused by inundation, is handled in only a superficial manner. However, the method accurately quantifies the amount of information presently available describing this problem. This presents an area where basic research and evaluation of data is urgently needed.
- 4. In order to move the model from a research tool to a field implementable one, it is recommended that additional sites be analyzed with the present techniques. This will provide a basis for the improvement of present methods and will allow valuable input by field engineers into the structure of the model.
- 5. The hydraulic model should be simplified in order to reduce the cost of analysis. Such a simplification could be made by compiling hydraulic data covering a wide range of field design conditions by the use of the Finite Element Model developed under this contract.

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GLOSSARY OF MATHEMATICAL TERMS

a_o = Constant a_1 = Coefficient for area (x_1) a_2 = Coefficient for area (x_2) a_3 = Coefficient for area (x_3) a_4 = Coefficient for area (x_4) a_5 = Coefficient for area (x_5) A_o = Intercept coefficient A_1 = Slope coefficient b = Eroded roadway width b_n = Width of retangular pier B = Embankment width B_3 = Abutment, footing and pier costs B_4 = Protective measure costs (spur dikes and riprap) C_a = Cost adjustment factor $C_f = Original cost of fill$ $C_r = Original cost of roadway$ C_s = Cost of bridge superstructure CRF = Capital recovery factor D_i = Loss incurred due to occurrence of state of nature j d = Flood head above roadway

 d_f = Pile length required for nominal scour depth

d_s = Depth of scour

E = Embankment erosion (tons/ft/day)

G = Cost per unit pile length

H = Fill height

 H_i = Fill height at station i

i = Interest rate

L = Bridge length

 L_i = Length of bridge embankment element i

 L_b = Bridge damage

 P_{j} = Probability of occurrence of state of nature j

Q = Flow

 $Q_p = Peak flow$

 r_i = Recurrence interval associated with given flow Q_r

R_i = Risk for strategy i

RW = Roadway length

R = Risk

 S_1 , S_2 = Side slope of embankment fill

T = Time of overtopping

 $T_b = Flood duration$

 T_{c} = Time of concentration

 T_{D} = Time to peak

 T_r = Time between peak flow and end of hydrograph

TER = Total economic response function

V = Velocity in ft/sec

- V_e = Erosion threshold velocity
- y = Submergence of bridge deck
- α = Empirical constant for embankment erosion for cohesive soil
- β = Empirical constant for embankment erosion for cohesionless soil
- γ = Correlation coefficient
- ζ = Coefficient for bridge damage due to inundation
- $\sigma_{\rm VX}$ = Standard error for bridge cost regression



U. S. DEPARTMENT OF TRANSPORTATION

FEDERAL HIGHWAY ADMINISTRATION

FEDERAL-AID HIGHWAY PROGRAM MANUAL

VOLUME	6	ENGINEERING AND TRAFFIC OPERATIONS		
CHAPTER	7	BRIDGE, STRUCTURES AND HYDRAULICS		
SECTION	3	HYDRAULICS, EROSION CONTROL AND WATER QUALITY		

Subsection 2

HYDRAULIC DESIGN OF HIGHWAY ENCROACHMENTS ON FLOOD PLAINS

Transmittal 30 May 29, 1974

HNG - 31

Par. 1. Purpose

2. Authority

3. Policy

4. Definitions

5. Design Standards

6. Studies and Reports

7. Federal Participation in Construction Costs

1. PURPOSE

The purpose of this directive is to prescribe policies and procedures for hydraulic designs for highway projects constructed with Federal-aid funds and projects under the direct supervision of the Federal Highway Administration.

2. <u>AUTHORITY</u>

This is issued under authority of 23 U.S.C. 109(a), 315, 23 CFR 1.32, 49 CFR 1.48(b)(8) and implements Executive Order 11296 (August 10, 1966, 3 CFR, Part II).

3. POLICY

A. Pursuant to Executive Order 11296, it is the policy of the Federal Highway Administration to encourage a broad and unified effort to prevent uneconomic, hazardous or unnecessary use and development of the Nation's flood plains, and in particular to lessen the risk of flood losses in connection with Federally-financed or supported improvements; and to comply with the "Flood Hazard Evaluation Guidelines for Federal Executive Agencies," May 1972, published by the Water Resources Council. (See Attachment 1)

Federal-Aid Highway Program Manual Vol. 6, Chap. 7, Sec. 3, Subsec. 2
Transmittal 30, May 29, 1974 Par. 3b

b. It is the policy of the Federal Highway Administration that, where practicable, highway locations shall avoid areas subject to flooding.

4. DEFINITIONS

- a. The term "basic flood" shall mean the 100-year flood.
- b. The term "conveyance of the basic flood" shall mean the ability to accommodate passage of the 100-year flood.
 - (1) Conveyance may be through structures or both through structures and over the highway.
 - (2) Conveyance along a highway may include inundation of the highway.
- c. The term "design flood" shall mean the peak discharge, volume (if appropriate), and stage or wave crest elevation of the flood associated with the recurrency interval selected for the design of a highway encroachment on a flood plain. By definition, the highway will not be subjected to inundation from the stage of the design flood.
- d. The term "flood plain" shall mean (1) the valley area adjacent to a stream or river subject to overflow, (2) an area adjacent to a lake, an estuary, an ocean, or similar body of water subject to high tides, surges, tsunamis, or any combination of these; or (3) an area where the path of the next flood flow is unpredictable, as in a debris cone, an alluvial cone or fan, a debris slope, or a talus.
- e. The term "encroachment" shall mean a highway and/or appurtenant feature within the limits of a flood plain.

5. DESIGN STANDARDS

- a. Where encroachment on a flood plain is necessary, an evaluation, using the basic flood, shall be made of the flood hazard to the highway, and the effect of the proposed highway on the flood hazard to other property, stream stability, and the stream and flood plain environment. (See Attachment 2)
- b. The design flood selected for each encroachment and the design for conveyance of the basic flood should be supported by the following, where applicable: an incremental analysis of estimated construction costs; probable property damage including damage to the highway; the cost of traffic delays; the availability of alternate routes, emergency supply and evacuation routes; and with consideration of the potential for loss of life and of budgetary constraints.

Federal-Aid Highway Program Manual Transmittal 30, May 29, 1974 Vol. 6, Chap. 7, Sec. 3, Subsec. 2 Par. 5k

- k. Buildings, waste treatment facilities and other high cost installations or potential major source of pollution for highway rest areas shall be located outside the flood plain or flood proofed against damage from the basic flood.
- 1. Where highway fills are to be used to form dams or levees, appropriate permits, with regard to water rights, impoundments, and diversions shall be obtained. Prior to authorization by the Division Engineer, the hydrologic, hydraulic, and structural design of the fill and appurtenant spillways, shall have the approval of the State or Federal agency responsible for the safety of dams or like structures within the State.

6. STUDIES AND REPORTS

- a. Reports shall be prepared by the State highway department or its agent showing (I) hydrologic and hydraulic data and design computations, (2) the analysis of the highway effect on stream stability, and (3) the favorable or adverse effects on the stream environment.
- b. The reports and design computations shall be retained in the highway agency's permanent design files for the project, and upon request made available to the Federal Highway Administration for review. Copies of these reports shall accompany preliminary plans which require regional or Washington office approval.
- C. The reports shall be commensurate with the importance of the structure and the risk to life and property. Less comprehensive reports are appropriate for encroachments on minor streams and at locations where the risk of property damage or loss of the highway is small.

7. FEDERAL PARTICIPATION IN CONSTRUCTION COSTS

a. Federal-aid participation in cooperative projects using the highway fill to provide for flood control or water resource development will be limited to the pro rata share of the estimated cost to construct the highway only.

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- c. All highways that encroach on flood plains, bodies of water or streams shall be designed to permit conveyance of the basic flood without causing significant damage to the highway, the stream, body of water, or other property.
- d. At each location where the highway will encroach upon a flood plain, project plans shall show (1) the magnitude, frequency, and water surface elevations for the design flood and the basic flood, if different from the design flood, and (2) the magnitude, water surface elevations and date of occurrence of the flood of record, if greater than the basic flood.
- e. The effects of existing flood control channels, levees, and reservoirs shall be considered in estimating the peak discharge and stage for all floods considered in the design.
- f. All highways on the Interstate System that encroach on flood plains shall be designed to avoid inundation of the highway from floods at least as great as the 50-year flood.
- g. Encroachments on flood plains by ramps for traffic interchange with Interstate highways may be designed to permit inundation of the ramp from floods smaller than the 50-year flood where traffic service would not be unduly reduced and where the highest standards of service are not warranted for the crossroad.
- h. Encroachments on flood plains by Interstate highway service roads or frontage roads should be designed to permit inundation of the road from floods smaller than the 50-year flood except at locations where lower design standards for the service road would interfere with the performance of hydraulic structures for the Interstate roadway or where higher standards can be shown to be warranted.
- i. Highways, other than those on the Interstate System, which encroach on flood plains, may be designed to permit inundation by floods smaller than the 50-year flood, where lower standards are warranted.
- j. Ramps, parking and picnic areas for rest areas may be designed to be inundated by overbank flow in the flood plain, dependent upon the expected duration of flooding, expected cleanup and repair costs and the hazard to users. Precautions should be taken to insure that benches, tables, trash barrels and other furnishings do not become waterborne debris during floods.

The following extracts from "Flood Hazard Evaluation Guidelines for Federal Executive Agencies," United States Water Resources Council, May, 1972, are applicable to the location, design and construction of Federal and Federal-aid highways. The WRC publication has been distributed by various sources. Additional copies are available from FHWA on request.

- "(1) Determine first, ..., whether there is any need to evaluate the flood hazard at the site or structure location being considered."
- "(3) Use the following to identify and evaluate the flood hazard:"
 - "(3A) The 100-year flood as the basic flood:"
- "(3B) The flood hazard zone, defined as the area inundated by the basic flood:"
- "(3C 2) In the Case Approach, a procedure to assure that any encroachment on the flood plain will permit conveyance of the basic flood without increasing flood heights or velocities to an extent which would cause significant upstream or downstream damage to existing or reasonably anticipated future development:"
- "(3D) Floods greater or less than the basic flood as appropriate."
- "(4) Determine whether there are existing laws or statutes of the Federal Government, rules or regulations of other Federal agencies, or laws, statutes, ordinances, etc., of State or local governments that provide standards for regulation of the floodplain under study. In cases where those standards are either more stringent than those based on these guidelines, or are applicable to situations or conditions not covered by these guidelines, they should be considered for the evaluation of flood hazard in that area."
- "(5) Decide on the conditions under which an evaluation must be made to determine the impacts of including or excluding the use of site in a floodplain. Such evaluation must demonstrate clearly that the use of the site is to the advantage of society as well as to the user of such site."

- "(6) Select the floods to be used in a flood hazard evaluation to fit conditions of the area being investigated."
- "(10) Determine the effects of proposed highway construction in the floodplain and its vicinity, and of proposed upstream or local flood prevention or control measures, if any, on the elevations of the evaluation floods."
- "(12) Adopt the policy of discouraging the construction of those roads, utilities, and other public facilities (except those crossing streams) within the most hazardous portions of the flood-plain that aggravate flooding and encourage undesirable developments in that zone."
- "(14) Delineate, or ensure the delineation of, on Federally owned properties, the elevation of the 100-year flood, and the elevations and dates of occurrence of floods of record whose magnitudes should be known by the public."
- "(15) Encourage State and local agencies to keep a permanent record of information on each floodplain evaluated, the flood hazard evaluation procedure and decisions, the flood prevention or control measures proposed for upstream or local construction, the flood elevation/delineations..."

Checklist for Drainage Studies and Reports

(This is a checklist of items to be considered for inclusion in hydraulic studies and reports. Numbers in parenthesis indicate references cited at the end of the checklist).

- 1. Preliminary drainage surveys (1)
 - a. Investigate potential problems
 - (1) Flood hazard land use and development in flood plain, flood hazard studies (2)
 - (2) Channel stability bank stability, bends and meanders, aggradation, degradation, necessity for channel change.
 - (3) Effects on the environment, fish and other wildlife, domestic water supplies, recreational resources, etc.
 - (4) Debris and ice
 - (5) Skew of crossing
 - b. Coordination with other agencies
 - (1) Permits required
 - (2) Existing and proposed water resource projects (PPM 50-4.2 (Volume 6, Chapter 1, Section 1, Subsection 4, of the Federal-Aid Highway Program Manual))
 - (3) Possibility of cooperative projects
- 2. Design
 - a. Site data
 - (1) Vicinity map
 - (a) Purpose to show proposed highway alinement and reach of river, bends and stream meanders, general flow directions
 - (b) Type
 - 1. USGS quadrangle sheet or map of equal detail

2. Aerial photo

- (2) Site map:
 - (a) Purpose for use in estimating flood flow distribution; to locate cross sections of stream; to show location of proposed encroachment and structure(s), alinement of piers, skew of crossing, stream controls, existing encroachments, existing highway structures
 - (b) Type
 - 1. Specially prepared map showing 1- or 2-foot contours, vegetation and manmade improvements
 - 2. In some cases, cross sections normal to floodflow are acceptable in lieu of map. A minimum of three sections are desirable including cross sections upstream, at crossing, and downstream
- /(3) Existing structures (including relief or overflow structures):
 - (a) Locate existing structures with respect to proposed crossing or encroachment
 - (b) Describe each fully, giving-
 - 1. Type, including span lengths and number of spans, bent design, pier orientation, culvert size, number of cells
 - Foundation type (spread footing, piling) founding depth
 - 3. Scour history at abutments and bents, culvert outlets; head cutting; stream aggradation, degradation
 - 4. Cross section beneath structures, noting clearance to superstructure and skew with direction of current during extreme floods

- 5. Flood history, highwater marks (dates and elevation), nature of flooding (including overtopping), damages and sources of information
- 6. Damage from abrasion, corrosion, wingwall failure, culvert end failure
- (4) Locate and determine elevations of highwater marks along stream, giving dates of occurrence
 - (a) Describe or list critical flood elevations of interest in evaluating possible damage (record datum used)
 - (b) Refer to flood hazard studies for area⁽²⁾
- (5) Comment on drift, ice, nature of streambed, bank stability, bends, meanders, vegetative cover, land use
- (6) Photographs showing existing structures, past floods, main channel and flood plain to help in evaluating a location and documenting conditions existing prior to construction
- (7) List factors affecting water stages
 - (a) Highwater from other streams
 - (b) Reservoirs existing or proposed and approximate date of construction
 - (c) Flood control projects (give status)
 - (d) Tides
 - (e) Other controls
- b. Hydrologic analysis (site inspection should be made by engineer making hydrologic and hydraulic analysis) (3) (7)
 - (1) List available flood records
 - (2) Determine drainage area above proposed construction (3)

- (3) Evaluate potential for changes in watershed characteristics which would change magnitude of flood peaks; e.g., urbanization, channelization
- (4) Plot flood-frequency curve
- (5) Plot stage-discharge-frequency curve
- (6) Determine distribution of flow and velocities for several discharges or stages in natural channel for existing conditions
- c. Hydraulic analysis
 - (1) Design of bridge waterways (5)
 - (a) Determine permissible upstream water surface elevations
 - (b) Compute backwater for various trial bridge lengths and discharges
 - (c) Select design flood and waterway design (Paragraph 4.c.)
 - (d) Provide for conveyance of 100-year flood
 - (e) Estimate scour depth at piers and abutments (6)
 - (f) Design riprap for bank protection and scour attenuation devices, if required.
 - (g) Investigate need for spur dikes
 - (h) Show final layout in plan and profile
 - 1. Show design discharge, elevations, and frequency
 - 2. Show discharge and elevations of 100-year flood
 - (i) Comment on:
 - $\underline{1}$. Selection of design flood
 - 2. Conveyance of 100-year flood
 - <u>3</u>. Channel change (if provided)

- 4. Effects of construction
- 5. Need for stream controls to protect highway
- (2) Design of culverts
 - (a) Determine allowable headwater elevation
 - (b) Compute and plot performance curves for trial culvert sizes (4)
 - (c) Evaluate abrasion and corrosion potential
 - (d) Select design flood and culvert design (Paragraph 4.c.)
 - (e) Provide for conveyance of 100-year flood
 - (f) Evaluate need for debris control
 - (g) Evaluate need for outlet protection
 - (h) Investigate need for protection against buoyancy and/or failure by separation at joints (9)
 - (i) Show final layout in plan and profile
 - 1. Show design discharge, elevations, and frequency
 - 2. Show discharge and elevations of 100-year flood
 - (j) Comment on:
 - 1. Selection of design flood
 - 2. Conveyance of 100-year flood
 - 3. Channel change (if provided)
 - 4. Effects on stream stability
 - 5. Provision for fish passage
- (3) Design of longitudinal encroachments

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- (a) Determine the effect of proposed encroachment on water-surface profile using various roadway design alternatives
- (b) Select design flood and roadway design (Paragraph 4.c.)
- (c) Provide for conveyance of 100-year flood
- (d) Evaluate effects on scour and deposition in channel
- (e) Design embankment, bank and channel protection needed
- (f) Show final layout in plan and profile
 - 1. Show design discharge, elevations, and frequency
 - 2. Show discharge and elevations of 100-year flood
- (g) Comment on:
 - 1. Selection of design flood
 - 2. Conveyance of 100-year flood
 - 3. Channel change (if provided)
 - 4. Effects on stream stability
 - 5. Effects on stream biology

REFERENCES

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- 2. For information regarding flood plain delineation studies, write to: Department of Housing and Urban Development, Federal Insurance Administration, Assistant Administrator for Flood Insurance, 451 Seventh Street, SW, Washington, D.C. 20410.

- 3. Guidelines for Hydrology, Volume II, Highway Drainage Guidelines, AASHTO, 1973.
- 4. a. Herr, Lester A. and Bossy, Herbert G., Hydraulic Charts for the Selection of Highway Culverts, Hydraulic Engineering Circular No. 5, Federal Highway Administration, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1965, 54 p.
 - b. Herr, Lester A. and Bossy, Herbert G., Capacity Charts for the Hydraulic Design of Highway Culverts, Hydraulic Engineering Circular No. 10, Federal Highway Administration, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1965, 90 p.
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- 7. Flood-frequency analysis, such as those of U.S. Geological Survey or other water-resources agencies, for the region in which the structure is located.
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- 9. Circular Memorandum, G. M. Williams, July 21, 1966, Plans for Pipe Culvert Inlet and Outlet Structures, Federal Highway Administration.

APPENDIX B

RISK MODULE USER'S MANUAL

INTRODUCTION

A computer program called RISK has been developed using FORTRAN programming language to facilitate the computation for the risk analysis described in this volume. The information flow to the RISK module and the logic flow of the module with subroutine flowcharts and descriptions are discussed in the General Description Section. A detailed description of the necessary user-supplied input data along with a sample input data set are included with a definition of variables and a program listing.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION

The RISK module accesses two types of information. The first is information supplied by the FEM hydraulic solution by means of the hydraulic tape and the second is the necessary user-supplied data for the RISK analysis. The information flow of the RISK module is shown in Figure 23.

The RISK module consists of one main calling program, four function routines, and eight subroutines as indicated in Table 24. The detailed logic of the RISK program is shown in Figure 24.

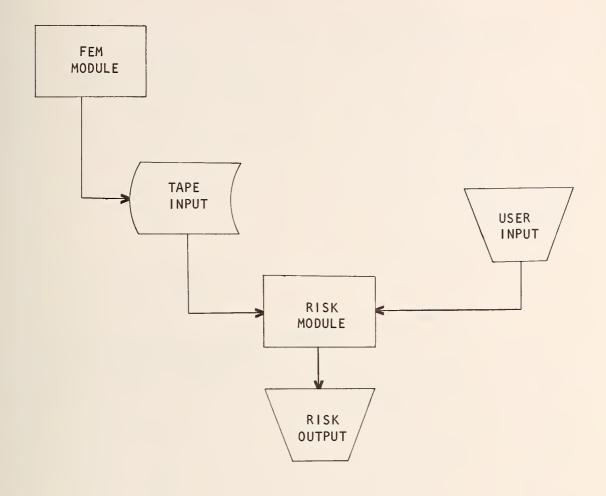


Figure 23 RISK Module Information Flow

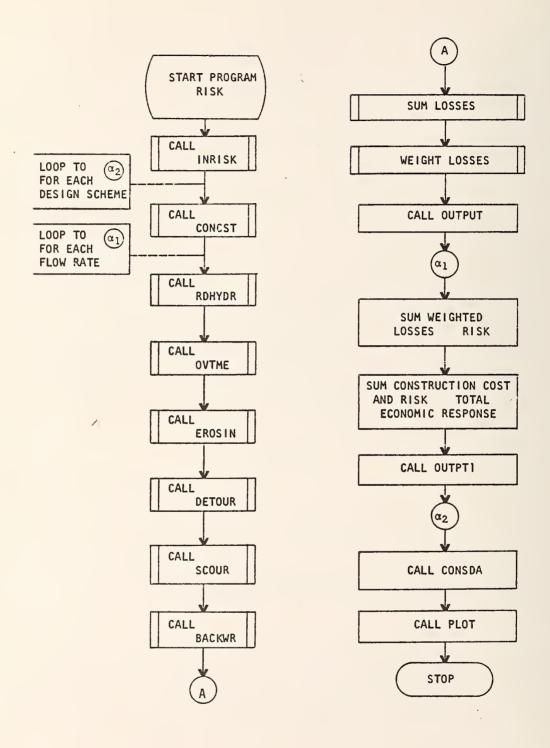


Figure 24 Main Program RISK

Table 24 Program RISK

Main	Functions	Subroutines	
RISK	DETOUR	INRISK	
	CONCST	RHYDR	
	BACKWR	OVTME	
	SCOUR	EROSIN	
		OUTPUT	
		OUTPT1	
		CONSDA	
		PLOT	

Upon entrance to the RISK program the INRISK subroutine is called to read the user-supplied input data. The program flow enters the α_2 loop and the CONCST routine is called to determine the cost of the given bridge configuration being considered. The program then enters the α_1 loop in which a set of flows is considered to evaluate the associated risk components. For each flow considered, the RDHYDR routine is called to read the hydraulic solution provided by the FEM module. Next, the OVTME routine is called to calculate the overtopping time for each embankment section following which the erosion losses and the necessary repair time are determined in the EROSIN routine. Traffic delay losses are then calculated in the DETOUR routine. Following the DETOUR routine, the SCOUR routine is called to determine the scour losses for the given flow with the backwater property damage determined in the BACKWR routine. All of the above losses are then summed and weighted and the OUTPUT routine is called to print the results for each flow. After all flows have been considered the program exits the α_1 loop. All weighted losses are then summed to give the total risk for the considered bridge configuration. The resulting total risk is printed in the OUTPUT1 routine. After all bridge configurations have been considered, the α_2 loop is exited and

a consolidated summary of results for all bridge designs is printed in the CONSDA routine. The user has the option to plot the summary results in the PLOT routine. Upon completion of the PLOT routine the program is terminated.

SUBROUTINE INRISK

INRISK is a subroutine called by the main program RISK. This subroutine reads and echoes all user input. The necessary user input is shown in the flowchart in Figure 25. The detailed input card formats are discussed in subsequent sections.

FUNCTION CONCST

This function evaluates the total cost of the particular bridge superstructure and substructure by means of a regression equation or a user specified function. The embankment fill volume is calculated for each embankment section. The fill volumes are then added to obtain a total embankment fill volume. This total fill volume is then converted to a dollar value on the basis of a per unit fill volume cost for embankment fill. The length of roadway is calculated for both embankments and over the bridge. The roadway cost is determined by multiplying the roadway length by a per unit length cost factor. The bridge costs, the embankment fill costs, and the roadway costs are summed and converted to an equivalent annual cost using a specified project life and interest rate by the capital recovery factor. If the bridge has piles which are driven to bedrock to prevent scour damage (TYP=0), this additional cost is added to the bridge construction cost computed above. The flowchart for this function is shown in Figure 26.

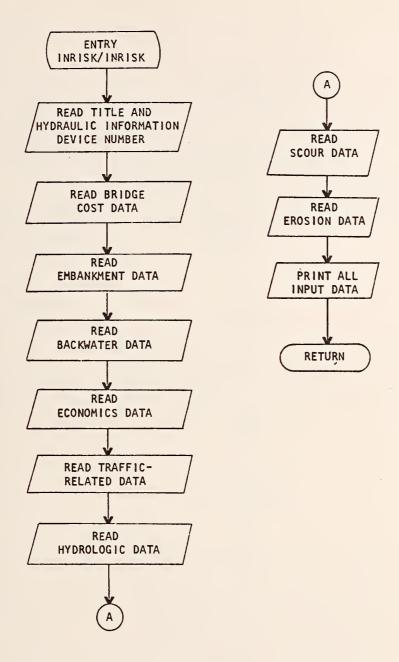


Figure 25. Subroutine INRISK Flowchart

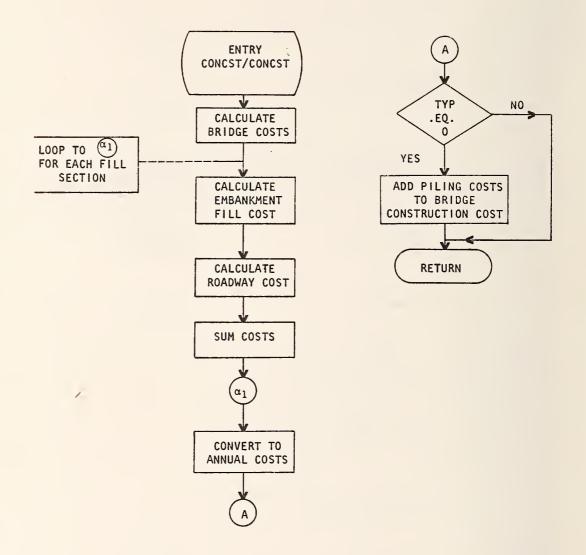


Figure 26. Construction Cost Subroutine

SUBROUTINE RDHYDR

This subroutine accesses the hydraulic tape for each flow-embankment opening combination. An indicator (ICK) to represent whether overtopping of the embankments has occurred is read along with the number of possible overtopping nodes, NP. The x and z velocity components of flow, water surface depth, and water surface elevation are then read from the hydraulic tape for each overtopping node in the particular configuration. The flow-chart for this subroutine is shown in Figure 27.

SUBROUTINE OVTME

Subroutine OVTME calculates the amount of time an embankment section was overtopped. It then examines the overtopping time for each embankment section and the bridge itself to determine the maximum overtopping time. The flowchart is shown in Figure 28.

SUBROUTINE EROSIN

The EROSIN subroutine calculates the amount of erosion by embankment section. It also calculates the roadway loss in each section of the embankment. It determines a total percentage of fill volume lost by erosion and uses this percentage to determine the time to repair the embankments. The losses due to erosion, namely, fill volume losses and roadway losses, are summed and multiplied by a weighting factor to determine the erosion risk component. The flowchart for this subroutine is shown in Figure 29.

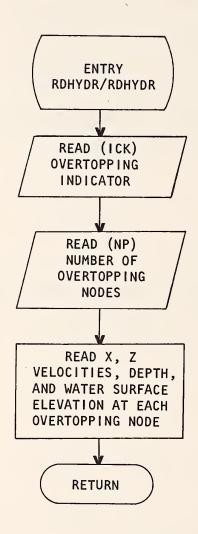


Figure 27. Subroutine RDHYDR Flowchart

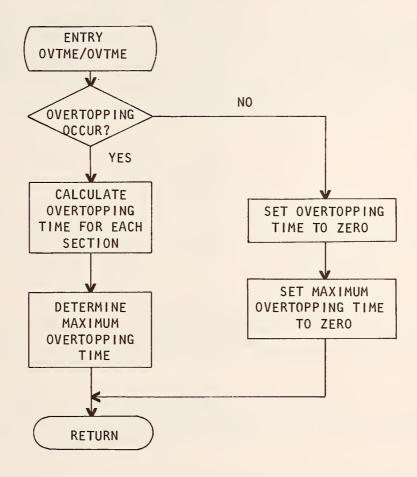


Figure 28. Subroutine OVTME Flowchart

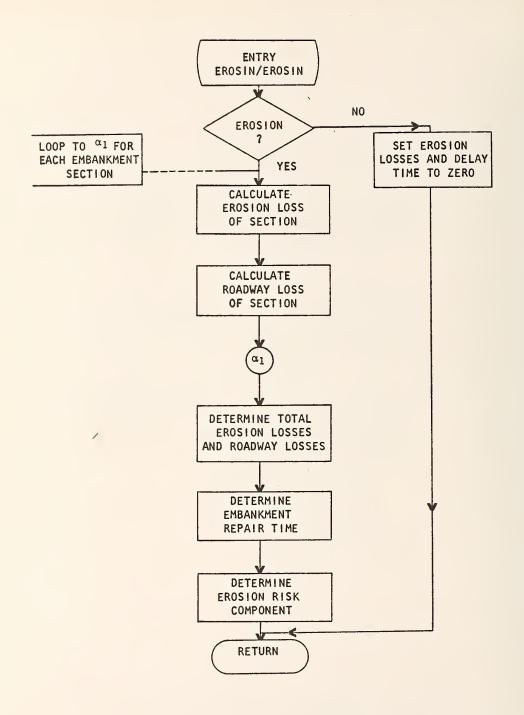


Figure 29 . Subroutine EROSIN Flowchart

FUNCTION DETOUR

The function DETOUR calculates the cost of traffic delay caused by embankment overtopping. Traffic-related losses are divided into four categories: 1) detour travel cost, 2) detour accident costs, 3) unexpected obstacle cost, and 4) cost of time delay. All four traffic-related losses are summed and multiplied by a weighting factor to determine the DETOUR risk component. The flowchart for this function is shown in Figure 30.

FUNCTION SCOUR

This function computes the pier scour damage caused by flooding of each bridge and embankment configuration. Three types of bridge foundations are considered:

- 1. Piles are driven to bedrock and no scour damage is assumed to occur. The data input refers to this type as Type "0". The cost of piles should be added to the bridge construction cost.
- The second type has either the footing on bedrock or countermeasures being taken to prevent pier scour. Again pier scour damages are assumed negligible. Data input refers to this type as Type "1".
- 3. The third type considers piles driven into alluvial soil where the possibility of scour is a certainty. Data input refers to this type as Type "2". Maximum scour, taken from input data, is compared with the pier scour depth calculated by the function SCOUR. This calculation is derived from Laursens "Scour at Bridge Crossings", (15).

If the scour depth is greater than the maximum scour depth the bridge is assumed lost, if not a scour repair cost is determined. All scour costs incurred are multiplied by a weighting factor to determine the scour risk component. The flowchart of the routes is shown in Figure 31 This function also estimates bridge damage due to submergence and includes it as a component of the initial scour damage.

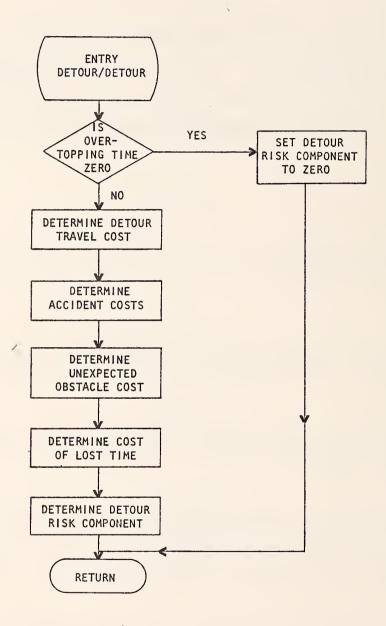


Figure 30. Function DETOUR Flowchart

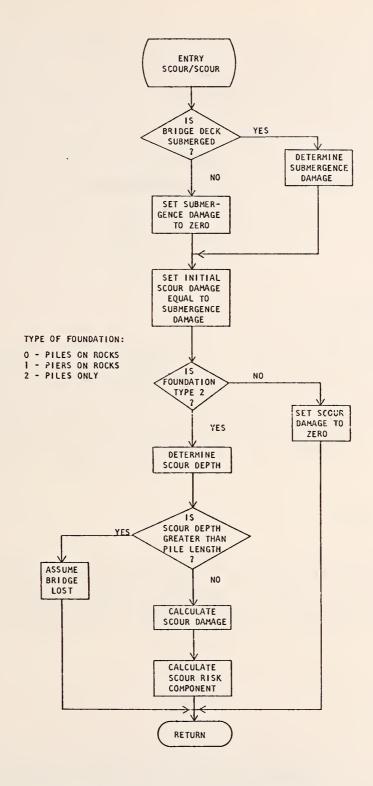


Figure 31. Function SCOUR Flowchart

FUNCTION BACKWR

This function returns the backwater damage due to a particular flood event for a particular bridge configuration. The actual backwater damage calculations are performed manually by the analyst using the normal runs of the FEM model and consulting the corresponding runs for each particular bridge configuration. The results of these manual calculations are input to subroutine INRISK which passes the information to BACKWR. BACKWR selects the appropriate backwater damage and multiplies the damage by a weighting factor and returns the result to the main RISK program as the backwater risk component. The flowchart is shown in Figure 32.

SUBROUTINE OUTPUT

This subroutine prints for the given bridge configuration the overtopping time and the time duration of the resulting delay for the given storm event. The detour, scour, erosion, and backwater risk components and the total risk component associated with the storm are then printed. The flowchart for this subroutine is shown in Figure 33.

SUBROUTINE OUTPUT1

This subroutine prints for the given bridge configuration the results of the risk analysis. The total economic response, the construction costs and the total risk are printed. The flowchart is shown in Figure 34.

SUBROUTINE CONSDA

This subroutine prints a consolidated table of the risk analysis results for each bridge configuration. The decision variables, the total economic response, construction cost and total risk are output for each bridge design. The flow and return frequency for all storms used in the

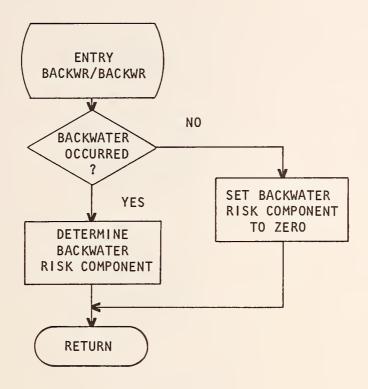


Figure 32. Function BACKWR Flowchart

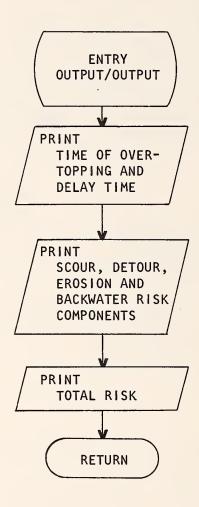


Figure 33. Subroutine OUTPUT Flowchart

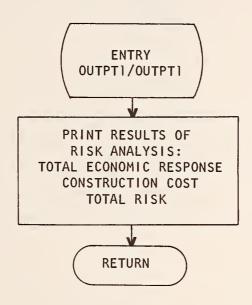


Figure 34. Subroutine OUTPT1 Flowchart

risk analysis are then printed. The project life and interest rate for calculating the equivalent annual cost of the bridge are output next. This subroutine is shown in the flowchart in Figure 35.

SUBROUTINE PLOT

The PLOT subroutine provides the model users with the option to obtain plots of total economic response versus embankment height for a fixed bridge length, and total economic response versus bridge length for a fixed embankment height. The user may bypass the plot option if desired. The flowchart for this subroutine is shown in Figure 36.

USER INPUT DATA DESCRIPTION

The following description indicates the exact FORTRAN card format to be used by the RISK module. All user-supplied input is accessed on logical unit 5. In the preparation of card input data all integer variables should be right justified in the card columns indicated.

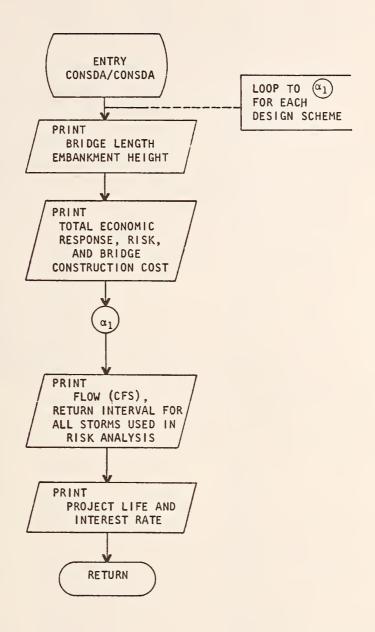


Figure 35. Subroutine CONSDA Flowchart

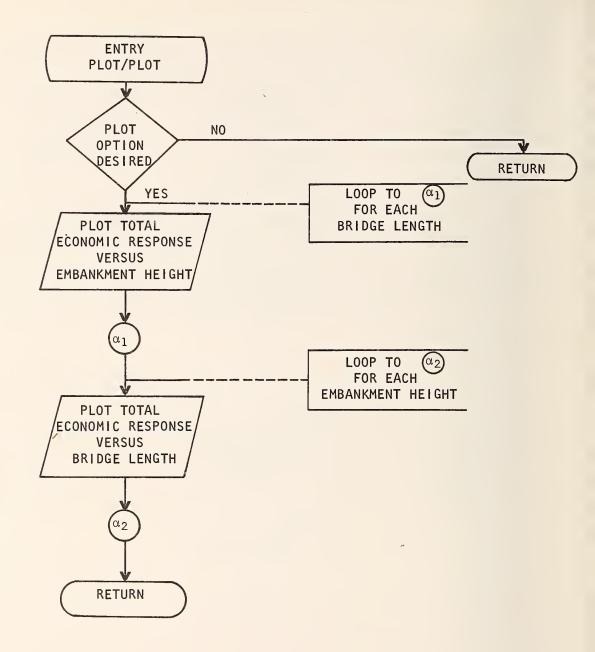


Figure 36. Subroutine PLOT Flowchart

Card Sequence: Number of Cards	Card Columns	FORTRAN Name	For <mark>mat</mark> Type	Description of Input Value
1:1	5-80	TITLE(1,20)	А	Header Information
1:2	5-80	TITLE(2,20)	А	Header Information
2:1	21-25	ITYPE	I	Input Tape File
2:1	26-30	IBC	I	Bridge Cost Function: 1User Supplied Bridge Cost Function 0Model Supplied Bridge Cost Function
3:1	1-10	NLEN	I	Number of Bridge Lengths
3:2	1-10	FLEN(1)	F	Bridge Length 1
3:2	11-20	FLEN(2)	F	Bridge Length 2
3:2	21-30	FLEN(3)	F	Bridge Length 3
3:2	31-40	FLEN(4)	F	Bridge Length 4
3:2	41-50	FLEN(5)	F	Bridge Length 5
4:1*	11-20	B(1,I)	Ε	Coefficient for Bridge Superstructure Cost
4:2	11-20	B(2,I)	Ε	Coefficient 2 for Bridge Superstructure Cost
4:3	11-20	B(3,I)	Ε	Pier, Footing and Abut- ment Costs
4:4	11-20	B(4,I)	E	Spur Dike Cost
5:1	11-20	RWCST	F	Dollar Cost/Foot for Paved Roadway
5:1	21-30	CY	F	Dollar Cost/Yard ³ of Fill
5:1	31-40	VSLP	F	Upstream Embankment Slope in %
5:1	41-50	VSLP	F	Downstream Embankment Slope in %
5:1	51-60	BWID	F	Average Bridge Width (ft)
6:1	1-10	NFLFR	I	Number of Flows
6:2	1-10	FLFR(1,1)	F	Flow 1
6:2	11-20	FLFR(1,2)	F	Weight 1

^{*}Repeated for each candidate bridge design for IBC=1. Ignore card group 3 if IBC=0.

Card Sequence: Number of Cards	Card Columns	FORTRAN Name	Format Type	Description of Input Values
6:2	21-30	FLFR(2,1)	F	Flow 2
6:2	31-40	FLFR(2,2)	F	Weight 2
6:2	41-50	FLFR(3,1)	F	Flow 3
6:2	51-60	FLFR(3,2)	F	Weight 3
6:2	61-70	FLFR(4,1)	F	Flow 4
6:2	71-80	FLFR(4,2)	F	Weight 4
6:3	1-10	FLFR(5,1)	F	Flow 5
6:3	11-20	FLFR(5,2)	F	Weight 5
6:3	21-30	FLFR(6,1)	F	Flow 6
6:3	31-40	FLFR(6,2)	F	Weight 6
7:1*	1-5	NMB(4)	I	Number of Different Embankments
8:1*	11-20	EMB(4,1)	F	Delta Embankment Height l
8:2	21-30	EMB(4,2)	F	Delta Embankment Height 2
8:3	31-40	EMB(4,3)	F	Delta Embankment Height 3
9:1*	1-5	NC(4)	I	Bridge Clearance
9:1*	6-15	CEN(4)	F	Number of Nodes to Center of Bridge
10:1*	1-5	NNDS(4)	I	Number of Overtopping Nodes
11:1*	5-10	NVP(4,40)	I	Overtopping Nodes
11:1	11-20	BTEL(4,40)	F	Bottom Embankment Elevations
11:1	21-30	BTL(4,40)	F	Distance Between Embank- ment Nodes
11:1	31-40	WELEV(4,40)	F	Top Embankment Elevations

^{*}Card Groups 7 through 11 are repeated for each bridge length.

Card Sequence:	Card	FORTRAN	Format	Description of Input Values
Number of Cards	Columns	Name	Type	
12:60 _{max}	21-40	DAM(60)	E	Backwater Damages

Note: Expected order is by bridge opening, embankment height and flow.

<u>Opening</u>	Embankment Ht	<u>Flow</u>
1	1	1
1	1	2
1	2	1
1	2	2
2	1	1
2	1	2
2	2	1
2	2	2

Thus for 2 flows, 2 openings, and 2 embankment heights, 8 damage values would be expected in the above order. Damages for the nonconstricted case (no bridge in place) are listed first by flow.

12:61	1-3	END	А	Indicates End of Damage Information
13:1	11-20	PLIFE	F	Project Life (yr)
13:1	21-30	RATE	F	Interest Rate (%)
13:1	31-40	TC	٧	Value of Time (\$/hr)
14:1	21-30	TRF(1)	F	Average Traffic Level (Vehicle/day)
14:2	21-30	TRF(2)	F	Passenger Car Fraction of Total Traffic Level (0-1)
14:3	21-30	TRF(3)	F	Commercial Delivery Vehicle Fraction of Total Traffic Level (0-1)
14:4	21-30	TRF(4)	F	Single Unit Truck Fraction of Total Traffic Level (0-1)
14:5	21-30	TRF(5)	F	Gasoline Truck Fraction of Total Traffic Level (0-1)

Card Sequence: Number of Cards	Card Columns	FORTRAN Name	Format Type	Description of Input Values
14:6	21-30	TRF(6)	F.	Diesel Semitrailers Fraction of Total Traffic Level (0-1)
14:7	21-30	TRF(7)	F	Normal Travel Distance (Miles)
14:8	21-30	TRF(8)	F	Normal Route Speed (mph)
15:1	1-10	DRATN	F	Normal Death Rate (Deaths/100 Million Vehicle Miles)
15:1	11-20	PERINN	F	Number of Personal Injuries/Death-Normal Case
15:1	21-30	PRODAN	F	Number of Property Damages/Death-Normal Case
15:1	31-40	PERINU	F	Number of Personal Injuries/Death-Unexpected Obstacle Case
15:1	41-50	PRODAU	F	Number of Property Damages/Death-Unexpected Obstacle Case
15:1	51-60	DRATU	F	Unexpected Obstacle Death Rate Multiplier (Deaths Unexpected Obstacle/Normal Rate)
15:1	61-70	DEATH	F	Cost of Death
15:1	71-80	CPERI	F	Cost of a Personal Injury
15:2	1-10	CPRODM	F	Cost of Property Damage
16:1	21-30	WCL	F	Length of Longest Water- course (Miles)
16:1	31-40	WCH	F	Elevation Difference of Longest Watercourse (ft)
17:1	1-10	ТҮР	F	 O - Piles Rest on Solid Rock 1 - Footing on Solid Rock 2 - Solid Rock not Found
17:1	11-20	CSCR	F	<pre>\$Cost/ft of Pile for TYP-0 \$Cost/ft of Scour for TYP-2</pre>

Card Sequence: Number of Cards	Card Column	FORTRAN Name	Format Type	Description of Input Value
17:1	21-30	HSCR	F	Maximum Scour Depth for TYP-2
17:1	31-40	NSCR	I	Node at Which Velocity is Used for Scour Calculations
17:1	41-50	WSCR	F	Width of Rectangular Pier Facing Upstream
17:1	51-60	NPILE	Ι	Number of Piles for TYP-0
17:1	61-70	DPILE	F	Average Depth of Piles for TYP-O
17:1	71-80	CETA	F	Loss per Foot of Bridge Submergence
18:1	1-10	VINCP	F	Incipient Velocity for Erosion (ft/sec)
18:1	11-20	WT	F	Specific Weight of Embank-ment (lbs/ft³)
18:1	21-30	FAC	F	Cost Adjustment Factor
18:1	31-40	TTIP	F	Inspection Time (hrs)
19:1	1-4	XAXIS	F	XAXIS=9999 No. of Plots Desired X=Coordinate of Origin
19:2	7-10	YAXIS	F	Y=Coordinate of Origin
19:3	13-14	ITEL	I	Always 1
19:4	14-16	IJOIN	I	<pre>1-Join Points on Plot 0-Don't Join Points on Plot</pre>
20:1*	1-40	TOP	А	Top of Plot Information
20:2	1-40	BOTTOM	А	Bottom of Plot Information
20:3	1-50	SIDE	А	Side of Plot Information
21:1**	1-40	TOP	А	Top of Plot Information
21:2	1-40	BOTTOM	А	Bottom of Plot Information
21:3	1-50	SIDE	А	Side of Plot Information

^{*}Include card group 20 for each bridge length.

^{**}Include card group 21 for each embankment height.

A listing of the trial data set for the example problem discussed in Chapter IV of this volume is shown in Table 25 as an aid to the model user in formulating his own input data set.

DEFINITION OF PROGRAM VARIABLES

The following variables are passed from the FEM module to the RISK module by means of the hydraulic tape.

	ICK	Overtopping indicator (1 - Overtopping, 2 - No overtopping).
	/ NP	Number of overtopping nodes in the system.
	VEL(1,20)	X = Velocity of flow at all overtopping nodes in the system.
VEL (4,20)	VEL(2,20)	Z = Velocity of flow at all overtopping nodes in the system.
/	VEL(3,20)	Depth of all overtopping nodes in the system.
•	VEL(4,20)	Water surface elevation at all nodes in the system.

The following variables are used in the RISK module alone:

NI	Input file number.
NO	Output file number.
ITYPE	Tape number of the hydraulic tape.
IBC	Bridge cost function option (1 - User Supplied, 0 - Model Supplied)
TITLE(2,20)	Heading information.

	(B(*,1)	Intercept for bridge superstructure cost.
R// //)	B(*,2) B(*,3)	Slope for bridge superstructure cost.
0(4,4)		B(*,3)	Pier, footing and abutment cost.
	(B(*,4)	Spur dike cost.
	,	CY	Embankment fill cost (\$/cu yd).
		RWCST	Roadway cost (\$/ft).
		BWID	Bridge width (ft).
		USLP	Upstream embankment slope (%).
		DSLP	Downstream embankment slope (%).
		NC(4)	Number of nodes to the bridge.
		CEN(4)	Bridge clearance (ft).
		NLEN	Number of bridge lengths.
		FLEN(5)	Bridge lengths (ft).
E. E.	(FLFR(6,1)	Flow (cfs).
FLFR (6,2)	}	FLFR(6,2)	Return frequency weights.
(0,2)	,	NRLFR	Number of flows.
		NEMB(4)	Number of embankment heights for each bridge length.
		EMB(4,3)	Delta embankment heights for each bridge length.
		NNDS(4)	Number of overtopped nodes (overtopped nodes are also embankment section nodes).
		NUP(4,40)	Overtopping and embankment nodes.
		BTEL(4,40)	Bottom of embankment elevations.
		BTL(4,40)	Distance between embankment and overtopping nodes.
		WELEV(4,40)	Top of embankment elevations.
		NRISK	Number of backwater damages.
		DAM(60)	Backwater damages.
		PLIFE	Projected life (yr).
		RATE	Interest rate.
		TC	Value of time (\$/hr).

^{*} Repeated for each bridge design to be considered.

	DRATN	Number of deaths/100 x 10 ⁶ vehicle miles.
	PERINN	Number of personal injuries/death.
	PRODAN	Number of property damages/death.
	DRATU	Death rate multiplier for obstacles (death obstacles/deaths normally).
	PRODAU	Number of property damages, obstacle case/death.
	PERINU	Number of personal injuries, obstacle case/death.
	DEATH	Average cost of death by accident.
	CPERI	Average cost of personal injury.
	CPRODM	Average cost of property damage.
1	TRF(1)	Average traffic level (vehicles/day).
	TRF(2)	Passenger car traffic level fraction (0-1).
	TRF(3)	Commercial delivery vehicle traffic level fraction (0-1).
/	TRF(4)	Single unit truck traffic level fraction (0-1).
TRF(11)	TRF(5)	Gasoline truck traffic level fraction (0-1).
	TRF(6)	Diesel semitrailer traffic level fraction (0-1).
- 1	TRF(7)	Normal travel distance (miles).
	TRF(8)	Normal route speed (mi/hr).
1	TRF(9)	Detour travel distance (miles).
1	TRF(10)	Detour travel speed (mi/hr).
1	TRF(11)	Average occupancy rate (\$/persons/vehicle).
	WCL	Length of longest watercourse (miles).
	ТҮР	Type of scour (0 - Piles rest on solid rock; 1 - Footing on solid rock, no scour; 2 - Solid rock not found).
	CSCR	Cost per foot of pier for TYP-0.
	CSCR	Cost per foot of scour for TYP-2.

Maximum allowable scour depth for TYP-2. **HSCR** Node at which velocity is used for scour NSCR calculations. Width of rectangular pier facing upstream. WSCR Number of piles for TYP-0. NPILE Depth of piles for TYP-0. DPILE Damage (\$) per foot of bridge submergence. CETA Incipient velocity for erosion (ft/sec). VINCP Specific weight (lb/cu ft) of embankment WT soil. FAC Cost adjustment factor. Inspection time (hr). TTIP

Table 25 Trial Data Set

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UPCATE VI.2

MASTER AUDIT, IDENT CARD TUTAL

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UPDATE VI.2								
MASTER AUDIT, IDENT CARD TUTAL	LIST OF CONTHOL, ACTIVE, AND/OH INACTIVE CAMUS IN MISKD		TOTAL ECUNUMIC RESPONSE 1000 FT, BRIDGE	HUNI (TEXALOUS)		TOTAL ECUNUMIC RESPONSE 315 FT. EMBK. MT.	(はいままの)	
מ מרפגר	LIST OF CONTH	æ	TOTAL ECUNUMI	EMBANKMENT HE	TEX	TOTAL ECONOMI	BRIDGE LENGTH	TEX
UNLABELED DEGFL		RISKD	RISKO	RISKD	RISKU	RISKD	RISKD	RISKD

PROGRAM LISTING

The FORTRAN IV program for the RISK module follows. The program was run on the CDC 6400 unit at the Naval Ship Research and Development Center computer facilities, Carderock, Maryland.

```
PRUGHAM HISK (INPUT, QUIPUT, TAPES#INPUT, TAPE6#QUIPUT,
                       TAPE7)
                     COMMUNICATELEN(S), NLEN, FLFH(6,2), NFLFR, ENB(4,3), NHB(4),
                    INNOS(4), HELEV(4,40), NUP(4,40)
COMMUNICOUNTIDAM
                     DIMENSION TIME (40)
                     DIMENSION H (3.3)
                     DIFENSIUN S(3.3)
                     CALL INRISK
IDAMED
10
                     DO 250 11=2, NLEN
                     LIMENMB(II-1)
                     DO 240 I2=1.LIM
                     CNSTHECUNCST(II.IZ)
                     CUSTNEU.
DU 230 I3= 1,NFLFR
IDAM#IDAM+1
15
                     CALL RUHYDR(II)
                FIND TIME OF UVERTOPPING
                     CALL UVIME(11,12,15, XAM, TIME)
20
                  FIND EMUSIUN

CALL EMUSIN(II, I2, I3, TIME, EMS, TRP)

CALL TRAFFIC DETUUR
              C
                     DTH=OLIUUH(II,I2,I3,XAM,TRP)
25
              C FIND COST OF BRIDGE SCOUR
                     SCH=SCOURTII, 12, 13, CNSTR)
                FIND COST OF BACKWATER DAMAGE
                     BKR=BACKWR(II,I2,I3)
CALL QUIPUT(II,I2,I3,XAM,TRP,CQSTR,DTR,8GR,ERS,BKR)
30
                 230 CONTINUE
                     CALL UUTPT1(II, IZ, COSTR, CNSTR, R, 8)
                 240 CONTINUE
                 250 CUNTINUE
                     CALL CUNSDA(R, 8)
                     CALL PLOT(R)
35
                     STOP 22
                     END
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Y(JJ,1)EX(JJ,J)/1000
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185	C READ EXCOLOR DATA	7/18/74	76
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	FRITE(NO.7001) VINEP, FAC. 111P	7/18/74	37
	4001 FUERAIC//, 20x, FERIOSION INFORMATIONS,	7/18/74	28
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	RETURN		RISK	264	
50	END		R 18K	265	

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SUBAUUTINE	CUTPUT	EQ 09/16/74 08.56,03.	.50.95.80
	SUBRUCTINE OUTPUT(11,12,13,11,12,CUSTR,OTK,OTK,ENS,BKR) COMMUN /OUTHY/ TITLE (2,60),NI,NO,ITPE,B(6) COMMUN/OLKTK/FLFN(5),NIFN,FLFN(6,2),NFLFM,FMB(4,3),NMB(4),	6/26/74 R18K 8/28/74	2 6
\$	INNOG(4), AGLEV(4,40), NUP(4,40) CUITUN/INSTITUTE IN TAILE COLOR OF TAILE COLOR O	8/28/14	1 M O B
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                                                                          8/28/74
                                                                                                                        7/18/74
                           FUNCTION DETOUNCE, NB, NF, 11, TNP)
COMMON /ECON/ PLIFE, RAIE, AINCOM
COMMON/ELTKIFFEN(S), NLEN FLFK (6,2), NFLFR, EMB(4,3), NMB(4),
INNUS(4), NELEV(4,40), NUP(4,40)
COMMON /TRE/ TRF (11), DRAIN, PERINN, PRODAN, DRATU, PRUDAU,
COMMON/INSP/ITIP
COMMON/INSP/ITIP
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                         XMBINF (2)+1,281KF (3)+2, #1KF (4)+3,281RF (9)+3,181RF (6)
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       X#CD=CN
IF (X -LT - 0.) X=0.

GALC DEIUUH HAVEL CUST
CALCULATE ACCIDENT CUSTS
CALCULATE ACCIDENT CUSTS
C2=THIMF(1)*UELI*OPAIN/24.
C2=C2=(DEAIM+PERINN*CPERI+PHQUAN*GPRODM)/1,060
CALC UNEXPECTED GBSTACLE COSTS
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                            Carcamideath+PEPINU*CPERI+PHODAU*CPROOM)/2.4g9
CALC COST UF TIME DELAY
C4=(TMF(9)/THF(10))*(TRF(7)/TMF(8))
C4=TmfMF(1)*TRF(11)*G4*TC/24
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CN842.5*.455* INF (8)+,0068* INF (8)**2
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COMMUNICATA YFLEN(S) NLEN, FLFM(6,2), NFLFM, EMB(4,3), NMB(4), INNOS(4), MELEV(4,40), NUD(4,40) COMMUN / DUMMY/ TITLE (2,20), NI,NU, ITPE, B(6) COMMUN / DUMMY/ TITLE (2,20), NI,NU, ITPE, B(6) COMMUN / MCL, MCV, MCH, MCT, MCR, LNE, ONRH(6,2), VEL(4,200), NP, ICM NAMMON X(10), Y(10), TIME(40) DO 100 TELAD	THE (1) SO TELL SO THEN EXIT IF NU UVERTOPPING THEN EXIT IF (1) CK, EQ. 0) GU TO 990	CALCULATE MCK AND MCT WCTH((11.90mCLeas)/MCH)ee.805 MCRH1.67**CT	CALCULATE DVERTOPPING TIME FOR EACH EMBANKMENT BECTION LIBER. LIBER-1 AVENUELLING) DO 400 JB2,NN	NIBNUP(L1,Je1) NZBNUP(L1,J) V12XB(VEL(1,N1)+VEL(1,N2))/20 1F(V12X,LE,00,) GU TU 400 E12B(MELEV(L1,Je1);MELEV(L1,J)/20+A	CDS(VEL(4,N1)+VEL(4,N2))/2, IF(E12,01,C0) GO TO 400 ICTENCIFE12/CD ICKENCX*(1,*E12/CD)+WCT ITME(J)*ICK*(1,*E12/CD)+WCT	CALCULATE THE MAXIMUM DELAY XAME4999* MANITE(NO.3)	TOTAL	MRITE(NO.700) LL.TIME(J) Compai(/,10x,sbections,12,10x,stime delays,fio.3,2x,shoumss) Contaue Prite(no.710) xam
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2			IN (11, KG, 0,) GU TO 500	7/18/74	0 d	
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NOTION	C A C X M B B	CUC 6600 FIN V3.0 WP340 DPIRO		09/18/74	08.55.03.	PAGE
	FUNCTION BACKER (L,NB,NF) CURHUN/BLATK/FLEN(S),NLENFLEN(S),NREB(4,3),NAB(4), INNUS(4),RELEV(4,40),NUP(4,40) CURHUN /REMEX/ DAM(60),NRISK COMMUN/ICUNT/IDAM JSIOAN+NFLFR BACKER#DAM(J)AFLFR(NF,2) RETURN END	, NFL TR, ENB (4, 5), NAB (4),		100 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	N N NAN Gaid an man Guid an man Guid an Membo	
UBROUTINE	RDNYDR SUSKUUTINE ROHYDH(11) SUSKUUTINE ROHYDH(11) COMMUNATORY ACL, MCY, MCH, MCF, MCN, CNN, CNC, 2), VEL(4, 200), NP, ICK COMMUNATORY ACC, MCH, MCF, MCH, MC, ACC, MCH, CNC, CNN, MC, ACC, MCH, MC, ACC, MCH, MCH, MC, ACC, MCH, MCH, MCF, MCF, MCH, MCF, MCF, MCF, MCF, MCF, MCF, MCF, MCF	CUC 6600 PTN V3.0*P340 OPTBO NE.ONM(6,2), VEL (4,200), NP.1CH 1TPE,8(6) 1, NFLFN EM8(4,3), NMB(4), 1, J)), 1 = 1,4), J = 1,8 NP)	0 Z:	0. T T D O O O O O O O O O O O O O O O O O	ত ক ক ক বাম্কুদ্ধাতু বিধা ক ক	⊎ 9 ∢ a.

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	<pre>1F (x1 .6T .80.) GD TD 980 DD 100 J42210 IF(x1.LE.x(J).AND.x1.GT.X(J-1)) GD TD 101 100 CDNT1NUE 101 JJ=J 101 YIE(x1-x(JJ-1))/(x(JJ)*x(JJ-1))*(Y(JJ)*Y(JJ-1)) * Y(JJ-1)</pre>	R G G G G G G 	**************************************	
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	SUBROUTING CURVE(X,Y, NPT, NCV, NPLUT, ILUIN, ITEL) DIMENSION X (203,1) - Y (203,1), NP ((1)	9/6/74	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
	COMMON/LAS/ 111/E(10), xLAS(11), YLAS(6)	9/6/74	147
	1, HUH12(20), VERT(6)	9/6/14	148
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CDC 6600 FTN V3.0+P340 UPTEO	FURM Y LABELS AND FACTORS			ELTY /		INITIALIZE PLOT OUTLINE					CAPA IN PACT COXYE			JOINING NO YO AND NI YI																					COUPUT FINAL PLOT				
INE CURVE	XSCALBXAXIS/(XLABCIXAXI)=XMING CCCC	NIE A	Z#XX##################################	270 YLAB(IYAXI-I)#YLAB(IYAXI+1-1)+DELTY	YSCAL	, o c		CALL PPLOT(0,0,NCD,NPLOT)	IF(IJDIN,EG.0) GO 10 500		ى د	UD 450 CB1,800		٠			NOUNT B. NOTCH	Z1022 N B Z 007 D0	CENER 4 (Jeneraly) 4 -4	CALL PINE (XU, YU, XT, YT, K, NPLOT)	₩ * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	1 00 003		* *	N. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1.		C PLUT WITHOUT JUINING PUINTS	i	FZIOAZ THZ OIG TO	X THX OCAL X (X) X) X HX X X X X X X X X X X X X X X	CZIEKACUSZ)X)YIJYONA XIII	1×1π×1+6.0	CALL PPLOT(IXT, IYT, 1,13	21	ں، د		SSC NCROS	いっという。これには、これには、これには、これには、これには、これには、これには、これには、	G Z
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			4/6/14	367
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.	ž	RESET MAX AND MIN FOR ZENO RANGE	9/6/7	30.5
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C	SUBRUUTINE SCALE	SCALE		202	# 0099	COC 6600 FTN V5.0mP389 OFF80		09/16/74	08.56,03,	PAGE
F(AMAX, GT, (K+AXLEN)*RANGE) GO TO 330 TO TO TO TO THE TENT OF TO 260 TO		O.		, ,	3	A V A V A V A V A V A V A V A V A V A V	100	9/6/74	430	
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IF(L.LT.11) GO TO 200 LUEZ NEN+1 J40 GO TU 260 GO TU 260 J50 KRAMAX/RANGE J50 TU 260 J60 TU		330 LEL						9/6/74	27.7	
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340 GO TU 280 C		2+20Z						9/6/74	かけせ	
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350 KBAMAX/RANGE 350 KBAMAX/RANGE 360 TO 360 KBAMAX/RANGE		u		•				9/6/14	677	
JF(AMAX,GT.0.) KBK+1 JF(AMIN,LT.(K+AKEK)PRANGE) GO TO 330 JRINCTONTISH		350 K#A	/AANGE					9/6/74	050	
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ARRAY(1) # RANGE		I B I NC L	1 + OLT.					9/6/14	157	
IMITINCT ARRAY(1) SERANGE ARRAY(1) SERANGE ACTUAL ADD ARTICO, 100) 100 FORMAT(' // 10x, RRANGE AND SCALE ARE ZERO ON PLOT ATTEMPT# 3 9/6/74 END FORD	0.9	ARRAY	I DRIVERANGE					9/6/74	757	
ARRAY(1)300RANGE METUMN 400 MRITE(0.100) 100 FORMAT(' / 10x, RRANGE AND SGALE ARE ZERO ON PLOT ATTEMPT# 3 9/6/74 RETURN RETURN 9/6/74 9/6/74) Z 1 + 1 H 1						9/6/14	550	
HETUHN 400 *RITE(0.100) 100 FORMAT(* // 10x, *RANGE AND SCALE ARE ZERO UN PLOT ATTEMPT*) 9/6/74 RETURN END		ARRAY	SUBBRANGE					4/6/14	456	
400 MRITE(0,100) 100 FORMAT(' / 10x, "RANGE AND SCALE ARE ZERO ON PLOT ATTEMPT") 9/6/74 RETURN END END		KETURN						4/6/74	457	
100 FORMAT(: // 10x, *RANGE AND SCALE ARE ZERO ON PLOT ATTEMPT# 3 9/6/74 PKFURN END FLOT ATTEMPT# 3 9/6/74 END		Ot.						9/6/14	83.5	
31/9/0	85	60	C. // 10x, #RANGE AND SCALE	IRE ZE	80 CN	PLOT ATTEMPT	~ *	4/6/14	657	
#1/9/6		RETURN	1					41/9/6	007	
		END						9/6/74	107	

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