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The reports of research published in this magazine are necessarily qualified by the conditions of the tests from which the data are obtained. Whenever it is deemed possible to do so, generalizations are drawn from the results of the tests; and, unless this is done, the conclusions formulated must be considered as specifically pertinent only to described conditions.

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THE VALUE OF PETROGRAPHY IN DETERMINING THE QUALITY OF ROCK

Reported by D. G. RUNNER, Assistant Materials Engineer, Bureau of Public Roads

ALL rocks are constantly being subjected to forces, both chemical and physical, that tend to destroy them. In contrast to these destructive forces, most rocks have many qualities that give them the capacity to withstand this destruction. The capacity of a rock to endure the many destructive agencies is commonly known as durability. At the present time vast quantities of rock are being used daily in the construction of roads and structures, and it is the duty of the engineer to know something of the durability, or "life expectancy" of this material. The science of petrography is of great value in determining the strength and durability of rocks.

Quite often a sample of rock will appear perfectly sound and durable to the eye, while in reality it may contain harmful minerals that are known to be non-durable under freezing and thawing, temperature change, or the decomposing action of other natural weathering agencies. In certain parts of the United States sections of highways, portions of retaining walls, bridge piers, and other types of structures show the effects of the use of nondurable materials (fig. 1). If a petrographic examination of the rocks had been made prior to their use, the inferior materials could have been detected and rejected as unfit for use.

The earliest rocks were solidified from molten magma emanating from the interior of the earth. Upon exposure to weathering and erosion, these igneous rocks in turn have produced sedimentary rocks. Continued burial of igneous and sedimentary rocks, heat, and pressure have altered their composition into the metamorphic type of rock. Elevation of new beds of these rock, together with weathering and erosion, produce new sedimentary rocks, thus these new rocks contain fragments of the original igneous strata. Consequently there exists today a great variety of rocks differing widely in texture, mineralogical character, alteration products, etc. These various types of rock are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—General classification of rocks¹

Class	Type	Family
Igneous	Intrusive (plutonic)	Granite. Syenite. Diorite. Gabbro. Peridotite. Rhyolite. Trachyte. Andesite.
	Extrusive (volcanic)	Basalt. Diabase. Limestone. Dolomite. Shale.
Sedimentary	Calcareous	Limestone. Dolomite. Shale.
	Siliceous	Sandstone. Chert (flint). Gneiss. Schist.
Metamorphic	Foliated	Schist. Amphibolite. Slate.
	Nonfoliated	Quartzite. Eclogite. Marble.

¹ From U. S. Department of Agriculture Bulletin 348, by E. C. E. Lord, 1916.



FIGURE 1.—THE LEFT HALF OF THIS CONCRETE RETAINING WALL CONTAINS SATISFACTORY AGGREGATE; THE RIGHT HALF CONTAINS UNSOUND LIMESTONE.

(Photograph by H. S. Mattimore, Pennsylvania Department of Highways)

THIN SECTIONS OF ROCK EXAMINED UNDER THE MICROSCOPE

Petrography may be defined as the descriptive and systematic classification of rocks. This is accomplished with the aid of the petrographic microscope (fig. 2). At this time it might be well to describe briefly how the rocks are prepared for study by this type of microscope. A cursory examination of coarse-grained rocks, such as the granites, enables one to obtain a comprehensive idea of the constituent minerals. However, the minerals contained in fine-grained rocks, such as the basalts, are more difficult to identify. A study of the innermost sections of rock often reveals textural and mineralogical conditions that are interesting and of considerable practical importance.

The first step in making a microscopic examination of a rock is to prepare a small piece so thin that it is transparent to the naked eye. The sample is prepared by first breaking a small chip from the hand sample. This fragment is ground smooth on one side on a revolving lap using an abrasive powder such as emery. (See fig. 3.) The smooth side is cemented to a small glass slide with Canadian balsam and the opposite side is ground smooth. This grinding is continued until the rock slice is about 0.03 millimeter thick, and a thin protective cover glass is then cemented over it. When a specimen is prepared in this manner and examined in the microscope, an accurate idea of the texture and mineral content of the rock can be obtained.

Figure 4 shows a sample data sheet upon which petrographic descriptions of rock specimens are recorded.

All rocks are subjected to weathering by natural agencies, and some materials are more susceptible to this weathering than are others. Each mineral of which a rock is composed has a different rate of decomposition under exposure.

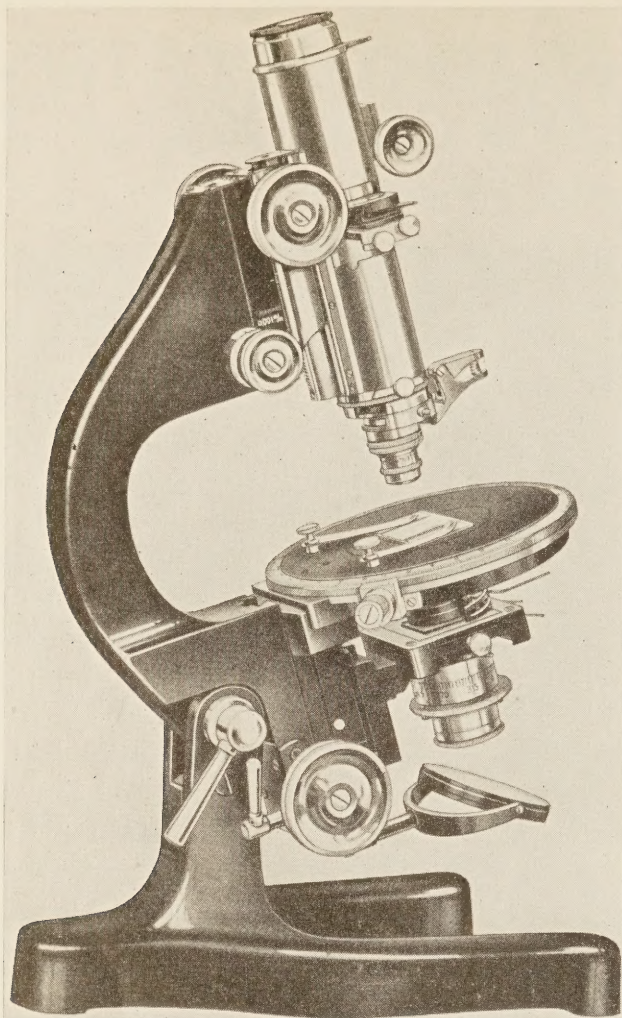


FIGURE 2.—MICROSCOPE USED IN PETROGRAPHIC WORK.

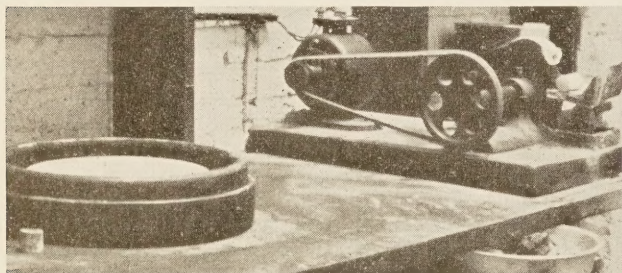


FIGURE 3.—SAW AND GRINDING LAP USED IN PREPARING THIN SECTIONS OF ROCK.

Igneous rocks are composed of several different minerals, while sedimentary rocks consist essentially of one mineral. The minerals of the former are usually interlocking, while those of the latter are united by thin coats of cementing material. Because of inequalities in the rate of expansion of the different particles, stresses are set up in igneous rocks which tend to disrupt the rock. Sedimentary rocks, containing nearly equal-size grains of one mineral, are quite often less injured by temperature changes than are igneous rocks. Other actions that hasten rock decay are: The solvent action of water, carbon dioxide, sulphurous acids, and organic acids; the wedging action of rocks; mechanical abrasion; etc.

Rock strata that have weathered unevenly are illustrated in figure 5. Table 2 gives the alteration products of some common minerals.

TABLE 2.—Alteration products of some common minerals

Mineral	Formula	Alteration product
Pyrite.....	FeS ₂	Oxide of iron.
Magnetite.....	Fe ₃ O ₄	Hematite, limonite.
Ilmenite.....	FeTiO ₃	Leucoxene.
Quartz.....	SiO ₂	None.
Enstatite.....	MgSiO ₃	Serpentine.
Chrysolite.....	(MgFe) ₂ SiO ₄	Do.
Augite.....	RSiO ₃	Chlorite, serpentine.
Hornblende.....	RSiO ₃	Chlorite, talc, serpentine.
Biotite (mica).....	(HK) ₂ (MgFe) ₂ Al ₂ (SiO ₂) ₃	Chlorite.
Muscovite (mica).....	H ₂ KAl ₃ (SiO ₄) ₃	None.
Orthoclase (feldspar).....	KAlSi ₃ O ₈	Kaolin, muscovite.
Plagioclase (feldspar).....	NaAlSi ₃ O ₈	Kaolin, zeolite.
Sodalite.....	3NaAlSi ₃ O ₈ NaCl.....	Sericite.
Tremolite.....	Talc.
Zircon.....	ZrO ₂ SiO ₂	None.

PYRITE AND FELDSPARS MOST DETRIMENTAL MINERALS FOUND IN GRANITES

Regarding the granites, Washington has stated¹ that:

* * * almost any light-colored, more or less coarse-grained, nonfoliated, igneous rock is called granite by quarrymen, irrespective of its composition, whereas to the petrographer granite denotes a definite species of coarse-grained igneous rock, composed of quartz, alkali (mostly potash), feldspar, and white or black mica or both, in some cases other dark minerals taking the place of the mica. The mineral that is most hurtful to the quality and lasting power of granite is the sulphide of iron, pyrite. On exposure to the action of air and rain this oxidizes, the sulphur forming sulphuric acid, which decomposes the feldspar of the rock and thus disintegrates it, while the iron oxide forms a brown stain. If pyrite is present in granite it is almost always in such small amount and in such small grains that in spite of its usual bright brassy luster, it is seldom visible to the naked eye or by using a hand lens, but its presence is clearly shown under the microscope in the thin section.

Biotite, or black mica, is another mineral common to granites. This mineral alters readily but its effect upon the durability of granite is not so marked as the effect of pyrite and feldspars. Biotite alters in several ways. It may change in color from brown to green while still retaining its micaceous character, the optical constants changing with the chemical change. The most common alteration product is chlorite, but the peculiar cleavage of biotite is retained. Quite often the alteration is accomplished by the deposition of lenticular accumulations of carbonates between the laminae of the mica.

Orthoclase feldspar is another easily altered mineral found in granite. This mineral is composed essentially of potassium-alumina-silicate, with some replacement by sodium. The process of alteration is not likely to be the same in all instances but usually commences along cleavage cracks, and when it has progressed very far the whole mass appears cloudy when viewed through the microscope. The common alteration products are muscovite (sericite), or kaolin, and quartz. Hence the microscopic examination shows at once, by the absence or presence of clouded feldspar, whether the rock is fresh or has begun to weather.

Nephelite, a mineral somewhat akin to the feldspar family and sometimes found in the so-called "granites" quarried for building stone, weathers much more readily than the feldspars and it consequently lessens the durability of the rock. Pyroxene and amphibole

¹ How Petrography Can Aid the Stone Producers, by H. S. Washington, The Explosives Engineer, October 1925.

PETROGRAPHIC DESCRIPTION

I. FIELD NOTES

ORIGINAL NO. 11A

LOCALITY Westerly, Rhode Island

OCCURRENCE:

II. HAND SPECIMEN DESCRIPTION

GENERAL APPEARANCE: Fine grained pink rock consisting of feldspar, quartz, and biotite

III. MICROSCOPIC STUDY FOR CLASSIFICATION

TEXTURE: Hypidiomorphic SIZE OF GRAINS:

ORIGINAL STRUCTURE: Cooled from magma

PRIMARY PROCESS REPRESENTED:

SECONDARY STRUCTURE:

SECONDARY PROCESS REPRESENTED:

MINERALOGY (MINERALS ARE GROUPED FOR INTERPRETATION PURPOSES AND ARE ARRANGED IN EACH GROUP IN APPROXIMATE ORDER OF ABUNDANCE)
(IN SOME CASES APPROXIMATE PERCENTAGES ARE GIVEN)

PRIMARY (X) ESSENTIAL MINERALS	%	(Z) SECONDARY ALTERATION PRODUCTS	%	(M) METAMORPHIC RECRYSTALLIZATION MINERALS	%	(T) TERTIARY CHANGES AND ENRICHMENT EFFECTS
Quartz	45	Chlorite				
Plagioclase	10	Sericite				
Orthoclase	15					
Biotite	15					
Muscovite	4					
Microcline	10					
(Y) ACCESSORY MINERALS				(O) INTRODUCED SUBSTANCES OR MINERALIZATION		
Magnetite	1					

SPECIAL FEATURES:

Some of the biotite mica has been bleached into chlorite.
Microcline shows lattice twinning.

ORIGIN OF THE ROCK: Plutonic

CLASSIFICATION: Biotite granite

FIGURE 4.—SAMPLE DATA SHEET UPON WHICH PETROGRAPHIC DESCRIPTIONS OF ROCK SPECIMENS ARE RECORDED.

are more durable constituents than the black micas, although when long exposed they decompose and disintegrate slowly. Those varieties of granite rich in iron weather most readily, and because of large percentages of iron oxide resulting from the decomposition are classed as undesirable.



FIGURE 5.—ROCK STRATA THAT HAVE WEATHERED UNEVENLY BECAUSE OF VARIATIONS IN RESISTANCE TO WEATHERING. (UPPER), THE PROJECTING SEAMS CONTAIN THE MORE DURABLE ROCK; (LOWER), DIFFERENTIAL WEATHERING OF LIMESTONE.

Table 3 shows the effect of weathering upon some of the minerals commonly found in granite, and table 4 gives the chemical analyses of three rocks before and after weathering.

CLAY MOST HARMFUL IMPURITY FOUND IN LIMESTONES

Limestones and marbles are examples of rock that to the eye appear to be pure and unadulterated. However, upon examination by the petrographic microscope, they are quite often found to contain minute particles of pyrite or marcasite. Here again the sulphuric acid produced by the oxidation of pyrite (iron disulphide) reacts with the calcium carbonate to cause decomposition of the rock. Marcasite, another iron disulphide, is even more harmful than pyrite because of the rapidity with which it oxidizes and decomposes. The clay contained in some limestones is not visible to the eye but is readily discernible with the microscope. The clay contained by some limestones has often been the cause of unsoundness when used in concrete.

TABLE 3.—The effect of weathering upon the minerals commonly found in granite

Mineral	Chemical composition	Changes	Ultimate product
Quartz	SiO ₂	Remains undecomposed	Sand grains.
Orthoclase (feldspar)	K ₂ O	Goes into solution as carbonate, chloride, etc.	Soluble material.
	Al ₂ O ₃ 6SiO ₂	Hydrated and combined to form hydrous aluminum silicate, with liberation of soluble silica.	Clay, soluble material.
Oligoclase (feldspar)	3Na ₂	Goes into solution as carbonate, chloride, etc.	Soluble material.
	CaO	Forms carbonate, which is soluble in water containing carbon dioxide.	Do.
Muscovite (mica)	4Al ₂ O ₃ 20SiO ₂ 2H ₂ O	Decomposes	Clay.
	K ₂ O	Remains undecomposed	Mica flakes.
	3Al ₂ O ₃ 6SiO ₂		
	H ₂ O	Goes into solution as carbonate or chloride.	Water.
Biotite (mica)	2(Mg, Fe) O	Goes into solution as carbonate or chloride; iron carbonate oxidizes to hematite or limonite.	Soluble material.
	Al ₂ O ₃ 3SiO ₂	Forms hydrous aluminum silicate and soluble silica.	Clay, soluble material.
Zircon	ZrO ₂ , SiO ₂	Remains unaltered	Zircon grains.
Apatite	Ca ₃ (PO ₄) ₂ (F, Cl)	Is soluble	Soluble material.

TABLE 4.—Chemical analyses of rocks before and after alteration by weathering

Chemical	Micaceous granite		Diabase		Diorite	
	Unweathered	Weathered	Unweathered	Weathered	Unweathered	Weathered
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
SiO ₂	69.3	66.8	47.3	44.4	46.8	42.4
Al ₂ O ₃	14.3	15.6	20.2	23.2	17.6	25.5
Fe ₂ O ₃		1.9	3.7	12.7	16.8	19.2
FeO	3.6	1.7	8.9			
MgO	2.4	2.8	3.2	2.8	5.1	.2
CaO	3.2	3.1	7.1	6.0	9.5	.4
Na ₂ O	2.7	2.6	3.9	3.9	2.6	.6
All others	4.5	5.5	5.7	7.0	1.6	11.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Loss on ignition	1.2	3.3	2.7	3.7	.9	11.0

Chert is another material that is used quite extensively in certain parts of the United States. It is often found in limestone and dolomite deposits, and is found in many deposits of gravel. Its durability when used in concrete has been questioned by some authorities. Chert is composed essentially of opaline silica together with some impurities such as calcite, pyrite, and organic matter. To the eye, chert appears to contain nothing but silica. However, examination with the microscope sometimes reveals the presence of disseminated pyrite and minute fractures, that may be partly responsible for the reported failures of chert in service.

Kriege has stated:²

* * * one of the most common minerals associated with cherts is pyrite. This has been seen in every chert sample examined by the author. In most cases it is microscopically visible, some samples having been found in which the pyrite crystals are several millimeters in length. A very finely divided pyritic mass is sometimes seen coating a chert piece and giving it a brassy green color. More often these sulfide minerals are, as microscopic units, distributed as a specular deposit throughout the mass or in seams and planes. These pyritic bodies soon become oxidized on exposure of the chert and grow into dark iron oxide spots and in time stain the chert mass yellow or brown.

Argillaceous limestones, or those containing fairly large percentages of clay, have been known to cause

² The Stability of Chert, by H. F. Kriege, Rock Products, vol. 32, no. 9, Apr 27, 1929.

disintegration when used in concrete. Miller³ has stated that:

* * * a concrete road and a retaining wall where the stone had been used went to pieces after a few years and the cause was traced to the disintegrating effect of the limestone aggregate. Careful microscopic work showed the presence of considerable argillaceous matter, especially the mineral beidellite, which has adsorptive and absorptive properties. The rock fragments in the concrete road were wet after each rain and with the clay absorbing an undue amount of moisture the rocks were shattered after a limited number of freezings.

Lang⁴ has stated that:

* * * use of argillaceous limestones as coarse aggregate in concrete subjected to exposure has probably resulted in more concrete failures than could be attributed to the use of any other unsound type of aggregate.

KIND OF CEMENTING MATERIAL GREATLY AFFECTS DURABILITY OF SANDSTONE

The mineral content has less effect on the quality of sandstones than do the shape of grains and the kind of cementing materials that bind the grains together. Quartz, in more or less rounded grains, is by far the most abundant constituent of sandstones. This is because the chemical processes of weathering do not destroy quartz, except with extreme slowness. Other constituents of sandstones include feldspar, mica, and such accessory minerals as zircon, magnetite, and hematite. Sandstones containing more than about 5 percent of feldspar are usually called "feldspathic sandstone."

The kind of cementing material between the grains of sand greatly affects the durability of the rock. A cementing medium of silica produces a hard rock, while calcium carbonate cement produces one less durable. Argillaceous and ferruginous materials and gypsum may also act as cements. The argillaceous cement does not form a strong bond, and when it is abundant the sandstone tends to break down into sand.

Many sandstones contain layers in which flakes of white mica are abundant. This mica may be mixed with clay material, and may weaken the rock so that it can be easily split into thin slabs. The value of the cementing medium depends chiefly upon its adhesive and cohesive powers. It may be observed that sandstones with silica cement, or limestones with little or no quartz, are relatively strong and durable. Apparently the reason is that the force binding like materials is stronger than that uniting unlike materials.

By means of the microscope the cementing medium can be readily detected and, with the character and shape of the individual constituents determined, the probable durability of the rock can be stated. In discussing the durability of aggregates, Walker⁵ has stated that:

Certain shales, soft, loosely bound sandstones, argillaceous sandstones and limestones, ochers, etc., are typical of unsound aggregate particles causing pits. Their effect on the durability of a concrete structure is approximately in proportion to the amount of pitting which occurs. For ordinary quantities of unsound particles of this nature, the surface pits are usually the only obvious effect. Large proportions of such unsound particles, however, may lead it to progressive disintegration, particularly in the wear surfaces of concrete road slabs.

³ Limestones of Pennsylvania, by B. L. Miller, Bulletin M20, Pennsylvania Topographic and Geologic Survey, 1934.

⁴ Report on Significance of Tests of Concrete and Concrete Aggregates, Proceedings, American Society for Testing Materials, 1935, p. 98.

⁵ Report on Significance of Tests of Concrete and Concrete Aggregates, Proceedings, American Society for Testing Materials, 1935, p. 75.

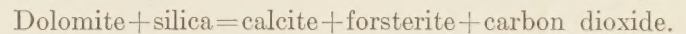
FOLIATED VARIETIES OF METAMORPHIC ROCK APT TO BE UNSATISFACTORY

Marble (crystalline limestone) is usually considered to be the metamorphic equivalent of limestone, chalk, etc. It is quite definitely distinguished from limestone by the crystalline and coarse-grained structure. However, we have dolomitic marbles as well as the calcitic (or limestone) marble, but the distinction is not apparent to the eye, and a chemical or petrographical analysis is usually necessary to bring out the real difference between the two marbles. The probable durability of calcitic and dolomitic marbles may be indicated by knowledge of the accessory minerals present in the original limestone or dolomite. The chief varieties of limestone, based on mineral composition, are named from the accessory minerals listed below:

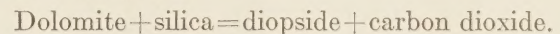
ACCESSORY MINERAL	VARIETY
Aluminum silicate.	Argillaceous limestone.
Siderite.	Ferruginous limestone.
Detrital quartz.	Arenaceous limestone.
Chalcedony.	Cherty limestone.
Glauconite.	Glauconitic limestone.

A relatively pure limestone, when metamorphosed, may develop into a compact marble, but the impurities shown in the above tabulation produce a broad range of end products. For example, if quartz is the only major impurity, it may react with calcium carbonate to form wollastonite.

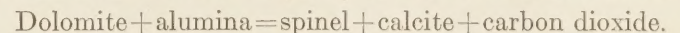
Dolomite is essentially a double carbonate of calcium and magnesium. However, this combination is never quite attained to perfection in nature, as there are usually some impurities in the rock. For example, the effect caused by metamorphism on the siliceous or argillaceous impurities may be illustrated by the following equations:



With an increase in the quantity of silica, the following reaction takes place:



With alumina as an impurity the reaction is as follows:



Common usage of the term marble leads one to believe that there is no difference between marbles; however, petrographically there is a decided difference between the two types of marbles as shown by the impurities in the original limestone or dolomite.

Of the metamorphic rocks, the foliated varieties such as gneiss and schist are most liable to be unsatisfactory. Loughlin has stated⁶ that:

* * * the outstanding feature from the standpoint of weathering is the foliated structure. The more finely foliated a rock is, the greater is its tendency to crush into small scaly fragments undesirable for concrete aggregate. Concentration of the micaceous minerals along foliation planes furthermore tends to promote disintegration. The comparatively small amount of mica in gneisses and some schists renders them less subject to disintegration than the highly micaceous schists. Unusually fine-grained schists that appear to consist entirely of mica may exfoliate appreciably after a few months of exposure in humid regions. The beginnings of weathering may extend a considerable distance below the surface of outcrops, and rock that looks satisfactory when newly quarried may soon begin to disintegrate.

⁶ Qualifications of Different Kinds of Natural Stone for Concrete Aggregate, by G. F. Loughlin, Proceedings American Concrete Institute, vol. 23, 1927.

DURABILITY OF ROCK PARTLY A FUNCTION OF ITS TEXTURE

The texture of rocks depends upon the shape, size, physical condition, and manner of arrangement of their constituents. The durability of a rock is in part a function of its texture. For example, a coarse-grained sandstone consisting of well-rounded grains is not as durable as an extremely dense, fine-grained sandstone. Likewise a coarse-grained granite is less durable than a dense diabase or basalt.

The uniformity and size of the mineral particles influence the manner in which the rock weathers. For example, in a porphyritic granite the large crystals of feldspar decompose more quickly than the smaller ones, thus pitting the surface of the rock. This differential weathering is usually noted in coarse-grained rocks composed of minerals having various degrees of hardness.

Figure 6 shows photomicrographs of four rocks having different textures.

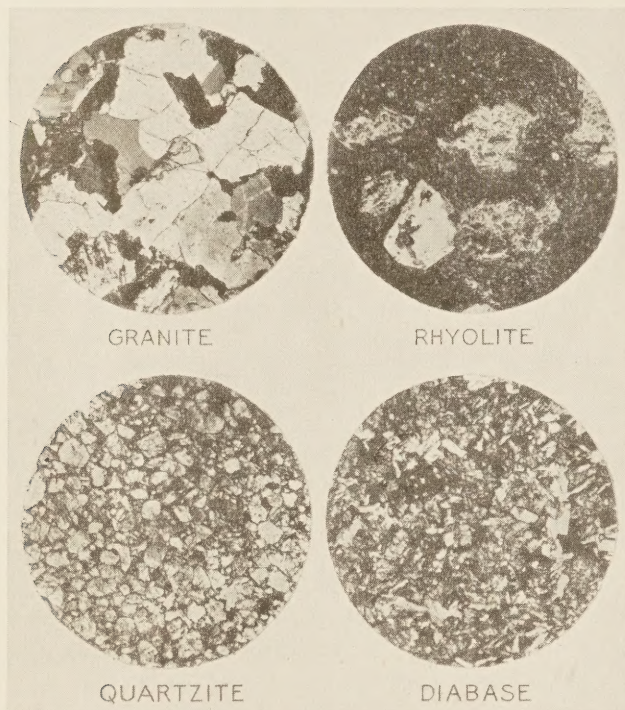


FIGURE 6.—PHOTOMICROGRAPHS OF ROCKS HAVING DIFFERENT TEXTURES.

The grains of sedimentary rocks are usually limited to one size in each particular bed, and may be fine, medium, or coarse. Thus the texture is usually of nearly uniform character, in contrast to the many-sized crystals found in igneous rocks. Because of this, the following discussion will be confined chiefly to igneous rocks.

The texture of a rock depends chiefly upon the mode of formation as shown by the size, shape, and arrangement of the grains of the minerals. The chemical composition of the magma is reflected in the texture of igneous rocks because the original composition determines the minerals that are finally formed. Magmas cooling beneath the earth crystallize slowly. In contrast, the lavas pour out on the earth's surface and cool quickly, sometimes so quickly that they form glass. Between these two extremes of slow and of rapid cooling various rates of cooling occur and cause all gradations of texture.

One common textural term is "granular." This term is applied when most of the constituent minerals are of about the same size, as is often found in the granites. Rocks more basic in composition than the granites have different textures, because of differences in crystallization and the absence of quartz.

"Porphyritic" texture is descriptive of rocks having large crystals, fragments, or flakes contained in a dense ground mass. In such rock structures the crystals have had opportunity to grow unimpeded by other mineral crystals.

"Micrographic" texture refers to the structure produced when quartz simultaneously crystallizes with another mineral, the two interpenetrating and giving a mottled appearance as exemplified by graphic granite.

"Flow" texture is common to the glassy ground mass of extrusive rocks, and has been produced by the cooling of the lava in swirling lines. There are other textural terms such as "ophitic", "cataclastic", and "poikilitic", but these are restricted more or less to special cases and will not be considered here.

SUMMARY

Whenever possible, the engineer should visit the quarry site to note and examine the degree of rock weathering. This examination is particularly advisable in an old quarry where much of the rock to be used has been exposed to the weather. Such features in the rock as laminations, schistose structure, and weathered minerals can be seen with the unaided eye. Weathered feldspar in granites is readily discernible inasmuch as it is usually soft, yellowish to white in color, and is found scattered throughout that portion of the rock directly exposed to weathering. It is not expected that an examination of the quarry will show whether a rock is durable or not, but an examination in connection with a petrographic study will give a fairly definite idea of the lasting quality of the rock.

Loughlin has stated⁶ that:

* * * general review of the weathering qualities of natural rocks used as concrete aggregates shows that most of them, if free from weathering, are satisfactory; that certain minerals, particularly the clay group and certain zeolites are very objectionable and that others including micas concentrated in fine grained flaky masses and calcite in finely disseminated grains among other minerals may promote disintegration under certain conditions; that certain textures and structures, notably fragmental texture and shaly structure in sedimentary rocks, flow structure in volcanic rocks, and highly schistose structure in metamorphic rocks, aid in the disintegration of rocks that are mainly composed of durable minerals.

Microscopic study enables an estimate to be made of the probable durability of aggregates. Component minerals can be identified and, having a knowledge of their characteristics, an approximation can be made of the rock's durability. Rock features such as segregations of clay, weathered feldspar, mica, variations in texture, kind of cementing medium, shape of particles, etc., have an important bearing upon the rock's durability.

It is realized that this paper has treated the subject matter in the briefest manner. For more detailed study of the petrographic microscope and the durability of aggregates, the appended list of references may be consulted.

⁶ Qualifications of Different Kinds of Natural Stone for Concrete Aggregate, by G. F. Loughlin, Proceedings American Concrete Institute, vol. 23, 1927.

VEHICLE SPEEDS ON CONNECTICUT HIGHWAYS

Abstract of report by C. J. TILDEN, Professor of Engineering Mechanics, Yale University¹

A STUDY to determine the speeds of vehicles on Connecticut highways was made during the period from November 14, 1933, to September 26, 1934, in connection with a highway traffic survey carried on by the United States Bureau of Public Roads and the Connecticut State Highway Department.² Observers timed passing vehicles at 78 stations along straight or nearly straight stretches of road. The speeds recorded ranged from that of a heavy truck moving at 9 miles per hour on a wet pavement to the 80-mile-per-hour speed of passenger cars observed on two occasions. The speeds of 91,044 vehicles were measured, and the average was found to be 38.9 miles per hour.

Vehicles were timed by means of a speed detector. This consisted of an L-shaped box, open at each end and painted black on the inside, with a 5- by 7-inch mirror fixed upright across the inner angle of the L. It was mounted on a tripod and set on the roadside in such a position that one end of the box pointed straight across the road, while the other end was directed toward the observer. The mirror was then at an angle to each of these sight lines.

The observer, looking parallel to the road and into the open end of the box, could see in the mirror the reflection of any vehicle on the section of the road directly opposite the box. Each passing car caused a distinct flash or flicker that was readily seen by the observer. The instant the observer saw the flash he pressed the starting button of a stop watch graduated in tenths of a second. At the end of the measured distance (usually 176 feet) the car was reflected in the mirror of another detector, and the observer stopped the watch and recorded the time elapsed. Observations at night were made with the aid of a flashlight set up in such a position that passing cars momentarily cut off the reflection of the light beam in the mirror.

The observations were made from a car parked beside the road. Thus, observers were protected from the weather, while the presence of a car alongside the road aroused less suspicion or curiosity on the part of drivers than would the sight of two men holding stop watches and making notes.

The survey was divided into three main periods: Winter, from November 14 to March 29; spring, from April 4 to June 2; and summer from June 16 to September 10. A summary of the observations made during these periods (table 1) reveals the surprising fact that the average speeds of passenger cars and busses were highest in winter and lowest in summer, despite the fact that 25 percent of the winter observations were made in bad weather. Trucks also made their lowest average speeds in summer, but ran slightly faster in spring than in winter. It seems probable that the slower speed of passenger cars in summer results from the presence of numerous pleasure drivers.

OUT-OF-STATE CARS DRIVEN FASTER THAN CONNECTICUT CARS

The effects of weather and road-surface conditions upon the speed of passenger cars at different seasons were also studied. The results are shown in table 2. The effect of weather on speed ranged from stopping altogether during bad snowstorms to driving at high speeds on clear, crisp winter mornings when the road was free from snow or ice. Practically every kind of weather was encountered during the study. The lowest average passenger-car speed recorded (28.4 miles per hour) was on a clear winter day, when the road was covered with 3 inches of hard-packed snow.

That passenger cars from outside the State are driven at markedly higher rates of speed than Connecticut cars was revealed by the study. The recorded speeds also show that the driver farthest from home drives the fastest. During the summer period, for the daylight hours, cars from Massachusetts and New York averaged, respectively, 40.3 and 41.3 miles per hour, and those from more distant States averaged 41.3 miles

¹ The full report, *Motor Vehicle Speeds on Connecticut Highways*, has been published by the Committee on Transportation, Yale University. The Bureau of Public Roads does not have copies for distribution.

² A digest of the report on the Connecticut traffic survey was published in *PUBLIC ROADS*, vol. 16, no. 11, January 1936. The Bureau of Public Roads does not have copies of the full report for distribution.

TABLE 1.—Summary of average speeds of vehicles on Connecticut highways

Vehicle classification	Winter period (Nov. 14, 1933–Mar. 29, 1934)		Spring period (Apr. 4–June 2, 1934)		Summer period (June 16–Sept. 10, 1934)		Complete survey (Nov. 14, 1933–Sept. 10, 1934)	
	Vehicles observed	Average speed	Vehicles observed	Average speed	Vehicles observed	Average speed	Vehicles observed	Average speed
Passenger cars (daytime):								
Foreign—								
New York.....	1,839	45.2	1,259	43.6	6,020	41.3	9,118	42.4
Massachusetts.....	1,473	45.4	813	44.4	3,435	40.3	5,721	42.2
Other.....	1,385	45.6	873	44.0	4,928	41.3	7,186	42.5
All foreign.....	4,697	45.4	2,945	44.0	14,383	41.1	22,025	42.4
Connecticut.....	14,003	41.4	6,370	39.9	20,273	38.2	40,646	39.6
All passenger cars (daytime).....	18,700	42.4	9,315	41.2	34,656	39.4	62,671	40.6
Passenger cars (nighttime).....	3,196	37.8	1,821	38.6	5,483	35.2	10,500	36.6
Total all passenger cars.....	21,896	41.8	11,136	40.8	40,139	38.8	73,171	40.0
All trucks.....	5,498	34.2	1,746	34.4	4,723	33.0	11,967	33.8
All busses.....	764	43.5	305	42.5	1,003	39.9	2,072	41.6
Total all vehicles.....	28,158	40.3	13,187	40.0	45,865	38.2	87,210	39.2

TABLE 2.—Effect of weather on passenger-car speeds

Road type	Bad weather conditions				Normal conditions		Decrease in speed	
	Date (1933-34)	Weather and road condition	Vehicles observed	Average speed	Vehicles observed	Average speed		
			Number	Miles per hour	Number	Miles per hour	Miles per hour	Percent
4-lane concrete.....	Dec. 11	Snow flurries; snow on road.....	915	39.2	812	43.7	4.5	10.3
2-lane concrete.....	Dec. 15	Sleet storm; icy road surface.....	212	35.4	925	46.3	10.9	23.5
Do.....	Dec. 27	Clear; road 30 percent snow covered. Some cars using chains.....	177	35.2	231	36.8	1.6	4.4
Do.....	Jan. 7	Steady rain.....	206	37.8	675	43.8	6.0	13.7
Do.....	Jan. 13	Snow, rain, and slush.....	81	38.1	103	46.4	8.3	17.9
4-lane concrete.....	Feb. 5	Clear; snow on road.....	394	38.8	812	43.7	4.9	11.2
2-lane concrete.....	Mar. 2	Clear; 3 inches hardpacked snow.....	182	28.4	298	45.4	17.0	37.5
Macadam.....	Mar. 8	Light snow.....	305	36.2	386	40.8	4.6	8.9
2-lane concrete.....	Mar. 28	Light rain.....	269	43.1	197	44.7	1.6	3.6
Macadam.....	June 19	Hard rain.....	129	34.3				
Do.....	June 27	Clear; fresh oil on road.....	147	30.7				
Do.....	Aug. 7	Dense fog.....	35	35.3	640	37.1	1.8	4.9
2-lane concrete.....	Aug. 16	Light rain.....	324	39.4	205	42.6	3.2	7.5
Macadam.....	Sept. 6	Dense fog.....	20	31.4	603	40.8	9.4	23.0

per hour as compared to 38.2 miles per hour for Connecticut cars. Cars from four midwestern States averaged 44.9 miles per hour. The conclusions drawn from these figures are that the driver of the foreign car, because he is farther from home, places a higher value on his time, and that since he is making a longer trip, his car is probably newer or in better mechanical condition, and accordingly can travel faster than the average.

A comparison was made of the daytime and nighttime speeds of passenger cars operated on different types of road surface. The results, shown in table 3, were as anticipated. Daytime speeds were higher than nighttime speeds; and speeds on concrete roads exceeded speeds on macadam roads.

TABLE 3.—Comparison of daytime and nighttime passenger-car speeds by road type and by season of the year

Season, and type of road	Daytime observations		Nighttime observations	
	Vehicles observed	Average speed	Vehicles observed	Average speed
Winter (Nov. 14 to Mar. 29):	<i>Number</i>	<i>Miles per hour</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Miles per hour</i>
2-lane concrete.....	9,460	42.8	1,108	37.5
4-lane concrete.....	7,071	42.2	1,858	37.9
Macadam.....	2,229	41.5	230	37.9
Total or average.....	18,760	42.4	3,196	37.8
Spring (Apr. 4 to June 2):				
2-lane concrete.....	4,403	41.6	1,228	39.9
4-lane concrete.....	4,912	40.8	593	35.9
Total or average.....	9,315	41.2	1,821	38.6
Summer (June 16 to Sept. 10):				
2-lane concrete.....	13,591	41.3	1,260	36.2
4-lane concrete.....	6,348	39.3	2,841	35.4
Macadam.....	14,717	37.8	1,382	33.6
Total or average.....	34,656	39.4	5,483	35.2
Complete survey:				
2-lane concrete.....	27,394	41.9	3,596	37.9
4-lane concrete.....	18,331	40.8	5,292	36.4
Macadam.....	16,946	38.2	1,612	34.2
Total or average.....	62,671	40.6	10,500	36.6

With respect to speed during the day, observations at certain stations from 6 a. m. to 10 p. m. showed that the average speed decreased as the day progressed. The highest speed occurred shortly after daybreak. Speeds then decreased gradually until late afternoon, rose to a minor peak between 5 and 6 p. m., and fell rather sharply after nightfall to the lowest average of

the day—about 7 or 8 miles per hour less than the morning peak.

One objective of the survey was to determine the manner in which speed might be affected by traffic volume. Unfortunately, analysis of the data collected indicated that they were inadequate as a basis for any conclusions in this respect. The relationship between speed and volume of traffic, if any exists, depends upon factors such as width and type of pavement, visibility, and general weather conditions.

An answer to the much-debated question of whether women drive faster than men, or vice versa, was sought during two periods of the survey. The conclusion reached was that there is no significant difference. During the period from November 24 to January 31, the men drove 1.1 miles per hour faster than the women; but during the period from July 12 to September 6, the women drove 0.6 mile per hour faster than the men. During the first period, only 9.8 percent of the observed drivers were women; during the second period 17.1 percent of the observed drivers were women.

FAST DRIVERS FOUND TO HAVE WORST ACCIDENT RECORDS

The driving speeds of drivers with and without passengers were studied during these same two periods. It was found that during the winter drivers with passengers drove at a rate only 0.5 mile per hour slower and during the summer they drove 2 miles per hour slower than unaccompanied drivers.

The relation between speed and accidents, a widely discussed and important traffic safety problem, was studied for 6 months during the winter and spring periods. The method used was to select two groups containing nearly the same number of cars: One group included cars observed to be traveling at moderate speeds (35 to 45 miles per hour); the other group included cars whose speeds were 50 miles per hour or more. The observers recorded the license numbers as well as the speeds of these cars. A list of the license numbers was sent to the office of the Connecticut Department of Motor Vehicles, where the name of the owner of each car and his accident record since 1928 were ascertained. Because of duplications, the final figures included 981 cars observed at high speeds and 1,054 observed at moderate speeds.

Results of these observations given in table 4 show that 27.8 percent of the drivers observed traveling at high speeds had been involved in accidents, as compared with 21.3 percent of the drivers observed traveling

at moderate speeds. In other words, 30 percent more of the fast drivers had been in accidents. Moreover, those fast drivers who had been involved in accidents had had more of them and accounted for 45 percent more accidents.

TABLE 4.—*Accident records of owners of cars observed traveling at high and at moderate speeds*

Speed group	Total cars	Owners with accident records	Total accidents	Owners with the following number of accidents—					
				1	2	3	4	5	6
	Number	Number	Number	Number	Number	Number	Number	Number	Number
High.....	981	273	438	168	71	15	13	5	1
Moderate.....	1,054	225	324	152	54	13	5	1	0
ACCIDENTS PER THOUSAND CARS									
High.....	1,000	278	446	171	72	15	13	5	1
Moderate.....	1,000	213	307	144	51	12	5	1	0

(Continued from p. 74)

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The objections can be raised that since each car was observed only once, a car in the high-speed group may have been going fast only during the interval when it was timed, and vice versa; also, that while the record of the driver was consulted, the owner may not have been the driver at the time the car was observed. The effect of any such errors, however, is to minimize the differences between the records of the two classes of drivers.

Observations were made at a dangerous curve on the Boston Post Road (U S 1) in Madison during 4 days of good weather—2 days in January and 2 in September. Observations were also made during 1 day in February when the road was covered with hard-packed snow. On the days of good weather, the average speed of all the cars observed was 30.4 miles per hour. This included one car that was recorded at 43 miles per hour. On the day when snow covered the road, the average speed was 25.8 miles per hour. For comparison, the speeds of cars were observed during the same 2 days in September on a long straight stretch of road 0.7 mile west of the curve, and were found to be 9.2 miles per hour faster than on the curve.

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- 1 Registration periods ending not earlier than Nov. 30 and not later than Jan. 31 are considered as calendar-year periods. In the case of States in which the registration period is definitely removed from the calendar year registration figures were obtained for the calendar-year period. The figures for Ohio, however, represent registrations for the 9-month period ended Dec. 31, 1936.
- 2 Wherever possible publicly owned vehicles and vehicles not for highway use have been eliminated from these columns.
- 3 A complete segregation of motor busses from other vehicles is not available. The figures given represent common-carrier busses in most cases, although in some States contract busses and contract school busses are included. In a number of cases city busses are not included, rural and interurban carriers only being given. Where no busses are tabulated the busses are included with automobiles, except as otherwise noted.
- 4 Figures for trailers and semitrailers are as reported. Apparent inconsistencies are due to the fact that some States require the registration of tourist trailers, light work trailers, and similar vehicles, whereas other States register only freight-carrying trailers and semitrailers.
- 5 Preliminary figures based on incomplete data for 1936 and complete data for 1935; obtained through agency of Procurement Division, Department of the Treasury.
- 6 Data on State, county, and municipal vehicles are incomplete in many cases. Some States give State-owned vehicles only; others exclude certain classes, such as fire apparatus and police vehicles, from registration.
- 7 Figures include new-car, used-car, and motorcycle dealers' registrations, and in some cases wreckers' and repairers' registrations. Data on dealers' extra plates incomplete, although extra plates are apparently included with dealers' registrations in some cases.
- 8 Large increase due to fact that 1935 figures represent registrations during fiscal year ended Sept. 30, 1935, whereas 1936 figures represent registrations during calendar year 1936.
- 9 Included with motor trucks.
- 10 Included with private and commercial registrations.
- 11 Includes 53,551 light trailers registered without charge.
- 12 Includes unknown number of Federal vehicles.
- 13 Trailers of 1,000 pounds capacity or more prohibited on highways, although permitted in cities under city licenses. Tractor-semitrailers registered as trucks. Light trailers permitted but not registered.
- 14 Includes light trailers and commercial semitrailers. Commercial full trailers included with motor trucks.
- 15 Of these vehicles approximately 1,500 are included with private and commercial registrations.
- 16 Not reported.
- 17 For 9-month period ended Dec. 31, 1936. Data for full calendar year not available.
- 18 Large increase due to fact that 1935 figures represent registrations during fiscal year ended Oct. 31, 1935, whereas 1936 figures represent registrations during calendar year 1936.
- 19 Trailers for passenger vehicles only. Freight trailers registered with trucks.
- 20 Light delivery trucks included with passenger cars.

- * Receipts less than \$500.
- ¹ Registration periods ending not earlier than Nov. 30 and not later than Jan. 31 are considered as calendar-year periods. In the case of States in which the registration period is definitely removed from the calendar year, data on receipts were obtained for the calendar-year period. The figures for Ohio, however, represent receipts for the 9-month period ended Dec. 31, 1936.
- ² No segregation of registration fees by type of vehicle was available in Alabama, Mississippi, New Hampshire, and Tennessee. For these States the total motor-vehicle registration fees include those of trailers and motor cycles, except in the case of New Hampshire, for which motorcycle fees were reported separately. Dealers' license fees in Alabama and Tennessee are also included.
- ³ The figures for registration fees of motor busses are incomplete. (See footnote 3 of preceding table.) Where no fees are tabulated, the fees of busses are included with those of automobiles, except as otherwise noted.
- ⁴ Deduction of refunds results in a negative item in a number of cases.
- ⁵ In a large number of States service charges are collected or deducted by the county or local officers who issue registrations. In the majority of cases these charges are included in the registration and other fees as listed. The amounts shown in this column are estimates of service charges collected and retained by local officials and not reported elsewhere in the table.
- ⁶ Included with motor-vehicle registration fees.
- ⁷ Included with fees of motor trucks.
- ⁸ Trailers of 1,000 pounds capacity or more prohibited on highways, although permitted in cities under city licenses. Tractor-semitrailers registered as trucks. Light trailers permitted but not registered.
- ⁹ Fees of light trailers and commercial semitrailers only. Fees of commercial full trailers included with those of motor trucks.
- ¹⁰ Registration fees are collected by counties, and State does not maintain complete record. Figures given are estimates supplied by State.
- ¹¹ For 9-month period ended Dec. 31, 1936. Data for full calendar year not available.
- ¹² Fees of light delivery trucks included with those of automobiles.
- ¹³ Totals of columns for which fully classified totals were not available for all States.

STATUS OF FEDERAL-AID HIGHWAY PROJECTS

AS OF MAY 31, 1937

STATE	APPORTIONMENT		COMPLETED		UNDER CONSTRUCTION		APPROVED FOR CONSTRUCTION		BALANCE OF AID FOR NEW PROJECTS	
	Estimated Total Cost	Miles	Federal Aid	Miles	Estimated Total Cost	Federal Aid	Estimated Total Cost	Federal Aid	Estimated Total Cost	Miles
Alabama	\$ 7,872,980	9.0	\$ 25,800	9.0	\$ 1,354,601	\$ 677,300	\$ 667,250	\$ 333,625	\$ 6,876,255	37.2
Arizona	5,394,661	145.1	1,972,485	145.1	1,049,303	811,285	880,898	573,145	2,037,146	23.3
Arkansas	6,463,681	184.0	3,081,271	184.0	3,081,271	3,081,271	870,040	869,086	2,513,324	68.8
California	14,366,891	196.6	4,225,587	196.6	4,176,442	4,573,646	2,595,985	1,318,052	4,249,606	57.6
Colorado	6,911,198	176.3	2,407,190	176.3	3,395,599	1,890,122	4,339,333	240,544	2,373,342	4.7
Connecticut	2,368,339	14.2	384,238	14.2	745,158	370,176	439,333	240,544	2,373,342	1.6
Delaware	1,843,750	33.0	688,441	33.0	469,148	234,444	316,098	155,861	1,120,018	20.5
Florida	5,020,323	31.5	1,022,926	31.5	1,690,655	609,970	609,970	304,985	3,164,619	7.4
Georgia	9,569,722	117.7	1,856,155	117.7	2,519,984	1,259,977	1,921,920	960,960	6,462,068	103.6
Idaho	4,635,991	265.4	1,632,661	265.4	1,594,295	953,976	483,186	287,966	1,761,688	39.4
Illinois	15,564,720	139.1	4,404,074	139.1	7,989,182	3,944,825	6,869,378	3,431,827	3,783,993	196.2
Indiana	9,333,269	197.4	2,942,550	197.4	5,855,691	2,927,736	1,896,120	948,060	2,514,924	49.1
Iowa	9,157,950	495.8	3,536,362	495.8	4,519,229	2,059,231	2,175,612	946,059	3,216,278	62.4
Kansas	10,005,211	833.9	4,722,267	833.9	6,478,352	3,212,729	2,124,113	1,082,046	3,366,403	143.6
Kentucky	6,961,271	152.5	1,085,244	152.5	2,418,979	1,137,899	2,277,934	1,136,967	3,599,161	81.6
Louisiana	5,387,420	72.1	1,004,304	72.1	1,085,777	542,584	9,246,560	1,135,750	2,704,781	32.4
Maine	3,289,867	58.9	933,106	58.9	1,305,676	652,804	516,051	258,026	1,229,513	15.6
Maryland	3,094,808	3.1	166,968	3.1	4,329,066	2,104,533	511,760	255,890	2,163,979	8.0
Massachusetts	5,255,300	332.2	4,914,088	332.2	6,120,169	3,059,181	3,250,100	1,614,449	2,339,882	76.2
Michigan	11,562,296	531.3	3,861,650	531.3	3,332,935	1,648,314	1,719,765	859,877	3,974,644	69.9
Minnesota	10,344,485	4.640	2,320	4.640	4,329,066	2,104,533	511,760	255,890	2,163,979	2.3
Mississippi	6,635,344	477.5	2,440,070	477.5	8,044,731	4,009,086	3,853,890	1,925,740	3,836,784	173.7
Missouri	11,479,090	169.9	3,995,419	169.9	3,166,965	1,774,575	3,732,924	1,648,903	3,381,031	185.8
Montana	8,877,837	347.5	1,467,210	347.5	4,942,372	2,348,636	1,091,040	493,457	3,228,185	63.2
Nebraska	5,914,683	190.8	1,598,845	190.8	3,233,957	1,636,341	1,091,040	493,457	3,228,185	63.2
Nevada	4,821,864	272.2	1,594,112	272.2	1,766,518	1,526,190	1,700,042	850,021	3,724,146	195.0
New Hampshire	1,843,750	24.8	404,381	24.8	1,094,187	96,641	258,341	216,907	1,684,655	37.6
New Jersey	5,054,295	39.2	1,327,644	39.2	2,075,259	960,334	20,880	10,440	1,742,783	2.3
New Mexico	6,030,708	334.6	2,452,029	334.6	1,969,311	1,157,131	1,786,512	1,170,521	2,755,677	115.5
New York	18,565,567	169.9	3,995,419	169.9	18,308,914	8,530,207	2,795,600	1,363,850	4,676,091	4.3
North Carolina	8,877,837	347.5	1,467,210	347.5	4,942,372	2,348,636	1,091,040	493,457	3,228,185	63.2
North Dakota	5,914,683	190.8	1,598,845	190.8	3,233,957	1,636,341	1,091,040	493,457	3,228,185	63.2
Ohio	13,771,548	47.4	1,974,000	47.4	3,666,260	2,757,716	3,080,610	1,535,539	7,079,621	40.6
Oklahoma	8,880,547	144.0	2,063,516	144.0	3,394,352	1,255,960	2,889,546	1,488,783	4,062,888	101.7
Oregon	6,182,079	117.5	883,627	117.5	4,588,881	2,705,023	500,528	285,322	1,338,469	29.9
Pennsylvania	16,129,804	110.4	3,226,952	110.4	10,942,129	5,458,961	1,845,158	919,546	6,324,345	20.5
Rhode Island	1,843,750	3.3	104,733	3.3	794,476	397,238	346,360	170,310	1,171,469	5.8
South Carolina	5,103,925	53.8	246,900	53.8	4,957,391	2,050,223	659,135	298,700	2,507,402	36.8
South Dakota	6,162,747	176.7	1,315,271	176.7	1,173,903	922,461	795,324	442,723	4,323,257	109.6
Tennessee	7,949,380	115.0	2,664,334	115.0	1,844,922	922,461	634,540	317,270	5,397,911	20.4
Texas	23,506,431	778.2	6,810,279	778.2	11,912,022	5,898,003	3,737,350	1,765,643	9,032,507	179.5
Utah	4,274,740	144.8	1,530,051	144.8	1,047,653	755,719	512,870	344,790	1,644,180	56.6
Vermont	1,843,750	68.9	641,741	68.9	1,043,485	494,780	60,200	30,100	677,129	1.2
Virginia	6,887,569	146.2	1,745,178	146.2	3,169,962	1,545,891	879,960	439,960	3,156,520	26.1
Washington	5,907,615	164.6	2,258,713	164.6	1,034,271	1,034,271	922,679	481,098	2,133,533	11.8
West Virginia	4,107,201	42.3	431,486	42.3	5,300,256	450,116	1,124,578	558,439	2,667,160	26.8
Wisconsin	9,197,557	167.7	1,913,908	167.7	3,976,182	2,444,448	4,192,342	1,730,182	3,109,019	96.8
Wyoming	4,222,382	399.1	1,870,594	399.1	2,992,166	1,840,849	790,370	463,017	547,861	71.4
Puerto Rico	625,000								625,000	
Hawaii	1,843,750	.8	14,542	.8	855,062	420,545	124,030	58,735	1,349,928	.8
TOTALS	368,750,000	8,750.1	82,885,292	8,750.1	178,553,999	92,071,152	81,968,463	38,550,349	155,243,207	3,057.5

1/ APPORTIONMENTS FOR FISCAL YEARS 1936 TO 1938 INCLUSIVE.

CURRENT STATUS OF UNITED STATES WORKS PROGRAM HIGHWAY PROJECTS
(AS PROVIDED BY THE EMERGENCY RELIEF APPROPRIATION ACT OF 1935)

AS OF MAY 31, 1937

STATE	APPORTIONMENT		COMPLETED		UNDER CONSTRUCTION		APPROVED FOR CONSTRUCTION		BALANCE OF FUNDS AVAILABLE FOR NEW PROJECTS
	\$	Miles	Estimated Total Cost	Works Program Funds	Estimated Total Cost	Works Program Funds	Estimated Total Cost	Works Program Funds	
Alabama	4,151,115	109.2	3,321,378	3,306,391	771,036	771,036	16,282	15,714	73,687
Arizona	2,569,841	178.5	2,797,425	2,256,485	367,455	242,725			70,631
Arkansas	3,352,061	303.8	2,791,353	2,768,637	532,396	531,222			36,489
California	7,747,988	233.7	6,300,614	6,113,621	1,831,563	1,624,227	7,200	7,200	1,473,776
Colorado	3,395,263	99.1	1,893,495	1,831,891	89,597	89,596	84,583	82,500	284,294
Connecticut	1,418,769	4.4	580,639	534,508	57,218	517,407	37,945	29,151	43,436
Delaware	900,310	48.9	606,917	580,185	247,538	247,538			51,145
Florida	2,597,144	77.9	1,970,774	1,937,280	608,719	608,719	769,552	769,552	2,524,511
Georgia	4,368,967	39.6	671,162	661,215	1,033,689	1,033,689			26,244
Idaho	2,222,747	185.3	2,242,791	2,151,838	44,665	44,665			37,279
Illinois	8,694,009	440.1	7,819,498	7,706,054	950,754	950,676			8,764
Indiana	4,941,255	122.8	2,985,205	2,795,259	2,137,232	2,137,232			29,531
Iowa	4,991,664	424.6	3,715,647	3,485,929	1,513,751	1,473,124			55,360
Kansas	4,994,975	325.4	3,885,339	3,855,480	1,124,880	1,062,708			21,427
Kentucky	3,226,271	317.9	2,890,134	2,758,768	613,277	613,277			85,353
Louisiana	2,890,429	129.7	1,767,022	1,587,428	1,330,755	1,196,389			12,296
Maine	1,676,799	59.3	1,303,328	1,289,370	323,032	323,032			370,049
Maryland	1,750,738	17.7	478,755	473,816	730,571	730,571			268,530
Massachusetts	3,262,895	216.783	2,167,883	2,167,883	2,687,114	2,333,754			33,882
Michigan	6,301,414	287.9	6,326,701	5,965,711	291,871	291,871			16,492
Minnesota	5,277,145	823.2	5,186,071	4,411,073	1,130,855	734,783			8,900
Mississippi	3,457,552	164.0	2,242,832	2,238,300	1,103,977	1,103,977			96,798
Missouri	6,012,652	747.1	4,441,704	4,399,532	1,666,075	1,481,358			4,665
Montana	3,676,416	195.1	3,375,707	3,368,616	249,598	249,598			268,571
Nebraska	3,870,739	323.7	3,086,730	3,007,972	573,739	573,736			71,471
Nevada	2,243,074	89.1	2,030,445	1,969,541	279,244	264,244			34,278
New Hampshire	2,945,225	26.7	615,425	587,476	285,524	282,466			85,970
New Jersey	3,129,805	15.3	832,403	829,403	2,222,746	2,209,591			184,997
New Mexico	2,871,397	179.2	2,292,349	2,247,612	398,230	398,230			45,603
New York	11,046,377	136.1	9,703,228	9,224,042	1,599,860	1,599,860			37,044
North Carolina	4,720,173	209.0	2,946,831	2,914,118	1,799,730	1,758,852			189,704
North Dakota	2,867,245	248.7	1,675,425	1,661,201	735,375	735,220			37,044
Ohio	7,670,815	145.0	3,324,629	3,260,320	4,177,467	4,130,032			14,126
Oklahoma	4,580,670	338.3	3,449,175	3,382,040	960,857	960,272			19,921
Oregon	3,038,642	149.3	2,046,351	2,025,483	1,205,418	933,484			34,625
Pennsylvania	9,347,797	97.1	2,049,064	1,933,709	3,689,408	3,616,608			766,830
Rhode Island	989,208	18.8	1,073,470	953,038	1,075,143	1,015,319			2,312
South Carolina	2,702,012	142.5	1,507,295	1,418,056	745,237	745,237			125,079
South Dakota	2,976,454	399.1	2,035,805	2,033,686	1,206,932	1,206,932			35,892
Tennessee	4,192,460	96.8	2,342,026	2,331,290	827,641	827,641			161,777
Texas	11,989,350	1,083.1	12,124,223	11,110,121	897,641	897,641			90,840
Utah	2,067,154	171.0	1,677,446	1,517,840	438,762	427,398			101,595
Vermont	924,306	20.7	869,040	729,665	239,160	180,517			14,126
Virginia	3,652,667	933.0	2,926,358	2,865,020	526,731	514,550			221,044
Washington	3,026,161	162.6	3,082,032	2,776,368	294,844	223,272			26,521
West Virginia	2,231,412	38.5	849,360	845,863	1,473,870	1,337,971			47,577
Wisconsin	4,823,884	329.2	4,898,678	4,426,150	470,612	348,912			24,204
Wyoming	2,219,155	124.1	1,655,804	1,653,365	549,869	546,137			209
District of Columbia	949,496	8.8	949,496	949,496					
Hawaii	226,033	8.9	635,699	617,792	322,161	298,335			9,906
TOTALS	195,000,000	10,832.3	140,421,321	134,060,449	48,056,728	45,389,109	8,478,098	7,202,522	2,347,920

CURRENT STATUS OF UNITED STATES WORKS PROGRAM GRADE CROSSING PROJECTS

(AS PROVIDED BY THE EMERGENCY RELIEF APPROPRIATION ACT OF 1935)

AS OF MAY 31, 1937

STATE	APPORTIONMENT		COMPLETED			UNDER CONSTRUCTION			APPROVED FOR CONSTRUCTION			BALANCE OF FUNDS AVAILABLE FOR PROJECTS	
			Estimated Total Cost	Works Program Funds	NUMBER	Estimated Total Cost	Works Program Funds	NUMBER	Estimated Total Cost	Works Program Funds	NUMBER		
	\$				Grade Crossings by State or other Re- lation or			Grade Crossings by State or other Re- lation or			Grade Crossings by State or other Re- lation or		
Alabama	4,034,617	2,686,501	2,686,501	37	1	9	1	1	1,152,869	87,220	1	3	108,087
Arizona	1,256,099	1,119,207	1,094,094	13	1	1	1	104,506	9,740	3	3	47,759	
Arkansas	3,574,060	1,791,281	1,785,984	38	4	2	2	1,556,271	199,714	1	30	32,092	
California	7,486,362	5,041,619	4,875,772	29	8	17	17	2,298,880	205,938	6	6	105,772	
Colorado	2,651,567	1,234,005	1,200,507	21	1	1	1	939,940	75,890	1	1	415,231	
Connecticut	1,712,684	73,479	73,479	1	1	1	1	728,630	283,610	2	2	596,965	
Delaware	418,239	130,000	130,000	1	1	1	1	826,197	277,993	1	1	10,246	
Florida	2,827,883	1,660,162	1,657,852	17	5	5	5	905,444	493,098	12	14	264,634	
Georgia	4,895,949	59,085	57,593	1	2	1	1	505,144	248,737	2	7	3,459,814	
Idaho	1,674,479	908,936	902,471	14	1	5	5	385,482	3,305,219	1	9	137,789	
Illinois	10,307,184	4,846,297	4,842,579	49	2	2	2	3,427,682	3,391,082	27	1	159,366	
Indiana	5,111,086	1,830,400	1,694,405	20	11	11	11	2,664,571	216,070	2	2	29,609	
Iowa	5,600,679	2,784,798	2,720,038	68	7	4	4	2,681,187	229,876	2	2	34,244	
Kansas	5,246,298	2,384,404	2,372,609	33	4	4	4	2,859,405	814,500	4	5	279,564	
Kentucky	3,672,387	1,051,182	1,050,873	16	3	3	3	1,817,182	1,209,330	9	3	219,543	
Louisiana	3,213,467	288,468	288,468	4	4	2	2	1,681,522	1,681,522	6	1	42,422	
Maine	1,426,861	798,859	797,486	14	14	14	14	346,603	638,004	3	2	569,223	
Maryland	2,061,751	358,388	358,388	3	3	3	3	518,504	1,059,621	4	1	119,650	
Massachusetts	4,210,833	1,001,729	1,001,643	8	4	4	4	2,033,499	43,500	1	1	52,719	
Michigan	6,165,137	3,476,224	3,394,989	35	2	2	2	3,397,177	3,448	2	10	482,017	
Minnesota	5,355,441	3,161,230	3,091,181	63	10	37	37	2,248,093	3,448	2	10	106,655	
Mississippi	3,241,475	1,172,764	1,172,600	31	3	1	1	1,481,858	1,650	1	1	18,965	
Missouri	6,142,153	786,713	783,740	14	14	14	14	5,560,303	75,278	1	1	212,485	
Montana	2,722,327	2,538,405	2,494,780	35	7	8	8	1,784,582	139,100	1	1	70,184	
Nebraska	3,656,461	1,939,514	1,929,459	65	2	2	2	1,382,819	31,678	13	3	212,485	
Nevada	822,484	692,128	690,192	7	3	3	3	211,658	15,452	6	6	537,414	
New Hampshire	822,484	345,718	341,743	3	3	3	3	395,145	139,100	1	1	11,202	
New Jersey	3,983,866	760,036	760,036	6	2	2	2	2,586,322	388,150	1	1	414,129	
New Mexico	1,725,286	1,044,613	1,043,684	13	16	16	16	673,090	388,150	1	1	815,270	
New York	13,577,189	3,340,870	3,328,645	12	15	31	31	3,694,911	63,890	1	1	392,494	
North Carolina	4,823,958	1,777,842	1,777,842	23	15	23	23	2,186,507	65,890	1	1	417,562	
North Dakota	3,207,473	1,043,506	1,043,216	23	1	2	2	1,771,763	2,301,242	16	2	490,384	
Ohio	8,439,897	247,806	232,313	2	2	2	2	5,595,268	873,383	8	31	7,987	
Oklahoma	5,004,711	2,676,501	2,670,555	42	4	4	4	970,588	493,098	1	1	15,006	
Oregon	2,334,204	1,193,881	1,187,909	10	5	2	2	1,170,816	968,128	7	7	562,188	
Pennsylvania	11,483,613	2,256,542	2,009,765	37	9	9	9	8,086,045	1,079,528	1	1	317,730	
Rhode Island	699,691	624,125	624,125	4	4	4	4	61,626	275,700	3	3	320,010	
South Carolina	3,095,956	991,114	980,397	20	5	3	3	1,221,671	490,020	3	3	320,591	
South Dakota	3,249,086	1,042,381	1,042,175	27	2	25	25	1,686,171	543,156	1	1	19,670	
Tennessee	3,903,979	754,800	750,456	15	2	18	18	2,339,790	356,795	5	9	560,074	
Texas	10,855,982	6,539,708	6,531,664	99	13	21	21	3,460,579	575,069	8	1	394,362	
Utah	1,230,783	338,576	337,171	3	1	1	1	873,921	101,000	1	1	83,453	
Vermont	729,857	500,765	495,086	7	5	15	15	271,833	85,100	1	1	14,000	
Virginia	3,774,287	1,977,625	1,867,760	33	11	8	8	989,658	362,584	5	1	560,074	
Washington	3,095,041	2,119,054	2,094,014	19	10	8	8	1,026,083	10,359	3	3	174,167	
West Virginia	2,677,937	79,454	79,454	1	4	4	4	1,631,021	575,069	8	1	83,453	
Wisconsin	5,022,683	2,601,047	2,559,272	27	4	4	4	2,320,496	85,100	1	1	14,000	
Wyoming	1,360,881	653,621	653,513	9	2	9	9	538,775	101,000	1	1	14,000	
Dist of Columbia	410,804	170,643	170,643	2	2	2	2	254,921	14,320,591	111	21	14,356,729	
Hawaii	453,703	170,404	170,389	2	2	2	2	351,976	13,484,123	111	21	14,356,729	
TOTALS	196,000,000	77,162,481	75,948,254	1,075	191	189	189	94,451,757	92,210,894	744	129	346	

PUBLICATIONS of the BUREAU OF PUBLIC ROADS

Any of the following publications may be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. As his office is not connected with the Department and as the Department does not sell publications, please send no remittance to the United States Department of Agriculture.

ANNUAL REPORTS

- Report of the Chief of the Bureau of Public Roads, 1924. 5 cents.
Report of the Chief of the Bureau of Public Roads, 1927. 5 cents.
Report of the Chief of the Bureau of Public Roads, 1928. 5 cents.
Report of the Chief of the Bureau of Public Roads, 1929. 10 cents.
Report of the Chief of the Bureau of Public Roads, 1931. 10 cents.
Report of the Chief of the Bureau of Public Roads, 1933. 5 cents.
Report of the Chief of the Bureau of Public Roads, 1934. 10 cents.
Report of the Chief of the Bureau of Public Roads, 1935. 5 cents.
Report of the Chief of the Bureau of Public Roads, 1936. 10 cents.

DEPARTMENT BULLETINS

- No. 583D. .Reports on Experimental Convict Road Camp, Fulton County, Ga. 25 cents.
No. 1279D. .Rural Highway Mileage, Income, and Expenditures, 1921 and 1922. 15 cents.

TECHNICAL BULLETINS

- No. 265T. .Electrical Equipment on Movable Bridges. 35 cents.

MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS

- No. 76MP. .The Results of Physical Tests of Road-Building Rock. 25 cents.
Federal Legislation and Rules and Regulations Relating to Highway Construction. 15 cents.
No. 191. . . .Roadside Improvement. 10 cents.
The Taxation of Motor Vehicles in 1932. 35 cents.

- An Economic and Statistical Analysis of Highway-Construction Expenditures. 15 cents.
Highway Bond Calculations. 10 cents.
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Single copies of the following publications may be obtained from the Bureau of Public Roads upon request. They cannot be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents.

SEPARATE REPRINT FROM THE YEARBOOK

- No. 1036Y. .Road Work on Farm Outlets Needs Skill and Right Equipment.

TRANSPORTATION SURVEY REPORTS

- Report of a Survey of Transportation on the State Highway System of Ohio (1927).
Report of a Survey of Transportation on the State Highways of Vermont (1927).
Report of a Survey of Transportation on the State Highways of New Hampshire (1927).
Report of a Plan of Highway Improvement in the Regional Area of Cleveland, Ohio (1928).
Report of a Survey of Transportation on the State Highways of Pennsylvania (1928).
Report of a Survey of Traffic on the Federal-Aid Highway Systems of Eleven Western States (1930).

UNIFORM VEHICLE CODE

- Act I.—Uniform Motor Vehicle Administration, Registration, Certificate of Title, and Antitheft Act.
Act II.—Uniform Motor Vehicle Operators' and Chauffeurs' License Act.
Act III.—Uniform Motor Vehicle Civil Liability Act.
Act IV.—Uniform Motor Vehicle Safety Responsibility Act.
Act V.—Uniform Act Regulating Traffic on Highways.
Model Traffic Ordinances.
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A complete list of the publications of the Bureau of Public Roads, classified according to subject and including the more important articles in *PUBLIC ROADS*, may be obtained upon request addressed to the U. S. Bureau of Public Roads, Willard Building, Washington, D. C.
