

Chapter 1

Introduction to transportation engineering

Major disciplines of transportation

Transportation engineering can be broadly consisting of the four major parts:

1. Transportation Planning
2. Geometric Design
3. Pavement Design
4. Traffic Engineering

A brief overview of the topics is given below: Transportation planning deals with the development of a comprehensive set of action plan for the design, construction and operation of transportation facilities.

Transportation planning

Transportation planning essentially involves the development of a transport model which will accurately represent both the current as well as future transportation system.

Geometric design

Geometric design deals with physical proportioning of other transportation facilities, in contrast with the structural design of the facilities. The topics include the cross-sectional features, horizontal alignment, vertical alignment and intersections. Although there are several modes of travel like road, rail, air, etc.. the underlying principles are common to a great extent. Therefore emphasis will be normally given for the geometric design of roads.

Pavement analysis and design

Pavement design deals with the structural design of roads, both (bituminous and concrete), commonly known as (flexible pavements and rigid pavements) respectively. It deals with the design of paving materials, determination of the layer thickness, and construction and maintenance procedures. The design mainly covers structural aspects, functional aspects, drainage. Structural design ensures the pavement has enough strength to withstand the impact of loads, functional design emphasizes on the riding quality, and the drainage design protects the pavement from damage due to water infiltration.

Traffic engineering

Traffic engineering covers a broad range of engineering applications with a focus on the safety of the public, the efficient use of transportation resources, and the mobility of people and goods. Traffic engineering involves a variety of engineering and management skills, including design, operation, and system optimization. In order to address the above requirement, the traffic engineer must first understand the traffic flow behavior and characteristics by extensive collection of traffic flow data and analysis. Based on this analysis, traffic flow is controlled so that the transport infrastructure is used optimally as well as with good service quality. In short, the role of traffic engineer is to protect the environment while providing mobility, to preserve scarce resources while assuring economic activity, and to assure safety and security to people and vehicles, through both acceptable practices and high-tech communications.

History of highway engineering

The history of highway engineering gives us an idea about the roads of ancient times. Roads in Rome were constructed in a large scale and it radiated in many directions helping them in military operations. Thus they are considered to be pioneers in road construction. In this section we will see in detail about Ancient roads, Roman roads, British roads, French roads etc.

Ancient Roads

The first mode of transport was by foot. These human pathways would have been developed for specific purposes leading to camp sites, food, streams for drinking water etc. The next major mode of transport was the use of animals for transporting both men and materials. Since these loaded animals required more horizontal and vertical clearances than the walking man, track ways emerged. The invention of wheel in Mesopotamian civilization led to the development of animal drawn vehicles. Then it became necessary that the road surface should be capable of carrying greater loads. Thus roads with harder surfaces emerged. To provide adequate strength to carry the wheels, the new ways tended to follow the sunny drier side of a path. These have led to the development of foot-paths. After the invention of wheel, animal drawn vehicles were developed and the need for hard surface road emerged. Traces of such hard roads were obtained from various ancient civilization dated as old as 3500 BC. The earliest authentic record of road was found from Assyrian empire constructed about 1900 BC.

Roman roads

The earliest large scale road construction is attributed to Romans who constructed an extensive system of roads radiating in many directions from Rome. They were a remarkable achievement and provided travel times across Europe, Asia minor, and north Africa. Romans recognized that the fundamentals of good road construction were to provide good drainage, good material and good workmanship. Their roads were very durable, and some are still existing. Roman roads were always constructed on a firm - formed subgrade strengthened where necessary with wooden piles. The roads were bordered on both sides by longitudinal drains. The next step was the construction of the *agger*. This was a raised formation up to a 1 meter high and 15 m wide and was constructed with materials excavated during the side drain construction. This was then topped with a sand leveling course. The *agger* contributed greatly to moisture control in the pavement. The pavement structure on the top of the *agger* varied greatly. In the case of heavy traffic, a surface course of large 250 mm thick hexagonal flag stones were provided.

French roads

The next major development in the road construction occurred during the regime of Napoleon. The significant contributions were given by Tresaguet in 1764 and a typical cross section of this road is given in Figure 2:2. He developed a cheaper method of construction than the lavish and locally unsuccessful revival of Roman practice. The pavement used 200 mm pieces of quarried stone of a more compact form and shaped such that they had at least one flat side which was placed on a compact formation. Smaller pieces of broken stones were then compacted into the spaces between larger stones to provide a level surface. Finally the running layer was made with a layer of 25 mm sized broken stone. All this structure was placed in a trench in order to keep the running surface level with the surrounding country side. This created major drainage problems which were counteracted by making the surface as impervious as possible, cambering the surface and providing deep side ditches. He gave much importance for drainage. He also enunciated the necessity for continuous organized maintenance, instead of intermittent repairs if the roads were to be kept usable all times. For this he divided the roads between villages into sections of such length that an entire road could be covered by maintenance men living nearby.

British roads

The British government also gave importance to road construction. The British engineer John Macadam introduced what can be considered as the first scientific road construction method. Stone size was an important element of Macadam recipe. By empirical observation of many roads, he came to realize that 250 mm layers of well compacted broken angular stone would provide the same strength and stiffness and a better running surface than an expensive pavement founded on large stone blocks. Thus he introduced an economical method of road construction.

The mechanical interlock between the individual stone pieces provided strength and stiffness to the course. But the inter particle friction abraded the sharp interlocking faces and partly destroy the effectiveness of the course. This effect was overcome by introducing good quality interstitial finer material to produce a well-graded mix. Such mixes also proved less permeable and easier to compact.

Modern roads

The modern roads by and large follow Macadam's construction method. Use of bituminous concrete and cement concrete are the most important developments. Various advanced and cost-effective construction technologies are used. Development of new equipments help in the faster construction of roads. Many easily and locally available materials are tested in the laboratories and then implemented on roads for making economical and durable pavements.

Scope of transportation system has developed very largely. Population of the country is increasing day by day. The life style of people began to change. The need for travel to various places at faster speeds also increased. This increasing demand led to the emergence of other modes of transportation like railways and travel by air. While the above development in public transport sector was taking place, the development in private transport was at a much faster rate mainly because of its advantages like accessibility, privacy, flexibility, convenience and comfort. This led to the increase in vehicular traffic especially in private transport network. Thus road space available was becoming insufficient to meet the growing demand of traffic and congestion started. In addition, chances for accidents also increased. This has led to the increased attention towards control of vehicles so

that the transport infrastructure was optimally used. Various control measures like traffic signals, providing roundabouts and medians, limiting the speed of vehicle at specific zones etc. were implemented.

With the advancement of better roads and efficient control, more and more investments were made in the road sector especially after the World wars. These were large projects requiring large investment. For optimal utilization of funds, one should know the travel pattern and travel behavior. This has led to the emergence of transportation planning and demand management.

Highway planning in India

Excavations in the sites of Indus valley, Mohenjo-dero and Harappan civilizations revealed the existence of planned roads in India as old as 2500-3500 BC. The Mauryan kings also built very good roads. Ancient books like *Arthashastra* written by Kautilya, a great administrator of the Mauryan times, contained rules for regulating traffic, depths of roads for various purposes, and punishments for obstructing traffic.

During the time of Mughal period, roads in India were greatly improved. Roads linking North-West and the Eastern areas through gangetic plains were built during this time.

After the fall of the Mughals and at the beginning of British rule, many existing roads were improved. The construction of Grand-Trunk road connecting North and South is a major contribution of the British. However, the focus was later shifted to railways, except for feeder roads to important stations.

Modern developments

The first World war period and that immediately following it found a rapid growth in motor transport. So need for better roads became a necessity. For that, the Government of India appointed a committee called Road development Committee with Mr.M.R. Jayakar as the chairman. This committee came to be known as Jayakar committee.

Jayakar Committee

In 1927 Jayakar committee for Indian road development was appointed. The major recommendations and the resulting implementations were:

- Committee found that the road development of the country has become beyond the capacity of local governments and suggested that Central government should take the proper charge considering it as a matter of national interest.
- They gave more stress on long term planning programme, for a period of 20 years (hence called twenty year plan) that is to formulate plans and implement those plans with in the next 20 years.
- One of the recommendations was the holding of periodic road conferences to discuss about road construction and development. This paved the way for the establishment of a semi-official technical body called Indian Road Congress (IRC) in 1934
- The committee suggested imposition of additional taxation on motor transport which includes duty on motor spirit, vehicle taxation, license fees for vehicles plying for hire. This led to the introduction of a development fund called Central road fund in 1929. This fund was intended for road development.
- A dedicated research organization should be constituted to carry out research and development work.

This resulted in the formation of Central Road Research Institute (CRRI) in 1950.

Nagpur road congress 1943

The second World War saw a rapid growth in road traffic and this led to the deterioration in the condition of roads. To discuss about improving the condition of roads, the government convened a conference of chief engineers of provinces at Nagpur in 1943. The result of the conference is famous as the Nagpur plan.

- A twenty year development programme for the period (1943-1963) was finalized. It was the first attempt to prepare a co-ordinated road development programme in a planned manner.
- The roads were divided into four classes:
 - National highways which would pass through states, and places having national importance for strategic, administrative and other purposes.
 - State highways which would be the other main roads of a state.
 - District roads which would take traffic from the main roads to the interior of the district . According to the importance, some are considered as *major district roads* and the remaining as *other district roads*.
 - Village roads which would link the villages to the road system.
- The committee planned to construct 2 lakh kms of road across the country within 20 years.
- They recommended the construction of star and grid pattern of roads throughout the country.
- One of the objective was that the road length should be increased so as to give a road density of 16kms per 100 sq.km

Bombay road congress 1961

The length of roads envisaged under the Nagpur plan was achieved by the end of it, but the road system was deficient in many respects. The changed economic, industrial and agricultural conditions in the country warranted a review of the Nagpur plan. Accordingly a 20-year plan was drafted by the Roads wing of Government of India, which is popularly known as the Bombay plan. The highlights of the plan were:

- It was the second 20 year road plan (1961-1981)
- The total road length targeted to construct was about 10 lakhs.
- Rural roads were given specific attention. Scientific methods of construction was proposed for the rural roads. The necessary technical advice to the Panchayaths should be given by State PWD's.
- They suggested that the length of the road should be increased so as to give a road density of 32kms/100 sq.km
- The construction of 1600 km of expressways was also then included in the plan.

Lucknow road congress 1984

This plan has been prepared keeping in view the growth pattern envisaged in various fields by the turn of the

century. Some of the salient features of this plan are as given below:

- This was the third 20 year road plan (1981-2001). It is also called *Lucknow road plan*.
- It aimed at constructing a road length of 12 lakh kilometres by the year 1981 resulting in a road density of 82kms/100 sq.km
- The plan has set the target length of NH to be completed by the end of seventh, eighth and ninth five year plan periods.
- It aims at improving the transportation facilities in villages, towns etc. such that no part of country is farther than 50 km from NH.
- One of the goals contained in the plan was that expressways should be constructed on major traffic corridors to provide speedy travel.
- Energy conservation, environmental quality of roads and road safety measures were also given due importance in this plan.

Chapter 2

Cross sectional elements

Pavement surface characteristics

For safe and comfortable driving four aspects of the pavement surface are important; the friction between the wheels and the pavement surface, smoothness of the road surface, the light reflection characteristics of the top of pavement surface, and drainage to water.

Friction

Friction between the wheel and the pavement surface is a crucial factor in the design of horizontal curves and thus the safe operating speed. Further, it also affect the acceleration and deceleration ability of vehicles. Lack of adequate friction can cause skidding or slipping of vehicles.

- Skidding happens when the path traveled along the road surface is more than the circumferential movement of the wheels due to friction
- Slip occurs when the wheel revolves more than the corresponding longitudinal movement along the road.

Various factors that affect friction are:

- Type of the pavement (like bituminous, concrete, or gravel),
- Condition of the pavement (dry or wet, hot or cold, etc),
- Condition of the tyre (new or old), and
- Speed and load of the vehicle.

The frictional force that develops between the wheel and the pavement is the load acting multiplied by a factor called the coefficient of friction and denoted as f . The choice of the value of f is a very complicated issue since it depends on many variables. IRC suggests the coefficient of longitudinal friction as 0.35-0.4 depending on

the speed and coefficient of lateral friction as 0.15. The former is useful in sight distance calculation and the latter in horizontal curve design.

Unevenness

It is always desirable to have an even surface, but it is seldom possible to have such a one. Even if a road is constructed with high quality pavers, it is possible to develop unevenness due to pavement failures. Unevenness affect the vehicle operating cost, speed, riding comfort, safety, fuel consumption and wear and tear of tyres.

Unevenness index is a measure of unevenness which is the cumulative measure of vertical undulations of the pavement surface recorded per unit horizontal length of the road. An unevenness index value less than 1500 mm/km is considered as good, a value less than 2500 mm.km is satisfactory up to speed of 100 kmph and values greater than 3200 mm/km is considered as uncomfortable even for 55 kmph.

Light reflection

- White roads have good visibility at night, but caused glare during day time.
- Black roads has no glare during day, but has poor visibility at night
- Concrete roads has better visibility and less glare

It is necessary that the road surface should be visible at night and reflection of light is the factor that answers it.

Drainage

The pavement surface should be absolutely impermeable to prevent seepage of water into the pavement layers. Further, both the geometry and texture of pavement surface should help in draining out the water from the surface in less time.

Camber

Camber or cant is the cross slope provided to raise middle of the road surface in the transverse direction to drain off rain water from road surface. The objectives of providing camber are:

- Surface protection especially for gravel and bituminous roads
- Sub-grade protection by proper drainage
- Quick drying of pavement which in turn increases safety

Too steep slope is undesirable for it will erode the surface. Camber is measured in 1 in n or $n\%$ (Eg. 1 in 50 or 2%) and the value depends on the type of pavement surface.

Width of carriage way

Width of the carriage way or the width of the pavement depends on the width of the traffic lane and number of lanes. Width of a traffic lane depends on the width of the vehicle and the clearance. Side clearance improves operating speed and safety. The maximum permissible width of a vehicle is 2.44 and the desirable side clearance for single lane traffic is 0.68 m. This require minimum of lane width of 3.75 m for a single lane road (Figure 12:2a).

However, the side clearance required is about 0.53 m, on either side and 1.06 m in the center. Therefore, a two lane road require minimum of 3.5 meter for each lane (Figure 12:2b). The desirable carriage way width recommended by IRC is given in Table 12:2

Kerbs

Kerbs indicate the boundary between the carriage way and the shoulder or islands or footpaths.

- Low or mountable kerbs : This type of kerbs are provided such that they encourage the traffic to remain in the through traffic lanes and also allow the driver to enter the shoulder area with little difficulty. The height of this kerb is about 10 cm above the pavement edge with a slope which allows the vehicle to climb easily. This is usually provided at medians and channelization schemes and also helps in longitudinal drainage.
- Semi-barrier type kerbs : When the pedestrian traffic is high, these kerbs are provided. Their height is 15 cm above the pavement edge. This type of kerb prevents encroachment of parking vehicles, but at acute emergency it is possible to drive over this kerb with some difficulty.
- Barrier type kerbs : They are designed to discourage vehicles from leaving the pavement. They are provided when there is considerable amount of pedestrian traffic. They are placed at a height of 20 cm above the pavement edge with a steep batter.

Road margins

The portion of the road beyond the carriageway and on the roadway can be generally called road margin. Various elements that form the road margins are given below.

Shoulders

Shoulders are provided along the road edge and is intended for accommodation of stopped vehicles, serve as an emergency lane for vehicles and provide lateral support for base and surface courses. The shoulder should be strong enough to bear the weight of a fully loaded truck even in wet conditions. The shoulder width should be adequate for giving working space around a stopped vehicle. It is desirable to have a width of 4.6 m for the shoulders. A minimum width of 2.5 m is recommended for 2-lane rural highways in India.

Parking lanes

Parking lanes are provided in urban lanes for side parking. Parallel parking is preferred because it is safe for the vehicles moving on the road. The parking lane should have a minimum of 3.0 m width in the case of parallel parking.

Bus-bays

Bus bays are provided by recessing the kerbs for bus stops. They are provided so that they do not obstruct the movement of vehicles in the carriage way. They should be at least 75 meters away from the intersection so that the traffic near the intersections is not affected by the bus-bay.

Service roads

Service roads or frontage roads give access to access controlled highways like freeways and expressways. They run parallel to the highway and will be usually isolated by a separator and access to the highway will be provided only at selected points. These roads are provided to avoid congestion in the expressways and also the speed of the traffic in those lanes is not reduced.

Cycle track

Cycle tracks are provided in urban areas when the volume of cycle traffic is high. Minimum width of 2 meter is required, which may be increased by 1 meter for every additional track.

Footpath

Footpaths are exclusive right of way to pedestrians, especially in urban areas. They are provided for the safety of the pedestrians when both the pedestrian traffic and vehicular traffic is high. Minimum width is 1.5 meter and may be increased based on the traffic. The footpath should be either as smooth as the pavement or more smoother than that to induce the pedestrian to use the footpath.

Guard rails

They are provided at the edge of the shoulder usually when the road is on an embankment. They serve to prevent the vehicles from running off the embankment, especially when the height of the fill exceeds 3 m. Various designs of guard rails are there. Guard stones painted in alternate black and white are usually used. They also give better visibility of curves at night under headlights of vehicles.

Width of formation

Width of formation or roadway width is the sum of the widths of pavements or carriage way including separators and shoulders. This does not include the extra land in formation/cutting.

Right of way

Right of way (ROW) or land width is the width of land acquired for the road, along its alignment. It should be adequate to accommodate all the cross-sectional elements of the highway and may reasonably provide for future development. To prevent ribbon development along highways, control lines and building lines may be provided. Control line is a line which represents the nearest limits of future uncontrolled building activity in relation to a road. Building line represents a line on either side of the road, between which and the road no building activity is permitted at all. The right of way width is governed by:

- Width of formation: It depends on the category of the highway and width of roadway and road margins.
- Height of embankment or depth of cutting: It is governed by the topography and the vertical alignment.
- Side slopes of embankment or cutting: It depends on the height of the slope, soil type etc.
- Drainage system and their size which depends on rainfall, topography etc.
- Sight distance considerations : On curves etc. there is restriction to the visibility on the inner side of the curve due to the presence of some obstructions like building structures etc.
- Reserve land for future widening: Some land has to be acquired in advance anticipating future develop-

ments like widening of the road.

Sight distance

Overview

The safe and efficient operation of vehicles on the road depends very much on the visibility of the road ahead of the driver. Thus the geometric design of the road should be done such that any obstruction on the road length could be visible to the driver from some distance ahead. This distance is said to be the sight distance.

Types of sight distance

Sight distance available from a point is the actual distance along the road surface, over which a driver from a specified height above the carriage way has visibility of stationary or moving objects. Three sight distance situations are considered for design:

- Stopping sight distance (SSD) or the absolute minimum sight distance
- Intermediate sight distance (ISD) is defined as twice SSD
- Overtaking sight distance (OSD) for safe overtaking operation
- Head light sight distance is the distance visible to a driver during night driving under the illumination of head lights
- Safe sight distance to enter into an intersection.

The most important consideration in all these is that at all times the driver traveling at the design speed of the highway must have sufficient carriageway distance within his line of vision to allow him to stop his vehicle before colliding with a slowly moving or stationary object appearing suddenly in his own traffic lane.

The computation of sight distance depends on:

- Reaction time of the driver
Reaction time of a driver is the time taken from the instant the object is visible to the driver to the instant when the brakes are applied. The total reaction time may be split up into four components based on PIEV theory. In practice, all these times are usually combined into a total perception-reaction time suitable for design purposes as well as for easy measurement. Many of the studies shows that drivers require about 1.5 to 2 secs under normal conditions. However, taking into consideration the variability of driver characteristics, a higher value is normally used in design. For example, IRC suggests a reaction time of 2.5 secs.
- Speed of the vehicle

The speed of the vehicle very much affects the sight distance. Higher the speed, more time will be required to stop the vehicle. Hence it is evident that, as the speed increases, sight distance also increases.

- Efficiency of brakes

The efficiency of the brakes depends upon the age of the vehicle, vehicle characteristics etc. If the brake efficiency is 100%, the vehicle will stop the moment the brakes are applied. But practically, it is not possible to achieve 100% brake efficiency. Therefore the sight distance required will be more when the efficiency of brakes are less. Also for safe geometric design, we assume that the vehicles have only 50% brake efficiency.

- Frictional resistance between the tyre and the road

The frictional resistance between the tyre and road plays an important role to bring the vehicle to stop. When the frictional resistance is more, the vehicles stop immediately. Thus sight required will be less. No separate provision for brake efficiency is provided while computing the sight distance. This is taken into account along with the factor of longitudinal friction. IRC has specified the value of longitudinal friction in between 0.35 to 0.4.

- Gradient of the road.

Gradient of the road also affects the sight distance. While climbing up a gradient, the vehicle can stop immediately. Therefore sight distance required is less. While descending a gradient, gravity also comes into action and more time will be required to stop the vehicle. Sight distance required will be more in this case.

Stopping sight distance

Stopping sight distance (SSD) is the minimum sight distance available on a highway at any spot having sufficient length to enable the driver to stop a vehicle traveling at design speed, safely without collision with any other obstruction.

There is a term called *safe stopping distance* and is one of the important measures in traffic engineering. It is the distance a vehicle travels from the point at which a situation is first perceived to the time the deceleration is complete. Drivers must have adequate time if they are to suddenly respond to a situation. Thus in highway design, sight distance at least equal to the safe stopping distance should be provided. The stopping sight distance is the sum of lag distance and the braking distance. Lag distance is the distance the vehicle traveled during the reaction time t and is given by vt , where v is the velocity in m/sec . Braking distance is the distance traveled by the vehicle during braking operation. For a level road this is obtained by equating the work done in stopping the vehicle and the kinetic energy of the vehicle. If F is the maximum frictional force developed and the braking distance is l , then work done against friction in stopping the vehicle is $Fl = \frac{1}{2}Wv^2$ where W is the total weight of the vehicle.

Overtaking sight distance

The overtaking sight distance is the minimum distance open to the vision of the driver of a vehicle intending to overtake the slow vehicle ahead safely against the traffic in the opposite direction. The overtaking sight distance or passing sight distance is measured along the center line of the road over which a driver with his eye level 1.2 m above the road surface can see the top of an object 1.2 m above the road surface.

The factors that affect the OSD are:

- Velocities of the overtaking vehicle, overtaken vehicle and of the vehicle coming in the opposite direction.
- Spacing between vehicles, which in-turn depends on the speed
- Skill and reaction time of the driver
- Rate of acceleration of overtaking vehicle
- Gradient of the road

The dynamics of the overtaking operation is given in the figure which is a time-space diagram. The x-axis denotes the time and y-axis shows the distance traveled by the vehicles. The trajectory of the slow moving vehicle (B) is shown as a straight line which indicates that it is traveling at a constant speed. A fast moving vehicle (A) is traveling behind the vehicle B. The trajectory of the vehicle is shown initially with a steeper slope. The dotted line indicates the path of the vehicle A if B was absent. The vehicle A slows down to follow the vehicle B as shown in the figure with same slope from t_0 to t_1 . Then it overtakes the vehicle B and occupies the left lane at time t_3 . The time duration $T = t_3 - t_1$ is the actual duration of the overtaking operation. The snapshots of the road at time t_0 , t_1 , and t_3 are shown on the left side of the figure. From the Figure 13:1, the overtaking sight distance consists of three parts.

- d_1 the distance traveled by overtaking vehicle A during the reaction time $t = t_1 - t_0$
- d_2 the distance traveled by the vehicle during the actual overtaking operation $T = t_3 - t_1$
- d_3 is the distance traveled by on-coming vehicle C during the overtaking operation (T).

Therefore:

$$OSD = d_1 + d_2 + d_3$$

It is assumed that the vehicle A is forced to reduce its speed to v_b , the speed of the slow moving vehicle B and travels behind it during the reaction time t of the driver. So d_1 is given by:

$$d_1 = v_b t$$

Then the vehicle A starts to accelerate, shifts the lane, overtake and shift back to the original lane. The vehicle A maintains the spacing s before and after overtaking. The spacing s in m is given by:

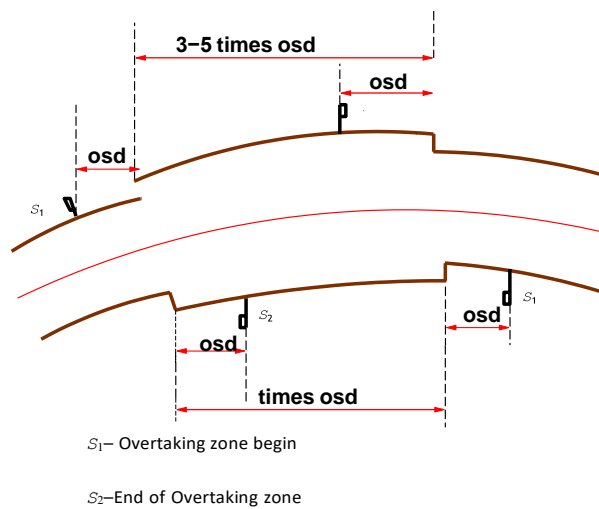
$$s = 0.7v_b + 6$$

Let T be the duration of actual overtaking. The distance traveled by B during the overtaking operation is $2s + v_b T$. Also, during this time, vehicle A accelerated from initial velocity v_b and overtaking is completed while

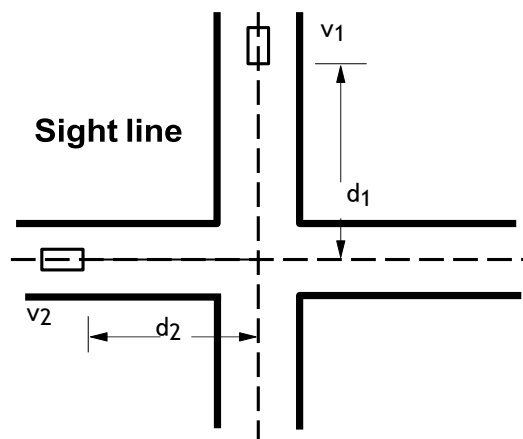
- On divided highways, d_3 need not be considered
- On divided highways with four or more lanes, IRC suggests that it is not necessary to provide the OSD, but only SSD is sufficient.

Overtaking zones

Overtaking zones are provided when OSD cannot be provided throughout the length of the highway. These are zones dedicated for overtaking operation, marked with wide roads. The desirable length of overtaking zones is 5 times OSD and the minimum is three times OSD



Overtaking zones



Sight distance at intersections

Sight distance at intersections

At intersections where two or more roads meet, visibility should be provided for the drivers approaching the intersection from either sides. They should be able to perceive a hazard and stop the vehicle if required. Stopping sight distance for each road can be computed from the design speed. The sight distance should be provided such that the drivers on either side should be able to see each other. This is illustrated in the figure 13:3.

Design of sight distance at intersections may be used on three possible conditions:

- Enabling approaching vehicle to change the speed
- Enabling approaching vehicle to stop
- Enabling stopped vehicle to cross a main road

