# DEVELOPMENT OF GUIDELINES FOR THE AESTHETIC SURFACE TREATMENT OF SAFETY-SHAPED MEDIAN BARRIERS 

A Thesis<br>by<br>JACOB RAYMOND NESS

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of Texas A\&M University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

August 2004

Major Subject: Civil Engineering

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ABSTRACT<br>Development of Guidelines for the Aesthetic Surface Treatment of Safety-Shaped Median Barriers.<br>(August 2004)<br>Jacob Raymond Ness, B.S., Texas A\&M University<br>Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. Harry L. Jones

Safety-shaped median barriers have long been employed to keep misguided vehicles on the roadway. In recent years there has been a growing national desire for more aesthetically pleasing roadside safety systems. Adding surface texture is one of the most popular ways to make a more aesthetically pleasing barrier. This practice of adding surface texture can potentially reduce the safety performance of the barrier.

The purpose of this research was to develop guidelines for the aesthetic surface treatment of safety-shaped median barriers. Numerical simulation was utilized to develop these guidelines. This was done by first validating the vehicle model that was used in this research, which was the National Crash Analysis Center (NCAC) 2000P Detailed Pickup Truck model. The validity of the vehicle model could be determined by comparing the vehicle dynamics of the simulation to the actual crash test data for the smooth surfaced Single Slope and New Jersey Safety-Shaped barriers. Crash tests involving concrete median barriers most commonly fail crash testing criteria given by the National Cooperative Highway Research Program (NCHRP) Report 350 by excessive Occupant Compartment Deformation (OCD). OCD is excessive deformation of the occupant compartment that would cause severe harm to the occupant. Current simulation vehicle models do not give reliable direct measurement of OCD. To take the place of direct measurement, several parameters were measured to find the best surrogate measure of OCD. The internal energy of the floorboard in the NCAC 2000P Detailed Pickup Truck model gave the best correlation to OCD. By simulating several different past crash tests with passing and failing OCD, limits of internal energy in the floorboard could determine if a simulation had passing, marginal, or failing amounts of OCD.

Using the surrogate measure of OCD a parametric study was then evaluated by NCHRP Report 350 standards. The parametric study of 29 simulations varied width and depth of recess between asperities for two different angles of asperities. Guidelines were determined for the $45^{\circ}$ and $90^{\circ}$ angles of asperities as a curve on depth vs. width of recess between asperities from the results of this parametric study.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 BACKGROUND

In recent years there has been a growing national desire for more aesthetically pleasing roadside safety systems. To meet this growing demand, several state departments of transportation have developed aesthetic surface designs. One of the most popular ways to make a more aesthetically pleasing barrier is by adding surface relief and texture (see Fig. 1). Since adding surface texture to a roadside safety system is a relatively new and untested concept, most designs have been based solely on engineering judgment. Designers are in need of recommendations or guidelines to give them boundaries that they can work within with some degree of confidence. Without guidelines to limit the geometry of the surface relief, the designer could inadvertently create a surface with the potential for dangerous interaction with a vehicle in the event of a crash.

The purpose of this research was to develop guidelines for the aesthetic surface treatment of safety-shaped median barriers. These guidelines are intended to ensure that


FIG. 1. Aesthetic Concrete Barrier (White et al. 2002)

[^0]aesthetic treatments to safety-shaped concrete barriers do not adversely affect the safety performance of the barrier when struck by an errant vehicle. An example of a safety-shaped barrier profile, called the New Jersey Safety-Shaped Barrier is shown in Fig. 2. The New Jersey Safety-Shaped barrier is the most demanding of the safety-shaped barrier profiles due to size of the toe of the barrier, which is the lower section of the barrier profile that the front tire often climbs in a crash event. The New Jersey Safety-Shaped barrier was the primary barrier profile used in this research.

Due to the lack of design guidelines at the national level, there is currently no uniformity in aesthetic barrier design among the States. Variables involved in adding surface texture to median barriers include, but are not limited to, the type of median barrier, and the depth, width, and shape of the relief or recess. Due to the number and range of these variables, it would be impractical to conduct a parametric investigation based solely on crash testing. However, such


FIG. 2. New Jersey Safety-Shaped Barrier
problems lend themselves to analysis and evaluation through computer simulation. Therefore, the research approach used to evaluate the effect of aesthetic surface treatments on concrete median barriers utilizes a combined program of finite element analysis (FEA) and full-scale crash testing.

The simulation effort was intended to provide a detailed assessment of the threedimensional impact response of a specific aesthetic treatment. A series of computer simulations were conducted on selected treatments following impact conditions similar to those recommended for the evaluation of longitudinal barriers in National Cooperative Highway Research Program (NCHRP) Report 350. This standard governs federal crash test performance requirements for roadside safety systems on the National Highway System (Ross et al. 1993).

### 1.2 HISTORY OF ROADSIDE SAFETY ENGINEERING

Most components of the highway design procedure were developed in the late 1940s and the 1950s. Since roadside safety design was established as a component of highway design in the 1960s it is a relatively new concept (AASHTO 1996). Prior to 1960, public policy regarding roadside safety focused on the responsibility of each driver to keep out of danger. If a vehicle were to leave the roadway, the "nut behind the wheel" would have to deal with the consequences (Ross 1995). Accordingly, roadside appurtenances were often constructed to resist impact forces of collision with a vehicle without regard to safety of the motorist. Fixedbase light posts, rigid telephone poles, and unyielding bridge supports within several meters of the roadway were common. Because the signpost was not designed to minimize damage to a vehicle during a collision, the consequences of a seemingly minor collision were severe to motorist, signpost, and vehicle. This "nut behind the wheel" philosophy led to dangerous roadsides. United States fatality rates per one hundred million vehicle miles in 1930 were more than $1,000 \%$ what they were by 1998 (National Safety Council 1998). In the 1960's, serious concerns about roadside safety led highway engineers to adopt a "forgiving roadside" concept for highway design. With an ever-increasing number of fatalities caused by dangerous roadways, public sentiment pressured lawmakers to make changes. A nine-meter "safe zone" was introduced to put distance between roadside obstructions and the flow of traffic. In the event that an obstruction could not be removed from the safe zone, roadside safety devices were designed to either shield the obstruction from vehicle impact or to break away upon impact. Engineers began to design roadsides with the intent of protecting vehicle occupants in the event that a vehicle was to leave the roadway. Through innovations such as slip base sign supports, impact attenuating crash cushions, and redirecting guardrails, both the frequency and severity of roadside collisions has decreased significantly (Ross 1995). Despite the advances in technology and changes in philosophy, there still exists room for improvement.


FIG. 3. Single Slope Barrier with Unacceptable Surface Geometry (White et al. 2002)

Both the Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) and state departments of transportation such as the Texas Department of Transportation (TXDOT) invest significant resources into developing better roadside devices and investigating the safety of current practices. By upgrading outdated facilities and implementing new technologies when possible, the safety of roadways can improve dramatically. In this research, the effects of aesthetic surface treatments on safety-shaped barriers was evaluated through crash testing and numerical simulation in order to verify compliance with current safety performance standards. Fig. 3 shows an example of a surface treated barrier, which failed to meet NCHRP Report 350 requirements. The failure was caused by a lack of guidance for the relief of the surface geometry. This research attempts to give guidance to designers in this situation working with safety-shaped barriers.

### 1.3 STATE OF PRACTICE

Over the last several decades the general public has begun to push for more aesthetically pleasing roadside safety systems. One of the ways a roadside safety system can be made more aesthetically pleasing is by changing the overall geometry of the barrier. When overall geometry of a roadside safety system is changed it must be reevaluated with crash testing to meet NCHRP Report 350 standards. The most cost effective approach to making a


FIG. 4. Surface Asperities: (a) Perpendicular; (b) Rounded; (c) Angled
barrier more aesthetic is to put a new surface treatment on a proven barrier profile. The surface treatment makes the barrier more aesthetic by appearing to be part of the natural environment or by using light and shadow contrasts. States have been allowing modest surface treatments to be used on barriers for the past few years. As the surface treatments have become more complex, the departments of transportation have grown concerned with a possible loss in performance of these barriers.

Almost all surface asperities can be placed within one of three categories: Perpendicular, Rounded, or Angled Surface Asperities. These generalized types of surface asperities are shown in Fig. 4. The angled or inclined asperity can be defined in terms of a depth " $d$ " and angle " $\theta$," either of which can be varied in order to achieve a different profile. The perpendicular asperity is a subset of the angled asperity with $\theta=90$ degrees. The rounded asperity can be approximated as an angled surface asperity by selecting an effective angle $\theta$. The illustration shown in Fig. 4 uses a tangent to the rounded surface at half the depth "d" to define an effective angle " $\theta$." Because the angled asperity is the most general, it was the type of surface asperity used in the parametric study to develop guidelines for the aesthetic treatment of concrete median barriers.

### 1.4 LITERATURE REVIEW

### 1.4.1 Standards for Roadside Safety Devices

Roadside safety engineers have long employed destructive full-scale crash testing to evaluate performance of roadside safety devices. In order to establish a set of standard criteria for these tests, FHWA recently adopted the guidelines presented in NCHRP Report 350 (Ross et
al. 1993) to evaluate roadside safety devices. In addition, FHWA requires that all new roadside features installed on the National Highway System after September 1998 meet NCHRP Report 350 recommended safety performance guidelines. The safety performance of a roadside appurtenance is evaluated by three factors in accordance with NCHRP Report 350. The structural adequacy of the roadside feature, the occupant risk during the event, and the postimpact vehicular response are criteria used to judge the performance of a proposed system.

Several evaluation criteria must be satisfied in order for a safety feature to perform successfully with respect to structural adequacy. First, a guardrail or barrier test device should contain and redirect the vehicle. Moreover, during redirection the vehicle should not penetrate, under run, or override the installation. When a breakaway or slip base is being tested, the device should readily activate in a predictable manner by breaking away, fracturing, or yielding as intended. Finally, for crash attenuating systems, acceptable performance can be redirection, controlled penetration, or controlled stopping of the vehicle. For the case of concrete median barriers, only the first of these criteria apply. This research assumes that the barrier has been adequately designed for strength.

The second major NCHRP Report 350 criterion is occupant risk. Fragments and debris resulting from the collision should not penetrate the occupant compartment or present a hazard to pedestrians, workers in a work zone, or other motorists. The occupant compartment should also not be damaged through excessive deformation in such a way that occupant injury is likely. Deformation measurements of the occupant compartment are used to create a damage index, which is explained in Appendix E of NCHRP Report 350. The report shows the locations of these various measurements. In NCHRP Report 350 results are quantified in terms of percent change in length, but the roadside safety community now uses a pass/fail criterion, based on the change in length of a value of 150 mm dimension. Other reasons for failure can be as simple as a shattered windshield or excessive localized deformation that shows signs of causing significant injury to the occupant. Although the risk of occupant injury during a vehicle collision is highly dependant upon the crashworthiness of the vehicle, NCHRP Report 350 removes the variability of vehicular crashworthiness in evaluating the performance of roadside safety features. Gross vehicle accelerations are used as one indicator of occupant risk because they are directly due to the interaction between the vehicle and the test device. Changing the properties of the roadside safety device can alter accelerations experienced by motorists during an impact event. Using the flail space model presented in Appendix A of NCHRP Report 350, gross vehicle accelerations are used to calculate occupant impact velocity (OIV) and ridedown acceleration, the two parameters used to relate gross vehicle accelerations to occupant risk. Ranges of these values for acceptable performance are given in NCHRP Report 350.

The final criterion used to judge the performance of roadside safety devices is the after collision vehicle behavior. After a collision, the impacting vehicle cannot enter adjacent or oncoming lanes of traffic. Also, the exit angle of the vehicle from the system must be less than $60^{\circ}$. Finally, limits are placed on the OIV and ridedown acceleration while the vehicle comes to a stop after impacting the test system (Ross et al. 1993).

### 1.4.2 Existing Guidelines

Crash testing of Single Slope median barrier with aesthetic surface treatments by California Department of Transportation (CalTrans) resulted in the first set of guidelines for the aesthetic surface treatment of concrete barriers (White et al. 2002). As a result of the CalTrans study and subsequent approval by the FHWA, allowable surface asperity recommendations for Single Slope and Vertical Face barriers set out by CalTrans in September 2002 and FHWA in December 2002 were as follows:

1. Sandblasted textures with a maximum relief of 9.5 mm
2. Images or geometric patterns into the face of the barrier 25 mm or less and having $45^{\circ}$ or flatter chamfered or beveled edges to minimize vehicular sheet metal or wheel snagging.
3. Textures or patterns of any shape and length inset into the face of the barrier up to 13 mm deep and 25 mm in width. Geometric insets with an upstream edge with an angle of up to $90^{\circ}$ should be less than 13 mm .
4. Any pattern or texture with gradual undulations that have a maximum relief of 20 mm over a distance of 300 mm .
5. Gaps, slots, grooves, or joints of any depth with a maximum width of 20 mm and a maximum surface differential across these features of 5 mm or less.
6. No patterns shall feature a repeating upward sloping edge or ridge.
7. Any pattern or texture with a maximum relief of 64 mm , if such pattern begins 610 mm or higher above the base of the barrier and all leading edges are rounded or sloped to minimize any vehicle snagging potential. No part of this pattern or texture should protrude below the plane of the lower, untextured portion of the barrier.
Prior to the CalTrans study there was a lack of aesthetic guidelines at the national level and, little or no uniformity in aesthetic barrier design among the States. CalTrans recommendations listed as 2 and 3 most closely paralleled guidelines developed by this project. These recommend a maximum depth of 25 mm for surface asperities featuring a $45^{\circ}$ angle to upstream traffic and 13 mm for surface asperities featuring a $90^{\circ}$ angle to upstream traffic to designers. The CalTrans study provides design guidance for Single Slope and Vertical Faced
concrete barriers. However, guidance of a similar nature such as the depth, width, and shape of the surface relief or recess is needed for safety-shaped barriers.

### 1.5 FINITE ELEMENT SIMULATION

The program that was utilized for the computer modeling effort was LS-DYNA (2001). LS-DYNA is a general-purpose, explicit finite element code used to analyze the nonlinear dynamic response of three-dimensional inelastic structures. The finite element models used utilize both 4-noded shell elements and 8-noded solid elements (Hallquist 1998). Over the last 8 years, LS-DYNA has been used extensively in the simulation of crash testing of roadside safety barriers. Since the barriers used in studies such as this are restrained concrete barriers and bridge rails, which are being modeled with a rigid material, future improvements in the accuracy of simulated crash events will be made through improved representation of various components of the vehicle model. As explained in Section 3, an inadequate finite element representation of the small car vehicle model led to difficulties in developing the guidelines.

### 1.6 SUMMARY

The national need for guidelines for the surface treatment of safety-shaped barriers was discussed. The basic approach necessary for designers to make roadside safety systems more aesthetically pleasing is through geometric changes to the system or to add a surface treatment. Variables of the perpendicular, rounded, or angled surface textures were defined. Existing guidelines for the Single Slope Barrier were presented. The goal of this research was to develop guidelines for the aesthetic surface treatment of safety-shaped barriers. Background was given on the finite element analysis software, LS-DYNA, which was used in this research.

## 2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 2.1 OVERVIEW

In the previous section, the problem of developing guidelines for limiting depth and width of aesthetic surface treatments on safety-shaped barriers was discussed. The standard for roadside safety devices, NCHRP Report 350, was also discussed. In order for a roadside barrier to comply with NCHRP Report 350 guidelines, it must pass a series of full-scale crash tests; the most demanding test is the $100 \mathrm{~km} / \mathrm{hr}(62 \mathrm{mph})$ impact of a full-sized, $2,000 \mathrm{~kg}(4,400 \mathrm{lb})$ pickup truck (2000P) with the barrier at an angle of $25^{\circ}$. Another test in this series is the test of a 820 $\mathrm{kg}(1,804 \mathrm{lb})$ small car $(820 \mathrm{C})$ at $100 \mathrm{~km} / \mathrm{hr}(62 \mathrm{mph})$ with the barrier at an angle of $20^{\circ}$. The small car crash test evaluates the system for vehicle stability and system stiffness, while the pickup truck crash test evaluates the system strength. As seen in Fig. 5, a full-scale crash test requires an extensive setup, instrumentation, and destruction of a test vehicle. The cost per test is substantial. The research plan that was used to develop guidelines for the aesthetic surface treatment of safety-shaped median barriers focuses on validating vehicle models, finding a surrogate measure of Occupant Compartment Deformation (OCD), and evaluating a parametric study using FEA. Each step in this research plan is discussed briefly in this section.


FIG. 5. Full-Scale Crash Test

Implementation of the test plan and results from the tests performed for this research are presented later.

### 2.2 VEHICLE MODEL VALIDATION

Crash tests were simulated using LS-DYNA and two finite element vehicle models that were developed by the National Crash Analysis Center (NCAC). One of the models, the 820C small car, is a representation of a Geo Metro with 20,000 elements. The other NCAC model was the Detailed Pickup Truck, which uses more than 56,000 elements to represent a Chevrolet C2500. Both vehicle models are shown in Fig. 6. The finite element models of these vehicles are available to the public through the Public Finite Element Model Archive (2004) hosted by NCAC. LS-DYNA also contains a large library of material models, meshing patterns, contact algorithms, and element formulations that permit a good representation of the concrete barrier system.

To examine the suitability of the two NCAC vehicle models for use in this study, several validating simulations were performed using basic rigid barrier profiles. Collision of the 820C small car model with a Single Slope barrier was also simulated because the surface treatment


FIG. 6. Vehicle Models: (a) 820C Small Car; (b) 2000P Pickup Truck
was observed to produce a rolling behavior in an actual crash test. This barrier is discussed in more detail in the next section. Early in the evaluation of the validity of simulations with the vehicle models used in this study, it became apparent that the 820C small car vehicle model required suspension and tire model improvements. In several simulations of past actual crash tests, vehicle climb and deformation was severely underestimated by the simulations. This was attributed to rigid suspension components and a coarsely meshed tire. The 2000P pickup truck model, on the other hand, gave consistent and reasonable behavior, suggesting that satisfactory results could be obtained with the suspension elements incorporated within this vehicle model.

### 2.3 SURROGATE MEASURE OF OCD STUDY

Using FEA, a study was conducted to determine if a surrogate measure can be defined to quantify the outcome of a passed, marginal, or failed crash test based on OCD. Several past crash tests of concrete barriers with the 2000P pickup truck were identified. All of the identified crash tests were modeled and simulated using LS-DYNA. Each simulation was setup to collect several potential surrogate measures of OCD. A surrogate measure is a quantitative parameter, which can be evaluated in place of another parameter such as OCD that cannot be measured with adequate consistency. The potential surrogate measure that showed the best correlation with maximum OCD reported in the crash tests was selected.


FIG. 7. Parametric Study Variables of the Angled Asperity Surface Profile

### 2.4 PARAMETRIC STUDY

In this research a parametric study of the variables of angled asperities were used. As seen in Fig. 7, an angled asperity is comprised of a depth "d", width "W", and angle " $\theta$." Angled asperities were chosen for their clearly defined variables, which can be easily interpreted by a designer. Few aesthetic designs in use today have as simple a geometry as the angled asperity used in the parametric study, but a designer can use a conservative estimate of depth, width, and angle for their surface geometry.

To make the parametric study as efficient as possible the relationship between depth and width of a surface geometry on barrier performance had to be well understood. For a given angle " $\theta$," the relationship between the depth of recess " $d$ " and width of recess " $W$ " can be conceptualized as shown in Fig. 8. The region below the curves would constitute acceptable asperity geometry while the region above these curves would constitute unacceptable geometry. It can be seen that once "W" becomes large enough, there is a depth "d" at which the vehicle's impact path will only intersect a single asperity and the curve flattens out into a horizontal line.


FIG. 8. Conceptual Relationship between Recess Depth and Width

As "W" decreases, there is a value at which the spacing of the asperities is sufficiently narrow to prevent vehicle contact with the full depth of the recess, therefore the acceptable value of "d" increases. In this study a predetermined set of simulations to make up the parametric study was not possible because the relationship between depth and width was not well known. As each simulation of the parametric study progressed the curves took form and future simulations were adjusted to get the most out of each simulation.

### 2.4.1 Failure Criteria

### 2.4.1.1 Vehicle Stability

To evaluate the parametric study there was a need for measures by which a passing or failing simulation could be determined. Vehicle stability is when a vehicle in a crash test rolls over or shows the potential to roll over. Using the 820C small car vehicle the most critical criterion to check for is vehicle stability on safety-shaped barriers. Many early designs induced rollover of the small car by the barrier's toe. There are several safety-shaped barrier profiles in use today, but the New Jersey Safety-Shaped Barrier is generally viewed as the most likely to cause vehicle stability problems with a small car because of its prominent toe. It was therefore used in the evaluation of the parametric study.

### 2.4.1.2 Occupant Compartment Deformation

OCD is a measure of the amount of deformation into the vehicle's occupant compartment. This criterion is important because in some crash tests the vehicle had acceptable occupant risk values such as occupant impact velocities and ridedown acceleration, but the occupant's limbs were sometimes severely injured due to excessive crushing of the occupant compartment (Buth et al. 1998a). OCD was recognized in NCHRP Report 230, but was introduced quantitatively into crash testing evaluation criteria in NCHRP Report 350. Excessive OCD is a common cause of failure in concrete barrier crash tests using the 2000P pickup truck.

### 2.5 CREATING A CRASH SIMULATION

Simulating the impact of a vehicle with a barrier involves three distinct activities: preprocessing, processing, and postprocessing. First, preprocessing uses the geometric data given on engineering design drawings to build the model. This was done using the preprocessor Hypermesh (2001). Hypermesh (version 5.0) is a product of Altair, Inc., and can be used to define model geometry, finite element mesh, and loading and boundary conditions. Once the barrier model was developed, an input file for the FEA code LS-DYNA (2001) was exported from Hypermesh. A vehicle model can now be inserted into the input file at the end of the barrier input using any standard text editor. This is the start of the processing stage where LS-DYNA runs the model input file. LS-DYNA is a general-purpose commercially available finite element
code capable of nonlinear, explicit analysis of dynamic events. Dynamic structural analysis of the impact event is simulated in LS-DYNA using the input file from Hypermesh. Finally, LSPOST (2001) and Altair Hyperview (2001) are used to postprocess results of the finite element analysis. LS-POST is used to filter ASCII data files. Hyperview, with superior rendering capabilities, is used to view graphical output of deformed shapes at discrete time steps. These postprocessing packages were used to display and analyze a simulation graphically to help find possible errors in the model. Numerical simulation for this research is performed on a four processor Compaq Alphaserver ES40, on two dual-processor Pentium III Dell workstations, and on two dual-processor Xeon Dell workstations. These computers are owned and maintained by the Safety and Structural Systems Division at the Texas Transportation Institute (TTI).

## 3. VEHICLE MODEL VALIDATION

### 3.1 OVERVIEW

To have confidence in results produced by FEA simulation the components of the model must be first validated. The two primary models in a crash simulation are the vehicle and barrier. The barrier model is represented as a rigid surface, which leaves only the vehicle model with the need for validation. The vehicle model is either the 820C small car or 2000P pickup truck. Each of these vehicle models have been used extensively in the area of roadside safety. To validate a vehicle model, previous crash tests were simulated and the vehicle dynamics were compared in terms of vehicle roll, pitch, and yaw.

### 3.2 820C VEHICLE VALIDATION

To validate the 820C vehicle model, three past crash tests were simulated. These crash tests involved the Fluted Single Slope barrier, the smooth Single Slope barrier, and the New Jersey Safety-Shaped barrier. A preliminary simulation, using the 820C Geo Metro model with the CalTrans Fluted Single Slope barrier shown in Fig. 9 (White et al. 2002) showed poor correlation with test results and raised concern regarding the validity of the vehicle model for use in this study.

The Fluted Single Slope barrier was angled 9.1 degrees from vertical with an overall height of the barrier was 1.42 m . The surface of the barrier was modified to incorporate flutes or ribs. The flutes were oriented at a $45^{\circ}$ angle from the ground rising in the direction of vehicle travel. Each flute was 19 mm high and 19 mm wide. The flutes were spaced 50.8 mm on center along the length of the barrier. A 1990 Geo Metro impacted the barrier at a speed of $100 \mathrm{~km} / \mathrm{h}$ and at an angle of $20^{\circ}$, as specified in NCHRP Report 350. The vehicle rolled over as it exited the barrier.


FIG. 9. CalTrans Single Slope Barrier with Fluted Surface Texture (White et al. 2002)

Simulation of the crash event did not produce vehicle climb nor rollover. The lack of vehicle climb and rollover in the simulation was attributed to rigid vehicle suspension components. The suspension elements could not replicate the overall vehicle behavior of the crash test with an absence of deformation and failure in the suspension components. Several changes to the 820 C vehicle model were tried, but none improved the accuracy of the simulated vehicle performance on the three crash test systems. Consequently, the use of the 820C vehicle model in this study had to be abandoned.

### 3.3 2000P VEHICLE VALIDATION

To validate the NCAC Detailed 2000P Pickup Truck model, a comparison between crash test data and simulation results for the smooth Single Slope and New Jersey Safety-Shape barriers were performed. The crash test results for the Single Slope barrier were performed by TTI (Mak and Menges 1996). The Single Slope barrier, originally developed by TTI, was governed by NCHRP Report 230 (Beason et al. 1989). The crash tests used in this report were to determine if the Single Slope barrier met the new NCHRP Report 350 criteria. Shown in Fig. 10, is the simulation of the 2000P pickup truck with the smooth Single Slope barrier. Figures 11 through 13 illustrate the comparison of the crash test data to simulation results of vehicle roll, pitch, and yaw, respectively, for the Single Slope barrier. Each of these comparisons showed reasonable correlation, suggesting validity of the vehicle model on the Single Slope barrier.


FIG. 10. Simulation of 2000P with Single Slope Barrier


FIG. 11. Comparison of Roll Angles of Crash Data with Detailed Pickup Truck Vehicle Simulation on the Single Slope Barrier


FIG. 12. Comparison of Pitch Angles of Crash Data with Detailed Pickup Truck Vehicle Simulation on the Single Slope Barrier


FIG. 13. Comparison of Yaw Angles of Crash Data with Detailed Pickup Truck Vehicle Simulation on the Single Slope Barrier

The New Jersey Safety-Shaped barrier crash test results used for comparison were performed by TTI (Buth et al. 1997a). These crash tests were done to evaluate several existing bridge rails under the new NCHRP Report 350. Fig. 14 shows the simulation of the 2000P pickup truck model with the New Jersey Safety-Shaped Barrier. Figures 15 through 17 show the comparison of the crash test data to simulation results of vehicle roll, pitch, and yaw, respectively, for the New Jersey Safety-Shape barrier. As with the Single Slope barrier, each of these comparisons also showed reasonable correlation, suggesting validity of the vehicle model on the New Jersey Safety-Shape barrier.


FIG. 14. Simulation of 2000P with New Jersey Safety-Shaped Barrier


FIG. 15. Comparison of Roll Angles of Crash Data with Detailed Pickup Truck Vehicle Simulation on the New Jersey Safety-Shaped Barrier


FIG. 16. Comparison of Pitch Angles of Crash Data with Detailed Pickup Truck Vehicle Simulation on the New Jersey Safety-Shaped Barrier


FIG. 17. Comparison of Yaw Angles of Crash Data with Detailed Pickup Truck Vehicle Simulation on the New Jersey Safety-Shaped Barrier

### 3.4 SUMMARY

Simulations with the 820C small car model clearly showed unrealistic vehicular response. Consequently, the interaction of the small car vehicle with barrier having surface asperities is not addressed in this study. Until significant improvements are made to the suspension of the 820C small car model, the ability to capture reasonable vehicle dynamics on barriers such as the Fluted Single Slope barrier will not be possible. The 2000P pickup truck model was validated for use in this project. A comparison of vehicle dynamics between the crash tests of the Single Slope barrier and New Jersey Safety-Shaped barrier were made to their corresponding simulations to validate the 2000P vehicle model.

## 4. SURROGATE MEASURE OF OCCUPANT COMPARTMENT DEFORMATION

### 4.1 OVERVIEW

OCD failure by NCHRP Report 350 is excessive deformation of the occupant compartment that would cause severe harm to the occupant. Excessive OCD is a common cause of a failure in concrete barrier crash tests. As an example, excessive OCD failure was the most predominant type of failure in the CalTrans study "Crash Testing of Various Textured Barriers" (White et al. 2002). Fig. 18 illustrates occupant compartment deformation in a 2000P pickup truck after impact with a barrier. The NCAC 2000P Detailed Pickup Truck model has a good level of detail in the FEA representation, raising the possibility that the final deformed shape of the occupant compartment coming from simulation could be examined to extract an OCD value. This approach was explored, and found to be unsatisfactory for the reasons explained in subsequent sections of this section. Study of available crash tests and simulations of those crashes has lead to development of a suitable surrogate measure of OCD, which could


FIG. 18. Occupant Compartment Deformation (White et al. 2002)
be extracted from simulation results. The development of this surrogate measure is presented in this section.

### 4.2 POTENTIAL OCD SURROGATES

Several crash tests of concrete barriers with the 2000P pickup truck were available for study. However, the number of useful crash tests was limited because OCD was not measured nor reported in crash tests performed prior to the publication and adoption of NCHRP Report 350. A total of seven crash tests were found, which reported at least some information on OCD. Each of these crash tests were simulated using LS-DYNA. The details of those crash tests and their respective simulations are described in the next section. Each simulation was set up to collect several potential surrogate measures of OCD. A surrogate measure is a quantitative parameter, which can be evaluated in place of another parameter such as OCD that cannot be measured with adequate consistency. The surrogate measure that showed the best correlation with maximum OCD reported in the crash tests was selected.

The 2000P pickup truck model's deformation of the occupant compartment varies from simulation to simulation because the model does not accurately capture failure in the suspension. Without accurate failure of the suspension, the simulation did not replicate the correct load path. Some of the push back of the front wheel into the floorboard was restricted by connections to the suspension. A more general surrogate measure of OCD, which was not effected by load path, was needed. Even if the correct load path was not captured this methodology would be valid, as long as the surrogate measure showed adequate correlation to maximum OCD. Surrogate measure methodology has not been previously used in the field of roadside safety engineering.

The first potential surrogate measure of OCD was to make a direct measurement of the maximum deformation to the floorboard and toe pan of the vehicle model in a manner similar to that used in crash tests. The next potential surrogate measure of OCD was based on contact forces measured by LS-DYNA. An option was placed into the model to collect the direct impact forces between the wheel and barrier. These forces were evaluated using several criteria. The XY and XYZ resultants of the peak force, peak 10 ms moving average force, impulse over the time of initial impact, and total impulse were all computed and compared as an attempt of finding a correlation to OCD. XY and XYZ force resultants are the square root of the sum of the squares of each force component in the global coordinate system. The XY force resultant was used to remove the influence of the vertical component of the force on the data, which was not attributed to the pushing of the wheel assembly into the occupant compartment. The final potential surrogate measure of OCD was the internal energies of all of the parts in the crushing
region of the vehicle, which were measured and checked for correlation to OCD. The internal energy in a part was related to the overall deformation undergone by that part.

### 4.3 AVAILABLE CRASH TEST DATA

Several crash tests were simulated to explore potential parameters for surrogate measure of OCD. All crash tests were concrete bridge rails or median barriers. In each of these crash tests, the test outcome was noted as either passing or failing and measured maximum OCD was reported in most cases. The surrogate measure of OCD was the parameter with the best correlation between maximum OCD and the measured value of each potential surrogate measures.


FIG. 19. Oregon Bridge Railing: (a) Actual (Buth et al. 1997b); (b) Simulation

### 4.3.1 Oregon Bridge Railing

The Oregon Bridge Rail is a concrete beam and post bridge railing developed to give some see through making it more aesthetic. When the impact performance of this barrier was evaluated with the 2000P pickup truck, the OCD significantly exceeded the 150 mm limit imposed by FHWA (Buth et al. 1997b). Therefore, this test served as one of the failure points in the surrogate measure OCD study. Due to the pickup truck frame unrealistically snagging on the windows of this system and changing the vehicle dynamics, this data point was held in question.

Fig. 19 shows an image of the rail constructed for the crash test and the associated LS-DYNA model used in the simulation of the system.

### 4.3.2 Deep Cobblestone Barrier

The Deep Cobblestone barrier (shown in Fig. 20) is a random cobblestone surface treatment of a Single Slope barrier tested by CalTrans (White et al. 2002). The pickup truck test of this barrier failed due to excessive OCD caused by the interaction of the wheel and the large recesses between the cobblestones. The maximum depth of relief on the cobblestone surface is 64 mm . The cobblestone surface was modeled using hemispherical and ellipsoidal shapes with the same depth and spacing as the actual surface treatment. Because this was one of the few pickup truck crash tests with a solid concrete barrier that failed due to excessive OCD, it provides a useful data point for correlation of the surrogate OCD measures.


FIG. 20. Deep Cobblestone Barrier: (a) Actual (White et al. 2002); (b) Simulation

### 4.3.3 Shallow Cobblestone Barrier

After the failure of the Deep Cobblestone barrier, the depth of the cobblestone surface treatment was reduced from 34 mm to 19 mm and retested (White et al. 2002). Typical relief of the Shallow Cobblestone barrier surface and the simulation setup is shown in Fig. 21. In the pickup truck crash test of this barrier, the drive shaft became dislodged from the transmission. Although the vehicle remained upright during the test, this type of damage was considered by


FIG. 21. Shallow Cobblestone Barrier: (a) Actual (White et al. 2002); (b) Simulation


FIG. 22. Cobblestone Reveal Barrier: (a) Actual (White et al. 2002); (b) Simulation

CalTrans to represent a potential rollover risk. As a result, CalTrans decided the barrier did not meet NCHRP Report 350 evaluation criteria. However, since the shallow cobble reduced the maximum OCD of the vehicle to within acceptable limits, this test effectively illustrates the effect of surface asperity depth vehicle response, and represents another useful data point for purposes developing a surrogate measure for OCD.

### 4.3.4 Cobblestone Reveal Barrier

An alternative treatment developed to address the OCD problems associated with the Deep Cobblestone barrier was to provide a smooth reveal at the bottom of the barrier. The 610 mm tall reveal, which has a smooth sand blasted finish (see Fig. 22), is intended to reduce the snagging contact between the barrier and wheel assembly and, thereby, reduce the resulting OCD. This test successfully passed NCHRP Report 350 criteria and provided another point for use in establishing the thresholds for a surrogate OCD measure. This barrier also possessed some similarity to the safety-shaped barriers that were addressed in this study, since the surface asperities were applied to the upper wall portion of the safety-shaped barrier while the toe of the barrier was left smooth.

### 4.3.5 Modified Texas T202

The Modified Texas Type T202 is a concrete beam-and-post system that has a vertical


FIG. 23. Modified Texas T202 Barrier: (a) Actual (Buth et al. 1998b); (b) Simulation
clear opening of 330 mm and a post setback of 114 mm . The Modified Texas Type T202 system and the simulation setup are shown in Fig. 23. Crash testing of this system was done by TTI (Buth et al. 1998b). The 2000P pickup truck passed NCHRP Report 350 standards for the system and was used as one of the passing data points for this study.

### 4.3.6 Single Slope Barrier and New Jersey Safety-Shaped Barrier

The Single Slope barrier and New Jersey Safety-Shaped barrier systems were modeled and evaluated was part of the surrogate measure of OCD study. Each of these tests had acceptable OCD, which is less than 150 mm and met NCHRP Report 350 guidelines. These passing crash tests provide confidence in establishing a passing threshold for the selected surrogate OCD criterion.

### 4.4 COMPARISON OF OCD AND POTENTIAL SURROGATES FOR AVAILABLE CRASH TESTS

Direct measurements of OCD were obtained from the simulations and compared to measured full-scale crash test OCD values. As shown in Fig. 24, induced buckling, resulting from compression of the floorboard, could overstate the maximum OCD due to localized effects. In an actual crash test, direct contact from the wheel, wheel well, fender, and other parts may contact the floorboard and cause additional OCD. Although the overall deformation remained proportional between test and simulation, the usefulness of direct measurements was questioned. As shown in Table 1, there was some correlation observed between the simulation


FIG. 24. Truck Model Buckling Floorboard: (a) Undeformed; (b) Deformed
and test data. Since these results were highly influenced by localized buckling, direct measurement of OCD was not selected as the surrogate measure of OCD.

Simulation contact forces between the wheel and the barrier have been tabulated in Table 2. Force data was evaluated using the process as discussed in the previous section. Crash test OCD data was compared to each of the measures from the simulation. Poor correlation was found using these measures. This was possibly due to the unreliable values of force between parts undergoing such severe deformation. The amount of separation or range that exists in this data between acceptable and failed crash tests was not adequate to permit these measures to be confidently used as a surrogate measure for OCD.

The most conclusive internal energy results from all of the parts evaluated in the crush region of the pickup truck model were the floorboard and wheel well parts. The comparison of these internal energy results to crash test maximum OCD values can be seen in Table 3. Internal energies obtained from the floorboard and wheel well showed the best correlation to the actual crash test results among the measures evaluated. Therefore, these parts were selected for further study in the search for a surrogate measure of OCD.

Internal energy is the same thing as strain energy, which is computed as one half of the product of stress and strain integrated over the element (1998). Therefore, internal energy and overall deformation undergone by an element are directly proportional. Collecting the internal energy data from LS-DYNA was done by taking the final internal energy output from the database file created to monitor the energies of each part of the simulation. The internal energy was outputted as a cumulative quantity for each part over the time of the simulation. Between the floorboard and wheel well, the floorboard was selected as the surrogate measure of OCD. Even though the wheel well showed slightly better correlation, the floorboard was chosen because it was less influenced by differences in load path and did not experience as large of deformations as the wheel well.

Table 1. Direct Measurements for Truck OCD Study

| Name | Pass / Fail | Crash Test <br> OCD <br> $[\mathrm{mm}]$ | Direct <br> Measurement <br> $[\mathrm{mm}]$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Oregon | Fail | 475 | 170 |
| Cobblestone | Fail | 160 | 225 |
| Cobblestone with | Pass | 98 | 50 |
| Reveal | Pass | 140 | 50 |
| Single Slope | Pass | Not Reported | 80 |
| New Jersey | Pass | 130 | 80 |
| Modified T202 | Pass | 133 | 105 |
| Shallow Cobble | Pass |  |  |

Table 2. Wheel to Barrier Contact Forces and Impulses for Truck OCD Study

| Name | Pass / Fail | Crash Test OCD <br> [mm] | X-Y-Z Resultant |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | Max Force <br> [ N ] | Max 10 ms Moving Avg. [ N ] | Impulse <br> [ $\mathrm{N}-\mathrm{s}$ ] | Total Impulse [ N -s] |
| Oregon | Fail | 475 | 1,290,000 | 459,000 | 28,800 | 29,900 |
| Cobblestone | Fail | 160 | 1,340,000 | 450,000 | 34,500 | 40,100 |
| Cobblestone with Reveal | Pass | 98 | 278,000 | 195,000 | 14,500 | 14,800 |
| Single Slope | Pass | 140 | 510,000 | 164,000 | 10,700 | 15,200 |
| New Jersey | Pass | Not Reported | 229,000 | 197,000 | 12,100 | 12,800 |
| Modified T202 | Pass | 130 | 290,000 | 231,000 | 12,800 | 21,100 |
| Shallow Cobble | Pass | 133 | 910,000 | 459,000 | 18,700 | 18,700 |
|  |  |  | X-Y Resultant |  |  |  |
| Oregon | Fail | 475 | 1,290,000 | 455,000 | 27,700 | 28,300 |
| Cobblestone | Fail | 160 | 1,176,000 | 438,000 | 31,900 | 35,900 |
| Cobblestone with Reveal | Pass | 98 | 276,000 | 195,000 | 14,300 | 14,600 |
| Single Slope | Pass | 140 | 498,000 | 164,000 | 10,600 | 15,100 |
| New Jersey | Pass | Not Reported | 228,000 | 196,000 | 12,000 | 12,700 |
| Modified T202 | Pass | 130 | 263,000 | 123,000 | 11,900 | 19,800 |
| Shallow Cobble | Pass | 133 | 901,000 | 449,000 | 18,000 | 18,000 |

Table 3. Internal Energies for Truck OCD Study

| Name | Pass / Fail | Crash Test <br> OCD <br> $[\mathrm{mm}]$ | Floorboard <br> Part (73) <br> $[\mathrm{N}-\mathrm{mm}]$ | Wheel Well <br> Part (54) <br> $[\mathrm{N}-\mathrm{mm}]$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Oregon | Fail | 475 | $9,826,000$ | $14,140,000$ |
| Cobblestone | Fail | 160 | $10,783,000$ | $11,040,000$ |
| Cobblestone | Pass | 98 | 782,400 | $3,980,000$ |
| with Reveal | Pass | 140 | 721,300 | $2,469,000$ |
| Single Slope | Pass | Not Reported | $1,130,000$ | $2,870,000$ |
| New Jersey | Pass | 130 | $1,172,000$ | $3,300,000$ |
| Modified T202 | Pass | 133 | $2,150,000$ | $7,540,000$ |
| Shallow Cobble | Pass | 133 |  |  |

### 4.5 SELECTED SURROGATE MEASURE OF OCD

The internal energy of the floorboard of the NCAC 2000P Detailed Pickup Truck model was selected as the most appropriate surrogate measure for evaluating OCD. This is a measure of the overall deformation done to this part. Using the internal energy from the simulations and the reported OCD values from the crash tests, thresholds for the surrogate measures were established. As shown in Fig. 25, the passing limit was selected as $2,200 \mathrm{~N}-\mathrm{m}$ and the failure limit was set at $10,700 \mathrm{~N}$-m of internal energy in the floorboard of the NCAC 2000P Detailed Pickup Truck model. These limits were selected as values of internal energy, which separate the definite passing and failing regions from the unknown or marginal region between them.


FIG. 25. Passing and Failing Crash Tests OCD vs. Internal Energies of Floorboard

The interaction of the vehicle with the Oregon Bridge Rail was considered to be substantially different than what typically occurs in an impact with a solid barrier. The frame rail of the pickup truck protruded inside one of the windows and snagged severely on the inside of one of the concrete posts. As a result, instead of the load going to the floorboard, as it does in most OCD failures, the load was directed to the frame. Therefore the Oregon Bridge Rail crash test was not taken into consideration when selecting the failure limit. The passing limit and failing limit have a large range of internal energies, but only a small difference in OCD. This causes some uncertainty in the value of the failure limit since it was based on a single failure data point.

## 5. PARAMETRIC STUDY

### 5.1 OVERVIEW

To develop guidelines for the aesthetic surface treatment of safety-shaped median barriers a parametric study was performed using simulated crash events. Each crash event was simulated with the NCAC 2000P Detailed Pickup Truck model impacting a rigid New Jersey Safety-Shaped barrier with surface asperities added to the upper face. As defined in the NCHRP Report 350 for test level 3, the vehicle speed and angle of impact were $100 \mathrm{~km} / \mathrm{hr}$ and $25^{\circ}$, respectively. Twenty nine simulated crashes were performed. Each crash had a slightly different barrier surface geometry. Each simulation was categorized as passing, marginal, or failing, based on the surrogate measure of OCD. This was done by measuring the internal energies in the floorboard of the 2000P pickup truck model and compared to the passing and failure limits of $2,200 \mathrm{~N}-\mathrm{m}$ and $10,700 \mathrm{~N}-\mathrm{m}$, respectively.

Fig. 26 shows the location of the surface asperities on the New Jersey Safety-Shaped barrier. These asperities were actually created by depressing panels on the upper face of the barrier profile between each asperity. Therefore, the original barrier profile was unchanged along each of the asperities. A plan view of the barrier profile can be seen in Fig. 27. This figure illustrates the variables used in this parametric study, which are the width of recess "W", the depth of recess " $d$ ", and the angle of asperity " $\theta$ ". The parametric study was performed with $45^{\circ}$


FIG. 26. Parametric Study Simulation Setup


FIG. 27. Surface Asperities Geometry Variables
and $90^{\circ}$ angles of asperities. While each of the angles of asperities were held constant, the depth and width of recess were varied.

Another interesting point about angled asperities is that when the angle is less than $90^{\circ}$, depth and width of the asperity are not always independent of one another. From Fig. 27 you can see that as the width " $W$ " decreases, the surface asperities become closer together until the sloped sides of the asperities create a "V" shaped relief. Once "W" decreases beyond that point, the depth "d" must also decrease, since the angle of the asperities is held constant. Fig. 28 shows the geometric boundary for the angle of asperity equal to $45^{\circ}$. Only geometries that are within the cross hatched region are possible.


FIG. 28. $45^{\circ}$ Geometric Boundary between Recess Depth and Width

A typical practice in simulation is to model a concrete barrier or bridge rail as shell elements with rigid material properties. By making the material rigid there are several advantages and disadvantages involved. A significant advantage to modeling the barrier as a rigid material was the reduction in simulation time needed by LS-DYNA to process these elements. A disadvantage was the concrete was not able to spall or chip off as expected in most of these crash test setups. Without the model's ability to capture the expected concrete spalling, the guidelines developed by this research are conservative in nature.

### 5.2 SIMULATION RESULTS AND FINDINGS

In the previous section the system setup and variables of the parametric study were discussed. Simulation results for the $45^{\circ}$ angle of asperities are presented in Table 4. Each simulation compared the internal energy of the floor board to the passing and failing limits, established in the previous section, to determine if the simulation had passing, marginal, or failing OCD. Simulations with zero depth refer to the same smooth New Jersey Safety-Shaped barrier simulation, and were included to illustrate the trend of the floor board internal energy as the depth goes to zero for each width. The remaining simulated geometries were selected by holding angle " $\theta$ " and width " $W$ " of the asperity constant while changing the depth $d$ of the asperity. The depth was decreased from a failing OCD to zero depth. For all simulated values
of " $W$ " and " $\theta$ ", a curve passing between the data points of marginal and failed configurations was plotted as shown in Fig. 29.

Table 4. Parametric Study Results for $45^{\circ}$ Angle of Asperity

| Run \# | Vehicle | Asperity <br> Width (W) <br> $[\mathrm{mm}]$ | Asperity <br> Depth (d) <br> $[\mathrm{mm}]$ | Truck Floorboard <br> Internal Energy <br> $[\mathrm{N}-\mathrm{m}]$ | Pass/Fail |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Truck | 555 | 100 | 18,318 | Fail |
| 2 | Truck | 555 | 75 | 15,939 | Fail |
| 3 | Truck | 555 | 62.5 | 12,835 | Fail |
| 4 | Truck | 555 | 50 | 8,397 | Marginal |
| 5 | Truck | 555 | 37.5 | 6,986 | Marginal |
| 6 | Truck | 555 | 25 | 4,341 | Marginal |
| 7 | Truck | 555 | 12.5 | 2,422 | Marginal |
| 8 | Truck | 555 | 0 | 1,108 | Pass |
| 9 | Truck | 280 | 62.5 | 15,507 | Fail |
| 10 | Truck | 280 | 37.5 | 14,680 | Fail |
| 11 | Truck | 280 | 25 | 8,965 | Marginal |
| 12 | Truck | 280 | 12.5 | 3,038 | Marginal |
| 13 | Truck | 280 | 0 | 1,108 | Pass |
| 14 | Truck | 180 | 25 | 11,844 | Fail |
| 15 | Truck | 180 | 12.5 | 4,905 | Marginal |
| 16 | Truck | 180 | 0 | 1,108 | Pass |
| 17 | Truck | 80 | 25 | 17,182 | Fail |
| 18 | Truck | 80 | 12.5 | 7,391 | Marginal |
| 19 | Truck | 80 | 0 | 1,108 | Pass |
| 20 | Truck | 30 | 15 | 4,149 | Marginal |

Passing Limit=2,200 N-m
Failure Limit=10,700 N-m


FIG. 29. Depth vs. Width Parametric Results for a $45^{\circ}$ Angle of Asperity

The addition of any surface asperities caused the surrogate measure to predict only marginal or failed OCD as a result. Therefore, the failure line has been shown on the guideline, but the passing line is not shown because it exists along zero depth.

Similar results for the $90^{\circ}$ angle of asperities are presented in Table 5 and the curve is shown in Fig. 30. It can be seen from the simulation results that almost all of the simulations with asperity depth "d" equal to or greater than 12.5 mm were either marginal or failed the OCD evaluation criteria. It was likely that if the depth "d" is further reduced from 12.5 mm , some of the configurations may pass the OCD criteria. However, such small depths may be of little or no significance from the standpoint of aesthetic design guidelines for barriers and hence were not evaluated. The curves shown in Fig. 29 and Fig. 30 thus only show a failure line, above which, the configuration was predicted to fail the crash test and below which, the configuration was predicted to give a marginal or a possibly passed test.

Future crash testing will be needed for a passing curve to be added to the plots, or the failure curve can be adjusted, depending on whether the crash test passed or failed. If a marginal configuration is crash tested and passes NCHRP Report 350 criteria, it would change
the passing limit and hence a passing curve will be added to the plots. If, however, a marginal configuration being crash tested fails, the failure limit would change and the failure line will be adjusted accordingly.

Table 5. Parametric Study Results for $90^{\circ}$ Angle of Asperity

| Run \# | Vehicle | Wsperity <br> Width (W) <br> $[\mathrm{mm}]$ | Asperity <br> Depth (d) <br> $[\mathrm{mm}]$ | Truck Floorboard <br> Internal Energy <br> $[\mathrm{N}-\mathrm{m}]$ | Pass/Fail |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Truck | 5 | 50 | 2,157 | Pass |
| 2 | Truck | 30 | 50 | 6,049 | Marginal |
| 3 | Truck | 30 | 25 | 6,077 | Marginal |
| 4 | Truck | 30 | 12.5 | 3,257 | Marginal |
| 5 | Truck | 30 | 0 | 1,108 | Pass |
| 6 | Truck | 55 | 50 | $25,000+$ | Fail |
| 7 | Truck | 55 | 25 | Error | Fail |
| 8 | Truck | 55 | 12.5 | 17,497 | Fail |
| 9 | Truck | 55 | 0 | 1,108 | Pass |
| 10 | Truck | 280 | 25 | $30,000+$ | Fail |
| 11 | Truck | 280 | 12.5 | 6,453 | Marginal |
| 12 | Truck | 280 | 0 | 1,108 | Pass |
| 13 | Truck | 580 | 37.5 | $14,000+$ | Fail |
| 14 | Truck | 580 | 25 | 8,909 | Marginal |
| 15 | Truck | 580 | 12.5 | 3,506 | Marginal |
| 16 | Truck | 580 | 0 | 1,108 | Pass |

Passing Limit=2,200 N-m
Failure Limit=10,700 N-m


FIG. 30. Depth vs. Width Parametric Results for a $90^{\circ}$ Angle of Asperity

As expected, Fig. 30 shows that the $90^{\circ}$ angle of asperity curve limits the asperity depth more than the $45^{\circ}$ angle of asperity. Also as expected, both $90^{\circ}$ and $45^{\circ}$ angles of asperity curves have similar shapes. It is also worth mentioning that given the curves for $90^{\circ}$ and $45^{\circ}$ angles of asperity, curves for intermediate angles of asperity can be developed by linearly interpolating the results.

Looking at the shape of the guideline curves for $45^{\circ}$ and $90^{\circ}$ angles of asperities, the effects of asperity width and depth on barrier performance were as expected. When the asperity width "W" is small, the vehicle's impact path crosses more asperities. This in turn presents more resistance to vehicle sliding on the barrier and causes more damage to the vehicle. Consequently we see a reduction in the allowable asperity depth " $d$ " for these smaller widths. As the width of asperity increases, the allowable depth " $d$ " also increases. This increase in allowable depth " $d$ " becomes a constant value when the vehicle's impact path only crosses a single asperity or too few asperities.

## 6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

### 6.1 OVERVIEW

The aim of this research was to develop guidelines for the aesthetic surface treatment of safety-shaped median barriers. This was done using numerical simulation of a parametric study, which varied surface geometry on the upper face of a New Jersey Safety-Shaped barrier. A 2000P pickup truck model was validated and a surrogate measure for OCD was found. By using the internal energy of the truck model floor board passing and failure limits were established for determining a passing, marginal, or failing OCD by NCHRP Report 350 standards in the simulation. The parametric study varied width and depth between surface asperities for a given angle of asperity. Guidelines were developed from the results of this parametric study.

### 6.2 BARRIER SURFACE ASPERITY SELECTION

In this research, guidelines were developed for aesthetic surface treatment of safety-


FIG. 31. Depth vs. Width Guideline for a $45^{\circ}$ Angle of Asperity


FIG. 32. Depth vs. Width Guideline for a $90^{\circ}$ Angle of Asperity
shaped median barriers. Those guidelines are contained in Fig. 31 and 32, the guidelines were determined for the $45^{\circ}$ and $90^{\circ}$ angles of asperities as a curve on depth vs. width of asperity.

Using these guidelines, a designer can avoid a definite failure of their surface treatment by NCHRP Report 350 standards. After crash testing is done to adjust and validate the curves bringing them to their final form, new surface treatments will not require full-scale crash testing, but only need to be within the acceptable region on these guidelines.

To use these guidelines a designer can approximate their surface geometry into terms of width of recess " $W$ ", the depth of recess " $d$ ", and the angle of asperity " $\theta$ ". The guideline's recommendation is found by locating the region of the guidelines that their surface geometry is within. The unacceptable region predicts a definite failure of the surface geometry. The marginal region predicts a possible passing surface geometry. This marginal or unknown region was needed to capture the uncertainty of the guidelines in its present form. At this point in the guidelines development there was not an acceptable region above a safety-shaped barrier with no surface asperities. When an acceptable region is established this region will predict a definite pass of NCHRP Report 350 standards.

### 6.3 LIMITATIONS AND CONCERNS

A significant limitation of this research is the absence of data for the 820C small car vehicle. This leaves the issue of the 820C small car's vehicle stability unanswered. This
limitation can only be addressed once vehicle model improvements are made to the 820 C small car vehicle model making it valid for use in research of this type. Limited crash test data was another limitation faced throughout this research.

Comparing the guidelines concluded from this research to the CalTrans existing guidelines for Single Slope barrier is difficult because CalTrans recommendations only include a restriction on asperity depth to 25 mm for asperities with $45^{\circ}$ angle or less and 13 mm for asperities with $90^{\circ}$ angle or less. The CalTrans recommendations are also only on a pass/fail basis without a marginal region and do not take spacing of the asperities into account. As expected the CalTrans recommendations were more restrictive on depth of asperity than the failure line on most widths of recess. Only for asperities with a $45^{\circ}$ angle and a width of recess less than 250 mm was the depth of recess restricted more by the guideline established by this research.

During the course of the parametric study, it was found that a potential for door snagging with asperities on the barrier exists. This was more of a concern with the $90^{\circ}$ asperities as compared to the $45^{\circ}$ asperities. Since the door hinges and latches in the NCAC 2000P Detail Pickup Truck model were not modeled to capture this failure mode of the door, a detailed prediction with each asperity configuration cannot be made. Moreover, it should be noted that due to the lack of a robust concrete material model, the barriers were modeled with rigid material. One may expect to see some concrete failure in the asperities during the actual crash test, which in fact would reduce the overall vehicle damage and door snagging problem for some configurations. However, the potential for this snagging still exist and is difficult to quantify thru simulation due the limitations previously mentioned. Previous research has shown that small asperity depths with close to a $90^{\circ}$ asperity angle can cause significant damage to the vehicle and consequently fail the test (Bullard et al. 2002). Most of these cases involve snagging due to an exposed edge of a rail splice or a bridge rail transition. Even though the exposed edge has a very small thickness (asperity depth), the sharp angle of about $90^{\circ}$ with respect to the vehicle travel path (asperity angle) causes a significant damage to the vehicle (Buth et al. 2000, Buth et al. 1999, and Buth et al. 1993).

Another concern was that none of the simulations of the parametric study predicted a definite passing OCD beyond a width of 5 mm . Even though these guidelines are conservative in nature at this point it could be concluded that adding any kind of a surface treatment to a safety-shaped barrier is not highly recommended.

### 6.4 FUTURE RESEARCH

The next step in finalizing these curves is to crash test several different surface geometries. The geometries selected will be from the marginal region of the guidelines. If a
marginal configuration being crash tested passes the NCHRP Report 350 criteria, it implies that any asperity depth less than the one tested would also pass. Hence this would lead to adding a passing curve to the plots. However, if a marginal configuration being crash tested fails, this would imply that any asperity depth higher than the one tested would also fail. Hence the failure line will be adjusted accordingly. This adjustment after the crash testing phase will lead to the final design guidelines.

As with most research more questions than answers have been found by our work on this topic. Several issues have been found that could be researched further. Finding an equivalent angle of asperity for a rounded asperity would be needed for designers working with rounded components in their aesthetic surface treatment. One of the crash tests mentioned in this research was the Cobblestone Reveal barrier, which removed the surface treatment from a lower section of the barrier. The Cobblestone barrier with the same surface treatment all the way to the ground had failed due to OCD. Therefore, the removal of the surface treatment had made the OCD acceptable. With the lower section of the surface treatment removed, designers would get more depth to work with in their designs.

Beyond this project further research into creating more accurate and reliable vehicle models is needed. When the vehicle models were first developed their purpose was to give a generally accurate crush stiffness to be able to measure roadside system performance or global parameters such as vehicle dynamics. As research continues to focus more heavily on vehicle deformations of individual components the connections between these components will need to be improved. Many phenomena that are faced in the area of roadside safety are highly dependent on failure of connections and joints in the vehicle model. At this time, LS-DYNA is releasing versions that can define failure in connections and joints, but to determine acceptable values to set to these parameters can be very difficult. Many roadside safety systems have been influenced greatly by rim interaction with the system presenting a need for a tire model with the ability to fail and air out. Until the tire failure can be modeled, the rim interaction with the system can not be captured.

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## APPENDIX I

## SAMPLE LS-DYNA INPUT FILE









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| 169 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
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| 910 1 0 |  |  | 0.0000000 | 0.0000000 | 0.0000000 | 0.0000000 | 0.0000000 |
| 7.17000+8 1.00400+9 300.00000 1.2040-12 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| *SET_PART_LIST |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 910 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 185 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| *AIRBAG_SIMPLE_AIRBAG_MODEL_4 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
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| $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| *SET_PART_LIST |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
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| 187 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| *CONTACT_AUTOMATIC_SINGLE_SURFACE |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
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| 0.0000000 | 0.0000000 | 0.0000000 | 0.0000000 | 0.0000000 | 0 | 0.0000000 | 0.0000000 |
| 0.2000000 | 0.0000000 | 0.0000000 | 0.0000000 | 0.0000000 | 0.0000000 |  |  |
| 2 | 0.1 | 0 | 1.025 | 5.0 | 5 | $\bigcirc$ | 1 |
| 0.0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| *SET_PART |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
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| 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
| 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 25 | 26 |
| 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 33 | 36 | 37 |
| 38 | 39 | 40 | 41 | 42 | 43 | 44 | 45 |
| 46 | 47 | 48 | 49 | 50 | 51 | 52 | 53 |
| 54 | 55 | 56 | 57 | 58 | 59 | 60 | 61 |
| 62 | 63 | 64 | 65 | 66 | 68 | 69 | 70 |
| 71 | 72 | 73 | 74 | 75 | 76 | 77 | 78 |
| 79 | 80 | 81 | 82 | 83 | 84 | 85 | 86 |
| 87 | 88 | 89 | 90 | 91 | 92 | 93 | 94 |
| 95 | 96 | 97 | 98 | 99 | 104 | 105 | 106 |
| 107 | 108 | 109 | 110 | 111 | 112 | 113 | 114 |
| 115 | 116 | 117 | 118 | 119 | 120 | 121 | 122 |
| 123 | 124 | 125 | 126 | 127 | 128 | 129 | 130 |
| 131 | 132 | 133 | 134 | 135 | 136 | 137 | 138 |
| 139 | 140 | 141 | 142 | 143 | 144 | 145 | 146 |
| 147 | 148 | 149 | 154 | 155 | 156 | 157 | 158 |
| 159 | 160 | 161 | 162 | 163 | 164 | 165 | 166 |
| 167 | 168 | 169 | 174 | 175 | 176 | 177 | 178 |
| 179 | 180 | 181 | 182 | 183 | 184 | 185 | 186 |
| 187 | 196 | 197 | 198 | 199 | 200 | 207 | 209 |
| 212 | 213 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| *CONTACT_SURFACE_TO_SURFACE |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
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| \$HMCOLOR GR | ROUPS | 201 | 1 |  |  |  |  |
| 620 | 622 | 2 | 2 |  |  |  |  |
| 0.15 | 0.15 |  |  |  | 1 |  |  |
| 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.0 | 0.0 |  |  |
| 2 | 0.1 | 0 | 1.025 | 0.0 | 2 | 0 | 1 |
| 0.0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 0 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
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| 620 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
| 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 25 | 26 |
| 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 33 | 36 | 37 |



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[^0]:    This thesis follows the style and format of the Journal of Transportation Engineering, ASCE.

