



CFIRE

Development of an Areawide Estimate of Truck Freight Value in the *Urban Mobility Report*

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16. Abstract <p>Significant efforts have resulted in improved knowledge about the effects of congestion on the motoring public. The <i>Urban Mobility Report (UMR)</i> has been produced for over 20 years detailing the effects of congestion in the United States (1). Despite these efforts, and others, less is known about the effect of congestion on urban freight movement. This research set out to produce truck freight values for inclusion in the <i>Urban Mobility Report (UMR)</i> to inform the policy discussion and decisions.</p> <p>Researchers developed a three-part methodology to estimate truck freight value using FHWA Highway Performance Monitoring System (HPMS) and FHWA Freight Analysis Framework (FAF) datasets. Researchers found that there was a correlation between commodity value and truck delay—higher commodity values are associated with more people; more people are associated with more traffic congestion. Researchers also developed and tested (in Milwaukee) a transferrable method to investigate freight value along specific corridors in an urban area. Policy implications of the freight information are presented.</p> <p>Researchers first implemented the methodology into the <i>2010 Urban Mobility Report</i>, released in January 2011. The <i>2011 Urban Mobility Report</i>, released in September 2011, used a similar methodology to present the truck freight values.</p>			
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Project Summary

Significant efforts have resulted in improved knowledge about the effects of congestion on the motoring public. The *Urban Mobility Report (UMR)* has been produced for over 20 years detailing the effects of congestion in the United States (1). Despite these efforts, and others, less is known about the effect of congestion on urban freight movement.

The freight industry continues to face challenges when trying to transport goods on an increasingly congested transportation system. Very little analysis is performed at the commodity-movement level. Much of the research and modeling focuses on truck movements, for operations purposes, but does not get into truck value moving on the transportation system, which could be useful for planning purposes. Therefore, this research set out to produce truck freight values for inclusion in the *Urban Mobility Report (UMR)* to inform the policy discussion and decisions.

Research Team

Researchers at the National Center for Freight and Infrastructure Research and Education (CFIRE) collaborated with researchers at the Texas Transportation Institute (TTI) to develop the estimates to include in the *UMR*. Matching funding was also used from TTI's on-going FHWA pooled fund study, Mobility Measures in Urban Transportation, which includes twelve state departments of transportation (California, Colorado, Florida, Kentucky, Maryland, Minnesota, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Texas, Virginia and Washington), two metropolitan planning organizations (Houston-Galveston Area Council, Maricopa Association of Governments), and FHWA.

Process

Researchers developed a three-part methodology to estimate truck freight value using FHWA Highway Performance Monitoring System (HPMS) and FHWA Freight Analysis Framework (FAF) datasets. Researchers also developed a method to investigate freight value along specific corridors in an urban area. The methodology was tested and results are presented for the Milwaukee urban area. Policy implications of the data are discussed.

Discussion and Recommendations

This research successfully developed a methodology for incorporating areawide truck freight estimates into the *UMR* by urban area. Researchers estimated truck commodity value traveling in each urban area. Researchers implemented the methodology into the *2010 Urban Mobility Report*. The *2011 Urban Mobility Report*, released in August 2011, used a similar methodology to present the truck freight values. Researchers also present and apply a valuable methodology for estimating truck freight value on specific corridors that is transferable to other metropolitan areas.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Significant efforts have resulted in improved knowledge about the effects of congestion on the motoring public. The *Urban Mobility Report (UMR)* has been produced for more 20 years, detailing the effects of congestion in the United States (1). Despite these efforts, and others, less is known about the effect of congestion on urban freight movement.

The freight industry continues to face challenges when trying to transport goods on an increasingly congested transportation system. While a tractor-trailer occupies the roadway capacity of two to three passenger vehicles, it is hypothesized that the cost of that commercial vehicle in congestion may be a dozen times greater than the passenger vehicles. With the continued evolution of a global economy and just-in-time manufacturing, more freight is being moved on the transportation system. Freight volume is projected to in the next twenty years. Very little analysis is performed at the commodity-movement level. Much of the research and modeling focuses on truck movements, for operations purposes, but does not get into truck value moving on the transportation system, which could be useful for planning purposes.

Project Objectives

The objectives of this research are to create and test a methodology for generating truck freight values to include in the *UMR*. The *UMR* has developed and refined a methodology over the past two decades to estimate the amount of delay that occurs on the freeways and arterial streets of a region.

Report Organization

This report is organized into five chapters as described below:

- Chapter 1—Introduction: Provides a brief introduction to the research topic and presents project objectives and report organization.
- Chapter 2—Background and Policy Implications: Provides background information with a focus on the policy implications of the freight value information estimated in this report.
- Chapter 3—*Urban Mobility Report* Truck Value Methodology Development and Results: Discusses the data sources, methodology and results for estimating truck value in the *UMR*.
- Chapter 4—Milwaukee Case Study Application and Results: Discusses the methodology and results for estimating truck value for individual corridors in the Milwaukee region.
- Chapter 5—Conclusions and Future Work: Summarizes the key concluding points of the research as well as future research opportunities.

CHAPTER 2: BACKGROUND AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The freight related factors developed in this study offer policy makers a series of important criteria for helping understand the costs of congestion for the freight industry. This chapter includes a brief literature scan and follows with the authors' observations on the policy considerations related to the *Urban Mobility Report*.

First and foremost, the authors recognize that the costs of congestion are subject to much debate and vary between business and leisure trips, industry-specific supply chain management strategies, and intermodal constraints throughout the system. This chapter aims not to settle such debate but to discuss the applications and emergence of congestion metrics for data-driven decision making.

Congestion Focused Policy Literature

Congestion on the nation's roads is extremely costly to both individuals and businesses. In 2010, drivers spent an average of 34 hours in traffic expending over \$700 worth of fuel in that time. In aggregate, congestion cost the American economy over \$100 billion in 2010 (1). Economic conditions have suppressed driving but as the economy recovers the expectation is that an increase in the miles driven will lead to greater congestion of America's roads. Current models for elasticity of fuel consumption show that relatively few trips are diverted until the cost of fuel is much greater than it is today. As this study shows, freight costs alone due to congestion in 2010 are estimated to have been \$23 billion; this number includes only fuel and delay costs and does not include many other aspects of business including the uncertainty that occurs as a result of delays, loss of inventory, and missed deliveries.

The results of a "what if" analysis projected a congestion cost of \$175 billion in 2020, which equates to \$1,210 per person and 41 hours (1). These projections depend on the economy recovering and achieving growth similar to that of the early 2000s—if that is not the case then these numbers could change significantly. In any case, Americans are spending more and more time in traffic, costing businesses and individuals tremendous amounts of lost productivity and wages as well as other fuel and environmental costs.

Researchers have attempted to characterize the impact of congestion on the traveling public and freight community over the past several years. Other studies by the National Center for Freight and Infrastructure Research and Education (CFIRE) at the University of Wisconsin-Madison (see CFIRE 03-16 and CFIRE 04-19) (2,3) have derived values of delay for both shippers and carriers respectively. Congestion affects businesses in a number of ways including missed shipments and increased inventory, as well as increased prices. A 2008 Economic Development Research Group report shines light onto the varied effects that congestion has on businesses and how businesses seek to minimize those effects (4). Their work showed that delays from congestion caused businesses to increase their inventory by 5 to 8 percent. Because many businesses depend on a just-in-time approach to shipping they carry only the inventory that they need to move immediately. However, because of the delays and uncertainty that occur as a result of congestion, they are forced to carry more inventory to insure that their shipments go out on time. Some businesses had to take on new employees at shifts previously not filled, such as early morning shifts, because some freight companies start shipping their products as early as 2:00 AM (4).

Congestion causes freight companies to shrink the area to which they deliver goods, moving away from larger facilities able to dispense higher volume of goods which reduces the ability to take advantage of economies of scale in the freight industry. Other effects observed by the study include companies having to account for times that employees won't make a meeting on time because of congestion, and negative effects on the supply chain by late or missed shipments due to congestion. A 2009 Reason Foundation analysis held that growing congestion in suburban areas will change the way that those economies operate and have serious effects on businesses located outside of downtown areas (5).

The cause of this congestion is a matter of great debate. Economist Joe Cortright contends that congestion is caused by urban sprawl, and not by a lack of roads (6). Cortright insists that policy needs to look into basic urban structures rather than highway utilization and expansion. Cortright's research focuses on urban planning decisions that place importance on the locations of employment, focusing on policies that promote sustainable urban living close to places of employment rather than the suburban model.

A January 2008 Government Accountability Office (GAO) report identified a major problem with current transportation policy that leads to congestion, "In a number of ways, current pricing of freight transportation infrastructure can result in inefficient use by failing to align the capital and operational costs of infrastructure with the fees paid by users" (7). This leads to customers overusing the highway system which increases the cost of congestion. The GAO indicated that congestion forces companies to develop redundancy in their supply chains, sending out more than one truck believing that at least one of the trucks would make its destination on time. Such operational changes are costly, and these costs are passed on to consumers through higher priced products.

Three major problems emerge when implementing freight projects at the state level, "First, public planners face challenges in advancing freight projects within a public transportation planning process that is not well suited to the identification and advancement of freight projects. Second, public planners face challenges reaching agreement among the various freight stakeholders on freight needs and solutions. Finally, due to the modal structure of transportation funding, public planners face challenges in accessing funding, even when freight projects merit public sector involvement." Furthermore, due to the nature of the planning of projects, federal money often goes to fund projects with only local or regional interests in mind and without a national focus for the project. Therefore, the freight system does not have an overall focus, as Hecker explains, "...public planners tend to focus on the transportation needs that will directly benefit their constituencies, which can result in significant national freight needs going unaddressed" (7). Another error in the current process is how projects get funded; freight projects often take a backseat to passenger projects. This happens because taxpayers and voters are usually only willing to fund projects from which they believe they benefit directly.

Another GAO report from March 2008 backs up this claim with evidence about the decision-making process of state DOTs. In a survey, these organizations were asked what factors they take into account when analyzing which projects to recommend: "...34 said that political support and public opinion are factors of great or very great importance in the decision to recommend a highway project, while only 8 said that the ratio of benefits to costs was a factor of great or very great importance" (8).

Along with flaws in the recommendation process for projects, the report also identified problems in the accountability for reaching the goals set out for various projects. “There are also few formal evaluations of the outcomes of federally-funded projects. As a result, policymakers miss a chance to learn more about the efficacy of different approaches and projects” (8). This has severe consequences for which projects are funded and how those projects are run: “states and localities receive the same disbursement regardless of their performance at, for example, reducing congestion or managing project costs. As a result, the incentive to improve return on investment—the public benefits gained from public resources expended—is reduced” (8).

This lack of accountability in the funding and evaluation of federally funded transportation projects occurs in part because, “data on key performance and outcome indicators is often absent or flawed” (8). Having a proper metric with which to analyze both the projects that show the most need to reduce congestion as well as to analyze the effectiveness of those projects could help to alleviate many of the issues in the report. The Heritage Foundation brings up similar points to this report. In the brief, the authors cite projects being rewarded for political support rather than because of cost-benefit analysis as one of the major problems that leads to inefficient use of highway funds and eventually congestion (9).

May 2011 Congressional Budget Office (CBO) testimony identified issues in our transportation funding systems. One issue the CBO identified is related to the way the Highway System is funded through the funding formula, from which 80 percent of highway funds are appropriated to the states (10). CBO economist Joseph Kile stated that “formula grants are not closely linked to the performance of the transportation system” (10). Furthermore, these grants do not identify the most economically-profitable projects, or the projects that will provide the most benefit for the nation. “For example, the economic benefits of highway spending may be greater in areas with more traffic congestion or in areas of greater anticipated population growth and economic activity, but the current approach may direct federal resources to other areas” (10).

Kile recommended a change to the way highway projects are funded, shifting from formulas and recommendations from politicians and towards a system that chooses projects where the benefits outweigh the costs of investment. In his system, “Congress may specify particular projects for reasons it deems appropriate—equity, efficiency, or some other consideration—but to the extent that the selection of those projects gives little weight to efficiency, the federal government could promote efficiency by encouraging the funding of high value projects through more systematic analyses of costs and benefits” (10). Kile estimates that the government could spend \$209 billion annually on projects whose benefits outweigh their costs. Kile’s testimony presents a view that there is still much to be done to reform highway funding. If more direct benefit cost analysis permeated the project selection process, critical data would need to be collected. The areawide freight estimates developed herein make that project selection factor more defensible.

In the draft freight policy framework released in 2008, the U.S. Department of Transportation sought to solve many of the issues raised in the GAO reports (11). Among these is recognition that greater collaboration is needed between the various stakeholders in the system to increase investment, align the costs of use of the transportation system better with those who use it the most, and to make the system more accountable and responsive. The framework outlined legislative language requiring that a cost-benefit analysis be conducted before selection of highway projects. This framework also set forth various policy solutions to the problem of congestion including increasing the amount of infrastructure, as well as improving the efficiency

of current infrastructure through various pilot programs around the country. Although, as the CBO testimony shows, no current efforts exist to implement this funding framework that takes into account need and potential benefit over other considerations (11).

The main policy implications of the *Urban Mobility Report* come into play for project selection and evaluation. In the attempts to address the problems highlighted in the GAO and CBO reports, the *Urban Mobility Report* values and its associated metrics can guide improved freight policy. The numbers on commodity value can be used in calculating the cost-benefit analysis as well as for determining what areas are most critical to national freight transit. The UMR's travel time index can be used to identify which projects show the most need. However, if the DOT transitions to using metrics like the travel time index to identify projects to recommend, they still face a problem with the funding formula. In the March 2008 GAO report Hecker writes, "...most grant funds are instead distributed according to set formulas that typically have an indirect relation to need. As a result, grant disbursements for these programs not only fail to reflect performance, but they may also not reflect need..." (9). An opportunity exists to use the metrics and information from the *Urban Mobility Report* in the funding formula for decision-making and to reduce congestion and increase accountability in freight policy. Several states, including Texas and Georgia, have already incorporated the metrics in the *Urban Mobility Report* into their congestion policies (12).

A 2008 Congressional Research Service (CRS) report notes that the effectiveness of the *Urban Mobility Report* metrics as policy tools is still up for debate (13). The report focuses mainly on the problem of congestion and its effects on society, however it spends a couple of pages dealing with the *Urban Mobility Report*. The report takes issue with the travel time index's use of free flow travel time. It is the author's opinion that free flow time is a theoretical measure and should not be used when it has real world implications. The report also highlights criticisms of outcomes that the travel time index can lead to. They point out an example where a highway is expanded by adding a lane but due to a variety of circumstances, their travel time index is worse off because while they reduced congestion they have not reduced the ratio of travel speeds. However, despite these criticisms, the CRS report acknowledges that the *Urban Mobility Report* at least, "provide[s] the only national picture of road traffic congestion on an annual basis and, hence, are useful for monitoring changes in congestion over time" (13). It should also be noted that there are several other congestion measures in the *Urban Mobility Report*.

Possible congestion mitigation policy elements are identified in a letter from the GAO to the Chairman of the House Transportation Committee in November 2008. This letter identifies congestion pricing in addition to several other possible solutions to the problem of congestion. The letter separates various suggestions into two different categories: quickly implementable changes and longer-term changes that involve expanding infrastructure (14). Among the quickly implementable suggestions include congestion pricing and extended business hours in return for curbside parking in heavily populated urban areas. On the infrastructure side the suggestions include improving rail capacity to take pressure off of the highway system, building new bridges that allow for a better flow of traffic for multiple modes of freight, and building truck-only lanes into highways.

Policy Guidance

The second portion of this chapter provides some prospective guidance and context for implementing and including the areawide freight estimates in a larger policy context.

Performance Metrics to Prioritize Construction for Fix-it-First Policies

During the past several years, and leading into the recommendations for the authorization of federal transportation policy, the maintenance of the existing system has received renewed focus. The “State of Good Repair” concept relies upon taking advantage of quality data on system condition and performance. The indicators presented herein detailing the costs of freight congestion and congestion overall will help policy makers prioritize the decision making for project selection. This has two sides—first, decisions made about project selection can be based on addressing the greatest needs—namely the areas with the most congestion currently. However, this approach is likely to cause substantial shorter term costs as the congestion will inevitably be intensified during the construction and rehabilitation processes. The costs of congestion can also be used to incentivize the contractor process. The *Urban Mobility Report* can show the size of the problem and give ways to relate the size of the solutions.

State Infrastructure Banks

Many state departments of transportation have used federal highway funding to create state infrastructure banks (SIBs), which are essentially revolving loan funds for transportation projects. In general, eligible projects include: highway projects such as roads, signals, intersection improvements, and bridges; transit capital projects such as buses, equipment, and maintenance or passenger facilities; and bikeway or pedestrian access projects on highway right-of-way. Including freight value estimates allows decision makers better information for project evaluation. These metrics provide guidance for what projects state infrastructure banks should fund. This helps avoid the funding of unproductive pet projects. Proposals for state infrastructure banks have highlighted the essential need to accurately assess project viability. Better estimates on the value of removing congestion inform the selection process.

Public Private Partnerships

Similar to the evaluation requirements of state infrastructure banks, these freight related metrics can identify which roads are ideal candidates for transformation to a public-private partnership. Use of the travel time index as a measure of accountability to ensure that private company is holding up its share of partnership is a valuable performance measure for the public sector owners on these projects as well. Some performance accountability can be traced annually or upon whatever reporting period the parties agree.

Pilot Projects

There is a consensus among economists that congestion pricing represents the single most viable and sustainable approach to reducing traffic congestion. However, there is no consensus on where the projects should be implemented and how. The travel time index computed with freight estimates would also be a valuable selection and evaluation tool for congestion pricing pilot projects. Possible opportunities for expansion of the program can be assessed with data that captures the societal costs of congestion.

Toll Support

Toll roads (also tollway, turnpike, toll highway, or express toll route) are privately or publicly built roads that are increasingly being used by public authorities for revenue generation to repay long-term debt issued to finance a toll facility, to reinvest in capacity expansion, to pay for operations and maintenance of the facility, or simply as general tax funds. The values developed herein can also be used to determine whether it would be better to raise or lower tolls to achieve a more efficient flow of traffic in a variable format or to enable the long-term success of the projects.

HOT/HOV Lanes

High occupancy toll (HOT) or high occupancy vehicle (HOV) lanes attempt to encourage congestion relief by moving motorists out of the general purpose lanes. The ability to estimate the cost of freight delays in the general lanes is powerful for encouraging behavior change. If there is a published and reasonably confident cost, consumers may support additional congestion relief. In addition these measures can be used to determine where to institute less substantial policy changes including congestion mitigating measures such as HOT lanes, traffic signal timing, and incident management programs. As shown in the Bipartisan Policy Center Report, performance metrics like the travel time index can help compare effectiveness of programs across the country to determine which programs should be emulated and which have failed to produce significant results (15).

Implementation

The authors make the following recommendations for incorporating the use of the *Urban Mobility Report* information for required (or recommended) benefit-cost analysis.

- Use *Urban Mobility Report* metrics as a measure of accountability in determining what projects have been most successful at reducing congestion. Having a metric that can show the public which projects are working, and how they are improving their lives, will reduce skepticism towards infrastructure projects. It will also help policymakers determine which projects to emulate on a larger scale. The commodity value metric should be incorporated into funding formulas, to ensure that the most important areas for freight transportation in the country receive the necessary funding.
- Incorporate metrics in state long-range transportation plans.
- Base goals in these plans around reducing congestion as defined by the *Urban Mobility Report*.
- Use congestion measures to determine which applications (technology, capacity improvements, accessibility) are the most valuable on particular locations.
- Create incentives on new monies that become available (e.g., gas tax, dedicated funds) for multi-state partnerships to address freight corridors of importance. For example, a tunnel through a mountain in Arizona on a freight corridor that benefits adjacent states in freight movement. This recommendation will require balancing regional stakeholder needs and balancing between both urban and rural interests.

Transit and Freight Dependencies

Twenty-nine state-level DOTs said that finding data on the performance of multiple modes of transit was difficult (8). The *Urban Mobility Report* helps clarify what areas need improvement and what areas should be invested in, as well as provides a model for states to develop their own metrics when dealing with multiple modes of transit.

CHAPTER 3: *URBAN MOBILITY REPORT* TRUCK VALUE METHODOLOGY DEVELOPMENT AND RESULTS

This chapter describes the procedure used to develop and test a methodology for generating truck freight values included in the *Urban Mobility Report*.

Data Sources

The methodology below uses data from two primary data sources, 1) the Federal Highway Administration's (FHWA) Highway Performance Monitoring System (HPMS), and 2) FHWA's Freight Analysis Framework (FAF).

Highway Performance Monitoring System

HPMS includes national-level data on the condition and performance of the highway system (16). The states provide HPMS data elements to FHWA on a yearly basis for use in federal aid allocation and for producing FHWA's "Conditions and Performance" reports.

Researchers have historically used HPMS data in the development of the statistics in the *Urban Mobility Report*. The following are the specific HPMS-link data elements used in the methodology to incorporate truck freight values into the UMR.

- Average Daily Traffic (ADT)
- Truck percent (percent of ADT that are trucks)
- Link length

Freight Analysis Framework (FAF)

FHWA collects and produces FAF to provide a national snapshot of freight movements throughout the United States, including the metropolitan areas (17). The methodology described in this chapter uses truck value data from FHWA FAF 2.2, the latest version of FAF available when the methodology was developed. There are 114 geographic areas for FAF 2.2, corresponding to the regions used for the 2002 Commodity Flow Survey (CFS). FAF 2.2 includes projections for other years in five-year increments. Value of commodities are identified in FAF by the Standard Classification of Transported Goods (SCTG) system.

***Urban Mobility Report* Truck Value Methodology**

Researchers developed a methodology to allocate truck value from FAF to the urban areas within the *UMR* as a proportion of the truck vehicle-miles of travel in each urban area. The following sections describe the methodology and results.

The methodology includes a three-part process to determine the truck values produced in the *UMR*. Each part is described below in more detail.

Part 1 Methodology ("Line Method")

Figure 1 shows a flowchart for Part 1 of the methodology. Part 1 is sometimes referred to as the "Line Method" because it focuses on the value of goods "on the line" connecting two nodes

(origin and destination) without focusing on the actual area where the goods originate or are destined. The numbered inputs/steps in Figure 1 of the methodology are described below.

- Input 1. *2009 HPMS input*: The methodology begins by using the 2009 HPMS data for the metropolitan areas of interest.
- Step 1. *Compute truck VMT for each state and the nation*: Vehicle-miles of travel (VMT) are computed for each state (and then summed for the nation) as the product of average daily traffic (ADT), truck percentage, and average link length (miles). This is produced by sample HPMS data by functional classification.
- Step 2. *Estimate truck VMT percent for each state (urban areas and rural)*: Relative to the VMT sum for the nation from Step 1, researchers determine the truck VMT percent in each state (and in urban areas and rural areas within each state).
- Input 2. *FAF 2.2 data input*: Computing the truck values begins by using the FAF 2.2 data as input.
- Step 3. *Interpolate 2009 value for all origin-destination pairs*: Researchers interpolated the 2009 truck freight values between each origin-destination pair for the 2009 year of interest.
- Step 4. *Estimate total truck value for the nation*. Researchers summed the value moving between all origin-destination pairs to estimate the truck value for the nation. This step yields a sum of the values “on all the lines” between key origins and destinations.
- Step 5. *Estimate truck value in each state and urban area of interest*. Researchers proportioned the total truck value from Step 4 to each state (urban areas and rural) using the truck VMT percentages estimated in Step 2.

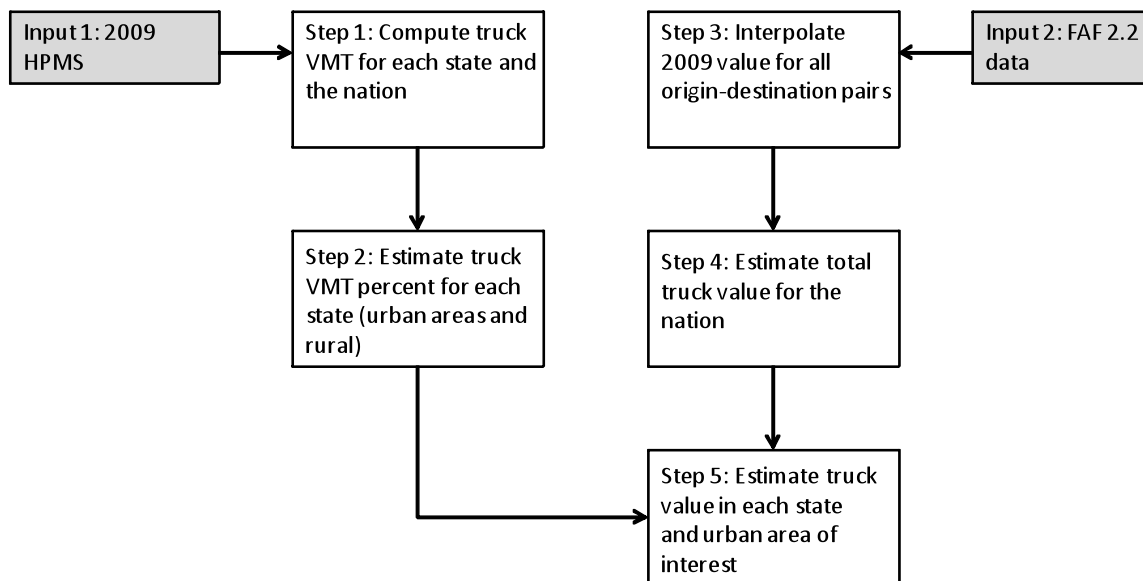


Figure 1 Methodology for Part 1 ("Line Method") of UMR Truck Value Methodology

The Part 1 methodology (“Line Method”) focuses on the sum of the values traveling between each origin and destination. It essentially ignores the origins and destinations. Certainly not all origins and destinations share similar characteristics. For example, port cities such as Los

Angeles/Long Beach, Chicago, or New York/New Jersey should be expected to have more truck value traveling than urban areas where ports play less of a role. In addition, FAF 2.2 does not include truck trips that are less than 50 miles. As such, substantial value of trips that occur in these “port-influenced” urban areas may not be adequately reflected in the Part 1 methodology (“Line Method”).

Part 2 Methodology (“Node Method”)

While the datasets for the Part 2 methodology are the same, the focus is on the origins and destinations to provide more consideration and increased value for port cities. Because of the focus on the endpoints of the trip, this methodology is sometimes termed the “Node Method.” The steps that follow describe the methodology in more detail. Figure 2 shows a flowchart of the steps used in this method. The numbered steps and elements in Figure 2 are described in the following steps.

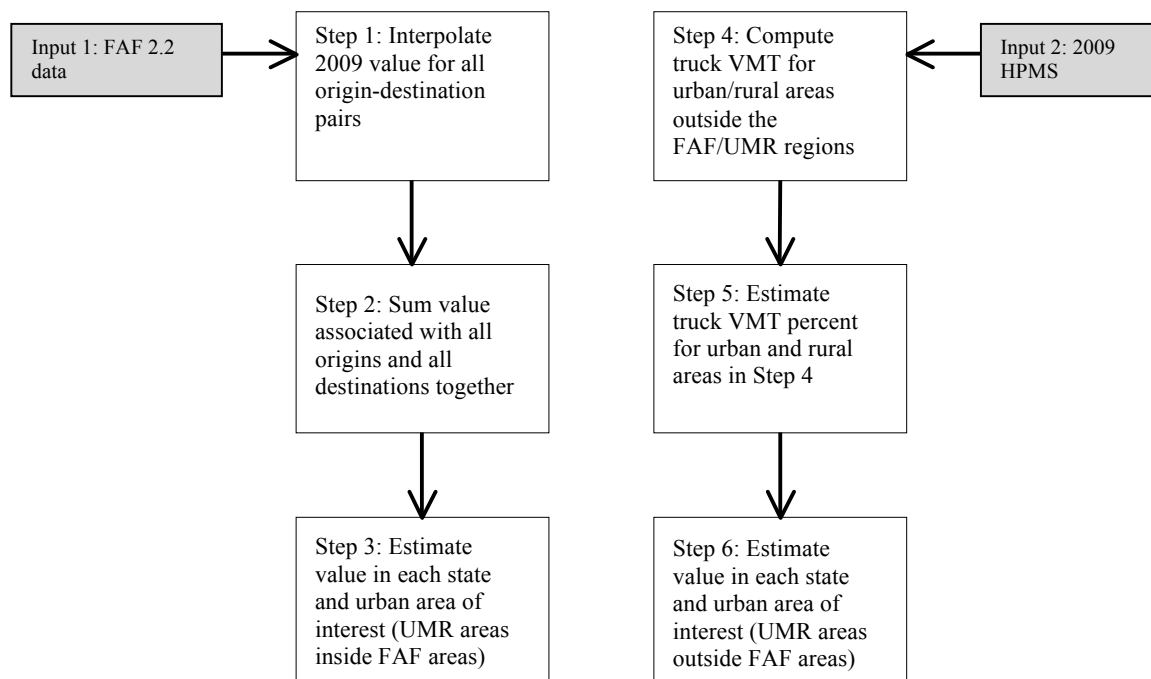


Figure 2 Methodology for Part 2 Methodology (“Node Method”) of UMR Truck Value Methodology

- Input 1. *FAF 2.2 data input*: Computing the truck values begins by using the FAF 2.2 data as input.
- Step 1. *Interpolate 2009 value for all origin-destination pairs*: Researchers interpolated the 2009 truck freight values between each origin and destination pair for the 2009 year of interest.
- Step 2. *Sum value associated with all origins and all destinations together*: Researchers summed the total truck value of all origin and destinations together to provide the “node influence” of this methodology.
- Step 3. *Estimate value in each state and urban area of interest (UMR areas inside FAF areas)*: For a given FAF area, researchers allocated the proportion of truck value occurring in either the origin or the destination as a percent of the total truck value (sum of all

origins and destinations together). These FAF areas typically covered the urban areas of the metropolitan areas of the *UMR*.

- Input 2. *2009 HPMS Input*: The Part 2 methodology uses the 2009 HPMS data for the metropolitan areas of interest.
- Step 4. *Compute truck VMT for urban/rural areas outside the FAF/UMR regions covered in Step 3*: Researchers computed truck VMT for the relatively urban areas not covered in the FAF regions in Step 3 as well as the rural areas in each state.
- Step 5. *Estimate truck VMT percent for urban and rural areas in Step 4*: Researchers computed the percentage of truck VMT for the remaining urban/rural areas.
- Step 6. *Estimate value in each state and urban area of interest (UMR areas outside FAF areas)*. For urban/rural areas outside FAF 2.2 areas, researchers allocated truck value based on the relative percentage of truck VMT in each urban/rural area.

Part 3: Methodology

Part 3 is the final part of the methodology. Part 1 and Part 2 both provide an estimate of the truck value for each state and urban area in the *UMR*. For Part 3 of the methodology, researchers obtained the final estimate of truck value by averaging the truck value of the Part 1 and Part 2 results for each metropolitan area in the *UMR*.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 presents the results of the methodology in terms of truck commodity value aggregated by city size. Delay statistics are also included in Table 1 as computed in the *2011 Urban Mobility Report (I)*. Table 2 shows the state truck commodity values. Table 1 and Table 2 are the results as presented in the *2011 Urban Mobility Report*.

Table 1 demonstrates a correlation between commodity value and truck delay—higher commodity values are associated with more people; more people are associated with more traffic congestion (*I*). Bigger cities consume more goods, which means a higher value of freight movement. While there are many cities with large differences in commodity and delay ranks, only 15 urban areas are ranked with commodity values much higher than their delay ranking.

Table 1 also illustrates the role of long corridors with important roles in freight movement. Some of the smaller urban areas along major interstate highways along the east and west coast and through the central and Midwestern U.S., for example, have commodity value ranks much higher than their delay ranking. This occurs in both Madison and Milwaukee. High commodity values and lower delay might sound advantageous—lower congestion levels with higher commodity values means there is less chance of congestion getting in the way of freight movement. At the areawide level, this reading of the data is correct, but in the real world the problem often exists at the road or even intersection level.

Table 1. Truck Commodity Value and Truck Delay, 2010

Urban Area	Total Delay		Truck Delay			Truck Commodity Value	
	(1000 Hours)	Rank	(1000 Hours)	Rank	Congestion Cost	(\$ million)	Rank
Very Large Average (15 areas)	187,872		12,120		895	206,375	
Chicago IL-IN	367,122	3	31,378	1	2,317	357,816	3
Los Angeles-Long Beach-Santa Ana CA	521,449	1	30,347	2	2,254	406,939	2
New York-Newark NY-NJ-CT	465,564	2	30,185	3	2,218	475,730	1
Houston TX	153,391	6	9,299	4	688	230,769	4
Washington DC-VA-MD	188,650	4	9,204	5	683	95,965	17
Dallas-Fort Worth-Arlington TX	163,585	5	9,037	6	666	227,514	5
Philadelphia PA-NJ-DE-MD	134,899	8	8,970	7	659	172,905	7
Atlanta GA	115,958	11	8,459	8	623	189,488	6
Miami FL	139,764	7	8,207	9	604	153,596	9
Phoenix AZ	81,829	15	8,139	10	603	129,894	12
San Francisco-Oakland CA	120,149	9	6,558	11	484	130,852	11
Seattle WA	87,919	12	6,296	12	467	150,998	10
Boston MA-NH-RI	117,234	10	6,227	13	459	128,143	13
Detroit MI	87,572	13	5,186	15	382	159,328	8
San Diego CA	72,995	18	4,316	17	321	85,686	20

Very Large Urban Areas—over 3 million population.

Medium Urban Areas—over 500,000 and less than 1 million population.

Large Urban Areas—over 1 million and less than 3 million population.

Small Urban Areas—less than 500,000 population.

Travel Delay—Travel time above that needed to complete a trip at free-flow speeds for all vehicles.

Truck Delay—Travel time above that needed to complete a trip at free-flow speeds for large trucks.

Truck Commodity Value—Value of all commodities moved by truck estimated to be traveling in the urban area.

Note: Please do not place too much emphasis on small differences in the rankings. There may be little difference in congestion between areas ranked (for example) 6th and 12th. The actual measure values should also be examined.

Also note: The best congestion comparisons use multi-year trends and are made between similar urban areas

Table 1. Truck Commodity Value and Truck Delay, 2010, Continued

Urban Area	Total Delay		Truck Delay			Truck Commodity Value	
	(1000 Hours)	Rank	(1000 Hours)	Rank	Congestion Cost (\$million)	(\$ million)	Rank
Large Average (32 areas)	33,407		2,024		148	62,310	
Baltimore MD	87,199	14	6,103	14	449	94,943	19
Denver-Aurora CO	80,837	16	4,324	16	319	76,023	22
Minneapolis-St. Paul MN	78,483	17	4,073	18	300	95,819	18
St. Louis MO-IL	47,042	21	3,841	19	283	107,010	15
Riverside-San Bernardino CA	40,875	25	3,080	20	229	108,218	14
Orlando FL	38,260	26	2,856	21	207	63,106	32
Tampa-St. Petersburg FL	53,047	19	2,842	22	210	61,906	33
Pittsburgh PA	41,081	24	2,755	23	200	69,290	25
Portland OR-WA	41,743	23	2,546	24	185	64,964	30
San Juan PR	50,229	20	2,417	25	174	23,130	60
Nashville-Davidson TN	26,475	33	1,961	26	142	65,449	29
New Orleans LA	20,565	39	1,859	27	135	34,270	50
San Jose CA	42,846	22	1,815	28	133	52,079	36
Milwaukee WI	26,699	32	1,746	29	127	66,629	28
Sacramento CA	29,602	30	1,688	30	123	51,883	37
Cincinnati OH-KY-IN	23,297	35	1,660	31	120	64,323	31
Indianapolis IN	20,800	38	1,657	32	119	83,984	21
Kansas City MO-KS	24,185	34	1,641	33	119	72,545	23
Austin TX	31,038	28	1,636	34	119	32,824	52
Raleigh-Durham NC	19,247	40	1,569	35	115	49,468	40
San Antonio TX	30,207	29	1,428	37	105	50,600	39
Charlotte NC-SC	17,730	43	1,383	38	101	68,196	26
Virginia Beach VA	36,538	27	1,344	40	98	43,056	42
Memphis TN-MS-AR	17,197	44	1,195	42	87	98,356	16
Louisville KY-IN	17,033	45	1,170	43	85	55,226	35
Jacksonville FL	18,005	42	1,158	44	84	41,508	44
Las Vegas NV	27,386	31	1,141	45	83	35,458	49
Cleveland OH	21,380	36	1,016	46	75	67,808	27
Salt Lake City UT	18,366	41	823	50	61	56,160	34
Columbus OH	14,651	51	727	51	53	69,664	24
Buffalo NY	11,450	56	698	55	51	48,387	41
Providence RI-MA	15,539	48	610	59	45	21,633	61

Very Large Urban Areas—over 3 million population.

Large Urban Areas—over 1 million and less than 3 million population.

Travel Delay—Travel time above that needed to complete a trip at free-flow speeds for all vehicles.

Truck Delay—Travel time above that needed to complete a trip at free-flow speeds for large trucks.

Truck Commodity Value—Value of all commodities moved by truck estimated to be traveling in the urban area.

Medium Urban Areas—over 500,000 and less than 1 million population.

Small Urban Areas—less than 500,000 population.

Note: Please do not place too much emphasis on small differences in the rankings. There may be little difference in congestion between areas ranked (for example) 6th and 12th. The actual measure values should also be examined. Also note: The best congestion comparisons use multi-year trends and are made between similar urban areas

Table 1. Truck Commodity Value and Truck Delay, 2010, Continued

Urban Area	Total Delay		Truck Delay			Truck Commodity Value	
	(1000 Hours)	Rank	(1000 Hours)	Rank	Congestion Cost (\$ million)	(\$ million)	Rank
Medium Average (33 areas)	9,513		578		42	18,478	
Baton Rouge LA	14,577	52	1,519	36	110	32,636	54
Bridgeport-Stamford CT-NY	21,233	37	1,380	39	102	11,205	73
Tucson AZ	11,412	57	1,287	41	92	28,654	58
Birmingham AL	15,832	47	971	47	71	38,401	45
Albuquerque NM	10,477	58	963	48	69	14,035	67
Oklahoma City OK	16,848	46	912	49	66	37,779	46
Hartford CT	15,072	49	716	52	52	42,403	43
El Paso TX-NM	10,452	59	714	53	52	31,703	55
Charleston-North Charleston SC	9,160	62	701	54	51	10,552	76
New Haven CT	11,643	55	676	56	49	8,276	86
Allentown-Bethlehem PA-NJ	9,777	60	597	60	43	15,827	65
Honolulu HI	15,035	50	595	61	42	10,125	78
Tulsa OK	9,086	63	562	63	42	28,827	57
Richmond VA	13,800	53	530	64	39	37,643	47
Oxnard-Ventura CA	9,009	64	529	65	39	9,187	83
Colorado Springs CO	11,897	54	509	66	37	6,546	91
Albany-Schenectady NY	7,467	71	484	67	35	32,655	53
Grand Rapids MI	7,861	68	446	69	32	37,551	48
Sarasota-Bradenton FL	8,015	67	446	69	32	7,591	89
Knoxville TN	7,518	70	439	71	32	11,989	72
Bakersfield CA	4,005	90	425	72	31	10,838	75
Fresno CA	5,999	78	396	73	29	9,474	81
Indio-Cathedral City-Palm Springs CA	5,633	80	389	74	28	5,455	94
Dayton OH	7,096	73	382	75	28	33,645	51
Springfield MA-CT	8,305	66	378	76	27	9,238	82
Omaha NE-IA	9,299	61	314	79	23	8,668	85
Lancaster-Palmdale CA	6,906	74	303	80	22	2,728	99
Rochester NY	6,377	76	295	81	21	26,077	59
Akron OH	6,198	77	290	82	21	9,828	80
Wichita KS	6,858	75	280	84	21	7,901	87
Poughkeepsie-Newburgh NY	4,271	85	272	85	20	13,714	68
Toledo OH-MI	4,223	86	247	90	18	10,950	74
McAllen TX	2,598	96	125	99	9	7,678	88

Very Large Urban Areas—over 3 million population.

Large Urban Areas—over 1 million and less than 3 million population.

Travel Delay—Travel time above that needed to complete a trip at free-flow speeds for all vehicles.

Truck Delay—Travel time above that needed to complete a trip at free-flow speeds for large trucks.

Truck Commodity Value—Value of all commodities moved by truck estimated to be traveling in the urban area.

Note: Please do not place too much emphasis on small differences in the rankings. There may be little difference in congestion between areas ranked (for example) 6th and 12th. The actual measure values should also be examined.

Also note: The best congestion comparisons use multi-year trends and are made between similar urban areas

Medium Urban Areas—over 500,000 and less than 1 million population.

Small Urban Areas—less than 500,000 population.

Table 1. Truck Commodity Value and Truck Delay, 2010, Continued

Urban Area	Total Delay		Truck Delay			Truck Commodity Value	
	(1000 Hours)	Rank	(1000 Hours)	Rank	Congestion Cost (\$ million)	(\$ million)	Rank
Small Average (21 areas)	4,166		288		21	12,275	
Columbia SC	8,515	65	651	57	47	12,404	70
Jackson MS	5,488	81	648	58	47	16,984	64
Cape Coral FL	7,600	69	567	62	41	5,962	93
Little Rock AR	7,345	72	457	68	33	15,221	66
Greensboro NC	4,104	87	362	77	26	50,964	38
Spokane WA	4,306	84	323	78	23	7,230	90
Winston-Salem NC	4,054	89	287	83	21	8,679	84
Pensacola FL-AL	4,699	83	261	86	19	6,339	92
Worcester MA	5,639	79	259	87	19	10,115	79
Salem OR	3,912	91	256	88	18	3,864	97
Madison WI	3,375	93	252	89	18	17,361	63
Provo UT	5,056	82	240	91	18	12,681	69
Beaumont TX	3,814	92	236	92	17	20,504	62
Laredo TX	2,041	99	212	93	15	30,799	56
Brownsville TX	2,323	98	206	94	15	2,380	100
Stockton CA	2,648	95	203	95	15	10,264	77
Anchorage AK	3,013	94	183	96	13	4,454	96
Corpus Christi TX	2,432	97	172	97	13	12,327	71
Boise ID	4,063	88	137	98	10	4,772	95
Eugene OR	1,456	101	98	100	7	3,658	98
Boulder CO	1,612	100	47	101	3	820	101
101 Area Average	42,461		2,690		198	58,981	
Remaining Area Average	1,582		119		9	3,183	
All 439 Area Average	10,987		710		52	16,021	

Very Large Urban Areas—over 3 million population.

Medium Urban Areas—over 500,000 and less than 1 million population.

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Travel Delay—Travel time above that needed to complete a trip at free-flow speeds for all vehicles.

Truck Delay—Travel time above that needed to complete a trip at free-flow speeds for large trucks.

Truck Commodity Value—Value of all commodities moved by truck estimated to be traveling in the urban area.

Note: Please do not place too much emphasis on small differences in the rankings. There may be little difference in congestion between areas ranked (for example) 6th and 12th. The actual measure values should also be examined.

Also note: The best congestion comparisons use multi-year trends and are made between similar urban areas.

Table 2. State Truck Commodity Value, 2010

State	Total Truck Commodity Value (\$ million)	Rural Truck Commodity Value (\$ million)	Urban Truck Commodity Value (\$ million)
Alabama	225,316	140,281	85,035
Alaska	17,161	12,082	5,079
Arizona	266,930	102,058	164,872
Arkansas	160,049	130,440	29,609
California	1,235,308	295,145	940,164
Colorado	153,998	62,081	91,917
Connecticut	110,515	7,578	102,937
Delaware	35,030	12,397	22,633
Florida	552,621	138,470	414,151
Georgia	417,906	182,728	235,178
Hawaii	16,307	5,592	10,715
Idaho	57,974	47,004	10,970
Illinois	548,431	174,621	373,810
Indiana	368,446	199,151	169,296
Iowa	157,013	130,758	26,255
Kansas	142,534	100,076	42,458
Kentucky	222,880	146,951	75,929
Louisiana	217,425	101,396	116,029
Maine	44,693	36,143	8,550
Maryland	205,976	51,098	154,878
Massachusetts	164,871	10,433	154,438
Michigan	348,470	101,493	246,977
Minnesota	189,643	86,720	102,923
Mississippi	155,821	121,572	34,249
Missouri	297,147	150,722	146,425
Montana	41,673	39,489	2,184
Nebraska	96,020	84,448	11,572
Nevada	78,514	37,075	41,440
New Hampshire	38,649	23,312	15,338
New Jersey	295,927	12,901	283,026
New Mexico	111,128	91,403	19,725
New York	482,018	111,566	370,451
North Carolina	373,822	146,171	227,652
North Dakota	47,109	42,718	4,391

Total Truck Commodity Value—Value of all commodities moved by truck estimated to be traveling in the state.

Rural Truck Commodity Value—Value of all commodities moved by truck estimated to be traveling in the rural areas of the state.

Urban Truck Commodity Value—Value of all commodities moved by truck estimated to be traveling in the urban areas of the state.

Table 2. State Truck Commodity Value, 2010, Continued

State	Total Truck Commodity Value (\$ million)	Rural Truck Commodity Value (\$ million)	Urban Truck Commodity Value (\$ million)
Ohio	447,564	177,760	269,805
Oklahoma	205,346	137,892	67,453
Oregon	153,382	82,144	71,239
Pennsylvania	443,946	195,660	248,286
Rhode Island	21,139	3,786	17,353
South Carolina	192,648	97,765	94,883
South Dakota	44,693	39,879	4,813
Tennessee	349,114	156,776	192,337
Texas	1,150,012	441,184	708,828
Utah	143,138	60,146	82,992
Vermont	24,158	21,648	2,510
Virginia	253,058	110,587	142,471
Washington	273,611	91,855	181,756
West Virginia	85,762	62,040	23,722
Wisconsin	326,741	190,205	136,536
Wyoming	48,921	46,372	2,549
District of Columbia	9,059	-	9,059
Puerto Rico	38,653	3,494	35,159

Total Truck Commodity Value—Value of all commodities moved by truck estimated to be traveling in the state.

Rural Truck Commodity Value—Value of all commodities moved by truck estimated to be traveling in the rural areas of the state.

Urban Truck Commodity Value—Value of all commodities moved by truck estimated to be traveling in the urban areas of the state.

CHAPTER 4: MILWAUKEE CASE STUDY APPLICATION AND RESULTS

Based on a methodology documented in previous research (18), researchers developed estimates of truck freight values for individual roadway corridors in the Milwaukee region. This chapter describes the Milwaukee case study data, methodology, and results.

Data Sources

The methodology for the Milwaukee case study uses data from two primary data sources, 1) the Federal Highway Administration's (FHWA) Highway Performance Monitoring System (HPMS), and 2) FHWA's Freight Analysis Framework (FAF).

Highway Performance Monitoring System

HPMS includes national-level data on the condition and performance of the highway system (16). The states provide HPMS data elements to FHWA on a yearly basis for use in federal aid allocation and for producing FHWA's "Conditions and Performance" reports.

Researchers have historically used HPMS data in the development of the statistics in the *Urban Mobility Report*. The following are the specific HPMS-link data elements used in the methodology to incorporate truck freight values into the UMR.

- Average Daily Traffic (ADT)
- Truck percent (percent of ADT that are trucks)
- Link length

Freight Analysis Framework

For the Milwaukee case study, researchers used FAF version 3 (FAF³). FAF³ is an improvement on FAF 2.2. The updated FAF³ is updated using the 2007 Commodity Flow Survey as input. FAF provides estimates of tonnage and value, by commodity type, mode, origin, and destination for 2007, the most recent year. Forecasts are provided through 2040 in FAF³.

Researchers used the truck mode value forecasts for the metropolitan areas of interest for the methodology that follows. FAF³ provides data for 123 domestic analysis regions.

Methodology

Figure 3 illustrates a flowchart for the methodology used for the Milwaukee application. The steps shown in Figure 3 are described here.

Input 1. *Wisconsin 2009 HPMS shapefile input*: The methodology begins by using the shapefile supplied by Wisconsin Department of Transportation (WisDOT) staff.

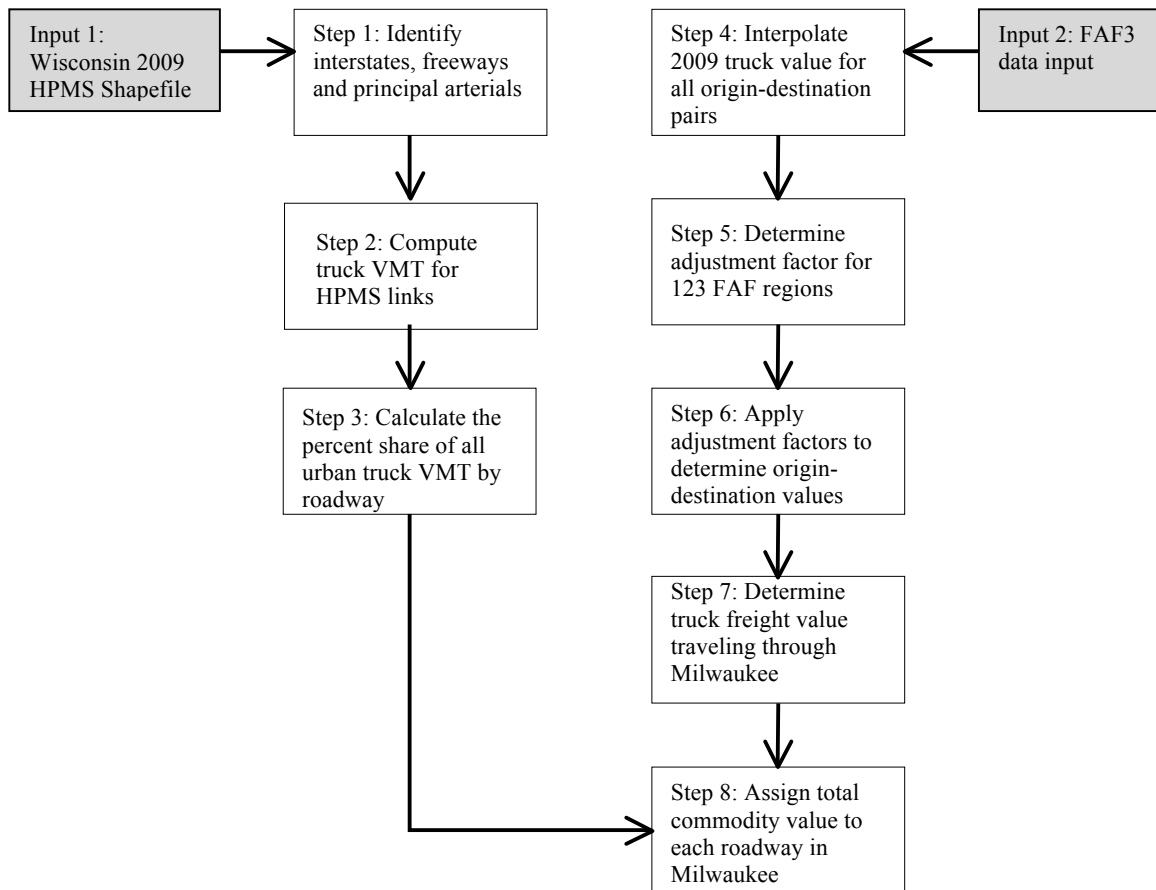


Figure 3 Methodology for Determining Truck Freight Value along Milwaukee Roadways

- Step 1. *Identify interstates, freeways and principal arterials*: Researchers selected only the interstates, freeways, and principal arterials for the analysis of the Milwaukee urban area. Figure 4 shows the greater Milwaukee highway network.
- Step 2. *Compute truck VMT for HPMS links*: For the roadways of interest in the Milwaukee area, researchers computed the truck VMT for the HPMS links.
- Step 3. *Calculate the percent share of all urban truck VMT by roadway*: Researchers determined the percentage of truck VMT of each roadway in the Milwaukee area relative to the total amount of truck VMT on all roadways of interest in the region.
- Input 2. *FAF³ data input*: Computing the truck values begins by using the FAF³ data as input.

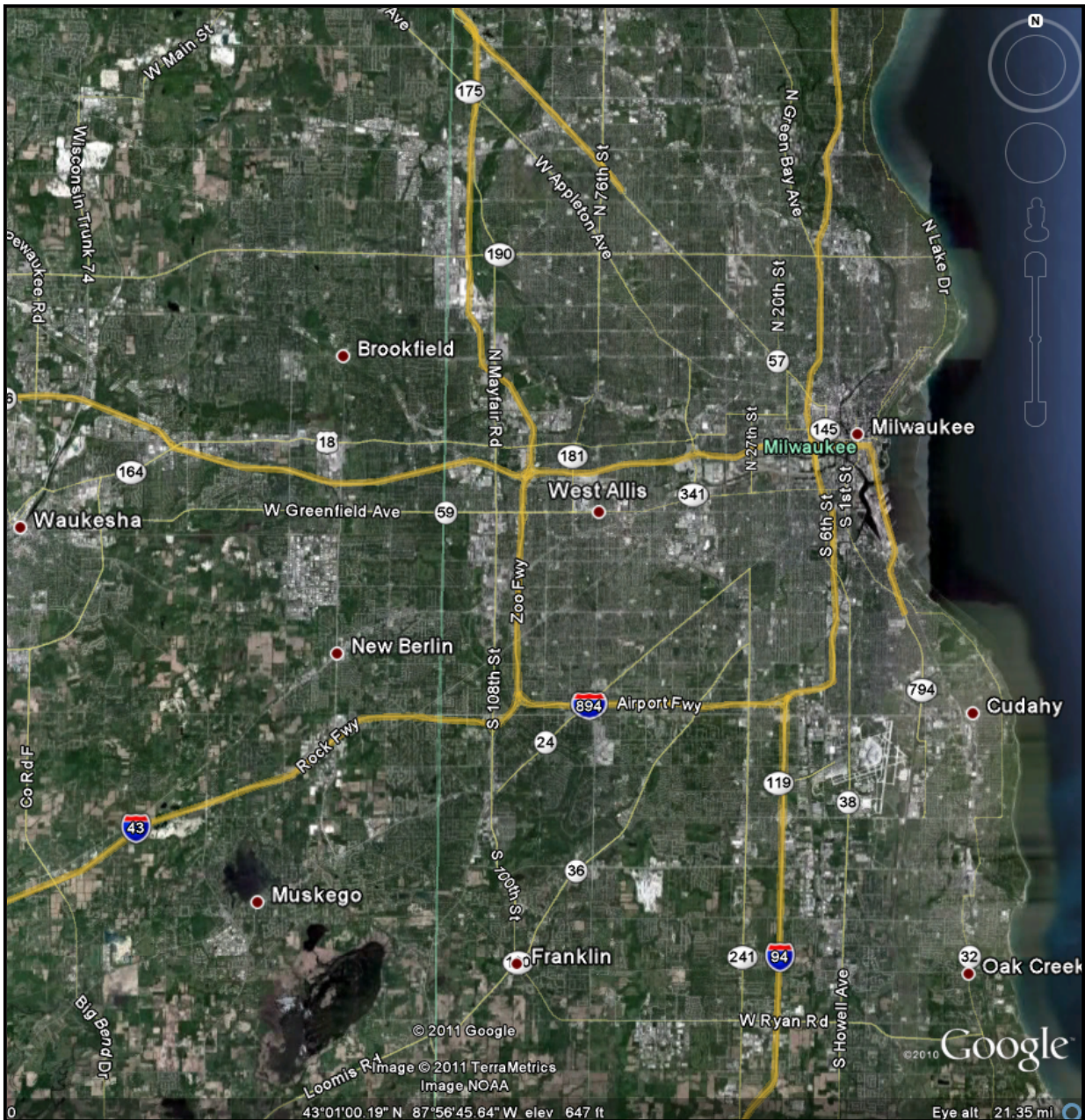


Figure 4 Greater Milwaukee Area Showing Highway Network (Source: Google Earth)

- Step 4. *Interpolate 2009 truck value for all origin-destination pairs:* Researchers interpolated the 2009 truck freight values between each origin-destination pair for the 2009 year of interest.
- Step 5. *Determine adjustment factor for 123 FAF regions:* Researchers used a two-step process as implemented in previous research (18). The two-step process estimates the value of commodities moved. First, a proximity matrix was created for each origin-destination pair with percentage factors representing the expectation that a given trip from the origin to the destination would go through Milwaukee. The proximity matrix provides a way to rationally expedite an

approximation of through trips. The proximity matrix used for the Milwaukee analysis is shown in Figure 5.

Secondly, researchers created a likelihood matrix for each origin-destination pair with factors based on the likelihood that a trip would pass through the Milwaukee area, considering the existing roadway network connecting the origin to the destination relative to Milwaukee. With the likelihood matrix, the roadway network in the area of interest is considered, along with the possibility that a trip from a given origin or destination would pass through the area. The likelihood matrix is shown in Figure 6.

As an example, consider the origin-destination pair Los Angeles, California to Detroit, Michigan. According to the proximity matrix in Figure 5, there would be a proximity value of 5 percent based on the origin in Los Angeles, and a proximity value of 50 percent for the destination in Detroit. Similarly, there would be a 1 percent value for the likelihood for the origin of Los Angeles (Figure 6), and a likelihood value of 50 percent for a destination in Detroit (Figure 6). Therefore, the adjustment factor for the L.A. to Detroit origin-destination pair is the product of the two proximity matrix values and the two likelihood matrix values (0.0125 percent = 0.05 x 0.50 x 0.01 x 0.50).

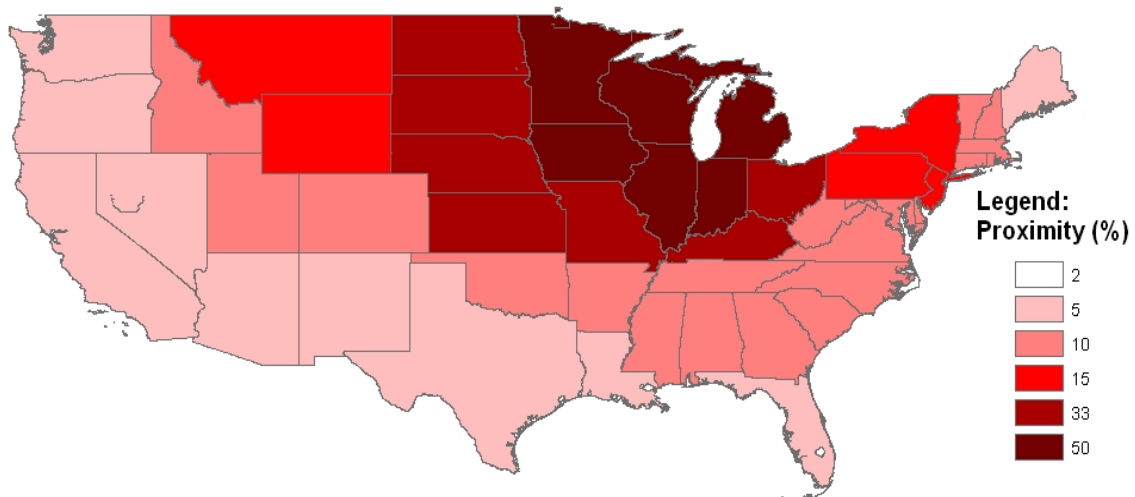


Figure 5 Proximity Matrix Implemented for Milwaukee Case Study

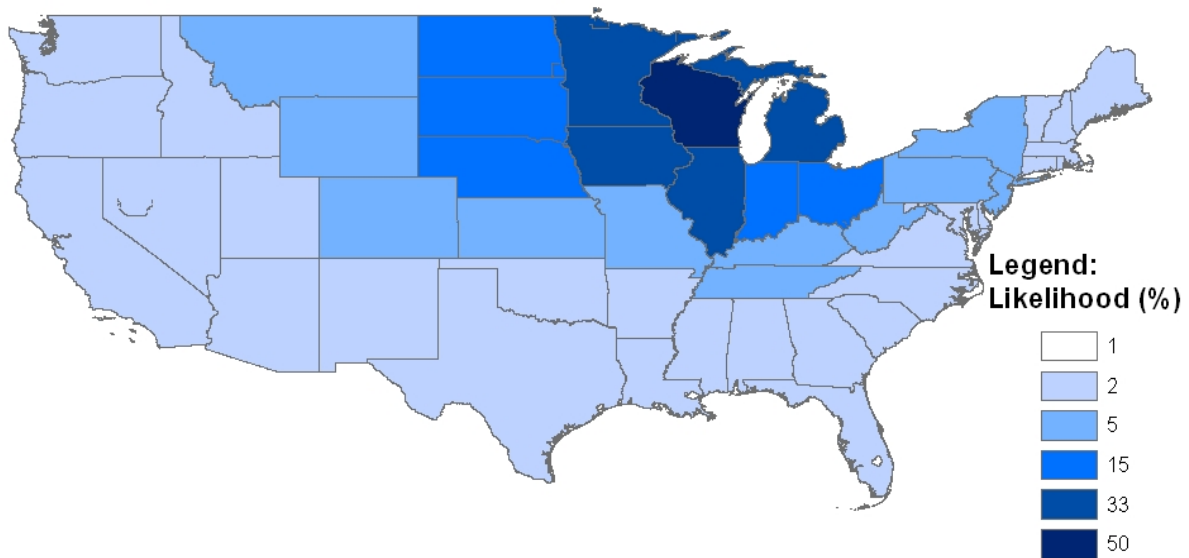


Figure 6 Likelihood Matrix Implemented for Milwaukee Case Study

Step 6. *Apply adjustment factors to determine origin-destination values:* Researchers applied the adjustment factors estimated in Step 5 to the values of truck freight between each origin-destination pair. The result is the value of truck freight traveling between any origin and destination that is estimated to travel through Milwaukee.

Continuing the example started in the previous step, consider there is \$100,000 worth of commodity goods traveling from Los Angeles to Detroit. The value of goods traveling from L.A. to Detroit that would travel through Milwaukee in this simplified example is \$12.50 ($\$100,000 \times 0.000125$).

Step 7. *Determine truck freight value traveling through Milwaukee:* Researchers summed the adjusted values from each origin-destination pair determined in Step 6 to determine the total value of truck freight traveling in the Milwaukee region. This total truck commodity value was approximately \$74 billion.

Researchers calibrated the proximity and likelihood percentages shown in Figure 5 and Figure 6 using professional judgment such that the total truck commodity value resulting in this step (approximately \$74 billion) was within 10 percent of the estimate for Milwaukee shown in Table 1.

Step 8. *Assign total commodity value to each roadway in Milwaukee:* Using the percent share of all urban truck VMT by roadway from Step 3, researchers allocated the total commodity value (approximately \$74 billion) to each roadway in Milwaukee.

MILWAUKEE CASE STUDY RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 3 presents the results of the Milwaukee case study analysis. For each of the highways and interstates of interest in the Milwaukee region, Table 3 presents the truck VMT percent and the commodity value in millions of dollars.

Intuitively, the results in Table 3 show that the four interstates in the Milwaukee region account for the largest commodity value of any roadway type. The interstates combine for 48 percent of the commodity value traveling in the region in 2009.

Researchers estimated the total truck commodity value traveling through Milwaukee as \$70.3 billion as shown in Table 1 using the areawide *UMR* method. The total value of the goods shown in Table 1 is \$74 billion. This value is approximately 6 percent more than the \$70.3 billion of truck commodity value estimated in Table 1 for the areawide *UMR* method. This appears to be reasonable for an urban area analysis such as this.

Table 3 Truck VMT Percentage and Commodity Value for Roadways in the Milwaukee Region

	Truck VMT Percent	Commodity Value (\$millions)
Interstate Highways		
IH43	22	16,368
IH94	23.1	17,186
IH794	1.6	1,190
IH894	1.2	893
<i>Interstate Highway Subtotals=</i>	<i>48</i>	<i>35,638</i>
US Highways		
US 18	3.7	2,753
US 41	6.3	4,687
US 45	9.8	7,291
<i>US Highway Subtotals=</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>14,731</i>
State Highways		
SH 16	5.2	3,869
SH 24	0.045	33
SH 32	1.0	744
SH 33	0.2	149
SH 36	1.3	967
SH 38	1.7	1,265
SH 57	1.2	893
SH 59	3.4	2,530
SH 60	0.5	372
SH 67	1.0	744
SH 74	0.9	670
SH 83	1.1	818
SH 100	3.2	2,381
SH 119	0.2	149
SH 145	0.9	670
SH 164	2.8	2,083
SH 167	0.8	595
SH 175	0.8	595
SH 181	0.9	670
SH 190	3.7	2,753
SH 241	1.2	893
SH 341	0.2	149
<i>State Highway Subtotals=</i>	<i>32</i>	<i>23,990</i>

Note: when roadways are signed with two highway numbers, preference is given to the through road (higher classification).

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

This research was successful in developing a methodology for incorporating areawide truck freight estimates into the *UMR* by urban area. Researchers estimated truck commodity value traveling in each urban area. Researchers implemented the methodology into the *2010 Urban Mobility Report*, which was released in January 2011. The *2011 Urban Mobility Report*, released in September 2011, used the same methodology to present the truck freight values. Researchers used the FAF³ data in the methodology for the *2011 Urban Mobility Report*.

The methodology for performing the Milwaukee analysis is transferable to other metropolitan areas. For such analyses, there is a need to develop new proximity and likelihood matrices to perform such analyses in other areas. Building from prior work (18), this research further demonstrates the rational and efficiency of using the proximity and likelihood matrix to estimate through travel between origin-destination pairs in the FAF data set for areawide analysis.

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