

1 **APPLYING PROBABILISTIC NETWORK-LEVEL RISK ANALYSIS TO THE TRAVEL**
2 **DEMAND MODEL**

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24 **ABSTRACT**

25 Travel Demand Model (TDM) results are dependent upon the inputs (e.g., socio-economic and
26 demographic characteristics used in the 'trip generation' step of the standard four-step model) and the
27 selected parameters (e.g., α and β values in the standard link performance function used in the 'trip
28 assignment' step). Given the uncertainty involved in determining appropriate inputs and parameters,
29 there is a risk of programming less critical construction projects based on TDM results that are not
30 truly representative of the community. To account for this uncertainty, a probabilistic framework,
31 along with sensitivity analysis, is recommended. By randomly sampling inputs from statistical
32 distributions and varying parameters, multiple TDM outputs can be assessed. Using risk analysis,
33 various potential projects can then be sorted into a 'risk matrix' to ease decision-making. A case study
34 of this approach for the programming of a congestion relief project in one small Indiana (U.S.)
35 Metropolitan Planning Organization (MPO) region will be presented.

36

37 **APPLYING PROBABILISTIC NETWORK-LEVEL RISK ANALYSIS TO THE TRAVEL** 38 **DEMAND MODEL**

39 **1. BACKGROUND AND OBJECTIVES**

40 The amount of uncertainty in the travel demand model (TDM) may lead to inaccurate results.
41 Planning organizations risk the inefficient use of resources when programming projects based on an
42 uncertain TDM solution. To deal with this risk, management strategies can be applied.

43 While more commonly applied in the private sector, risk management is an area of increasing
44 research in the transportation planning field. Recent studies have predominantly focused on
45 improving risk management techniques for ‘risk due to disasters’ and ‘risk due to uncertainties in
46 [project] estimation’ (1). Several studies have focused upon disaster evacuation (2,3,4). Other studies
47 have focused upon uncertainties with project construction costs, schedule, and performance (5,6).
48 These latter studies focus on ‘project risk’, which is distinctively different from ‘business risk’; as
49 defined in (7), “Selecting the right project is business risk. Managing uncertainty to meet the
50 stakeholder’s objective is project risk.”

51 For this research, the ‘business risk’ of choosing the most optimal congestion-relief projects,
52 as determined by a TDM for a small Indiana Metropolitan Planning Organization (MPO), will be
53 analyzed. By managing this initial risk, resources can be focused on projects that are considered more
54 critical. ‘Project risk’ management strategies can then be applied to the selected program. A brief
55 discussion of risk, typical management frameworks, and general strategies follows.

56 **2. INTRODUCTION TO RISK MANAGEMENT PRACTICES**

57 For this study, risk is best defined as both: (1) “the possibility of suffering damage or loss in the face
58 of uncertainty about the outcome of actions, future events, or circumstances” and (2) “a condition in
59 which there exists a quantifiable dispersion in the possible outcomes from any activity” (8).

60 Two risk analysis frameworks are available: continuous and non-continuous. A continuous
61 approach is generally preferred, where the impact of the chosen risk management strategy is reviewed
62 so as to improve future decision-making; a non-continuous approach considers risks only once in the
63 planning process (9). Several variations of the continuous framework exhibited in Figure 1 are applied
64 in industry. The principal steps of a continuous risk analysis are to (1) identify, (2) assess, (3) manage,
65 and (4) review/monitor risks (10).

66 Risk identification should include the description of conditions that may lead to a loss and a
67 rough description of that loss (9). The conditions that may lead to a loss are the ‘hazard’ and
68 ‘exposure’, where ‘risk’ is the combined probability and consequence of harm, ‘hazard’ is the
69 instrument of harm, and ‘exposure’ is the time/spatial interval during which harm may occur.

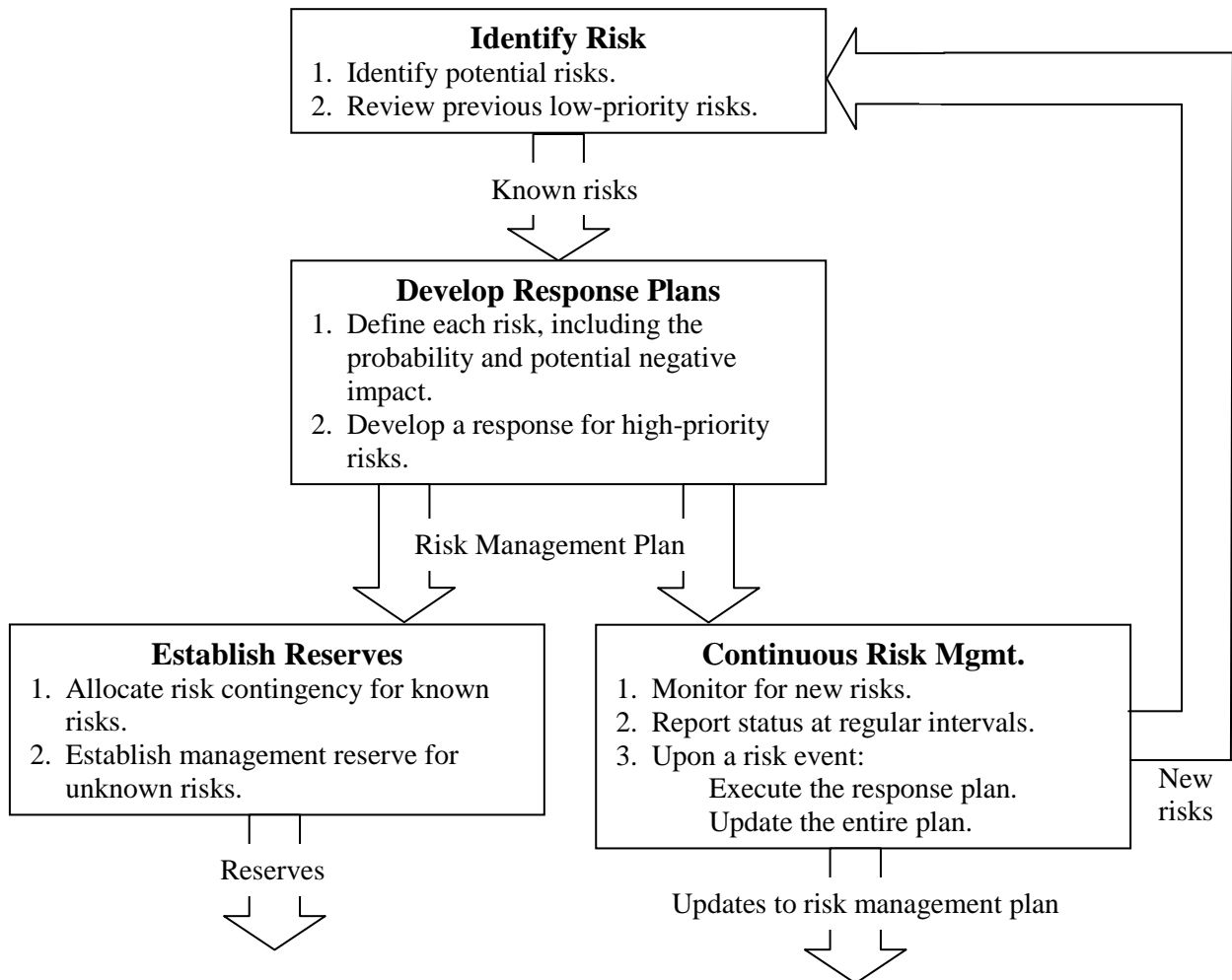
70 Risk assessment is the step used to gather ‘information’ (11). During this step, data are
71 collected to identify the likelihood and consequences of ‘risk occurrence’ (the realization of the risk).
72 These values can be combined to determine an expected risk value, where Expected Risk = Likelihood
73 (or probability) * Consequence (7). Alternatively, a ‘risk matrix’ can be used to graphically represent
74 the risk (Figure 2). Such a generic format allows for the clear expression of ‘risk tolerance’ (Figure 3),
75 where agencies can determine the level of risk they are willing to accept based on the risk behavior of
76 the stakeholders (Figure 4). Quantitative and qualitative methods can be used to calculate the
77 likelihood and consequence values. Quantitative methods to assess risk include: sensitivity analyses,
78 fitting statistical distributions, forecasting, simulation, mathematical programming, and econometrics;
79 qualitative methods include: obtaining expert opinion, determining risk value, and risk-cost-benefit
80 trade-offs (12).

81 Risk management is the process of deciding which ‘action’ will produce the best outcome
82 (11). Typical management strategies (or action plans) are to (1) avoid, (2) reduce, (3) retain, or (4)
83 transfer the risk, which can be defined as follows (13).

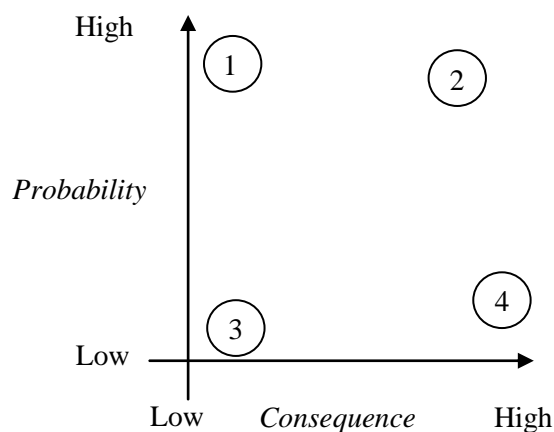
84	Avoid:	Business chooses to not undertake risky activity
85	Reduce:	Business takes action to reduce probability and/or consequence of the risk
86	Retain:	Business accepts risk due to low consequence
87	Transfer:	Business purchases insurance policy in case risk occurs

88 When to apply these strategies can be determined based on the location of a project within the ‘risk
89 matrix’ (Figure 5). More specific management techniques include the use of decision rules and trees,
90 heuristics, incremental strategy, strategic choice approach, multi-objective, multi-attribute theory and

91 goal programming, expected utility theory, surveys, and the formulation of clearer goals, aims,
 92 objectives, and policy guidelines (12).



124 **FIGURE 1 Continuous Risk Analysis Framework (7)**



140 **FIGURE 2 Risk Matrix Format (13)**

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<i>Probability</i>					
Very High					*
High	**		*		
Medium	*		<i>Risk tolerance line</i>		
Low		**	**		
Very Low			*		
	Very Low	Low	Medium	High	Very High

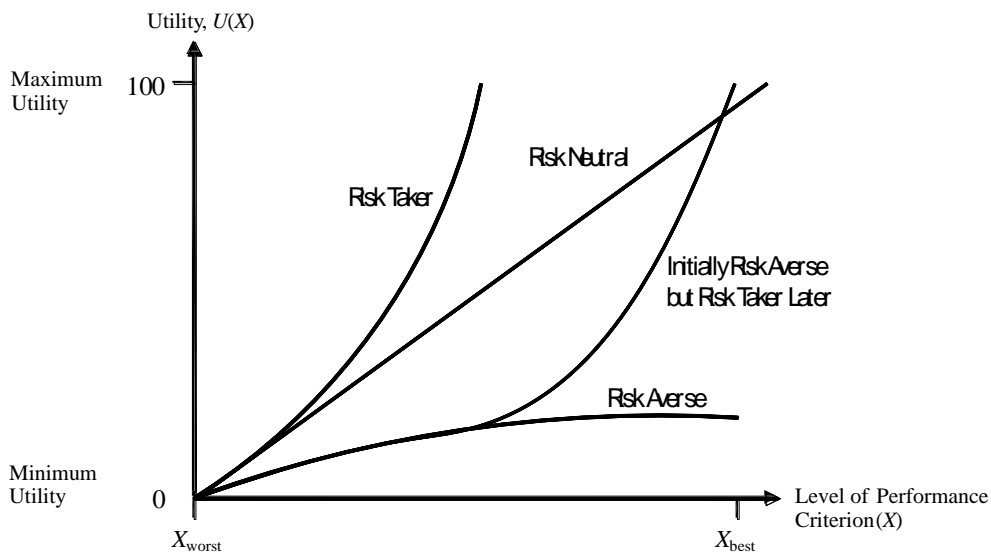
* Project
Consequence

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FIGURE 3 Use of a Risk Tolerance Line within a Risk Matrix (14)

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FIGURE 4 Defining Risk Value with Utility Curves (1)

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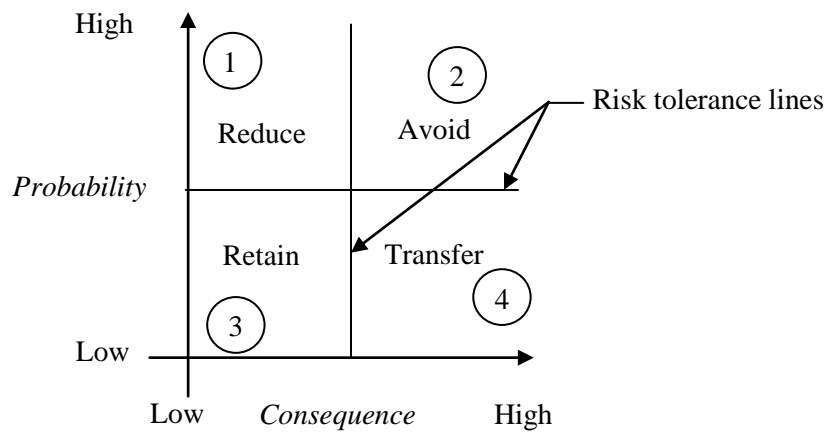
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FIGURE 5 Assigning Risk Management Strategies to the Risk Matrix (13)

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Risk monitoring is the step of a continuous framework where the impact of the selected management strategy is reviewed. A successful monitoring process is one that allocates responsibility, facilitates compliance, and raises awareness through a clear communication plan, such as a risk log (7,15). Based on the results of the monitoring process, future action plans can be modified and new risks identified.

Given these concepts, a risk analysis of using the travel demand model to program congestion-relief projects for the Columbus, IN MPO follows. The case study is presented on a step-by-step basis according to the continuous risk analysis framework.

174 3. RISK IDENTIFICATION

175 The ‘business risk’ in terms of this transportation planning case study can be described as follows:

176

177 *Risk:* Resources may be applied to less critical congestion-relief projects based on the results of
178 the TDM, due to uncertainties in the model.

179

180 *Hazard:* The process of programming projects based on the results of a single TDM output. Often,
181 this hazard is enhanced due to the outsourcing of the development of the TDM. MPOs
182 risk using the model as a ‘black box’, being unaware of the uncertainty involved in the
183 development of the model and unreasonably placing faith in the outcome.

184

185 *Exposure:* The period of time from model development to project programming. During model
186 development, planners are exposed to the risk of using inaccurate inputs and parameters.
187 During project programming, planners are exposed to the risk of programming inefficient
188 projects based on inaccurate outputs.

189

190 *Loss:* The inefficient use of limited financial and human resources on projects that do not
191 optimize the reduction of congestion or other goals.

192

193 A framework for dealing with two types of uncertainty will be offered in this paper: (1) input
194 uncertainty created by using socio-economic and demographic point-estimates in the ‘trip generation’
195 step of the standard four-step model and (2) parameter uncertainty created by transferring values
196 calibrated by external planning agencies, as is typical of small- and medium-sized MPOs. The use of
197 socio-economic and demographic estimates adds uncertainty due to insufficient sample sizes,
198 procedural bias (as constrained by data collection resources), and inherent forecasting errors.
199 Borrowed parameters add uncertainty due to the lack of calibration for the study area.

200 4. RISK ASSESSMENT

201 To assess the defined risk, the following quantitative and qualitative techniques are recommended:

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Quantitative

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Inputs: Statistical analysis

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Parameters: Sensitivity analysis

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Qualitative

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Inputs and Parameters: Expert Opinion for reasonableness/validation checks

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Outputs: Trade-off analysis

208 The objective of these techniques will be to define the probability and magnitude of potential ‘loss’,
209 given changes in the TDM outcomes due to varied inputs and parameters.

210

211 Congestion-relief projects (e.g., capacity-expansion) are typically programmed for links with
212 the highest peak-hour volume-to-capacity (v/c) ratios and by those with the greatest benefits (subject
213 to cost constraints), such as the largest reduction in vehicle-hours-traveled (VHT). Therefore, the v/c
214 ratio is used to determine the ‘likelihood’ of risk, while the ‘consequence’ of risk is taken as a function
215 of expected VHT savings.

215

To assess risk, the following procedure is recommended:

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1. Unless sufficient local data have been collected, make model parameter selections by
217 applying borrowed parameters (sensitivity analysis) and choosing those that best match local
218 estimates (expert opinion) (16).

219

2. Establish a ‘base case’ by running modeling software with current input estimates to
220 determine the top x links with the highest v/c ratios. For this study, x is set to 10, assuming
221 that a planning organization has sufficient resources to complete 10 congestion-relief projects
222 in one programming cycle.

223

3. Develop normal distributions (statistical analysis) for each of the ‘trip generation’ data inputs
224 at the zonal level where (16):

225

$\mu \equiv$ the mean or best estimate (expert opinion) achieved through local data collection or
226 through data sources and updating techniques outlined in (16).

227

$\sigma \equiv$ the zonal standard deviation, taken as (17):

228

$$\sigma = (\text{ACS } \sigma / \text{ACS } \mu) * \mu, \text{ with ACS } \sigma = (\text{ACS 'Margin of Error' } / 1.645)$$

229 The ACS μ and ACS 'Margin of Error' variables represent the American Community Survey
 230 (ACS) estimate and margin of error values for the smallest geographic level available in the
 231 study area.

- 232 4. Establish multiple 'variable cases' by running modeling software n times with randomly
 233 selected values pulled from the normal distributions established in the previous step. Record
 234 the top x links with the highest v/c ratios (the most congested links) and the corresponding
 235 link and network peak-hour vehicle hours traveled (VHT) values. This study sets n to 10.
 236 This step is similar to a previous approach, where randomly selected log-normal values were
 237 used to construct histograms of potential peak-hour flows for links (18).
 238 5. Calculate the 'likelihood' of the links appearing in the top x being overlooked during the
 239 programming step. As the 'likelihood' increases, the risk increases. To calculate the
 240 'likelihood' of each link, the following equations are recommended:

$$241 \quad \text{Likelihood} = (1 - \text{Probability of Appearance in } n \text{ model runs}) * \\ 242 \quad (\text{Highest Link Score calculated} - \text{Link Score})$$

$$243 \quad \text{Normalized Likelihood} = 100 * \text{Likelihood} / \text{highest of all Likelihoods calculated}$$

244 The score is taken as the sum of points awarded at the end of n model runs, where after each
 245 model run, the link with the highest v/c ratio is given 10 points; the second most congested
 246 link is given 9 points, and so on. Links with a lesser score and less appearances in the top x
 247 are more likely to be overlooked.

248 For example, the likelihood of a link appearing in the top 10 (as sorted by v/c ratio),
 249 through 10 model runs, with the following breakdown can be calculated.

250 1st most congested: appeared once
 251 3rd most congested: appeared twice
 252 5th most congested: appeared thrice

$$253 \quad \text{The Probability of Appearance} = (1 + 2 + 3) / 10 = 0.60$$

$$254 \quad \text{The Score} = (10 * 1) + (8 * 2) + (6 * 3) = 44$$

255 Assume another link scored a value of 90 (the highest score of all links that appeared
 256 in the top 10 during the 10 model runs). The Likelihood for the link with a
 257 Probability of 0.60 and a Score of 44 is:

$$258 \quad \text{Likelihood} = (1 - 0.60) * (90 - 44) = 18.4$$

259 Assume another link had a likelihood value of 50 and that this was the highest
 260 likelihood of all links that appeared in the top 10 during the 10 model runs. The
 261 Normalized Likelihood for the link with a Likelihood of 18.4 is:

$$262 \quad \text{Normalized Likelihood} = 100 * 18.4 / 50 = 37$$

- 263 6. Calculate the 'consequence' of choosing one link over another (trade-off analysis) for
 264 capacity-building projects in terms of expected VHT savings on the link, as well as in the
 265 network. In this analysis, the capacity-building project, for simplicity, will be assumed to be
 266 the addition of one lane per direction. Using modeling software, the new link and network
 267 VHT values can be compared to the original link and network VHT values. The difference
 268 between the new and old values represents the VHT savings expected for each appearance in
 269 the top x . The consequence then represents the 'loss' of potential VHT savings on the link
 270 and network, if a less critical capacity-building project was constructed. To calculate the
 271 'consequence' for each link, the following equations are recommended:

$$272 \quad \text{Link Consequence} = \text{average Link VHT savings} - \text{the smallest of all average Link} \\ 273 \quad \text{VHT savings calculated}$$

$$274 \quad \text{Network Consequence} = \text{average Network VHT savings} - \text{the smallest of all average} \\ 275 \quad \text{Network VHT savings calculated}$$

$$276 \quad \text{Normalized Consequence} = \\ 277 \quad (50 * \text{Link Consequence} / \text{the largest of all Link Consequences calculated}) + \\ 278 \quad (50 * \text{Network Consequence} / \text{the largest of all Network Consequences calculated})$$

279 For example, assume a link with the following characteristics.

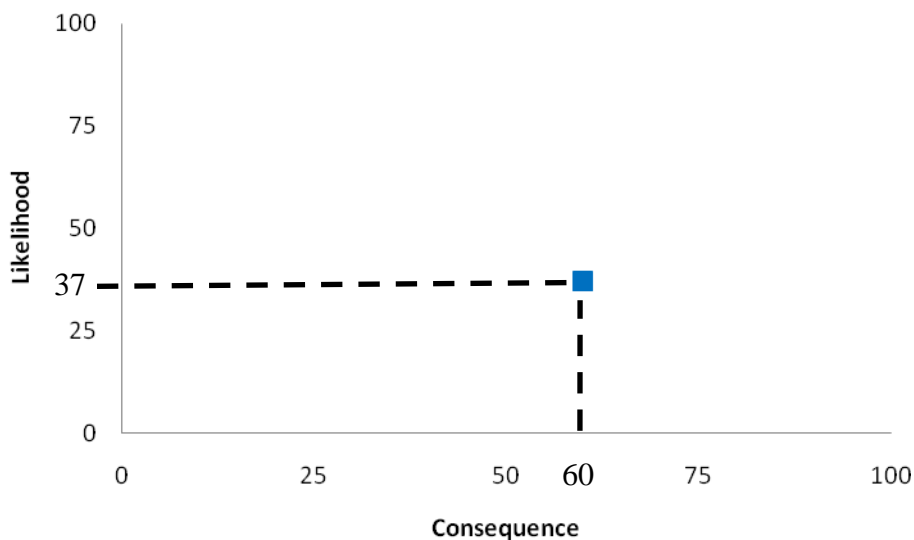
$$280 \quad \text{Lanes per Direction} = 2$$

$$281 \quad \text{Original Peak-hour Capacity } C = 338 \text{ vph}$$

$$282 \quad \text{New Peak-hour Capacity } C = 338 * (2+1)/2 = 507 \text{ vph}$$

283 Link VHT average savings = 500 VHT
 284 Network VHT average savings = 4,000 VHT
 285 Also assume that another link has a calculated average Link VHT savings of 50 (the
 286 smallest of all average Link VHT savings calculated) and a calculated average
 287 Network VHT savings of 100 (the smallest of all average Link VHT savings
 288 calculated).
 289 Link Consequence = 500 – 50 = 450 VHT
 290 Network Consequence = 4,000 – 100 = 3,900 VHT
 291 Assume the largest Link Consequence calculated was found to be 700, and the largest
 292 Network Consequence was calculated as 7,000.
 293 Normalized Consequence = $(50 * 450/700) + (50 * 3,900/7,000) = 60$

- 294 7. Calculate the ‘expected risk value’ with
 295 Expected Risk Value = Normalized Likelihood * Normalized Consequence.
 296 For this example (from Steps 5 and 6), Expected Risk Value = $37 * 60 = 2,220$.
 297 A plot or ‘risk matrix’ of ‘likelihood’ on the ordinate against ‘consequence’ on the abscissa
 298 can graphically represent the risk value as the rectangular area bounded by the axes and a
 299 specific link point. For example, this project would be located on a risk matrix shown in
 300 Figure 6.



301 **FIGURE 6 Risk Matrix Location for Sample Calculation**

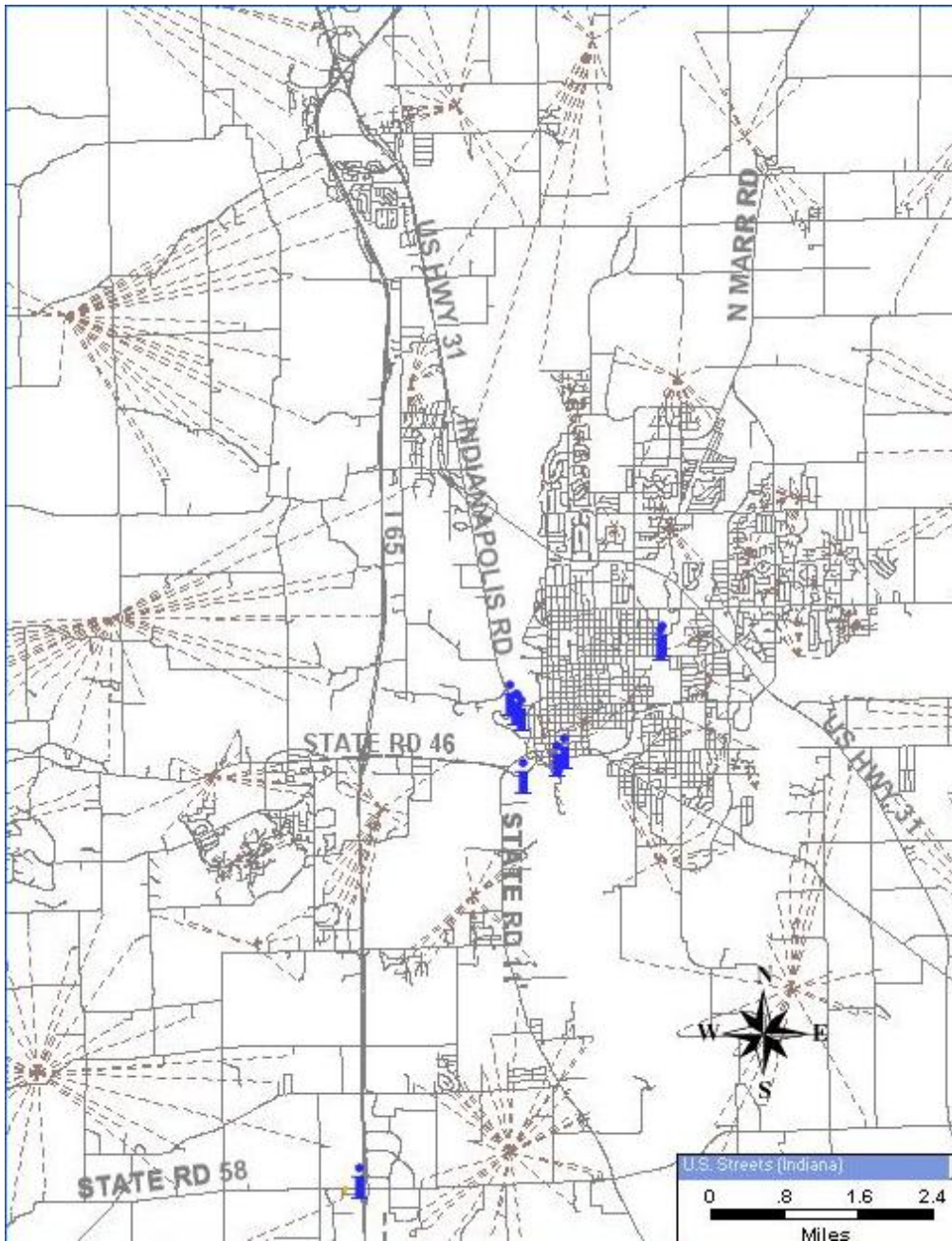
302 To demonstrate further how this procedure works, data from the Columbus Area Metropolitan
 303 Planning Organization (CAMPO) study region will be used.

304 The ‘base case’ can be established by first applying the model parameter selections in (16)
 305 chosen after conducting a sensitivity analysis to the CAMPO input data. Using travel demand
 306 modeling software, the top ten v/c links in Table 1 would likely be recommended for project
 307 programming.
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TABLE 1 Links with the top 10 v/c ratios using the current data

<i>Link ID</i>	<i>Street Name</i>	<i>v/c</i>	<i>Priority</i>
10871959	Lincoln Park Dr.	1.25	1
10871342	S.R. 46	1.19	2
665547	S.R. 46	1.19	2
665537	S.R. 46	1.15	4
665831	Indianapolis Rd.	1.11	5
10873321	Indianapolis Rd.	1.11	5
10873325	Indianapolis Rd.	1.11	5
10873328	Indianapolis Rd.	1.11	5
699967	Lincoln Park Dr.	1.07	9
639574	I 65 ramp to S.R. 58	1.06	10

311 The locations of these links, primarily in the central business district (CBD), are shown in Figure 7.
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FIGURE 7 Locations for the Top 10 links sorted by v/c ratio using current data

317 The solution in Table 1, however, is just one of several possible solutions. Considering the
 318 sampling error for the inputs, multiple outputs can occur. To demonstrate the volatility of such results,
 319 statistical analysis can be used. By using input values within the sampling error, each ‘variable case’
 320 represents a feasible solution. With the normal distributions developed for each input variable in (16),
 321 the ‘variable case’ analysis begins by randomly generating normal inputs. [For those zonal inputs with
 322 $\sigma > \mu$, the lower limit that can be randomly selected should be set to zero, so as to avoid negative
 323 inputs].

324 The ‘variable cases’ are developed by applying a set of random normal values to the selected
 325 model parameters for each of the ten model runs. Having done so, it was found that 26 different links,
 326 as located in Figure 8, appeared in the top 10 at least once during the ten model runs. Some of these
 327 links are in locations not considered to be congested in the ‘base case’. This suggests that a broader
 328 range of projects should be considered when programming.

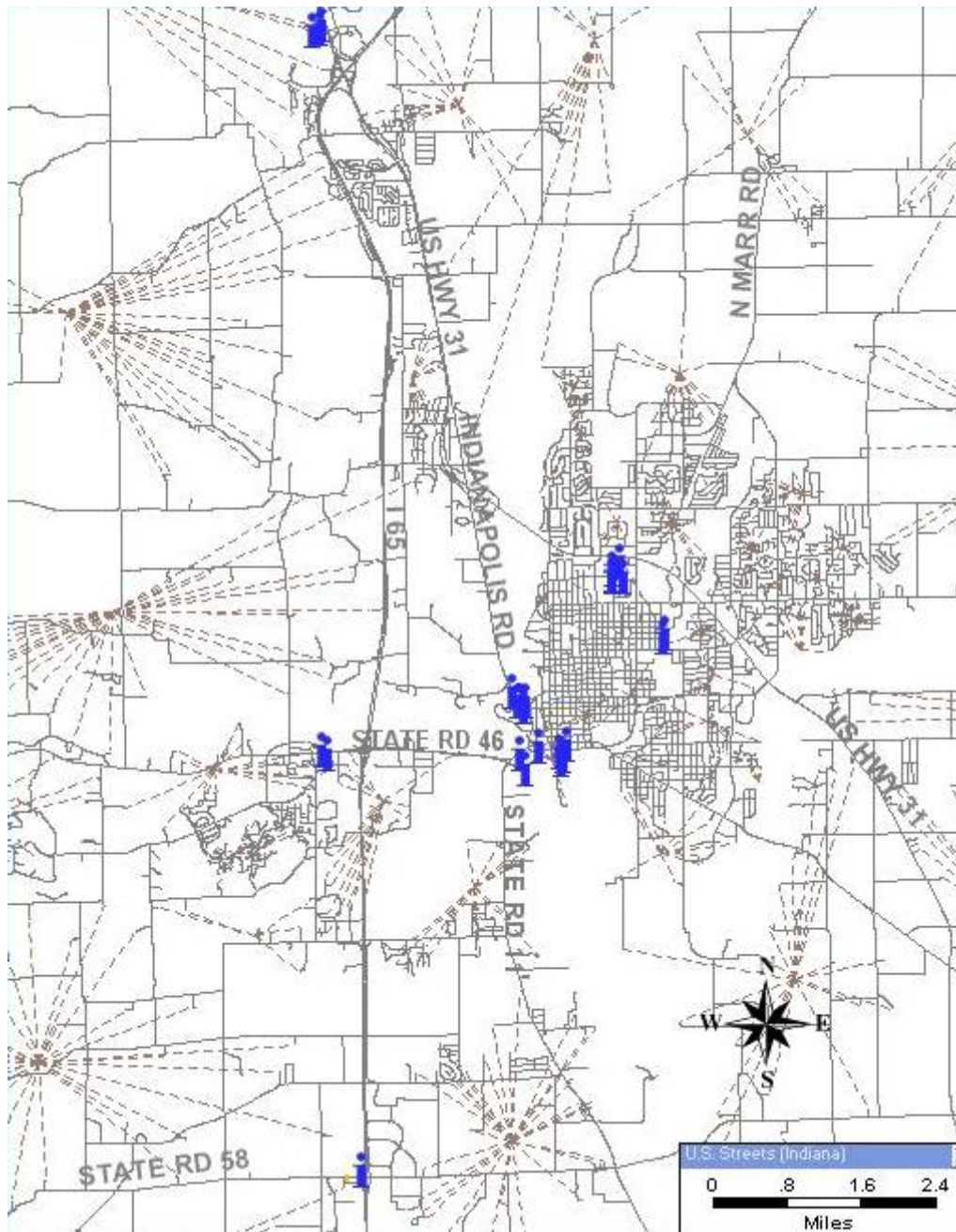


FIGURE 8 Location of all links appearing in the Top 10 through 10 model runs

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Table 2 summarizes the probability of appearance, score, and average link and network VHT Savings for each of the 26 links. For example, link 705395 (Maple St.) appeared in the top ten in 3 out of 10 model runs. This is a probability of appearance of 30%. With one appearance each as the 3rd, 4th, and 7th most congested links (8, 7, and 4 points respectively), the final score for link 705395 is then 19. The link peak-hour VHT saving, over the 3 appearances, was found to be 229 (Model Run 1), 269 (Model Run 6), and 202 (Model Run 10). The average link VHT saving is then 233. The network peak-hour VHT saving, over the 3 appearances, was found to be 91 (Model Run 1), 217 (Model Run 6), and 256 (Model Run 10). The average network VHT saving is then 188.

342
343**TABLE 2 Risk assessment data for links Appearing in the top 10 links
as sorted by the v/c ratio for 10 model runs**

<i>Link ID</i>	<i>Street Name</i>	<i>Probability of Appearance</i>	<i>Score</i>	<i>Average Link VHT Savings</i>	<i>Average Network VHT Savings</i>
10871959	Lincoln Park Dr.	90%	82	1,220	2,384
10871342	S.R. 46	100%	85	173	1,274
705386	Maple St.	30%	24	279	374
705395	Maple St.	30%	19	233	188
705492	Maple St.	30%	24	1,311	1,893
705552	Tipton Ln.	30%	24	613	549
665537	S.R. 46	50%	40	356	-54
665831	Indianapolis Rd.	100%	53	194	-147
10873321	Indianapolis Rd.	100%	53	281	-66
10873325	Indianapolis Rd.	100%	53	29	-44
10873328	Indianapolis Rd.	100%	53	105	-39
639574	I 65 ramp to S.R. 58	40%	10	145	-24
10873324	Lowell Rd.	10%	2	167	212
10873327	Lowell Rd.	10%	2	52	552
665547	S.R. 46	60%	35	46	-144
678388	U.S. 31 Access Rd.	20%	8	207	74
678415	U.S. 31 Access Rd.	20%	8	201	-37
678423	U.S. 31 Access Rd.	20%	8	53	90
665148	S.R. 46	10%	3	122	-872
664902	S.R. 46	20%	3	541	-436
699967	Lincoln Park Dr.	50%	29	474	-337
665434	1st St.	20%	3	107	-49
665528	Lafayette Ave.	20%	3	118	-23
705467	Wildwood Pl.	10%	9	3	38
10873349	W Carlos Folger Dr.	10%	1	16	47
10872330	W Carlos Folger Dr.	10%	1	67	-561

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The 'likelihood' of each link being overlooked increases with a lower probability of appearance and a lower score. Planning organizations are less likely to consider programming projects with a high 'likelihood' value. The 'consequence' of not programming a link increases with higher potential VHT savings. The largest 'expected risk value', shown in Table 3, increases when a project likely to be overlooked is considered to have the highest savings. Resources may be inefficiently used if projects with a high 'consequence' are overlooked when programming. With link 705395, the 'likelihood' is found by multiplying the probability of not appearing ($100 - 30 = 70\%$) by the trade-off of a higher score being possible (85 (the highest score found) $- 19 = 66$). This 'likelihood' comes out to be 46, as compared to the highest calculated 'likelihood' of 76 for another link. However, when normalized on a scale of zero to 100, the likelihood becomes $100 * (46/76) = 61$.

The 'consequence' for the link is found by the trade-off of a higher average link and network VHT savings being possible. With the smallest average link VHT saving in Table 3, calculated to be 3, and an average link VHT saving for link 705395 of 233, the 'link consequence' is $233 - 3 = 231$ (not 230 due to rounding). Once normalized on a scale of 50, with the highest 'link consequence' of 1,309 being calculated, the 'link consequence' is found to be $50 * (231/1,309) = 9$. The smallest average network VHT saving, calculated to be -872 (the project actually increased congestion due to latent demand) and an average network VHT saving for link 705395 of 188, the 'link consequence' is

362 188 – 872 = 1,060. Once normalized on a scale of 50, with the highest ‘network consequence’ of
 363 3,256 being calculated, the ‘network consequence’ is found to be $50 * (1,060/3,256) = 16$. The overall
 364 ‘consequence’, taken as the sum of the average link and network VHT savings, was found to be $9 + 16$
 365 = 25. Multiplying the ‘likelihood’ and ‘consequence’ together yields a risk value of $61 * 25 = 1,533$
 366 (not 1,525 due to rounding).

367 **TABLE 3 CAMPO Likelihood, Consequence, and Expected Risk Values by Link**

<i>Link ID</i>	<i>Street Name</i>	<i>Likelihood</i>	<i>Consequence</i>	<i>Expected Risk Value</i>
10871959	Lincoln Park Dr.	0	97	38
10871342	S.R. 46	0	39	0
705386	Maple St.	56	30	1,678
705395	Maple St.	61	25	1,533
705492	Maple St.	56	92	5,222
705552	Tipton Ln.	56	45	2,550
665537	S.R. 46	30	26	775
665831	Indianapolis Rd.	0	18	0
10873321	Indianapolis Rd.	0	23	0
10873325	Indianapolis Rd.	0	14	0
10873328	Indianapolis Rd.	0	17	0
639574	I 65 ramp to S.R. 58	60	18	1,099
10873324	Lowell Rd.	99	23	2,266
10873327	Lowell Rd.	99	24	2,345
665547	S.R. 46	26	13	339
678388	U.S. 31 Access Rd.	81	22	1,819
678415	U.S. 31 Access Rd.	81	20	1,661
678423	U.S. 31 Access Rd.	81	17	1,361
665148	S.R. 46	98	5	446
664902	S.R. 46	87	27	2,364
699967	Lincoln Park Dr.	37	26	972
665434	1st St.	87	0	0
665528	Lafayette Ave.	87	0	0
705467	Wildwood Pl.	90	0	0
10873349	W Carlos Folger Dr.	100	0	0
10872330	W Carlos Folger Dr.	100	0	0

369 These results can also be presented graphically with the ‘risk matrix’ in Figure 9, where the points
 370 represent the individual links or potential projects. The diamond-shaped points represent the top 10
 371 most congested links using the current data (or a deterministic approach).
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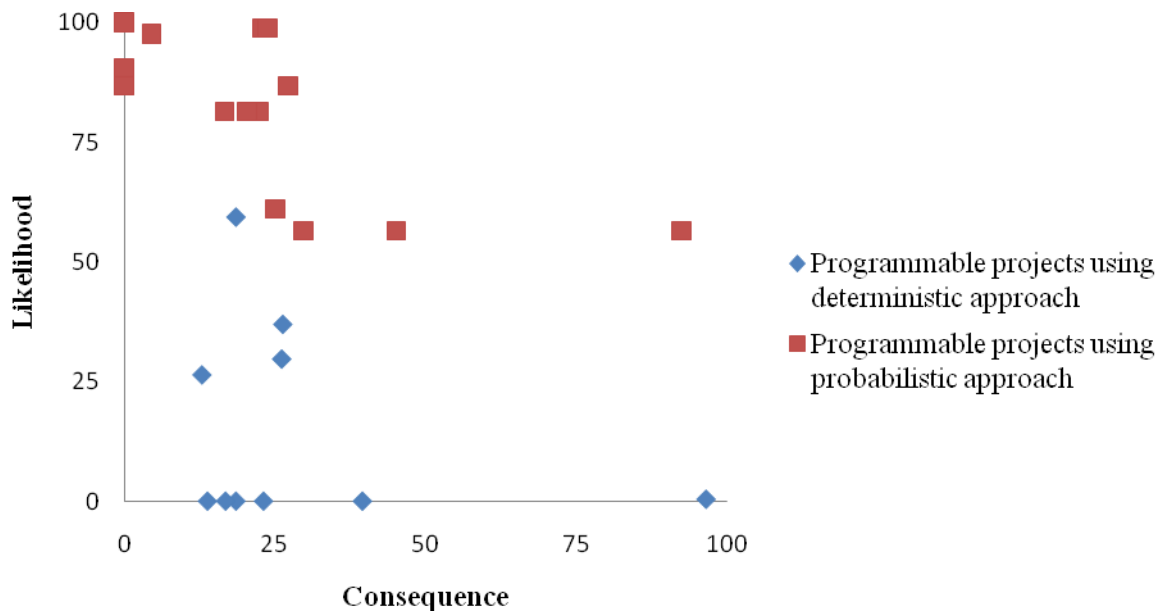


FIGURE 9 CAMPO Risk Matrix

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376 **5. RISK MANAGEMENT**

377 The four common risk management strategies, applied to the travel demand model (TDM) results, can
378 be interpreted as follows:

- 379 (1) Avoid
380 Do not pursue the project.
- 381 (2) Reduce
382 Consider pursuing the project. Collect more input data using the methods detailed in
383 (16) and perform traffic counts on the 26 links to verify the v/c ratios. Expert opinion,
384 field observations, and improved public involvement could also be used to validate
385 the consideration of each project for programming. The link capacity, travel times,
386 and travel speeds entered into the TDM should also be validated. If possible,
387 parameters should be calibrated to match local conditions.
- 388 (3) Retain
389 Pursue the project. This strategy represents the common practice of accepting model
390 outputs and using expert opinion for reasonableness/validation checks.
- 391 (4) Transfer
392 Consider pursuing the project with contingency funds. Planning organizations can
393 seek more state and federal funding such as for Regional Surface Transportation
394 Program (RSTP) and/or Congestion Mitigation and Air Quality (CMAQ)
395 Improvement Program projects.

396 The location of each link in a 'risk matrix' (Figure 10) can be used to decide which strategy to
397 apply (13).

398 For CAMPO, it is recommended to *avoid* projects that are not likely to appear among the most
399 congested links in the TDM and also have low expected VHT savings. Those links with a high
400 probability of appearing among the most congested links, but with low expected VHT savings, are
401 recommended to be *transferred* or only pursued with excess funding, because they may not be as
402 critical. Projects with potentially high VHT savings that are also more likely to appear are
403 recommended to be *retained*. Projects not likely to appear in the TDM results, but likely to have high
404 VHT savings, are recommended to have their risks *reduced*. Once reduced, through data collection or
405 expert opinion, the continuous framework allows for reassessment of the risk.

406

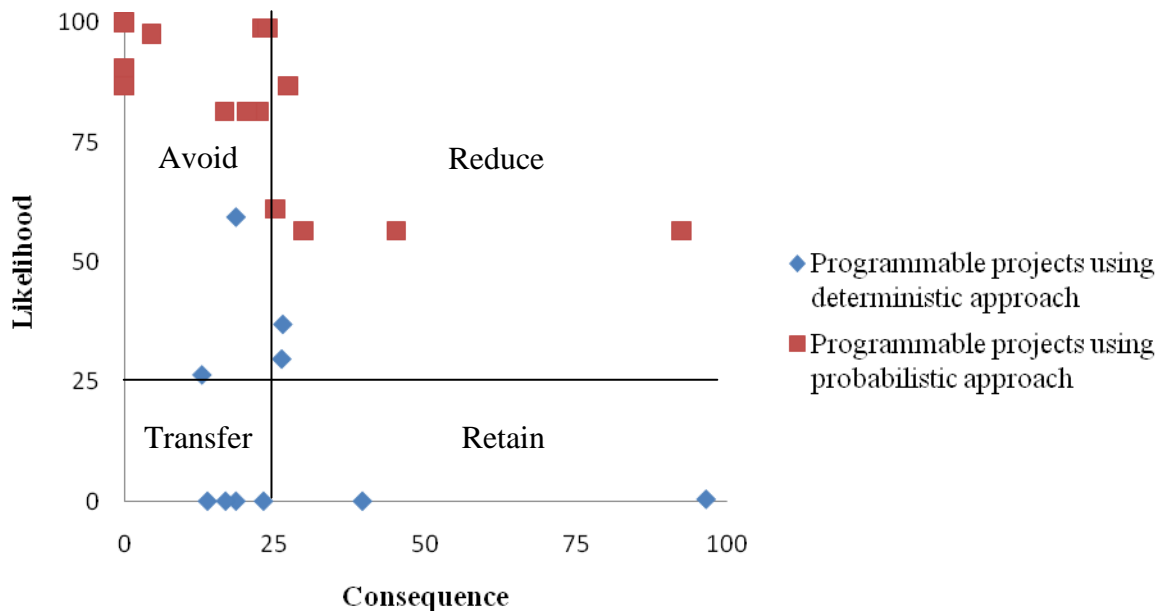


FIGURE 10 CAMPO Risk Management Recommendations

407
408
409

Ideally, running the TDM using the current data would result in all critical projects falling in the *retain* quadrant of a risk matrix, due to a high ‘consequence’ and low ‘likelihood’. This means that the projects with the highest return (or VHT savings) are the most likely to appear in the output of the TDM. Basically, the calculation of ‘likelihood’ is used as a screening process, while the calculation of ‘consequence’ is used for the decision-making process.

In tabular form, Table 4 further shows the recommended versus the likely CAMPO strategies, where the ‘likely strategy’ is to accept the single solution of the TDM, with current data, and retain the projects on the most congested links.

The recommended and ‘likely’ strategies differ significantly. Several projects retained under the ‘likely strategy’ are recommended to be *avoided*, *transferred*, or *reduced*. By avoiding risk, planners can reserve more resources for projects that are considered more likely to have higher VHT savings. By transferring risk, planners can risk another organization’s money or use non-essential funds to pursue a project that may not yield the highest VHT savings. By reducing risk, planners can be more certain that a congestion-relief project will bring about significant VHT savings.

423

424
425**TABLE 4 Recommended versus Likely CAMPO Strategies**

<i>Link ID</i>	<i>Street Name</i>	<i>Recommended Strategy</i>	<i>Likely CAMPO Strategy</i>
10871959	Lincoln Park Dr.	Retain	Retain
10871342	S.R. 46	Retain	Retain
705386	Maple St.	Reduce	--
705395	Maple St.	Reduce	--
705492	Maple St.	Reduce	--
705552	Tipton Ln.	Reduce	--
665537	S.R. 46	Reduce	Retain
665831	Indianapolis Rd.	Transfer	Retain
10873321	Indianapolis Rd.	Transfer	Retain
10873325	Indianapolis Rd.	Transfer	Retain
10873328	Indianapolis Rd.	Transfer	Retain
639574	I 65 ramp to S.R. 58	Avoid	Retain
10873324	Lowell Rd.	Avoid	--
10873327	Lowell Rd.	Avoid	--
665547	S.R. 46	Avoid	Retain
678388	U.S. 31 Access Rd.	Avoid	--
678415	U.S. 31 Access Rd.	Avoid	--
678423	U.S. 31 Access Rd.	Avoid	--
665148	S.R. 46	Avoid	--
664902	S.R. 46	Reduce	--
699967	Lincoln Park Dr.	Reduce	Retain
665434	1st St.	Avoid	--
665528	Lafayette Ave.	Avoid	--
705467	Wildwood Pl.	Avoid	--
10873349	W Carlos Folger Dr.	Avoid	--
10872330	W Carlos Folger Dr.	Avoid	--

426

6. RISK MONITORING

427 Due to the use of a continuous framework, risk monitoring is appropriate. In terms of CAMPO, this
 428 would mean monitoring how congestion has improved or worsened on the studied links and in the
 429 network. The effectiveness of the selected risk management strategy can come in terms of how the v/c
 430 ratio or VHT has changed over time. This information is recommended to be stored in a 'risk log' and
 431 reassessed during the next programming cycle.
 432

7. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

433 Considering the number of uncertainties associated with the use of the traditional travel demand
 434 model, it seems unreasonable to make policy decisions based on a single model output. Instead, risk
 435 analysis can be used to prevent the inefficient application of resources. By borrowing risk frameworks
 436 commonly used in private industry, the number of links considered for programming can be expanded
 437 to ensure that the most optimal projects are undertaken. Once the most efficient projects have been
 438 programmed, planners can then focus on 'project risk' management.
 439

440

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 444 necessarily reflect the official views or policies of the Federal Highway Administration and the
 445

446 Indiana Department of Transportation, nor do the contents constitute a standard, specification, or
 447 regulation.
 448

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