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Accounting for endogeneity in maintenance decisions and overlay thickness in a pavement roughness deterioration model

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ABSTRACT

Pavement deterioration models are an important part of any pavement management system. Many of these models suffer from endogeneity bias due to the inclusion of independent variables that are correlated with unobserved factors, which are captured by the model's error terms. Examples of such endogenous variables include pavement overlay thickness and maintenance and rehabilitation activities, both of which are not randomly chosen but are in fact decision variables that are selected by pavement engineers based on field conditions. Inclusion of these variables in a pavement deterioration model can result in biased and inconsistent model parameter estimates, leading to incorrect insights. Previous research has shown that continuous endogenous variables, such as pavement overlay thickness, can be corrected using auxiliary models to replace the endogenous variable with an instrumented variable that has lower correlation with the unobserved error term. Discrete endogenous variables, such as the type of maintenance and rehabilitation activities, have been accounted for by modeling the likelihood of each potential outcome and developing individual deterioration models for each of the potential responses. This paper proposes an alternative approach to accommodate discrete endogenous variables—the selectivity correction method—that allows a single model to incorporate the impacts of all discrete choices. This approach is applied to develop a pavement roughness progression model that incorporates both continuous and discrete endogenous variables using field data from Washington State. The result is a roughness progression model with consistent parameter estimates, which have more realistic values than those obtained in previous studies that used the same data.

Keywords: roughness progression model, endogeneity correction, empirical pavement modelling

INTRODUCTION

Rough pavements are undesirable because they adversely affect the ride quality of vehicles on a roadway (Al-Omari and Darter, 1994). Pavement roughness also negatively affects freight vehicles as driving on very rough pavements can cause damage to goods being transported, especially if the goods are delicate. Vehicle operating costs, in terms of fuel consumption and vehicle wear and tear, are strongly influenced by the roughness of the

41 pavement and can be significant. For example, additional operating costs due to rough
42 pavements have been shown to be about one order of magnitude greater than the cost of
43 properly maintaining the roadway surface (GEIPOT, 1982; Paterson, 1987).

44
45 In order to properly maintain roadway surfaces, pavement engineers need to have
46 predictions of roadway conditions. For this reason, models of pavement roughness
47 progression have become an important part of infrastructure management systems. These
48 models are used to predict the condition of pavement sections in the future, which can be
49 used to determine when and where to most efficiently allocate funds available for
50 maintenance.

51
52 Several pavement roughness models (Ozbay and Laub, 2001; Prozzi and Madanat, 2004;
53 Puccinelli and Jackson, 2007) have been developed using experimental pavement sections
54 subject to accelerated loading patterns. These types of models have limitations, because the
55 deterioration of these sections may not reflect the deterioration process of in-use pavement
56 sections; thus, their applicability is a subject of concern.

57
58 Models of pavement roughness deterioration developed using field data, i.e., data from in-
59 use pavement sections, present several problems as well. Some models (Way and
60 Eisenberg, 1980; Kay et al, 1993; Gulen et al, 2001) suffer from misspecification bias
61 because either relevant variables were originally excluded from the model or they were
62 removed from the model due to low statistical significance. The misspecification may limit the
63 models applicability or cause other insignificant variables to appear significant (Paterson,
64 1987; Prozzi and Madanat, 2003). Other models (Karan et al, 1983; Madanat et al, 2005)
65 suffer from endogeneity bias caused by the inclusion of explanatory variables that are
66 correlated with the model error term. Examples include the inclusion of pavement overlay
67 thickness and maintenance and rehabilitation activities, both of which are design variables
68 selected by pavement engineers based on conditions in the field. Specifically, locations that
69 experience the most deterioration usually have thicker pavement overlays and more frequent
70 maintenance activities performed. The inclusion of these endogenous variables leads to
71 biased and inconsistent estimates of the model parameters. Several methods have been
72 proposed to overcome the endogeneity bias present in models developed using field data.
73 For endogenous variables that are continuous, Madanat et al (1995) demonstrated that
74 instrumental variables could be used to reduce correlation between the endogenous variable
75 (in this case, the presence of pavement cracking) and unobserved error term. For
76 endogenous variables that are discrete, Madanat and Mishalani (1998) proposed a
77 structured econometric approach that combines a discrete choice model to predict the
78 likelihood of each discrete outcome and individual pavement deterioration models for each
79 discrete outcome.

80
81 As an alternative approach, this paper proposes the use of the selectivity correction
82 approach to account for endogeneity of discrete independent variables in the development of
83 a pavement roughness deterioration model. This method allows a single model to be
84 developed that describes pavement deterioration for all potential discrete outcomes. This
85 method is combined with the instrumental variable method to simultaneously account for
86 endogeneity in two variables that might be included in a pavement roughness deterioration

87 model: 1) thickness of pavement overlays, and 2) maintenance and rehabilitation (M&R)
88 activities. The resulting model of pavement roughness progression should have more
89 consistent parameter estimates than previous models that do not correct for this endogeneity
90 bias.

91

92 The rest of this paper is organized as follows. We first describe the empirical dataset used in
93 this study to develop the model for pavement roughness. Then, we explain the source of
94 endogeneity bias and the methodology that will be used to correct for its presence. Next, we
95 present the results of the model development. Finally, we summarize the conclusions.

96 **DATA**

97 Data for this analysis were obtained from the Washington State Pavement Management
98 System (WSPMS) database. This database consists of pavement condition data collected by
99 the Washington State Department of Transportation along each of its state roads from 1983
100 to 1999. Roads were divided into unique 0.1-mile long sections and each section was
101 observed multiple times during the duration of the data collection period, resulting in a two-
102 dimensional panel dataset. A total of 352,803 observations were available from 48,484
103 unique roadway sections. A subset of about 60,000 observations was randomly selected for
104 modeling purposes. This random sampling method was adopted to minimize any potential
105 correlation that likely exists from observations for contiguous or geographically close sections
106 within the dataset. The sample still contains sufficient variability in the explanatory variables,
107 given its large size.

108

109 The data included information about the road surface conditions, traffic conditions,
110 environmental conditions, and any maintenance and rehabilitation activities that were
111 performed. A subset of the variables present in the WSPMS database that are relevant to the
112 pavement roughness progression model are:

113

- 114 • Cumulative traffic loading [in equivalent single axel loads, or ESALs]
- 115 • Current year traffic loading [ESALs]
- 116 • Base thickness [ft]
- 117 • Thickness of last overlay [ft]
- 118 • Minimum temperature [°F]
- 119 • Maximum temperature [°F]
- 120 • Annual precipitation [in]
- 121 • Time since last overlay [years]
- 122 • Time since last maintenance activity [years]
- 123 • Type of M&R activity [AC overlay, BST treatment, Maintenance]
- 124 • Roughness (IRI) in previous year [cm/km]
- 125 • Change in roughness [cm/km]

126 **METHODOLOGY**

127 A linear regression model was used to predict the change in roughness as a function of
 128 several of the potential explanatory variables available in the dataset. Because the dataset
 129 consists of panel data, a random effects model with two error terms was used (Washington
 130 et al, 2003). This type of model includes the random effects of individual roadway sections
 131 (invariant of time) as well as a random error term over time at each location. The functional
 132 form of this model is presented below in Equation 1.

$$134 \quad y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1it} + \beta_2 X_{2it} + \dots + \beta_K X_{Kit} + u_i + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (1)$$

135
 136 In Equation 1, y_{it} is the change in roughness for section i at time t , β_1, \dots, β_K are the model
 137 parameters, and X_{1it}, \dots, X_{Kit} are the explanatory variables. The first error term, u_i , captures the
 138 unobserved heterogeneity (cross sectional variation) between different roadway sections.
 139 The second error term, ε_{it} , captures the random error of each section that changes over time.
 140 To estimate this model, the two-step generalized least squares (GLS) method was applied
 141 (Freedman, 2005). The first step requires the model to be estimated using ordinary least
 142 squares regression (OLS) in order to estimate the covariance between error terms. The
 143 second step then uses this covariance matrix to calculate more efficient estimates of the
 144 model parameters, $\bar{\beta}$, than would otherwise be obtained with traditional OLS.

145
 146 Similar to an OLS model, the GLS model must still satisfy the Gauss-Markov assumption that
 147 the explanatory variables should not be correlated with the error terms in the model for the
 148 estimates to be consistent (Rudd, 2000). In modeling pavement roughness, two potential
 149 explanatory variables are likely to be endogenous and thus correlated with the error terms:
 150 the overlay thickness and the type of maintenance and rehabilitation activity performed. Both
 151 of these are design variables that are typically selected by pavement engineers based on the
 152 conditions that the pavement section experiences; therefore, they are not randomly chosen
 153 and cannot be assumed exogenous (Madanat et al, 1995; Madanat and Mishalani, 1998).
 154 This endogeneity needs to be accounted or else estimates of $\bar{\beta}$ will be biased.

155
 156 Endogeneity in the model was addressed in one of two ways. For the continuous
 157 endogenous variable—the thickness of the last overlay—the instrumental variables method
 158 was used (Mannering, 1998). In this method, the endogenous variable is replaced in the GLS
 159 model by another variable that is: 1) highly correlated with it and 2) uncorrelated with the
 160 error terms in the GLS model. Such a variable was obtained by estimating an auxiliary model
 161 for the endogenous variable using linear regression. This model was a function of several
 162 explanatory variables which may or may not be included in the roughness progression
 163 model. The predicted values of the endogenous variable were then substituted for the
 164 variable in the GLS model since these predicted values were uncorrelated with the error
 165 terms. The use of a continuous instrumental variable changes the roughness progression
 166 model to the form presented in Equation 2.

$$168 \quad y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1it} + \beta_2 X_{2it} + \dots + \beta_{K-1} X_{K-1it} + \beta_K \hat{X}_{Kit} + u_i + \varepsilon_{it}, \quad (2)$$

169

170 where \widehat{X}_{Kit} is the predicted value of the endogenous variable obtained from the auxiliary
171 model.

172

173 For the discrete endogenous variable—the type of M&R action that was performed—the
174 selectivity correction approach was used (Train, 1986; Mannering and Hensher, 1987). In
175 this method, a discrete choice model was developed to estimate the probabilities of selecting
176 one of several M&R options. The probability of selecting M&R alternative j , \widehat{P}_j , was then
177 used to add a new explanatory variable in the GLS model known as the selectivity correction
178 term. For a logit discrete choice model (which was used here) with J different choices, $J-1$
179 selectivity terms could be added to the GLS model. The inclusion of these terms changes the
180 model to the form presented in Equation 3.

181

$$182 \quad y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_{1it} + \beta_2 X_{2it} + \dots + \beta_{K-2} X_{K-2it} + \sum_{j=1}^{J-1} \gamma_j \lambda_j + \beta_K \widehat{X}_{Kit} + v_i + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (3)$$

183

184 where $\lambda_j = \left\{ \frac{J-1}{J} \log \widehat{P}_j + \sum_{l=1, l \neq j}^J \frac{\log \widehat{P}_l}{J} \left[\frac{\widehat{P}_l}{1 - \widehat{P}_l} \right] \right\}$ was calculated using the probabilities from

185 the discrete choice logit model and γ_j were parameters to be estimated.

186 **MODEL DEVELOPMENT**

187 This section applies the methodology described in the previous section to develop auxiliary
188 models for endogeneity correction and the final pavement roughness progression model.

189 **Endogeneity correction of overlay thickness**

190 In order to correct for endogeneity in the overlay thickness, we developed an auxiliary model
191 that predicted the overlay thickness as a function of several explanatory variables. The
192 variables were chosen based on our knowledge of pavement design methods. The objective
193 of this exercise was to develop an empirical model that would produce overlay thicknesses
194 that are close in values to those designed by Washington DOT's pavement engineers. The
195 resulting model is presented in Equation 4.

196

$$197 \quad (\log \text{ of overlay thickness})_{it} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 (\text{current traffic loading})_{it} + \alpha_2 (\log \text{ of previous roughness})_{it} + \\ 198 \quad \alpha_3 (\text{time since last maintenance activity})_{it} + \alpha_4 (\text{minimum air temp})_{it} + v_i + e_{it} \quad (4)$$

199

200 where v_i and e_{it} are error terms. This model form was developed based on knowledge of
201 factors that affect pavement deterioration and might influence an engineer's decision-making
202 when selecting a new overlay thickness. These factors include traffic conditions (current
203 traffic loading), current pavement conditions (log of prev. roughness), age of the pavement
204 (time since last maint. activity) and environmental conditions (min. air temp).

205

206 Table 1 presents the estimates of the parameters α_0 - α_4 using the GLS method. The
 207 parameter estimates conform to a priori expectations. Thicker overlays are provided for
 208 roadway sections that experience heavier traffic volumes (higher value of current traffic
 209 loading) and that are in a more deteriorated state (higher value of previous roughness).
 210 Thinner overlays are provided for warmer climates since fewer freeze-thaw cycles would be
 211 expected. The time since last maintenance activity was found not to be statistically
 212 significant. Therefore, while it was expected that thicker overlays would be provided for
 213 roadway sections that have not had recent M&R activities performed, this may not be the
 214 case.

216 The model seems to have a very good fit, as evidenced by the high R-squared value (0.882).
 217 Additionally, the random-effects model is appropriate, due to the high heterogeneity across
 218 pavement sections. σ_v^2 represents the variance of the random disturbance v_i , shown in
 219 Equation 4, capturing the unobserved heterogeneity between different roadway sections in
 220 the panel data. σ_e^2 represents the variance of the random disturbances e_{it} in Equation 4 and
 221 accounts for random errors that occur across time and roadway sections. The ratio of the
 222 variance of the error terms between different roadway sections to the total variance ($\sigma_v^2 + \sigma_e^2$)
 223 shows that unobserved heterogeneity represents a high fraction of the total unobserved
 224 variation in the model (0.856).

225 **Endogeneity correction for M&R activity type**

226 In order to correct for endogeneity bias in M&R activity decisions, we developed a model that
 227 predicted the probabilities of performing various M&R activities using a multinomial logit
 228 (MNL) model. The objective was to represent empirically the process by which Washington
 229 DOT engineers select the M&R treatments to apply to different pavement sections. Four
 230 possible activities were available: do-nothing, AC overlay, BST treatment, and routine
 231 maintenance. The probability of selecting activity j is given by Equation 5.

$$233 \Pr(i) = \frac{\exp(V_j)}{\sum_{j=1}^J \exp(V_j)} \quad (5)$$

234 where V_j is the utility of alternative j . The utilities of the various M&R activities were modeled
 235 as a function of several explanatory variables, chosen based on assumptions about M&R
 236 decision-making. The resulting model specification is presented in Equation 6.

$$239 \text{utility of AC overlay} = \theta_0 + \theta_1(\log \text{ of previous roughness}) + \theta_2(\text{overlay age}) + \theta_3(\text{current year} \\ \text{traffic loading})$$

$$241 \text{utility of BST treatment} = \varphi_0 + \varphi_1(\log \text{ of previous roughness}) + \varphi_2(\text{overlay age}) + \varphi_3(\text{current} \\ \text{year traffic loading})$$

$$243 \text{utility of maintenance} = \psi_0 + \psi_1(\log \text{ of previous roughness}) + \psi_2(\text{overlay age}) + \psi_3(\text{current} \\ \text{year traffic loading}) \quad (6)$$

246 Note that these utilities are relative to the do-nothing alternative.

247
 248 Table 2 presents the estimates of the parameters θ_0 -- θ_3 , φ_0 -- φ_3 , ψ_0 -- ψ_3 for the MNL model.
 249 Most parameter estimates conform to a priori expectations. Compared to the do-nothing
 250 alternative, agencies are more likely to perform M&R activities on more deteriorated
 251 pavement sections, and more likely to perform AC overlays and BST treatments on the most
 252 deteriorated pavement sections as evidenced by the signs and magnitudes of θ_1 , φ_1 and ψ_1 .
 253 Washington DOT pavement engineers are also more likely to perform AC overlay and
 254 maintenance activities for pavement sections that experience heavier traffic loading. The
 255 model also confirms that agencies are also less likely to apply a BST treatment on pavement
 256 sections with higher traffic loading, since BST treatments are usually selected for lower-traffic
 257 segments by Washington DOT engineers (Li et al, 2008).

258
 259 A higher value of overlay age was found to increase the probability of performing an AC
 260 overlay but *decrease* the probability of performing routine maintenance (as compared to
 261 doing nothing). While this may initially seem counter-intuitive, it actually makes perfect sense
 262 from an agency perspective. As an overlay ages, decision makers may put off routine
 263 maintenance for that roadway section because they know a new overlay will be applied in the
 264 near future. Therefore, as overlays ages, the probability of doing nothing or performing an
 265 AC overlay will increase, but the probability of performing routine maintenance will decrease.
 266 Note that overlay age was found to be statistically insignificant for the BST treatment activity.

267
 268 The MNL model has a goodness-of-fit value (ρ^2) of 0.061. While this is not high, it should be
 269 remembered that goodness-of-fit values for discrete models are always much smaller than
 270 those of regression models, and most variables are statistically significant. Additionally, a
 271 log-likelihood test was performed and this had a p-value of 0.00 which means that the model
 272 is indeed statistically significant. Therefore, this model was used to determine probabilities of
 273 performing different M&R activities in the endogeneity correction. Using the different
 274 probabilities, the correction terms for M&R activities were calculated as shown in Equation 3.

275 **Model for pavement roughness progression**

276 Using the results of the previous two models correcting for endogeneity, we developed the
 277 model of interest, which predicts pavement roughness progression (the increase in
 278 roughness between two observations) as a function of several explanatory variables. The
 279 explanatory variables were chosen based on knowledge of pavement deterioration and
 280 included environmental variables, pavement variables, traffic variables, and the endogeneity
 281 corrections. Note that for the M&R correction, we only included the correction term for the AC
 282 overlay because BST treatments and routine maintenance are not performed to directly
 283 correct for pavement roughness. The model is presented in Equation 7.

$$\begin{aligned}
 &284 \\
 &285 \text{(change in pavement roughness)}_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{previous pavement roughness})_{it} + \beta_2(\text{cumulative} \\
 &286 \text{traffic loading})_{it} + \beta_3(\text{predicted overlay thickness})_{it} + \beta_4(\text{base thickness})_{it} + \beta_5(\text{min. air temp})_{it} + \\
 &287 \beta_6(\text{precipitation in current year})_{it} + \beta_7(\text{overlay age})_{it} + \beta_8(\text{AC overlay correction term})_{it} + u_i + \varepsilon_{it} \\
 &288 \hspace{15em} (7) \\
 &289
 \end{aligned}$$

290 where u_i and ε_{it} are error terms.

291
292 Table 3 presents the estimates of the parameters β_0 -- β_8 using a random effects model and
293 estimated using the GLS method. Overall, the model seems to have a good fit, as evidenced
294 by the moderately high R-squared value (0.413). Further, it is clear that unobserved
295 heterogeneity is present and thus the use of GLS is appropriate, given the value of the error
296 ratio (0.164).

297
298 The estimates of the coefficients conform to a priori expectations. The model predicts that, all
299 else constant, pavement roughness progression is concave—the change in roughness
300 decreases as pavements become rougher. This concave deterioration pattern has also been
301 observed in the WSPMS data for cracking (Madanat et al, 2010). Pavement roughness
302 progression is also found to increase with cumulative traffic loading, precipitation and overlay
303 age, as expected. Roughness progression decreases for roadway sections with thicker
304 overlays and thicker bases and for higher minimum temperatures.

305
306 To determine how changing the probability of performing an AC overlay activity affects
307 pavement roughness progression, we use the results from Table 3 and incorporate the
308 change in λ_j . Figure 1 shows how pavement roughness progression changes as a function of
309 the probability of an AC overlay, assuming the probabilities of performing each of the
310 remaining M&R activities (do-nothing, BST treatment, and routine maintenance) are equal.
311 Note from Figure 1 that pavement roughness progression decreases with the AC overlay
312 probability; i.e., higher probabilities of performing an AC overlay result in lower expected
313 pavement roughness progression, confirming a priori expectations.

314 **Model discussion**

315 Predicted values of pavement roughness deterioration can be estimated using Equation 3
316 and the parameters in Table 3. To examine how well this model predicts the data used to
317 create the model, cumulative distributions of the predicted and observed values are plotted in
318 Figure 2. Conditional forecasting was applied in which the observed values of the continuous
319 endogenous variable, overlay thickness, were inserted directly into Equation 3. As shown in
320 the figure, the model predicts the data fairly well though there is some over-prediction of
321 large negative values.

322
323 In a linear regression model, the parameter coefficients reflect the change in the dependent
324 variable (in this case, the annual change in pavement roughness) due to a unit change in
325 one of the independent variables. However, this model includes endogeneity corrections for
326 maintenance activities that are a nonlinear function of some of the explanatory variables.
327 Therefore, the effect of changing an explanatory variable needs to be examined more
328 closely. Figure 3 shows the effect of changing relevant explanatory variables on the
329 dependant variable both with and without the endogeneity corrections. Variables were
330 examined at their mean value and ± 1 and ± 3 standard deviations away from the mean. In
331 some cases, this method resulted in a value that was out of the feasible range for the
332 variable; e.g., negative values for variables that must be positive. For such variables (traffic
333 loadings and base thicknesses) either 0 or the minimum observed value was used instead.
334 For the current year traffic loading, a change in this value resulted in a corresponding change

335 in the cumulative loading variable since the cumulative loading variable includes the current
336 year traffic loading. Note that when one variable was changed, all other variables were kept
337 at their mean value in the dataset.

338

339 Figure 3 presents the change in roughness when the endogeneity corrections are included
340 and also when the endogeneity corrections are not included, for comparison. The results for
341 some variables (base thickness and precipitation) are exactly the same with and without
342 endogeneity corrections because these variables are not included in the endogeneity
343 correction models.

344

345 When endogeneity corrections are ignored we see that the change in roughness increases
346 with traffic loading—the higher the current year loading, the faster the roughness
347 progression. However, when endogeneity corrections are included, the opposite trend
348 occurs. This is because a higher current year traffic loading increases the probability of an
349 AC overlay activity, which reduces the expected change in the roughness as shown in
350 Table 4. The same trend occurs for overlay age; note, however, that the magnitude of the
351 difference is so small that it is not visible in the figure.

352

353 For previous roughness, we see that the general trend stays the same both when including
354 and not including the endogeneity corrections, but the magnitude of the change in roughness
355 changes. The magnitude of the expected change is greater when endogeneity corrections
356 are included.

357

358 Based on Figure 3, the variables that cause the highest variation in the change in pavement
359 roughness are previous roughness, minimum temperature, precipitation, annual traffic
360 loading and base thickness (in that order). Overlay age does not seem to have much of an
361 effect on the change in pavement roughness as the predicted change in roughness changes
362 very little for the entire range of overlay age.

363

364 The coefficient estimates presented in Table 3 can also be compared with those of a
365 previous pavement roughness progression model (Madanat et al, 2005) to see how
366 correcting for endogeneity changes the influence of different variables when M&R activity
367 probabilities are held constant. This comparison shows that by correcting for endogeneity,
368 temperature and precipitation have a more pronounced impact on roughness progression
369 while overlay age has a less pronounced impact. Perhaps more importantly, the previous
370 model had a negative coefficient for cumulative traffic loading, which surprisingly suggests
371 that pavements deteriorate less quickly under heavy loads. After correcting for endogeneity,
372 the sign of this coefficient is now positive which conforms to a priori expectation about the
373 underlying physical process.

374 **CONCLUSIONS**

375 This paper presents a methodology to simultaneously account for endogeneity in pavement
376 roughness models that is created when M&R activities and overlay thickness are included.
377 Pavement overlay thickness is corrected using the instrumental variables method that has
378 previously been shown to improve coefficient estimates (Madanat et al, 1995). The presence

379 of M&R activities was corrected using the selectivity correction method, which to the authors'
380 knowledge has never been used in pavement deterioration models to date. The estimated
381 coefficients in the proposed model all meet a priori expectations and are in accordance with
382 knowledge of pavement deterioration, unlike some of those in the previous model developed
383 with the same dataset (Madanat et al, 2005). The model seems to predict well for values of
384 change in pavement roughness close to the mean and less well for values far from the mean.
385 The inclusion of endogeneity corrections also sheds insight onto the expected change in
386 pavement roughness when M&R decision-making is included. These improved results
387 confirm the importance of appropriate corrections for endogenous explanatory variables,
388 which are common in field data sets, i.e., those consisting of in-service pavement sections.

389
390 The model for M&R activities created as a part of the endogeneity correction also revealed
391 that the probability of routine maintenance of a pavement section decreases with age. This
392 makes sense because agencies are more likely to put off performing routine maintenance on
393 a pavement section (which only slows deterioration) if they know a rehabilitation activity will
394 be applied in the near future. Further work is required to confirm that this type of M&R
395 decision-making behavior is also found in the datasets of other highway agencies.

396
397 All models were developed using data obtained for in-use pavement sections in Washington
398 State. While these roadways represent a range of traffic and environmental conditions, the
399 model is not likely to be directly transferable to pavement sections in other municipalities. For
400 one, changes in design guidelines, construction procedures and the environment are likely to
401 result in different types of pavement performance. Furthermore, the endogeneity correction
402 methods mimic the decision-making process of pavement engineers in Washington State,
403 which focuses on keeping pavement cracking at very low levels (Madanat et al 2010). It is
404 unlikely that a similar policy is used in some other states or countries. Nevertheless, the
405 overall trends, results and insights are likely to be general and transferable to other locations.

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470 Table I – Model estimates for overlay thickness

	Parameter Estimate	T-Statistic	P-Value
Current Year ESALs	4.10E-02	11.05	0.00
Log (Previous Roughness)	6.04E-03	10.83	0.00
Time since last Maintenance	2.46E-05	0.54	0.59
Minimum Temperature	-6.12E-04	-15.37	0.00
Constant	1.37E-01	45.38	0.00
R-squared		0.882	
$\sigma_v^2 / (\sigma_v^2 + \sigma_e^2)$		0.856	

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473 Table 2 – Model estimates for M&R activity type

	AC Overlay		BST Treatment		Maintenance	
	Parameter Estimate	P-Value	Parameter Estimate	P-Value	Parameter Estimate	P-Value
Constant	- 1.59E+01	0.00	-1.65E+01	0.00	-9.54E+00	0.00
log(Prev Roughness)	2.55E+00	0.00	2.58E+00	0.00	1.76E+00	0.00
Overlay Age	7.42E-04	0.00	---	---	-2.17E-03	0.00
Current Year ESALs	2.62E+00	0.00	-1.18E+01	0.00	1.70E+00	0.00

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476 Table 3 – Model estimates for pavement roughness progression

	Parameter Estimate	T-Statistic	P-Value
Previous Roughness	-2.43E-01	-43.96	0.00
Cumulative ESALs	2.42E+00	9.88	0.00
Predicted Overlay Thickness	-4.78E+02	-9.38	0.00
Base Thickness	-5.72E+00	-9.73	0.00
Minimum Temperature	-2.68E+00	-19.81	0.00
Precipitation	1.56E-01	16.04	0.00
Overlay Age	1.52E-02	10.16	0.00
AC Overlay Correction Factor	-1.61E+01	-18.23	0.00
Constant	1.42E+02	10.73	0.00
R-squared		0.413	
$\sigma_v^2 / (\sigma_v^2 + \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$		0.164	

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Table 4 – Effect of annual loading on M&R probabilities and roughness progression

		Prob(AC)	Prob(BST)	Prob(M)	Prob(DN)	Predicted Change in Roughness
Current Year Traffic Loading	0	0.04	0.03	0.39	0.54	-10.46
	MEAN	0.06	0.01	0.44	0.50	-13.09
	+1SD	0.07	0.00	0.50	0.43	-15.99
	+3SD	0.11	0.00	0.59	0.30	-20.89

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